Using and Porting the GNU Compiler Collection

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Introduction

This manual documents how to run, install and port the GNU compiler, as well as its new features and incompatibilities, and how to report bugs. It corresponds to GCC version 3.0.
1 Compile C, C++, Objective C, Fortran, Java

Several versions of the compiler (C, C++, Objective C, Fortran, Java) are integrated; this is why we use the name “GNU Compiler Collection”. GCC can compile programs written in any of these languages. The Fortran and Java compilers are described in separate manuals.

“GCC” is a common shorthand term for the GNU Compiler Collection. This is both the most general name for the compiler, and the name used when the emphasis is on compiling C programs (as the abbreviation formerly stood for “GNU C Compiler”).

When referring to C++ compilation, it is usual to call the compiler “G++”. Since there is only one compiler, it is also accurate to call it “GCC” no matter what the language context; however, the term “G++” is more useful when the emphasis is on compiling C++ programs.

We use the name “GCC” to refer to the compilation system as a whole, and more specifically to the language-independent part of the compiler. For example, we refer to the optimization options as affecting the behavior of “GCC” or sometimes just “the compiler”.

Front ends for other languages, such as Ada 95 and Pascal exist but have not yet been integrated into GCC. These front-ends, like that for C++, are built in subdirectories of GCC and link to it. The result is an integrated compiler that can compile programs written in C, C++, Objective C, or any of the languages for which you have installed front ends.

In this manual, we only discuss the options for the C, Objective-C, and C++ compilers and those of the GCC core. Consult the documentation of the other front ends for the options to use when compiling programs written in other languages.

G++ is a compiler, not merely a preprocessor. G++ builds object code directly from your C++ program source. There is no intermediate C version of the program. (By contrast, for example, some other implementations use a program that generates a C program from your C++ source.) Avoiding an intermediate C representation of the program means that you get better object code, and better debugging information. The GNU debugger, GDB, works with this information in the object code to give you comprehensive C++ source-level editing capabilities (see section “C and C++” in Debugging with GDB).
2 Language Standards Supported by GCC

For each language compiled by GCC for which there is a standard, GCC attempts to follow one or more versions of that standard, possibly with some exceptions, and possibly with some extensions.

GCC supports three versions of the C standard, although support for the most recent version is not yet complete.

The original ANSI C standard (X3.159-1989) was ratified in 1989 and published in 1990. This standard was ratified as an ISO standard (ISO/IEC 9899:1990) later in 1990. There were no technical differences between these publications, although the sections of the ANSI standard were renumbered and became clauses in the ISO standard. This standard, in both its forms, is commonly known as C89, or occasionally as C90, from the dates of ratification. The ANSI standard, but not the ISO standard, also came with a Rationale document. To select this standard in GCC, use one of the options `-ansi`, `-std=c89` or `-std=iso9899:1990`; to obtain all the diagnostics required by the standard, you should also specify `-pedantic` (or `-pedantic-errors` if you want them to be errors rather than warnings). See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.

Errors in the 1990 ISO C standard were corrected in two Technical Corrigenda published in 1994 and 1996. GCC does not support the uncorrected version.

An amendment to the 1990 standard was published in 1995. This amendment added digraphs and `__STDC_VERSION__` to the language, but otherwise concerned the library. This amendment is commonly known as AMD1; the amended standard is sometimes known as C94 or C95. To select this standard in GCC, use the option `-std=iso9899:199409` (with, as for other standard versions, `-pedantic` to receive all required diagnostics).

A new edition of the ISO C standard was published in 1999 as ISO/IEC 9899:1999, and is commonly known as C99. GCC has incomplete support for this standard version; see `http://gcc.gnu.org/gcc-3.0/c99status.html` for details. To select this standard, use `-std=c99` or `-std=iso9899:1999`. (While in development, drafts of this standard version were referred to as C9X.)

GCC also has some limited support for traditional (pre-ISO) C with the `-traditional` option. This support may be of use for compiling some very old programs that have not been updated to ISO C, but should not be used for new programs. It will not work with some modern C libraries such as the GNU C library.

By default, GCC provides some extensions to the C language that on rare occasions conflict with the C standard. See Chapter 5 [Extensions to the C Language Family], page 121. Use of the `-std` options listed above will disable these extensions where they conflict with the C standard version selected. You may also select an extended version of the C language explicitly with `-std=gnu89` (for C89 with GNU extensions) or `-std=gnu99` (for C99 with GNU extensions). The default, if no C language dialect options are given, is `-std=gnu89`; this will change to `-std=gnu99` in some future release when the C99 support is complete. Some features that are part of the C99 standard are accepted as extensions in C89 mode.

The ISO C standard defines (in clause 4) two classes of conforming implementation. A conforming hosted implementation supports the whole standard including all the library facilities; a conforming freestanding implementation is only required to provide certain library facilities: those in `<float.h>`, `<limits.h>`, `<stdarg.h>`, and `<stddef.h>`.  Since AMD1, also those in `<iso646.h>`; and in C99, also those in `<stdbool.h>` and `<stdint.h>`. In addition, complex types, added in C99, are not required for freestanding implementations. The standard also defines two environments for programs, a freestanding environment, required of all implementations and which may not have library facilities beyond those required of freestanding implementations, where the handling of program startup and termination are implementation-defined, and a hosted environment, which is not required, in which all the library facilities are provided and startup is through a function `int main (void)` or `int main (int, char *[])`.
OS kernel would be a freestanding environment; a program using the facilities of an operating system would normally be in a hosted implementation.

GNU CC aims towards being usable as a conforming freestanding implementation, or as the compiler for a conforming hosted implementation. By default, it will act as the compiler for a hosted implementation, defining `__STDC_HOSTED__` as 1 and presuming that when the names of ISO C functions are used, they have the semantics defined in the standard. To make it act as a conforming freestanding implementation for a freestanding environment, use the option `'-ffreestanding'`; it will then define `__STDC_HOSTED__` to 0 and not make assumptions about the meanings of function names from the standard library. To build an OS kernel, you may well still need to make your own arrangements for linking and startup. See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.

GNU CC does not provide the library facilities required only of hosted implementations, nor yet all the facilities required by C99 of freestanding implementations; to use the facilities of a hosted environment, you will need to find them elsewhere (for example, in the GNU C library). See Section 9.7 [Standard Libraries], page 195.

For references to Technical Corrigenda, Rationale documents and information concerning the history of C that is available online, see http://gcc.gnu.org/readings.html

There is no formal written standard for Objective-C. The most authoritative manual is “Object-Oriented Programming and the Objective-C Language”, available at a number of websites; http://developer.apple.com/techpubs/macosx/Cocoa/ObjectiveC/ has a recent version, while http://www.toodarkpark.org/computers/objc/ is an older example. http://www.gnustep.org includes useful information as well.

See section “The GNU Fortran Language” in Using and Porting GNU Fortran, for details of the Fortran language supported by GCC.

See section “Compatibility with the Java Platform” in GNU gcj, for details of compatibility between gcj and the Java Platform.
3 GCC Command Options

When you invoke GCC, it normally does preprocessing, compilation, assembly and linking. The “overall options” allow you to stop this process at an intermediate stage. For example, the ‘-c’ option says not to run the linker. Then the output consists of object files output by the assembler.

Other options are passed on to one stage of processing. Some options control the preprocessor and others the compiler itself. Yet other options control the assembler and linker; most of these are not documented here, since you rarely need to use any of them.

Most of the command line options that you can use with GCC are useful for C programs; when an option is only useful with another language (usually C++), the explanation says so explicitly. If the description for a particular option does not mention a source language, you can use that option with all supported languages.

See Section 3.3 [Compiling C++ Programs], page 12, for a summary of special options for compiling C++ programs.

The gcc program accepts options and file names as operands. Many options have multi-letter names; therefore multiple single-letter options may not be grouped: ‘-dr’ is very different from ‘-d -r’.

You can mix options and other arguments. For the most part, the order you use doesn’t matter. Order does matter when you use several options of the same kind; for example, if you specify ‘-L’ more than once, the directories are searched in the order specified.

Many options have long names starting with ‘-f’ or with ‘-W’—for example, ‘-fforce-mem’, ‘-fstrength-reduce’, ‘-Wformat’ and so on. Most of these have both positive and negative forms; the negative form of ‘-ffoo’ would be ‘-fno-foo’. This manual documents only one of these two forms, whichever one is not the default.

See [Option Index], page 481, for an index to GCC’s options.

3.1 Option Summary

Here is a summary of all the options, grouped by type. Explanations are in the following sections.

Overall Options
See Section 3.2 [Options Controlling the Kind of Output], page 10.
- c -S -E - o file -pipe -pass-exit-codes - x language - v --target-help --help

C Language Options
See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.
- ansi -std=standard -aux-info filename -fno-asm -fno-builtins -fhosted -f

C++ Language Options
See Section 3.5 [Options Controlling C++ Dialect], page 16.
- fno-access-control -fcheck-new -fconserve-space -fno-const-strings -fdo

Objective-C Language Options
See Section 3.6 [Options Controlling Objective-C Dialect], page 21.
- fconstant-string-class=class-name -fgnu-runtime -fnext-runtime -gen-dec

Language Independent Options
See Section 3.7 [Options to Control Diagnostic Messages Formatting], page 21.
- fmessage-length=n -fdiagnostics-show-location=once|every-line

Warning Options
See Section 3.8 [Options to Request or Suppress Warnings], page 22.
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- `fsyntax-only` -pedantic -pedantic-errors -w -W -Wall -Waggregate-return

C-only Warning Options
- `Wbad-function-cast` -Wmissing-prototypes -Wnested-externs -Wstrict-prototypes

Debugging Options
See Section 3.9 [Options for Debugging Your Program or GCC], page 32.
- `a` -ax -dletters -dumpspecs -dumpmachine -dumpversion -fdump-unnumbered -

Optimization Options
See Section 3.10 [Options that Control Optimization], page 38.
- `falign-functions=n` -falign-jumps=n -falign-labels=n -falign-loops=n -

Preprocessor Options
See Section 3.11 [Options Controlling the Preprocessor], page 46.
- `$` -Aquestion=answer -A-question[=answer] -C -dD -dI -dM -dN -Dmacro[=defn]

Assembler Option
See Section 3.12 [Passing Options to the Assembler], page 49.
- Wa\,option

Linker Options
See Section 3.13 [Options for Linking], page 49.
- object-file-name -library -nostartfiles -nodefaultlibs -nostdlib -s -statu-

tion -u symbol

Directory Options
See Section 3.14 [Options for Directory Search], page 51.
- Bprefix -Idir -I- -Ldir -specs=file

Target Options
See Section 3.16 [Target Options], page 57.
- b machine -V version

Machine Dependent Options
See Section 3.17 [Hardware Models and Configurations], page 58. M680x0 Options
- m68000 -m68020 -m68020-40 -m68020-60 -m68030 -m68040 -m68060 -mcpu32 -r

M68hc1x Options
- m6811 -m6812 -m68hc11 -m68hc12 -mauto-incdec -mshort -msoft-reg-count=

VAX Options
- mg -mgnu -munix

SPARC Options
- mccpu=cpu-type -mtune=cpu-type -mcmodel=code-model -m32 -m64 -mapp-reg

Convex Options
- mc1 -mc2 -mc32 -mc34 -mc38 -margcount -mnoargcount -mlong32 -mlong64

AMD29K Options
- m29000 -m29050 -mbw -mnbw -mdw -mndw -mlarge -mnormal -msmall -mkernel

ARM Options
- mapcs-frame -mno-apcs-frame -mapcs-26 -mapcs-32 -mapcs-stack-check -mr

MN10200 Options
- mrelax

MN10300 Options
-mmult-bug -mno-mult-bug -mam33 -mno-am33 -mno-crt0 -mrelax

**M32R/D Options**
- mcode-model=model-type -msdata=sdata-type -G num

**M88K Options**
- m88000 -m88100 -mbig-pic -mcheck-zero-division -mhandle-large-s

**RS/6000 and PowerPC Options**
- mccpu=cpu-type -mtune=cpu-type -mpower -mno-power -mpower2 -mno-power2

**RT Options**

**MIPS Options**
- mabicalls -mccpu=cpu-type -membeded-data -muninit-const-in-rodata -mem

**i386 Options**
- mcpu=cpu-type -mcpu=cpu-type -msdata=sdata-opt -mabi=32 -mabi=n32 -mabi=64 -mabi=eabi -mfix7000 -mno-crt0

**HPPA Options**
- march=architecture-type -mbig-switch -mdisable-fpregs -mdisable-indexing -mspace-regs

**Intel 960 Options**
- mcpu-type -masm-compat -mclean-linkage -mcode-align -mcomplex-addr -mle

**DEC Alpha Options**

**Clipper Options**
- mc300 -mc400

**H8/300 Options**
- mrelax -mh -ms -mint32 -malign-300

**SH Options**
- m1 -m2 -m3 -m3e -m4-nofpu -m4-single-only -m4-single -m4 -mb -m1 -mdata

**System V Options**
- Qy -Qn -YP,paths -Ym,dir

**ARC Options**
- EB -EL -mmangle-cpu -mccpu=cpu -mtext=text-section -mdata=data-section -mrodata=data-section

**TMS320C3x/C4x Options**
- mccpu=cpu -mbig -msmall -mregparm -mmemparm -mfast-fix -mmppyi -mbk -mti

**V850 Options**
- mlong-calls -mno-long-calls -mep -mno-ep -mprolog-function -mno-prolog-function

**NS32K Options**
- m32032 -m32332 -m32532 -m32081 -m32381 -m32081 -m32381 -mmult-add -mnomult-add -mssoft-im

**AVR Options**
- mmcu=mcu -msize -minit-stack=n -mno-interrupts -mcall-prologues -mno-t

**MCore Options**
- mhardlit -mno-hardlit -mdiv -mno-div -mrelax-immediates -mno-relax-immediates

**IA-64 Options**
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**Code Generation Options**

See Section 3.18 [Options for Code Generation Conventions], page 102.


### 3.2 Options Controlling the Kind of Output

Compilation can involve up to four stages: preprocessing, compilation proper, assembly and linking, always in that order. The first three stages apply to an individual source file, and end by producing an object file; linking combines all the object files (those newly compiled, and those specified as input) into an executable file.

For any given input file, the file name suffix determines what kind of compilation is done:

- **file.c**  
  C source code which must be preprocessed.

- **file.i**  
  C source code which should not be preprocessed.

- **file.ii**  
  C++ source code which should not be preprocessed.

- **file.m**  
  Objective-C source code. Note that you must link with the library ‘libobjc.a’ to make an Objective-C program work.

- **file.mi**  
  Objective-C source code which should not be preprocessed.

- **file.h**  
  C header file (not to be compiled or linked).

- **file.cc**
- **file.cp**
- **file.cxx**
- **file.cpp**
- **file.c++**
  C++ source code which must be preprocessed. Note that in ‘.cxx’, the last two letters must both be literally ‘x’. Likewise, ‘.C’ refers to a literal capital C.

- **file.f**
- **file.for**
- **file.FOR**  
  Fortran source code which should not be preprocessed.

- **file.F**
- **file.fpp**
- **file.FPP**  
  Fortran source code which must be preprocessed (with the traditional preprocessor).

- **file.r**  
  Fortran source code which must be preprocessed with a RATFOR preprocessor (not included with GCC).

See section “Options Controlling the Kind of Output” in Using and Porting GNU Fortran, for more details of the handling of Fortran input files.

- **file.s**  
  Assembler code.

- **file.S**  
  Assembler code which must be preprocessed.

- **other**  
  An object file to be fed straight into linking. Any file name with no recognized suffix is treated this way.

You can specify the input language explicitly with the ‘-x’ option:

**-x language**  
Specify explicitly the language for the following input files (rather than letting the compiler choose a default based on the file name suffix). This option applies to all following input files until the next ‘-x’ option. Possible values for language are:
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- x none  Turn off any specification of a language, so that subsequent files are handled according to their file name suffixes (as they are if ‘-x’ has not been used at all).

- pass-exit-codes  Normally the gcc program will exit with the code of 1 if any phase of the compiler returns a non-success return code. If you specify ‘-pass-exit-codes’, the gcc program will instead return with numerically highest error produced by any phase that returned an error indication.

If you only want some of the stages of compilation, you can use ‘-x’ (or filename suffixes) to tell gcc where to start, and one of the options ‘-c’, ‘-S’, or ‘-E’ to say where gcc is to stop. Note that some combinations (for example, ‘-x cpp-output -E’) instruct gcc to do nothing at all.

- c  Compile or assemble the source files, but do not link. The linking stage simply is not done. The ultimate output is in the form of an object file for each source file.

By default, the object file name for a source file is made by replacing the suffix ‘.c’, ‘.i’, ‘.s’, etc., with ‘.o’.

Unrecognized input files, not requiring compilation or assembly, are ignored.

- S  Stop after the stage of compilation proper; do not assemble. The output is in the form of an assembler code file for each non-assembler input file specified.

By default, the assembler file name for a source file is made by replacing the suffix ‘.c’, ‘.i’, etc., with ‘.s’.

Input files that don’t require compilation are ignored.

- E  Stop after the preprocessing stage; do not run the compiler proper. The output is in the form of preprocessed source code, which is sent to the standard output.

Input files which don’t require preprocessing are ignored.

- o file  Place output in file file. This applies regardless to whatever sort of output is being produced, whether it be an executable file, an object file, an assembler file or preprocessed C code.

Since only one output file can be specified, it does not make sense to use ‘-o’ when compiling more than one input file, unless you are producing an executable file as output.

If ‘-o’ is not specified, the default is to put an executable file in ‘a.out’, the object file for ‘source.suffix’ in ‘source.o’, its assembler file in ‘source.s’, and all preprocessed C source on standard output.

- v  Print (on standard error output) the commands executed to run the stages of compilation. Also print the version number of the compiler driver program and of the preprocessor and the compiler proper.

- pipe  Use pipes rather than temporary files for communication between the various stages of compilation. This fails to work on some systems where the assembler is unable to read from a pipe; but the GNU assembler has no trouble.

--help  Print (on the standard output) a description of the command line options understood by gcc. If the ‘-v’ option is also specified then ‘--help’ will also be passed on to
the various processes invoked by gcc, so that they can display the command line options they accept. If the ‘-W’ option is also specified then command line options which have no documentation associated with them will also be displayed.

--target-help
Print (on the standard output) a description of target specific command line options for each tool.

3.3 Compiling C++ Programs

C++ source files conventionally use one of the suffixes '.C', '.cc', '.cpp', '.c++', '.cp', or '.cxx'; preprocessed C++ files use the suffix '.ii'. GCC recognizes files with these names and compiles them as C++ programs even if you call the compiler the same way as for compiling C programs (usually with the name gcc).

However, C++ programs often require class libraries as well as a compiler that understands the C++ language—and under some circumstances, you might want to compile programs from standard input, or otherwise without a suffix that flags them as C++ programs. g++ is a program that calls GCC with the default language set to C++, and automatically specifies linking against the C++ library. On many systems, g++ is also installed with the name c++.

When you compile C++ programs, you may specify many of the same command-line options that you use for compiling programs in any language; or command-line options meaningful for C and related languages; or options that are meaningful only for C++ programs. See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12, for explanations of options for languages related to C. See Section 3.5 [Options Controlling C++ Dialect], page 16, for explanations of options that are meaningful only for C++ programs.

3.4 Options Controlling C Dialect

The following options control the dialect of C (or languages derived from C, such as C++ and Objective C) that the compiler accepts:

-ansi
In C mode, support all ISO C89 programs. In C++ mode, remove GNU extensions that conflict with ISO C++.

This turns off certain features of GCC that are incompatible with ISO C (when compiling C code), or of standard C++ (when compiling C++ code), such as the asm and typeof keywords, and predefined macros such as unix and vax that identify the type of system you are using. It also enables the undesirable and rarely used ISO trigraph feature. For the C compiler, it disables recognition of C++ style ‘//’ comments as well as the inline keyword.

The alternate keywords __asm__, __extension__, __inline__ and __typeof__ continue to work despite ‘-ansi’. You would not want to use them in an ISO C program, of course, but it is useful to put them in header files that might be included in compilations done with ‘-ansi’. Alternate predefined macros such as __unix__ and __vax__ are also available, with or without ‘-ansi’.

The ‘ansi’ option does not cause non-ISO programs to be rejected gratuitously. For that, ‘pedantic’ is required in addition to ‘ansi’. See Section 3.8 [Warning Options], page 22.

The macro __STRICT_ANSI__ is predefined when the ‘ansi’ option is used. Some header files may notice this macro and refrain from declaring certain functions or defining certain macros that the ISO standard doesn’t call for; this is to avoid interfering with any programs that might use these names for other things.
Functions which would normally be built in but do not have semantics defined by ISO C (such as `alloca` and `ffs`) are not built-in functions with `'-ansi'` is used. See Section 5.43 [Other built-in functions provided by GNU CC], page 161, for details of the functions affected.

`-std=` Determine the language standard. A value for this option must be provided; possible values are

- `iso9899:1990`
  - Same as `'-ansi'`
- `iso9899:199409`
  - ISO C as modified in amend. 1
- `iso9899:1999`
  - ISO C99. Note that this standard is not yet fully supported; see [http://gcc.gnu.org/gcc-3.0/c99status.html](http://gcc.gnu.org/gcc-3.0/c99status.html) for more information.
- `c89`
  - Same as `'-std=iso9899:1990'`
- `c99`
  - Same as `'-std=iso9899:1999'`
- `gnu89`
  - Default, iso9899:1990 + gnu extensions
- `gnu99`
  - iso9899:1999 + gnu extensions
- `iso9899:199x`
  - Same as `'-std=iso9899:1999'`, deprecated
- `c9x`
  - Same as `'-std=iso9899:1999'`, deprecated
- `gnu9x`
  - Same as `'-std=gnu99'`, deprecated

Even when this option is not specified, you can still use some of the features of newer standards in so far as they do not conflict with previous C standards. For example, you may use `__restrict__` even when `'-std=c99'` is not specified.

The `'-std'` options specifying some version of ISO C have the same effects as `'-ansi'`, except that features that were not in ISO C89 but are in the specified version (for example, `//` comments and the `inline` keyword in ISO C99) are not disabled. See Chapter 2 [Language Standards Supported by GCC], page 5, for details of these standard versions.

`-aux-info` 
**filename**

Output to the given filename prototyped declarations for all functions declared and/or defined in a translation unit, including those in header files. This option is silently ignored in any language other than C.

Besides declarations, the file indicates, in comments, the origin of each declaration (source file and line), whether the declaration was implicit, prototyped or unprototyped (`I`, `N` for new or `O` for old, respectively, in the first character after the line number and the colon), and whether it came from a declaration or a definition (`C` or `F`, respectively, in the following character). In the case of function definitions, a K&R-style list of arguments followed by their declarations is also provided, inside comments, after the declaration.

`-fno-asm` Do not recognize `asm`, `inline` or `typeof` as a keyword, so that code can use these words as identifiers. You can use the keywords `__asm__`, `__inline__` and `__typeof__` instead. `'-ansi'` implies `'-fno-asm'`.

In C++, this switch only affects the `typeof` keyword, since `asm` and `inline` are standard keywords. You may want to use the `'-fno-gnu-keywords'` flag instead, which has the same effect. In C99 mode (`'-std=c99'` or `'-std=gnu99'`), this switch only affects the `asm` and `typeof` keywords, since `inline` is a standard keyword in ISO C99.
-fno-builtin

Don’t recognize built-in functions that do not begin with ‘__builtin_’ as prefix. See Section 5.43 [Other built-in functions provided by GNU CC], page 161, for details of the functions affected, including those which are not built-in functions when ‘-ansi’ or ‘-std’ options for strict ISO C conformance are used because they do not have an ISO standard meaning.

GCC normally generates special code to handle certain built-in functions more efficiently; for instance, calls to alloca may become single instructions that adjust the stack directly, and calls to memcpy may become inline copy loops. The resulting code is often both smaller and faster, but since the function calls no longer appear as such, you cannot set a breakpoint on those calls, nor can you change the behavior of the functions by linking with a different library.

In C++, ‘-fno-builtin’ is always in effect. The ‘-fbuiltin’ option has no effect. Therefore, in C++, the only way to get the optimization benefits of built-in functions is to call the function using the ‘__builtin_’ prefix. The GNU C++ Standard Library uses built-in functions to implement many functions (like std::strchr), so that you automatically get efficient code.

-fhosted

Assert that compilation takes place in a hosted environment. This implies ‘-fbuiltin’. A hosted environment is one in which the entire standard library is available, and in which main has a return type of int. Examples are nearly everything except a kernel. This is equivalent to ‘-fno-freestanding’.

-ffreestanding

Assert that compilation takes place in a freestanding environment. This implies ‘-fno-builtin’. A freestanding environment is one in which the standard library may not exist, and program startup may not necessarily be at main. The most obvious example is an OS kernel. This is equivalent to ‘-fno-hosted’.

See Chapter 2 [Language Standards Supported by GCC], page 5, for details of freestanding and hosted environments.

-trigraphs

Support ISO C trigraphs. The ‘-ansi’ option (and ‘-std’ options for strict ISO C conformance) implies ‘-trigraphs’.

-traditional

Attempt to support some aspects of traditional C compilers. Specifically:

- All extern declarations take effect globally even if they are written inside of a function definition. This includes implicit declarations of functions.
- The newer keywords typeof, inline, signed, const and volatile are not recognized. (You can still use the alternative keywords such as __typeof__, __inline__, and so on.)
- Comparisons between pointers and integers are always allowed.
- Integer types unsigned short and unsigned char promote to unsigned int.
- Out-of-range floating point literals are not an error.
- Certain constructs which ISO regards as a single invalid preprocessing number, such as ‘0xe-0xd’, are treated as expressions instead.
- String “constants” are not necessarily constant; they are stored in writable space, and identical looking constants are allocated separately. (This is the same as the effect of ‘-fwrutable-strings’.)
- All automatic variables not declared register are preserved by longjmp. Ordinarily, GNU C follows ISO C: automatic variables not declared volatile may be clobbered.
• The character escape sequences ‘\x’ and ‘\a’ evaluate as the literal characters ‘x’ and ‘a’ respectively. Without ‘-traditional’, ‘\x’ is a prefix for the hexadecimal representation of a character, and ‘\a’ produces a bell.

You may wish to use ‘-fno-builtin’ as well as ‘-traditional’ if your program uses names that are normally GNU C built-in functions for other purposes of its own.

You cannot use ‘-traditional’ if you include any header files that rely on ISO C features. Some vendors are starting to ship systems with ISO C header files and you cannot use ‘-traditional’ on such systems to compile files that include any system headers.

The ‘-traditional’ option also enables ‘-traditional-cpp’, which is described next.

- traditional-cpp

Attempt to support some aspects of traditional C preprocessors. Specifically:

• Comments convert to nothing at all, rather than to a space. This allows traditional token concatenation.

• In a preprocessing directive, the ‘#’ symbol must appear as the first character of a line.

• Macro arguments are recognized within string constants in a macro definition (and their values are stringified, though without additional quote marks, when they appear in such a context). The preprocessor always considers a string constant to end at a newline.

• The predefined macro __STDC__ is not defined when you use ‘-traditional’, but __GNUC__ is (since the GNU extensions which __GNUC__ indicates are not affected by ‘-traditional’). If you need to write header files that work differently depending on whether ‘-traditional’ is in use, by testing both of these predefined macros you can distinguish four situations: GNU C, traditional GNU C, other ISO C compilers, and other old C compilers. The predefined macro __STDC_VERSION__ is also not defined when you use ‘-traditional’. See section “Standard Predefined Macros” in The C Preprocessor, for more discussion of these and other predefined macros.

• The preprocessor considers a string constant to end at a newline (unless the newline is escaped with ‘\’). (Without ‘-traditional’, string constants can contain the newline character as typed.)

-fcond-mismatch

Allow conditional expressions with mismatched types in the second and third arguments. The value of such an expression is void. This option is not supported for C++.

-funsigned-char

Let the type char be unsigned, like unsigned char.

Each kind of machine has a default for what char should be. It is either like unsigned char by default or like signed char by default.

Ideally, a portable program should always use signed char or unsigned char when it depends on the signedness of an object. But many programs have been written to use plain char and expect it to be signed, or expect it to be unsigned, depending on the machines they were written for. This option, and its inverse, let you make such a program work with the opposite default.

The type char is always a distinct type from each of signed char or unsigned char, even though its behavior is always just like one of those two.
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Let the type `char` be signed, like `signed char`. Note that this is equivalent to `'-fno-unsigned-char'`, which is the negative form of `'-funsigned-char'`. Likewise, the option `'-fno-signed-char'` is equivalent to `'-funsigned-char'`.

These options control whether a bit-field is signed or unsigned, when the declaration does not use either `signed` or `unsigned`. By default, such a bit-field is signed, because this is consistent: the basic integer types such as `int` are signed types. However, when `'-traditional'` is used, bit-fields are all unsigned no matter what.

Store string constants in the writable data segment and don’t uniquize them. This is for compatibility with old programs which assume they can write into string constants. The option `'-traditional'` also has this effect.

Writing into string constants is a very bad idea; “constants” should be constant.

Do not promote single precision math operations to double precision, even when compiling with `'-traditional'`. Traditional K&R C promotes all floating point operations to double precision, regardless of the sizes of the operands. On the architecture for which you are compiling, single precision may be faster than double precision. If you must use `'-traditional'`, but want to use single precision operations when the operands are single precision, use this option. This option has no effect when compiling with ISO or GNU C conventions (the default).

Override the underlying type for `wchar_t` to be `short unsigned int` instead of the default for the target. This option is useful for building programs to run under WINE.

3.5 Options Controlling C++ Dialect

This section describes the command-line options that are only meaningful for C++ programs; but you can also use most of the GNU compiler options regardless of what language your program is in. For example, you might compile a file `firstClass.C` like this:

```g++ -g -frepo -O -c firstClass.C```

In this example, only `'-frepo'` is an option meant only for C++ programs; you can use the other options with any language supported by GCC.

Here is a list of options that are only for compiling C++ programs:

`-fno-access-control`

Turn off all access checking. This switch is mainly useful for working around bugs in the access control code.

`-fcheck-new`

Check that the pointer returned by `operator new` is non-null before attempting to modify the storage allocated. The current Working Paper requires that `operator new` never return a null pointer, so this check is normally unnecessary.
An alternative to using this option is to specify that your `operator new` does not throw any exceptions; if you declare it `throw()`, g++ will check the return value. See also `new (nothrow)`.

`-fconserve-space`

Put uninitialized or runtime-initialized global variables into the common segment, as C does. This saves space in the executable at the cost of not diagnosing duplicate definitions. If you compile with this flag and your program mysteriously crashes after `main()` has completed, you may have an object that is being destroyed twice because two definitions were merged.

This option is no longer useful on most targets, now that support has been added for putting variables into BSS without making them common.

`-fno-const-strings`

Give string constants type `char *` instead of type `const char *`. By default, G++ uses type `const char *` as required by the standard. Even if you use `'-fno-const-strings'`, you cannot actually modify the value of a string constant, unless you also use `'-fwrappable-strings'`.

This option might be removed in a future release of G++. For maximum portability, you should structure your code so that it works with string constants that have type `const char *`.

`-fdollars-in-identifiers`

Accept `$` in identifiers. You can also explicitly prohibit use of `$` with the option `'-fno-dollars-in-identifiers'`. (GNU C allows `$` by default on most target systems, but there are a few exceptions.) Traditional C allowed the character `$` to form part of identifiers. However, ISO C and C++ forbid `$` in identifiers.

`-fno-elide-constructors`

The C++ standard allows an implementation to omit creating a temporary which is only used to initialize another object of the same type. Specifying this option disables that optimization, and forces g++ to call the copy constructor in all cases.

`-fno-enforce-eh-specs`

Don’t check for violation of exception specifications at runtime. This option violates the C++ standard, but may be useful for reducing code size in production builds, much like defining ‘NDEBUG’. The compiler will still optimize based on the exception specifications.

`-fexternal-templates`

Cause template instantiations to obey ‘#pragma interface’ and ‘implementation’; template instances are emitted or not according to the location of the template definition. See Section 6.6 [Template Instantiation], page 169, for more information.

This option is deprecated.

`-falt-external-templates`

Similar to ‘-fexternal-templates’, but template instances are emitted or not according to the place where they are first instantiated. See Section 6.6 [Template Instantiation], page 169, for more information.

This option is deprecated.

`-ffor-scope`

If ‘-ffor-scope’ is specified, the scope of variables declared in a `for-init-statement` is limited to the ‘for’ loop itself, as specified by the C++ standard. If ‘-fno-for-scope’ is specified, the scope of variables declared in a `for-init-statement` extends to the end of the enclosing scope, as was the case in old versions of gcc, and other (traditional) implementations of C++.
The default if neither flag is given to follow the standard, but to allow and give a warning for old-style code that would otherwise be invalid, or have different behavior.

- **fno-gnu-keywords**
  Do not recognize `typeof` as a keyword, so that code can use this word as an identifier. You can use the keyword `__typeof__` instead. ‘-ansi’ implies ‘-fno-gnu-keywords’.

- **fno-honor-std**
  Ignore `namespace std`, instead of treating it as a real namespace. With this switch, the compiler will ignore `namespace-declarations`, `using-declarations`, `using-directives`, and `namespace-names`, if they involve `std`.
  This option is only useful if you have manually compiled the C++ run-time library with the same switch. Otherwise, your programs will not link. The use of this option is not recommended, and the option may be removed from a future version of G++.

- **fno-implicit-templates**
  Never emit code for non-inline templates which are instantiated implicitly (i.e. by use); only emit code for explicit instantiations. See Section 6.6 [Template Instantiation], page 169, for more information.

- **fno-implicit-inline-templates**
  Don’t emit code for implicit instantiations of inline templates, either. The default is to handle inlines differently so that compiles with and without optimization will need the same set of explicit instantiations.

- **fno-implement-inlines**
  To save space, do not emit out-of-line copies of inline functions controlled by ‘#pragma implementation’. This will cause linker errors if these functions are not inlined everywhere they are called.

- **fms-extensions**
  Disable pedantic warnings about constructs used in MFC, such as implicit int and getting a pointer to member function via non-standard syntax.

- **fno-nonansi-builtins**
  Disable built-in declarations of functions that are not mandated by ANSI/ISO C. These include `ffs`, `alloca`, `_exit`, `index`, `bzero`, `conjf`, and other related functions.

- **fno-operator-names**
  Do not treat the operator name keywords `and`, `bitand`, `bitor`, `compl`, `not`, `or` and `xor` as synonyms as keywords.

- **fno-optional-diags**
  Disable diagnostics that the standard says a compiler does not need to issue. Currently, the only such diagnostic issued by g++ is the one for a name having multiple meanings within a class.

- **fpermissive**
  Downgrade messages about nonconformant code from errors to warnings. By default, g++ effectively sets ‘-pedantic-errors’ without ‘-pedantic’; this option reverses that. This behavior and this option are superseded by ‘-pedantic’, which works as it does for GNU C.

- **frepo**
  Enable automatic template instantiation. This option also implies ‘-fno-implicit-templates’. See Section 6.6 [Template Instantiation], page 169, for more information.
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-fno-rtti
Disable generation of information about every class with virtual functions for use by the C++ runtime type identification features (‘dynamic_cast’ and ‘typeid’). If you don’t use those parts of the language, you can save some space by using this flag. Note that exception handling uses the same information, but it will generate it as needed.

-fstats
Emit statistics about front-end processing at the end of the compilation. This information is generally only useful to the G++ development team.

-ftemplate-depth-n
Set the maximum instantiation depth for template classes to n. A limit on the template instantiation depth is needed to detect endless recursions during template class instantiation. ANSI/ISO C++ conforming programs must not rely on a maximum depth greater than 17.

-fuse-cxa-atexit
Register destructors for objects with static storage duration with the __cxa_atexit function rather than the atexit function. This option is required for fully standards-compliant handling of static destructors, but will only work if your C library supports __cxa_atexit.

-fno-weak
Do not use weak symbol support, even if it is provided by the linker. By default, G++ will use weak symbols if they are available. This option exists only for testing, and should not be used by end-users; it will result in inferior code and has no benefits. This option may be removed in a future release of G++.

-nostdinc++
Do not search for header files in the standard directories specific to C++, but do still search the other standard directories. (This option is used when building the C++ library.)

In addition, these optimization, warning, and code generation options have meanings only for C++ programs:

-fno-default-inline
Do not assume ‘inline’ for functions defined inside a class scope. See Section 3.10 [Options That Control Optimization], page 38. Note that these functions will have linkage like inline functions; they just won’t be inlined by default.

-Wctor-dtor-privacy (C++ only)
Warn when a class seems unusable, because all the constructors or destructors in a class are private and the class has no friends or public static member functions.

-Wnon-virtual-dtor (C++ only)
Warn when a class declares a non-virtual destructor that should probably be virtual, because it looks like the class will be used polymorphically.

-Wreorder (C++ only)
Warn when the order of member initializers given in the code does not match the order in which they must be executed. For instance:

```c
struct A {
    int i;
    int j;
    A(): j (0), i (1) { }
};
```

Here the compiler will warn that the member initializers for ‘i’ and ‘j’ will be rearranged to match the declaration order of the members.
The following ‘-W...’ options are not affected by ‘-Wall’.

-Weffc++ (C++ only)
Warn about violations of various style guidelines from Scott Meyers’ Effective C++ books. If you use this option, you should be aware that the standard library headers do not obey all of these guidelines; you can use ‘grep -v’ to filter out those warnings.

-Wno-deprecated (C++ only)
Do not warn about usage of deprecated features. See Section 6.10 [Deprecated Features], page 172.

-Wno-non-template-friend (C++ only)
Disable warnings when non-templatized friend functions are declared within a template. With the advent of explicit template specification support in g++, if the name of the friend is an unqualified-id (i.e., ‘friend foo(int)’), the C++ language specification demands that the friend declare or define an ordinary, non-template function. (Section 14.5.3). Before g++ implemented explicit specification, unqualified-ids could be interpreted as a particular specialization of a templatized function. Because this non-conforming behavior is no longer the default behavior for g++, ‘-Wnon-template-friend’ allows the compiler to check existing code for potential trouble spots, and is on by default. This new compiler behavior can be turned off with ‘-Wno-non-template-friend’ which keeps the conformant compiler code but disables the helpful warning.

-Wold-style-cast (C++ only)
Warn if an old-style (C-style) cast is used within a C++ program. The new-style casts (‘static_cast’, ‘reinterpret_cast’, and ‘const_cast’) are less vulnerable to unintended effects, and much easier to grep for.

-Woverloaded-virtual (C++ only)
Warn when a derived class function declaration may be an error in defining a virtual function. In a derived class, the definitions of virtual functions must match the type signature of a virtual function declared in the base class. With this option, the compiler warns when you define a function with the same name as a virtual function, but with a type signature that does not match any declarations from the base class.

-Wno-pmf-conversions (C++ only)
Disable the diagnostic for converting a bound pointer to member function to a plain pointer.

-Wsign-promo (C++ only)
Warn when overload resolution chooses a promotion from unsigned or enumeral type to a signed type over a conversion to an unsigned type of the same size. Previous versions of g++ would try to preserve unsignedness, but the standard mandates the current behavior.

-Wsynth (C++ only)
Warn when g++’s synthesis behavior does not match that of cfront. For instance:

```c
struct A {
    operator int (){
        A& operator = (int);
    }
};

main ()
{
    A a,b;
```
In this example, g++ will synthesize a default ‘A& operator = (const A&);’, while
cfront will use the user-defined ‘operator =’.

3.6 Options Controlling Objective-C Dialect

This section describes the command-line options that are only meaningful for Objective-C
programs; but you can also use most of the GNU compiler options regardless of what language
your program is in. For example, you might compile a file some_class.m like this:

gcc -g -fgnu-runtime -O -c some_class.m

In this example, only ‘-fgnu-runtime’ is an option meant only for Objective-C programs; you
can use the other options with any language supported by GCC.

Here is a list of options that are only for compiling Objective-C programs:

-constant-string-class=class-name
  Use class-name as the name of the class to instantiate for each literal string specified
  with the syntax @"...". The default class name is NXConstantString.

-fgnu-runtime
  Generate object code compatible with the standard GNU Objective-C runtime. This
  is the default for most types of systems.

-fnext-runtime
  Generate output compatible with the NeXT runtime. This is the default for NeXT-
  based systems, including Darwin and Mac OS X.

-gen-decls
  Dump interface declarations for all classes seen in the source file to a file named
  'sourcename.decl'.

-Wno-protocol
  Do not warn if methods required by a protocol are not implemented in the class
  adopting it.

-Wselector
  Warn if a selector has multiple methods of different types defined.

3.7 Options to Control Diagnostic Messages Formatting

Traditionally, diagnostic messages have been formatted irrespective of the output device’s
aspect (e.g. its width, ...). The options described below can be used to control the diagnostic
messages formatting algorithm, e.g. how many characters per line, how often source location
information should be reported. Right now, only the C++ front-end can honor these options.
However it is expected, in the near future, that the remaining front-ends would be able to digest
them correctly.

-fmessage-length=n
  Try to format error messages so that they fit on lines of about n characters. The
default is 72 characters for g++ and 0 for the rest of the front-ends supported by
GCC. If n is zero, then no line-wrapping will be done; each error message will appear
on a single line.

-fdiagnostics-show-location=once
  Only meaningful in line-wrapping mode. Instructs the diagnostic messages reporter
to emit once source location information; that is, in case the message is too long
to fit on a single physical line and has to be wrapped, the source location won’t be
emitted (as prefix) again, over and over, in subsequent continuation lines. This is
the default behaviour.

-fdiagnostics-show-location=every-line
Only meaningful in line-wrapping mode. Instructs the diagnostic messages reporter
to emit the same source location information (as prefix) for physical lines that result
from the process of breaking a message which is too long to fit on a single line.

3.8 Options to Request or Suppress Warnings

Warnings are diagnostic messages that report constructions which are not inherently erro-
neous but which are risky or suggest there may have been an error.

You can request many specific warnings with options beginning ‘-W’, for example
’-Wimplicit’ to request warnings on implicit declarations. Each of these specific warning
options also has a negative form beginning ‘-Wno-’ to turn off warnings; for example,
’-Wno-implicit’. This manual lists only one of the two forms, whichever is not the default.

These options control the amount and kinds of warnings produced by GCC:

- fsyntax-only
  Check the code for syntax errors, but don’t do anything beyond that.

- pedantic
  Issue all the warnings demanded by strict ISO C and ISO C++; reject all programs
  that use forbidden extensions, and some other programs that do not follow ISO C
  and ISO C++. For ISO C, follows the version of the ISO C standard specified by
  any ‘-std’ option used.

Valid ISO C and ISO C++ programs should compile properly with or without this
option (though a rare few will require ‘-ansi’ or a ‘-std’ option specifying the
required version of ISO C). However, without this option, certain GNU extensions
and traditional C and C++ features are supported as well. With this option, they
are rejected.

’-pedantic’ does not cause warning messages for use of the alternate keywords
whose names begin and end with ‘__’. Pedantic warnings are also disabled in the
expression that follows __extension__. However, only system header files should
use these escape routes; application programs should avoid them. See Section 5.39
[Alternate Keywords], page 159.

Some users try to use ‘-pedantic’ to check programs for strict ISO C conformance.
They soon find that it does not do quite what they want: it finds some non-ISO
practices, but not all—only those for which ISO C requires a diagnostic, and some
others for which diagnostics have been added.

A feature to report any failure to conform to ISO C might be useful in some instances,
but would require considerable additional work and would be quite different from
‘-pedantic’. We don’t have plans to support such a feature in the near future.

Where the standard specified with ‘-std’ represents a GNU extended dialect of C,
such as ‘gnu89’ or ‘gnu99’, there is a corresponding base standard, the version of
ISO C on which the GNU extended dialect is based. Warnings from ‘-pedantic’
are given where they are required by the base standard. (It would not make sense
for such warnings to be given only for features not in the specified GNU C dialect,
since by definition the GNU dialects of C include all features the compiler supports
with the given option, and there would be nothing to warn about.)

- pedantic=errors
Like ‘-pedantic’, except that errors are produced rather than warnings.
-w Inhibit all warning messages.

-Wno-import
Inhibit warning messages about the use of ‘#import’.

-Wchar-subscripts
Warn if an array subscript has type char. This is a common cause of error, as programmers often forget that this type is signed on some machines.

-Wcomment
Warn whenever a comment-start sequence ‘/∗’ appears in a ‘/∗’ comment, or whenever a Backslash-Newline appears in a ‘//’ comment.

-Wformat
Check calls to printf and scanf, etc., to make sure that the arguments supplied have types appropriate to the format string specified, and that the conversions specified in the format string make sense. This includes standard functions, and others specified by format attributes (see Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136), in the printf, scanf, strftime and strftime (an X/Open extension, not in the C standard) families.

The formats are checked against the format features supported by GNU libc version 2.2. These include all ISO C89 and C99 features, as well as features from the Single Unix Specification and some BSD and GNU extensions. Other library implementations may not support all these features; GCC does not support warning about features that go beyond a particular library’s limitations. However, if ‘-pedantic’ is used with ‘-Wformat’, warnings will be given about format features not in the selected standard version (but not for strftime formats, since those are not in any version of the C standard). See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.

‘-Wformat’ is included in ‘-Wall’. For more control over some aspects of format checking, the options ‘-Wno-format-y2k’, ‘-Wno-format-extra-args’, ‘-Wformat-nonliteral’, ‘-Wformat-security’ and ‘-Wformat=2’ are available, but are not included in ‘-Wall’.

-Wno-format-y2k
If ‘-Wformat’ is specified, do not warn about strftime formats which may yield only a two-digit year.

-Wno-format-extra-args
If ‘-Wformat’ is specified, do not warn about excess arguments to a printf or scanf format function. The C standard specifies that such arguments are ignored.

-Wformat-nonliteral
If ‘-Wformat’ is specified, also warn if the format string is not a string literal and so cannot be checked, unless the format function takes its format arguments as a va_list.

-Wformat-security
If ‘-Wformat’ is specified, also warn about uses of format functions that represent possible security problems. At present, this warns about calls to printf and scanf functions where the format string is not a string literal and there are no format arguments, as in printf (foo);. This may be a security hole if the format string came from untrusted input and contains ‘%n’. (This is currently a subset of what ‘-Wformat-nonliteral’ warns about, but in future warnings may be added to ‘-Wformat-security’ that are not included in ‘-Wformat-nonliteral’.)

-Wformat=2
Enable ‘-Wformat’ plus format checks not included in ‘-Wformat’. Currently equivalent to ‘-Wformat -Wformat-nonliteral -Wformat-security’.
-**-Wimplicit-int**
Warn when a declaration does not specify a type.

-**-Wimplicit-function-declaration**
-**-Werror-implicit-function-declaration**
Give a warning (or error) whenever a function is used before being declared.

-**-Wimplicit**
Same as ‘-Wimplicit-int’ and ‘-Wimplicit-function-declaration’.

-**-Wmain**
Warn if the type of ‘main’ is suspicious. ‘main’ should be a function with external linkage, returning int, taking either zero arguments, two, or three arguments of appropriate types.

-**-Wmissing-braces**
Warn if an aggregate or union initializer is not fully bracketed. In the following example, the initializer for ‘a’ is not fully bracketed, but that for ‘b’ is fully bracketed.

```c
int a[2][2] = { 0, 1, 2, 3 };
int b[2][2] = { { 0, 1 }, { 2, 3 } };
```

-**-Wmultichar**
Warn if a multicharacter constant ('"FOOF"') is used. Usually they indicate a typo in the user’s code, as they have implementation-defined values, and should not be used in portable code.

-**-Wparentheses**
Warn if parentheses are omitted in certain contexts, such as when there is an assignment in a context where a truth value is expected, or when operators are nested whose precedence people often get confused about.

Also warn about constructions where there may be confusion to which **if** statement an **else** branch belongs. Here is an example of such a case:

```c
{ 
  if (a)
    if (b)
      foo ();
    else
      bar ();
} 
```

In C, every **else** branch belongs to the innermost possible **if** statement, which in this example is **if (b)**. This is often not what the programmer expected, as illustrated in the above example by indentation the programmer chose. When there is the potential for this confusion, GNU C will issue a warning when this flag is specified. To eliminate the warning, add explicit braces around the innermost **if** statement so there is no way the **else** could belong to the enclosing **if**. The resulting code would look like this:

```c
{ 
  if (a)
    { 
      if (b)
        foo ();
      else
        bar ();
    } 
} 
```
-Wsequence-point
Warn about code that may have undefined semantics because of violations of sequence point rules in the C standard.

The C standard defines the order in which expressions in a C program are evaluated in terms of sequence points, which represent a partial ordering between the execution of parts of the program: those executed before the sequence point, and those executed after it. These occur after the evaluation of a full expression (one which is not part of a larger expression), after the evaluation of the first operand of a &&, ||, ? : or , (comma) operator, before a function is called (but after the evaluation of its arguments and the expression denoting the called function), and in certain other places. Other than as expressed by the sequence point rules, the order of evaluation of subexpressions of an expression is not specified. All these rules describe only a partial order rather than a total order, since, for example, if two functions are called within one expression with no sequence point between them, the order in which the functions are called is not specified. However, the standards committee have ruled that function calls do not overlap.

It is not specified when between sequence points modifications to the values of objects take effect. Programs whose behavior depends on this have undefined behavior; the C standard specifies that “Between the previous and next sequence point an object shall have its stored value modified at most once by the evaluation of an expression. Furthermore, the prior value shall be read only to determine the value to be stored.”. If a program breaks these rules, the results on any particular implementation are entirely unpredictable.

Examples of code with undefined behavior are a = a++; a[n] = b[n++] and a[i++] = i;. Some more complicated cases are not diagnosed by this option, and it may give an occasional false positive result, but in general it has been found fairly effective at detecting this sort of problem in programs.

The present implementation of this option only works for C programs. A future implementation may also work for C++ programs.

There is some controversy over the precise meaning of the sequence point rules in subtle cases. Links to papers with alternative formal definitions and other related discussions may be found on our readings page http://gcc.gnu.org/readings.html.

-Wreturn-type
Warn whenever a function is defined with a return-type that defaults to int. Also warn about any return statement with no return-value in a function whose return-type is not void.

For C++, a function without return type always produces a diagnostic message, even when ‘-Wno-return-type’ is specified. The only exceptions are ‘main’ and functions defined in system headers.

-Wswitch
Warn whenever a switch statement has an index of enumeral type and lacks a case for one or more of the named codes of that enumeration. (The presence of a default label prevents this warning.) case labels outside the enumeration range also provoke warnings when this option is used.

-Wtrigraphs
Warn if any trigraphs are encountered that might change the meaning of the program (trigraphs within comments are not warned about).

-Wunused-function
Warn whenever a static function is declared but not defined or a non\-inline static function is unused.
-Wunused-label
  Warn whenever a label is declared but not used.
  To suppress this warning use the ‘unused’ attribute (see Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146).

-Wunused-parameter
  Warn whenever a function parameter is unused aside from its declaration.
  To suppress this warning use the ‘unused’ attribute (see Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146).

-Wunused-variable
  Warn whenever a local variable or non-constant static variable is unused aside from its declaration
  To suppress this warning use the ‘unused’ attribute (see Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146).

-Wunused-value
  Warn whenever a statement computes a result that is explicitly not used.
  To suppress this warning cast the expression to ‘void’.

-Wunused
  All all the above ‘-Wunused’ options combined.
  In order to get a warning about an unused function parameter, you must either specify ‘-W -Wunused’ or separately specify ‘-Wunused-parameter’.

-wuninitialized
  Warn if an automatic variable is used without first being initialized or if a variable may be clobbered by a setjmp call.
  These warnings are possible only in optimizing compilation, because they require data flow information that is computed only when optimizing. If you don’t specify ‘-O’, you simply won’t get these warnings.
  These warnings occur only for variables that are candidates for register allocation. Therefore, they do not occur for a variable that is declared volatile, or whose address is taken, or whose size is other than 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes. Also, they do not occur for structures, unions or arrays, even when they are in registers.
  Note that there may be no warning about a variable that is used only to compute a value that itself is never used, because such computations may be deleted by data flow analysis before the warnings are printed.
  These warnings are made optional because GCC is not smart enough to see all the reasons why the code might be correct despite appearing to have an error. Here is one example of how this can happen:

  {  
    int x;
    switch (y)
    {
      case 1: x = 1;
                 break;
      case 2: x = 4;
                 break;
      case 3: x = 5;
    
    }  
    foo (x);
  }

  If the value of y is always 1, 2 or 3, then x is always initialized, but GCC doesn’t know this. Here is another common case:
{  
    int save_y;
    if (change_y) save_y = y, y = new_y;
    ...
    if (change_y) y = save_y;
}

This has no bug because save_y is used only if it is set.

This option also warns when a non-volatile automatic variable might be changed by a call to longjmp. These warnings as well are possible only in optimizing compilation. The compiler sees only the calls to setjmp. It cannot know where longjmp will be called; in fact, a signal handler could call it at any point in the code. As a result, you may get a warning even when there is in fact no problem because longjmp cannot in fact be called at the place which would cause a problem.

Some spurious warnings can be avoided if you declare all the functions you use that never return as noreturn. See Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136.

-Wreorder (C++ only)  
Warn when the order of member initializers given in the code does not match the order in which they must be executed. For instance:

-Wunknown-pragmas  
Warn when a #pragma directive is encountered which is not understood by GCC. If this command line option is used, warnings will even be issued for unknown pragmas in system header files. This is not the case if the warnings were only enabled by the ‘-Wall’ command line option.

-Wall  
All of the above ‘-W’ options combined. This enables all the warnings about constructions that some users consider questionable, and that are easy to avoid (or modify to prevent the warning), even in conjunction with macros.

-Wsystem-headers  
Print warning messages for constructs found in system header files. Warnings from system headers are normally suppressed, on the assumption that they usually do not indicate real problems and would only make the compiler output harder to read. Using this command line option tells GCC to emit warnings from system headers as if they occurred in user code. However, note that using ‘-Wall’ in conjunction with this option will not warn about unknown pragmas in system headers—for that, ‘-Wunknown-pragmas’ must also be used.

The following ‘-W...’ options are not implied by ‘-Wall’. Some of them warn about constructions that users generally do not consider questionable, but which occasionally you might wish to check for; others warn about constructions that are necessary or hard to avoid in some cases, and there is no simple way to modify the code to suppress the warning.

-W  
Print extra warning messages for these events:

- A function can return either with or without a value. (Falling off the end of the function body is considered returning without a value.) For example, this function would evoke such a warning:

    foo (a)  
    {  
        if (a > 0)  
            return a;
    }

- An expression-statement or the left-hand side of a comma expression contains no side effects. To suppress the warning, cast the unused expression to void. For ex-
ample, an expression such as ‘x[i,j]’ will cause a warning, but ‘x[(void)i,j]’ will not.

- An unsigned value is compared against zero with ‘<’ or ‘<=’.
- A comparison like ‘x<y<=z’ appears; this is equivalent to ‘(x<y ? 1 : 0) <= z’, which is a different interpretation from that of ordinary mathematical notation.
- Storage-class specifiers like `static` are not the first things in a declaration. According to the C Standard, this usage is obsolescent.
- The return type of a function has a type qualifier such as `const`. Such a type qualifier has no effect, since the value returned by a function is not an lvalue. (But don’t warn about the GNU extension of `volatile void` return types. That extension will be warned about if ‘-pedantic’ is specified.)
- If ‘-Wall’ or ‘-Wunused’ is also specified, warn about unused arguments.
- A comparison between signed and unsigned values could produce an incorrect result when the signed value is converted to unsigned. (But don’t warn if ‘-Wno-sign-compare’ is also specified.)
- An aggregate has a partly bracketed initializer. For example, the following code would evoke such a warning, because braces are missing around the initializer for x.h:

  ```c
  struct s { int f, g; };
  struct t { struct s h; int i; };
  struct t x = { 1, 2, 3 };
  ```

- An aggregate has an initializer which does not initialize all members. For example, the following code would cause such a warning, because x.h would be implicitly initialized to zero:

  ```c
  struct s { int f, g, h; }
  struct s x = { 3, 4 };
  ```

-Wfloat-equal
Warn if floating point values are used in equality comparisons.

The idea behind this is that sometimes it is convenient (for the programmer) to consider floating-point values as approximations to infinitely precise real numbers. If you are doing this, then you need to compute (by analysing the code, or in some other way) the maximum or likely maximum error that the computation introduces, and allow for it when performing comparisons (and when producing output, but that’s a different problem). In particular, instead of testing for equality, you would check to see whether the two values have ranges that overlap; and this is done with the relational operators, so equality comparisons are probably mistaken.

-Wtraditional (C only)
Warn about certain constructs that behave differently in traditional and ISO C. Also warn about ISO C constructs that have no traditional C equivalent, and/or problematic constructs which should be avoided.

- Macro parameters that appear within string literals in the macro body. In traditional C macro replacement takes place within string literals, but does not in ISO C.
- In traditional C, some preprocessor directives did not exist. Traditional preprocessors would only consider a line to be a directive if the ‘#’ appeared in column 1 on the line. Therefore ‘-Wtraditional’ warns about directives that traditional C understands but would ignore because the ‘#’ does not appear as the first character on the line. It also suggests you hide directives like ‘#pragma’
not understood by traditional C by indenting them. Some traditional imple-
mentations would not recognise ‘#elif’, so it suggests avoiding it altogether.

- A function-like macro that appears without arguments.
- The unary plus operator.
- The ‘U’ integer constant suffix, or the ‘F’ or ‘L’ floating point constant suffixes. (Traditional C does support the ‘L’ suffix on integer constants.) Note, these suffixes appear in macros defined in the system headers of most modern systems, e.g. the ‘_MIN’/’_MAX’ macros in <limits.h>. Use of these macros in user code might normally lead to spurious warnings, however gcc’s integrated preprocessor has enough context to avoid warning in these cases.
- A function declared external in one block and then used after the end of the block.
- A switch statement has an operand of type long.
- A non-static function declaration follows a static one. This construct is not accepted by some traditional C compilers.
- The ISO type of an integer constant has a different width or signedness from its traditional type. This warning is only issued if the base of the constant is ten. I.e. hexadecimal or octal values, which typically represent bit patterns, are not warned about.
- Usage of ISO string concatenation is detected.
- Initialization of automatic aggregates.
- Identifier conflicts with labels. Traditional C lacks a separate namespace for labels.
- Initialization of unions. If the initializer is zero, the warning is omitted. This is done under the assumption that the zero initializer in user code appears conditioned on e.g. _STDC_ to avoid missing initializer warnings and relies on default initialization to zero in the traditional C case.
- Conversions by prototypes between fixed/floating point values and vice versa. The absence of these prototypes when compiling with traditional C would cause serious problems. This is a subset of the possible conversion warnings, for the full set use ‘-Wconversion’.

-Wundef Warn if an undefined identifier is evaluated in an ‘#if’ directive.

-Wshadow Warn whenever a local variable shadows another local variable, parameter or global variable or whenever a built-in function is shadowed.

-Wid-clash=len Warn whenever two distinct identifiers match in the first len characters. This may help you prepare a program that will compile with certain obsolete, brain-damaged compilers.

-Wlarger-than=len Warn whenever an object of larger than len bytes is defined.

-Wpointer-arith Warn about anything that depends on the “size of” a function type or of void. GNU C assigns these types a size of 1, for convenience in calculations with void * pointers and pointers to functions.

-Wbad-function-cast (C only) Warn whenever a function call is cast to a non-matching type. For example, warn if int malloc() is cast to anything *.
-Wcast-qual
Warn whenever a pointer is cast so as to remove a type qualifier from the target type. For example, warn if a const char * is cast to an ordinary char *.

- Wcast-align
Warn whenever a pointer is cast such that the required alignment of the target is increased. For example, warn if a char * is cast to an int * on machines where integers can only be accessed at two- or four-byte boundaries.

- Wwrite-strings
Give string constants the type const char [length] so that copying the address of one into a non-const char * pointer will get a warning. These warnings will help you find at compile time code that can try to write into a string constant, but only if you have been very careful about using const in declarations and prototypes. Otherwise, it will just be a nuisance; this is why we did not make ‘-Wall’ request these warnings.

- Wconversion
Warn if a prototype causes a type conversion that is different from what would happen to the same argument in the absence of a prototype. This includes conversions of fixed point to floating and vice versa, and conversions changing the width or signedness of a fixed point argument except when the same as the default promotion. Also, warn if a negative integer constant expression is implicitly converted to an unsigned type. For example, warn about the assignment x = -1 if x is unsigned. But do not warn about explicit casts like (unsigned) -1.

- Wsign-compare
Warn when a comparison between signed and unsigned values could produce an incorrect result when the signed value is converted to unsigned. This warning is also enabled by ‘-W’; to get the other warnings of ‘-W’ without this warning, use ‘-W -Wno-sign-compare’.

- Waggregate-return
Warn if any functions that return structures or unions are defined or called. (In languages where you can return an array, this also elicits a warning.)

- Wstrict-prototypes (C only)
Warn if a function is declared or defined without specifying the argument types. (An old-style function definition is permitted without a warning if preceded by a declaration which specifies the argument types.)

- Wmissing-prototypes (C only)
Warn if a global function is defined without a previous prototype declaration. This warning is issued even if the definition itself provides a prototype. The aim is to detect global functions that fail to be declared in header files.

- Wmissing-declarations
Warn if a global function is defined without a previous declaration. Do so even if the definition itself provides a prototype. Use this option to detect global functions that are not declared in header files.

- Wmissing-noreturn
Warn about functions which might be candidates for attribute noreturn. Note these are only possible candidates, not absolute ones. Care should be taken to manually verify functions actually do not ever return before adding the noreturn attribute, otherwise subtle code generation bugs could be introduced. You will not get a warning for main in hosted C environments.
-Wmissing-format-attribute
If `-Wformat` is enabled, also warn about functions which might be candidates for format attributes. Note these are only possible candidates, not absolute ones. GCC will guess that format attributes might be appropriate for any function that calls a function like `vprintf` or `vsprintf`, but this might not always be the case, and some functions for which format attributes are appropriate may not be detected. This option has no effect unless `-Wformat` is enabled (possibly by `-Wall`).

-Wpacked
Warn if a structure is given the packed attribute, but the packed attribute has no effect on the layout or size of the structure. Such structures may be mis-aligned for little benefit. For instance, in this code, the variable `f.x` in `struct bar` will be misaligned even though `struct bar` does not itself have the packed attribute:

```c
struct foo {
  int x;
  char a, b, c, d;
} __attribute__((packed));
struct bar {
  char z;
  struct foo f;
};
```

-Wpadded
Warn if padding is included in a structure, either to align an element of the structure or to align the whole structure. Sometimes when this happens it is possible to rearrange the fields of the structure to reduce the padding and so make the structure smaller.

-Wredundant-decls
Warn if anything is declared more than once in the same scope, even in cases where multiple declaration is valid and changes nothing.

-WhnestedExterns (C only)
Warn if an `extern` declaration is encountered within a function.

-Wunreachable-code
Warn if the compiler detects that code will never be executed.
This option is intended to warn when the compiler detects that at least a whole line of source code will never be executed, because some condition is never satisfied or because it is after a procedure that never returns.
It is possible for this option to produce a warning even though there are circumstances under which part of the affected line can be executed, so care should be taken when removing apparently-unreachable code.
For instance, when a function is inlined, a warning may mean that the line is unreachable in only one inlined copy of the function.
This option is not made part of `-Wall` because in a debugging version of a program there is often substantial code which checks correct functioning of the program and is, hopefully, unreachable because the program does work. Another common use of unreachable code is to provide behaviour which is selectable at compile-time.

-Winline
Warn if a function can not be inlined and it was declared as inline.

-Wlong-long
Warn if `long long` type is used. This is default. To inhibit the warning messages, use `-Wno-long-long`. Flags `-Wlong-long` and `-Wno-long-long` are taken into account only when `-pedantic` flag is used.

-Wdisabled-optimization
Warn if a requested optimization pass is disabled. This warning does not generally indicate that there is anything wrong with your code; it merely indicates that GCC’s
optimizers were unable to handle the code effectively. Often, the problem is that your code is too big or too complex; GCC will refuse to optimize programs when the optimization itself is likely to take inordinate amounts of time.

-Werror Make all warnings into errors.

3.9 Options for Debugging Your Program or GCC

GCC has various special options that are used for debugging either your program or GCC:

-**g** Produce debugging information in the operating system’s native format (stabs, COFF, XCOFF, or DWARF). GDB can work with this debugging information.

On most systems that use stabs format, `-g` enables use of extra debugging information that only GDB can use; this extra information makes debugging work better in GDB but will probably make other debuggers crash or refuse to read the program. If you want to control for certain whether to generate the extra information, use `-gstabs+`, `-gstabs`, `-gxcoff+`, `-gxcoff`, `-gdwarf-1+`, or `'-gdwarf-1'` (see below).

Unlike most other C compilers, GCC allows you to use `-g` with `-O`. The shortcuts taken by optimized code may occasionally produce surprising results: some variables you declared may not exist at all; flow of control may briefly move where you did not expect it; some statements may not be executed because they compute constant results or their values were already at hand; some statements may execute in different places because they were moved out of loops.

Nevertheless it proves possible to debug optimized output. This makes it reasonable to use the optimizer for programs that might have bugs.

The following options are useful when GCC is generated with the capability for more than one debugging format.

-**ggdb** Produce debugging information for use by GDB. This means to use the most expressive format available (DWARF 2, stabs, or the native format if neither of those are supported), including GDB extensions if at all possible.

-**gstabs** Produce debugging information in stabs format (if that is supported), without GDB extensions. This is the format used by DBX on most BSD systems. On MIPS, Alpha and System V Release 4 systems this option produces stabs debugging output which is not understood by DBX or SDB. On System V Release 4 systems this option requires the GNU assembler.

-**gstabs+** Produce debugging information in stabs format (if that is supported), using GNU extensions understood only by the GNU debugger (GDB). The use of these extensions is likely to make other debuggers crash or refuse to read the program.

-**gcoff** Produce debugging information in COFF format (if that is supported). This is the format used by SDB on most System V systems prior to System V Release 4.

-**gxcoff** Produce debugging information in XCOFF format (if that is supported). This is the format used by the DBX debugger on IBM RS/6000 systems.

-**gxcoff+** Produce debugging information in XCOFF format (if that is supported), using GNU extensions understood only by the GNU debugger (GDB). The use of these extensions is likely to make other debuggers crash or refuse to read the program, and may cause assemblers other than the GNU assembler (GAS) to fail with an error.

-**gdwarf** Produce debugging information in DWARF version 1 format (if that is supported). This is the format used by SDB on most System V Release 4 systems.
-gdwarf+
Produce debugging information in DWARF version 1 format (if that is supported), using GNU extensions understood only by the GNU debugger (GDB). The use of these extensions is likely to make other debuggers crash or refuse to read the program.

-gdwarf-2
Produce debugging information in DWARF version 2 format (if that is supported). This is the format used by DBX on IRIX 6.

-g level
-ggdb level
-gstabs level
-gcoff level
-gxcoff level
-gdwarf level
-gdwarf-2 level
Request debugging information and also use level to specify how much information. The default level is 2.
Level 1 produces minimal information, enough for making backtraces in parts of the program that you don’t plan to debug. This includes descriptions of functions and external variables, but no information about local variables and no line numbers.
Level 3 includes extra information, such as all the macro definitions present in the program. Some debuggers support macro expansion when you use ‘-g3’.

-p
Generate extra code to write profile information suitable for the analysis program prof. You must use this option when compiling the source files you want data about, and you must also use it when linking.

-pg
Generate extra code to write profile information suitable for the analysis program gprof. You must use this option when compiling the source files you want data about, and you must also use it when linking.

-a
Generate extra code to profile basic blocks, which will record the number of times each basic block is executed, the basic block start address, and the function name containing the basic block. If ‘-g’ is used, the line number and filename of the start of the basic block will also be recorded. If not overridden by the machine description, the default action is to append to the text file ‘bb.out’.
This data could be analyzed by a program like tcov. Note, however, that the format of the data is not what tcov expects. Eventually GNU gprof should be extended to process this data.

-Q
Makes the compiler print out each function name as it is compiled, and print some statistics about each pass when it finishes.

-ftime-report
Makes the compiler print some statistics about the time consumed by each pass when it finishes.

-fmem-report
Makes the compiler print some statistics about permanent memory allocation when it finishes.

-ax
Generate extra code to profile basic blocks. Your executable will produce output that is a superset of that produced when ‘-a’ is used. Additional output is the source and target address of the basic blocks where a jump takes place, the number of times a jump is executed, and (optionally) the complete sequence of basic blocks being executed. The output is appended to file ‘bb.out’.
You can examine different profiling aspects without recompilation. Your executable will read a list of function names from file ‘bb.in’. Profiling starts when a function on the list is entered and stops when that invocation is exited. To exclude a function from profiling, prefix its name with ‘-’. If a function name is not unique, you can disambiguate it by writing it in the form ‘/path/filename.d:functionname’. Your executable will write the available paths and filenames in file ‘bb.out’.

Several function names have a special meaning:

__bb_jumps__
Write source, target and frequency of jumps to file ‘bb.out’.

__bb_hidecall__
Exclude function calls from frequency count.

__bb_showret__
Include function returns in frequency count.

__bb_trace__
Write the sequence of basic blocks executed to file ‘bbtrace.gz’. The file will be compressed using the program ‘gzip’, which must exist in your PATH. On systems without the ‘popen’ function, the file will be named ‘bbtrace’ and will not be compressed. Profiling for even a few seconds on these systems will produce a very large file. Note: __bb_hidecall__ and __bb_showret__ will not affect the sequence written to ‘bbtrace.gz’.

Here’s a short example using different profiling parameters in file ‘bb.in’. Assume function foo consists of basic blocks 1 and 2 and is called twice from block 3 of function main. After the calls, block 3 transfers control to block 4 of main.

With __bb_trace__ and main contained in file ‘bb.in’, the following sequence of blocks is written to file ‘bbtrace.gz’: 0 3 1 2 1 2 4. The return from block 2 to block 3 is not shown, because the return is to a point inside the block and not to the top. The block address 0 always indicates, that control is transferred from somewhere outside the observed functions. With ‘-foo’ added to ‘bb.in’, the blocks of function foo are removed from the trace, so only 0 3 4 remains.

With __bb_jumps__ and main contained in file ‘bb.in’, jump frequencies will be written to file ‘bb.out’. The frequencies are obtained by constructing a trace of blocks and incrementing a counter for every neighbouring pair of blocks in the trace. The trace 0 3 1 2 1 2 4 displays the following frequencies:

Jump from block 0x0 to block 0x3 executed 1 time(s)
Jump from block 0x3 to block 0x1 executed 1 time(s)
Jump from block 0x1 to block 0x2 executed 2 time(s)
Jump from block 0x2 to block 0x1 executed 1 time(s)
Jump from block 0x2 to block 0x4 executed 1 time(s)

With __bb_hidecall__, control transfer due to call instructions is removed from the trace, that is the trace is cut into three parts: 0 3 4, 0 1 2 and 0 1 2. With __bb_showret__, control transfer due to return instructions is added to the trace. The trace becomes: 0 3 1 2 3 1 2 3 4. Note, that this trace is not the same, as the sequence written to ‘bbtrace.gz’. It is solely used for counting jump frequencies.

-fprofile-arcs
Instrument arcs during compilation. For each function of your program, GCC creates a program flow graph, then finds a spanning tree for the graph. Only arcs that are not on the spanning tree have to be instrumented: the compiler adds code to count the number of times that these arcs are executed. When an arc is the only
exit or only entrance to a block, the instrumentation code can be added to the block; otherwise, a new basic block must be created to hold the instrumentation code. Since not every arc in the program must be instrumented, programs compiled with this option run faster than programs compiled with ‘-a’, which adds instrumentation code to every basic block in the program. The tradeoff: since gcov does not have execution counts for all branches, it must start with the execution counts for the instrumented branches, and then iterate over the program flow graph until the entire graph has been solved. Hence, gcov runs a little more slowly than a program which uses information from ‘-a’. ‘-fprofile-arcs’ also makes it possible to estimate branch probabilities, and to calculate basic block execution counts. In general, basic block execution counts do not give enough information to estimate all branch probabilities. When the compiled program exits, it saves the arc execution counts to a file called ‘sourcename.da’. Use the compiler option ‘-fbranch-probabilities’ (see Section 3.10 [Options that Control Optimization], page 38) when recompiling, to optimize using estimated branch probabilities.

-fftest-coverage
Create data files for the gcov code-coverage utility (see Chapter 8 [gcov: a GCC Test Coverage Program], page 181). The data file names begin with the name of your source file:

sourcename.bb
A mapping from basic blocks to line numbers, which gcov uses to associate basic block execution counts with line numbers.

sourcename.bbg
A list of all arcs in the program flow graph. This allows gcov to reconstruct the program flow graph, so that it can compute all basic block and arc execution counts from the information in the sourcename.da file (this last file is the output from ‘-fprofile-arcs’).

-dletters
Says to make debugging dumps during compilation at times specified by letters. This is used for debugging the compiler. The file names for most of the dumps are made by appending a pass number and a word to the source file name (e.g. ‘foo.c.00.rtl’ or ‘foo.c.01.sibling’). Here are the possible letters for use in letters, and their meanings:

‘A’ Annotate the assembler output with miscellaneous debugging information.

‘b’ Dump after computing branch probabilities, to ‘file.11.bp’.

‘B’ Dump after block reordering, to ‘file.26.bbro’.

‘c’ Dump after instruction combination, to the file ‘file.14.combine’.

‘C’ Dump after the first if conversion, to the file ‘file.15.ce’.

‘d’ Dump after delayed branch scheduling, to ‘file.29.dbr’.

‘D’ Dump all macro definitions, at the end of preprocessing, in addition to normal output.

‘e’ Dump after SSA optimizations, to ‘file.05.ssa’ and ‘file.06.ussa’.

‘E’ Dump after the second if conversion, to ‘file.24.ce2’.

‘f’ Dump after life analysis, to ‘file.13.life’.

‘F’ Dump after purging ADDRESSOF codes, to ‘file.04.addressof’.
‘g’  Dump after global register allocation, to ‘file.19.greg’.
‘o’  Dump after post-reload CSE and other optimizations, to ‘file.20.postreload’.
‘G’  Dump after GCSE, to ‘file.08.gcse’.
‘i’  Dump after sibling call optimizations, to ‘file.01.sibling’.
‘j’  Dump after the first jump optimization, to ‘file.02.jump’.
‘J’  Dump after the last jump optimization, to ‘file.27.jump2’.
‘k’  Dump after conversion from registers to stack, to ‘file.29.stack’.
‘l’  Dump after local register allocation, to ‘file.18.lreg’.
‘L’  Dump after loop optimization, to ‘file.09.loop’.
‘M’  Dump after performing the machine dependent reorganisation pass, to ‘file.28.mach’.
‘n’  Dump after register renumbering, to ‘file.23.rnreg’.
‘N’  Dump after the register move pass, to ‘file.16.regmove’.
‘r’  Dump after RTL generation, to ‘file.00.rtl’.
‘R’  Dump after the second instruction scheduling pass, to ‘file.25.sched2’.
‘s’  Dump after CSE (including the jump optimization that sometimes follows CSE), to ‘file.03.cse’.
‘S’  Dump after the first instruction scheduling pass, to ‘file.17.sched’.
‘t’  Dump after the second CSE pass (including the jump optimization that sometimes follows CSE), to ‘file.10.cse2’.
‘w’  Dump after the second flow pass, to ‘file.21.flow2’.
‘X’  Dump after dead code elimination, to ‘file.06.dce’.
‘z’  Dump after the peephole pass, to ‘file.22.peephole2’.
‘a’  Produce all the dumps listed above.
‘m’  Print statistics on memory usage, at the end of the run, to standard error.
‘p’  Annotate the assembler output with a comment indicating which pattern and alternative was used. The length of each instruction is also printed.
‘P’  Dump the RTL in the assembler output as a comment before each instruction. Also turns on ‘-dp’ annotation.
‘v’  For each of the other indicated dump files (except for ‘file.00.rtl’), dump a representation of the control flow graph suitable for viewing with VCG to ‘file.pass.vcg’.
‘x’  Just generate RTL for a function instead of compiling it. Usually used with ‘r’.
‘y’  Dump debugging information during parsing, to standard error.

-fdump-unnumbered
When doing debugging dumps (see ‘-d’ option above), suppress instruction numbers and line number note output. This makes it more feasible to use diff on debugging dumps for compiler invocations with different options, in particular with and without ‘-g’.
-fdump-translation-unit (C and C++ only)
- fdump-translation-unit-number (C and C++ only)
  Dump a representation of the tree structure for the entire translation unit to a file. The file name is made by appending ‘.tu’ to the source file name. If the ‘-number’ form is used, number controls the details of the dump as described for the ‘-fdump-tree’ options.

-fdump-class-hierarchy (C++ only)
-fdump-class-hierarchy-number (C++ only)
  Dump a representation of each class’s hierarchy and virtual function table layout to a file. The file name is made by appending ‘.class’ to the source file name. If the ‘-number’ form is used, number controls the details of the dump as described for the ‘-fdump-tree’ options.

-fdump-ast-switch (C++ only)
-fdump-ast-switch-number (C++ only)
  Control the dumping at various stages of processing the abstract syntax tree to a file. The file name is generated by appending a switch specific suffix to the source file name. If the ‘-number’ form is used, number is a bit mask which controls the details of the dump. The following bits are meaningful (these are not set symbolically, as the primary function of these dumps is for debugging gcc itself):

  ‘bit0 (1)’ Print the address of each node. Usually this is not meaningful as it changes according to the environment and source file.
  ‘bit1 (2)’ Inhibit dumping of members of a scope or body of a function, unless they are reachable by some other path.

  The following tree dumps are possible:

  ‘original’
    Dump before any tree based optimization, to ‘file.original’.
  ‘optimized’
    Dump after all tree based optimization, to ‘file.optimized’.

-fpretend-float
  When running a cross-compiler, pretend that the target machine uses the same floating point format as the host machine. This causes incorrect output of the actual floating constants, but the actual instruction sequence will probably be the same as GCC would make when running on the target machine.

-save-temps
  Store the usual “temporary” intermediate files permanently; place them in the current directory and name them based on the source file. Thus, compiling ‘foo.c’ with ‘-c -save-temps’ would produce files ‘foo.i’ and ‘foo.s’, as well as ‘foo.o’. This creates a preprocessed ‘foo.i’ output file even though the compiler now normally uses an integrated preprocessor.

-time
  Report the CPU time taken by each subprocess in the compilation sequence. For C source files, this is the compiler proper and assembler (plus the linker if linking is done). The output looks like this:

  # cc1 0.12 0.01
  # as 0.00 0.01

  The first number on each line is the “user time,” that is time spent executing the program itself. The second number is “system time,” time spent executing operating system routines on behalf of the program. Both numbers are in seconds.
-print-file-name=library
Print the full absolute name of the library file library that would be used when
linking—and don’t do anything else. With this option, GCC does not compile or
link anything; it just prints the file name.

-print-multi-directory
Print the directory name corresponding to the multilib selected by any other switches
present in the command line. This directory is supposed to exist in GCC_EXEC_PREF.

-print-multi-lib
Print the mapping from multilib directory names to compiler switches that enable
them. The directory name is separated from the switches by ‘;’, and each switch
starts with an ‘@’ instead of the ‘-’, without spaces between multiple switches. This
is supposed to ease shell-processing.

-print-prog-name=program
Like ‘-print-file-name’, but searches for a program such as ‘cpp’.

-print-libgcc-file-name
Same as ‘-print-file-name=libgcc.a’.
This is useful when you use ‘-nostdlib’ or ‘-nodefaultlibs’ but you do want to
link with ‘libgcc.a’. You can do
gcc -nostdlib files... ‘gcc -print-libgcc-file-name’

-print-search-dirs
Print the name of the configured installation directory and a list of program and
library directories gcc will search—and don’t do anything else.
This is useful when gcc prints the error message ‘installation problem, cannot
exec cpp0: No such file or directory’. To resolve this you either need to put
‘cpp0’ and the other compiler components where gcc expects to find them, or you
can set the environment variable GCC_EXEC_PREFIX to the directory where you in-
stalled them. Don’t forget the trailing ‘/’. See Section 3.19 [Environment Variables],
page 107.

-dumpmachine
Print the compiler’s target machine (for example, ‘i686-pc-linux-gnu’)—and don’t
do anything else.

-dumpversion
Print the compiler version (for example, ‘3.0’)—and don’t do anything else.

-dumpspecs
Print the compiler’s built-in specs—and don’t do anything else. (This is used when
GCC itself is being built.) See Section 3.15 [Spec Files], page 52.

3.10 Options That Control Optimization

These options control various sorts of optimizations:

-0
-01 Optimize. Optimizing compilation takes somewhat more time, and a lot more mem-
ory for a large function.
Without ‘-0’, the compiler’s goal is to reduce the cost of compilation and to make
debugging produce the expected results. Statements are independent: if you stop
the program with a breakpoint between statements, you can then assign a new value
to any variable or change the program counter to any other statement in the function and get exactly the results you would expect from the source code.

Without `-O`, the compiler only allocates variables declared `register` in registers. The resulting compiled code is a little worse than produced by PCC without `-O`. With `-O`, the compiler tries to reduce code size and execution time.

When you specify `-O`, the compiler turns on `-fthread-jumps` and `-fdefer-pop` on all machines. The compiler turns on `-fdelayed-branch` on machines that have delay slots, and `-fomit-frame-pointer` on machines that can support debugging even without a frame pointer. On some machines the compiler also turns on other flags.

- `-O2`: Optimize even more. GCC performs nearly all supported optimizations that do not involve a space-speed tradeoff. The compiler does not perform loop unrolling or function inlining when you specify `-O2`. As compared to `-O`, this option increases both compilation time and the performance of the generated code.

- `-O3`: Optimize yet more. `-O3` turns on all optimizations specified by `-O2` and also turns on the `-finline-functions` and `-frename-registers` options.

- `-O0`: Do not optimize.

- `-Os`: Optimize for size. `-Os` enables all `-O2` optimizations that do not typically increase code size. It also performs further optimizations designed to reduce code size. If you use multiple `-O` options, with or without level numbers, the last such option is the one that is effective.

Options of the form `-fflag` specify machine-independent flags. Most flags have both positive and negative forms; the negative form of `-ffoo` would be `-fno-foo`. In the table below, only one of the forms is listed—the one which is not the default. You can figure out the other form by either removing `no-` or adding it.

- `-ffloat-store`: Do not store floating point variables in registers, and inhibit other options that might change whether a floating point value is taken from a register or memory. This option prevents undesirable excess precision on machines such as the 68000 where the floating registers (of the 68881) keep more precision than a `double` is supposed to have. Similarly for the x86 architecture. For most programs, the excess precision does only good, but a few programs rely on the precise definition of IEEE floating point. Use `-ffloat-store` for such programs, after modifying them to store all pertinent intermediate computations into variables.

- `-fno-default-inline`: Do not make member functions inline by default merely because they are defined inside the class scope (C++ only). Otherwise, when you specify `-O`, member functions defined inside class scope are compiled inline by default; i.e., you don’t need to add ‘inline’ in front of the member function name.

- `-fno-defer-pop`: Always pop the arguments to each function call as soon as that function returns. For machines which must pop arguments after a function call, the compiler normally lets arguments accumulate on the stack for several function calls and pops them all at once.
-fforce-mem
Force memory operands to be copied into registers before doing arithmetic on them. This produces better code by making all memory references potential common subexpressions. When they are not common subexpressions, instruction combination should eliminate the separate register-load. The ‘-O2’ option turns on this option.

-fforce-addr
Force memory address constants to be copied into registers before doing arithmetic on them. This may produce better code just as ‘-fforce-mem’ may.

-fomit-frame-pointer
Don’t keep the frame pointer in a register for functions that don’t need one. This avoids the instructions to save, set up and restore frame pointers; it also makes an extra register available in many functions. It also makes debugging impossible on some machines.
On some machines, such as the Vax, this flag has no effect, because the standard calling sequence automatically handles the frame pointer and nothing is saved by pretending it doesn’t exist. The machine-description macro FRAME_POINTER_REQUIRED controls whether a target machine supports this flag. See Section 21.6 [Registers], page 367.

-foptimize-sibling-calls
Optimize sibling and tail recursive calls.

-ftrapv
This option generates traps for signed overflow on addition, subtraction, multiplication operations.

-fno-inline
Don’t pay attention to the inline keyword. Normally this option is used to keep the compiler from expanding any functions inline. Note that if you are not optimizing, no functions can be expanded inline.

-finline-functions
Integrate all simple functions into their callers. The compiler heuristically decides which functions are simple enough to be worth integrating in this way.
If all calls to a given function are integrated, and the function is declared static, then the function is normally not output as assembler code in its own right.

-finline-limit=n
By default, gcc limits the size of functions that can be inlined. This flag allows the control of this limit for functions that are explicitly marked as inline (ie marked with the inline keyword or defined within the class definition in c++). n is the size of functions that can be inlined in number of pseudo instructions (not counting parameter handling). The default value of n is 10000. Increasing this value can result in more inline code at the cost of compilation time and memory consumption. Decreasing usually makes the compilation faster and less code will be inlined (which presumably means slower programs). This option is particularly useful for programs that use inlining heavily such as those based on recursive templates with c++.
Note: pseudo instruction represents, in this particular context, an abstract measurement of function’s size. In no way, it represents a count of assembly instructions and as such its exact meaning might change from one release to another.

-fkeep-inline-functions
Even if all calls to a given function are integrated, and the function is declared static, nevertheless output a separate run-time callable version of the function. This switch does not affect extern inline functions.
-fkeep-static-consts
Emit variables declared static const when optimization isn’t turned on, even if the variables aren’t referenced.
GCC enables this option by default. If you want to force the compiler to check if the variable was referenced, regardless of whether or not optimization is turned on, use the ‘-fno-keep-static-consts’ option.

-fno-function-cse
Do not put function addresses in registers; make each instruction that calls a constant function contain the function’s address explicitly.
This option results in less efficient code, but some strange hacks that alter the assembler output may be confused by the optimizations performed when this option is not used.

-ffast-math
This option allows GCC to violate some ISO or IEEE rules and/or specifications in the interest of optimizing code for speed. For example, it allows the compiler to assume arguments to the sqrt function are non-negative numbers and that no floating-point values are NaNs.
This option causes the preprocessor macro __FAST_MATH__ to be defined.
This option should never be turned on by any ‘-O’ option since it can result in incorrect output for programs which depend on an exact implementation of IEEE or ISO rules/specifications for math functions.

-fno-math-errno
Do not set ERRNO after calling math functions that are executed with a single instruction, e.g., sqrt. A program that relies on IEEE exceptions for math error handling may want to use this flag for speed while maintaining IEEE arithmetic compatibility.
The default is ‘-fmath-errno’. The ‘-ffast-math’ option sets ‘-fno-math-errno’.
The following options control specific optimizations. The ‘-02’ option turns on all of these optimizations except ‘-funroll-loops’ and ‘-funroll-all-loops’. On most machines, the ‘-O’ option turns on the ‘-fthread-jumps’ and ‘-fdelayed-branch’ options, but specific machines may handle it differently.
You can use the following flags in the rare cases when “fine-tuning” of optimizations to be performed is desired.

-fstrength-reduce
Perform the optimizations of loop strength reduction and elimination of iteration variables.

-fthread-jumps
Perform optimizations where we check to see if a jump branches to a location where another comparison subsumed by the first is found. If so, the first branch is redirected to either the destination of the second branch or a point immediately following it, depending on whether the condition is known to be true or false.

-fcse-follow-jumps
In common subexpression elimination, scan through jump instructions when the target of the jump is not reached by any other path. For example, when CSE encounters an if statement with an else clause, CSE will follow the jump when the condition tested is false.

-fcse-skip-blocks
This is similar to ‘-fcse-follow-jumps’, but causes CSE to follow jumps which conditionally skip over blocks. When CSE encounters a simple if statement with
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no else clause, ‘-fcse-skip-blocks’ causes CSE to follow the jump around the body of the if.

-frerun-cse-after-loop
Re-run common subexpression elimination after loop optimizations has been performed.

-frerun-loop-opt
Run the loop optimizer twice.

-fgcse
Perform a global common subexpression elimination pass. This pass also performs global constant and copy propagation.

-fdelete-null-pointer-checks
Use global dataflow analysis to identify and eliminate useless null pointer checks. Programs which rely on NULL pointer dereferences not halting the program may not work properly with this option. Use -fno-delete-null-pointer-checks to disable this optimizing for programs which depend on that behavior.

-fexpensive-optimizations
Perform a number of minor optimizations that are relatively expensive.

-foptimize-register-move
-ffregmove
Attempt to reassign register numbers in move instructions and as operands of other simple instructions in order to maximize the amount of register tying. This is especially helpful on machines with two-operand instructions. GCC enables this optimization by default with ‘-O2’ or higher.

Note ‘-fregmove’ and ‘-foptimize-register-move’ are the same optimization.

-fdelayed-branch
If supported for the target machine, attempt to reorder instructions to exploit instruction slots available after delayed branch instructions.

-fschedule-insns
If supported for the target machine, attempt to reorder instructions to eliminate execution stalls due to required data being unavailable. This helps machines that have slow floating point or memory load instructions by allowing other instructions to be issued until the result of the load or floating point instruction is required.

-fschedule-insns2
Similar to ‘-fschedule-insns’, but requests an additional pass of instruction scheduling after register allocation has been done. This is especially useful on machines with a relatively small number of registers and where memory load instructions take more than one cycle.

-ffunction-sections
-fdata-sections
Place each function or data item into its own section in the output file if the target supports arbitrary sections. The name of the function or the name of the data item determines the section’s name in the output file.

Use these options on systems where the linker can perform optimizations to improve locality of reference in the instruction space. HPPA processors running HP-UX and Sparc processors running Solaris 2 have linkers with such optimizations. Other systems using the ELF object format as well as AIX may have these optimizations in the future.

Only use these options when there are significant benefits from doing so. When you specify these options, the assembler and linker will create larger object and
executable files and will also be slower. You will not be able to use `gprof` on all systems if you specify this option and you may have problems with debugging if you specify both this option and `-g`.

`-fcaller-saves`
Enable values to be allocated in registers that will be clobbered by function calls, by emitting extra instructions to save and restore the registers around such calls. Such allocation is done only when it seems to result in better code than would otherwise be produced.

This option is always enabled by default on certain machines, usually those which have no call-preserved registers to use instead.

For all machines, optimization level 2 and higher enables this flag by default.

`-funroll-loops`
Perform the optimization of loop unrolling. This is only done for loops whose number of iterations can be determined at compile time or run time. `-funroll-loops` implies both `-fstrength-reduce` and `-frerun-cse-after-loop`.

`-funroll-all-loops`
Perform the optimization of loop unrolling. This is done for all loops and usually makes programs run more slowly. `-funroll-all-loops` implies `-fstrength-reduce` as well as `-frerun-cse-after-loop`.

`-fmove-all-movables`
Forces all invariant computations in loops to be moved outside the loop.

`-freduce-all-givs`
Forces all general-induction variables in loops to be strength-reduced.

*Note:* When compiling programs written in Fortran, `-fmove-all-movables` and `-freduce-all-givs` are enabled by default when you use the optimizer.

These options may generate better or worse code; results are highly dependent on the structure of loops within the source code.

These two options are intended to be removed someday, once they have helped determine the efficacy of various approaches to improving loop optimizations.

Please let us (gcc@gcc.gnu.org and fortran@gnu.org) know how use of these options affects the performance of your production code. We’re very interested in code that runs slower when these options are enabled.

`-fno-peephole`
`-fno-peephole2`
Disable any machine-specific peephole optimizations. The difference between `-fno-peephole` and `-fno-peephole2` is in how they are implemented in the compiler; some targets use one, some use the other, a few use both.

`-fbranch-probabilities`
After running a program compiled with `-fprofile-arcs` (see Section 3.9 [Options for Debugging Your Program or gcc], page 32), you can compile it a second time using `-fbranch-probabilities`, to improve optimizations based on guessing the path a branch might take.

With `-fbranch-probabilities`, GCC puts a `REG_EXEC_COUNT` note on the first instruction of each basic block, and a `REG_BR_PROB` note on each `JUMP_INSN` and `CALL_INSN`. These can be used to improve optimization. Currently, they are only used in one place: in `reorg.c`, instead of guessing which path a branch is mostly to take, the `REG_BR_PROB` values are used to exactly determine which path is taken more often.
-fno-guess-branch-probability
Sometimes gcc will opt to guess branch probabilities when none are available from either profile directed feedback ('
-fprofile-arcs') or '__builtin_expect'. In a hard real-time system, people don’t want different runs of the compiler to produce code that has different behavior; minimizing non-determinism is of paramount import. This switch allows users to reduce non-determinism, possibly at the expense of inferior optimization.

-fstrict-aliasing
Allows the compiler to assume the strictest aliasing rules applicable to the language being compiled. For C (and C++), this activates optimizations based on the type of expressions. In particular, an object of one type is assumed never to reside at the same address as an object of a different type, unless the types are almost the same. For example, an unsigned int can alias an int, but not a void* or a double. A character type may alias any other type.
Pay special attention to code like this:

```c
union a_union {
    int i;
    double d;
};

int f() {
    a_union t;
    t.d = 3.0;
    return t.i;
}
```
The practice of reading from a different union member than the one most recently written to (called “type-punning”) is common. Even with ‘-fstrict-aliasing’, type-punning is allowed, provided the memory is accessed through the union type. So, the code above will work as expected. However, this code might not:

```c
int f() {
    a_union t;
    int* ip;
    t.d = 3.0;
    ip = &t.i;
    return *ip;
}
```
Every language that wishes to perform language-specific alias analysis should define a function that computes, given an tree node, an alias set for the node. Nodes in different alias sets are not allowed to alias. For an example, see the C front-end function c_get_alias_set.

-falign-functions
-falign-functions=n
Align the start of functions to the next power-of-two greater than n, skipping up to n bytes. For instance, ‘-falign-functions=32’ aligns functions to the next 32-byte boundary, but ‘-falign-functions=24’ would align to the next 32-byte boundary only if this can be done by skipping 23 bytes or less.
‘-fno-align-functions’ and ‘-falign-functions=1’ are equivalent and mean that functions will not be aligned.
Some assemblers only support this flag when n is a power of two; in that case, it is rounded up.
If n is not specified, use a machine-dependent default.
-falign-labels
-\texttt{falign-labels}=n
Align all branch targets to a power-of-two boundary, skipping up to \(n\) bytes like \texttt{falign-functions}. This option can easily make code slower, because it must insert dummy operations for when the branch target is reached in the usual flow of the code.

If \texttt{falign-loops} or \texttt{falign-jumps} are applicable and are greater than this value, then their values are used instead.

If \(n\) is not specified, use a machine-dependent default which is very likely to be ‘1’, meaning no alignment.

-\texttt{falign-loops}
-\texttt{falign-loops}=n
Align loops to a power-of-two boundary, skipping up to \(n\) bytes like \texttt{falign-functions}. The hope is that the loop will be executed many times, which will make up for any execution of the dummy operations.

If \(n\) is not specified, use a machine-dependent default.

-\texttt{falign-jumps}
-\texttt{falign-jumps}=n
Align branch targets to a power-of-two boundary, for branch targets where the targets can only be reached by jumping, skipping up to \(n\) bytes like \texttt{falign-functions}. In this case, no dummy operations need be executed.

If \(n\) is not specified, use a machine-dependent default.

-\texttt{fssa}
Perform optimizations in static single assignment form. Each function’s flow graph is translated into SSA form, optimizations are performed, and the flow graph is translated back from SSA form. Users should not specify this option, since it is not yet ready for production use.

-\texttt{fdce}
Perform dead-code elimination in SSA form. Requires \texttt{fssa}. Like \texttt{fssa}, this is an experimental feature.

-\texttt{fsingle-precision-constant}
Treat floating point constant as single precision constant instead of implicitly converting it to double precision constant.

-\texttt{frename-registers}
Attempt to avoid false dependencies in scheduled code by making use of registers left over after register allocation. This optimization will most benefit processors with lots of registers. It can, however, make debugging impossible, since variables will no longer stay in a “home register”.

\texttt{--param\ name=value}
In some places, GCC uses various constants to control the amount of optimization that is done. For example, GCC will not inline functions that contain more than a certain number of instructions. You can control some of these constants on the command-line using the \texttt{--param} option.

In each case, the \texttt{value} is an integer. The allowable choices for \texttt{name} are given in the following table:

\texttt{max-delay-slot-insn-search}
The maximum number of instructions to consider when looking for an instruction to fill a delay slot. If more than this arbitrary number of instructions is searched, the time savings from filling the delay slot will be minimal so stop searching. Increasing values mean more aggressive optimization, making the compile time increase with probably small improvement in executable run time.
max-delay-slot-live-search
When trying to fill delay slots, the maximum number of instructions to consider when searching for a block with valid live register information. Increasing this arbitrarily chosen value means more aggressive optimization, increasing the compile time. This parameter should be removed when the delay slot code is rewritten to maintain the control-flow graph.

max-gcse-memory
The approximate maximum amount of memory that will be allocated in order to perform the global common subexpression elimination optimization. If more memory than specified is required, the optimization will not be done.

max-inline-insns
If a function contains more than this many instructions, it will not be inlined. This option is precisely equivalent to ‘-finline-limit’.

3.11 Options Controlling the Preprocessor

These options control the C preprocessor, which is run on each C source file before actual compilation.

If you use the ‘-E’ option, nothing is done except preprocessing. Some of these options make sense only together with ‘-E’ because they cause the preprocessor output to be unsuitable for actual compilation.

#include file
Process file as input before processing the regular input file. In effect, the contents of file are compiled first. Any ‘-D’ and ‘-U’ options on the command line are always processed before ‘-include file’, regardless of the order in which they are written. All the ‘-include’ and ‘-imacros’ options are processed in the order in which they are written.

-imacros file
Process file as input, discarding the resulting output, before processing the regular input file. Because the output generated from file is discarded, the only effect of ‘-imacros file’ is to make the macros defined in file available for use in the main input. All the ‘-include’ and ‘-imacros’ options are processed in the order in which they are written.

-idirafter dir
Add the directory dir to the second include path. The directories on the second include path are searched when a header file is not found in any of the directories in the main include path (the one that ‘-I’ adds to).

-iprefix prefix
Specify prefix as the prefix for subsequent ‘-iwithprefix’ options.

-iwithprefix dir
Add a directory to the second include path. The directory’s name is made by concatenating prefix and dir, where prefix was specified previously with ‘-iprefix’. If you have not specified a prefix yet, the directory containing the installed passes of the compiler is used as the default.

-iwithprefixbefore dir
Add a directory to the main include path. The directory’s name is made by concatenating prefix and dir, as in the case of ‘-iwithprefix’.
-isystem dir
Add a directory to the beginning of the second include path, marking it as a system
directory, so that it gets the same special treatment as is applied to the standard
system directories.

-nostdinc
Do not search the standard system directories for header files. Only the directories
you have specified with `-I` options (and the current directory, if appropriate) are
searched. See Section 3.14 [Directory Options], page 51, for information on `-I`.
By using both `-nostdinc` and `-I-`, you can limit the include-file search path to
only those directories you specify explicitly.

-remap
When searching for a header file in a directory, remap file names if a file named
`header.gcc` exists in that directory. This can be used to work around limitations
of file systems with file name restrictions. The `header.gcc` file should contain a
series of lines with two tokens on each line: the first token is the name to map, and
the second token is the actual name to use.

-undef
Do not predefine any nonstandard macros. (Including architecture flags).

-E
Run only the C preprocessor. Preprocess all the C source files specified and output
the results to standard output or to the specified output file.

-C
Tell the preprocessor not to discard comments. Used with the `-E` option.

-P
Tell the preprocessor not to generate `#line` directives. Used with the `-E` option.

-M
Instead of outputting the result of preprocessing, output a rule suitable for make
describing the dependencies of the main source file. The preprocessor outputs one
make rule containing the object file name for that source file, a colon, and the names
of all the included files. Unless overridden explicitly, the object file name consists
of the basename of the source file with any suffix replaced with object file suffix. If
there are many included files then the rule is split into several lines using `\n`-newline.
`-M` implies `-E`.

-MM
Like `-M`, but mention only the files included with `#include "file"`. System header
files included with `#include <file>` are omitted.

-MD
Like `-M` but the dependency information is written to a file rather than stdout.
gcc will use the same file name and directory as the object file, but with the suffix
`.d` instead.
This is in addition to compiling the main file as specified—`-MD` does not inhibit
ordinary compilation the way `-M` does, unless you also specify `-MG`.
With Mach, you can use the utility md to merge multiple dependency files into a
single dependency file suitable for using with the `make` command.

-MMD
Like `-MD` except mention only user header files, not system -header files.

-MF file
When used with `-M` or `-MM`, specifies a file to write the dependencies to. This
allows the preprocessor to write the preprocessed file to stdout normally. If no `-MF`
switch is given, CPP sends the rules to stdout and suppresses normal preprocessed
output.
Another way to specify output of a make rule is by setting the environment variable
DEPENDENCIES_OUTPUT (see Section 3.19 [Environment Variables], page 107).

-MG
When used with `-M` or `-MM`, `-MG` says to treat missing header files as generated
files and assume they live in the same directory as the source file. It suppresses
preprocessed output, as a missing header file is ordinarily an error.
This feature is used in automatic updating of makefiles.
This option instructs CPP to add a phony target for each dependency other than
the main file, causing each to depend on nothing. These dummy rules work around
errors make gives if you remove header files without updating the Makefile to match.
This is typical output:

```
/tmp/test.o: /tmp/test.c /tmp/test.h
/tmp/test.h:
```

`-MQ target`

By default CPP uses the main file name, including any path, and appends the
object suffix, normally `.o`, to it to obtain the name of the target for dependency
generation. With `-MT` you can specify a target yourself, overriding the default one.
If you want multiple targets, you can specify them as a single argument to `-MT`, or
use multiple `-MT` options.
The targets you specify are output in the order they appear on the command line.
`-MQ` is identical to `-MT`, except that the target name is quoted for Make, but with
`-MT` it isn’t. For example, `-MT $(objpfx)foo.o` gives

```
$(objpfx)foo.o: /tmp/foo.c
```

but `-MQ $(objpfx)foo.o` gives

```
$(objpfx)foo.o: /tmp/foo.c
```
The default target is automatically quoted, as if it were given with `-MQ`.

`-H` Print the name of each header file used, in addition to other normal activities.

`-Aquestion(answer)`

Assert the answer `answer` for `question`, in case it is tested with a preprocessing
conditional such as `#if #question(answer)`). `-A-` disables the standard assertions
that normally describe the target machine.

`-Dmacro` Define macro `macro` with the string `1` as its definition.

`-Dmacro=defn` Define macro `macro` as `defn`. All instances of `-D` on the command line are processed
before any `-U` options.
Any `-D` and `-U` options on the command line are processed in order, and always
before `-include` file, regardless of the order in which they are written.

`-Umacro` Undefine macro `macro`. `-U` options are evaluated after all `-D` options, but before
any `-include` and `-imacros` options.
Any `-D` and `-U` options on the command line are processed in order, and always
before `-imacros` file, regardless of the order in which they are written.

`-dM` Tell the preprocessor to output only a list of the macro definitions that are in effect
at the end of preprocessing. Used with the `-E` option.

`-dD` Tell the preprocessor to pass all macro definitions into the output, in their proper
sequence in the rest of the output.

`-dN` Like `-dD` except that the macro arguments and contents are omitted. Only
`#define name` is included in the output.

`-dI` Output `#include` directives in addition to the result of preprocessing.

`-fpreprocessed` Indicate to the preprocessor that the input file has already been preprocessed. This
suppresses things like macro expansion, trigraph conversion, escaped newline splicing,
and processing of most directives. In this mode the integrated preprocessor is
little more than a tokenizer for the front ends.
"-fpreprocessed" is implicit if the input file has one of the extensions 'i', 'ii' or 'mi' indicating it has already been preprocessed.

**-trigraphs**

Process ISO standard trigraph sequences. These are three-character sequences, all starting with '??', that are defined by ISO C to stand for single characters. For example, '??/' stands for '\', so '??/n' is a character constant for a newline. By default, GCC ignores trigraphs, but in standard-conforming modes it converts them. See the ‘-std’ and ‘-ansi’ options.

The nine trigraph sequences are

- '??(' -> '{'
- '??)' -> '}'
- '??<' -> '{'
- '??>' -> '}'
- '??=' -> '#'
- '??/' -> '\'
- '??;' -> '~'
- '??!' -> '|
- '??-' -> '¨'

Trigraph support is not popular, so many compilers do not implement it properly. Portable code should not rely on trigraphs being either converted or ignored.

**-Wp, option**

Pass option as an option to the preprocessor. If option contains commas, it is split into multiple options at the commas.

### 3.12 Passing Options to the Assembler

You can pass options to the assembler.

**-Wa, option**

Pass option as an option to the assembler. If option contains commas, it is split into multiple options at the commas.

### 3.13 Options for Linking

These options come into play when the compiler links object files into an executable output file. They are meaningless if the compiler is not doing a link step.

**object-file-name**

A file name that does not end in a special recognized suffix is considered to name an object file or library. (Object files are distinguished from libraries by the linker according to the file contents.) If linking is done, these object files are used as input to the linker.

- **-c**
- **-S**
- **-E**

If any of these options is used, then the linker is not run, and object file names should not be used as arguments. See Section 3.2 [Overall Options], page 10.
-l<library>
Search the library named <library> when linking.

It makes a difference where in the command you write this option; the linker searches
processes libraries and object files in the order they are specified. Thus, ‘foo.o -lz
bar.o’ searches library ‘z’ after file ‘foo.o’ but before ‘bar.o’. If ‘bar.o’ refers to
functions in ‘z’, those functions may not be loaded.

The linker searches a standard list of directories for the library, which is actually a
file named ‘lib<library>.a’. The linker then uses this file as if it had been specified
precisely by name.

The directories searched include several standard system directories plus any that
you specify with ‘-L’.

Normally the files found this way are library files—archive files whose members are
object files. The linker handles an archive file by scanning through it for members
which define symbols that have so far been referenced but not defined. But if the
file that is found is an ordinary object file, it is linked in the usual fashion. The
only difference between using an ‘-l’ option and specifying a file name is that ‘-l’
surrounds library with ‘lib’ and ‘.a’ and searches several directories.

-lobjc
You need this special case of the ‘-l’ option in order to link an Objective C program.

-nostartfiles
Do not use the standard system startup files when linking. The standard system
libraries are used normally, unless ‘-nostdlib’ or ‘-nodefaultlibs’ is used.

-nodefaultlibs
Do not use the standard system libraries when linking. Only the libraries you specify
will be passed to the linker. The standard startup files are used normally, unless
‘-nostartfiles’ is used. The compiler may generate calls to memcmp, memset,
and memcpy for System V (and ISO C) environments or to bcopy and bzero for
BSD environments. These entries are usually resolved by entries in libc. These
entry points should be supplied through some other mechanism when this option is
specified.

-nostdlib
Do not use the standard system startup files or libraries when linking. No startup
files and only the libraries you specify will be passed to the linker. The compiler
may generate calls to memcmp, memset, and memcpy for System V (and ISO C)
environments or to bcopy and bzero for BSD environments. These entries are usually
resolved by entries in libc. These entry points should be supplied through some other
mechanism when this option is specified.

One of the standard libraries bypassed by ‘-nostdlib’ and ‘-nodefaultlibs’ is
‘libgcc.a’, a library of internal subroutines that GCC uses to overcome shortcom-
ings of particular machines, or special needs for some languages. (See Chapter 16
[Interfacing to GCC Output], page 221, for more discussion of ‘libgcc.a’.) In most
cases, you need ‘libgcc.a’ even when you want to avoid other standard libraries.
In other words, when you specify ‘-nostdlib’ or ‘-nodefaultlibs’ you should usu-
ally specify ‘-lgcc’ as well. This ensures that you have no unresolved references
to internal GCC library subroutines. (For example, ‘__main’, used to ensure C++
constructors will be called; see Section 4.5 [collect2], page 119.)

-s
Remove all symbol table and relocation information from the executable.

-static
On systems that support dynamic linking, this prevents linking with the shared
libraries. On other systems, this option has no effect.

-shared
Produce a shared object which can then be linked with other objects to form an
executable. Not all systems support this option. For predictable results, you must
also specify the same set of options that were used to generate code (‘-fpic’, ‘-fPIC’,
or model suboptions) when you specify this option.\footnote{On some systems, ‘gcc -shared’ needs to build supplementary stub code for constructors to work. On multi-libbed systems, ‘gcc -shared’ must select the correct support libraries to link against. Failing to supply the correct flags may lead to subtle defects. Supplying them in cases where they are not necessary is innocuous.}

\texttt{-shared-libgcc}
\texttt{-static-libgcc}

On systems that provide ‘libgcc’ as a shared library, these options force the use of either the shared or static version respectively. If no shared version of ‘libgcc’ was built when the compiler was configured, these options have no effect.

There are several situations in which an application should use the shared ‘libgcc’ instead of the static version. The most common of these is when the application wishes to throw and catch exceptions across different shared libraries. In that case, each of the libraries as well as the application itself should use the shared ‘libgcc’. Therefore, whenever you specify the ‘-shared’ option, the GCC driver automatically adds ‘-shared-libgcc’, unless you explicitly specify ‘-static-libgcc’. The G++ driver automatically adds ‘-shared-libgcc’ when you build a main executable as well because for C++ programs that is typically the right thing to do. (Exception-handling will not work reliably otherwise.) However, when linking a main executable written in C, you must explicitly say ‘-shared-libgcc’ if you want to use the shared ‘libgcc’.

\texttt{-symbolic}

Bind references to global symbols when building a shared object. Warn about any unresolved references (unless overridden by the link editor option ‘-Xlinker -z -Xlinker defs’). Only a few systems support this option.

\texttt{-Xlinker option}

Pass option as an option to the linker. You can use this to supply system-specific linker options which GCC does not know how to recognize.

If you want to pass an option that takes an argument, you must use ‘-Xlinker’ twice, once for the option and once for the argument. For example, to pass ‘-assert definitions’, you must write ‘-Xlinker -assert -Xlinker definitions’. It does not work to write ‘-Xlinker "-assert definitions”’, because this passes the entire string as a single argument, which is not what the linker expects.

\texttt{-u symbol}

Pretend the symbol symbol is undefined, to force linking of library modules to define it. You can use ‘-u’ multiple times with different symbols to force loading of additional library modules.

### 3.14 Options for Directory Search

These options specify directories to search for header files, for libraries and for parts of the compiler:

\texttt{-I dir}

Add the directory dir to the head of the list of directories to be searched for header files. This can be used to override a system header file, substituting your own version, since these directories are searched before the system header file directories.
However, you should not use this option to add directories that contain vendor-supplied system header files (use `"-isystem"` for that). If you use more than one `-I` option, the directories are scanned in left-to-right order; the standard system directories come after.

**-I**

Any directories you specify with `-I` options before the `-I-` option are searched only for the case of `"#include "file""`; they are not searched for `"#include <file>"`.

If additional directories are specified with `-I` options after the `-I-`, these directories are searched for all `"#include"` directives. (Ordinarily all `-I` directories are used this way.)

In addition, the `-I-` option inhibits the use of the current directory (where the current input file came from) as the first search directory for `"#include "file""`. There is no way to override this effect of `-I-`. With `-I-` you can specify searching the directory which was current when the compiler was invoked. That is not exactly the same as what the preprocessor does by default, but it is often satisfactory.

`-I-` does not inhibit the use of the standard system directories for header files. Thus, `-I-` and `"nostdinc"` are independent.

**-L**

Add directory dir to the list of directories to be searched for `-l`.

**-B**

This option specifies where to find the executables, libraries, include files, and data files of the compiler itself.

The compiler driver program runs one or more of the subprograms `cpp`, `cc1`, `as` and `ld`. It tries prefix as a prefix for each program it tries to run, both with and without `"machine/version/"` (see Section 3.16 [Target Options], page 57).

For each subprogram to be run, the compiler driver first tries the `-B` prefix, if any. If that name is not found, or if `-B` was not specified, the driver tries two standard prefixes, which are `/usr/lib/gcc/` and `/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/`. If neither of those results in a file name that is found, the unmodified program name is searched for using the directories specified in your `PATH` environment variable.

`-B` prefixes that effectively specify directory names also apply to libraries in the linker, because the compiler translates these options into `-L` options for the linker. They also apply to includes files in the preprocessor, because the compiler translates these options into `-isystem` options for the preprocessor. In this case, the compiler appends `"include"` to the prefix.

The run-time support file `libgcc.a` can also be searched for using the `-B` prefix, if needed. If it is not found there, the two standard prefixes above are tried, and that is all. The file is left out of the link if it is not found by those means.

Another way to specify a prefix much like the `-B` prefix is to use the environment variable `GCC_EXEC_PREFIX`. See Section 3.19 [Environment Variables], page 107.

**-specs=file**

Process file after the compiler reads in the standard `specs` file, in order to override the defaults that the `gcc` driver program uses when determining what switches to pass to `cc1`, `cclplus`, `as`, `1d`, etc. More than one `-specs=file` can be specified on the command line, and they are processed in order, from left to right.

### 3.15 Specifying subprocesses and the switches to pass to them

`gcc` is a driver program. It performs its job by invoking a sequence of other programs to do the work of compiling, assembling and linking. GCC interprets its command-line parameters and uses these to deduce which programs it should invoke, and which command-line options it ought to place on their command lines. This behaviour is controlled by spec strings. In most cases there is one spec string for each program that GCC can invoke, but a few programs
have multiple spec strings to control their behaviour. The spec strings built into GCC can be overridden by using the `--specs` command-line switch to specify a spec file.

Spec files are plaintext files that are used to construct spec strings. They consist of a sequence of directives separated by blank lines. The type of directive is determined by the first non-whitespace character on the line and it can be one of the following:

**%command**

Issues a command to the spec file processor. The commands that can appear here are:

```
%include <file>
```

Search for file and insert its text at the current point in the specs file.

```
%include_noerr <file>
```

Just like `%include`, but do not generate an error message if the include file cannot be found.

```
%rename old_name new_name
```

Rename the spec string old_name to new_name.

* [spec_name]:

This tells the compiler to create, override or delete the named spec string. All lines after this directive up to the next directive or blank line are considered to be the text for the spec string. If this results in an empty string then the spec will be deleted. (Or, if the spec did not exist, then nothing will happened.) Otherwise, if the spec does not currently exist a new spec will be created. If the spec does exist then its contents will be overridden by the text of this directive, unless the first character of that text is the `+` character, in which case the text will be appended to the spec.

[suffix]:

Creates a new `[suffix] spec` pair. All lines after this directive and up to the next directive or blank line are considered to make up the spec string for the indicated suffix. When the compiler encounters an input file with the named suffix, it will process the spec string in order to work out how to compile that file. For example:

```
.ZZ:
 z-compile -input %i
```

This says that any input file whose name ends in `.ZZ` should be passed to the program `z-compile`, which should be invoked with the command-line switch `-input` and with the result of performing the `%i` substitution. (See below.)

As an alternative to providing a spec string, the text that follows a suffix directive can be one of the following:

**@language**

This says that the suffix is an alias for a known language. This is similar to using the `-x` command-line switch to GCC to specify a language explicitly. For example:

```
.ZZ:
@c++
```

Says that .ZZ files are, in fact, C++ source files.

**#name**

This causes an error messages saying:

```
namename compiler not installed on this system.
```

GCC already has an extensive list of suffixes built into it. This directive will add an entry to the end of the list of suffixes, but since the list is searched from the end backwards, it is effectively possible to override earlier entries using this technique.

GCC has the following spec strings built into it. Spec files can override these strings or create their own. Note that individual targets can also add their own spec strings to this list.
Using and Porting the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC)

asm
Options to pass to the assembler

asm_final
Options to pass to the assembler post-processor

cpp
Options to pass to the C preprocessor

ccl
Options to pass to the C compiler

cclplus
Options to pass to the C++ compiler

dinfile
Object files to include at the end of the link

link
Options to pass to the linker

lib
Libraries to include on the command line to the linker

libgcc
Decides which GCC support library to pass to the linker

linker
Sets the name of the linker

predefines
Defines to be passed to the C preprocessor

signed_char
Defines to pass to CPP to say whether char is signed by default

startfile
Object files to include at the start of the link

Here is a small example of a spec file:

```sh
%rename lib old_lib

*lib:
--start-group -lgcc -lc -leval1 --end-group %(_old_lib)
```

This example renames the spec called ‘lib’ to ‘old_lib’ and then overrides the previous definition of ‘lib’ with a new one. The new definition adds in some extra command-line options before including the text of the old definition.

Spec strings are a list of command-line options to be passed to their corresponding program. In addition, the spec strings can contain ‘%’-prefixed sequences to substitute variable text or to conditionally insert text into the command line. Using these constructs it is possible to generate quite complex command lines.

Here is a table of all defined ‘%’-sequences for spec strings. Note that spaces are not generated automatically around the results of expanding these sequences. Therefore you can concatenate them together or combine them with constant text in a single argument.

%  Substitute one ‘%’ into the program name or argument.
%
%i  Substitute the name of the input file being processed.
%
%b  Substitute the basename of the input file being processed. This is the substring up to (and not including) the last period and not including the directory.
%
%B This is the same as ‘%b’, but include the file suffix (text after the last period).
%
%d  Marks the argument containing or following the ‘%d’ as a temporary file name, so that that file will be deleted if GCC exits successfully. Unlike ‘%g’, this contributes no text to the argument.
%
%gsuffix Substitute a file name that has suffix suffix and is chosen once per compilation, and mark the argument in the same way as ‘%d’. To reduce exposure to denial-of-service attacks, the file name is now chosen in a way that is hard to predict even when previously chosen file names are known. For example, ‘%g.s ... %g.o ... %g.s’ might turn into ‘ccUVUUAU.s ccXYAXZ12.o ccUVUUAU.s’. suffix matches the regexp ‘[A-Za-z]*’ or the special string ‘%O’, which is treated exactly as if ‘%O’ had been preprocessed. Previously, ‘%g’ was simply substituted with a file name chosen once per compilation, without regard to any appended suffix (which was therefore treated just like ordinary text), making such attacks more likely to succeed.
%
%asuffix Like ‘%g’, but generates a new temporary file name even if ‘%asuffix’ was already seen.
%Usuffix  Substitutes the last file name generated with ‘%usuffix’, generating a new one if there is no such last file name. In the absence of any ‘%usuffix’, this is just like ‘%gsuffix’, except they don’t share the same suffix space, so ‘%gs.s ... %Us.s ...’ and another for each ‘%Us.s’. Previously, ‘%U’ was simply substituted with a file name chosen for the previous ‘%u’, without regard to any appended suffix.

%jSUFFIX  Substitutes the name of the HOST_BIT_BUCKET, if any, and if it is writable, and if save-temps is off; otherwise, substitute the name of a temporary file, just like ‘%u’. This temporary file is not meant for communication between processes, but rather as a junk disposal mechanism.

%.SUFFIX  Substitutes .SUFFIX for the suffixes of a matched switch’s args when it is subsequently output with ‘%*’. SUFFIX is terminated by the next space or ‘%’.

%w  Marks the argument containing or following the ‘%w’ as the designated output file of this compilation. This puts the argument into the sequence of arguments that ‘%o’ will substitute later.

%o  Substitutes the names of all the output files, with spaces automatically placed around them. You should write spaces around the ‘%o’ as well or the results are undefined. ‘%o’ is for use in the specs for running the linker. Input files whose names have no recognized suffix are not compiled at all, but they are included among the output files, so they will be linked.

%O  Substitutes the suffix for object files. Note that this is handled specially when it immediately follows ‘%g, %u, or %U’, because of the need for those to form complete file names. The handling is such that ‘%O’ is treated exactly as if it had already been substituted, except that ‘%g, %u, and %U’ do not currently support additional suffix characters following ‘%O’ as they would following, for example, ‘.o’.

%p  Substitutes the standard macro predefinitions for the current target machine. Use this when running cpp.

%M  Like ‘%p’, but puts ‘_’ before and after the name of each predefined macro, except for macros that start with ‘_L’, where L is an uppercase letter. This is for ISO C.

%I  Substitute a ‘-iprefix’ option made from GCC_EXEC_PREFIX.

%a  Current argument is the name of a library or startup file of some sort. Search for that file in a standard list of directories and substitute the full name found.

%astr  Print str as an error message. str is terminated by a newline. Use this when inconsistent options are detected.

%l  Output ‘-’ if the input for the current command is coming from a pipe.

%(name)  Substitute the contents of spec string name at this point.

%(name]  Like ‘%(...)’ but put ‘_’ around ‘-D’ arguments.

%x(option)  Accumulate an option for ‘%X’.

%X  Output the accumulated linker options specified by ‘-Wl’ or a ‘%x’ spec string.

%Y  Output the accumulated assembler options specified by ‘-Wa’.

%Z  Output the accumulated preprocessor options specified by ‘-Wp’.
%v1 Substitute the major version number of GCC. (For version 2.9.5, this is 2.)
%v2 Substitute the minor version number of GCC. (For version 2.9.5, this is 9.)
%v3 Substitute the patch level number of GCC. (For version 2.9.5, this is 5.)
%a Process the \texttt{asm} spec. This is used to compute the switches to be passed to the assembler.
%A Process the \texttt{asm\_final} spec. This is a spec string for passing switches to an assembler post-processor, if such a program is needed.
%l Process the \texttt{link} spec. This is the spec for computing the command line passed to the linker. Typically it will make use of the \texttt{%L \%G \%S \%D and \%E} sequences.
%D Dump out a \texttt{\textasciitilde -L\textasciitilde} option for each directory that GCC believes might contain startup files. If the target supports multilibs then the current multilib directory will be prepended to each of these paths.
%M Output the multilib directory with directory separators replaced with \texttt{\textasciitilde}. If multilib directories are not set, or the multilib directory is \texttt{.\textasciitilde} then this option emits nothing.
%L Process the \texttt{lib} spec. This is a spec string for deciding which libraries should be included on the command line to the linker.
%G Process the \texttt{libgcc} spec. This is a spec string for deciding which GCC support library should be included on the command line to the linker.
%S Process the \texttt{startfile} spec. This is a spec for deciding which object files should be the first ones passed to the linker. Typically this might be a file named \texttt{crt0\textunderscore o\textunderscore}. 
%E Process the \texttt{endfile} spec. This is a spec string that specifies the last object files that will be passed to the linker.
%C Process the \texttt{cpp} spec. This is used to construct the arguments to be passed to the C preprocessor.
%c Process the \texttt{signed\_char} spec. This is intended to be used to tell \texttt{cpp} whether a char is signed. It typically has the definition:
\begin{verbatim}
\{%{unsigned-char:\textasciitilde-D\_\_CHAR\_UNSIGNED\_\_}
\end{verbatim}
%1 Process the \texttt{cc1} spec. This is used to construct the options to be passed to the actual C compiler (\texttt{cc1\textasciitilde}).
%2 Process the \texttt{cc1plus} spec. This is used to construct the options to be passed to the actual C\texttt{++} compiler (\texttt{cc1plus\textasciitilde}).
%* Substitute the variable part of a matched option. See below. Note that each comma in the substituted string is replaced by a single space.
%S Substitutes the \texttt{-S} switch, if that switch was given to GCC. If that switch was not specified, this substitutes nothing. Note that the leading dash is omitted when specifying this option, and it is automatically inserted if the substitution is performed. Thus the spec string \texttt{%{foo}} would match the command-line option \texttt{-foo\textasciitilde} and would output the command line option \texttt{-foo\textasciitilde}.
%W{S} Like \texttt{%{S}} but mark last argument supplied within as a file to be deleted on failure.
%S+ Substitutes all the switches specified to GCC whose names start with \texttt{-S}, but which also take an argument. This is used for switches like \texttt{-o\textasciitilde}, \texttt{-D\textasciitilde}, \texttt{-I\textasciitilde}, etc. GCC considers \texttt{-o foo\textasciitilde} as being one switch whose names starts with \texttt{o\textasciitilde}. \texttt{%{o\textasciitilde}} would substitute this text, including the space. Thus two arguments would be generated. 
%S Like \texttt{%{S+}}\textasciitilde, but don’t put a blank between a switch and its argument. Thus \texttt{%{o\textasciitilde}} would only generate one argument, not two.
%{S*T*} Like %{S*}, but preserve order of S and T options (the order of S and T in the spec is not significant). There can be any number of ampersand-separated variables; for each the wild card is optional. Useful for CPP as '%{D*U*A*}.'

%<S> Remove all occurrences of -S from the command line. Note—this command is position dependent. '%' commands in the spec string before this option will see -S, '%' commands in the spec string after this option will not.

%S*:X Substitutes X if one or more switches whose names start with -S are specified to GCC. Note that the tail part of the -S option (i.e. the part matched by the ‘*’) will be substituted for each occurrence of ‘%*’ within X.

%S:X Substitutes X, but only if the ‘-S’ switch was given to GCC.

%!S:X Substitutes X, but only if the ‘-S’ switch was not given to GCC.

%S:X Substitutes X, but only if no S switch, substitute ‘-’.

%S|P:X Substitutes X if either -S or -P was given to GCC. This may be combined with ‘!’ and ‘.’ sequences as well, although they have a stronger binding than the ‘|’. For example a spec string like this:

```
%{.c:-foo} %{!.c:-bar} %{.c|d:-baz} %{!.c|d:-boggle}
```

will output the following command-line options from the following input command-line options:

```
fred.c -foo -baz
jim.d -bar -boggle
-d fred.c -foo -baz -boggle
-d jim.d -bar -baz -boggle
```

The conditional text X in a %{S:X} or %{!S:X} construct may contain other nested '%' constructs or spaces, or even newlines. They are processed as usual, as described above.

The ‘-O’, ‘-f’, ‘-m’, and ‘-W’ switches are handled specifically in these constructs. If another value of ‘-O’ or the negated form of a ‘-f’, ‘-m’, or ‘-W’ switch is found later in the command line, the earlier switch value is ignored, except with %{S*} where S is just one letter, which passes all matching options.

The character ‘!’ at the beginning of the predicate text is used to indicate that a command should be piped to the following command, but only if ‘-pipe’ is specified.

It is built into GCC which switches take arguments and which do not. (You might think it would be useful to generalize this to allow each compiler’s spec to say which switches take arguments. But this cannot be done in a consistent fashion. GCC cannot even decide which input files have been specified without knowing which switches take arguments, and it must know which input files to compile in order to tell which compilers to run).

GCC also knows implicitly that arguments starting in ‘-l’ are to be treated as compiler output files, and passed to the linker in their proper position among the other output files.

### 3.16 Specifying Target Machine and Compiler Version

By default, GCC compiles code for the same type of machine that you are using. However, it can also be installed as a cross-compiler, to compile for some other type of machine. In fact, several different configurations of GCC, for different target machines, can be installed side by side. Then you specify which one to use with the ‘-b’ option.
In addition, older and newer versions of GCC can be installed side by side. One of them (probably the newest) will be the default, but you may sometimes wish to use another.

`-b machine`

The argument `machine` specifies the target machine for compilation. This is useful when you have installed GCC as a cross-compiler.

The value to use for `machine` is the same as was specified as the machine type when configuring GCC as a cross-compiler. For example, if a cross-compiler was configured with `configure i386v`, meaning to compile for an 80386 running System V, then you would specify `--b i386v` to run that cross compiler.

When you do not specify `-b`, it normally means to compile for the same type of machine that you are using.

`-V version`

The argument `version` specifies which version of GCC to run. This is useful when multiple versions are installed. For example, `version` might be `2.0`, meaning to run GCC version 2.0.

The default version, when you do not specify `-V`, is the last version of GCC that you installed.

The `-b` and `-V` options actually work by controlling part of the file name used for the executable files and libraries used for compilation. A given version of GCC, for a given target machine, is normally kept in the directory `/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/machine/version`.

Thus, sites can customize the effect of `-b` or `-V` either by changing the names of these directories or adding alternate names (or symbolic links). If in directory `/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/` the file `80386` is a link to the file `i386v`, then `-b 80386` becomes an alias for `-b i386v`.

In one respect, the `-b` or `-V` do not completely change to a different compiler: the top-level driver program `gcc` that you originally invoked continues to run and invoke the other executables (preprocessor, compiler per se, assembler and linker) that do the real work. However, since no real work is done in the driver program, it usually does not matter that the driver program in use is not the one for the specified target. It is common for the interface to the other executables to change incompatibly between compiler versions, so unless the version specified is very close to that of the driver (for example, `-V 3.0` with a driver program from GCC version 3.0.1), use of `-V` may not work; for example, using `-V 2.95.2` will not work with a driver program from GCC 3.0.

The only way that the driver program depends on the target machine is in the parsing and handling of special machine-specific options. However, this is controlled by a file which is found, along with the other executables, in the directory for the specified version and target machine. As a result, a single installed driver program adapts to any specified target machine, and sufficiently similar compiler versions.

The driver program executable does control one significant thing, however: the default version and target machine. Therefore, you can install different instances of the driver program, compiled for different targets or versions, under different names.

For example, if the driver for version 2.0 is installed as `ogcc` and that for version 2.1 is installed as `gcc`, then the command `gcc` will use version 2.1 by default, while `ogcc` will use 2.0 by default. However, you can choose either version with either command with the `-V` option.

### 3.17 Hardware Models and Configurations

Earlier we discussed the standard option `-b` which chooses among different installed compilers for completely different target machines, such as Vax vs. 68000 vs. 80386.

In addition, each of these target machine types can have its own special options, starting with `-m`, to choose among various hardware models or configurations—for example, 68010 vs
68020, floating coprocessor or none. A single installed version of the compiler can compile for any model or configuration, according to the options specified.

Some configurations of the compiler also support additional special options, usually for compatibility with other compilers on the same platform.

These options are defined by the macro `TARGET_SWITCHES` in the machine description. The default for the options is also defined by that macro, which enables you to change the defaults.

### 3.17.1 M680x0 Options

These are the `'-m'` options defined for the 68000 series. The default values for these options depend on which style of 68000 was selected when the compiler was configured; the defaults for the most common choices are given below.

- `-m68000`
  - Generate output for a 68000. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68000-based systems.

- `-mc68000`
  - Generate output for a 68000. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68000-based systems.

- `-m68020`
  - Generate output for a 68020. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68020-based systems.

- `-mc68020`
  - Generate output for a 68020. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68020-based systems.

- `-m68881`
  - Generate output containing 68881 instructions for floating point. This is the default for most 68020 systems unless `'-nfp'` was specified when the compiler was configured.

- `-m68030`
  - Generate output for a 68030. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68030-based systems.

- `-m68040`
  - Generate output for a 68040. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68040-based systems.

- `-m68060`
  - Generate output for a 68060. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68060-based systems.

- `-mcpu32`
  - Generate output for a CPU32. This is the default when the compiler is configured for CPU32-based systems.

- `-m5200`
  - Generate output for a 520X “coldfire” family cpu. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 520X-based systems.

- `-m68020-40`
  - Generate output for a 68040, without using any of the new instructions. This results in code which can run relatively efficiently on either a 68020/68881 or a 68030 or a 68040. The generated code does use the 68881 instructions that are emulated on the 68040.
-m68020-60
Generate output for a 68060, without using any of the new instructions. This results in code which can run relatively efficiently on either a 68020/68881 or a 68030 or a 68040. The generated code does use the 68881 instructions that are emulated on the 68060.

-mfpa
Generate output containing Sun FPA instructions for floating point.

-msoft-float
Generate output containing library calls for floating point. **Warning:** the requisite libraries are not available for all m68k targets. Normally the facilities of the machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this can’t be done directly in cross-compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library functions for cross-compilation. The embedded targets ‘m68k-**-aout’ and ‘m68k-**-coff’ do provide software floating point support.

-mshort
Consider type int to be 16 bits wide, like short int.

-mnобitfield
Do not use the bit-field instructions. The ‘-m68000’, ‘-mcpu32’ and ‘-m5200’ options imply ‘-mnобitfield’.

-mbitfield
Do use the bit-field instructions. The ‘-m68020’ option implies ‘-mbитfield’. This is the default if you use a configuration designed for a 68020.

-mrtd
Use a different function-calling convention, in which functions that take a fixed number of arguments return with the rtd instruction, which pops their arguments while returning. This saves one instruction in the caller since there is no need to pop the arguments there.

This calling convention is incompatible with the one normally used on Unix, so you cannot use it if you need to call libraries compiled with the Unix compiler.

Also, you must provide function prototypes for all functions that take variable numbers of arguments (including printf); otherwise incorrect code will be generated for calls to those functions.

In addition, seriously incorrect code will result if you call a function with too many arguments. (Normally, extra arguments are harmlessly ignored.)

The rtd instruction is supported by the 68010, 68020, 68030, 68040, 68060 and CPU32 processors, but not by the 68000 or 5200.

-malign-int
Control whether GCC aligns int, long, long long, float, double, and long double variables on a 32-bit boundary (‘-malign-int’) or a 16-bit boundary (‘-mno-align-int’). Aligning variables on 32-bit boundaries produces code that runs somewhat faster on processors with 32-bit busses at the expense of more memory.

**Warning:** if you use the ‘-malign-int’ switch, GCC will align structures containing the above types differently than most published application binary interface specifications for the m68k.

-mpcrel
Use the pc-relative addressing mode of the 68000 directly, instead of using a global offset table. At present, this option implies ‘-fpic’, allowing at most a 16-bit offset for pc-relative addressing. ‘-fPIC’ is not presently supported with ‘-mpcrel’, though this could be supported for 68020 and higher processors.

-mno-strict-align
-mstrict-align
Do not (do) assume that unaligned memory references will be handled by the system.
3.17.2 M68hc1x Options

These are the ‘-m’ options defined for the 68hc11 and 68hc12 microcontrollers. The default values for these options depends on which style of microcontroller was selected when the compiler was configured; the defaults for the most common choices are given below.

-\texttt{-m6811} \\
-\texttt{-m68hc11} Generate output for a 68HC11. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68HC11-based systems.

-\texttt{-m6812} \\
-\texttt{-m68hc12} Generate output for a 68HC12. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 68HC12-based systems.

-\texttt{-mauto-incdec} \\
Enable the use of 68HC12 pre and post auto-increment and auto-decrement addressing modes.

-\texttt{-mshort} Consider type \texttt{int} to be 16 bits wide, like \texttt{short int}.

-\texttt{-msoft-reg-count=\texttt{count}} \\
Specify the number of pseudo-soft registers which are used for the code generation. The maximum number is 32. Using more pseudo-soft register may or may not result in better code depending on the program. The default is 4 for 68HC11 and 2 for 68HC12.

3.17.3 VAX Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the Vax:

-\texttt{-munix} Do not output certain jump instructions (\texttt{aobleq} and so on) that the Unix assembler for the Vax cannot handle across long ranges.

-\texttt{-mgnu} Do output those jump instructions, on the assumption that you will assemble with the GNU assembler.

-\texttt{-mg} Output code for g-format floating point numbers instead of d-format.

3.17.4 SPARC Options

These ‘-m’ switches are supported on the SPARC:

-\texttt{-mno-app-reg} \\
-\texttt{-mapp-reg} \\
Specify ‘-mapp-reg’ to generate output using the global registers 2 through 4, which the SPARC SVR4 ABI reserves for applications. This is the default. To be fully SVR4 ABI compliant at the cost of some performance loss, specify ‘-mno-app-reg’.

-\texttt{-mfpu} \\
-\texttt{-mhard-float} \\
Generate output containing floating point instructions. This is the default.

-\texttt{-mno-fpu} \\
-\texttt{-msoft-float} \\
Generate output containing library calls for floating point. \textbf{Warning}: the requisite libraries are not available for all SPARC targets. Normally the facilities of the machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this cannot be done directly in
cross-compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library functions for cross-compilation. The embedded targets `sparc-*-aout' and `sparclite-*-*' do provide software floating point support.

`-msoft-float' changes the calling convention in the output file; therefore, it is only useful if you compile all of a program with this option. In particular, you need to compile `libgcc.a', the library that comes with GCC, with `-msoft-float' in order for this to work.

``mhard-quad-float''
Generate output containing quad-word (long double) floating point instructions.

``msoft-quad-float''
Generate output containing library calls for quad-word (long double) floating point instructions. The functions called are those specified in the SPARC ABI. This is the default.

As of this writing, there are no sparc implementations that have hardware support for the quad-word floating point instructions. They all invoke a trap handler for one of these instructions, and then the trap handler emulates the effect of the instruction. Because of the trap handler overhead, this is much slower than calling the ABI library routines. Thus the `-msoft-quad-float' option is the default.

``mno-epilogue''
``mepilogue''
With `-mepilogue' (the default), the compiler always emits code for function exit at the end of each function. Any function exit in the middle of the function (such as a return statement in C) will generate a jump to the exit code at the end of the function.

With `-mno-epilogue', the compiler tries to emit exit code inline at every function exit.

``mno-flat''
``mflat''
With `-mflat', the compiler does not generate save/restore instructions and will use a “flat” or single register window calling convention. This model uses %i7 as the frame pointer and is compatible with the normal register window model. Code from either may be intermixed. The local registers and the input registers (0-5) are still treated as “call saved” registers and will be saved on the stack as necessary.

With `-mno-flat' (the default), the compiler emits save/restore instructions (except for leaf functions) and is the normal mode of operation.

``mno-unaligned-doubles''
``munaligned-doubles''
Assume that doubles have 8 byte alignment. This is the default.

With `-munaligned-doubles', GCC assumes that doubles have 8 byte alignment only if they are contained in another type, or if they have an absolute address. Otherwise, it assumes they have 4 byte alignment. Specifying this option avoids some rare compatibility problems with code generated by other compilers. It is not the default because it results in a performance loss, especially for floating point code.

``mno-faster-structs''
``mfaster-structs''
With `-mfaster-structs', the compiler assumes that structures should have 8 byte alignment. This enables the use of pairs of ldd and std instructions for copies in structure assignment, in place of twice as many ld and st pairs. However, the use of this changed alignment directly violates the Sparc ABI. Thus, it’s intended only
for use on targets where the developer acknowledges that their resulting code will not be directly in line with the rules of the ABI.

`-mv8`

`-msparclite`

These two options select variations on the SPARC architecture.

By default (unless specifically configured for the Fujitsu SPARClite), GCC generates code for the v7 variant of the SPARC architecture.

`-mv8` will give you SPARC v8 code. The only difference from v7 code is that the compiler emits the integer multiply and integer divide instructions which exist in SPARC v8 but not in SPARC v7.

`-msparclite` will give you SPARClite code. This adds the integer multiply, integer divide step and scan (ffs) instructions which exist in SPARClite but not in SPARC v7.

These options are deprecated and will be deleted in a future GCC release. They have been replaced with `'-mcpu=xxx'`.

`-mcypress`

`-msupersparc`

These two options select the processor for which the code is optimised.

With `'-mcypress'` (the default), the compiler optimizes code for the Cypress CY7C602 chip, as used in the SparcStation/SparcServer 3xx series. This is also appropriate for the older SparcStation 1, 2, IPX etc.

With `'-msupersparc'` the compiler optimizes code for the SuperSparc cpu, as used in the SparcStation 10, 1000 and 2000 series. This flag also enables use of the full SPARC v8 instruction set.

These options are deprecated and will be deleted in a future GCC release. They have been replaced with `'-mcpu=xxx'`.

`-mcpu=cpu_type`

Set the instruction set, register set, and instruction scheduling parameters for machine type `cpu_type`. Supported values for `cpu_type` are `v7`, `cypress`, `v8`, `supersparc`, `sparclite`, `hypersparc`, `sparclite86x`, `f930`, `f934`, `sparclet`, `tsc701`, `v9`, and `ultrasparc`.

Default instruction scheduling parameters are used for values that select an architecture and not an implementation. These are `v7`, `v8`, `sparclite`, `sparclet`, `v9`.

Here is a list of each supported architecture and their supported implementations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Architecture</th>
<th>Implementations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v7</td>
<td>cypress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v8</td>
<td>supersparc, hypersparc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sparclite</td>
<td>f930, f934, sparclite86x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sparclet</td>
<td>tsc701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v9</td>
<td>ultrasparc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

`-mtune=cpu_type`

Set the instruction scheduling parameters for machine type `cpu_type`, but do not set the instruction set or register set that the option `'-mcpu=cpu_type'` would.

The same values for `'-mcpu=cpu_type'` are used for `'-mtune=cpu_type'`, though the only useful values are those that select a particular cpu implementation: `cypress`, `supersparc`, `hypersparc`, `f930`, `f934`, `sparclite86x`, `tsc701`, `ultrasparc`.

These `'-m'` switches are supported in addition to the above on the SPARCLET processor.
-mlittle-endian
Generate code for a processor running in little-endian mode.

-mlive-g0
Treat register %g0 as a normal register. GCC will continue to clobber it as necessary but will not assume it always reads as 0.

-mbroken-saverestore
Generate code that does not use non-trivial forms of the save and restore instructions. Early versions of the SPARCLET processor do not correctly handle save and restore instructions used with arguments. They correctly handle them used without arguments. A save instruction used without arguments increments the current window pointer but does not allocate a new stack frame. It is assumed that the window overflow trap handler will properly handle this case as will interrupt handlers.

These ‘-m’ switches are supported in addition to the above on SPARC V9 processors in 64-bit environments.

-mlittle-endian
Generate code for a processor running in little-endian mode.

-m32
Generate code for a 32-bit or 64-bit environment. The 32-bit environment sets int, long and pointer to 32 bits. The 64-bit environment sets int to 32 bits and long and pointer to 64 bits.

-m64
Generate code for the Medium/Low code model: the program must be linked in the low 32 bits of the address space. Pointers are 64 bits. Programs can be statically or dynamically linked.

-mcmodel=medlow
Generate code for the Medium/Middle code model: the program must be linked in the low 44 bits of the address space, the text segment must be less than 2G bytes, and data segment must be within 2G of the text segment. Pointers are 64 bits.

-mcmodel=medany
Generate code for the Medium/Anywhere code model: the program may be linked anywhere in the address space, the text segment must be less than 2G bytes, and data segment must be within 2G of the text segment. Pointers are 64 bits.

-mcmodel=embmedany
Generate code for the Medium/Anywhere code model for embedded systems: assume a 32-bit text and a 32-bit data segment, both starting anywhere (determined at link time). Register %g4 points to the base of the data segment. Pointers are still 64 bits. Programs are statically linked, PIC is not supported.

-mstack-bias
-mno-stack-bias
With ‘-mstack-bias’, GCC assumes that the stack pointer, and frame pointer if present, are offset by −2047 which must be added back when making stack frame references. Otherwise, assume no such offset is present.

3.17.5 Convex Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for Convex:

-mc1
Generate output for C1. The code will run on any Convex machine. The preprocessor symbol __convex__c1__ is defined.
-mc2  Generate output for C2. Uses instructions not available on C1. Scheduling and other optimizations are chosen for max performance on C2. The preprocessor symbol __convex_c2__ is defined.

-mc32  Generate output for C32xx. Uses instructions not available on C1. Scheduling and other optimizations are chosen for max performance on C32. The preprocessor symbol __convex_c32__ is defined.

-mc34  Generate output for C34xx. Uses instructions not available on C1. Scheduling and other optimizations are chosen for max performance on C34. The preprocessor symbol __convex_c34__ is defined.

-mc38  Generate output for C38xx. Uses instructions not available on C1. Scheduling and other optimizations are chosen for max performance on C38. The preprocessor symbol __convex_c38__ is defined.

-margcount  Generate code which puts an argument count in the word preceding each argument list. This is compatible with regular CC, and a few programs may need the argument count word. GDB and other source-level debuggers do not need it; this info is in the symbol table.

-mnoargcount  Omit the argument count word. This is the default.

-mvolatile-cache  Allow volatile references to be cached. This is the default.

-mvolatile-nocache  Volatile references bypass the data cache, going all the way to memory. This is only needed for multi-processor code that does not use standard synchronization instructions. Making non-volatile references to volatile locations will not necessarily work.

-mlong32  Type long is 32 bits, the same as type int. This is the default.

-mlong64  Type long is 64 bits, the same as type long long. This option is useless, because no library support exists for it.

3.17.6 AMD29K Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the AMD Am29000:

-mdw  Generate code that assumes the DW bit is set, i.e., that byte and halfword operations are directly supported by the hardware. This is the default.

-mndw  Generate code that assumes the DW bit is not set.

-mbw  Generate code that assumes the system supports byte and halfword write operations. This is the default.

-mnbw  Generate code that assumes the systems does not support byte and halfword write operations. ‘-mnbw’ implies ‘-mndw’.

-msmall  Use a small memory model that assumes that all function addresses are either within a single 256 KB segment or at an absolute address of less than 256k. This allows the call instruction to be used instead of a const, consth, calli sequence.

-mnormal  Use the normal memory model: Generate call instructions only when calling functions in the same file and calli instructions otherwise. This works if each file occupies less than 256 KB but allows the entire executable to be larger than 256 KB. This is the default.
-mlarge Always use calli instructions. Specify this option if you expect a single file to compile into more than 256 KB of code.

-m29050 Generate code for the Am29050.

-m29000 Generate code for the Am29000. This is the default.

-mkernel-registers Generate references to registers gr64-gr95 instead of to registers gr96-gr127. This option can be used when compiling kernel code that wants a set of global registers disjoint from that used by user-mode code.

Note that when this option is used, register names in `-f` flags must use the normal, user-mode, names.

-muser-registers Use the normal set of global registers, gr96-gr127. This is the default.

-mstack-check

-mno-stack-check

Insert (or do not insert) a call to __msp_check after each stack adjustment. This is often used for kernel code.

-mstorem-bug

-mno-storem-bug

`-mstorem-bug` handles 29k processors which cannot handle the separation of a mtsrin insn and a storem instruction (most 29000 chips to date, but not the 29050).

-mno-reuse-arg-regs

-mreuse-arg-regs

`-mno-reuse-arg-regs` tells the compiler to only use incoming argument registers for copying out arguments. This helps detect calling a function with fewer arguments than it was declared with.

-mno-impure-text

-mimpure-text

`-mimpure-text`, used in addition to `-shared`, tells the compiler to not pass `-assert pure-text` to the linker when linking a shared object.

-msoft-float

Generate output containing library calls for floating point. **Warning:** the requisite libraries are not part of GCC. Normally the facilities of the machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this can’t be done directly in cross-compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library functions for cross-compilation.

-mno-multm

Do not generate multm or multmu instructions. This is useful for some embedded systems which do not have trap handlers for these instructions.

### 3.17.7 ARM Options

These `-m` options are defined for Advanced RISC Machines (ARM) architectures:

-mapcs-frame Generate a stack frame that is compliant with the ARM Procedure Call Standard for all functions, even if this is not strictly necessary for correct execution of the code. Specifying `-fomit-frame-pointer` with this option will cause the stack frames not to be generated for leaf functions. The default is `-mno-apcs-frame`.

-mapcs This is a synonym for `-mapcs-frame`.
-mapcs-26  Generate code for a processor running with a 26-bit program counter, and con-
forming to the function calling standards for the APCS 26-bit option. This option
replaces the ‘-m2’ and ‘-m3’ options of previous releases of the compiler.

-mapcs-32  Generate code for a processor running with a 32-bit program counter, and con-
forming to the function calling standards for the APCS 32-bit option. This option
replaces the ‘-m6’ option of previous releases of the compiler.

-mthumb-interwork  Generate code which supports calling between the ARM and Thumb instruction
sets. Without this option the two instruction sets cannot be reliably used inside
one program. The default is ‘-mno-thumb-interwork’, since slightly larger code is
generated when ‘-mthumb-interwork’ is specified.

-mno-sched-prolog  Prevent the reordering of instructions in the function prolog, or the merging of
those instruction with the instructions in the function’s body. This means that all
functions will start with a recognizable set of instructions (or in fact one of a choice
from a small set of different function prologues), and this information can be used to
locate the start if functions inside an executable piece of code. The default is
‘-msched-prolog’.

-mhard-float  Generate output containing floating point instructions. This is the default.

-msoft-float  Generate output containing library calls for floating point. Warning: the requi-
site libraries are not available for all ARM targets. Normally the facilities of the
machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this cannot be done directly in cross-
compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library
functions for cross-compilation.

‘-msoft-float’ changes the calling convention in the output file; therefore, it is
only useful if you compile all of a program with this option. In particular, you need
to compile ‘libgcc.a’, the library that comes with GCC, with ‘-msoft-float’ in
order for this to work.

-mlittle-endian  Generate code for a processor running in little-endian mode. This is the default for
all standard configurations.

-mbig-endian  Generate code for a processor running in big-endian mode; the default is to compile
code for a little-endian processor.

-mwords-little-endian  This option only applies when generating code for big-endian processors. Generate
code for a little-endian word order but a big-endian byte order. That is, a byte
order of the form ‘32107654’. Note: this option should only be used if you require
compatibility with code for big-endian ARM processors generated by versions of the
compiler prior to 2.8.

-malignment-traps  Generate code that will not trap if the MMU has alignment traps enabled. On
ARM architectures prior to ARMv4, there were no instructions to access half-word
objects stored in memory. However, when reading from memory a feature of the
ARM architecture allows a word load to be used, even if the address is unaligned,
and the processor core will rotate the data as it is being loaded. This option tells the
compiler that such misaligned accesses will cause a MMU trap and that it should
instead synthesise the access as a series of byte accesses. The compiler can still use
word accesses to load half-word data if it knows that the address is aligned to a
word boundary.

This option is ignored when compiling for ARM architecture 4 or later, since these
processors have instructions to directly access half-word objects in memory.

-mno-alignment-traps
Generate code that assumes that the MMU will not trap unaligned accesses. This
produces better code when the target instruction set does not have half-word mem-
ory operations (i.e. implementations prior to ARMv4).

Note that you cannot use this option to access unaligned word objects, since the
processor will only fetch one 32-bit aligned object from memory.

The default setting for most targets is ‘-mno-alignment-traps’, since this produces
better code when there are no half-word memory instructions available.

-mshort-load-bytes
-mshort-load-words
These are deprecated aliases for ‘-malignment-traps’.

-mno-short-load-bytes
-mshort-load-words
This are deprecated aliases for ‘-mno-alignment-traps’.

-mbsd
This option only applies to RISC iX. Emulate the native BSD-mode compiler. This
is the default if ‘-ansi’ is not specified.

-mxopen
This option only applies to RISC iX. Emulate the native X/Open-mode compiler.

-mno-symrename
This option only applies to RISC iX. Do not run the assembler post-processor,
‘symrename’, after code has been assembled. Normally it is necessary to modify
some of the standard symbols in preparation for linking with the RISC iX C library;
this option suppresses this pass. The post-processor is never run when the compiler
is built for cross-compilation.

-mcpu=name
This specifies the name of the target ARM processor. GCC uses this name to
determine what kind of instructions it can emit when generating assembly code.
Permissible names are: arm2, arm250, arm3, arm6, arm60, arm600, arm610,
arm620, arm7, arm7m, arm7d, arm7dm, arm7di, arm7dni, arm70, arm700, arm700i,
arm710, arm710c, arm7100, arm7500, arm7500fe, arm7tdmi, arm8, strongarm,
strongarm110, strongarm1100, arm8, arm810, arm9, arm9e, arm920, arm920t,
arm940t, arm9tdmi, arm10tdmi, arm1020t, xscale.

-mtune=name
This option is very similar to the ‘-mcpu=’ option, except that instead of specifying
the actual target processor type, and hence restricting which instructions can be
used, it specifies that GCC should tune the performance of the code as if the target
were of the type specified in this option, but still choosing the instructions that
it will generate based on the cpu specified by a ‘-mcpu=’ option. For some ARM
implementations better performance can be obtained by using this option.

-march=name
This specifies the name of the target ARM architecture. GCC uses this name to
determine what kind of instructions it can emit when generating assembly code.
This option can be used in conjunction with or instead of the ‘-mcpu=’ option.
Permissible names are: armv2, armv2a, armv3, armv3m, armv4, armv4t, armv5, armv5t, armv5te.

-mfpe=number
-mf=p=number
This specifies the version of the floating point emulation available on the target. Permissible values are 2 and 3. ‘-mfpe’ is a synonym for ‘-mfp=’, for compatibility with older versions of GCC.

-mstructure-size-boundary=n
The size of all structures and unions will be rounded up to a multiple of the number of bits set by this option. Permissible values are 8 and 32. The default value varies for different toolchains. For the COFF targeted toolchain the default value is 8. Specifying the larger number can produce faster, more efficient code, but can also increase the size of the program. The two values are potentially incompatible. Code compiled with one value cannot necessarily expect to work with code or libraries compiled with the other value, if they exchange information using structures or unions.

-mabort-on-noreturn
Generate a call to the function abort at the end of a noreturn function. It will be executed if the function tries to return.

-mlong-calls
-mno-long-calls
Tells the compiler to perform function calls by first loading the address of the function into a register and then performing a subroutine call on this register. This switch is needed if the target function will lie outside of the 64 megabyte addressing range of the offset based version of subroutine call instruction. Even if this switch is enabled, not all function calls will be turned into long calls. The heuristic is that static functions, functions which have the ‘short-call’ attribute, functions that are inside the scope of a ‘#pragma no_long_calls’ directive and functions whose definitions have already been compiled within the current compilation unit, will not be turned into long calls. The exception to this rule is that weak function definitions, functions with the ‘long-call’ attribute or the ‘section’ attribute, and functions that are within the scope of a ‘#pragma long_calls’ directive, will always be turned into long calls.

This feature is not enabled by default. Specifying ‘-mno-long-calls’ will restore the default behaviour, as will placing the function calls within the scope of a ‘#pragma long_calls_off’ directive. Note these switches have no effect on how the compiler generates code to handle function calls via function pointers.

-mnop-fun-dllimport
Disable support for the dllimport attribute.

-msingle-pic-base
Treat the register used for PIC addressing as read-only, rather than loading it in the prologue for each function. The run-time system is responsible for initialising this register with an appropriate value before execution begins.

-mpic-register=reg
Specify the register to be used for PIC addressing. The default is R10 unless stack-checking is enabled, when R9 is used.

-mpoke-function-name
Write the name of each function into the text section, directly preceding the function prologue. The generated code is similar to this:
t0
    .ascii "arm_poke_function_name", 0
    .align

t1
    .word 0xff000000 + (t1 - t0)
    arm_poke_function_name
    mov     ip, sp
    stmd    sp!, {fp, ip, lr, pc}
    sub     fp, ip, #4

When performing a stack backtrace, code can inspect the value of pc stored at fp + 0. If the trace function then looks at location pc - 12 and the top 8 bits are set, then we know that there is a function name embedded immediately preceding this location and has length ((pc[-3]) & 0xff000000).

-mthumb Generate code for the 16-bit Thumb instruction set. The default is to use the 32-bit ARM instruction set.

-mtpcs-frame
Generate a stack frame that is compliant with the Thumb Procedure Call Standard for all non-leaf functions. (A leaf function is one that does not call any other functions.) The default is ‘-mno-tpcs-frame’.

-mtpcs-leaf-frame
Generate a stack frame that is compliant with the Thumb Procedure Call Standard for all leaf functions. (A leaf function is one that does not call any other functions.) The default is ‘-mno-apcs-leaf-frame’.

-mcallee-super-interworking
Gives all externally visible functions in the file being compiled an ARM instruction set header which switches to Thumb mode before executing the rest of the function. This allows these functions to be called from non-interworking code.

-mcaller-super-interworking
Allows calls via function pointers (including virtual functions) to execute correctly regardless of whether the target code has been compiled for interworking or not. There is a small overhead in the cost of executing a function pointer if this option is enabled.

3.17.8 MN10200 Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for Matsushita MN10200 architectures:

-mrelax Indicate to the linker that it should perform a relaxation optimization pass to shorten branches, calls and absolute memory addresses. This option only has an effect when used on the command line for the final link step. This option makes symbolic debugging impossible.

3.17.9 MN10300 Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for Matsushita MN10300 architectures:

-mmult-bug
Generate code to avoid bugs in the multiply instructions for the MN10300 processors. This is the default.

-mno-mult-bug
Do not generate code to avoid bugs in the multiply instructions for the MN10300 processors.
-mam33  Generate code which uses features specific to the AM33 processor.

-mno-am33  Do not generate code which uses features specific to the AM33 processor. This is the default.

-mno-crt0  Do not link in the C run-time initialization object file.

-mrelax  Indicate to the linker that it should perform a relaxation optimization pass to shorten branches, calls and absolute memory addresses. This option only has an effect when used on the command line for the final link step. This option makes symbolic debugging impossible.

3.17.10 M32R/D Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for Mitsubishi M32R/D architectures:

-mcode-model=small  
Assume all objects live in the lower 16MB of memory (so that their addresses can be loaded with the ld24 instruction), and assume all subroutines are reachable with the bl instruction. This is the default.

The addressability of a particular object can be set with the model attribute.

-mcode-model=medium  
Assume objects may be anywhere in the 32-bit address space (the compiler will generate seth/add3 instructions to load their addresses), and assume all subroutines are reachable with the bl instruction.

-mcode-model=large  
Assume objects may be anywhere in the 32-bit address space (the compiler will generate seth/add3 instructions to load their addresses), and assume subroutines may not be reachable with the bl instruction (the compiler will generate the much slower seth/add3/jl instruction sequence).

-msdata=none  
Disable use of the small data area. Variables will be put into one of ‘.data’, ‘bss’, or ‘.rodata’ (unless the section attribute has been specified). This is the default.

The small data area consists of sections ‘.sdata’ and ‘.sbss’. Objects may be explicitly put in the small data area with the section attribute using one of these sections.

-msdata=sdata  
Put small global and static data in the small data area, but do not generate special code to reference them.

-msdata=use  
Put small global and static data in the small data area, and generate special instructions to reference them.

- G num  
Put global and static objects less than or equal to num bytes into the small data or bss sections instead of the normal data or bss sections. The default value of num is 8. The ‘-msdata’ option must be set to one of ‘sdata’ or ‘use’ for this option to have any effect.

All modules should be compiled with the same ‘-G num’ value. Compiling with different values of num may or may not work; if it doesn’t the linker will give an error message—incorrect code will not be generated.
3.17.11 M88K Options

These ‘\-m’ options are defined for Motorola 88k architectures:
-\-m88000 Generate code that works well on both the m88100 and the m88110.
-\-m88100 Generate code that works best for the m88100, but that also runs on the m88110.
-\-m88110 Generate code that works best for the m88110, and may not run on the m88100.
-\-mbig-pic
   Obsolete option to be removed from the next revision. Use ‘\-fPIC’.
-\-midentify-revision
   Include an ident directive in the assembler output recording the source file name, compiler name and version, timestamp, and compilation flags used.
-\-mno-underscores
   In assembler output, emit symbol names without adding an underscore character at the beginning of each name. The default is to use an underscore as prefix on each name.
-\-mocs-debug-info
   Include (or omit) additional debugging information (about registers used in each stack frame) as specified in the 88open Object Compatibility Standard, “OCS”. This extra information allows debugging of code that has had the frame pointer eliminated. The default for DG/UX, SVr4, and Delta 88 SVr3.2 is to include this information; other 88k configurations omit this information by default.
-\-mocs-frame-position
   When emitting COFF debugging information for automatic variables and parameters stored on the stack, use the offset from the canonical frame address, which is the stack pointer (register 31) on entry to the function. The DG/UX, SVr4, Delta88 SVr3.2, and BCS configurations use ‘\-mocs-frame-position’; other 88k configurations have the default ‘\-mno-ocs-frame-position’.
-\-mno-ocs-frame-position
   When emitting COFF debugging information for automatic variables and parameters stored on the stack, use the offset from the frame pointer register (register 30). When this option is in effect, the frame pointer is not eliminated when debugging information is selected by the -g switch.
-\-moptimize-arg-area
-\-mno-optimize-arg-area
   Control how function arguments are stored in stack frames. ‘\-moptimize-arg-area’ saves space by optimizing them, but this conflicts with the 88open specifications. The opposite alternative, ‘\-mno-optimize-arg-area’, agrees with 88open standards. By default GCC does not optimize the argument area.
-\-mshort-data-num
   Generate smaller data references by making them relative to r0, which allows loading a value using a single instruction (rather than the usual two). You control which data references are affected by specifying num with this option. For example, if you specify ‘\-mshort-data-512’, then the data references affected are those involving displacements of less than 512 bytes. ‘\-mshort-data-num’ is not effective for num greater than 64k.
-\-mserialize-volatile
-\-mno-serialize-volatile
   Do, or don’t, generate code to guarantee sequential consistency of volatile memory references. By default, consistency is guaranteed.
The order of memory references made by the MC88110 processor does not always match the order of the instructions requesting those references. In particular, a load instruction may execute before a preceding store instruction. Such reordering violates sequential consistency of volatile memory references, when there are multiple processors. When consistency must be guaranteed, GNU C generates special instructions, as needed, to force execution in the proper order.

The MC88100 processor does not reorder memory references and so always provides sequential consistency. However, by default, GNU C generates the special instructions to guarantee consistency even when you use ‘-m88100’, so that the code may be run on an MC88110 processor. If you intend to run your code only on the MC88100 processor, you may use ‘-mno-serialize-volatile’.

The extra code generated to guarantee consistency may affect the performance of your application. If you know that you can safely forgo this guarantee, you may use ‘-mno-serialize-volatile’.

-msvr4  
-msvr3  
Turn on (‘-msvr4’) or off (‘-msvr3’) compiler extensions related to System V release 4 (SVr4). This controls the following:
1. Which variant of the assembler syntax to emit.
2. ‘-msvr4’ makes the C preprocessor recognize ‘#pragma weak’ that is used on System V release 4.
3. ‘-msvr4’ makes GCC issue additional declaration directives used in SVr4.
‘-msvr4’ is the default for the m88k-motorola-sysv4 and m88k-dg-dgux m88k configurations. ‘-msvr3’ is the default for all other m88k configurations.

-mversion-03.00  
This option is obsolete, and is ignored.

-mno-check-zero-division  
-mcheck-zero-division  
Do, or don’t, generate code to guarantee that integer division by zero will be detected. By default, detection is guaranteed.
Some models of the MC88100 processor fail to trap upon integer division by zero under certain conditions. By default, when compiling code that might be run on such a processor, GNU C generates code that explicitly checks for zero-valued divisors and traps with exception number 503 when one is detected. Use of mno-check-zero-division suppresses such checking for code generated to run on an MC88100 processor.

GNU C assumes that the MC88110 processor correctly detects all instances of integer division by zero. When ‘-m88110’ is specified, both ‘-mcheck-zero-division’ and ‘-mno-check-zero-division’ are ignored, and no explicit checks for zero-valued divisors are generated.

-muse-div-instruction  
Use the div instruction for signed integer division on the MC88100 processor. By default, the div instruction is not used.
On the MC88100 processor the signed integer division instruction div) trapps to the operating system on a negative operand. The operating system transparently completes the operation, but at a large cost in execution time. By default, when compiling code that might be run on an MC88100 processor, GNU C emulates signed integer division using the unsigned integer division instruction divu), thereby avoiding the large penalty of a trap to the operating system. Such emulation has its own, smaller, execution cost in both time and space. To the extent that your code’s important signed integer division operations are performed on two nonnegative operands, it may be desirable to use the div instruction directly.
On the MC88110 processor the div instruction (also known as the divs instruction) processes negative operands without trapping to the operating system. When `-m88110` is specified, `-muse-div-instruction` is ignored, and the div instruction is used for signed integer division.

Note that the result of dividing `INT_MIN` by `-1` is undefined. In particular, the behavior of such a division with and without `-muse-div-instruction` may differ.

- **-mtrap-large-shift**
  - **-mhandle-large-shift**
    - Include code to detect bit-shifts of more than 31 bits; respectively, trap such shifts or emit code to handle them properly. By default GCC makes no special provision for large bit shifts.

- **-mwarn-passed-structs**
  - Warn when a function passes a struct as an argument or result. Structure-passing conventions have changed during the evolution of the C language, and are often the source of portability problems. By default, GCC issues no such warning.

### 3.17.12 IBM RS/6000 and PowerPC Options

These `-m` options are defined for the IBM RS/6000 and PowerPC:

- **-mpower**
- **-mno-power**
- **-mpower2**
- **-mno-power2**
- **-mpowerpc**
- **-mno-powerpc**
- **-mpowerpc-gpopt**
- **-mno-powerpc-gpopt**
- **-mpowerpc-gfxopt**
- **-mno-powerpc-gfxopt**
- **-mpowerpc64**
- **-mno-powerpc64**

GCC supports two related instruction set architectures for the RS/6000 and PowerPC. The POWER instruction set are those instructions supported by the ‘rios’ chip set used in the original RS/6000 systems and the PowerPC instruction set is the architecture of the Motorola MPC5xx, MPC6xx, MPC8xx microprocessors, and the IBM 4xx microprocessors.

Neither architecture is a subset of the other. However there is a large common subset of instructions supported by both. An MQ register is included in processors supporting the POWER architecture.

You use these options to specify which instructions are available on the processor you are using. The default value of these options is determined when configuring GCC. Specifying the ‘-mcpu=cpu_type’ overrides the specification of these options. We recommend you use the ‘-mcpu=cpu_type’ option rather than the options listed above.

The `-mpower` option allows GCC to generate instructions that are found only in the POWER architecture and to use the MQ register. Specifying ‘-mpower2’ implies ‘-power’ and also allows GCC to generate instructions that are present in the POWER2 architecture but not the original POWER architecture.

The `-mpowerpc` option allows GCC to generate instructions that are found only in the 32-bit subset of the PowerPC architecture. Specifying ‘-mpowerpc-gpopt’ implies ‘-mpowerpc’ and also allows GCC to use the optional PowerPC architecture.
instructions in the General Purpose group, including floating-point square root. Specifying `-mpowerpc-gfxopt` implies `-mpowerpc` and also allows GCC to use the optional PowerPC architecture instructions in the Graphics group, including floating-point select.

The `-mpowerpc64` option allows GCC to generate the additional 64-bit instructions that are found in the full PowerPC64 architecture and to treat GPRs as 64-bit, doubleword quantities. GCC defaults to `-mno-powerpc64`.

If you specify both `-mno-power` and `-mno-powerpc`, GCC will use only the instructions in the common subset of both architectures plus some special AIX common-mode calls, and will not use the MQ register. Specifying both `-mpower` and `-mpowerpc` permits GCC to use any instruction from either architecture and to allow use of the MQ register; specify this for the Motorola MPC601.

- `mnew-mnemonics`
- `mold-mnemonics`

Select which mnemonics to use in the generated assembler code. `-mnew-mnemonics` requests output that uses the assembler mnemonics defined for the PowerPC architecture, while `-mold-mnemonics` requests the assembler mnemonics defined for the POWER architecture. Instructions defined in only one architecture have only one mnemonic; GCC uses that mnemonic irrespective of which of these options is specified.

GCC defaults to the mnemonics appropriate for the architecture in use. Specifying `-mcpu=cpu_type` sometimes overrides the value of these option. Unless you are building a cross-compiler, you should normally not specify either `-mnew-mnemonics` or `-mold-mnemonics`, but should instead accept the default.

- `mcpu=cpu_type`

Set architecture type, register usage, choice of mnemonics, and instruction scheduling parameters for machine type `cpu_type`. Supported values for `cpu_type` are `rios`, `rios1`, `rsc`, `rios2`, `rs64a`, `601`, `602`, `603`, `603e`, `604`, `604e`, `620`, `630`, `740`, `750`, `power`, `power2`, `powerpc`, `403`, `505`, `801`, `821`, `823`, and `860` and `common`. `-mcpu=power`, `-mcpu=power2`, `-mcpu=powerpc`, and `-mcpu=powerpc64` specify generic POWER, POWER2, pure 32-bit PowerPC (i.e., not MPC601), and 64-bit PowerPC architecture machine types, with an appropriate, generic processor model assumed for scheduling purposes.

Specifying any of the following options: `-mcpu=rios1`, `-mcpu=rios2`, `-mcpu=rsc`, `-mcpu=power`, or `-mcpu=power2` enables the `-mpower` option and disables the `-mpowerpc` option; `-mcpu=601` enables both the `-mpower` and `-mpowerpc` options. All of `-mcpu=rs64a`, `-mcpu=602`, `-mcpu=603`, `-mcpu=603e`, `-mcpu=604`, `-mcpu=604e`, `-mcpu=620`, `-mcpu=630`, `-mcpu=740`, and `-mcpu=750` enable the `-mpowerpc` option and disable the `-mpower` option. Exactly similarly, all of `-mcpu=403`, `-mcpu=505`, `-mcpu=821`, `-mcpu=860` and `-mcpu=powerpc` enable the `-mpowerpc` option and disable the `-mpower` option. `-mcpu=common` disables both the `-mpower` and `-mpowerpc` options.

AIX versions 4 or greater selects `-mcpu=common` by default, so that code will operate on all members of the RS/6000 POWER and PowerPC families. In that case, GCC will use only the instructions in the common subset of both architectures plus some special AIX common-mode calls, and will not use the MQ register. GCC assumes a generic processor model for scheduling purposes.

Specifying any of the options `-mcpu=rios1`, `-mcpu=rios2`, `-mcpu=rsc`, `-mcpu=power`, or `-mcpu=power2` also disables the `new-mnemonics` option. Specifying `-mcpu=601`, `-mcpu=602`, `-mcpu=603`, `-mcpu=603e`, `-mcpu=604`, `-mcpu=604e`, `-mcpu=620`, `-mcpu=630`, `-mcpu=403`, `-mcpu=505`, `-mcpu=821`, `-mcpu=860` or `-mcpu=powerpc` also enables the `new-mnemonics` option.
Specifying ‘-mcpu=403’, ‘-mcpu=821’, or ‘-mcpu=860’ also enables the ‘-msoft-float’ option.

`-mtune=cpu_type`
Set the instruction scheduling parameters for machine type `cpu_type`, but do not set the architecture type, register usage, choice of mnemonics like ‘-mcpu=cpu_type’ would. The same values for `cpu_type` are used for ‘-mtune=cpu_type’ as for ‘-mcpu=cpu_type’. The ‘-mtune=cpu_type’ option overrides the ‘-mcpu=cpu_type’ option in terms of instruction scheduling parameters.

`-mfull-toc`
`-mno-fp-in-toc`
`-mno-sum-in-toc`
`-mminimal-toc`
Modify generation of the TOC (Table Of Contents), which is created for every executable file. The ‘-mfull-toc’ option is selected by default. In that case, GCC will allocate at least one TOC entry for each unique non-automatic variable reference in your program. GCC will also place floating-point constants in the TOC. However, only 16,384 entries are available in the TOC.

If you receive a linker error message that saying you have overflowed the available TOC space, you can reduce the amount of TOC space used with the ‘-mno-fp-in-toc’ and ‘-mno-sum-in-toc’ options. ‘-mno-fp-in-toc’ prevents GCC from putting floating-point constants in the TOC and ‘-mno-sum-in-toc’ forces GCC to generate code to calculate the sum of an address and a constant at run-time instead of putting that sum into the TOC. You may specify one or both of these options. Each causes GCC to produce very slightly slower and larger code at the expense of conserving TOC space.

If you still run out of space in the TOC even when you specify both of these options, specify ‘-mminimal-toc’ instead. This option causes GCC to make only one TOC entry for every file. When you specify this option, GCC will produce code that is slower and larger but which uses extremely little TOC space. You may wish to use this option only on files that contain less frequently executed code.

`-maix64`
`-maix32`
Enable 64-bit AIX ABI and calling convention: 64-bit pointers, 64-bit `long` type, and the infrastructure needed to support them. Specifying ‘-maix64’ implies ‘-mpowerpc64’ and ‘-mpowerpc’, while ‘-maix32’ disables the 64-bit ABI and implies ‘-mno-powerpc64’. GCC defaults to ‘-maix32’.

`-mxl-call`
`-mno-xl-call`
On AIX, pass floating-point arguments to prototyped functions beyond the register save area (RSA) on the stack in addition to argument FPRs. The AIX calling convention was extended but not initially documented to handle an obscure K&R C case of calling a function that takes the address of its arguments with fewer arguments than declared. AIX XL compilers access floating point arguments which do not fit in the RSA from the stack when a subroutine is compiled without optimization. Because always storing floating-point arguments on the stack is inefficient and rarely needed, this option is not enabled by default and only is necessary when calling subroutines compiled by AIX XL compilers without optimization.

`-mthreads`
Support AIX Threads. Link an application written to use `pthreads` with special libraries and startup code to enable the application to run.

`-mpe`
Support IBM RS/6000 SP Parallel Environment (PE). Link an application written to use message passing with special startup code to enable the application to run.
The system must have PE installed in the standard location (`/usr/lpp/ppe.poe/`), or the ‘specs’ file must be overridden with the ‘-specs=’ option to specify the appropriate directory location. The Parallel Environment does not support threads, so the ‘-mpe’ option and the ‘-mthreads’ option are incompatible.

-msoft-float
-mhard-float
Generate code that does not use (uses) the floating-point register set. Software floating point emulation is provided if you use the ‘-msoft-float’ option, and pass the option to GCC when linking.

-mmultiple
-mno-multiple
Generate code that uses (does not use) the load multiple word instructions and the store multiple word instructions. These instructions are generated by default on POWER systems, and not generated on PowerPC systems. Do not use ‘-mmultiple’ on little endian PowerPC systems, since those instructions do not work when the processor is in little endian mode. The exceptions are PPC740 and PPC750 which permit the instructions usage in little endian mode.

-mstring
-mno-string
Generate code that uses (does not use) the load string instructions and the store string word instructions to save multiple registers and do small block moves. These instructions are generated by default on POWER systems, and not generated on PowerPC systems. Do not use ‘-mstring’ on little endian PowerPC systems, since those instructions do not work when the processor is in little endian mode. The exceptions are PPC740 and PPC750 which permit the instructions usage in little endian mode.

-mupdate
-mno-update
Generate code that uses (does not use) the load or store instructions that update the base register to the address of the calculated memory location. These instructions are generated by default. If you use ‘-mno-update’, there is a small window between the time that the stack pointer is updated and the address of the previous frame is stored, which means code that walks the stack frame across interrupts or signals may get corrupted data.

-mfused-madd
-mno-fused-madd
Generate code that uses (does not use) the floating point multiply and accumulate instructions. These instructions are generated by default if hardware floating is used.

-mno-bit-align
-mbit-align
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems do not (do) force structures and unions that contain bit-fields to be aligned to the base type of the bit-field. For example, by default a structure containing nothing but 8 unsigned bit-fields of length 1 would be aligned to a 4 byte boundary and have a size of 4 bytes. By using ‘-mno-bit-align’, the structure would be aligned to a 1 byte boundary and be one byte in size.

-mno-strict-align
-mstrict-align
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems do not (do) assume that unaligned memory references will be handled by the system.
-mrelocatable
-mno-relocatable
On embedded PowerPC systems generate code that allows (does not allow) the program to be relocated to a different address at runtime. If you use ‘-mrelocatable’ on any module, all objects linked together must be compiled with ‘-mrelocatable’ or ‘-mrelocatable-lib’.

-mrelocatable-lib
-mno-relocatable-lib
On embedded PowerPC systems generate code that allows (does not allow) the program to be relocated to a different address at runtime. Modules compiled with ‘-mrelocatable-lib’ can be linked with either modules compiled without ‘-mrelocatable’ and ‘-mrelocatable-lib’ or with modules compiled with the ‘-mrelocatable’ options.

-mno-toc
-mtoc
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems do not (do) assume that register 2 contains a pointer to a global area pointing to the addresses used in the program.

-mlittle
-mlittle-endian
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code for the processor in little endian mode. The ‘-mlittle-endian’ option is the same as ‘-mlittle’.

-mbig
-mbig-endian
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code for the processor in big endian mode. The ‘-mbig-endian’ option is the same as ‘-mbig’.

-mcall-sysv
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code using calling conventions that adhere to the March 1995 draft of the System V Application Binary Interface, PowerPC processor supplement. This is the default unless you configured GCC using ‘powerpc-*-eabiaix’.

-mcall-sysv-eabi
Specify both ‘-mcall-sysv’ and ‘-meabi’ options.

-mcall-sysv-noeabi
Specify both ‘-mcall-sysv’ and ‘-mno-eabi’ options.

-mcall-aix
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code using calling conventions that are similar to those used on AIX. This is the default if you configured GCC using ‘powerpc-*-eabiaix’.

-mcall-solaris
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code for the Solaris operating system.

-mcall-linux
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems compile code for the Linux-based GNU system.

-mprototype
-mno-prototype
On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems assume that all calls to variable argument functions are properly prototyped. Otherwise, the compiler must insert an instruction before every non prototyped call to set or clear bit 6 of the condition code register (CR) to indicate whether floating point values were passed in the floating
point registers in case the function takes a variable arguments. With `-mprototype`, only calls to prototyped variable argument functions will set or clear the bit.

`-msim`  On embedded PowerPC systems, assume that the startup module is called `sim-crt0.o` and that the standard C libraries are `libsim.a` and `libc.a`. This is the default for `powerpc-*eabisim` configurations.

`-mmvme`  On embedded PowerPC systems, assume that the startup module is called `crt0.o` and the standard C libraries are `libmvme.a` and `libc.a`.

`-mads`  On embedded PowerPC systems, assume that the startup module is called `crt0.o` and the standard C libraries are `libads.a` and `libc.a`.

`-myellowknife`  On embedded PowerPC systems, assume that the startup module is called `crt0.o` and the standard C libraries are `libyk.a` and `libc.a`.

`-mvxworks`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems, specify that you are compiling for a VxWorks system.

`-memb`  On embedded PowerPC systems, set the PPC EMB bit in the ELF flags header to indicate that `eabi` extended relocations are used.

`-meabi`  `-mno-eabi`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems do (do not) adhere to the Embedded Applications Binary Interface (eabi) which is a set of modifications to the System V.4 specifications. Selecting `-meabi` means that the stack is aligned to an 8 byte boundary, a function `__eabi` is called to from `main` to set up the eabi environment, and the `-msdata` option can use both r2 and r13 to point to two separate small data areas. Selecting `-mno-eabi` means that the stack is aligned to a 16 byte boundary, do not call an initialization function from `main`, and the `-msdata` option will only use r13 to point to a single small data area. The `-meabi` option is on by default if you configured GCC using one of the `powerpc*-*eabi*` options.

`-msdata=eabi`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems, put small initialized `const` global and static data in the `.sdata2` section, which is pointed to by register r2. Put small initialized non-`const` global and static data in the `.sdata` section, which is pointed to by register r13. Put small uninitialized global and static data in the `.sbss` section, which is adjacent to the `.sdata` section. The `-msdata=eabi` option is incompatible with the `-mrelocatable` option. The `-msdata=eabi` option also sets the `-memb` option.

`-msdata=sysv`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems, put small global and static data in the `.sdata` section, which is pointed to by register r13. Put small uninitialized global and static data in the `.sbss` section, which is adjacent to the `.sdata` section. The `-msdata=sysv` option is incompatible with the `-mrelocatable` option.

`-msdata=default`  `-msdata`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems, if `-meabi` is used, compile code the same as `-msdata=eabi`, otherwise compile code the same as `-msdata=sysv`.

`-msdata-data`  On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems, put small global and static data in the `.sdata` section. Put small uninitialized global and static data in the `.sbss` section. Do not use register r13 to address small data however. This is the default behavior unless other `-msdata` options are used.
\texttt{-msdata=none}
\texttt{-mno-sdata}

On embedded PowerPC systems, put all initialized global and static data in the '.\texttt{data}' section, and all uninitialized data in the '.\texttt{bss}' section.

\texttt{-G num}

On embedded PowerPC systems, put global and static items less than or equal to \texttt{num} bytes into the small data or bss sections instead of the normal data or bss section. By default, \texttt{num} is 8. The ‘\texttt{-G num}’ switch is also passed to the linker. All modules should be compiled with the same ‘\texttt{-G num}’ value.

\texttt{-mregnames}
\texttt{-mno-regnames}

On System V.4 and embedded PowerPC systems do (do not) emit register names in the assembly language output using symbolic forms.

### 3.17.13 IBM RT Options

These ‘\texttt{-m}’ options are defined for the IBM RT PC:

\texttt{-min-line-mul}

Use an in-line code sequence for integer multiplies. This is the default.

\texttt{-mcall-lib-mul}

Call \texttt{lmul\$\$} for integer multiplies.

\texttt{-mfull-fp-blocks}

Generate full-size floating point data blocks, including the minimum amount of scratch space recommended by IBM. This is the default.

\texttt{-minimum-fp-blocks}

Do not include extra scratch space in floating point data blocks. This results in smaller code, but slower execution, since scratch space must be allocated dynamically.

\texttt{-mfp-arg-in-fpregs}

Use a calling sequence incompatible with the IBM calling convention in which floating point arguments are passed in floating point registers. Note that \texttt{varargs.h} and \texttt{stdarg.h} will not work with floating point operands if this option is specified.

\texttt{-mfp-arg-in-gregs}

Use the normal calling convention for floating point arguments. This is the default.

\texttt{-mhc-struct-return}

Return structures of more than one word in memory, rather than in a register. This provides compatibility with the MetaWare HighC (hc) compiler. Use the option ‘\texttt{-fpcc-struct-return}’ for compatibility with the Portable C Compiler (pcc).

\texttt{-mnohc-struct-return}

Return some structures of more than one word in registers, when convenient. This is the default. For compatibility with the IBM-supplied compilers, use the option ‘\texttt{-fpcc-struct-return}’ or the option ‘\texttt{-mhc-struct-return}’.

### 3.17.14 MIPS Options

These ‘\texttt{-m}’ options are defined for the MIPS family of computers:

\texttt{-mcpu=cpu-type}

Assume the defaults for the machine type \texttt{cpu-type} when scheduling instructions. The choices for \texttt{cpu-type} are ‘\texttt{r2000}’, ‘\texttt{r3000}’, ‘\texttt{r3900}’, ‘\texttt{r4000}’, ‘\texttt{r4100}’, ‘\texttt{r4300}’,
-mips1 Issue instructions from level 1 of the MIPS ISA. This is the default. ‘r3000’ is the default cpu-type at this ISA level.

- mips2 Issue instructions from level 2 of the MIPS ISA (branch likely, square root instructions). ‘r6000’ is the default cpu-type at this ISA level.

- mips3 Issue instructions from level 3 of the MIPS ISA (64-bit instructions). ‘r4000’ is the default cpu-type at this ISA level.

- mips4 Issue instructions from level 4 of the MIPS ISA (conditional move, prefetch, enhanced FPU instructions). ‘r8000’ is the default cpu-type at this ISA level.

- mfp32 Assume that 32 32-bit floating point registers are available. This is the default.

- mfp64 Assume that 32 64-bit floating point registers are available. This is the default when the ‘-mips3’ option is used.

- mgp32 Assume that 32 32-bit general purpose registers are available. This is the default.

- mgp64 Assume that 32 64-bit general purpose registers are available. This is the default when the ‘-mips3’ option is used.

- mint64 Force int and long types to be 64 bits wide. See ‘-mlong32’ for an explanation of the default, and the width of pointers.

- mlong64 Force long types to be 64 bits wide. See ‘-mlong32’ for an explanation of the default, and the width of pointers.

- mlong32 Force long, int, and pointer types to be 32 bits wide.

If none of ‘-mlong32’, ‘-mlong64’, or ‘-mint64’ are set, the size of ints, longs, and pointers depends on the ABI and ISA chosen. For ‘-mabi=32’, and ‘-mabi=n32’, ints and longs are 32 bits wide. For ‘-mabi=64’, ints are 32 bits, and longs are 64 bits wide. For ‘-mabi=eabi’ and either ‘-mips1’ or ‘-mips2’, ints and longs are 32 bits wide. For ‘-mabi=eabi’ and higher ISAs, ints are 32 bits, and longs are 64 bits wide. The width of pointer types is the smaller of the width of longs or the width of general purpose registers (which in turn depends on the ISA).

- mabi=32
- mabi=o64
- mabi=n32
- mabi=64
- mabi=eabi

Generate code for the indicated ABI. The default instruction level is ‘-mips1’ for ‘32’, ‘-mips3’ for ‘n32’, and ‘-mips4’ otherwise. Conversely, with ‘-mips1’ or ‘-mips2’, the default ABI is ‘32’; otherwise, the default ABI is ‘64’.

- mmips-as

Generate code for the MIPS assembler, and invoke ‘mips-tfile’ to add normal debug information. This is the default for all platforms except for the OSF/1 reference platform, using the OSF/rose object format. If the either of the ‘-gstabs’ or ‘-gstabs+’ switches are used, the ‘mips-tfile’ program will encapsulate the stabs within MIPS ECOFF.
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-**mgas**
  Generate code for the GNU assembler. This is the default on the OSF/1 reference platform, using the OSF/rose object format. Also, this is the default if the configure option ‘--with-gnu-as’ is used.

-**msplit-addresses**
-**mno-split-addresses**
  Generate code to load the high and low parts of address constants separately. This allows gcc to optimize away redundant loads of the high order bits of addresses. This optimization requires GNU as and GNU ld. This optimization is enabled by default for some embedded targets where GNU as and GNU ld are standard.

-**mrnames**
-**mno-rnames**
  The ‘-mrnames’ switch says to output code using the MIPS software names for the registers, instead of the hardware names (ie, a0 instead of $4). The only known assembler that supports this option is the Algorithmics assembler.

-**mgpopt**
-**mno-gpopt**
  The ‘-mgpopt’ switch says to write all of the data declarations before the instructions in the text section, this allows the MIPS assembler to generate one word memory references instead of using two words for short global or static data items. This is on by default if optimization is selected.

-**mstats**
-**mno-stats**
  For each non-inline function processed, the ‘-mstats’ switch causes the compiler to emit one line to the standard error file to print statistics about the program (number of registers saved, stack size, etc.).

-**mmemcpy**
-**mno-memcpy**
  The ‘-mmemcpy’ switch makes all block moves call the appropriate string function (‘memcpy’ or ‘bcopy’) instead of possibly generating inline code.

-**mips-tfile**
-**mno-mips-tfile**
  The ‘-mips-tfile’ switch causes the compiler not postprocess the object file with the ‘mips-tfile’ program, after the MIPS assembler has generated it to add debug support. If ‘mips-tfile’ is not run, then no local variables will be available to the debugger. In addition, ‘stage2’ and ‘stage3’ objects will have the temporary file names passed to the assembler embedded in the object file, which means the objects will not compare the same. The ‘-mno-mips-tfile’ switch should only be used when there are bugs in the ‘mips-tfile’ program that prevents compilation.

-**msoft-float**
  Generate output containing library calls for floating point. **Warning:** the requisite libraries are not part of GCC. Normally the facilities of the machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this can’t be done directly in cross-compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library functions for cross-compilation.

-**mhard-float**
  Generate output containing floating point instructions. This is the default if you use the unmodified sources.

-**mabicalls**
-**mno-abicalls**
  Emit (or do not emit) the pseudo operations ‘.abicalls’, ‘.cload’, and ‘.cprestore’ that some System V.4 ports use for position independent code.
-mlong-calls
-mno-long-calls
  Do all calls with the ‘JALR’ instruction, which requires loading up a function’s address into a register before the call. You need to use this switch, if you call outside of the current 512 megabyte segment to functions that are not through pointers.

-mhalf-pic
-mno-half-pic
  Put pointers to extern references into the data section and load them up, rather than put the references in the text section.

-membedded-pic
-mno-embedded-pic
  Generate PIC code suitable for some embedded systems. All calls are made using PC relative address, and all data is addressed using the $gp register. No more than 65536 bytes of global data may be used. This requires GNU as and GNU ld which do most of the work. This currently only works on targets which use ECOFF; it does not work with ELF.

-membedded-data
-mno-embedded-data
  Allocate variables to the read-only data section first if possible, then next in the small data section if possible, otherwise in data. This gives slightly slower code than the default, but reduces the amount of RAM required when executing, and thus may be preferred for some embedded systems.

-muninit-const-in-rodata
-mno-uninit-const-in-rodata
  When used together with ‘-membedded-data’, it will always store uninitialized const variables in the read-only data section.

-msingle-float
-mdouble-float
  The ‘msingle-float’ switch tells gcc to assume that the floating point coprocessor only supports single precision operations, as on the ‘r4650’ chip. The ‘mdouble-float’ switch permits gcc to use double precision operations. This is the default.

-mmad
-mno-mad
  Permit use of the ‘mad’, ‘madu’ and ‘mul’ instructions, as on the ‘r4650’ chip.

-m4650
  Turns on ‘-msingle-float’, ‘-mmad’, and, at least for now, ‘-mcpu=r4650’.

-mips16
-mno-mips16
  Enable 16-bit instructions.

-mentry
  Use the entry and exit pseudo ops. This option can only be used with ‘-mips16’.

-EL
  Compile code for the processor in little endian mode. The requisite libraries are assumed to exist.

-EB
  Compile code for the processor in big endian mode. The requisite libraries are assumed to exist.

-G num
  Put global and static items less than or equal to num bytes into the small data or bss sections instead of the normal data or bss section. This allows the assembler to emit one word memory reference instructions based on the global pointer ($gp or $28), instead of the normal two words used. By default, num is 8 when the MIPS assembler is used, and 0 when the GNU assembler is used. The ‘-G num’ switch is
also passed to the assembler and linker. All modules should be compiled with the same `-G num` value.

- nocpp
  Tell the MIPS assembler to not run its preprocessor over user assembler files (with a `.s` suffix) when assembling them.

- mfix7000
  Pass an option to gas which will cause nops to be inserted if the read of the destination register of an mfhi or mflo instruction occurs in the following two instructions.

- no-crt0
  Do not include the default crt0.

These options are defined by the macro `TARGET_SWITCHES` in the machine description. The default for the options is also defined by that macro, which enables you to change the defaults.

### 3.17.15 Intel 386 Options

These `'-m'` options are defined for the i386 family of computers:

- `mcpu=cpu-type`
  Assume the defaults for the machine type `cpu-type` when scheduling instructions. The choices for `cpu-type` are `'i386'`, `'i486'`, `'i586'`, `'i686'`, `'pentium'`, `'pentiumpro'`, `'k6'`, and `'athlon'`.
  While picking a specific `cpu-type` will schedule things appropriately for that particular chip, the compiler will not generate any code that does not run on the i386 without the `'-march=cpu-type'` option being used. `'i586'` is equivalent to `'pentium'` and `'i686'` is equivalent to `'pentiumpro'`. `'k6'` is the AMD chip as opposed to the Intel ones.

- `march=cpu-type`
  Generate instructions for the machine type `cpu-type`. The choices for `cpu-type` are the same as for `'-mcpu'`. Moreover, specifying `'-march=cpu-type'` implies `'-mcpu=cpu-type'`.

- `m386`
- `m486`
- `mpentium`
- `mpentiumpro`
  Synonyms for `'-mcpu=i386'`, `'-mcpu=i486'`, `'-mcpu=pentium'`, and `'-mcpu=pentiumpro'` respectively. These synonyms are deprecated.

- `mintel-syntax`
  Emit assembly using Intel syntax opcodes instead of AT&T syntax.

- `mieee-fp`
- `mno-ieee-fp`
  Control whether or not the compiler uses IEEE floating point comparisons. These handle correctly the case where the result of a comparison is unordered.

- `msoft-float`
  Generate output containing library calls for floating point. **Warning:** the requisite libraries are not part of GCC. Normally the facilities of the machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this can’t be done directly in cross-compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library functions for cross-compilation.
  On machines where a function returns floating point results in the 80387 register stack, some floating point opcodes may be emitted even if `'-msoft-float'` is used.

- `mno-fp-ret-in-387`
  Do not use the FPU registers for return values of functions.
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The usual calling convention has functions return values of types float and double in an FPU register, even if there is no FPU. The idea is that the operating system should emulate an FPU.

The option ‘-mno-fp-ret-in-387’ causes such values to be returned in ordinary CPU registers instead.

-mno-fancy-math-387
Some 387 emulators do not support the sin, cos and sqrt instructions for the 387. Specify this option to avoid generating those instructions. This option is the default on FreeBSD. As of revision 2.6.1, these instructions are not generated unless you also use the ‘-ffast-math’ switch.

-malign-double
-mno-align-double
Control whether GCC aligns double, long double, and long long variables on a two word boundary or a one word boundary. Aligning double variables on a two word boundary will produce code that runs somewhat faster on a ‘Pentium’ at the expense of more memory.

-m128bit-long-double
Control the size of long double type. i386 application binary interface specify the size to be 12 bytes, while modern architectures (Pentium and newer) prefer long double aligned to 8 or 16 byte boundary. This is impossible to reach with 12 byte long doubles in the array accesses.

Warning: if you use the ‘-m128bit-long-double’ switch, the structures and arrays containing long double will change their size as well as function calling convention for function taking long double will be modified.

-m96bit-long-double
Set the size of long double to 96 bits as required by the i386 application binary interface. This is the default.

-msvr3-shlib
-msvr3-shlib
Control whether GCC places uninitialized locals into bss or data. ‘-msvr3-shlib’ places these locals into bss. These options are meaningful only on System V Release 3.

-mno-wide-multiply
-mwide-multiply
Control whether GCC uses the mul and imul that produce 64-bit results in eax:edx from 32-bit operands to do long long multiplies and 32-bit division by constants.

-mrtd
Use a different function-calling convention, in which functions that take a fixed number of arguments return with the ret num instruction, which pops their arguments while returning. This saves one instruction in the caller since there is no need to pop the arguments there.

You can specify that an individual function is called with this calling sequence with the function attribute ‘stdcall’. You can also override the ‘-mrtd’ option by using the function attribute ‘cdecl’. See Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136.

Warning: this calling convention is incompatible with the one normally used on Unix, so you cannot use it if you need to call libraries compiled with the Unix compiler.
Also, you must provide function prototypes for all functions that take variable numbers of arguments (including `printf`); otherwise incorrect code will be generated for calls to those functions.

In addition, seriously incorrect code will result if you call a function with too many arguments. (Normally, extra arguments are harmlessly ignored.)

```
-mreg-alloc=regs
```

Control the default allocation order of integer registers. The string `regs` is a series of letters specifying a register. The supported letters are: `a` allocate EAX; `b` allocate EBX; `c` allocate ECX; `d` allocate EDX; `S` allocate ESI; `D` allocate EDI; `B` allocate EBP. This option is deprecated and will not be supported by future releases of gcc.

```
-mregparm=num
```

Control how many registers are used to pass integer arguments. By default, no registers are used to pass arguments, and at most 3 registers can be used. You can control this behavior for a specific function by using the function attribute `regparm`. See Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136.

**Warning:** if you use this switch, and `num` is nonzero, then you must build all modules with the same value, including any libraries. This includes the system libraries and startup modules.

```
-malign-loops=num
```

Align loops to a 2 raised to a `num` byte boundary. If `--malign-loops` is not specified, the default is 2 unless gas 2.8 (or later) is being used in which case the default is to align the loop on a 16 byte boundary if it is less than 8 bytes away.

```
-malign-jumps=num
```

Align instructions that are only jumped to to a 2 raised to a `num` byte boundary. If `--malign-jumps` is not specified, the default is 2 if optimizing for a 386, and 4 if optimizing for a 486 unless gas 2.8 (or later) is being used in which case the default is to align the instruction on a 16 byte boundary if it is less than 8 bytes away.

```
-malign-functions=num
```

Align the start of functions to a 2 raised to `num` byte boundary. If `--malign-functions` is not specified, the default is 2 if optimizing for a 386, and 4 if optimizing for a 486.

```
-mpreferred-stack-boundary=num
```

Attempt to keep the stack boundary aligned to a 2 raised to `num` byte boundary. If `--mpreferred-stack-boundary` is not specified, the default is 4 (16 bytes or 128 bits).

The stack is required to be aligned on a 4 byte boundary. On Pentium and PentiumPro, `double` and `long double` values should be aligned to an 8 byte boundary (see `--malign-double`) or suffer significant run time performance penalties. On Pentium III, the Streaming SIMD Extension (SSE) data type `__m128` suffers similar penalties if it is not 16 byte aligned.

To ensure proper alignment of this values on the stack, the stack boundary must be as aligned as that required by any value stored on the stack. Further, every function must be generated such that it keeps the stack aligned. Thus calling a function compiled with a higher preferred stack boundary from a function compiled with a lower preferred stack boundary will most likely misalign the stack. It is recommended that libraries that use callbacks always use the default setting.

This extra alignment does consume extra stack space. Code that is sensitive to stack space usage, such as embedded systems and operating system kernels, may want to reduce the preferred alignment to `--mpreferred-stack-boundary=2`.
-mpush-args
Use PUSH operations to store outgoing parameters. This method is shorter and usually equally fast as method using SUB/MOV operations and is enabled by default. In some cases disabling it may improve performance because of improved scheduling and reduced dependencies.

-maccumulate-outgoing-args
If enabled, the maximum amount of space required for outgoing arguments will be computed in the function prologue. This in faster on most modern CPUs because of reduced dependencies, improved scheduling and reduced stack usage when preferred stack boundary is not equal to 2. The drawback is a notable increase in code size. This switch implies ‘-mno-push-args’.

-mthreads
Support thread-safe exception handling on ‘Mingw32’. Code that relies on thread-safe exception handling must compile and link all code with the ‘-mthreads’ option. When compiling, ‘-mthreads’ defines ‘-D_MT’; when linking, it links in a special thread helper library ‘-lmingwthrd’ which cleans up per thread exception handling data.

-mno-align-stringops
Do not align destination of inlined string operations. This switch reduces code size and improves performance in case the destination is already aligned, but gcc don’t know about it.

-minline-all-stringops
By default GCC inlines string operations only when destination is known to be aligned at least to 4 byte boundary. This enables more inlining, increase code size, but may improve performance of code that depends on fast memcpy, strlen and memset for short lengths.

-momit-leaf-frame-pointer
Don’t keep the frame pointer in a register for leaf functions. This avoids the instructions to save, set up and restore frame pointers and makes an extra register available in leaf functions. The option ‘-fomit-frame-pointer’ removes the frame pointer for all functions which might make debugging harder.

3.17.16 HPPA Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the HPPA family of computers:

-march=architecture-type
Generate code for the specified architecture. The choices for architecture-type are ‘1.0’ for PA 1.0, ‘1.1’ for PA 1.1, and ‘2.0’ for PA 2.0 processors. Refer to ‘/usr/lib/sched.models’ on an HP-UX system to determine the proper architecture option for your machine. Code compiled for lower numbered architectures will run on higher numbered architectures, but not the other way around.

PA 2.0 support currently requires gas snapshot 19990413 or later. The next release of binutils (current is 2.9.1) will probably contain PA 2.0 support.

-mpa-risc-1-0
-mpa-risc-1-1
-mpa-risc-2-0
Synonyms for ‘-march=1.0’, ‘-march=1.1’, and ‘-march=2.0’ respectively.

-mbig-switch
Generate code suitable for big switch tables. Use this option only if the assembler/linker complain about out of range branches within a switch table.
-mjump-in-delay
Fill delay slots of function calls with unconditional jump instructions by modifying
the return pointer for the function call to be the target of the conditional jump.

-mdisable-fpregs
Prevent floating point registers from being used in any manner. This is necessary for
compiling kernels which perform lazy context switching of floating point registers. If
you use this option and attempt to perform floating point operations, the compiler
will abort.

-mdisable-indexing
Prevent the compiler from using indexing address modes. This avoids some rather
obscure problems when compiling MIG generated code under MACH.

-mno-space-regs
Generate code that assumes the target has no space registers. This allows GCC to
generate faster indirect calls and use unscaled index address modes.
Such code is suitable for level 0 PA systems and kernels.

-mfast-indirect-calls
Generate code that assumes calls never cross space boundaries. This allows GCC
to emit code which performs faster indirect calls.
This option will not work in the presence of shared libraries or nested functions.

-mlong-load-store
Generate 3-instruction load and store sequences as sometimes required by the HP-
UX 10 linker. This is equivalent to the ‘+k’ option to the HP compilers.

-mportable-runtime
Use the portable calling conventions proposed by HP for ELF systems.

-mgas
Enable the use of assembler directives only GAS understands.

-mschedule=cpu-type
Schedule code according to the constraints for the machine type cpu-type. The
choices for cpu-type are ‘700’ ‘7100’, ‘7100LC’, ‘7200’, and ‘8000’. Refer to
’/usr/lib/sched.models’ on an HP-UX system to determine the proper scheduling
option for your machine.

-mlinker-opt
Enable the optimization pass in the HPUX linker. Note this makes symbolic de-
bugging impossible. It also triggers a bug in the HPUX 8 and HPUX 9 linkers in
which they give bogus error messages when linking some programs.

-msoft-float
Generate output containing library calls for floating point. Warning: the requi-
site libraries are not available for all HPPA targets. Normally the facilities of the
machine’s usual C compiler are used, but this cannot be done directly in cross-
compilation. You must make your own arrangements to provide suitable library
functions for cross-compilation. The embedded target ‘hppa1.1-*-pro’ does pro-
vide software floating point support.
‘-msoft-float’ changes the calling convention in the output file; therefore, it is
only useful if you compile all of a program with this option. In particular, you need
to compile ‘libgcc.a’, the library that comes with GCC, with ‘-msoft-float’ in
order for this to work.

3.17.17 Intel 960 Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the Intel 960 implementations:
-mcpu-type
Assume the defaults for the machine type cpu-type for some of the other options, including instruction scheduling, floating point support, and addressing modes. The choices for cpu-type are ‘ka’, ‘kb’, ‘mc’, ‘ca’, ‘cf’, ‘sa’, and ‘sb’. The default is ‘kb’.

-mnumerics
-msoft-float
The ‘-mnumerics’ option indicates that the processor does support floating-point instructions. The ‘-msoft-float’ option indicates that floating-point support should not be assumed.

-mleaf-procedures
-mno-leaf-procedures
Do (or do not) attempt to alter leaf procedures to be callable with the bal instruction as well as call. This will result in more efficient code for explicit calls when the bal instruction can be substituted by the assembler or linker, but less efficient code in other cases, such as calls via function pointers, or using a linker that doesn’t support this optimization.

-mtail-call
-mno-tail-call
Do (or do not) make additional attempts (beyond those of the machine-independent portions of the compiler) to optimize tail-recursive calls into branches. You may not want to do this because the detection of cases where this is not valid is not totally complete. The default is ‘-mno-tail-call’.

-mcomplex-addr
-mno-complex-addr
Assume (or do not assume) that the use of a complex addressing mode is a win on this implementation of the i960. Complex addressing modes may not be worthwhile on the K-series, but they definitely are on the C-series. The default is currently ‘-mcomplex-addr’ for all processors except the CB and CC.

-mcode-align
-mno-code-align
Align code to 8-byte boundaries for faster fetching (or don’t bother). Currently turned on by default for C-series implementations only.

-mic-compat
-mic2.0-compat
-mic3.0-compat
Enable compatibility with iC960 v2.0 or v3.0.

-masm-compat
-mintel-asm
Enable compatibility with the iC960 assembler.

-mstruct-align
-mno-struct-align
Do not permit (do permit) unaligned accesses.

-mold-align
Enable structure-alignment compatibility with Intel’s gcc release version 1.3 (based on gcc 1.37). This option implies ‘-mstruct-align’.

-mlong-double-64
Implement type ‘long double’ as 64-bit floating point numbers. Without the option ‘long double’ is implemented by 80-bit floating point numbers. The only reason we have it because there is no 128-bit ‘long double’ support in ‘fp-bit.c’ yet. So it
is only useful for people using soft-float targets. Otherwise, we should recommend against use of it.

3.17.18 DEC Alpha Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the DEC Alpha implementations:

- `mno-soft-float`
- `msoft-float`
  Use (do not use) the hardware floating-point instructions for floating-point operations. When ‘-msoft-float’ is specified, functions in ‘libgcc1.c’ will be used to perform floating-point operations. Unless they are replaced by routines that emulate the floating-point operations, or compiled in such a way as to call such emulations routines, these routines will issue floating-point operations. If you are compiling for an Alpha without floating-point operations, you must ensure that the library is built so as not to call them.
  Note that Alpha implementations without floating-point operations are required to have floating-point registers.

- `mfp-reg`
- `mno-fp-regs`
  Generate code that uses (does not use) the floating-point register set. ‘-mno-fp-regs’ implies ‘-msoft-float’. If the floating-point register set is not used, floating point operands are passed in integer registers as if they were integers and floating-point results are passed in $0$ instead of $f0$. This is a non-standard calling sequence, so any function with a floating-point argument or return value called by code compiled with ‘-mno-fp-regs’ must also be compiled with that option.
  A typical use of this option is building a kernel that does not use, and hence need not save and restore, any floating-point registers.

- `mieee`
  The Alpha architecture implements floating-point hardware optimized for maximum performance. It is mostly compliant with the IEEE floating point standard. However, for full compliance, software assistance is required. This option generates code fully IEEE compliant code except that the inexact-flag is not maintained (see below). If this option is turned on, the CPP macro `_IEEE_FP` is defined during compilation. The option is a shorthand for: ‘-D_IEEE_FP -mfp-trap-mode=su -mtrap-precision=i -mieee-conformant’. The resulting code is less efficient but is able to correctly support denormalized numbers and exceptional IEEE values such as not-a-number and plus/minus infinity. Other Alpha compilers call this option ‘-ieee_with_no_inexact’.

- `mieee-with-inexact`
  This is like ‘mieee’ except the generated code also maintains the IEEE inexact-flag. Turning on this option causes the generated code to implement fully-compliant IEEE math. The option is a shorthand for ‘-D_IEEE_FP -D_IEEE_FP_INEXACT’ plus the three following: ‘-mieee-conformant’, ‘-mfp-trap-mode=sui’, and ‘-mtrap-precision=i’. On some Alpha implementations the resulting code may execute significantly slower than the code generated by default. Since there is very little code that depends on the inexact-flag, you should normally not specify this option. Other Alpha compilers call this option ‘-ieee_with_inexact’.

- `mfp-trap-mode=trap-mode`
  This option controls what floating-point related traps are enabled. Other Alpha compilers call this option ‘-fptm trap-mode’. The trap mode can be set to one of four values:
`n`  This is the default (normal) setting. The only traps that are enabled are the ones that cannot be disabled in software (e.g., division by zero trap).

`u`  In addition to the traps enabled by `n`, underflow traps are enabled as well.

`su`  Like `su`, but the instructions are marked to be safe for software completion (see Alpha architecture manual for details).

`sui`  Like `su`, but inexact traps are enabled as well.

```
-mfp-rounding-mode=rounding-mode
```

Selects the IEEE rounding mode. Other Alpha compilers call this option `-fprm rounding-mode`. The `rounding-mode` can be one of:

`n`  Normal IEEE rounding mode. Floating point numbers are rounded towards the nearest machine number or towards the even machine number in case of a tie.

`m`  Round towards minus infinity.

`c`  Chopped rounding mode. Floating point numbers are rounded towards zero.

`d`  Dynamic rounding mode. A field in the floating point control register (`fpcr`, see Alpha architecture reference manual) controls the rounding mode in effect. The C library initializes this register for rounding towards plus infinity. Thus, unless your program modifies the `fpcr`, `d` corresponds to round towards plus infinity.

```
-mtrap-precision=trap-precision
```

In the Alpha architecture, floating point traps are imprecise. This means without software assistance it is impossible to recover from a floating trap and program execution normally needs to be terminated. GCC can generate code that can assist operating system trap handlers in determining the exact location that caused a floating point trap. Depending on the requirements of an application, different levels of precisions can be selected:

`p`  Program precision. This option is the default and means a trap handler can only identify which program caused a floating point exception.

`f`  Function precision. The trap handler can determine the function that caused a floating point exception.

`i`  Instruction precision. The trap handler can determine the exact instruction that caused a floating point exception.

Other Alpha compilers provide the equivalent options called `-scope_safe` and `-resumption_safe`.

```
-mieee-conformant
```

This option marks the generated code as IEEE conformant. You must not use this option unless you also specify `-mtrap-precision=i` and either `-mfp-trap-mode=su` or `-mfp-trap-mode=sui`. Its only effect is to emit the line `.eflag 48` in the function prologue of the generated assembly file. Under DEC Unix, this has the effect that IEEE-conformant math library routines will be linked in.

```
-mbuild-constants
```

Normally GCC examines a 32- or 64-bit integer constant to see if it can construct it from smaller constants in two or three instructions. If it cannot, it will output the constant as a literal and generate code to load it from the data segment at runtime.
Use this option to require GCC to construct all integer constants using code, even if it takes more instructions (the maximum is six).
You would typically use this option to build a shared library dynamic loader. Itself a shared library, it must relocate itself in memory before it can find the variables and constants in its own data segment.

-malpha-as  
-mgas  Select whether to generate code to be assembled by the vendor-supplied assembler (`-malpha-as`) or by the GNU assembler `-mgas`.

-mbwx  
-mno-bwx  
-mcix  
-mno-cix  
-mmmax  
-mno-max  Indicate whether GCC should generate code to use the optional BWX, CIX, and MAX instruction sets. The default is to use the instruction sets supported by the CPU type specified via `-mcpu=` option or that of the CPU on which GCC was built if none was specified.

-mcpu=cpu_type  
Set the instruction set, register set, and instruction scheduling parameters for machine type cpu_type. You can specify either the ‘EV’ style name or the corresponding chip number. GCC supports scheduling parameters for the EV4 and EV5 family of processors and will choose the default values for the instruction set from the processor you specify. If you do not specify a processor type, GCC will default to the processor on which the compiler was built.
Supported values for cpu_type are

‘ev4’  ‘21064’ Schedules as an EV4 and has no instruction set extensions.
‘ev5’  ‘21164’ Schedules as an EV5 and has no instruction set extensions.
‘ev56’  ‘21164a’ Schedules as an EV5 and supports the BWX extension.
‘pca56’  ‘21164pc’  ‘21164PC’ Schedules as an EV5 and supports the BWX and MAX extensions.
‘ev6’  ‘21264’ Schedules as an EV5 (until Digital releases the scheduling parameters for the EV6) and supports the BWX, CIX, and MAX extensions.

-mmemory-latency=time  
Sets the latency the scheduler should assume for typical memory references as seen by the application. This number is highly dependent on the memory access patterns used by the application and the size of the external cache on the machine.
Valid options for time are

‘number’  A decimal number representing clock cycles.
‘L1’  ‘L2’  ‘L3’  The compiler contains estimates of the number of clock cycles for “typical” EV4 & EV5 hardware for the Level 1, 2 & 3 caches (also called
Dcache, Scache, and Bcache), as well as to main memory. Note that L3 is only valid for EV5.

3.17.19 Clipper Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the Clipper implementations:

- **-mc300** Produce code for a C300 Clipper processor. This is the default.
- **-mc400** Produce code for a C400 Clipper processor i.e. use floating point registers f8—f15.

3.17.20 H8/300 Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the H8/300 implementations:

- **-mrelax** Shorten some address references at link time, when possible; uses the linker option ‘-relax’. See section “ld and the H8/300” in Using ld, for a fuller description.
- **-mh** Generate code for the H8/300H.
- **-ms** Generate code for the H8/S.
- **-ms2600** Generate code for the H8/S2600. This switch must be used with ‘-ms’.
- **-mint32** Make int data 32 bits by default.
- **-malign-300** On the H8/300H and H8/S, use the same alignment rules as for the H8/300. The default for the H8/300H and H8/S is to align longs and floats on 4 byte boundaries. ‘-malign-300’ causes them to be aligned on 2 byte boundaries. This option has no effect on the H8/300.

3.17.21 SH Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for the SH implementations:

- **-m1** Generate code for the SH1.
- **-m2** Generate code for the SH2.
- **-m3** Generate code for the SH3.
- **-m3e** Generate code for the SH3e.
- **-m4-nofpu** Generate code for the SH4 without a floating-point unit.
- **-m4-single-only** Generate code for the SH4 with a floating-point unit that only supports single-precision arithmetic.
- **-m4-single** Generate code for the SH4 assuming the floating-point unit is in single-precision mode by default.
- **-m4** Generate code for the SH4.
- **-mb** Compile code for the processor in big endian mode.
- **-ml** Compile code for the processor in little endian mode.
- **-mdalign** Align doubles at 64-bit boundaries. Note that this changes the calling conventions, and thus some functions from the standard C library will not work unless you recompile it first with ‘-mdalign’.
-mrelax  Shorten some address references at link time, when possible; uses the linker option ‘-relax’.

-mbigintable  Use 32-bit offsets in switch tables. The default is to use 16-bit offsets.

-mfmovd  Enable the use of the instruction fmovd.

-mhitachi  Comply with the calling conventions defined by Hitachi.

-mnomacsave  Mark the MAC register as call-clobbered, even if ‘-mhitachi’ is given.

-mieee  Increase IEEE-compliance of floating-point code.

-misize  Dump instruction size and location in the assembly code.

-mpadstruct  This option is deprecated. It pads structures to multiple of 4 bytes, which is incompatible with the SH ABI.

-mspace  Optimize for space instead of speed. Implied by ‘-Os’.

-mprefergot  When generating position-independent code, emit function calls using the Global Offset Table instead of the Procedure Linkage Table.

-musermode  Generate a library function call to invalidate instruction cache entries, after fixing up a trampoline. This library function call doesn’t assume it can write to the whole memory address space. This is the default when the target is sh-*-linux*.

3.17.22 Options for System V

These additional options are available on System V Release 4 for compatibility with other compilers on those systems:

-G  Create a shared object. It is recommended that ‘-symbolic’ or ‘-shared’ be used instead.

-Qy  Identify the versions of each tool used by the compiler, in a .ident assembler directive in the output.

-Qn  Refrain from adding .ident directives to the output file (this is the default).

-YP, dirs  Search the directories dirs, and no others, for libraries specified with ‘-l’.

-Ym, dir  Look in the directory dir to find the M4 preprocessor. The assembler uses this option.

3.17.23 TMS320C3x/C4x Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for TMS320C3x/C4x implementations:

-mcpu=cpu_type  Set the instruction set, register set, and instruction scheduling parameters for machine type cpu_type. Supported values for cpu_type are ‘c30’, ‘c31’, ‘c32’, ‘c40’, and ‘c44’. The default is ‘c40’ to generate code for the TMS320C40.

-mbig-memory
-mbig
-msmall-memory
-ssmall Generates code for the big or small memory model. The small memory model assumed that all data fits into one 64K word page. At run-time the data page (DP) register must be set to point to the 64K page containing the .bss and .data program sections. The big memory model is the default and requires reloading of the DP register for every direct memory access.

-mbk
-mno-bk Allow (disallow) allocation of general integer operands into the block count register BK.

-mdb
-mno-db Enable (disable) generation of code using decrement and branch, DBcond(D), instructions. This is enabled by default for the C4x. To be on the safe side, this is disabled for the C3x, since the maximum iteration count on the C3x is $2^{23} + 1$ (but who iterates loops more than $2^{23}$ times on the C3x?). Note that GCC will try to reverse a loop so that it can utilise the decrement and branch instruction, but will give up if there is more than one memory reference in the loop. Thus a loop where the loop counter is decremented can generate slightly more efficient code, in cases where the RPTB instruction cannot be utilised.

-mdp_isr-reload
-mparanoid Force the DP register to be saved on entry to an interrupt service routine (ISR), reloaded to point to the data section, and restored on exit from the ISR. This should not be required unless someone has violated the small memory model by modifying the DP register, say within an object library.

-mmypi
-mno-mpyi For the C3x use the 24-bit MPYI instruction for integer multiplies instead of a library call to guarantee 32-bit results. Note that if one of the operands is a constant, then the multiplication will be performed using shifts and adds. If the ‘-mmypi’ option is not specified for the C3x, then squaring operations are performed inline instead of a library call.

-mfast-fix
-mno-fast-fix The C3x/C4x FIX instruction to convert a floating point value to an integer value chooses the nearest integer less than or equal to the floating point value rather than to the nearest integer. Thus if the floating point number is negative, the result will be incorrectly truncated an additional code is necessary to detect and correct this case. This option can be used to disable generation of the additional code required to correct the result.

-mrptb
-mno-rptb Enable (disable) generation of repeat block sequences using the RPTB instruction for zero overhead looping. The RPTB construct is only used for innermost loops that do not call functions or jump across the loop boundaries. There is no advantage having nested RPTB loops due to the overhead required to save and restore the RC, RS, and RE registers. This is enabled by default with ‘-O2’.

-mrpts=count
-mno-rpts Enable (disable) the use of the single instruction repeat instruction RPTS. If a repeat block contains a single instruction, and the loop count can be guaranteed to
be less than the value count, GCC will emit a RPTS instruction instead of a RPTB. If no value is specified, then a RPTS will be emitted even if the loop count cannot be determined at compile time. Note that the repeated instruction following RPTS does not have to be reloaded from memory each iteration, thus freeing up the CPU buses for operands. However, since interrupts are blocked by this instruction, it is disabled by default.

-mloop-unsigned
-mno-loop-unsigned
The maximum iteration count when using RPTS and RPTB (and DB on the C40) is $2^{31} + 1$ since these instructions test if the iteration count is negative to terminate the loop. If the iteration count is unsigned there is a possibility than the $2^{31} + 1$ maximum iteration count may be exceeded. This switch allows an unsigned iteration count.

-mti
Try to emit an assembler syntax that the TI assembler (asm30) is happy with. This also enforces compatibility with the API employed by the TI C3x C compiler. For example, long doubles are passed as structures rather than in floating point registers.

-mregparm
-mmemparm
Generate code that uses registers (stack) for passing arguments to functions. By default, arguments are passed in registers where possible rather than by pushing arguments on to the stack.

-mparallel-insns
-mno-parallel-insns
Allow the generation of parallel instructions. This is enabled by default with ‘-O2’.

-mparallel-mpy
-mno-parallel-mpy
Allow the generation of MPY||ADD and MPY||SUB parallel instructions, provided ‘-mparallel-insns’ is also specified. These instructions have tight register constraints which can pessimize the code generation of large functions.

3.17.24 V850 Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for V850 implementations:

-mlong-calls
-mno-long-calls
Treat all calls as being far away (near). If calls are assumed to be far away, the compiler will always load the functions address up into a register, and call indirect through the pointer.

-mno-ep
-mep
Do not optimize (do optimize) basic blocks that use the same index pointer 4 or more times to copy pointer into the ep register, and use the shorter sld and sst instructions. The ‘-mep’ option is on by default if you optimize.

-mno-prolog-function
-mprolog-function
Do not use (do use) external functions to save and restore registers at the prolog and epilog of a function. The external functions are slower, but use less code space if more than one function saves the same number of registers. The ‘-mprolog-function’ option is on by default if you optimize.

-mspace
Try to make the code as small as possible. At present, this just turns on the ‘-mep’ and ‘-mprolog-function’ options.
-mtda=n  Put static or global variables whose size is n bytes or less into the tiny data area that register ep points to. The tiny data area can hold up to 256 bytes in total (128 bytes for byte references).

-msda=n  Put static or global variables whose size is n bytes or less into the small data area that register gp points to. The small data area can hold up to 64 kilobytes.

-mzda=n  Put static or global variables whose size is n bytes or less into the first 32 kilobytes of memory.

-mv850  Specify that the target processor is the V850.

-mbig-switch  Generate code suitable for big switch tables. Use this option only if the assembler/linker complain about out of range branches within a switch table.

3.17.25 ARC Options

These options are defined for ARC implementations:

-EL  Compile code for little endian mode. This is the default.

-EB  Compile code for big endian mode.

-mmangle-cpu  Prepend the name of the cpu to all public symbol names. In multiple-processor systems, there are many ARC variants with different instruction and register set characteristics. This flag prevents code compiled for one cpu to be linked with code compiled for another. No facility exists for handling variants that are “almost identical”. This is an all or nothing option.

-mcpu=cpu  Compile code for ARC variant cpu. Which variants are supported depend on the configuration. All variants support ‘-mcpu=base’, this is the default.

-mtext=text-section  -mdata=data-section  -mrodata=readonly-data-section  Put functions, data, and readonly data in text-section, data-section, and readonly-data-section respectively by default. This can be overridden with the section attribute. See Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146.

3.17.26 NS32K Options

These are the ‘-m’ options defined for the 32000 series. The default values for these options depends on which style of 32000 was selected when the compiler was configured; the defaults for the most common choices are given below.

-m32032  Generate output for a 32032. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 32032 and 32016 based systems.

-m32332  Generate output for a 32332. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 32332-based systems.

-m32532  Generate output for a 32532. This is the default when the compiler is configured for 32532-based systems.
-m32081 Generate output containing 32081 instructions for floating point. This is the default for all systems.

-m32381 Generate output containing 32381 instructions for floating point. This also implies ‘-m32081’. The 32381 is only compatible with the 32332 and 32532 cpus. This is the default for the pc532-netbsd configuration.

-mmulti-add Try and generate multiply-add floating point instructions polyF and dotF. This option is only available if the ‘-m32381’ option is in effect. Using these instructions requires changes to to register allocation which generally has a negative impact on performance. This option should only be enabled when compiling code particularly likely to make heavy use of multiply-add instructions.

-mnomulti-add Do not try and generate multiply-add floating point instructions polyF and dotF. This is the default on all platforms.

-msoft-float Generate output containing library calls for floating point. **Warning:** the requisite libraries may not be available.

-mnabitfield Do not use the bit-field instructions. On some machines it is faster to use shifting and masking operations. This is the default for the pc532.

-mbitfield Do use the bit-field instructions. This is the default for all platforms except the pc532.

-mrtd Use a different function-calling convention, in which functions that take a fixed number of arguments return pop their arguments on return with the ret instruction. This calling convention is incompatible with the one normally used on Unix, so you cannot use it if you need to call libraries compiled with the Unix compiler. Also, you must provide function prototypes for all functions that take variable numbers of arguments (including printf); otherwise incorrect code will be generated for calls to those functions. In addition, seriously incorrect code will result if you call a function with too many arguments. (Normally, extra arguments are harmlessly ignored.) This option takes its name from the 680x0 rtd instruction.

-mregparam Use a different function-calling convention where the first two arguments are passed in registers. This calling convention is incompatible with the one normally used on Unix, so you cannot use it if you need to call libraries compiled with the Unix compiler.

-mnoregparam Do not pass any arguments in registers. This is the default for all targets.

-msb It is OK to use the sb as an index register which is always loaded with zero. This is the default for the pc532-netbsd target.

-mnosb The sb register is not available for use or has not been initialized to zero by the run time system. This is the default for all targets except the pc532-netbsd. It is also implied whenever ‘-mhimem’ or ‘-fpic’ is set.

-mhimem Many ns32000 series addressing modes use displacements of up to 512MB. If an address is above 512MB then displacements from zero can not be used. This option
causes code to be generated which can be loaded above 512MB. This may be useful for operating systems or ROM code.

-mnohimem
Assume code will be loaded in the first 512MB of virtual address space. This is the default for all platforms.

3.17.27 AVR Options
These options are defined for AVR implementations:

-mmcu=mcu
Specify ATMEL AVR instruction set or MCU type.
Instruction set avr1 is for the minimal AVR core, not supported by the C compiler, only for assembler programs (MCU types: at90s1200, attiny10, attiny11, attiny12, attiny15, attiny28).
Instruction set avr2 (default) is for the classic AVR core with up to 8K program memory space (MCU types: at90s2313, at90s2323, at90s2333, at90s2343, at90s4414, at90s4433, at90s4434, at90s8515, at90s8534, at90s8535).
Instruction set avr3 is for the classic AVR core with up to 128K program memory space (MCU types: atmega103, atmega603).
Instruction set avr4 is for the enhanced AVR core with up to 8K program memory space (MCU types: atmega83, atmega85).
Instruction set avr5 is for the enhanced AVR core with up to 128K program memory space (MCU types: atmega161, atmega163, atmega32, at94k).

-msize
Output instruction sizes to the asm file.

-minit-stack=N
Specify the initial stack address, which may be a symbol or numeric value, _stack is the default.

-mno-interrupts
Generated code is not compatible with hardware interrupts. Code size will be smaller.

-mcall-prologues
Functions prologues/epilogues expanded as call to appropriate subroutines. Code size will be smaller.

-mno-tablejump
Do not generate tablejump insns which sometimes increase code size.

-mtiny-stack
Change only the low 8 bits of the stack pointer.

3.17.28 MCore Options
These are the ‘-m’ options defined for the Motorola M*Core processors.

-mhardlit
-mhardlit
-mno-hardlit
  Inline constants into the code stream if it can be done in two instructions or less.

-mdiv
-mdiv
-mno-div
  Use the divide instruction. (Enabled by default).
-mrelax-immediate
-mlno-relax-immediate

Allow arbitrary sized immediates in bit operations.

-mwide-bitfields
-mnwide-bitfields

Always treat bit-fields as int-sized.

-m4byte-functions
-mn4byte-functions

Force all functions to be aligned to a four byte boundary.

-mcallgraph-data
-mnocalcgraph-data

Emit callgraph information.

-mslow-bytes
-msnslow-bytes

Prefer word access when reading byte quantities.

-mlittle-endian
-mlbnitite-endian
-mlbig-endian

Generate code for a little endian target.

-m210
-m340

Generate code for the 210 processor.

3.17.29 IA-64 Options

These are the ‘-m’ options defined for the Intel IA-64 architecture.

-mbig-endian

Generate code for a big endian target. This is the default for HPUX.

-mllittle-endian

Generate code for a little endian target. This is the default for AIX5 and Linux.

-mgnu-as
-mnognu-as

Generate (or don’t) code for the GNU assembler. This is the default.

-mgnu-ld
-mnognu-ld

Generate (or don’t) code for the GNU linker. This is the default.

-mno-pic

Generate code that does not use a global pointer register. The result is not position independent code, and violates the IA-64 ABI.

-mvolatile-asm-stop
-mnovoatil-asm-stop

Generate (or don’t) a stop bit immediately before and after volatile asm statements.

-mb-step

Generate code that works around Itanium B step errata.
-mregister-names
-mno-register-names
Generate (or don’t) ‘in’, ‘loc’, and ‘out’ register names for the stacked registers. This may make assembler output more readable.

-mnodsdata
-msdata
Disable (or enable) optimizations that use the small data section. This may be useful for working around optimizer bugs.

-mconstant-gp
Generate code that uses a single constant global pointer value. This is useful when compiling kernel code.

-mauto-pic
Generate code that is self-relocatable. This implies ‘-mconstant-gp’. This is useful when compiling firmware code.

-minline-divide-min-latency
Generate code for inline divides using the minimum latency algorithm.

-minline-divide-max-throughput
Generate code for inline divides using the maximum throughput algorithm.

-mnodsdata-asm
-mdsdata-asm
Don’t (or do) generate assembler code for the DWARF2 line number debugging info. This may be useful when not using the GNU assembler.

-mfixed-range=register-range
Generate code treating the given register range as fixed registers. A fixed register is one that the register allocator can not use. This is useful when compiling kernel code. A register range is specified as two registers separated by a dash. Multiple register ranges can be specified separated by a comma.

3.17.30 D30V Options

These ‘-m’ options are defined for D30V implementations:

-mextmem
Link the ‘.text’, ‘.data’, ‘.bss’, ‘.strings’, ‘.rodata’, ‘.rodata1’, ‘.data1’ sections into external memory, which starts at location 0x80000000.

-mextmemory
Same as the ‘-mextmem’ switch.

-monchip
Link the ‘.text’ section into onchip text memory, which starts at location 0x0. Also link ‘.data’, ‘.bss’, ‘.strings’, ‘.rodata’, ‘.rodata1’, ‘.data1’ sections into onchip data memory, which starts at location 0x20000000.

-mno-asm-optimize
-masm-optimize
Disable (enable) passing ‘-O’ to the assembler when optimizing. The assembler uses the ‘-O’ option to automatically parallelize adjacent short instructions where possible.

-mbranch-cost=n
Increase the internal costs of branches to n. Higher costs means that the compiler will issue more instructions to avoid doing a branch. The default is 2.

-mcond-exec=n
Specify the maximum number of conditionally executed instructions that replace a branch. The default is 4.
3.18 Options for Code Generation Conventions

These machine-independent options control the interface conventions used in code generation.

Most of them have both positive and negative forms; the negative form of `'-ffoo' would be `'-fno-foo'`. In the table below, only one of the forms is listed—the one which is not the default. You can figure out the other form by either removing `no-` or adding it.

- **fexceptions**
  Enable exception handling. Generates extra code needed to propagate exceptions. For some targets, this implies GNU CC will generate frame unwind information for all functions, which can produce significant data size overhead, although it does not affect execution. If you do not specify this option, GNU CC will enable it by default for languages like C++ which normally require exception handling, and disable it for languages like C that do not normally require it. However, you may need to enable this option when compiling C code that needs to interoperate properly with exception handlers written in C++. You may also wish to disable this option if you are compiling older C++ programs that don’t use exception handling.

- **fnon-call-exceptions**
  Generate code that allows trapping instructions to throw exceptions. Note that this requires platform-specific runtime support that does not exist everywhere. Moreover, it only allows trapping instructions to throw exceptions, i.e., memory references or floating point instructions. It does not allow exceptions to be thrown from arbitrary signal handlers such as SIGALRM.

- **funwind-tables**
  Similar to `'-fexceptions'`, except that it will just generate any needed static data, but will not affect the generated code in any other way. You will normally not enable this option; instead, a language processor that needs this handling would enable it on your behalf.

- **fpcc-struct-return**
  Return “short” struct and union values in memory like longer ones, rather than in registers. This convention is less efficient, but it has the advantage of allowing intercallability between GCC-compiled files and files compiled with other compilers. The precise convention for returning structures in memory depends on the target configuration macros.
  Short structures and unions are those whose size and alignment match that of some integer type.

- **freg-struct-return**
  Use the convention that struct and union values are returned in registers when possible. This is more efficient for small structures than `'-fpcc-struct-return'`. If you specify neither `'-fpcc-struct-return'` nor its contrary `'-freg-struct-return'`, GCC defaults to whichever convention is standard for the target. If there is no standard convention, GCC defaults to `'-fpcc-struct-return'`, except on targets where GCC is the principal compiler. In those cases, we can choose the standard, and we chose the more efficient register return alternative.

- **fshort-enums**
  Allocate to an enum type only as many bytes as it needs for the declared range of possible values. Specifically, the enum type will be equivalent to the smallest integer type which has enough room.

- **fshort-double**
  Use the same size for double as for float.
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-fshared-data
  Requests that the data and non-const variables of this compilation be shared data rather than private data. The distinction makes sense only on certain operating systems, where shared data is shared between processes running the same program, while private data exists in one copy per process.

-fno-common
  In C, allocate even uninitialized global variables in the data section of the object file, rather than generating them as common blocks. This has the effect that if the same variable is declared (without extern) in two different compilations, you will get an error when you link them. The only reason this might be useful is if you wish to verify that the program will work on other systems which always work this way.

-fno-ident
  Ignore the ‘#ident’ directive.

-fno-gnu-linker
  Do not output global initializations (such as C++ constructors and destructors) in the form used by the GNU linker (on systems where the GNU linker is the standard method of handling them). Use this option when you want to use a non-GNU linker, which also requires using the collect2 program to make sure the system linker includes constructors and destructors. (collect2 is included in the GCC distribution.) For systems which must use collect2, the compiler driver gcc is configured to do this automatically.

-finhibit-size-directive
  Don’t output a .size assembler directive, or anything else that would cause trouble if the function is split in the middle, and the two halves are placed at locations far apart in memory. This option is used when compiling ‘crtstuff.c’; you should not need to use it for anything else.

-fverbose-asm
  Put extra commentary information in the generated assembly code to make it more readable. This option is generally only of use to those who actually need to read the generated assembly code (perhaps while debugging the compiler itself). ‘-fno-verbose-asm’, the default, causes the extra information to be omitted and is useful when comparing two assembler files.

-fvolatile
  Consider all memory references through pointers to be volatile.

-fvolatile-global
  Consider all memory references to extern and global data items to be volatile. GCC does not consider static data items to be volatile because of this switch.

-fvolatile-static
  Consider all memory references to static data to be volatile.

-fpic
  Generate position-independent code (PIC) suitable for use in a shared library, if supported for the target machine. Such code accesses all constant addresses through a global offset table (GOT). The dynamic loader resolves the GOT entries when the program starts (the dynamic loader is not part of GCC; it is part of the operating system). If the GOT size for the linked executable exceeds a machine-specific maximum size, you get an error message from the linker indicating that ‘-fpic’ does not work; in that case, recompile with ‘-fPIC’ instead. (These maximums are 16k on the m88k, 8k on the Sparc, and 32k on the m68k and RS/6000. The 386 has no such limit.)
Position-independent code requires special support, and therefore works only on certain machines. For the 386, GCC supports PIC for System V but not for the Sun 386i. Code generated for the IBM RS/6000 is always position-independent.

- **fPIC** If supported for the target machine, emit position-independent code, suitable for dynamic linking and avoiding any limit on the size of the global offset table. This option makes a difference on the m68k, m88k, and the Sparc.

Position-independent code requires special support, and therefore works only on certain machines.

- **ffixed-reg** Treat the register named reg as a fixed register; generated code should never refer to it (except perhaps as a stack pointer, frame pointer or in some other fixed role). reg must be the name of a register. The register names accepted are machine-specific and are defined in the REGISTER_NAMES macro in the machine description macro file. This flag does not have a negative form, because it specifies a three-way choice.

- **fcall-used-reg** Treat the register named reg as an allocable register that is clobbered by function calls. It may be allocated for temporaries or variables that do not live across a call. Functions compiled this way will not save and restore the register reg.

It is an error to used this flag with the frame pointer or stack pointer. Use of this flag for other registers that have fixed pervasive roles in the machine’s execution model will produce disastrous results.

This flag does not have a negative form, because it specifies a three-way choice.

- **fcall-saved-reg** Treat the register named reg as an allocable register saved by functions. It may be allocated even for temporaries or variables that live across a call. Functions compiled this way will save and restore the register reg if they use it.

It is an error to used this flag with the frame pointer or stack pointer. Use of this flag for other registers that have fixed pervasive roles in the machine’s execution model will produce disastrous results.

A different sort of disaster will result from the use of this flag for a register in which function values may be returned.

This flag does not have a negative form, because it specifies a three-way choice.

- **fpack-struct** Pack all structure members together without holes. Usually you would not want to use this option, since it makes the code suboptimal, and the offsets of structure members won’t agree with system libraries.

- **fcheck-memory-usage** Generate extra code to check each memory access. GCC will generate code that is suitable for a detector of bad memory accesses such as ‘Checker’.

Normally, you should compile all, or none, of your code with this option.

If you do mix code compiled with and without this option, you must ensure that all code that has side effects and that is called by code compiled with this option is, itself, compiled with this option. If you do not, you might get erroneous messages from the detector.

If you use functions from a library that have side-effects (such as read), you might not be able to recompile the library and specify this option. In that case, you can enable the ‘-fprefix-function-name’ option, which requests GCC to encapsulate your code and make other functions look as if they were compiled with
`-fcheck-memory-usage`. This is done by calling “stubs”, which are provided by the detector. If you cannot find or build stubs for every function you call, you might have to specify `-fcheck-memory-usage` without `-fprefix-function-name`.

If you specify this option, you can not use the `asm` or `__asm__` keywords in functions with memory checking enabled. GNU CC cannot understand what the `asm` statement may do, and therefore cannot generate the appropriate code, so it will reject it. However, if you specify the function attribute `no_check_memory_usage` (see Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136), GNU CC will disable memory checking within a function; you may use `asm` statements inside such functions. You may have an inline expansion of a non-checked function within a checked function; in that case GNU CC will not generate checks for the inlined function’s memory accesses.

If you move your `asm` statements to non-checked inline functions and they do access memory, you can add calls to the support code in your inline function, to indicate any reads, writes, or copies being done. These calls would be similar to those done in the stubs described above.

`-fprefix-function-name`

Request GCC to add a prefix to the symbols generated for function names. GCC adds a prefix to the names of functions defined as well as functions called. Code compiled with this option and code compiled without the option can’t be linked together, unless stubs are used.

If you compile the following code with `-fprefix-function-name`

```c
extern void bar (int);
void
foo (int a)
{
   return bar (a + 5);
}
```

GCC will compile the code as if it was written:

```c
extern void prefix_bar (int);
void
prefix_foo (int a)
{
   return prefix_bar (a + 5);
}
```

This option is designed to be used with `-fcheck-memory-usage`.

`-finstrument-functions`

Generate instrumentation calls for entry and exit to functions. Just after function entry and just before function exit, the following profiling functions will be called with the address of the current function and its call site. (On some platforms, `__builtin_return_address` does not work beyond the current function, so the call site information may not be available to the profiling functions otherwise.)

```c
void __cyg_profile_func_enter (void *this_fn,  
                               void *call_site);
void __cyg_profile_func_exit (void *this_fn,  
                              void *call_site);
```

The first argument is the address of the start of the current function, which may be looked up exactly in the symbol table.

This instrumentation is also done for functions expanded inline in other functions. The profiling calls will indicate where, conceptually, the inline function is entered and
exited. This means that addressable versions of such functions must be available. If all your uses of a function are expanded inline, this may mean an additional expansion of code size. If you use `extern inline` in your C code, an addressable version of such functions must be provided. (This is normally the case anyways, but if you get lucky and the optimizer always expands the functions inline, you might have gotten away without providing static copies.)

A function may be given the attribute `no_instrument_function`, in which case this instrumentation will not be done. This can be used, for example, for the profiling functions listed above, high-priority interrupt routines, and any functions from which the profiling functions cannot safely be called (perhaps signal handlers, if the profiling routines generate output or allocate memory).

**-fstack-check**

Generate code to verify that you do not go beyond the boundary of the stack. You should specify this flag if you are running in an environment with multiple threads, but only rarely need to specify it in a single-threaded environment since stack overflow is automatically detected on nearly all systems if there is only one stack.

Note that this switch does not actually cause checking to be done; the operating system must do that. The switch causes generation of code to ensure that the operating system sees the stack being extended.

**-fstack-limit-register=reg**

**-fstack-limit-symbol=sym**

**-fno-stack-limit**

Generate code to ensure that the stack does not grow beyond a certain value, either the value of a register or the address of a symbol. If the stack would grow beyond the value, a signal is raised. For most targets, the signal is raised before the stack overruns the boundary, so it is possible to catch the signal without taking special precautions.

For instance, if the stack starts at address `0x80000000` and grows downwards you can use the flags `'-fstack-limit-symbol=__stack_limit -Wl,--defsym,__stack_limit=0x7ffe0000'` which will enforce a stack limit of 128K.

**-fargument-alias**

**-fargument-noalias**

**-fargument-noalias-global**

Specify the possible relationships among parameters and between parameters and global data.

`'-fargument-alias'` specifies that arguments (parameters) may alias each other and may alias global storage. `'-fargument-noalias'` specifies that arguments do not alias each other, but may alias global storage. `'-fargument-noalias-global'` specifies that arguments do not alias each other and do not alias global storage.

Each language will automatically use whatever option is required by the language standard. You should not need to use these options yourself.

**-fleading-underscore**

This option and its counterpart, `'-fno-leading-underscore'`, forcibly change the way C symbols are represented in the object file. One use is to help link with legacy assembly code.

Be warned that you should know what you are doing when invoking this option, and that not all targets provide complete support for it.
3.19 Environment Variables Affecting GCC

This section describes several environment variables that affect how GCC operates. Some of them work by specifying directories or prefixes to use when searching for various kinds of files. Some are used to specify other aspects of the compilation environment.

Note that you can also specify places to search using options such as `-B`, `-I` and `-L` (see Section 3.14 [Directory Options], page 51). These take precedence over places specified using environment variables, which in turn take precedence over those specified by the configuration of GCC. See Section 21.1 [Driver], page 349.

**LANG**

**LC_CTYPE**

**LC_MESSAGES**

**LC_ALL**

These environment variables control the way that GCC uses localization information that allow GCC to work with different national conventions. GCC inspects the locale categories `LC_CTYPE` and `LC_MESSAGES` if it has been configured to do so. These locale categories can be set to any value supported by your installation. A typical value is `en_UK` for English in the United Kingdom.

The `LC_CTYPE` environment variable specifies character classification. GCC uses it to determine the character boundaries in a string; this is needed for some multi-byte encodings that contain quote and escape characters that would otherwise be interpreted as a string end or escape.

The `LC_MESSAGES` environment variable specifies the language to use in diagnostic messages.

If the `LC_ALL` environment variable is set, it overrides the value of `LC_CTYPE` and `LC_MESSAGES`; otherwise, `LC_CTYPE` and `LC_MESSAGES` default to the value of the `LANG` environment variable. If none of these variables are set, GCC defaults to traditional C English behavior.

**TMPDIR**

If `TMPDIR` is set, it specifies the directory to use for temporary files. GCC uses temporary files to hold the output of one stage of compilation which is to be used as input to the next stage: for example, the output of the preprocessor, which is the input to the compiler proper.

**GCC_EXEC_PREFIX**

If `GCC_EXEC_PREFIX` is set, it specifies a prefix to use in the names of the subprograms executed by the compiler. No slash is added when this prefix is combined with the name of a subprogram, but you can specify a prefix that ends with a slash if you wish.

If `GCC_EXEC_PREFIX` is not set, GNU CC will attempt to figure out an appropriate prefix to use based on the pathname it was invoked with.

If GCC cannot find the subprogram using the specified prefix, it tries looking in the usual places for the subprogram.

The default value of `GCC_EXEC_PREFIX` is `prefix/lib/gcc-lib/` where `prefix` is the value of `prefix` when you ran the `configure` script.

Other prefixes specified with `-B` take precedence over this prefix.

This prefix is also used for finding files such as `crt0.o` that are used for linking.

In addition, the prefix is used in an unusual way in finding the directories to search for header files. For each of the standard directories whose name normally begins with `/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib` (more precisely, with the value of `GCC_INCLUDE_DIR`), GCC tries replacing that beginning with the specified prefix to produce an alternate directory name. Thus, with `-Bfoo/`, GCC will search `foo/bar` where it would normally search `/usr/local/lib/bar`. These alternate directories are searched first; the standard directories come next.
**COMPILER_PATH**

The value of COMPILER_PATH is a colon-separated list of directories, much like PATH. GCC tries the directories thus specified when searching for subprograms, if it can’t find the subprograms using GCC_EXEC_PREFIX.

**LIBRARY_PATH**

The value of LIBRARY_PATH is a colon-separated list of directories, much like PATH. When configured as a native compiler, GCC tries the directories thus specified when searching for special linker files, if it can’t find them using GCC_EXEC_PREFIX. Linking using GCC also uses these directories when searching for ordinary libraries for the ‘-l’ option (but directories specified with ‘-L’ come first).

**C_INCLUDE_PATH**

**CPLUS_INCLUDE_PATH**

**OBJC_INCLUDE_PATH**

These environment variables pertain to particular languages. Each variable’s value is a colon-separated list of directories, much like PATH. When GCC searches for header files, it tries the directories listed in the variable for the language you are using, after the directories specified with ‘-I’ but before the standard header file directories.

**DEPENDENCIES_OUTPUT**

If this variable is set, its value specifies how to output dependencies for Make based on the header files processed by the compiler. This output looks much like the output from the ‘-M’ option (see Section 3.11 [Preprocessor Options], page 46), but it goes to a separate file, and is in addition to the usual results of compilation.

The value of DEPENDENCIES_OUTPUT can be just a file name, in which case the Make rules are written to that file, guessing the target name from the source file name. Or the value can have the form ‘file target’, in which case the rules are written to file file using target as the target name.

**LANG**

This variable is used to pass locale information to the compiler. One way in which this information is used is to determine the character set to be used when character literals, string literals and comments are parsed in C and C++. When the compiler is configured to allow multibyte characters, the following values for LANG are recognized:

- ‘C-JIS’ Recognize JIS characters.
- ‘C-SJIS’ Recognize SJIS characters.
- ‘C-EUCJP’ Recognize EUCJP characters.

If LANG is not defined, or if it has some other value, then the compiler will use mblen and mbtowc as defined by the default locale to recognize and translate multibyte characters.

### 3.20 Running Protoize

The program protoize is an optional part of GNU C. You can use it to add prototypes to a program, thus converting the program to ISO C in one respect. The companion program unprotoize does the reverse: it removes argument types from any prototypes that are found.

When you run these programs, you must specify a set of source files as command line arguments. The conversion programs start out by compiling these files to see what functions they define. The information gathered about a file foo is saved in a file named ‘foo.X’.

After scanning comes actual conversion. The specified files are all eligible to be converted; any files they include (whether sources or just headers) are eligible as well.
But not all the eligible files are converted. By default, `protoize` and `unprotoize` convert only source and header files in the current directory. You can specify additional directories whose files should be converted with the `\-d directory` option. You can also specify particular files to exclude with the `\-x file` option. A file is converted if it is eligible, its directory name matches one of the specified directory names, and its name within the directory has not been excluded.

Basic conversion with `protoize` consists of rewriting most function definitions and function declarations to specify the types of the arguments. The only ones not rewritten are those for varargs functions.

`protoize` optionally inserts prototype declarations at the beginning of the source file, to make them available for any calls that precede the function’s definition. Or it can insert prototype declarations with block scope in the blocks where undeclared functions are called.

Basic conversion with `unprotoize` consists of rewriting most function declarations to remove any argument types, and rewriting function definitions to the old-style pre-ISO form.

Both conversion programs print a warning for any function declaration or definition that they can’t convert. You can suppress these warnings with `\-q`.

The output from `protoize` or `unprotoize` replaces the original source file. The original file is renamed to a name ending with `\.save` (for DOS, the saved filename ends in `\.sav` without the original `\.c` suffix). If the `\.save` (`\.sav` for DOS) file already exists, then the source file is simply discarded.

`protoize` and `unprotoize` both depend on GCC itself to scan the program and collect information about the functions it uses. So neither of these programs will work until GCC is installed.

Here is a table of the options you can use with `protoize` and `unprotoize`. Each option works with both programs unless otherwise stated.

- **\-B directory**
  Look for the file `SYSCALLS.c.X` in directory, instead of the usual directory (normally `/usr/local/lib`). This file contains prototype information about standard system functions. This option applies only to `protoize`.

- **\-c compilation-options**
  Use `compilation-options` as the options when running `gcc` to produce the `\.X` files. The special option `\-aux-info` is always passed in addition, to tell `gcc` to write a `\.X` file.

  Note that the compilation options must be given as a single argument to `protoize` or `unprotoize`. If you want to specify several `gcc` options, you must quote the entire set of compilation options to make them a single word in the shell.

  There are certain `gcc` arguments that you cannot use, because they would produce the wrong kind of output. These include `\-g`, `\-O`, `\-c`, `\-S`, and `\-o` If you include these in the `compilation-options`, they are ignored.

- **\-C**
  Rename files to end in `\.C` (`\.cc` for DOS-based file systems) instead of `\.c`. This is convenient if you are converting a C program to C++. This option applies only to `protoize`.

- **\-g**
  Add explicit global declarations. This means inserting explicit declarations at the beginning of each source file for each function that is called in the file and was not declared. These declarations precede the first function definition that contains a call to an undeclared function. This option applies only to `protoize`.

- **\-i string**
  Indent old-style parameter declarations with the string `string`. This option applies only to `protoize`. 
unprotoize converts prototyped function definitions to old-style function definitions, where the arguments are declared between the argument list and the initial ‘{’. By default, unprotoize uses five spaces as the indentation. If you want to indent with just one space instead, use ‘-i " "’.

- k  Keep the ‘.X’ files. Normally, they are deleted after conversion is finished.

- l  Add explicit local declarations. protoize with ‘-l’ inserts a prototype declaration for each function in each block which calls the function without any declaration. This option applies only to protoize.

- n  Make no real changes. This mode just prints information about the conversions that would have been done without ‘-n’.

- N  Make no ‘.save’ files. The original files are simply deleted. Use this option with caution.

- p program  Use the program program as the compiler. Normally, the name ‘gcc’ is used.

- q  Work quietly. Most warnings are suppressed.

- v  Print the version number, just like ‘-v’ for gcc.

If you need special compiler options to compile one of your program’s source files, then you should generate that file’s ‘.X’ file specially, by running gcc on that source file with the appropriate options and the option ‘-aux-info’. Then run protoize on the entire set of files. protoize will use the existing ‘.X’ file because it is newer than the source file. For example:

    gcc -Dfoo=bar file1.c -aux-info file1.X
    protoize *.c

You need to include the special files along with the rest in the protoize command, even though their ‘.X’ files already exist, because otherwise they won’t get converted.

See Section 9.10 [Protoize Caveats], page 198, for more information on how to use protoize successfully.
4 Installing GNU CC

Note most of this information is out of date and superseded by the new GCC install manual ‘gcc/doc/install.texi’. It is provided for historical reference only.

Here is the procedure for installing GNU CC on a GNU or Unix system. See Section 4.4 [VMS Install], page 117, for VMS systems.

1. If you have chosen a configuration for GNU CC which requires other GNU tools (such as GAS or the GNU linker) instead of the standard system tools, install the required tools in the build directory under the names ‘as’, ‘ld’ or whatever is appropriate. This will enable the compiler to find the proper tools for compilation of the program ‘enquire’.

Alternatively, you can do subsequent compilation using a value of the PATH environment variable such that the necessary GNU tools come before the standard system tools.

2. Specify the host, build and target machine configurations. You do this when you run the ‘configure’ script.

The build machine is the system which you are using, the host machine is the system where you want to run the resulting compiler (normally the build machine), and the target machine is the system for which you want the compiler to generate code.

If you are building a compiler to produce code for the machine it runs on (a native compiler), you normally do not need to specify any operands to ‘configure’; it will try to guess the type of machine you are on and use that as the build, host and target machines. So you don’t need to specify a configuration when building a native compiler unless ‘configure’ cannot figure out what your configuration is or guesses wrong.

In those cases, specify the build machine’s configuration name with the ‘--host’ option; the host and target will default to be the same as the host machine. (If you are building a cross-compiler, see Section 4.3 [Cross-Compiler], page 114.)

Here is an example:

    ./configure --host=sparc-sun-sunos4.1

A configuration name may be canonical or it may be more or less abbreviated.

A canonical configuration name has three parts, separated by dashes. It looks like this: ‘cpu-company-system’. (The three parts may themselves contain dashes; ‘configure’ can figure out which dashes serve which purpose.) For example, ‘m68k-sun-sunos4.1’ specifies a Sun 3.

You can also replace parts of the configuration by nicknames or aliases. For example, ‘sun3’ stands for ‘m68k-sun’, so ‘sun3-sunos4.1’ is another way to specify a Sun 3.

You can specify a version number after any of the system types, and some of the CPU types. In most cases, the version is irrelevant, and will be ignored. So you might as well specify the version if you know it.

See Section 4.2 [Configurations], page 113, for a list of supported configuration names and notes on many of the configurations. You should check the notes in that section before proceeding any further with the installation of GNU CC.

3. When running configure, you may also need to specify certain additional options that describe variant hardware and software configurations. These are ‘--with-gnu-as’, ‘--with-gnu-ld’, ‘--with-stabs’ and ‘--nfp’. ‘--with-gnu-as’

   If you will use GNU CC with the GNU assembler (GAS), you should declare this by using the ‘--with-gnu-as’ option when you run ‘configure’.

   Using this option does not install GAS. It only modifies the output of GNU CC to work with GAS. Building and installing GAS is up to you.

   Conversely, if you do not wish to use GAS and do not specify ‘--with-gnu-as’ when building GNU CC, it is up to you to make sure that GAS is not installed.
GNU CC searches for a program named as in various directories; if the program it finds is GAS, then it runs GAS. If you are not sure where GNU CC finds the assembler it is using, try specifying ‘-v’ when you run it.


On the systems listed above (except for the HP-PA, for ISC on the 386, and for ‘mips-sgi-irix5.*’), if you use GAS, you should also use the GNU linker (and specify ‘--with-gnu-ld’).

‘--with-gnu-ld’

Specify the option ‘--with-gnu-ld’ if you plan to use the GNU linker with GNU CC.

This option does not cause the GNU linker to be installed; it just modifies the behavior of GNU CC to work with the GNU linker.

‘--with-stabs’

On MIPS based systems and on Alphas, you must specify whether you want GNU CC to create the normal ECOFF debugging format, or to use BSD-style stabs passed through the ECOFF symbol table. The normal ECOFF debug format cannot fully handle languages other than C. BSD stabs format can handle other languages, but it only works with the GNU debugger GDB.

Normally, GNU CC uses the ECOFF debugging format by default; if you prefer BSD stabs, specify ‘--with-stabs’ when you configure GNU CC.

No matter which default you choose when you configure GNU CC, the user can use the ‘--gcoff’ and ‘--gstabs+’ options to specify explicitly the debug format for a particular compilation.

‘--with-stabs’ is meaningful on the ISC system on the 386, also, if ‘--with-gas’ is used. It selects use of stabs debugging information embedded in COFF output. This kind of debugging information supports C++ well; ordinary COFF debugging information does not.

‘--with-stabs’ is also meaningful on 386 systems running SVR4. It selects use of stabs debugging information embedded in ELF output. The C++ compiler currently (2.6.0) does not support the DWARF debugging information normally used on 386 SVR4 platforms; stabs provide a workable alternative. This requires gas and gdb, as the normal SVR4 tools can not generate or interpret stabs.

4.1 Files Created by configure

Here we spell out what files will be set up by configure. Normally you need not be concerned with these files.

- A file named ‘config.h’ is created that contains a ‘#include’ of the top-level config file for the machine you will run the compiler on (see Chapter 22 [Config], page 453). This file is responsible for defining information about the host machine. It includes ‘tm.h’.

The top-level config file is located in the subdirectory ‘config’. Its name is always ‘xm-something.h’; usually ‘xm-machine.h’, but there are some exceptions.

If your system does not support symbolic links, you might want to set up ‘config.h’ to contain a ‘#include’ command which refers to the appropriate file.
A file named ‘tconfig.h’ is created which includes the top-level config file for your target machine. This is used for compiling certain programs to run on that machine.

A file named ‘tm.h’ is created which includes the machine-description macro file for your target machine. It should be in the subdirectory ‘config’ and its name is often ‘machine.h’.

The command file ‘configure’ also constructs the file ‘Makefile’ by adding some text to the template file ‘Makefile.in’. The additional text comes from files in the ‘config’ directory, named ‘t-target’ and ‘x-host’. If these files do not exist, it means nothing needs to be added for a given target or host.

4.2 Configurations Supported by GNU CC

Here are the possible CPU types:
1750a, a29k, alpha, arm, avr, cn, clipper, dsp16xx, elxsi, fr30, h8300, hppa1.0, hppa1.1, i370, i386, i486, i586, i686, i786, i860, i960, m32r, m68000, m68k, m6811, m6812, m88k, mcore, mips, mipsel, mips64, mips64el, mn10200, mn10300, ns32k, pdp11, powerpc, powerpcle, romp, rs6000, sh, sparc, sparcite, sparc64, v850, vax, we32k.

Here are the recognized company names. As you can see, customary abbreviations are used rather than the longer official names.

acorn, alliant, altos, apollo, apple, att, bull, cbm, convergent, convex, crds, dec, dg, dolphin, elxsi, encore, harris, hitachi, hp, ibm, intergraph, isi, mips, motorola, ncr, next, ns, omron, plexus, sequent, sgi, sony, sun, tti, unicom, wrs.

The company name is meaningful only to disambiguate when the rest of the information supplied is insufficient. You can omit it, writing just ‘cpu-system’, if it is not needed. For example, ‘vax-ultrix4.2’ is equivalent to ‘vax-dec-ultrix4.2’.

Here is a list of system types:
386bsd, aix, acis, amigaos, aos, aout, aux, bosx, bsd, clix, coff, ctix, cxux, dgyx, dynix, ebmon, ecoff, elf, esix, freebsd, hms, genix, gnu, linux, linux-gnu, hiux, hpux, iris, irix, isc, luna, lynxos, mach, minix, msdos, mvs, netbsd, newsos, nindy, ns, osf, osf3, ptx, riscix, riscos, rtu, se, sim, solars, sunos, sym, sysv, udi, ultrix, unicos, unixplus, unos, vms, vista, vxworks, winnt, xenix.

You can omit the system type; then ‘configure’ guesses the operating system from the CPU and company.

You can add a version number to the system type; this may or may not make a difference. For example, you can write ‘bsd4.3’ or ‘bsd4.4’ to distinguish versions of BSD. In practice, the version number is most needed for ‘sysv3’ and ‘sysv4’, which are often treated differently.

‘linux-gnu’ is the canonical name for the GNU/Linux target; however GNU CC will also accept ‘linux’. The version of the kernel in use is not relevant on these systems. A suffix such as ‘libc1’ or ‘aout’ distinguishes major versions of the C library; all of the suffixed versions are obsolete.

If you specify an impossible combination such as ‘i860-dg-vms’, then you may get an error message from ‘configure’, or it may ignore part of the information and do the best it can with the rest. ‘configure’ always prints the canonical name for the alternative that it used. GNU CC does not support all possible alternatives.

Often a particular model of machine has a name. Many machine names are recognized as aliases for CPU/company combinations. Thus, the machine name ‘sun3’, mentioned above, is an alias for ‘m68k-sun’. Sometimes we accept a company name as a machine name, when the name is popularly used for a particular machine. Here is a table of the known machine names:
3300, 3b1, 3bn, 7300, altos3068, altos, apple68, att-7300, balance, convex-cn, crds, deestation-3100, deestation, delta, encore, fx2800, gmicro, hp7nn, hp8nn, hp9k2nn,
hp9k3nn, hp9k7nn, hp9k8nn, iris4d, iris, is68, m3230, magnum, merlin, miniframe, mmax, news-3600, news800, news, next, pbd, pc532, pmax, powerpc, powerpcle, ps2, risc-news, rtpc, sun2, sun386i, sun386, sun3, sun4, symmetry, tower-32, tower.

Remember that a machine name specifies both the cpu type and the company name. If you want to install your own homemade configuration files, you can use ‘local’ as the company name to access them. If you use configuration ‘cpu-local’, the configuration name without the cpu prefix is used to form the configuration file names.

Thus, if you specify ‘m68k-local’, configuration uses files ‘m68k.md’, ‘local.h’, ‘m68k.c’, ‘xm-local.h’, ‘t-local’, and ‘x-local’, all in the directory ‘config/m68k’.

Here is a list of configurations that have special treatment or special things you must know:

‘vax-dec-vms’

See Section 4.4 [VMS Install], page 117, for details on how to install GNU CC on VMS.

### 4.3 Building and Installing a Cross-Compiler

GNU CC can function as a cross-compiler for many machines, but not all.

- Cross-compilers for the Mips as target using the Mips assembler currently do not work, because the auxiliary programs ‘mips-tdump.c’ and ‘mips-tfile.c’ can’t be compiled on anything but a Mips. It does work to cross compile for a Mips if you use the GNU assembler and linker.
- Cross-compilers between machines with different floating point formats have not all been made to work. GNU CC now has a floating point emulator with which these can work, but each target machine description needs to be updated to take advantage of it.
- Cross-compilation between machines of different word sizes is somewhat problematic and sometimes does not work.

Since GNU CC generates assembler code, you probably need a cross-assembler that GNU CC can run, in order to produce object files. If you want to link on other than the target machine, you need a cross-linker as well. You also need header files and libraries suitable for the target machine that you can install on the host machine.

#### 4.3.1 Steps of Cross-Compilation

To compile and run a program using a cross-compiler involves several steps:

- Run the cross-compiler on the host machine to produce assembler files for the target machine. This requires header files for the target machine.
- Assemble the files produced by the cross-compiler. You can do this either with an assembler on the target machine, or with a cross-assembler on the host machine.
- Link those files to make an executable. You can do this either with a linker on the target machine, or with a cross-linker on the host machine. Whichever machine you use, you need libraries and certain startup files (typically ‘crt....o’) for the target machine.

It is most convenient to do all of these steps on the same host machine, since then you can do it all with a single invocation of GNU CC. This requires a suitable cross-assembler and cross-linker. For some targets, the GNU assembler and linker are available.

#### 4.3.2 Configuring a Cross-Compiler

To build GNU CC as a cross-compiler, you start out by running ‘configure’. Use the ‘--target=target’ to specify the target type. If ‘configure’ was unable to correctly identify
the system you are running on, also specify the ‘--build=build’ option. For example, here is how to configure for a cross-compiler that produces code for an HP 68030 system running BSD on a system that ‘configure’ can correctly identify:

./configure --target=m68k-hp-bsd4.3

4.3.3 Tools and Libraries for a Cross-Compiler

If you have a cross-assembler and cross-linker available, you should install them now. Put them in the directory ‘/usr/local/target/bin’. Here is a table of the tools you should put in this directory:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>as</code></td>
<td>This should be the cross-assembler.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ld</code></td>
<td>This should be the cross-linker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ar</code></td>
<td>This should be the cross-archiver: a program which can manipulate archive files (linker libraries) in the target machine’s format.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>ranlib</code></td>
<td>This should be a program to construct a symbol table in an archive file.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The installation of GNU CC will find these programs in that directory, and copy or link them to the proper place for the cross-compiler to find them when run later.

The easiest way to provide these files is to build the Binutils package and GAS. Configure them with the same ‘--host’ and ‘--target’ options that you use for configuring GNU CC, then build and install them. They install their executables automatically into the proper directory. Alas, they do not support all the targets that GNU CC supports.

If you want to install libraries to use with the cross-compiler, such as a standard C library, put them in the directory ‘/usr/local/target/lib’; installation of GNU CC copies all the files in that subdirectory into the proper place for GNU CC to find them and link with them. Here’s an example of copying some libraries from a target machine:

```
ftp target-machine
lcd /usr/local/target/lib
cd /lib
get libc.a
cd /usr/lib
get libg.a
get libm.a
quit
```

The precise set of libraries you’ll need, and their locations on the target machine, vary depending on its operating system.

Many targets require “start files” such as ‘crt0.o’ and ‘crtn.o’ which are linked into each executable; these too should be placed in ‘/usr/local/target/lib’. There may be several alternatives for ‘crt0.o’, for use with profiling or other compilation options. Check your target’s definition of STARTFILE_SPEC to find out what start files it uses. Here’s an example of copying these files from a target machine:

```
ftp target-machine
lcd /usr/local/target/lib
prompt
cd /lib
mget *crt*.o
cd /usr/lib
mget *crt*.o
quit
```
4.3.4 Cross-Compilers and Header Files

If you are cross-compiling a standalone program or a program for an embedded system, then you may not need any header files except the few that are part of GNU CC (and those of your program). However, if you intend to link your program with a standard C library such as 'libc.a', then you probably need to compile with the header files that go with the library you use.

The GNU C compiler does not come with these files, because (1) they are system-specific, and (2) they belong in a C library, not in a compiler.

If the GNU C library supports your target machine, then you can get the header files from there (assuming you actually use the GNU library when you link your program).

If your target machine comes with a C compiler, it probably comes with suitable header files also. If you make these files accessible from the host machine, the cross-compiler can use them also.

Otherwise, you're on your own in finding header files to use when cross-compiling.

When you have found suitable header files, put them in the directory '/usr/local/target/include', before building the cross compiler. Then installation will run fixincludes properly and install the corrected versions of the header files where the compiler will use them.

Provide the header files before you build the cross-compiler, because the build stage actually runs the cross-compiler to produce parts of 'libgcc.a'. (These are the parts that can be compiled with GNU CC.) Some of them need suitable header files.

Here's an example showing how to copy the header files from a target machine. On the target machine, do this:

```
(cd /usr/include; tar cf - .) > tarfile
```

Then, on the host machine, do this:

```
ftp target-machine
lcd /usr/local/target/include
get tarfile
quit
tar xf tarfile
```

4.3.5 Actually Building the Cross-Compiler

Now you can proceed just as for compiling a single-machine compiler through the step of building stage 1.

If your target is exotic, you may need to provide the header file 'float.h'. One way to do this is to compile 'enquire' and run it on your target machine. The job of 'enquire' is to run on the target machine and figure out by experiment the nature of its floating point representation. 'enquire' records its findings in the header file 'float.h'. If you can’t produce this file by running 'enquire' on the target machine, then you will need to come up with a suitable 'float.h' in some other way (or else, avoid using it in your programs).

Do not try to build stage 2 for a cross-compiler. It doesn’t work to rebuild GNU CC as a cross-compiler using the cross-compiler, because that would produce a program that runs on the target machine, not on the host. For example, if you compile a 386-to-68030 cross-compiler with itself, the result will not be right either for the 386 (because it was compiled into 68030 code) or for the 68030 (because it was configured for a 386 as the host). If you want to compile GNU CC into 68030 code, whether you compile it on a 68030 or with a cross-compiler on a 386, you must specify a 68030 as the host when you configure it.

To install the cross-compiler, use 'make install', as usual.
4.4 Installing GNU CC on VMS

The VMS version of GNU CC is distributed in a backup saveset containing both source code and precompiled binaries.

To install the ‘gcc’ command so you can use the compiler easily, in the same manner as you use the VMS C compiler, you must install the VMS CLD file for GNU CC as follows:

1. Define the VMS logical names ‘GNU_CC’ and ‘GNU_CC_INCLUDE’ to point to the directories where the GNU CC executables (‘gcc-cpp.exe’, ‘gcc-cc1.exe’, etc.) and the C include files are kept respectively. This should be done with the commands:

   $ assign /system /translation=concealed -
   disk:[gcc.] gnu_cc

   $ assign /system /translation=concealed -
   disk:[gcc.include.] gnu_cc_include

   with the appropriate disk and directory names. These commands can be placed in your system startup file so they will be executed whenever the machine is rebooted. You may, if you choose, do this via the ‘GCC_INSTALL.COM’ script in the ‘[GCC]’ directory.

2. Install the ‘GCC’ command with the command line:

   $ set command /table=sys$common:[syslib]dcltables -
   /output=sys$common:[syslib]dcltables gnu_cc:[000000]gcc

   $ install replace sys$common:[syslib]dcltables

3. To install the help file, do the following:

   $ library/help sys$library:helplib.hlb gcc.hlp

   Now you can invoke the compiler with a command like ‘gcc /verbose file.c’, which is equivalent to the command ‘gcc -v -c file.c’ in Unix.

   If you wish to use GNU C++ you must first install GNU CC, and then perform the following steps:

1. Define the VMS logical name ‘GNU_GXX_INCLUDE’ to point to the directory where the preprocessor will search for the C++ header files. This can be done with the command:

   $ assign /system /translation=concealed -
   disk:[gcc.gxx_include.] gnu_gxx_include

   with the appropriate disk and directory name. If you are going to be using a C++ runtime library, this is where its install procedure will install its header files.

2. Obtain the file ‘gcc-cc1plus.exe’, and place this in the same directory that ‘gcc-cc1.exe’ is kept.

   The GNU C++ compiler can be invoked with a command like ‘gcc /plus /verbose file.cc’, which is equivalent to the command ‘g++ -v -c file.cc’ in Unix.

   We try to put corresponding binaries and sources on the VMS distribution tape. But sometimes the binaries will be from an older version than the sources, because we don’t always have time to update them. (Use the ‘/version’ option to determine the version number of the binaries and compare it with the source file ‘version.c’ to tell whether this is so.) In this case, you should use the binaries you get to recompile the sources. If you must recompile, here is how:

1. Execute the command procedure ‘vmsconfig.com’ to set up the files ‘tm.h’, ‘config.h’, ‘aux-output.c’, and ‘md.’, and to create files ‘tconfig.h’ and ‘hconfig.h’. This procedure also creates several linker option files used by ‘make-cc1.com’ and a data file used by ‘make-12.com’.

   $ @vmsconfig.com

2. Setup the logical names and command tables as defined above. In addition, define the VMS logical name ‘GNU_BISON’ to point at the to the directories where the Bison executable is kept. This should be done with the command:
3. Install the ‘BISON’ command with the command line:

```
$ set command /table=sys$common:[syslib]dcltables -
/output=sys$common:[syslib]dcltables -
gnu_bison:[000000]bison
$ install replace sys$common:[syslib]dcltables
```

4. Type ‘@make-gcc’ to recompile everything (alternatively, submit the file ‘make-gcc.com’ to a batch queue). If you wish to build the GNU C++ compiler as well as the GNU CC compiler, you must first edit ‘make-gcc.com’ and follow the instructions that appear in the comments.

5. In order to use GCC, you need a library of functions which GCC compiled code will call to perform certain tasks, and these functions are defined in the file ‘libgcc2.c’. To compile this you should use the command procedure ‘make-l2.com’, which will generate the library ‘libgcc2.olb’. ‘libgcc2.olb’ should be built using the compiler built from the same distribution that ‘libgcc2.c’ came from, and ‘make-gcc.com’ will automatically do all of this for you.

   To install the library, use the following commands:

   ```
   $ library gnu_cc:[000000]gcclib/delete=(new,eprintf)
   $ library gnu_cc:[000000]gcclib/delete=L_*
   $ library libgcc2/extract=*/output=libgcc2.obj
   $ library gnu_cc:[000000]gcclib libgcc2.obj
   ```

   The first command simply removes old modules that will be replaced with modules from ‘libgcc2’ under different module names. The modules new and eprintf may not actually be present in your ‘gcclib.olb’—if the VMS librarian complains about those modules not being present, simply ignore the message and continue on with the next command. The second command removes the modules that came from the previous version of the library ‘libgcc2.c’.

   Whenever you update the compiler on your system, you should also update the library with the above procedure.

6. You may wish to build GCC in such a way that no files are written to the directory where the source files reside. An example would be when the source files are on a read-only disk. In these cases, execute the following DCL commands (substituting your actual path names):

   ```
   $ assign dua0:[gcc.build_dir.]/translation=concealed, -
   dua1:[gcc.source_dir.]/translation=concealed gcc_build
   $ set default gcc_build:[000000]
   ```

   where the directory ‘dua1:[gcc.source_dir.]’ contains the source code, and the directory ‘dua0:[gcc.build_dir.]’ is meant to contain all of the generated object files and executables. Once you have done this, you can proceed building GCC as described above. (Keep in mind that ‘gcc_build’ is a rooted logical name, and thus the device names in each element of the search list must be an actual physical device name rather than another rooted logical name).

7. If you are building GNU CC with a previous version of GNU CC, you also should check to see that you have the newest version of the assembler. In particular, GNU CC version 2 treats global constant variables slightly differently from GNU CC version 1, and GAS version 1.38.1 does not have the patches required to work with GCC version 2. If you use GAS 1.38.1, then extern const variables will not have the read-only bit set, and the linker will generate warning messages about mismatched psect attributes for these variables. These warning messages are merely a nuisance, and can safely be ignored.
Chapter 4: Installing GNU CC

If you are compiling with a version of GNU CC older than 1.33, specify ‘/DEFINE("inline=")’ as an option in all the compilations. This requires editing all the gcc commands in ‘make-cc1.com’. (The older versions had problems supporting inline.) Once you have a working 1.33 or newer GNU CC, you can change this file back.

8. If you want to build GNU CC with the VAX C compiler, you will need to make minor changes in ‘make-cccp.com’ and ‘make-cc1.com’ to choose alternate definitions of CC, CFLAGS, and LIBS. See comments in those files. However, you must also have a working version of the GNU assembler (GNU as, aka GAS) as it is used as the back-end for GNU CC to produce binary object modules and is not included in the GNU CC sources. GAS is also needed to compile ‘libgcc2’ in order to build ‘gcclib’ (see above); ‘make-l2.com’ expects to be able to find it operational in ‘gnu_cc:[000000]gnu-as.exe’.

To use GNU CC on VMS, you need the VMS driver programs ‘gcc.exe’, ‘gcc.com’, and ‘gcc.cld’. They are distributed with the VMS binaries (‘gcc-vms’) rather than the GNU CC sources. GAS is also included in ‘gcc-vms’, as is Bison.

Once you have successfully built GNU CC with VAX C, you should use the resulting compiler to rebuild itself. Before doing this, be sure to restore the CC, CFLAGS, and LIBS definitions in ‘make-cccp.com’ and ‘make-cc1.com’. The second generation compiler will be able to take advantage of many optimizations that must be suppressed when building with other compilers.

Under previous versions of GNU CC, the generated code would occasionally give strange results when linked with the sharable ‘VAXCRTL’ library. Now this should work.

Even with this version, however, GNU CC itself should not be linked with the sharable ‘VAXCRTL’. The version of qsort in ‘VAXCRTL’ has a bug (known to be present in VMS versions V4.6 through V5.5) which causes the compiler to fail.

The executables are generated by ‘make-cc1.com’ and ‘make-cccp.com’ use the object library version of ‘VAXCRTL’ in order to make use of the qsort routine in ‘gcclib.olb’. If you wish to link the compiler executables with the shareable image version of ‘VAXCRTL’, you should edit the file ‘tm.h’ (created by ‘vmsconfig.com’) to define the macro QSORT_WORKAROUND. QSORT_WORKAROUND is always defined when GNU CC is compiled with VAX C, to avoid a problem in case ‘gcclib.olb’ is not yet available.

4.5 collect2

GNU CC uses a utility called collect2 on nearly all systems to arrange to call various initialization functions at start time.

The program collect2 works by linking the program once and looking through the linker output file for symbols with particular names indicating they are constructor functions. If it finds any, it creates a new temporary ‘.c’ file containing a table of them, compiles it, and links the program a second time including that file.

The actual calls to the constructors are carried out by a subroutine called __main, which is called (automatically) at the beginning of the body of main (provided main was compiled with GNU CC). Calling __main is necessary, even when compiling C code, to allow linking C and C++ object code together. (If you use ‘-nostdlib’, you get an unresolved reference to __main, since it’s defined in the standard GCC library. Include ‘-lgcc’ at the end of your compiler command line to resolve this reference.)

The program collect2 is installed as ld in the directory where the passes of the compiler are installed. When collect2 needs to find the real ld, it tries the following file names:

- ‘real-ld’ in the directories listed in the compiler’s search directories.
- ‘real-ld’ in the directories listed in the environment variable PATH.
- The file specified in the REAL_LD_FILE_NAME configuration macro, if specified.
• 'ld' in the compiler's search directories, except that collect2 will not execute itself recursively.
• 'ld' in PATH.

'The compiler's search directories' means all the directories where gcc searches for passes of the compiler. This includes directories that you specify with '-B'.

Cross-compilers search a little differently:
• 'real-ld' in the compiler's search directories.
• 'target-real-ld' in PATH.
• The file specified in the REAL_LD_FILE_NAME configuration macro, if specified.
• 'ld' in the compiler's search directories.
• 'target-ld' in PATH.

collect2 explicitly avoids running ld using the file name under which collect2 itself was invoked. In fact, it remembers up a list of such names—in case one copy of collect2 finds another copy (or version) of collect2 installed as ld in a second place in the search path.

collect2 searches for the utilities nm and strip using the same algorithm as above for ld.

4.6 Standard Header File Directories

GCC_INCLUDE_DIR means the same thing for native and cross. It is where GNU CC stores its private include files, and also where GNU CC stores the fixed include files. A cross compiled GNU CC runs fixincludes on the header files in '$(tooldir)/include'. (If the cross compilation header files need to be fixed, they must be installed before GNU CC is built. If the cross compilation header files are already suitable for ISO C and GNU CC, nothing special need be done).

GPLUSPLUS_INCLUDE_DIR means the same thing for native and cross. It is where g++ looks first for header files. The C++ library installs only target independent header files in that directory.

LOCAL_INCLUDE_DIR is used only for a native compiler. It is normally '/usr/local/include'. GNU CC searches this directory so that users can install header files in '/usr/local/include'.

CROSS_INCLUDE_DIR is used only for a cross compiler. GNU CC doesn’t install anything there.

TOOL_INCLUDE_DIR is used for both native and cross compilers. It is the place for other packages to install header files that GNU CC will use. For a cross-compiler, this is the equivalent of '/usr/include'. When you build a cross-compiler, fixincludes processes any header files in this directory.
5 Extensions to the C Language Family

GNU C provides several language features not found in ISO standard C. (The ‘-pedantic’ option directs GNU CC to print a warning message if any of these features is used.) To test for the availability of these features in conditional compilation, check for a predefined macro __GNUC__, which is always defined under GNU CC.

These extensions are available in C and Objective C. Most of them are also available in C++. See Chapter 6 [Extensions to the C++ Language], page 165, for extensions that apply only to C++.

Some features that are in ISO C99 but not C89 or C++ are also, as extensions, accepted by GCC in C89 mode and in C++.

5.1 Statements and Declarations in Expressions

A compound statement enclosed in parentheses may appear as an expression in GNU C. This allows you to use loops, switches, and local variables within an expression.

Recall that a compound statement is a sequence of statements surrounded by braces; in this construct, parentheses go around the braces. For example:

```c
(int y = foo (); int z;
  if (y > 0) z = y;
  else z = - y;
  z; )
```

is a valid (though slightly more complex than necessary) expression for the absolute value of foo().

The last thing in the compound statement should be an expression followed by a semicolon; the value of this subexpression serves as the value of the entire construct. (If you use some other kind of statement last within the braces, the construct has type void, and thus effectively no value.)

This feature is especially useful in making macro definitions “safe” (so that they evaluate each operand exactly once). For example, the “maximum” function is commonly defined as a macro in standard C as follows:

```c
#define max(a,b) ((a) > (b) ? (a) : (b))
```

But this definition computes either a or b twice, with bad results if the operand has side effects. In GNU C, if you know the type of the operands (here let’s assume int), you can define the macro safely as follows:

```c
#define maxint(a,b) \
  ({int _a = (a), _b = (b); _a > _b ? _a : _b; })
```

Embedded statements are not allowed in constant expressions, such as the value of an enumeration constant, the width of a bit-field, or the initial value of a static variable.

If you don’t know the type of the operand, you can still do this, but you must use typeof (see Section 5.7 [Typeof], page 126) or type naming (see Section 5.6 [Naming Types], page 126).

Statement expressions are not supported fully in G++, and their fate there is unclear. (It is possible that they will become fully supported at some point, or that they will be deprecated, or that the bugs that are present will continue to exist indefinitely.) Presently, statement expressions do not work well as default arguments.

In addition, there are semantic issues with statement-expressions in C++. If you try to use statement-expressions instead of inline functions in C++, you may be surprised at the way object destruction is handled. For example:
#define foo(a) ({int b = (a); b + 3; })
does not work the same way as:
inline int foo(int a) { int b = a; return b + 3; }
In particular, if the expression passed into foo involves the creation of temporaries, the destructors for those temporaries will be run earlier in the case of the macro than in the case of the function.

These considerations mean that it is probably a bad idea to use statement-expressions of this form in header files that are designed to work with C++. (Note that some versions of the GNU C Library contained header files using statement-expression that lead to precisely this bug.)

5.2 Locally Declared Labels

Each statement expression is a scope in which local labels can be declared. A local label is simply an identifier; you can jump to it with an ordinary goto statement, but only from within the statement expression it belongs to.

A local label declaration looks like this:
__label__ label;
or
__label__ label1, label2, ...;

Local label declarations must come at the beginning of the statement expression, right after the '{', before any ordinary declarations.

The label declaration defines the label name, but does not define the label itself. You must do this in the usual way, with label: within the statements of the statement expression.

The local label feature is useful because statement expressions are often used in macros. If the macro contains nested loops, a goto can be useful for breaking out of them. However, an ordinary label whose scope is the whole function cannot be used: if the macro can be expanded several times in one function, the label will be multiply defined in that function. A local label avoids this problem. For example:

#define SEARCH(array, target) ({ __label__ found; typeof (target) _SEARCH_target = (target); typeof (*(array)) *_SEARCH_array = (array); int i, j; int value; for (i = 0; i < max; i++) for (j = 0; j < max; j++) if (_SEARCH_array[i][j] == _SEARCH_target) { value = i; goto found; } value = -1; found: value; })

5.3 Labels as Values

You can get the address of a label defined in the current function (or a containing function) with the unary operator ‘&&’. The value has type void *. This value is a constant and can be used wherever a constant of that type is valid. For example:
void *ptr;
...
ptr = &\&foo;

To use these values, you need to be able to jump to one. This is done with the computed
goto statement\(^1\), \texttt{goto }*\texttt{exp};. For example,
\texttt{goto }*ptr;

Any expression of type \texttt{void *} is allowed.

One way of using these constants is in initializing a static array that will serve as a jump
table:
\[
\text{static void }*\text{array}[\] = { &\&foo, &\&bar, &\&hack };
\]
Then you can select a label with indexing, like this:
\texttt{goto }*\text{array}[i];

Note that this does not check whether the subscript is in bounds—array indexing in C never
does that.

Such an array of label values serves a purpose much like that of the \texttt{switch} statement. The
\texttt{switch} statement is cleaner, so use that rather than an array unless the problem does not fit a
\texttt{switch} statement very well.

Another use of label values is in an interpreter for threaded code. The labels within the
interpreter function can be stored in the threaded code for super-fast dispatching.

You may not use this mechanism to jump to code in a different function. If you do that,
totally unpredictable things will happen. The best way to avoid this is to store the label address
only in automatic variables and never pass it as an argument.

An alternate way to write the above example is
\[
\text{static const int }\text{array}[\] = { &\&foo - &\&foo, &\&bar - &\&foo,
&\&hack - &\&foo };
\]
\texttt{goto }*(&\&foo + \text{array}[i]);

This is more friendly to code living in shared libraries, as it reduces the number of dynamic
relocations that are needed, and by consequence, allows the data to be read-only.

5.4 Nested Functions

A \textit{nested function} is a function defined inside another function. (Nested functions are not
supported for GNU C++.) The nested function’s name is local to the block where it is defined.
For example, here we define a nested function named \texttt{square}, and call it twice:
\[
\text{foo (double a, double b)}
\{\text{double square (double z) \{ return z * z; \}}
\text{return square (a) + square (b);}\}
\]

The nested function can access all the variables of the containing function that are visible at
the point of its definition. This is called \textit{lexical scoping}. For example, here we show a nested
function which uses an inherited variable named \texttt{offset}:
\[
\text{bar (int *array, int offset, int size)}
\{\text{int access (int *array, int index)}
\]
{ return array[index + offset]; }
int i;
...
for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
    ... access (array, i) ...
}

Nested function definitions are permitted within functions in the places where variable definitions are allowed; that is, in any block, before the first statement in the block.

It is possible to call the nested function from outside the scope of its name by storing its address or passing the address to another function:

```
hack (int *array, int size)
{ void store (int index, int value)
{ array[index] = value; }

intermediate (store, size);
}
```

Here, the function `intermediate` receives the address of `store` as an argument. If `intermediate` calls `store`, the arguments given to `store` are used to store into `array`. But this technique works only so long as the containing function (`hack`, in this example) does not exit.

If you try to call the nested function through its address after the containing function has exited, all hell will break loose. If you try to call it after a containing scope level has exited, and if it refers to some of the variables that are no longer in scope, you may be lucky, but it’s not wise to take the risk. If, however, the nested function does not refer to anything that has gone out of scope, you should be safe.

GNU CC implements taking the address of a nested function using a technique called trampolines. A paper describing them is available as http://people.debian.org/~karlheg/Usenix88-lexic.pdf.

A nested function can jump to a label inherited from a containing function, provided the label was explicitly declared in the containing function (see Section 5.2 [Local Labels], page 122). Such a jump returns instantly to the containing function, exiting the nested function which did the `goto` and any intermediate functions as well. Here is an example:
bar (int *array, int offset, int size)
{
    __label__ failure;
    int access (int *array, int index)
    {
        if (index > size)
            goto failure;
        return array[index + offset];
    }
    int i;
    ...
    for (i = 0; i < size; i++)
        ... access (array, i) ...
    ...
    return 0;

    /* Control comes here from access
       if it detects an error. */
 failure:
    return -1;
}

A nested function always has internal linkage. Declaring one with extern is erroneous. If you
need to declare the nested function before its definition, use auto (which is otherwise meaningless
for function declarations).

bar (int *array, int offset, int size)
{
    __label__ failure;
    auto int access (int *, int);
    ...
    int access (int *array, int index)
    {
        if (index > size)
            goto failure;
        return array[index + offset];
    }
    ...
}

5.5 Constructing Function Calls

Using the built-in functions described below, you can record the arguments a function received,
and call another function with the same arguments, without knowing the number or types of the arguments.

You can also record the return value of that function call, and later return that value, without
knowing what data type the function tried to return (as long as your caller expects that data type).

void * __builtin_apply_args ()
Built-in Function
This built-in function returns a pointer to data describing how to perform a call with the
same arguments as were passed to the current function.
The function saves the arg pointer register, structure value address, and all registers that might be used to pass arguments to a function into a block of memory allocated on the stack. Then it returns the address of that block.

```c
void * __builtin_apply (void (*function)(), void *arguments, size_t size)
```

This built-in function invokes function with a copy of the parameters described by arguments and size.

The value of arguments should be the value returned by __builtin_apply_args. The argument size specifies the size of the stack argument data, in bytes.

This function returns a pointer to data describing how to return whatever value was returned by function. The data is saved in a block of memory allocated on the stack.

It is not always simple to compute the proper value for size. The value is used by __builtin_apply to compute the amount of data that should be pushed on the stack and copied from the incoming argument area.

```c
void __builtin_return (void *result)
```

This built-in function returns the value described by result from the containing function.

You should specify, for result, a value returned by __builtin_apply.

### 5.6 Naming an Expression’s Type

You can give a name to the type of an expression using a typedef declaration with an initializer. Here is how to define name as a type name for the type of exp:

```c
typedef name = exp;
```

This is useful in conjunction with the statements-within-expressions feature. Here is how the two together can be used to define a safe “maximum” macro that operates on any arithmetic type:

```c
#define max(a,b) \
({typedef _ta = (a), _tb = (b); \
  _ta _a = (a); _tb _b = (b); \
  _a > _b ? _a : _b; })
```

The reason for using names that start with underscores for the local variables is to avoid conflicts with variable names that occur within the expressions that are substituted for a and b. Eventually we hope to design a new form of declaration syntax that allows you to declare variables whose scopes start only after their initializers; this will be a more reliable way to prevent such conflicts.

### 5.7 Referring to a Type with typeof

Another way to refer to the type of an expression is with typeof. The syntax of using of this keyword looks like sizeof, but the construct acts semantically like a type name defined with typedef.

There are two ways of writing the argument to typeof: with an expression or with a type. Here is an example with an expression:

```c
typeof (x[0][1])
```

This assumes that x is an array of pointers to functions; the type described is that of the values of the functions.

Here is an example with a typename as the argument:
typeof (int *)

Here the type described is that of pointers to int.

If you are writing a header file that must work when included in ISO C programs, write __typeof__ instead of typeof. See Section 5.39 [Alternate Keywords], page 159.

A typeof-construct can be used anywhere a typedef name could be used. For example, you can use it in a declaration, in a cast, or inside of sizeof or typeof.

- This declares y with the type of what x points to.
  typeof (*x) y;
- This declares y as an array of such values.
  typeof (*x) y[4];
- This declares y as an array of pointers to characters:
  typeof (typeof (char *)[4]) y;

It is equivalent to the following traditional C declaration:

char *y[4];

To see the meaning of the declaration using typeof, and why it might be a useful way to write, let’s rewrite it with these macros:

#define pointer(T) typeof(T *)
#define array(T, N) typeof(T [N])

Now the declaration can be rewritten this way:

array (pointer (char), 4) y;

Thus, array (pointer (char), 4) is the type of arrays of 4 pointers to char.

### 5.8 Generalized Lvalues

Compound expressions, conditional expressions and casts are allowed as lvalues provided their operands are lvalues. This means that you can take their addresses or store values into them.

Standard C++ allows compound expressions and conditional expressions as lvalues, and permits casts to reference type, so use of this extension is deprecated for C++ code.

For example, a compound expression can be assigned, provided the last expression in the sequence is an lvalue. These two expressions are equivalent:

(a, b) += 5
a, (b += 5)

Similarly, the address of the compound expression can be taken. These two expressions are equivalent:

&(a, b)
a, &b

A conditional expression is a valid lvalue if its type is not void and the true and false branches are both valid lvalues. For example, these two expressions are equivalent:

(a ? b : c) = 5
(a ? b = 5 : (c = 5))

A cast is a valid lvalue if its operand is an lvalue. A simple assignment whose left-hand side is a cast works by converting the right-hand side first to the specified type, then to the type of the inner left-hand side expression. After this is stored, the value is converted back to the specified type to become the value of the assignment. Thus, if a has type char *, the following two expressions are equivalent:
(int)a = 5
(int)(a = (char *)(int)5)

An assignment-with-arithmetic operation such as ‘+=’ applied to a cast performs the arith-
metic using the type resulting from the cast, and then continues as in the previous case. There-
fore, these two expressions are equivalent:

(int)a += 5
(int)(a = (char *)(int) ((int)a + 5))

You cannot take the address of an lvalue cast, because the use of its address would not
work out coherently. Suppose that &((int)f were permitted, where f has type float. Then
the following statement would try to store an integer bit-pattern where a floating point number
belongs:

*(int)f = 1;

This is quite different from what (int)f = 1 would do—that would convert 1 to floating
point and store it. Rather than cause this inconsistency, we think it is better to prohibit use of
‘&’ on a cast.

If you really do want an int * pointer with the address of f, you can simply write (int *)&f.

5.9 Conditionals with Omitted Operands

The middle operand in a conditional expression may be omitted. Then if the first operand
is nonzero, its value is the value of the conditional expression.

Therefore, the expression

x ? : y

has the value of x if that is nonzero; otherwise, the value of y.

This example is perfectly equivalent to

x ? x : y

In this simple case, the ability to omit the middle operand is not especially useful. When it
becomes useful is when the first operand does, or may (if it is a macro argument), contain
a side effect. Then repeating the operand in the middle would perform the side effect twice.
Omitting the middle operand uses the value already computed without the undesirable effects
of recomputing it.

5.10 Double-Word Integers

ISO C99 supports data types for integers that are at least 64 bits wide, and as an extension
GCC supports them in C89 mode and in C++. Simply write long long int for a signed integer,
or unsigned long long int for an unsigned integer. To make an integer constant of type long
long int, add the suffix ‘LL’ to the integer. To make an integer constant of type unsigned long
long int, add the suffix ‘ULL’ to the integer.

You can use these types in arithmetic like any other integer types. Addition, subtraction,
and bitwise boolean operations on these types are open-coded on all types of machines. Multi-
pliation is open-coded if the machine supports fullword-to-doubleword a widening multiply
instruction. Division and shifts are open-coded only on machines that provide special support.
The operations that are not open-coded use special library routines that come with GNU CC.

There may be pitfalls when you use long long types for function arguments, unless you
declare function prototypes. If a function expects type int for its argument, and you pass a
value of type long long int, confusion will result because the caller and the subroutine will
disagree about the number of bytes for the argument. Likewise, if the function expects long
long int and you pass int. The best way to avoid such problems is to use prototypes.
5.11 Complex Numbers

ISO C99 supports complex floating data types, and as an extension GCC supports them in
C89 mode and in C++, and supports complex integer data types which are not part of ISO C99.
You can declare complex types using the keyword _Complex. As an extension, the older GNU
keyword __complex__ is also supported.

For example, _Complex double x; declares x as a variable whose real part and imaginary
part are both of type double. _Complex short int y; declares y to have real and imaginary
parts of type short int; this is not likely to be useful, but it shows that the set of complex
types is complete.

To write a constant with a complex data type, use the suffix 'i' or 'j' (either one; they are
equivalent). For example, 2.5fi has type _Complex float and 3i has type _Complex int. Such
a constant always has a pure imaginary value, but you can form any complex value you like by
adding one to a real constant. This is a GNU extension; if you have an ISO C99 conforming
C library (such as GNU libc), and want to construct complex constants of floating type, you
should include <complex.h> and use the macros I or _Complex_I instead.

To extract the real part of a complex-valued expression exp, write __real__ exp. Likewise,
use __imag__ to extract the imaginary part. This is a GNU extension; for values of floating
type, you should use the ISO C99 functions crealf, creal, creall, cimagf, cimag and cimagl,
declared in <complex.h> and also provided as built-in functions by GCC.

The operator "~" performs complex conjugation when used on a value with a complex type.
This is a GNU extension; for values of floating type, you should use the ISO C99 functions
conjf, conj and conjl, declared in <complex.h> and also provided as built-in functions by
GCC.

GNU CC can allocate complex automatic variables in a noncontiguous fashion; it’s even
possible for the real part to be in a register while the imaginary part is on the stack (or vice-
versa). None of the supported debugging info formats has a way to represent noncontiguous
allocation like this, so GNU CC describes a noncontiguous complex variable as if it were two
separate variables of noncomplex type. If the variable’s actual name is foo, the two fictitious
variables are named foo$real and foo$imag. You can examine and set these two fictitious
variables with your debugger.

A future version of GDB will know how to recognize such pairs and treat them as a single
variable with a complex type.

5.12 Hex Floats

ISO C99 supports floating-point numbers written not only in the usual decimal notation,
such as 1.55e1, but also numbers such as 0x1.fp3 written in hexadecimal format. As a GNU
extension, GCC supports this in C89 mode (except in some cases when strictly conforming) and
in C++. In that format the '0x' hex introducer and the 'p' or 'P' exponent field are mandatory.
The exponent is a decimal number that indicates the power of 2 by which the significant part
will be multiplied. Thus ‘0x1.0f’ is 1 15/16, ‘p3’ multiplies it by 8, and the value of 0x1.fp3 is
the same as 1.55e1.

Unlike for floating-point numbers in the decimal notation the exponent is always required in
the hexadecimal notation. Otherwise the compiler would not be able to resolve the ambiguity
of, e.g., 0x1.f. This could mean 1.0f or 1.9375 since ‘f’ is also the extension for floating-point
constants of type float.

5.13 Arrays of Length Zero

Zero-length arrays are allowed in GNU C. They are very useful as the last element of a
structure which is really a header for a variable-length object:
struct line {
  int length;
  char contents[0];
};

struct line *thisline = (struct line *)
  malloc (sizeof (struct line) + this_length);
thisline->length = this_length;

In ISO C89, you would have to give contents a length of 1, which means either you waste
space or complicate the argument to malloc.

In ISO C99, you would use a flexible array member, which is slightly different in syntax and
semantics:

- Flexible array members are written as contents[] without the 0.
- Flexible array members have incomplete type, and so the sizeof operator may not be
  applied. As a quirk of the original implementation of zero-length arrays, sizeof evaluates
to zero.
- Flexible array members may only appear as the last member of a struct that is other-
  wise non-empty. GCC currently allows zero-length arrays anywhere. You may encounter
  problems, however, defining structures containing only a zero-length array. Such usage is
deprecated, and we recommend using zero-length arrays only in places in which flexible
array members would be allowed.

GCC versions before 3.0 allowed zero-length arrays to be statically initialized. In addition to
those cases that were useful, it also allowed initializations in situations that would corrupt later
data. Non-empty initialization of zero-length arrays is now deprecated.

Instead GCC allows static initialization of flexible array members. This is equivalent to
defining a new structure containing the original structure followed by an array of sufficient size
to contain the data. I.e. in the following, f1 is constructed as if it were declared like f2.

struct f1 {
  int x; int y[];
} f1 = { 1, { 2, 3, 4 } };

struct f2 {
  struct f1 f11; int data[3];
} f2 = { { 1 }, { 2, 3, 4 } };  

The convenience of this extension is that f1 has the desired type, eliminating the need to
consistently refer to f2.f1.

This has symmetry with normal static arrays, in that an array of unknown size is also written
with [].

Of course, this extension only makes sense if the extra data comes at the end of a top-
level object, as otherwise we would be overwriting data at subsequent offsets. To avoid undue
complication and confusion with initialization of deeply nested arrays, we simply disallow any
non-empty initialization except when the structure is the top-level object. For example:

struct foo { int x; int y[]; };
struct bar { struct foo z; };

struct foo a = { 1, { 2, 3, 4 } }; // Legal.
struct bar b = { { 1, { 2, 3, 4 } } }; // Illegal.
struct bar c = { { 1, { } } }; // Legal.
struct foo d[1] = { { 1 { 2, 3, 4 } } }; // Illegal.
5.14 Arrays of Variable Length

Variable-length automatic arrays are allowed in ISO C99, and as an extension GCC accepts them in C89 mode and in C++. (However, GCC’s implementation of variable-length arrays does not yet conform in detail to the ISO C99 standard.) These arrays are declared like any other automatic arrays, but with a length that is not a constant expression. The storage is allocated at the point of declaration and deallocated when the brace-level is exited. For example:

```c
FILE *
concat_fopen (char *s1, char *s2, char *mode)
{
    char str[strlen (s1) + strlen (s2) + 1];
    strcpy (str, s1);
    strcat (str, s2);
    return fopen (str, mode);
}
```

Jumping or breaking out of the scope of the array name deallocates the storage. Jumping into the scope is not allowed; you get an error message for it.

You can use the function `alloca` to get an effect much like variable-length arrays. The function `alloca` is available in many other C implementations (but not in all). On the other hand, variable-length arrays are more elegant.

There are other differences between these two methods. Space allocated with `alloca` exists until the containing function returns. The space for a variable-length array is deallocated as soon as the array name’s scope ends. (If you use both variable-length arrays and `alloca` in the same function, deallocation of a variable-length array will also deallocate anything more recently allocated with `alloca`.)

You can also use variable-length arrays as arguments to functions:

```c
struct entry
tester (int len, char data[len][len])
{
    ...
}
```

The length of an array is computed once when the storage is allocated and is remembered for the scope of the array in case you access it with `sizeof`.

If you want to pass the array first and the length afterward, you can use a forward declaration in the parameter list—another GNU extension.

```c
struct entry
tester (int len; char data[len][len], int len)
{
    ...
}
```

The ‘int len’ before the semicolon is a parameter forward declaration, and it serves the purpose of making the name `len` known when the declaration of `data` is parsed.

You can write any number of such parameter forward declarations in the parameter list. They can be separated by commas or semicolons, but the last one must end with a semicolon, which is followed by the “real” parameter declarations. Each forward declaration must match a “real” declaration in parameter name and data type. ISO C99 does not support parameter forward declarations.
5.15 Macros with a Variable Number of Arguments.

In the ISO C standard of 1999, a macro can be declared to accept a variable number of arguments much as a function can. The syntax for defining the macro is similar to that of a function. Here is an example:

```
#define debug(format, ...) fprintf (stderr, format, __VA_ARGS__)
```

Here `...` is a variable argument. In the invocation of such a macro, it represents the zero or more tokens until the closing parenthesis that ends the invocation, including any commas. This set of tokens replaces the identifier __VA_ARGS__ in the macro body wherever it appears. See the CPP manual for more information.

GCC has long supported variadic macros, and used a different syntax that allowed you to give a name to the variable arguments just like any other argument. Here is an example:

```
#define debug(format, args...) fprintf (stderr, format, args)
```

This is in all ways equivalent to the ISO C example above, but arguably more readable and descriptive.

GNU CPP has two further variadic macro extensions, and permits them to be used with either of the above forms of macro definition.

In standard C, you are not allowed to leave the variable argument out entirely; but you are allowed to pass an empty argument. For example, this invocation is invalid in ISO C, because there is no comma after the string:

```
debug ("A message")
```

GNU CPP permits you to completely omit the variable arguments in this way. In the above examples, the compiler would complain, though since the expansion of the macro still has the extra comma after the format string.

To help solve this problem, CPP behaves specially for variable arguments used with the token paste operator, `##`. If instead you write

```
#define debug(format, ...) fprintf (stderr, format, ## __VA_ARGS__)
```

and if the variable arguments are omitted or empty, the `##` operator causes the preprocessor to remove the comma before it. If you do provide some variable arguments in your macro invocation, GNU CPP does not complain about the paste operation and instead places the variable arguments after the comma. Just like any other pasted macro argument, these arguments are not macro expanded.

5.16 Slightly Looser Rules for Escaped Newlines

Recently, the non-traditional preprocessor has relaxed its treatment of escaped newlines. Previously, the newline had to immediately follow a backslash. The current implementation allows whitespace in the form of spaces, horizontal and vertical tabs, and form feeds between the backslash and the subsequent newline. The preprocessor issues a warning, but treats it as a valid escaped newline and combines the two lines to form a single logical line. This works within comments and tokens, including multi-line strings, as well as between tokens. Comments are not treated as whitespace for the purposes of this relaxation, since they have not yet been replaced with spaces.

5.17 String Literals with Embedded Newlines

As an extension, GNU CPP permits string literals to cross multiple lines without escaping the embedded newlines. Each embedded newline is replaced with a single `\n` character in the resulting string literal, regardless of what form the newline took originally.

CPP currently allows such strings in directives as well (other than the `#include` family). This is deprecated and will eventually be removed.
5.18 Non-Lvalue Arrays May Have Subscripts

Subscripting is allowed on arrays that are not lvalues, even though the unary ‘&’ operator is not. (In ISO C99, both are allowed (though the array may not be used after the next sequence point), but this ISO C99 feature is not yet fully supported in GCC.) For example, this is valid in GNU C though not valid in C89:

```c
struct foo {int a[4];};
struct foo f();

bar (int index)
{
    return f().a[index];
}
```

5.19 Arithmetic on void- and Function-Pointers

In GNU C, addition and subtraction operations are supported on pointers to void and on pointers to functions. This is done by treating the size of a void or of a function as 1.

A consequence of this is that `sizeof` is also allowed on void and on function types, and returns 1.

The option ‘-Wpointer-arith’ requests a warning if these extensions are used.

5.20 Non-Constant Initializers

As in standard C++ and ISO C99, the elements of an aggregate initializer for an automatic variable are not required to be constant expressions in GNU C. Here is an example of an initializer with run-time varying elements:

```c
foo (float f, float g)
{
    float beat_freqs[2] = { f-g, f+g };
    ...
}
```

5.21 Compound Literals

ISO C99 supports compound literals. A compound literal looks like a cast containing an initializer. Its value is an object of the type specified in the cast, containing the elements specified in the initializer. (GCC does not yet implement the full ISO C99 semantics for compound literals.) As an extension, GCC supports compound literals in C89 mode and in C++.

Usually, the specified type is a structure. Assume that `struct foo` and `structure` are declared as shown:

```c
struct foo {int a; char b[2];} structure;
```

Here is an example of constructing a `struct foo` with a compound literal:

```c
structure = ((struct foo) {x + y, 'a', 0});
```

This is equivalent to writing the following:

```c
{
    struct foo temp = {x + y, 'a', 0};
    structure = temp;
}
```
You can also construct an array. If all the elements of the compound literal are (made up of) simple constant expressions, suitable for use in initializers, then the compound literal is an lvalue and can be coerced to a pointer to its first element, as shown here:

```c
char **foo = (char *[[]) { "x", "y", "z" };  
```

Array compound literals whose elements are not simple constants are not very useful, because the compound literal is not an lvalue: ISO C99 specifies that it is, being a temporary object with automatic storage duration associated with the enclosing block, but GCC does not yet implement this. There are currently only two valid ways to use it with GCC: to subscript it, or initialize an array variable with it. The former is probably slower than a `switch` statement, while the latter does the same thing an ordinary C initializer would do. Here is an example of subscripting an array compound literal:

```c
output = ((int[]) { 2, x, 28 }) [input];  
```

Compound literals for scalar types and union types are also allowed, but then the compound literal is equivalent to a cast.

### 5.22 Designated Initializers

Standard C89 requires the elements of an initializer to appear in a fixed order, the same as the order of the elements in the array or structure being initialized.

In ISO C99 you can give the elements in any order, specifying the array indices or structure field names they apply to, and GNU C allows this as an extension in C89 mode as well. This extension is not implemented in GNU C++.

To specify an array index, write `['index'] =` before the element value. For example,

```c
```

is equivalent to

```c
int a[6] = { 0, 0, 15, 0, 29, 0 };  
```

The index values must be constant expressions, even if the array being initialized is automatic.

An alternative syntax for this which has been obsolete since GCC 2.5 but GCC still accepts is to write `['index']` before the element value, with no `=`.

To initialize a range of elements to the same value, write `['first ... last'] = value'`. This is a GNU extension. For example,

```c
int widths[] = { [0 ... 9] = 1, [10 ... 99] = 2, [100] = 3 };  
```

If the value in it has side-effects, the side-effects will happen only once, not for each initialized field by the range initializer.

Note that the length of the array is the highest value specified plus one.

In a structure initializer, specify the name of a field to initialize with `.'fieldname =` before the element value. For example, given the following structure,

```c
struct point { int x, y; };  
```

the following initialization

```c
struct point p = { .y = yvalue, .x = xvalue };  
```

is equivalent to

```c
struct point p = { xvalue, yvalue };  
```

Another syntax which has the same meaning, obsolete since GCC 2.5, is `fieldname:', as shown here:

```c
struct point p = { y: yvalue, x: xvalue };  
```

The `['index']` or `.'fieldname'` is known as a designator. You can also use a designator (or the obsolete colon syntax) when initializing a union, to specify which element of the union should be used. For example,
union foo { int i; double d; };

union foo f = { .d = 4 };

will convert 4 to a double to store it in the union using the second element. By contrast, casting 4 to type union foo would store it into the union as the integer i, since it is an integer. (See Section 5.24 [Cast to Union], page 135.)

You can combine this technique of naming elements with ordinary C initialization of successive elements. Each initializer element that does not have a designator applies to the next consecutive element of the array or structure. For example,

```c
```

is equivalent to

```c
int a[6] = { 0, v1, v2, 0, v4, 0 };
```

Labeling the elements of an array initializer is especially useful when the indices are characters or belong to an enum type. For example:

```c
int whitespace[256] = { [' '] = 1, ['	'] = 1, ['\h'] = 1, ['\f'] = 1, ['\n'] = 1, ['\r'] = 1 };
```

You can also write a series of `.fieldname` and `[index]` designators before an `=` to specify a nested subobject to initialize; the list is taken relative to the subobject corresponding to the closest surrounding brace pair. For example, with the `struct point` declaration above:

```c
struct point ptarray[10] = { [2].y = yv2, [2].x = xv2, [0].x = xv0 };
```

If the same field is initialized multiple times, it will have value from the last initialization. If any such overridden initialization has side-effect, it is unspecified whether the side-effect happens or not. Currently, gcc will discard them and issue a warning.

### 5.23 Case Ranges

You can specify a range of consecutive values in a single `case` label, like this:

```c
  case low ... high:
```

This has the same effect as the proper number of individual `case` labels, one for each integer value from `low` to `high`, inclusive.

This feature is especially useful for ranges of ASCII character codes:

```c
  case 'A' ... 'Z':
```

**Be careful**: Write spaces around the `. . .`, for otherwise it may be parsed wrong when you use it with integer values. For example, write this:

```c
  case 1 ... 5:
```

rather than this:

```c
  case 1...5:
```

### 5.24 Cast to a Union Type

A cast to union type is similar to other casts, except that the type specified is a union type. You can specify the type either with `union` tag or with a typedef name. A cast to union is actually a constructor though, not a cast, and hence does not yield an lvalue like normal casts. (See Section 5.21 [Compound Literals], page 133.)

The types that may be cast to the union type are those of the members of the union. Thus, given the following union and variables:
union foo { int i; double d; };
int x;
double y;
both x and y can be cast to type union foo.
Using the cast as the right-hand side of an assignment to a variable of union type is equivalent
to storing in a member of the union:

union foo u;
...
u = (union foo) x \equiv u.i = x
u = (union foo) y \equiv u.d = y
You can also use the union cast as a function argument:

void hack (union foo);
...
hack ((union foo) x);

5.25 Mixed Declarations and Code
ISO C99 and ISO C++ allow declarations and code to be freely mixed within compound
statements. As an extension, GCC also allows this in C99 mode. For example, you could do:

int i;
...
i++;
int j = i + 2;

Each identifier is visible from where it is declared until the end of the enclosing block.

5.26 Declaring Attributes of Functions
In GNU C, you declare certain things about functions called in your program which help the
compiler optimize function calls and check your code more carefully.
The keyword \_\_attribute\_ allows you to specify special attributes when making a declaration.
This keyword is followed by an attribute specification inside double parentheses. Fourteen
attributes, noreturn, pure, const, format, format_arg, no_instrument_function, section,
constructor, destructor, unused, weak, malloc, alias and no_check_memory_usage are
currently defined for functions. Several other attributes are defined for functions on particular
target systems. Other attributes, including section are supported for variables declarations (see
Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146) and for types (see Section 5.34 [Type Attributes],
page 149).

You may also specify attributes with ‘\_\_’ preceding and following each keyword. This allows
you to use them in header files without being concerned about a possible macro of the same
name. For example, you may use \_\_noreturn\_ instead of noreturn.

See Section 5.27 [Attribute Syntax], page 142, for details of the exact syntax for using attributes.

no return A few standard library functions, such as abort and exit, cannot return. GNU
CC knows this automatically. Some programs define their own functions that never
return. You can declare them no return to tell the compiler this fact. For example,

void fatal () __attribute__ ((noreturn));

void
fatal (...)

void

The `noreturn` keyword tells the compiler to assume that `fatal` cannot return. It can then optimize without regard to what would happen if `fatal` ever did return. This makes slightly better code. More importantly, it helps avoid spurious warnings of uninitialized variables.

Do not assume that registers saved by the calling function are restored before calling the `noreturn` function.

It does not make sense for a `noreturn` function to have a return type other than `void`.

The attribute `noreturn` is not implemented in GNU C versions earlier than 2.5.

An alternative way to declare that a function does not return, which works in the current version and in some older versions, is as follows:

```c
typedef void voidfn ();
volatile voidfn fatal;
```

**pure**

Many functions have no effects except the return value and their return value depends only on the parameters and/or global variables. Such a function can be subject to common subexpression elimination and loop optimization just as an arithmetic operator would be. These functions should be declared with the attribute `pure`. For example,

```c
int square (int) __attribute__ ((pure));
```

says that the hypothetical function `square` is safe to call fewer times than the program says.

Some of common examples of pure functions are `strlen` or `memcmp`. Interesting non-pure functions are functions with infinite loops or those depending on volatile memory or other system resource, that may change between two consecutive calls (such as `feof` in a multithreading environment).

The attribute `pure` is not implemented in GNU C versions earlier than 2.96.

**const**

Many functions do not examine any values except their arguments, and have no effects except the return value. Basically this is just slightly more strict class than the `pure` attribute above, since function is not allowed to read global memory.

Note that a function that has pointer arguments and examines the data pointed to must not be declared `const`. Likewise, a function that calls a non-`const` function usually must not be `const`. It does not make sense for a `const` function to return `void`.

The attribute `const` is not implemented in GNU C versions earlier than 2.96.

An alternative way to declare that a function has no side effects, which works in the current version and in some older versions, is as follows:

```c
typedef int intfn ();
```

```c
extern const intfn square;
```

This approach does not work in GNU C++ from 2.6.0 on, since the language specifies that the `const` must be attached to the return value.

**format** (archetype, string-index, first-to-check)

The `format` attribute specifies that a function takes `printf`, `scanf`, `strftime` or `strfmon` style arguments which should be type-checked against a format string. For example, the declaration:

```c
{ ...
  /* Print error message. */ ...
  exit (1);
}
```
extern int
my_printf (void *my_object, const char *my_format, ...)
  __attribute__((format (printf, 2, 3)));

causes the compiler to check the arguments in calls to my_printf for consistency
with the printf style format string argument my_format.

The parameter archetype determines how the format string is interpreted, and
should be printf, scanf, strftime or strftime. (You can also use __printf__,
__scanf__, __strftime__ or __strfmon__). The parameter string-index specifies
which argument is the format string argument (starting from 1), while first-to-check
is the number of the first argument to check against the format string. For functions
where the arguments are not available to be checked (such as vprintf), specify the
third parameter as zero. In this case the compiler only checks the format string for
consistency. For strftime formats, the third parameter is required to be zero.

In the example above, the format string (my_format) is the second argument of the
function my_print, and the arguments to check start with the third argument, so
the correct parameters for the format attribute are 2 and 3.

The format attribute allows you to identify your own functions which take format
strings as arguments, so that GNU CC can check the calls to these functions for
errors. The compiler always (unless ‘-ffreestanding’ is used) checks formats for
the standard library functions printf, fprintf, sprintf, scanf, sscanf,
strftime, vprintf, vfprintf and vsprintf whenever such warnings are requested
(see ‘-Wformat’), so there is no need to modify the header file ‘stdio.h’.

In C99 mode, the functions snprintf, vsnprintf, vscanf, vfscanf and vsscanf are also
checked. Except in strictly conforming C standard modes, the X/Open function
strftime is also checked. See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.

format_arg (string-index)

The format_arg attribute specifies that a function takes a format string for a
printf, scanf, strftime or strftime style function and modifies it (for example, to
translate it into another language), so the result can be passed to a printf, scanf,
strftime or strftime style function (with the remaining arguments to the format
function the same as they would have been for the unmodified string). For example,
the declaration:

extern char *
my_dgettext (char *my_domain, const char *my_format)
  __attribute__((format_arg (2)));

causes the compiler to check the arguments in calls to a printf, scanf, strftime or
strftime type function, whose format string argument is a call to the my_dgettext
function, for consistency with the format string argument my_format. If the format_arg
attribute had not been specified, all the compiler could tell in such calls to
format functions would be that the format string argument is not constant; this
would generate a warning when ‘-Wformat-nonliteral’ is used, but the calls could
not be checked without the attribute.

The parameter string-index specifies which argument is the format string argument
(starting from 1).

The format-arg attribute allows you to identify your own functions which modify
format strings, so that GNU CC can check the calls to printf, scanf, strftime or
strftime type function whose operands are a call to one of your own function. The
compiler always treats gettext, dgettext, and dcgettext in this manner except
when strict ISO C support is requested by ‘-ansi’ or an appropriate ‘-std’ option, or
‘-ffreestanding’ is used. See Section 3.4 [Options Controlling C Dialect], page 12.
If `-finstrument-functions` is given, profiling function calls will be generated at entry and exit of most user-compiled functions. Functions with this attribute will not be so instrumented.

Normally, the compiler places the code it generates in the `text` section. Sometimes, however, you need additional sections, or you need certain particular functions to appear in special sections. The `section` attribute specifies that a function lives in a particular section. For example, the declaration:

```
extern void foobar (void) __attribute__ ((section ("bar")));
```

puts the function `foobar` in the `bar` section.

Some file formats do not support arbitrary sections so the `section` attribute is not available on all platforms. If you need to map the entire contents of a module to a particular section, consider using the facilities of the linker instead.

The `constructor` attribute causes the function to be called automatically before execution enters `main()`. Similarly, the `destructor` attribute causes the function to be called automatically after `main()` has completed or `exit()` has been called.

Functions with these attributes are useful for initializing data that will be used implicitly during the execution of the program. These attributes are not currently implemented for Objective C.

This attribute, attached to a function, means that the function is meant to be possibly unused. GNU CC will not produce a warning for this function. GNU C++ does not currently support this attribute as definitions without parameters are valid in C++.

The `weak` attribute causes the declaration to be emitted as a weak symbol rather than a global. This is primarily useful in defining library functions which can be overridden in user code, though it can also be used with non-function declarations. Weak symbols are supported for ELF targets, and also for a.out targets when using the GNU assembler and linker.

The `malloc` attribute is used to tell the compiler that a function may be treated as if it were the malloc function. The compiler assumes that calls to malloc result in pointers that cannot alias anything. This will often improve optimization.

The `alias` attribute causes the declaration to be emitted as an alias for another symbol, which must be specified. For instance,

```
void __f () { /* do something */; }
void f () __attribute__ ((weak, alias (__f)));
```

declares `f` to be a weak alias for `__f`. In C++, the mangled name for the target must be used.

Not all target machines support this attribute.

The `no_check_memory_usage` attribute causes GNU CC to omit checks of memory references when it generates code for that function. Normally if you specify `-fcheck-memory-usage` (see see Section 3.18 [Code Gen Options], page 102), GNU CC generates calls to support routines before most memory accesses to permit support code to record usage and detect uses of uninitialized or unallocated storage. Since GNU CC cannot handle `asm` statements properly they are not allowed in such
functions. If you declare a function with this attribute, GNU CC will not generate memory checking code for that function, permitting the use of `asm` statements without having to compile that function with different options. This also allows you to write support routines of your own if you wish, without getting infinite recursion if they get compiled with `-fcheck-memory-usage`.

**regparm (number)**

On the Intel 386, the `regparm` attribute causes the compiler to pass up to `number` integer arguments in registers EAX, EDX, and ECX instead of on the stack. Functions that take a variable number of arguments will continue to be passed all of their arguments on the stack.

**stdcall**

On the Intel 386, the `stdcall` attribute causes the compiler to assume that the called function will pop off the stack space used to pass arguments, unless it takes a variable number of arguments.

The PowerPC compiler for Windows NT currently ignores the `stdcall` attribute.

**cdecl**

On the Intel 386, the `cdecl` attribute causes the compiler to assume that the calling function will pop off the stack space used to pass arguments. This is useful to override the effects of the `-mrtd` switch.

The PowerPC compiler for Windows NT currently ignores the `cdecl` attribute.

**longcall**

On the RS/6000 and PowerPC, the `longcall` attribute causes the compiler to always call the function via a pointer, so that functions which reside further than 64 megabytes (67,108,864 bytes) from the current location can be called.

**long_call/short_call**

This attribute allows to specify how to call a particular function on ARM. Both attributes override the `-mlong-calls` (see Section 3.17.7 [ARM Options], page 66) command line switch and `#pragma long_calls` settings. The `long_call` attribute causes the compiler to always call the function by first loading its address into a register and then using the contents of that register. The `short_call` attribute always places the offset to the function from the call site into the ‘BL’ instruction directly.

**dllimport**

On the PowerPC running Windows NT, the `dllimport` attribute causes the compiler to call the function via a global pointer to the function pointer that is set up by the Windows NT dll library. The pointer name is formed by combining `__imp_` and the function name.

**dllexport**

On the PowerPC running Windows NT, the `dllexport` attribute causes the compiler to provide a global pointer to the function pointer, so that it can be called with the `dllimport` attribute. The pointer name is formed by combining `__imp_` and the function name.

**exception (except-func [, except-arg])**

On the PowerPC running Windows NT, the `exception` attribute causes the compiler to modify the structured exception table entry it emits for the declared function. The string or identifier `except-func` is placed in the third entry of the structured exception table. It represents a function, which is called by the exception handling mechanism if an exception occurs. If it was specified, the string or identifier `except-arg` is placed in the fourth entry of the structured exception table.

**function_vector**

Use this option on the H8/300 and H8/300H to indicate that the specified function should be called through the function vector. Calling a function through the
function vector will reduce code size, however; the function vector has a limited size (maximum 128 entries on the H8/300 and 64 entries on the H8/300H) and shares space with the interrupt vector.

You must use GAS and GLD from GNU binutils version 2.7 or later for this option to work correctly.

**interrupt**

Use this option on the ARM, AVR and M32R/D ports to indicate that the specified function is an interrupt handler. The compiler will generate function entry and exit sequences suitable for use in an interrupt handler when this attribute is present.

Note, interrupt handlers for the H8/300, H8/300H and SH processors can be specified via the `interrupt_handler` attribute.

Note, on the AVR interrupts will be enabled inside the function.

Note, for the ARM you can specify the kind of interrupt to be handled by adding an optional parameter to the interrupt attribute like this:

```c
void f () __attribute__ ((interrupt ("IRQ")));
```

Permissible values for this parameter are: IRQ, FIQ, SWI, ABORT and UNDEF.

**interrupt_handler**

Use this option on the H8/300, H8/300H and SH to indicate that the specified function is an interrupt handler. The compiler will generate function entry and exit sequences suitable for use in an interrupt handler when this attribute is present.

**sp_switch**

Use this option on the SH to indicate an interrupt handler function should switch to an alternate stack. It expects a string argument that names a global variable holding the address of the alternate stack.

```c
void *alt_stack;
void f () __attribute__ ((interrupt_handler, sp_switch ("alt_stack")));
```

**trap_exit**

Use this option on the SH for an interrupt handler to return using `trapa` instead of `rte`. This attribute expects an integer argument specifying the trap number to be used.

**eightbit_data**

Use this option on the H8/300 and H8/300H to indicate that the specified variable should be placed into the eight bit data section. The compiler will generate more efficient code for certain operations on data in the eight bit data area. Note the eight bit data area is limited to 256 bytes of data.

You must use GAS and GLD from GNU binutils version 2.7 or later for this option to work correctly.

**tiny_data**

Use this option on the H8/300H to indicate that the specified variable should be placed into the tiny data section. The compiler will generate more efficient code for loads and stores on data in the tiny data section. Note the tiny data area is limited to slightly under 32kbytes of data.

**signal**

Use this option on the AVR to indicate that the specified function is an signal handler. The compiler will generate function entry and exit sequences suitable for use in a signal handler when this attribute is present. Interrupts will be disabled inside function.

**naked**

Use this option on the ARM or AVR ports to indicate that the specified function do not need prologue/epilogue sequences generated by the compiler. It is up to the programmer to provide these sequences.
model (model-name)

Use this attribute on the M32R/D to set the addressability of an object, and the code generated for a function. The identifier model-name is one of small, medium, or large, representing each of the code models.

Small model objects live in the lower 16MB of memory (so that their addresses can be loaded with the ld24 instruction), and are callable with the bl instruction.

Medium model objects may live anywhere in the 32-bit address space (the compiler will generate seth/add3 instructions to load their addresses), and are callable with the bl instruction.

Large model objects may live anywhere in the 32-bit address space (the compiler will generate seth/add3 instructions to load their addresses), and may not be reachable with the bl instruction (the compiler will generate the much slower seth/add3/jl instruction sequence).

You can specify multiple attributes in a declaration by separating them by commas within the double parentheses or by immediately following an attribute declaration with another attribute declaration.

Some people object to the __attribute__ feature, suggesting that ISO C’s #pragma should be used instead. At the time __attribute__ was designed, there were two reasons for not doing this.

1. It is impossible to generate #pragma commands from a macro.
2. There is no telling what the same #pragma might mean in another compiler.

These two reasons applied to almost any application that might have been proposed for #pragma. It was basically a mistake to use #pragma for anything.

The ISO C99 standard includes _Pragma, which now allows pragmas to be generated from macros. In addition, a #pragma GCC namespace is now in use for GCC-specific pragmas. However, it has been found convenient to use __attribute__ to achieve a natural attachment of attributes to their corresponding declarations, whereas #pragma GCC is of use for constructs that do not naturally form part of the grammar. See section “Miscellaneous Preprocessing Directives” in The C Preprocessor.

5.27 Attribute Syntax

This section describes the syntax with which __attribute__ may be used, and the constructs to which attribute specifiers bind, for the C language. Some details may vary for C++ and Objective C. Because of infelicities in the grammar for attributes, some forms described here may not be successfully parsed in all cases.

See Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136, for details of the semantics of attributes applying to functions. See Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146, for details of the semantics of attributes applying to variables. See Section 5.34 [Type Attributes], page 149, for details of the semantics of attributes applying to structure, union and enumerated types.

An attribute specifier is of the form __attribute__ ((attribute-list)). An attribute list is a possibly empty comma-separated sequence of attributes, where each attribute is one of the following:

- Empty. Empty attributes are ignored.
- A word (which may be an identifier such as unused, or a reserved word such as const).
- A word, followed by, in parentheses, parameters for the attribute. These parameters take one of the following forms:
  - An identifier. For example, mode attributes use this form.
  - An identifier followed by a comma and a non-empty comma-separated list of expressions. For example, format attributes use this form.
- A possibly empty comma-separated list of expressions. For example, `format_arg` attributes use this form with the list being a single integer constant expression, and `alias` attributes use this form with the list being a single string constant.

An **attribute specifier list** is a sequence of one or more attribute specifiers, not separated by any other tokens.

An attribute specifier list may appear after the colon following a label, other than a `case` or `default` label. The only attribute it makes sense to use after a label is `unused`. This feature is intended for code generated by programs which contains labels that may be unused but which is compiled with `'-Wall'`. It would not normally be appropriate to use in human-written code, though it could be useful in cases where the code that jumps to the label is contained within an `#ifdef` conditional.

An attribute specifier list may appear as part of a `struct`, `union` or `enum` specifier. It may go either immediately after the `struct`, `union` or `enum` keyword, or after the closing brace. It is ignored if the content of the structure, union or enumerated type is not defined in the specifier in which the attribute specifier list is used—that is, in usages such as `struct __attribute__((foo)) bar` with no following opening brace. Where attribute specifiers follow the closing brace, they are considered to relate to the structure, union or enumerated type defined, not to any enclosing declaration the type specifier appears in, and the type defined is not complete until after the attribute specifiers.

Otherwise, an attribute specifier appears as part of a declaration, counting declarations of unnamed parameters and type names, and relates to that declaration (which may be nested in another declaration, for example in the case of a parameter declaration). In future, attribute specifiers in some places may however apply to a particular declarator within a declaration instead; these cases are noted below. Where an attribute specifier is applied to a parameter declared as a function or an array, it should apply to the function or array rather than the pointer to which the parameter is implicitly converted, but this is not yet correctly implemented.

Any list of specifiers and qualifiers at the start of a declaration may contain attribute specifiers, whether or not such a list may in that context contain storage class specifiers. (Some attributes, however, are essentially in the nature of storage class specifiers, and only make sense where storage class specifiers may be used; for example, `section`.) There is one necessary limitation to this syntax: the first old-style parameter declaration in a function definition cannot begin with an attribute specifier, because such an attribute applies to the function instead by syntax described below (which, however, is not yet implemented in this case). In some other cases, attribute specifiers are permitted by this grammar but not yet supported by the compiler. All attribute specifiers in this place relate to the declaration as a whole. In the obsolescent usage where a type of `int` is implied by the absence of type specifiers, such a list of specifiers and qualifiers may be an attribute specifier list with no other specifiers or qualifiers.

An attribute specifier list may appear immediately before a declarator (other than the first) in a comma-separated list of declarators in a declaration of more than one identifier. At present, such attribute specifiers apply not only to the identifier before whose declarator they appear, but to all subsequent identifiers declared in that declaration, but in future they may apply only to that single identifier. For example, `__attribute__((noreturn)) void d0 (void), __attribute__((format(printf, 1, 2))) d1 (const char *, ...), d2 (void)`, the `noreturn` attribute applies to all the functions declared; the `format` attribute should only apply to `d1`, but at present applies to `d2` as well (and so causes an error).

An attribute specifier list may appear immediately before the comma, `=` or semicolon terminating the declaration of an identifier other than a function definition. At present, such attribute specifiers apply to the declared object or function, but in future they may attach to the outermost adjacent declarator. In simple cases there is no difference, but, for example, in `void (*f)(void) __attribute__((noreturn));`, at present the `noreturn` attribute applies to `f`, which causes a warning since `f` is not a function, but in future it may apply to the function
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****f. The precise semantics of what attributes in such cases will apply to are not yet specified. Where an assembler name for an object or function is specified (see Section 5.37 [Asm Labels], page 157), at present the attribute must follow the asm specification; in future, attributes before the asm specification may apply to the adjacent declarator, and those after it to the declared object or function.

An attribute specifier list may, in future, be permitted to appear after the declarator in a function definition (before any old-style parameter declarations or the function body).

An attribute specifier list may appear at the start of a nested declarator. At present, there are some limitations in this usage: the attributes apply to the identifier declared, and to all subsequent identifiers declared in that declaration (if it includes a comma-separated list of declarators), rather than to a specific declarator. When attribute specifiers follow the * of a pointer declarator, they must presently follow any type qualifiers present, and cannot be mixed with them. The following describes intended future semantics which make this syntax more useful only. It will make the most sense if you are familiar with the formal specification of declarators in the ISO C standard.

Consider (as in C99 subclause 6.7.5 paragraph 4) a declaration `T D1`, where `T` contains declaration specifiers that specify a type `Type` (such as `int`) and `D1` is a declarator that contains an identifier `ident`. The type specified for `ident` for derived declarators whose type does not include an attribute specifier is as in the ISO C standard.

If `D1` has the form ( `attribute-specifier-list D` ), and the declaration `T D` specifies the type “derived-declarator-type-list Type” for `ident`, then `T D1` specifies the type “derived-declarator-type-list attribute-specifier-list Type” for `ident`.

If `D1` has the form `* type-qualifier-and-attribute-specifier-list D`, and the declaration `T D` specifies the type “derived-declarator-type-list Type” for `ident`, then `T D1` specifies the type “derived-declarator-type-list type-qualifier-and-attribute-specifier-list Type” for `ident`.

For example, `void (__attribute__((noreturn)) ****f)();` specifies the type “pointer to pointer to pointer to non-returning function returning void”. As another example, `char *__attribute__((aligned(8))) *f;` specifies the type “pointer to 8-byte-aligned pointer to char”. Note again that this describes intended future semantics, not current implementation.

5.28 Prototypes and Old-Style Function Definitions

GNU C extends ISO C to allow a function prototype to override a later old-style non-prototype definition. Consider the following example:

```c
/* Use prototypes unless the compiler is old-fashioned. */
#elifdef __STDC__
#define P(x) x
#else
#define P(x) ()
#endif

/* Prototype function declaration. */
int isroot P((uid_t));

/* Old-style function definition. */
int
isroot (x) /* ??? lossage here ??? */
   uid_t x;
{
   return x == 0;
}
Suppose the type uid_t happens to be short. ISO C does not allow this example, because subword arguments in old-style non-prototype definitions are promoted. Therefore in this example the function definition’s argument is really an int, which does not match the prototype argument type of short.

This restriction of ISO C makes it hard to write code that is portable to traditional C compilers, because the programmer does not know whether the uid_t type is short, int, or long. Therefore, in cases like these GNU C allows a prototype to override a later old-style definition. More precisely, in GNU C, a function prototype argument type overrides the argument type specified by a later old-style definition if the former type is the same as the latter type before promotion. Thus in GNU C the above example is equivalent to the following:

```c
int isroot (uid_t);

int
isroot (uid_t x)
{
    return x == 0;
}
```

GNU C++ does not support old-style function definitions, so this extension is irrelevant.

### 5.29 C++ Style Comments

In GNU C, you may use C++ style comments, which start with ‘//’ and continue until the end of the line. Many other C implementations allow such comments, and they are likely to be in a future C standard. However, C++ style comments are not recognized if you specify ‘-ansi’, a ‘-std’ option specifying a version of ISO C before C99, or ‘-traditional’, since they are incompatible with traditional constructs like `dividend//*comment*/divisor`.

### 5.30 Dollar Signs in Identifier Names

In GNU C, you may normally use dollar signs in identifier names. This is because many traditional C implementations allow such identifiers. However, dollar signs in identifiers are not supported on a few target machines, typically because the target assembler does not allow them.

### 5.31 The Character \e in Constants

You can use the sequence ‘\e’ in a string or character constant to stand for the ASCII character `\e`.

### 5.32 Inquiring on Alignment of Types or Variables

The keyword `__alignof__` allows you to inquire about how an object is aligned, or the minimum alignment usually required by a type. Its syntax is just like `sizeof`.

For example, if the target machine requires a double value to be aligned on an 8-byte boundary, then `__alignof__ (double)` is 8. This is true on many RISC machines. On more traditional machine designs, `__alignof__ (double)` is 4 or even 2.

Some machines never actually require alignment; they allow reference to any data type even at an odd addresses. For these machines, `__alignof__` reports the recommended alignment of a type.

When the operand of `__alignof__` is an lvalue rather than a type, the value is the largest alignment that the lvalue is known to have. It may have this alignment as a result of its data type, or because it is part of a structure and inherits alignment from that structure. For example, after this declaration:
struct foo { int x; char y; } foo1;

the value of __alignof__ (foo1.y) is probably 2 or 4, the same as __alignof__ (int), even
though the data type of foo1.y does not itself demand any alignment.

It is an error to ask for the alignment of an incomplete type.

A related feature which lets you specify the alignment of an object is __attribute___
((aligned (alignment))); see the following section.

5.33 Specifying Attributes of Variables

The keyword __attribute___ allows you to specify special attributes of variables or structure
fields. This keyword is followed by an attribute specification inside double parentheses. Eight
attributes are currently defined for variables: aligned, mode, nocommon, packed, section,
transparent_union, unused, and weak. Some other attributes are defined for variables on
particular target systems. Other attributes are available for functions (see Section 5.26 [Function
Attributes], page 136) and for types (see Section 5.34 [Type Attributes], page 149). Other front-
ends might define more attributes (see Chapter 6 [Extensions to the C++ Language], page 165).

You may also specify attributes with '__' preceding and following each keyword. This allows
you to use them in header files without being concerned about a possible macro of the same
name. For example, you may use __aligned__ instead of aligned.

See Section 5.27 [Attribute Syntax], page 142, for details of the exact syntax for using at-
tributes.

aligned (alignment)

This attribute specifies a minimum alignment for the variable or structure field,
measured in bytes. For example, the declaration:

    int x __attribute__ ((aligned (16))) = 0;

causes the compiler to allocate the global variable x on a 16-byte boundary. On
a 68040, this could be used in conjunction with an asm expression to access the
move16 instruction which requires 16-byte aligned operands.

You can also specify the alignment of structure fields. For example, to create a
double-word aligned int pair, you could write:

    struct foo { int x[2] __attribute__ ((aligned (8))); };  

This is an alternative to creating a union with a double member that forces the
union to be double-word aligned.

It is not possible to specify the alignment of functions; the alignment of functions
is determined by the machine’s requirements and cannot be changed. You cannot
specify alignment for a typedef name because such a name is just an alias, not a
distinct type.

As in the preceding examples, you can explicitly specify the alignment (in bytes) that
you wish the compiler to use for a given variable or structure field. Alternatively,
you can leave out the alignment factor and just ask the compiler to align a variable
or field to the maximum useful alignment for the target machine you are compiling
for. For example, you could write:

    short array[3] __attribute__ ((aligned));

Whenever you leave out the alignment factor in an aligned attribute specification,
the compiler automatically sets the alignment for the declared variable or field to
the largest alignment which is ever used for any data type on the target machine you
are compiling for. Doing this can often make copy operations more efficient, because
the compiler can use whatever instructions copy the biggest chunks of memory when
performing copies to or from the variables or fields that you have aligned this way.
The `aligned` attribute can only increase the alignment; but you can decrease it by specifying `packed` as well. See below.

Note that the effectiveness of `aligned` attributes may be limited by inherent limitations in your linker. On many systems, the linker is only able to arrange for variables to be aligned up to a certain maximum alignment. (For some linkers, the maximum supported alignment may be very very small.) If your linker is only able to align variables up to a maximum of 8-byte alignment, then specifying `aligned(16)` in an `__attribute__` will still only provide you with 8-byte alignment. See your linker documentation for further information.

`mode (mode)`

This attribute specifies the data type for the declaration—whichever type corresponds to the mode `mode`. This in effect lets you request an integer or floating point type according to its width.

You may also specify a mode of `'byte'` or `'_byte_'` to indicate the mode corresponding to a one-byte integer, `'word'` or `'_word_'` for the mode of a one-word integer, and `'pointer'` or `'_pointer_'` for the mode used to represent pointers.

`nocommon`

This attribute specifies requests GNU CC not to place a variable “common” but instead to allocate space for it directly. If you specify the `-fno-common` flag, GNU CC will do this for all variables.

Specifying the `nocommon` attribute for a variable provides an initialization of zeros. A variable may only be initialized in one source file.

`packed`

The `packed` attribute specifies that a variable or structure field should have the smallest possible alignment—one byte for a variable, and one bit for a field, unless you specify a larger value with the `aligned` attribute.

Here is a structure in which the field `x` is packed, so that it immediately follows `a`:

```
struct foo
{
    char a;
    int x[2] __attribute__((packed));
};
```

`ssection (["section-name"])`

Normally, the compiler places the objects it generates in sections like `data` and `bss`. Sometimes, however, you need additional sections, or you need certain particular variables to appear in special sections, for example to map to special hardware. The `section` attribute specifies that a variable (or function) lives in a particular section. For example, this small program uses several specific section names:

```
struct duart a __attribute__((section("DUART_A"))) = { 0 };
struct duart b __attribute__((section("DUART_B"))) = { 0 };
char stack[10000] __attribute__((section("STACK"))) = { 0 };
int init_data __attribute__((section("INITDATA"))) = 0;

main()
{
    /* Initialize stack pointer */
    init_sp (stack + sizeof (stack));

    /* Initialize initialized data */
    memcpy (&init_data, &data, &edata - &data);

    /* Turn on the serial ports */
```
Use the `section` attribute with an *initialized* definition of a *global* variable, as shown in the example. GNU CC issues a warning and otherwise ignores the `section` attribute in uninitialized variable declarations.

You may only use the `section` attribute with a fully initialized global definition because of the way linkers work. The linker requires each object be defined once, with the exception that uninitialized variables tentatively go in the `common` (or `bss`) section and can be multiply “defined”. You can force a variable to be initialized with the `'-fno-common'` flag or the `nocommon` attribute.

Some file formats do not support arbitrary sections so the `section` attribute is not available on all platforms. If you need to map the entire contents of a module to a particular section, consider using the facilities of the linker instead.

**shared**  
On Windows NT, in addition to putting variable definitions in a named section, the section can also be shared among all running copies of an executable or DLL. For example, this small program defines shared data by putting it in a named section `shared` and marking the section shareable:

```c
int foo __attribute__((section ("shared"), shared)) = 0;

int main()
{
    /* Read and write foo. All running
     * copies see the same value. */
    return 0;
}
```

You may only use the `shared` attribute along with `section` attribute with a fully initialized global definition because of the way linkers work. See `section` attribute for more information.

The `shared` attribute is only available on Windows NT.

**transparent_union**  
This attribute, attached to a function parameter which is a union, means that the corresponding argument may have the type of any union member, but the argument is passed as if its type were that of the first union member. For more details see See Section 5.34 [Type Attributes], page 149. You can also use this attribute on a `typedef` for a union data type; then it applies to all function parameters with that type.

**unused**  
This attribute, attached to a variable, means that the variable is meant to be possibly unused. GNU CC will not produce a warning for this variable.

**weak**  
The `weak` attribute is described in See Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136.

**model** *(model-name)*  
Use this attribute on the M32R/D to set the addressability of an object. The identifier `model-name` is one of `small`, `medium`, or `large`, representing each of the code models.

Small model objects live in the lower 16MB of memory (so that their addresses can be loaded with the `ld24` instruction).

Medium and large model objects may live anywhere in the 32-bit address space (the compiler will generate `seth/add3` instructions to load their addresses).
To specify multiple attributes, separate them by commas within the double parentheses: for example, '__attribute__((aligned (16), packed))'.

### 5.34 Specifying Attributes of Types

The keyword `__attribute__` allows you to specify special attributes of `struct` and `union` types when you define such types. This keyword is followed by an attribute specification inside double parentheses. Four attributes are currently defined for types: `aligned`, `packed`, `transparent_union`, and `unused`. Other attributes are defined for functions (see Section 5.26 [Function Attributes], page 136) and for variables (see Section 5.33 [Variable Attributes], page 146).

You may also specify any one of these attributes with `__` preceding and following its keyword. This allows you to use these attributes in header files without being concerned about a possible macro of the same name. For example, you may use `__aligned__` instead of `aligned`.

You may specify the `aligned` and `transparent_union` attributes either in a `typedef` declaration or just past the closing curly brace of a complete enum, struct or union type definition and the `packed` attribute only past the closing brace of a definition.

You may also specify attributes between the enum, struct or union tag and the name of the type rather than after the closing brace.

See Section 5.27 [Attribute Syntax], page 142, for details of the exact syntax for using attributes.

**aligned (alignment)**

This attribute specifies a minimum alignment (in bytes) for variables of the specified type. For example, the declarations:

```c
struct S { short f[3]; } __attribute__((aligned (8)));
typedef int more_aligned_int __attribute__((aligned (8)));
```

force the compiler to insure (as far as it can) that each variable whose type is `struct S` or `more_aligned_int` will be allocated and aligned at least on a 8-byte boundary. On a Sparc, having all variables of type `struct S` aligned to 8-byte boundaries allows the compiler to use the `ldd` and `std` (doubleword load and store) instructions when copying one variable of type `struct S` to another, thus improving run-time efficiency.

Note that the alignment of any given `struct` or `union` type is required by the ISO C standard to be at least a perfect multiple of the lowest common multiple of the alignments of all of the members of the `struct` or `union` in question. This means that you can effectively adjust the alignment of a `struct` or `union` type by attaching an `aligned` attribute to any one of the members of such a type, but the notation illustrated in the example above is a more obvious, intuitive, and readable way to request the compiler to adjust the alignment of an entire `struct` or `union` type.

As in the preceding example, you can explicitly specify the alignment (in bytes) that you wish the compiler to use for a given `struct` or `union` type. Alternatively, you can leave out the alignment factor and just ask the compiler to align a type to the maximum useful alignment for the target machine you are compiling for. For example, you could write:

```c
struct S { short f[3]; } __attribute__((aligned));
```

Whenever you leave out the alignment factor in an `aligned` attribute specification, the compiler automatically sets the alignment for the type to the largest alignment which is ever used for any data type on the target machine you are compiling for. Doing this can often make copy operations more efficient, because the compiler can use whatever instructions copy the biggest chunks of memory when performing copies to or from the variables which have types that you have aligned this way.
In the example above, if the size of each short is 2 bytes, then the size of the entire struct S type is 6 bytes. The smallest power of two which is greater than or equal to that is 8, so the compiler sets the alignment for the entire struct S type to 8 bytes.

Note that although you can ask the compiler to select a time-efficient alignment for a given type and then declare only individual stand-alone objects of that type, the compiler’s ability to select a time-efficient alignment is primarily useful only when you plan to create arrays of variables having the relevant (efficiently aligned) type. If you declare or use arrays of variables of an efficiently-aligned type, then it is likely that your program will also be doing pointer arithmetic (or subscripting, which amounts to the same thing) on pointers to the relevant type, and the code that the compiler generates for these pointer arithmetic operations will often be more efficient for efficiently-aligned types than for other types.

The aligned attribute can only increase the alignment; but you can decrease it by specifying packed as well. See below.

Note that the effectiveness of aligned attributes may be limited by inherent limitations in your linker. On many systems, the linker is only able to arrange for variables to be aligned up to a certain maximum alignment. (For some linkers, the maximum supported alignment may be very very small.) If your linker is only able to align variables up to a maximum of 8 byte alignment, then specifying aligned(16) in an __attribute__ will still only provide you with 8 byte alignment. See your linker documentation for further information.

packed
This attribute, attached to an enum, struct, or union type definition, specified that the minimum required memory be used to represent the type.

Specifying this attribute for struct and union types is equivalent to specifying the packed attribute on each of the structure or union members. Specifying the ‘-fshort-enums’ flag on the line is equivalent to specifying the packed attribute on all enum definitions.

You may only specify this attribute after a closing curly brace on an enum definition, not in a typedef declaration, unless that declaration also contains the definition of the enum.

transparent_union
This attribute, attached to a union type definition, indicates that any function parameter having that union type causes calls to that function to be treated in a special way.

First, the argument corresponding to a transparent union type can be of any type in the union; no cast is required. Also, if the union contains a pointer type, the corresponding argument can be a null pointer constant or a void pointer expression; and if the union contains a void pointer type, the corresponding argument can be any pointer expression. If the union member type is a pointer, qualifiers like const on the referenced type must be respected, just as with normal pointer conversions.

Second, the argument is passed to the function using the calling conventions of first member of the transparent union, not the calling conventions of the union itself. All members of the union must have the same machine representation; this is necessary for this argument passing to work properly.

Transparent unions are designed for library functions that have multiple interfaces for compatibility reasons. For example, suppose the wait function must accept either a value of type int * to comply with Posix, or a value of type union wait * to comply with the 4.1BSD interface. If wait’s parameter were void *, wait would accept both kinds of arguments, but it would also accept any other pointer type and this would make argument type checking less useful. Instead, <sys/wait.h> might define the interface as follows:
typedef union
{
    int *__ip;
    union wait *__up;
} wait_status_ptr_t __attribute__ ((__transparent_union__));

pid_t wait (wait_status_ptr_t);

This interface allows either int * or union wait * arguments to be passed, using the int * calling convention. The program can call wait with arguments of either type:

```
int w1 () { int w; return wait (&w); }
int w2 () { union wait w; return wait (&w); }
```

With this interface, wait’s implementation might look like this:

```
pid_t wait (wait_status_ptr_t p)
{
    return waitpid (-1, p.__ip, 0);
}
```

unused

When attached to a type (including a union or a struct), this attribute means that variables of that type are meant to appear possibly unused. GNU CC will not produce a warning for any variables of that type, even if the variable appears to do nothing. This is often the case with lock or thread classes, which are usually defined and then not referenced, but contain constructors and destructors that have nontrivial bookkeeping functions.

To specify multiple attributes, separate them by commas within the double parentheses: for example, ‘__attribute__((aligned (16), packed))’.

### 5.35 An Inline Function is As Fast As A Macro

By declaring a function inline, you can direct GNU CC to integrate that function’s code into the code for its callers. This makes execution faster by eliminating the function-call overhead; in addition, if any of the actual argument values are constant, their known values may permit simplifications at compile time so that not all of the inline function’s code needs to be included. The effect on code size is less predictable; object code may be larger or smaller with function inlining, depending on the particular case. Inlining of functions is an optimization and it really “works” only in optimizing compilation. If you don’t use ‘-O’, no function is really inline.

Inline functions are included in the ISO C99 standard, but there are currently substantial differences between what GCC implements and what the ISO C99 standard requires.

To declare a function inline, use the `inline` keyword in its declaration, like this:

```
inline int inc (int *a)
{
    (*a)++;  
}
```

(If you are writing a header file to be included in ISO C programs, write `__inline__` instead of `inline`. See Section 5.39 [Alternate Keywords], page 159.) You can also make all “simple enough” functions inline with the option ‘-finline-functions’.

Note that certain usages in a function definition can make it unsuitable for inline substitution. Among these usages are: use of varargs, use of alloca, use of variable sized data types (see Section 5.14 [Variable Length], page 131), use of computed goto (see Section 5.3 [Labels as Values], page 122), use of nonlocal goto, and nested functions (see Section 5.4 [Nested Functions],
Using `\texttt{-Winline}` will warn when a function marked \texttt{inline} could not be substituted, and will give the reason for the failure.

Note that in C and Objective C, unlike C++, the \texttt{inline} keyword does not affect the linkage of the function.

GNU CC automatically inlines member functions defined within the class body of C++ programs even if they are not explicitly declared \texttt{inline}. (You can override this with \texttt{-fno-default-inline}; see Section 3.5 \[Options Controlling C++ Dialect\], page 16.)

When a function is both inline and \texttt{static}, if all calls to the function are integrated into the caller, and the function's address is never used, then the function's own assembler code is never referenced. In this case, GNU CC does not actually output assembler code for the function, unless you specify the option \texttt{-fkeep-inline-functions}. Some calls cannot be integrated for various reasons (in particular, calls that precede the function's definition cannot be integrated, and neither can recursive calls within the definition). If there is a nonintegrated call, then the function is compiled to assembler code as usual. The function must also be compiled as usual if the program refers to its address, because that can't be inlined.

When an inline function is not \texttt{static}, then the compiler must assume that there may be calls from other source files; since a global symbol can be defined only once in any program, the function must not be defined in the other source files, so the calls therein cannot be integrated. Therefore, a non-\texttt{static} inline function is always compiled on its own in the usual fashion.

If you specify both \texttt{inline} and \texttt{extern} in the function definition, then the definition is used only for inlining. In no case is the function compiled on its own, not even if you refer to its address explicitly. Such an address becomes an external reference, as if you had only declared the function, and had not defined it.

This combination of \texttt{inline} and \texttt{extern} has almost the effect of a macro. The way to use it is to put a function definition in a header file with these keywords, and put another copy of the definition (lacking \texttt{inline} and \texttt{extern}) in a library file. The definition in the header file will cause most calls to the function to be inlined. If any uses of the function remain, they will refer to the single copy in the library.

For future compatibility with when GCC implements ISO C99 semantics for inline functions, it is best to use \texttt{static inline} only. (The existing semantics will remain available when \texttt{-std=gnu89} is specified, but eventually the default will be \texttt{-std=gnu99} and that will implement the C99 semantics, though it does not do so yet.)

GNU C does not inline any functions when not optimizing. It is not clear whether it is better to inline or not, in this case, but we found that a correct implementation when not optimizing was difficult. So we did the easy thing, and turned it off.

### 5.36 Assembler Instructions with C Expression Operands

In an assembler instruction using \texttt{asm}, you can specify the operands of the instruction using C expressions. This means you need not guess which registers or memory locations will contain the data you want to use.

You must specify an assembler instruction template much like what appears in a machine description, plus an operand constraint string for each operand.

For example, here is how to use the 68881’s \texttt{fsinx} instruction:

\begin{verbatim}
asm ("fsinx %1,%0" : ");
\end{verbatim}

Here \texttt{angle} is the C expression for the input operand while \texttt{result} is that of the output operand. Each has \texttt{"f"} as its operand constraint, saying that a floating point register is required. The \texttt{"s"} in \texttt{"sf"} indicates that the operand is an output; all output operands’ constraints must use \texttt{"s"}. The constraints use the same language used in the machine description (see Section 20.7 \[Constraints\], page 298).
Each operand is described by an operand-constraint string followed by the C expression in parentheses. A colon separates the assembler template from the first output operand and another separates the last output operand from the first input, if any. Commas separate the operands within each group. The total number of operands is limited to ten or to the maximum number of operands in any instruction pattern in the machine description, whichever is greater.

If there are no output operands but there are input operands, you must place two consecutive colons surrounding the place where the output operands would go.

Output operand expressions must be lvalues; the compiler can check this. The input operands need not be lvalues. The compiler cannot check whether the operands have data types that are reasonable for the instruction being executed. It does not parse the assembler instruction template and does not know what it means or even whether it is valid assembler input. The extended `asm` feature is most often used for machine instructions the compiler itself does not know exist. If the output expression cannot be directly addressed (for example, it is a bit-field), your constraint must allow a register. In that case, GNU CC will use the register as the output of the `asm`, and then store that register into the output.

The ordinary output operands must be write-only; GNU CC will assume that the values in these operands before the instruction are dead and need not be generated. Extended `asm` supports input-output or read-write operands. Use the constraint character `+` to indicate such an operand and list it with the output operands.

When the constraints for the read-write operand (or the operand in which only some of the bits are to be changed) allows a register, you may, as an alternative, logically split its function into two separate operands, one input operand and one write-only output operand. The connection between them is expressed by constraints which say they need to be in the same location when the instruction executes. You can use the same C expression for both operands, or different expressions. For example, here we write the (fictitious) `combine` instruction with `bar` as its read-only source operand and `foo` as its read-write destination:

```c
asm ("combine %2,%0" : "=r" (foo) : "0" (foo), "g" (bar));
```

The constraint "0" for operand 1 says that it must occupy the same location as operand 0. A digit in constraint is allowed only in an input operand and it must refer to an output operand.

Only a digit in the constraint can guarantee that one operand will be in the same place as another. The mere fact that `foo` is the value of both operands is not enough to guarantee that they will be in the same place in the generated assembler code. The following would not work reliably:

```c
asm ("combine %2,%0" : "=r" (foo) : "r" (foo), "g" (bar));
```

Various optimizations or reloading could cause operands 0 and 1 to be in different registers; GNU CC knows no reason not to do so. For example, the compiler might find a copy of the value of `foo` in one register and use it for operand 1, but generate the output operand 0 in a different register (copying it afterward to `foo`'s own address). Of course, since the register for operand 1 is not even mentioned in the assembler code, the result will not work, but GNU CC can't tell that.

Some instructions clobber specific hard registers. To describe this, write a third colon after the input operands, followed by the names of the clobbered hard registers (given as strings). Here is a realistic example for the VAX:

```c
asm volatile ("movc3 %0,%1,%2"
 : /* no outputs */
 : "g" (from), "g" (to), "g" (count)
 : "r0", "r1", "r2", "r3", "r4", "r5");
```

You may not write a clobber description in a way that overlaps with an input or output operand. For example, you may not have an operand describing a register class with one member if you mention that register in the clobber list. There is no way for you to specify that an input operand is modified without also specifying it as an output operand. Note that if all
the output operands you specify are for this purpose (and hence unused), you will then also need to specify \texttt{volatile} for the \texttt{asm} construct, as described below, to prevent GNU CC from deleting the \texttt{asm} statement as unused.

If you refer to a particular hardware register from the assembler code, you will probably have to list the register after the third colon to tell the compiler the register’s value is modified. In some assemblers, the register names begin with ‘\%’; to produce one ‘\%’ in the assembler code, you must write ‘\%\%’ in the input.

If your assembler instruction can alter the condition code register, add ‘cc’ to the list of clobbered registers. GNU CC on some machines represents the condition codes as a specific hardware register; ‘cc’ serves to name this register. On other machines, the condition code is handled differently, and specifying ‘cc’ has no effect. But it is valid no matter what the machine.

If your assembler instruction modifies memory in an unpredictable fashion, add ‘\texttt{memory}’ to the list of clobbered registers. This will cause GNU CC to not keep memory values cached in registers across the assembler instruction. You will also want to add the \texttt{volatile} keyword if the memory affected is not listed in the inputs or outputs of the \texttt{asm}, as the ‘\texttt{memory}’ clobber does not count as a side-effect of the \texttt{asm}.

You can put multiple assembler instructions together in a single \texttt{asm} template, separated by the characters normally used in assembly code for the system. A combination that works in most places is a newline to break the line, plus a tab character to move to the instruction field (written as ‘\texttt{\n\t}’). Sometimes semicolons can be used, if the assembler allows semicolons as a line-breaking character. Note that some assembler dialects use semicolons to start a comment. The input operands are guaranteed not to use any of the clobbered registers, and neither will the output operands’ addresses, so you can read and write the clobbered registers as many times as you like. Here is an example of multiple instructions in a template; it assumes the subroutine _foo accepts arguments in registers 9 and 10:

\begin{verbatim}
asm ("movl %0,r9\n\tmovl %1,r10\n\tcall _foo"
 : /* no outputs */
 : "g" (from), "g" (to)
 : "r9", "r10");
\end{verbatim}

Unless an output operand has the ‘&’ constraint modifier, GNU CC may allocate it in the same register as an unrelated input operand, on the assumption the inputs are consumed before the outputs are produced. This assumption may be false if the assembler code actually consists of more than one instruction. In such a case, use ‘&’ for each output operand that may not overlap an input. See Section 20.7.4 [Modifiers], page 303.

If you want to test the condition code produced by an assembler instruction, you must include a branch and a label in the \texttt{asm} construct, as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
asm ("clr %0\ntfrob %i\ntbeq 0f\ntmov #1,%0\n0:
 : "g" (result)
 : "g" (input));
\end{verbatim}

This assumes your assembler supports local labels, as the GNU assembler and most Unix assemblers do.

Speaking of labels, jumps from one \texttt{asm} to another are not supported. The compiler’s optimizers do not know about these jumps, and therefore they cannot take account of them when deciding how to optimize.

Usually the most convenient way to use these \texttt{asm} instructions is to encapsulate them in macros that look like functions. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
#define sin(x) \
 ({ double __value, __arg = (x); \
 asm ("fsinx %1,%0": "=f" (__value): "f" (__arg)); \
 __value; })
\end{verbatim}
Here the variable __arg is used to make sure that the instruction operates on a proper double value, and to accept only those arguments x which can convert automatically to a double.

Another way to make sure the instruction operates on the correct data type is to use a cast in the asm. This is different from using a variable __arg in that it converts more different types. For example, if the desired type were int, casting the argument to int would accept a pointer with no complaint, while assigning the argument to an int variable named __arg would warn about using a pointer unless the caller explicitly casts it.

If an asm has output operands, GNU CC assumes for optimization purposes the instruction has no side effects except to change the output operands. This does not mean instructions with a side effect cannot be used, but you must be careful, because the compiler may eliminate them if the output operands aren’t used, or move them out of loops, or replace two with one if they constitute a common subexpression. Also, if your instruction does have a side effect on a variable that otherwise appears not to change, the old value of the variable may be reused later if it happens to be found in a register.

You can prevent an asm instruction from being deleted, moved significantly, or combined, by writing the keyword volatile after the asm. For example:

```c
#define get_and_set_priority(new) \
({ int __old; \
   asm volatile ("get_and_set_priority %0, %1" \
      : "g" (__old) : "g" (new)); \
   __old; })
```

If you write an asm instruction with no outputs, GNU CC will know the instruction has side-effects and will not delete the instruction or move it outside of loops.

The volatile keyword indicates that the instruction has important side-effects. GCC will not delete a volatile asm if it is reachable. (The instruction can still be deleted if GCC can prove that control-flow will never reach the location of the instruction.) In addition, GCC will not reschedule instructions across a volatile asm instruction. For example:

```c
*(volatile int *)addr = foo;
asm volatile ("eieio" : : );
```

Assume addr contains the address of a memory mapped device register. The PowerPC eieio instruction (Enforce In-order Execution of I/O) tells the cpu to make sure that the store to that device register happens before it issues any other I/O.

Note that even a volatile asm instruction can be moved in ways that appear insignificant to the compiler, such as across jump instructions. You can’t expect a sequence of volatile asm instructions to remain perfectly consecutive. If you want consecutive output, use a single asm. Also, GCC will perform some optimizations across a volatile asm instruction; GCC does not “forget everything” when it encounters a volatile asm instruction the way some other compilers do.

An asm instruction without any operands or clobbers (an “old style” asm) will be treated identically to a volatile asm instruction.

It is a natural idea to look for a way to give access to the condition code left by the assembler instruction. However, when we attempted to implement this, we found no way to make it work reliably. The problem is that output operands might need reloading, which would result in additional following “store” instructions. On most machines, these instructions would alter the condition code before there was time to test it. This problem doesn’t arise for ordinary “test” and “compare” instructions because they don’t have any output operands.

For reasons similar to those described above, it is not possible to give an assembler instruction access to the condition code left by previous instructions.

If you are writing a header file that should be includable in ISO C programs, write __asm__ instead of asm. See Section 5.39 [Alternate Keywords], page 159.
5.36.1 i386 floating point asm operands

There are several rules on the usage of stack-like regs inasm_operands insns. These rules apply only to the operands that are stack-like regs:

1. Given a set of input regs that die in anasm_operands, it is necessary to know which are implicitly popped by the asm, and which must be explicitly popped by gcc.

An input reg that is implicitly popped by the asm must be explicitly clobbered, unless it is constrained to match an output operand.

2. For any input reg that is implicitly popped by an asm, it is necessary to know how to adjust the stack to compensate for the pop. If any non-popped input is closer to the top of the reg-stack than the implicitly popped reg, it would not be possible to know what the stack looked like—it’s not clear how the rest of the stack “slides up”.

All implicitly popped input regs must be closer to the top of the reg-stack than any input that is not implicitly popped.

It is possible that if an input dies in an insn, reload might use the input reg for an output reload. Consider this example:

```
asm ("foo" : "=t" (a) : "f" (b));
```

This asm says that input B is not popped by the asm, and that the asm pushes a result onto the reg-stack, i.e., the stack is one deeper after the asm than it was before. But, it is possible that reload will think that it can use the same reg for both the input and the output, if input B dies in this insn.

If any input operand uses the f constraint, all output reg constraints must use the & early-clobber.

The asm above would be written as

```
asm ("foo" : "=&t" (a) : "f" (b));
```

3. Some operands need to be in particular places on the stack. All output operands fall in this category—there is no other way to know which regs the outputs appear in unless the user indicates this in the constraints.

Output operands must specifically indicate which reg an output appears in after an asm. =f is not allowed: the operand constraints must select a class with a single reg.

4. Output operands may not be “inserted” between existing stack regs. Since no 387 opcode uses a read/write operand, all output operands are dead before the asm_operands, and are pushed by the asm_operands. It makes no sense to push anywhere but the top of the reg-stack.

Output operands must start at the top of the reg-stack: output operands may not “skip” a reg.

5. Some asm statements may need extra stack space for internal calculations. This can be guaranteed by clobbering stack registers unrelated to the inputs and outputs.

Here are a couple of reasonable asms to want to write. This asm takes one input, which is internally popped, and produces two outputs.

```
asm ("fsincos" : ":t" (cos), ":u" (sin) : ":0" (inp));
```

This asm takes two inputs, which are popped by thefy12xp1 opcode, and replaces them with one output. The user must code the st(1) clobber forreg-stack.c to know that fy12xp1 pops both inputs.

```
asm ("fy12xp1" : ":t" (result) : ":0" (x), ":u" (y) : "st(1)");
```
5.37 Controlling Names Used in Assembler Code

You can specify the name to be used in the assembler code for a C function or variable by writing the `asm` (or `_asm_`) keyword after the declarator as follows:

```
int foo asm("myfoo") = 2;
```

This specifies that the name to be used for the variable `foo` in the assembler code should be `myfoo` rather than the usual `_foo`.

On systems where an underscore is normally prepended to the name of a C function or variable, this feature allows you to define names for the linker that do not start with an underscore. It does not make sense to use this feature with a non-static local variable since such variables do not have assembler names. If you are trying to put the variable in a particular register, see Section 5.38 [Explicit Reg Vars], page 157. GCC presently accepts such code with a warning, but will probably be changed to issue an error, rather than a warning, in the future.

You cannot use `asm` in this way in a function definition; but you can get the same effect by writing a declaration for the function before its definition and putting `asm` there, like this:

```
extern func () asm("FUNC");
func (x, y)
  int x, y;
...
```

It is up to you to make sure that the assembler names you choose do not conflict with any other assembler symbols. Also, you must not use a register name; that would produce completely invalid assembler code. GNU CC does not as yet have the ability to store static variables in registers. Perhaps that will be added.

5.38 Variables in Specified Registers

GNU C allows you to put a few global variables into specified hardware registers. You can also specify the register in which an ordinary register variable should be allocated.

- Global register variables reserve registers throughout the program. This may be useful in programs such as programming language interpreters which have a couple of global variables that are accessed very often.
- Local register variables in specific registers do not reserve the registers. The compiler’s data flow analysis is capable of determining where the specified registers contain live values, and where they are available for other uses. Stores into local register variables may be deleted when they appear to be dead according to dataflow analysis. References to local register variables may be deleted or moved or simplified.

These local variables are sometimes convenient for use with the extended `asm` feature (see Section 5.36 [Extended Asm], page 152), if you want to write one output of the assembler instruction directly into a particular register. (This will work provided the register you specify fits the constraints specified for that operand in the `asm`.)

5.38.1 Defining Global Register Variables

You can define a global register variable in GNU C like this:

```
register int *foo asm("a5");
```

Here `a5` is the name of the register which should be used. Choose a register which is normally saved and restored by function calls on your machine, so that library routines will not clobber it.
Naturally the register name is cpu-dependent, so you would need to conditionalize your program according to cpu type. The register \texttt{a5} would be a good choice on a 68000 for a variable of pointer type. On machines with register windows, be sure to choose a “global” register that is not affected magically by the function call mechanism.

In addition, operating systems on one type of cpu may differ in how they name the registers; then you would need additional conditionals. For example, some 68000 operating systems call this register \texttt{%a5}.

Eventually there may be a way of asking the compiler to choose a register automatically, but first we need to figure out how it should choose and how to enable you to guide the choice. No solution is evident.

Defining a global register variable in a certain register reserves that register entirely for this use, at least within the current compilation. The register will not be allocated for any other purpose in the functions in the current compilation. The register will not be saved and restored by these functions. Stores into this register are never deleted even if they would appear to be dead, but references may be deleted or moved or simplified.

It is not safe to access the global register variables from signal handlers, or from more than one thread of control, because the system library routines may temporarily use the register for other things (unless you recompile them specially for the task at hand).

It is not safe for one function that uses a global register variable to call another such function \texttt{foo} by way of a third function \texttt{lose} that was compiled without knowledge of this variable (i.e. in a different source file in which the variable wasn’t declared). This is because \texttt{lose} might save the register and put some other value there. For example, you can’t expect a global register variable to be available in the comparison-function that you pass to \texttt{qsort}, since \texttt{qsort} might have put something else in that register. (If you are prepared to recompile \texttt{qsort} with the same global register variable, you can solve this problem.)

If you want to recompile \texttt{qsort} or other source files which do not actually use your global register variable, so that they will not use that register for any other purpose, then it suffices to specify the compiler option \texttt{-ffixed-reg}. You need not actually add a global register declaration to their source code.

A function which can alter the value of a global register variable cannot safely be called from a function compiled without this variable, because it could clobber the value the caller expects to find there on return. Therefore, the function which is the entry point into the part of the program that uses the global register variable must explicitly save and restore the value which belongs to its caller.

On most machines, \texttt{longjmp} will restore to each global register variable the value it had at the time of the \texttt{setjmp}. On some machines, however, \texttt{longjmp} will not change the value of global register variables. To be portable, the function that called \texttt{setjmp} should make other arrangements to save the values of the global register variables, and to restore them in a \texttt{longjmp}. This way, the same thing will happen regardless of what \texttt{longjmp} does.

All global register variable declarations must precede all function definitions. If such a declaration could appear after function definitions, the declaration would be too late to prevent the register from being used for other purposes in the preceding functions.

Global register variables may not have initial values, because an executable file has no means to supply initial contents for a register.

On the Sparc, there are reports that \texttt{g3} \ldots \texttt{g7} are suitable registers, but certain library functions, such as \texttt{getwd}, as well as the subroutines for division and remainder, modify \texttt{g3} and \texttt{g4}. \texttt{g1} and \texttt{g2} are local temporaries.

On the 68000, \texttt{a2} \ldots \texttt{a5} should be suitable, as should \texttt{d2} \ldots \texttt{d7}. Of course, it will not do to use more than a few of those.
5.38.2 Specifying Registers for Local Variables

You can define a local register variable with a specified register like this:

```c
register int *foo asm ("a5");
```

Here a5 is the name of the register which should be used. Note that this is the same syntax used for defining global register variables, but for a local variable it would appear within a function.

Naturally the register name is cpu-dependent, but this is not a problem, since specific registers are most often useful with explicit assembler instructions (see Section 5.36 [Extended Asm], page 152). Both of these things generally require that you conditionalize your program according to cpu type.

In addition, operating systems on one type of cpu may differ in how they name the registers; then you would need additional conditionals. For example, some 68000 operating systems call this register %a5.

Defining such a register variable does not reserve the register; it remains available for other uses in places where flow control determines the variable’s value is not live. However, these registers are made unavailable for use in the reload pass; excessive use of this feature leaves the compiler too few available registers to compile certain functions.

This option does not guarantee that GNU CC will generate code that has this variable in the register you specify at all times. You may not code an explicit reference to this register in an asm statement and assume it will always refer to this variable.

Stores into local register variables may be deleted when they appear to be dead according to dataflow analysis. References to local register variables may be deleted or moved or simplified.

5.39 Alternate Keywords

The option ‘-traditional’ disables certain keywords; ‘-ansi’ and the various ‘-std’ options disable certain others. This causes trouble when you want to use GNU C extensions, or ISO C features, in a general-purpose header file that should be usable by all programs, including ISO C programs and traditional ones. The keywords asm, typeof and inline cannot be used since they won’t work in a program compiled with ‘-ansi’ (although inline can be used in a program compiled with ‘-std=c99’), while the keywords const, volatile, signed, typeof and inline won’t work in a program compiled with ‘-traditional’. The ISO C99 keyword restrict is only available when ‘-std=gnu99’ (which will eventually be the default) or ‘-std=c99’ (or the equivalent ‘-std=iso9899:1999’) is used.

The way to solve these problems is to put ‘__’ at the beginning and end of each problematical keyword. For example, use __asm__ instead of asm, __const__ instead of const, and __inline__ instead of inline.

Other C compilers won’t accept these alternative keywords; if you want to compile with another compiler, you can define the alternate keywords as macros to replace them with the customary keywords. It looks like this:

```c
#ifndef __GNUC__
#define __asm__ asm
#endif
```

‘-pedantic’ and other options cause warnings for many GNU C extensions. You can prevent such warnings within one expression by writing __extension__ before the expression. __extension__ has no effect aside from this.
5.40 Incomplete enum Types

You can define an enum tag without specifying its possible values. This results in an incomplete type, much like what you get if you write struct foo without describing the elements. A later declaration which does specify the possible values completes the type.

You can't allocate variables or storage using the type while it is incomplete. However, you can work with pointers to that type.

This extension may not be very useful, but it makes the handling of enum more consistent with the way struct and union are handled.

This extension is not supported by GNU C++.

5.41 Function Names as Strings

GNU CC predefines two magic identifiers to hold the name of the current function. The identifier __FUNCTION__ holds the name of the function as it appears in the source. The identifier __PRETTY_FUNCTION__ holds the name of the function pretty printed in a language specific fashion.

These names are always the same in a C function, but in a C++ function they may be different. For example, this program:

```c
extern "C" {
    extern int printf (char *, ...);
}

class a {
    public:
    sub (int i) {
        printf (__FUNCTION__ = %s
        printf (__PRETTY_FUNCTION__ = %s
    }
};

int main (void) {
    a ax;
    ax.sub (0);
    return 0;
}
gives this output:
__FUNCTION__ = sub
__PRETTY_FUNCTION__ = int a::sub (int)
```

The compiler automagically replaces the identifiers with a string literal containing the appropriate name. Thus, they are neither preprocessor macros, like __FILE__ and __LINE__, nor variables. This means that they catenate with other string literals, and that they can be used to initialize char arrays. For example

```c
char here[] = "Function __FUNCTION__ in " __FILE__;
```

On the other hand, '#ifdef __FUNCTION__' does not have any special meaning inside a function, since the preprocessor does not do anything special with the identifier __FUNCTION__.

GNU CC also supports the magic word __func__, defined by the ISO standard C99:
The identifier `__func__` is implicitly declared by the translator as if, immediately following the opening brace of each function definition, the declaration

```c
static const char __func__[] = "function-name";
```

appeared, where function-name is the name of the lexically-enclosing function. This name is the unadorned name of the function.

By this definition, `__func__` is a variable, not a string literal. In particular, `__func__` does not concatenate with other string literals.

In C++, `__FUNCTION__` and `__PRETTY_FUNCTION__` are variables, declared in the same way as `__func__`.

### 5.42 Getting the Return or Frame Address of a Function

These functions may be used to get information about the callers of a function.

#### `__builtin_return_address` (unsigned int `level`) - Built-in Function

This function returns the return address of the current function, or of one of its callers. The `level` argument is number of frames to scan up the call stack. A value of 0 yields the return address of the current function, a value of 1 yields the return address of the caller of the current function, and so forth.

The `level` argument must be a constant integer.

On some machines it may be impossible to determine the return address of any function other than the current one; in such cases, or when the top of the stack has been reached, this function will return 0.

This function should only be used with a non-zero argument for debugging purposes.

#### `__builtin_frame_address` (unsigned int `level`) - Built-in Function

This function is similar to `__builtin_return_address`, but it returns the address of the function frame rather than the return address of the function. Calling `__builtin_frame_address` with a value of 0 yields the frame address of the current function, a value of 1 yields the frame address of the caller of the current function, and so forth.

The frame is the area on the stack which holds local variables and saved registers. The frame address is normally the address of the first word pushed on to the stack by the function. However, the exact definition depends upon the processor and the calling convention. If the processor has a dedicated frame pointer register, and the function has a frame, then `__builtin_frame_address` will return the value of the frame pointer register.

The caveats that apply to `__builtin_return_address` apply to this function as well.

### 5.43 Other built-in functions provided by GNU CC

GNU CC provides a large number of built-in functions other than the ones mentioned above. Some of these are for internal use in the processing of exceptions or variable-length argument lists and will not be documented here because they may change from time to time; we do not recommend general use of these functions.

The remaining functions are provided for optimization purposes.

GNU CC includes built-in versions of many of the functions in the standard C library. The versions prefixed with `__builtin_` will always be treated as having the same meaning as the C library function even if you specify the `'-fno-builtin'` (see Section 3.4 [C Dialect Options],...
The functions `abort`, `exit`, `_Exit` and `_exit` are recognized and presumed not to return, but otherwise are not built in. `_exit` is not recognized in strict ISO C mode (`-ansi`, `-std=c89` or `-std=c99`). `_Exit` is not recognized in strict C89 mode (`-ansi` or `-std=c89`).

Outside strict ISO C mode, the functions `alloca`, `bcmp`, `bzero`, `index`, `rindex` and `ffs` may be handled as built-in functions. Corresponding versions `__builtin_alloca`, `__builtin_bcmp`, `__builtin_bzero`, `__builtin_index`, `__builtin_rindex` and `__builtin_ffs` are also recognized in strict ISO C mode.

The ISO C99 functions `conj`, `conjf`, `conjl`, `creal`, `crealf`, `creall`, `cimag`, `cimagf`, `cimagl`, `llabs` and `imaxabs` are handled as built-in functions except in strict ISO C89 mode. There are also built-in versions of the ISO C99 functions `cosf`, `cosl`, `fabsf`, `fabsl`, `sinf`, `sinl`, `sqrtf`, and `sqrtl`, that are recognized in any mode since ISO C89 reserves these names for the purpose to which ISO C99 puts them. All these functions have corresponding versions prefixed with `__builtin_`.

The following ISO C89 functions are recognized as built-in functions unless `-fno-builtin` is specified: `abs`, `cos`, `fabs`, `fprintf`, `fputs`, `labs`, `memcmp`, `memcpy`, `memset`, `printf`, `sin`, `sqrt`, `strcat`, `strchr`, `strcmp`, `strcpy`, `strcspn`, `strlen`, `strcat`, `strncpy`, `strpbrk`, `strrchr`, `strspn`, and `strstr`. All of these functions have corresponding versions prefixed with `__builtin_`.

GNU CC provides built-in versions of the ISO C99 floating point comparison macros (that avoid raising exceptions for unordered operands): `__builtin_isgreater`, `__builtin_isgreaterequal`, `__builtin_isless`, `__builtin_islessequal`, `__builtin_islessgreater`, and `__builtin_isunordered`.

**int __builtin_constant_p (exp)**

Built-in Function

You can use the built-in function `__builtin_constant_p` to determine if a value is known to be constant at compile-time and hence that GNU CC can perform constant-folding on expressions involving that value. The argument of the function is the value to test. The function returns the integer 1 if the argument is known to be a compile-time constant and 0 if it is not known to be a compile-time constant. A return of 0 does not indicate that the value is not a constant, but merely that GNU CC cannot prove it is a constant with the specified value of the `-O` option.

You would typically use this function in an embedded application where memory was a critical resource. If you have some complex calculation, you may want it to be folded if it involves constants, but need to call a function if it does not. For example:

```c
#define Scale_Value(X)  
   ((__builtin_constant_p (X) ? ((X) * SCALE + OFFSET) : Scale (X))
```

You may use this built-in function in either a macro or an inline function. However, if you use it in an inline function and pass an argument of the function as the argument to the built-in, GNU CC will never return 1 when you call the inline function with a string constant or compound literal (see Section 5.21 [Compound Literals], page 133) and will not return 1 when you pass a constant numeric value to the inline function unless you specify the `-O` option.

**long __builtin_expect (long exp, long c)**

Built-in Function

You may use `__builtin_expect` to provide the compiler with branch prediction information. In general, you should prefer to use actual profile feedback for this (`-fprofile-arcs`), as programmers are notoriously bad at predicting how their programs actually perform. However, there are applications in which this data is hard to collect.
The return value is the value of exp, which should be an integral expression. The value of c must be a compile-time constant. The semantics of the built-in are that it is expected that exp == c. For example:

```c
if (__builtin_expect (x, 0))
  foo ();
```

would indicate that we do not expect to call foo, since we expect x to be zero. Since you are limited to integral expressions for exp, you should use constructions such as

```c
if (__builtin_expect (ptr != NULL, 1))
  error ();
```

when testing pointer or floating-point values.
6 Extensions to the C++ Language

The GNU compiler provides these extensions to the C++ language (and you can also use most of the C language extensions in your C++ programs). If you want to write code that checks whether these features are available, you can test for the GNU compiler the same way as for C programs: check for a predefined macro \_\_GNUC\_. You can also use \_\_GNUG\_ to test specifically for GNU C++ (see section “Standard Predefined Macros” in The C Preprocessor).

6.1 Minimum and Maximum Operators in C++

It is very convenient to have operators which return the “minimum” or the “maximum” of two arguments. In GNU C++ (but not in GNU C),

\texttt{a <\textcolor{blue}{b}} \text{ is the minimum, returning the smaller of the numeric values } a \text{ and } b; \\
\texttt{a >\textcolor{blue}{b}} \text{ is the maximum, returning the larger of the numeric values } a \text{ and } b.

These operations are not primitive in ordinary C++, since you can use a macro to return the minimum of two things in C++, as in the following example.

\texttt{#define MIN(X, Y) ((X) < (Y) ? : (X) : (Y))}

You might then use ‘\texttt{int min = MIN(i, j);}’ to set \texttt{min} to the minimum value of variables \texttt{i} and \texttt{j}.

However, side effects in \texttt{X} or \texttt{Y} may cause unintended behavior. For example, \texttt{MIN(i++ , j++)} will fail, incrementing the smaller counter twice. A GNU C extension allows you to write safe macros that avoid this kind of problem (see Section 5.6 [Naming an Expression’s Type], page 126). However, writing \texttt{MIN} and \texttt{MAX} as macros also forces you to use function-call notation for a fundamental arithmetic operation. Using GNU C++ extensions, you can write ‘\texttt{int min = i <? j; }’ instead.

Since \texttt{<\textcolor{blue}{?}} and \texttt{>\textcolor{blue}{?}} are built into the compiler, they properly handle expressions with side-effects; ‘\texttt{int min = i++ <? j++; }’ works correctly.

6.2 When is a Volatile Object Accessed?

Both the C and C++ standard have the concept of volatile objects. These are normally accessed by pointers and used for accessing hardware. The standards encourage compilers to refrain from optimizations concerning accesses to volatile objects that it might perform on non-volatile objects. The C standard leaves it implementation defined as to what constitutes a volatile access. The C++ standard omits to specify this, except to say that C++ should behave in a similar manner to C with respect to volatiles, where possible. The minimum either standard specifies is that at a sequence point all previous accesses to volatile objects have stabilized and no subsequent accesses have occurred. Thus an implementation is free to reorder and combine volatile accesses which occur between sequence points, but cannot do so for accesses across a sequence point. The use of volatiles does not allow you to violate the restriction on updating objects multiple times within a sequence point.

In most expressions, it is intuitively obvious what is a read and what is a write. For instance

\texttt{volatile int *dst = somevalue;} \\
\texttt{volatile int *src = someothervalue;} \\
\texttt{*dst = *src;}

will cause a read of the volatile object pointed to by src and stores the value into the volatile object pointed to by dst. There is no guarantee that these reads and writes are atomic, especially for objects larger than int.

Less obvious expressions are where something which looks like an access is used in a void context. An example would be,
volatile int *src = somevalue;
*src;

With C, such expressions are rvalues, and as rvalues cause a read of the object, gcc interprets this as a read of the volatile being pointed to. The C++ standard specifies that such expressions do not undergo lvalue to rvalue conversion, and that the type of the dereferenced object may be incomplete. The C++ standard does not specify explicitly that it is this lvalue to rvalue conversion which is responsible for causing an access. However, there is reason to believe that it is, because otherwise certain simple expressions become undefined. However, because it would surprise most programmers, g++ treats dereferencing a pointer to volatile object of complete type in a void context as a read of the object. When the object has incomplete type, g++ issues a warning.

```c
struct S;
struct T {int m;};
volatile S *ptr1 = somevalue;
volatile T *ptr2 = somevalue;
*ptr1;
*ptr2;
```

In this example, a warning is issued for *ptr1, and *ptr2 causes a read of the object pointed to. If you wish to force an error on the first case, you must force a conversion to rvalue with, for instance a static cast, `static_cast<S>(*ptr1)`.

When using a reference to volatile, g++ does not treat equivalent expressions as accesses to volatiles, but instead issues a warning that no volatile is accessed. The rationale for this is that otherwise it becomes difficult to determine where volatile access occur, and not possible to ignore the return value from functions returning volatile references. Again, if you wish to force a read, cast the reference to an rvalue.

### 6.3 Restricting Pointer Aliasing

As with gcc, g++ understands the C99 feature of restricted pointers, specified with the `__restrict__`, or `__restrict` type qualifier. Because you cannot compile C++ by specifying the `-std=c99` language flag, restrict is not a keyword in C++.

In addition to allowing restricted pointers, you can specify restricted references, which indicate that the reference is not aliased in the local context.

```c
void fn (int *__restrict__ rptr, int &__restrict__ rref)
{
...
}
```

In the body of `fn`, `rptr` points to an unaliased integer and `rref` refers to a (different) unaliased integer.

You may also specify whether a member function’s `this` pointer is unaliased by using `__restrict__` as a member function qualifier.

```c
void T::fn () __restrict__
{
...
}
```

Within the body of `T::fn`, `this` will have the effective definition `T *__restrict__ const this`. Notice that the interpretation of a `__restrict__` member function qualifier is different to that of `const` or `volatile` qualifier, in that it is applied to the pointer rather than the object. This is consistent with other compilers which implement restricted pointers.
As with all outermost parameter qualifiers, __restrict__ is ignored in function definition matching. This means you only need to specify __restrict__ in a function definition, rather than in a function prototype as well.

6.4 Vague Linkage

There are several constructs in C++ which require space in the object file but are not clearly tied to a single translation unit. We say that these constructs have “vague linkage”. Typically such constructs are emitted wherever they are needed, though sometimes we can be more clever.

Inline Functions

Inline functions are typically defined in a header file which can be included in many different compilations. Hopefully they can usually be inlined, but sometimes an out-of-line copy is necessary, if the address of the function is taken or if inlining fails. In general, we emit an out-of-line copy in all translation units where one is needed. As an exception, we only emit inline virtual functions with the vtable, since it will always require a copy.

Local static variables and string constants used in an inline function are also considered to have vague linkage, since they must be shared between all inlined and out-of-line instances of the function.

VTables

C++ virtual functions are implemented in most compilers using a lookup table, known as a vtable. The vtable contains pointers to the virtual functions provided by a class, and each object of the class contains a pointer to its vtable (or vtables, in some multiple-inheritance situations). If the class declares any non-inline, non-pure virtual functions, the first one is chosen as the “key method” for the class, and the vtable is only emitted in the translation unit where the key method is defined.

Note: If the chosen key method is later defined as inline, the vtable will still be emitted in every translation unit which defines it. Make sure that any inline virtuals are declared inline in the class body, even if they are not defined there.

type_info objects

C++ requires information about types to be written out in order to implement ‘dynamic_cast’, ‘typeid’ and exception handling. For polymorphic classes (classes with virtual functions), the type_info object is written out along with the vtable so that ‘dynamic_cast’ can determine the dynamic type of a class object at runtime. For all other types, we write out the type_info object when it is used: when applying ‘typeid’ to an expression, throwing an object, or referring to a type in a catch clause or exception specification.

Template Instantiations

Most everything in this section also applies to template instantiations, but there are other options as well. See Section 6.6 [Where’s the Template?], page 169.

When used with GNU ld version 2.8 or later on an ELF system such as Linux/GNU or Solaris 2, or on Microsoft Windows, duplicate copies of these constructs will be discarded at link time. This is known as COMDAT support.

On targets that don’t support COMDAT, but do support weak symbols, GCC will use them. This way one copy will override all the others, but the unused copies will still take up space in the executable.

For targets which do not support either COMDAT or weak symbols, most entities with vague linkage will be emitted as local symbols to avoid duplicate definition errors from the linker. This will not happen for local statics in inlines, however, as having multiple copies will almost certainly break things.

See Section 6.5 [Declarations and Definitions in One Header], page 168, for another way to control placement of these constructs.
6.5 Declarations and Definitions in One Header

C++ object definitions can be quite complex. In principle, your source code will need two kinds of things for each object that you use across more than one source file. First, you need an interface specification, describing its structure with type declarations and function prototypes. Second, you need the implementation itself. It can be tedious to maintain a separate interface description in a header file, in parallel to the actual implementation. It is also dangerous, since separate interface and implementation definitions may not remain parallel.

With GNU C++, you can use a single header file for both purposes.

Warning: The mechanism to specify this is in transition. For the nonce, you must use one of two #pragma commands; in a future release of GNU C++, an alternative mechanism will make these #pragma commands unnecessary.

The header file contains the full definitions, but is marked with ‘#pragma interface’ in the source code. This allows the compiler to use the header file only as an interface specification when ordinary source files incorporate it with #include. In the single source file where the full implementation belongs, you can use either a naming convention or ‘#pragma implementation’ to indicate this alternate use of the header file.

```
#pragma interface
#pragma interface "subdir/objects.h"
```

Use this directive in header files that define object classes, to save space in most of the object files that use those classes. Normally, local copies of certain information (backup copies of inline member functions, debugging information, and the internal tables that implement virtual functions) must be kept in each object file that includes class definitions. You can use this pragma to avoid such duplication. When a header file containing ‘#pragma interface’ is included in a compilation, this auxiliary information will not be generated (unless the main input source file itself uses ‘#pragma implementation’). Instead, the object files will contain references to be resolved at link time.

The second form of this directive is useful for the case where you have multiple headers with the same name in different directories. If you use this form, you must specify the same string to ‘#pragma implementation’.

```
#pragma implementation
#pragma implementation "objects.h"
```

Use this pragma in a main input file, when you want full output from included header files to be generated (and made globally visible). The included header file, in turn, should use ‘#pragma interface’.

Backup copies of inline member functions, debugging information, and the internal tables used to implement virtual functions are all generated in implementation files.

If you use ‘#pragma implementation’ with no argument, it applies to an include file with the same basename\(^1\) as your source file. For example, in ‘allclass.cc’, giving just ‘#pragma implementation’ by itself is equivalent to ‘#pragma implementation "allclass.h"’.

In versions of GNU C++ prior to 2.6.0 ‘allclass.h’ was treated as an implementation file whenever you would include it from ‘allclass.cc’ even if you never specified ‘#pragma implementation’.

If you use an explicit ‘#pragma implementation’, it must appear in your source file before you include the affected header files.

---

\(^1\) A file’s basename was the name stripped of all leading path information and of trailing suffixes, such as ‘.h’ or ‘.C’ or ‘.cc’.
Use the string argument if you want a single implementation file to include code from multiple header files. (You must also use ‘#include’ to include the header file; ‘#pragma implementation’ only specifies how to use the file—it doesn’t actually include it.)

There is no way to split up the contents of a single header file into multiple implementation files.

‘#pragma implementation’ and ‘#pragma interface’ also have an effect on function inlining. If you define a class in a header file marked with ‘#pragma interface’, the effect on a function defined in that class is similar to an explicit extern declaration—the compiler emits no code at all to define an independent version of the function. Its definition is used only for inlining with its callers.

Conversely, when you include the same header file in a main source file that declares it as ‘#pragma implementation’, the compiler emits code for the function itself; this defines a version of the function that can be found via pointers (or by callers compiled without inlining). If all calls to the function can be inlined, you can avoid emitting the function by compiling with ‘-fno-implement-inlines’. If any calls were not inlined, you will get linker errors.

6.6 Where’s the Template?

C++ templates are the first language feature to require more intelligence from the environment than one usually finds on a UNIX system. Somehow the compiler and linker have to make sure that each template instance occurs exactly once in the executable if it is needed, and not at all otherwise. There are two basic approaches to this problem, which I will refer to as the Borland model and the Cfront model.

Borland model

Borland C++ solved the template instantiation problem by adding the code equivalent of common blocks to their linker; the compiler emits template instances in each translation unit that uses them, and the linker collapses them together. The advantage of this model is that the linker only has to consider the object files themselves; there is no external complexity to worry about. This disadvantage is that compilation time is increased because the template code is being compiled repeatedly. Code written for this model tends to include definitions of all templates in the header file, since they must be seen to be instantiated.

Cfront model

The AT&T C++ translator, Cfront, solved the template instantiation problem by creating the notion of a template repository, an automatically maintained place where template instances are stored. A more modern version of the repository works as follows: As individual object files are built, the compiler places any template definitions and instantiations encountered in the repository. At link time, the link wrapper adds in the objects in the repository and compiles any needed instances that were not previously emitted. The advantages of this model are more optimal compilation speed and the ability to use the system linker; to implement the Borland model a compiler vendor also needs to replace the linker. The disadvantages are vastly increased complexity, and thus potential for error; for some code this can be just as transparent, but in practice it can been very difficult to build multiple programs in one directory and one program in multiple directories. Code written for this model tends to separate definitions of non-inline member templates into a separate file, which should be compiled separately.

When used with GNU ld version 2.8 or later on an ELF system such as Linux/GNU or Solaris 2, or on Microsoft Windows, g++ supports the Borland model. On other systems, g++ implements neither automatic model.
A future version of g++ will support a hybrid model whereby the compiler will emit any instantiations for which the template definition is included in the compile, and store template definitions and instantiation context information into the object file for the rest. The link wrapper will extract that information as necessary and invoke the compiler to produce the remaining instantiations. The linker will then combine duplicate instantiations.

In the mean time, you have the following options for dealing with template instantiations:

1. Compile your template-using code with ‘-frepo’. The compiler will generate files with the extension ‘.rpo’ listing all of the template instantiations used in the corresponding object files which could be instantiated there; the link wrapper, ‘collect2’, will then update the ‘.rpo’ files to tell the compiler where to place those instantiations and rebuild any affected object files. The link-time overhead is negligible after the first pass, as the compiler will continue to place the instantiations in the same files.

   This is your best option for application code written for the Borland model, as it will just work. Code written for the Cfront model will need to be modified so that the template definitions are available at one or more points of instantiation; usually this is as simple as adding #include <tmethods.cc> to the end of each template header.

   For library code, if you want the library to provide all of the template instantiations it needs, just try to link all of its object files together: the link will fail, but cause the instantiations to be generated as a side effect. Be warned, however, that this may cause conflicts if multiple libraries try to provide the same instantiations. For greater control, use explicit instantiation as described in the next option.

2. Compile your code with ‘-fno-implicit-templates’ to disable the implicit generation of template instances, and explicitly instantiate all the ones you use. This approach requires more knowledge of exactly which instances you need than do the others, but it’s less mysterious and allows greater control. You can scatter the explicit instantiations throughout your program, perhaps putting them in the translation units where the instances are used or the translation units that define the templates themselves; you can put all of the explicit instantiations you need into one big file; or you can create small files like

   ```
   #include "Foo.h"
   #include "Foo.cc"

   template class Foo<int>;
   template ostream& operator <<
      (ostream&, const Foo<int>&);
   ```

   for each of the instances you need, and create a template instantiation library from those.

   If you are using Cfront-model code, you can probably get away with not using ‘-fno-implicit-templates’ when compiling files that don’t ‘#include’ the member template definitions.

   If you use one big file to do the instantiations, you may want to compile it without ‘-fno-implicit-templates’ so you get all of the instances required by your explicit instantiations (but not by any other files) without having to specify them as well.

   g++ has extended the template instantiation syntax outlined in the Working Paper to allow forward declaration of explicit instantiations (with extern), instantiation of the compiler support data for a template class (i.e. the vtable) without instantiating any of its members (with inline), and instantiation of only the static data members of a template class, without the support data or member functions (with (static):

   ```
   extern template int max (int, int);
   inline template class Foo<int>;
   static template class Foo<int>;
   ```

3. Do nothing. Pretend g++ does implement automatic instantiation management. Code written for the Borland model will work fine, but each translation unit will contain instances
of each of the templates it uses. In a large program, this can lead to an unacceptable amount of code duplication.

4. Add `#pragma interface` to all files containing template definitions. For each of these files, add `#pragma implementation "filename"` to the top of some `.C` file which `#include`s it. Then compile everything with `-fexternal-templates`. The templates will then only be expanded in the translation unit which implements them (i.e. has a `#pragma implementation` line for the file where they live); all other files will use external references. If you’re lucky, everything should work properly. If you get undefined symbol errors, you need to make sure that each template instance which is used in the program is used in the file which implements that template. If you don’t have any use for a particular instance in that file, you can just instantiate it explicitly, using the syntax from the latest C++ working paper:

```cpp
template class A<int>;
template ostream& operator << (ostream&, const A<int>&);
```

This strategy will work with code written for either model. If you are using code written for the Cfront model, the file containing a class template and the file containing its member templates should be implemented in the same translation unit.

A slight variation on this approach is to instead use the flag `-falt-external-templates`; this flag causes template instances to be emitted in the translation unit that implements the header where they are first instantiated, rather than the one which implements the file where the templates are defined. This header must be the same in all translation units, or things are likely to break.

See Section 6.5 [Declarations and Definitions in One Header], page 168, for more discussion of these pragmas.

### 6.7 Extracting the function pointer from a bound pointer to member function

In C++, pointer to member functions (PMFs) are implemented using a wide pointer of sorts to handle all the possible call mechanisms; the PMF needs to store information about how to adjust the `this` pointer, and if the function pointed to is virtual, where to find the vtable, and where in the vtable to look for the member function. If you are using PMFs in an inner loop, you should really reconsider that decision. If that is not an option, you can extract the pointer to the function that would be called for a given object/PMF pair and call it directly inside the inner loop, to save a bit of time.

Note that you will still be paying the penalty for the call through a function pointer; on most modern architectures, such a call defeats the branch prediction features of the CPU. This is also true of normal virtual function calls.

The syntax for this extension is

```cpp
extern A a;
extern int (A::*fp)();
typedef int (*fptr)(A *);

fptr p = (fptr)(a.*fp);
```

For PMF constants (i.e. expressions of the form `&Klasse::Member`), no object is needed to obtain the address of the function. They can be converted to function pointers directly:

```cpp
fptr p1 = (fptr)(&A::foo);
```

You must specify `-Wno-pmf-conversions` to use this extension.
6.8 C++-Specific Variable, Function, and Type Attributes

Some attributes only make sense for C++ programs.

`init_priority (priority)`

In Standard C++, objects defined at namespace scope are guaranteed to be initialized in an order in strict accordance with that of their definitions in a given translation unit. No guarantee is made for initializations across translation units. However, GNU C++ allows users to control the order of initialization of objects defined at namespace scope with the `init_priority` attribute by specifying a relative `priority`, a constant integral expression currently bounded between 101 and 65535 inclusive. Lower numbers indicate a higher priority.

In the following example, `A` would normally be created before `B`, but the `init_priority` attribute has reversed that order:

```c++
Some_Class A __attribute__ ((init_priority (2000)));
Some_Class B __attribute__ ((init_priority (543)));
```

Note that the particular values of `priority` do not matter; only their relative ordering.

`java_interface`

This type attribute informs C++ that the class is a Java interface. It may only be applied to classes declared within an `extern "Java"` block. Calls to methods declared in this interface will be dispatched using GCJ's interface table mechanism, instead of regular virtual table dispatch.

6.9 Java Exceptions

The Java language uses a slightly different exception handling model from C++. Normally, GNU C++ will automatically detect when you are writing C++ code that uses Java exceptions, and handle them appropriately. However, if C++ code only needs to execute destructors when Java exceptions are thrown through it, GCC will guess incorrectly. Sample problematic code:

```c++
struct S { ~S(); }
extern void bar(); // is implemented in Java and may throw exceptions
void foo()
{
    S s;
    bar();
}
```

The usual effect of an incorrect guess is a link failure, complaining of a missing routine called `__gxx_personality_v0`.

You can inform the compiler that Java exceptions are to be used in a translation unit, irrespective of what it might think, by writing `#pragma GCC java_exceptions` at the head of the file. This `#pragma` must appear before any functions that throw or catch exceptions, or run destructors when exceptions are thrown through them.

You cannot mix Java and C++ exceptions in the same translation unit. It is believed to be safe to throw a C++ exception from one file through another file compiled for the for the Java exception model, or vice versa, but there may be bugs in this area.

6.10 Deprecated Features

In the past, the GNU C++ compiler was extended to experiment with new features, at a time when the C++ language was still evolving. Now that the C++ standard is complete, some of those features are superseded by superior alternatives. Using the old features might cause a
warning in some cases that the feature will be dropped in the future. In other cases, the feature might be gone already.

While the list below is not exhaustive, it documents some of the options that are now deprecated:

- `-fexternal-templates`
- `-falt-external-templates`
  These are two of the many ways for g++ to implement template instantiation. See Section 6.6 [Template Instantiation], page 169. The C++ standard clearly defines how template definitions have to be organized across implementation units. g++ has an implicit instantiation mechanism that should work just fine for standard-conforming code.

- `-fstrict-prototype`
- `-fno-strict-prototype`
  Previously it was possible to use an empty prototype parameter list to indicate an unspecified number of parameters (like C), rather than no parameters, as C++ demands. This feature has been removed, except where it is required for backwards compatibility. See Section 6.11 [Backwards Compatibility], page 173.

The named return value extension has been deprecated, and will be removed from g++ at some point.

The use of initializer lists with new expressions has been deprecated, and will be removed from g++ at some point.

Floating point and complex template constant parameters are deprecated, and will be removed from g++ at some point.

6.11 Backwards Compatibility

Now that there is a definitive ISO standard C++, g++ has a specification to adhere to. The C++ language evolved over time, and features that used to be acceptable in previous drafts of the standard, such as the ARM [Annotated C++ Reference Manual], are no longer accepted. In order to allow compilation of C++ written to such drafts, g++ contains some backwards compatibilities. All such backwards compatibility features are liable to disappear in future versions of g++. They should be considered deprecated. See Section 6.10 [Depreciated Features], page 172.

For scope If a variable is declared at for scope, it used to remain in scope until the end of the scope which contained the for statement (rather than just within the for scope). g++ retains this, but issues a warning, if such a variable is accessed outside the for scope.

Implicit C language Old C system header files did not contain an `extern "C" { . . . }` scope to set the language. On such systems, all header files are implicitly scoped inside a C language scope. Also, an empty prototype () will be treated as an unspecified number of arguments, rather than no arguments, as C++ demands.
Using and Porting the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC)
7 GNU Objective-C runtime features

This document is meant to describe some of the GNU Objective-C runtime features. It is not intended to teach you Objective-C, there are several resources on the Internet that present the language. Questions and comments about this document to Ovidiu Predescu ovidiu@cup.hp.com.

7.1 +load: Executing code before main

The GNU Objective-C runtime provides a way that allows you to execute code before the execution of the program enters the main function. The code is executed on a per-class and a per-category basis, through a special class method +load.

This facility is very useful if you want to initialize global variables which can be accessed by the program directly, without sending a message to the class first. The usual way to initialize global variables, in the +initialize method, might not be useful because +initialize is only called when the first message is sent to a class object, which in some cases could be too late.

Suppose for example you have a FileStream class that declares Stdin, Stdout and Stderr as global variables, like below:

```objc
FileStream *Stdin = nil;
FileStream *Stdout = nil;
FileStream *Stderr = nil;

@implementation FileStream
+(void)initialize
{
    Stdin = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:0];
    Stdout = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:1];
    Stderr = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:2];
}
/* Other methods here */
@end
```

In this example, the initialization of Stdin, Stdout and Stderr in +initialize occurs too late. The programmer can send a message to one of these objects before the variables are actually initialized, thus sending messages to the nil object. The +initialize method which actually initializes the global variables is not invoked until the first message is sent to the class object. The solution would require these variables to be initialized just before entering main.

The correct solution of the above problem is to use the +load method instead of +initialize:

```objc
@implementation FileStream
+(void)load
{
    Stdin = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:0];
    Stdout = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:1];
    Stderr = [[FileStream new] initWithFd:2];
}
@end
```
The +load is a method that is not overridden by categories. If a class and a category of it both implement +load, both methods are invoked. This allows some additional initializations to be performed in a category.

This mechanism is not intended to be a replacement for +initialize. You should be aware of its limitations when you decide to use it instead of +initialize.

7.1.1 What you can and what you cannot do in +load

The +load implementation in the GNU runtime guarantees you the following things:

- you can write whatever C code you like;
- you can send messages to Objective-C constant strings (@"this is a constant string");
- you can allocate and send messages to objects whose class is implemented in the same file;
- the +load implementation of all super classes of a class are executed before the +load of that class is executed;
- the +load implementation of a class is executed before the +load implementation of any category.

In particular, the following things, even if they can work in a particular case, are not guaranteed:

- allocation of or sending messages to arbitrary objects;
- allocation of or sending messages to objects whose classes have a category implemented in the same file;
- You should make no assumptions about receiving +load in sibling classes when you write +load of a class. The order in which sibling classes receive +load is not guaranteed.

The order in which +load and +initialize are called could be problematic if this matters. If you don’t allocate objects inside +load, it is guaranteed that +load is called before +initialize. If you create an object inside +load the +initialize method of object’s class is invoked even if +load was not invoked. Note if you explicitly call +load on a class, +initialize will be called first. To avoid possible problems try to implement only one of these methods.

The +load method is also invoked when a bundle is dynamically loaded into your running program. This happens automatically without any intervening operation from you. When you write bundles and you need to write +load you can safely create and send messages to objects whose classes already exist in the running program. The same restrictions as above apply to classes defined in bundle.

7.2 Type encoding

The Objective-C compiler generates type encodings for all the types. These type encodings are used at runtime to find out information about selectors and methods and about objects and classes.

The types are encoded in the following way:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Encoding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned char</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned short</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsigned int</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
long l
unsigned long L
long long q
unsigned long long Q
float f
double d
void v
id @
Class #
SEL :
char* *
unknown type *
bit-fields b followed by the starting position of the bit-field, the type of the bit-field and the size of the bit-field (the bit-fields encoding was changed from the NeXT’s compiler encoding, see below)

The encoding of bit-fields has changed to allow bit-fields to be properly handled by the runtime functions that compute sizes and alignments of types that contain bit-fields. The previous encoding contained only the size of the bit-field. Using only this information it is not possible to reliably compute the size occupied by the bit-field. This is very important in the presence of the Boehm’s garbage collector because the objects are allocated using the typed memory facility available in this collector. The typed memory allocation requires information about where the pointers are located inside the object.

The position in the bit-field is the position, counting in bits, of the bit closest to the beginning of the structure.

The non-atomic types are encoded as follows:

- pointers ‘^’ followed by the pointed type.
- arrays ‘[’ followed by the number of elements in the array followed by the type of the elements followed by ‘]’
- structures ‘{‘ followed by the name of the structure (or ‘?’ if the structure is unnamed), the ‘=’ sign, the type of the members and by ‘}’
- unions ‘(‘ followed by the name of the structure (or ‘?’ if the union is unnamed), the ‘=’ sign, the type of the members followed by ‘)’

Here are some types and their encodings, as they are generated by the compiler on a i386 machine:

Objective-C type | Compiler encoding
--- | ---
int a[10]; | [10i]
struct { | {?=i[3f]b128i3b131i2c}
  int i;
  float f[3];
  int a:3;
  int b:2;
  char c;
} |  

In addition to the types the compiler also encodes the type specifiers. The table below describes the encoding of the current Objective-C type specifiers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specifier</th>
<th>Encoding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>const</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The type specifiers are encoded just before the type. Unlike types however, the type specifiers are only encoded when they appear in method argument types.

### 7.3 Garbage Collection

Support for a new memory management policy has been added by using a powerful conservative garbage collector, known as the Boehm-Demers-Weiser conservative garbage collector. It is available from [http://www.hpl.hp.com/personal/Hans_Boehm/gc/](http://www.hpl.hp.com/personal/Hans_Boehm/gc/).

To enable the support for it you have to configure the compiler using an additional argument, `--enable-objc-gc`. You need to have garbage collector installed before building the compiler. This will build an additional runtime library which has several enhancements to support the garbage collector. The new library has a new name, ‘libobjc_gc.a’ to not conflict with the non-garbage-collected library.

When the garbage collector is used, the objects are allocated using the so-called typed memory allocation mechanism available in the Boehm-Demers-Weiser collector. This mode requires precise information on where pointers are located inside objects. This information is computed once per class, immediately after the class has been initialized.

There is a new runtime function `class_ivar_set_gcinvisible()` which can be used to declare a so-called weak pointer reference. Such a pointer is basically hidden for the garbage collector; this can be useful in certain situations, especially when you want to keep track of the allocated objects, yet allow them to be collected. This kind of pointers can only be members of objects, you cannot declare a global pointer as a weak reference. Every type which is a pointer type can be declared a weak pointer, including `id`, `Class` and `SEL`.

Here is an example of how to use this feature. Suppose you want to implement a class whose instances hold a weak pointer reference; the following class does this:

```objective-c
@interface WeakPointer : Object
{
    const void* weakPointer;
}

- initWithPointer:(const void*)p;
- (const void*)weakPointer;
@end

@implementation WeakPointer

+ (void)initialize
{
    class_ivar_set_gcinvisible (self, "weakPointer", YES);
}

- initWithPointer:(const void*)p
{...
```

in n
inout N
out o
bycopy O
oneway V
Weak pointers are supported through a new type character specifier represented by the ‘!’ character. The `class_ivar_set_gcinvisible()` function adds or removes this specifier to the string type description of the instance variable named as argument.

### 7.4 Constant string objects

GNU Objective-C provides constant string objects that are generated directly by the compiler. You declare a constant string object by prefixing a C constant string with the character `@`:

```
id myString = @"this is a constant string object";
```

The constant string objects are usually instances of the `NXConstantString` class which is provided by the GNU Objective-C runtime. To get the definition of this class you must include the `objc/NXConstStr.h` header file.

User defined libraries may want to implement their own constant string class. To be able to support them, the GNU Objective-C compiler provides a new command line option `-fconstant-string-class=class-name`. The provided class should adhere to a strict structure, the same as `NXConstantString`'s structure:

```objc
@interface NXConstantString : Object
{
    char *c_string;
    unsigned int len;
}
@end
```

User class libraries may choose to inherit the customized constant string class from a different class than `Object`. There is no requirement in the methods the constant string class has to implement.

When a file is compiled with the `-fconstant-string-class` option, all the constant string objects will be instances of the class specified as argument to this option. It is possible to have multiple compilation units referring to different constant string classes, neither the compiler nor the linker impose any restrictions in doing this.

### 7.5 compatibility_alias

This is a feature of the Objective-C compiler rather than of the runtime, anyway since it is documented nowhere and its existence was forgotten, we are documenting it here.

The keyword `@compatibility_alias` allows you to define a class name as equivalent to another class name. For example:
@compatibility_alias WOApplication GSWApplication;

tells the compiler that each time it encounters WOApplication as a class name, it should replace it with GSWApplication (that is, WOApplication is just an alias for GSWApplication).

There are some constraints on how this can be used—

• WOApplication (the alias) must not be an existing class;
• GSWApplication (the real class) must be an existing class.
8 gcov: a Test Coverage Program

`gcov` is a tool you can use in conjunction with GNU CC to test code coverage in your programs. This chapter describes version 1.5 of `gcov`.

### 8.1 Introduction to gcov

`gcov` is a test coverage program. Use it in concert with GNU CC to analyze your programs to help create more efficient, faster running code. You can use `gcov` as a profiling tool to help discover where your optimization efforts will best affect your code. You can also use `gcov` along with the other profiling tool, `gprof`, to assess which parts of your code use the greatest amount of computing time.

Profiling tools help you analyze your code’s performance. Using a profiler such as `gcov` or `gprof`, you can find out some basic performance statistics, such as:

- how often each line of code executes
- what lines of code are actually executed
- how much computing time each section of code uses

Once you know these things about how your code works when compiled, you can look at each module to see which modules should be optimized. `gcov` helps you determine where to work on optimization.

Software developers also use coverage testing in concert with testsuites, to make sure software is actually good enough for a release. Testsuites can verify that a program works as expected; a coverage program tests to see how much of the program is exercised by the testsuite. Developers can then determine what kinds of test cases need to be added to the testsuites to create both better testing and a better final product.

You should compile your code without optimization if you plan to use `gcov` because the optimization, by combining some lines of code into one function, may not give you as much information as you need to look for ‘hot spots’ where the code is using a great deal of computer time. Likewise, because `gcov` accumulates statistics by line (at the lowest resolution), it works best with a programming style that places only one statement on each line. If you use complicated macros that expand to loops or to other control structures, the statistics are less helpful—they only report on the line where the macro call appears. If your complex macros behave like functions, you can replace them with inline functions to solve this problem.

`gcov` creates a logfile called ‘sourcefile.gcov’ which indicates how many times each line of a source file ‘sourcefile.c’ has executed. You can use these logfiles along with `gprof` to aid in fine-tuning the performance of your programs. `gprof` gives timing information you can use along with the information you get from `gcov`.

`gcov` works only on code compiled with GNU CC. It is not compatible with any other profiling or test coverage mechanism.

### 8.2 Invoking gcov

```
```

- `-b` Write branch frequencies to the output file, and write branch summary info to the standard output. This option allows you to see how often each branch in your program was taken.
- `-c` Write branch frequencies as the number of branches taken, rather than the percentage of branches taken.
- `-v` Display the `gcov` version number (on the standard error stream).
-n  Do not create the gcov output file.
-1  Create long file names for included source files. For example, if the header file ‘x.h’ contains code, and was included in the file ‘a.c’, then running gcov on the file ‘a.c’ will produce an output file called ‘a.c.x.h.gcov’ instead of ‘x.h.gcov’. This can be useful if ‘x.h’ is included in multiple source files.
-f  Output summaries for each function in addition to the file level summary.
-o  The directory where the object files live. Gcov will search for ‘.bb’, ‘.bbg’, and ‘.da’ files in this directory.

When using gcov, you must first compile your program with two special GNU CC options: ‘-fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage’. This tells the compiler to generate additional information needed by gcov (basically a flow graph of the program) and also includes additional code in the object files for generating the extra profiling information needed by gcov. These additional files are placed in the directory where the source code is located.

Running the program will cause profile output to be generated. For each source file compiled with ‘-fprofile-arcs’, an accompanying ‘.da’ file will be placed in the source directory.

Running gcov with your program’s source file names as arguments will now produce a listing of the code along with frequency of execution for each line. For example, if your program is called ‘tmp.c’, this is what you see when you use the basic gcov facility:

```
$ gcc -fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage tmp.c
$ a.out
$ gcov tmp.c
87.50% of 8 source lines executed in file tmp.c
Creating tmp.c.gcov.
```

The file ‘tmp.c.gcov’ contains output from gcov. Here is a sample:

```c
main()
{
  int i, total;
  total = 0;
  for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
    total += i;
  if (total != 45)
    printf ("Failure\n");
  else
    printf ("Success\n");
}
```

When you use the ‘-b’ option, your output looks like this:

```
$ gcov -b tmp.c
87.50% of 8 source lines executed in file tmp.c
80.00% of 5 branches executed in file tmp.c
80.00% of 5 branches taken at least once in file tmp.c
50.00% of 2 calls executed in file tmp.c
Creating tmp.c.gcov.
```

Here is a sample of a resulting ‘tmp.c.gcov’ file:

```c
main()
{
  int i, total;
```
1 total = 0;

11 for (i = 0; i < 10; i++)
branch 0 taken = 91%
branch 1 taken = 100%
branch 2 taken = 100%
10 total += i;

1 if (total != 45)
branch 0 taken = 100%

#### printf ("Failure\n");
call 0 never executed
branch 1 never executed
else
1 printf ("Success\n");
call 0 returns = 100%
1 }

For each basic block, a line is printed after the last line of the basic block describing the branch or call that ends the basic block. There can be multiple branches and calls listed for a single source line if there are multiple basic blocks that end on that line. In this case, the branches and calls are each given a number. There is no simple way to map these branches and calls back to source constructs. In general, though, the lowest numbered branch or call will correspond to the leftmost construct on the source line.

For a branch, if it was executed at least once, then a percentage indicating the number of times the branch was taken divided by the number of times the branch was executed will be printed. Otherwise, the message “never executed” is printed.

For a call, if it was executed at least once, then a percentage indicating the number of times the call returned divided by the number of times the call was executed will be printed. This will usually be 100%, but may be less for functions call exit or longjmp, and thus may not return every time they are called.

The execution counts are cumulative. If the example program were executed again without removing the `.da` file, the count for the number of times each line in the source was executed would be added to the results of the previous run(s). This is potentially useful in several ways. For example, it could be used to accumulate data over a number of program runs as part of a test verification suite, or to provide more accurate long-term information over a large number of program runs.

The data in the `.da` files is saved immediately before the program exits. For each source file compiled with `-fprofile-arcs`, the profiling code first attempts to read in an existing `.da` file; if the file doesn’t match the executable (differing number of basic block counts) it will ignore the contents of the file. It then adds in the new execution counts and finally writes the data to the file.

8.3 Using gcov with GCC Optimization

If you plan to use gcov to help optimize your code, you must first compile your program with two special GNU CC options: `-fprofile-arcs -ftest-coverage`. Aside from that, you can use any other GNU CC options; but if you want to prove that every single line in your program was executed, you should not compile with optimization at the same time. On some machines the optimizer can eliminate some simple code lines by combining them with other lines. For example, code like this:
if (a != b)
  c = 1;
else
  c = 0;

can be compiled into one instruction on some machines. In this case, there is no way for gcov
to calculate separate execution counts for each line because there isn’t separate code for each
line. Hence the gcov output looks like this if you compiled the program with optimization:

    100 if (a != b)
    100   c = 1;
    100 else
    100   c = 0;

The output shows that this block of code, combined by optimization, executed 100 times. In
one sense this result is correct, because there was only one instruction representing all four of
these lines. However, the output does not indicate how many times the result was 0 and how
many times the result was 1.

8.4 Brief description of gcov data files

gcov uses three files for doing profiling. The names of these files are derived from the original
source file by substituting the file suffix with either `.bb`, `.bbg`, or `.da`. All of these files are
placed in the same directory as the source file, and contain data stored in a platform-independent
method.

The `.bb` and `.bbg` files are generated when the source file is compiled with the GNU CC
`-ftest-coverage` option. The `.bb` file contains a list of source files (including headers),
functions within those files, and line numbers corresponding to each basic block in the source
file.

The `.bb` file format consists of several lists of 4-byte integers which correspond to the line
numbers of each basic block in the file. Each list is terminated by a line number of 0. A line
number of −1 is used to designate that the source file name (padded to a 4-byte boundary and
followed by another −1) follows. In addition, a line number of −2 is used to designate that the
name of a function (also padded to a 4-byte boundary and followed by a −2) follows.

The `.bbg` file is used to reconstruct the program flow graph for the source file. It contains a
list of the program flow arcs (possible branches taken from one basic block to another) for each
function which, in combination with the `.bb` file, enables gcov to reconstruct the program flow.

In the `.bbg` file, the format is:

- number of basic blocks for function #0 (4-byte number)
- total number of arcs for function #0 (4-byte number)
- count of arcs in basic block #0 (4-byte number)
- destination basic block of arc #0 (4-byte number)
- flag bits (4-byte number)
- destination basic block of arc #1 (4-byte number)
- flag bits (4-byte number)
- ...
- destination basic block of arc #N (4-byte number)
- flag bits (4-byte number)
- count of arcs in basic block #1 (4-byte number)
- destination basic block of arc #0 (4-byte number)
- flag bits (4-byte number)
- ...

A −1 (stored as a 4-byte number) is used to separate each function’s list of basic blocks, and
to verify that the file has been read correctly.
The `.da` file is generated when a program containing object files built with the GNU CC `-fprofile-arcs` option is executed. A separate `.da` file is created for each source file compiled with this option, and the name of the `.da` file is stored as an absolute pathname in the resulting object file. This path name is derived from the source file name by substituting a `.da` suffix.

The format of the `.da` file is fairly simple. The first 8-byte number is the number of counts in the file, followed by the counts (stored as 8-byte numbers). Each count corresponds to the number of times each arc in the program is executed. The counts are cumulative; each time the program is executed, it attempts to combine the existing `.da` files with the new counts for this invocation of the program. It ignores the contents of any `.da` files whose number of arcs doesn’t correspond to the current program, and merely overwrites them instead.

All three of these files use the functions in `gcov-io.h` to store integers; the functions in this header provide a machine-independent mechanism for storing and retrieving data from a stream.
Chapter 9: Known Causes of Trouble with GCC

9 Known Causes of Trouble with GCC

This section describes known problems that affect users of GCC. Most of these are not GCC bugs per se—if they were, we would fix them. But the result for a user may be like the result of a bug.

Some of these problems are due to bugs in other software, some are missing features that are too much work to add, and some are places where people’s opinions differ as to what is best.

9.1 Actual Bugs We Haven’t Fixed Yet

- The fixincludes script interacts badly with automounters; if the directory of system header files is automounted, it tends to be unmounted while fixincludes is running. This would seem to be a bug in the automounter. We don’t know any good way to work around it.
- The fixproto script will sometimes add prototypes for the sigsetjmp and siglongjmp functions that reference the jmp_buf type before that type is defined. To work around this, edit the offending file and place the typedef in front of the prototypes.
- When ‘-pedantic-errors’ is specified, GCC will incorrectly give an error message when a function name is specified in an expression involving the comma operator.

9.2 Cross-Compiler Problems

You may run into problems with cross compilation on certain machines, for several reasons.
- Cross compilation can run into trouble for certain machines because some target machines’ assemblers require floating point numbers to be written as integer constants in certain contexts.

The compiler writes these integer constants by examining the floating point value as an integer and printing that integer, because this is simple to write and independent of the details of the floating point representation. But this does not work if the compiler is running on a different machine with an incompatible floating point format, or even a different byte-ordering.

In addition, correct constant folding of floating point values requires representing them in the target machine’s format. (The C standard does not quite require this, but in practice it is the only way to win.)

It is now possible to overcome these problems by defining macros such as REAL_VALUE_TYPE. But doing so is a substantial amount of work for each target machine. See Section 21.19 [Cross-compilation], page 439.
- At present, the program ‘mips-tfile’ which adds debug support to object files on MIPS systems does not work in a cross compile environment.

9.3 Interoperation

This section lists various difficulties encountered in using GNU C or GNU C++ together with other compilers or with the assemblers, linkers, libraries and debuggers on certain systems.
- Objective C does not work on the RS/6000.
- GNU C++ does not do name mangling in the same way as other C++ compilers. This means that object files compiled with one compiler cannot be used with another.

This effect is intentional, to protect you from more subtle problems. Compilers differ as to many internal details of C++ implementation, including: how class instances are laid out, how multiple inheritance is implemented, and how virtual function calls are handled. If the
name encoding were made the same, your programs would link against libraries provided from other compilers—but the programs would then crash when run. Incompatible libraries are then detected at link time, rather than at run time.

- Older GDB versions sometimes fail to read the output of GCC version 2. If you have trouble, get GDB version 4.4 or later.
- DBX rejects some files produced by GCC, though it accepts similar constructs in output from PCC. Until someone can supply a coherent description of what is valid DBX input and what is not, there is nothing I can do about these problems. You are on your own.
- The GNU assembler (GAS) does not support PIC. To generate PIC code, you must use some other assembler, such as ‘/bin/as’.
- On some BSD systems, including some versions of Ultrix, use of profiling causes static variable destructors (currently used only in C++) not to be run.
- Use of ‘-I/usr/include’ may cause trouble.

Many systems come with header files that won’t work with GCC unless corrected by fixincludes. The corrected header files go in a new directory; GCC searches this directory before ‘/usr/include’. If you use ‘-I/usr/include’, this tells GCC to search ‘/usr/include’ earlier on, before the corrected headers. The result is that you get the uncorrected header files.

Instead, you should use these options (when compiling C programs):

```
-I/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/target/version/include -I/usr/include
```

For C++ programs, GCC also uses a special directory that defines C++ interfaces to standard C subroutines. This directory is meant to be searched before other standard include directories, so that it takes precedence. If you are compiling C++ programs and specifying include directories explicitly, use this option first, then the two options above:

```
-I/usr/local/lib/g++-include
```

- On some SGI systems, when you use ‘-lgl_s’ as an option, it gets translated magically to ‘-lgl_s -lX11_s -lc_s’. Naturally, this does not happen when you use GCC. You must specify all three options explicitly.
- On a Sparc, GCC aligns all values of type double on an 8-byte boundary, and it expects every double to be so aligned. The Sun compiler usually gives double values 8-byte alignment, with one exception: function arguments of type double may not be aligned.

As a result, if a function compiled with Sun CC takes the address of an argument of type double and passes this pointer of type double * to a function compiled with GCC, dereferencing the pointer may cause a fatal signal.

One way to solve this problem is to compile your entire program with GNU CC. Another solution is to modify the function that is compiled with Sun CC to copy the argument into a local variable; local variables are always properly aligned. A third solution is to modify the function that uses the pointer to dereference it via the following function access_double instead of directly with ‘*’:

```
inline double
access_double (double *unaligned_ptr)
{
    union d2i { double d; int i[2]; };

    union d2i *p = (union d2i *) unaligned_ptr;
    union d2i u;

    u.i[0] = p->i[0];
    u.i[1] = p->i[1];
```
return u.d;
}

Storing into the pointer can be done likewise with the same union.

- On Solaris, the malloc function in the ‘libmalloc.a’ library may allocate memory that is only 4 byte aligned. Since GCC on the Sparc assumes that doubles are 8 byte aligned, this may result in a fatal signal if doubles are stored in memory allocated by the ‘libmalloc.a’ library.

  The solution is to not use the ‘libmalloc.a’ library. Use instead malloc and related functions from ‘libc.a’; they do not have this problem.

- Sun forgot to include a static version of ‘libdl.a’ with some versions of SunOS (mainly 4.1). This results in undefined symbols when linking static binaries (that is, if you use ‘-static’). If you see undefined symbols _dldissect, _dlsym or _dlpopen when linking, compile and link against the file ‘mit/util/misc/dlsym.c’ from the MIT version of X windows.

- The 128-bit long double format that the Sparc port supports currently works by using the architecturally defined quad-word floating point instructions. Since there is no hardware that supports these instructions they must be emulated by the operating system. Long doubles do not work in Sun OS versions 4.0.3 and earlier, because the kernel emulator uses an obsolete and incompatible format. Long doubles do not work in Sun OS version 4.1.1 due to a problem in a Sun library. Long doubles do work on Sun OS versions 4.1.2 and higher, but GCC does not enable them by default. Long doubles appear to work in Sun OS 5.x (Solaris 2.x).

- On HP-UX version 9.01 on the HP PA, the HP compiler cc does not compile GCC correctly. We do not yet know why. However, GCC compiled on earlier HP-UX versions works properly on HP-UX 9.01 and can compile itself properly on 9.01.

- On the HP PA machine, ADB sometimes fails to work on functions compiled with GCC. Specifically, it fails to work on functions that use alloca or variable-size arrays. This is because GCC doesn’t generate HP-UX unwind descriptors for such functions. It may even be impossible to generate them.

- Debugging (‘-g’) is not supported on the HP PA machine, unless you use the preliminary GNU tools (see Chapter 4 [Installation], page 111).

- Taking the address of a label may generate errors from the HP-UX PA assembler. GAS for the PA does not have this problem.

- Using floating point parameters for indirect calls to static functions will not work when using the HP assembler. There simply is no way for GCC to specify what registers hold arguments for static functions when using the HP assembler. GAS for the PA does not have this problem.

- In extremely rare cases involving some very large functions you may receive errors from the HP linker complaining about an out of bounds unconditional branch offset. This used to occur more often in previous versions of GCC, but is now exceptionally rare. If you should run into it, you can work around by making your function smaller.

- GCC compiled code sometimes emits warnings from the HP-UX assembler of the form:

  (warning) Use of GR3 when
  frame >= 8192 may cause conflict.

  These warnings are harmless and can be safely ignored.

- The current version of the assembler (‘/bin/as’) for the RS/6000 has certain problems that prevent the ‘-g’ option in GCC from working. Note that ‘Makefile.in’ uses ‘-g’ by default when compiling ‘libgcc2.c’.

  IBM has produced a fixed version of the assembler. The upgraded assembler unfortunately was not included in any of the AIX 3.2 update PTF releases (3.2.2, 3.2.3, or 3.2.3e). Users
of AIX 3.1 should request PTF U403044 from IBM and users of AIX 3.2 should request
PTF U416277. See the file ‘README.RS6000’ for more details on these updates.
You can test for the presence of a fixed assembler by using the command

```
as -u < /dev/null
```

If the command exits normally, the assembler fix already is installed. If the assembler
complains that ‘-u’ is an unknown flag, you need to order the fix.

- On the IBM RS/6000, compiling code of the form

```
extern int foo;
... foo ...
static int foo;
```

will cause the linker to report an undefined symbol foo. Although this behavior differs
from most other systems, it is not a bug because redefining an extern variable as static
is undefined in ISO C.

- AIX on the RS/6000 provides support (NLS) for environments outside of the United States.
Compilers and assemblers use NLS to support locale-specific representations of various
objects including floating-point numbers (‘,’ vs ‘,’ for separating decimal fractions). There
have been problems reported where the library linked with GCC does not produce the same
floating-point formats that the assembler accepts. If you have this problem, set the LANG
environment variable to ‘C’ or ‘En_US’.

- Even if you specify ‘-fdollars-in-identifiers’, you cannot successfully use ‘$’ in iden-
tifiers on the RS/6000 due to a restriction in the IBM assembler. GAS supports these
identifiers.

- On the RS/6000, XLC version 1.3.0.0 will miscompile ‘jump.c’. XLC version 1.3.0.1 or
later fixes this problem. You can obtain XLC-1.3.0.2 by requesting PTF 421749 from IBM.

- There is an assembler bug in versions of DG/UX prior to 5.4.2.01 that occurs when the
‘fldcr’ instruction is used. GCC uses ‘fldcr’ on the 88100 to serialize volatile memory
references. Use the option ‘-mno-serialize-volatile’ if your version of the assembler has
this bug.

- On VMS, GAS versions 1.38.1 and earlier may cause spurious warning messages from the
linker. These warning messages complain of mismatched psect attributes. You can ignore
them. See Section 4.4 [VMS Install], page 117.

- On NewsOS version 3, if you include both of the files ‘stddef.h’ and ‘sys/types.h’, you
get an error because there are two typedefs of size_t. You should change ‘sys/types.h’
by adding these lines around the definition of size_t:

```
#ifndef _SIZE_T
#define _SIZE_T
actual-typedef-here
#endif
```

- On the Alliant, the system’s own convention for returning structures and unions is unusual,
and is not compatible with GCC no matter what options are used.

- On the IBM RT PC, the MetaWare HighC compiler (hc) uses a different convention for
structure and union returning. Use the option ‘-mhcc-struct-return’ to tell GCC to use a
convention compatible with it.

- On Ultrix, the Fortran compiler expects registers 2 through 5 to be saved by function calls.
However, the C compiler uses conventions compatible with BSD Unix: registers 2 through
5 may be clobbered by function calls.

GCC uses the same convention as the Ultrix C compiler. You can use these options to
produce code compatible with the Fortran compiler:
Chapter 9: Known Causes of Trouble with GCC

- \texttt{fcall-saved-r2} \ - \texttt{fcall-saved-r3} \ - \texttt{fcall-saved-r4} \ - \texttt{fcall-saved-r5}

- On the WE32k, you may find that programs compiled with GCC do not work with the standard shared C library. You may need to link with the ordinary C compiler. If you do so, you must specify the following options:
  \texttt{-L/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/we32k-att-sysv/2.8.1 -lgcc -lc_s}
  The first specifies where to find the library ‘libgcc.a’ specified with the ‘-lgcc’ option.
  GCC does linking by invoking \texttt{ld}, just as \texttt{cc} does, and there is no reason why it should matter which compilation program you use to invoke \texttt{ld}. If someone tracks this problem down, it can probably be fixed easily.

- On the Alpha, you may get assembler errors about invalid syntax as a result of floating point constants. This is due to a bug in the C library functions \texttt{ecvt}, \texttt{fcvt} and \texttt{gcvt}. Given valid floating point numbers, they sometimes print ‘\texttt{NaN}’.

- On Irix 4.0.5F (and perhaps in some other versions), an assembler bug sometimes reorders instructions incorrectly when optimization is turned on. If you think this may be happening to you, try using the GNU assembler; GAS version 2.1 supports ECOFF on Irix.
  Or use the ‘\texttt{-noasmopt}’ option when you compile GCC with itself, and then again when you compile your program. (This is a temporary kludge to turn off assembler optimization on Irix.) If this proves to be what you need, edit the assembler spec in the file ‘\texttt{specs}’ so that it unconditionally passes ‘\texttt{-O0}’ to the assembler, and never passes ‘\texttt{-O2}’ or ‘\texttt{-O3}’.

9.4 Problems Compiling Certain Programs

Certain programs have problems compiling.

- Parse errors may occur compiling X11 on a Decstation running Ultrix 4.2 because of problems in DEC’s versions of the X11 header files ‘\texttt{X11/Xlib.h}’ and ‘\texttt{X11/Xutil.h}’. People recommend adding ‘\texttt{-I/usr/include/mit}’ to use the MIT versions of the header files, using the ‘\texttt{-traditional}’ switch to turn off ISO C, or fixing the header files by adding this:
  \begin{verbatim}
  #ifdef __STDC__
  #define NeedFunctionPrototypes 0
  #endif
  \end{verbatim}

- On various 386 Unix systems derived from System V, including SCO, ISC, and ESIX, you may get error messages about running out of virtual memory while compiling certain programs.
  You can prevent this problem by linking GCC with the GNU malloc (which thus replaces the malloc that comes with the system). GNU malloc is available as a separate package, and also in the file ‘\texttt{src/gmalloc.c}’ in the GNU Emacs 19 distribution.
  If you have installed GNU malloc as a separate library package, use this option when you relink GCC:
  \texttt{MALLOC=/usr/local/lib/libgmalloc.a}
  Alternatively, if you have compiled ‘\texttt{gmalloc.c}’ from Emacs 19, copy the object file to ‘\texttt{gmalloc.o}’ and use this option when you relink GCC:
  \texttt{MALLOC=gmalloc.o}

9.5 Incompatibilities of GCC

There are several noteworthy incompatibilities between GNU C and K&R (non-ISO) versions of C. The ‘\texttt{-traditional}’ option eliminates many of these incompatibilities, \textit{but not all}, by telling GNU C to behave like a K&R C compiler.
• GCC normally makes string constants read-only. If several identical-looking string constants are used, GCC stores only one copy of the string. One consequence is that you cannot call `mktemp` with a string constant argument. The function `mktemp` always alters the string its argument points to.

Another consequence is that `sscanf` does not work on some systems when passed a string constant as its format control string or input. This is because `sscanf` incorrectly tries to write into the string constant. Likewise `fscanf` and `scanf`.

The best solution to these problems is to change the program to use `char`-array variables with initialization strings for these purposes instead of string constants. But if this is not possible, you can use the `-f-writable-strings` flag, which directs GCC to handle string constants the same way most C compilers do. `-traditional` also has this effect, among others.

• `-2147483648` is positive.

This is because `2147483648` cannot fit in the type `int`, so (following the ISO C rules) its data type is `unsigned long int`. Negating this value yields `2147483648` again.

• GCC does not substitute macro arguments when they appear inside of string constants. For example, the following macro in GCC

```c
#define foo(a) "a"
```

will produce output "a" regardless of what the argument `a` is.

The `'-traditional'` option directs GCC to handle such cases (among others) in the old-fashioned (non-ISO) fashion.

• When you use `setjmp` and `longjmp`, the only automatic variables guaranteed to remain valid are those declared `volatile`. This is a consequence of automatic register allocation. Consider this function:

```c
jmp_buf j;

foo ()
{
    int a, b;

    a = fun1 ();
    if (setjmp (j))
        return a;

    a = fun2 ();
    /* longjmp (j) may occur in fun3. */
    return a + fun3 ();
}
```

Here `a` may or may not be restored to its first value when the `longjmp` occurs. If `a` is allocated in a register, then its first value is restored; otherwise, it keeps the last value stored in it.

If you use the `'-W'` option with the `'-O'` option, you will get a warning when GCC thinks such a problem might be possible.

The `'-traditional'` option directs GNU C to put variables in the stack by default, rather than in registers, in functions that call `setjmp`. This results in the behavior found in traditional C compilers.

• Programs that use preprocessing directives in the middle of macro arguments do not work with GCC. For example, a program like this will not work:

```c
foobar (
ISO C does not permit such a construct. It would make sense to support it when `-traditional` is used, but it is too much work to implement.

- K&R compilers allow comments to cross over an inclusion boundary (i.e. started in an include file and ended in the including file). I think this would be quite ugly and can’t imagine it could be needed.

- Declarations of external variables and functions within a block apply only to the block containing the declaration. In other words, they have the same scope as any other declaration in the same place.

  In some other C compilers, a `extern` declaration affects all the rest of the file even if it happens within a block.

  The `-traditional` option directs GNU C to treat all `extern` declarations as global, like traditional compilers.

- In traditional C, you can combine `long`, etc., with a typedef name, as shown here:
  ```c
  typedef int foo;
  typedef long foo bar;
  ```

  In ISO C, this is not allowed: `long` and other type modifiers require an explicit `int`. Because this criterion is expressed by Bison grammar rules rather than C code, the `-traditional` flag cannot alter it.

- PCC allows typedef names to be used as function parameters. The difficulty described immediately above applies here too.

- When in `-traditional` mode, GCC allows the following erroneous pair of declarations to appear together in a given scope:
  ```c
  typedef int foo;
  typedef foo foo foo;
  ```

- GCC treats all characters of identifiers as significant, even when in `-traditional` mode. According to K&R-1 (2.2), “No more than the first eight characters are significant, although more may be used.”. Also according to K&R-1 (2.2), “An identifier is a sequence of letters and digits; the first character must be a letter. The underscore `_` counts as a letter.”, but GCC also allows dollar signs in identifiers.

- PCC allows whitespace in the middle of compound assignment operators such as `+=`. GCC, following the ISO standard, does not allow this. The difficulty described immediately above applies here too.

- GCC complains about unterminated character constants inside of preprocessing conditionals that fail. Some programs have English comments enclosed in conditionals that are guaranteed to fail; if these comments contain apostrophes, GCC will probably report an error. For example, this code would produce an error:

  ```c
  #if 0
  You can’t expect this to work.
  #endif
  ```

  The best solution to such a problem is to put the text into an actual C comment delimited by `/*...*/`. However, `-traditional` suppresses these error messages.

- Many user programs contain the declaration `long time ();`. In the past, the system header files on many systems did not actually declare `time`, so it did not matter what type your program declared it to return. But in systems with ISO C headers, `time` is declared to return `time_t`, and if that is not the same as `long`, then `long time ();` is erroneous.

  The solution is to change your program to use appropriate system headers `<time.h>` on systems with ISO C headers) and not to declare `time` if the system header files declare it, or failing that to use `time_t` as the return type of `time`. 

```c
#define luser
    hack)
```
• When compiling functions that return `float`, PCC converts it to a double. GCC actually returns a `float`. If you are concerned with PCC compatibility, you should declare your functions to return `double`; you might as well say what you mean.

• When compiling functions that return structures or unions, GCC output code normally uses a method different from that used on most versions of Unix. As a result, code compiled with GCC cannot call a structure-returning function compiled with PCC, and vice versa.

The method used by GCC is as follows: a structure or union which is 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes long is returned like a scalar. A structure or union with any other size is stored into an address supplied by the caller (usually in a special, fixed register, but on some machines it is passed on the stack). The machine-description macros `STRUCT_VALUE` and `STRUCT_INCOMING_VALUE` tell GCC where to pass this address.

By contrast, PCC on most target machines returns structures and unions of any size by copying the data into an area of static storage, and then returning the address of that storage as if it were a pointer value. The caller must copy the data from that memory area to the place where the value is wanted. GCC does not use this method because it is slower and nonreentrant.

On some newer machines, PCC uses a reentrant convention for all structure and union returning. GCC on most of these machines uses a compatible convention when returning structures and unions in memory, but still returns small structures and unions in registers. You can tell GCC to use a compatible convention for all structure and union returning with the option `--fpcc-struct-return`.

• GNU C complains about program fragments such as `'0x74ae-0x4000'` which appear to be two hexadecimal constants separated by the minus operator. Actually, this string is a single preprocessing token. Each such token must correspond to one token in C. Since this does not, GNU C prints an error message. Although it may appear obvious that what is meant is an operator and two values, the ISO C standard specifically requires that this be treated as erroneous.

A preprocessing token is a preprocessing number if it begins with a digit and is followed by letters, underscores, digits, periods and `e+`, `e-`, `E+`, `E-`, `p+`, `p-`, `P+`, or `P-` character sequences. (In strict C89 mode, the sequences `p+`, `p-`, `P+` and `P-` cannot appear in preprocessing numbers.)

To make the above program fragment valid, place whitespace in front of the minus sign. This whitespace will end the preprocessing number.

### 9.6 Fixed Header Files

GCC needs to install corrected versions of some system header files. This is because most target systems have some header files that won’t work with GCC unless they are changed. Some have bugs, some are incompatible with ISO C, and some depend on special features of other compilers.

Installing GCC automatically creates and installs the fixed header files, by running a program called `fixincludes` (or for certain targets an alternative such as `fixinc.svr4`). Normally, you don’t need to pay attention to this. But there are cases where it doesn’t do the right thing automatically.

• If you update the system’s header files, such as by installing a new system version, the fixed header files of GCC are not automatically updated. The easiest way to update them is to reinstall GCC. (If you want to be clever, look in the `makefile` and you can find a shortcut.)

• On some systems, in particular SunOS 4, header file directories contain machine-specific symbolic links in certain places. This makes it possible to share most of the header files among hosts running the same version of SunOS 4 on different machine models.
The programs that fix the header files do not understand this special way of using symbolic links; therefore, the directory of fixed header files is good only for the machine model used to build it.

In SunOS 4, only programs that look inside the kernel will notice the difference between machine models. Therefore, for most purposes, you need not be concerned about this.

It is possible to make separate sets of fixed header files for the different machine models, and arrange a structure of symbolic links so as to use the proper set, but you’ll have to do this by hand.

- On Lynxos, GCC by default does not fix the header files. This is because bugs in the shell cause the `fixincludes` script to fail.

This means you will encounter problems due to bugs in the system header files. It may be no comfort that they aren’t GCC’s fault, but it does mean that there’s nothing for us to do about them.

### 9.7 Standard Libraries

GCC by itself attempts to be a conforming freestanding implementation. See Chapter 2 [Language Standards Supported by GCC], page 5, for details of what this means. Beyond the library facilities required of such an implementation, the rest of the C library is supplied by the vendor of the operating system. If that C library doesn’t conform to the C standards, then your programs might get warnings (especially when using `-Wall`) that you don’t expect.

For example, the `sprintf` function on SunOS 4.1.3 returns `char *` while the C standard says that `sprintf` returns an `int`. The `fixincludes` program could make the prototype for this function match the Standard, but that would be wrong, since the function will still return `char *`.

If you need a Standard compliant library, then you need to find one, as GCC does not provide one. The GNU C library (called `glibc`) provides ISO C, POSIX, BSD, SystemV and X/Open compatibility for GNU/Linux and HURD-based GNU systems; no recent version of it supports other systems, though some very old versions did. Version 2.2 of the GNU C library includes nearly complete C99 support. You could also ask your operating system vendor if newer libraries are available.

### 9.8 Disappointments and Misunderstandings

These problems are perhaps regrettable, but we don’t know any practical way around them.

- Certain local variables aren’t recognized by debuggers when you compile with optimization. This occurs because sometimes GCC optimizes the variable out of existence. There is no way to tell the debugger how to compute the value such a variable “would have had”, and it is not clear that would be desirable anyway. So GCC simply does not mention the eliminated variable when it writes debugging information.

You have to expect a certain amount of disagreement between the executable and your source code, when you use optimization.

- Users often think it is a bug when GCC reports an error for code like this:

```c
int foo (struct mumble *);

struct mumble { ... };

int foo (struct mumble *x)
{ ... }
```
This code really is erroneous, because the scope of `struct mumble` in the prototype is limited to the argument list containing it. It does not refer to the `struct mumble` defined with file scope immediately below—they are two unrelated types with similar names in different scopes.

But in the definition of `foo`, the file-scope type is used because that is available to be inherited. Thus, the definition and the prototype do not match, and you get an error.

This behavior may seem silly, but it’s what the ISO standard specifies. It is easy enough for you to make your code work by moving the definition of `struct mumble` above the prototype. It’s not worth being incompatible with ISO C just to avoid an error for the example shown above.

- Accesses to bit-fields even in volatile objects works by accessing larger objects, such as a byte or a word. You cannot rely on what size of object is accessed in order to read or write the bit-field; it may even vary for a given bit-field according to the precise usage.

If you care about controlling the amount of memory that is accessed, use volatile but do not use bit-fields.

- GCC comes with shell scripts to fix certain known problems in system header files. They install corrected copies of various header files in a special directory where only GCC will normally look for them. The scripts adapt to various systems by searching all the system header files for the problem cases that we know about.

If new system header files are installed, nothing automatically arranges to update the corrected header files. You will have to reinstall GCC to fix the new header files. More specifically, go to the build directory and delete the files `stmp-fixinc` and `stmp-headers`, and the subdirectory `include`; then do `make install` again.

- On 68000 and x86 systems, for instance, you can get paradoxical results if you test the precise values of floating point numbers. For example, you can find that a floating point value which is not a NaN is not equal to itself. This results from the fact that the floating point registers hold a few more bits of precision than fit in a `double` in memory. Compiled code moves values between memory and floating point registers at its convenience, and moving them into memory truncates them.

You can partially avoid this problem by using the `'-ffloat-store'` option (see Section 3.10 [Optimize Options], page 38).

- On the MIPS, variable argument functions using `'varargs.h'` cannot have a floating point value for the first argument. The reason for this is that in the absence of a prototype in scope, if the first argument is a floating point, it is passed in a floating point register, rather than an integer register.

If the code is rewritten to use the ISO standard `'stdarg.h'` method of variable arguments, and the prototype is in scope at the time of the call, everything will work fine.

- On the H8/300 and H8/300H, variable argument functions must be implemented using the ISO standard `'stdarg.h'` method of variable arguments. Furthermore, calls to functions using `'stdarg.h'` variable arguments must have a prototype for the called function in scope at the time of the call.

### 9.9 Common Misunderstandings with GNU C++

C++ is a complex language and an evolving one, and its standard definition (the ISO C++ standard) was only recently completed. As a result, your C++ compiler may occasionally surprise you, even when its behavior is correct. This section discusses some areas that frequently give rise to questions of this sort.
9.9.1 Declare and Define Static Members

When a class has static data members, it is not enough to declare the static member; you must also define it. For example:

```c++
class Foo {
    ...
    void method();
    static int bar;
};
```

This declaration only establishes that the class `Foo` has an `int` named `Foo::bar`, and a member function named `Foo::method`. But you still need to define both `method` and `bar` elsewhere. According to the ISO standard, you must supply an initializer in one (and only one) source file, such as:

```c++
int Foo::bar = 0;
```

Other C++ compilers may not correctly implement the standard behavior. As a result, when you switch to g++ from one of these compilers, you may discover that a program that appeared to work correctly in fact does not conform to the standard: `g++` reports as undefined symbols any static data members that lack definitions.

9.9.2 Temporaries May Vanish Before You Expect

It is dangerous to use pointers or references to portions of a temporary object. The compiler may very well delete the object before you expect it to, leaving a pointer to garbage. The most common place where this problem crops up is in classes like string classes, especially ones that define a conversion function to type `char *` or `const char *`—which is one reason why the standard string class requires you to call the `c_str` member function. However, any class that returns a pointer to some internal structure is potentially subject to this problem.

For example, a program may use a function `strfunc` that returns `string` objects, and another function `charfunc` that operates on pointers to `char`:

```c++
string strfunc();
void charfunc (const char *);

void f () {
    const char *p = strfunc().c_str();
    ...
    charfunc (p);
    ...
    charfunc (p);
}
```

In this situation, it may seem reasonable to save a pointer to the C string returned by the `c_str` member function and use that rather than call `c_str` repeatedly. However, the temporary string created by the call to `strfunc` is destroyed after `p` is initialized, at which point `p` is left pointing to freed memory.

Code like this may run successfully under some other compilers, particularly obsolete cfront-based compilers that delete temporaries along with normal local variables. However, the GNU C++ behavior is standard-conforming, so if your program depends on late destruction of temporaries it is not portable.

The safe way to write such code is to give the temporary a name, which forces it to remain until the end of the scope of the name. For example:
string& tmp = strfunc ();
charfunc (tmp.c_str ());

9.9.3 Implicit Copy-Assignment for Virtual Bases

When a base class is virtual, only one subobject of the base class belongs to each full object. Also, the constructors and destructors are invoked only once, and called from the most-derived class. However, such objects behave unspecified when being assigned. For example:

struct Base{
    char *name;
    Base(char *n) : name(strdup(n)){}
    Base& operator= (const Base& other){
        free (name);
        name = strdup (other.name);
    }
};

struct A:virtual Base{
    int val;
    A():Base("A"){}
};

struct B:virtual Base{
    int bval;
    B():Base("B"){}
};

struct Derived:public A, public B{
    Derived():Base("Derived"){}
};

void func(Derived &d1, Derived &d2)
{
    d1 = d2;
}

The C++ standard specifies that ‘Base::Base’ is only called once when constructing or copy-converting a Derived object. It is unspecified whether ‘Base::operator=’ is called more than once when the implicit copy-assignment for Derived objects is invoked (as it is inside ‘func’ in the example).

g++ implements the “intuitive” algorithm for copy-assignment: assign all direct bases, then assign all members. In that algorithm, the virtual base subobject can be encountered many times. In the example, copying proceeds in the following order: ‘val’, ‘name’ (via strdup), ‘bval’, and ‘name’ again.

If application code relies on copy-assignment, a user-defined copy-assignment operator removes any uncertainties. With such an operator, the application can define whether and how the virtual base subobject is assigned.

9.10 Caveats of using protoize

The conversion programs protoize and unprotoize can sometimes change a source file in a way that won’t work unless you rearrange it.
• **protoize** can insert references to a type name or type tag before the definition, or in a file where they are not defined. If this happens, compiler error messages should show you where the new references are, so fixing the file by hand is straightforward.

• There are some C constructs which **protoize** cannot figure out. For example, it can’t determine argument types for declaring a pointer-to-function variable; this you must do by hand. **protoize** inserts a comment containing ‘???’ each time it finds such a variable; so you can find all such variables by searching for this string. ISO C does not require declaring the argument types of pointer-to-function types.

• Using **unprotoize** can easily introduce bugs. If the program relied on prototypes to bring about conversion of arguments, these conversions will not take place in the program without prototypes. One case in which you can be sure **unprotoize** is safe is when you are removing prototypes that were made with **protoize**; if the program worked before without any prototypes, it will work again without them. You can find all the places where this problem might occur by compiling the program with the ‘-Wconversion’ option. It prints a warning whenever an argument is converted.

• Both conversion programs can be confused if there are macro calls in and around the text to be converted. In other words, the standard syntax for a declaration or definition must not result from expanding a macro. This problem is inherent in the design of C and cannot be fixed. If only a few functions have confusing macro calls, you can easily convert them manually.

• **protoize** cannot get the argument types for a function whose definition was not actually compiled due to preprocessing conditionals. When this happens, **protoize** changes nothing in regard to such a function. **protoize** tries to detect such instances and warn about them. You can generally work around this problem by using **protoize** step by step, each time specifying a different set of ‘-D’ options for compilation, until all of the functions have been converted. There is no automatic way to verify that you have got them all, however.

• Confusion may result if there is an occasion to convert a function declaration or definition in a region of source code where there is more than one formal parameter list present. Thus, attempts to convert code containing multiple (conditionally compiled) versions of a single function header (in the same vicinity) may not produce the desired (or expected) results. If you plan on converting source files which contain such code, it is recommended that you first make sure that each conditionally compiled region of source code which contains an alternative function header also contains at least one additional follower token (past the final right parenthesis of the function header). This should circumvent the problem.

• **unprotoize** can become confused when trying to convert a function definition or declaration which contains a declaration for a pointer-to-function formal argument which has the same name as the function being defined or declared. We recommend you avoid such choices of formal parameter names.

• You might also want to correct some of the indentation by hand and break long lines. (The conversion programs don’t write lines longer than eighty characters in any case.)

### 9.11 Certain Changes We Don’t Want to Make

This section lists changes that people frequently request, but which we do not make because we think GCC is better without them.

• Checking the number and type of arguments to a function which has an old-fashioned definition and no prototype.

Such a feature would work only occasionally—only for calls that appear in the same file as the called function, following the definition. The only way to check all calls reliably is to
add a prototype for the function. But adding a prototype eliminates the motivation for this feature. So the feature is not worthwhile.

- Warning about using an expression whose type is signed as a shift count.
  Shift count operands are probably signed more often than unsigned. Warning about this would cause far more annoyance than good.

- Warning about assigning a signed value to an unsigned variable.
  Such assignments must be very common; warning about them would cause more annoyance than good.

- Warning when a non-void function value is ignored.
  Coming as I do from a Lisp background, I balk at the idea that there is something dangerous about discarding a value. There are functions that return values which some callers may find useful; it makes no sense to clutter the program with a cast to `void` whenever the value isn’t useful.

- Making ‘-fshort enums’ the default.
  This would cause storage layout to be incompatible with most other C compilers. And it doesn’t seem very important, given that you can get the same result in other ways. The case where it matters most is when the enumeration-valued object is inside a structure, and in that case you can specify a field width explicitly.

- Making bit-fields unsigned by default on particular machines where “the ABI standard” says to do so.
  The ISO C standard leaves it up to the implementation whether a bit-field declared plain `int` is signed or not. This in effect creates two alternative dialects of C. The GNU C compiler supports both dialects; you can specify the signed dialect with ‘-fsigned-bitfields’ and the unsigned dialect with ‘-funsigned-bitfields’. However, this leaves open the question of which dialect to use by default.
  Currently, the preferred dialect makes plain bit-fields signed, because this is simplest. Since `int` is the same as `signed int` in every other context, it is cleanest for them to be the same in bit-fields as well.

Some computer manufacturers have published Application Binary Interface standards which specify that plain bit-fields should be unsigned. It is a mistake, however, to say anything about this issue in an ABI. This is because the handling of plain bit-fields distinguishes two dialects of C. Both dialects are meaningful on every type of machine. Whether a particular object file was compiled using signed bit-fields or unsigned is of no concern to other object files, even if they access the same bit-fields in the same data structures.

A given program is written in one or the other of these two dialects. The program stands a chance to work on most any machine if it is compiled with the proper dialect. It is unlikely to work at all if compiled with the wrong dialect.

Many users appreciate the GNU C compiler because it provides an environment that is uniform across machines. These users would be inconvenienced if the compiler treated plain bit-fields differently on certain machines.

Occasionally users write programs intended only for a particular machine type. On these occasions, the users would benefit if the GNU C compiler were to support by default the same dialect as the other compilers on that machine. But such applications are rare. And users writing a program to run on more than one type of machine cannot possibly benefit from this kind of compatibility.

This is why GCC does and will treat plain bit-fields in the same fashion on all types of machines (by default).

There are some arguments for making bit-fields unsigned by default on all machines. If, for example, this becomes a universal de facto standard, it would make sense for GCC to go along with it. This is something to be considered in the future.
(Of course, users strongly concerned about portability should indicate explicitly in each bit-field whether it is signed or not. In this way, they write programs which have the same meaning in both C dialects.)

- Undefining \_\_STDC\_\_ when `-ansi` is not used.

Currently, GCC defines \_\_STDC\_\_ as long as you don’t use `-traditional`. This provides good results in practice.

Programmers normally use conditionals on \_\_STDC\_\_ to ask whether it is safe to use certain features of ISO C, such as function prototypes or ISO token concatenation. Since plain gcc supports all the features of ISO C, the correct answer to these questions is “yes”.

Some users try to use \_\_STDC\_\_ to check for the availability of certain library facilities. This is actually incorrect usage in an ISO C program, because the ISO C standard says that a conforming freestanding implementation should define \_\_STDC\_\_ even though it does not have the library facilities. `gcc -ansi -pedantic` is a conforming freestanding implementation, and it is therefore required to define \_\_STDC\_\_, even though it does not come with an ISO C library.

Sometimes people say that defining \_\_STDC\_\_ in a compiler that does not completely conform to the ISO C standard somehow violates the standard. This is illogical. The standard is a standard for compilers that claim to support ISO C, such as `gcc -ansi`—not for other compilers such as plain gcc. Whatever the ISO C standard says is relevant to the design of plain gcc without `-ansi` only for pragmatic reasons, not as a requirement.

GCC normally defines \_\_STDC\_\_ to be 1, and in addition defines \_\_STRICT_ANSI\_\_ if you specify the `-ansi` option, or a `-std` option for strict conformance to some version of ISO C. On some hosts, system include files use a different convention, where \_\_STDC\_\_ is normally 0, but is 1 if the user specifies strict conformance to the C Standard. GCC follows the host convention when processing system include files, but when processing user files it follows the usual GNU C convention.

- Undefining \_\_STDC\_\_ in C++.

Programs written to compile with C++-to-C translators get the value of \_\_STDC\_\_ that goes with the C compiler that is subsequently used. These programs must test \_\_STDC\_\_ to determine what kind of C preprocessor that compiler uses: whether they should concatenate tokens in the ISO C fashion or in the traditional fashion.

These programs work properly with GNU C++ if \_\_STDC\_\_ is defined. They would not work otherwise.

In addition, many header files are written to provide prototypes in ISO C but not in traditional C. Many of these header files can work without change in C++ provided \_\_STDC\_\_ is defined. If \_\_STDC\_\_ is not defined, they will all fail, and will all need to be changed to test explicitly for C++ as well.

- Deleting “empty” loops.

Historically, GCC has not deleted “empty” loops under the assumption that the most likely reason you would put one in a program is to have a delay, so deleting them will not make real programs run any faster.

However, the rationale here is that optimization of a nonempty loop cannot produce an empty one, which holds for C but is not always the case for C++.

Moreover, with `-funroll-loops` small “empty” loops are already removed, so the current behavior is both sub-optimal and inconsistent and will change in the future.

- Making side effects happen in the same order as in some other compiler.

It is never safe to depend on the order of evaluation of side effects. For example, a function call like this may very well behave differently from one compiler to another:

```c
void func (int, int);
```
int i = 2;
func (i++, i++);

There is no guarantee (in either the C or the C++ standard language definitions) that the increments will be evaluated in any particular order. Either increment might happen first. func might get the arguments ‘2, 3’, or it might get ‘3, 2’, or even ‘2, 2’.

- Not allowing structures with volatile fields in registers.
  Strictly speaking, there is no prohibition in the ISO C standard against allowing structures with volatile fields in registers, but it does not seem to make any sense and is probably not what you wanted to do. So the compiler will give an error message in this case.

- Making certain warnings into errors by default.
  Some ISO C testsuites report failure when the compiler does not produce an error message for a certain program.
  ISO C requires a “diagnostic” message for certain kinds of invalid programs, but a warning is defined by GCC to count as a diagnostic. If GCC produces a warning but not an error, that is correct ISO C support. If test suites call this “failure”, they should be run with the GCC option ‘-pedantic-errors’, which will turn these warnings into errors.

### 9.12 Warning Messages and Error Messages

The GNU compiler can produce two kinds of diagnostics: errors and warnings. Each kind has a different purpose:

**Errors** report problems that make it impossible to compile your program. GCC reports errors with the source file name and line number where the problem is apparent.

**Warnings** report other unusual conditions in your code that may indicate a problem, although compilation can (and does) proceed. Warning messages also report the source file name and line number, but include the text ‘warning:’ to distinguish them from error messages.

Warnings may indicate danger points where you should check to make sure that your program really does what you intend; or the use of obsolete features; or the use of nonstandard features of GNU C or C++. Many warnings are issued only if you ask for them, with one of the ‘-W’ options (for instance, ‘-Wall’ requests a variety of useful warnings).

GCC always tries to compile your program if possible; it never gratuitously rejects a program whose meaning is clear merely because (for instance) it fails to conform to a standard. In some cases, however, the C and C++ standards specify that certain extensions are forbidden, and a diagnostic must be issued by a conforming compiler. The ‘-pedantic’ option tells GCC to issue warnings in such cases: ‘-pedantic-errors’ says to make them errors instead. This does not mean that all non-ISO constructs get warnings or errors.

See Section 3.8 [Options to Request or Suppress Warnings], page 22, for more detail on these and related command-line options.
10 Reporting Bugs

Your bug reports play an essential role in making GCC reliable.

When you encounter a problem, the first thing to do is to see if it is already known. See Chapter 9 [Trouble], page 187. If it isn’t known, then you should report the problem.

Reporting a bug may help you by bringing a solution to your problem, or it may not. (If it does not, look in the service directory; see Chapter 11 [Service], page 209.) In any case, the principal function of a bug report is to help the entire community by making the next version of GCC work better. Bug reports are your contribution to the maintenance of GCC.

Since the maintainers are very overloaded, we cannot respond to every bug report. However, if the bug has not been fixed, we are likely to send you a patch and ask you to tell us whether it works.

In order for a bug report to serve its purpose, you must include the information that makes for fixing the bug.

10.1 Have You Found a Bug?

If you are not sure whether you have found a bug, here are some guidelines:

- If the compiler gets a fatal signal, for any input whatever, that is a compiler bug. Reliable compilers never crash.
- If the compiler produces invalid assembly code, for any input whatever (except an `asm` statement), that is a compiler bug, unless the compiler reports errors (not just warnings) which would ordinarily prevent the assembler from being run.
- If the compiler produces valid assembly code that does not correctly execute the input source code, that is a compiler bug.

However, you must double-check to make sure, because you may have run into an incompatibility between GNU C and traditional C (see Section 9.5 [Incompatibilities], page 191). These incompatibilities might be considered bugs, but they are inescapable consequences of valuable features.

Or you may have a program whose behavior is undefined, which happened by chance to give the desired results with another C or C++ compiler.

For example, in many nonoptimizing compilers, you can write ‘x;’ at the end of a function instead of `return x;’, with the same results. But the value of the function is undefined if `return` is omitted; it is not a bug when GCC produces different results.

Problems often result from expressions with two increment operators, as in `f (*p++, *p++)`. Your previous compiler might have interpreted that expression the way you intended; GCC might interpret it another way. Neither compiler is wrong. The bug is in your code.

After you have localized the error to a single source line, it should be easy to check for these things. If your program is correct and well defined, you have found a compiler bug.

- If the compiler produces an error message for valid input, that is a compiler bug.
- If the compiler does not produce an error message for invalid input, that is a compiler bug. However, you should note that your idea of “invalid input” might be my idea of “an extension” or “support for traditional practice”.
- If you are an experienced user of one of the languages GCC supports, your suggestions for improvement of GCC are welcome in any case.
10.2 Where to Report Bugs

Send bug reports for the GNU Compiler Collection to gcc-bugs@gcc.gnu.org. In accordance with the GNU-wide convention, in which bug reports for tool “foo” are sent to ‘bug-foo@gnu.org’, the address bug-gcc@gnu.org may also be used; it will forward to the address given above.

Please read http://gcc.gnu.org/bugs.html for additional and/or more up-to-date bug reporting instructions before you post a bug report.

10.3 How to Report Bugs

The fundamental principle of reporting bugs usefully is this: report all the facts. If you are not sure whether to state a fact or leave it out, state it!

Often people omit facts because they think they know what causes the problem and they conclude that some details don’t matter. Thus, you might assume that the name of the variable you use in an example does not matter. Well, probably it doesn’t, but one cannot be sure. Perhaps the bug is a stray memory reference which happens to fetch from the location where that name is stored in memory; perhaps, if the name were different, the contents of that location would fool the compiler into doing the right thing despite the bug. Play it safe and give a specific, complete example. That is the easiest thing for you to do, and the most helpful.

Keep in mind that the purpose of a bug report is to enable someone to fix the bug if it is not known. It isn’t very important what happens if the bug is already known. Therefore, always write your bug reports on the assumption that the bug is not known.

Sometimes people give a few sketchy facts and ask, “Does this ring a bell?” This cannot help us fix a bug, so it is basically useless. We respond by asking for enough details to enable us to investigate. You might as well expedite matters by sending them to begin with.

Try to make your bug report self-contained. If we have to ask you for more information, it is best if you include all the previous information in your response, as well as the information that was missing.

Please report each bug in a separate message. This makes it easier for us to track which bugs have been fixed and to forward your bug reports to the appropriate maintainer.

To enable someone to investigate the bug, you should include all these things:

• The version of GCC. You can get this by running it with the ‘-v’ option.

Without this, we won’t know whether there is any point in looking for the bug in the current version of GCC.

• A complete input file that will reproduce the bug. If the bug is in the C preprocessor, send a source file and any header files that it requires. If the bug is in the compiler proper (‘cc1’), send the preprocessor output generated by adding ‘-save-temps’ to the compilation command (see Section 3.9 [Debugging Options], page 32). When you do this, use the same ‘-I’, ‘-D’ or ‘-U’ options that you used in actual compilation. Then send the input.i or input.ii files generated.

A single statement is not enough of an example. In order to compile it, it must be embedded in a complete file of compiler input; and the bug might depend on the details of how this is done.

Without a real example one can compile, all anyone can do about your bug report is wish you luck. It would be futile to try to guess how to provoke the bug. For example, bugs in register allocation and reloading frequently depend on every little detail of the function they happen in.

Even if the input file that fails comes from a GNU program, you should still send the complete test case. Don’t ask the GCC maintainers to do the extra work of obtaining the
program in question—they are all overworked as it is. Also, the problem may depend on what is in the header files on your system: it is unreliable for the GCC maintainers to try the problem with the header files available to them. By sending CPP output, you can eliminate this source of uncertainty and save us a certain percentage of wild goose chases.

- The command arguments you gave GCC to compile that example and observe the bug. For example, did you use `-O`? To guarantee you won’t omit something important, list all the options.

  If we were to try to guess the arguments, we would probably guess wrong and then we would not encounter the bug.

- The type of machine you are using, and the operating system name and version number.

- The operands you gave to the `configure` command when you installed the compiler.

- A complete list of any modifications you have made to the compiler source. (We don’t promise to investigate the bug unless it happens in an unmodified compiler. But if you’ve made modifications and don’t tell us, then you are sending us on a wild goose chase.)

  Be precise about these changes. A description in English is not enough—send a context diff for them.

  Adding files of your own (such as a machine description for a machine we don’t support) is a modification of the compiler source.

- Details of any other deviations from the standard procedure for installing GCC.

- A description of what behavior you observe that you believe is incorrect. For example, “The compiler gets a fatal signal,” or, “The assembler instruction at line 208 in the output is incorrect.”

  Of course, if the bug is that the compiler gets a fatal signal, then one can’t miss it. But if the bug is incorrect output, the maintainer might not notice unless it is glaringly wrong.

  None of us has time to study all the assembler code from a 50-line C program just on the chance that one instruction might be wrong. We need you to do this part!

  Even if the problem you experience is a fatal signal, you should still say so explicitly. Suppose something strange is going on, such as, your copy of the compiler is out of synch, or you have encountered a bug in the C library on your system. (This has happened!) Your copy might crash and the copy here would not. If you said to expect a crash, then when the compiler here fails to crash, we would know that the bug was not happening. If you don’t say to expect a crash, then we would not know whether the bug was happening. We would not be able to draw any conclusion from our observations.

  If the problem is a diagnostic when compiling GCC with some other compiler, say whether it is a warning or an error.

  Often the observed symptom is incorrect output when your program is run. Sad to say, this is not enough information unless the program is short and simple. None of us has time to study a large program to figure out how it would work if compiled correctly, much less which line of it was compiled wrong. So you will have to do that. Tell us which source line it is, and what incorrect result happens when that line is executed. A person who understands the program can find this as easily as finding a bug in the program itself.

- If you send examples of assembler code output from GCC, please use `-g` when you make them. The debugging information includes source line numbers which are essential for correlating the output with the input.

- If you wish to mention something in the GCC source, refer to it by context, not by line number.

  The line numbers in the development sources don’t match those in your sources. Your line numbers would convey no useful information to the maintainers.

- Additional information from a debugger might enable someone to find a problem on a machine which he does not have available. However, you need to think when you collect this information if you want it to have any chance of being useful.
For example, many people send just a backtrace, but that is never useful by itself. A simple backtrace with arguments conveys little about GCC because the compiler is largely data-driven; the same functions are called over and over for different RTL insns, doing different things depending on the details of the insn.

Most of the arguments listed in the backtrace are useless because they are pointers to RTL list structure. The numeric values of the pointers, which the debugger prints in the backtrace, have no significance whatever; all that matters is the contents of the objects they point to (and most of the contents are other such pointers).

In addition, most compiler passes consist of one or more loops that scan the RTL insn sequence. The most vital piece of information about such a loop—which insn it has reached—is usually in a local variable, not in an argument.

What you need to provide in addition to a backtrace are the values of the local variables for several stack frames up. When a local variable or an argument is an RTX, first print its value and then use the GDB command `pr` to print the RTL expression that it points to. (If GDB doesn’t run on your machine, use your debugger to call the function `debug_rtx` with the RTX as an argument.) In general, whenever a variable is a pointer, its value is no use without the data it points to.

Here are some things that are not necessary:

- A description of the envelope of the bug.
  
  Often people who encounter a bug spend a lot of time investigating which changes to the input file will make the bug go away and which changes will not affect it.

  This is often time consuming and not very useful, because the way we will find the bug is by running a single example under the debugger with breakpoints, not by pure deduction from a series of examples. You might as well save your time for something else.

  Of course, if you can find a simpler example to report instead of the original one, that is a convenience. Errors in the output will be easier to spot, running under the debugger will take less time, etc. Most GCC bugs involve just one function, so the most straightforward way to simplify an example is to delete all the function definitions except the one where the bug occurs. Those earlier in the file may be replaced by external declarations if the crucial function depends on them. (Exception: inline functions may affect compilation of functions defined later in the file.)

  However, simplification is not vital; if you don’t want to do this, report the bug anyway and send the entire test case you used.

- In particular, some people insert conditionals ‘#ifdef BUG’ around a statement which, if removed, makes the bug not happen. These are just clutter; we won’t pay any attention to them anyway. Besides, you should send us cpp output, and that can’t have conditionals.

- A patch for the bug.

  A patch for the bug is useful if it is a good one. But don’t omit the necessary information, such as the test case, on the assumption that a patch is all we need. We might see problems with your patch and decide to fix the problem another way, or we might not understand it at all.

  Sometimes with a program as complicated as GCC it is very hard to construct an example that will make the program follow a certain path through the code. If you don’t send the example, we won’t be able to construct one, so we won’t be able to verify that the bug is fixed.

  And if we can’t understand what bug you are trying to fix, or why your patch should be an improvement, we won’t install it. A test case will help us to understand.

  See Section 10.5 [Sending Patches], page 207, for guidelines on how to make it easy for us to understand and install your patches.
• A guess about what the bug is or what it depends on.
  Such guesses are usually wrong. Even I can’t guess right about such things without first
  using the debugger to find the facts.
• A core dump file.
  We have no way of examining a core dump for your type of machine unless we have an
  identical system—and if we do have one, we should be able to reproduce the crash ourselves.

10.4 The gccbug script

To simplify creation of bug reports, and to allow better tracking of reports, we use the GNATS
bug tracking system. Part of that system is the gccbug script. This is a Unix shell script, so
you need a shell to run it. It is normally installed in the same directory where gcc is installed.

The gccbug script is derived from send-pr, see section “Creating new Problem Reports” in
Reporting Problems. When invoked, it starts a text editor so you can fill out the various fields of
the report. When the you quit the editor, the report is automatically send to the bug reporting
address.

A number of fields in this bug report form are specific to GCC, and are explained at

10.5 Sending Patches for GCC

If you would like to write bug fixes or improvements for the GNU C compiler, that is very
helpful. Send suggested fixes to the patches mailing list, gcc-patches@gcc.gnu.org.

Please follow these guidelines so we can study your patches efficiently. If you don’t follow these
guidelines, your information might still be useful, but using it will take extra work. Maintaining
GNU C is a lot of work in the best of circumstances, and we can’t keep up unless you do your
best to help.
• Send an explanation with your changes of what problem they fix or what improvement they
  bring about. For a bug fix, just include a copy of the bug report, and explain why the
  change fixes the bug.
  (Referring to a bug report is not as good as including it, because then we will have to look
  it up, and we have probably already deleted it if we’ve already fixed the bug.)
• Always include a proper bug report for the problem you think you have fixed. We need to
  convince ourselves that the change is right before installing it. Even if it is right, we might
  have trouble judging it if we don’t have a way to reproduce the problem.
• Include all the comments that are appropriate to help people reading the source in the
  future understand why this change was needed.
• Don’t mix together changes made for different reasons. Send them individually.
If you make two changes for separate reasons, then we might not want to install them both.
We might want to install just one. If you send them all jumbled together in a single set
of diffs, we have to do extra work to disentangle them—to figure out which parts of the
change serve which purpose. If we don’t have time for this, we might have to ignore your
changes entirely.
If you send each change as soon as you have written it, with its own explanation, then the
two changes never get tangled up, and we can consider each one properly without any extra
work to disentangle them.
Ideally, each change you send should be impossible to subdivide into parts that we might
want to consider separately, because each of its parts gets its motivation from the other
parts.
• Send each change as soon as that change is finished. Sometimes people think they are helping us by accumulating many changes to send them all together. As explained above, this is absolutely the worst thing you could do.
  Since you should send each change separately, you might as well send it right away. That gives us the option of installing it immediately if it is important.

• Use `diff -c` to make your diffs. Diffs without context are hard for us to install reliably. More than that, they make it hard for us to study the diffs to decide whether we want to install them. Unidiff format is better than contextless diffs, but not as easy to read as `–c` format.
  If you have GNU diff, use `diff -cp`, which shows the name of the function that each change occurs in.

• Write the change log entries for your changes. We get lots of changes, and we don’t have time to do all the change log writing ourselves.
  Read the `<ChangeLog>` file to see what sorts of information to put in, and to learn the style that we use. The purpose of the change log is to show people where to find what was changed. So you need to be specific about what functions you changed; in large functions, it’s often helpful to indicate where within the function the change was.
  On the other hand, once you have shown people where to find the change, you need not explain its purpose. Thus, if you add a new function, all you need to say about it is that it is new. If you feel that the purpose needs explaining, it probably does—but the explanation will be much more useful if you put it in comments in the code.
  If you would like your name to appear in the header line for who made the change, send us the header line.

• When you write the fix, keep in mind that we can’t install a change that would break other systems.
  People often suggest fixing a problem by changing machine-independent files such as `<toplev.c>` to do something special that a particular system needs. Sometimes it is totally obvious that such changes would break GCC for almost all users. We can’t possibly make a change like that. At best it might tell us how to write another patch that would solve the problem acceptably.
  Sometimes people send fixes that might be an improvement in general—but it is hard to be sure of this. It’s hard to install such changes because we have to study them very carefully. Of course, a good explanation of the reasoning by which you concluded the change was correct can help convince us.
  The safest changes are changes to the configuration files for a particular machine. These are safe because they can’t create new bugs on other machines.
  Please help us keep up with the workload by designing the patch in a form that is good to install.
Chapter 11: How To Get Help with GCC

11 How To Get Help with GCC

If you need help installing, using or changing GCC, there are two ways to find it:

- Send a message to a suitable network mailing list. First try gcc-help@gcc.gnu.org (for help installing or using GCC), and if that brings no response, try gcc@gcc.gnu.org. For help changing GCC, ask gcc@gcc.gnu.org. If you think you have found a bug in GCC, please report it following the instructions at see Section 10.3 [Bug Reporting], page 204.

- Look in the service directory for someone who might help you for a fee. The service directory is found at http://www.gnu.org/prep/service.html.
12 Contributing to GCC Development

If you would like to help pretest GCC releases to assure they work well, our current development sources are available by CVS (see http://gcc.gnu.org/cvs.html). Source and binary snapshots are also available for FTP; see http://gcc.gnu.org/snapshots.html.

If you would like to work on improvements to GCC, please read http://gcc.gnu.org/contribute.html and http://gcc.gnu.org/contributewhy.html for information on how to make useful contributions and avoid duplication of effort. Suggested projects are listed at http://gcc.gnu.org/projects/.
13 Using GCC on VMS

Here is how to use GCC on VMS.

13.1 Include Files and VMS

Due to the differences between the filesystems of Unix and VMS, GCC attempts to translate file names in ‘#include’ into names that VMS will understand. The basic strategy is to prepend a prefix to the specification of the include file, convert the whole filename to a VMS filename, and then try to open the file. GCC tries various prefixes one by one until one of them succeeds:

1. The first prefix is the ‘GNU_CC_INCLUDE:’ logical name: this is where GNU C header files are traditionally stored. If you wish to store header files in non-standard locations, then you can assign the logical ‘GNU_CC_INCLUDE’ to be a search list, where each element of the list is suitable for use with a rooted logical.

2. The next prefix tried is ‘SYS$SYSROOT:[SYSLIB.]’. This is where VAX-C header files are traditionally stored.

3. If the include file specification by itself is a valid VMS filename, the preprocessor then uses this name with no prefix in an attempt to open the include file.

4. If the file specification is not a valid VMS filename (i.e. does not contain a device or a directory specifier, and contains a ‘/’ character), the preprocessor tries to convert it from Unix syntax to VMS syntax.

Conversion works like this: the first directory name becomes a device, and the rest of the directories are converted into VMS-format directory names. For example, the name ‘X11/foobar.h’ is translated to ‘X11:[000000]foobar.h’ or ‘X11:foobar.h’, whichever one can be opened. This strategy allows you to assign a logical name to point to the actual location of the header files.

5. If none of these strategies succeeds, the ‘#include’ fails.

Include directives of the form:

```
#include foobar
```

are a common source of incompatibility between VAX-C and GCC. VAX-C treats this much like a standard `#include <foobar.h>` directive. That is incompatible with the ISO C behavior implemented by GCC: to expand the name `foobar` as a macro. Macro expansion should eventually yield one of the two standard formats for `#include`:

```
#include "file"
#include <file>
```

If you have this problem, the best solution is to modify the source to convert the `#include` directives to one of the two standard forms. That will work with either compiler. If you want a quick and dirty fix, define the file names as macros with the proper expansion, like this:

```
#define stdio <stdio.h>
```

This will work, as long as the name doesn’t conflict with anything else in the program.

Another source of incompatibility is that VAX-C assumes that:

```
#include "foobar"
```

is actually asking for the file ‘foobar.h’. GCC does not make this assumption, and instead takes what you ask for literally; it tries to read the file ‘foobar’. The best way to avoid this problem is to always specify the desired file extension in your include directives.

GCC for VMS is distributed with a set of include files that is sufficient to compile most general purpose programs. Even though the GCC distribution does not contain header files to define constants and structures for some VMS system-specific functions, there is no reason why you cannot use GCC with any of these functions. You first may have to generate or create
header files, either by using the public domain utility UNSDL (which can be found on a DECUS tape), or by extracting the relevant modules from one of the system macro libraries, and using an editor to construct a C header file.

A #include file name cannot contain a DECNET node name. The preprocessor reports an I/O error if you attempt to use a node name, whether explicitly, or implicitly via a logical name.

13.2 Global Declarations and VMS

GCC does not provide the globalref, globaldef and globalvalue keywords of VAX-C. You can get the same effect with an obscure feature of GAS, the GNU assembler. (This requires GAS version 1.39 or later.) The following macros allow you to use this feature in a fairly natural way:

```c
#ifdef __GNUC__
#define GLOBALREF(TYPE,NAME)  
   TYPE NAME 
   asm ("_$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALSYMBOL$$" #NAME)  
#define GLOBALDEF(TYPE,NAME,VALUE) 
   TYPE NAME 
   asm ("_$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALSYMBOL$$" #NAME) 
   = VALUE 
#define GLOBALVALUEDEF(TYPE,NAME,VALUE)  
   const TYPE NAME[1] 
   asm ("_$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALVALUE$$" #NAME) 
#define GLOBALVALUEREF(TYPE,NAME)  
const TYPE NAME[1]  
asm ("_$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALVALUE$$" #NAME) 
#define GLOBALVALUEDEF(TYPE,NAME,VALUE)  
   const TYPE NAME[1]  
   asm ("_$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALVALUE$$" #NAME) 
   = {VALUE}
#else
#define GLOBALREF(TYPE,NAME) 
   globalref TYPE NAME 
#define GLOBALDEF(TYPE,NAME,VALUE) 
   globaldef TYPE NAME = VALUE 
#define GLOBALVALUEDEF(TYPE,NAME,VALUE) 
   globalvalue TYPE NAME = VALUE 
#define GLOBALVALUEREF(TYPE,NAME) 
   globalvalue TYPE NAME 
#endif
```

(The _$$PsectAttributes_GLOBALSYMBOL prefix at the start of the name is removed by the assembler, after it has modified the attributes of the symbol). These macros are provided in the VMS binaries distribution in a header file ‘GNU_HACKS.H’. An example of the usage is:

```
GLOBALREF (int, ijk);
GLOBALDEF (int, jkl, 0);
```

The macros GLOBALREF and GLOBALDEF cannot be used straightforwardly for arrays, since there is no way to insert the array dimension into the declaration at the right place. However, you can declare an array with these macros if you first define a typedef for the array type, like this:

```
typedef int intvector[10];
GLOBALREF (intvector, foo);
```

Array and structure initializers will also break the macros; you can define the initializer to be a macro of its own, or you can expand the GLOBALDEF macro by hand. You may find a case
where you wish to use the `GLOBALDEF` macro with a large array, but you are not interested in explicitly initializing each element of the array. In such cases you can use an initializer like: `{0,}` which will initialize the entire array to 0.

A shortcoming of this implementation is that a variable declared with `GLOBALVALUEREF` or `GLOBALVALUEDEF` is always an array. For example, the declaration:

```
GLOBALVALUEREF(int, ijk);
```

declares the variable `ijk` as an array of type `int [1]`. This is done because a globalvalue is actually a constant; its “value” is what the linker would normally consider an address. That is not how an integer value works in C, but it is how an array works. So treating the symbol as an array name gives consistent results—with the exception that the value seems to have the wrong type. **Don’t try to access an element of the array.** It doesn’t have any elements. The array “address” may not be the address of actual storage.

The fact that the symbol is an array may lead to warnings where the variable is used. Insert type casts to avoid the warnings. Here is an example; it takes advantage of the ISO C feature allowing macros that expand to use the same name as the macro itself.

```
GLOBALVALUEREF (int, ss$$_normal);
GLOBALVALUEDEF (int, xyzzy,123);
#ifdef __GNUC__
#define ss$$_normal ((int) ss$$_normal)
#define xyzzy ((int) xyzzy)
#endif
```

Don’t use `globaldef` or `globalref` with a variable whose type is an enumeration type; this is not implemented. Instead, make the variable an integer, and use a `globalvaluedef` for each of the enumeration values. An example of this would be:

```
#ifdef __GNUC__
GLOBALDEF (int, color, 0);
GLOBALVALUEDEF (int, RED, 0);
GLOBALVALUEDEF (int, BLUE, 1);
GLOBALVALUEDEF (int, GREEN, 3);
#else
enum globaldef color {RED, BLUE, GREEN = 3};
#endif
```

### 13.3 Other VMS Issues

GCC automatically arranges for `main` to return 1 by default if you fail to specify an explicit return value. This will be interpreted by VMS as a status code indicating a normal successful completion. Version 1 of GCC did not provide this default.

GCC on VMS works only with the GNU assembler, GAS. You need version 1.37 or later of GAS in order to produce value debugging information for the VMS debugger. Use the ordinary VMS linker with the object files produced by GAS.

Under previous versions of GCC, the generated code would occasionally give strange results when linked to the sharable ‘VAXCRTL’ library. Now this should work.

A caveat for use of `const` global variables: the `const` modifier must be specified in every external declaration of the variable in all of the source files that use that variable. Otherwise the linker will issue warnings about conflicting attributes for the variable. Your program will still work despite the warnings, but the variable will be placed in writable storage.

Although the VMS linker does distinguish between upper and lower case letters in global symbols, most VMS compilers convert all such symbols into upper case and most run-time library routines also have upper case names. To be able to reliably call such routines, GCC (by
means of the assembler GAS) converts global symbols into upper case like other VMS compilers. However, since the usual practice in C is to distinguish case, GCC (via GAS) tries to preserve usual C behavior by augmenting each name that is not all lower case. This means truncating the name to at most 23 characters and then adding more characters at the end which encode the case pattern of those 23. Names which contain at least one dollar sign are an exception; they are converted directly into upper case without augmentation.

Name augmentation yields bad results for programs that use precompiled libraries (such as Xlib) which were generated by another compiler. You can use the compiler option `/NOCASE_HACK` to inhibit augmentation; it makes external C functions and variables case-independent as is usual on VMS. Alternatively, you could write all references to the functions and variables in such libraries using lower case; this will work on VMS, but is not portable to other systems. The compiler option `/NAMES` also provides control over global name handling.

Function and variable names are handled somewhat differently with GNU C++. The GNU C++ compiler performs name mangling on function names, which means that it adds information to the function name to describe the data types of the arguments that the function takes. One result of this is that the name of a function can become very long. Since the VMS linker only recognizes the first 31 characters in a name, special action is taken to ensure that each function and variable has a unique name that can be represented in 31 characters.

If the name (plus a name augmentation, if required) is less than 32 characters in length, then no special action is performed. If the name is longer than 31 characters, the assembler (GAS) will generate a hash string based upon the function name, truncate the function name to 23 characters, and append the hash string to the truncated name. If the `/VERBOSE` compiler option is used, the assembler will print both the full and truncated names of each symbol that is truncated.

The `/NOCASE_HACK` compiler option should not be used when you are compiling programs that use libg++. libg++ has several instances of objects (i.e. Filebuf and filebuf) which become indistinguishable in a case-insensitive environment. This leads to cases where you need to inhibit augmentation selectively (if you were using libg++ and Xlib in the same program, for example). There is no special feature for doing this, but you can get the result by defining a macro for each mixed case symbol for which you wish to inhibit augmentation. The macro should expand into the lower case equivalent of itself. For example:

```
#define StuDlyCapS studlycaps
```

These macro definitions can be placed in a header file to minimize the number of changes to your source code.
14 Makefile Targets

all This is the default target. Depending on what your build/host/target configuration is, it coordinates all the things that need to be built.

doc Produce info-formatted documentation. Also, make dvi is available for DVI-formatted documentation, and make generated-manpages to generate man pages.

mostlyclean Delete the files made while building the compiler.

clean That, and all the other files built by make all.

distclean That, and all the files created by configure.

extraclean That, and any temporary or intermediate files, like emacs backup files.

maintainer-clean Distclean plus any file that can be generated from other files. Note that additional tools may be required beyond what is normally needed to build gcc.

install Installs gcc.

uninstall Deletes installed files.

check Run the testsuite. This creates a ‘testsuite’ subdirectory that has various ‘.sum’ and ‘.log’ files containing the results of the testing. You can run subsets with, for example, make check-gcc. You can specify specific tests by setting RUNTEST-FLAGS to be the name of the ‘.exp’ file, optionally followed by (for some tests) an equals and a file wildcard, like:

   make check-gcc RUNTESTFLAGS="execute.exp=19980413-*"

Note that running the testsuite may require additional tools be installed, such as TCL or dejagnu.

bootstrap Builds gcc three times—once with the native compiler, once with the native-built compiler it just built, and once with the compiler it built the second time. In theory, the last two should produce the same results, which make compare can check. Each step of this process is called a “stage”, and the results of each stage $N (N = 1 . . . 3)$ are copied to a subdirectory ‘stageN’.

bootstrap-lean Like bootstrap, except that the various stages are removed once they’re no longer needed. This saves disk space.

bubblestrap Once bootstrapped, this incrementally rebuilds each of the three stages, one at a time. It does this by “bubbling” the stages up from their subdirectories, rebuilding them, and copying them back to their subdirectories. This will allow you to, for example, quickly rebuild a bootstrapped compiler after changing the sources, without having to do a full bootstrap.

quickstrap Rebuilds the most recently built stage. Since each stage requires special invocation, using this target means you don’t have to keep track of which stage you’re on or what invocation that stage needs.
cleanstrap
   Removed everything (make clean) and rebuilds (make bootstrap).

stage\(N\) \((N = 1\ldots4)\)
   For each stage, moves the appropriate files to the ‘stage\(N\)’ subdirectory.

unstage\(N\) \((N = 1\ldots4)\)
   Undoes the corresponding stage\(N\).

restage\(N\) \((N = 1\ldots4)\)
   Undoes the corresponding stage\(N\) and rebuilds it with the appropriate flags.

compare
   Compares the results of stages 2 and 3. This ensures that the compiler is running properly, since it should produce the same object files regardless of how it itself was compiled.
15 GCC and Portability

The main goal of GCC was to make a good, fast compiler for machines in the class that the GNU system aims to run on: 32-bit machines that address 8-bit bytes and have several general registers. Elegance, theoretical power and simplicity are only secondary.

GCC gets most of the information about the target machine from a machine description which gives an algebraic formula for each of the machine’s instructions. This is a very clean way to describe the target. But when the compiler needs information that is difficult to express in this fashion, I have not hesitated to define an ad-hoc parameter to the machine description. The purpose of portability is to reduce the total work needed on the compiler; it was not of interest for its own sake.

GCC does not contain machine dependent code, but it does contain code that depends on machine parameters such as endianness (whether the most significant byte has the highest or lowest address of the bytes in a word) and the availability of autoincrement addressing. In the RTL-generation pass, it is often necessary to have multiple strategies for generating code for a particular kind of syntax tree, strategies that are usable for different combinations of parameters. Often I have not tried to address all possible cases, but only the common ones or only the ones that I have encountered. As a result, a new target may require additional strategies. You will know if this happens because the compiler will call `abort`. Fortunately, the new strategies can be added in a machine-independent fashion, and will affect only the target machines that need them.
16 Interfacing to GCC Output

GCC is normally configured to use the same function calling convention normally in use on the target system. This is done with the machine-description macros described (see Chapter 21 [Target Macros], page 349).

However, returning of structure and union values is done differently on some target machines. As a result, functions compiled with PCC returning such types cannot be called from code compiled with GCC, and vice versa. This does not cause trouble often because few Unix library routines return structures or unions.

GCC code returns structures and unions that are 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes long in the same registers used for int or double return values. (GCC typically allocates variables of such types in registers also.) Structures and unions of other sizes are returned by storing them into an address passed by the caller (usually in a register). The machine-description macros STRUCT_VALUE and STRUCT_INCOMING_VALUE tell GCC where to pass this address.

By contrast, PCC on most target machines returns structures and unions of any size by copying the data into an area of static storage, and then returning the address of that storage as if it were a pointer value. The caller must copy the data from that memory area to the place where the value is wanted. This is slower than the method used by GCC, and fails to be reentrant.

On some target machines, such as RISC machines and the 80386, the standard system convention is to pass to the subroutine the address of where to return the value. On these machines, GCC has been configured to be compatible with the standard compiler, when this method is used. It may not be compatible for structures of 1, 2, 4 or 8 bytes.

GCC uses the system’s standard convention for passing arguments. On some machines, the first few arguments are passed in registers; in others, all are passed on the stack. It would be possible to use registers for argument passing on any machine, and this would probably result in a significant speedup. But the result would be complete incompatibility with code that follows the standard convention. So this change is practical only if you are switching to GCC as the sole C compiler for the system. We may implement register argument passing on certain machines once we have a complete GNU system so that we can compile the libraries with GCC.

On some machines (particularly the Sparc), certain types of arguments are passed “by invisible reference”. This means that the value is stored in memory, and the address of the memory location is passed to the subroutine.

If you use longjmp, beware of automatic variables. ISO C says that automatic variables that are not declared volatile have undefined values after a longjmp. And this is all GCC promises to do, because it is very difficult to restore register variables correctly, and one of GCC’s features is that it can put variables in registers without your asking it to.

If you want a variable to be unaltered by longjmp, and you don’t want to write volatile because old C compilers don’t accept it, just take the address of the variable. If a variable’s address is ever taken, even if just to compute it and ignore it, then the variable cannot go in a register:

```c
{
  int careful;
  &careful;
  ...
}
```

Code compiled with GCC may call certain library routines. Most of them handle arithmetic for which there are no instructions. This includes multiply and divide on some machines, and floating point operations on any machine for which floating point support is disabled with ‘-msoft-float’. Some standard parts of the C library, such as bcopy or memcpy, are also called automatically. The usual function call interface is used for calling the library routines.
These library routines should be defined in the library ‘libgcc.a’, which GCC automatically searches whenever it links a program. On machines that have multiply and divide instructions, if hardware floating point is in use, normally ‘libgcc.a’ is not needed, but it is searched just in case.

Each arithmetic function is defined in ‘libgcc1.c’ to use the corresponding C arithmetic operator. As long as the file is compiled with another C compiler, which supports all the C arithmetic operators, this file will work portably. However, ‘libgcc1.c’ does not work if compiled with GCC, because each arithmetic function would compile into a call to itself!
Chapter 17: Passes and Files of the Compiler

17 Passes and Files of the Compiler

The overall control structure of the compiler is in ‘toplev.c’. This file is responsible for initialization, decoding arguments, opening and closing files, and sequencing the passes.

The parsing pass is invoked only once, to parse the entire input. A high level tree representation is then generated from the input, one function at a time. This tree code is then transformed into RTL intermediate code, and processed. The files involved in transforming the trees into RTL are ‘expr.c’, ‘expmed.c’, and ‘stmt.c’. The order of trees that are processed, is not necessarily the same order they are generated from the input, due to deferred inlining, and other considerations.

Each time the parsing pass reads a complete function definition or top-level declaration, it calls either the function rest_of_compilation, or the function rest_of_decl_compilation in ‘toplev.c’, which are responsible for all further processing necessary, ending with output of the assembler language. All other compiler passes run, in sequence, within rest_of_compilation. When that function returns from compiling a function definition, the storage used for that function definition’s compilation is entirely freed, unless it is an inline function, or was deferred for some reason (this can occur in templates, for example). (see Section 5.35 [An Inline Function is As Fast As a Macro], page 151).

Here is a list of all the passes of the compiler and their source files. Also included is a description of where debugging dumps can be requested with ‘-d’ options.

• Parsing. This pass reads the entire text of a function definition, constructing a high level tree representation.

The tree representation does not entirely follow C syntax, because it is intended to support other languages as well.

Language-specific data type analysis is also done in this pass, and every tree node that represents an expression has a data type attached. Variables are represented as declaration nodes.

The language-independent source files for parsing are ‘stor-layout.c’, ‘fold-const.c’, and ‘tree.c’. There are also header files ‘tree.h’ and ‘tree.def’ which define the format of the tree representation.

C Preprocessing, for language front ends, that want or require it, is performed by cpplib, which is covered in separate documentation. In particular, the internals are covered in See section “Cpplib internals” in Cpplib Internals.

The source files to parse C are ‘c-parse.in’, ‘c-decl.c’, ‘c-typeck.c’, ‘c-aux-info.c’, ‘c-convert.c’, and ‘c-lang.c’ along with header files ‘c-lex.h’, and ‘c-tree.h’.


The special source files for parsing Objective C are in ‘objc/’. They are ‘objc-parse.y’, ‘objc-act.c’, ‘objc-tree.def’, and ‘objc-act.h’. Certain C-specific files are used for this as well.

The file ‘c-common.c’ is also used for all of the above languages.

• Tree optimization. This is the optimization of the tree representation, before converting into RTL code.

Currently, the main optimization performed here is tree-based inlining. This is implemented for C++ in ‘cp/optimize.c’. Note that tree based inlining turns off rtx based inlining (since it’s more powerful, it would be a waste of time to do rtx based inlining in addition). The C front end currently does not perform tree based inlining.
Constant folding and some arithmetic simplifications are also done during this pass, on the tree representation. The routines that perform these tasks are located in ‘fold-const.c’.

- **RTL generation.** This is the conversion of syntax tree into RTL code.

  This is where the bulk of target-parameter-dependent code is found, since often it is necessary for strategies to apply only when certain standard kinds of instructions are available. The purpose of named instruction patterns is to provide this information to the RTL generation pass.

  Optimization is done in this pass for if-conditions that are comparisons, boolean operations or conditional expressions. Tail recursion is detected at this time also. Decisions are made about how best to arrange loops and how to output switch statements.

  The source files for RTL generation include ‘stmt.c’, ‘calls.c’, ‘expr.c’, ‘explow.c’, ‘expmed.c’, ‘function.c’, ‘optabs.c’ and ‘emit-rtl.c’. Also, the file ‘insn-emit.c’, generated from the machine description by the program genemit, is used in this pass. The header file ‘expr.h’ is used for communication within this pass.

  The header files ‘insn-flags.h’ and ‘insn-codes.h’, generated from the machine description by the programs genflags and gencodes, tell this pass which standard names are available for use and which patterns correspond to them.

  Aside from debugging information output, none of the following passes refers to the tree structure representation of the function (only part of which is saved).

  The decision of whether the function can and should be expanded inline in its subsequent callers is made at the end of rtl generation. The function must meet certain criteria, currently related to the size of the function and the types and number of parameters it has. Note that this function may contain loops, recursive calls to itself (tail-recursive functions can be inlined!), gotos, in short, all constructs supported by GCC. The file ‘integrate.c’ contains the code to save a function’s rtl for later inlining and to inline that rtl when the function is called. The header file ‘integrate.h’ is also used for this purpose.

  The option ‘-dr’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.rtl’ to the input file name.

- **Sibling call optimization.** This pass performs tail recursion elimination, and tail and sibling call optimizations. The purpose of these optimizations is to reduce the overhead of function calls, whenever possible.

  The source file of this pass is ‘sibcall.c’

  The option ‘-di’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass is run. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.sibling’ to the input file name.

- **Jump optimization.** This pass simplifies jumps to the following instruction, jumps across jumps, and jumps to jumps. It deletes unreferenced labels and unreachable code, except that unreachable code that contains a loop is not recognized as unreachable in this pass. (Such loops are deleted later in the basic block analysis.) It also converts some code originally written with jumps into sequences of instructions that directly set values from the results of comparisons, if the machine has such instructions.

  Jump optimization is performed two or three times. The first time is immediately following RTL generation. The second time is after CSE, but only if CSE says repeated jump optimization is needed. The last time is right before the final pass. That time, cross-jumping and deletion of no-op move instructions are done together with the optimizations described above.

  The source file of this pass is ‘jump.c’.

  The option ‘-dj’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass is run for the first time. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.jump’ to the input file name.

- **Register scan.** This pass finds the first and last use of each register, as a guide for common subexpression elimination. Its source is in ‘regclass.c’.
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- Jump threading. This pass detects a condition jump that branches to an identical or inverse test. Such jumps can be ‘threaded’ through the second conditional test. The source code for this pass is in ‘jump.c’. This optimization is only performed if ‘-fthread-jumps’ is enabled.

- Common subexpression elimination. This pass also does constant propagation. Its source files are ‘cse.c’, and ‘cselib.c’. If constant propagation causes conditional jumps to become unconditional or to become no-ops, jump optimization is run again when CSE is finished.

The option ‘-ds’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.cse’ to the input file name.

- Static Single Assignment (SSA) based optimization passes. The SSA conversion passes (to/from) are turned on by the ‘-fssa’ option (it is also done automatically if you enable an SSA optimization pass). These passes utilize a form called Static Single Assignment. In SSA form, each variable (pseudo register) is only set once, giving you def-use and use-def chains for free, and enabling a lot more optimization passes to be run in linear time. Conversion to and from SSA form is handled by functions in ‘ssa.c’.

The option ‘-de’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.ssa’ to the input file name.

- Dead Code Elimination. Turned on by the ‘-fdce’ option. This pass performs elimination of code considered unnecessary because it is never executed. It operates in linear time.

The option ‘-dx’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.dce’ to the input file name.

- Global common subexpression elimination. This pass performs two different types of GCSE depending on whether you are optimizing for size or not (LCM based GCSE tends to increase code size for a gain in speed, while Morel-Renvoise based GCSE does not). When optimizing for size, GCSE is done using Morel-Renvoise Partial Redundancy Elimination, with the exception that it does not try to move invariants out of loops—that is left to the loop optimization pass. If MR PRE GCSE is done, code hoisting (aka unification) is also done, as well as load motion. If you are optimizing for speed, LCM (lazy code motion) based GCSE is done. LCM is based on the work of Knoop, Ruthing, and Steffen. LCM based GCSE also does loop invariant code motion. We also perform load and store motion when optimizing for speed. Regardless of which type of GCSE is used, the GCSE pass also performs global constant and copy propagation.

The source file for this pass is ‘gcse.c’, and the LCM routines are in ‘lcm.c’.

The option ‘-dG’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.gcse’ to the input file name.

- Loop optimization. This pass moves constant expressions out of loops, and optionally does strength-reduction and loop unrolling as well. Its source files are ‘loop.c’ and ‘unroll.c’, plus the header ‘loop.h’ used for communication between them. Loop unrolling uses some functions in ‘integrate.c’ and the header ‘integrate.h’. Loop dependency analysis routines are contained in ‘dependence.c’.

The option ‘-dL’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.loop’ to the input file name.

If ‘-frerun-cse-after-loop’ was enabled, a second common subexpression elimination pass is performed after the loop optimization pass. Jump threading is also done again at this time if it was specified.

The option ‘-dt’ causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending ‘.cse2’ to the input file name.
• Data flow analysis (`flow.c`). This pass divides the program into basic blocks (and in the process deletes unreachable loops); then it computes which pseudo-registers are live at each point in the program, and makes the first instruction that uses a value point at the instruction that computed the value. This pass also deletes computations whose results are never used, and combines memory references with add or subtract instructions to make autoincrement or autodecrement addressing.

The option `-df` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending `.flow` to the input file name. If stupid register allocation is in use, this dump file reflects the full results of such allocation.

• Instruction combination (`combine.c`). This pass attempts to combine groups of two or three instructions that are related by data flow into single instructions. It combines the RTL expressions for the instructions by substitution, simplifies the result using algebra, and then attempts to match the result against the machine description.

The option `-dc` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending `.combine` to the input file name.

• If-conversion is a transformation that transforms control dependencies into data dependencies (IE it transforms conditional code into a single control stream). It is implemented in the file `ifcvt.c`.

The option `-dE` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending `.ce` to the input file name.

• Register movement (`regmove.c`). This pass looks for cases where matching constraints would force an instruction to need a reload, and this reload would be a register to register move. It then attempts to change the registers used by the instruction to avoid the move instruction.

The option `-dN` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending `.regmove` to the input file name.

• Instruction scheduling (`sched.c`). This pass looks for instructions whose output will not be available by the time that it is used in subsequent instructions. (Memory loads and floating point instructions often have this behavior on RISC machines). It re-orders instructions within a basic block to try to separate the definition and use of items that otherwise would cause pipeline stalls.

Instruction scheduling is performed twice. The first time is immediately after instruction combination and the second is immediately after reload.

The option `-dS` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass is run for the first time. The dump file’s name is made by appending `.sched` to the input file name.

• Register class preferencing. The RTL code is scanned to find out which register class is best for each pseudo register. The source file is `regclass.c`.

• Local register allocation (`local-alloc.c`). This pass allocates hard registers to pseudo registers that are used only within one basic block. Because the basic block is linear, it can use fast and powerful techniques to do a very good job.

The option `-dl` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file’s name is made by appending `.lreg` to the input file name.

• Global register allocation (`global.c`). This pass allocates hard registers for the remaining pseudo registers (those whose life spans are not contained in one basic block).

• Reloading. This pass renumbers pseudo registers with the hardware registers numbers they were allocated. Pseudo registers that did not get hard registers are replaced with stack slots. Then it finds instructions that are invalid because a value has failed to end up in a register, or has ended up in a register of the wrong kind. It fixes up these instructions by reloading the problematical values temporarily into registers. Additional instructions are generated to do the copying.
The reload pass also optionally eliminates the frame pointer and inserts instructions to save and restore call-clobbered registers around calls.

Source files are `reload.c` and `reload1.c`, plus the header `reload.h` used for communication between them.

The option `--dg` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.greg` to the input file name.

- Instruction scheduling is repeated here to try to avoid pipeline stalls due to memory loads generated for spilled pseudo registers.

The option `--dR` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.sched2` to the input file name.

- Basic block reordering. This pass implements profile guided code positioning. If profile information is not available, various types of static analysis are performed to make the predictions normally coming from the profile feedback (IE execution frequency, branch probability, etc). It is implemented in the file `bb-reorder.c`, and the various prediction routines are in `predict.c`.

The option `--dB` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.bbro` to the input file name.

- Jump optimization is repeated, this time including cross-jumping and deletion of no-op move instructions.

The option `--dJ` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.jump2` to the input file name.

- Delayed branch scheduling. This optional pass attempts to find instructions that can go into the delay slots of other instructions, usually jumps and calls. The source file name is `reorg.c`.

The option `--dd` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.dbr` to the input file name.

- Branch shortening. On many RISC machines, branch instructions have a limited range. Thus, longer sequences of instructions must be used for long branches. In this pass, the compiler figures out what how far each instruction will be from each other instruction, and therefore whether the usual instructions, or the longer sequences, must be used for each branch.

- Conversion from usage of some hard registers to usage of a register stack may be done at this point. Currently, this is supported only for the floating-point registers of the Intel 80387 coprocessor. The source file name is `reg-stack.c`.

The options `--dk` causes a debugging dump of the RTL code after this pass. This dump file's name is made by appending `.stack` to the input file name.

- Final. This pass outputs the assembler code for the function. It is also responsible for identifying spurious test and compare instructions. Machine-specific peephole optimizations are performed at the same time. The function entry and exit sequences are generated directly as assembler code in this pass; they never exist as RTL.

The source files are `final.c` plus `insn-output.c`; the latter is generated automatically from the machine description by the tool `genoutput`. The header file `conditions.h` is used for communication between these files.

- Debugging information output. This is run after final because it must output the stack slot offsets for pseudo registers that did not get hard registers. Source files are `dbxout.c` for DBX symbol table format, `sdbout.c` for SDB symbol table format, `dwarfout.c` for DWARF symbol table format, and the files `dwarf2out.c` and `dwarf2asm.c` for DWARF2 symbol table format.

Some additional files are used by all or many passes:
Every pass uses `machmode.def` and `machmode.h` which define the machine modes.

Several passes use `real.h`, which defines the default representation of floating point constants and how to operate on them.

All the passes that work with RTL use the header files `rtl.h` and `rtl.def`, and subroutines in file `rtl.c`. The tools `gen*` also use these files to read and work with the machine description RTL.

Several passes refer to the header file `insn-config.h` which contains a few parameters (C macro definitions) generated automatically from the machine description RTL by the tool `genconfig`.

Several passes use the instruction recognizer, which consists of `recog.c` and `recog.h`, plus the files `insn-recog.c` and `insn-extract.c` that are generated automatically from the machine description by the tools `genrecog` and `genextract`.

Several passes use the header files `regs.h` which defines the information recorded about pseudo register usage, and `basic-block.h` which defines the information recorded about basic blocks.

`hard-reg-set.h` defines the type HARD_REG_SET, a bit-vector with a bit for each hard register, and some macros to manipulate it. This type is just `int` if the machine has few enough hard registers; otherwise it is an array of `int` and some of the macros expand into loops.

Several passes use instruction attributes. A definition of the attributes defined for a particular machine is in file `insn-attr.h`, which is generated from the machine description by the program `genattr`. The file `insn-atrrtab.c` contains subroutines to obtain the attribute values for insns. It is generated from the machine description by the program `genattribtab`.
18 Trees: The intermediate representation used by the C and C++ front-ends

This chapter documents the internal representation used by GCC and C++ to represent C and C++ source programs. When presented with a C or C++ source program, GCC parses the program, performs semantic analysis (including the generation of error messages), and then produces the internal representation described here. This representation contains a complete representation for the entire translation unit provided as input to the front-end. This representation is then typically processed by a code-generator in order to produce machine code, but could also be used in the creation of source browsers, intelligent editors, automatic documentation generators, interpreters, and any other programs needing the ability to process C or C++ code.

This chapter explains the internal representation. In particular, it documents the internal representation for C and C++ source constructs, and the macros, functions, and variables that can be used to access these constructs. The C++ representation which is largely a superset of the representation used in the C front-end. There is only one construct used in C that does not appear in the C++ front-end and that is the GNU “nested function” extension. Many of the macros documented here do not apply in C because the corresponding language constructs do not appear in C.

If you are developing a “back-end”, be it a code-generator or some other tool, that uses this representation, you may occasionally find that you need to ask questions not easily answered by the functions and macros available here. If that situation occurs, it is quite likely that GCC already supports the functionality you desire, but that the interface is simply not documented here. In that case, you should ask the GCC maintainers (via mail to gcc@gcc.gnu.org) about documenting the functionality you require. Similarly, if you find yourself writing functions that do not deal directly with your back-end, but instead might be useful to other people using the GCC front-end, you should submit your patches for inclusion in GCC.

18.1 Deficiencies

There are many places in which this document is incomplet and incorrekt. It is, as of yet, only preliminary documentation.

18.2 Overview

The central data structure used by the internal representation is the tree. These nodes, while all of the C type tree, are of many varieties. A tree is a pointer type, but the object to which it points may be of a variety of types. From this point forward, we will refer to trees in ordinary type, rather than in this font, except when talking about the actual C type tree.

You can tell what kind of node a particular tree is by using the TREE_CODE macro. Many, many macros take a trees as input and return trees as output. However, most macros require a certain kinds of tree node as input. In other words, there is a type-system for trees, but it is not reflected in the C type-system.

For safety, it is useful to configure G++ with ‘--enable-checking’. Although this results in a significant performance penalty (since all tree types are checked at run-time), and is therefore inappropriate in a release version, it is extremely helpful during the development process.

Many macros behave as predicates. Many, although not all, of these predicates end in ‘_P’. Do not rely on the result type of these macros being of any particular type. You may, however, rely on the fact that the type can be compared to 0, so that statements like

if (TEST_P (t) && !TEST_P (y))
    x = 1;

and
int i = (TEST_P (t) != 0);

are legal. Macros that return int values now may be changed to return tree values, or other
pointers in the future. Even those that continue to return int may return multiple non-zero
codes where previously they returned only zero and one. Therefore, you should not write code like

if (TEST_P (t) == 1)

as this code is not guaranteed to work correctly in the future.

You should not take the address of values returned by the macros or functions described here.
In particular, no guarantee is given that the values are lvalues.

In general, the names of macros are all in uppercase, while the names of functions are entirely
in lower case. There are rare exceptions to this rule. You should assume that any macro or
function whose name is made up entirely of uppercase letters may evaluate its arguments more
than once. You may assume that a macro or function whose name is made up entirely of
lowercase letters will evaluate its arguments only once.

The error_mark_node is a special tree. Its tree code is ERROR_MARK, but since there is only
ever one node with that code, the usual practice is to compare the tree against error_mark_node. (This test is just a test for pointer equality.) If an error has occurred during front-end
processing the flag errorcount will be set. If the front-end has encountered code it cannot
handle, it will issue a message to the user and set sorrycount. When these flags are set, any
macro or function which normally returns a tree of a particular kind may instead return the
error_mark_node. Thus, if you intend to do any processing of erroneous code, you must be
prepared to deal with the error_mark_node.

Occasionally, a particular tree slot (like an operand to an expression, or a particular field in
a declaration) will be referred to as “reserved for the back-end.” These slots are used to store
RTL when the tree is converted to RTL for use by the GCC back-end. However, if that process
is not taking place (e.g., if the front-end is being hooked up to an intelligent editor), then those
slots may be used by the back-end presently in use.

If you encounter situations that do not match this documentation, such as tree nodes of types
not mentioned here, or macros documented to return entities of a particular kind that instead
return entities of some different kind, you have found a bug, either in the front-end or in the
documentation. Please report these bugs as you would any other bug.

18.2.1 Trees

This section is not here yet.

18.2.2 Identifiers

An IDENTIFIER_NODE represents a slightly more general concept that the standard C or C++
concept of identifier. In particular, an IDENTIFIER_NODE may contain a ‘$’, or other extraordi-
nary characters.

There are never two distinct IDENTIFIER_NODEs representing the same identifier. Therefore,
you may use pointer equality to compare IDENTIFIER_NODEs, rather than using a routine like
strcmp.

You can use the following macros to access identifiers:

IDENTIFIER_POINTER

The string represented by the identifier, represented as a char*. This string is
always NUL-terminated, and contains no embedded NUL characters.
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IDENTIFIER_LENGTH
The length of the string returned by IDENTIFIER_POINTER, not including the trailing NUL. This value of IDENTIFIER_LENGTH (x) is always the same as strlen (IDENTIFIER_POINTER (x)).

IDENTIFIER_OPNAME_P
This predicate holds if the identifier represents the name of an overloaded operator. In this case, you should not depend on the contents of either the IDENTIFIER_POINTER or the IDENTIFIER_LENGTH.

IDENTIFIER_TYPENAME_P
This predicate holds if the identifier represents the name of a user-defined conversion operator. In this case, the TREE_TYPE of the IDENTIFIER_NODE holds the type to which the conversion operator converts.

18.2.3 Containers

Two common container data structures can be represented directly with tree nodes. A TREE_LIST is a singly linked list containing two trees per node. These are the TREE_PURPOSE and TREE_VALUE of each node. (Often, the TREE_PURPOSE contains some kind of tag, or additional information, while the TREE_VALUE contains the majority of the payload. In other cases, the TREE_PURPOSE is simply NULL_TREE, while in still others both the TREE_PURPOSE and TREE_VALUE are of equal stature.) Given one TREE_LIST node, the next node is found by following the TREE_CHAIN. If the TREE_CHAIN is NULL_TREE, then you have reached the end of the list.

A TREE_VEC is a simple vector. The TREE_VEC_LENGTH is an integer (not a tree) giving the number of nodes in the vector. The nodes themselves are accessed using the TREE_VEC_ELT macro, which takes two arguments. The first is the TREE_VEC in question; the second is an integer indicating which element in the vector is desired. The elements are indexed from zero.

18.3 Types

All types have corresponding tree nodes. However, you should not assume that there is exactly one tree node corresponding to each type. There are often several nodes each of which correspond to the same type.

For the most part, different kinds of types have different tree codes. (For example, pointer types use a POINTER_TYPE code while arrays use an ARRAY_TYPE code.) However, pointers to member functions use the RECORD_TYPE code. Therefore, when writing a switch statement that depends on the code associated with a particular type, you should take care to handle pointers to member functions under the RECORD_TYPE case label.

In C++, an array type is not qualified; rather the type of the array elements is qualified. This situation is reflected in the intermediate representation. The macros described here will always examine the qualification of the underlying element type when applied to an array type. (If the element type is itself an array, then the recursion continues until a non-array type is found, and the qualification of this type is examined.) So, for example, CP_TYPE_CONST_P will hold of the type const int ()[7], denoting an array of seven ints.

The following functions and macros deal with cv-qualification of types:

CP_TYPE_QUALS
This macro returns the set of type qualifiers applied to this type. This value is TYPE_UNQUALIFIED if no qualifiers have been applied. The TYPE_QUAL_CONST bit is set if the type is const-qualified. The TYPE_QUAL_VOLATILE bit is set if the type is volatile-qualified. The TYPE_QUAL_RESTRICT bit is set if the type is restrict-qualified.
CP_TYPE_CONST_P
This macro holds if the type is \texttt{const}-qualified.

CP_TYPE_VOLATILE_P
This macro holds if the type is \texttt{volatile}-qualified.

CP_TYPE_RESTRICT_P
This macro holds if the type is \texttt{restrict}-qualified.

CP_TYPE_CONST_NON_VOLATILE_P
This predicate holds for a type that is \texttt{const}-qualified, but not \texttt{volatile}-qualified; other cv-qualifiers are ignored as well: only the \texttt{const}-ness is tested.

TYPE_MAIN_VARIANT
This macro returns the unqualified version of a type. It may be applied to an unqualified type, but it is not always the identity function in that case.

A few other macros and functions are usable with all types:

TYPE_SIZE
The number of bits required to represent the type, represented as an \texttt{INTEGER_CST}. For an incomplete type, \texttt{TYPE_SIZE} will be \texttt{NULL_TREE}.

TYPE_ALIGN
The alignment of the type, in bits, represented as an \texttt{int}.

TYPE_NAME
This macro returns a declaration (in the form of a \texttt{TYPE_DECL}) for the type. (Note this macro does \texttt{not} return a \texttt{IDENTIFIER_NODE}, as you might expect, given its name!) You can look at the \texttt{DECL_NAME} of the \texttt{TYPE_DECL} to obtain the actual name of the type. The \texttt{TYPE_NAME} will be \texttt{NULL_TREE} for a type that is not a built-in type, the result of a typedef, or a named class type.

CP_INTEGRAL_TYPE
This predicate holds if the type is an integral type. Notice that in C++, enumerations are \texttt{not} integral types.

ARITHMETIC_TYPE_P
This predicate holds if the type is an integral type (in the C++ sense) or a floating point type.

CLASS_TYPE_P
This predicate holds for a class-type.

TYPE_BUILT_IN
This predicate holds for a built-in type.

TYPE_PTRMEM_P
This predicate holds if the type is a pointer to data member.

TYPE_PTR_P
This predicate holds if the type is a pointer type, and the pointee is not a data member.

TYPE_PTRFN_P
This predicate holds for a pointer to function type.
TYPE_PTR_OBJ_P
This predicate holds for a pointer to object type. Note however that it does not
hold for the generic pointer to object type void *. You may use TYPE_PTR_OBJV_P to
test for a pointer to object type as well as void *.

same_type_p
This predicate takes two types as input, and holds if they are the same type. For
example, if one type is a typedef for the other, or both are typedefs for the same
type. This predicate also holds if the two trees given as input are simply copies of
one another; i.e., there is no difference between them at the source level, but, for
whatever reason, a duplicate has been made in the representation. You should never
use == (pointer equality) to compare types; always use same_type_p instead.

Detailed below are the various kinds of types, and the macros that can be used to access
them. Although other kinds of types are used elsewhere in G++, the types described here are
the only ones that you will encounter while examining the intermediate representation.

VOID_TYPE
Used to represent the void type.

INTEGER_TYPE
Used to represent the various integral types, including char, short, int, long, and
long long. This code is not used for enumeration types, nor for the bool type. Note
that GCC’s CHAR_TYPE node is not used to represent char. The TYPE_PRECISION
is the number of bits used in the representation, represented as an unsigned int.
(Note that in the general case this is not the same value as TYPE_SIZE; suppose
that there were a 24-bit integer type, but that alignment requirements for the ABI
required 32-bit alignment. Then, TYPE_SIZE would be an INTEGER_CST for 32, while
TYPE_PRECISION would be 24.) The integer type is unsigned if TREE_UNSIGNED
holds; otherwise, it is signed.
The TYPE_MIN_VALUE is an INTEGER_CST for the smallest integer that may be rep-
resented by this type. Similarly, the TYPE_MAX_VALUE is an INTEGER_CST for the
largest integer that may be represented by this type.

REAL_TYPE
Used to represent the float, double, and long double types. The number of bits
in the floating-point representation is given by TYPE_PRECISION, as in the INTEGER_TYPE
case.

COMPLEX_TYPE
Used to represent GCC built-in __complex__ data types. The TREE_TYPE is the
type of the real and imaginary parts.

ENUMERAL_TYPE
Used to represent an enumeration type. The TYPE_PRECISION gives (as an int),
the number of bits used to represent the type. If there are no negative enumeration
constants, TREE_UNSIGNED will hold. The minimum and maximum enumeration con-
stants may be obtained with TYPE_MIN_VALUE and TYPE_MAX_VALUE, respectively;
each of these macros returns an INTEGER_CST.
The actual enumeration constants themselves may be obtained by looking at the
TYPE_VALUES. This macro will return a TREE_LIST, containing the constants. The
TREE_PURPOSE of each node will be an IDENTIFIER_NODE giving the name of the
constant; the TREE_VALUE will be an INTEGER_CST giving the value assigned to that
constant. These constants will appear in the order in which they were declared. The
TREE_TYPE of each of these constants will be the type of enumeration type itself.

BOOLEAN_TYPE
Used to represent the bool type.
POINTER_TYPE
Used to represent pointer types, and pointer to data member types. The TREE_TYPE gives the type to which this type points. If the type is a pointer to data member type, then TYPE_PTRMEM_P will hold. For a pointer to data member type of the form ‘T X::*’, TYPE_PTRMEM_CLASS_TYPE will be the type X, while TYPE_PTRMEM_POINTED_TO_TYPE will be the type T.

REFERENCE_TYPE
Used to represent reference types. The TREE_TYPE gives the type to which this type refers.

FUNCTION_TYPE
Used to represent the type of non-member functions and of static member functions. The TREE_TYPE gives the return type of the function. The TYPE_ARG_TYPES are a TREE_LIST of the argument types. The TREE_VALUE of each node in this list is the type of the corresponding argument; the TREE_PURPOSE is an expression for the default argument value, if any. If the last node in the list is void_list_node (a TREE_LIST node whose TREE_VALUE is the void_type_node), then functions of this type do not take variable arguments. Otherwise, they do take a variable number of arguments.

Note that in C (but not in C++) a function declared like void f() is an unprototyped function taking a variable number of arguments; the TYPE_ARG_TYPES of such a function will be NULL.

METHOD_TYPE
Used to represent the type of a non-static member function. Like a FUNCTION_TYPE, the return type is given by the TREE_TYPE. The type of *this, i.e., the class of which functions of this type are a member, is given by the TYPE_METHOD_BASETYPE. The TYPE_ARG_TYPES is the parameter list, as for a FUNCTION_TYPE, and includes the this argument.

ARRAY_TYPE
Used to represent array types. The TREE_TYPE gives the type of the elements in the array. If the array-bound is present in the type, the TYPE_DOMAIN is an INTEGER_TYPE whose TYPE_MIN_VALUE and TYPE_MAX_VALUE will be the lower and upper bounds of the array, respectively. The TYPE_MIN_VALUE will always be an INTEGER_CST for zero, while the TYPE_MAX_VALUE will be one less than the number of elements in the array, i.e., the highest value which may be used to index an element in the array.

RECORD_TYPE
Used to represent struct and class types, as well as pointers to member functions. If TYPE_PTRMEMFUNC_P holds, then this type is a pointer-to-member type. In that case, the TYPE_PTRMEMFUNC_FN_TYPE is a POINTER_TYPE pointing to a METHOD_TYPE. The METHOD_TYPE is the type of a function pointed to by the pointer-to-member function. If TYPE_PTRMEMFUNC_P does not hold, this type is a class type. For more information, see see Section 18.4.2 [Classes], page 236.

UNKNOWN_TYPE
This node is used to represent a type the knowledge of which is insufficient for a sound processing.

OFFSET_TYPE
This node is used to represent a data member; for example a pointer-to-data-member is represented by a POINTER_TYPE whose TREE_TYPE is an OFFSET_TYPE. For a data member X::m the TYPE_OFFSET_BASETYPE is X and the TREE_TYPE is the type of m.
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**TYPENAME_TYPE**
Used to represent a construct of the form `typename T::A`. The `TYPE_CONTEXT` is `T`; the `TYPE_NAME` is an `IDENTIFIER_NODE` for `A`. If the type is specified via a template-id, then `TYPENAME_TYPE_FULLNAME` yields a `TEMPLATE_ID_EXPR`. The `TREE_TYPE` is non-NULL if the node is implicitly generated in support for the implicit typename extension; in which case the `TREE_TYPE` is a type node for the base-class.

**TYPEOF_TYPE**
Used to represent the `__typeof__` extension. The `TYPE_FIELDS` is the expression the type of which is being represented.

**UNION_TYPE**
Used to represent union types. For more information, see Section 18.4.2 [Classes], page 236.

There are variables whose values represent some of the basic types. These include:

- `void_type_node`
  A node for `void`.
- `integer_type_node`
  A node for `int`.
- `unsigned_type_node`
  A node for `unsigned int`.
- `char_type_node`
  A node for `char`.

It may sometimes be useful to compare one of these variables with a type in hand, using `same_type_p`.

### 18.4 Scopes

The root of the entire intermediate representation is the variable `global_namespace`. This is the namespace specified with `::` in C++ source code. All other namespaces, types, variables, functions, and so forth can be found starting with this namespace.

Besides namespaces, the other high-level scoping construct in C++ is the class. (Throughout this manual the term `class` is used to mean the types referred to in the ANSI/ISO C++ Standard as classes; these include types defined with the `class`, `struct`, and `union` keywords.)

#### 18.4.1 Namespaces

A namespace is represented by a `NAMESPACE_DECL` node.

However, except for the fact that it is distinguished as the root of the representation, the global namespace is no different from any other namespace. Thus, in what follows, we describe namespaces generally, rather than the global namespace in particular.

The `::std` namespace, however, is special when `flag_honor_std` is not set. When `flag_honor_std` is set, the `std` namespace is just like any other namespace. When `flag_honor_std` is not set, however, the `::std` namespace is treated as a synonym for the global namespace, thereby allowing users to write code that will work with compilers that put the standard library in the `::std` namespace. The `std` namespace is represented by the variable `std_node`. Although `std_node` is a `NAMESPACE_DECL`, it does not have all the fields required of a real namespace, and the macros and functions described here do not work, in general. It is safest simply to ignore `std_node` should you encounter it while examining the internal representation. In particular, you will encounter `std_node` while looking at the members of the global namespace. Just skip it without attempting to examine its members.

The following macros and functions can be used on a `NAMESPACEDECL`:
This macro is used to obtain the IDENTIFIER_NODE corresponding to the unqualified name of the name of the namespace (see Section 18.2.2 [Identifiers], page 230). The name of the global namespace is '::', even though in C++ the global namespace is unnamed. However, you should use comparison with global_namespace, rather than DECL_NAME to determine whether or not a namespaces is the global one. An unnamed namespace will have a DECL_NAME equal to anonymous_namespace_name. Within a single translation unit, all unnamed namespaces will have the same name.

This macro returns the enclosing namespace. The DECL_CONTEXT for the global namespace is NULL_TREE.

If this declaration is for a namespace alias, then DECL_NAMESPACE_ALIAS is the namespace for which this one is an alias.

Do not attempt to use cp_namespace_decls for a namespace which is an alias. Instead, follow DECL_NAMESPACE_ALIAS links until you reach an ordinary, non-alias, namespace, and call cp_namespace_decls there.

This predicate holds if the namespace is the special ::std namespace.

This function will return the declarations contained in the namespace, including types, overloaded functions, other namespaces, and so forth. If there are no declarations, this function will return NULL_TREE. The declarations are connected through their TREE_CHAIN fields.

Although most entries on this list will be declarations, TREE_LIST nodes may also appear. In this case, the TREE_VALUE will be an OVERLOAD. The value of the TREE_PURPOSE is unspecified; back-ends should ignore this value. As with the other kinds of declarations returned by cp_namespace_decls, the TREE_CHAIN will point to the next declaration in this list.

For more information on the kinds of declarations that can occur on this list, See Section 18.5 [Declarations], page 238. Some declarations will not appear on this list. In particular, no FIELD_DECL, LABEL_DECL, or PARM_DECL nodes will appear here. This function cannot be used with namespaces that have DECL_NAMESPACE_ALIAS set.

A class type is represented by either a RECORD_TYPE or a UNION_TYPE. A class declared with the union tag is represented by a UNION_TYPE, while classes declared with either the struct or the class tag are represented by RECORD_TYPEs. You can use the CLASSTYPE_DECLARED_CLASS macro to discern whether or not a particular type is a class as opposed to a struct. This macro will be true only for classes declared with the class tag.

Almost all non-function members are available on the TYPE_FIELDS list. Given one member, the next can be found by following the TREE_CHAIN. You should not depend in any way on the order in which fields appear on this list. All nodes on this list will be 'DECL' nodes. A FIELD_DECL is used to represent a non-static data member, a VAR_DECL is used to represent a static data member, and a TYPE_DECL is used to represent a type. Note that the CONST_DECL for an enumeration constant will appear on this list, if the enumeration type was declared in the class. (Of course, the TYPEDECL for the enumeration type will appear here as well.) There are
no entries for base classes on this list. In particular, there is no **FIELD_DECL** for the “base-class portion” of an object.

The **TYPE_VFIELD** is a compiler-generated field used to point to virtual function tables. It may or may not appear on the **TYPE_FIELDS** list. However, back-ends should handle the **TYPE_VFIELD** just like all the entries on the **TYPE_FIELDS** list.

The function members are available on the **TYPE_METHODS** list. Again, subsequent members are found by following the **TREE_CHAIN** field. If a function is overloaded, each of the overloaded functions appears; no **OVERLOAD** nodes appear on the **TYPE_METHODS** list. Implicitly declared functions (including default constructors, copy constructors, assignment operators, and destructors) will appear on this list as well.

Every class has an associated **binfo**, which can be obtained with **TYPE_BINFO**. Binfos are used to represent base-classes. The binfo given by **TYPE_BINFO** is the degenerate case, whereby every class is considered to be its own base-class. The base classes for a particular binfo can be obtained with **BINFO_BASETYPES**. These base-classes are themselves binfos. The class type associated with a binfo is given by **BINFO_TYPE**. It is always the case that **BINFO_TYPE**(**TYPE_BINFO**(x)) is the same type as x, up to qualifiers. However, it is not always the case that **TYPE_BINFO**(**BINFO_TYPE**(y)) will be the same binfo as y. The reason is that if y is a binfo representing a base-class B of a derived class D, then **BINFO_TYPE**(y) will be B, and **TYPE_INFO**(**BINFO_TYPE**(y)) will be B as its own base-class, rather than as a base-class of D.

The **BINFO_BASETYPES** is a **TREE_VEC** (see [Section 18.2.3 Containers], page 231). Base types appear in left-to-right order in this vector. You can tell whether or public, protected, or private inheritance was used by using the **TREE_VIA_PUBLIC**, **TREE_VIA_PROTECTED**, and **TREE_VIA_PRIVATE** macros. Each of these macros takes a **BINFO** and is true if and only if the indicated kind of inheritance was used. If **TREE_VIA_VIRTUAL** holds of a binfo, then its **BINFO_TYPE** was inherited from virtually.

**FIXME:** Talk about **TYPE_NONCOPIED_PARTS**.

The following macros can be used on a tree node representing a class-type.

**LOCAL_CLASS_P**
This predicate holds if the class is local class i.e. declared inside a function body.

**TYPE_POLYMORPHIC_P**
This predicate holds if the class has at least one virtual function (declared or inherited).

**TYPE_HAS_DEFAULT_CONSTRUCTOR**
This predicate holds whenever its argument represents a class-type with default constructor.

**CLASSTYPE_HAS_MUTABLE**
**TYPE_HAS_MUTABLE_P**
These predicates hold for a class-type having a mutable data member.

**CLASSTYPE_NON_POD_P**
This predicate holds only for class-types that are not PODs.

**TYPE_HAS_NEW_OPERATOR**
This predicate holds for a class-type that defines `operator new`.

**TYPE_HAS_ARRAY_NEW_OPERATOR**
This predicate holds for a class-type for which `operator new[]` is defined.

**TYPE_OVERLOADS_CALL_EXPR**
This predicate holds for class-type for which the function call `operator()` is overloaded.
This predicate holds for a class-type that overloads `operator[]`

This predicate holds for a class-type for which `operator->` is overloaded.

### 18.5 Declarations

This section covers the various kinds of declarations that appear in the internal representation, except for declarations of functions (represented by `FUNCTION_DECL` nodes), which are described in Section 18.6 [Functions], page 240.

Some macros can be used with any kind of declaration. These include:

- **DECL_NAME**
  This macro returns an `IDENTIFIER_NODE` giving the name of the entity.

- **TREE_TYPE**
  This macro returns the type of the entity declared.

- **DECL_SOURCE_FILE**
  This macro returns the name of the file in which the entity was declared, as a `char*`. For an entity declared implicitly by the compiler (like `__builtin_memcpy`), this will be the string "<internal>".

- **DECL_SOURCE_LINE**
  This macro returns the line number at which the entity was declared, as an `int`.

- **DECL_ARTIFICIAL**
  This predicate holds if the declaration was implicitly generated by the compiler. For example, this predicate will hold of an implicitly declared member function, or of the `TYPE_DECL` implicitly generated for a class type. Recall that in C++ code like:
  ```cpp
  struct S {};
  ```
  is roughly equivalent to C code like:
  ```c
  struct S {};
  typedef struct S S;
  ```
  The implicitly generated `typedef` declaration is represented by a `TYPE_DECL` for which `DECL_ARTIFICIAL` holds.

- **DECL_NAMESPACE_SCOPE_P**
  This predicate holds if the entity was declared at a namespace scope.

- **DECL_CLASS_SCOPE_P**
  This predicate holds if the entity was declared at a class scope.

- **DECL_FUNCTION_SCOPE_P**
  This predicate holds if the entity was declared inside a function body.

The various kinds of declarations include:

- **LABEL_DECL**
  These nodes are used to represent labels in function bodies. For more information, see Section 18.6 [Functions], page 240. These nodes only appear in block scopes.

- **CONST_DECL**
  These nodes are used to represent enumeration constants. The value of the constant is given by `DECL_INITIAL` which will be an `INTEGER_CST` with the same type as the `TREE_TYPE` of the `CONST_DECL`, i.e., an `ENUMERAL_TYPE`. 
RESULT_DECL
These nodes represent the value returned by a function. When a value is assigned to a RESULTDECL, that indicates that the value should be returned, via bitwise copy, by the function. You can use DECL_SIZE and DECL_ALIGN on a RESULTDECL, just as with a VAR_DECL.

TYPE_DECL
These nodes represent typedef declarations. The TREE_TYPE is the type declared to have the name given by DECL_NAME. In some cases, there is no associated name.

VAR_DECL
These nodes represent variables with namespace or block scope, as well as static data members. The DECL_SIZE and DECL_ALIGN are analogous to TYPE_SIZE and TYPE_ALIGN. For a declaration, you should always use the DECL_SIZE and DECL_ALIGN rather than the TYPE_SIZE and TYPE_ALIGN given by the TREE_TYPE, since special attributes may have been applied to the variable to give it a particular size and alignment. You may use the predicates DECL_THIS_STATIC or DECL_THIS_EXTERN to test whether the storage class specifiers static or extern were used to declare a variable.

If this variable is initialized (but does not require a constructor), the DECL_INITIAL will be an expression for the initializer. The initializer should be evaluated, and a bitwise copy into the variable performed. If the DECL_INITIAL is the error_mark_node, there is an initializer, but it is given by an explicit statement later in the code; no bitwise copy is required.

GCC provides an extension that allows either automatic variables, or global variables, to be placed in particular registers. This extension is being used for a particular VAR_DECL if DECL_REGISTER holds for the VAR_DECL, and if DECL_ASSEMBLER_NAME is not equal to DECL_NAME. In that case, DECL_ASSEMBLER_NAME is the name of the register into which the variable will be placed.

PARM_DECL
Used to represent a parameter to a function. Treat these nodes similarly to VARDECL nodes. These nodes only appear in the DECL_ARGUMENTS for a FUNCTION_DECL.

The DECL_ARG_TYPE for a PARMDECL is the type that will actually be used when a value is passed to this function. It may be a wider type than the TREE_TYPE of the parameter; for example, the ordinary type might be short while the DECL_ARG_TYPE is int.

FIELD_DECL
These nodes represent non-static data members. The DECL_SIZE and DECL_ALIGN behave as for VARDECL nodes. The DECL_FIELD_BITPOS gives the first bit used for this field, as an INTEGER_CST. These values are indexed from zero, where zero indicates the first bit in the object.

If DECL_C_BIT_FIELD holds, this field is a bit-field.

NAMESPACE_DECL
See Section 18.4.1 [Namespaces], page 235.

TEMPLATE_DECL
These nodes are used to represent class, function, and variable (static data member) templates. The DECL_TEMPLATE_SPECIALIZATIONS are a TREE_LIST. The TREE_VALUE of each node in the list is a TEMPLATE_DECL or FUNCTION_DECL representing specializations (including instantiations) of this template. Back-ends can safely ignore TEMPLATE_DECLS, but should examine FUNCTION_DECL nodes on the specializations list just as they would ordinary FUNCTION_DECL nodes.

For a class template, the DECL_TEMPLATE_INSTANTIATIONS list contains the instantiations. The TREE_VALUE of each node is an instantiation of the class. The DECL_TEMPLATE_SPECIALIZATIONS contains partial specializations of the class.
Back-ends can safely ignore these nodes.

18.6 Functions

A function is represented by a FUNCTION_DECL node. A set of overloaded functions is sometimes represented by an OVERLOAD node.

An OVERLOAD node is not a declaration, so none of the ‘DECL_’ macros should be used on an OVERLOAD. An OVERLOAD node is similar to a TREE_LIST. Use OVL_CURRENT to get the function associated with an OVERLOAD node; use OVL_NEXT to get the next OVERLOAD node in the list of overloaded functions. The macros OVL_CURRENT and OVL_NEXT are actually polymorphic; you can use them to work with FUNCTION_DECL nodes as well as with overloads. In the case of a FUNCTION_DECL, OVL_CURRENT will always return the function itself, and OVL_NEXT will always be NULL_TREE.

To determine the scope of a function, you can use the DECL_REAL_CONTEXT macro. This macro will return the class (either a RECORD_TYPE or a UNION_TYPE) or namespace (a NAMESPACE_DECL) of which the function is a member. For a virtual function, this macro returns the class in which the function was actually defined, not the base class in which the virtual declaration occurred. If a friend function is defined in a class scope, the DECL_CLASS_CONTEXT macro can be used to determine the class in which it was defined. For example, in

```cpp
class C { friend void f() {} ;
```

the DECL_REAL_CONTEXT for f will be the global_namespace, but the DECL_CLASS_CONTEXT will be the RECORD_TYPE for C.

The DECL_REAL_CONTEXT and DECL_CLASS_CONTEXT are not available in C; instead you should simply use DECL_CONTEXT. In C, the DECL_CONTEXT for a function maybe another function. This representation indicates that the GNU nested function extension is in use. For details on the semantics of nested functions, see the GCC Manual. The nested function can refer to local variables in its containing function. Such references are not explicitly marked in the tree structure; back-ends must look at the DECL_CONTEXT for the referenced VAR_DECL. If the DECL_CONTEXT for the referenced VAR_DECL is not the same as the function currently being processed, and neither DECL_EXTERNAL nor DECL_STATIC hold, then the reference is to a local variable in a containing function, and the back-end must take appropriate action.

18.6.1 Function Basics

The following macros and functions can be used on a FUNCTION_DECL:

DECL_MAIN_P
This predicate holds for a function that is the program entry point ::code.

DECL_NAME
This macro returns the unqualified name of the function, as an IDENTIFIER_NODE. For an instantiation of a function template, the DECL_NAME is the unqualified name of the template, not something like f<int>. The value of DECL_NAME is undefined when used on a constructor, destructor, overloaded operator, or type-conversion operator, or any function that is implicitly generated by the compiler. See below for macros that can be used to distinguish these cases.

DECL_ASSEMBLER_NAME
This macro returns the mangled name of the function, also an IDENTIFIER_NODE. This name does not contain leading underscores on systems that prefix all identifiers with underscores. The mangled name is computed in the same way on all platforms; if special processing is required to deal with the object file format used on a particular
platform, it is the responsibility of the back-end to perform those modifications. (Of course, the back-end should not modify DECL_Assembler_Name itself.)

DECL_EXTERNAL
This predicate holds if the function is undefined.

TREE_PUBLIC
This predicate holds if the function has external linkage.

DECL_LOCAL_FUNCTION_P
This predicate holds if the function was declared at block scope, even though it has a global scope.

DECL_ANTICIPATED
This predicate holds if the function is a built-in function but its prototype is not yet explicitly declared.

DECL_EXTERN_C_FUNCTION_P
This predicate holds if the function is declared as an `extern "C"` function.

DECL_LINKONCE_P
This macro holds if multiple copies of this function may be emitted in various translation units. It is the responsibility of the linker to merge the various copies. Template instantiations are the most common example of functions for which DECL_LINKONCE_P holds; C++ instantiates needed templates in all translation units which require them, and then relies on the linker to remove duplicate instantiations.

FIXME: This macro is not yet implemented.

DECL_FUNCTION_MEMBER_P
This macro holds if the function is a member of a class, rather than a member of a namespace.

DECL_STATIC_FUNCTION_P
This predicate holds if the function a static member function.

DECL_NONSTATIC_MEMBER_FUNCTION_P
This macro holds for a non-static member function.

DECL_CONST_MEMFUNC_P
This predicate holds for a const-member function.

DECL_VOLATILE_MEMFUNC_P
This predicate holds for a volatile-member function.

DECL_CONSTRUCTOR_P
This macro holds if the function is a constructor.

DECL_NONCONVERTING_P
This predicate holds if the constructor is a non-converting constructor.

DECL_COMPLETE_CONSTRUCTOR_P
This predicate holds for a function which is a constructor for an object of a complete type.

DECL_BASE_CONSTRUCTOR_P
This predicate holds for a function which is a constructor for a base class sub-object.

DECL_COPY_CONSTRUCTOR_P
This predicate holds for a function which is a copy-constructor.
DECL_DESTRUCTOR_P
This macro holds if the function is a destructor.

DECL_COMPLETE_DESTRUCTOR_P
This predicate holds if the function is the destructor for an object a complete type.

DECL_OVERLOADED_OPERATOR_P
This macro holds if the function is an overloaded operator.

DECL_CONV_FN_P
This macro holds if the function is a type-conversion operator.

DECL_GLOBAL_CTOR_P
This predicate holds if the function is a file-scope initialization function.

DECL_GLOBAL_DTOR_P
This predicate holds if the function is a file-scope finalization function.

DECL_THUNK_P
This predicate holds if the function is a thunk.

These functions represent stub code that adjusts the this pointer and then jumps to another function. When the jumped-to function returns, control is transferred directly to the caller, without returning to the thunk. The first parameter to the thunk is always the this pointer; the thunk should add THUNK_DELTA to this value. (The THUNK_DELTA is an int, not an INTEGER_CST.) Then, if THUNK_VCALL_OFFSET (an INTEGER_CST) is non-zero the adjusted this pointer must be adjusted again. The complete calculation is given by the following pseudo-code:

```
this += THUNK_DELTA
if (THUNK_VCALL_OFFSET)
  this += (*((ptrdiff_t **) this)[THUNK_VCALL_OFFSET])
```

Finally, the thunk should jump to the location given by DECL_INITIAL; this will always be an expression for the address of a function.

DECL_NON_THUNK_FUNCTION_P
This predicate holds if the function is not a thunk function.

GLOBAL_INIT_PRIORITY
If either DECL_GLOBAL_CTOR_P or DECL_GLOBAL_DTOR_P holds, then this gives the initialization priority for the function. The linker will arrange that all functions for which DECL_GLOBAL_CTOR_P holds are run in increasing order of priority before main is called. When the program exits, all functions for which DECL_GLOBAL_DTOR_P holds are run in the reverse order.

DECL_ARTIFICIAL
This macro holds if the function was implicitly generated by the compiler, rather than explicitly declared. In addition to implicitly generated class member functions, this macro holds for the special functions created to implement static initialization and destruction, to compute run-time type information, and so forth.

DECL_ARGUMENTS
This macro returns the PARM_DECL for the first argument to the function. Subsequent PARM_DECL nodes can be obtained by following the TREE_CHAIN links.

DECL_RESULT
This macro returns the RESULT_DECL for the function.
TREE_TYPE
This macro returns the FUNCTION_TYPE or METHOD_TYPE for the function.

TYPE_RAISES_EXCEPTIONS
This macro returns the list of exceptions that a (member-)function can raise. The returned list, if non NULL, is comprised of nodes whose TREE_VALUE represents a type.

TYPE_NOTHROW_P
This predicate holds when the exception-specification of its arguments if of the form ‘()’.

DECL_ARRAY_DELETE_OPERATOR_P
This predicate holds if the function an overloaded operator delete[].

18.6.2 Function Bodies

A function that has a definition in the current translation unit will have a non-NULL DECL_INITIAL. However, back-ends should not make use of the particular value given by DECL_INITIAL.

The DECL_SAVED_TREE macro will give the complete body of the function. This node will usually be a COMPOUND_STMT representing the outermost block of the function, but it may also be a TRY_BLOCK, a RETURN_INIT, or any other valid statement.

18.6.2.1 Statements

There are tree nodes corresponding to all of the source-level statement constructs. These are enumerated here, together with a list of the various macros that can be used to obtain information about them. There are a few macros that can be used with all statements:

STMT_LINENO
This macro returns the line number for the statement. If the statement spans multiple lines, this value will be the number of the first line on which the statement occurs. Although we mention CASE_LABEL below as if it were a statement, they do not allow the use of STMT_LINENO. There is no way to obtain the line number for a CASE_LABEL.

Statements do not contain information about the file from which they came; that information is implicit in the FUNCTION_DECL from which the statements originate.

STMT_IS_FULL_EXPR_P
In C++, statements normally constitute “full expressions”; temporaries created during a statement are destroyed when the statement is complete. However, G++ sometimes represents expressions by statements; these statements will not have STMT_IS_FULL_EXPR_P set. Temporaries created during such statements should be destroyed when the innermost enclosing statement with STMT_IS_FULL_EXPR_P set is exited.

Here is the list of the various statement nodes, and the macros used to access them. This documentation describes the use of these nodes in non-template functions (including instantiations of template functions). In template functions, the same nodes are used, but sometimes in slightly different ways.

Many of the statements have substatements. For example, a while loop will have a body, which is itself a statement. If the substatement is NULL_TREE, it is considered equivalent to a statement consisting of a single ;, i.e., an expression statement in which the expression has been omitted. A substatement may in fact be a list of statements, connected via their TREE_CHAINs. So, you should always process the statement tree by looping over substatements, like this:
void process_stmt (stmt)
    tree stmt;
{
    while (stmt)
    {
        switch (TREE_CODE (stmt))
        {
        case IF_STMT:
            process_stmt (THEN_CLAUSE (stmt));
            /* More processing here. */
            break;
        ...
        }
        stmt = TREE_CHAIN (stmt);
    }
}

In other words, while the then clause of an if statement in C++ can be only one statement (although that one statement may be a compound statement), the intermediate representation will sometimes use several statements chained together.

**ASM_STMT**

Used to represent an inline assembly statement. For an inline assembly statement like:

```
asm ("mov x, y");
```

The `ASM_STRING` macro will return a `STRING_CST` node for "mov x, y". If the original statement made use of the extended-assembly syntax, then `ASM_OUTPUTS`, `ASM_INPUTS`, and `ASM_CLOBBERS` will be the outputs, inputs, and clobbers for the statement, represented as `STRING_CST` nodes. The extended-assembly syntax looks like:

```
asm ("fsinx %1,%0" : "=f" (result) : "f" (angle));
```

The first string is the `ASM_STRING`, containing the instruction template. The next two strings are the output and inputs, respectively; this statement has no clobbers. As this example indicates, "plain" assembly statements are merely a special case of extended assembly statements; they have no cv-qualifiers, outputs, inputs, or clobbers. All of the strings will be NUL-terminated, and will contain no embedded NUL-characters.

If the assembly statement is declared volatile, or if the statement was not an extended assembly statement, and is therefore implicitly volatile, then the predicate `ASM_VOLATILE_P` will hold of the `ASM_STMT`.

**BREAK_STMT**

Used to represent a break statement. There are no additional fields.

**CASE_LABEL**

Use to represent a case label, range of case labels, or a default label. If `CASE_LOW` is NULL_TREE, then this is a a default label. Otherwise, if `CASE_HIGH` is NULL_TREE, then this is an ordinary case label. In this case, `CASE_LOW` is an expression giving the value of the label. Both `CASE_LOW` and `CASE_HIGH` are `INTEGER_CST` nodes. These values will have the same type as the condition expression in the switch statement.
Otherwise, if both `CASE_LOW` and `CASE_HIGH` are defined, the statement is a range of case labels. Such statements originate with the extension that allows users to write things of the form:

```c
    case 2 ... 5:
```

The first value will be `CASE_LOW`, while the second will be `CASE_HIGH`.

**CLEANUP_STMT**

Used to represent an action that should take place upon exit from the enclosing scope. Typically, these actions are calls to destructors for local objects, but backends cannot rely on this fact. If these nodes are in fact representing such destructors, `CLEANUP_DECL` will be the `VAR_DECL` destroyed. Otherwise, `CLEANUP_DECL` will be `NULL_TREE`. In any case, the `CLEANUP_EXPR` is the expression to execute. The cleanups executed on exit from a scope should be run in the reverse order of the order in which the associated `CLEANUP_STMT`s were encountered.

**COMPOUND_STMT**

Used to represent a brace-enclosed block. The first substatement is given by `COMPOUND_BODY`. Subsequent substatements are found by following the `TREE_CHAIN` link from one substatement to the next.

**CONTINUE_STMT**

Used to represent a `continue` statement. There are no additional fields.

**CTOR_STMT**

Used to mark the beginning (if `CTOR_BEGIN_P` holds) or end (if `CTOR_END_P` holds) of the main body of a constructor. See also `SUBOBJECT` for more information on how to use these nodes.

**DECL_STMT**

Used to represent a local declaration. The `DECL_STMT_DECL` macro can be used to obtain the entity declared. This declaration may be a `LABEL_DECL`, indicating that the label declared is a local label. (As an extension, GCC allows the declaration of labels with scope.) In C, this declaration may be a `FUNCTION_DECL`, indicating the use of the GCC nested function extension. For more information, see Section 18.6 [Functions], page 240.

**DO_STMT**

Used to represent a `do` loop. The body of the loop is given by `DO_BODY` while the termination condition for the loop is given by `DO_COND`. The condition for a `do`-statement is always an expression.

**EMPTY_CLASS_EXPR**

Used to represent a temporary object of a class with no data whose address is never taken. (All such objects are interchangeable.) The `TREE_TYPE` represents the type of the object.

**EXPR_STMT**

Used to represent an expression statement. Use `EXPR_STMT_EXPR` to obtain the expression.

**FOR_STMT**

Used to represent a `for` statement. The `FOR_INIT_STMT` is the initialization statement for the loop. The `FOR_COND` is the termination condition. The `FOR_EXPR` is the expression executed right before the `FOR_COND` on each loop iteration; often, this expression increments a counter. The body of the loop is given by `FOR_BODY`. Note that `FOR_INIT_STMT` and `FOR_BODY` return statements, while `FOR_COND` and `FOR_EXPR` return expressions.
GOTO_STMT
Used to represent a goto statement. The GOTO_DESTINATION will usually be a LABEL_DECL. However, if the “computed goto” extension has been used, the GOTO_DESTINATION will be an arbitrary expression indicating the destination. This expression will always have pointer type.

IF_STMT
Used to represent an if statement. The IF_COND is the expression.
If the condition is a TREE_LIST, then the TREE_PURPOSE is a statement (usually a DECL_STMT). Each time the condition is evaluated, the statement should be executed. Then, the TREE_VALUE should be used as the conditional expression itself. This representation is used to handle C++ code like this:

```c
if (int i = 7) ...
```
where there is a new local variable (or variables) declared within the condition.
The THEN_CLAUSE represents the statement given by the then condition, while the ELSE_CLAUSE represents the statement given by the else condition.

LABEL_STMT
Used to represent a label. The LABEL_DECL declared by this statement can be obtained with the LABEL_STMT_LABEL macro. The IDENTIFIER_NODE giving the name of the label can be obtained from the LABEL_DECL with DECL_NAME.

RETURN_INIT
If the function uses the G++ “named return value” extension, meaning that the function has been defined like:

```c
S f(int) return s {...}
```
then there will be a RETURN_INIT. There is never a named returned value for a constructor. The first argument to the RETURN_INIT is the name of the object returned; the second argument is the initializer for the object. The object is initialized when the RETURN_INIT is encountered. The object referred to is the actual object returned; this extension is a manual way of doing the “return-value optimization.” Therefore, the object must actually be constructed in the place where the object will be returned.

RETURN_STMT
Used to represent a return statement. The RETURN_EXPR is the expression returned; it will be NULL_TREE if the statement was just

```c
return;
```

SCOPE_STMT
A scope-statement represents the beginning or end of a scope. If SCOPE_BEGIN_P holds, this statement represents the beginning of a scope; if SCOPE_END_P holds this statement represents the end of a scope. On exit from a scope, all cleanups from CLEANUP_STMTs occurring in the scope must be run, in reverse order to the order in which they were encountered. If SCOPE_NULLIFIED_P or SCOPE_NO_CLEANUPS_P holds of the scope, back-ends should behave as if the SCOPE_STMT were not present at all.

START_CATCH_STMT
These statements represent the location to which control is transferred when an exception is thrown. The START_CATCH_TYPE is the type of exception that will be caught by this handler; it is equal (by pointer equality) to CATCH_ALL_TYPE if this handler is for all types.

SUBOBJECT
In a constructor, these nodes are used to mark the point at which a subobject of this is fully constructed. If, after this point, an exception is thrown before a
CTOR_STMT with CTOR_END_P set is encountered, the SUBOBJECT_CLEANUP must be executed. The cleanups must be executed in the reverse order in which they appear.

SWITCH_STMT
Used to represent a switch statement. The SWITCH_COND is the expression on which the switch is occurring. See the documentation for an IF_STMT for more information on the representation used for the condition. The SWITCH_BODY is the body of the switch statement.

TRY_BLOCK
Used to represent a try block. The body of the try block is given by TRY_STMTS. Each of the catch blocks is a HANDLER node. The first handler is given by TRY_HANDLERS. Subsequent handlers are obtained by following the TREE_CHAIN link from one handler to the next. The body of the handler is given by HANDLER_BODY. If CLEANUP_P holds of the TRY_BLOCK, then the TRY_HANDLERS will not be a HANDLER node. Instead, it will be an expression that should be executed if an exception is thrown in the try block. It must rethrow the exception after executing that code. And, if an exception is thrown while the expression is executing, terminate must be called.

USING_STMT
Used to represent a using directive. The namespace is given by USING_STMT_NAMESPACE, which will be a NAMESPACE_DECL. This node is needed inside template functions, to implement using directives during instantiation.

WHILE_STMT
Used to represent a while loop. The WHILE_COND is the termination condition for the loop. See the documentation for an IF_STMT for more information on the representation used for the condition.

The WHILE_BODY is the body of the loop.

18.7 Expressions

The internal representation for expressions is for the most part quite straightforward. However, there are a few facts that one must bear in mind. In particular, the expression “tree” is actually a directed acyclic graph. (For example there may be many references to the integer constant zero throughout the source program; many of these will be represented by the same expression node.) You should not rely on certain kinds of node being shared, nor should rely on certain kinds of nodes being unshared.

The following macros can be used with all expression nodes:

TREE_TYPE
Returns the type of the expression. This value may not be precisely the same type that would be given the expression in the original program.

In what follows, some nodes that one might expect to always have type bool are documented to have either integral or boolean type. At some point in the future, the C front-end may also make use of this same intermediate representation, and at this point these nodes will certainly have integral type. The previous sentence is not meant to imply that the C++ front-end does not or will not give these nodes integral type.

Below, we list the various kinds of expression nodes. Except where noted otherwise, the operands to an expression are accessed using the TREE_OPERAND macro. For example, to access the first operand to a binary plus expression expr, use:

TREE_OPERAND (expr, 0)

As this example indicates, the operands are zero-indexed.
The table below begins with constants, moves on to unary expressions, then proceeds to binary expressions, and concludes with various other kinds of expressions:

**INTEGER_CST**
These nodes represent integer constants. Note that the type of these constants is obtained with `TREE_TYPE`; they are not always of type `int`. In particular, `char` constants are represented with `INTEGER_CST` nodes. The value of the integer constant `e` is given by

\[
\text{HOST\_BITS\_PER\_WIDE\_INT} \text{ is at least thirty-two on all platforms. Both } \text{TREE\_INT\_CST\_HIGH} \text{ and } \text{TREE\_INT\_CST\_LOW} \text{ return a } \text{HOST\_WIDE\_INT}. \text{ The value of an INTEGER\_CST is interpreted as a signed or unsigned quantity depending on the type of the constant. In general, the expression given above will overflow, so it should not be used to calculate the value of the constant.}
\]

The variable `integer_zero_node` is a integer constant with value zero. Similarly, `integer_one_node` is an integer constant with value one. The `size_zero_node` and `size_one_node` variables are analogous, but have type `size_t` rather than `int`.

The function `tree_int_cst_lt` is a predicate which holds if its first argument is less than its second. Both constants are assumed to have the same signedness (i.e., either both should be signed or both should be unsigned.) The full width of the constant is used when doing the comparison; the usual rules about promotions and conversions are ignored. Similarly, `tree_int_cst_equal` holds if the two constants are equal. The `tree_int_cst_sgn` function returns the sign of a constant. The value is 1, 0, or -1 according on whether the constant is greater than, equal to, or less than zero. Again, the signedness of the constant’s type is taken into account; an unsigned constant is never less than zero, no matter what its bit-pattern.

**REAL_CST**

FIXME: Talk about how to obtain representations of this constant, do comparisons, and so forth.

**COMPLEX_CST**
These nodes are used to represent complex number constants, that is a `__complex__` whose parts are constant nodes. The `TREE_REALPART` and `TREE_IMAGPART` return the real and the imaginary parts respectively.

**STRING_CST**
These nodes represent string-constants. The `TREE_STRING_LENGTH` returns the length of the string, as an `int`. The `TREE_STRING_POINTER` is a `char*` containing the string itself. The string may not be NUL-terminated, and it may contain embedded NUL characters. Therefore, the `TREE_STRING_LENGTH` includes the trailing NUL if it is present.

For wide string constants, the `TREE_STRING_LENGTH` is the number of bytes in the string, and the `TREE_STRING_POINTER` points to an array of the bytes of the string, as represented on the target system (that is, as integers in the target endianness). Wide and non-wide string constants are distinguished only by the `TREE_TYPE` of the `STRING_CST`.

FIXME: The formats of string constants are not well-defined when the target system bytes are not the same width as host system bytes.

**PTRMEM_CST**
These nodes are used to represent pointer-to-member constants. The `PTRMEM_CST_CLASS` is the class type (either a `RECORD_TYPE` or `UNION_TYPE` within which the pointer points), and the `PTRMEM_CST_MEMBER` is the declaration for the pointed to...
object. Note that the DECL_CONTEXT for the PTRMEM_CST_MEMBER is in general dif-
ferent from the PTRMEM_CST_CLASS. For example, given:

```c
struct B { int i; };
struct D : public B {};
int D::*dp = &D::i;
```

The PTRMEM_CST_CLASS for &D::i is D, even though the DECL_CONTEXT for the
PTRMEM_CST_MEMBER is B, since B::i is a member of B, not D.

VAR_DECL
These nodes represent variables, including static data members. For more informa-
tion, see Section 18.5 [Declarations], page 238.

NEGATE_EXPR
These nodes represent unary negation of the single operand, for both integer and
floating-point types. The type of negation can be determined by looking at the type
of the expression.

BIT_NOT_EXPR
These nodes represent bitwise complement, and will always have integral type. The
only operand is the value to be complemented.

TRUTH_NOT_EXPR
These nodes represent logical negation, and will always have integral (or boolean)
type. The operand is the value being negated.

PREDECREMENT_EXPR
PREINCREMENT_EXPR
POSTDECREMENT_EXPR
POSTINCREMENT_EXPR
These nodes represent increment and decrement expressions. The value of the single
operand is computed, and the operand incremented or decremented. In the case
of PREDECREMENT_EXPR and PREINCREMENT_EXPR, the value of the expression is the
value resulting after the increment or decrement; in the case of POSTDECREMENT_EXPR
and POSTINCREMENT_EXPR is the value before the increment or decrement occurs.
The type of the operand, like that of the result, will be either integral, boolean, or
floating-point.

ADDR_EXPR
These nodes are used to represent the address of an object. (These expressions will
always have pointer or reference type.) The operand may be another expression, or
it may be a declaration.

As an extension, GCC allows users to take the address of a label. In this case, the
operand of the ADDR_EXPR will be a LABEL_DECL. The type of such an expression is
void*.

If the object addressed is not an lvalue, a temporary is created, and the address of
the temporary is used.

INDIRECT_REF
These nodes are used to represent the object pointed to by a pointer. The operand
is the pointer being dereferenced; it will always have pointer or reference type.

FIX_TRUNC_EXPR
These nodes represent conversion of a floating-point value to an integer. The single
operand will have a floating-point type, while the the complete expression will have
an integral (or boolean) type. The operand is rounded towards zero.
FLOAT_EXPR
These nodes represent conversion of an integral (or boolean) value to a floating-point value. The single operand will have integral type, while the complete expression will have a floating-point type.

FIXME: How is the operand supposed to be rounded? Is this dependent on `*-mieee`?

COMPLEX_EXPR
These nodes are used to represent complex numbers constructed from two expressions of the same (integer or real) type. The first operand is the real part and the second operand is the imaginary part.

CONJ_EXPR
These nodes represent the conjugate of their operand.

REALPART_EXPR
IMAGPART_EXPR
These nodes represent respectively the real and the imaginary parts of complex numbers (their sole argument).

NON_LVALUE_EXPR
These nodes indicate that their one and only operand is not an lvalue. A back-end can treat these identically to the single operand.

NOP_EXPRESS
These nodes are used to represent conversions that do not require any code-generation. For example, conversion of a `char*` to an `int*` does not require any code be generated; such a conversion is represented by a NOP_EXPR. The single operand is the expression to be converted. The conversion from a pointer to a reference is also represented with a NOP_EXPR.

CONVERT_EXPR
These nodes are similar to NOP_EXPRs, but are used in those situations where code may need to be generated. For example, if an `int*` is converted to an `int` code may need to be generated on some platforms. These nodes are never used for C++-specific conversions, like conversions between pointers to different classes in an inheritance hierarchy. Any adjustments that need to be made in such cases are always indicated explicitly. Similarly, a user-defined conversion is never represented by a CONVERT_EXPR; instead, the function calls are made explicit.

THROW_EXPR
These nodes represent throw expressions. The single operand is an expression for the code that should be executed to throw the exception. However, there is one implicit action not represented in that expression; namely the call to __throw. This function takes no arguments. If `setjmp/longjmp` exceptions are used, the function __sjthrow is called instead. The normal GCC back-end uses the function emit_throw to generate this code; you can examine this function to see what needs to be done.

LSHIFT_EXPR
RSHIFT_EXPR
These nodes represent left and right shifts, respectively. The first operand is the value to shift; it will always be of integral type. The second operand is an expression for the number of bits by which to shift. Right shift should be treated as arithmetic, i.e., the high-order bits should be zero-filled when the expression has unsigned type and filled with the sign bit when the expression has signed type.
BIT_IOR_EXPR
BIT_XOR_EXPR
BIT_AND_EXPR
These nodes represent bitwise inclusive or, bitwise exclusive or, and bitwise and, respectively. Both operands will always have integral type.

TRUTH_AND_EXPR
TRUTH_OR_EXPR
TRUTH_XOR_EXPR
These nodes represent logical and and logical or, respectively. These operators are not strict; i.e., the second operand is evaluated only if the value of the expression is not determined by evaluation of the first operand. The type of the operands, and the result type, is always of boolean or integral type.

TRUTH_AND_EXPR
TRUTH_OR_EXPR
TRUTH_XOR_EXPR
These nodes represent logical and, logical or, and logical exclusive or. They are strict; both arguments are always evaluated. There are no corresponding operators in C or C++, but the front-end will sometimes generate these expressions anyhow, if it can tell that strictness does not matter.

PLUS_EXPR
MINUS_EXPR
MULT_EXPR
TRUNC_DIV_EXPR
TRUNC_MOD_EXPR
RDIV_EXPR
These nodes represent various binary arithmetic operations. Respectively, these operations are addition, subtraction (of the second operand from the first), multiplication, integer division, integer remainder, and floating-point division. The operands to the first three of these may have either integral or floating type, but there will never be case in which one operand is of floating type and the other is of integral type.

The result of a TRUNC_DIV_EXPR is always rounded towards zero. The TRUNC_MOD_EXPR of two operands a and b is always a - a/b where the division is as if computed by a TRUNC_DIV_EXPR.

ARRAY_REF
These nodes represent array accesses. The first operand is the array; the second is the index. To calculate the address of the memory accessed, you must scale the index by the size of the type of the array elements.

EXACT_DIV_EXPR
Document.

LT_EXPR
LE_EXPR
GT_EXPR
GE_EXPR
EQ_EXPR
NE_EXPR
These nodes represent the less than, less than or equal to, greater than, greater than or equal to, equal, and not equal comparison operators. The first and second operand with either be both of integral type or both of floating type. The result type of these expressions will always be of integral or boolean type.
MODIFY_EXPR

These nodes represent assignment. The left-hand side is the first operand; the right-hand side is the second operand. The left-hand side will be a VAR_DECL, INDIRECT_REF, COMPONENT_REF, or other lvalue. These nodes are used to represent not only assignment with ‘=’ but also compound assignments (like ‘+=’), by reduction to ‘=’ assignment. In other words, the representation for ‘i += 3’ looks just like that for ‘i = i + 3’.

INIT_EXPR

These nodes are just like MODIFY_EXPR, but are used only when a variable is initialized, rather than assigned to subsequently.

COMPONENT_REF

These nodes represent non-static data member accesses. The first operand is the object (rather than a pointer to it); the second operand is the FIELD_DECL for the data member.

COMPOUND_EXPR

These nodes represent comma-expressions. The first operand is an expression whose value is computed and thrown away prior to the evaluation of the second operand. The value of the entire expression is the value of the second operand.

COND_EXPR

These nodes represent ?: expressions. The first operand is of boolean or integral type. If it evaluates to a non-zero value, the second operand should be evaluated, and returned as the value of the expression. Otherwise, the third operand is evaluated, and returned as the value of the expression. As a GNU extension, the middle operand of the ?: operator may be omitted in the source, like this:

\[ x ? : 3 \]

which is equivalent to

\[ x ? x : 3 \]

assuming that \( x \) is an expression without side-effects. However, in the case that the first operation causes side effects, the side-effects occur only once. Consumers of the internal representation do not need to worry about this oddity; the second operand will be always be present in the internal representation.

CALL_EXPR

These nodes are used to represent calls to functions, including non-static member functions. The first operand is a pointer to the function to call; it is always an expression whose type is a POINTER_TYPE. The second argument is a TREE_LIST. The arguments to the call appear left-to-right in the list. The TREE_VALUE of each list node contains the expression corresponding to that argument. (The value of TREE_PURPOSE for these nodes is unspecified, and should be ignored.) For non-static member functions, there will be an operand corresponding to the this pointer. There will always be expressions corresponding to all of the arguments, even if the function is declared with default arguments and some arguments are not explicitly provided at the call sites.

STMT_EXPR

These nodes are used to represent GCC’s statement-expression extension. The statement-expression extension allows code like this:

\[
\text{int } f() \{ \text{ return (\{ int } j; j = 3; j + 7; \}); } \}
\]

In other words, a sequence of statements may occur where a single expression would normally appear. The STMT_EXPR node represents such an expression. The STMT_EXPR_STMT gives the statement contained in the expression; this is always a
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**COMPOUND_STMT.** The value of the expression is the value of the last sub-statement in the **COMPOUND_STMT.** More precisely, the value is the value computed by the last **EXPR_STMT** in the outermost scope of the **COMPOUND_STMT.** For example, in:

```
({ 3; })
```

the value is 3 while in:

```
({ if (x) { 3; } })
```

(represented by a nested **COMPOUND_STMT**), there is no value. If the **STMT_EXPR** does not yield a value, it’s type will be **void.**

**BIND_EXPR**

These nodes represent local blocks. The first operand is a list of temporary variables, connected via their **TREE_CHAIN** field. These will never require cleanups. The scope of these variables is just the body of the **BIND_EXPR.** The body of the **BIND_EXPR** is the second operand.

**LOOP_EXPR**

These nodes represent “infinite” loops. The **LOOP_EXPR_BODY** represents the body of the loop. It should be executed forever, unless an **EXIT_EXPR** is encountered.

**EXIT_EXPR**

These nodes represent conditional exits from the nearest enclosing **LOOP_EXPR.** The single operand is the condition; if it is non-zero, then the loop should be exited. An **EXIT_EXPR** will only appear within a **LOOP_EXPR.**

**CLEANUP_POINT_EXPR**

These nodes represent full-expressions. The single operand is an expression to evaluate. Any destructor calls engendered by the creation of temporaries during the evaluation of that expression should be performed immediately after the expression is evaluated.

**CONSTRUCTOR**

These nodes represent the brace-enclosed initializers for a structure or array. The first operand is reserved for use by the back-end. The second operand is a **TREE_LIST.** If the **TREE_TYPE** of the **CONSTRUCTOR** is a **RECORD_TYPE** or **UNION_TYPE**, then the **TREE_PURPOSE** of each node in the **TREE_LIST** will be a **FIELD_DECL** and the **TREE_VALUE** of each node will be the expression used to initialize that field. You should not depend on the fields appearing in any particular order, nor should you assume that all fields will be represented. Unrepresented fields may be assigned any value.

If the **TREE_TYPE** of the **CONSTRUCTOR** is an **ARRAY_TYPE**, then the **TREE_PURPOSE** of each element in the **TREE_LIST** will be an **INTEGER_CST**. This constant indicates which element of the array (indexed from zero) is being assigned to; again, the **TREE_VALUE** is the corresponding initializer. If the **TREE_PURPOSE** is **NULL_TREE**, then the initializer is for the next available array element.

Conceptually, before any initialization is done, the entire area of storage is initialized to zero.

**SAVE_EXPR**

A **SAVE_EXPR** represents an expression (possibly involving side-effects) that is used more than once. The side-effects should occur only the first time the expression is evaluated. Subsequent uses should just reuse the computed value. The first operand to the **SAVE_EXPR** is the expression to evaluate. The side-effects should be executed where the **SAVE_EXPR** is first encountered in a depth-first preorder traversal of the expression tree.
TARGET_EXPR

A TARGET_EXPR represents a temporary object. The first operand is a VAR_DECL for the temporary variable. The second operand is the initializer for the temporary. The initializer is evaluated, and copied (bitwise) into the temporary.

Often, a TARGET_EXPR occurs on the right-hand side of an assignment, or as the second operand to a comma-expression which is itself the right-hand side of an assignment, etc. In this case, we say that the TARGET_EXPR is “normal”; otherwise, we say it is “orphaned”. For a normal TARGET_EXPR the temporary variable should be treated as an alias for the left-hand side of the assignment, rather than as a new temporary variable.

The third operand to the TARGET_EXPR, if present, is a cleanup-expression (i.e., destructor call) for the temporary. If this expression is orphaned, then this expression must be executed when the statement containing this expression is complete. These cleanups must always be executed in the order opposite to that in which they were encountered. Note that if a temporary is created on one branch of a conditional operator (i.e., in the second or third operand to a COND_EXPR), the cleanup must be run only if that branch is actually executed.

See STMT_IS_FULL_EXPR_P for more information about running these cleanups.

AGGR_INIT_EXPR

An AGGR_INIT_EXPR represents the initialization as the return value of a function call, or as the result of a constructor. An AGGR_INIT_EXPR will only appear as the second operand of a TARGET_EXPR. The first operand to the AGGR_INIT_EXPR is the address of a function to call, just as in a CALL_EXPR. The second operand are the arguments to pass that function, as a TREE_LIST, again in a manner similar to that of a CALL_EXPR. The value of the expression is that returned by the function.

If AGGR_INIT_VIA_CTOR_P holds of the AGGR_INIT_EXPR, then the initialization is via a constructor call. The address of the third operand of the AGGR_INIT_EXPR, which is always a VAR_DECL, is taken, and this value replaces the first argument in the argument list. In this case, the value of the expression is the VAR_DECL given by the third operand to the AGGR_INIT_EXPR; constructors do not return a value.
Chapter 19: RTL Representation

19 RTL Representation

Most of the work of the compiler is done on an intermediate representation called register transfer language. In this language, the instructions to be output are described, pretty much one by one, in an algebraic form that describes what the instruction does.

RTL is inspired by Lisp lists. It has both an internal form, made up of structures that point at other structures, and a textual form that is used in the machine description and in printed debugging dumps. The textual form uses nested parentheses to indicate the pointers in the internal form.

19.1 RTL Object Types

RTL uses five kinds of objects: expressions, integers, wide integers, strings and vectors. Expressions are the most important ones. An RTL expression ("RTX", for short) is a C structure, but it is usually referred to with a pointer; a type that is given the typedef name rtx.

An integer is simply an int; their written form uses decimal digits. A wide integer is an integral object whose type is HOST_WIDE_INT (see Chapter 22 [Config], page 453); their written form uses decimal digits.

A string is a sequence of characters. In core it is represented as a char * in usual C fashion, and it is written in C syntax as well. However, strings in RTL may never be null. If you write an empty string in a machine description, it is represented in core as a null pointer rather than as a pointer to a null character. In certain contexts, these null pointers instead of strings are valid. Within RTL code, strings are most commonly found inside symbol_ref expressions, but they appear in other contexts in the RTL expressions that make up machine descriptions.

A vector contains an arbitrary number of pointers to expressions. The number of elements in the vector is explicitly present in the vector. The written form of a vector consists of square brackets ("[...]") surrounding the elements, in sequence and with whitespace separating them. Vectors of length zero are not created; null pointers are used instead.

Expressions are classified by expression codes (also called RTX codes). The expression code is a name defined in 'rtl.def', which is also (in upper case) a C enumeration constant. The possible expression codes and their meanings are machine-independent. The code of an RTX can be extracted with the macro GET_CODE (x) and altered with PUT_CODE (x, newcode).

The expression code determines how many operands the expression contains, and what kinds of objects they are. In RTL, unlike Lisp, you cannot tell by looking at an operand what kind of object it is. Instead, you must know from its context—from the expression code of the containing expression. For example, in an expression of code subreg, the first operand is to be regarded as an expression and the second operand as an integer. In an expression of code plus, there are two operands, both of which are to be regarded as expressions. In a symbol_ref expression, there is one operand, which is to be regarded as a string.

Expressions are written as parentheses containing the name of the expression type, its flags and machine mode if any, and then the operands of the expression (separated by spaces).

Expression code names in the 'md' file are written in lower case, but when they appear in C code they are written in upper case. In this manual, they are shown as follows: const_int.

In a few contexts a null pointer is valid where an expression is normally wanted. The written form of this is (nil).

19.2 RTL Classes and Formats

The various expression codes are divided into several classes, which are represented by single characters. You can determine the class of an RTX code with the macro GET_RTX_CLASS (code). Currently, 'rtx.def' defines these classes:
o An RTX code that represents an actual object, such as a register (REG) or a memory location (MEM, SYMBOL_REF). Constants and basic transforms on objects (ADDRESSOF, HIGH, LO_SUM) are also included. Note that SUBREG and STRICT_LOW_PART are not in this class, but in class x.

< An RTX code for a comparison, such as NE or LT.

1 An RTX code for a unary arithmetic operation, such as NEG, NOT, or ABS. This category also includes value extension (sign or zero) and conversions between integer and floating point.

c An RTX code for a commutative binary operation, such as PLUS or AND. NE and EQ are comparisons, so they have class <.

2 An RTX code for a non-commutative binary operation, such as MINUS, DIV, or ASHIFTRT.

b An RTX code for a bit-field operation. Currently only ZERO_EXTRACT and SIGN_EXTRACT. These have three inputs and are lvalues (so they can be used for insertion as well). See Section 19.10 [Bit-Fields], page 273.

3 An RTX code for other three input operations. Currently only IF_THEN_ELSE.

i An RTX code for an entire instruction: INSN, JUMP_INSN, and CALL_INSN. See Section 19.17 [Insns], page 280.

m An RTX code for something that matches in insns, such as MATCH_DUP. These only occur in machine descriptions.

a An RTX code for an auto-increment addressing mode, such as POST_INC.

x All other RTX codes. This category includes the remaining codes used only in machine descriptions (DEFINE_*, etc.). It also includes all the codes describing side effects (SET, USE, CLOBBER, etc.) and the non-insns that may appear on an insn chain, such as NOTE, BARRIER, and CODE_LABEL.

For each expression type `rtl.def` specifies the number of contained objects and their kinds, with four possibilities: ‘e’ for expression (actually a pointer to an expression), ‘i’ for integer, ‘w’ for wide integer, ‘s’ for string, and ‘E’ for vector of expressions. The sequence of letters for an expression code is called its format. For example, the format of subreg is ‘ei’.

A few other format characters are used occasionally:

u ‘u’ is equivalent to ‘e’ except that it is printed differently in debugging dumps. It is used for pointers to insns.

n ‘n’ is equivalent to ‘i’ except that it is printed differently in debugging dumps. It is used for the line number or code number of a note insn.

S ‘S’ indicates a string which is optional. In the RTL objects in core, ‘S’ is equivalent to ‘s’, but when the object is read, from an ‘md’ file, the string value of this operand may be omitted. An omitted string is taken to be the null string.

V ‘V’ indicates a vector which is optional. In the RTL objects in core, ‘V’ is equivalent to ‘E’, but when the object is read from an ‘md’ file, the vector value of this operand may be omitted. An omitted vector is effectively the same as a vector of no elements.

0 ‘0’ means a slot whose contents do not fit any normal category. ‘0’ slots are not printed at all in dumps, and are often used in special ways by small parts of the compiler.

There are macros to get the number of operands and the format of an expression code:
GET_RTX_LENGTH (code)
Number of operands of an RTX of code code.

GET_RTX_FORMAT (code)
The format of an RTX of code code, as a C string.

Some classes of RTX codes always have the same format. For example, it is safe to assume that all comparison operations have format ee.

1 All codes of this class have format e.
< c
2 All codes of these classes have format ee.
 b
3 All codes of these classes have format eee.
i
All codes of this class have formats that begin with iuueiee. See Section 19.17 [Insns], page 280. Note that not all RTL objects linked onto an insn chain are of class i.
o
m
x You can make no assumptions about the format of these codes.

19.3 Access to Operands

Operands of expressions are accessed using the macros XEXP, XINT, XWINT and XSTR. Each of these macros takes two arguments: an expression-pointer (RTX) and an operand number (counting from zero). Thus,

XEXP (x, 2)
accesses operand 2 of expression x, as an expression.

XINT (x, 2)
accesses the same operand as an integer. XSTR, used in the same fashion, would access it as a string.

Any operand can be accessed as an integer, as an expression or as a string. You must choose the correct method of access for the kind of value actually stored in the operand. You would do this based on the expression code of the containing expression. That is also how you would know how many operands there are.

For example, if x is a subreg expression, you know that it has two operands which can be correctly accessed as XEXP (x, 0) and XINT (x, 1). If you did XINT (x, 0), you would get the address of the expression operand but cast as an integer; that might occasionally be useful, but it would be cleaner to write (int) XEXP (x, 0). XEXP (x, 1) would also compile without error, and would return the second, integer operand cast as an expression pointer, which would probably result in a crash when accessed. Nothing stops you from writing XEXP (x, 28) either, but this will access memory past the end of the expression with unpredictable results.

Access to operands which are vectors is more complicated. You can use the macro XVEC to get the vector-pointer itself, or the macros XVECEXP and XVECLEN to access the elements and length of a vector.

XVEC (exp, idx)
Access the vector-pointer which is operand number idx in exp.

XVECLEN (exp, idx)
Access the length (number of elements) in the vector which is in operand number idx in exp. This value is an int.
XVECEXP (exp, idx, eltnum)

Access element number eltnum in the vector which is in operand number idx in exp.
This value is an RTX.

It is up to you to make sure that eltnum is not negative and is less than XVECLEN (exp, idx).

All the macros defined in this section expand into lvalues and therefore can be used to assign
the operands, lengths and vector elements as well as to access them.

19.4 Flags in an RTL Expression

RTL expressions contain several flags (one-bit bit-fields) and other values that are used in
certain types of expression. Most often they are accessed with the following macros:

MEM_VOLATILE_P (x)
In mem expressions, nonzero for volatile memory references. Stored in the volatil
field and printed as '/v'.

MEM_IN_STRUCT_P (x)
In mem expressions, nonzero for reference to an entire structure, union or array, or
to a component of one. Zero for references to a scalar variable or through a pointer
to a scalar. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as '/s'. If both this flag and
MEM_SCALAR_P are clear, then we don't know whether this MEM is in a structure
or not. Both flags should never be simultaneously set.

MEM_SCALAR_P (x)
In mem expressions, nonzero for reference to a scalar known not to be a member
of a structure, union, or array. Zero for such references and for indirections
through pointers, even pointers pointing to scalar types. If both this flag and
MEM_STRUCT_P are clear, then we don't know whether this MEM is in a structure
or not. Both flags should never be simultaneously set.

MEM_ALIAS_SET (x)
In mem expressions, the alias set to which x belongs. If zero, x is not in any alias
set, and may alias anything. If nonzero, x may only alias objects in the same alias
set. This value is set (in a language-specific manner) by the front-end. This field is
not a bit-field; it is in an integer, found as the second argument to the mem.

REG_LOOP_TEST_P
In reg expressions, nonzero if this register's entire life is contained in the exit test
code for some loop. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as '/s'.

REG_USERVAR_P (x)
In a reg, nonzero if it corresponds to a variable present in the user's source code.
Zero for temporaries generated internally by the compiler. Stored in the volatil
field and printed as '/v'.

REG_FUNCTION_VALUE_P (x)
Nonzero in a reg if it is the place in which this function's value is going to be
returned. (This happens only in a hard register.) Stored in the integrated field
and printed as '/i'.

The same hard register may be used also for collecting the values of functions called
by this one, but REG_FUNCTION_VALUE_P is zero in this kind of use.

SUBREG_PROMOTED_VAR_P
Nonzero in a subreg if it was made when accessing an object that was promoted
to a wider mode in accord with the PROMOTED_MODE machine description macro (see
Section 21.4 [Storage Layout], page 358). In this case, the mode of the subreg is the declared mode of the object and the mode of SUBREG_REG is the mode of the register that holds the object. Promoted variables are always either sign- or zero-extended to the wider mode on every assignment. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as ‘/s’.

**SUBREG_PROMOTED_UNSIGNED_P**
Nonzero in a subreg that has SUBREG_PROMOTED_VAR_P nonzero if the object being referenced is kept zero-extended and zero if it is kept sign-extended. Stored in the unchanging field and printed as ‘/u’.

**RTX_UNCHANGING_P** *(x)*
Nonzero in a reg or mem if the value is not changed. (This flag is not set for memory references via pointers to constants. Such pointers only guarantee that the object will not be changed explicitly by the current function. The object might be changed by other functions or by aliasing.) Stored in the unchanging field and printed as ‘/u’.

**RTX_INTEGRATED_P** *(insn)*
Nonzero in an insn if it resulted from an in-line function call. Stored in the integrated field and printed as ‘/i’.

**RTX_FRAME_RELATED_P** *(x)*
Nonzero in an insn or expression which is part of a function prologue and sets the stack pointer, sets the frame pointer, or saves a register. This flag should also be set on an instruction that sets up a temporary register to use in place of the frame pointer.

In particular, on RISC targets where there are limits on the sizes of immediate constants, it is sometimes impossible to reach the register save area directly from the stack pointer. In that case, a temporary register is used that is near enough to the register save area, and the Canonical Frame Address, i.e., DWARF2’s logical frame pointer, register must (temporarily) be changed to be this temporary register. So, the instruction that sets this temporary register must be marked as RTX_FRAME_RELATED_P.

If the marked instruction is overly complex (defined in terms of what dwarf2out_frame_debug_expr can handle), you will also have to create a REG_FRAME_RELATED_EXPR note and attach it to the instruction. This note should contain a simple expression of the computation performed by this instruction, i.e., one that dwarf2out_frame_debug_expr can handle.

This flag is required for exception handling support on targets with RTL prologues.

**SYMBOL_REF_USED** *(x)*
In a symbol_ref, indicates that x has been used. This is normally only used to ensure that x is only declared external once. Stored in the used field.

**SYMBOL_REF_FLAG** *(x)*
In a symbol_ref, this is used as a flag for machine-specific purposes. Stored in the volatile field and printed as ‘/v’.

**SYMBOL_REF_WEAK** *(x)*
In a symbol_ref, indicates that x has been declared weak. Stored in the integrated field and printed as ‘/i’.

**LABEL_OUTSIDE_LOOP_P**
In label_ref expressions, nonzero if this is a reference to a label that is outside the innermost loop containing the reference to the label. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as ‘/s’.
INSN_DELETED_P (insn)
In an insn, nonzero if the insn has been deleted. Stored in the volatil field and printed as ‘/v’.

INSN_ANNULLED_BRANCH_P (insn)
In an insn in the delay slot of a branch insn, indicates that an annulling branch should be used. See the discussion under sequence below. Stored in the unchanging field and printed as ‘/u’.

INSN_FROM_TARGET_P (insn)
In an insn in a delay slot of a branch, indicates that the insn is from the target of the branch. If the branch insn has INSN_ANNULLED_BRANCH_P set, this insn will only be executed if the branch is taken. For annullled branches with INSN_FROM_TARGET_P clear, the insn will be executed only if the branch is not taken. When INSN_ANNULLED_BRANCH_P is not set, this insn will always be executed. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as ‘/s’.

CONSTANT_POOL_ADDRESS_P (x)
Nonzero in a symbol_ref if it refers to part of the current function’s “constants pool”. These are addresses close to the beginning of the function, and GNU CC assumes they can be addressed directly (perhaps with the help of base registers). Stored in the unchanging field and printed as ‘/u’.

CONST_CALL_P (x)
In a call_insn, indicates that the insn represents a call to a const function. Stored in the unchanging field and printed as ‘/u’.

LABEL_PRESERVE_P (x)
In a code_label, indicates that the label can never be deleted. Labels referenced by a non-local goto will have this bit set. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as ‘/s’.

SCHED_GROUP_P (insn)
During instruction scheduling, in an insn, indicates that the previous insn must be scheduled together with this insn. This is used to ensure that certain groups of instructions will not be split up by the instruction scheduling pass, for example, use insns before a call_insn may not be separated from the call_insn. Stored in the in_struct field and printed as ‘/s’.

These are the fields which the above macros refer to:

used
Normally, this flag is used only momentarily, at the end of RTL generation for a function, to count the number of times an expression appears in insns. Expressions that appear more than once are copied, according to the rules for shared structure (see Section 19.19 [Sharing], page 288).

In a symbol_ref, it indicates that an external declaration for the symbol has already been written.

In a reg, it is used by the leaf register renumbering code to ensure that each register is only renumbered once.

volatil
This flag is used in mem, symbol_ref and reg expressions and in insns. In RTL dump files, it is printed as ‘/v’.

In a mem expression, it is 1 if the memory reference is volatile. Volatile memory references may not be deleted, reordered or combined.

In a symbol_ref expression, it is used for machine-specific purposes.

In a reg expression, it is 1 if the value is a user-level variable. 0 indicates an internal compiler temporary.

In an insn, 1 means the insn has been deleted.
in_struct
In mem expressions, it is 1 if the memory datum referred to is all or part of a structure or array; 0 if it is (or might be) a scalar variable. A reference through a C pointer has 0 because the pointer might point to a scalar variable. This information allows the compiler to determine something about possible cases of aliasing.
In an insn in the delay slot of a branch, 1 means that this insn is from the target of the branch.
During instruction scheduling, in an insn, 1 means that this insn must be scheduled as part of a group together with the previous insn.
In reg expressions, it is 1 if the register has its entire life contained within the test expression of some loop.
In subreg expressions, 1 means that the subreg is accessing an object that has had its mode promoted from a wider mode.
In label_ref expressions, 1 means that the referenced label is outside the innermost loop containing the insn in which the label_ref was found.
In code_label expressions, it is 1 if the label may never be deleted. This is used for labels which are the target of non-local gotos.
In an RTL dump, this flag is represented as '/s'.

unchanging
In reg and mem expressions, 1 means that the value of the expression never changes.
In subreg expressions, it is 1 if the subreg references an unsigned object whose mode has been promoted to a wider mode.
In an insn, 1 means that this is an annulling branch.
In a symbol_ref expression, 1 means that this symbol addresses something in the per-function constants pool.
In a call_insn, 1 means that this instruction is a call to a const function.
In an RTL dump, this flag is represented as '/u'.

integrated
In some kinds of expressions, including insns, this flag means the rtl was produced by procedure integration.
In a reg expression, this flag indicates the register containing the value to be returned by the current function. On machines that pass parameters in registers, the same register number may be used for parameters as well, but this flag is not set on such uses.

19.5 Machine Modes
A machine mode describes a size of data object and the representation used for it. In the C code, machine modes are represented by an enumeration type, enum machine_mode, defined in 'machmode.def'. Each RTL expression has room for a machine mode and so do certain kinds of tree expressions (declarations and types, to be precise).
In debugging dumps and machine descriptions, the machine mode of an RTL expression is written after the expression code with a colon to separate them. The letters 'mode' which appear at the end of each machine mode name are omitted. For example, (reg:SI 38) is a reg expression with machine mode SImode. If the mode is VOIDmode, it is not written at all.
Here is a table of machine modes. The term “byte” below refers to an object of BITS_PER_UNIT bits (see Section 21.4 [Storage Layout], page 358).

BImode “Bit” mode represents a single bit, for predicate registers.
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QImode  "Quarter-Integer" mode represents a single byte treated as an integer.

HImode  "Half-Integer" mode represents a two-byte integer.

PSImode "Partial Single Integer" mode represents an integer which occupies four bytes but
which doesn’t really use all four. On some machines, this is the right mode to use
for pointers.

SImode  "Single Integer" mode represents a four-byte integer.

PDImode "Partial Double Integer" mode represents an integer which occupies eight bytes but
which doesn’t really use all eight. On some machines, this is the right mode to use
for certain pointers.

DImode  "Double Integer" mode represents an eight-byte integer.

TImode  "Tetra Integer" (?) mode represents a sixteen-byte integer.

OImode  "Octa Integer" (?) mode represents a thirty-two-byte integer.

SFmode  "Single Floating" mode represents a single-precision (four byte) floating point num-
ber.

DFmode  "Double Floating" mode represents a double-precision (eight byte) floating point
number.

XFmode  "Extended Floating" mode represents a triple-precision (twelve byte) floating point
number. This mode is used for IEEE extended floating point. On some systems not
all bits within these bytes will actually be used.

TFmode  "Tetra Floating" mode represents a quadruple-precision (sixteen byte) floating point
number.

CCmode  "Condition Code" mode represents the value of a condition code, which is a machine-
specific set of bits used to represent the result of a comparison operation. Other
machine-specific modes may also be used for the condition code. These modes
are not used on machines that use cc0 (see see Section 21.13 [Condition Code],
page 407).

BLKmode "Block" mode represents values that are aggregates to which none of the other modes
apply. In RTL, only memory references can have this mode, and only if they appear
in string-move or vector instructions. On machines which have no such instructions,
BLKmode will not appear in RTL.

VOIDmode Void mode means the absence of a mode or an unspecified mode. For example, RTL
expressions of code const_int have mode VOIDmode because they can be taken to
have whatever mode the context requires. In debugging dumps of RTL, VOIDmode
is expressed by the absence of any mode.

SCmode, DCmode, XCmode, TCmode
These modes stand for a complex number represented as a pair of floating point
values. The floating point values are in SFmode, DFmode, XFmode, and TFmode,
respectively.

CQImode, CHImode, CSImode, CDImode, CTImode, COImode
These modes stand for a complex number represented as a pair of integer values.
The integer values are in QImode, HImode, SImode, DImode, TImode, and OImode,
respectively.

The machine description defines Pmode as a C macro which expands into the machine mode
used for addresses. Normally this is the mode whose size is BITS_PER_WORD, SImode on 32-bit
machines.
The only modes which a machine description must support are QImode, and the modes corresponding to BITS_PER_WORD, FLOAT_TYPE_SIZE and DOUBLE_TYPE_SIZE. The compiler will attempt to use DImode for 8-byte structures and unions, but this can be prevented by overriding the definition of MAX_FIXED_MODE_SIZE. Alternatively, you can have the compiler use TImode for 16-byte structures and unions. Likewise, you can arrange for the C type short int to avoid using HImode.

Very few explicit references to machine modes remain in the compiler and these few references will soon be removed. Instead, the machine modes are divided into mode classes. These are represented by the enumeration type enum mode_class defined in ‘machmode.h’. The possible mode classes are:

- **MODE_INT**  Integer modes. By default these are QImode, HImode, SImode, DImode, and TImode.
- **MODE_PARTIAL_INT**  The “partial integer” modes, PSImode and PDImode.
- **MODE_FLOAT**  floating point modes. By default these are SFmode, DFmode, XFmode and TFmode.
- **MODE_COMPLEX_INT**  Complex integer modes. (These are not currently implemented).
- **MODE_COMPLEX_FLOAT**  Complex floating point modes. By default these are SCmode, DCmode, XCmode, and TCmode.
- **MODE_FUNCTION**  Algol or Pascal function variables including a static chain. (These are not currently implemented).
- **MODE_CC**  Modes representing condition code values. These are CCmode plus any modes listed in the EXTRA_CC_MODES macro. See Section 20.11 [Jump Patterns], page 323, also see Section 21.13 [Condition Code], page 407.
- **MODE_RANDOM**  This is a catchall mode class for modes which don’t fit into the above classes. Currently VOIDmode and BLKmode are in MODE_RANDOM.

Here are some C macros that relate to machine modes:

- **GET_MODE** (x)  Returns the machine mode of the RTX x.
- **PUT_MODE** (x, newmode)  Alters the machine mode of the RTX x to be newmode.
- **NUM_MACHINE_MODES**  Stands for the number of machine modes available on the target machine. This is one greater than the largest numeric value of any machine mode.
- **GET_MODE_NAME** (m)  Returns the name of mode m as a string.
- **GET_MODE_CLASS** (m)  Returns the mode class of mode m.
- **GET_MODE_WIDER_MODE** (m)  Returns the next wider natural mode. For example, the expression GET_MODE_WIDER_MODE (QImode) returns HImode.
GET_MODE_SIZE (m)
Returns the size in bytes of a datum of mode m.

GET_MODE_BITSIZE (m)
Returns the size in bits of a datum of mode m.

GET_MODE_MASK (m)
Returns a bitmask containing 1 for all bits in a word that fit within mode m. This macro can only be used for modes whose bitsize is less than or equal to HOST_BITS_PER_INT.

GET_MODE_ALIGNMENT (m)
Return the required alignment, in bits, for an object of mode m.

GET_MODE_UNIT_SIZE (m)
Returns the size in bytes of the subunits of a datum of mode m. This is the same as GET_MODE_SIZE except in the case of complex modes. For them, the unit size is the size of the real or imaginary part.

GET_MODE_NUNITS (m)
Returns the number of units contained in a mode, i.e., GET_MODE_SIZE divided by GET_MODE_UNIT_SIZE.

GET_CLASS_NARROWEST_MODE (c)
Returns the narrowest mode in mode class c.

The global variables byte_mode and word_mode contain modes whose classes are MODE_INT and whose bitsizes are either BITS_PER_UNIT or BITS_PER_WORD, respectively. On 32-bit machines, these are QImode and SImode, respectively.

19.6 Constant Expression Types
The simplest RTL expressions are those that represent constant values.

(const_int i)
This type of expression represents the integer value i. i is customarily accessed with the macro INTVAL as in INTVAL (exp), which is equivalent to XWINT (exp, 0).
There is only one expression object for the integer value zero; it is the value of the variable const0_rtx. Likewise, the only expression for integer value one is found in const1_rtx, the only expression for integer value two is found in const2_rtx, and the only expression for integer value negative one is found in constm1_rtx. Any attempt to create an expression of code const_int and value zero, one, two or negative one will return const0_rtx, const1_rtx, const2_rtx or constm1_rtx as appropriate.
Similarly, there is only one object for the integer whose value is STORE_FLAG_VALUE. It is found in const_true_rtx. If STORE_FLAG_VALUE is one, const_true_rtx and const1_rtx will point to the same object. If STORE_FLAG_VALUE is -1, const_true_rtx and constm1_rtx will point to the same object.

(const_double: m addr i0 i1 ...)
Represents either a floating-point constant of mode m or an integer constant too large to fit into HOST_BITS_PER_WIDE_INT bits but small enough to fit within twice that number of bits (GNU CC does not provide a mechanism to represent even larger constants). In the latter case, m will be VOIDmode.
addr is used to contain the mem expression that corresponds to the location in memory that at which the constant can be found. If it has not been allocated a memory location, but is on the chain of all const_double expressions in this
compilation (maintained using an undisplayed field), addr contains const0_rtx. If it is not on the chain, addr contains cc0_rtx. addr is customarily accessed with the macro CONST_DOUBLE_MEM and the chain field via CONST_DOUBLE_CHAIN.

If m is VOIDmode, the bits of the value are stored in i0 and i1. i0 is customarily accessed with the macro CONST_DOUBLE_LOW and i1 with CONST_DOUBLE_HIGH.

If the constant is floating point (regardless of its precision), then the number of integers used to store the value depends on the size of REAL_VALUE_TYPE (see Section 21.19 [Cross-compilation], page 439). The integers represent a floating point number, but not precisely in the target machine's or host machine's floating point format. To convert them to the precise bit pattern used by the target machine, use the macro REAL_VALUE_TO_TARGET_DOUBLE and friends (see Section 21.17.2 [Data Output], page 417).

The macro CONST0_RTX (mode) refers to an expression with value 0 in mode mode. If mode mode is of mode class MODE_INT, it returns const0_rtx. Otherwise, it returns a CONST_DOUBLE expression in mode mode. Similarly, the macro CONST1_RTX (mode) refers to an expression with value 1 in mode mode and similarly for CONST2_RTX.

(const_string str) Represents a constant string with value str. Currently this is used only for insn attributes (see Section 20.17 [Insn Attributes], page 336) since constant strings in C are placed in memory.

(symbol_ref:mode symbol) Represents the value of an assembler label for data. symbol is a string that describes the name of the assembler label. If it starts with a ‘*’, the label is the rest of symbol not including the ‘*’. Otherwise, the label is symbol, usually prefixed with ‘_’.

The symbol_ref contains a mode, which is usually Pmode. Usually that is the only mode for which a symbol is directly valid.

(label_ref label) Represents the value of an assembler label for code. It contains one operand, an expression, which must be a code_label that appears in the instruction sequence to identify the place where the label should go.

The reason for using a distinct expression type for code label references is so that jump optimization can distinguish them.

(const:m exp) Represents a constant that is the result of an assembly-time arithmetic computation. The operand, exp, is an expression that contains only constants (const_int, symbol_ref and label_ref expressions) combined with plus and minus. However, not all combinations are valid, since the assembler cannot do arbitrary arithmetic on relocatable symbols.

m should be Pmode.

(high:m exp) Represents the high-order bits of exp, usually a symbol_ref. The number of bits is machine-dependent and is normally the number of bits specified in an instruction that initializes the high order bits of a register. It is used with lo_sum to represent the typical two-instruction sequence used in RISC machines to reference a global memory location.

m should be Pmode.
19.7 Registers and Memory

Here are the RTL expression types for describing access to machine registers and to main memory.

(reg:m n)

For small values of the integer \( n \) (those that are less than FIRST_PSEUDO_REGISTER), this stands for a reference to machine register number \( n \): a hard register. For larger values of \( n \), it stands for a temporary value or pseudo register. The compiler’s strategy is to generate code assuming an unlimited number of such pseudo registers, and later convert them into hard registers or into memory references.

\( m \) is the machine mode of the reference. It is necessary because machines can generally refer to each register in more than one mode. For example, a register may contain a full word but there may be instructions to refer to it as a half word or as a single byte, as well as instructions to refer to it as a floating point number of various precisions.

Even for a register that the machine can access in only one mode, the mode must always be specified.

The symbol FIRST_PSEUDO_REGISTER is defined by the machine description, since the number of hard registers on the machine is an invariant characteristic of the machine. Note, however, that not all of the machine registers must be general registers. All the machine registers that can be used for storage of data are given hard register numbers, even those that can be used only in certain instructions or can hold only certain types of data.

A hard register may be accessed in various modes throughout one function, but each pseudo register is given a natural mode and is accessed only in that mode. When it is necessary to describe an access to a pseudo register using a nonnatural mode, a subreg expression is used.

A reg expression with a machine mode that specifies more than one word of data may actually stand for several consecutive registers. If in addition the register number specifies a hardware register, then it actually represents several consecutive hardware registers starting with the specified one.

Each pseudo register number used in a function’s RTL code is represented by a unique reg expression.

Some pseudo register numbers, those within the range of FIRSTVIRTUAL_REGISTER to LASTVIRTUAL_REGISTER only appear during the RTL generation phase and are eliminated before the optimization phases. These represent locations in the stack frame that cannot be determined until RTL generation for the function has been completed. The following virtual register numbers are defined:

VIRTUAL_INCOMING_ARGS_REGNUM

This points to the first word of the incoming arguments passed on the stack. Normally these arguments are placed there by the caller, but the callee may have pushed some arguments that were previously passed in registers.

When RTL generation is complete, this virtual register is replaced by the sum of the register given by ARG_POINTER_REGNUM and the value of FIRST_PARM_OFFSET.

VIRTUAL_STACK_VARS_REGNUM

If FRAME_GROWS_DOWNWARD is defined, this points to immediately above the first variable on the stack. Otherwise, it points to the first variable on the stack.
VIRTUAL_STACK_VARS_REGNUM is replaced with the sum of the register given by FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM and the value STARTING_FRAME_OFFSET.

VIRTUAL_STACK_DYNAMIC_REGNUM
This points to the location of dynamically allocated memory on the stack immediately after the stack pointer has been adjusted by the amount of memory desired.
This virtual register is replaced by the sum of the register given by STACK_POINTER_REGNUM and the value STACK_DYNAMIC_OFFSET.

VIRTUAL_OUTGOING_ARGS_REGNUM
This points to the location in the stack at which outgoing arguments should be written when the stack is pre-pushed (arguments pushed using push insns should always use STACK_POINTER_REGNUM).
This virtual register is replaced by the sum of the register given by STACK_POINTER_REGNUM and the value STACK_POINTER_OFFSET.

(subreg:m reg wordnum)
subreg expressions are used to refer to a register in a machine mode other than its natural one, or to refer to one register of a multi-word reg that actually refers to several registers.

Each pseudo-register has a natural mode. If it is necessary to operate on it in a different mode—for example, to perform a fullword move instruction on a pseudo-register that contains a single byte—the pseudo-register must be enclosed in a subreg. In such a case, wordnum is zero.

Usually m is at least as narrow as the mode of reg, in which case it is restricting consideration to only the bits of reg that are in m.

Sometimes m is wider than the mode of reg. These subreg expressions are often called paradoxical. They are used in cases where we want to refer to an object in a wider mode but do not care what value the additional bits have. The reload pass ensures that paradoxical references are only made to hard registers.

The other use of subreg is to extract the individual registers of a multi-register value. Machine modes such as DImode and TImode can indicate values longer than a word, values which usually require two or more consecutive registers. To access one of the registers, use a subreg with mode SImode and a wordnum that says which register.

Storing in a non-paradoxical subreg has undefined results for bits belonging to the same word as the subreg. This laxity makes it easier to generate efficient code for such instructions. To represent an instruction that preserves all the bits outside of those in the subreg, use strict_low_part around the subreg.

The compilation parameter WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN, if set to 1, says that word number zero is the most significant part; otherwise, it is the least significant part.

On a few targets, FLOAT_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN disagrees with WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN. However, most parts of the compiler treat floating point values as if they had the same endianness as integer values. This works because they handle them solely as a collection of integer values, with no particular numerical value. Only real.c and the runtime libraries care about FLOAT_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN.

Between the combiner pass and the reload pass, it is possible to have a paradoxical subreg which contains a mem instead of a reg as its first operand. After the reload pass, it is also possible to have a non-paradoxical subreg which contains a mem; this usually occurs when the mem is a stack slot which replaced a pseudo register.
Note that it is not valid to access a \texttt{DFmode} value in \texttt{SFmode} using a \texttt{subreg}. On some machines the most significant part of a \texttt{DFmode} value does not have the same format as a single-precision floating value.

It is also not valid to access a single word of a multi-word value in a hard register when less registers can hold the value than would be expected from its size. For example, some 32-bit machines have floating-point registers that can hold an entire \texttt{DFmode} value. If register 10 were such a register \texttt{(subreg:SI (reg:DF 10) 1)} would be invalid because there is no way to convert that reference to a single machine register. The reload pass prevents \texttt{subreg} expressions such as these from being formed.

The first operand of a \texttt{subreg} expression is customarily accessed with the \texttt{SUBREG\_REG} macro and the second operand is customarily accessed with the \texttt{SUBREG\_WORD} macro.

\texttt{(scratch:\textit{m})}

This represents a scratch register that will be required for the execution of a single instruction and not used subsequently. It is converted into a \texttt{reg} by either the local register allocator or the reload pass.

\texttt{scratch} is usually present inside a \texttt{clobber} operation (see Section 19.14 [Side Effects], page 275).

\texttt{(cc0)}

This refers to the machine’s condition code register. It has no operands and may not have a machine mode. There are two ways to use it:

- To stand for a complete set of condition code flags. This is best on most machines, where each comparison sets the entire series of flags.
  
  With this technique, \texttt{(cc0)} may be validly used in only two contexts: as the destination of an assignment (in test and compare instructions) and in comparison operators comparing against zero (\texttt{const\_int} with value zero; that is to say, \texttt{const0\_rtx}).

- To stand for a single flag that is the result of a single condition. This is useful on machines that have only a single flag bit, and in which comparison instructions must specify the condition to test.

  With this technique, \texttt{(cc0)} may be validly used in only two contexts: as the destination of an assignment (in test and compare instructions) where the source is a comparison operator, and as the first operand of \texttt{if\_then\_else} (in a conditional branch).

There is only one expression object of code \texttt{cc0}; it is the value of the variable \texttt{cc0\_rtx}. Any attempt to create an expression of code \texttt{cc0} will return \texttt{cc0\_rtx}.

Instructions can set the condition code implicitly. On many machines, nearly all instructions set the condition code based on the value that they compute or store. It is not necessary to record these actions explicitly in the RTL because the machine description includes a prescription for recognizing the instructions that do so (by means of the macro \texttt{NOTICE\_UPDATE\_CC}). See Section 21.13 [Condition Code], page 407. Only instructions whose sole purpose is to set the condition code, and instructions that use the condition code, need mention \texttt{(cc0)}.

On some machines, the condition code register is given a register number and a \texttt{reg} is used instead of \texttt{(cc0)}. This is usually the preferable approach if only a small subset of instructions modify the condition code. Other machines store condition codes in general registers; in such cases a pseudo register should be used.

Some machines, such as the Sparc and RS/6000, have two sets of arithmetic instructions, one that sets and one that does not set the condition code. This is best handled by normally generating the instruction that does not set the condition code,
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and making a pattern that both performs the arithmetic and sets the condition code register (which would not be \(cc0\) in this case). For examples, search for `addcc` and `andcc` in `sparc.md`.

\(\text{pc}\)  This represents the machine’s program counter. It has no operands and may not have a machine mode. \(\text{pc}\) may be validly used only in certain specific contexts in jump instructions.

There is only one expression object of code \(\text{pc}\); it is the value of the variable \(\text{pc}\_rtx\). Any attempt to create an expression of code \(\text{pc}\) will return \(\text{pc}\_rtx\).

All instructions that do not jump alter the program counter implicitly by incrementing it, but there is no need to mention this in the RTL.

\(\text{mem}:m\ \text{addr}\ \text{alias}\)  This RTX represents a reference to main memory at an address represented by the expression \(\text{addr}\). \(m\) specifies how large a unit of memory is accessed. \(\text{alias}\) specifies an alias set for the reference. In general two items are in different alias sets if they cannot reference the same memory address.

\(\text{addressof}:m\ \text{reg}\)  This RTX represents a request for the address of register \(\text{reg}\). Its mode is always \(\text{Pmode}\). If there are any \(\text{addressof}\) expressions left in the function after CSE, \(\text{reg}\) is forced into the stack and the \(\text{addressof}\) expression is replaced with a \(\text{plus}\) expression for the address of its stack slot.

\textbf{19.8 RTL Expressions for Arithmetic}

Unless otherwise specified, all the operands of arithmetic expressions must be valid for mode \(m\). An operand is valid for mode \(m\) if it has mode \(m\), or if it is a \texttt{const\_int} or \texttt{const\_double} and \(m\) is a mode of class \texttt{MODE\_INT}.

For commutative binary operations, constants should be placed in the second operand.

\(\text{plus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Represents the sum of the values represented by \(x\) and \(y\) carried out in machine mode \(m\).

\(\text{lo\_sum}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{plus}, except that it represents that sum of \(x\) and the low-order bits of \(y\). The number of low order bits is machine-dependent but is normally the number of bits in a \text{Pmode} item minus the number of bits set by the \texttt{high} code (see Section 19.6 [Constants], page 264).

\(m\) should be \text{Pmode}.

\(\text{minus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{plus} but represents subtraction.

\(\text{ss\_plus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{plus}, but using signed saturation in case of an overflow.

\(\text{us\_plus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{plus}, but using unsigned saturation in case of an overflow.

\(\text{ss\_minus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{minus}, but using signed saturation in case of an overflow.

\(\text{us\_minus}:m\ \text{x y}\)  Like \text{minus}, but using unsigned saturation in case of an overflow.
Represents the result of subtracting y from x for purposes of comparison. The result is computed without overflow, as if with infinite precision.

Of course, machines can’t really subtract with infinite precision. However, they can pretend to do so when only the sign of the result will be used, which is the case when the result is stored in the condition code. And that is the only way this kind of expression may validly be used: as a value to be stored in the condition codes.

The mode \( m \) is not related to the modes of \( x \) and \( y \), but instead is the mode of the condition code value. If \( (\text{cc}0) \) is used, it is \texttt{VOIDmode}. Otherwise it is some mode in class \texttt{MODE_CC}, often \texttt{CCmode}. See Section 21.13 [Condition Code], page 407.

Normally, \( x \) and \( y \) must have the same mode. Otherwise, \texttt{compare} is valid only if the mode of \( x \) is in class \texttt{MODE_INT} and \( y \) is a \texttt{const_int} or \texttt{const_double} with mode \texttt{VOIDmode}. The mode of \( x \) determines what mode the comparison is to be done in; thus it must not be \texttt{VOIDmode}.

If one of the operands is a constant, it should be placed in the second operand and the comparison code adjusted as appropriate.

A \texttt{compare} specifying two \texttt{VOIDmode} constants is not valid since there is no way to know in what mode the comparison is to be performed; the comparison must either be folded during the compilation or the first operand must be loaded into a register while its mode is still known.

Represents the negation (subtraction from zero) of the value represented by \( x \), carried out in mode \( m \).

Represents the signed product of the values represented by \( x \) and \( y \) carried out in machine mode \( m \).

Some machines support a multiplication that generates a product wider than the operands. Write the pattern for this as

\[
(\text{mult}:m \ (\text{sign\_extend}:m \ x) \ (\text{sign\_extend}:m \ y))
\]

where \( m \) is wider than the modes of \( x \) and \( y \), which need not be the same.

Write patterns for unsigned widening multiplication similarly using \texttt{zero\_extend}.

Represents the quotient in signed division of \( x \) by \( y \), carried out in machine mode \( m \). If \( m \) is a floating point mode, it represents the exact quotient; otherwise, the integerized quotient.

Some machines have division instructions in which the operands and quotient widths are not all the same; you should represent such instructions using \texttt{truncate} and \texttt{sign\_extend} as in,

\[
(\text{truncate}:m1 \ (\text{div}:m2 \ x \ (\text{sign\_extend}:m2 \ y)))
\]

Like \texttt{div} but represents unsigned division.

Like \texttt{div} and \texttt{udiv} but represent the remainder instead of the quotient.

Represents the smaller (for \texttt{smin}) or larger (for \texttt{smax}) of \( x \) and \( y \), interpreted as signed integers in mode \( m \).
Like \texttt{smin} and \texttt{smax}, but the values are interpreted as unsigned integers.

\texttt{(not:m x)}

Represents the bitwise complement of the value represented by \texttt{x}, carried out in mode \texttt{m}, which must be a fixed-point machine mode.

\texttt{(and:m x y)}

Represents the bitwise logical-and of the values represented by \texttt{x} and \texttt{y}, carried out in machine mode \texttt{m}, which must be a fixed-point machine mode.

\texttt{(ior:m x y)}

Represents the bitwise inclusive-or of the values represented by \texttt{x} and \texttt{y}, carried out in machine mode \texttt{m}, which must be a fixed-point machine mode.

\texttt{(xor:m x y)}

Represents the bitwise exclusive-or of the values represented by \texttt{x} and \texttt{y}, carried out in machine mode \texttt{m}, which must be a fixed-point mode.

\texttt{(ashift:m x c)}

Represents the result of arithmetically shifting \texttt{x} left by \texttt{c} places. \texttt{x} have mode \texttt{m}, a fixed-point machine mode. \texttt{c} be a fixed-point mode or be a constant with mode \texttt{VOIDmode}; which mode is determined by the mode called for in the machine description entry for the left-shift instruction. For example, on the Vax, the mode of \texttt{c} is \texttt{QImode} regardless of \texttt{m}.

\texttt{(lshiftrt:m x c) (ashiftrt:m x c)}

Like \texttt{ashift} but for right shift. Unlike the case for left shift, these two operations are distinct.

\texttt{(rotate:m x c) (rotatert:m x c)}

Similar but represent left and right rotate. If \texttt{c} is a constant, use \texttt{rotate}.

\texttt{(abs:m x)}

Represents the absolute value of \texttt{x}, computed in mode \texttt{m}.

\texttt{(sqrt:m x)}

Represents the square root of \texttt{x}, computed in mode \texttt{m}. Most often \texttt{m} will be a floating point mode.

\texttt{(ffs:m x)}

Represents one plus the index of the least significant 1-bit in \texttt{x}, represented as an integer of mode \texttt{m}. (The value is zero if \texttt{x} is zero.) The mode of \texttt{x} need not be \texttt{m}; depending on the target machine, various mode combinations may be valid.

19.9 Comparison Operations

Comparison operators test a relation on two operands and are considered to represent a machine-dependent nonzero value described by, but not necessarily equal to, \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} (see Section 21.21 [Misc], page 442) if the relation holds, or zero if it does not. The mode of the comparison operation is independent of the mode of the data being compared. If the comparison operation is being tested (e.g., the first operand of an \texttt{if\_then\_else}), the mode must be \texttt{VOIDmode}. If the comparison operation is producing data to be stored in some variable, the mode must be in class \texttt{MODE\_INT}. All comparison operations producing data must use the same mode, which is machine-specific.
There are two ways that comparison operations may be used. The comparison operators may be used to compare the condition codes \((cc0)\) against zero, as in \((eq (cc0) (const_int 0))\). Such a construct actually refers to the result of the preceding instruction in which the condition codes were set. The instruction setting the condition code must be adjacent to the instruction using the condition code; only note insns may separate them.

Alternatively, a comparison operation may directly compare two data objects. The mode of the comparison is determined by the operands; they must both be valid for a common machine mode. A comparison with both operands constant would be invalid as the machine mode could not be deduced from it, but such a comparison should never exist in RTL due to constant folding.

In the example above, if \((cc0)\) were last set to \((compare x y)\), the comparison operation is identical to \((eq x y)\). Usually only one style of comparisons is supported on a particular machine, but the combine pass will try to merge the operations to produce the \(eq\) shown in case it exists in the context of the particular insn involved.

Inequality comparisons come in two flavors, signed and unsigned. Thus, there are distinct expression codes \(gt\) and \(gtu\) for signed and unsigned greater-than. These can produce different results for the same pair of integer values: for example, 1 is signed greater-than \(-1\) but not unsigned greater-than, because \(-1\) when regarded as unsigned is actually \(0xffffffff\) which is greater than 1.

The signed comparisons are also used for floating point values. Floating point comparisons are distinguished by the machine modes of the operands.

\((eq: m x y)\)
STORE_FLAG_VALUE if the values represented by \(x\) and \(y\) are equal, otherwise 0.

\((ne: m x y)\)
STORE_FLAG_VALUE if the values represented by \(x\) and \(y\) are not equal, otherwise 0.

\((gt: m x y)\)
STORE_FLAG_VALUE if the \(x\) is greater than \(y\). If they are fixed-point, the comparison is done in a signed sense.

\((gtu: m x y)\)
Like \(gt\) but does unsigned comparison, on fixed-point numbers only.

\((lt: m x y)\)
Like \(gt\) and \(gtu\) but test for “less than”.

\((ltu: m x y)\)
Like \(gt\) and \(gtu\) but test for “greater than or equal”.

\((le: m x y)\)
Like \(gt\) and \(gtu\) but test for “less than or equal”.

\((ge: m x y)\)
Like \(gt\) and \(gtu\) but test for “greater than or equal”.

\((if\_then\_else\ cond\ then\ else)\)
This is not a comparison operation but is listed here because it is always used in conjunction with a comparison operation. To be precise, \(cond\) is a comparison expression. This expression represents a choice, according to \(cond\), between the value represented by \(then\) and the one represented by \(else\).

On most machines, \(if\_then\_else\) expressions are valid only to express conditional jumps.

\((cond [test1\ value1\ test2\ value2\ ...]\ default)\)
Similar to \(if\_then\_else\), but more general. Each of \(test1, test2, ...\) is performed in turn. The result of this expression is the \(value\) corresponding to the first non-zero test, or \(default\) if none of the tests are non-zero expressions.
This is currently not valid for instruction patterns and is supported only for insn attributes. See Section 20.17 [Insn Attributes], page 336.

19.10 Bit-Fields

Special expression codes exist to represent bit-field instructions. These types of expressions are lvalues in RTL; they may appear on the left side of an assignment, indicating insertion of a value into the specified bit-field.

(sign_extract:\(m \ loc \ size \ pos\))

This represents a reference to a sign-extended bit-field contained or starting in \(loc\) (a memory or register reference). The bit-field is \(size\) bits wide and starts at bit \(pos\). The compilation option BITS_BIG_ENDIAN says which end of the memory unit \(pos\) counts from.

If \(loc\) is in memory, its mode must be a single-byte integer mode. If \(loc\) is in a register, the mode to use is specified by the operand of the insv or extv pattern (see Section 20.8 [Standard Names], page 310) and is usually a full-word integer mode, which is the default if none is specified.

The mode of \(pos\) is machine-specific and is also specified in the insv or extv pattern. The mode \(m\) is the same as the mode that would be used for \(loc\) if it were a register.

(zero_extract:\(m \ loc \ size \ pos\))

Like sign_extract but refers to an unsigned or zero-extended bit-field. The same sequence of bits are extracted, but they are filled to an entire word with zeros instead of by sign-extension.

19.11 Vector Operations

All normal rtl expressions can be used with vector modes; they are interpreted as operating on each part of the vector independently. Additionally, there are a few new expressions to describe specific vector operations.

(vec_merge:\(m \ vec1 \ vec2 \ items\))

This describes a merge operation between two vectors. The result is a vector of mode \(m\); its elements are selected from either \(vec1\) or \(vec2\). Which elements are selected is described by \(items\), which is a bit mask represented by a const_int; a zero bit indicates the corresponding element in the result vector is taken from \(vec2\) while a set bit indicates it is taken from \(vec1\).

(vec_select:\(m \ vec1 \ selection\))

This describes an operation that selects parts of a vector. \(vec1\) is the source vector, selection is a parallel that contains a const_int for each of the subparts of the result vector, giving the number of the source subpart that should be stored into it.

(vec_concat:\(m \ vec1 \ vec2\))

Describes a vector concat operation. The result is a concatenation of the vectors \(vec1\) and \(vec2\); its length is the sum of the lengths of the two inputs.

(vec_const:\(m \ subparts\))

This describes a constant vector. subparts is a parallel that contains a constant for each of the subparts of the vector.

(vec_duplicate:\(m \ vec\))

This operation converts a small vector into a larger one by duplicating the input values. The output vector mode must have the same submodes as the input vector mode, and the number of output parts must be an integer multiple of the number of input parts.
19.12 Conversions

All conversions between machine modes must be represented by explicit conversion operations. For example, an expression which is the sum of a byte and a full word cannot be written as

\((\text{plus:SI (reg:QI 34)} \ (\text{reg:SI 80}))\)

because the \text{plus} operation requires two operands of the same machine mode. Therefore, the byte-sized operand is enclosed in a conversion operation, as in

\((\text{plus:SI (sign_extend:SI (reg:QI 34)) (reg:SI 80)})\)

The conversion operation is not a mere placeholder, because there may be more than one way of converting from a given starting mode to the desired final mode. The conversion operation code says how to do it.

For all conversion operations, \(x\) must not be \text{VOIDmode} because the mode in which to do the conversion would not be known. The conversion must either be done at compile-time or \(x\) must be placed into a register.

\((\text{sign_extend:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of sign-extending the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\). \(m\) must be a fixed-point mode and \(x\) a fixed-point value of a mode narrower than \(m\).

\((\text{zero_extend:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of zero-extending the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\). \(m\) must be a fixed-point mode and \(x\) a fixed-point value of a mode narrower than \(m\).

\((\text{float_extend:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of extending the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\). \(m\) must be a floating point mode and \(x\) a floating point value of a mode narrower than \(m\).

\((\text{truncate:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of truncating the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\). \(m\) must be a fixed-point mode and \(x\) a fixed-point value of a mode wider than \(m\).

\((\text{ss_truncate:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of truncating the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\), using signed saturation in the case of overflow. Both \(m\) and the mode of \(x\) must be fixed-point modes.

\((\text{us_truncate:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of truncating the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\), using unsigned saturation in the case of overflow. Both \(m\) and the mode of \(x\) must be fixed-point modes.

\((\text{float_truncate:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of truncating the value \(x\) to machine mode \(m\). \(m\) must be a floating point mode and \(x\) a floating point value of a mode wider than \(m\).

\((\text{float:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of converting fixed point value \(x\), regarded as signed, to floating point mode \(m\).

\((\text{unsigned_float:} m \ x)\)

Represents the result of converting fixed point value \(x\), regarded as unsigned, to floating point mode \(m\).

\((\text{fix:} m \ x)\)

When \(m\) is a fixed point mode, represents the result of converting floating point value \(x\) to mode \(m\), regarded as signed. How rounding is done is not specified, so this operation may be used validly in compiling C code only for integer-valued operands.
(unsigned_fix: m x)
Represents the result of converting floating point value \(x\) to fixed point mode \(m\), regarded as unsigned. How rounding is done is not specified.

(fix: m x)
When \(m\) is a floating point mode, represents the result of converting floating point value \(x\) (valid for mode \(m\)) to an integer, still represented in floating point mode \(m\), by rounding towards zero.

19.13 Declarations

Declaration expression codes do not represent arithmetic operations but rather state assertions about their operands.

(strict_low_part (subreg: m (reg: n r) 0))
This expression code is used in only one context: as the destination operand of a \texttt{set} expression. In addition, the operand of this expression must be a non-paradoxical \texttt{subreg} expression.

The presence of \texttt{strict_low_part} says that the part of the register which is meaningful in mode \(n\), but is not part of mode \(m\), is not to be altered. Normally, an assignment to such a subreg is allowed to have undefined effects on the rest of the register when \(m\) is less than a word.

19.14 Side Effect Expressions

The expression codes described so far represent values, not actions. But machine instructions never produce values; they are meaningful only for their side effects on the state of the machine. Special expression codes are used to represent side effects.

The body of an instruction is always one of these side effect codes; the codes described above, which represent values, appear only as the operands of these.

(set lval x)
Represents the action of storing the value of \(x\) into the place represented by \(lval\). \(lval\) must be an expression representing a place that can be stored in: \texttt{reg} (or \texttt{subreg} or \texttt{strict_low_part}), \texttt{mem}, \texttt{pc}, \texttt{parallel}, or \texttt{cc0}.

If \(lval\) is a \texttt{reg}, \texttt{subreg} or \texttt{mem}, it has a machine mode; then \(x\) must be valid for that mode.

If \(lval\) is a \texttt{reg} whose machine mode is less than the full width of the register, then it means that the part of the register specified by the machine mode is given the specified value and the rest of the register receives an undefined value. Likewise, if \(lval\) is a \texttt{subreg} whose machine mode is narrower than the mode of the register, the rest of the register can be changed in an undefined way.

If \(lval\) is a \texttt{strict_low_part} of a \texttt{subreg}, then the part of the register specified by the machine mode of the \texttt{subreg} is given the value \(x\) and the rest of the register is not changed.

If \(lval\) is (\texttt{cc0}), it has no machine mode, and \(x\) may be either a \texttt{compare} expression or a value that may have any mode. The latter case represents a “test” instruction. The expression \((\texttt{set (cc0) (reg: m n)})\) is equivalent to \((\texttt{set (cc0) (compare (reg: m n) (const_int 0)})\). Use the former expression to save space during the compilation.

If \(lval\) is a \texttt{parallel}, it is used to represent the case of a function returning a structure in multiple registers. Each element of the \texttt{parallel} is an \texttt{expr_list}
whose first operand is a \texttt{reg} and whose second operand is a \texttt{const\_int} representing the offset (in bytes) into the structure at which the data in that register corresponds. The first element may be null to indicate that the structure is also passed partly in memory.

If \texttt{lval} is \texttt{(pc)}, we have a jump instruction, and the possibilities for \texttt{x} are very limited. It may be a \texttt{label\_ref} expression (unconditional jump). It may be an \texttt{if\_then\_else} (conditional jump), in which case either the second or the third operand must be \texttt{(pc)} (for the case which does not jump) and the other of the two must be a \texttt{label\_ref} (for the case which does jump). \texttt{x} may also be a \texttt{mem} or \texttt{(plus:SI (pc) y)}, where \texttt{y} may be a \texttt{reg} or a \texttt{mem}; these unusual patterns are used to represent jumps through branch tables.

If \texttt{lval} is neither \texttt{(cc0)} nor \texttt{(pc)}, the mode of \texttt{lval} must not be \texttt{VOIDmode} and the mode of \texttt{x} must be valid for the mode of \texttt{lval}.

\texttt{lval} is customarily accessed with the \texttt{SET\_DEST} macro and \texttt{x} with the \texttt{SET\_SRC} macro.

\texttt{(return)}

As the sole expression in a pattern, represents a return from the current function, on machines where this can be done with one instruction, such as Vaxes. On machines where a multi-instruction “epilogue” must be executed in order to return from the function, returning is done by jumping to a label which precedes the epilogue, and the \texttt{return} expression code is never used.

Inside an \texttt{if\_then\_else} expression, represents the value to be placed in \texttt{pc} to return to the caller.

Note that an insn pattern of \texttt{(return)} is logically equivalent to \texttt{(set (pc) (return))}, but the latter form is never used.

\texttt{(call function nargs)}

Represents a function call. \texttt{function} is a \texttt{mem} expression whose address is the address of the function to be called. \texttt{nargs} is an expression which can be used for two purposes: on some machines it represents the number of bytes of stack argument; on others, it represents the number of argument registers.

Each machine has a standard machine mode which \texttt{function} must have. The machine description defines macro \texttt{FUNCTION\_MODE} to expand into the requisite mode name. The purpose of this mode is to specify what kind of addressing is allowed, on machines where the allowed kinds of addressing depend on the machine mode being addressed.

\texttt{(clobber x)}

Represents the storing or possible storing of an unpredictable, undescribed value into \texttt{x}, which must be a \texttt{reg}, \texttt{scratch}, \texttt{parallel} or \texttt{mem} expression.

One place this is used is in string instructions that store standard values into particular hard registers. It may not be worth the trouble to describe the values that are stored, but it is essential to inform the compiler that the registers will be altered, lest it attempt to keep data in them across the string instruction.

If \texttt{x} is \texttt{(mem:BLK (const\_int 0))}, it means that all memory locations must be presumed clobbered. If \texttt{x} is a \texttt{parallel}, it has the same meaning as a \texttt{parallel} in a \texttt{set} expression.

Note that the machine description classifies certain hard registers as “call-clobbered”. All function call instructions are assumed by default to clobber these registers, so there is no need to use \texttt{clobber} expressions to indicate this fact. Also, each function call is assumed to have the potential to alter any memory location, unless the function is declared \texttt{const}.

If the last group of expressions in a \texttt{parallel} are each a \texttt{clobber} expression whose arguments are \texttt{reg} or \texttt{match\_scratch} (see Section 20.4 \[RTL Template\], page 293)
expressions, the combiner phase can add the appropriate clobber expressions to an insn it has constructed when doing so will cause a pattern to be matched.

This feature can be used, for example, on a machine that whose multiply and add instructions don’t use an MQ register but which has an add-accumulate instruction that does clobber the MQ register. Similarly, a combined instruction might require a temporary register while the constituent instructions might not.

When a clobber expression for a register appears inside a parallel with other side effects, the register allocator guarantees that the register is unoccupied both before and after that insn. However, the reload phase may allocate a register used for one of the inputs unless the ‘k’ constraint is specified for the selected alternative (see Section 20.7.4 [Modifiers], page 303). You can clobber either a specific hard register, a pseudo register, or a scratch expression; in the latter two cases, GNU CC will allocate a hard register that is available there for use as a temporary.

For instructions that require a temporary register, you should use scratch instead of a pseudo-register because this will allow the combiner phase to add the clobber when required. You do this by coding (clobber (match_scratch ...)). If you do clobber a pseudo register, use one which appears nowhere else—generate a new one each time. Otherwise, you may confuse CSE.

There is one other known use for clobbering a pseudo register in a parallel: when one of the input operands of the insn is also clobbered by the insn. In this case, using the same pseudo register in the clobber and elsewhere in the insn produces the expected results.

(use x) Represents the use of the value of x. It indicates that the value in x at this point in the program is needed, even though it may not be apparent why this is so. Therefore, the compiler will not attempt to delete previous instructions whose only effect is to store a value in x. x must be a reg expression.

In some situations, it may be tempting to add a use of a register in a parallel to describe a situation where the value of a special register will modify the behaviour of the instruction. An hypothetical example might be a pattern for an addition that can either wrap around or use saturating addition depending on the value of a special control register:

(parallel [(set (reg:SI 2) (unspec:SI [(reg:SI 3) (reg:SI 4)] 0))
   (use (reg:SI 1))])

This will not work, several of the optimizers only look at expressions locally; it is very likely that if you have multiple insns with identical inputs to the unspec, they will be optimized away even if register 1 changes in between.

This means that use can only be used to describe that the register is live. You should think twice before adding use statements, more often you will want to use unspec instead. The use RTX is most commonly useful to describe that a fixed register is implicitly used in an insn. It is also safe to use in patterns where the compiler knows for other reasons that the result of the whole pattern is variable, such as ‘movstrm’ or ‘call’ patterns.

During the reload phase, an insn that has a use as pattern can carry a reg_equal note. These use insns will be deleted before the reload phase exits.

During the delayed branch scheduling phase, x may be an insn. This indicates that x previously was located at this place in the code and its data dependencies need to be taken into account. These use insns will be deleted before the delayed branch scheduling phase exits.

(parallel [x0 x1 ...]) Represents several side effects performed in parallel. The square brackets stand for a vector; the operand of parallel is a vector of expressions. x0, x1 and so on are
individual side effect expressions—expressions of code set, call, return, clobber or use.

“In parallel” means that first all the values used in the individual side-effects are computed, and second all the actual side-effects are performed. For example,

\[
\text{parallel } \begin{cases}
\text{(set (reg:SI 1) (mem:SI (reg:SI 1)))} \\
\text{(set (mem:SI (reg:SI 1)) (reg:SI 1)))}
\end{cases}
\]

says unambiguously that the values of hard register 1 and the memory location addressed by it are interchanged. In both places where \((\text{reg:SI 1})\) appears as a memory address it refers to the value in register 1 before the execution of the insn. It follows that it is incorrect to use parallel and expect the result of one set to be available for the next one. For example, people sometimes attempt to represent a jump-if-zero instruction this way:

\[
\text{parallel } \begin{cases}
\text{(set (cc0) (reg:SI 34))} \\
\text{(set (pc) (if_then_else (eq (cc0) (const_int 0)) (label_ref ...) (pc))))}
\end{cases}
\]

But this is incorrect, because it says that the jump condition depends on the condition code value before this instruction, not on the new value that is set by this instruction.

Peephole optimization, which takes place together with final assembly code output, can produce insns whose patterns consist of a parallel whose elements are the operands needed to output the resulting assembler code—often reg, mem or constant expressions. This would not be well-formed RTL at any other stage in compilation, but it is ok then because no further optimization remains to be done. However, the definition of the macro NOTICE_UPDATE_CC, if any, must deal with such insns if you define any peephole optimizations.

\[
\text{sequence } \begin{cases}
\text{insns} \ldots
\end{cases}
\]

Represents a sequence of insns. Each of the insns that appears in the vector is suitable for appearing in the chain of insns, so it must be an insn, jump_insn, call_insn, code_label, barrier or note.

A sequence RTX is never placed in an actual insn during RTL generation. It represents the sequence of insns that result from a define_expand before those insns are passed to emit_insn to insert them in the chain of insns. When actually inserted, the individual sub-insns are separated out and the sequence is forgotten. After delay-slot scheduling is completed, an insn and all the insns that reside in its delay slots are grouped together into a sequence. The insn requiring the delay slot is the first insn in the vector; subsequent insns are to be placed in the delay slot.

\[
\text{INSN_ANNULLED_BRANCH_P}
\]

is set on an insn in a delay slot to indicate that a branch insn should be used that will conditionally annul the effect of the insns in the delay slots. In such a case, \text{INSN_FROM_TARGET_P} indicates that the insn is from the target of the branch and should be executed only if the branch is taken; otherwise the insn should be executed only if the branch is not taken. See Section 20.17.7 [Delay Slots], page 343.

These expression codes appear in place of a side effect, as the body of an insn, though strictly speaking they do not always describe side effects as such:

\[
\text{asm_input } s
\]

Represents literal assembler code as described by the string \(s\).
(unspec [operands ...] index)
(unspec_volatile [operands ...] index)

Represents a machine-specific operation on operands. index selects between multiple
machine-specific operations. unspec_volatile is used for volatile operations and
operations that may trap; unspec is used for other operations.
These codes may appear inside a pattern of an insn, inside a parallel, or inside
an expression.

(addr_vec:m [lr0 lr1 ...])

Represents a table of jump addresses. The vector elements lr0, etc., are label_ref expressions. The mode m specifies how much space is given to each address; normally m would be Pmode.

(addr_diff_vec:m base [lr0 lr1 ...] min max flags)

Represents a table of jump addresses expressed as offsets from base. The vector elements lr0, etc., are label_ref expressions and so is base. The mode m specifies how much space is given to each address-difference. min and max are set up by branch shortening and hold a label with a minimum and a maximum address, respectively. flags indicates the relative position of base, min and max to the containing insn and of min and max to base. See rtl.def for details.

19.15 Embedded Side-Effects on Addresses

Six special side-effect expression codes appear as memory addresses.

(pre_dec:m x)

Represents the side effect of decrementing x by a standard amount and represents
also the value that x has after being decremented. x must be a reg or mem, but
most machines allow only a reg. m must be the machine mode for pointers on
the machine in use. The amount x is decremented by is the length in bytes of the
machine mode of the containing memory reference of which this expression serves
as the address. Here is an example of its use:

(mem:DF (pre_dec:SI (reg:SI 39)))

This says to decrement pseudo register 39 by the length of a Dfmode value and use
the result to address a Dfmode value.

(pre_inc:m x)

Similar, but specifies incrementing x instead of decrementing it.

(post_dec:m x)

Represents the same side effect as pre_dec but a different value. The value repre-
sented here is the value x has before being decremented.

(post_inc:m x)

Similar, but specifies incrementing x instead of decrementing it.

(post_modify:m x y)

Represents the side effect of setting x to y and represents x before x is modified. x
must be a reg or mem, but most machines allow only a reg. m must be the machine
mode for pointers on the machine in use. The amount x is decremented by is the
length in bytes of the machine mode of the containing memory reference of which
this expression serves as the address. Note that this is not currently implemented.
The expression y must be one of three forms:

(plus:m x z), (minus:m x z), or (plus:m x i),
where $z$ is an index register and $i$ is a constant.

Here is an example of its use:

$$(\text{mem} : \text{SF} \ (\text{post} : \text{modify} : \text{SI} \ (\text{reg} : \text{SI} \ 42) \ (\text{plus} \ (\text{reg} : \text{SI} \ 42) \ (\text{reg} : \text{SI} \ 48))))$$

This says to modify pseudo register 42 by adding the contents of pseudo register 48 to it, after the use of what ever 42 points to.

$$(\text{pre} : \text{modify} : m \ x \ expr)$$

Similar except side effects happen before the use.

These embedded side effect expressions must be used with care. Instruction patterns may not use them. Until the ‘flow’ pass of the compiler, they may occur only to represent pushes onto the stack. The ‘flow’ pass finds cases where registers are incremented or decremented in one instruction and used as an address shortly before or after; these cases are then transformed to use pre- or post-increment or -decrement.

If a register used as the operand of these expressions is used in another address in an insn, the original value of the register is used. Uses of the register outside of an address are not permitted within the same insn as a use in an embedded side effect expression because such insns behave differently on different machines and hence must be treated as ambiguous and disallowed.

An instruction that can be represented with an embedded side effect could also be represented using parallel containing an additional set to describe how the address register is altered. This is not done because machines that allow these operations at all typically allow them wherever a memory address is called for. Describing them as additional parallel stores would require doubling the number of entries in the machine description.

### 19.16 Assembler Instructions as Expressions

The RTX code `asm_operands` represents a value produced by a user-specified assembler instruction. It is used to represent an `asm` statement with arguments. An `asm` statement with a single output operand, like this:

```asm
asm ("foo %1,%2,%0" : "a" (outputvar) : "g" (x + y), "di" (*z));
```

is represented using a single `asm_operands` RTX which represents the value that is stored in `outputvar`:

```rtx
(set rtx-for-outputvar
 (asm_operands "foo %1,%2,%0" "a" 0
 [rtx-for-addition-result rtx-for-*z]
 [(asm_input:m1 "g")
 (asm_input:m2 "di")]))
```

Here the operands of the `asm_operands` RTX are the assembler template string, the output-operand’s constraint, the index-number of the output operand among the output operands specified, a vector of input operand RTX’s, and a vector of input-operand modes and constraints. The mode `m1` is the mode of the sum `x+y`; `m2` is that of `*z`.

When an `asm` statement has multiple output values, its insn has several such `set` RTX’s inside of a `parallel`. Each `set` contains a `asm_operands`; all of these share the same assembler template and vectors, but each contains the constraint for the respective output operand. They are also distinguished by the output-operand index number, which is 0, 1, ... for successive output operands.

### 19.17 Insns

The RTL representation of the code for a function is a doubly-linked chain of objects called insns. Insns are expressions with special codes that are used for no other purpose. Some insns
are actual instructions; others represent dispatch tables for `switch` statements; others represent labels to jump to or various sorts of declarative information.

In addition to its own specific data, each insn must have a unique id-number that distinguishes it from all other insns in the current function (after delayed branch scheduling, copies of an insn with the same id-number may be present in multiple places in a function, but these copies will always be identical and will only appear inside a `sequence`), and chain pointers to the preceding and following insns. These three fields occupy the same position in every insn, independent of the expression code of the insn. They could be accessed with `XEXP` and `XINT`, but instead three special macros are always used:

```
INSN_UID (i)
Accesses the unique id of insn i.
```

```
PREV_INSN (i)
Accesses the chain pointer to the insn preceding i. If i is the first insn, this is a null pointer.
```

```
NEXT_INSN (i)
Accesses the chain pointer to the insn following i. If i is the last insn, this is a null pointer.
```

The first insn in the chain is obtained by calling `get_insns`; the last insn is the result of calling `get_last_insn`. Within the chain delimited by these insns, the `NEXT_INSN` and `PREV_INSN` pointers must always correspond: if `insn` is not the first insn,

```
NEXT_INSN (PREV_INSN (insn)) == insn
```

is always true and if `insn` is not the last insn,

```
PREV_INSN (NEXT_INSN (insn)) == insn
```

is always true.

After delay slot scheduling, some of the insns in the chain might be `sequence` expressions, which contain a vector of insns. The value of `NEXT_INSN` in all but the last of these insns is the next insn in the vector; the value of `NEXT_INSN` of the last insn in the vector is the same as the value of `NEXT_INSN` for the `sequence` in which it is contained. Similar rules apply for `PREV_INSN`.

This means that the above invariants are not necessarily true for insns inside `sequence` expressions. Specifically, if `insn` is the first insn in a `sequence`, `NEXT_INSN (PREV_INSN (insn))` is the insn containing the `sequence` expression, as is the value of `PREV_INSN (NEXT_INSN (insn))` is `insn` is the last insn in the `sequence` expression. You can use these expressions to find the containing `sequence` expression.

Every insn has one of the following six expression codes:

```
insn
The expression code `insn` is used for instructions that do not jump and do not do function calls. `sequence` expressions are always contained in insns with code `insn` even if one of those insns should jump or do function calls.
Insns with code `insn` have four additional fields beyond the three mandatory ones listed above. These four are described in a table below.
```

```
jump_insn
The expression code `jump_insn` is used for instructions that may jump (or, more generally, may contain `label_ref` expressions). If there is an instruction to return from the current function, it is recorded as a `jump_insn`.
`jump_insn` insns have the same extra fields as `insn` insns, accessed in the same way and in addition contain a field `JUMP_LABEL` which is defined once jump optimization has completed.
```
For simple conditional and unconditional jumps, this field contains the `code_label` to which this insn will (possibly conditionally) branch. In a more complex jump, `jump_label` records one of the labels that the insn refers to; the only way to find the others is to scan the entire body of the insn. In an `addr_vec`, `jump_label` is `NULL_RTX`.

Return insns count as jumps, but since they do not refer to any labels, their `jump_label` is `NULL_RTX`.

call_insn

The expression code `call_insn` is used for instructions that may do function calls. It is important to distinguish these instructions because they imply that certain registers and memory locations may be altered unpredictably.

call_insn insns have the same extra fields as `insn` insns, accessed in the same way and in addition contain a field `call_insn.function_usage`, which contains a list (chain of `expr_list` expressions) containing use and clobber expressions that denote hard registers and `mem`s used or clobbered by the called function.

A `mem` generally points to a stack slots in which arguments passed to the libccall by reference (see Section 21.8.6 [Register Arguments], page 386) are stored. If the argument is caller-copied (see Section 21.8.6 [Register Arguments], page 386), the stack slot will be mentioned in `clobber` and `use` entries; if it’s callee-copied, only a `use` will appear, and the `mem` may point to addresses that are not stack slots. These `mem`s are used only in libcalls, because, unlike regular function calls, `const_calls` (which libcalls generally are, see Section 19.4 [Flags], page 258) aren’t assumed to read and write all memory, so flow would consider the stores dead and remove them. Note that, since a libccall must never return values in memory (see Section 21.8.8 [Aggregate Return], page 390), there will never be a `clobber` for a memory address holding a return value.

`clobber`ed registers in this list augment registers specified in `call_used_registers` (see Section 21.6.1 [Register Basics], page 367).

code_label

A `code_label` insn represents a label that a jump insn can jump to. It contains two special fields of data in addition to the three standard ones. `code_label.number` is used to hold the `label number`, a number that identifies this label uniquely among all the labels in the compilation (not just in the current function). Ultimately, the label is represented in the assembler output as an assembler label, usually of the form ‘Ln’ where n is the label number.

When a `code_label` appears in an RTL expression, it normally appears within a `label_ref` which represents the address of the label, as a number.

The field `label_number` is only defined once the jump optimization phase is completed and contains the number of times this label is referenced in the current function.

The field `alternate_name` is used to associate a name with a `code_label`. If this field is defined, the alternate name will be emitted instead of an internally generated label name.

barrier

Barriers are placed in the instruction stream when control cannot flow past them. They are placed after unconditional jump instructions to indicate that the jumps are unconditional and after calls to `volatile` functions, which do not return (e.g., `exit`). They contain no information beyond the three standard fields.

note

`note` insns are used to represent additional debugging and declarative information. They contain two nonstandard fields, an integer which is accessed with the macro `note_line_number` and a string accessed with `note_source_file`. 
If `NOTE_LINE_NUMBER` is positive, the note represents the position of a source line and `NOTE_SOURCE_FILE` is the source file name that the line came from. These notes control generation of line number data in the assembler output.

Otherwise, `NOTE_LINE_NUMBER` is not really a line number but a code with one of the following values (and `NOTE_SOURCE_FILE` must contain a null pointer):

**NOTE_INSN_DELETED**

Such a note is completely ignorable. Some passes of the compiler delete insns by altering them into notes of this kind.

**NOTE_INSN_BLOCK_BEG**

**NOTE_INSN_BLOCK_END**

These types of notes indicate the position of the beginning and end of a level of scoping of variable names. They control the output of debugging information.

**NOTE_INSN_EH_REGION_BEG**

**NOTE_INSN_EH_REGION_END**

These types of notes indicate the position of the beginning and end of a level of scoping for exception handling. `NOTE_BLOCK_NUMBER` identifies which `CODE_LABEL` is associated with the given region.

**NOTE_INSN_LOOP_BEG**

**NOTE_INSN_LOOP_END**

These types of notes indicate the position of the beginning and end of a `while` or `for` loop. They enable the loop optimizer to find loops quickly.

**NOTE_INSN_LOOP_CONT**

Appears at the place in a loop that `continue` statements jump to.

**NOTE_INSN_LOOP_VTOP**

This note indicates the place in a loop where the exit test begins for those loops in which the exit test has been duplicated. This position becomes another virtual start of the loop when considering loop invariants.

**NOTE_INSN_FUNCTION_END**

Appears near the end of the function body, just before the label that `return` statements jump to (on machine where a single instruction does not suffice for returning). This note may be deleted by jump optimization.

**NOTE_INSN_SETJMP**

Appears following each call to `setjmp` or a related function.

These codes are printed symbolically when they appear in debugging dumps.

The machine mode of an insn is normally `VOIDmode`, but some phases use the mode for various purposes.

The common subexpression elimination pass sets the mode of an insn to `QImode` when it is the first insn in a block that has already been processed.

The second Haifa scheduling pass, for targets that can multiple issue, sets the mode of an insn to `TImode` when it is believed that the instruction begins an issue group. That is, when the instruction cannot issue simultaneously with the previous. This may be relied on by later passes, in particular machine-dependent reorg.

Here is a table of the extra fields of `insn`, `jump_insn` and `call_insn` insns:
PATTERN \((i)\)
An expression for the side effect performed by this insn. This must be one of the following codes: \texttt{set}, \texttt{call}, \texttt{use}, \texttt{clobber}, \texttt{return}, \texttt{asm\_input}, \texttt{asm\_output}, \texttt{addr\_vec}, \texttt{addr\_diff\_vec}, \texttt{trap\_if}, \texttt{unspec}, \texttt{unspec\_volatile}, \texttt{parallel}, or \texttt{sequence}. If it is a \texttt{parallel}, each element of the \texttt{parallel} must be one of these codes, except that \texttt{parallel} expressions cannot be nested and \texttt{addr\_vec} and \texttt{addr\_diff\_vec} are not permitted inside a \texttt{parallel} expression.

INSN\_CODE \((i)\)
An integer that says which pattern in the machine description matches this insn, or \(-1\) if the matching has not yet been attempted.
Such matching is never attempted and this field remains \(-1\) on an insn whose pattern consists of a single \texttt{use}, \texttt{clobber}, \texttt{asm\_input}, \texttt{addr\_vec} or \texttt{addr\_diff\_vec} expression.
Matching is also never attempted on insns that result from an \texttt{asm} statement. These contain at least one \texttt{asm\_operands} expression. The function \texttt{asm\_noperands} returns a non-negative value for such insns.
In the debugging output, this field is printed as a number followed by a symbolic representation that locates the pattern in the ‘md’ file as some small positive or negative offset from a named pattern.

LOG\_LINKS \((i)\)
A list (chain of \texttt{insn\_list} expressions) giving information about dependencies between instructions within a basic block. Neither a jump nor a label may come between the related insns.

REG\_NOTES \((i)\)
A list (chain of \texttt{expr\_list} and \texttt{insn\_list} expressions) giving miscellaneous information about the insn. It is often information pertaining to the registers used in this insn.

The LOG\_LINKS field of an insn is a chain of \texttt{insn\_list} expressions. Each of these has two operands: the first is an insn, and the second is another \texttt{insn\_list} expression (the next one in the chain). The last \texttt{insn\_list} in the chain has a null pointer as second operand. The significant thing about the chain is which insns appear in it (as first operands of \texttt{insn\_list} expressions). Their order is not significant.
This list is originally set up by the flow analysis pass; it is a null pointer until then. Flow only adds links for those data dependencies which can be used for instruction combination. For each insn, the flow analysis pass adds a link to insns which store into registers values that are used for the first time in this insn. The instruction scheduling pass adds extra links so that every dependence will be represented. Links represent data dependencies, antidependencies and output dependencies; the machine mode of the link distinguishes these three types: antidependencies have mode \texttt{REG\_DEP\_ANTI}, output dependencies have mode \texttt{REG\_DEP\_OUTPUT}, and data dependencies have mode \texttt{VOIDmode}.

The REG\_NOTES field of an insn is a chain similar to the LOG\_LINKS field but it includes \texttt{expr\_list} expressions in addition to \texttt{insn\_list} expressions. There are several kinds of register notes, which are distinguished by the machine mode, which in a register note is really understood as being an \texttt{enum \texttt{reg\_note}}. The first operand \texttt{op} of the note is data whose meaning depends on the kind of note.

The macro REG\_NOTE\_KIND \((x)\) returns the kind of register note. Its counterpart, the macro PUT\_REG\_NOTE\_KIND \((x, \texttt{newkind})\) sets the register note type of \texttt{x} to be \texttt{newkind}.

Register notes are of three classes: They may say something about an input to an insn, they may say something about an output of an insn, or they may create a linkage between two insns. There are also a set of values that are only used in LOG\_LINKS.

These register notes annotate inputs to an insn:
REG_DEAD  The value in op dies in this insn; that is to say, altering the value immediately after this insn would not affect the future behavior of the program. This does not necessarily mean that the register op has no useful value after this insn since it may also be an output of the insn. In such a case, however, a REG_DEAD note would be redundant and is usually not present until after the reload pass, but no code relies on this fact.

REG_INC  The register op is incremented (or decremented; at this level there is no distinction) by an embedded side effect inside this insn. This means it appears in a post_inc, pre_inc, post_dec or pre_dec expression.

REG_NONNEG  The register op is known to have a nonnegative value when this insn is reached. This is used so that decrement and branch until zero instructions, such as the m68k dbra, can be matched. The REG_NONNEG note is added to insns only if the machine description has a ‘decrement_and_branch_until_zero’ pattern.

REG_NO_CONFLICT  This insn does not cause a conflict between op and the item being set by this insn even though it might appear that it does. In other words, if the destination register and op could otherwise be assigned the same register, this insn does not prevent that assignment. Insns with this note are usually part of a block that begins with a clobber insn specifying a multi-word pseudo register (which will be the output of the block), a group of insns that each set one word of the value and have the REG_NO_CONFLICT note attached, and a final insn that copies the output to itself with an attached REG_EQUAL note giving the expression being computed. This block is encapsulated with REG_LIBCALL and REG_RETVAL notes on the first and last insns, respectively.

REG_LABEL  This insn uses op, a code_label, but is not a jump_insn, or it is a jump_insn that required the label to be held in a register. The presence of this note allows jump optimization to be aware that op is, in fact, being used, and flow optimization to build an accurate flow graph.

The following notes describe attributes of outputs of an insn:

REG_EQUIV
REG_EQUAL

This note is only valid on an insn that sets only one register and indicates that that register will be equal to op at run time; the scope of this equivalence differs between the two types of notes. The value which the insn explicitly copies into the register may look different from op, but they will be equal at run time. If the output of the single set is a strict_low_part expression, the note refers to the register that is contained in SUBREG_REG of the subreg expression. For REG_EQUIV, the register is equivalent to op throughout the entire function, and could validly be replaced in all its occurrences by op. (“Validly” here refers to the data flow of the program; simple replacement may make some insns invalid.) For example, when a constant is loaded into a register that is never assigned any other value, this kind of note is used.

When a parameter is copied into a pseudo-register at entry to a function, a note of this kind records that the register is equivalent to the stack slot where the parameter was passed. Although in this case the register may be set by other insns, it is still valid to replace the register by the stack slot throughout the function.
A **REG_EQUIV** note is also used on an instruction which copies a register parameter into a pseudo-register at entry to a function, if there is a stack slot where that parameter could be stored. Although other insns may set the pseudo-register, it is valid for the compiler to replace the pseudo-register by stack slot throughout the function, provided the compiler ensures that the stack slot is properly initialized by making the replacement in the initial copy instruction as well. This is used on machines for which the calling convention allocates stack space for register parameters. See **REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE** in Section 21.8.5 [Stack Arguments], page 384.

In the case of **REG_EQUAL**, the register that is set by this insn will be equal to **op** at run time at the end of this insn but not necessarily elsewhere in the function. In this case, **op** is typically an arithmetic expression. For example, when a sequence of insns such as a library call is used to perform an arithmetic operation, this kind of note is attached to the insn that produces or copies the final value.

These two notes are used in different ways by the compiler passes. **REG_EQUAL** is used by passes prior to register allocation (such as common subexpression elimination and loop optimization) to tell them how to think of that value. **REG_EQUIV** notes are used by register allocation to indicate that there is an available substitute expression (either a constant or a **mem** expression for the location of a parameter on the stack) that may be used in place of a register if insufficient registers are available. Except for stack homes for parameters, which are indicated by a **REG_EQUIV** note and are not useful to the early optimization passes and pseudo registers that are equivalent to a memory location throughout there entire life, which is not detected until later in the compilation, all equivalences are initially indicated by an attached **REG_EQUAL** note. In the early stages of register allocation, a **REG_EQUAL** note is changed into a **REG_EQUIV** note if **op** is a constant and the insn represents the only set of its destination register.

Thus, compiler passes prior to register allocation need only check for **REG_EQUAL** notes and passes subsequent to register allocation need only check for **REG_EQUIV** notes.

**REG_UNUSED**

The register **op** being set by this insn will not be used in a subsequent insn. This differs from a **REG_DEAD** note, which indicates that the value in an input will not be used subsequently. These two notes are independent; both may be present for the same register.

**REG_WAS_0**

The single output of this insn contained zero before this insn. **op** is the insn that set it to zero. You can rely on this note if it is present and **op** has not been deleted or turned into a **note**; its absence implies nothing.

These notes describe linkages between insns. They occur in pairs: one insn has one of a pair of notes that points to a second insn, which has the inverse note pointing back to the first insn.

**REG_RETVAL**

This insn copies the value of a multi-instr sequence (for example, a library call), and **op** is the first insn of the sequence (for a library call, the first insn that was generated to set up the arguments for the library call).

Loop optimization uses this note to treat such a sequence as a single operation for code motion purposes and flow analysis uses this note to delete such sequences whose results are dead.

A **REG_EQUAL** note will also usually be attached to this insn to provide the expression being computed by the sequence.

These notes will be deleted after reload, since they are no longer accurate or useful.
REG_LIBCALL
This is the inverse of REG_RETVAL: it is placed on the first insn of a multi-instr sequence, and it points to the last one.

These notes are deleted after reload, since they are no longer useful or accurate.

REG_CC_SETTER
REG_CC_USER
On machines that use cc0, the insns which set and use cc0 set and use cc0 are adjacent. However, when branch delay slot filling is done, this may no longer be true. In this case a REG_CC_USER note will be placed on the insn setting cc0 to point to the insn using cc0 and a REG_CC_SETTER note will be placed on the insn using cc0 to point to the insn setting cc0.

These values are only used in the LOG_LINKS field, and indicate the type of dependency that each link represents. Links which indicate a data dependence (a read after write dependence) do not use any code, they simply have mode VOIDmode, and are printed without any descriptive text.

REG_DEP_ANTI
This indicates an anti dependence (a write after read dependence).

REG_DEP_OUTPUT
This indicates an output dependence (a write after write dependence).

These notes describe information gathered from gcov profile data. They are stored in the REG_NOTES field of an insn as an expr_list.

REG_EXEC_COUNT
This is used to indicate the number of times a basic block was executed according to the profile data. The note is attached to the first insn in the basic block.

REG_BR_PROB
This is used to specify the ratio of branches to non-branches of a branch insn according to the profile data. The value is stored as a value between 0 and REG_BR_PROB_BASE; larger values indicate a higher probability that the branch will be taken.

REG_BR_PRED
These notes are found in JUMP insns after delayed branch scheduling has taken place. They indicate both the direction and the likelihood of the JUMP. The format is a bitmask of ATTR_FLAG_* values.

REG_FRAME_RELATED_EXPR
This is used on an RTX_FRAME_RELATED_P insn wherein the attached expression is used in place of the actual insn pattern. This is done in cases where the pattern is either complex or misleading.

For convenience, the machine mode in an insn_list or expr_list is printed using these symbolic codes in debugging dumps.

The only difference between the expression codes insn_list and expr_list is that the first operand of an insn_list is assumed to be an insn and is printed in debugging dumps as the insn’s unique id; the first operand of an expr_list is printed in the ordinary way as an expression.
19.18 RTL Representation of Function-Call Insns

Insns that call subroutines have the RTL expression code `call_insn`. These insns must satisfy special rules, and their bodies must use a special RTL expression code, `call`.

A `call` expression has two operands, as follows:

```
(call (mem:fm addr) nbytes)
```

Here `nbytes` is an operand that represents the number of bytes of argument data being passed to the subroutine, `fm` is a machine mode (which must equal as the definition of the `FUNCTION_MODE` macro in the machine description) and `addr` represents the address of the subroutine.

For a subroutine that returns no value, the `call` expression as shown above is the entire body of the insn, except that the insn might also contain `use` or `clobber` expressions.

For a subroutine that returns a value whose mode is not `BLKmode`, the value is returned in a hard register. If this register’s number is `r`, then the body of the call insn looks like this:

```
(set (reg:m r)
     (call (mem:fm addr) nbytes))
```

This RTL expression makes it clear (to the optimizer passes) that the appropriate register receives a useful value in this insn.

When a subroutine returns a `BLKmode` value, it is handled by passing to the subroutine the address of a place to store the value. So the call insn itself does not “return” any value, and it has the same RTL form as a call that returns nothing.

On some machines, the call instruction itself clobbers some register, for example to contain the return address. `call_insn` insns on these machines should have a body which is a `parallel` that contains both the `call` expression and `clobber` expressions that indicate which registers are destroyed. Similarly, if the call instruction requires some register other than the stack pointer that is not explicitly mentioned it its RTL, a `use` subexpression should mention that register.

Functions that are called are assumed to modify all registers listed in the configuration macro `CALL_USED_REGISTERS` (see Section 21.6.1 [Register Basics], page 367) and, with the exception of `const` functions and library calls, to modify all of memory.

Insns containing just `use` expressions directly precede the `call_insn` insn to indicate which registers contain inputs to the function. Similarly, if registers other than those in `CALL_USED_REGISTERS` are clobbered by the called function, insns containing a single `clobber` follow immediately after the call to indicate which registers.

19.19 Structure Sharing Assumptions

The compiler assumes that certain kinds of RTL expressions are unique; there do not exist two distinct objects representing the same value. In other cases, it makes an opposite assumption: that no RTL expression object of a certain kind appears in more than one place in the containing structure.

These assumptions refer to a single function; except for the RTL objects that describe global variables and external functions, and a few standard objects such as small integer constants, no RTL objects are common to two functions.

- Each pseudo-register has only a single `reg` object to represent it, and therefore only a single machine mode.
- For any symbolic label, there is only one `symbol_ref` object referring to it.
- All `const_int` expressions with equal values are shared.
- There is only one `pc` expression.
- There is only one `cc0` expression.
• There is only one `const_double` expression with value 0 for each floating point mode. Likewise for values 1 and 2.
• No `label_ref` or `scratch` appears in more than one place in the RTL structure; in other words, it is safe to do a tree-walk of all the insns in the function and assume that each time a `label_ref` or `scratch` is seen it is distinct from all others that are seen.
• Only one `mem` object is normally created for each static variable or stack slot, so these objects are frequently shared in all the places they appear. However, separate but equal objects for these variables are occasionally made.
• When a single `asm` statement has multiple output operands, a distinct `asm_operands` expression is made for each output operand. However, these all share the vector which contains the sequence of input operands. This sharing is used later on to test whether two `asm_operands` expressions come from the same statement, so all optimizations must carefully preserve the sharing if they copy the vector at all.
• No RTL object appears in more than one place in the RTL structure except as described above. Many passes of the compiler rely on this by assuming that they can modify RTL objects in place without unwanted side-effects on other insns.
• During initial RTL generation, shared structure is freely introduced. After all the RTL for a function has been generated, all shared structure is copied by `unshare_all_rtl` in `'emit-rtl.c'`, after which the above rules are guaranteed to be followed.
• During the combiner pass, shared structure within an insn can exist temporarily. However, the shared structure is copied before the combiner is finished with the insn. This is done by calling `copy_rtx_if_shared`, which is a subroutine of `unshare_all_rtl`.

19.20 Reading RTL

To read an RTL object from a file, call `read_rtx`. It takes one argument, a stdio stream, and returns a single RTL object.

Reading RTL from a file is very slow. This is not currently a problem since reading RTL occurs only as part of building the compiler.

People frequently have the idea of using RTL stored as text in a file as an interface between a language front end and the bulk of GNU CC. This idea is not feasible.

GNU CC was designed to use RTL internally only. Correct RTL for a given program is very dependent on the particular target machine. And the RTL does not contain all the information about the program.

The proper way to interface GNU CC to a new language front end is with the “tree” data structure, described in the files ‘tree.h’ and ‘tree.def’. The documentation for this structure (see Chapter 18 [Trees], page 229) is incomplete.
Chapter 20: Machine Descriptions

20 Machine Descriptions

A machine description has two parts: a file of instruction patterns (`.md` file) and a C header file of macro definitions.

The `.md` file for a target machine contains a pattern for each instruction that the target machine supports (or at least each instruction that is worth telling the compiler about). It may also contain comments. A semicolon causes the rest of the line to be a comment, unless the semicolon is inside a quoted string.

See the next chapter for information on the C header file.

20.1 Overview of How the Machine Description is Used

There are three main conversions that happen in the compiler:

1. The front end reads the source code and builds a parse tree.
2. The parse tree is used to generate an RTL insn list based on named instruction patterns.
3. The insn list is matched against the RTL templates to produce assembler code.

For the generate pass, only the names of the insns matter, from either a named `define_insn` or a `define_expand`. The compiler will choose the pattern with the right name and apply the operands according to the documentation later in this chapter, without regard for the RTL template or operand constraints. Note that the names the compiler looks for are hard-coded in the compiler—it will ignore unnamed patterns and patterns with names it doesn’t know about, but if you don’t provide a named pattern it needs, it will abort.

If a `define_insn` is used, the template given is inserted into the insn list. If a `define_expand` is used, one of three things happens, based on the condition logic. The condition logic may manually create new insns for the insn list, say via `emit_insn()`, and invoke DONE. For certain named patterns, it may invoke FAIL to tell the compiler to use an alternate way of performing that task. If it invokes neither DONE nor FAIL, the template given in the pattern is inserted, as if the `define_expand` were a `define_insn`.

Once the insn list is generated, various optimization passes convert, replace, and rearrange the insns in the insn list. This is where the `define_split` and `define_peephole` patterns get used, for example.

Finally, the insn list’s RTL is matched up with the RTL templates in the `define_insn` patterns, and those patterns are used to emit the final assembly code. For this purpose, each named `define_insn` acts like it’s unnamed, since the names are ignored.

20.2 Everything about Instruction Patterns

Each instruction pattern contains an incomplete RTL expression, with pieces to be filled in later, operand constraints that restrict how the pieces can be filled in, and an output pattern or C code to generate the assembler output, all wrapped up in a `define_insn` expression.

A `define_insn` is an RTL expression containing four or five operands:

1. An optional name. The presence of a name indicate that this instruction pattern can perform a certain standard job for the RTL-generation pass of the compiler. This pass knows certain names and will use the instruction patterns with those names, if the names are defined in the machine description.

The absence of a name is indicated by writing an empty string where the name should go. Nameless instruction patterns are never used for generating RTL code, but they may permit several simpler insns to be combined later on.

Names that are not thus known and used in RTL-generation have no effect; they are equivalent to no name at all.
For the purpose of debugging the compiler, you may also specify a name beginning with the ‘*’ character. Such a name is used only for identifying the instruction in RTL dumps; it is entirely equivalent to having a nameless pattern for all other purposes.

2. The RTL template (see Section 20.4 [RTL Template], page 293) is a vector of incomplete RTL expressions which show what the instruction should look like. It is incomplete because it may contain match_operand, match_operator, and match_dup expressions that stand for operands of the instruction.

If the vector has only one element, that element is the template for the instruction pattern. If the vector has multiple elements, then the instruction pattern is a parallel expression containing the elements described.

3. A condition. This is a string which contains a C expression that is the final test to decide whether an insn body matches this pattern.

For a named pattern, the condition (if present) may not depend on the data in the insn being matched, but only the target-machine-type flags. The compiler needs to test these conditions during initialization in order to learn exactly which named instructions are available in a particular run.

For nameless patterns, the condition is applied only when matching an individual insn, and only after the insn has matched the pattern’s recognition template. The insn’s operands may be found in the vector operands.

4. The output template: a string that says how to output matching insns as assembler code. ‘%’ in this string specifies where to substitute the value of an operand. See Section 20.5 [Output Template], page 296.

When simple substitution isn’t general enough, you can specify a piece of C code to compute the output. See Section 20.6 [Output Statement], page 297.

5. Optionally, a vector containing the values of attributes for insns matching this pattern. See Section 20.17 [Insn Attributes], page 336.

### 20.3 Example of define_insn

Here is an actual example of an instruction pattern, for the 68000/68020.

```c
(define_insn "tstsi"
  [(set (cc0)
        (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "rm"))]
  ""
  "*

  { if (TARGET_68020 || !ADDRESS_REG_P (operands[0]))
    return \"tstl %0\";
  return \"cmp\1 #0, %0\"; }")
```

This is an instruction that sets the condition codes based on the value of a general operand. It has no condition, so any insn whose RTL description has the form shown may be handled according to this pattern. The name ‘tstsi’ means “test a SImode value” and tells the RTL generation pass that, when it is necessary to test such a value, an insn to do so can be constructed using this pattern.

The output control string is a piece of C code which chooses which output template to return based on the kind of operand and the specific type of CPU for which code is being generated.

‘"rm"’ is an operand constraint. Its meaning is explained below.
20.4 RTL Template

The RTL template is used to define which insns match the particular pattern and how to find their operands. For named patterns, the RTL template also says how to construct an insn from specified operands.

Construction involves substituting specified operands into a copy of the template. Matching involves determining the values that serve as the operands in the insn being matched. Both of these activities are controlled by special expression types that direct matching and substitution of the operands.

(match_operand: m n predicate constraint)

This expression is a placeholder for operand number n of the insn. When constructing an insn, operand number n will be substituted at this point. When matching an insn, whatever appears at this position in the insn will be taken as operand number n; but it must satisfy predicate or this instruction pattern will not match at all.

Operand numbers must be chosen consecutively counting from zero in each instruction pattern. There may be only one match_operand expression in the pattern for each operand number. Usually operands are numbered in the order of appearance in match_operand expressions. In the case of a define_expand, any operand numbers used only in match_dup expressions have higher values than all other operand numbers.

predicate is a string that is the name of a C function that accepts two arguments, an expression and a machine mode. During matching, the function will be called with the putative operand as the expression and m as the mode argument (if m is not specified, VOIDmode will be used, which normally causes predicate to accept any mode). If it returns zero, this instruction pattern fails to match. predicate may be an empty string; then it means no test is to be done on the operand, so anything which occurs in this position is valid.

Most of the time, predicate will reject modes other than m—but not always. For example, the predicate address_operand uses m as the mode of memory ref that the address should be valid for. Many predicates accept const_int nodes even though their mode is VOIDmode.

constraint controls reloading and the choice of the best register class to use for a value, as explained later (see Section 20.7 [Constraints], page 298).

People are often unclear on the difference between the constraint and the predicate. The predicate helps decide whether a given insn matches the pattern. The constraint plays no role in this decision; instead, it controls various decisions in the case of an insn which does match.

On CISC machines, the most common predicate is "general_operand". This function checks that the putative operand is either a constant, a register or a memory reference, and that it is valid for mode m.

For an operand that must be a register, predicate should be "register_operand". Using "general_operand" would be valid, since the reload pass would copy any non-register operands through registers, but this would make GNU CC do extra work, it would prevent invariant operands (such as constant) from being removed from loops, and it would prevent the register allocator from doing the best possible job. On RISC machines, it is usually most efficient to allow predicate to accept only objects that the constraints allow.

For an operand that must be a constant, you must be sure to either use "immediate_operand" for predicate, or make the instruction pattern’s extra condition require a constant, or both. You cannot expect the constraints to do this work! If the constraints allow only constants, but the predicate allows something else, the compiler will crash when that case arises.
(match_scratch:m n constraint)
This expression is also a placeholder for operand number n and indicates that
operand must be a scratch or reg expression.
When matching patterns, this is equivalent to
(match_operand:m n "scratch_operand" pred)
but, when generating RTL, it produces a (scratch:m) expression.
If the last few expressions in a parallel are clobber expressions whose operands
are either a hard register or match_scratch, the combiner can add or delete them
when necessary. See Section 19.14 [Side Effects], page 275.

(match_dup n)
This expression is also a placeholder for operand number n. It is used when the
operand needs to appear more than once in the insn.
In construction, match_dup acts just like match_operand: the operand is substituted
into the insn being constructed. But in matching, match_dup behaves differently. It
assumes that operand number n has already been determined by a match_operand
appearing earlier in the recognition template, and it matches only an identical-looking expression.
Note that match_dup should not be used to tell the compiler that a particular register
is being used for two operands (example: add that adds one register to another; the
second register is both an input operand and the output operand). Use a matching
constraint (see Section 20.7.1 [Simple Constraints], page 299) for those. match_dup
is for the cases where one operand is used in two places in the template, such as an
instruction that computes both a quotient and a remainder, where the opcode takes
two input operands but the RTL template has to refer to each of those twice; once
for the quotient pattern and once for the remainder pattern.

(match_operator:m n predicate [operands...])
This pattern is a kind of placeholder for a variable RTL expression code.
When constructing an insn, it stands for an RTL expression whose expression code is
taken from that of operand n, and whose operands are constructed from the patterns operands.
When matching an expression, it matches an expression if the function predicate
returns nonzero on that expression and the patterns operands match the operands
of the expression.
Suppose that the function commutative_operator is defined as follows, to match
any expression whose operator is one of the commutative arithmetic operators of
RTL and whose mode is mode:

```c
int
commutative_operator (x, mode)
    rtx x;
    enum machine_mode mode;
{
    enum rtx_code code = GET_CODE (x);
    if (GET_MODE (x) != mode)
        return 0;
    return (GET_RTX_CLASS (code) == 'c'
            || code == EQ || code == NE);
}
```
Then the following pattern will match any RTL expression consisting of a commu-
tative operator applied to two general operands:
Here the vector \([\text{operands} \ldots]\) contains two patterns because the expressions to be matched all contain two operands.

When this pattern does match, the two operands of the commutative operator are recorded as operands 1 and 2 of the insn. (This is done by the two instances of \texttt{match_operand}.) Operand 3 of the insn will be the entire commutative expression: use \texttt{GET_CODE (operands[3])} to see which commutative operator was used.

The machine mode \(m\) of \texttt{match_operator} works like that of \texttt{match_operand}: it is passed as the second argument to the predicate function, and that function is solely responsible for deciding whether the expression to be matched “has” that mode.

When constructing an insn, argument 3 of the gen-function will specify the operation (i.e. the expression code) for the expression to be made. It should be an RTL expression, whose expression code is copied into a new expression whose operands are arguments 1 and 2 of the gen-function. The subexpressions of argument 3 are not used; only its expression code matters.

When \texttt{match_operator} is used in a pattern for matching an insn, it usually best if the operand number of the \texttt{match_operator} is higher than that of the actual operands of the insn. This improves register allocation because the register allocator often looks at operands 1 and 2 of insns to see if it can do register tying.

There is no way to specify constraints in \texttt{match_operator}. The operand of the insn which corresponds to the \texttt{match_operator} never has any constraints because it is never reloaded as a whole. However, if parts of its operands are matched by \texttt{match_operand} patterns, those parts may have constraints of their own.

Like \texttt{match_dup}, except that it applies to operators instead of operands. When constructing an insn, operand number \(n\) will be substituted at this point. But in matching, \texttt{match_op_dup} behaves differently. It assumes that operand number \(n\) has already been determined by a \texttt{match_operator} appearing earlier in the recognition template, and it matches only an identical-looking expression.

This pattern is a placeholder for an insn that consists of a \texttt{parallel} expression with a variable number of elements. This expression should only appear at the top level of an insn pattern.

When constructing an insn, operand number \(n\) will be substituted at this point. When matching an insn, it matches if the body of the insn is a \texttt{parallel} expression with at least as many elements as the vector of \texttt{subpat} expressions in the \texttt{match_parallel}, if each \texttt{subpat} matches the corresponding element of the \texttt{parallel}, and the function \texttt{predicate} returns nonzero on the \texttt{parallel} that is the body of the insn. It is the responsibility of the predicate to validate elements of the \texttt{parallel} beyond those listed in the \texttt{match_parallel}.

A typical use of \texttt{match_parallel} is to match load and store multiple expressions, which can contain a variable number of elements in a \texttt{parallel}. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
(define_insn ""
  [(match_parallel 0 "load_multiple_operation"
    [(set (match_operand:SI 1 "gpc_reg_operand" "=r")
        (match_operand:SI 2 "memory_operand" "m"))
    (use (reg:SI 179))
    (clobber (reg:SI 179)))]
\end{verbatim}
This example comes from 'a29k.md'. The function `load_multiple_operations` is defined in 'a29k.c' and checks that subsequent elements in the `parallel` are the same as the `set` in the pattern, except that they are referencing subsequent registers and memory locations.

An insn that matches this pattern might look like:

```
(parallel
  [(set (reg:SI 20) (mem:SI (reg:SI 100)))
   (use (reg:SI 179))
   (clobber (reg:SI 179))
   (set (reg:SI 21)
        (mem:SI (plus:SI (reg:SI 100)
                      (const_int 4))))
   (set (reg:SI 22)
        (mem:SI (plus:SI (reg:SI 100)
                      (const_int 8)))]
  )
```

Like `match_op_dup`, but for `match_parallel` instead of `match_operator`.

`match_insn predicate`

Match a complete insn. Unlike the other `match_*` recognizers, `match_insn` does not take an operand number.

The machine mode `m` of `match_insn` works like that of `match_operand`: it is passed as the second argument to the predicate function, and that function is solely responsible for deciding whether the expression to be matched “has” that mode.

`match_insn2 n predicate`

Match a complete insn.

The machine mode `m` of `match_insn2` works like that of `match_operand`: it is passed as the second argument to the predicate function, and that function is solely responsible for deciding whether the expression to be matched “has” that mode.

### 20.5 Output Templates and Operand Substitution

The output template is a string which specifies how to output the assembler code for an instruction pattern. Most of the template is a fixed string which is output literally. The character ‘%’ is used to specify where to substitute an operand; it can also be used to identify places where different variants of the assembler require different syntax.

In the simplest case, a ‘%’ followed by a digit `n` says to output operand `n` at that point in the string.

‘%’ followed by a letter and a digit says to output an operand in an alternate fashion. Four letters have standard, built-in meanings described below. The machine description macro `PRINT_OPERATOR` can define additional letters with nonstandard meanings.

‘%cdigit’ can be used to substitute an operand that is a constant value without the syntax that normally indicates an immediate operand.

‘%ndigit’ is like ‘%cdigit’ except that the value of the constant is negated before printing.

‘%adigit’ can be used to substitute an operand as if it were a memory reference, with the actual operand treated as the address. This may be useful when outputting a “load address” instruction, because often the assembler syntax for such an instruction requires you to write the operand as if it were a memory reference.
`%l` digit is used to substitute a `label_ref` into a jump instruction.

`%=` outputs a number which is unique to each instruction in the entire compilation. This is useful for making local labels to be referred to more than once in a single template that generates multiple assembler instructions.

`%` followed by a punctuation character specifies a substitution that does not use an operand. Only one case is standard: `%%` outputs a `%` into the assembler code. Other nonstandard cases can be defined in the `PRINT_OPERAND` macro. You must also define which punctuation characters are valid with the `PRINT_OPERAND_PUNCT_VALID_P` macro.

The template may generate multiple assembler instructions. Write the text for the instructions, with `\;` between them.

When the RTL contains two operands which are required by constraint to match each other, the output template must refer only to the lower-numbered operand. Matching operands are not always identical, and the rest of the compiler arranges to put the proper RTL expression for printing into the lower-numbered operand.

One use of nonstandard letters or punctuation following `%` is to distinguish between different assembler languages for the same machine; for example, Motorola syntax versus MIT syntax for the 68000. Motorola syntax requires periods in most opcode names, while MIT syntax does not. For example, the opcode `move1` in MIT syntax is `move.1` in Motorola syntax. The same file of patterns is used for both kinds of output syntax, but the character sequence `%.` is used in each place where Motorola syntax wants a period. The `PRINT_OPERAND` macro for Motorola syntax defines the sequence to output a period; the macro for MIT syntax defines it to do nothing.

As a special case, a template consisting of the single character `#` instructs the compiler to first split the insn, and then output the resulting instructions separately. This helps eliminate redundancy in the output templates. If you have a `define_insn` that needs to emit multiple assembler instructions, and there is an matching `define_split` already defined, then you can simply use `#` as the output template instead of writing an output template that emits the multiple assembler instructions.

If the macro `ASSEMBLER_DIALECT` is defined, you can use construct of the form `{option0|option1|option2}` in the templates. These describe multiple variants of assembler language syntax. See Section 21.17.7 [Instruction Output], page 428.

### 20.6 C Statements for Assembler Output

Often a single fixed template string cannot produce correct and efficient assembler code for all the cases that are recognized by a single instruction pattern. For example, the opcodes may depend on the kinds of operands; or some unfortunate combinations of operands may require extra machine instructions.

If the output control string starts with a `@`, then it is actually a series of templates, each on a separate line. (Blank lines and leading spaces and tabs are ignored.) The templates correspond to the pattern’s constraint alternatives (see Section 20.7.2 [Multi-Alternative], page 302). For example, if a target machine has a two-address add instruction `addr` to add into a register and another `addm` to add a register to memory, you might write this pattern:

```c
(define_insn "addsi3"
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" ";=r,m")
      (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" ";0,0")
        (match_operand:SI 2 "general_operand" ";g,r")))]
""
"@"  
addr %2,%0  
addm %2,%0")
```
If the output control string starts with a ‘*’, then it is not an output template but rather a piece of C program that should compute a template. It should execute a `return` statement to return the template-string you want. Most such templates use C string literals, which require doublequote characters to delimit them. To include these doublequote characters in the string, prefix each one with ‘\’.

The operands may be found in the array `operands`, whose C data type is `rtx []`.

It is very common to select different ways of generating assembler code based on whether an immediate operand is within a certain range. Be careful when doing this, because the result of `INTVAL` is an integer on the host machine. If the host machine has more bits in an `int` than the target machine has in the mode in which the constant will be used, then some of the bits you get from `INTVAL` will be superfluous. For proper results, you must carefully disregard the values of those bits.

It is possible to output an assembler instruction and then go on to output or compute more of them, using the subroutine `output_asm_insn`. This receives two arguments: a template-string and a vector of operands. The vector may be `operands`, or it may be another array of `rtx` that you declare locally and initialize yourself.

When an insn pattern has multiple alternatives in its constraints, often the appearance of the assembler code is determined mostly by which alternative was matched. When this is so, the C code can test the variable `which_alternative`, which is the ordinal number of the alternative that was actually satisfied (0 for the first, 1 for the second alternative, etc.).

For example, suppose there are two opcodes for storing zero, ‘clrreg’ for registers and ‘clrmem’ for memory locations. Here is how a pattern could use `which_alternative` to choose between them:

```c
(define_insn ""
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" ";=r,m")
       (const_int 0))]

  ""
  "*
  return (which_alternative == 0
     ? \"clrreg %0\" : \"clrmem %0\")
"
```

The example above, where the assembler code to generate was solely determined by the alternative, could also have been specified as follows, having the output control string start with a ‘@’:

```c
(define_insn ""
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" ";=r,m")
       (const_int 0))]

  ""
  "@
  clrreg %0
  clrmem %0")
```

### 20.7 Operand Constraints

Each `match_operand` in an instruction pattern can specify a constraint for the type of operands allowed. Constraints can say whether an operand may be in a register, and which kinds of register; whether the operand can be a memory reference, and which kinds of address; whether the operand may be an immediate constant, and which possible values it may have. Constraints can also require two operands to match.
20.7.1 Simple Constraints

The simplest kind of constraint is a string full of letters, each of which describes one kind of operand that is permitted. Here are the letters that are allowed:

whitespace

Whitespace characters are ignored and can be inserted at any position except the first. This enables each alternative for different operands to be visually aligned in the machine description even if they have different number of constraints and modifiers.

‘m’

A memory operand is allowed, with any kind of address that the machine supports in general.

‘o’

A memory operand is allowed, but only if the address is offsettable. This means that adding a small integer (actually, the width in bytes of the operand, as determined by its machine mode) may be added to the address and the result is also a valid memory address.

For example, an address which is constant is offsettable; so is an address that is the sum of a register and a constant (as long as a slightly larger constant is also within the range of address-offsets supported by the machine); but an autodecrement or autoincrement address is not offsettable. More complicated indirect/indexed addresses may or may not be offsettable depending on the other addressing modes that the machine supports.

Note that in an output operand which can be matched by another operand, the constraint letter ‘o’ is valid only when accompanied by both ‘<’ (if the target machine has predecrement addressing) and ‘>’ (if the target machine has preincrement addressing).

‘V’

A memory operand that is not offsettable. In other words, anything that would fit the ‘m’ constraint but not the ‘o’ constraint.

‘<’

A memory operand with autodecrement addressing (either predecrement or postdecrement) is allowed.

‘>’

A memory operand with autoincrement addressing (either preincrement or postincrement) is allowed.

‘r’

A register operand is allowed provided that it is in a general register.

‘i’

An immediate integer operand (one with constant value) is allowed. This includes symbolic constants whose values will be known only at assembly time.

‘n’

An immediate integer operand with a known numeric value is allowed. Many systems cannot support assembly-time constants for operands less than a word wide. Constraints for these operands should use ‘n’ rather than ‘i’.


Other letters in the range ‘I’ through ‘P’ may be defined in a machine-dependent fashion to permit immediate integer operands with explicit integer values in specified ranges. For example, on the 68000, ‘I’ is defined to stand for the range of values 1 to 8. This is the range permitted as a shift count in the shift instructions.

‘E’

An immediate floating operand (expression code const_double) is allowed, but only if the target floating point format is the same as that of the host machine (on which the compiler is running).

‘F’

An immediate floating operand (expression code const_double) is allowed.

‘G’, ‘H’

‘G’ and ‘H’ may be defined in a machine-dependent fashion to permit immediate floating operands in particular ranges of values.
An immediate integer operand whose value is not an explicit integer is allowed.

This might appear strange; if an insn allows a constant operand with a value not known at compile time, it certainly must allow any known value. So why use ‘s’ instead of ‘i’? Sometimes it allows better code to be generated.

For example, on the 68000 in a fullword instruction it is possible to use an immediate operand; but if the immediate value is between −128 and 127, better code results from loading the value into a register and using the register. This is because the load into the register can be done with a ‘moveq’ instruction. We arrange for this to happen by defining the letter ‘K’ to mean “any integer outside the range −128 to 127”, and then specifying ‘Ks’ in the operand constraints.

Any register, memory or immediate integer operand is allowed, except for registers that are not general registers.

Any operand whatsoever is allowed, even if it does not satisfy general_operand. This is normally used in the constraint of a match_scratch when certain alternatives will not actually require a scratch register.

An operand that matches the specified operand number is allowed. If a digit is used together with letters within the same alternative, the digit should come last.

This is called a matching constraint and what it really means is that the assembler has only a single operand that fills two roles considered separate in the RTL insn. For example, an add insn has two input operands and one output operand in the RTL, but on most CISC machines an add instruction really has only two operands, one of them an input-output operand:

```
addl #35,r12
```

Matching constraints are used in these circumstances. More precisely, the two operands that match must include one input-only operand and one output-only operand. Moreover, the digit must be a smaller number than the number of the operand that uses it in the constraint.

For operands to match in a particular case usually means that they are identical-looking RTL expressions. But in a few special cases specific kinds of dissimilarity are allowed. For example, *x as an input operand will match *x++ as an output operand. For proper results in such cases, the output template should always use the output-operand’s number when printing the operand.

An operand that is a valid memory address is allowed. This is for “load address” and “push address” instructions.

‘p’ in the constraint must be accompanied by address_operand as the predicate in the match_operand. This predicate interprets the mode specified in the match_operand as the mode of the memory reference for which the address would be valid.

Other letters can be defined in machine-dependent fashion to stand for particular classes of registers or other arbitrary operand types. ‘d’, ‘a’ and ‘f’ are defined on the 68000/68020 to stand for data, address and floating point registers.

The machine description macro REG_CLASS_FROM_LETTER has first cut at the otherwise unused letters. If it evaluates to NO_REGS, then EXTRA_CONSTRAINT is evaluated.

A typical use for EXTRA_CONSTRAINT would be to distinguish certain types of memory references that affect other insn operands.

In order to have valid assembler code, each operand must satisfy its constraint. But a failure to do so does not prevent the pattern from applying to an insn. Instead, it directs the compiler
to modify the code so that the constraint will be satisfied. Usually this is done by copying an operand into a register.

Contrast, therefore, the two instruction patterns that follow:

```lisp
(define_insn ""
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "=r")
      (plus:SI (match_dup 0)
        (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" "r")))]
  ""
  "...")
```

which has two operands, one of which must appear in two places, and

```lisp
(define_insn ""
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "=r")
      (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" "0")
        (match_operand:SI 2 "general_operand" "r")))]
  ""
  "...")
```

which has three operands, two of which are required by a constraint to be identical. If we are considering an insn of the form

```lisp
(insn n prev next
  (set (reg:SI 3)
    (plus:SI (reg:SI 6) (reg:SI 109)))
  ...)
```

the first pattern would not apply at all, because this insn does not contain two identical subexpressions in the right place. The pattern would say, "That does not look like an add instruction; try other patterns." The second pattern would say, "Yes, that’s an add instruction, but there is something wrong with it." It would direct the reload pass of the compiler to generate additional insns to make the constraint true. The results might look like this:

```lisp
(insn n2 prev n
  (set (reg:SI 3) (reg:SI 6))
  ...
)

(insn n n2 next
  (set (reg:SI 3)
    (plus:SI (reg:SI 3) (reg:SI 109)))
  ...
)
```

It is up to you to make sure that each operand, in each pattern, has constraints that can handle any RTL expression that could be present for that operand. (When multiple alternatives are in use, each pattern must, for each possible combination of operand expressions, have at least one alternative which can handle that combination of operands.) The constraints don’t need to allow any possible operand—when this is the case, they do not constrain—but they must at least point the way to reloading any possible operand so that it will fit.

- If the constraint accepts whatever operands the predicate permits, there is no problem: reloading is never necessary for this operand.

For example, an operand whose constraints permit everything except registers is safe provided its predicate rejects registers.

An operand whose predicate accepts only constant values is safe provided its constraints include the letter ‘i’. If any possible constant value is accepted, then nothing less than ‘i’ will do; if the predicate is more selective, then the constraints may also be more selective.

- Any operand expression can be reloaded by copying it into a register. So if an operand’s constraints allow some kind of register, it is certain to be safe. It need not permit all classes
of registers; the compiler knows how to copy a register into another register of the proper class in order to make an instruction valid.

- A nonoffsettable memory reference can be reloaded by copying the address into a register. So if the constraint uses the letter ‘o’, all memory references are taken care of.
- A constant operand can be reloaded by allocating space in memory to hold it as preinitialized data. Then the memory reference can be used in place of the constant. So if the constraint uses the letters ‘o’ or ‘m’, constant operands are not a problem.
- If the constraint permits a constant and a pseudo register used in an insn was not allocated to a hard register and is equivalent to a constant, the register will be replaced with the constant. If the predicate does not permit a constant and the insn is re-recognized for some reason, the compiler will crash. Thus the predicate must always recognize any objects allowed by the constraint.

If the operand’s predicate can recognize registers, but the constraint does not permit them, it can make the compiler crash. When this operand happens to be a register, the reload pass will be stymied, because it does not know how to copy a register temporarily into memory.

If the predicate accepts a unary operator, the constraint applies to the operand. For example, the MIPS processor at ISA level 3 supports an instruction which adds two registers in SImode to produce a DImode result, but only if the registers are correctly sign extended. This predicate for the input operands accepts a sign_extend of an SImode register. Write the constraint to indicate the type of register that is required for the operand of the sign_extend.

20.7.2 Multiple Alternative Constraints

Sometimes a single instruction has multiple alternative sets of possible operands. For example, on the 68000, a logical-or instruction can combine register or an immediate value into memory, or it can combine any kind of operand into a register; but it cannot combine one memory location into another.

These constraints are represented as multiple alternatives. An alternative can be described by a series of letters for each operand. The overall constraint for an operand is made from the letters for this operand from the first alternative, a comma, the letters for this operand from the second alternative, a comma, and so on until the last alternative. Here is how it is done for fullword logical-or on the 68000:

```lisp
(define_insn "iorsi3"
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "=m,d")
        (ior:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" "%0,0")
                (match_operand:SI 2 "general_operand" "dKs,dmKs")))]
  ...
)
```

The first alternative has ‘m’ (memory) for operand 0, ‘0’ for operand 1 (meaning it must match operand 0), and ‘dKs’ for operand 2. The second alternative has ‘d’ (data register) for operand 0, ‘0’ for operand 1, and ‘dmKs’ for operand 2. The ‘=’ and ‘%’ in the constraints apply to all the alternatives; their meaning is explained in the next section (see Section 20.7.3 [Class Preferences], page 303).

If all the operands fit any one alternative, the instruction is valid. Otherwise, for each alternative, the compiler counts how many instructions must be added to copy the operands so that that alternative applies. The alternative requiring the least copying is chosen. If two alternatives need the same amount of copying, the one that comes first is chosen. These choices can be altered with the ‘?’ and ‘!’ characters:

? Disparage slightly the alternative that the ‘?’ appears in, as a choice when no alternative applies exactly. The compiler regards this alternative as one unit more costly for each ‘?’ that appears in it.
Disparage severely the alternative that the ‘!?’ appears in. This alternative can still be used if it fits without reloading, but if reloading is needed, some other alternative will be used.

When an insn pattern has multiple alternatives in its constraints, often the appearance of the assembler code is determined mostly by which alternative was matched. When this is so, the C code for writing the assembler code can use the variable `which_alternative`, which is the ordinal number of the alternative that was actually satisfied (0 for the first, 1 for the second alternative, etc.). See Section 20.6 [Output Statement], page 297.

### 20.7.3 Register Class Preferences

The operand constraints have another function: they enable the compiler to decide which kind of hardware register a pseudo register is best allocated to. The compiler examines the constraints that apply to the insns that use the pseudo register, looking for the machine-dependent letters such as ‘d’ and ‘a’ that specify classes of registers. The pseudo register is put in whichever class gets the most “votes”. The constraint letters ‘g’ and ‘r’ also vote; they vote in favor of a general register. The machine description says which registers are considered general.

Of course, on some machines all registers are equivalent, and no register classes are defined. Then none of this complexity is relevant.

### 20.7.4 Constraint Modifier Characters

Here are constraint modifier characters.

- ‘=’ Means that this operand is write-only for this instruction: the previous value is discarded and replaced by output data.
- ‘+’ Means that this operand is both read and written by the instruction.

When the compiler fixes up the operands to satisfy the constraints, it needs to know which operands are inputs to the instruction and which are outputs from it. ‘=’ identifies an output; ‘+’ identifies an operand that is both input and output; all other operands are assumed to be input only.

If you specify ‘=’ or ‘+’ in a constraint, you put it in the first character of the constraint string.

- ‘&’ Means (in a particular alternative) that this operand is an earldykiller operand, which is modified before the instruction is finished using the input operands. Therefore, this operand may not lie in a register that is used as an input operand or as part of any memory address.

‘&’ applies only to the alternative in which it is written. In constraints with multiple alternatives, sometimes one alternative requires ‘&’ while others do not. See, for example, the ‘movdf’ insn of the 68000.

An input operand can be tied to an earldykiller operand if its only use as an input occurs before the early result is written. Adding alternatives of this form often allows GCC to produce better code when only some of the inputs can be affected by the earlyclobber. See, for example, the ‘mulsi3’ insn of the ARM.

‘&’ does not obviate the need to write ‘=’.

- ‘%’ Declares the instruction to be commutative for this operand and the following operand. This means that the compiler may interchange the two operands if that is the cheapest way to make all operands fit the constraints. This is often used in patterns for addition instructions that really have only two operands: the result must go in one of the arguments. Here for example, is how the 68000 halfword-add instruction is defined:
Using and Porting the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC)

(define_insn "addhi3"
[(set (match_operand:HI 0 "general_operand" "=m,r")
     (plus:HI (match_operand:HI 1 "general_operand" "%0,0")
              (match_operand:HI 2 "general_operand" "di,g")))]
  ...
)

`#` Says that all following characters, up to the next comma, are to be ignored as a constraint. They are significant only for choosing register preferences.

`*` Says that the following character should be ignored when choosing register preferences. `*` has no effect on the meaning of the constraint as a constraint, and no effect on reloading.

Here is an example: the 68000 has an instruction to sign-extend a halfword in a data register, and can also sign-extend a value by copying it into an address register. While either kind of register is acceptable, the constraints on an address-register destination are less strict, so it is best if register allocation makes an address register its goal. Therefore, `*` is used so that the `d` constraint letter (for data register) is ignored when computing register preferences.

(define_insn "extendhisi2"
[(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "=*d,a")
      (sign_extend:SI
       (match_operand:HI 1 "general_operand" "0,g")))]
  ...
)

20.7.5 Constraints for Particular Machines

Whenever possible, you should use the general-purpose constraint letters in `asm` arguments, since they will convey meaning more readily to people reading your code. Failing that, use the constraint letters that usually have very similar meanings across architectures. The most commonly used constraints are `m` and `r` (for memory and general-purpose registers respectively; see Section 20.7.1 [Simple Constraints], page 299), and `I`, usually the letter indicating the most common immediate-constant format.

For each machine architecture, the `config/machine.h` file defines additional constraints. These constraints are used by the compiler itself for instruction generation, as well as for `asm` statements; therefore, some of the constraints are not particularly interesting for `asm`. The constraints are defined through these macros:

`REG_CLASS_FROM_LETTER`  
Register class constraints (usually lower case).

`CONST_OK_FOR_LETTER_P`  
Immediate constant constraints, for non-floating point constants of word size or smaller precision (usually upper case).

`CONST_DOUBLE_OK_FOR_LETTER_P`  
Immediate constant constraints, for all floating point constants and for constants of greater than word size precision (usually upper case).

`EXTRA_CONSTRAINT`  
Special cases of registers or memory. This macro is not required, and is only defined for some machines.

Inspecting these macro definitions in the compiler source for your machine is the best way to be certain you have the right constraints. However, here is a summary of the machine-dependent constraints available on some particular machines.

`ARM family—`arm.h`
## Chapter 20: Machine Descriptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>Floating-point register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>One of the floating-point constants 0.0, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0 or 10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Floating-point constant that would satisfy the constraint ‘F’ if it were negated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Integer that is valid as an immediate operand in a data processing instruction. That is, an integer in the range 0 to 255 rotated by a multiple of 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Integer in the range −4095 to 4095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Integer that satisfies constraint ‘I’ when inverted (ones complement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Integer that satisfies constraint ‘I’ when negated (twos complement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Integer in the range 0 to 32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>A memory reference where the exact address is in a single register (“m” is preferable for \texttt{asm} statements)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>An item in the constant pool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>A symbol in the text segment of the current file</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**AMD 29000 family—'a29k.h’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>Local register 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>Byte Pointer ('BP') register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>‘Q’ register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>Special purpose register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>First accumulator register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Other accumulator register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>Floating point register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Constant greater than 0, less than 0x100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Constant greater than 0, less than 0x10000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>Constant whose high 24 bits are on (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>16-bit constant whose high 8 bits are on (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>32-bit constant whose high 16 bits are on (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>32-bit negative constant that fits in 8 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>The constant 0x80000000 or, on the 29050, any 32-bit constant whose low 16 bits are 0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>16-bit negative constant that fits in 8 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>A floating point constant (in \texttt{asm} statements, use the machine independent ‘E’ or ‘F’ instead)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**AVR family—‘avr.h’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>Registers from r0 to r15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Registers from r16 to r23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>Registers from r16 to r31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
w Registers from r24 to r31. These registers can be used in ‘adiw’ command

e Pointer register (r26–r31)
b Base pointer register (r28–r31)
q Stack pointer register (SPH:SPL)
t Temporary register r0
x Register pair X (r27:r26)
y Register pair Y (r29:r28)
z Register pair Z (r31:r30)
I Constant greater than $-1$, less than 64
J Constant greater than $-64$, less than 1
K Constant integer 2
L Constant integer 0
M Constant that fits in 8 bits
N Constant integer $-1$
O Constant integer 8, 16, or 24
P Constant integer 1
G A floating point constant 0.0

IBM RS6000—‘rs6000.h’
b Address base register
f Floating point register
h ‘MQ’, ‘CTR’, or ‘LINK’ register
q ‘MQ’ register
c ‘CTR’ register
l ‘LINK’ register
x ‘CR’ register (condition register) number 0
y ‘CR’ register (condition register)
z ‘FPMEM’ stack memory for FPR-GPR transfers
I Signed 16-bit constant
J Unsigned 16-bit constant shifted left 16 bits (use ‘L’ instead for SImode constants)
K Unsigned 16-bit constant
L Signed 16-bit constant shifted left 16 bits
M Constant larger than 31
N Exact power of 2
O Zero
P Constant whose negation is a signed 16-bit constant
G Floating point constant that can be loaded into a register with one instruction per word
Q Memory operand that is an offset from a register (‘m’ is preferable for asm statements)
R AIX TOC entry
S Constant suitable as a 64-bit mask operand
T Constant suitable as a 32-bit mask operand
U System V Release 4 small data area reference

Intel 386—‘i386.h’

q ‘a’, b, c, or d register
A Specifies the ‘a’ or ‘d’ registers. This is primarily useful for 64-bit integer values intended to be returned with the ‘d’ register holding the most significant bits and the ‘a’ register holding the least significant bits.

f Floating point register
t First (top of stack) floating point register
u Second floating point register
a ‘a’ register
b ‘b’ register
c ‘c’ register
d ‘d’ register
D ‘di’ register
S ‘si’ register
I Constant in range 0 to 31 (for 32-bit shifts)
J Constant in range 0 to 63 (for 64-bit shifts)
K ‘0xff’
L ‘0xffff’
M 0, 1, 2, or 3 (shifts for lea instruction)
N Constant in range 0 to 255 (for out instruction)
G Standard 80387 floating point constant

Intel 960—‘i960.h’

f Floating point register (fp0 to fp3)
l Local register (r0 to r15)
b Global register (g0 to g15)
d Any local or global register
I Integers from 0 to 31
J 0
K Integers from −31 to 0
G Floating point 0
H Floating point 1

*MIPS*—`mips.h`

d General-purpose integer register
f Floating-point register (if available)
h ‘Hi’ register
l ‘Lo’ register
x ‘Hi’ or ‘Lo’ register
y General-purpose integer register
z Floating-point status register
I Signed 16-bit constant (for arithmetic instructions)
J Zero
K Zero-extended 16-bit constant (for logic instructions)
L Constant with low 16 bits zero (can be loaded with `lui`)
M 32-bit constant which requires two instructions to load (a constant which is not ‘I’, ‘K’, or ‘L’)
N Negative 16-bit constant
O Exact power of two
P Positive 16-bit constant
G Floating point zero
Q Memory reference that can be loaded with more than one instruction (‘m’ is preferable for `asm` statements)
R Memory reference that can be loaded with one instruction (‘m’ is preferable for `asm` statements)
S Memory reference in external OSF/rose PIC format (‘m’ is preferable for `asm` statements)

*Motorola 680x0*—`m68k.h`
a Address register
d Data register
f 68881 floating-point register, if available
x Sun FPA (floating-point) register, if available
y First 16 Sun FPA registers, if available
I Integer in the range 1 to 8
J 16-bit signed number
K Signed number whose magnitude is greater than 0x80
L Integer in the range −8 to −1
M Signed number whose magnitude is greater than 0x100
G Floating point constant that is not a 68881 constant
H Floating point constant that can be used by Sun FPA
Motorola 68HC11 & 68HC12 families—`m68hc11.h`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Register 'a'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>Register 'b'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>Register 'd'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>An 8-bit register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>Temporary soft register _tmp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>A soft register _d1 to _d31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>Stack pointer register</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>Register 'x'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>Register 'y'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>Pseudo register 'z' (replaced by 'x' or 'y' at the end)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>An address register: x, y or z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>An address register: x or y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Register pair (x:d) to form a 32-bit value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Constants in the range $-65536$ to $65535$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Constants whose 16-bit low part is zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Constant integer 1 or $-1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Constant integer 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Constants in the range $-8$ to $2$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SPARC—`sparc.h`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>Floating-point register that can hold 32- or 64-bit values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>Floating-point register that can hold 64- or 128-bit values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Signed 13-bit constant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>32-bit constant with the low 12 bits clear (a constant that can be loaded with the <code>sethi</code> instruction)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Floating-point zero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Signed 13-bit constant, sign-extended to 32 or 64 bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Floating-point constant whose integral representation can be moved into an integer register using a single <code>sethi</code> instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Floating-point constant whose integral representation can be moved into an integer register using a single <code>mov</code> instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Floating-point constant whose integral representation can be moved into an integer register using a <code>high/lo_sum</code> instruction sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Memory address aligned to an 8-byte boundary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>Even register</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TMS320C3x/C4x—`c4x.h`

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>Auxiliary (address) register (ar0-ar7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here is a table of the instruction names that are meaningful in the RTL generation pass of the compiler. Giving one of these names to an instruction pattern tells the RTL generation pass that it can use the pattern to accomplish a certain task.

`movm` Here \( m \) stands for a two-letter machine mode name, in lower case. This instruction pattern moves data with that machine mode from operand 1 to operand 0. For example, `movsi` moves full-word data.

If operand 0 is a `subreg` with mode \( m \) of a register whose own mode is wider than \( m \), the effect of this instruction is to store the specified value in the part of the register that corresponds to mode \( m \). The effect on the rest of the register is undefined.

This class of patterns is special in several ways. First of all, each of these names up to and including full word size must be defined, because there is no other way to
copy a datum from one place to another. If there are patterns accepting operands in larger modes, ‘movm’ must be defined for integer modes of those sizes.

Second, these patterns are not used solely in the RTL generation pass. Even the reload pass can generate move insns to copy values from stack slots into temporary registers. When it does so, one of the operands is a hard register and the other is an operand that can need to be reloaded into a register.

Therefore, when given such a pair of operands, the pattern must generate RTL which needs no reloading and needs no temporary registers—no registers other than the operands. For example, if you support the pattern with a define_expand, then in such a case the define_expand mustn’t call force_reg or any other such function which might generate new pseudo registers.

This requirement exists even for subword modes on a RISC machine where fetching those modes from memory normally requires several insns and some temporary registers.

During reload a memory reference with an invalid address may be passed as an operand. Such an address will be replaced with a valid address later in the reload pass. In this case, nothing may be done with the address except to use it as it stands. If it is copied, it will not be replaced with a valid address. No attempt should be made to make such an address into a valid address and no routine (such as change_address) that will do so may be called. Note that general_operand will fail when applied to such an address.

The global variable reload_in_progress (which must be explicitly declared if required) can be used to determine whether such special handling is required.

The variety of operands that have reloads depends on the rest of the machine description, but typically on a RISC machine these can only be pseudo registers that did not get hard registers, while on other machines explicit memory references will get optional reloads.

If a scratch register is required to move an object to or from memory, it can be allocated using gen_reg_rtx prior to life analysis.

If there are cases needing scratch registers after reload, you must define SECONDARY_INPUT_RELOAD_CLASS and perhaps also SECONDARY_OUTPUT_RELOAD_CLASS to detect them, and provide patterns ‘reload_inm’ or ‘reload_outm’ to handle them. See Section 21.7 [Register Classes], page 372.

The global variable no_new_pseudos can be used to determine if it is unsafe to create new pseudo registers. If this variable is nonzero, then it is unsafe to call gen_reg_rtx to allocate a new pseudo.

The constraints on a ‘movm’ must permit moving any hard register to any other hard register provided that HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK permits mode m in both registers and REGISTER_MOVE_COST applied to their classes returns a value of 2.

It is obligatory to support floating point ‘movm’ instructions into and out of any registers that can hold fixed point values, because unions and structures (which have modes SImode or DImode) can be in those registers and they may have floating point members.

There may also be a need to support fixed point ‘movm’ instructions in and out of floating point registers. Unfortunately, I have forgotten why this was so, and I don’t know whether it is still true. If HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK rejects fixed point values in floating point registers, then the constraints of the fixed point ‘movm’ instructions must be designed to avoid ever trying to reload into a floating point register.
Using and Porting the GNU Compiler Collection (GCC)

`reload_inm`
`reload_outm`
Like `movm`, but used when a scratch register is required to move between operand 0 and operand 1. Operand 2 describes the scratch register. See the discussion of the SECONDARY_RELOAD_CLASS macro in Section 21.7 [Register Classes], page 372.

`movstrictm`
Like `movm` except that if operand 0 is a subreg with mode `m` of a register whose natural mode is wider, the `movstrictm` instruction is guaranteed not to alter any of the register except to mode `m`.

`load_multiple`
Load several consecutive memory locations into consecutive registers. Operand 0 is the first of the consecutive registers, operand 1 is the first memory location, and operand 2 is a constant: the number of consecutive registers.
Define this only if the target machine really has such an instruction; do not define this if the most efficient way of loading consecutive registers from memory is to do them one at a time.

On some machines, there are restrictions as to which consecutive registers can be stored into memory, such as particular starting or ending register numbers or only a range of valid counts. For those machines, use a define_expand (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) and make the pattern fail if the restrictions are not met.

Write the generated insn as a parallel with elements being a set of one register from the appropriate memory location (you may also need use or clobber elements). Use a match_parallel (see Section 20.4 [RTL Template], page 293) to recognize the insn. See `a29k.md` and `rs6000.md` for examples of the use of this insn pattern.

`store_multiple`
Similar to `load_multiple`, but store several consecutive registers into consecutive memory locations. Operand 0 is the first of the consecutive memory locations, operand 1 is the first register, and operand 2 is a constant: the number of consecutive registers.

`addm3` 
Add operand 2 and operand 1, storing the result in operand 0. All operands must have mode `m`. This can be used even on two-address machines, by means of constraints requiring operands 1 and 0 to be the same location.

`subm3`, `mulm3` 
`divm3`, `udivm3`, `modm3`, `umodm3`
`sminm3`, `smaxm3`, `uminm3`, `umaxm3` 
`andm3`, `iorm3`, `xorm3`
Similar, for other arithmetic operations.

`mulhisi3` 
Multiply operands 1 and 2, which have mode HImode, and store a SImode product in operand 0.

`mulqihi3`, `mulsidi3` 
Similar widening-multiplication instructions of other widths.

`umulqihi3`, `umulhisi3`, `umulsidi3` 
Similar widening-multiplication instructions that do unsigned multiplication.

`smulm3_highpart` 
Perform a signed multiplication of operands 1 and 2, which have mode `m`, and store the most significant half of the product in operand 0. The least significant half of the product is discarded.
'umulm3_highpart'
    Similar, but the multiplication is unsigned.

'divmodm4'
    Signed division that produces both a quotient and a remainder. Operand 1 is divided
    by operand 2 to produce a quotient stored in operand 0 and a remainder stored in
    operand 3.

    For machines with an instruction that produces both a quotient and a remainder,
    provide a pattern for 'divmodm4' but do not provide patterns for 'divm3' and
    'modm3'. This allows optimization in the relatively common case when both the
    quotient and remainder are computed.

    If an instruction that just produces a quotient or just a remainder exists and is
    more efficient than the instruction that produces both, write the output routine of
    'divmodm4' to call find_reg_note and look for a REG_UNUSED note on the quotient
    or remainder and generate the appropriate instruction.

'udivmodm4'
    Similar, but does unsigned division.

'ashlm3'
    Arithmetic-shift operand 1 left by a number of bits specified by operand 2, and store
    the result in operand 0. Here m is the mode of operand 0 and operand 1; operand
    2’s mode is specified by the instruction pattern, and the compiler will convert the
    operand to that mode before generating the instruction.

'ashrm3', 'lshrm3', 'rotlm3', 'rotrm3'
    Other shift and rotate instructions, analogous to the ashlm3 instructions.

'negm2'
    Negate operand 1 and store the result in operand 0.

'absm2'
    Store the absolute value of operand 1 into operand 0.

'sqrtnm2'
    Store the square root of operand 1 into operand 0.

    The sqrt built-in function of C always uses the mode which corresponds to the C
    data type double.

'ffsm2'
    Store into operand 0 one plus the index of the least significant 1-bit of operand 1.
    If operand 1 is zero, store zero. m is the mode of operand 0; operand 1’s mode is
    specified by the instruction pattern, and the compiler will convert the operand to
    that mode before generating the instruction.

    The ffs built-in function of C always uses the mode which corresponds to the C
    data type int.

'one_cmplm2'
    Store the bitwise-complement of operand 1 into operand 0.

'cmpm'
    Compare operand 0 and operand 1, and set the condition codes. The RTL pattern
    should look like this:
    
    (set (cc0) (compare (match_operand:m 0 ...)
       (match_operand:m 1 ...)))

'tstm'
    Compare operand 0 against zero, and set the condition codes. The RTL pattern
    should look like this:
    
    (set (cc0) (match_operand:m 0 ...))

'tstm' patterns should not be defined for machines that do not use (cc0). Doing so
would confuse the optimizer since it would no longer be clear which set operations
were comparisons. The 'cmpm' patterns should be used instead.
‘movstr’ Block move instruction. The addresses of the destination and source strings are the first two operands, and both are in mode Pmode. The number of bytes to move is the third operand, in mode m. Usually, you specify word_mode for m. However, if you can generate better code knowing the range of valid lengths is smaller than those representable in a full word, you should provide a pattern with a mode corresponding to the range of values you can handle efficiently (e.g., Qmode for values in the range 0–127; note we avoid numbers that appear negative) and also a pattern with word_mode. The fourth operand is the known shared alignment of the source and destination, in the form of a const_int rtx. Thus, if the compiler knows that both source and destination are word-aligned, it may provide the value 4 for this operand. Descriptions of multiple movstr patterns can only be beneficial if the patterns for smaller modes have fewer restrictions on their first, second and fourth operands. Note that the mode m in movstr does not impose any restriction on the mode of individually moved data units in the block.

‘clrstr’ Block clear instruction. The addresses of the destination string is the first operand, in mode Pmode. The number of bytes to clear is the second operand, in mode m. See ‘movstr’ for a discussion of the choice of mode. The third operand is the known alignment of the destination, in the form of a const_int rtx. Thus, if the compiler knows that the destination is word-aligned, it may provide the value 4 for this operand. The use for multiple clrstr is as for movstr.

‘cmpstr’ Block compare instruction, with five operands. Operand 0 is the output; it has mode m. The remaining four operands are like the operands of ‘movstr’. The two memory blocks specified are compared byte by byte in lexicographic order. The effect of the instruction is to store a value in operand 0 whose sign indicates the result of the comparison.

‘strlen’ Compute the length of a string, with three operands. Operand 0 is the result (of mode m), operand 1 is a mem referring to the first character of the string, operand 2 is the character to search for (normally zero), and operand 3 is a constant describing the known alignment of the beginning of the string.

‘floatmn2’ Convert signed integer operand 1 (valid for fixed point mode m) to floating point mode n and store in operand 0 (which has mode n).

‘floatunsmn2’ Convert unsigned integer operand 1 (valid for fixed point mode m) to floating point mode n and store in operand 0 (which has mode n).

‘fixmn2’ Convert operand 1 (valid for floating point mode m) to fixed point mode n as a signed number and store in operand 0 (which has mode n). This instruction’s result is defined only when the value of operand 1 is an integer.

‘fixunsmn2’ Convert operand 1 (valid for floating point mode m) to fixed point mode n as an unsigned number and store in operand 0 (which has mode n). This instruction’s result is defined only when the value of operand 1 is an integer.

‘ftruncm2’ Convert operand 1 (valid for floating point mode m) to an integer value, still represented in floating point mode m, and store it in operand 0 (valid for floating point mode m).
‘fix_truncmn2’
Like ‘fixmn2’ but works for any floating point value of mode m by converting the value to an integer.

‘fixuns_truncmn2’
Like ‘fixunsmn2’ but works for any floating point value of mode m by converting the value to an integer.

‘truncmn2’
Truncate operand 1 (valid for mode m) to mode n and store in operand 0 (which has mode n). Both modes must be fixed point or both floating point.

‘extendmn2’
Sign-extend operand 1 (valid for mode m) to mode n and store in operand 0 (which has mode n). Both modes must be fixed point or both floating point.

‘zero_extendmn2’
Zero-extend operand 1 (valid for mode m) to mode n and store in operand 0 (which has mode n). Both modes must be fixed point.

‘extv’
Extract a bit-field from operand 1 (a register or memory operand), where operand 2 specifies the width in bits and operand 3 the starting bit, and store it in operand 0. Operand 0 must have mode word_mode. Operand 1 may have mode byte_mode or word_mode: often word_mode is allowed only for registers. Operands 2 and 3 must be valid for word_mode.
The RTL generation pass generates this instruction only with constants for operands 2 and 3.
The bit-field value is sign-extended to a full word integer before it is stored in operand 0.

‘extzv’
Like ‘extv’ except that the bit-field value is zero-extended.

‘insv’
Store operand 3 (which must be valid for word_mode) into a bit-field in operand 0, where operand 1 specifies the width in bits and operand 3 the starting bit. Operand 0 may have mode byte_mode or word_mode; often word_mode is allowed only for registers. Operands 1 and 2 must be valid for word_mode.
The RTL generation pass generates this instruction only with constants for operands 1 and 2.

‘movmodecc’
Conditionally move operand 2 or operand 3 into operand 0 according to the comparison in operand 1. If the comparison is true, operand 2 is moved into operand 0, otherwise operand 3 is moved.
The mode of the operands being compared need not be the same as the operands being moved. Some machines, sparc64 for example, have instructions that conditionally move an integer value based on the floating point condition codes and vice versa.
If the machine does not have conditional move instructions, do not define these patterns.

‘scond’
Store zero or nonzero in the operand according to the condition codes. Value stored is nonzero iff the condition cond is true. cond is the name of a comparison operation expression code, such as eq, lt or leu.
You specify the mode that the operand must have when you write the match_operand expression. The compiler automatically sees which mode you have used and supplies an operand of that mode.
The value stored for a true condition must have 1 as its low bit, or else must be negative. Otherwise the instruction is not suitable and you should omit it from the machine description. You describe to the compiler exactly which value is stored by defining the macro \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} (see Section 21.21 [Misc], page 442). If a description cannot be found that can be used for all the ‘\texttt{scond}’ patterns, you should omit those operations from the machine description.

These operations may fail, but should do so only in relatively uncommon cases; if they would fail for common cases involving integer comparisons, it is best to omit these patterns.

If these operations are omitted, the compiler will usually generate code that copies the constant one to the target and branches around an assignment of zero to the target. If this code is more efficient than the potential instructions used for the ‘\texttt{scond}’ pattern followed by those required to convert the result into a 1 or a zero in \texttt{SImode}, you should omit the ‘\texttt{scond}’ operations from the machine description.

\texttt{‘bcond’}  Conditional branch instruction. Operand 0 is a \texttt{label\_ref} that refers to the label to jump to. Jump if the condition codes meet condition \texttt{cond}.

Some machines do not follow the model assumed here where a comparison instruction is followed by a conditional branch instruction. In that case, the ‘\texttt{cmpm}’ (and ‘\texttt{tstm}’) patterns should simply store the operands away and generate all the required insns in a \texttt{define\_expand} (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) for the conditional branch operations. All calls to expand ‘\texttt{bcond}’ patterns are immediately preceded by calls to expand either a ‘\texttt{cmpm}’ pattern or a ‘\texttt{tstm}’ pattern.

Machines that use a pseudo register for the condition code value, or where the mode used for the comparison depends on the condition being tested, should also use the above mechanism. See Section 20.11 [Jump Patterns], page 323.

The above discussion also applies to the ‘\texttt{movmodecc}’ and ‘\texttt{scond}’ patterns.

\texttt{‘jump’}  A jump inside a function; an unconditional branch. Operand 0 is the \texttt{label\_ref} of the label to jump to. This pattern name is mandatory on all machines.

\texttt{‘call’}  Subroutine call instruction returning no value. Operand 0 is the function to call; operand 1 is the number of bytes of arguments pushed as a \texttt{const\_int}; operand 2 is the number of registers used as operands.

On most machines, operand 2 is not actually stored into the RTL pattern. It is supplied for the sake of some RISC machines which need to put this information into the assembler code; they can put it in the RTL instead of operand 1.

Operand 0 should be a \texttt{mem RTX} whose address is the address of the function. Note, however, that this address can be a \texttt{symbol\_ref} expression even if it would not be a legitimate memory address on the target machine. If it is also not a valid argument for a call instruction, the pattern for this operation should be a \texttt{define\_expand} (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) that places the address into a register and uses that register in the call instruction.

\texttt{‘call\_value’}  Subroutine call instruction returning a value. Operand 0 is the hard register in which the value is returned. There are three more operands, the same as the three operands of the ‘\texttt{call}’ instruction (but with numbers increased by one).

Subroutines that return \texttt{BLKmode} objects use the ‘\texttt{call}’ insn.

\texttt{‘call\_pop’, ‘call\_value\_pop’}  Similar to ‘\texttt{call}’ and ‘\texttt{call\_value}’, except used if defined and if \texttt{RETURN\_POPS\_ARGS} is non-zero. They should emit a \texttt{parallel} that contains both the function call and a \texttt{set} to indicate the adjustment made to the frame pointer.
For machines where `RETURN_POPS_ARGS` can be non-zero, the use of these patterns increases the number of functions for which the frame pointer can be eliminated, if desired.

`untyped_call`  
Subroutine call instruction returning a value of any type. Operand 0 is the function to call; operand 1 is a memory location where the result of calling the function is to be stored; operand 2 is a `parallel` expression where each element is a `set` expression that indicates the saving of a function return value into the result block.

This instruction pattern should be defined to support `__builtin_apply` on machines where special instructions are needed to call a subroutine with arbitrary arguments or to save the value returned. This instruction pattern is required on machines that have multiple registers that can hold a return value (i.e. `FUNCTION_VALUE_REGNO_P` is true for more than one register).

`return`  
Subroutine return instruction. This instruction pattern name should be defined only if a single instruction can do all the work of returning from a function.

Like the `movm` patterns, this pattern is also used after the RTL generation phase. In this case it is to support machines where multiple instructions are usually needed to return from a function, but some class of functions only requires one instruction to implement a return. Normally, the applicable functions are those which do not need to save any registers or allocate stack space.

For such machines, the condition specified in this pattern should only be true when `reload_completed` is non-zero and the function’s epilogue would only be a single instruction. For machines with register windows, the routine `leaf_function_p` may be used to determine if a register window push is required.

Machines that have conditional return instructions should define patterns such as

```c
(define_insn ""
  ([set (pc)
     (if_then Else (match_operator
       0 "comparison_operator"
       [(cc0) (const_int 0)])
     (return)
     (pc)))]

"condition"
"...")
```

where `condition` would normally be the same condition specified on the named `return` pattern.

`untyped_return`  
Untyped subroutine return instruction. This instruction pattern should be defined to support `__builtin_return` on machines where special instructions are needed to return a value of any type.

Operand 0 is a memory location where the result of calling a function with `__builtin_apply` is stored; operand 1 is a `parallel` expression where each element is a `set` expression that indicates the restoring of a function return value from the result block.

`nop`  
No-op instruction. This instruction pattern name should always be defined to output a no-op in assembler code. `(const_int 0)` will do as an RTL pattern.

`indirect_jump`  
An instruction to jump to an address which is operand zero. This pattern name is mandatory on all machines.
"casesi"  Instruction to jump through a dispatch table, including bounds checking. This instruction takes five operands:
   1. The index to dispatch on, which has mode \texttt{SImode}.
   2. The lower bound for indices in the table, an integer constant.
   3. The total range of indices in the table—the largest index minus the smallest one (both inclusive).
   4. A label that precedes the table itself.
   5. A label to jump to if the index has a value outside the bounds. (If the machine-description macro \texttt{CASE_DROPS_THROUGH} is defined, then an out-of-bounds index drops through to the code following the jump table instead of jumping to this label. In that case, this label is not actually used by the ‘casesi’ instruction, but it is always provided as an operand.)

The table is a \texttt{addr_vec} or \texttt{addr_diff_vec} inside of a \texttt{jump_insn}. The number of elements in the table is one plus the difference between the upper bound and the lower bound.

"tablejump"  Instruction to jump to a variable address. This is a low-level capability which can be used to implement a dispatch table when there is no ‘casesi’ pattern.

This pattern requires two operands: the address or offset, and a label which should immediately precede the jump table. If the macro \texttt{CASE_VECTOR_PC_RELATIVE} evaluates to a nonzero value then the first operand is an offset which counts from the address of the table; otherwise, it is an absolute address to jump to. In either case, the first operand has mode \texttt{Pmode}.

The ‘tablejump’ insn is always the last insn before the jump table it uses. Its assembler code normally has no need to use the second operand, but you should incorporate it in the RTL pattern so that the jump optimizer will not delete the table as unreachable code.

"decrement_and_branch_until_zero"  Conditional branch instruction that decrements a register and jumps if the register is non-zero. Operand 0 is the register to decrement and test; operand 1 is the label to jump to if the register is non-zero. See Section 20.12 [Looping Patterns], page 325.

This optional instruction pattern is only used by the combiner, typically for loops reversed by the loop optimizer when strength reduction is enabled.

"doloop_end"  Conditional branch instruction that decrements a register and jumps if the register is non-zero. This instruction takes five operands: Operand 0 is the register to decrement and test; operand 1 is the number of loop iterations as a \texttt{const_int} or \texttt{const0_rtx} if this cannot be determined until run-time; operand 2 is the actual or estimated maximum number of iterations as a \texttt{const_int}; operand 3 is the number of enclosed loops as a \texttt{const_int} (an innermost loop has a value of 1); operand 4 is the label to jump to if the register is non-zero. See Section 20.12 [Looping Patterns], page 325.

This optional instruction pattern should be defined for machines with low-overhead looping instructions as the loop optimizer will try to modify suitable loops to utilize it. If nested low-overhead looping is not supported, use a \texttt{define_expand} (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) and make the pattern fail if operand 3 is not \texttt{const1_rtx}. Similarly, if the actual or estimated maximum number of iterations is too large for this instruction, make it fail.
'doloop_begin'
Companion instruction to doloop_end required for machines that need to perform some initialisation, such as loading special registers used by a low-overhead looping instruction. If initialisation insns do not always need to be emitted, use a define_expand (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) and make it fail.

'canonicalize_funcptr_for_compare'
Canonicalize the function pointer in operand 1 and store the result into operand 0.
Operand 0 is always a reg and has mode Pmode; operand 1 may be a reg, mem, symbol_ref, const_int, etc and also has mode Pmode.
Canonicalization of a function pointer usually involves computing the address of the function which would be called if the function pointer were used in an indirect call.
Only define this pattern if function pointers on the target machine can have different values but still call the same function when used in an indirect call.

'save_stack_block'
'save_stack_function'
'save_stack_nonlocal'
'restore_stack_block'
'restore_stack_function'
'restore_stack_nonlocal'
Most machines save and restore the stack pointer by copying it to or from an object of mode Pmode. Do not define these patterns on such machines.
Some machines require special handling for stack pointer saves and restores. On those machines, define the patterns corresponding to the non-standard cases by using a define_expand (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) that produces the required insns. The three types of saves and restores are:
1. ‘save_stack_block’ saves the stack pointer at the start of a block that allocates a variable-sized object, and ‘restore_stack_block’ restores the stack pointer when the block is exited.
2. ‘save_stack_function’ and ‘restore_stack_function’ do a similar job for the outermost block of a function and are used when the function allocates variable-sized objects or calls alloca. Only the epilogue uses the restored stack pointer, allowing a simpler save or restore sequence on some machines.
3. ‘save_stack_nonlocal’ is used in functions that contain labels branched to by nested functions. It saves the stack pointer in such a way that the inner function can use ‘restore_stack_nonlocal’ to restore the stack pointer. The compiler generates code to restore the frame and argument pointer registers, but some machines require saving and restoring additional data such as register window information or stack backchains. Place insns in these patterns to save and restore any such required data.

When saving the stack pointer, operand 0 is the save area and operand 1 is the stack pointer. The mode used to allocate the save area defaults to Pmode but you can override that choice by defining the STACK_SAVEAREA_MODE macro (see Section 21.4 [Storage Layout], page 358). You must specify an integral mode, or VOIDmode if no save area is needed for a particular type of save (either because no save is needed or because a machine-specific save area can be used). Operand 0 is the stack pointer and operand 1 is the save area for restore operations. If ‘save_stack_block’ is defined, operand 0 must not be VOIDmode since these saves can be arbitrarily nested. A save area is a mem that is at a constant offset from virtual_stack_vars_rtx when the stack pointer is saved for use by nonlocal gotos and a reg in the other two cases.
'allocate_stack'
Subtract (or add if STACK_GROWS_DOWNWARD is undefined) operand 1 from the stack pointer to create space for dynamically allocated data.
Store the resultant pointer to this space into operand 0. If you are allocating space from the main stack, do this by emitting a move insn to copy virtual_stack_dynamic_rtx to operand 0. If you are allocating the space elsewhere, generate code to copy the location of the space to operand 0. In the latter case, you must ensure this space gets freed when the corresponding space on the main stack is free.
Do not define this pattern if all that must be done is the subtraction. Some machines require other operations such as stack probes or maintaining the back chain. Define this pattern to emit those operations in addition to updating the stack pointer.

'probe'
Some machines require instructions to be executed after space is allocated from the stack, for example to generate a reference at the bottom of the stack.
If you need to emit instructions before the stack has been adjusted, put them into the 'allocate_stack' pattern. Otherwise, define this pattern to emit the required instructions.
No operands are provided.

'check_stack'
If stack checking cannot be done on your system by probing the stack with a load or store instruction (see Section 21.8.2 [Stack Checking], page 380), define this pattern to perform the needed check and signaling an error if the stack has overflowed. The single operand is the location in the stack furthest from the current stack pointer that you need to validate. Normally, on machines where this pattern is needed, you would obtain the stack limit from a global or thread-specific variable or register.

'nonlocal_goto'
Emit code to generate a non-local goto, e.g., a jump from one function to a label in an outer function. This pattern has four arguments, each representing a value to be used in the jump. The first argument is to be loaded into the frame pointer, the second is the address to branch to (code to dispatch to the actual label), the third is the address of a location where the stack is saved, and the last is the address of the label, to be placed in the location for the incoming static chain.
On most machines you need not define this pattern, since GNU CC will already generate the correct code, which is to load the frame pointer and static chain, restore the stack (using the 'restore_stack_nonlocal' pattern, if defined), and jump indirectly to the dispatcher. You need only define this pattern if this code will not work on your machine.

'nonlocal_goto_receiver'
This pattern, if defined, contains code needed at the target of a nonlocal goto after the code already generated by GNU CC. You will not normally need to define this pattern. A typical reason why you might need this pattern is if some value, such as a pointer to a global table, must be restored when the frame pointer is restored. Note that a nonlocal goto only occurs within a unit-of-translation, so a global table pointer that is shared by all functions of a given module need not be restored. There are no arguments.

'exception_receiver'
This pattern, if defined, contains code needed at the site of an exception handler that isn’t needed at the site of a nonlocal goto. You will not normally need to define this pattern. A typical reason why you might need this pattern is if some value, such as a pointer to a global table, must be restored after control flow is branched to the handler of an exception. There are no arguments.
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`builtin_setjmp_setup`
This pattern, if defined, contains additional code needed to initialize the `jmp_buf`. You will not normally need to define this pattern. A typical reason why you might need this pattern is if some value, such as a pointer to a global table, must be restored. Though it is preferred that the pointer value be recalculated if possible (given the address of a label for instance). The single argument is a pointer to the `jmp_buf`. Note that the buffer is five words long and that the first three are normally used by the generic mechanism.

`builtin_setjmp_receiver`
This pattern, if defined, contains code needed at the site of an built-in setjmp that isn’t needed at the site of a nonlocal goto. You will not normally need to define this pattern. A typical reason why you might need this pattern is if some value, such as a pointer to a global table, must be restored. It takes one argument, which is the label to which `builtin_longjmp` transferred control; this pattern may be emitted at a small offset from that label.

`builtin_longjmp`
This pattern, if defined, performs the entire action of the longjmp. You will not normally need to define this pattern unless you also define `builtin_setjmp_setup`. The single argument is a pointer to the `jmp_buf`.

`eh_return`
This pattern, if defined, affects the way `__builtin_eh_return`, and thence the call frame exception handling library routines, are built. It is intended to handle non-trivial actions needed along the abnormal return path. The pattern takes two arguments. The first is an offset to be applied to the stack pointer. It will have been copied to some appropriate location (typically `EH_RETURN_STACKADJ_RTX`) which will survive until after reload to when the normal epilogue is generated. The second argument is the address of the exception handler to which the function should return. This will normally need to copied by the pattern to some special register or memory location. This pattern only needs to be defined if call frame exception handling is to be used, and simple moves to `EH_RETURN_STACKADJ_RTX` and `EH_RETURN_HANDLER_RTX` are not sufficient.

`prologue`
This pattern, if defined, emits RTL for entry to a function. The function entry is responsible for setting up the stack frame, initializing the frame pointer register, saving callee saved registers, etc.

Using a prologue pattern is generally preferred over defining `FUNCTION_PROLOGUE` to emit assembly code for the prologue.

The `prologue` pattern is particularly useful for targets which perform instruction scheduling.

`epilogue`
This pattern, if defined, emits RTL for exit from a function. The function exit is responsible for deallocating the stack frame, restoring callee saved registers and emitting the return instruction.

Using an epilogue pattern is generally preferred over defining `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` to emit assembly code for the prologue.

The `epilogue` pattern is particularly useful for targets which perform instruction scheduling or which have delay slots for their return instruction.
'sibcall_epilogue'

This pattern, if defined, emits RTL for exit from a function without the final branch back to the calling function. This pattern will be emitted before any sibling call (aka tail call) sites.

The sibcall_epilogue pattern must not clobber any arguments used for parameter passing or any stack slots for arguments passed to the current function.

'trap'

This pattern, if defined, signals an error, typically by causing some kind of signal to be raised. Among other places, it is used by the Java front end to signal 'invalid array index' exceptions.

'conditional_trap'

Conditional trap instruction. Operand 0 is a piece of RTL which performs a comparison. Operand 1 is the trap code, an integer.

A typical conditional_trap pattern looks like

```
(define_insn "conditional_trap"
  [(trap_if (match_operator 0 "trap_operator"
               [(cc0) (const_int 0)])
    (match_operand 1 "const_int_operand" "i"))
   ""
   "...")
```

'cycle_display'

This pattern, if present, will be emitted by the instruction scheduler at the beginning of each new clock cycle. This can be used for annotating the assembler output with cycle counts. Operand 0 is a const_int that holds the clock cycle.

20.9 When the Order of Patterns Matters

Sometimes an insn can match more than one instruction pattern. Then the pattern that appears first in the machine description is the one used. Therefore, more specific patterns (patterns that will match fewer things) and faster instructions (those that will produce better code when they do match) should usually go first in the description.

In some cases the effect of ordering the patterns can be used to hide a pattern when it is not valid. For example, the 68000 has an instruction for converting a fullword to floating point and another for converting a byte to floating point. An instruction converting an integer to floating point could match either one. We put the pattern to convert the fullword first to make sure that one will be used rather than the other. (Otherwise a large integer might be generated as a single-byte immediate quantity, which would not work.) Instead of using this pattern ordering it would be possible to make the pattern for convert-a-byte smart enough to deal properly with any constant value.

20.10 Interdependence of Patterns

Every machine description must have a named pattern for each of the conditional branch names 'bcond'. The recognition template must always have the form

```
(set (pc)
  (if_then_else (cond (cc0) (const_int 0))
   (label_ref (match_operand 0 "" "")
    (pc)))
```

In addition, every machine description must have an anonymous pattern for each of the possible reverse-conditional branches. Their templates look like
(set (pc)
   (if_then_else (cond (cc0) (const_int 0))
      (pc)
      (label_ref (match_operand 0 "" ""))))

They are necessary because jump optimization can turn direct-conditional branches into reverse-conditional branches.

It is often convenient to use the match_operator construct to reduce the number of patterns that must be specified for branches. For example,

(define_insn ""
 [(set (pc)
      (if_then_else (match_operator 0 "comparison_operator"
                     [(cc0) (const_int 0)])
      (pc)
      (label_ref (match_operand 1 "" ""))))]

"condition"
"...,"

In some cases machines support instructions identical except for the machine mode of one or more operands. For example, there may be “sign-extend halfword” and “sign-extend byte” instructions whose patterns are

(set (match_operand:SI 0 ...) (extend:SI (match_operand:HI 1 ...)))

(set (match_operand:SI 0 ...) (extend:SI (match_operand:QI 1 ...)))

Constant integers do not specify a machine mode, so an instruction to extend a constant value could match either pattern. The pattern it actually will match is the one that appears first in the file. For correct results, this must be the one for the widest possible mode (HImode, here). If the pattern matches the QImode instruction, the results will be incorrect if the constant value does not actually fit that mode.

Such instructions to extend constants are rarely generated because they are optimized away, but they do occasionally happen in nonoptimized compilations.

If a constraint in a pattern allows a constant, the reload pass may replace a register with a constant permitted by the constraint in some cases. Similarly for memory references. Because of this substitution, you should not provide separate patterns for increment and decrement instructions. Instead, they should be generated from the same pattern that supports register-register add insns by examining the operands and generating the appropriate machine instruction.

### 20.11 Defining Jump Instruction Patterns

For most machines, GNU CC assumes that the machine has a condition code. A comparison insn sets the condition code, recording the results of both signed and unsigned comparison of the given operands. A separate branch insn tests the condition code and branches or not according its value. The branch insns come in distinct signed and unsigned flavors. Many common machines, such as the Vax, the 68000 and the 32000, work this way.

Some machines have distinct signed and unsigned compare instructions, and only one set of conditional branch instructions. The easiest way to handle these machines is to treat them just like the others until the final stage where assembly code is written. At this time, when outputting code for the compare instruction, peek ahead at the following branch using next_cc0_user (insn). (The variable insn refers to the insn being output, in the output-writing code in an instruction pattern.) If the RTL says that is an unsigned branch, output an unsigned
compare; otherwise output a signed compare. When the branch itself is output, you can treat
signed and unsigned branches identically.

The reason you can do this is that GNU CC always generates a pair of consecutive RTL
insn, possibly separated by note insn, one to set the condition code and one to test it, and
keeps the pair inviolate until the end.

To go with this technique, you must define the machine-description macro NOTICE_UPDATE_CC
to do CC_STATUS_INIT; in other words, no compare instruction is superfluous.

Some machines have compare-and-branch instructions and no condition code. A similar
technique works for them. When it is time to “output” a compare instruction, record its operands
in two static variables. When outputting the branch-on-condition-code instruction that follows,
actually output a compare-and-branch instruction that uses the remembered operands.

It also works to define patterns for compare-and-branch instructions. In optimizing compila-
tion, the pair of compare and branch instructions will be combined according to these patterns.
But this does not happen if optimization is not requested. So you must use one of the solutions
above in addition to any special patterns you define.

In many RISC machines, most instructions do not affect the condition code and there may
not even be a separate condition code register. On these machines, the restriction that the
definition and use of the condition code be adjacent insn is not necessary and can prevent
important optimizations. For example, on the IBM RS/6000, there is a delay for taken branches
unless the condition code register is set three instructions earlier than the conditional branch.
The instruction scheduler cannot perform this optimization if it is not permitted to separate the
definition and use of the condition code register.

On these machines, do not use (cc0), but instead use a register to represent the condition
code. If there is a specific condition code register in the machine, use a hard register. If the
condition code or comparison result can be placed in any general register, or if there are multiple
condition registers, use a pseudo register.

On some machines, the type of branch instruction generated may depend on the way the
condition code was produced; for example, on the 68k and Sparc, setting the condition code
directly from an add or subtract instruction does not clear the overflow bit the way that a test
instruction does, so a different branch instruction must be used for some conditional branches.
For machines that use (cc0), the set and use of the condition code must be adjacent (separated
only by note insn) allowing flags in cc_status to be used. (See Section 21.13 [Condition Code],
page 407.) Also, the comparison and branch insn can be located from each other by using the
functions prev_cc0_setter and next_cc0_user.

However, this is not true on machines that do not use (cc0). On those machines, no as-
sumptions can be made about the adjacency of the compare and branch insn and the above
methods cannot be used. Instead, we use the machine mode of the condition code register to
record different formats of the condition code register.

Registers used to store the condition code value should have a mode that is in class MODE_CC.
Normally, it will be CCmode. If additional modes are required (as for the add example mentioned
above in the Sparc), define the macro EXTRA_CC_MODES to list the additional modes required
(see Section 21.13 [Condition Code], page 407). Also define SELECT_CC_MODE to choose a mode
given an operand of a compare.

If it is known during RTL generation that a different mode will be required (for example,
if the machine has separate compare instructions for signed and unsigned quantities, like most
IBM processors), they can be specified at that time.

If the cases that require different modes would be made by instruction combination, the
macro SELECT_CC_MODE determines which machine mode should be used for the comparison
result. The patterns should be written using that mode. To support the case of the add on the
Sparc discussed above, we have the pattern
The SELECT_CC_MODE macro on the Sparc returns CC_NOOV mode for comparisons whose argument is a plus.

20.12 Defining Looping Instruction Patterns

Some machines have special jump instructions that can be utilised to make loops more efficient. A common example is the 68000 `dbra` instruction which performs a decrement of a register and a branch if the result was greater than zero. Other machines, in particular digital signal processors (DSPs), have special block repeat instructions to provide low-overhead loop support. For example, the TI TMS320C3x/C4x DSPs have a block repeat instruction that loads special registers to mark the top and end of a loop and to count the number of loop iterations. This avoids the need for fetching and executing a `dbra`-like instruction and avoids pipeline stalls associated with the jump.

GNU CC has three special named patterns to support low overhead looping, `decrement_and_branch_until_zero`, `doloop_begin`, and `doloop_end`. The first pattern, `decrement_and_branch_until_zero`, is not emitted during RTL generation but may be emitted during the instruction combination phase. This requires the assistance of the loop optimizer, using information collected during strength reduction, to reverse a loop to count down to zero. Some targets also require the loop optimizer to add a REG_NONNEG note to indicate that the iteration count is always positive. This is needed if the target performs a signed loop termination test. For example, the 68000 uses a pattern similar to the following for its `dbra` instruction:

```
(define_insn "decrement_and_branch_until_zero"
 [(set (pc)
 (if_then Else 
 (ge (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "+d*am") 
 (const_int -1))
 (const_int 0))
 (label_ref (match_operand 1 "" "))
 (pc))]
 (set (match_dup 0)
 (plus:SI (match_dup 0))
 (const_int -1)))]
 "find_reg_note (insn, REG_NONNEG, 0)"
 "...")
```

Note that since the insn is both a jump insn and has an output, it must deal with its own reloads, hence the `m` constraints. Also note that since this insn is generated by the instruction combination phase combining two sequential insns together into an implicit parallel insn, the iteration counter needs to be biased by the same amount as the decrement operation, in this case -1. Note that the following similar pattern will not be matched by the combiner.
The other two special looping patterns, 'doloop_begin' and 'doloop_end', are emitted by the loop optimiser for certain well-behaved loops with a finite number of loop iterations using information collected during strength reduction.

The 'doloop_end' pattern describes the actual looping instruction (or the implicit looping operation) and the 'doloop_begin' pattern is an optional companion pattern that can be used for initialisation needed for some low-overhead looping instructions.

Note that some machines require the actual looping instruction to be emitted at the top of the loop (e.g., the TMS320C3x/C4x DSPs). Emitting the true RTL for a looping instruction at the top of the loop can cause problems with flow analysis. So instead, a dummy doloop insn is emitted at the end of the loop. The machine dependent reorg pass checks for the presence of this doloop insn and then searches back to the top of the loop, where it inserts the true looping insn (provided there are no instructions in the loop which would cause problems). Any additional labels can be emitted at this point. In addition, if the desired special iteration counter register was not allocated, this machine dependent reorg pass could emit a traditional compare and jump instruction pair.

The essential difference between the 'decrement_and_branch_until_zero' and the 'doloop_end' patterns is that the loop optimizer allocates an additional pseudo register for the latter as an iteration counter. This pseudo register cannot be used within the loop (i.e., general induction variables cannot be derived from it), however, in many cases the loop induction variable may become redundant and removed by the flow pass.

### 20.13 Canonicalization of Instructions

There are often cases where multiple RTL expressions could represent an operation performed by a single machine instruction. This situation is most commonly encountered with logical, branch, and multiply-accumulate instructions. In such cases, the compiler attempts to convert these multiple RTL expressions into a single canonical form to reduce the number of insn patterns required.

In addition to algebraic simplifications, following canonicalizations are performed:

- For commutative and comparison operators, a constant is always made the second operand. If a machine only supports a constant as the second operand, only patterns that match a constant in the second operand need be supplied.
  For these operators, if only one operand is a neg, not, mult, plus, or minus expression, it will be the first operand.
- For the compare operator, a constant is always the second operand on machines where cc0 is used (see Section 20.11 [Jump Patterns], page 323). On other machines, there are rare cases where the compiler might want to construct a compare with a constant as the first operand. However, these cases are not common enough for it to be worthwhile to provide
a pattern matching a constant as the first operand unless the machine actually has such an
instruction.

An operand of neg, not, mult, plus, or minus is made the first operand under the same
conditions as above.

• (minus x (const_int n)) is converted to (plus x (const_int -n)).

• Within address computations (i.e., inside mem), a left shift is converted into the appropriate
multiplication by a power of two.

• DeMorgan’s Law is used to move bitwise negation inside a bitwise logical-and or logical-or
operation. If this results in only one operand being a not expression, it will be the first one.

A machine that has an instruction that performs a bitwise logical-and of one operand with
the bitwise negation of the other should specify the pattern for that instruction as

```
(define_insn ""
 [(set (match_operand:m 0 ...) 
    (and:m (not:m (match_operand:m 1 ...)) 
        (match_operand:m 2 ...)))]
   "...
   "...")
```

Similarly, a pattern for a “NAND” instruction should be written

```
(define_insn ""
 [(set (match_operand:m 0 ...) 
    (ior:m (not:m (match_operand:m 1 ...)) 
        (not:m (match_operand:m 2 ...)))]
   "...
   "..."
```

In both cases, it is not necessary to include patterns for the many logically equivalent RTL
expressions.

• The only possible RTL expressions involving both bitwise exclusive-or and bitwise negation
are (xor:m x y) and (not:m (xor:m x y)).

• The sum of three items, one of which is a constant, will only appear in the form
    (plus:m (plus:m x y) constant)

• On machines that do not use cc0, (compare x (const_int 0)) will be converted to x.

• Equality comparisons of a group of bits (usually a single bit) with zero will be written using
zero_extract rather than the equivalent and or sign_extract operations.

### 20.14 Defining RTL Sequences for Code Generation

On some target machines, some standard pattern names for RTL generation cannot be han-
dled with single insn, but a sequence of RTL insns can represent them. For these target machines,
you can write a define_expand to specify how to generate the sequence of RTL.

A define_expand is an RTL expression that looks almost like a define_insn; but, unlike
the latter, a define_expand is used only for RTL generation and it can produce more than one
RTL insn.

A define_expand RTX has four operands:

• The name. Each define_expand must have a name, since the only use for it is to refer to
it by name.

• The RTL template. This is a vector of RTL expressions representing a sequence of separate
instructions. Unlike define_insn, there is no implicit surrounding PARALLEL.
• The condition, a string containing a C expression. This expression is used to express how the availability of this pattern depends on subclasses of target machine, selected by command-line options when GNU CC is run. This is just like the condition of a `define_insn` that has a standard name. Therefore, the condition (if present) may not depend on the data in the insn being matched, but only the target-machine-type flags. The compiler needs to test these conditions during initialization in order to learn exactly which named instructions are available in a particular run.

• The preparation statements, a string containing zero or more C statements which are to be executed before RTL code is generated from the RTL template.

Usually these statements prepare temporary registers for use as internal operands in the RTL template, but they can also generate RTL insns directly by calling routines such as `emit_insn`, etc. Any such insns precede the ones that come from the RTL template.

Every RTL insn emitted by a `define_expand` must match some `define_insn` in the machine description. Otherwise, the compiler will crash when trying to generate code for the insn or trying to optimize it.

The RTL template, in addition to controlling generation of RTL insns, also describes the operands that need to be specified when this pattern is used. In particular, it gives a predicate for each operand.

A true operand, which needs to be specified in order to generate RTL from the pattern, should be described with a `match_operand` in its first occurrence in the RTL template. This enters information on the operand’s predicate into the tables that record such things. GNU CC uses the information to preload the operand into a register if that is required for valid RTL code. If the operand is referred to more than once, subsequent references should use `match_dup`.

The RTL template may also refer to internal “operands” which are temporary registers or labels used only within the sequence made by the `define_expand`. Internal operands are substituted into the RTL template with `match_dup`, never with `match_operand`. The values of the internal operands are not passed in as arguments by the compiler when it requests use of this pattern. Instead, they are computed within the pattern, in the preparation statements. These statements compute the values and store them into the appropriate elements of `operands` so that `match_dup` can find them.

There are two special macros defined for use in the preparation statements: `DONE` and `FAIL`. Use them with a following semicolon, as a statement.

`DONE` Use the `DONE` macro to end RTL generation for the pattern. The only RTL insns resulting from the pattern on this occasion will be those already emitted by explicit calls to `emit_insn` within the preparation statements; the RTL template will not be generated.

`FAIL` Make the pattern fail on this occasion. When a pattern fails, it means that the pattern was not truly available. The calling routines in the compiler will try other strategies for code generation using other patterns.

Failure is currently supported only for binary (addition, multiplication, shifting, etc.) and bit-field (`extv`, `extzv`, and `insv`) operations.

If the preparation falls through (invokes neither `DONE` nor `FAIL`), then the `define_expand` acts like a `define_insn` in that the RTL template is used to generate the insn.

The RTL template is not used for matching, only for generating the initial insn list. If the preparation statement always invokes `DONE` or `FAIL`, the RTL template may be reduced to a simple list of operands, such as this example:

```c
(define_expand "addsi3"
 [(match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" "")
  (match_operand:SI 1 "register_operand" "")
  (match_operand:SI 2 "register_operand" "]
```

Here is an example, the definition of left-shift for the SPUR chip:

```
(define_expand "ashlsi3"
 [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" "")
       (ashift:SI
         (match_operand:SI 1 "register_operand" "")
         (match_operand:SI 2 "nonmemory_operand" "")))]

{ if (GET_CODE (operands[2]) != CONST_INT
    || (unsigned) INTVAL (operands[2]) > 3)
    FAIL;
    }
```

This example uses `define_expand` so that it can generate an RTL insn for shifting when the shift-count is in the supported range of 0 to 3 but fail in other cases where machine insns aren’t available. When it fails, the compiler tries another strategy using different patterns (such as, a library call).

If the compiler were able to handle nontrivial condition-strings in patterns with names, then it would be possible to use a `define_insn` in that case. Here is another case (zero-extension on the 68000) which makes more use of the power of `define_expand`:

```
(define_expand "zero_extendhisi2"
 [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "")
       (const_int 0))
     (set (strict_low_part
          (subreg:HI
            (match_dup 0)
            0))
          (match_operand:HI 1 "general_operand" "")))]

"operands[1] = make_safe_from (operands[1], operands[0]);"
```

Here two RTL insns are generated, one to clear the entire output operand and the other to copy the input operand into its low half. This sequence is incorrect if the input operand refers to [the old value of] the output operand, so the preparation statement makes sure this isn’t so. The function `make_safe_from` copies the `operands[1]` into a temporary register if it refers to `operands[0]`. It does this by emitting another RTL insn.

Finally, a third example shows the use of an internal operand. Zero-extension on the SPUR chip is done by and-ing the result against a halfword mask. But this mask cannot be represented by a `const_int` because the constant value is too large to be legitimate on this machine. So it must be copied into a register with `force_reg` and then the register used in the `and`.

```
(define_expand "zero_extendhisi2"
 [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" "")
       (and:SI (subreg:SI
                 (match_operand:HI 1 "register_operand" "")
                 0))
          (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" ""))
     (match_operand:HI 1 "general_operand" ""))
```

"operands[0] = make_safe_from (operands[0], operands[1]);"
(match_dup 2)))]

"" 
"operands[2]
    = force_reg (SIMode, GEN_INT (65535)); "")

Note: If the define_register is used to serve a standard binary or unary arithmetic operation or a bit-field operation, then the last insn it generates must not be a code_label, barrier or note. It must be an insn, jump_insn or call_insn. If you don’t need a real insn at the end, emit an insn to copy the result of the operation into itself. Such an insn will generate no code, but it can avoid problems in the compiler.

20.15 Defining How to Split Instructions

There are two cases where you should specify how to split a pattern into multiple insns. On machines that have instructions requiring delay slots (see Section 20.17.7 [Delay Slots], page 343) or that have instructions whose output is not available for multiple cycles (see Section 20.17.8 [Function Units], page 344), the compiler phases that optimize these cases need to be able to move insns into one-instruction delay slots. However, some insns may generate more than one machine instruction. These insns cannot be placed into a delay slot.

Often you can rewrite the single insn as a list of individual insns, each corresponding to one machine instruction. The disadvantage of doing so is that it will cause the compilation to be slower and require more space. If the resulting insns are too complex, it may also suppress some optimizations. The compiler splits the insn if there is a reason to believe that it might improve instruction or delay slot scheduling.

The insn combiner phase also splits putative insns. If three insns are merged into one insn with a complex expression that cannot be matched by some define_insn pattern, the combiner phase attempts to split the complex pattern into two insns that are recognized. Usually it can break the complex pattern into two patterns by splitting out some subexpression. However, in some other cases, such as performing an addition of a large constant in two insns on a RISC machine, the way to split the addition into two insns is machine-dependent.

The define_split definition tells the compiler how to split a complex insn into several simpler insns. It looks like this:

(define_split
    [insn-pattern]
    "condition"
    [new_insn-pattern-1
        new_insn-pattern-2
        ...
    ]
    "preparation-statements")

insn-pattern is a pattern that needs to be split and condition is the final condition to be tested, as in a define_insn. When an insn matching insn-pattern and satisfying condition is found, it is replaced in the insn list with the insns given by new_insn-pattern-1, new_insn-pattern-2, etc.

The preparation-statements are similar to those statements that are specified for define_expand (see Section 20.14 [Expander Definitions], page 327) and are executed before the new RTL is generated to prepare for the generated code or emit some insns whose pattern is not fixed. Unlike those in define_expand, however, these statements must not generate any new pseudo-registers. Once reload has completed, they also must not allocate any space in the stack frame.

Patterns are matched against insn-pattern in two different circumstances. If an insn needs to be split for delay slot scheduling or insn scheduling, the insn is already known to be valid, which means that it must have been matched by some define_insn and, if reload_completed is non-zero, is known to satisfy the constraints of that define_insn. In that case, the new insn
patterns must also be insns that are matched by some `define_insn` and, if `reload_completed` is non-zero, must also satisfy the constraints of those definitions.

As an example of this usage of `define_split`, consider the following example from `a29k.md`, which splits a `sign_extend` from `HImode` to `SImode` into a pair of shift insns:

```lisp
(define_split
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "gen_reg_operand" "")
       (sign_extend:SI (match_operand:HI 1 "gen_reg_operand" "")))]
  "
  [(set (match_dup 0)
       (ashift:SI (match_dup 1)
                  (const_int 16)))
   (set (match_dup 0)
        (ashiftrt:SI (match_dup 0)
                     (const_int 16)))]

  { operands[1] = gen_lowpart (SImode, operands[1]); }")
```

When the combiner phase tries to split an insn pattern, it is always the case that the pattern is not matched by any `define_insn`. The combiner pass first tries to split a single `set` expression and then the same `set` expression inside a `parallel`, but followed by a `clobber` of a pseudo-reg to use as a scratch register. In these cases, the combiner expects exactly two new insn patterns to be generated. It will verify that these patterns match some `define_insn` definitions, so you need not do this test in the `define_split` (of course, there is no point in writing a `define_split` that will never produce insns that match).

Here is an example of this use of `define_split`, taken from `rs6000.md`:

```lisp
(define_split
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "gen_reg_operand" "")
       (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "gen_reg_operand" "")
                (match_operand:SI 2 "non_add_cint_operand" "")))]
  "
  [(set (match_dup 0) (plus:SI (match_dup 1) (match_dup 3)))
   (set (match_dup 0) (plus:SI (match_dup 0) (match_dup 4)))]

  {
   int low = INTVAL (operands[2]) & 0xffff;
   int high = (unsigned) INTVAL (operands[2]) >> 16;

   if (low & 0x8000)
     high++, low |= 0xffff0000;

   operands[3] = GEN_INT (high << 16);
   operands[4] = GEN_INT (low);
  }")
```

Here the predicate `non_add_cint_operand` matches any `const_int` that is not a valid operand of a single add insn. The add with the smaller displacement is written so that it can be substituted into the address of a subsequent operation.

An example that uses a scratch register, from the same file, generates an equality comparison of a register and a large constant:

```lisp
(define_split
  [(set (match_operand:CC 0 "cc_reg_operand" "")
       (compare:CC (match_operand:SI 1 "gen_reg_operand" ""))
       (match_operand:SI 2 "non_add_cint_operand" ""))]
  "
  [(set (match_dup 0)
       (ashift:SI (match_dup 1)
                  (const_int 16)))
   (set (match_dup 0)
        (ashiftrt:SI (match_dup 0)
                     (const_int 16)))]

  { operands[1] = gen_lowpart (SImode, operands[1]); }")
```

Here the predicate `non_add_cint_operand` matches any `const_int` that is not a valid operand of a single add insn. The add with the smaller displacement is written so that it can be substituted into the address of a subsequent operation.

An example that uses a scratch register, from the same file, generates an equality comparison of a register and a large constant:
{
/* Get the constant we are comparing against, C, and see what it
looks like sign-extended to 16 bits. Then see what constant
could be XOR'ed with C to get the sign-extended value. */

int c = INTVAL (operands[2]);
int sextc = (c << 16) >> 16;
int xorv = c ^ sextc;

operands[4] = GEN_INT (xorv);
operands[5] = GEN_INT (sextc);
}

To avoid confusion, don’t write a single define_split that accepts some insns that match
some define_insn as well as some insns that don’t. Instead, write two separate define_split
definitions, one for the insns that are valid and one for the insns that are not valid.

For the common case where the pattern of a define_split exactly matches the pattern of a
define_insn, use define_insn_and_split. It looks like this:

(define_insn_and_split
 [insn-pattern]
 "condition"
 "output-template"
 "split-condition"
 [new-insn-pattern-1
 new-insn-pattern-2
 ...]
 "preparation-statements"
 [insn-attributes])

insn-pattern, condition, output-template, and insn-attributes are used as in define_insn.
The new-insn-pattern vector and the preparation-statements are used as in a define_split.
The split-condition is also used as in define_split, with the additional behavior that if the
condition starts with ‘&&’, the condition used for the split will be the constructed as a logical
“and” of the split condition with the insn condition. For example, from i386.md:

(define_insn_and_split "zero_extendhisi2_and"
 [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" ":r")
 (zero_extend:SI (match_operand:HI 1 "register_operand" ":0")))
 (clobber (reg:CC 17)))
 "TARGET_ZERO_EXTEND_WITH_AND && !optimize_size"
 "#" "&& reload_completed"
 [(parallel [(set (match_dup 0) (and:SI (match_dup 0) (const_int 65535)))
 (clobber (reg:CC 17)))]

""
In this case, the actual split condition will be "TARGET_ZERO_EX�END_WITH_AND & &
\texttt{!optimize\_size} & & \texttt{reload\_completed}.
"

The \texttt{define\_insn\_and\_split} construction provides exactly the same functionality as two
separate \texttt{define\_insn} and \texttt{define\_split} patterns. It exists for compactness, and as a main-
tenance tool to prevent having to ensure the two patterns’ templates match.

## 20.16 Machine-Specific Peephole Optimizers

In addition to instruction patterns the ‘md’ file may contain definitions of machine-specific
peephole optimizations.

The combiner does not notice certain peephole optimizations when the data flow in the
program does not suggest that it should try them. For example, sometimes two consecutive
insns related in purpose can be combined even though the second one does not appear to use
a register computed in the first one. A machine-specific peephole optimizer can detect such
opportunities.

There are two forms of peephole definitions that may be used. The original \texttt{define\_peephole}
is run at assembly output time to match insns and substitute assembly text. Use of \texttt{define\_peephole}
is deprecated.

A newer \texttt{define\_peephole2} matches insns and substitutes new insns. The \texttt{peephole2} pass
is run after register allocation but before scheduling, which may result in much better code for
targets that do scheduling.

### 20.16.1 RTL to Text Peephole Optimizers

A definition looks like this:

\begin{verbatim}
(define_peephole
   [insn-pattern-1
    insn-pattern-2
    ...]
   "condition"
   "template"
   "optional-instruction-attributes")
\end{verbatim}

The last string operand may be omitted if you are not using any machine-specific information
in this machine description. If present, it must obey the same rules as in a \texttt{define\_insn}.

In this skeleton, \texttt{insn-pattern-1} and so on are patterns to match consecutive insns. The
optimization applies to a sequence of insns when \texttt{insn-pattern-1} matches the first one, \texttt{insn-
pattern-2} matches the next, and so on.

Each of the insns matched by a peephole must also match a \texttt{define\_insn}. Peepholes are
checked only at the last stage just before code generation, and only optionally. Therefore, any
insn which would match a peephole but no \texttt{define\_insn} will cause a crash in code generation
in an unoptimized compilation, or at various optimization stages.

The operands of the insns are matched with \texttt{match\_operands}, \texttt{match\_operator}, and \texttt{match\_dup}, as usual. What is not usual is that the operand numbers apply to all the insn patterns in
the definition. So, you can check for identical operands in two insns by using \texttt{match\_operand} in
one insn and \texttt{match\_dup} in the other.

The operand constraints used in \texttt{match\_operand} patterns do not have any direct effect on the
applicability of the peephole, but they will be validated afterward, so make sure your constraints
are general enough to apply whenever the peephole matches. If the peephole matches but the
constraints are not satisfied, the compiler will crash.
It is safe to omit constraints in all the operands of the peephole; or you can write constraints which serve as a double-check on the criteria previously tested.

Once a sequence of insns matches the patterns, the condition is checked. This is a C expression which makes the final decision whether to perform the optimization (we do so if the expression is nonzero). If condition is omitted (in other words, the string is empty) then the optimization is applied to every sequence of insns that matches the patterns.

The defined peephole optimizations are applied after register allocation is complete. Therefore, the peephole definition can check which operands have ended up in which kinds of registers, just by looking at the operands.

The way to refer to the operands in condition is to write operands[i] for operand number i (as matched by (match_operand i ...)). Use the variable insn to refer to the last of the insns being matched; use prev_active_insn to find the preceding insns.

When optimizing computations with intermediate results, you can use condition to match only when the intermediate results are not used elsewhere. Use the C expression dead_or_set_p (insn, op), where insn is the insn in which you expect the value to be used for the last time (from the value of insn, together with use of prev_nonnote_insn), and op is the intermediate value (from operands[i]).

Applying the optimization means replacing the sequence of insns with one new insn. The template controls ultimate output of assembler code for this combined insn. It works exactly like the template of a define_insn. Operand numbers in this template are the same ones used in matching the original sequence of insns.

The result of a defined peephole optimizer does not need to match any of the insn patterns in the machine description; it does not even have an opportunity to match them. The peephole optimizer definition itself serves as the insn pattern to control how the insn is output.

Defined peephole optimizers are run as assembler code is being output, so the insns they produce are never combined or rearranged in any way.

Here is an example, taken from the 68000 machine description:

```c
(define_peephole
 [(set (reg:SI 15) (plus:SI (reg:SI 15) (const_int 4)))
  (set (match_operand:DF 0 "register_operand" ";f")
       (match_operand:DF 1 "register_operand" "ad")))
  "FP_REG_P (operands[0]) && ! FP_REG_P (operands[1])"
  
  {  
    rtx xoperands[2];
    xoperands[1] = gen_rtx (REG, SImode, REGNO (operands[1]) + 1);
    #ifdef MOTOROLA
    output_asm_insn ("move.l \%1,(sp)", xoperands);
    output_asm_insn ("move.l \%1,-(sp)", operands);
    return "fmove.d (sp)+,%0";
    #else
    output_asm_insn ("movel \%1,sp@", xoperands);
    output_asm_insn ("movel \%1,sp@-", operands);
    return "fmoved sp@+,%0";
    #endif
  }"
```

It is safe to omit constraints in all the operands of the peephole; or you can write constraints which serve as a double-check on the criteria previously tested.

Once a sequence of insns matches the patterns, the condition is checked. This is a C expression which makes the final decision whether to perform the optimization (we do so if the expression is nonzero). If condition is omitted (in other words, the string is empty) then the optimization is applied to every sequence of insns that matches the patterns.

The defined peephole optimizations are applied after register allocation is complete. Therefore, the peephole definition can check which operands have ended up in which kinds of registers, just by looking at the operands.

The way to refer to the operands in condition is to write operands[i] for operand number i (as matched by (match_operand i ...)). Use the variable insn to refer to the last of the insns being matched; use prev_active_insn to find the preceding insns.

When optimizing computations with intermediate results, you can use condition to match only when the intermediate results are not used elsewhere. Use the C expression dead_or_set_p (insn, op), where insn is the insn in which you expect the value to be used for the last time (from the value of insn, together with use of prev_nonnote_insn), and op is the intermediate value (from operands[i]).

Applying the optimization means replacing the sequence of insns with one new insn. The template controls ultimate output of assembler code for this combined insn. It works exactly like the template of a define_insn. Operand numbers in this template are the same ones used in matching the original sequence of insns.

The result of a defined peephole optimizer does not need to match any of the insn patterns in the machine description; it does not even have an opportunity to match them. The peephole optimizer definition itself serves as the insn pattern to control how the insn is output.

Defined peephole optimizers are run as assembler code is being output, so the insns they produce are never combined or rearranged in any way.

Here is an example, taken from the 68000 machine description:
The effect of this optimization is to change

```
jbsr _foobar
addql #4,sp
movel d1,sp@-
movel d0,sp@-
fmoved sp@+,fp0
```

into

```
jbsr _foobar
movel d1,sp@
movel d0,sp@-
fmoved sp@+,fp0
```

_insn-pattern-1 and so on look _almost_ like the second operand of _define_insn_. There is one important difference: the second operand of _define_insn_ consists of one or more RTX’s enclosed in square brackets. Usually, there is only one: then the same action can be written as an element of a _define_peephole_. But when there are multiple actions in a _define_insn_, they are implicitly enclosed in a parallel. Then you must explicitly write the _parallel_, and the square brackets within it, in the _define_peephole_. Thus, if an insn pattern looks like this,

```
(define_insn "divmodsi4"
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" ";=d")
      (div:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" ",0")
      
      (match_operand:SI 2 "general_operand" ",dmsK")))
  (set (match_operand:SI 3 "general_operand" ";=d")
      
      (mod:SI (match_dup 1) (match_dup 2)))
"TARGET_68020"
"divs1%.1 %2,%3:%0")
```

then the way to mention this insn in a peephole is as follows:

```
(define_peephole
 [...
  (parallel
   [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" ";=d")
      (div:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" ",0")
      
      (match_operand:SI 2 "general_operand" ",dmsK")))
   (set (match_operand:SI 3 "general_operand" ";=d")
      
      (mod:SI (match_dup 1) (match_dup 2)))
...]
...)
```

### 20.16.2 RTL to RTL Peephole Optimizers

The _define_peephole2_ definition tells the compiler how to substitute one sequence of instructions for another sequence, what additional scratch registers may be needed and what their lifetimes must be.

```
(define_peephole2
  [insn-pattern-1
   insn-pattern-2
   ...
   "condition"
  [new insn-pattern-1
   new insn-pattern-2

...]
...)
```
The definition is almost identical to define_split (see Section 20.15 [Insn Splitting], page 330) except that the pattern to match is not a single instruction, but a sequence of instructions.

It is possible to request additional scratch registers for use in the output template. If appropriate registers are not free, the pattern will simply not match.

Scratch registers are requested with a match_scratch pattern at the top level of the input pattern. The allocated register (initially) will be dead at the point requested within the original sequence. If the scratch is used at more than a single point, a match_dup pattern at the top level of the input pattern marks the last position in the input sequence at which the register must be available.

Here is an example from the IA-32 machine description:

```
(define_peephole2 [(match_scratch:SI 2 "r")
  (parallel [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" ")
     (match_operator:SI 3 "arith_or_logical_operator"
     [(match_dup 0)
       (match_operand:SI 1 "memory_operand" )])]
     (clobber (reg:CC 17)))]))
"! optimize_size && ! TARGET_READ_MODIFY"
[(set (match_dup 2) (match_dup 1))
  (parallel [(set (match_dup 0)
     (match_op_dup 3 [(match_dup 0) (match_dup 2)])
     (clobber (reg:CC 17))])]
"
```

This pattern tries to split a load from its use in the hopes that we'll be able to schedule around the memory load latency. It allocates a single SImode register of class GENERAL_REGS ("r") that needs to be live only at the point just before the arithmetic.

A real example requiring extended scratch lifetimes is harder to come by, so here's a silly made-up example:

```
(define_peephole2 [(match_scratch:SI 4 "r")
  (set (match_operand:SI 0 "" ") (match_operand:SI 1 "" "))
  (set (match_operand:SI 2 "" ") (match_dup 1))
  (match_dup 4)
  (set (match_operand:SI 3 "" ") (match_dup 1))]
"/* determine 1 does not overlap 0 and 2 */"
[(set (match_dup 4) (match_dup 1))
  (set (match_dup 0) (match_dup 4))
  (set (match_dup 2) (match_dup 4))]
  (set (match_dup 3) (match_dup 4))]
"
```

If we had not added the (match_dup 4) in the middle of the input sequence, it might have been the case that the register we chose at the beginning of the sequence is killed by the first or second set.

### 20.17 Instruction Attributes

In addition to describing the instruction supported by the target machine, the `md` file also defines a group of attributes and a set of values for each. Every generated insn is assigned a
value for each attribute. One possible attribute would be the effect that the insn has on the machine's condition code. This attribute can then be used by NOTICE_UPDATE_CC to track the condition codes.

### 20.17.1 Defining Attributes and their Values

The `define_attr` expression is used to define each attribute required by the target machine. It looks like:

```
(define_attr name list-of-values default)
```

- `name` is a string specifying the name of the attribute being defined.
- `list-of-values` is either a string that specifies a comma-separated list of values that can be assigned to the attribute, or a null string to indicate that the attribute takes numeric values.
- `default` is an attribute expression that gives the value of this attribute for insns that match patterns whose definition does not include an explicit value for this attribute. See Section 20.17.4 [Attr Example], page 341, for more information on the handling of defaults. See Section 20.17.6 [Constant Attributes], page 343, for information on attributes that do not depend on any particular insn.

For each defined attribute, a number of definitions are written to the `insn-attr.h` file. For cases where an explicit set of values is specified for an attribute, the following are defined:

- A `#define` is written for the symbol `HAVE_ATTR_name`.
- An enumeral class is defined for `attr_name` with elements of the form `upper-name_upper-value` where the attribute name and value are first converted to upper case.
- A function `get_attr_name` is defined that is passed an insn and returns the attribute value for that insn.

For example, if the following is present in the `md` file:

```
(define_attr "type" "branch,fp,load,store,arith" ...)
```

the following lines will be written to the file `insn-attr.h`.

```
#define HAVE_ATTR_type
enum attr_type {TYPE_BRANCH, TYPE_FP, TYPE_LOAD,
               TYPE_STORE, TYPE_ARITH};
extern enum attr_type get_attr_type();
```

If the attribute takes numeric values, no `enum` type will be defined and the function to obtain the attribute’s value will return `int`.

### 20.17.2 Attribute Expressions

RTL expressions used to define attributes use the codes described above plus a few specific to attribute definitions, to be discussed below. Attribute value expressions must have one of the following forms:

1. **(const_int i)**
   - The integer `i` specifies the value of a numeric attribute. `i` must be non-negative.
   - The value of a numeric attribute can be specified either with a `const_int`, or as an integer represented as a string in `const_string`, `eq_attr` (see below), `attr`, `symbol_ref`, simple arithmetic expressions, and `set_attr` overrides on specific instructions (see Section 20.17.3 [Tagging Insns], page 339).

2. **(const_string value)**
   - The string `value` specifies a constant attribute value. If `value` is specified as ‘‘*’’, it means that the default value of the attribute is to be used for the insn containing this
expression. "*" obviously cannot be used in the default expression of a define_attr.

If the attribute whose value is being specified is numeric, value must be a string containing a non-negative integer (normally const_int would be used in this case). Otherwise, it must contain one of the valid values for the attribute.

(if_then_else test true-value false-value)
test specifies an attribute test, whose format is defined below. The value of this expression is true-value if test is true, otherwise it is false-value.

(cond [test1 value1 ...] default)
The first operand of this expression is a vector containing an even number of expressions and consisting of pairs of test and value expressions. The value of the cond expression is that of the value corresponding to the first true test expression. If none of the test expressions are true, the value of the cond expression is that of the default expression.

test expressions can have one of the following forms:

(const_int i)
This test is true if i is non-zero and false otherwise.

(not test)
(ior test1 test2)
(and test1 test2)
These tests are true if the indicated logical function is true.

(match_operand: m n pred constraints)
This test is true if operand n of the insn whose attribute value is being determined has mode m (this part of the test is ignored if m is VOIDmode) and the function specified by the string pred returns a non-zero value when passed operand n and mode m (this part of the test is ignored if pred is the null string). The constraints operand is ignored and should be the null string.

(le arith1 arith2)
(leu arith1 arith2)
(lt arith1 arith2)
(ltu arith1 arith2)
(gt arith1 arith2)
(gtu arith1 arith2)
(ge arith1 arith2)
(geu arith1 arith2)
(ne arith1 arith2)
(eq arith1 arith2)
These tests are true if the indicated comparison of the two arithmetic expressions is true. Arithmetic expressions are formed with plus, minus, mult, div, mod, abs, neg, and, ior, xor, not, ashift, lshiftrt, and asiftrt expressions.

const_int and symbol_ref are always valid terms (see Section 20.17.5 [Insn Lengths], page 342, for additional forms). symbol_ref is a string denoting a C expression that yields an int when evaluated by the 'get_attr...' routine. It should normally be a global variable.

(eq_attr name value)
nname is a string specifying the name of an attribute.

value is a string that is either a valid value for attribute name, a comma-separated list of values, or '! followed by a value or list. If value does not begin with '!,
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this test is true if the value of the name attribute of the current insn is in the list specified by value. If value begins with a ‘!’ this test is true if the attribute’s value is not in the specified list.

For example,

(eq_attr "type" "load,store")

is equivalent to

(ior (eq_attr "type" "load") (eq_attr "type" "store"))

If name specifies an attribute of ‘alternative’, it refers to the value of the compiler variable which_alternative (see Section 20.6 [Output Statement], page 297) and the values must be small integers. For example,

(eq_attr "alternative" "2,3")

is equivalent to

(ior (eq (symbol_ref "which_alternative") (const_int 2))
     (eq (symbol_ref "which_alternative") (const_int 3)))

Note that, for most attributes, an eq_attr test is simplified in cases where the value of the attribute being tested is known for all insns matching a particular pattern. This is by far the most common case.

(attr_flag name)

The value of an attr_flag expression is true if the flag specified by name is true for the insn currently being scheduled. name is a string specifying one of a fixed set of flags to test. Test the flags forward and backward to determine the direction of a conditional branch. Test the flags very_likely, likely, very_unlikely, and unlikely to determine if a conditional branch is expected to be taken.

If the very_likely flag is true, then the likely flag is also true. Likewise for the very_unlikely and unlikely flags.

This example describes a conditional branch delay slot which can be nullified for forward branches that are taken (annul-true) or for backward branches which are not taken (annul-false).

(define_delay (eq_attr "type" "cbranch")
  [(eq_attr "in_branch_delay" "true")
   (and (eq_attr "in_branch_delay" "true")
        (attr_flag "forward"))
   (and (eq_attr "in_branch_delay" "true")
        (attr_flag "backward"))])

The forward and backward flags are false if the current insn being scheduled is not a conditional branch.

The very_likely and likely flags are true if the insn being scheduled is not a conditional branch. The very_unlikely and unlikely flags are false if the insn being scheduled is not a conditional branch.

attr_flag is only used during delay slot scheduling and has no meaning to other passes of the compiler.

(attr name)

The value of another attribute is returned. This is most useful for numeric attributes, as eq_attr and attr_flag produce more efficient code for non-numeric attributes.

20.17.3 Assigning Attribute Values to Insns

The value assigned to an attribute of an insn is primarily determined by which pattern is matched by that insn (or which define_peephole generated it). Every define_insn and
define_peephole can have an optional last argument to specify the values of attributes for matching insns. The value of any attribute not specified in a particular insn is set to the default value for that attribute, as specified in its define_attr. Extensive use of default values for attributes permits the specification of the values for only one or two attributes in the definition of most insn patterns, as seen in the example in the next section.

The optional last argument of define_insn and define_peephole is a vector of expressions, each of which specifies the value for a single attribute. The most general way of assigning an attribute’s value is to use a set expression whose first operand is an attr expression giving the name of the attribute being set. The second operand of the set is an attribute expression (see Section 20.17.2 [Expressions], page 337) giving the value of the attribute.

When the attribute value depends on the ‘alternative’ attribute (i.e., which is the applicable alternative in the constraint of the insn), the set_attr_alternative expression can be used. It allows the specification of a vector of attribute expressions, one for each alternative.

When the generality of arbitrary attribute expressions is not required, the simpler set_attr expression can be used, which allows specifying a string giving either a single attribute value or a list of attribute values, one for each alternative.

The form of each of the above specifications is shown below. In each case, name is a string specifying the attribute to be set.

(set_attr name value-string)

value-string is either a string giving the desired attribute value, or a string containing a comma-separated list giving the values for succeeding alternatives. The number of elements must match the number of alternatives in the constraint of the insn pattern.

Note that it may be useful to specify ‘*’ for some alternative, in which case the attribute will assume its default value for insns matching that alternative.

(set_attr_alternative name [value1 value2 ...])

Depending on the alternative of the insn, the value will be one of the specified values. This is a shorthand for using a cond with tests on the ‘alternative’ attribute.

(set (attr name) value)

The first operand of this set must be the special RTL expression attr, whose sole operand is a string giving the name of the attribute being set. value is the value of the attribute.

The following shows three different ways of representing the same attribute value specification:

(set_attr "type" "load,store,arith")

(set_attr_alternative "type"

[(const_string "load") (const_string "store")
 (const_string "arith")])

(set (attr "type")

(cond [(eq_attr "alternative" "1") (const_string "load")
 (eq_attr "alternative" "2") (const_string "store")]
 (const_string "arith"))]

The define_asm_attributes expression provides a mechanism to specify the attributes assigned to insns produced from an asm statement. It has the form:

(define_asm_attributes [attr-sets])

where attr-sets is specified the same as for both the defineInsn and the define_peephole expressions.
These values will typically be the “worst case” attribute values. For example, they might indicate that the condition code will be clobbered.

A specification for a length attribute is handled specially. The way to compute the length of an asm insn is to multiply the length specified in the expression define_asm_attributes by the number of machine instructions specified in the asm statement, determined by counting the number of semicolons and newlines in the string. Therefore, the value of the length attribute specified in a define_asm_attributes should be the maximum possible length of a single machine instruction.

20.17.4 Example of Attribute Specifications

The judicious use of defaulting is important in the efficient use of insn attributes. Typically, insns are divided into types and an attribute, customarily called type, is used to represent this value. This attribute is normally used only to define the default value for other attributes. An example will clarify this usage.

Assume we have a RISC machine with a condition code and in which only full-word operations are performed in registers. Let us assume that we can divide all insns into loads, stores, (integer) arithmetic operations, floating point operations, and branches.

Here we will concern ourselves with determining the effect of an insn on the condition code and will limit ourselves to the following possible effects: The condition code can be set unpredictably (clobbered), not be changed, be set to agree with the results of the operation, or only changed if the item previously set into the condition code has been modified.

Here is part of a sample ‘md’ file for such a machine:

```
(define_attr "type" "load,store,arith,fp,branch" (const_string "arith"))

(define_attr "cc" "clobber,unchanged,set,change0"
  (cond [[(eq_attr "type" "load")
         (const_string "change0")
         (eq_attr "type" "store,branch")
         (const_string "unchanged")
         (eq_attr "type" "arith")
         (if_then_else (match_operand:SI 0 "" ")
           (const_string "set")
           (const_string "clobber")])
         (const_string "clobber")))))

(define_insn ""
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "general_operand" "+r,r,m")
       (match_operand:SI 1 "general_operand" "+r,m,r"))]
  ""
  @
  move %0,%1
  load %0,%1
  store %0,%1"
  [(set_attr "type" "arith,load,store")])
```

Note that we assume in the above example that arithmetic operations performed on quantities smaller than a machine word clobber the condition code since they will set the condition code to a value corresponding to the full-word result.
20.17.5 Computing the Length of anInsn

For many machines, multiple types of branch instructions are provided, each for different length branch displacements. In most cases, the assembler will choose the correct instruction to use. However, when the assembler cannot do so, GCC can when a special attribute, the ‘length’ attribute, is defined. This attribute must be defined to have numeric values by specifying a null string in its define_attr.

In the case of the ‘length’ attribute, two additional forms of arithmetic terms are allowed in test expressions:

- \texttt{\text{(match\_dup n)}}
  This refers to the address of operand \texttt{n} of the current insn, which must be a \texttt{label\_ref}.

- \texttt{\text{(pc)}}
  This refers to the address of the \texttt{current} insn. It might have been more consistent with other usage to make this the address of the \texttt{next} insn but this would be confusing because the length of the current insn is to be computed.

For normal insns, the length will be determined by value of the ‘length’ attribute. In the case of \texttt{addr\_vec} and \texttt{addr\_diff\_vec} insn patterns, the length is computed as the number of vectors multiplied by the size of each vector.

Lengths are measured in addressable storage units (bytes).

The following macros can be used to refine the length computation:

\begin{verbatim}
FIRST_INSN_ADDRESS
  When the length insn attribute is used, this macro specifies the value to be assigned to the address of the first insn in a function. If not specified, 0 is used.

ADJUST_INSN_LENGTH (insn, length)
  If defined, modifies the length assigned to instruction insn as a function of the context in which it is used. length is an lvalue that contains the initially computed length of the insn and should be updated with the correct length of the insn.

  This macro will normally not be required. A case in which it is required is the ROMP. On this machine, the size of an addr_vec insn must be increased by two to compensate for the fact that alignment may be required.

The routine that returns \texttt{get\_attr\_length} (the value of the length attribute) can be used by the output routine to determine the form of the branch instruction to be written, as the example below illustrates.

As an example of the specification of variable-length branches, consider the IBM 360. If we adopt the convention that a register will be set to the starting address of a function, we can jump to labels within 4k of the start using a four-byte instruction. Otherwise, we need a six-byte sequence to load the address from memory and then branch to it.

On such a machine, a pattern for a branch instruction might be specified as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
(define_insn "jump"
  [(set (pc)
        (label_ref (match_operand 0 "" "")))]
  ""
  "*"

  { return (get_attr_length (insn) == 4
                   ? \"b \%10\" : \"l r15,=a(\%10); br r15\")
    ;... }
\end{verbatim}
20.17.6 Constant Attributes

A special form of define_attr, where the expression for the default value is a const expression, indicates an attribute that is constant for a given run of the compiler. Constant attributes may be used to specify which variety of processor is used. For example,

```lisp
(define_attr "cpu" "m88100,m88110,m88000"
  (const
    (cond [(symbol_ref "TARGET_88100") (const_string "m88100")
           (symbol_ref "TARGET_88110") (const_string "m88110")
           (const_string "m88000"))])

(define_attr "memory" "fast,slow"
  (const
    (if_then_else (symbol_ref "TARGET_FAST_MEM")
      (const_string "fast")
      (const_string "slow")))))
```

The routine generated for constant attributes has no parameters as it does not depend on any particular insn. RTL expressions used to define the value of a constant attribute may use the symbol_ref form, but may not use either the match_operand form or eq_attr forms involving insn attributes.

20.17.7 Delay Slot Scheduling

The insn attribute mechanism can be used to specify the requirements for delay slots, if any, on a target machine. An instruction is said to require a delay slot if some instructions that are physically after the instruction are executed as if they were located before it. Classic examples are branch and call instructions, which often execute the following instruction before the branch or call is performed.

On some machines, conditional branch instructions can optionally annul instructions in the delay slot. This means that the instruction will not be executed for certain branch outcomes. Both instructions that annul if the branch is true and instructions that annul if the branch is false are supported.

Delay slot scheduling differs from instruction scheduling in that determining whether an instruction needs a delay slot is dependent only on the type of instruction being generated, not on data flow between the instructions. See the next section for a discussion of data-dependent instruction scheduling.

The requirement of an insn needing one or more delay slots is indicated via the define_delay expression. It has the following form:

```lisp
(define_delay test
  [delay-1  annul-true-1  annul-false-1
   delay-2  annul-true-2  annul-false-2
   ...])
```

`test` is an attribute test that indicates whether this define_delay applies to a particular insn. If so, the number of required delay slots is determined by the length of the vector specified as the second argument. An insn placed in delay slot n must satisfy attribute test `delay-n`. `annul-true-n` is an attribute test that specifies which insns may be annulled if the branch is true. Similarly, `annul-false-n` specifies which insns in the delay slot may be annulled if the branch is false. If annulling is not supported for that delay slot, `(nil)` should be coded.
For example, in the common case where branch and call insns require a single delay slot, which may contain any insn other than a branch or call, the following would be placed in the
‘md’ file:

```
(define_delay (eq_attr "type" "branch,call")
    [(eq_attr "type" "!branch,call") (nil) (nil)])
```

Multiple `define_delay` expressions may be specified. In this case, each such expression specifies different delay slot requirements and there must be no insn for which tests in two `define_delay` expressions are both true.

For example, if we have a machine that requires one delay slot for branches but two for calls, no delay slot can contain a branch or call insn, and any valid insn in the delay slot for the branch can be annulled if the branch is true, we might represent this as follows:

```
(define_delay (eq_attr "type" "branch")
    [(eq_attr "type" "!branch,call")
    (eq_attr "type" "!branch,call")
    (nil)])

(define_delay (eq_attr "type" "call")
    [(eq_attr "type" "!branch,call") (nil) (nil)
    (eq_attr "type" "!branch,call") (nil) (nil)])
```

### 20.17.8 Specifying Function Units

On most RISC machines, there are instructions whose results are not available for a specific number of cycles. Common cases are instructions that load data from memory. On many machines, a pipeline stall will result if the data is referenced too soon after the load instruction.

In addition, many newer microprocessors have multiple function units, usually one for integer and one for floating point, and often will incur pipeline stalls when a result that is needed is not yet ready.

The descriptions in this section allow the specification of how much time must elapse between the execution of an instruction and the time when its result is used. It also allows specification of when the execution of an instruction will delay execution of similar instructions due to function unit conflicts.

For the purposes of the specifications in this section, a machine is divided into function units, each of which execute a specific class of instructions in first-in-first-out order. Function units that accept one instruction each cycle and allow a result to be used in the succeeding instruction (usually via forwarding) need not be specified. Classic RISC microprocessors will normally have a single function unit, which we can call ‘memory’. The newer “superscalar” processors will often have function units for floating point operations, usually at least a floating point adder and multiplier.

Each usage of a function units by a class of insns is specified with a `define_function_unit` expression, which looks like this:

```
(define_function_unit name multiplicity simultaneity
    test ready-delay issue-delay
    [conflict-list])
```

`name` is a string giving the name of the function unit.

`multiplicity` is an integer specifying the number of identical units in the processor. If more than one unit is specified, they will be scheduled independently. Only truly independent units should be counted; a pipelined unit should be specified as a single unit. (The only common example of a machine that has multiple function units for a single instruction class that are truly independent and not pipelined are the two multiply and two increment units of the CDC 6600.)
simultaneity specifies the maximum number of insns that can be executing in each instance of the function unit simultaneously or zero if the unit is pipelined and has no limit.

All define_function_unit definitions referring to function unit name must have the same name and values for multiplicity and simultaneity.

test is an attribute test that selects the insns we are describing in this definition. Note that an insn may use more than one function unit and a function unit may be specified in more than one define_function_unit.

ready-delay is an integer that specifies the number of cycles after which the result of the instruction can be used without introducing any stalls.

issue-delay is an integer that specifies the number of cycles after the instruction matching the test expression begins using this unit until a subsequent instruction can begin. A cost of N indicates an N-1 cycle delay. A subsequent instruction may also be delayed if an earlier instruction has a longer ready-delay value. This blocking effect is computed using the simultaneity, ready-delay, issue-delay, and conflict-list terms. For a normal non-pipelined function unit, simultaneity is one, the unit is taken to block for the ready-delay cycles of the executing insn, and smaller values of issue-delay are ignored.

conflict-list is an optional list giving detailed conflict costs for this unit. If specified, it is a list of condition test expressions to be applied to insns chosen to execute in name following the particular insn matching test that is already executing in name. For each insn in the list, issue-delay specifies the conflict cost; for insns not in the list, the cost is zero. If not specified, conflict-list defaults to all instructions that use the function unit.

Typical uses of this vector are where a floating point function unit can pipeline either single- or double-precision operations, but not both, or where a memory unit can pipeline loads, but not stores, etc.

As an example, consider a classic RISC machine where the result of a load instruction is not available for two cycles (a single “delay” instruction is required) and where only one load instruction can be executed simultaneously. This would be specified as:

(define_function_unit "memory" 1 1 (eq_attr "type" "load") 2 0)

For the case of a floating point function unit that can pipeline either single or double precision, but not both, the following could be specified:

(define_function_unit
   "fp" 1 0 (eq_attr "type" "sp_fp") 4 4 [(eq_attr "type" "dp_fp")])

(define_function_unit
   "fp" 1 0 (eq_attr "type" "dp_fp") 4 4 [(eq_attr "type" "sp_fp")])

Note: The scheduler attempts to avoid function unit conflicts and uses all the specifications in the define_function_unit expression. It has recently come to our attention that these specifications may not allow modeling of some of the newer “superscalar” processors that have insns using multiple pipelined units. These insns will cause a potential conflict for the second unit used during their execution and there is no way of representing that conflict. We welcome any examples of how function unit conflicts work in such processors and suggestions for their representation.

20.18 Conditional Execution

A number of architectures provide for some form of conditional execution, or predication. The hallmark of this feature is the ability to nullify most of the instructions in the instruction set. When the instruction set is large and not entirely symmetric, it can be quite tedious to describe these forms directly in the ".md" file. An alternative is the define_cond_exec template.

(define_cond_exec
   [predicate-pattern]
"condition"
"output-template"

predicate-pattern is the condition that must be true for the insn to be executed at runtime and should match a relational operator. One can use match_operator to match several relational operators at once. Any match_operand operands must have no more than one alternative.

condition is a C expression that must be true for the generated pattern to match.

output-template is a string similar to the define_insn output template (see Section 20.5 [Output Template], page 296), except that the ‘*’ and ‘@’ special cases do not apply. This is only useful if the assembly text for the predicate is a simple prefix to the main insn. In order to handle the general case, there is a global variable current_insn_predicate that will contain the entire predicate if the current insn is predicated, and will otherwise be NULL.

When define_cond_exec is used, an implicit reference to the predicable instruction attribute is made. See Section 20.17 [Insn Attributes], page 336. This attribute must be boolean (i.e. have exactly two elements in its list-of-values). Further, it must not be used with complex expressions. That is, the default and all uses in the insns must be a simple constant, not dependent on the alternative or anything else.

For each define_insn for which the predicable attribute is true, a new define_insn pattern will be generated that matches a predicated version of the instruction. For example,

```
(define_insn "addsi"
  [(set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" "r")
        (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "register_operand" "r")
                 (match_operand:SI 2 "register_operand" "r")))]
  "test1"
  "add %2,%1,%0")

(define_cond_exec
  [(ne (match_operand:CC 0 "register_operand" "c")
       (const_int 0))]
  "test2"
  "(%0)"
)
```
generates a new pattern

```
(define_insn ""
  [(cond_exec
    (ne (match_operand:CC 3 "register_operand" "c") (const_int 0))
    (set (match_operand:SI 0 "register_operand" "r")
         (plus:SI (match_operand:SI 1 "register_operand" "r")
                   (match_operand:SI 2 "register_operand" "r"))))]
  "(test2) kk (test1)"
  "(%3) add %2,%1,%0")
```

20.19 Constant Definitions

Using literal constants inside instruction patterns reduces legibility and can be a maintenance problem.

To overcome this problem, you may use the define_constants expression. It contains a vector of name-value pairs. From that point on, wherever any of the names appears in the MD file, it is as if the corresponding value had been written instead. You may use define_constants multiple times; each appearance adds more constants to the table. It is an error to redefine a constant with a different value.

To come back to the a29k load multiple example, instead of
(define_insn ""
  [(match_parallel 0 "load_multiple_operation"
      [(set (match_operand:SI 1 "gpc_reg_operand" "=r")
          (match_operand:SI 2 "memory_operand" "m"))
       (use (reg:SI 179))
       (clobber (reg:SI 179)))]
   ""
   "loadm 0,0,%1,%2")
You could write:
  (define_constants [
    (R_BP 177)
    (R_FC 178)
    (R_CR 179)
    (R_Q 180)
  ])

(define_insn ""
  [(match_parallel 0 "load_multiple_operation"
      [(set (match_operand:SI 1 "gpc_reg_operand" "=r")
          (match_operand:SI 2 "memory_operand" "m"))
       (use (reg:SI R_CR))
       (clobber (reg:SI R_CR)))]
   ""
   "loadm 0,0,%1,%2")
You could write:
  (define_constant [ (R_BP 177) (R_FC 178) (R_CR 179) (R_Q 180) ])
The constants that are defined with a define_constant are also output in the insn-codes.h header file as #defines.
21 Target Description Macros

In addition to the file ‘machine.md’, a machine description includes a C header file conventionally given the name ‘machine.h’. This header file defines numerous macros that convey the information about the target machine that does not fit into the scheme of the ‘.md’ file. The file ‘tm.h’ should be a link to ‘machine.h’. The header file ‘config.h’ includes ‘tm.h’ and most compiler source files include ‘config.h’.

21.1 Controlling the Compilation Driver, ‘gcc’

You can control the compilation driver.

`SWITCH_TAKES_ARG (char)`
A C expression which determines whether the option ‘-char’ takes arguments. The value should be the number of arguments that option takes–zero, for many options. By default, this macro is defined as `DEFAULT_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG`, which handles the standard options properly. You need not define `SWITCH_TAKES_ARG` unless you wish to add additional options which take arguments. Any redefinition should call `DEFAULT_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG` and then check for additional options.

`WORD_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG (name)`
A C expression which determines whether the option ‘-name’ takes arguments. The value should be the number of arguments that option takes–zero, for many options. This macro rather than `SWITCH_TAKES_ARG` is used for multi-character option names. By default, this macro is defined as `DEFAULT_WORD_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG`, which handles the standard options properly. You need not define `WORD_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG` unless you wish to add additional options which take arguments. Any redefinition should call `DEFAULT_WORD_SWITCH_TAKES_ARG` and then check for additional options.

`SWITCH_CURTAILS_COMPILATION (char)`
A C expression which determines whether the option ‘-char’ stops compilation before the generation of an executable. The value is boolean, non-zero if the option does stop an executable from being generated, zero otherwise. By default, this macro is defined as `DEFAULT_SWITCH_CURTAILS_COMPILATION`, which handles the standard options properly. You need not define `SWITCH_CURTAILS_COMPILATION` unless you wish to add additional options which affect the generation of an executable. Any redefinition should call `DEFAULT_SWITCH_CURTAILS_COMPILATION` and then check for additional options.

`SWITCHES_NEED_SPACES`
A string-valued C expression which enumerates the options for which the linker needs a space between the option and its argument. If this macro is not defined, the default value is "".

`CPP_SPEC`
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to CPP. It can also specify how to translate options you give to GCC into options for GCC to pass to the CPP. Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.

`CPLUSPLUS_CPP_SPEC`
This macro is just like `CPP_SPEC`, but is used for C++, rather than C. If you do not define this macro, then the value of `CPP_SPEC` (if any) will be used instead.
NO_BUILTIN_SIZE_TYPE
If this macro is defined, the preprocessor will not define the built-in macro __SIZE_TYPE__. The macro __SIZE_TYPE__ must then be defined by CPP_SPEC instead.
This should be defined if SIZE_TYPE depends on target dependent flags which are not accessible to the preprocessor. Otherwise, it should not be defined.

NO_BUILTIN_PTRDIFF_TYPE
If this macro is defined, the preprocessor will not define the built-in macro __PTRDIFF_TYPE__. The macro __PTRDIFF_TYPE__ must then be defined by CPP_SPEC instead.
This should be defined if PTRDIFF_TYPE depends on target dependent flags which are not accessible to the preprocessor. Otherwise, it should not be defined.

NO_BUILTIN_WCHAR_TYPE
If this macro is defined, the preprocessor will not define the built-in macro __WCHAR_TYPE__. The macro __WCHAR_TYPE__ must then be defined by CPP_SPEC instead.
This should be defined if WCHAR_TYPE depends on target dependent flags which are not accessible to the preprocessor. Otherwise, it should not be defined.

NO_BUILTIN_WINT_TYPE
If this macro is defined, the preprocessor will not define the built-in macro __WINT_TYPE__. The macro __WINT_TYPE__ must then be defined by CPP_SPEC instead.
This should be defined if WINT_TYPE depends on target dependent flags which are not accessible to the preprocessor. Otherwise, it should not be defined.

SIGNED_CHAR_SPEC
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to CPP. By default, this macro is defined to pass the option '-D__CHAR_UNSIGNED__' to CPP if char will be treated as unsigned char by cc1.
Do not define this macro unless you need to override the default definition.

CC1_SPEC
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to cc1, cc1plus, f771, and the other language front ends. It can also specify how to translate options you give to GCC into options for GCC to pass to front ends.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.

CC1PLUS_SPEC
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to cc1plus. It can also specify how to translate options you give to GCC into options for GCC to pass to cc1plus.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything. Note that everything defined in CC1_SPEC is already passed to cc1plus so there is no need to duplicate the contents of CC1_SPEC in CC1PLUS_SPEC.

ASM_SPEC
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to the assembler. It can also specify how to translate options you give to GCC into options for GCC to pass to the assembler. See the file 'sun3.h' for an example of this.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.

ASM_FINAL_SPEC
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program how to run any programs which cleanup after the normal assembler. Normally, this is not needed. See the file 'mips.h' for an example of this.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.
Chapter 21: Target Description Macros

**LINK_SPEC**
A C string constant that tells the GCC driver program options to pass to the linker. It can also specify how to translate options you give to GCC into options for GCC to pass to the linker.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.

**LIB_SPEC**
Another C string constant used much like **LINK_SPEC**. The difference between the two is that **LIB_SPEC** is used at the end of the command given to the linker.
If this macro is not defined, a default is provided that loads the standard C library from the usual place. See ‘gcc.c’.

**LIBGCC_SPEC**
Another C string constant that tells the GCC driver program how and when to place a reference to ‘libgcc.a’ into the linker command line. This constant is placed both before and after the value of **LIB_SPEC**.
If this macro is not defined, the GCC driver provides a default that passes the string ‘-lgcc’ to the linker.

**STARTFILE_SPEC**
Another C string constant used much like **LINK_SPEC**. The difference between the two is that **STARTFILE_SPEC** is used at the very beginning of the command given to the linker.
If this macro is not defined, a default is provided that loads the standard C startup file from the usual place. See ‘gcc.c’.

**ENDFILE_SPEC**
Another C string constant used much like **LINK_SPEC**. The difference between the two is that **ENDFILE_SPEC** is used at the very end of the command given to the linker.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.

**THREAD_MODEL_SPEC**
GCC -v will print the thread model GCC was configured to use. However, this doesn’t work on platforms that are multilibbed on thread models, such as AIX 4.3. On such platforms, define **THREAD_MODEL_SPEC** such that it evaluates to a string without blanks that names one of the recognized thread models. %*, the default value of this macro, will expand to the value of thread_file set in ‘config.gcc’.

**EXTRA_SPECS**
Define this macro to provide additional specifications to put in the ‘specs’ file that can be used in various specifications like CC1_SPEC.
The definition should be an initializer for an array of structures, containing a string constant, that defines the specification name, and a string constant that provides the specification.
Do not define this macro if it does not need to do anything.
**EXTRA_SPECS** is useful when an architecture contains several related targets, which have various ..._SPECS which are similar to each other, and the maintainer would like one central place to keep these definitions.
For example, the PowerPC System V.4 targets use **EXTRA_SPECS** to define either _CALL_SYSV when the System V calling sequence is used or _CALL_AIX when the older AIX-based calling sequence is used.
The ‘config/rs6000/rs6000.h’ target file defines:
```c
#define EXTRA_SPECS \ 
{ "cpp_sysv_default", CPP_SYSV_DEFAULT },
```
#define CPP_SYS_DEFAULT ""
The `config/rs6000/sysv.h` target file defines:
#define CPP_SPEC 
"%{posix: -D_POSIX_SOURCE } 
{%{mcall-sysv: -D_CALL_SYSV} %{mcall-aix: -D_CALL_AIX} } \n{%{!mcall-sysv: %{!mcall-aix: %{cpp_sysv_default} } } \n{%{msoft-float: -D_SOFT_FLOAT} %{mcpu=403: -D_SOFT_FLOAT}"
#undef CPP_SYSV_DEFAULT 
#define CPP_SYSV_DEFAULT "-D_CALL_SYSV"
while the `config/rs6000/eabiaix.h` target file defines CPP_SYSV_DEFAULT as:
#define CPP_SYSV_DEFAULT "-D_CALL_AIX"

LINK_LIBGCC_SPECIAL
Define this macro if the driver program should find the library `libgcc.a` itself and should not pass `-L` options to the linker. If you do not define this macro, the driver program will pass the argument `-lgcc` to tell the linker to do the search and will pass `-L` options to it.

LINK_LIBGCC_SPECIAL_1
Define this macro if the driver program should find the library `libgcc.a`. If you do not define this macro, the driver program will pass the argument `-lgcc` to tell the linker to do the search. This macro is similar to LINK_LIBGCC_SPECIAL, except that it does not affect `-L` options.

LINK_COMMAND_SPEC
A C string constant giving the complete command line need to execute the linker. When you do this, you will need to update your port each time a change is made to the link command line within `gcc.c`. Therefore, define this macro only if you need to completely redefine the command line for invoking the linker and there is no other way to accomplish the effect you need.

LINK_ELIMINATE_DUPLICATE_LDIRECTORIES
A nonzero value causes collect2 to remove duplicate `-L<directory>` search directories from linking commands. Do not give it a nonzero value if removing duplicate search directories changes the linker’s semantics.

MULTILIB_DEFAULTS
Define this macro as a C expression for the initializer of an array of string to tell the driver program which options are defaults for this target and thus do not need to be handled specially when using MULTILIB_OPTIONS.
Do not define this macro if MULTILIB_OPTIONS is not defined in the target makefile fragment or if none of the options listed in MULTILIB_OPTIONS are set by default. See Section 23.1 [Target Fragment], page 457.

RELATIVE_PREFIX_NOT_LINKDIR
Define this macro to tell gcc that it should only translate a ‘-B’ prefix into a ‘-L’ linker option if the prefix indicates an absolute file name.

STANDARD_EXEC_PREFIX
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to override the standard choice of `'/usr/local/lib/gcc-lib/'` as the default prefix to try when searching for the executable files of the compiler.
MD_EXEC_PREFIX
If defined, this macro is an additional prefix to try after STANDARD_EXEC_PREFIX. MD_EXEC_PREFIX is not searched when the `-b` option is used, or the compiler is built as a cross compiler. If you define MD_EXEC_PREFIX, then be sure to add it to the list of directories used to find the assembler in `configure.in`.

STANDARD_STARTFILE_PREFIX
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to override the standard choice of `'/usr/local/lib/'` as the default prefix to try when searching for startup files such as `crt0.o`.

MD_STARTFILE_PREFIX
If defined, this macro supplies an additional prefix to try after the standard prefixes. MD_EXEC_PREFIX is not searched when the `-b` option is used, or when the compiler is built as a cross compiler.

MD_STARTFILE_PREFIX_1
If defined, this macro supplies yet another prefix to try after the standard prefixes. It is not searched when the `-b` option is used, or when the compiler is built as a cross compiler.

INIT_ENVIRONMENT
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to set environment variables for programs called by the driver, such as the assembler and loader. The driver passes the value of this macro to `putenv` to initialize the necessary environment variables.

LOCAL_INCLUDE_DIR
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to override the standard choice of `'/usr/local/include/'` as the default prefix to try when searching for local header files. LOCAL_INCLUDE_DIR comes before SYSTEM_INCLUDE_DIR in the search order.
Cross compilers do not use this macro and do not search either `'/usr/local/include/'` or its replacement.

MODIFY_TARGET_NAME
Define this macro if you wish to define command-line switches that modify the default target name.
For each switch, you can include a string to be appended to the first part of the configuration name or a string to be deleted from the configuration name, if present.
The definition should be an initializer for an array of structures. Each array element should have three elements: the switch name (a string constant, including the initial dash), one of the enumeration codes ADD or DELETE to indicate whether the string should be inserted or deleted, and the string to be inserted or deleted (a string constant).
For example, on a machine where `64` at the end of the configuration name denotes a 64-bit target and you want the `-32` and `-64` switches to select between 32- and 64-bit targets, you would code:
```
#define MODIFY_TARGET_NAME \ 
{ { "-32", DELETE, "64"}, \ 
{"-64", ADD, "64"}}
```

SYSTEM_INCLUDE_DIR
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to specify a system-specific directory to search for header files before the standard directory. SYSTEM.Include_DIR comes before STANDARD_INCLUDE_DIR in the search order.
Cross compilers do not use this macro and do not search the directory specified.
STANDARD_INCLUDE_DIR
Define this macro as a C string constant if you wish to override the standard choice of ‘/usr/include’ as the default prefix to try when searching for header files. Cross compilers do not use this macro and do not search either ‘/usr/include’ or its replacement.

STANDARD_INCLUDE_COMPONENT
The “component” corresponding to STANDARD_INCLUDE_DIR. See INCLUDE_DEFAULTS, below, for the description of components. If you do not define this macro, no component is used.

INCLUDE_DEFAULTS
Define this macro if you wish to override the entire default search path for include files. For a native compiler, the default search path usually consists of GCC_INCLUDE_DIR, LOCAL_INCLUDE_DIR, SYSTEM_INCLUDE_DIR, GPlusPlus_INCLUDE_DIR, and STANDARD_INCLUDE_DIR. In addition, GPlusPlus_INCLUDE_DIR and GCC_INCLUDE_DIR are defined automatically by ‘Makefile’, and specify private search areas for GCC. The directory GPlusPlus_INCLUDE_DIR is used only for C++ programs.

The definition should be an initializer for an array of structures. Each array element should have four elements: the directory name (a string constant), the component name (also a string constant), a flag for C++-only directories, and a flag showing that the includes in the directory don’t need to be wrapped in extern ‘C’ when compiling C++. Mark the end of the array with a null element.

The component name denotes what GNU package the include file is part of, if any, in all upper-case letters. For example, it might be ‘GCC’ or ‘BINUTILS’. If the package is part of a vendor-supplied operating system, code the component name as ‘0’.

For example, here is the definition used for VAX/VMS:

```
#define INCLUDE_DEFAULTS
{ 
  { "GNU_GXX_INCLUDE:" , "G++" , 1 , 1 } , 
  { "GNU_CC_INCLUDE:" , "GCC" , 0 , 0 } , 
  { "SYS$SYSROOT:\[SYSLIB.\]" , 0 , 0 , 0 } , 
  { "." , 0 , 0 , 0 } , 
  { 0 , 0 , 0 , 0 } 
}
```

Here is the order of prefixes tried for exec files:
1. Any prefixes specified by the user with ‘-B’.
2. The environment variable GCC_EXEC_PREFIX, if any.
3. The directories specified by the environment variable COMPILER_PATH.
4. The macro STANDARD_EXEC_PREFIX.
5. ‘/usr/lib/gcc/’.
6. The macro MD_EXEC_PREFIX, if any.

Here is the order of prefixes tried for startfiles:
1. Any prefixes specified by the user with ‘-B’.
2. The environment variable GCC_EXEC_PREFIX, if any.
3. The directories specified by the environment variable LIBRARY_PATH (or port-specific name; native only, cross compilers do not use this).
4. The macro STANDARD_EXEC_PREFIX.
5. ‘/usr/lib/gcc/’.
6. The macro `MD_EXEC_PREFIX`, if any.
7. The macro `MD_STARTFILE_PREFIX`, if any.
8. The macro `STANDARD_STARTFILE_PREFIX`.
9. `'/lib/'`.
10. `'/usr/lib/'`.

### 21.2 Run-time Target Specification

Here are run-time target specifications.

**CPP_PREDEFINES**

Define this to be a string constant containing ‘`-D`’ options to define the predefined macros that identify this machine and system. These macros will be predefined unless the ‘`-ansi`’ option (or a ‘`-std`’ option for strict ISO C conformance) is specified.

In addition, a parallel set of macros are predefined, whose names are made by appending ‘`__`’ at the beginning and at the end. These ‘`__`’ macros are permitted by the ISO standard, so they are predefined regardless of whether ‘`-ansi`’ or a ‘`-std`’ option is specified.

For example, on the Sun, one can use the following value:

```
"-Dmc68000 -Dsun -Dunix"
```

The result is to define the macros `__mc68000__`, `__sun__` and `__unix__` unconditionally, and the macros `mc68000`, `sun` and `unix` provided ‘`-ansi`’ is not specified.

**extern int target_flags;**

This declaration should be present.

**TARGET_...**

This series of macros is to allow compiler command arguments to enable or disable the use of optional features of the target machine. For example, one machine description serves both the 68000 and the 68020; a command argument tells the compiler whether it should use 68020-only instructions or not. This command argument works by means of a macro `TARGET_68020` that tests a bit in `target_flags`.

Define a macro `TARGET_featurename` for each such option. Its definition should test a bit in `target_flags`. It is recommended that a helper macro `TARGET_MASK_featurename` is defined for each bit-value to test, and used in `TARGET_featurename` and `TARGET_SWITCHES`. For example:

```
#define TARGET_MASK_68020 1
#define TARGET_68020 (target_flags & TARGET_MASK_68020)
```

One place where these macros are used is in the condition-expressions of instruction patterns. Note how `TARGET_68020` appears frequently in the 68000 machine description file, `m68k.md`. Another place they are used is in the definitions of the other macros in the `machine.h` file.

**TARGET_SWITCHES**

This macro defines names of command options to set and clear bits in `target_flags`. Its definition is an initializer with a subgrouping for each command option.

Each subgrouping contains a string constant, that defines the option name, a number, which contains the bits to set in `target_flags`, and a second string which is the description displayed by ‘`--help`’. If the number is negative then the bits specified by the number are cleared instead of being set. If the description string is present but empty, then no help information will be displayed for that option, but it will not count as an undocumented option. The actual option name is made by appending
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`-m` to the specified name. Non-empty description strings should be marked with \texttt{N_(...)} for \texttt{xgettext}. In addition to the description for `--help`, more detailed documentation for each option should be added to `invoke.texi`.

One of the subgroupings should have a null string. The number in this grouping is the default value for \texttt{target\_flags}. Any target options act starting with that value.

Here is an example which defines `--m8000` and `--m68020` with opposite meanings, and picks the latter as the default:

\begin{verbatim}
#define TARGET_SWITCHES
{ { "68020", TARGET\_MASK\_68020, "" },
 { "68000", -TARGET\_MASK\_68020, \N("Compile for the 68000") },
 { "", TARGET\_MASK\_68020, "" } }
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{TARGET\_OPTIONS}

This macro is similar to \texttt{TARGET\_SWITCHES} but defines names of command options that have values. Its definition is an initializer with a subgrouping for each command option.

Each subgrouping contains a string constant, that defines the fixed part of the option name, the address of a variable, and a description string (which should again be marked with \texttt{N_(...)}). The variable, type \texttt{char *}, is set to the variable part of the given option if the fixed part matches. The actual option name is made by appending `--m` to the specified name. Again, each option should also be documented in `invoke.texi`.

Here is an example which defines `--mshort-data-number`. If the given option is `--mshort-data-512`, the variable \texttt{m88k\_short\_data} will be set to the string "512".

\begin{verbatim}
extern char *m88k\_short\_data;
#define TARGET\_OPTIONS
{ { "short-data-", &m88k\_short\_data, \N("Specify the size of the short data section") } }
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{TARGET\_VERSION}

This macro is a C statement to print on \texttt{stderr} a string describing the particular machine description choice. Every machine description should define \texttt{TARGET\_VERSION}.

For example:

\begin{verbatim}
#ifdef MOTOROLA
#define TARGET\_VERSION
 fprintf (stderr, " (68k, Motorola syntax)");
#else
#define TARGET\_VERSION
 fprintf (stderr, " (68k, MIT syntax)");
#endif
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{OVERRIDE\_OPTIONS}

Sometimes certain combinations of command options do not make sense on a particular target machine. You can define a macro \texttt{OVERRIDE\_OPTIONS} to take account of this. This macro, if defined, is executed once just after all the command options have been parsed.

Don’t use this macro to turn on various extra optimizations for `--O`. That is what \texttt{OPTIMIZATION\_OPTIONS} is for.

\texttt{OPTIMIZATION\_OPTIONS (level, size)}

Some machines may desire to change what optimizations are performed for various optimization levels. This macro, if defined, is executed once just after the opti-
mization level is determined and before the remainder of the command options have been parsed. Values set in this macro are used as the default values for the other command line options.

level is the optimization level specified; 2 if `-O2` is specified, 1 if `-O` is specified, and 0 if neither is specified.

size is non-zero if `-Os` is specified and zero otherwise.

You should not use this macro to change options that are not machine-specific. These should uniformly be selected by the same optimization level on all supported machines. Use this macro to enable machine-specific optimizations.

**Do not examine write_symbols in this macro!** The debugging options are not supposed to alter the generated code.

**CAN_DEBUG_WITHOUT_FP**

Define this macro if debugging can be performed even without a frame pointer. If this macro is defined, GCC will turn on the `-fomit-frame-pointer` option whenever `-O` is specified.

### 21.3 Defining data structures for per-function information.

If the target needs to store information on a per-function basis, GCC provides a macro and a couple of variables to allow this. Note, just using statics to store the information is a bad idea, since GCC supports nested functions, so you can be halfway through encoding one function when another one comes along.

GCC defines a data structure called `struct function` which contains all of the data specific to an individual function. This structure contains a field called `machine` whose type is `struct machine_function *`, which can be used by targets to point to their own specific data.

If a target needs per-function specific data it should define the type `struct machine_function` and also the macro `INIT_EXPANDERS`. This macro should be used to initialise some or all of the function pointers `init_machine_status`, `free_machine_status` and `mark_machine_status`. These pointers are explained below.

One typical use of per-function, target specific data is to create an RTX to hold the register containing the function’s return address. This RTX can then be used to implement the `__builtin_return_address` function, for level 0.

Note - earlier implementations of GCC used a single data area to hold all of the per-function information. Thus when processing of a nested function began the old per-function data had to be pushed onto a stack, and when the processing was finished, it had to be popped off the stack. GCC used to provide function pointers called `save_machine_status` and `restore_machine_status` to handle the saving and restoring of the target specific information. Since the single data area approach is no longer used, these pointers are no longer supported.

The macro and function pointers are described below.

**INIT_EXPANDERS**

Macro called to initialise any target specific information. This macro is called once per function, before generation of any RTL has begun. The intention of this macro is to allow the initialisation of the function pointers below.

**init_machine_status**

This is a `void (*)(struct function *)` function pointer. If this pointer is non-NULL it will be called once per function, before function compilation starts, in order to allow the target to perform any target specific initialisation of the `struct function` structure. It is intended that this would be used to initialise the `machine` of that structure.
free_machine_status
This is a void (*)(struct function *) function pointer. If this pointer is non-NULL it will be called once per function, after the function has been compiled, in order to allow any memory allocated during the init_machine_status function call to be freed.

mark_machine_status
This is a void (*)(struct function *) function pointer. If this pointer is non-NULL it will be called once per function in order to mark any data items in the struct machine_function structure which need garbage collection.

21.4 Storage Layout

Note that the definitions of the macros in this table which are sizes or alignments measured in bits do not need to be constant. They can be C expressions that refer to static variables, such as the target_flags. See Section 21.2 [Run-time Target], page 355.

BITS_BIG_ENDIAN
Define this macro to have the value 1 if the most significant bit in a byte has the lowest number; otherwise define it to have the value zero. This means that bit-field instructions count from the most significant bit. If the machine has no bit-field instructions, then this must still be defined, but it doesn’t matter which value it is defined to. This macro need not be a constant.

This macro does not affect the way structure fields are packed into bytes or words; that is controlled by BYTES_BIG_ENDIAN.

BYTES_BIG_ENDIAN
Define this macro to have the value 1 if the most significant byte in a word has the lowest number. This macro need not be a constant.

WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN
Define this macro to have the value 1 if, in a multiword object, the most significant word has the lowest number. This applies to both memory locations and registers; GCC fundamentally assumes that the order of words in memory is the same as the order in registers. This macro need not be a constant.

LIBGCC2_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN
Define this macro if WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN is not constant. This must be a constant value with the same meaning as WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN, which will be used only when compiling libgcc2.c. Typically the value will be set based on preprocessor defines.

FLOAT_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN
Define this macro to have the value 1 if DFmode, XFmode or TFmode floating point numbers are stored in memory with the word containing the sign bit at the lowest address; otherwise define it to have the value 0. This macro need not be a constant.

You need not define this macro if the ordering is the same as for multi-word integers.

BITS_PER_UNIT
Define this macro to be the number of bits in an addressable storage unit (byte); normally 8.

BITS_PER_WORD
Number of bits in a word; normally 32.

MAX_BITS_PER_WORD
Maximum number of bits in a word. If this is undefined, the default is BITS_PER_WORD. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the largest value that BITS_PER_WORD can have at run-time.
UNITS_PER_WORD
Number of storage units in a word; normally 4.

MIN_UNITS_PER_WORD
Minimum number of units in a word. If this is undefined, the default is UNITS_PER_WORD. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the smallest value that UNITS_PER_WORD can have at run-time.

POINTER_SIZE
Width of a pointer, in bits. You must specify a value no wider than the width of Pmode. If it is not equal to the width of Pmode, you must define POINTERS_EXTEND_UNSIGNED.

POINTER_SIZE
A C expression whose value is nonzero if pointers that need to be extended from being POINTER_SIZE bits wide to Pmode are to be zero-extended and zero if they are to be sign-extended.
You need not define this macro if the POINTER_SIZE is equal to the width of Pmode.

PROMOTE_MODE (m, unsignedp, type)
A macro to update m and unsignedp when an object whose type is type and which has the specified mode and signedness is to be stored in a register. This macro is only called when type is a scalar type.
On most RISC machines, which only have operations that operate on a full register, define this macro to set m to word_mode if m is an integer mode narrower than BITS_PER_WORD. In most cases, only integer modes should be widened because wider-precision floating-point operations are usually more expensive than their narrower counterparts.
For most machines, the macro definition does not change unsignedp. However, some machines, have instructions that preferentially handle either signed or unsigned quantities of certain modes. For example, on the DEC Alpha, 32-bit loads from memory and 32-bit add instructions sign-extend the result to 64 bits. On such machines, set unsignedp according to which kind of extension is more efficient.
Do not define this macro if it would never modify m.

PROMOTE_FUNCTION_ARGS
Define this macro if the promotion described by PROMOTE_MODE should also be done for outgoing function arguments.

PROMOTE_FUNCTION_RETURN
Define this macro if the promotion described by PROMOTE_MODE should also be done for the return value of functions.
If this macro is defined, FUNCTION_VALUE must perform the same promotions done by PROMOTE_MODE.

PROMOTE_FOR_CALL_ONLY
Define this macro if the promotion described by PROMOTE_MODE should only be performed for outgoing function arguments or function return values, as specified by PROMOTE_FUNCTION_ARGS and PROMOTE_FUNCTION_RETURN, respectively.

PARM_BOUNDARY
Normal alignment required for function parameters on the stack, in bits. All stack parameters receive at least this much alignment regardless of data type. On most machines, this is the same as the size of an integer.

STACK_BOUNDARY
Define this macro if there is a guaranteed alignment for the stack pointer on this machine. The definition is a C expression for the desired alignment (measured in
bits). This value is used as a default if PREFERRED_STACK_BOUNDARY is not defined.

PREFERRED_STACK_BOUNDARY
Define this macro if you wish to preserve a certain alignment for the stack pointer. The definition is a C expression for the desired alignment (measured in bits). If STACK_BOUNDARY is also defined, this macro must evaluate to a value equal to or larger than STACK_BOUNDARY.

If PUSH_ROUNDING is not defined, the stack will always be aligned to the specified boundary. If PUSH_ROUNDING is defined and specifies a less strict alignment than PREFERRED_STACK_BOUNDARY, the stack may be momentarily unaligned while pushing arguments.

FUNCTION_BOUNDARY
Alignment required for a function entry point, in bits.

BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT
Biggest alignment that any data type can require on this machine, in bits.

MINIMUM_ATOMIC_ALIGNMENT
If defined, the smallest alignment, in bits, that can be given to an object that can be referenced in one operation, without disturbing any nearby object. Normally, this is BITS_PER_UNIT, but may be larger on machines that don’t have byte or half-word store operations.

BIGGEST_FIELD_ALIGNMENT
Biggest alignment that any structure or union field can require on this machine, in bits. If defined, this overrides BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT for structure and union fields only, unless the field alignment has been set by the __attribute__((aligned (n))) construct.

ADJUST_FIELD_ALIGN (field, computed)
An expression for the alignment of a structure field field if the alignment computed in the usual way is computed. GCC uses this value instead of the value in BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT or BIGGEST_FIELD_ALIGNMENT, if defined, for structure fields only.

MAX_OBJFILE_ALIGNMENT
Biggest alignment supported by the object file format of this machine. Use this macro to limit the alignment which can be specified using the __attribute__((aligned (n))) construct. If not defined, the default value is BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT.

DATA_ALIGNMENT (type, basic-align)
If defined, a C expression to compute the alignment for a variable in the static store. type is the data type, and basic-align is the alignment that the object would ordinarily have. The value of this macro is used instead of that alignment to align the object.

If this macro is not defined, then basic-align is used.

One use of this macro is to increase alignment of medium-size data to make it all fit in fewer cache lines. Another is to cause character arrays to be word-aligned so that strcpy calls that copy constants to character arrays can be done inline.

CONSTANT_ALIGNMENT (constant, basic-align)
If defined, a C expression to compute the alignment given to a constant that is being placed in memory. constant is the constant and basic-align is the alignment that the object would ordinarily have. The value of this macro is used instead of that alignment to align the object.

If this macro is not defined, then basic-align is used.
The typical use of this macro is to increase alignment for string constants to be word aligned so that `strcpy` calls that copy constants can be done inline.

**LOCAL_ALIGNMENT** (**type, basic-align**)
If defined, a C expression to compute the alignment for a variable in the local store. `type` is the data type, and `basic-align` is the alignment that the object would ordinarily have. The value of this macro is used instead of that alignment to align the object.

If this macro is not defined, then `basic-align` is used.

One use of this macro is to increase alignment of medium-size data to make it all fit in fewer cache lines.

**EMPTY_FIELD_BOUNDARY**
Alignment in bits to be given to a structure bit-field that follows an empty field such as `int : 0;`.

Note that `PCC_BITFIELD_TYPE_MATTERS` also affects the alignment that results from an empty field.

**STRUCTURE_SIZE_BOUNDARY**
Number of bits which any structure or union’s size must be a multiple of. Each structure or union’s size is rounded up to a multiple of this.

If you do not define this macro, the default is the same as `BITS_PER_UNIT`.

**STRICT_ALIGNMENT**
Define this macro to be the value 1 if instructions will fail to work if given data not on the nominal alignment. If instructions will merely go slower in that case, define this macro as 0.

**PCC_BITFIELD_TYPE_MATTERS**
Define this if you wish to imitate the way many other C compilers handle alignment of bit-fields and the structures that contain them.

The behavior is that the type written for a bit-field (`int`, `short`, or other integer type) imposes an alignment for the entire structure, as if the structure really did contain an ordinary field of that type. In addition, the bit-field is placed within the structure so that it would fit within such a field, not crossing a boundary for it.

Thus, on most machines, a bit-field whose type is written as `int` would not cross a four-byte boundary, and would force four-byte alignment for the whole structure. (The alignment used may not be four bytes; it is controlled by the other alignment parameters.)

If the macro is defined, its definition should be a C expression; a nonzero value for the expression enables this behavior.

Note that if this macro is not defined, or its value is zero, some bit-fields may cross more than one alignment boundary. The compiler can support such references if there are ‘`insv`’, ‘`extv`’, and ‘`extzv`’ insns that can directly reference memory.

The other known way of making bit-fields work is to define `STRUCTURE_SIZE_BOUNDARY` as large as `BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT`. Then every structure can be accessed with fullwords.

Unless the machine has bit-field instructions or you define `STRUCTURE_SIZE_BOUNDARY` that way, you must define `PCC_BITFIELD_TYPE_MATTERS` to have a nonzero value.

If your aim is to make GCC use the same conventions for laying out bit-fields as are used by another compiler, here is how to investigate what the other compiler does. Compile and run this program:
struct foo1
{
    char x;
    char :0;
    char y;
};

struct foo2
{
    char x;
    int :0;
    char y;
};

main ()
{
    printf("Size of foo1 is %d\n",
            sizeof (struct foo1));
    printf("Size of foo2 is %d\n",
            sizeof (struct foo2));
    exit (0);
}

If this prints 2 and 5, then the compiler’s behavior is what you would get from
PCC_BITFIELD_TYPE_MATTERS.

BITFIELD_NBYTES_LIMITED
Like PCC_BITFIELD_TYPE_MATTERS except that its effect is limited to aligning
a bit-field within the structure.

STRUCT_FORCE_BLK (field)
Return 1 if a structure containing field should be accessed using BLKMODE.
Normally, this is not needed. See the file ‘c4x.h’ for an example of how to use this
macro to prevent a structure having a floating point field from being accessed in an
integer mode.

ROUND_TYPE_SIZE (type, computed, specified)
Define this macro as an expression for the overall size of a type (given by type as a
tree node) when the size computed in the usual way is computed and the alignment
is specified.
The default is to round computed up to a multiple of specified.

ROUND_TYPE_SIZE_UNIT (type, computed, specified)
Similar to ROUND_TYPE_SIZE, but sizes and alignments are specified in units (bytes).
If you define ROUND_TYPE_SIZE, you must also define this macro and they must be
defined consistently with each other.

ROUND_TYPE_ALIGN (type, computed, specified)
Define this macro as an expression for the alignment of a type (given by type as a tree
node) if the alignment computed in the usual way is computed and the alignment
explicitly specified was specified.
The default is to use specified if it is larger; otherwise, use the smaller of computed
and BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT

MAX_FIXED_MODE_SIZE
An integer expression for the size in bits of the largest integer machine mode that
should actually be used. All integer machine modes of this size or smaller can be
used for structures and unions with the appropriate sizes. If this macro is undefined, 
GET_MODE_BITSIZE (DImode) is assumed.

VECTOR_MODE_SUPPORTED_P (mode)
Define this macro to be nonzero if the port is prepared to handle insns involving 
vector mode mode. At the very least, it must have move patterns for this mode.

STACK_SAVEAREA_MODE (save_level)
If defined, an expression of type enum machine_mode that specifies the mode of the 
save area operand of a save_stack_level named pattern (see Section 20.8 [Standard 
Names], page 310). save_level is one of SAVE_BLOCK, SAVE_FUNCTION, or SAVE_ 
NONLOCAL and selects which of the three named patterns is having its mode specified. 
You need not define this macro if it always returns Pmode. You would most 
commonly define this macro if the save_stack_level patterns need to support both a 
32- and a 64-bit mode.

STACK_SIZE_MODE
If defined, an expression of type enum machine_mode that specifies the mode of the 
size increment operand of an allocate_stack named pattern (see Section 20.8 
[Standard Names], page 310).
You need not define this macro if it always returns word_mode. You would most 
commonly define this macro if the allocate_stack pattern needs to support both a 
32- and a 64-bit mode.

CHECK_FLOAT_VALUE (mode, value, overflow)
A C statement to validate the value value (of type double) for mode mode. This 
means that you check whether value fits within the possible range of values for 
mode mode on this target machine. The mode mode is always a mode of class 
MODE_FLOAT. overflow is nonzero if the value is already known to be out of range. 
If value is not valid or if overflow is nonzero, you should set overflow to 1 and 
then assign some valid value to value. Allowing an invalid value to go through 
the compiler can produce incorrect assembler code which may even cause Unix 
assemblers to crash.
This macro need not be defined if there is no work for it to do.

TARGET_FLOAT_FORMAT
A code distinguishing the floating point format of the target machine. There are 
three defined values:

IEEE_FLOAT_FORMAT
This code indicates IEEE floating point. It is the default; there is no 
need to define this macro when the format is IEEE.

VAX_FLOAT_FORMAT
This code indicates the peculiar format used on the Vax.

UNKNOWN_FLOAT_FORMAT
This code indicates any other format.

The value of this macro is compared with HOST_FLOAT_FORMAT (see Chapter 22 
(Config), page 453) to determine whether the target machine has the same format 
as the host machine. If any other formats are actually in use on supported machines, 
new codes should be defined for them.
The ordering of the component words of floating point values stored in memory is 
controlled by FLOAT_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN for the target machine and HOST_FLOAT_ 
WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN for the host.
DEFAULT_VTABLE_THUNKS

GCC supports two ways of implementing C++ vtables: traditional or with so-called “thunks”. The flag `-fvtable-thunk` chooses between them. Define this macro to be a C expression for the default value of that flag. If DEFAULT_VTABLE_THUNKS is 0, GCC uses the traditional implementation by default. The “thunk” implementation is more efficient (especially if you have provided an implementation of ASM_OUTPUT_MIThunk, see Section 21.8.10 [Function Entry], page 392), but is not binary compatible with code compiled using the traditional implementation. If you are writing a new port, define DEFAULT_VTABLE_THUNKS to 1.

If you do not define this macro, the default for `-fvtable-thunk` is 0.

21.5 Layout of Source Language Data Types

These macros define the sizes and other characteristics of the standard basic data types used in programs being compiled. Unlike the macros in the previous section, these apply to specific features of C and related languages, rather than to fundamental aspects of storage layout.

INT_TYPE_SIZE

A C expression for the size in bits of the type int on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is one word.

MAX_INT_TYPE_SIZE

Maximum number for the size in bits of the type int on the target machine. If this is undefined, the default is INT_TYPE_SIZE. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the largest value that INT_TYPE_SIZE can have at run-time. This is used in cpp.

SHORT_TYPE_SIZE

A C expression for the size in bits of the type short on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is half a word. (If this would be less than one storage unit, it is rounded up to one unit.)

LONG_TYPE_SIZE

A C expression for the size in bits of the type long on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is one word.

MAX_LONG_TYPE_SIZE

Maximum number for the size in bits of the type long on the target machine. If this is undefined, the default is LONG_TYPE_SIZE. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the largest value that LONG_TYPE_SIZE can have at run-time. This is used in cpp.

LONG_LONG_TYPE_SIZE

A C expression for the size in bits of the type long long on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is two words. If you want to support GNU Ada on your machine, the value of this macro must be at least 64.

CHAR_TYPE_SIZE

A C expression for the size in bits of the type char on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is BITS_PER_UNIT.

MAX_CHAR_TYPE_SIZE

Maximum number for the size in bits of the type char on the target machine. If this is undefined, the default is CHAR_TYPE_SIZE. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the largest value that CHAR_TYPE_SIZE can have at run-time. This is used in cpp.
FLOAT_TYPE_SIZE
A C expression for the size in bits of the type float on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is one word.

DOUBLE_TYPE_SIZE
A C expression for the size in bits of the type double on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is two words.

LONG_DOUBLE_TYPE_SIZE
A C expression for the size in bits of the type long double on the target machine. If you don’t define this, the default is two words.

WIDEST_HARDWARE_FP_SIZE
A C expression for the size in bits of the widest floating-point format supported by the hardware. If you define this macro, you must specify a value less than or equal to the value of LONG_DOUBLE_TYPE_SIZE. If you do not define this macro, the value of LONG_DOUBLE_TYPE_SIZE is the default.

DEFAULT_SIGNED_CHAR
An expression whose value is 1 or 0, according to whether the type char should be signed or unsigned by default. The user can always override this default with the options ‘-fsigned-char’ and ‘-funsigned-char’.

DEFAULT_SHORT_ENUMS
A C expression to determine whether to give an enum type only as many bytes as it takes to represent the range of possible values of that type. A nonzero value means to do that; a zero value means all enum types should be allocated like int. If you don’t define the macro, the default is 0.

SIZE_TYPE
A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type to use for size values. The typedef name size_t is defined using the contents of the string. The string can contain more than one keyword. If so, separate them with spaces, and write first any length keyword, then unsigned if appropriate, and finally int. The string must exactly match one of the data type names defined in the function init_decl_processing in the file ‘c-decl.c’. You may not omit int or change the order—that would cause the compiler to crash on startup.

If you don’t define this macro, the default is "long unsigned int".

PTRDIFF_TYPE
A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type to use for the result of subtracting two pointers. The typedef name ptrdiff_t is defined using the contents of the string. See SIZE_TYPE above for more information.

If you don’t define this macro, the default is "long int".

WCHAR_TYPE
A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type to use for wide characters. The typedef name wchar_t is defined using the contents of the string. See SIZE_TYPE above for more information.

If you don’t define this macro, the default is "int".

WCHAR_TYPE_SIZE
A C expression for the size in bits of the data type for wide characters. This is used in cpp, which cannot make use of WCHAR_TYPE.

MAX_WCHAR_TYPE_SIZE
Maximum number for the size in bits of the data type for wide characters. If this is undefined, the default is WCHAR_TYPE_SIZE. Otherwise, it is the constant value
that is the largest value that \texttt{WCHAR\_TYPE\_SIZE} can have at run-time. This is used in \texttt{cpp}.

\textbf{WINT\_TYPE}

A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type to use for wide characters passed to \texttt{printf} and returned from \texttt{getwc}. The typedef name \texttt{wint\_t} is defined using the contents of the string. See \texttt{SIZE\_TYPE} above for more information.

If you don't define this macro, the default is "\texttt{unsigned int}".

\textbf{INTMAX\_TYPE}

A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type that can represent any value of any standard or extended signed integer type. The typedef name \texttt{intmax\_t} is defined using the contents of the string. See \texttt{SIZE\_TYPE} above for more information.

If you don't define this macro, the default is the first of "\texttt{int}", "\texttt{long int}", or "\texttt{long long int}" that has as much precision as \texttt{long long int}.

\textbf{UINTMAX\_TYPE}

A C expression for a string describing the name of the data type that can represent any value of any standard or extended unsigned integer type. The typedef name \texttt{uintmax\_t} is defined using the contents of the string. See \texttt{SIZE\_TYPE} above for more information.

If you don't define this macro, the default is the first of "\texttt{unsigned int}", "\texttt{long unsigned int}", or "\texttt{long long unsigned int}" that has as much precision as \texttt{long long unsigned int}.

\textbf{OBJC\_INT\_SELECTORS}

Define this macro if the type of Objective C selectors should be \texttt{int}.

If this macro is not defined, then selectors should have the type \texttt{struct objc\_selector \*}.

\textbf{OBJC\_SELECTORS\_WITHOUT\_LABELS}

Define this macro if the compiler can group all the selectors together into a vector and use just one label at the beginning of the vector. Otherwise, the compiler must give each selector its own assembler label.

On certain machines, it is important to have a separate label for each selector because this enables the linker to eliminate duplicate selectors.

\textbf{TARGET\_PTRMEMFUNC\_VBIT\_LOCATION}

The C++ compiler represents a pointer-to-member-function with a struct that looks like:

\begin{verbatim}
struct {
  union {
    void (*fn)();
    ptrdiff_t vtable_index;
  };
  ptrdiff_t delta;
};
\end{verbatim}

The C++ compiler must use one bit to indicate whether the function that will be called through a pointer-to-member-function is virtual. Normally, we assume that the low-order bit of a function pointer must always be zero. Then, by ensuring that the vtable_index is odd, we can distinguish which variant of the union is in use. But, on some platforms function pointers can be odd, and so this doesn't work. In that case, we use the low-order bit of the delta field, and shift the remainder of the delta field to the left.
GCC will automatically make the right selection about where to store this bit using the \texttt{FUNCTION\_BOUNDARY} setting for your platform. However, some platforms such as ARM/Thumb have \texttt{FUNCTION\_BOUNDARY} set such that functions always start at even addresses, but the lowest bit of pointers to functions indicate whether the function at that address is in ARM or Thumb mode. If this is the case of your architecture, you should define this macro to \texttt{ptrmemfunc_vbit\_in\_delta}.

In general, you should not have to define this macro. On architectures in which function addresses are always even, according to \texttt{FUNCTION\_BOUNDARY}, GCC will automatically define this macro to \texttt{ptrmemfunc_vbit\_in\_pfm}.

\texttt{TARGET\_BELL}
A C constant expression for the integer value for escape sequence ‘\a’.

\texttt{TARGET\_BS}
\texttt{TARGET\_TAB}
\texttt{TARGET\_NEWLINE}
C constant expressions for the integer values for escape sequences ‘\b’, ‘\t’ and ‘\n’.

\texttt{TARGET\_VT}
\texttt{TARGET\_FF}
\texttt{TARGET\_CR}
C constant expressions for the integer values for escape sequences ‘\v’, ‘\f’ and ‘\r’.

\subsection*{21.6 Register Usage}
This section explains how to describe what registers the target machine has, and how (in general) they can be used.

The description of which registers a specific instruction can use is done with register classes; see Section 21.7 [Register Classes], page 372. For information on using registers to access a stack frame, see Section 21.8.3 [Frame Registers], page 381. For passing values in registers, see Section 21.8.6 [Register Arguments], page 386. For returning values in registers, see Section 21.8.7 [Scalar Return], page 389.

\subsubsection*{21.6.1 Basic Characteristics of Registers}
Registers have various characteristics.

\texttt{FIRST\_PSEUDO\_REGISTER}
Number of hardware registers known to the compiler. They receive numbers 0 through \texttt{FIRST\_PSEUDO\_REGISTER}-1; thus, the first pseudo register’s number really is assigned the number \texttt{FIRST\_PSEUDO\_REGISTER}.

\texttt{FIXED\_REGISTERS}
An initializer that says which registers are used for fixed purposes all throughout the compiled code and are therefore not available for general allocation. These would include the stack pointer, the frame pointer (except on machines where that can be used as a general register when no frame pointer is needed), the program counter on machines where that is considered one of the addressable registers, and any other numbered register with a standard use.

This information is expressed as a sequence of numbers, separated by commas and surrounded by braces. The \texttt{mth} number is 1 if register \texttt{n} is fixed, 0 otherwise.

The table initialized from this macro, and the table initialized by the following one, may be overridden at run time either automatically, by the actions of the macro \texttt{CONDITIONAL\_REGISTER\_USAGE}, or by the user with the command options ‘\texttt{-ffixed-reg}’, ‘\texttt{-fcall-used-reg}’ and ‘\texttt{-fcall-saved-reg}’. 
CALL_USED_REGISTERS
Like FIXED_REGISTERS but has 1 for each register that is clobbered (in general) by function calls as well as for fixed registers. This macro therefore identifies the registers that are not available for general allocation of values that must live across function calls.

If a register has 0 in CALL_USED_REGISTERS, the compiler automatically saves it on function entry and restores it on function exit, if the register is used within the function.

HARD_REGNO_CALL_PART_CLOBBERED (regno, mode)
A C expression that is non-zero if it is not permissible to store a value of mode mode in hard register number regno across a call without some part of it being clobbered.
For most machines this macro need not be defined. It is only required for machines that do not preserve the entire contents of a register across a call.

CONDITIONAL_REGISTER_USAGE
Zero or more C statements that may conditionally modify five variables fixed_regs, call_used_regs, global_regs, (these three are of type char []), reg_names (of type const char * []) and reg_class_contents (of type HARD_REG_SET). Before the macro is called fixed_regs, call_used_regs reg_class_contents and reg_names have been initialized from FIXED_REGISTERS, CALL_USED_REGISTERS, REG_CLASS_CONTENTS and REGISTER_NAMES, respectively, global_regs has been cleared, and any ‘-ffixed-reg’, ‘-fcall-used-reg’ and ‘-fcall-saved-reg’ command options have been applied.
This is necessary in case the fixed or call-clobbered registers depend on target flags.
You need not define this macro if it has no work to do.
If the usage of an entire class of registers depends on the target flags, you may indicate this to GCC by using this macro to modify fixed_regs and call_used_regs to 1 for each of the registers in the classes which should not be used by GCC.
Also define the macro REG_CLASS_FROM_LETTER to return NO_REGS if it is called with a letter for a class that shouldn’t be used.
(However, if this class is not included in GENERAL_REGS and all of the insn patterns whose constraints permit this class are controlled by target switches, then GCC will automatically avoid using these registers when the target switches are opposed to them.)

NON_SAVING_SETJMP
If this macro is defined and has a nonzero value, it means that setjmp and related functions fail to save the registers, or that longjmp fails to restore them. To compensate, the compiler avoids putting variables in registers in functions that use setjmp.

INCOMING_REGNO (out)
Define this macro if the target machine has register windows. This C expression returns the register number as seen by the called function corresponding to the register number out as seen by the calling function. Return out if register number out is not an outbound register.

OUTGOING_REGNO (in)
Define this macro if the target machine has register windows. This C expression returns the register number as seen by the calling function corresponding to the register number in as seen by the called function. Return in if register number in is not an inbound register.

LOCAL_REGNO (regno)
Define this macro if the target machine has register windows. This C expression returns true if the register is call-saved but is in the register window. Unlike most
call-saved registers, such registers need not be explicitly restored on function exit or during non-local gotos.

21.6.2 Order of Allocation of Registers

Registers are allocated in order.

REG_ALLOC_ORDER
If defined, an initializer for a vector of integers, containing the numbers of hard registers in the order in which GCC should prefer to use them (from most preferred to least).
If this macro is not defined, registers are used lowest numbered first (all else being equal).
One use of this macro is on machines where the highest numbered registers must always be saved and the save-multiple-registers instruction supports only sequences of consecutive registers. On such machines, define REG_ALLOC_ORDER to be an initializer that lists the highest numbered allocable register first.

ORDER_REGS_FOR_LOCAL_ALLOC
A C statement (sans semicolon) to choose the order in which to allocate hard registers for pseudo-registers local to a basic block.
Store the desired register order in the array reg_alloc_order. Element 0 should be the register to allocate first; element 1, the next register; and so on.
The macro body should not assume anything about the contents of reg_alloc_order before execution of the macro.
On most machines, it is not necessary to define this macro.

21.6.3 How Values Fit in Registers

This section discusses the macros that describe which kinds of values (specifically, which machine modes) each register can hold, and how many consecutive registers are needed for a given mode.

HARD_REGNO_NREGS (regno, mode)
A C expression for the number of consecutive hard registers, starting at register number regno, required to hold a value of mode mode.
On a machine where all registers are exactly one word, a suitable definition of this macro is

```c
#define HARD_REGNO_NREGS(REGNO, MODE) (((GET_MODE_SIZE (MODE) + UNITS_PER_WORD - 1) / UNITS_PER_WORD)
```

ALTER_HARD_SUBREG (tgt_mode, word, src_mode, regno)
A C expression that returns an adjusted hard register number for
(subreg:tgt_mode (reg:src_mode regno) word)
This may be needed if the target machine has mixed sized big-endian registers, like Sparc v9.

HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK (regno, mode)
A C expression that is nonzero if it is permissible to store a value of mode mode in hard register number regno (or in several registers starting with that one). For a machine where all registers are equivalent, a suitable definition is
#define HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK(REGNO, MODE) 1

You need not include code to check for the numbers of fixed registers, because the allocation mechanism considers them to be always occupied.

On some machines, double-precision values must be kept in even/odd register pairs. You can implement that by defining this macro to reject odd register numbers for such modes.

The minimum requirement for a mode to be OK in a register is that the ‘movmode’ instruction pattern support moves between the register and other hard register in the same class and that moving a value into the register and back out not alter it. Since the same instruction used to move word_mode will work for all narrower integer modes, it is not necessary on any machine for HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK to distinguish between these modes, provided you define patterns ‘movhi’, etc., to take advantage of this. This is useful because of the interaction between HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK and MODES_TIEABLE_P; it is very desirable for all integer modes to be tieable.

Many machines have special registers for floating point arithmetic. Often people assume that floating point machine modes are allowed only in floating point registers. This is not true. Any registers that can hold integers can safely hold a floating point machine mode, whether or not floating arithmetic can be done on it in those registers. Integer move instructions can be used to move the values.

On some machines, though, the converse is true: fixed-point machine modes may not go in floating registers. This is true if the floating registers normalize any value stored in them, because storing a non-floating value there would garble it. In this case, HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK should reject fixed-point machine modes in floating registers. But if the floating registers do not automatically normalize, if you can store any bit pattern in one and retrieve it unchanged without a trap, then any machine mode may go in a floating register, so you can define this macro to say so.

The primary significance of special floating registers is rather that they are the registers acceptable in floating point arithmetic instructions. However, this is of no concern to HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK. You handle it by writing the proper constraints for those instructions.

On some machines, the floating registers are especially slow to access, so that it is better to store a value in a stack frame than in such a register if floating point arithmetic is not being done. As long as the floating registers are not in class GENERAL_REGS, they will not be used unless some pattern’s constraint asks for one.

MODES_TIEABLE_P (mode1, mode2)

A C expression that is nonzero if a value of mode mode1 is accessible in mode mode2 without copying.

If HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK (r, mode1) and HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK (r, mode2) are always the same for any r, then MODES_TIEABLE_P (mode1, mode2) should be nonzero. If they differ for any r, you should define this macro to return zero unless some other mechanism ensures the accessibility of the value in a narrower mode.

You should define this macro to return nonzero in as many cases as possible since doing so will allow GCC to perform better register allocation.

AVOID_CCMODE_COPIES

Define this macro if the compiler should avoid copies to/from CCmode registers. You should only define this macro if support for copying to/from CCmode is incomplete.

### 21.6.4 Handling Leaf Functions

On some machines, a leaf function (i.e., one which makes no calls) can run more efficiently if it does not make its own register window. Often this means it is required to receive its arguments
in the registers where they are passed by the caller, instead of the registers where they would
normally arrive.

The special treatment for leaf functions generally applies only when other conditions are met;
for example, often they may use only those registers for its own variables and temporaries. We
use the term “leaf function” to mean a function that is suitable for this special handling, so that
functions with no calls are not necessarily “leaf functions”.

GCC assigns register numbers before it knows whether the function is suitable for leaf function
treatment. So it needs to renumber the registers in order to output a leaf function. The following
macros accomplish this.

**LEAF_REGISTERS**
Name of a char vector, indexed by hard register number, which contains 1 for a
register that is allowable in a candidate for leaf function treatment.

If leaf function treatment involves renumbering the registers, then the registers
marked here should be the ones before renumbering—those that GCC would or-
dinarily allocate. The registers which will actually be used in the assembler code,
after renumbering, should not be marked with 1 in this vector.

Define this macro only if the target machine offers a way to optimize the treatment
of leaf functions.

**LEAF_REG_REMAP** *(regno)*
A C expression whose value is the register number to which *regno* should be renum-
bered, when a function is treated as a leaf function.

If *regno* is a register number which should not appear in a leaf function before
renumbering, then the expression should yield −1, which will cause the compiler to
abort.

Define this macro only if the target machine offers a way to optimize the treatment
of leaf functions, and registers need to be renumbered to do this.

Normally, **FUNCTION_PROLOGUE** and **FUNCTION_EPILOGUE** must treat leaf functions specially.
They can test the C variable *current_function_is_leaf* which is nonzero for leaf functions.

*current_function_is_leaf* is set prior to local register allocation and is valid for the remaining
compiler passes. They can also test the C variable *current_function_uses_only_leaf_regs*
which is nonzero for leaf functions which only use leaf registers. *current_function_uses_only_
leaf_regs* is valid after reload and is only useful if **LEAF_REGISTERS** is defined.

### 21.6.5 Registers That Form a Stack

There are special features to handle computers where some of the “registers” form a stack,
as in the 80387 coprocessor for the 80386. Stack registers are normally written by pushing onto
the stack, and are numbered relative to the top of the stack.

Currently, GCC can only handle one group of stack-like registers, and they must be consecu-
tively numbered.

**STACK_REGS**
Define this if the machine has any stack-like registers.

**FIRST_STACK_REG**
The number of the first stack-like register. This one is the top of the stack.

**LAST_STACK_REG**
The number of the last stack-like register. This one is the bottom of the stack.
21.7 Register Classes

On many machines, the numbered registers are not all equivalent. For example, certain registers may not be allowed for indexed addressing; certain registers may not be allowed in some instructions. These machine restrictions are described to the compiler using register classes.

You define a number of register classes, giving each one a name and saying which of the registers belong to it. Then you can specify register classes that are allowed as operands to particular instruction patterns.

In general, each register will belong to several classes. In fact, one class must be named ALL_REGS and contain all the registers. Another class must be named NO_REGS and contain no registers. Often the union of two classes will be another class; however, this is not required.

One of the classes must be named GENERAL_REGS. There is nothing terribly special about the name, but the operand constraint letters ‘r’ and ‘g’ specify this class. If GENERAL_REGS is the same as ALL_REGS, just define it as a macro which expands to ALL_REGS.

Order the classes so that if class x is contained in class y then x has a lower class number than y.

The way classes other than GENERAL_REGS are specified in operand constraints is through machine-dependent operand constraint letters. You can define such letters to correspond to various classes, then use them in operand constraints.

You should define a class for the union of two classes whenever some instruction allows both classes. For example, if an instruction allows either a floating point (coprocessor) register or a general register for a certain operand, you should define a class FLOAT_ORGENERAL_REGS which includes both of them. Otherwise you will get suboptimal code.

You must also specify certain redundant information about the register classes: for each class, which classes contain it and which ones are contained in it; for each pair of classes, the largest class contained in their union.

When a value occupying several consecutive registers is expected in a certain class, all the registers used must belong to that class. Therefore, register classes cannot be used to enforce a requirement for a register pair to start with an even-numbered register. The way to specify this requirement is with HARD_REGNO_MODE_OK.

Register classes used for input-operands of bitwise-and or shift instructions have a special requirement: each such class must have, for each fixed-point machine mode, a subclass whose registers can transfer that mode to or from memory. For example, on some machines, the operations for single-byte values (QImode) are limited to certain registers. When this is so, each register class that is used in a bitwise-and or shift instruction must have a subclass consisting of registers from which single-byte values can be loaded or stored. This is so that PREFERRED_RELOAD_CLASS can always have a possible value to return.

enum reg_class
An numeric type that must be defined with all the register class names as enumeral values. NO_REGS must be first. ALL_REGS must be the last register class, followed by one more enumeral value, LIM_REG_CLASSES, which is not a register class but rather tells how many classes there are.

Each register class has a number, which is the value of casting the class name to type int. The number serves as an index in many of the tables described below.

N_REG_CLASSES
The number of distinct register classes, defined as follows:

#define N_REG_CLASSES (int) LIM_REG_CLASSES

REG_CLASS_NAMES
An initializer containing the names of the register classes as C string constants. These names are used in writing some of the debugging dumps.
REG_CLASS_CONTENTS
An initializer containing the contents of the register classes, as integers which are bit masks. The \( n \)th integer specifies the contents of class \( n \). The way the integer mask is interpreted is that register \( r \) is in the class if \( \text{mask} \& (1 \ll r) \) is 1.

When the machine has more than 32 registers, an integer does not suffice. Then the integers are replaced by sub-initializers, braced groupings containing several integers. Each sub-initializer must be suitable as an initializer for the type HARD_REG_SET which is defined in ‘hard-reg-set.h’. In this situation, the first integer in each sub-initializer corresponds to registers 0 through 31, the second integer to registers 32 through 63, and so on.

REGNO_REG_CLASS (regno)
A C expression whose value is a register class containing hard register \( \text{regno} \). In general there is more than one such class; choose a class which is minimal, meaning that no smaller class also contains the register.

BASE_REG_CLASS
A macro whose definition is the name of the class to which a valid base register must belong. A base register is one used in an address which is the register value plus a displacement.

INDEX_REG_CLASS
A macro whose definition is the name of the class to which a valid index register must belong. An index register is one used in an address where its value is either multiplied by a scale factor or added to another register (as well as added to a displacement).

REG_CLASS_FROM_LETTER (char)
A C expression which defines the machine-dependent operand constraint letters for register classes. If \( \text{char} \) is such a letter, the value should be the register class corresponding to it. Otherwise, the value should be NO_REGS. The register letter ‘r’, corresponding to class GENERAL_REGS, will not be passed to this macro; you do not need to handle it.

REGNO_OK_FOR_BASE_P (num)
A C expression which is nonzero if register number \( \text{num} \) is suitable for use as a base register in operand addresses. It may be either a suitable hard register or a pseudo register that has been allocated such a hard register.

REGNO_MODE_OK_FOR_BASE_P (num, mode)
A C expression that is just like \( \text{REGNO_OK_FOR_BASE_P} \), except that that expression may examine the mode of the memory reference in \( \text{mode} \). You should define this macro if the mode of the memory reference affects whether a register may be used as a base register. If you define this macro, the compiler will use it instead of \( \text{REGNO_OK_FOR_BASE_P} \).

REGNO_OK_FOR_INDEX_P (num)
A C expression which is nonzero if register number \( \text{num} \) is suitable for use as an index register in operand addresses. It may be either a suitable hard register or a pseudo register that has been allocated such a hard register.

The difference between an index register and a base register is that the index register may be scaled. If an address involves the sum of two registers, neither one of them scaled, then either one may be labeled the “base” and the other the “index”; but whichever labeling is used must fit the machine’s constraints of which registers may serve in each capacity. The compiler will try both labelings, looking for one that is valid, and will reload one or both registers only if neither labeling works.
PREFERRED_RELOAD_CLASS (x, class)
  A C expression that places additional restrictions on the register class to use when it
  is necessary to copy value x into a register in class class. The value is a register class;
  perhaps class, or perhaps another, smaller class. On many machines, the following
  definition is safe:

  #define PREFERRED_RELOAD_CLASS(X,CLASS) CLASS

  Sometimes returning a more restrictive class makes better code. For example, on the
  68000, when x is an integer constant that is in range for a 'moveq' instruction, the
  value of this macro is always DATA_REGS as long as class includes the data registers.
  Requiring a data register guarantees that a 'moveq' will be used.

  If x is a const_double, by returning NO_REGS you can force x into a memory
  constant. This is useful on certain machines where immediate floating values cannot
  be loaded into certain kinds of registers.

PREFERRED_OUTPUT_RELOAD_CLASS (x, class)
  Like PREFERRED_RELOAD_CLASS, but for output reloads instead of input reloads. If
  you don’t define this macro, the default is to use class, unchanged.

LIMIT_RELOAD_CLASS (mode, class)
  A C expression that places additional restrictions on the register class to use when
  it is necessary to be able to hold a value of mode mode in a reload register for which
  class class would ordinarily be used.

  Unlike PREFERRED_RELOAD_CLASS, this macro should be used when there are certain
  modes that simply can’t go in certain reload classes.

  The value is a register class; perhaps class, or perhaps another, smaller class.
  Don’t define this macro unless the target machine has limitations which require the
  macro to do something nontrivial.

SECONDARY_RELOAD_CLASS (class, mode, x)
SECONDARY_INPUT_RELOAD_CLASS (class, mode, x)
SECONDARY_OUTPUT_RELOAD_CLASS (class, mode, x)

  Many machines have some registers that cannot be copied directly to or from mem-
  ory or even from other types of registers. An example is the ‘MQ’ register, which on
  most machines, can only be copied to or from general registers, but not memory.
  Some machines allow copying all registers to and from memory, but require a scratch
  register for stores to some memory locations (e.g., those with symbolic address on
  the RT, and those with certain symbolic address on the Sparc when compiling PIC).
  In some cases, both an intermediate and a scratch register are required.

  You should define these macros to indicate to the reload phase that it may need to
  allocate at least one register for a reload in addition to the register to contain the
  data. Specifically, if copying x to a register class in mode requires an intermediate
  register, you should define SECONDARY_INPUT_RELOAD_CLASS to return the largest
  register class all of whose registers can be used as intermediate registers or scratch
  registers.

  If copying a register class in mode to x requires an intermediate or scratch register,
  SECONDARY_OUTPUT_RELOAD_CLASS should be defined to return the largest register
  class required. If the requirements for input and output reloads are the same, the
  macro SECONDARY_RELOAD_CLASS should be used instead of defining both macros
  identically.

  The values returned by these macros are often GENERAL_REGS. Return NO_REGS if
  no spare register is needed; i.e., if x can be directly copied to or from a register of
  class in mode without requiring a scratch register. Do not define this macro if it
  would always return NO_REGS.
If a scratch register is required (either with or without an intermediate register), you should define patterns for ‘reload_inm’ or ‘reload_outm’, as required [see Section 20.8 [Standard Names], page 310]. These patterns, which will normally be implemented with a `define_expand`, should be similar to the ‘movm’ patterns, except that operand 2 is the scratch register.

Define constraints for the reload register and scratch register that contain a single register class. If the original reload register (whose class is `class`) can meet the constraint given in the pattern, the value returned by these macros is used for the class of the scratch register. Otherwise, two additional reload registers are required. Their classes are obtained from the constraints in the insn pattern.

`x` might be a pseudo-register or a `subreg` of a pseudo-register, which could either be in a hard register or in memory. Use `true_regnum` to find out; it will return −1 if the pseudo is in memory and the hard register number if it is in a register.

These macros should not be used in the case where a particular class of registers can only be copied to memory and not to another class of registers. In that case, secondary reload registers are not needed and would not be helpful. Instead, a stack location must be used to perform the copy and the `movm` pattern should use memory as an intermediate storage. This case often occurs between floating-point and general registers.

**SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED** (`class1`, `class2`, `m`)

Certain machines have the property that some registers cannot be copied to some other registers without using memory. Define this macro on those machines to be a C expression that is non-zero if objects of mode `m` in registers of `class1` can only be copied to registers of class `class2` by storing a register of `class1` into memory and loading that memory location into a register of `class2`.

Do not define this macro if its value would always be zero.

**SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED_RTX** (`mode`)

Normally when `SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED` is defined, the compiler allocates a stack slot for a memory location needed for register copies. If this macro is defined, the compiler instead uses the memory location defined by this macro.

Do not define this macro if you do not define `SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED`.

**SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED_MODE** (`mode`)

When the compiler needs a secondary memory location to copy between two registers of mode `mode`, it normally allocates sufficient memory to hold a quantity of `BITS_PER_WORD` bits and performs the store and load operations in a mode that many bits wide and whose class is the same as that of `mode`.

This is right thing to do on most machines because it ensures that all bits of the register are copied and prevents accesses to the registers in a narrower mode, which some machines prohibit for floating-point registers.

However, this default behavior is not correct on some machines, such as the DEC Alpha, that store short integers in floating-point registers differently than in integer registers. On those machines, the default widening will not work correctly and you must define this macro to suppress that widening in some cases. See the file ‘alpha.h’ for details.

Do not define this macro if you do not define `SECONDARY_MEMORY_NEEDED` or if widening `mode` to a mode that is `BITS_PER_WORD` bits wide is correct for your machine.

**SMALL_REGISTER_CLASSES**

On some machines, it is risky to let hard registers live across arbitrary insns. Typically, these machines have instructions that require values to be in specific registers
(like an accumulator), and reload will fail if the required hard register is used for another purpose across such an insn.

Define `SMALL_REGISTER_CLASSES` to be an expression with a non-zero value on these machines. When this macro has a non-zero value, the compiler will try to minimize the lifetime of hard registers.

It is always safe to define this macro with a non-zero value, but if you unnecessarily define it, you will reduce the amount of optimizations that can be performed in some cases. If you do not define this macro with a non-zero value when it is required, the compiler will run out of spill registers and print a fatal error message. For most machines, you should not define this macro at all.

**CLASS_LIKELY_SPILLED_P (class)**

A C expression whose value is nonzero if pseudos that have been assigned to registers of class `class` would likely be spilled because registers of `class` are needed for spill registers.

The default value of this macro returns 1 if `class` has exactly one register and zero otherwise. On most machines, this default should be used. Only define this macro to some other expression if pseudos allocated by `local-alloc.c` end up in memory because their hard registers were needed for spill registers. If this macro returns nonzero for those classes, those pseudos will only be allocated by `global.c`, which knows how to reallocate the pseudo to another register. If there would not be another register available for reallocation, you should not change the definition of this macro since the only effect of such a definition would be to slow down register allocation.

**CLASS_MAX_NREGS (class, mode)**

A C expression for the maximum number of consecutive registers of class `class` needed to hold a value of mode `mode`.

This is closely related to the macro `HARD_REGNO_NREGS`. In fact, the value of the macro `CLASS_MAX_NREGS (class, mode)` should be the maximum value of `HARD_REGNO_NREGS (regno, mode)` for all `regno` values in the class `class`.

This macro helps control the handling of multiple-word values in the reload pass.

**CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE**

If defined, a C expression for a class that contains registers for which the compiler may not change modes arbitrarily.

**CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE_P (from, to)**

A C expression that is true if, for a register in `CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE`, the requested mode punning is illegal.

For the example, loading 32-bit integer or floating-point objects into floating-point registers on the Alpha extends them to 64-bits. Therefore loading a 64-bit object and then storing it as a 32-bit object does not store the low-order 32-bits, as would be the case for a normal register. Therefore, `alpha.h` defines `CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE` as `FLOAT_REGS` and `CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE_P` restricts mode changes to same-size modes.

Compare this to IA-64, which extends floating-point values to 82-bits, and stores 64-bit integers in a different format than 64-bit doubles. Therefore `CLASS_CANNOT_CHANGE_MODE_P` is always true.

Three other special macros describe which operands fit which constraint letters.

**CONST_OK_FOR_LETTER_P (value, c)**

A C expression that defines the machine-dependent operand constraint letters (‘I’, ‘J’, ‘K’, . . . ‘P’) that specify particular ranges of integer values. If `c` is one of those
letters, the expression should check that value, an integer, is in the appropriate range and return 1 if so, 0 otherwise. If c is not one of those letters, the value should be 0 regardless of value.

CONST_DOUBLE_OK_FOR_LETTER_P (value, c)
A C expression that defines the machine-dependent operand constraint letters that specify particular ranges of const_double values (‘G’ or ‘H’).
If c is one of those letters, the expression should check that value, an RTX of code const_double, is in the appropriate range and return 1 if so, 0 otherwise. If c is not one of those letters, the value should be 0 regardless of value.
const_double is used for all floating-point constants and for D1mode fixed-point constants. A given letter can accept either or both kinds of values. It can use GET_MODE to distinguish between these kinds.

EXTRA_CONSTRAINT (value, c)
A C expression that defines the optional machine-dependent constraint letters that can be used to segregate specific types of operands, usually memory references, for the target machine. Any letter that is not elsewhere defined and not matched by REG_CLASS_FROM_LETTER may be used. Normally this macro will not be defined.
If it is required for a particular target machine, it should return 1 if value corresponds to the operand type represented by the constraint letter c. If c is not defined as an extra constraint, the value returned should be 0 regardless of value.
For example, on the ROMP, load instructions cannot have their output in r0 if the memory reference contains a symbolic address. Constraint letter ‘Q’ is defined as representing a memory address that does not contain a symbolic address. An alternative is specified with a ‘Q’ constraint on the input and ‘r’ on the output. The next alternative specifies ‘m’ on the input and a register class that does not include r0 on the output.

21.8 Stack Layout and Calling Conventions
This describes the stack layout and calling conventions.

21.8.1 Basic Stack Layout
Here is the basic stack layout.

STACK_GROWS_DOWNWARD
Define this macro if pushing a word onto the stack moves the stack pointer to a smaller address.
When we say, “define this macro if . . .,” it means that the compiler checks this macro only with #ifdef so the precise definition used does not matter.

FRAME_GROWS_DOWNWARD
Define this macro if the addresses of local variable slots are at negative offsets from the frame pointer.

ARGS_GROW_DOWNWARD
Define this macro if successive arguments to a function occupy decreasing addresses on the stack.

STARTING_FRAME_OFFSET
Offset from the frame pointer to the first local variable slot to be allocated.
If FRAME_GROWS_DOWNWARD, find the next slot’s offset by subtracting the first slot’s length from STARTING_FRAME_OFFSET. Otherwise, it is found by adding the length of the first slot to the value STARTING_FRAME_OFFSET.
STACK_POINTER_OFFSET
Offset from the stack pointer register to the first location at which outgoing arguments are placed. If not specified, the default value of zero is used. This is the proper value for most machines.
If ARGS_GROW_DOWNWARD, this is the offset to the location above the first location at which outgoing arguments are placed.

FIRST_PARM_OFFSET
Offset from the argument pointer register to the first argument’s address. On some machines it may depend on the data type of the function.
If ARGS_GROW_DOWNWARD, this is the offset to the location above the first argument’s address.

STACK_DYNAMIC_OFFSET
Offset from the stack pointer register to an item dynamically allocated on the stack, e.g., by `alloca`.
The default value for this macro is STACK_POINTER_OFFSET plus the length of the outgoing arguments. The default is correct for most machines. See `function.c` for details.

DYNAMIC_CHAIN_ADDRESS
A C expression whose value is RTL representing the address in a stack frame where the pointer to the caller’s frame is stored. Assume that frameaddr is an RTL expression for the address of the stack frame itself.
If you don’t define this macro, the default is to return the value of frameaddr—that is, the stack frame address is also the address of the stack word that points to the previous frame.

SETUP_FRAME_ADDRESSES
If defined, a C expression that produces the machine-specific code to setup the stack so that arbitrary frames can be accessed. For example, on the Sparc, we must flush all of the register windows to the stack before we can access arbitrary stack frames. You will seldom need to define this macro.

BUILTIN_SETJMP_FRAME_VALUE
If defined, a C expression that contains an rtx that is used to store the address of the current frame into the built in setjmp buffer. The default value, virtual_stack_vars_rtx, is correct for most machines. One reason you may need to define this macro is if hard_frame_pointer_rtx is the appropriate value on your machine.

RETURN_ADDR RTX
A C expression whose value is RTL representing the value of the return address for the frame count steps up from the current frame, after the prologue. frameaddr is the frame pointer of the count frame, or the frame pointer of the count – 1 frame if RETURN_ADDR_IN_PREVIOUS_FRAME is defined.
The value of the expression must always be the correct address when count is zero, but may be NULL_RTX if there is not way to determine the return address of other frames.

RETURN_ADDR_IN_PREVIOUS_FRAME
Define this if the return address of a particular stack frame is accessed from the frame pointer of the previous stack frame.

INCOMING_RETURN_ADDR RTX
A C expression whose value is RTL representing the location of the incoming return address at the beginning of any function, before the prologue. This RTL is either
a REG, indicating that the return value is saved in ‘REG’, or a MEM representing a location in the stack.

You only need to define this macro if you want to support call frame debugging information like that provided by DWARF 2.

If this RTL is a REG, you should also define DWARF_FRAME_RETURN_COLUMN to DWARF_FRAME_REGNUM (REGNO).

**INCOMING_FRAME_SP_OFFSET**
A C expression whose value is an integer giving the offset, in bytes, from the value of the stack pointer register to the top of the stack frame at the beginning of any function, before the prologue. The top of the frame is defined to be the value of the stack pointer in the previous frame, just before the call instruction.

You only need to define this macro if you want to support call frame debugging information like that provided by DWARF 2.

**ARG_POINTER_CFA_OFFSET (fundecl)**
A C expression whose value is an integer giving the offset, in bytes, from the argument pointer to the canonical frame address (cfa). The final value should coincide with that calculated by INCOMING_FRAME_SP_OFFSET. Which is unfortunately not usable during virtual register instantiation.

The default value for this macro is FIRST_PARM_OFFSET (fundecl), which is correct for most machines; in general, the arguments are found immediately before the stack frame. Note that this is not the case on some targets that save registers into the caller’s frame, such as SPARC and rs6000, and so such targets need to define this macro.

You only need to define this macro if the default is incorrect, and you want to support call frame debugging information like that provided by DWARF 2.

**EH_RETURN_DATA_REGNO (N)**
A C expression whose value is the Nth register number used for data by exception handlers, or INVALID_REGNUM if fewer than N registers are usable.

The exception handling library routines communicate with the exception handlers via a set of agreed upon registers. Ideally these registers should be call-clobbered; it is possible to use call-saved registers, but may negatively impact code size. The target must support at least 2 data registers, but should define 4 if there are enough free registers.

You must define this macro if you want to support call frame exception handling like that provided by DWARF 2.

**EH_RETURN_STACKADJ_RTX**
A C expression whose value is RTL representing a location in which to store a stack adjustment to be applied before function return. This is used to unwind the stack to an exception handler’s call frame. It will be assigned zero on code paths that return normally.

Typically this is a call-clobbered hard register that is otherwise untouched by the epilogue, but could also be a stack slot.

You must define this macro if you want to support call frame exception handling like that provided by DWARF 2.

**EH_RETURN_HANDLER_RTX**
A C expression whose value is RTL representing a location in which to store the address of an exception handler to which we should return. It will not be assigned on code paths that return normally.

Typically this is the location in the call frame at which the normal return address is stored. For targets that return by popping an address off the stack, this might
be a memory address just below the target call frame rather than inside the current
call frame. \texttt{EH\_RETURN\_STACKADJ\_RTX} will have already been assigned, so it may be
used to calculate the location of the target call frame.

Some targets have more complex requirements than storing to an address calculable
during initial code generation. In that case the \texttt{eh\_return} instruction pattern should
be used instead.

If you want to support call frame exception handling, you must define either this
macro or the \texttt{eh\_return} instruction pattern.

\texttt{ASM\_PREFERRED\_EH\_DATA\_FORMAT(\texttt{CODE}, \texttt{GLOBAL})}
This macro chooses the encoding of pointers embedded in the exception handling
sections. If at all possible, this should be defined such that the exception handling
section will not require dynamic relocations, and so may be read-only.

\texttt{CODE} is 0 for data, 1 for code labels, 2 for function pointers. \texttt{GLOBAL} is true
if the symbol may be affected by dynamic relocations. The macro should return a
combination of the \texttt{Dw\_EH\_PE\_*} defines as found in \texttt{dwarf2.h}.
If this macro is not defined, pointers will not be encoded but represented directly.

\texttt{ASM\_MAYBE\_OUTPUT\_ENCODED\_ADDR\_RTX(\texttt{FILE}, \texttt{ENCODING}, \texttt{SIZE}, \texttt{ADDR}, \texttt{DONE})}
This macro allows the target to emit whatever special magic is required to represent
the encoding chosen by \texttt{ASM\_PREFERRED\_EH\_DATA\_FORMAT}. Generic code takes care
of pc-relative and indirect encodings; this must be defined if the target uses text-
relative or data-relative encodings.

This is a C statement that branches to \texttt{DONE} if the format was handled. \texttt{ENCOD-
ing} is the format chosen, \texttt{SIZE} is the number of bytes that the format occupies,
\texttt{ADDR} is the \texttt{SYMBOL\_REF} to be emitted.

\texttt{SMALL\_STACK}
Define this macro if the stack size for the target is very small. This has the effect
of disabling gcc’s built-in \texttt{alloca}, though \texttt{\_\_builtin\_alloca} is not affected.

21.8.2 Specifying How Stack Checking is Done

GCC will check that stack references are within the boundaries of the stack, if the
\texttt{\textasciitilde\textasciitilde\_fstack\_check} is specified, in one of three ways:

1. If the value of the \texttt{STACK\_CHECK\_BUILTIN} macro is nonzero, GCC will assume that you have
   arranged for stack checking to be done at appropriate places in the configuration files, e.g.,
in \texttt{FUNCTION\_PROLOGUE}. GCC will do not other special processing.

2. If \texttt{STACK\_CHECK\_BUILTIN} is zero and you defined a named pattern called \texttt{check\_stack}
in your \texttt{\_\_md} file, GCC will call that pattern with one argument which is the address to compare
the stack value against. You must arrange for this pattern to report an error if the stack
pointer is out of range.

3. If neither of the above are true, GCC will generate code to periodically “probe” the stack
pointer using the values of the macros defined below.

Normally, you will use the default values of these macros, so GCC will use the third approach.

\texttt{STACK\_CHECK\_BUILTIN}
A nonzero value if stack checking is done by the configuration files in a machine-
dependent manner. You should define this macro if stack checking is require by the
ABI of your machine or if you would like to have to stack checking in some more
efficient way than GCC’s portable approach. The default value of this macro is zero.
STACK_CHECK_PROBE_INTERVAL
An integer representing the interval at which GCC must generate stack probe instructions. You will normally define this macro to be no larger than the size of the “guard pages” at the end of a stack area. The default value of 4096 is suitable for most systems.

STACK_CHECK_PROBE_LOAD
A integer which is nonzero if GCC should perform the stack probe as a load instruction and zero if GCC should use a store instruction. The default is zero, which is the most efficient choice on most systems.

STACK_CHECK_PROTECT
The number of bytes of stack needed to recover from a stack overflow, for languages where such a recovery is supported. The default value of 75 words should be adequate for most machines.

STACK_CHECK_MAX_FRAME_SIZE
The maximum size of a stack frame, in bytes. GCC will generate probe instructions in non-leaf functions to ensure at least this many bytes of stack are available. If a stack frame is larger than this size, stack checking will not be reliable and GCC will issue a warning. The default is chosen so that GCC only generates one instruction on most systems. You should normally not change the default value of this macro.

STACK_CHECK_FIXED_FRAME_SIZE
GCC uses this value to generate the above warning message. It represents the amount of fixed frame used by a function, not including space for any callee-saved registers, temporaries and user variables. You need only specify an upper bound for this amount and will normally use the default of four words.

STACK_CHECK_MAX_VAR_SIZE
The maximum size, in bytes, of an object that GCC will place in the fixed area of the stack frame when the user specifies ‘-fstack-check’. GCC computed the default from the values of the above macros and you will normally not need to override that default.

21.8.3 Registers That Address the Stack Frame
This discusses registers that address the stack frame.

STACK_POINTER_REGNUM
The register number of the stack pointer register, which must also be a fixed register according to FIXED_REGISTERS. On most machines, the hardware determines which register this is.

FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM
The register number of the frame pointer register, which is used to access automatic variables in the stack frame. On some machines, the hardware determines which register this is. On other machines, you can choose any register you wish for this purpose.

HARD_FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM
On some machines the offset between the frame pointer and starting offset of the automatic variables is not known until after register allocation has been done (for example, because the saved registers are between these two locations). On those machines, define FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM the number of a special, fixed register to be used internally until the offset is known, and define HARD_FRAME.Pointer_REGNUM to be the actual hard register number used for the frame pointer.
You should define this macro only in the very rare circumstances when it is not possible to calculate the offset between the frame pointer and the automatic variables until after register allocation has been completed. When this macro is defined, you must also indicate in your definition of \texttt{ELIMINABLE_REGS} how to eliminate \texttt{FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM} into either \texttt{HARD_FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM} or \texttt{STACK_POINTER_REGNUM}.

Do not define this macro if it would be the same as \texttt{FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM}.

\textbf{ARG_POINTER_REGNUM}

The register number of the arg pointer register, which is used to access the function's argument list. On some machines, this is the same as the frame pointer register. On some machines, the hardware determines which register this is. On other machines, you can choose any register you wish for this purpose. If this is not the same register as the frame pointer register, then you must mark it as a fixed register according to \texttt{FIXED_REGISTERS}, or arrange to be able to eliminate it (see Section 21.8.4 [Elimination], page 382).

\textbf{RETURN_ADDRESS_POINTER_REGNUM}

The register number of the return address pointer register, which is used to access the current function's return address from the stack. On some machines, the return address is not at a fixed offset from the frame pointer or stack pointer or argument pointer. This register can be defined to point to the return address on the stack, and then be converted by \texttt{ELIMINABLE_REGS} into either the frame pointer or stack pointer.

Do not define this macro unless there is no other way to get the return address from the stack.

\textbf{STATIC_CHAIN_REGNUM \hspace{0.5cm} STATIC_CHAIN_INCOMING_REGNUM}

Register numbers used for passing a function's static chain pointer. If register windows are used, the register number as seen by the called function is \texttt{STATIC_CHAIN_INCOMING_REGNUM}, while the register number as seen by the calling function is \texttt{STATIC_CHAIN_REGNUM}. If these registers are the same, \texttt{STATIC_CHAIN_INCOMING_REGNUM} need not be defined.

The static chain register need not be a fixed register.

If the static chain is passed in memory, these macros should not be defined; instead, the next two macros should be defined.

\textbf{STATIC_CHAIN \hspace{0.5cm} STATIC_CHAIN_INCOMING}

If the static chain is passed in memory, these macros provide rtx giving mem expressions that denote where they are stored. \texttt{STATIC_CHAIN} and \texttt{STATIC_CHAIN_INCOMING} give the locations as seen by the calling and called functions, respectively. Often the former will be at an offset from the stack pointer and the latter at an offset from the frame pointer.

The variables \texttt{stack_pointer_rtx}, \texttt{frame_pointer_rtx}, and \texttt{arg_pointer_rtx} will have been initialized prior to the use of these macros and should be used to refer to those items.

If the static chain is passed in a register, the two previous macros should be defined instead.

\section*{21.8.4 Eliminating Frame Pointer and Arg Pointer}

This is about eliminating the frame pointer and arg pointer.
FRAME_POINTER_REQUIRED
A C expression which is nonzero if a function must have and use a frame pointer. This expression is evaluated in the reload pass. If its value is nonzero the function will have a frame pointer.

The expression can in principle examine the current function and decide according to the facts, but on most machines the constant 0 or the constant 1 suffices. Use 0 when the machine allows code to be generated with no frame pointer, and doing so saves some time or space. Use 1 when there is no possible advantage to avoiding a frame pointer.

In certain cases, the compiler does not know how to produce valid code without a frame pointer. The compiler recognizes those cases and automatically gives the function a frame pointer regardless of what FRAME_POINTER_REQUIRED says. You don’t need to worry about them.

In a function that does not require a frame pointer, the frame pointer register can be allocated for ordinary usage, unless you mark it as a fixed register. See FIXED_REGISTERS for more information.

INITIAL_FRAME_POINTER_OFFSET (depth-var)
A C statement to store in the variable depth-var the difference between the frame pointer and the stack pointer values immediately after the function prologue. The value would be computed from information such as the result of get_frame_size() and the tables of registers regs_ever_live and call_used_regs.

If ELIMINABLE_REGS is defined, this macro will be not be used and need not be defined. Otherwise, it must be defined even if FRAME_POINTER_REQUIRED is defined to always be true; in that case, you may set depth-var to anything.

ELIMINABLE_REGS
If defined, this macro specifies a table of register pairs used to eliminate unneeded registers that point into the stack frame. If it is not defined, the only elimination attempted by the compiler is to replace references to the frame pointer with references to the stack pointer.

The definition of this macro is a list of structure initializations, each of which specifies an original and replacement register.

On some machines, the position of the argument pointer is not known until the compilation is completed. In such a case, a separate hard register must be used for the argument pointer. This register can be eliminated by replacing it with either the frame pointer or the argument pointer, depending on whether or not the frame pointer has been eliminated.

In this case, you might specify:

```c
#define ELIMINABLE_REGS \
{ARG_POINTER_REGNUM, STACK_POINTER_REGNUM}, \
{ARG_POINTER_REGNUM, FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM}, \
{FRAME_POINTER_REGNUM, STACK_POINTER_REGNUM})
```

Note that the elimination of the argument pointer with the stack pointer is specified first since that is the preferred elimination.

CAN_ELIMINATE (from-reg, to-reg)
A C expression that returns non-zero if the compiler is allowed to try to replace register number from-reg with register number to-reg. This macro need only be defined if ELIMINABLE_REGS is defined, and will usually be the constant 1, since most of the cases preventing register elimination are things that the compiler already knows about.
INITIAL_ELIMINATION_OFFSET (from-reg, to-reg, offset-var)
This macro is similar to INITIAL_FRAME_POINTER_OFFSET. It specifies the initial
difference between the specified pair of registers. This macro must be defined if
ELIMINABLE_REGS is defined.

LONGJMP_RESTORE_FROM_STACK
Define this macro if the longjmp function restores registers from the stack frames,
rather than from those saved specifically by setjmp. Certain quantities must not
be kept in registers across a call to setjmp on such machines.

21.8.5 Passing Function Arguments on the Stack
The macros in this section control how arguments are passed on the stack. See the following
section for other macros that control passing certain arguments in registers.

PROMOTE_PROTOTYPES
A C expression whose value is nonzero if an argument declared in a prototype as an
integral type smaller than int should actually be passed as an int. In addition to
avoiding errors in certain cases of mismatch, it also makes for better code on certain
machines. If the macro is not defined in target header files, it defaults to 0.

PUSH_ARGS
A C expression. If nonzero, push insns will be used to pass outgoing arguments. If
the target machine does not have a push instruction, set it to zero. That directs
GCC to use an alternate strategy: to allocate the entire argument block and then
store the arguments into it. When PUSH_ARGS is nonzero, PUSH_ROUNDING
must be defined too. On some machines, the definition

PUSH_ROUNDING (npushed)
A C expression that is the number of bytes actually pushed onto the stack when an
instruction attempts to push npushed bytes.
On some machines, the definition

#define PUSH_ROUNDING(BYTES) (BYTES)
will suffice. But on other machines, instructions that appear to push one byte
actually push two bytes in an attempt to maintain alignment. Then the definition
should be

#define PUSH_ROUNDING(BYTES) (((BYTES) + 1) & ~1)

ACCUMULATE_OUTGOING_ARGS
A C expression. If nonzero, the maximum amount of space required for outgo-
ing arguments will be computed and placed into the variable current_function_
outgoing_args_size. No space will be pushed onto the stack for each call; instead,
the function prologue should increase the stack frame size by this amount.
Setting both PUSH_ARGS and ACCUMULATE_OUTGOING_ARGS is not proper.

REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE (fndecl)
Define this macro if functions should assume that stack space has been allocated for
arguments even when their values are passed in registers.
The value of this macro is the size, in bytes, of the area reserved for arguments
passed in registers for the function represented by fndecl, which can be zero if GCC
is calling a library function.
This space can be allocated by the caller, or be a part of the machine-dependent
stack frame: OUTGOING_REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE says which.
MAYBE_REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE

FINAL_REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE (const size, var size)

Define these macros in addition to the one above if functions might allocate stack space for arguments even when their values are passed in registers. These should be used when the stack space allocated for arguments in registers is not a simple constant independent of the function declaration.

The value of the first macro is the size, in bytes, of the area that we should initially assume would be reserved for arguments passed in registers.

The value of the second macro is the actual size, in bytes, of the area that will be reserved for arguments passed in registers. This takes two arguments: an integer representing the number of bytes of fixed sized arguments on the stack, and a tree representing the number of bytes of variable sized arguments on the stack.

When these macros are defined, REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE will only be called for libcall functions, the current function, or for a function being called when it is known that such stack space must be allocated. In each case this value can be easily computed.

When deciding whether a called function needs such stack space, and how much space to reserve, GCC uses these two macros instead of REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE.

OUTGOING_REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE

Define this if it is the responsibility of the caller to allocate the area reserved for arguments passed in registers.

If ACCUMULATE_OUTGOING_ARGS is defined, this macro controls whether the space for these arguments counts in the value of current_function_outgoing_args_size.

STACK_PARMs_IN_REG_PARM_AREA

Define this macro if REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE is defined, but the stack parameters don’t skip the area specified by it.

Normally, when a parameter is not passed in registers, it is placed on the stack beyond the REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE area. Defining this macro suppresses this behavior and causes the parameter to be passed on the stack in its natural location.

RETURN_POPS_ARGS (fundecl, funtype, stack-size)

A C expression that should indicate the number of bytes of its own arguments that a function pops on returning, or 0 if the function pops no arguments and the caller must therefore pop them all after the function returns.

fundecl is a C variable whose value is a tree node that describes the function in question. Normally it is a node of type FUNCTION_DECL that describes the declaration of the function. From this you can obtain the DECL_MACHINE_ATTRIBUTES of the function.

funtype is a C variable whose value is a tree node that describes the function in question. Normally it is a node of type FUNCTION_TYPE that describes the data type of the function. From this it is possible to obtain the data types of the value and arguments (if known).

When a call to a library function is being considered, fundecl will contain an identifier node for the library function. Thus, if you need to distinguish among various library functions, you can do so by their names. Note that “library function” in this context means a function used to perform arithmetic, whose name is known specially in the compiler and was not mentioned in the C code being compiled.

stack-size is the number of bytes of arguments passed on the stack. If a variable number of bytes is passed, it is zero, and argument popping will always be the responsibility of the calling function.
On the Vax, all functions always pop their arguments, so the definition of this macro is stack-size. On the 68000, using the standard calling convention, no functions pop their arguments, so the value of the macro is always 0 in this case. But an alternative calling convention is available in which functions that take a fixed number of arguments pop them but other functions (such as printf) pop nothing (the caller pops all). When this convention is in use, funtype is examined to determine whether a function takes a fixed number of arguments.

### 21.8.6 Passing Arguments in Registers

This section describes the macros which let you control how various types of arguments are passed in registers or how they are arranged in the stack.

**FUNCTION_ARG (cum, mode, type, named)**

A C expression that controls whether a function argument is passed in a register, and which register.

The arguments are `cum`, which summarizes all the previous arguments; `mode`, the machine mode of the argument; `type`, the data type of the argument as a tree node or 0 if that is not known (which happens for C support library functions); and `named`, which is 1 for an ordinary argument and 0 for nameless arguments that correspond to ‘...’ in the called function’s prototype. `type` can be an incomplete type if a syntax error has previously occurred.

The value of the expression is usually either a `reg` RTX for the hard register in which to pass the argument, or zero to pass the argument on the stack.

For machines like the Vax and 68000, where normally all arguments are pushed, zero suffices as a definition.

The value of the expression can also be a `parallel` RTX. This is used when an argument is passed in multiple locations. The mode of the of the `parallel` should be the mode of the entire argument. The `parallel` holds any number of `expr_list` pairs; each one describes where part of the argument is passed. In each `expr_list` the first operand must be a `reg` RTX for the hard register in which to pass this part of the argument, and the mode of the register RTX indicates how large this part of the argument is. The second operand of the `expr_list` is a `const_int` which gives the offset in bytes into the entire argument of where this part starts. As a special exception the first `expr_list` in the `parallel` RTX may have a first operand of zero. This indicates that the entire argument is also stored on the stack.

The usual way to make the ISO library ‘stdarg.h’ work on a machine where some arguments are usually passed in registers, is to cause nameless arguments to be passed on the stack instead. This is done by making `FUNCTION_ARG` return 0 whenever `named` is 0.

You may use the macro `MUST_PASS_IN_STACK (mode, type)` in the definition of this macro to determine if this argument is of a type that must be passed in the stack. If `REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE` is not defined and `FUNCTION_ARG` returns non-zero for such an argument, the compiler will abort. If `REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE` is defined, the argument will be computed in the stack and then loaded into a register.

**MUST_PASS_IN_STACK (mode, type)**

Define as a C expression that evaluates to nonzero if we do not know how to pass `TYPE` solely in registers. The file ‘`expr.h`’ defines a definition that is usually appropriate, refer to ‘`expr.h`’ for additional documentation.
FUNCTION_INCOMING_ARG (cum, mode, type, named)
Define this macro if the target machine has “register windows”, so that the register in which a function sees an arguments is not necessarily the same as the one in which the caller passed the argument.
For such machines, FUNCTION_ARG computes the register in which the caller passes the value, and FUNCTION_INCOMING_ARG should be defined in a similar fashion to tell the function being called where the arguments will arrive.
If FUNCTION_INCOMING_ARG is not defined, FUNCTION_ARG serves both purposes.

FUNCTION_ARG_PARTIAL_NREGS (cum, mode, type, named)
A C expression for the number of words, at the beginning of an argument, that must be put in registers. The value must be zero for arguments that are passed entirely in registers or that are entirely pushed on the stack.
On some machines, certain arguments must be passed partially in registers and partially in memory. On these machines, typically the first $n$ words of arguments are passed in registers, and the rest on the stack. If a multi-word argument (a double or a structure) crosses that boundary, its first few words must be passed in registers and the rest must be pushed. This macro tells the compiler when this occurs, and how many of the words should go in registers.
FUNCTION_ARG for these arguments should return the first register to be used by the caller for this argument; likewise FUNCTION_INCOMING_ARG, for the called function.

FUNCTION_ARG_PASS_BY_REFERENCE (cum, mode, type, named)
A C expression that indicates when an argument must be passed by reference. If nonzero for an argument, a copy of that argument is made in memory and a pointer to the argument is passed instead of the argument itself. The pointer is passed in whatever way is appropriate for passing a pointer to that type.
On machines where REG_PARM_STACK_SPACE is not defined, a suitable definition of this macro might be

```c
#define FUNCTION_ARG_PASS_BY_REFERENCE\
  (CUM, MODE, TYPE, NAMED) \n  MUST_PASS_IN_STACK (MODE, TYPE)
```

FUNCTION_ARG_CALLEE_COPIES (cum, mode, type, named)
If defined, a C expression that indicates when it is the called function’s responsibility to make a copy of arguments passed by invisible reference. Normally, the caller makes a copy and passes the address of the copy to the routine being called. When FUNCTION_ARG_CALLEE_COPIES is defined and is nonzero, the caller does not make a copy. Instead, it passes a pointer to the “live” value. The called function must not modify this value. If it can be determined that the value won’t be modified, it need not make a copy; otherwise a copy must be made.

CUMULATIVE_ARGS
A C type for declaring a variable that is used as the first argument of FUNCTION_ARG and other related values. For some target machines, the type int suffices and can hold the number of bytes of argument so far.
There is no need to record in CUMULATIVE_ARGS anything about the arguments that have been passed on the stack. The compiler has other variables to keep track of that. For target machines on which all arguments are passed on the stack, there is no need to store anything in CUMULATIVE_ARGS; however, the data structure must exist and should not be empty, so use int.

INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS (cum, fntype, libname, indirect)
A C statement (sans semicolon) for initializing the variable cum for the state at the beginning of the argument list. The variable has type CUMULATIVE_ARGS. The value
of \texttt{fntype} is the tree node for the data type of the function which will receive the \texttt{args}, or 0 if the \texttt{args} are to a compiler support library function. The value of \texttt{indirect} is nonzero when processing an indirect call, for example a call through a function pointer. The value of \texttt{indirect} is zero for a call to an explicitly named function, a library function call, or when \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS} is used to find arguments for the function being compiled.

When processing a call to a compiler support library function, \textit{libname} identifies which one. It is a \texttt{symbol_ref} \texttt{rtx} which contains the name of the function, as a string. \textit{libname} is 0 when an ordinary C function call is being processed. Thus, each time this macro is called, either \textit{libname} or \textit{fntype} is nonzero, but never both of them at once.

\begin{verbatim}
INIT_CUMULATIVE_LIBCALL_ARGS (cum, mode, libname)
Like \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS} but only used for outgoing \texttt{libcalls}, it gets a \texttt{MODE} argument instead of \texttt{fntype}, that would be \texttt{NULL}. \texttt{indirect} would always be zero, too. If this macro is not defined, \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS} (cum, NULL\_\texttt{RTX}, libname, 0) is used instead.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
INIT_CUMULATIVE_INCOMING_ARGS (cum, fntype, libname)
Like \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS} but overrides it for the purposes of finding the arguments for the function being compiled. If this macro is undefined, \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS} is used instead.

The value passed for \textit{libname} is always 0, since library routines with special calling conventions are never compiled with GCC. The argument \textit{libname} exists for symmetry with \texttt{INIT_CUMULATIVE_ARGS}.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
FUNCTION_ARG_ADVANCE (cum, mode, type, named)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to update the summarizer variable \texttt{cum} to advance past an argument in the argument list. The values \texttt{mode}, \texttt{type} and \texttt{named} describe that argument. Once this is done, the variable \texttt{cum} is suitable for analyzing the following argument with \texttt{FUNCTION_ARG}, etc.

This macro need not do anything if the argument in question was passed on the stack. The compiler knows how to track the amount of stack space used for arguments without any special help.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
FUNCTION_ARG_PADDING (mode, type)
If defined, a C expression which determines whether, and in which direction, to pad out an argument with extra space. The value should be of type \texttt{enum direction}: either \texttt{upward} to pad above the argument, \texttt{downward} to pad below, or \texttt{none} to inhibit padding.

The amount of padding is always just enough to reach the next multiple of \texttt{FUNCTION_ARG_BOUNDARY}; this macro does not control it.

This macro has a default definition which is right for most systems. For little-endian machines, the default is to pad upward. For big-endian machines, the default is to pad downward for an argument of constant size shorter than an \texttt{int}, and upward otherwise.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
PAD_VARARGS_DOWN
If defined, a C expression which determines whether the default implementation of \texttt{va\_arg} will attempt to pad down before reading the next argument, if that argument is smaller than its aligned space as controlled by \texttt{PARAM\_BOUNDARY}. If this macro is not defined, all such arguments are padded down if \texttt{BYTES\_BIG\_ENDIAN} is true.
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
FUNCTION_ARG_BOUNDARY (mode, type)
If defined, a C expression that gives the alignment boundary, in bits, of an argument with the specified mode and type. If it is not defined, \texttt{PARAM\_BOUNDARY} is used for all arguments.
\end{verbatim}
FUNCTION_ARG_REGNO_P (regno)
A C expression that is nonzero if regno is the number of a hard register in which function arguments are sometimes passed. This does not include implicit arguments such as the static chain and the structure-value address. On many machines, no registers can be used for this purpose since all function arguments are pushed on the stack.

LOAD_ARGS_REVERSED
If defined, the order in which arguments are loaded into their respective argument registers is reversed so that the last argument is loaded first. This macro only affects arguments passed in registers.

21.8.7 How Scalar Function Values Are Returned

This section discusses the macros that control returning scalars as values—values that can fit in registers.

TRADITIONAL_RETURN_FLOAT
Define this macro if ‘-traditional’ should not cause functions declared to return float to convert the value to double.

FUNCTION_VALUE (valtype, func)
A C expression to create an RTX representing the place where a function returns a value of data type valtype. valtype is a tree node representing a data type. Write TYPE_MODE (valtype) to get the machine mode used to represent that type. On many machines, only the mode is relevant. (Actually, on most machines, scalar values are returned in the same place regardless of mode).

The value of the expression is usually a reg RTX for the hard register where the return value is stored. The value can also be a parallel RTX, if the return value is in multiple places. See FUNCTION_ARG for an explanation of the parallel form.

If PROMOTE_FUNCTION_RETURN is defined, you must apply the same promotion rules specified in PROMOTE_MODE if valtype is a scalar type.

If the precise function being called is known, func is a tree node (FUNCTION_DECL) for it; otherwise, func is a null pointer. This makes it possible to use a different value-returning convention for specific functions when all their calls are known.

FUNCTION_VALUE is not used for return values with aggregate data types, because these are returned in another way. See STRUCT_VALUE_REGNUM and related macros, below.

FUNCTION_OUTGOING_VALUE (valtype, func)
Define this macro if the target machine has “register windows” so that the register in which a function returns its value is not the same as the one in which the caller sees the value.

For such machines, FUNCTION_VALUE computes the register in which the caller will see the value. FUNCTION_OUTGOING_VALUE should be defined in a similar fashion to tell the function where to put the value.

If FUNCTION_OUTGOING_VALUE is not defined, FUNCTION_VALUE serves both purposes. FUNCTION_OUTGOING_VALUE is not used for return values with aggregate data types, because these are returned in another way. See STRUCT_VALUE_REGNUM and related macros, below.

LIBCALL_VALUE (mode)
A C expression to create an RTX representing the place where a library function returns a value of mode mode. If the precise function being called is known, func is
a tree node (FUNCTION_DECL) for it; otherwise, func is a null pointer. This makes it possible to use a different value-returning convention for specific functions when all their calls are known.

Note that “library function” in this context means a compiler support routine, used to perform arithmetic, whose name is known specially by the compiler and was not mentioned in the C code being compiled.

The definition of LIBRARY_VALUE need not be concerned aggregate data types, because none of the library functions returns such types.

FUNCTION_VALUE_REGNO_P (regno)
A C expression that is nonzero if regno is the number of a hard register in which the values of called function may come back.

A register whose use for returning values is limited to serving as the second of a pair (for a value of type double, say) need not be recognized by this macro. So for most machines, this definition suffices:

```
#define FUNCTION_VALUE_REGNO_P(N) ((N) == 0)
```

If the machine has register windows, so that the caller and the called function use different registers for the return value, this macro should recognize only the caller’s register numbers.

A C expression that is nonzero if 'untyped_call' and 'untyped_return' need more space than is implied by FUNCTION_VALUE_REGNO_P for saving and restoring an arbitrary return value.

21.8.8 How Large Values Are Returned

When a function value’s mode is BLKmode (and in some other cases), the value is not returned according to FUNCTION_VALUE (see Section 21.8.7 [Scalar Return], page 389). Instead, the caller passes the address of a block of memory in which the value should be stored. This address is called the structure value address.

This section describes how to control returning structure values in memory.

RETURN_IN_MEMORY (type)
A C expression which can inhibit the returning of certain function values in registers, based on the type of value. A nonzero value says to return the function value in memory, just as large structures are always returned. Here type will be a C expression of type tree, representing the data type of the value.

Note that values of mode BLKmode must be explicitly handled by this macro. Also, the option ‘-fno-pcc-struct-return’ takes effect regardless of this macro. On most systems, it is possible to leave the macro undefined; this causes a default definition to be used, whose value is the constant 1 for BLKmode values, and 0 otherwise.

Do not use this macro to indicate that structures and unions should always be returned in memory. You should instead use DEFAULT_PCC_STRUCT_RETURN to indicate this.

DEFAULT_PCC_STRUCT_RETURN
Define this macro to be 1 if all structure and union return values must be in memory. Since this results in slower code, this should be defined only if needed for compatibility with other compilers or with an ABI. If you define this macro to be 0, then the conventions used for structure and union return values are decided by the RETURN_IN_MEMORY macro.

If not defined, this defaults to the value 1.
STRUCT_VALUE_REGNUM
If the structure value address is passed in a register, then STRUCT_VALUE_REGNUM should be the number of that register.

STRUCT_VALUE
If the structure value address is not passed in a register, define STRUCT_VALUE as an expression returning an RTX for the place where the address is passed. If it returns 0, the address is passed as an “invisible” first argument.

STRUCT_VALUE_INCOMING_REGNUM
On some architectures the place where the structure value address is found by the called function is not the same place that the caller put it. This can be due to register windows, or it could be because the function prologue moves it to a different place.
If the incoming location of the structure value address is in a register, define this macro as the register number.

STRUCT_VALUE_INCOMING
If the incoming location is not a register, then you should define STRUCT_VALUE_INCOMING as an expression for an RTX for where the called function should find the value. If it should find the value on the stack, define this to create a mem which refers to the frame pointer. A definition of 0 means that the address is passed as an “invisible” first argument.

PCC_STATIC_STRUCT_RETURN
Define this macro if the usual system convention on the target machine for returning structures and unions is for the called function to return the address of a static variable containing the value.
Do not define this if the usual system convention is for the caller to pass an address to the subroutine.
This macro has effect in ‘-fpcc-struct-return’ mode, but it does nothing when you use ‘-freg-struct-return’ mode.

21.8.9 Caller-Saves Register Allocation
If you enable it, GCC can save registers around function calls. This makes it possible to use call-clobbered registers to hold variables that must live across calls.

DEFAULT_CALLER_SAVES
Define this macro if function calls on the target machine do not preserve any registers; in other words, if CALL_USED_REGISTERS has 1 for all registers. When defined, this macro enables ‘-fcaller-saves’ by default for all optimization levels. It has no effect for optimization levels 2 and higher, where ‘-fcaller-saves’ is the default.

CALLER_SAVE_PROFITABLE (refs, calls)
A C expression to determine whether it is worthwhile to consider placing a pseudo-register in a call-clobbered hard register and saving and restoring it around each function call. The expression should be 1 when this is worth doing, and 0 otherwise.
If you don’t define this macro, a default is used which is good on most machines: 4 * calls < refs.

HARD_REGNO_CALLER_SAVE_MODE (regno, nregs)
A C expression specifying which mode is required for saving nregs of a pseudo-register in call-clobbered hard register regno. If regno is unsuitable for caller save, VOIDmode should be returned. For most machines this macro need not be defined since GCC will select the smallest suitable mode.
21.8.10 Function Entry and Exit

This section describes the macros that output function entry (prologue) and exit (epilogue) code.

FUNCTION_PROLOGUE (file, size)
A C compound statement that outputs the assembler code for entry to a function. The prologue is responsible for setting up the stack frame, initializing the frame pointer register, saving registers that must be saved, and allocating size additional bytes of storage for the local variables. size is an integer. file is a stdio stream to which the assembler code should be output.

The label for the beginning of the function need not be output by this macro. That has already been done when the macro is run.

To determine which registers to save, the macro can refer to the array regs_ever_live: element r is nonzero if hard register r is used anywhere within the function. This implies the function prologue should save register r, provided it is not one of the call-used registers. (FUNCTION_EPILOGUE must likewise use regs_ever_live.)

On machines that have “register windows”, the function entry code does not save on the stack the registers that are in the windows, even if they are supposed to be preserved by function calls; instead it takes appropriate steps to “push” the register stack, if any non-call-used registers are used in the function.

On machines where functions may or may not have frame-pointers, the function entry code must vary accordingly; it must set up the frame pointer if one is wanted, and not otherwise. To determine whether a frame pointer is in wanted, the macro can refer to the variable frame_pointer_needed. The variable’s value will be 1 at run time in a function that needs a frame pointer. See Section 21.8.4 [Elimination], page 382.

The function entry code is responsible for allocating any stack space required for the function. This stack space consists of the regions listed below. In most cases, these regions are allocated in the order listed, with the last listed region closest to the top of the stack (the lowest address if STACK_GROWS_DOWNWARD is defined, and the highest address if it is not defined). You can use a different order for a machine if doing so is more convenient or required for compatibility reasons. Except in cases where required by standard or by a debugger, there is no reason why the stack layout used by GCC need agree with that used by other compilers for a machine.

- A region of current_function_pretend_args_size bytes of uninitialized space just underneath the first argument arriving on the stack. (This may not be at the very start of the allocated stack region if the calling sequence has pushed anything else since pushing the stack arguments. But usually, on such machines, nothing else has been pushed yet, because the function prologue itself does all the pushing.) This region is used on machines where an argument may be passed partly in registers and partly in memory, and, in some cases to support the features in `varargs.h` and `stdarg.h`.

- An area of memory used to save certain registers used by the function. The size of this area, which may also include space for such things as the return address and pointers to previous stack frames, is machine-specific and usually depends on which registers have been used in the function. Machines with register windows often do not require a save area.

- A region of at least size bytes, possibly rounded up to an allocation boundary, to contain the local variables of the function. On some machines, this region and the save area may occur in the opposite order, with the save area closer to the top of the stack.
Optionally, when `ACCUMULATE_OUTGOING_ARGS` is defined, a region of `current_function_outgoing_args_size` bytes to be used for outgoing argument lists of the function. See Section 21.8.5 [Stack Arguments], page 384.

Normally, it is necessary for the macros `FUNCTION_PROLOGUE` and `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` to treat leaf functions specially. The C variable `current_function_is_leaf` is nonzero for such a function.

`EXIT_IGNORE_STACK`
Define this macro as a C expression that is nonzero if the return instruction or the function epilogue ignores the value of the stack pointer; in other words, if it is safe to delete an instruction to adjust the stack pointer before a return from the function. Note that this macro’s value is relevant only for functions for which frame pointers are maintained. It is never safe to delete a final stack adjustment in a function that has no frame pointer, and the compiler knows this regardless of `EXIT_IGNORE_STACK`.

`EPILOGUEUSES (regno)`
Define this macro as a C expression that is nonzero for registers that are used by the epilogue or the ‘return’ pattern. The stack and frame pointer registers are already assumed to be used as needed.

`FUNCTION_EPILOGUE (file, size)`
A C compound statement that outputs the assembler code for exit from a function. The epilogue is responsible for restoring the saved registers and stack pointer to their values when the function was called, and returning control to the caller. This macro takes the same arguments as the macro `FUNCTION_PROLOGUE`, and the registers to restore are determined from `regs_ever_live` and `CALL_USED_REGISTERS` in the same way.

On some machines, there is a single instruction that does all the work of returning from the function. On these machines, give that instruction the name ‘return’ and do not define the macro `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` at all. Do not define a pattern named ‘return’ if you want the `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` to be used. If you want the target switches to control whether return instructions or epilogues are used, define a ‘return’ pattern with a validity condition that tests the target switches appropriately. If the ‘return’ pattern’s validity condition is false, epilogues will be used.

On machines where functions may or may not have frame-pointers, the function exit code must vary accordingly. Sometimes the code for these two cases is completely different. To determine whether a frame pointer is wanted, the macro can refer to the variable `frame_pointer_needed`. The variable’s value will be 1 when compiling a function that needs a frame pointer.

Normally, `FUNCTION_PROLOGUE` and `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` must treat leaf functions specially. The C variable `current_function_is_leaf` is nonzero for such a function. See Section 21.6.4 [Leaf Functions], page 370.

On some machines, some functions pop their arguments on exit while others leave that for the caller to do. For example, the 68020 when given ‘-mrt’d’ pops arguments in functions that take a fixed number of arguments.

Your definition of the macro `RETURN_POPS_ARGS` decides which functions pop their own arguments. `FUNCTION_EPILOGUE` needs to know what was decided. The variable that is called `current_function_pops_args` is the number of bytes of its arguments that a function should pop. See Section 21.8.7 [Scalar Return], page 389.

`DELAY_SLOTS_FOR_EPILOGUE`
Define this macro if the function epilogue contains delay slots to which instructions from the rest of the function can be “moved”. The definition should be a C expression whose value is an integer representing the number of delay slots there.
ELIGIBLE_FOR_EPILOGUE_DELAY (insn, n)

A C expression that returns 1 if insn can be placed in delay slot number n of the epilogue.

The argument n is an integer which identifies the delay slot now being considered (since different slots may have different rules of eligibility). It is never negative and is always less than the number of epilogue delay slots (what DELAY_SLOTS_FOR_EPILOGUE returns). If you reject a particular insn for a given delay slot, in principle, it may be reconsidered for a subsequent delay slot. Also, other insns may (at least in principle) be considered for the so far unfilled delay slot.

The insns accepted to fill the epilogue delay slots are put in an RTL list made with insn_list objects, stored in the variable current_function_epilogue_delay_list. The insn for the first delay slot comes first in the list. Your definition of the macro FUNCTION_EPILOGUE should fill the delay slots by outputting the insns in this list, usually by calling final_scan_insn.

You need not define this macro if you did not define DELAY_SLOTS_FOR_EPILOGUE.

ASM_OUTPUT_MI_THUNK (file, thunk_fndecl, delta, function)

A C compound statement that outputs the assembler code for a thunk function, used to implement C++ virtual function calls with multiple inheritance. The thunk acts as a wrapper around a virtual function, adjusting the implicit object parameter before handing control off to the real function.

First, emit code to add the integer delta to the location that contains the incoming first argument. Assume that this argument contains a pointer, and is the one used to pass the this pointer in C++. This is the incoming argument before the function prologue, e.g. ‘%o0’ on a sparc. The addition must preserve the values of all other incoming arguments.

After the addition, emit code to jump to function, which is a FUNCTION_DECL. This is a direct pure jump, not a call, and does not touch the return address. Hence returning from FUNCTION will return to whoever called the current ‘thunk’.

The effect must be as if function had been called directly with the adjusted first argument. This macro is responsible for emitting all of the code for a thunk function; FUNCTION_PROLOGUE and FUNCTION_EPILOGUE are not invoked.

The thunk_fndecl is redundant. (delta and function have already been extracted from it.) It might possibly be useful on some targets, but probably not.

If you do not define this macro, the target-independent code in the C++ front end will generate a less efficient heavyweight thunk that calls function instead of jumping to it. The generic approach does not support varargs.

21.8.11 Generating Code for Profiling

These macros will help you generate code for profiling.

FUNCTION_PROFILER (file, labelno)

A C statement or compound statement to output to file some assembler code to call the profiling subroutine mcount.

The details of how mcount expects to be called are determined by your operating system environment, not by GCC. To figure them out, compile a small program for profiling using the system’s installed C compiler and look at the assembler code that results.

Older implementations of mcount expect the address of a counter variable to be loaded into some register. The name of this variable is ‘LP’ followed by the number labelno, so you would generate the name using ‘LP%d’ in a fprintf.
**PROFILE_HOOK**

A C statement or compound statement to output to file some assembly code to call the profiling subroutine `mcount` even the target does not support profiling.

**NO_PROFILE_COUNTERS**

Define this macro if the `mcount` subroutine on your system does not need a counter variable allocated for each function. This is true for almost all modern implementations. If you define this macro, you must not use the `labelno` argument to `FUNCTION_PROFILER`.

**PROFILE_BEFORE_PROLOGUE**

Define this macro if the code for function profiling should come before the function prologue. Normally, the profiling code comes after.

**FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER** *(file, labelno)*

A C statement or compound statement to output to file some assembler code to initialize basic-block profiling for the current object module. The global compile flag `profile_block_flag` distinguishes two profile modes.

**profile_block_flag != 2**

Output code to call the subroutine `__bb_init_func` once per object module, passing it as its sole argument the address of a block allocated in the object module.

The name of the block is a local symbol made with this statement:

```
ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL (buffer, "LPBX", 0);
```

Of course, since you are writing the definition of `ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL` as well as that of this macro, you can take a short cut in the definition of this macro and use the name that you know will result.

The first word of this block is a flag which will be nonzero if the object module has already been initialized. So test this word first, and do not call `__bb_init_func` if the flag is nonzero. `BLOCK_OR_LABEL` contains a unique number which may be used to generate a label as a branch destination when `__bb_init_func` will not be called.

Described in assembler language, the code to be output looks like:

```
cmp (LPBX0),0
bne local_label
parameter1 <- LPBX0
call __bb_init_func
local_label:
```

**profile_block_flag == 2**

Output code to call the subroutine `__bb_init_trace_func` and pass two parameters to it. The first parameter is the same as for `__bb_init_func`. The second parameter is the number of the first basic block of the function as given by `BLOCK_OR_LABEL`. Note that `__bb_init_trace_func` has to be called, even if the object module has been initialized already.

Described in assembler language, the code to be output looks like:

```
parameter1 <- LPBX0
parameter2 <- BLOCK_OR_LABEL
call __bb_init_trace_func
```
BLOCK_PROFILER (file, blockno)

A C statement or compound statement to output to file some assembler code to increment the count associated with the basic block number blockno. The global compile flag profile_block_flag distinguishes two profile modes.

profile_block_flag != 2

Output code to increment the counter directly. Basic blocks are numbered separately from zero within each compilation. The count associated with block number blockno is at index blockno in a vector of words; the name of this array is a local symbol made with this statement:

ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL (buffer, "LPBX", 2);

Of course, since you are writing the definition of ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL as well as that of this macro, you can take a short cut in the definition of this macro and use the name that you know will result.

Described in assembler language, the code to be output looks like:

inc (LPBX2+4*BLOCKNO)

profile_block_flag == 2

Output code to initialize the global structure __bb and call the function __bb_trace_func, which will increment the counter.

__bb consists of two words. In the first word, the current basic block number, as given by BLOCKNO, has to be stored. In the second word, the address of a block allocated in the object module has to be stored. The address is given by the label created with this statement:

ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL (buffer, "LPBX", 0);

Described in assembler language, the code to be output looks like:

move BLOCKNO -> (__bb)
move LPBX0 -> (__bb+4)

FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER_EXIT (file)

A C statement or compound statement to output to file assembler code to call function __bb_trace_ret. The assembler code should only be output if the global compile flag profile_block_flag == 2. This macro has to be used at every place where code for returning from a function is generated (e.g. FUNCTION_EPILOGUE).

Although you have to write the definition of FUNCTION_EPILOGUE as well, you have to define this macro to tell the compiler, that the proper call to __bb_trace_ret is produced.

MACHINE_STATE_SAVE (id)

A C statement or compound statement to save all registers, which may be clobbered by a function call, including condition codes. The asm statement will be mostly likely needed to handle this task. Local labels in the assembler code can be concatenated with the string id, to obtain a unique label name.

Registers or condition codes clobbered by FUNCTION_PROLOGUE or FUNCTION_EPILOGUE must be saved in the macros FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER, FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER_EXIT and BLOCK_PROFILER prior calling __bb_init_trace_func, __bb_trace_ret and __bb_trace_func respectively.

MACHINE_STATE_RESTORE (id)

A C statement or compound statement to restore all registers, including condition codes, saved by MACHINE_STATE_SAVE.
Registers or condition codes clobbered by \texttt{FUNCTION_PROLOGUE} or \texttt{FUNCTION_EPILOGUE} must be restored in the macros \texttt{FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER}, \texttt{FUNCTION_BLOCK_PROFILER_EXIT} and \texttt{BLOCK_PROFILER} after calling \texttt{__bb_init_trace_func}, \texttt{__bb_trace_ret} and \texttt{__bb_trace_func} respectively.

\textbf{BLOCK_PROFILER_CODE}
A C function or functions which are needed in the library to support block profiling.

\textbf{TARGET_ALLOWS_PROFILING_WITHOUT_FRAME_POINTER}
On some targets, it is impossible to use profiling when the frame pointer has been omitted. For example, on x86 GNU/Linux systems, the \texttt{mcount} routine provided by the GNU C Library finds the address of the routine that called the routine that called \texttt{mcount} by looking in the immediate caller's stack frame. If the immediate caller has no frame pointer, this lookup will fail.

By default, GCC assumes that the target does allow profiling when the frame pointer is omitted. This macro should be defined to a C expression that evaluates to \texttt{false} if the target does not allow profiling when the frame pointer is omitted.

\subsection{Permitting inlining of functions with attributes}
By default if a function has a target specific attribute attached to it, it will not be inlined. This behaviour can be overridden if the target defines the ‘\texttt{FUNCTION_ATTRIBUTE_INLINABLE_P}’ macro. This macro takes one argument, a ‘\texttt{DECL}’ describing the function. It should return non-zero if the function can be inlined, otherwise it should return 0.

\subsection{Permitting tail calls to functions}

\textbf{FUNCTION_OK_FOR_SIBCALL} (\texttt{decl})
A C expression that evaluates to true if it is ok to perform a sibling call to \texttt{decl}.

It is not uncommon for limitations of calling conventions to prevent tail calls to functions outside the current unit of translation, or during PIC compilation. Use this macro to enforce these restrictions, as the \texttt{sibcall} nd pattern can not fail, or fall over to a “normal” call.

\subsection{Implementing the Varargs Macros}
GCC comes with an implementation of ‘\texttt{varargs.h}’ and ‘\texttt{stdarg.h}’ that work without change on machines that pass arguments on the stack. Other machines require their own implementations of varargs, and the two machine independent header files must have conditionals to include it.

ISO ‘\texttt{stdarg.h}’ differs from traditional ‘\texttt{varargs.h}’ mainly in the calling convention for \texttt{va_start}. The traditional implementation takes just one argument, which is the variable in which to store the argument pointer. The ISO implementation of \texttt{va_start} takes an additional second argument. The user is supposed to write the last named argument of the function here.

However, \texttt{va_start} should not use this argument. The way to find the end of the named arguments is with the built-in functions described below.

\texttt{__builtin_savereg()} 
Use this built-in function to save the argument registers in memory so that the varargs mechanism can access them. Both ISO and traditional versions of \texttt{va_start} must use \texttt{__builtin_savereg()}, unless you use \texttt{SETUP_INCOMING_VARARGS} (see below) instead.
On some machines, `__builtin_saveregs` is open-coded under the control of the macro `EXPAND_BUILTIN_SAVEREGS`. On other machines, it calls a routine written in assembler language, found in `libgcc2.c`.

Code generated for the call to `__builtin_saveregs` appears at the beginning of the function, as opposed to where the call to `__builtin_saveregs` is written, regardless of what the code is. This is because the registers must be saved before the function starts to use them for its own purposes.

`__builtin_args_info (category)`

Use this built-in function to find the first anonymous arguments in registers.

In general, a machine may have several categories of registers used for arguments, each for a particular category of data types. (For example, on some machines, floating-point registers are used for floating-point arguments while other arguments are passed in the general registers.) To make non-varargs functions use the proper calling convention, you have defined the `CUMULATIVE_ARGS` data type to record how many registers in each category have been used so far.

`__builtin_args_info` accesses the same data structure of type `CUMULATIVE_ARGS` after the ordinary argument layout is finished with it, with `category` specifying which word to access. Thus, the value indicates the first unused register in a given category.

Normally, you would use `__builtin_args_info` in the implementation of `va_start`, accessing each category just once and storing the value in the `va_list` object. This is because `va_list` will have to update the values, and there is no way to alter the values accessed by `__builtin_args_info`.

`__builtin_next_arg (lastarg)`

This is the equivalent of `__builtin_args_info`, for stack arguments. It returns the address of the first anonymous stack argument, as type `void *`. If `ARGS_GROW_DOWNWARD`, it returns the address of the location above the first anonymous stack argument. Use it in `va_start` to initialize the pointer for fetching arguments from the stack. Also use it in `va_start` to verify that the second parameter `lastarg` is the last named argument of the current function.

`__builtin_classify_type (object)`

Since each machine has its own conventions for which data types are passed in which kind of register, your implementation of `va_arg` has to embody these conventions. The easiest way to categorize the specified data type is to use `__builtin_classify_type` together with `sizeof` and `__alignof__`.

`__builtin_classify_type` ignores the value of `object`, considering only its data type. It returns an integer describing what kind of type that is—integer, floating, pointer, structure, and so on.

The file `‘typeclass.h’` defines an enumeration that you can use to interpret the values of `__builtin_classify_type`.

These machine description macros help implement varargs:

`EXPAND_BUILTIN_SAVEREGS ()`

If defined, is a C expression that produces the machine-specific code for a call to `__builtin_saveregs`. This code will be moved to the very beginning of the function, before any parameter access are made. The return value of this function should be an RTX that contains the value to use as the return of `__builtin_saveregs`.

`SETUP_INCOMING_VARARGS (args_so_far, mode, type, pretend_args_size, second_time)`

This macro offers an alternative to using `__builtin_saveregs` and defining the macro `EXPAND_BUILTIN_SAVEREGS`. Use it to store the anonymous register argu-
ments into the stack so that all the arguments appear to have been passed consecu-
tively on the stack. Once this is done, you can use the standard implementation of
varargs that works for machines that pass all their arguments on the stack.
The argument args_so_far is the CUMULATIVE_ARGS data structure, containing the
values that are obtained after processing the named arguments. The arguments
mode and type describe the last named argument—its machine mode and its data
type as a tree node.
The macro implementation should do two things: first, push onto the stack all the
argument registers not used for the named arguments, and second, store the size of
the data thus pushed into the int-valued variable whose name is supplied as the
argument pretend_args_size. The value that you store here will serve as additional
offset for setting up the stack frame.
Because you must generate code to push the anonymous arguments at compile
time without knowing their data types, SETUP_INCOMING_VARARGS is only useful on
machines that have just a single category of argument register and use it uniformly
for all data types.
If the argument second_time is nonzero, it means that the arguments of the function
are being analyzed for the second time. This happens for an inline function, which is
not actually compiled until the end of the source file. The macro SETUP_INCOMING_
VARARGS should not generate any instructions in this case.

STRICT_ARGUMENT_NAMING
Define this macro to be a nonzero value if the location where a function argument
is passed depends on whether or not it is a named argument.
This macro controls how the named argument to FUNCTION_ARG is set for varargs
and stdarg functions. If this macro returns a nonzero value, the named argument is
always true for named arguments, and false for unnamed arguments. If it returns
a value of zero, but SETUP_INCOMING_VARARGS is defined, then all arguments are
treated as named. Otherwise, all named arguments except the last are treated as
named.
You need not define this macro if it always returns zero.

PRETEND_OUTGOING_VARARGS_NAMED
If you need to conditionally change ABIs so that one works with SETUP_INCOMING_
VARARGS, but the other works like neither SETUP_INCOMING_VARARGS nor STRICT_
ARGUMENT_NAMING was defined, then define this macro to return nonzero if SETUP_
INCOMING_VARARGS is used, zero otherwise. Otherwise, you should not define this
macro.

21.10 Trampolines for Nested Functions

A trampoline is a small piece of code that is created at run time when the address of a nested
function is taken. It normally resides on the stack, in the stack frame of the containing function.
These macros tell GCC how to generate code to allocate and initialize a trampoline.
The instructions in the trampoline must do two things: load a constant address into the
static chain register, and jump to the real address of the nested function. On CISC machines
such as the m68k, this requires two instructions, a move immediate and a jump. Then the two
addresses exist in the trampoline as word-long immediate operands. On RISC machines, it is
often necessary to load each address into a register in two parts. Then pieces of each address
form separate immediate operands.
The code generated to initialize the trampoline must store the variable parts—the static
chain value and the function address—into the immediate operands of the instructions. On a
CISC machine, this is simply a matter of copying each address to a memory reference at the
proper offset from the start of the trampoline. On a RISC machine, it may be necessary to take out pieces of the address and store them separately.

**TRAMPOLINE_TEMPLATE** *(file)*

A C statement to output, on the stream *file*, assembler code for a block of data that contains the constant parts of a trampoline. This code should not include a label—the label is taken care of automatically.

If you do not define this macro, it means no template is needed for the target. Do not define this macro on systems where the block move code to copy the trampoline into place would be larger than the code to generate it on the spot.

**TRAMPOLINE_SECTION**

The name of a subroutine to switch to the section in which the trampoline template is to be placed (see Section 21.15 [Sections], page 413). The default is a value of ‘readonly_data_section’, which places the trampoline in the section containing read-only data.

**TRAMPOLINE_SIZE**

A C expression for the size in bytes of the trampoline, as an integer.

**TRAMPOLINE_ALIGNMENT**

Alignment required for trampolines, in bits.

If you don’t define this macro, the value of **BIGGEST_ALIGNMENT** is used for aligning trampolines.

**INITIALIZE_TRAMPOLINE** *(addr, fnaddr, static_chain)*

A C statement to initialize the variable parts of a trampoline. *addr* is an RTX for the address of the trampoline; *fnaddr* is an RTX for the address of the nested function; *static_chain* is an RTX for the static chain value that should be passed to the function when it is called.

**TRAMPOLINE_ADJUST_ADDRESS** *(addr)*

A C statement that should perform any machine-specific adjustment in the address of the trampoline. Its argument contains the address that was passed to **INITIALIZE_TRAMPOLINE**. In case the address to be used for a function call should be different from the address in which the template was stored, the different address should be assigned to *addr*. If this macro is not defined, *addr* will be used for function calls.

**ALLOCATE_TRAMPOLINE** *(fp)*

A C expression to allocate run-time space for a trampoline. The expression value should be an RTX representing a memory reference to the space for the trampoline.

If this macro is not defined, by default the trampoline is allocated as a stack slot. This default is right for most machines. The exceptions are machines where it is impossible to execute instructions in the stack area. On such machines, you may have to implement a separate stack, using this macro in conjunction with **FUNCTION_PROLOGUE** and **FUNCTION_EPILOGUE**.

*fp* points to a data structure, a *struct function*, which describes the compilation status of the immediate containing function of the function which the trampoline is for. Normally (when **ALLOCATE_TRAMPOLINE** is not defined), the stack slot for the trampoline is in the stack frame of this containing function. Other allocation strategies probably must do something analogous with this information.

Implementing trampolines is difficult on many machines because they have separate instruction and data caches. Writing into a stack location fails to clear the memory in the instruction cache, so when the program jumps to that location, it executes the old contents.
Here are two possible solutions. One is to clear the relevant parts of the instruction cache whenever a trampoline is set up. The other is to make all trampolines identical, by having them jump to a standard subroutine. The former technique makes trampoline execution faster; the latter makes initialization faster.

To clear the instruction cache when a trampoline is initialized, define the following macros which describe the shape of the cache.

**INSN_CACHE_SIZE**  
The total size in bytes of the cache.

**INSN_CACHE_LINE_WIDTH**  
The length in bytes of each cache line. The cache is divided into cache lines which are disjoint slots, each holding a contiguous chunk of data fetched from memory. Each time data is brought into the cache, an entire line is read at once. The data loaded into a cache line is always aligned on a boundary equal to the line size.

**INSN_CACHE_DEPTH**  
The number of alternative cache lines that can hold any particular memory location.

Alternatively, if the machine has system calls or instructions to clear the instruction cache directly, you can define the following macro.

**CLEAR_INSN_CACHE (BEG, END)**  
If defined, expands to a C expression clearing the instruction cache in the specified interval. If it is not defined, and the macro INSN_CACHE_SIZE is defined, some generic code is generated to clear the cache. The definition of this macro would typically be a series of `asm` statements. Both BEG and END are both pointer expressions.

To use a standard subroutine, define the following macro. In addition, you must make sure that the instructions in a trampoline fill an entire cache line with identical instructions, or else ensure that the beginning of the trampoline code is always aligned at the same point in its cache line. Look in `m68k.h` as a guide.

**TRANSFER_FROM_TRAMPOLINE**  
Define this macro if trampolines need a special subroutine to do their work. The macro should expand to a series of `asm` statements which will be compiled with GCC. They go in a library function named `__transfer_from_trampoline`.

If you need to avoid executing the ordinary prologue code of a compiled C function when you jump to the subroutine, you can do so by placing a special label of your own in the assembler code. Use one `asm` statement to generate an assembler label, and another to make the label global. Then trampolines can use that label to jump directly to your special assembler code.

### 21.11 Implicit Calls to Library Routines

Here is an explanation of implicit calls to library routines.

**MULSNI3_LIBCALL**  
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for multiplication of one signed full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is used, which is `__mulsi3`, a function defined in `libgcc.a`.

**DIVSNI3_LIBCALL**  
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for division of one signed full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is used, which is `__divsi3`, a function defined in `libgcc.a`. 
UDIVSI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for division of one
unsigned full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is
used, which is __udivsi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

MODSI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for the remainder in
division of one signed full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the
default name is used, which is __modsi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

UMODSI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for the remainder in
division of one unsigned full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the
default name is used, which is __umodsi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

MULDI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for multiplication of one
signed double-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is
used, which is __muli3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

DIVDI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for division of one signed
double-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is used,
which is __divdi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

UDIVDI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for division of one
unsigned full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the default name is
used, which is __udivdi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

MODDI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for the remainder in
division of one signed double-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the
default name is used, which is __moddi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

UMODDI3_LIBCALL
A C string constant giving the name of the function to call for the remainder in
division of one unsigned full-word by another. If you do not define this macro, the
default name is used, which is __umoddi3, a function defined in ‘libgcc.a’.

INIT_TARGET_OPTABS
Define this macro as a C statement that declares additional library routines renames
existing ones. init_optabs calls this macro after initializing all the normal library
routines.

FLOAT_LIB_COMPARE_RETURNS_BOOL
Define this macro as a C statement that returns nonzero if a call to the floating point
comparison library function will return a boolean value that indicates the result of
the comparison. It should return zero if one of gcc’s own libgcc functions is called.
Most ports don’t need to define this macro.

TARGET_EDOM
The value of EDOM on the target machine, as a C integer constant expression. If you
do not define this macro, GCC does not attempt to deposit the value of EDOM into
errno directly. Look in ‘/usr/include/errno.h’ to find the value of EDOM on your
system.

If you do not define TARGET_EDOM, then compiled code reports domain errors by
calling the library function and letting it report the error. If mathematical functions
on your system use `matherr` when there is an error, then you should leave `TARGET_EDOM` undefined so that `matherr` is used normally.

**GEN_ERRNO_RTX**
Define this macro as a C expression to create an rtl expression that refers to the global "variable" `errno`. (On certain systems, `errno` may not actually be a variable.) If you don’t define this macro, a reasonable default is used.

**TARGET_MEM_FUNCTIONS**
Define this macro if GCC should generate calls to the ISO C (and System V) library functions `memcpy`, `memmove` and `memset` rather than the BSD functions `bcopy` and `bzero`.

**LIBGCC_NEEDS_DOUBLE**
Define this macro if only `float` arguments cannot be passed to library routines (so they must be converted to `double`). This macro affects both how library calls are generated and how the library routines in `libgcc1.c` accept their arguments. It is useful on machines where floating and fixed point arguments are passed differently, such as the i860.

**FLOAT_ARG_TYPE**
Define this macro to override the type used by the library routines to pick up arguments of type `float`. (By default, they use a union of `float` and `int`.) The obvious choice would be `float`—but that won’t work with traditional C compilers that expect all arguments declared as `float` to arrive as `double`. To avoid this conversion, the library routines ask for the value as some other type and then treat it as a `float`. On some systems, no other type will work for this. For these systems, you must use `LIBGCC_NEEDS_DOUBLE` instead, to force conversion of the values `double` before they are passed.

**FLOATIFY (passed-value)**
Define this macro to override the way library routines redesignate a `float` argument as a `float` instead of the type it was passed as. The default is an expression which takes the `float` field of the union.

**FLOAT_VALUE_TYPE**
Define this macro to override the type used by the library routines to return values that ought to have type `float`. (By default, they use `int`.) The obvious choice would be `float`—but that won’t work with traditional C compilers gratuitously convert values declared as `float` into `double`. These values can’t be returned as type `float` because traditional C compilers would gratuitously convert the value to a `double`. A local variable named `intify` is always available when the macro `INTIFY` is used. It is a union of a `float` field named `f` and a field named `i` whose type is `FLOAT_VALUE_TYPE` or `int`. If you don’t define this macro, the default definition works by copying the value through that union.

**nongcc_SI_type**
Define this macro as the name of the data type corresponding to `SImode` in the system’s own C compiler.
You need not define this macro if that type is `long int`, as it usually is.

**nongcc_word_type**

Define this macro as the name of the data type corresponding to the word_mode in the system’s own C compiler.

You need not define this macro if that type is `long int`, as it usually is.

**perform_...**

Define these macros to supply explicit C statements to carry out various arithmetic operations on types `float` and `double` in the library routines in ‘libgcc1.c’. See that file for a full list of these macros and their arguments.

On most machines, you don’t need to define any of these macros, because the C compiler that comes with the system takes care of doing them.

**NEXT_OBJC_RUNTIME**

Define this macro to generate code for Objective C message sending using the calling convention of the NeXT system. This calling convention involves passing the object, the selector and the method arguments all at once to the method-lookup library function.

The default calling convention passes just the object and the selector to the lookup function, which returns a pointer to the method.

### 21.12 Addressing Modes

This is about addressing modes.

**HAVE_PRE_INCREMENT**

**HAVE_PRE_DECREMENT**

**HAVE_POST_INCREMENT**

**HAVE_POST_DECREMENT**

A C expression that is non-zero if the machine supports pre-increment, pre-decrement, post-increment, or post-decrement addressing respectively.

**HAVE_PRE_MODIFY_DISP**

**HAVE_POST_MODIFY_DISP**

A C expression that is non-zero if the machine supports pre- or post-address side-effect generation involving constants other than the size of the memory operand.

**HAVE_PRE_MODIFY_REG**

**HAVE_POST_MODIFY_REG**

A C expression that is non-zero if the machine supports pre- or post-address side-effect generation involving a register displacement.

**CONSTANT_ADDRESS_P (x)**

A C expression that is 1 if the RTX x is a constant which is a valid address. On most machines, this can be defined as `CONSTANT_P (x)`, but a few machines are more restrictive in which constant addresses are supported.

`CONSTANT_P` accepts integer-values expressions whose values are not explicitly known, such as `symbol_ref`, `label_ref`, and `high` expressions and `const` arithmetic expressions, in addition to `const_int` and `const_double` expressions.

**MAX_REGS_PER_ADDRESS**

A number, the maximum number of registers that can appear in a valid memory address. Note that it is up to you to specify a value equal to the maximum number that `GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS` would ever accept.
GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS (mode, x, label)

A C compound statement with a conditional goto label; executed if x (an RTX) is a legitimate memory address on the target machine for a memory operand of mode mode.

It usually pays to define several simpler macros to serve as subroutines for this one. Otherwise it may be too complicated to understand.

This macro must exist in two variants: a strict variant and a non-strict one. The strict variant is used in the reload pass. It must be defined so that any pseudo-register that has not been allocated a hard register is considered a memory reference. In contexts where some kind of register is required, a pseudo-register with no hard register must be rejected.

The non-strict variant is used in other passes. It must be defined to accept all pseudo-registers in every context where some kind of register is required.

Compiler source files that want to use the strict variant of this macro define the macro REG_OK_STRICT. You should use an #ifdef REG_OK_STRICT conditional to define the strict variant in that case and the non-strict variant otherwise.

Subroutines to check for acceptable registers for various purposes (one for base registers, one for index registers, and so on) are typically among the subroutines used to define GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS. Then only these subroutine macros need have two variants; the higher levels of macros may be the same whether strict or not.

Normally, constant addresses which are the sum of a symbol_ref and an integer are stored inside a const RTX to mark them as constant. Therefore, there is no need to recognize such sums specifically as legitimate addresses. Normally you would simply recognize any const as legitimate.

Usually PRINT_OPERAND_ADDRESS is not prepared to handle constant sums that are not marked with const. It assumes that a naked plus indicates indexing. If so, then you must reject such naked constant sums as illegitimate addresses, so that none of them will be given to PRINT_OPERAND_ADDRESS.

On some machines, whether a symbolic address is legitimate depends on the section that the address refers to. On these machines, define the macro ENCODE_SECTION_INFO to store the information into the symbol_ref, and then check for it here. When you see a const, you will have to look inside it to find the symbol_ref in order to determine the section. See Section 21.17 [Assembler Format], page 416.

The best way to modify the name string is by adding text to the beginning, with suitable punctuation to prevent any ambiguity. Allocate the new name in saveable_obstack. You will have to modify ASM_OUTPUT_LABELREF to remove and decode the added text and output the name accordingly, and define STRIP_NAME_ENCODING to access the original name string.

You can check the information stored here into the symbol_ref in the definitions of the macros GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS and PRINT_OPERAND_ADDRESS.

REG_OK_FOR_BASE_P (x)

A C expression that is nonzero if x (assumed to be a reg RTX) is valid for use as a base register. For hard registers, it should always accept those which the hardware permits and reject the others. Whether the macro accepts or rejects pseudo registers must be controlled by REG_OK_STRICT as described above. This usually requires two variant definitions, of which REG_OK_STRICT controls the one actually used.

REG_MODE_OK_FOR_BASE_P (x, mode)

A C expression that is just like REG_OK_FOR_BASE_P, except that that expression may examine the mode of the memory reference in mode. You should define this macro if the mode of the memory reference affects whether a register may be used.
as a base register. If you define this macro, the compiler will use it instead of `REG_OK_FOR_BASE_P`.

`REG_OK_FOR_INDEX_P (x)`  
A C expression that is nonzero if `x` (assumed to be a `reg RTX`) is valid for use as an index register.

The difference between an index register and a base register is that the index register may be scaled. If an address involves the sum of two registers, neither one of them scaled, then either one may be labeled the “base” and the other the “index”; but whichever labeling is used must fit the machine’s constraints of which registers may serve in each capacity. The compiler will try both labelings, looking for one that is valid, and will reload one or both registers only if neither labeling works.

`FIND_BASE_TERM (x)`  
A C expression to determine the base term of address `x`. This macro is used in only one place: ‘find_base_term’ in alias.c.

It is always safe for this macro to not be defined. It exists so that alias analysis can understand machine-dependent addresses.

The typical use of this macro is to handle addresses containing a label_ref or symbol_ref within an UNSPEC.

`LEGITIMIZE_ADDRESS (x, oldx, mode, win)`  
A C compound statement that attempts to replace `x` with a valid memory address for an operand of mode `mode`. `win` will be a C statement label elsewhere in the code; the macro definition may use

```c
GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS (mode, x, win);
```
to avoid further processing if the address has become legitimate.

`x` will always be the result of a call to `break_out_memory_refs`, and `oldx` will be the operand that was given to that function to produce `x`.

The code generated by this macro should not alter the substructure of `x`. If it transforms `x` into a more legitimate form, it should assign `x` (which will always be a C variable) a new value.

It is not necessary for this macro to come up with a legitimate address. The compiler has standard ways of doing so in all cases. In fact, it is safe for this macro to do nothing. But often a machine-dependent strategy can generate better code.

`LEGITIMIZE_RELOAD_ADDRESS (x, mode, opnum, type, ind_levels, win)`  
A C compound statement that attempts to replace `x`, which is an address that needs reloading, with a valid memory address for an operand of mode `mode`. `win` will be a C statement label elsewhere in the code. It is not necessary to define this macro, but it might be useful for performance reasons.

For example, on the i386, it is sometimes possible to use a single reload register instead of two by reloading a sum of two pseudo registers into a register. On the other hand, for number of RISC processors offsets are limited so that often an intermediate address needs to be generated in order to address a stack slot. By defining `LEGITIMIZE_RELOAD_ADDRESS` appropriately, the intermediate addresses generated for adjacent some stack slots can be made identical, and thus be shared.

**Note:** This macro must be able to reload an address created by a previous invocation of this macro. If it fails to handle such addresses then the compiler may generate incorrect code or abort.
The macro definition should use `push_reload` to indicate parts that need reloading; `opnum`, `type` and `ind_levels` are usually suitable to be passed unaltered to `push_reload`.

The code generated by this macro must not alter the substructure of `x`. If it transforms `x` into a more legitimate form, it should assign `x` (which will always be a C variable) a new value. This also applies to parts that you change indirectly by calling `push_reload`.

The macro definition may use `strict_memory_address_p` to test if the address has become legitimate.

If you want to change only a part of `x`, one standard way of doing this is to use `copy_rtx`. Note, however, that it unshares only a single level of rtl. Thus, if the part to be changed is not at the top level, you’ll need to replace first the top level. It is not necessary for this macro to come up with a legitimate address; but often a machine-dependent strategy can generate better code.

```c
GO_IF_MODE_DEPENDENT_ADDRESS (addr, label)
```

A C statement or compound statement with a conditional `goto label`; executed if memory address `x` (an RTX) can have different meanings depending on the machine mode of the memory reference it is used for or if the address is valid for some modes but not others.

Autoincrement and autodecrement addresses typically have mode-dependent effects because the amount of the increment or decrement is the size of the operand being addressed. Some machines have other mode-dependent addresses. Many RISC machines have no mode-dependent addresses.

You may assume that `addr` is a valid address for the machine.

```c
LEGITIMATE_CONSTANT_P (x)
```

A C expression that is nonzero if `x` is a legitimate constant for an immediate operand on the target machine. You can assume that `x` satisfies `CONSTANT_P`, so you need not check this. In fact, `'1'` is a suitable definition for this macro on machines where anything `CONSTANT_P` is valid.

### 21.13 Condition Code Status

This describes the condition code status.

The file `conditions.h` defines a variable `cc_status` to describe how the condition code was computed (in case the interpretation of the condition code depends on the instruction that it was set by). This variable contains the RTL expressions on which the condition code is currently based, and several standard flags.

Sometimes additional machine-specific flags must be defined in the machine description header file. It can also add additional machine-specific information by defining `CC_STATUS_MDEP`.

```c
CC_STATUS_MDEP
```

C code for a data type which is used for declaring the `mdep` component of `cc_status`. It defaults to `int`.

This macro is not used on machines that do not use `cc0`.

```c
CC_STATUS_MDEP_INIT
```

A C expression to initialize the `mdep` field to “empty”. The default definition does nothing, since most machines don’t use the field anyway. If you want to use the field, you should probably define this macro to initialize it.

This macro is not used on machines that do not use `cc0`. 

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NOTICE_UPDATE_CC (exp, insn)

A C compound statement to set the components of cc_status appropriately for an insn insn whose body is exp. It is this macro’s responsibility to recognize insns that set the condition code as a byproduct of other activity as well as those that explicitly set (cc0).

This macro is not used on machines that do not use cc0.

If there are insns that do not set the condition code but do alter other machine registers, this macro must check to see whether they invalidate the expressions that the condition code is recorded as reflecting. For example, on the 68000, insns that store in address registers do not set the condition code, which means that usually NOTICE_UPDATE_CC can leave cc_status unaltered for such insns. But suppose that the previous insn set the condition code based on location ‘a4@102’ and the current insn stores a new value in ‘a4’. Although the condition code is not changed by this, it will no longer be true that it reflects the contents of ‘a4@102’. Therefore, NOTICE_UPDATE_CC must alter cc_status in this case to say that nothing is known about the condition code value.

The definition of NOTICE_UPDATE_CC must be prepared to deal with the results of peephole optimization: insns whose patterns are parallel RTXs containing various reg, mem or constants which are just the operands. The RTL structure of these insns is not sufficient to indicate what the insns actually do. What NOTICE_UPDATE_CC should do when it sees one is just to run CC_STATUS_INIT.

A possible definition of NOTICE_UPDATE_CC is to call a function that looks at an attribute (see Section 20.17 [Insn Attributes], page 336) named, for example, ‘cc’. This avoids having detailed information about patterns in two places, the ‘md’ file and in NOTICE_UPDATE_CC.

EXTRA_CC_MODES

A list of additional modes for condition code values in registers (see Section 20.11 [Jump Patterns], page 323). This macro should expand to a sequence of calls of the macro CC separated by white space. CC takes two arguments. The first is the enumeration name of the mode, which should begin with ‘CC’ and end with ‘mode’. The second is a C string giving the printable name of the mode; it should be the same as the first argument, but with the trailing ‘mode’ removed.

You should only define this macro if additional modes are required.

A sample definition of EXTRA_CC_MODES is:

```
#define EXTRA_CC_MODES
   CC(CC_NOOVmode, "CC_NOOV")
   CC(CCFPmode, "CCFP")
   CC(CCFPEmode, "CCFPE")
```

SELECT_CC_MODE (op, x, y)

Returns a mode from class MODE_CC to be used when comparison operation code op is applied to rtx x and y. For example, on the Sparc, SELECT_CC_MODE is defined as (see see Section 20.11 [Jump Patterns], page 323 for a description of the reason for this definition)

```
#define SELECT_CC_MODE(OP,X,Y) 
   (GET_MODE_CLASS (GET_MODE (X)) == MODE_FLOAT 
   ? ((OP == EQ || OP == NE) ? CCFPmode : CCFPEmode) 
     : ((GET_CODE (X) == PLUS || GET_CODE (X) == MINUS
       || GET_CODE (X) == NEG) 
       ? CC_NOOVmode : CCmode))
```

You need not define this macro if EXTRA_CC_MODES is not defined.
CANONICALIZE_COMPARISON (code, op0, op1)
On some machines not all possible comparisons are defined, but you can convert an invalid comparison into a valid one. For example, the Alpha does not have a GT comparison, but you can use an LT comparison instead and swap the order of the operands.
On such machines, define this macro to be a C statement to do any required conversions. code is the initial comparison code and op0 and op1 are the left and right operands of the comparison, respectively. You should modify code, op0, and op1 as required.
GCC will not assume that the comparison resulting from this macro is valid but will see if the resulting insn matches a pattern in the ‘md’ file.
You need not define this macro if it would never change the comparison code or operands.

REVERSIBLE_CC_MODE (mode)
A C expression whose value is one if it is always safe to reverse a comparison whose mode is mode. If SELECT_CC_MODE can ever return mode for a floating-point inequality comparison, then REVERSIBLE_CC_MODE (mode) must be zero.
You need not define this macro if it would always returns zero or if the floating-point format is anything other than IEEE_FLOAT_FORMAT. For example, here is the definition used on the Sparc, where floating-point inequality comparisons are always given CCFPEmode:

```c
#define REVERSIBLE_CC_MODE(MODE) ((MODE) != CCFPEmode)
```

A C expression whose value is reversed condition code of the code for comparison done in CC_MODE mode. The macro is used only in case REVERSIBLE_CC_MODE (mode) is nonzero. Define this macro in case machine has some non-standard way how to reverse certain conditionals. For instance in case all floating point conditions are non-trapping, compiler may freely convert unordered compares to ordered one. Then definition may look like:

```c
#define REVERSE_CONDITION(CODE, MODE) \
((MODE) != CCFPmode ? reverse_condition (CODE) \
 : reverse_condition_maybe_unordered (CODE))
```

21.14 Describing Relative Costs of Operations
These macros let you describe the relative speed of various operations on the target machine.

CONST_COSTS (x, code, outer_code)
A part of a C switch statement that describes the relative costs of constant RTL expressions. It must contain case labels for expression codes const_int, const, symbol_ref, label_ref and const_double. Each case must ultimately reach a return statement to return the relative cost of the use of that kind of constant value in an expression. The cost may depend on the precise value of the constant, which is available for examination in x, and the rtx code of the expression in which it is contained, found in outer_code.
code is the expression code—redundant, since it can be obtained with GET_CODE (x).

RTX_COSTS (x, code, outer_code)
Like CONST_COSTS but applies to nonconstant RTL expressions. This can be used, for example, to indicate how costly a multiply instruction is. In writing this macro, you can use the construct COSTS_N_INSNS (n) to specify a cost equal to n fast instructions. outer_code is the code of the expression in which x is contained.
This macro is optional; do not define it if the default cost assumptions are adequate for the target machine.

**DEFAULT_RTX_COSTS (x, code, outer_code)**
This macro, if defined, is called for any case not handled by the `RTX_COSTS` or `CONST_COSTS` macros. This eliminates the need to put case labels into the macro, but the code, or any functions it calls, must assume that the RTL in x could be of any type that has not already been handled. The arguments are the same as for `RTX_COSTS`, and the macro should execute a return statement giving the cost of any RTL expressions that it can handle. The default cost calculation is used for any RTL for which this macro does not return a value.

This macro is optional; do not define it if the default cost assumptions are adequate for the target machine.

**ADDRESS_COST (address)**
An expression giving the cost of an addressing mode that contains `address`. If not defined, the cost is computed from the `address` expression and the `CONST_COSTS` values.

For most CISC machines, the default cost is a good approximation of the true cost of the addressing mode. However, on RISC machines, all instructions normally have the same length and execution time. Hence all addresses will have equal costs.

In cases where more than one form of an address is known, the form with the lowest cost will be used. If multiple forms have the same, lowest, cost, the one that is the most complex will be used.

For example, suppose an address that is equal to the sum of a register and a constant is used twice in the same basic block. When this macro is not defined, the address will be computed in a register and memory references will be indirect through that register. On machines where the cost of the addressing mode containing the sum is no higher than that of a simple indirect reference, this will produce an additional instruction and possibly require an additional register. Proper specification of this macro eliminates this overhead for such machines.

Similar use of this macro is made in strength reduction of loops.

`address` need not be valid as an address. In such a case, the cost is not relevant and can be any value; invalid addresses need not be assigned a different cost.

On machines where an address involving more than one register is as cheap as an address computation involving only one register, defining `ADDRESS_COST` to reflect this can cause two registers to be live over a region of code where only one would have been if `ADDRESS_COST` were not defined in that manner. This effect should be considered in the definition of this macro. Equivalent costs should probably only be given to addresses with different numbers of registers on machines with lots of registers.

This macro will normally either not be defined or be defined as a constant.

**REGISTER_MOVE_COST (mode, from, to)**
A C expression for the cost of moving data of mode `mode` from a register in class `from` to one in class `to`. The classes are expressed using the enumeration values such as `GENERAL_REGS`. A value of 2 is the default; other values are interpreted relative to that.

It is not required that the cost always equal 2 when `from` is the same as `to`; on some machines it is expensive to move between registers if they are not general registers.

If reload sees an insn consisting of a single `set` between two hard registers, and if `REGISTER_MOVE_COST` applied to their classes returns a value of 2, reload does not check to ensure that the constraints of the insn are met. Setting a cost of other than
2 will allow reload to verify that the constraints are met. You should do this if the
‘movm’ pattern’s constraints do not allow such copying.

\textbf{MEMORY\_MOVE\_COST} \((mode, \text{class}, in)\)

A C expression for the cost of moving data of mode \textit{mode} between a register of class
\textit{class} and memory: \textit{in} is zero if the value is to be written to memory, non-zero if it
is to be read in. This cost is relative to those in \textbf{REGISTER\_MOVE\_COST}. If moving
between registers and memory is more expensive than between two registers, you
should define this macro to express the relative cost.

If you do not define this macro, GCC uses a default cost of 4 plus the cost of
copying via a secondary reload register, if one is needed. If your machine requires
a secondary reload register to copy between memory and a register of \textit{class} but the
reload mechanism is more complex than copying via an intermediate, define this
macro to reflect the actual cost of the move.

GCC defines the function \textit{memory\_move\_secondary\_cost} if secondary reloads are
needed. It computes the costs due to copying via a secondary register. If your
machine copies from memory using a secondary register in the conventional way but
the default base value of 4 is not correct for your machine, define this macro to add
some other value to the result of that function. The arguments to that function are
the same as to this macro.

\textbf{BRANCH\_COST}

A C expression for the cost of a branch instruction. A value of 1 is the default;
other values are interpreted relative to that.

Here are additional macros which do not specify precise relative costs, but only that certain
actions are more expensive than GCC would ordinarily expect.

\textbf{SLOW\_BYTE\_ACCESS}

Define this macro as a C expression which is nonzero if accessing less than a word
of memory (i.e. a \texttt{char} or a \texttt{short}) is no faster than accessing a word of memory,
i.e., if such access require more than one instruction or if there is no difference in
cost between byte and (aligned) word loads.

When this macro is not defined, the compiler will access a field by finding the small-
est containing object; when it is defined, a fullword load will be used if alignment
permits. Unless bytes accesses are faster than word accesses, using word accesses is
preferable since it may eliminate subsequent memory access if subsequent accesses
occur to other fields in the same word of the structure, but to different bytes.

\textbf{SLOW\_ZERO\_EXTEND}

Define this macro if zero-extension (of a \texttt{char} or \texttt{short} to an \texttt{int}) can be done faster
if the destination is a register that is known to be zero.

If you define this macro, you must have instruction patterns that recognize RTL
structures like this:

\[
\text{set (strict_low_part (subreg:QI (reg:SI ...)) 0)) ...}
\]

and likewise for \texttt{HImode}.

\textbf{SLOW\_UNALIGNED\_ACCESS} \((mode, \text{alignment})\)

Define this macro to be the value 1 if memory accesses described by the \textit{mode} and
\textit{alignment} parameters have a cost many times greater than aligned accesses, for
example if they are emulated in a trap handler.

When this macro is non-zero, the compiler will act as if \texttt{STRICT\_ALIGNMENT} were
non-zero when generating code for block moves. This can cause significantly more
instructions to be produced. Therefore, do not set this macro non-zero if unaligned
accesses only add a cycle or two to the time for a memory access.
If the value of this macro is always zero, it need not be defined. If this macro is defined, it should produce a non-zero value when `STRICT_ALIGNMENT` is non-zero.

`DONT_REDUCE_ADDR`
Define this macro to inhibit strength reduction of memory addresses. (On some machines, such strength reduction seems to do harm rather than good.)

`MOVE_RATIO`
The threshold of number of scalar memory-to-memory move insns, below which a sequence of insns should be generated instead of a string move insn or a library call. Increasing the value will always make code faster, but eventually incurs high cost in increased code size.
Note that on machines where the corresponding move insn is a `define_expand` that emits a sequence of insns, this macro counts the number of such sequences.
If you don’t define this, a reasonable default is used.

`MOVE_BYPieces_P (size, alignment)`
A C expression used to determine whether `move_by_pieces` will be used to copy a chunk of memory, or whether some other block move mechanism will be used. Defaults to 1 if `move_by_pieces_ninsns` returns less than `MOVE_RATIO`.

`MOVE_MAX_PIECES` A C expression used by `move_by_pieces` to determine the largest unit a load or store used to copy memory is. Defaults to `MOVE_MAX`.

`USE_LOAD_POST_INCREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a load postincrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_POST_INCREMENT`.

`USE_LOAD_POST_DECREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a load postdecrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_POST_DECREMENT`.

`USE_LOAD_PRE_INCREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a load preincrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_PRE_INCREMENT`.

`USE_LOAD_PRE_DECREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a load predecrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_PRE_DECREMENT`.

`USE_STORE_POST_INCREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a store postincrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_POST_INCREMENT`.

`USE_STORE_POST_DECREMENT (mode)`
A C expression used to determine whether a store postdecrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_POST_DECREMENT`.

`USE_STORE_PRE_INCREMENT (mode)`
This macro is used to determine whether a store preincrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_PRE_INCREMENT`.

`USE_STORE_PRE_DECREMENT (mode)`
This macro is used to determine whether a store predecrement is a good thing to use for a given mode. Defaults to the value of `HAVE_PRE_DECREMENT`.

`NO_FUNCTION_CSE`
Define this macro if it is as good or better to call a constant function address than to call an address kept in a register.
NO_RECURSIVE_FUNCTION_CSE
Define this macro if it is as good or better for a function to call itself with an explicit address than to call an address kept in a register.

ADJUST_COST (insn, link, dep_insn, cost)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to update the integer variable cost based on the relationship between insn that is dependent on dep_insn through the dependence link. The default is to make no adjustment to cost. This can be used for example to specify to the scheduler that an output- or anti-dependence does not incur the same cost as a data-dependence.

ADJUST_PRIORITY (insn)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to update the integer scheduling priority INSN_PRIORITY(insn). Reduce the priority to execute the insn earlier, increase the priority to execute insn later. Do not define this macro if you do not need to adjust the scheduling priorities of insns.

21.15 Dividing the Output into Sections (Texts, Data, . . .)
An object file is divided into sections containing different types of data. In the most common case, there are three sections: the text section, which holds instructions and read-only data; the data section, which holds initialized writable data; and the bss section, which holds uninitialized data. Some systems have other kinds of sections.
The compiler must tell the assembler when to switch sections. These macros control what commands to output to tell the assembler this. You can also define additional sections.

TEXT_SECTION_ASM_OP
A C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation that should precede instructions and read-only data. Normally "\t.text" is right.

DATA_SECTION_ASM_OP
A C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation to identify the following data as writable initialized data. Normally "\t.data" is right.

SHARED_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation to identify the following data as shared data. If not defined, DATA_SECTION_ASM_OP will be used.

BSS_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation to identify the following data as uninitialized global data. If not defined, and neither ASM_OUTPUT_BSS nor ASM_OUTPUTAligned_BSS are defined, uninitialized global data will be output in the data section if ‘-fno-common’ is passed, otherwise ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON will be used.

SHARED_BSS_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation to identify the following data as uninitialized global shared data. If not defined, and BSS_SECTION_ASM_OP is, the latter will be used.

INIT_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing the assembler operation to identify the following data as initialization code. If not defined, GCC will assume such a section does not exist.
FINI_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C expression whose value is a string, including spacing, containing
the assembler operation to identify the following data as finalization code. If not
defined, GCC will assume such a section does not exist.

CRT_CALL_STATIC_FUNCTION
If defined, a C statement that calls the function named as the sole argument of this
macro. This is used in ‘crtstuff.c’ if INIT_SECTION_ASM_OP or FINI_SECTION_
ASM_OP to calls to initialization and finalization functions from the init and fini
sections. By default, this macro is a simple function call. Some ports need hand-
crafted assembly code to avoid dependencies on registers initialized in the function
prologue or to ensure that constant pools don’t end up too far way in the text
section.

EXTRA_SECTIONS
A list of names for sections other than the standard two, which are in_text and
in_data. You need not define this macro on a system with no other sections (that
GCC needs to use).

EXTRA_SECTION_FUNCTIONS
One or more functions to be defined in ‘varasm.c’. These functions should do
jobs analogous to those of text_section and data_section, for your additional
sections. Do not define this macro if you do not define EXTRA_SECTIONS.

READONLY_DATA_SECTION
On most machines, read-only variables, constants, and jump tables are placed in
the text section. If this is not the case on your machine, this macro should be
defined to be the name of a function (either data_section or a function defined in
EXTRA_SECTIONS) that switches to the section to be used for read-only items.
If these items should be placed in the text section, this macro should not be defined.

SELECT_SECTION (exp, reloc)
A C statement or statements to switch to the appropriate section for output of exp.
You can assume that exp is either a VAR_DECL node or a constant of some sort. reloc
indicates whether the initial value of exp requires link-time relocations. Select the
section by calling text_section or one of the alternatives for other sections.
Do not define this macro if you put all read-only variables and constants in the
read-only data section (usually the text section).

SELECT_RTX_SECTION (mode, rtx)
A C statement or statements to switch to the appropriate section for output of rtx
in mode mode. You can assume that rtx is some kind of constant in RTL. The
argument mode is redundant except in the case of a const_int rtx. Select the
section by calling text_section or one of the alternatives for other sections.
Do not define this macro if you put all constants in the read-only data section.

JUMP_TABLES_IN_TEXT_SECTION
Define this macro to be an expression with a non-zero value if jump tables (for
tablejump insns) should be output in the text section, along with the assembler
instructions. Otherwise, the readonly data section is used.
This macro is irrelevant if there is no separate readonly data section.

ENCODER_SECTION_INFO (decl)
Define this macro if references to a symbol must be treated differently depending
on something about the variable or function named by the symbol (such as what
section it is in).
The macro definition, if any, is executed immediately after the rtl for decl has been created and stored in DECL_RTL (decl). The value of the rtl will be a mem whose address is a symbol_ref.

The usual thing for this macro to do is to record a flag in the symbol_ref (such as SYMBOL_REF_FLAG) or to store a modified name string in the symbol_ref (if one bit is not enough information).

**STRIP_NAME_ENCODING (var, sym_name)**
Decode sym_name and store the real name part in var, sans the characters that encode section info. Define this macro if ENCODE_SECTION_INFO alters the symbol’s name string.

**UNIQUE_SECTION_P (decl)**
A C expression which evaluates to true if decl should be placed into a unique section for some target-specific reason. If you do not define this macro, the default is ‘0’. Note that the flag ‘-ffunction-sections’ will also cause functions to be placed into unique sections.

**UNIQUE_SECTION (decl, reloc)**
A C statement to build up a unique section name, expressed as a STRING_CST node, and assign it to ‘DECL_SECTION_NAME (decl)’. reloc indicates whether the initial value of exp requires link-time relocations. If you do not define this macro, GCC will use the symbol name prefixed by ‘.’ as the section name. Note - this macro can now be called for uninitialised data items as well as initialised data and functions.

### 21.16 Position Independent Code

This section describes macros that help implement generation of position independent code. Simply defining these macros is not enough to generate valid PIC; you must also add support to the macros GO_IF_LEGITIMATE_ADDRESS and PRINT_OPERAND_ADDRESS, as well as LEGITIMIZE_ADDRESS. You must modify the definition of ‘movsi’ to do something appropriate when the source operand contains a symbolic address. You may also need to alter the handling of switch statements so that they use relative addresses.

**PIC_OFFSET_TABLE_REGNUM**
The register number of the register used to address a table of static data addresses in memory. In some cases this register is defined by a processor’s “application binary interface” (ABI). When this macro is defined, RTL is generated for this register once, as with the stack pointer and frame pointer registers. If this macro is not defined, it is up to the machine-dependent files to allocate such a register (if necessary).

**PIC_OFFSET_TABLE_REG_CALL_CLOBBERED**
Define this macro if the register defined by PIC_OFFSET_TABLE_REGNUM is clobbered by calls. Do not define this macro if PIC_OFFSET_TABLE_REGNUM is not defined.

**FINALIZE_PIC**
By generating position-independent code, when two different programs (A and B) share a common library (libC.a), the text of the library can be shared whether or not the library is linked at the same address for both programs. In some of these environments, position-independent code requires not only the use of different addressing modes, but also special code to enable the use of these addressing modes. The FINALIZE_PIC macro serves as a hook to emit these special codes once the function is being compiled into assembly code, but not before. (It is not done before, because in the case of compiling an inline function, it would lead to multiple
PIC prologues being included in functions which used inline functions and were compiled to assembly language.)

**LEGITIMATE_PIC_OPERAND_P**(x)
A C expression that is nonzero if x is a legitimate immediate operand on the target machine when generating position independent code. You can assume that x satisfies **CONSTANT_P**, so you need not check this. You can also assume **flag_pic** is true, so you need not check it either. You need not define this macro if all constants (including **SYMBOL_REF**) can be immediate operands when generating position independent code.

21.17 Defining the Output Assembler Language
This section describes macros whose principal purpose is to describe how to write instructions in assembler language—rather than what the instructions do.

21.17.1 The Overall Framework of an Assembler File
This describes the overall framework of an assembler file.

**ASM_FILE_START**(stream)
A C expression which outputs to the stdio stream *stream* some appropriate text to go at the start of an assembler file.
Normally this macro is defined to output a line containing ‘#NO_APP’, which is a comment that has no effect on most assemblers but tells the GNU assembler that it can save time by not checking for certain assembler constructs.
On systems that use SDB, it is necessary to output certain commands; see ‘attasm.h’.

**ASM_FILE_END**(stream)
A C expression which outputs to the stdio stream *stream* some appropriate text to go at the end of an assembler file.
If this macro is not defined, the default is to output nothing special at the end of the file. Most systems don’t require any definition.
On systems that use SDB, it is necessary to output certain commands; see ‘attasm.h’.

**ASM_COMMENT_START**
A C string constant describing how to begin a comment in the target assembler language. The compiler assumes that the comment will end at the end of the line.

**ASM_APP_ON**
A C string constant for text to be output before each **asm** statement or group of consecutive ones. Normally this is "#APP", which is a comment that has no effect on most assemblers but tells the GNU assembler that it must check the lines that follow for all valid assembler constructs.

**ASM_APP_OFF**
A C string constant for text to be output after each **asm** statement or group of consecutive ones. Normally this is "#NO_APP", which tells the GNU assembler to resume making the time-saving assumptions that are valid for ordinary compiler output.

**ASM_OUTPUT_SOURCE_FILENAME**(stream, name)
A C statement to output COFF information or DWARF debugging information which indicates that filename *name* is the current source file to the stdio stream *stream*.
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This macro need not be defined if the standard form of output for the file format in use is appropriate.

**OUTPUT_QUOTED_STRING** (stream, string)

A C statement to output the string *string* to the stdio stream *stream*. If you do not call the function `output_quoted_string` in your config files, GCC will only call it to output filenames to the assembler source. So you can use it to canonicalize the format of the filename using this macro.

**ASM_OUTPUT_SOURCE_LINE** (stream, line)

A C statement to output DBX or SDB debugging information before code for line number *line* of the current source file to the stdio stream *stream*. This macro need not be defined if the standard form of debugging information for the debugger in use is appropriate.

**ASM_OUTPUT_IDENT** (stream, string)

A C statement to output something to the assembler file to handle a ‘#ident’ directive containing the text *string*. If this macro is not defined, nothing is output for a ‘#ident’ directive.

**ASM_OUTPUT_SECTION_NAME** (stream, decl, name, reloc)

A C statement to output something to the assembler file to switch to section *name* for object *decl* which is either a `FUNCTION_DECL`, a `VAR_DECL` or `NULL_TREE`. *reloc* indicates whether the initial value of *exp* requires link-time relocations. The string given by *name* will always be the canonical version stored in the global stringpool. Some target formats do not support arbitrary sections. Do not define this macro in such cases.

At present this macro is only used to support section attributes. When this macro is undefined, section attributes are disabled.

**OBJC_PROLOGUE**

A C statement to output any assembler statements which are required to precede any Objective C object definitions or message sending. The statement is executed only when compiling an Objective C program.

### 21.17.2 Output of Data

This describes data output.

**ASM_OUTPUT_LONG_DOUBLE** (stream, value)
**ASM_OUTPUT_DOUBLE** (stream, value)
**ASM_OUTPUT_FLOAT** (stream, value)
**ASM_OUTPUT_THREE_QUARTER_FLOAT** (stream, value)
**ASM_OUTPUT_SHORT_FLOAT** (stream, value)
**ASM_OUTPUT_BYTE_FLOAT** (stream, value)

A C statement to output to the stdio stream *stream* an assembler instruction to assemble a floating-point constant of TFmode, DFmode, SFmode, TQFmode, HFmode, or QFmode, respectively, whose value is *value*. *value* will be a C expression of type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`. Macros such as `REAL_VALUE_TO_TARGET_DOUBLE` are useful for writing these definitions.

**ASM_OUTPUT_QUADRUPLE_INT** (stream, exp)
**ASM_OUTPUT_DOUBLE_INT** (stream, exp)
**ASM_OUTPUT_INT** (stream, exp)
**ASM_OUTPUT_SHORT** (stream, exp)
**ASM_OUTPUT_CHAR** (stream, exp)

A C statement to output to the stdio stream *stream* an assembler instruction to assemble an integer of 16, 8, 4, 2 or 1 bytes, respectively, whose value is *value*. The
argument `exp` will be an RTL expression which represents a constant value. Use `output_addr_const(stream, exp)` to output this value as an assembler expression.

For sizes larger than `UNITS_PER_WORD`, if the action of a macro would be identical to repeatedly calling the macro corresponding to a size of `UNITS_PER_WORD`, once for each word, you need not define the macro.

`OUTPUT_ADDR_CONST_EXTRA(stream, x, fail)`

A C statement to recognize `rtx` patterns that `output_addr_const` can’t deal with, and output assembly code to `stream` corresponding to the pattern `x`. This may be used to allow machine-dependent `UNSPECs` to appear within constants.

If `OUTPUT_ADDR_CONST_EXTRA` fails to recognize a pattern, it must `goto fail`, so that a standard error message is printed. If it prints an error message itself, by calling, for example, `output_operand_lossage`, it may just complete normally.

`ASM_OUTPUT_BYTE(stream, value)`

A C statement to output to the stdio stream `stream` an assembler instruction to assemble a single byte containing the number `value`.

`ASM_BYTE_OP` A C string constant, including spacing, giving the pseudo-op to use for a sequence of single-byte constants. If this macro is not defined, the default is "\t.byte\t".

`ASM_OUTPUT_ASCII(stream, ptr, len)`

A C statement to output to the stdio stream `stream` an assembler instruction to assemble a string constant containing the `len` bytes at `ptr`. `ptr` will be a C expression of type `char *` and `len` a C expression of type `int`.

If the assembler has a `.ascii` pseudo-op as found in the Berkeley Unix assembler, do not define the macro `ASM_OUTPUT_ASCII`.

`CONSTANT_POOL_BEFORE_FUNCTION` You may define this macro as a C expression. You should define the expression to have a non-zero value if GCC should output the constant pool for a function before the code for the function, or a zero value if GCC should output the constant pool after the function. If you do not define this macro, the usual case, GCC will output the constant pool before the function.

`ASM_OUTPUT_POOL_PROLOGUE(file, funname, fundecl, size)`

A C statement to output assembler commands to define the start of the constant pool for a function. `funname` is a string giving the name of the function. Should the return type of the function be required, it can be obtained via `fundecl`. `size` is the size, in bytes, of the constant pool that will be written immediately after this call.

If no constant-pool prefix is required, the usual case, this macro need not be defined.

`ASM_OUTPUT_SPECIAL_POOL_ENTRY(file, x, mode, align, labelno, jumpto)`

A C statement (with or without semicolon) to output a constant in the constant pool, if it needs special treatment. (This macro need not do anything for RTL expressions that can be output normally.)

The argument `file` is the standard I/O stream to output the assembler code on. `x` is the RTL expression for the constant to output, and `mode` is the machine mode (in case `x` is a `const_int`). `align` is the required alignment for the value `x`; you should output an assembler directive to force this much alignment.

The argument `labelno` is a number to use in an internal label for the address of this pool entry. The definition of this macro is responsible for outputting the label definition at the proper place. Here is how to do this:
ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL (file, "LC", labelno);

When you output a pool entry specially, you should end with a goto to the label jumpto. This will prevent the same pool entry from being output a second time in the usual manner.

You need not define this macro if it would do nothing.

CONSTANT_AFTER_FUNCTION_P (exp)

Define this macro as a C expression which is nonzero if the constant exp, of type tree, should be output after the code for a function. The compiler will normally output all constants before the function; you need not define this macro if this is OK.

ASM_OUTPUT_POOL_EPILOGUE (file funname fundecl size)

A C statement to output assembler commands to at the end of the constant pool for a function. funname is a string giving the name of the function. Should the return type of the function be required, you can obtain it via fundecl. size is the size, in bytes, of the constant pool that GCC wrote immediately before this call.

If no constant-pool epilogue is required, the usual case, you need not define this macro.

IS_ASM_LOGICAL_LINE_SEPARATOR (C)

Define this macro as a C expression which is nonzero if C is used as a logical line separator by the assembler.

If you do not define this macro, the default is that only the character ‘;’ is treated as a logical line separator.

ASM_OPEN_PAREN
ASM_CLOSE_PAREN

These macros are defined as C string constants, describing the syntax in the assembler for grouping arithmetic expressions. The following definitions are correct for most assemblers:

# define ASM_OPEN_PAREN "("
# define ASM_CLOSE_PAREN ")"

These macros are provided by ‘real.h’ for writing the definitions of ASM_OUTPUT_DOUBLE and the like:

REAL_VALUE_TO_TARGET_SINGLE (x, l)
REAL_VALUE_TO_TARGET_DOUBLE (x, l)
REAL_VALUE_TO_TARGET_LONG_DOUBLE (x, l)

These translate x, of type REAL_VALUE_TYPE, to the target’s floating point representation, and store its bit pattern in the array of long int whose address is l. The number of elements in the output array is determined by the size of the desired target floating point data type: 32 bits of it go in each long int array element. Each array element holds 32 bits of the result, even if long int is wider than 32 bits on the host machine.

The array element values are designed so that you can print them out using fprintf in the order they should appear in the target machine’s memory.

REAL_VALUE_TO_DECIMAL (x, format, string)

This macro converts x, of type REAL_VALUE_TYPE, to a decimal number and stores it as a string into string. You must pass, as string, the address of a long enough block of space to hold the result.

The argument format is a printf-specification that serves as a suggestion for how to format the output string.
21.17.3 Output of Uninitialized Variables

Each of the macros in this section is used to do the whole job of outputting a single uninitialized variable.

ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON (stream, name, size, rounded)

A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream the assembler definition of a common-label named name whose size is size bytes. The variable rounded is the size rounded up to whatever alignment the caller wants.

Use the expression assemble_name (stream, name) to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for defining the name, and a newline.

This macro controls how the assembler definitions of uninitialized common global variables are output.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_COMMON (stream, name, size, alignment)

Like ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON except takes the required alignment as a separate, explicit argument. If you define this macro, it is used in place of ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON, and gives you more flexibility in handling the required alignment of the variable. The alignment is specified as the number of bits.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_DECL_COMMON (stream, decl, name, size, alignment)

Like ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_COMMON except that decl of the variable to be output, if there is one, or NULL_TREE if there is no corresponding variable. If you define this macro, GCC will use it in place of both ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON and ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_COMMON. Define this macro when you need to see the variable’s decl in order to chose what to output.

ASM_OUTPUT_SHARED_COMMON (stream, name, size, rounded)

If defined, it is similar to ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON, except that it is used when name is shared. If not defined, ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON will be used.

ASM_OUTPUT_BSS (stream, decl, name, size, rounded)

A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream the assembler definition of uninitialized global decl named name whose size is size bytes. The variable rounded is the size rounded up to whatever alignment the caller wants.

Try to use function asm_output_bss defined in ‘varasm.c’ when defining this macro. If unable, use the expression assemble_name (stream, name) to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for defining the name, and a newline.

This macro controls how the assembler definitions of uninitialized global variables are output. This macro exists to properly support languages like c++ which do not have common data. However, this macro currently is not defined for all targets. If this macro and ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_BSS are not defined then ASM_OUTPUT_COMMON or ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_COMMON or ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_DECL_COMMON is used.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_BSS (stream, decl, name, size, alignment)

Like ASM_OUTPUT_BSS except takes the required alignment as a separate, explicit argument. If you define this macro, it is used in place of ASM_OUTPUT_BSS, and gives you more flexibility in handling the required alignment of the variable. The alignment is specified as the number of bits.

Try to use function asm_output_aligned_bss defined in file ‘varasm.c’ when defining this macro.

ASM_OUTPUT_SHARED_BSS (stream, decl, name, size, rounded)

If defined, it is similar to ASM_OUTPUT_BSS, except that it is used when name is shared. If not defined, ASM_OUTPUT_BSS will be used.
ASM_OUTPUT_LOCAL (stream, name, size, rounded)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream the assembler definition of a local-common-label named name whose size is size bytes. The variable rounded is the size rounded up to whatever alignment the caller wants.
Use the expression assemble_name (stream, name) to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for defining the name, and a newline.
This macro controls how the assembler definitions of uninitialized static variables are output.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_LOCAL (stream, name, size, alignment)
Like ASM_OUTPUT_LOCAL except takes the required alignment as a separate, explicit argument. If you define this macro, it is used in place of ASM_OUTPUT_LOCAL, and gives you more flexibility in handling the required alignment of the variable. The alignment is specified as the number of bits.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_DECL_LOCAL (stream, decl, name, size, alignment)
Like ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_DECL except that decl of the variable to be output, if there is one, or NULL_TREE if there is no corresponding variable. If you define this macro, GCC will use it in place of both ASM_OUTPUT_DECL and ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGNED_DECL. Define this macro when you need to see the variable’s decl in order to chose what to output.

ASM_OUTPUT_SHARED_LOCAL (stream, name, size, rounded)
If defined, it is similar to ASM_OUTPUT_LOCAL, except that it is used when name is shared. If not defined, ASM_OUTPUT_LOCAL will be used.

21.17.4 Output and Generation of Labels
This is about outputting labels.

ASM_OUTPUT_LABEL (stream, name)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream the assembler definition of a label named name. Use the expression assemble_name (stream, name) to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for defining the name, and a newline.

ASM_DECLARE_FUNCTION_NAME (stream, name, decl)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream any text necessary for declaring the name name of a function which is being defined. This macro is responsible for outputting the label definition (perhaps using ASM_OUTPUT_LABEL). The argument decl is the FUNCTION_DECL tree node representing the function.
If this macro is not defined, then the function name is defined in the usual manner as a label (by means of ASM_OUTPUT_LABEL).

ASM_DECLARE_FUNCTION_SIZE (stream, name, decl)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream any text necessary for declaring the size of a function which is being defined. The argument name is the name of the function. The argument decl is the FUNCTION_DECL tree node representing the function.
If this macro is not defined, then the function size is not defined.

ASM_DECLARE_OBJECT_NAME (stream, name, decl)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream any text necessary for declaring the name name of an initialized variable which is being
defined. This macro must output the label definition (perhaps using `ASM_OUTPUT_LABEL`). The argument `DECL` is the `VAR_DECL` tree node representing the variable.

If this macro is not defined, then the variable name is defined in the usual manner as a label (by means of `ASM_OUTPUT_LABEL`).

**ASM_DECLARE_REGISTER_GLOBAL** *(stream, decl, regno, name)*

A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream `stream` any text necessary for claiming a register `regno` for a global variable `DECL` with name `name`.

If you don’t define this macro, that is equivalent to defining it to do nothing.

**ASM_FINISH_DECLARE_OBJECT** *(stream, decl, toplevel, atend)*

A C statement (sans semicolon) to finish up declaring a variable name once the compiler has processed its initializer fully and thus has had a chance to determine the size of an array when controlled by an initializer. This is used on systems where it’s necessary to declare something about the size of the object.

If you don’t define this macro, that is equivalent to defining it to do nothing.

**ASM_GLOBALIZE_LABEL** *(stream, name)*

A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream `stream` some commands that will make the label `name` global; that is, available for reference from other files. Use the expression `assemble_name` *(stream, name)* to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for making that name global, and a newline.

**ASM_WEAKEN_LABEL**

A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream `stream` some commands that will make the label `name` weak; that is, available for reference from other files but only used if no other definition is available. Use the expression `assemble_name` *(stream, name)* to output the name itself; before and after that, output the additional assembler syntax for making that name weak, and a newline.

If you don’t define this macro, GCC will not support weak symbols and you should not define the `SUPPORTS_WEAK` macro.

**SUPPORTS_WEAK**

A C expression which evaluates to true if the target supports weak symbols.

If you don’t define this macro, `defaults.h` provides a default definition. If `ASM_WEAKEN_LABEL` is defined, the default definition is ‘1’; otherwise, it is ‘0’. Define this macro if you want to control weak symbol support with a compiler flag such as ‘-melf’.

**MAKE_DECL_ONE_ONLY**

A C statement (sans semicolon) to mark `DECL` to be emitted as a public symbol such that extra copies in multiple translation units will be discarded by the linker. Define this macro if your object file format provides support for this concept, such as the ‘COMDAT’ section flags in the Microsoft Windows PE/COFF format, and this support requires changes to `DECL`, such as putting it in a separate section.

**SUPPORTS_ONE_ONLY**

A C expression which evaluates to true if the target supports one-only semantics.

If you don’t define this macro, `varasm.c` provides a default definition. If `MAKE_DECL_ONE_ONLY` is defined, the default definition is ‘1’; otherwise, it is ‘0’. Define this macro if you want to control one-only symbol support with a compiler flag, or if setting the `DECL_ONE_ONLY` flag is enough to mark a declaration to be emitted as one-only.
ASM_OUTPUT_EXTERNAL (stream, decl, name)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream any text necessary for declaring the name of an external symbol named name which is referenced in this compilation but not defined. The value of decl is the tree node for the declaration.
This macro need not be defined if it does not need to output anything. The GNU assembler and most Unix assemblers don’t require anything.

ASM_OUTPUT_EXTERNAL_LIBCALL (stream, symref)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output on stream an assembler pseudo-op to declare a library function name external. The name of the library function is given by symref, which has type rtx and is a symbol_ref.
This macro need not be defined if it does not need to output anything. The GNU assembler and most Unix assemblers don’t require anything.

ASM_OUTPUT_LABELREF (stream, name)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output to the stdio stream stream a reference in assembler syntax to a label named name. This should add `_` to the front of the name, if that is customary on your operating system, as it is in most Berkeley Unix systems. This macro is used in assemble_name.

ASM_OUTPUT_SYMBOL_REF (stream, sym)
A C statement (sans semicolon) to output a reference to SYMBOL_REF sym. If not defined, assemble_output will be used to output the name of the symbol. This macro may be used to modify the way a symbol is referenced depending on information encoded by ENCODE_SECTION_INFO.

ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL (stream, prefix, num)
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream a label whose name is made from the string prefix and the number num.
It is absolutely essential that these labels be distinct from the labels used for user-level functions and variables. Otherwise, certain programs will have name conflicts with internal labels.
It is desirable to exclude internal labels from the symbol table of the object file. Most assemblers have a naming convention for labels that should be excluded; on many systems, the letter ‘L’ at the beginning of a label has this effect. You should find out what convention your system uses, and follow it.
The usual definition of this macro is as follows:
```
fprintf (stream, "L%s%d:\n", prefix, num)
```

ASM_OUTPUT_DEBUG_LABEL (stream, prefix, num)
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream a debug info label whose name is made from the string prefix and the number num. This is useful for VLIW targets, where debug info labels may need to be treated differently than branch target labels. On some systems, branch target labels must be at the beginning of instruction bundles, but debug info labels can occur in the middle of instruction bundles.
If this macro is not defined, then ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL will be used.

ASM_OUTPUT_ALTERNATE_LABEL_NAME (stream, string)
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream the string string.
The default definition of this macro is as follows:
```
fprintf (stream, "%s:\n", LABEL_ALTERNATE_NAME (INSN))
```
ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL (string, prefix, num)

A C statement to store into the string string a label whose name is made from the string prefix and the number num.

This string, when output subsequently by assemble_name, should produce the output that ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL would produce with the same prefix and num.

If the string begins with '*', then assemble_name will output the rest of the string unchanged. It is often convenient for ASM_GENERATE_INTERNAL_LABEL to use '*' in this way. If the string doesn’t start with '*', then ASM_OUTPUT_LABELREF gets to output the string, and may change it. (Of course, ASM_OUTPUT_LABELREF is also part of your machine description, so you should know what it does on your machine.)

ASM_FORMAT_PRIVATE_NAME (outvar, name, number)

A C expression to assign to outvar (which is a variable of type char *) a newly allocated string made from the string name and the number number, with some suitable punctuation added. Use alloca to get space for the string.

The string will be used as an argument to ASM_OUTPUT_LABELREF to produce an assembler label for an internal static variable whose name is name. Therefore, the string must be such as to result in valid assembler code. The argument number is different each time this macro is executed; it prevents conflicts between similarly-named internal static variables in different scopes.

Ideally this string should not be a valid C identifier, to prevent any conflict with the user’s own symbols. Most assemblers allow periods or percent signs in assembler symbols; putting at least one of these between the name and the number will suffice.

ASM_OUTPUT_DEF (stream, name, value)

A C statement to output to the stdout stream stream assembler code which defines (equates) the symbol name to have the value value.

If SET_ASM_OP is defined, a default definition is provided which is correct for most systems.

ASM_OUTPUT_DEF_FROM_DECLS (stream, decl_of_name, decl_of_value)

A C statement to output to the stdout stream stream assembler code which defines (equates) the symbol whose tree node is decl_of_name to have the value of the tree node decl_of_value. This macro will be used in preference to ‘ASM_OUTPUT_DEF’ if it is defined and if the tree nodes are available.

ASM_OUTPUT_DEFINE_LABEL_DIFFERENCE_SYMBOL (stream, symbol, high, low)

A C statement to output to the stdout stream stream assembler code which defines (equates) the symbol symbol to have a value equal to the difference of the two symbols high and low, i.e. high minus low. GCC guarantees that the symbols high and low are already known by the assembler so that the difference resolves into a constant.

If SET_ASM_OP is defined, a default definition is provided which is correct for most systems.

ASM_OUTPUT_WEAK_ALIAS (stream, name, value)

A C statement to output to the stdout stream stream assembler code which defines (equates) the weak symbol name to have the value value.

Define this macro if the target only supports weak aliases; define ASM_OUTPUT_DEF instead if possible.

OBJC_GEN_METHOD_LABEL (buf, is_inst, class_name, cat_name, sel_name)

Define this macro to override the default assembler names used for Objective C methods.
The default name is a unique method number followed by the name of the class (e.g. ‘_1_Foo’). For methods in categories, the name of the category is also included in the assembler name (e.g. ‘_1_Foo_Bar’).

These names are safe on most systems, but make debugging difficult since the method’s selector is not present in the name. Therefore, particular systems define other ways of computing names.

buf is an expression of type char * which gives you a buffer in which to store the name; its length is as long as class_name, cat_name and sel_name put together, plus 50 characters extra.

The argument is_inst specifies whether the method is an instance method or a class method; class_name is the name of the class; cat_name is the name of the category (or NULL if the method is not in a category); and sel_name is the name of the selector.

On systems where the assembler can handle quoted names, you can use this macro to provide more human-readable names.

21.17.5 How Initialization Functions Are Handled

The compiled code for certain languages includes constructors (also called initialization routines)—functions to initialize data in the program when the program is started. These functions need to be called before the program is “started”—that is to say, before main is called.

Compiling some languages generates destructors (also called termination routines) that should be called when the program terminates.

To make the initialization and termination functions work, the compiler must output something in the assembler code to cause those functions to be called at the appropriate time. When you port the compiler to a new system, you need to specify how to do this.

There are two major ways that GCC currently supports the execution of initialization and termination functions. Each way has two variants. Much of the structure is common to all four variations.

The linker must build two lists of these functions—a list of initialization functions, called __CTOR_LIST__, and a list of termination functions, called __DTOR_LIST__.

Each list always begins with an ignored function pointer (which may hold 0, −1, or a count of the function pointers after it, depending on the environment). This is followed by a series of zero or more function pointers to constructors (or destructors), followed by a function pointer containing zero.

Depending on the operating system and its executable file format, either ‘crtstuff.c’ or ‘libgcc2.c’ traverses these lists at startup time and exit time. Constructors are called in reverse order of the list; destructors in forward order.

The best way to handle static constructors works only for object file formats which provide arbitrarily-named sections. A section is set aside for a list of constructors, and another for a list of destructors. Traditionally these are called ‘.ctors’ and ‘.dtors’. Each object file that defines an initialization function also puts a word in the constructor section to point to that function. The linker accumulates all these words into one contiguous ‘.ctors’ section. Termination functions are handled similarly.

To use this method, you need appropriate definitions of the macros ASM_OUTPUT_CONSTRUCTOR and ASM_OUTPUT_DESTRUCTOR. Usually you can get them by including ‘svr4.h’.

When arbitrary sections are available, there are two variants, depending upon how the code in ‘crtstuff.c’ is called. On systems that support an init section which is executed at program startup, parts of ‘crtstuff.c’ are compiled into that section. The program is linked by the gcc driver like this:
ld -o output_file crtbeg.in.o ... crint.o -lgcc

The head of a function (\_\_do\_global\_ctors) appears in the init section of 'crtbeg.in.o';
the remainder of the function appears in the init section of 'crint.o'. The linker will pull
these two parts of the section together, making a whole function. If any of the user's object files
linked into the middle of it contribute code, then that code will be executed as part of the body
of \_\_do\_global\_ctors.

To use this variant, you must define the INIT\_SECTION\_ASM\_OP macro properly.

If no init section is available, do not define INIT\_SECTION\_ASM\_OP. Then \_\_do\_global\_ctors
is built into the text section like all other functions, and resides in 'libgcc.a'. When GCC
compiles any function called main, it inserts a procedure call to \_\_main as the first executable
code after the function prologue. The \_\_main function, also defined in 'libgcc2.c', simply calls
\_\_do\_global\_ctors'.

In file formats that don't support arbitrary sections, there are again two variants. In the
simplest variant, the GNU linker (GNU ld) and an 'a.out' format must be used. In this case,
ASM\_OUTPUT\_CONSTRUCTOR is defined to produce a .stabs entry of type 'N_SETT', referencing
the name \_\_CTOR\_LIST__, and with the address of the void function containing the initialization code
as its value. The GNU linker recognizes this as a request to add the value to a "set"; the values
are accumulated, and are eventually placed in the executable as a vector in the format described
above, with a leading (ignored) count and a trailing zero element. ASM\_OUTPUT\_DESTRUCTOR is
handled similarly. Since no init section is available, the absence of INIT\_SECTION\_ASM\_OP causes
the compilation of main to call \_\_main as above, starting the initialization process.

The last variant uses neither arbitrary sections nor the GNU linker. This is preferable when
you want to do dynamic linking and when using file formats which the GNU linker does not
support, such as 'ECOFF'. In this case, ASM\_OUTPUT\_CONSTRUCTOR does not produce an N_SETT
symbol; initialization and termination functions are recognized simply by their names. This
requires an extra program in the linkage step, called collect2. This program pretends to be
the link, for use with GCC; it does its job by running the ordinary linker, but also arranges
to include the vectors of initialization and termination functions. These functions are called via
\_\_main as described above.

Choosing among these configuration options has been simplified by a set of operating-system-
dependent files in the 'config' subdirectory. These files define all of the relevant parameters.
Usually it is sufficient to include one into your specific machine-dependent configuration file.
These files are:

'auto.h' For operating systems using the 'a.out' format.

'next.h' For operating systems using the 'MachO' format.

'svr3.h' For System V Release 3 and similar systems using 'COFF' format.

'svr4.h' For System V Release 4 and similar systems using 'ELF' format.

'vms.h' For the VMS operating system.

21.17.6 Macros Controlling Initialization Routines

Here are the macros that control how the compiler handles initialization and termination
functions:

INIT\_SECTION\_ASM\_OP
If defined, a C string constant, including spacing, for the assembler operation to iden-
tify the following data as initialization code. If not defined, GCC will assume such
a section does not exist. When you are using special sections for initialization and
termination functions, this macro also controls how 'crtsuff.c' and 'libgcc2.c'
arrange to run the initialization functions.
HAS_INIT_SECTION
If defined, main will not call __main as described above. This macro should be defined for systems that control the contents of the init section on a symbol-by-symbol basis, such as OSF/1, and should not be defined explicitly for systems that support INIT_SECTION_ASM_OP.

LD_INIT_SWITCH
If defined, a C string constant for a switch that tells the linker that the following symbol is an initialization routine.

LD_FINI_SWITCH
If defined, a C string constant for a switch that tells the linker that the following symbol is a finalization routine.

INVOKE__main
If defined, main will call __main despite the presence of INIT_SECTION_ASM_OP. This macro should be defined for systems where the init section is not actually run automatically, but is still useful for collecting the lists of constructors and destructors.

SUPPORTS_INIT_PRIORITY
If nonzero, the C++ init_priority attribute is supported and the compiler should emit instructions to control the order of initialization of objects. If zero, the compiler will issue an error message upon encountering an init_priority attribute.

ASM_OUTPUT_CONSTRUCTOR (stream, name)
Define this macro as a C statement to output on the stream stream the assembler code to arrange to call the function named name at initialization time. Assume that name is the name of a C function generated automatically by the compiler. This function takes no arguments. Use the function assemble_name to output the name name; this performs any system-specific syntactic transformations such as adding an underscore.

If you don’t define this macro, nothing special is output to arrange to call the function. This is correct when the function will be called in some other manner—for example, by means of the collect2 program, which looks through the symbol table to find these functions by their names.

ASM_OUTPUT_DESTRUCTOR (stream, name)
This is like ASM_OUTPUT_CONSTRUCTOR but used for termination functions rather than initialization functions.

When ASM_OUTPUT_CONSTRUCTOR and ASM_OUTPUT_DESTRUCTOR are defined, the initialization routine generated for the generated object file will have static linkage.

If your system uses collect2 as the means of processing constructors, then that program normally uses nm to scan an object file for constructor functions to be called. On such systems you must not define ASM_OUTPUT_CONSTRUCTOR and ASM_OUTPUT_DESTRUCTOR as the object file’s initialization routine must have global scope.

On certain kinds of systems, you can define these macros to make collect2 work faster (and, in some cases, make it work at all):

OBJECT_FORMAT_COFF
Define this macro if the system uses COFF (Common Object File Format) object files, so that collect2 can assume this format and scan object files directly for dynamic constructor/destructor functions.

OBJECT_FORMAT_ROSE
Define this macro if the system uses ROSE format object files, so that collect2 can assume this format and scan object files directly for dynamic constructor/destructor functions.
These macros are effective only in a native compiler; `collect2` as part of a cross
compiler always uses `nm` for the target machine.

**REAL_NM_FILE_NAME**

Define this macro as a C string constant containing the file name to use to execute
`nm`. The default is to search the path normally for `nm`.

If your system supports shared libraries and has a program to list the dynamic
dependencies of a given library or executable, you can define these macros to enable
support for running initialization and termination functions in shared libraries:

**LDD_SUFFIX**

Define this macro to a C string constant containing the name of the program which
lists dynamic dependencies, like "ldd" under SunOS 4.

**PARSE_LDD_OUTPUT (PTR)**

Define this macro to be C code that extracts filenames from the output of the
program denoted by `LDD_SUFFIX`. `PTR` is a variable of type `char *` that points
to the beginning of a line of output from `LDD_SUFFIX`. If the line lists a dynamic
dependency, the code must advance `PTR` to the beginning of the filename on that
line. Otherwise, it must set `PTR` to `NULL`.

### 21.17.7 Output of Assembler Instructions

This describes assembler instruction output.

**REGISTER_NAMES**

A C initializer containing the assembler’s names for the machine registers, each one
as a C string constant. This is what translates register numbers in the compiler into
assembler language.

**ADDITIONAL_REGISTER_NAMES**

If defined, a C initializer for an array of structures containing a name and a register
number. This macro defines additional names for hard registers, thus allowing the
asm option in declarations to refer to registers using alternate names.

**ASM_OUTPUT_OPCODE (stream, ptr)**

Define this macro if you are using an unusual assembler that requires different names
for the machine instructions.

The definition is a C statement or statements which output an assembler instruction
opcode to the stdio stream `stream`. The macro-operand `ptr` is a variable of type `char *` which points to the opcode name in its “internal” form—the form that is
written in the machine description. The definition should output the opcode name to `stream`, performing any translation you desire, and increment the variable `ptr` to
point at the end of the opcode so that it will not be output twice.

In fact, your macro definition may process less than the entire opcode name, or more
than the opcode name; but if you want to process text that includes ‘%'-sequences
to substitute operands, you must take care of the substitution yourself. Just be sure
to increment `ptr` over whatever text should not be output normally.

If you need to look at the operand values, they can be found as the elements of
`recog_operand`.

If the macro definition does nothing, the instruction is output in the usual way.

**FINAL_PRESCAN_INSN (insn, opvec, noperands)**

If defined, a C statement to be executed just prior to the output of assembler code
for `insn`, to modify the extracted operands so they will be output differently.
Here the argument opvec is the vector containing the operands extracted from insn, and noperands is the number of elements of the vector which contain meaningful data for this insn. The contents of this vector are what will be used to convert the insn template into assembler code, so you can change the assembler output by changing the contents of the vector.

This macro is useful when various assembler syntaxes share a single file of instruction patterns; by defining this macro differently, you can cause a large class of instructions to be output differently (such as with rearranged operands). Naturally, variations in assembler syntax affecting individual insn patterns ought to be handled by writing conditional output routines in those patterns.

If this macro is not defined, it is equivalent to a null statement.

FINAL_PRESCAN_LABEL
If defined, FINAL_PRESCAN_INSN will be called on each CODE_LABEL. In that case, opvec will be a null pointer and noperands will be zero.

PRINT_OPERAND (stream, x, code)
A C compound statement to output to stdio stream stream the assembler syntax for an instruction operand x. x is an RTL expression.

code is a value that can be used to specify one of several ways of printing the operand. It is used when identical operands must be printed differently depending on the context. code comes from the ‘%’ specification that was used to request printing of the operand. If the specification was just ‘%digit’ then code is 0; if the specification was ‘%ltr digit’ then code is the ASCII code for ltr.

If x is a register, this macro should print the register’s name. The names can be found in an array reg_names whose type is char *[]. reg_names is initialized from REGISTER_NAMES.

When the machine description has a specification ‘%punct’ (a ‘%’ followed by a punctuation character), this macro is called with a null pointer for x and the punctuation character for code.

PRINT_OPERAND_PUNCT_VALID_P (code)
A C expression which evaluates to true if code is a valid punctuation character for use in the PRINT_OPERAND macro. If PRINT_OPERAND_PUNCT_VALID_P is not defined, it means that no punctuation characters (except for the standard one, ‘%’) are used in this way.

PRINT_OPERAND_ADDRESS (stream, x)
A C compound statement to output to stdio stream stream the assembler syntax for an instruction operand that is a memory reference whose address is x. x is an RTL expression.

On some machines, the syntax for a symbolic address depends on the section that the address refers to. On these machines, define the macro ENCODE_SECTION_INFO to store the information into the symbol_ref, and then check for it here. See Section 21.17 [Assembler Format], page 416.

DBR_OUTPUT_SEQEND (file)
A C statement, to be executed after all slot-filler instructions have been output. If necessary, call dbr_sequence_length to determine the number of slots filled in a sequence (zero if not currently outputting a sequence), to decide how many no-ops to output, or whatever.

Don’t define this macro if it has nothing to do, but it is helpful in reading assembly output if the extent of the delay sequence is made explicit (e.g. with white space). Note that output routines for instructions with delay slots must be prepared to deal with not being output as part of a sequence (i.e. when the scheduling pass is
not run, or when no slot fillers could be found.) The variable `final_sequence` is null when not processing a sequence, otherwise it contains the `sequence` rtx being output.

`REGISTER_PREFIX`  
`LOCAL_LABEL_PREFIX`  
`USER_LABEL_PREFIX`  
`IMMEDIATE_PREFIX`  

If defined, C string expressions to be used for the ‘%R’, ‘%L’, ‘%U’, and ‘%I’ options of `asm_fprintf` (see ‘final.c’). These are useful when a single ‘md’ file must support multiple assembler formats. In that case, the various ‘tm.h’ files can define these macros differently.

`ASM_FPRINTF_EXTENSIONS(file, argptr, format)`  
If defined this macro should expand to a series of `case` statements which will be parsed inside the `switch` statement of the `asm_fprintf` function. This allows targets to define extra printf formats which may useful when generating their assembler statements. Note that upper case letters are reserved for future generic extensions to `asm_fprintf`, and so are not available to target specific code. The output file is given by the parameter `file`. The varargs input pointer is `argptr` and the rest of the format string, starting the character after the one that is being switched upon, is pointed to by `format`.

`ASSEMBLER_DIALECT`  
If your target supports multiple dialects of assembler language (such as different opcodes), define this macro as a C expression that gives the numeric index of the assembler language dialect to use, with zero as the first variant.

If this macro is defined, you may use constructs of the form `{option0|option1|option2...}` in the output templates of patterns (see Section 20.5 [Output Template], page 296) or in the first argument of `asm_fprintf`. This construct outputs ‘option0’, ‘option1’ or ‘option2’, etc., if the value of `ASSEMBLER_DIALECT` is zero, one or two, etc. Any special characters within these strings retain their usual meaning.

If you do not define this macro, the characters ‘{’, ‘|’ and ‘}’ do not have any special meaning when used in templates or operands to `asm_fprintf`.

Define the macros `REGISTER_PREFIX`, `LOCAL_LABEL_PREFIX`, `USER_LABEL_PREFIX` and `IMMEDIATE_PREFIX` if you can express the variations in assembler language syntax with that mechanism. Define `ASSEMBLER_DIALECT` and use the `{option0|option1}` syntax if the syntax variant are larger and involve such things as different opcodes or operand order.

`ASM_OUTPUT_REG_PUSH (stream, regno)`  
A C expression to output to `stream` some assembler code which will push hard register number `regno` onto the stack. The code need not be optimal, since this macro is used only when profiling.

`ASM_OUTPUT_REG_POP (stream, regno)`  
A C expression to output to `stream` some assembler code which will pop hard register number `regno` off of the stack. The code need not be optimal, since this macro is used only when profiling.

### 21.17.8 Output of Dispatch Tables

This concerns dispatch tables.
ASM_OUTPUT_ADDR_DIFF_ELT (stream, body, value, rel)
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream an assembler pseudo-instruction to generate a difference between two labels. value and rel are the numbers of two internal labels. The definitions of these labels are output using ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL, and they must be printed in the same way here. For example,
\[
\text{fprintf (stream, } "\text{\t.word L}%d-L}%d\n", \text{value, rel)}
\]
You must provide this macro on machines where the addresses in a dispatch table are relative to the table’s own address. If defined, GNU CC will also use this macro on all machines when producing PIC. body is the body of the ADDR_DIFF_VEC; it is provided so that the mode and flags can be read.

ASM_OUTPUT_ADDR_VEC_ELT (stream, value)
This macro should be provided on machines where the addresses in a dispatch table are absolute.

The definition should be a C statement to output to the stdio stream stream an assembler pseudo-instruction to generate a reference to a label. value is the number of an internal label whose definition is output using ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL. For example,
\[
\text{fprintf (stream, } "\text{\t.word L}%d\n", \text{value})}
\]

ASM_OUTPUT_CASE_LABEL (stream, prefix, num, table)
Define this if the label before a jump-table needs to be output specially. The first three arguments are the same as for ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL; the fourth argument is the jump-table which follows (a jump_insn containing an addr_vec or addr_diff_vec).
This feature is used on system V to output a swbeg statement for the table.
If this macro is not defined, these labels are output with ASM_OUTPUT_INTERNAL_LABEL.

ASM_OUTPUT_CASE_END (stream, num, table)
Define this if something special must be output at the end of a jump-table. The definition should be a C statement to be executed after the assembler code for the table is written. It should write the appropriate code to stdio stream stream. The argument table is the jump-table insn, and num is the label-number of the preceding label.
If this macro is not defined, nothing special is output at the end of the jump-table.

21.17.9 Assembler Commands for Exception Regions
This describes commands marking the start and the end of an exception region.

ASM_OUTPUT_EH_REGION_BEG ()
A C expression to output text to mark the start of an exception region.
This macro need not be defined on most platforms.

ASM_OUTPUT_EH_REGION_END ()
A C expression to output text to mark the end of an exception region.
This macro need not be defined on most platforms.

EXCEPTION_SECTION ()
A C expression to switch to the section in which the main exception table is to be placed (see Section 21.15 [Sections], page 413). The default is a section named .gcc_except_table on machines that support named sections via ASM_OUTPUT_SECTION_NAME, otherwise if ‘-fPIC’ or ‘-fPIC’ is in effect, the data_section, otherwise the readonly_data_section.
EH_FRAME_SECTION_ASM_OP
If defined, a C string constant, including spacing, for the assembler operation to
switch to the section for exception handling frame unwind information. If not de-
defined, GCC will provide a default definition if the target supports named sections.
‘crtstuff.c’ uses this macro to switch to the appropriate section.
You should define this symbol if your target supports DwarF 2 frame unwind
information and the default definition does not work.

OMIT_EH_TABLE ()
A C expression that is nonzero if the normal exception table output should be
omitted.
This macro need not be defined on most platforms.

EH_TABLE_LOOKUP ()
Alternate runtime support for looking up an exception at runtime and finding the
associated handler, if the default method won’t work.
This macro need not be defined on most platforms.

DOESNT_NEED_UNWINDER
A C expression that decides whether or not the current function needs to have a
function unwinder generated for it. See the file except.c for details on when to
define this, and how.

MASK_RETURN_ADDR
An rtx used to mask the return address found via RETURN_ADDR RTX, so that
it does not contain any extraneous set bits in it.

DWARF2_UNWIND_INFO
Define this macro to 0 if your target supports DwarF 2 frame unwind informa-
tion, but it does not yet work with exception handling. Otherwise, if your tar-
get supports this information (if it defines ‘INCOMING_RETURN_ADDR RTX’ and either
‘UNALIGNED_INT_ASM_OP’ or ‘OBJECT_FORMAT_ELF’), GCC will provide a default def-
inition of 1.
If this macro is defined to 1, the DwarF 2 unwinder will be the default exception
handling mechanism; otherwise, setjmp/longjmp will be used by default.
If this macro is defined to anything, the DwarF 2 unwinder will be used instead
of inline unwinders and __unwind_function in the non-setjmp case.

DWARF_CIE_DATA_ALIGNMENT
This macro need only be defined if the target might save registers in the function
prologue at an offset to the stack pointer that is not aligned to UNITS_PER_WORD. The
definition should be the negative minimum alignment if STACK_GROWS_DOWNWARD is
defined, and the positive minimum alignment otherwise. See Section 21.18.5 [SDB
and DwarF], page 438. Only applicable if the target supports DwarF 2 frame
unwind information.

21.17.10 Assembler Commands for Alignment
This describes commands for alignment.

LABEL_ALIGN_AFTER_BARRIER (label)
The alignment (log base 2) to put in front of label, which follows a BARRIER.
This macro need not be defined if you don’t want any special alignment to be done
at such a time. Most machine descriptions do not currently define the macro.
Unless it’s necessary to inspect the label parameter, it is better to set the variable
align_jumps in the target’s OVERRIDE_OPTIONS. Otherwise, you should try to honour
the user’s selection in align_jumps in a LABEL_ALIGN_AFTER_BARRIER implementation.

**LABEL_ALIGN_AFTER_BARRIER_MAX_SKIP**
The maximum number of bytes to skip when applying LABEL_ALIGN_AFTER_BARRIER. This works only if ASM_OUTPUT_MAX_SKIP_ALIGN is defined.

**LOOP_ALIGN (label)**
The alignment (log base 2) to put in front of label, which follows a NOTE_INSN_LOOP_BEG note.

This macro need not be defined if you don’t want any special alignment to be done at such a time. Most machine descriptions do not currently define the macro.

Unless it’s necessary to inspect the label parameter, it is better to set the variable align_loops in the target’s OVERRIDE_OPTIONS. Otherwise, you should try to honour the user’s selection in align_loops in a LOOP_ALIGN implementation.

**LOOP_ALIGN_MAX_SKIP**
The maximum number of bytes to skip when applying LOOP_ALIGN. This works only if ASM_OUTPUT_MAX_SKIP_ALIGN is defined.

**LABEL_ALIGN (label)**
The alignment (log base 2) to put in front of label. If LABEL_ALIGN_AFTER_BARRIER / LOOP_ALIGN specify a different alignment, the maximum of the specified values is used.

Unless it’s necessary to inspect the label parameter, it is better to set the variable align_labels in the target’s OVERRIDE_OPTIONS. Otherwise, you should try to honour the user’s selection in align_labels in a LABEL_ALIGN implementation.

**LABEL_ALIGN_MAX_SKIP**
The maximum number of bytes to skip when applying LABEL_ALIGN. This works only if ASM_OUTPUT_MAX_SKIP_ALIGN is defined.

**ASM_OUTPUT_SKIP (stream, nbytes)**
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream an assembler instruction to advance the location counter by nbytes bytes. Those bytes should be zero when loaded. nbytes will be a C expression of type int.

**ASM_NO_SKIP_IN_TEXT**
Define this macro if ASM_OUTPUT_SKIP should not be used in the text section because it fails to put zeros in the bytes that are skipped. This is true on many Unix systems, where the pseudo–op to skip bytes produces no-op instructions rather than zeros when used in the text section.

**ASM_OUTPUT_ALIGN (stream, power)**
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream an assembler command to advance the location counter to a multiple of 2 to the power bytes. power will be a C expression of type int.

**ASM_OUTPUT_MAX_SKIP_ALIGN (stream, power, max_skip)**
A C statement to output to the stdio stream stream an assembler command to advance the location counter to a multiple of 2 to the power bytes, but only if max_skip or fewer bytes are needed to satisfy the alignment request. power and max_skip will be a C expression of type int.
21.18 Controlling Debugging Information Format

This describes how to specify debugging information.

21.18.1 Macros Affecting All Debugging Formats

These macros affect all debugging formats.

**DBX_REGISTER_NUMBER** (regno)

A C expression that returns the DBX register number for the compiler register number regno. In simple cases, the value of this expression may be regno itself. But sometimes there are some registers that the compiler knows about and DBX does not, or vice versa. In such cases, some register may need to have one number in the compiler and another for DBX.

If two registers have consecutive numbers inside GCC, and they can be used as a pair to hold a multiword value, then they must have consecutive numbers after renumbering with **DBX_REGISTER_NUMBER**. Otherwise, debuggers will be unable to access such a pair, because they expect register pairs to be consecutive in their own numbering scheme.

If you find yourself defining **DBX_REGISTER_NUMBER** in a way that does not preserve register pairs, then what you must do instead is redefine the actual register numbering scheme.

**DEBUGGER_AUTO_OFFSET** (x)

A C expression that returns the integer offset value for an automatic variable having address x (an RTL expression). The default computation assumes that x is based on the frame-pointer and gives the offset from the frame-pointer. This is required for targets that produce debugging output for DBX or COFF-style debugging output for SDB and allow the frame-pointer to be eliminated when the ‘-g’ option is used.

**DEBUGGER_ARG_OFFSET** (offset, x)

A C expression that returns the integer offset value for an argument having address x (an RTL expression). The nominal offset is offset.

**PREFERRED_DEBUGGING_TYPE**

A C expression that returns the type of debugging output GCC should produce when the user specifies just ‘-g’. Define this if you have arranged for GCC to support more than one format of debugging output. Currently, the allowable values are **DBX_DEBUG**, **SDB_DEBUG**, **DWARF_DEBUG**, **DWARF2_DEBUG**, and **XCOFF_DEBUG**.

When the user specifies ‘-ggdb’, GCC normally also uses the value of this macro to select the debugging output format, but with two exceptions. If **DWARF2_DEBUGGING_INFO** is defined and **LINKER_DOES_NOT_WORK_WITH_DWARF2** is not defined, GCC uses the value **DWARF2_DEBUG**. Otherwise, if **DBX_DEBUGGING_INFO** is defined, GCC uses **DBX_DEBUG**.

The value of this macro only affects the default debugging output; the user can always get a specific type of output by using ‘-gstabs’, ‘-gcoff’, ‘-gdwarf-1’, ‘-gdwarf-2’, or ‘-gxcoff’.

21.18.2 Specific Options for DBX Output

These are specific options for DBX output.
DBX_DEBUGGING_INFO
Define this macro if GCC should produce debugging output for DBX in response to the `-g` option.

XCOFF_DEBUGGING_INFO
Define this macro if GCC should produce XCOFF format debugging output in response to the `-g` option. This is a variant of DBX format.

DEFAULT_GDB_EXTENSIONS
Define this macro to control whether GCC should by default generate GDB's extended version of DBX debugging information (assuming DBX-format debugging information is enabled at all). If you don't define the macro, the default is 1: always generate the extended information if there is any occasion to.

DEBUG_SYMS_TEXT
Define this macro if all `.stabs` commands should be output while in the text section.

ASM_STABS_OP
A C string constant, including spacing, naming the assembler pseudo op to use instead of `"\t.stabs\t"` to define an ordinary debugging symbol. If you don't define this macro, `"\t.stabs\t"` is used. This macro applies only to DBX debugging information format.

ASM_STABD_OP
A C string constant, including spacing, naming the assembler pseudo op to use instead of `"\t.stabd\t"` to define a debugging symbol whose value is the current location. If you don't define this macro, `"\t.stabd\t"` is used. This macro applies only to DBX debugging information format.

ASM_STABN_OP
A C string constant, including spacing, naming the assembler pseudo op to use instead of `"\t.stabn\t"` to define a debugging symbol with no name. If you don't define this macro, `"\t.stabn\t"` is used. This macro applies only to DBX debugging information format.

DBX_NO_XREFS
Define this macro if DBX on your system does not support the construct `\xstagnname`. On some systems, this construct is used to describe a forward reference to a structure named `tagname`. On other systems, this construct is not supported at all.

DBX_CONTIN_LENGTH
A symbol name in DBX-format debugging information is normally continued (split into two separate `.stabs` directives) when it exceeds a certain length (by default, 80 characters). On some operating systems, DBX requires this splitting; on others, splitting must not be done. You can inhibit splitting by defining this macro with the value zero. You can override the default splitting-length by defining this macro as an expression for the length you desire.

DBX_CONTIN_CHAR
Normally continuation is indicated by adding a `\` character to the end of a `.stabs` string when a continuation follows. To use a different character instead, define this macro as a character constant for the character you want to use. Do not define this macro if backslash is correct for your system.

DBX_STATIC_STAB_DATA_SECTION
Define this macro if it is necessary to go to the data section before outputting the `.stabs` pseudo-op for a non-global static variable.
DBX_TYPE_DECL_STABS_CODE
The value to use in the “code” field of the .stabs directive for a typedef. The default is N_LSYM.

DBX_STATIC_CONST_VAR_CODE
The value to use in the “code” field of the .stabs directive for a static variable located in the text section. DBX format does not provide any “right” way to do this. The default is N_FUN.

DBX_REGPARM_STABS_CODE
The value to use in the “code” field of the .stabs directive for a parameter passed in registers. DBX format does not provide any “right” way to do this. The default is N_RSYM.

DBX_REGPARM_STABS_LETTER
The letter to use in DBX symbol data to identify a symbol as a parameter passed in registers. DBX format does not customarily provide any way to do this. The default is 'P'.

DBX_MEMPARM_STABS_LETTER
The letter to use in DBX symbol data to identify a symbol as a stack parameter. The default is 'p'.

DBX_FUNCTION_FIRST
Define this macro if the DBX information for a function and its arguments should precede the assembler code for the function. Normally, in DBX format, the debugging information entirely follows the assembler code.

DBX_LBRAC_FIRST
Define this macro if the N_LBRAC symbol for a block should precede the debugging information for variables and functions defined in that block. Normally, in DBX format, the N_LBRAC symbol comes first.

DBX_BLOCKS_FUNCTION_RELATIVE
Define this macro if the value of a symbol describing the scope of a block (N_LBRAC or N_RBRAC) should be relative to the start of the enclosing function. Normally, GNU C uses an absolute address.

DBX_USE_BINCL
Define this macro if GNU C should generate N_BINCL and N_EINCL stabs for included header files, as on Sun systems. This macro also directs GNU C to output a type number as a pair of a file number and a type number within the file. Normally, GNU C does not generate N_BINCL or N_EINCL stabs, and it outputs a single number for a type number.

21.18.3 Open-Ended Hooks for DBX Format

These are hooks for DBX format.

DBX_OUTPUT_LBRAC (stream, name)
Define this macro to say how to output to stream the debugging information for the start of a scope level for variable names. The argument name is the name of an assembler symbol (for use with assemble_name) whose value is the address where the scope begins.

DBX_OUTPUT_RBRAC (stream, name)
Like DBX_OUTPUT_LBRAC, but for the end of a scope level.
DBX_OUTPUT_ENUM (stream, type)
Define this macro if the target machine requires special handling to output an enumeration type. The definition should be a C statement (sans semicolon) to output the appropriate information to stream for the type type.

DBX_OUTPUT_FUNCTION_END (stream, function)
Define this macro if the target machine requires special output at the end of the debugging information for a function. The definition should be a C statement (sans semicolon) to output the appropriate information to stream. function is the FUNCTION_DECL node for the function.

DBX_OUTPUT_STANDARD_TYPES (syms)
Define this macro if you need to control the order of output of the standard data types at the beginning of compilation. The argument syms is a tree which is a chain of all the predefined global symbols, including names of data types.

Normally, DBX output starts with definitions of the types for integers and characters, followed by all the other predefined types of the particular language in no particular order.

On some machines, it is necessary to output different particular types first. To do this, define DBX_OUTPUT_STANDARD_TYPES to output those symbols in the necessary order. Any predefined types that you don’t explicitly output will be output afterward in no particular order.

Be careful not to define this macro so that it works only for C. There are no global variables to access most of the built-in types, because another language may have another set of types. The way to output a particular type is to look through syms to see if you can find it. Here is an example:

```
{  
    tree decl;
    for (decl = syms; decl; decl = TREE_CHAIN (decl))
       if (!strcmp (IDENTIFIER_POINTER (DECL_NAME (decl)),
                      "long int"))
           dbxout_symbol (decl);
    ...
}
```

This does nothing if the expected type does not exist.

See the function `init_decl_processing` in `c-decl.c` to find the names to use for all the built-in C types.

Here is another way of finding a particular type:

```
{  
    tree decl;
    for (decl = syms; decl; decl = TREE_CHAIN (decl))
       if (TREE_CODE (decl) == TYPEDECL
           && (TREE_CODE (TREE_TYPE (decl))
                == INTEGER_CST)
           && TYPE_PRECISION (TREE_TYPE (decl)) == 16
           && TYPE_UNSIGNED (TREE_TYPE (decl)))
           /* This must be unsigned short. */
           dbxout_symbol (decl);
    ...
}
```
Some stabs encapsulation formats (in particular ECOFF), cannot handle the `.stabs
"",N_FUN,0,0,Lscope-function-1 gdb dbx extension construct. On those ma-
chines, define this macro to turn this feature off without disturbing the rest of the
gdb extensions.

### 21.18.4 File Names in DBX Format

This describes file names in DBX format.

---

**DBX_WORKING_DIRECTORY**

Define this if DBX wants to have the current directory recorded in each object file.
Note that the working directory is always recorded if GDB extensions are enabled.

**DBX_OUTPUT_MAIN_SOURCE_FILENAME** *(stream, name)*

A C statement to output DBX debugging information to the stdio stream `stream` which indicates that file `name` is the main source file—the file specified as the input file for compilation. This macro is called only once, at the beginning of compilation. This macro need not be defined if the standard form of output for DBX debugging information is appropriate.

**DBX_OUTPUT_MAIN_SOURCE_DIRECTORY** *(stream, name)*

A C statement to output DBX debugging information to the stdio stream `stream` which indicates that the current directory during compilation is named `name`. This macro need not be defined if the standard form of output for DBX debugging information is appropriate.

**DBX_OUTPUT_MAIN_SOURCE_FILE_END** *(stream, name)*

A C statement to output DBX debugging information at the end of compilation of the main source file `name`.

If you don’t define this macro, nothing special is output at the end of compilation, which is correct for most machines.

**DBX_OUTPUT_SOURCE_FILENAME** *(stream, name)*

A C statement to output DBX debugging information to the stdio stream `stream` which indicates that file `name` is the current source file. This output is generated each time input shifts to a different source file as a result of `'#include'`, the end of an included file, or a `'#line'` command. This macro need not be defined if the standard form of output for DBX debugging information is appropriate.

---

### 21.18.5 Macros for SDB and DWARF Output

Here are macros for SDB and DWARF output.

**SDB_DEBUGGING_INFO**

Define this macro if GCC should produce COFF-style debugging output for SDB in response to the `'-g'` option.

**DWARF_DEBUGGING_INFO**

Define this macro if GCC should produce dwarf format debugging output in response to the `'-g'` option.

**DWARF2_DEBUGGING_INFO**

Define this macro if GCC should produce dwarf version 2 format debugging output in response to the `'-g'` option.
To support optional call frame debugging information, you must also define `INCOMING_RETURN_ADDR_RTX` and either set `RTX_FRAME_RELATED_P` on the prologue insns if you use RTL for the prologue, or call `dwarf2out_def_cfa` and `dwarf2out_reg_save` as appropriate from `FUNCTION_PROLOGUE` if you don’t.

**DWARF2_FRAME_INFO**
Define this macro to a nonzero value if GCC should always output Dwarf 2 frame information. If `DWARF2_UNWIND_INFO` (see Section 21.17.9 [Exception Region Output], page 431 is nonzero, GCC will output this information not matter how you define `DWARF2_FRAME_INFO`.

**LINKER_DOES_NOT_WORK_WITH_DWARF2**
Define this macro if the linker does not work with Dwarf version 2. Normally, if the user specifies only `-ggdb` GCC will use Dwarf version 2 if available; this macro disables this. See the description of the `PREFERRED_DEBUGGING_TYPE` macro for more details.

**DWARF2_GENERATE_TEXT_SECTION_LABEL**
By default, the Dwarf 2 debugging information generator will generate a label to mark the beginning of the text section. If it is better simply to use the name of the text section itself, rather than an explicit label, to indicate the beginning of the text section, define this macro to zero.

**DWARF2_ASM_LINE_DEBUG_INFO**
Define this macro to be a nonzero value if the assembler can generate Dwarf 2 line debug info sections. This will result in much more compact line number tables, and hence is desirable if it works.

**PUT_SDB_...**
Define these macros to override the assembler syntax for the special SDB assembler directives. See ‘sdbout.c’ for a list of these macros and their arguments. If the standard syntax is used, you need not define them yourself.

**SDB_DELIM**
Some assemblers do not support a semicolon as a delimiter, even between SDB assembler directives. In that case, define this macro to be the delimiter to use (usually ‘\n’). It is not necessary to define a new set of PUT_SDB_op macros if this is the only change required.

**SDB_GENERATE_FAKE**
Define this macro to override the usual method of constructing a dummy name for anonymous structure and union types. See ‘sdbout.c’ for more information.

**SDB_ALLOW_UNKNOWN_REFERENCES**
Define this macro to allow references to unknown structure, union, or enumeration tags to be emitted. Standard COFF does not allow handling of unknown references, MIPS ECOFF has support for it.

**SDB_ALLOW_FORWARD_REFERENCES**
Define this macro to allow references to structure, union, or enumeration tags that have not yet been seen to be handled. Some assemblers choke if forward tags are used, while some require it.

### 21.19 Cross Compilation and Floating Point

While all modern machines use 2’s complement representation for integers, there are a variety of representations for floating point numbers. This means that in a cross-compiler the representation of floating point numbers in the compiled program may be different from that used in the machine doing the compilation.
Because different representation systems may offer different amounts of range and precision, the cross compiler cannot safely use the host machine’s floating point arithmetic. Therefore, floating point constants must be represented in the target machine’s format. This means that the cross compiler cannot use `atof` to parse a floating point constant; it must have its own special routine to use instead. Also, constant folding must emulate the target machine’s arithmetic (or must not be done at all).

The macros in the following table should be defined only if you are cross compiling between different floating point formats.

Otherwise, don’t define them. Then default definitions will be set up which use `double` as the data type, `==` to test for equality, etc.

You don’t need to worry about how many times you use an operand of any of these macros. The compiler never uses operands which have side effects.

**REAL_VALUE_TYPE**
A macro for the C data type to be used to hold a floating point value in the target machine’s format. Typically this would be a `struct` containing an array of `int`.

**REAL_VALUES_EQUAL (x, y)**
A macro for a C expression which compares for equality the two values, x and y, both of type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`.

**REAL_VALUES_LESS (x, y)**
A macro for a C expression which tests whether x is less than y, both values being of type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE` and interpreted as floating point numbers in the target machine’s representation.

**REAL_VALUE_LDEXP (x, scale)**
A macro for a C expression which performs the standard library function `ldexp`, but using the target machine’s floating point representation. Both x and the value of the expression have type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`. The second argument, `scale`, is an integer.

**REAL_VALUE_FIX (x)**
A macro whose definition is a C expression to convert the target-machine floating point value x to a signed integer. x has type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`.

**REAL_VALUE_UNSIGNED_FIX (x)**
A macro whose definition is a C expression to convert the target-machine floating point value x to an unsigned integer. x has type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`.

**REAL_VALUE_RNDZINT (x)**
A macro whose definition is a C expression to round the target-machine floating point value x towards zero to an integer value (but still as a floating point number). x has type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`, and so does the value.

**REAL_VALUE_UNSIGNED_RNDZINT (x)**
A macro whose definition is a C expression to round the target-machine floating point value x towards zero to an unsigned integer value (but still represented as a floating point number). x has type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`, and so does the value.

**REAL_VALUE_ATOF (string, mode)**
A macro for a C expression which converts `string`, an expression of type `char *`, into a floating point number in the target machine’s representation for mode `mode`. The value has type `REAL_VALUE_TYPE`.

**REAL_INFINITY**
Define this macro if infinity is a possible floating point value, and therefore division by 0 is legitimate.
REAL_VALUE_ISINF (x)
A macro for a C expression which determines whether x, a floating point value, is infinity. The value has type int. By default, this is defined to call isinf.

REAL_VALUE_ISNAN (x)
A macro for a C expression which determines whether x, a floating point value, is a “nan” (not-a-number). The value has type int. By default, this is defined to call isnan.

Define the following additional macros if you want to make floating point constant folding work while cross compiling. If you don’t define them, cross compilation is still possible, but constant folding will not happen for floating point values.

REAL_ARITHMETIC (output, code, x, y)
A macro for a C statement which calculates an arithmetic operation of the two floating point values x and y, both of type REAL_VALUE_TYPE in the target machine’s representation, to produce a result of the same type and representation which is stored in output (which will be a variable).

The operation to be performed is specified by code, a tree code which will always be one of the following: PLUS_EXPR, MINUS_EXPR, MULT_EXPR, RDIV_EXPR, MAX_EXPR, MIN_EXPR.

The expansion of this macro is responsible for checking for overflow. If overflow happens, the macro expansion should execute the statement return 0; which indicates the inability to perform the arithmetic operation requested.

REAL_VALUE_NEGATE (x)
A macro for a C expression which returns the negative of the floating point value x. Both x and the value of the expression have type REAL_VALUE_TYPE and are in the target machine’s floating point representation.

There is no way for this macro to report overflow, since overflow can’t happen in the negation operation.

REAL_VALUE_TRUNCATE (mode, x)
A macro for a C expression which converts the floating point value x to mode mode. Both x and the value of the expression are in the target machine’s floating point representation and have type REAL_VALUE_TYPE. However, the value should have an appropriate bit pattern to be output properly as a floating constant whose precision accords with mode mode.

There is no way for this macro to report overflow.

REAL_VALUE_TO_INT (low, high, x)
A macro for a C expression which converts a floating point value x into a double-precision integer which is then stored into low and high, two variables of type int.

REAL_VALUE_FROM_INT (x, low, high, mode)
A macro for a C expression which converts a double-precision integer found in low and high, two variables of type int, into a floating point value which is then stored into x. The value is in the target machine’s representation for mode mode and has the type REAL_VALUE_TYPE.

21.20 Mode Switching Instructions

The following macros control mode switching optimizations:
OPTIMIZE_MODE_SWITCHING (entity)
Define this macro if the port needs extra instructions inserted for mode switching in an optimizing compilation.

For an example, the SH4 can perform both single and double precision floating point operations, but to perform a single precision operation, the FPSCR PR bit has to be cleared, while for a double precision operation, this bit has to be set. Changing the PR bit requires a general purpose register as a scratch register, hence these FPSCR sets have to be inserted before reload, i.e. you can’t put this into instruction emitting or MACHINE_DEPENDENT_REORG.

You can have multiple entities that are mode-switched, and select at run time which entities actually need it. OPTIMIZE_MODE_SWITCHING should return non-zero for any entity that needs mode-switching. If you define this macro, you also have to define NUM_MODES_FOR_MODE_SWITCHING, MODE_NEEDED, MODE_PRIORITY_TO_MODE and EMIT_MODE_SET. NORMAL_MODE is optional.

NUM_MODES_FOR_MODE_SWITCHING
If you define OPTIMIZE_MODE_SWITCHING, you have to define this as initializer for an array of integers. Each initializer element N refers to an entity that needs mode switching, and specifies the number of different modes that might need to be set for this entity. The position of the initializer in the initializer - starting counting at zero - determines the integer that is used to refer to the mode-switched entity in question. In macros that take mode arguments / yield a mode result, modes are represented as numbers 0 ... N − 1. N is used to specify that no mode switch is needed / supplied.

MODE_NEEDED (entity, insn)
entity is an integer specifying a mode-switched entity. If OPTIMIZE_MODE_SWITCHING is defined, you must define this macro to return an integer value not larger than the corresponding element in NUM_MODES_FOR_MODE_SWITCHING, to denote the mode that entity must be switched into prior to the execution of INSN.

NORMAL_MODE (entity)
If this macro is defined, it is evaluated for every entity that needs mode switching. It should evaluate to an integer, which is a mode that entity is assumed to be switched to at function entry and exit.

MODE_PRIORITY_TO_MODE (entity, n)
This macro specifies the order in which modes for ENTITY are processed. 0 is the highest priority, NUM_MODES_FOR_MODE_SWITCHING[ENTITY] - 1 the lowest. The value of the macro should be an integer designating a mode for ENTITY. For any fixed entity, mode_priority_to_mode (entity, n) shall be a bijection in 0 ... num_modes_for_mode_switching[entity] − 1.

EMIT_MODE_SET (entity, mode, hard_regs_live)
Generate one or more insns to set entity to mode. hard_reg_live is the set of hard registers live at the point where the insn(s) are to be inserted.

21.21 Miscellaneous Parameters

Here are several miscellaneous parameters.

PREDICATE_CODES
Define this if you have defined special-purpose predicates in the file ‘machine.c’. This macro is called within an initializer of an array of structures. The first field in the structure is the name of a predicate and the second field is an array of rtl codes. For each predicate, list all rtl codes that can be in expressions matched by
the predicate. The list should have a trailing comma. Here is an example of two entries in the list for a typical RISC machine:

```c
#define PREDICATE_CODES \
   {"gen_reg_rtx_operand", {SUBREG, REG}}, \
   {"reg_or_short_cint_operand", {SUBREG, REG, CONST_INT}},
```

Defining this macro does not affect the generated code (however, incorrect definitions that omit an rtl code that may be matched by the predicate can cause the compiler to malfunction). Instead, it allows the table built by `genrecog` to be more compact and efficient, thus speeding up the compiler. The most important predicates to include in the list specified by this macro are those used in the most insn patterns.

For each predicate function named in `PREDICATE_CODES`, a declaration will be generated in `insn-codes.h`.

**SPECIAL_MODE_PREDICATES**

Define this if you have special predicates that know special things about modes. Genrecog will warn about certain forms of `match_operand` without a mode; if the operand predicate is listed in `SPECIAL_MODE_PREDICATES`, the warning will be suppressed.

Here is an example from the IA-32 port (`ext_register_operand` specially checks for HImode or SImode in preparation for a byte extraction from %ah etc.).

```c
#define SPECIAL_MODE_PREDICATES \
   "ext_register_operand",
```

**CASE_VECTOR_MODE**

An alias for a machine mode name. This is the machine mode that elements of a jump-table should have.

**CASE_VECTOR_SHORTEN_MODE** (`min_offset`, `max_offset`, `body`)

Optional: return the preferred mode for an `addr_diff_vec` when the minimum and maximum offset are known. If you define this, it enables extra code in branch shortening to deal with `addr_diff_vec`. To make this work, you also have to define `INSN_ALIGN` and make the alignment for `addr_diff_vec` explicit. The `body` argument is provided so that the offset unsigned and scale flags can be updated.

**CASE_VECTOR_PC_RELATIVE**

Define this macro to be a C expression to indicate when jump-tables should contain relative addresses. If jump-tables never contain relative addresses, then you need not define this macro.

**CASE_DROPS_THROUGH**

Define this if control falls through a case insn when the index value is out of range. This means the specified default-label is actually ignored by the case insn proper.

**CASE_VALUES_THRESHOLD**

Define this to be the smallest number of different values for which it is best to use a jump-table instead of a tree of conditional branches. The default is four for machines with a `casesi` instruction and five otherwise. This is best for most machines.

**WORD_REGISTER_OPERATIONS**

Define this macro if operations between registers with integral mode smaller than a word are always performed on the entire register. Most RISC machines have this property and most CISC machines do not.

**LOAD_EXTEND_OP** (`mode`)

Define this macro to be a C expression indicating when insns that read memory in `mode`, an integral mode narrower than a word, set the bits outside of `mode` to
be either the sign-extension or the zero-extension of the data read. Return \texttt{SIGN\_EXTEND} for values of \texttt{mode} for which the insn sign-extends, \texttt{ZERO\_EXTEND} for which it zero-extends, and \texttt{NIL} for other modes.

This macro is not called with \texttt{mode} non-integral or with a width greater than or equal to \texttt{BITS\_PER\_WORD}, so you may return any value in this case. Do not define this macro if it would always return \texttt{NIL}. On machines where this macro is defined, you will normally define it as the constant \texttt{SIGN\_EXTEND} or \texttt{ZERO\_EXTEND}.

\textbf{SHORT\_IMMEDIATES\_SIGN\_EXTEND}

Define this macro if loading short immediate values into registers sign extends.

\textbf{IMPLICIT\_FIX\_EXPR}

An alias for a tree code that should be used by default for conversion of floating point values to fixed point. Normally, \texttt{FIX\_ROUND\_EXPR} is used.

\textbf{FIXUNS\_TRUNC\_LIKE\_FIX\_TRUNC}

Define this macro if the same instructions that convert a floating point number to a signed fixed point number also convert validly to an unsigned one.

\textbf{EASY\_DIV\_EXPR}

An alias for a tree code that is the easiest kind of division to compile code for in the general case. It may be \texttt{TRUNC\_DIV\_EXPR}, \texttt{FLOOR\_DIV\_EXPR}, \texttt{CEIL\_DIV\_EXPR} or \texttt{ROUND\_DIV\_EXPR}. These four division operators differ in how they round the result to an integer. \texttt{EASY\_DIV\_EXPR} is used when it is permissible to use any of those kinds of division and the choice should be made on the basis of efficiency.

\textbf{MOVE\_MAX}

The maximum number of bytes that a single instruction can move quickly between memory and registers or between two memory locations.

\textbf{MAX\_MOVE\_MAX}

The maximum number of bytes that a single instruction can move quickly between memory and registers or between two memory locations. If this is undefined, the default is \texttt{MOVE\_MAX}. Otherwise, it is the constant value that is the largest value that \texttt{MOVE\_MAX} can have at run-time.

\textbf{SHIFT\_COUNT\_TRUNCATED}

A C expression that is nonzero if on this machine the number of bits actually used for the count of a shift operation is equal to the number of bits needed to represent the size of the object being shifted. When this macro is non-zero, the compiler will assume that it is safe to omit a sign-extend, zero-extend, and certain bitwise ‘and’ instructions that truncates the count of a shift operation. On machines that have instructions that act on bit-fields at variable positions, which may include ‘bit test’ instructions, a nonzero \texttt{SHIFT\_COUNT\_TRUNCATED} also enables deletion of truncations of the values that serve as arguments to bit-field instructions.

If both types of instructions truncate the count (for shifts) and position (for bit-field operations), or if no variable-position bit-field instructions exist, you should define this macro.

However, on some machines, such as the 80386 and the 680x0, truncation only applies to shift operations and not the (real or pretended) bit-field operations. Define \texttt{SHIFT\_COUNT\_TRUNCATED} to be zero on such machines. Instead, add patterns to the ‘md’ file that include the implied truncation of the shift instructions.

You need not define this macro if it would always have the value of zero.

\textbf{TRULY\_NOOP\_TRUNCATION (outprec, inprec)}

A C expression which is nonzero if on this machine it is safe to “convert” an integer of \texttt{inprec} bits to one of \texttt{outprec} bits (where \texttt{outprec} is smaller than \texttt{inprec}) by merely operating on it as if it had only \texttt{outprec} bits.
On many machines, this expression can be 1.

When \texttt{TRULY\_NOOP\_TRUNCATION} returns 1 for a pair of sizes for modes for which \texttt{MODES\_TIEABLE\_P} is 0, suboptimal code can result. If this is the case, making \texttt{TRULY\_NOOP\_TRUNCATION} return 0 in such cases may improve things.

\texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE}

A C expression describing the value returned by a comparison operator with an integral mode and stored by a store-flag instruction (‘\texttt{scond}’) when the condition is true. This description must apply to all the ‘\texttt{scond}’ patterns and all the comparison operators whose results have a \texttt{MODE\_INT} mode.

A value of 1 or $-1$ means that the instruction implementing the comparison operator returns exactly 1 or $-1$ when the comparison is true and 0 when the comparison is false. Otherwise, the value indicates which bits of the result are guaranteed to be 1 when the comparison is true. This value is interpreted in the mode of the comparison operation, which is given by the mode of the first operand in the ‘\texttt{scond}’ pattern. Either the low bit or the sign bit of \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} be on. Presently, only those bits are used by the compiler.

If \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} is neither 1 or $-1$, the compiler will generate code that depends only on the specified bits. It can also replace comparison operators with equivalent operations if they cause the required bits to be set, even if the remaining bits are undefined. For example, on a machine whose comparison operators return an \texttt{SImode} value and where \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} is defined as ‘0x80000000’, saying that just the sign bit is relevant, the expression

\[
\text{(ne:SI (and:SI x (const\_int power-of-2))) (const\_int 0)}
\]

can be converted to

\[
\text{(ashift:SI x (const\_int n))}
\]

where \texttt{n} is the appropriate shift count to move the bit being tested into the sign bit. There is no way to describe a machine that always sets the low-order bit for a true value, but does not guarantee the value of any other bits, but we do not know of any machine that has such an instruction. If you are trying to port GCC to such a machine, include an instruction to perform a logical-and of the result with 1 in the pattern for the comparison operators and let us know (see Section 10.3 \textit{[How to Report Bugs]}, page 204).

Often, a machine will have multiple instructions that obtain a value from a comparison (or the condition codes). Here are rules to guide the choice of value for \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE}, and hence the instructions to be used:

- Use the shortest sequence that yields a valid definition for \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE}.
  It is more efficient for the compiler to “normalize” the value (convert it to, e.g., 1 or 0) than for the comparison operators to do so because there may be opportunities to combine the normalization with other operations.
- For equal-length sequences, use a value of 1 or $-1$, with $-1$ being slightly preferred on machines with expensive jumps and 1 preferred on other machines.
- As a second choice, choose a value of ‘0x80000001’ if instructions exist that set both the sign and low-order bits but do not define the others.
- Otherwise, use a value of ‘0x80000000’.

Many machines can produce both the value chosen for \texttt{STORE\_FLAG\_VALUE} and its negation in the same number of instructions. On those machines, you should also define a pattern for those cases, e.g., one matching

\[
\text{(set A (neg:m (ne:m B C)))}
\]

Some machines can also perform \texttt{and} or \texttt{plus} operations on condition code values with less instructions than the corresponding ‘\texttt{scond}’ insn followed by \texttt{and} or \texttt{plus}. 


On those machines, define the appropriate patterns. Use the names incscc and
decscc, respectively, for the patterns which perform plus or minus operations on
condition code values. See 'rs6000.md' for some examples. The GNU Superoptizer
can be used to find such instruction sequences on other machines.
You need not define STORE_FLAG_VALUE if the machine has no store-flag instructions.

**FLOAT_STORE_FLAG_VALUE (mode)**
A C expression that gives a non-zero REAL_VALUE_TYPE value that is returned when
comparison operators with floating-point results are true. Define this macro on
machine that have comparison operations that return floating-point values. If there
are no such operations, do not define this macro.

**Pmode**
An alias for the machine mode for pointers. On most machines, define this to be the
integer mode corresponding to the width of a hardware pointer: SImode on 32-bit
machine or DImode on 64-bit machines. On some machines you must define this to
be one of the partial integer modes, such as PSImode.
The width of Pmode must be at least as large as the value of POINTER_SIZE. If it is
not equal, you must define the macro POINTERS_EXTEND_UNSIGNED to specify how
pointers are extended to Pmode.

**FUNCTION_MODE**
An alias for the machine mode used for memory references to functions being called,
in call RTL expressions. On most machines this should be QImode.

**INTEGRATE_THRESHOLD (decl)**
A C expression for the maximum number of instructions above which the function
decl should not be inlined. decl is a FUNCTION_DECL node.
The default definition of this macro is 64 plus 8 times the number of arguments that
the function accepts. Some people think a larger threshold should be used on RISC
machines.

**SCCS_DIRECTIVE**
Define this if the preprocessor should ignore #sccs directives and print no error
message.

**NO_IMPLICIT_EXTERN_C**
Define this macro if the system header files support C++ as well as C. This macro
inhibits the usual method of using system header files in C++, which is to pretend
that the file's contents are enclosed in 'extern "C" {...}'.

**HANDLE_PRAGMA (getc, ungetc, name)**
This macro is no longer supported. You must use REGISTER_TARGET_PRAGMAS in-
stead.

**REGISTER_TARGET_PRAGMAS (pfile)**
Define this macro if you want to implement any target-specific pragmas. If defined,
it is a C expression which makes a series of calls to the cpp_register_pragma and/or
cpp_register_pragma_space functions. The pfile argument is the first argument
to supply to these functions. The macro may also do setup required for the pragmas.
The primary reason to define this macro is to provide compatibility with other
compilers for the same target. In general, we discourage definition of target-specific
pragmas for GCC.
If the pragma can be implemented by attributes then the macro
'INSERT_ATTRIBUTES' might be a useful one to define as well.
Preprocessor macros that appear on pragma lines are not expanded. All '#{pragma'
directives that do not match any registered pragma are silently ignored, unless the
user specifies '-Wunknown-pragmas'.
Function

```c
void cpp_register_pragma (cpp_reader *pfile, const char *space, const char *name, void (*callback)(cpp_reader *))
```

Each call to `cpp_register_pragma` establishes one pragma. The `callback` routine will be called when the preprocessor encounters a pragma of the form

```
#pragma [space] name ...
```

`space` must have been the subject of a previous call to `cpp_register_pragma`, or else be a null pointer. The callback routine receives `pfile` as its first argument, but must not use it for anything (this may change in the future). It may read any text after the `name` by making calls to `c_lex`. Text which is not read by the callback will be silently ignored.

Note that both `space` and `name` are case sensitive.

For an example use of this routine, see `c4x.h` and the callback routines defined in `c4x.c`.

Note that the use of `c_lex` is specific to the C and C++ compilers. It will not work in the Java or Fortran compilers, or any other language compilers for that matter. Thus if `c_lex` is going to be called from target-specific code, it must only be done so when building the C and C++ compilers. This can be done by defining the variables `c_target_objs` and `cxx_target_objs` in the target entry in the `config.gcc` file. These variables should name the target-specific, language-specific object file which contains the code that uses `c_lex`.

Note it will also be necessary to add a rule to the makefile fragment pointed to by `tmake_file` that shows how to build this object file.

Function

```c
void cpp_register_pragma_space (cpp_reader *pfile, const char *space)
```

This routine establishes a namespace for pragmas, which will be registered by subsequent calls to `cpp_register_pragma`. For example, pragmas defined by the C standard are in the `STDC` namespace, and pragmas specific to GCC are in the `GCC` namespace.

For an example use of this routine in a target header, see `v850.h`.

HANDLE_SYSV_PRAGMA

Define this macro (to a value of 1) if you want the System V style pragmas `"#pragma pack(<n>)"` and `"#pragma weak <name> ["=\langle\text{value}\rangle"]"` to be supported by gcc.

The pack pragma specifies the maximum alignment (in bytes) of fields within a structure, in much the same way as the `__aligned__` and `__packed__` __attribute__s do. A pack value of zero resets the behaviour to the default.

The weak pragma only works if `SUPPORTS_WEAK` and `ASM_WEAKEN_LABEL` are defined. If enabled it allows the creation of specifically named weak labels, optionally with a value.

HANDLE_PRAGMA_PACK_PUSH_POP

Define this macro (to a value of 1) if you want to support the Win32 style pragmas `"#pragma pack(push,<n>)"` and `"#pragma pack(pop)"`. The `pack(push,<n>)` pragma specifies the maximum alignment (in bytes) of fields within a structure, in much the same way as the `__aligned__` and `__packed__` __attribute__s do. A pack value of zero resets the behaviour to the default. Successive invocations of this pragma cause the previous values to be stacked, so that invocations of `"#pragma pack(pop)"` will return to the previous value.

VALID_MACHINE_DECL_ATTRIBUTE (decl, attributes, identifier, args)

If defined, a C expression whose value is nonzero if `identifier` with arguments `args` is a valid machine specific attribute for `decl`. The attributes in `attributes` have previously been assigned to `decl`. 
VALID_MACHINE_TYPE_ATTRIBUTE (type, attributes, identifier, args)
If defined, a C expression whose value is nonzero if identifier with arguments args is a valid machine specific attribute for type. The attributes in attributes have previously been assigned to type.

COMP_TYPE_ATTRIBUTES (type1, type2)
If defined, a C expression whose value is zero if the attributes on type1 and type2 are incompatible, one if they are compatible, and two if they are nearly compatible (which causes a warning to be generated).

SET_DEFAULT_TYPE_ATTRIBUTES (type)
If defined, a C statement that assigns default attributes to newly defined type.

MERGE_MACHINE_TYPE_ATTRIBUTES (type1, type2)
Define this macro if the merging of type attributes needs special handling. If defined, the result is a list of the combined TYPE_ATTRIBUTES of type1 and type2. It is assumed that comptypes has already been called and returned 1.

MERGE_MACHINE_DECL_ATTRIBUTES (olddecl, newdecl)
Define this macro if the merging of decl attributes needs special handling. If defined, the result is a list of the combined DECL_MACHINE_ATTRIBUTES of olddecl and newdecl. newdecl is a duplicate declaration of olddecl. Examples of when this is needed are when one attribute overrides another, or when an attribute is nullified by a subsequent definition.

INSERT_ATTRIBUTES (node, attr_ptr, prefix_ptr)
Define this macro if you want to be able to add attributes to a decl when it is being created. This is normally useful for back ends which wish to implement a pragma by using the attributes which correspond to the pragma’s effect. The node argument is the decl which is being created. The attr_ptr argument is a pointer to the attribute list for this decl. The prefix_ptr is a pointer to the list of attributes that have appeared after the specifiers and modifiers of the declaration, but before the declaration proper.

SET_DEFAULT_DECL_ATTRIBUTES (decl, attributes)
If defined, a C statement that assigns default attributes to newly defined decl.

DOLLARS_IN_IDENTIFIERS
Define this macro to control use of the character ‘$’ in identifier names. 0 means ‘$’ is not allowed by default; 1 means it is allowed. 1 is the default; there is no need to define this macro in that case. This macro controls the compiler proper; it does not affect the preprocessor.

NO_DOLLAR_IN_LABEL
Define this macro if the assembler does not accept the character ‘$’ in label names. By default constructors and destructors in G++ have ‘$’ in the identifiers. If this macro is defined, ‘.’ is used instead.

NO_DOT_IN_LABEL
Define this macro if the assembler does not accept the character ‘.’ in label names. By default constructors and destructors in G++ have names that use ‘.’. If this macro is defined, these names are rewritten to avoid ‘.’.

DEFAULT_MAIN_RETURN
Define this macro if the target system expects every program’s main function to return a standard “success” value by default (if no other value is explicitly returned). The definition should be a C statement (sans semicolon) to generate the appropriate rtl instructions. It is used only when compiling the end of main.
NEED_ATEXIT
Define this if the target system lacks the function atexit from the ISO C standard. If this macro is defined, a default definition will be provided to support C++. If ON_EXIT is not defined, a default exit function will also be provided.

ON_EXIT
Define this macro if the target has another way to implement atexit functionality without replacing exit. For instance, SunOS 4 has a similar on_exit library function.

The definition should be a functional macro which can be used just like the atexit function.

EXIT_BODY
Define this if your exit function needs to do something besides calling an external function _cleanup before terminating with _exit. The EXIT_BODY macro is only needed if NEED_ATEXIT is defined and ON_EXIT is not defined.

INSN_SETS_ARE_DELAYED (insn)
Define this macro as a C expression that is nonzero if it is safe for the delay slot scheduler to place instructions in the delay slot of insn, even if they appear to use a resource set or clobbered in insn. insn is always a jump_insn or an insn; GCC knows that every call_insn has this behavior. On machines where some insn or jump_insn is really a function call and hence has this behavior, you should define this macro.

You need not define this macro if it would always return zero.

INSN_REFERENCES_ARE_DELAYED (insn)
Define this macro as a C expression that is nonzero if it is safe for the delay slot scheduler to place instructions in the delay slot of insn, even if they appear to set or clobber a resource referenced in insn. insn is always a jump_insn or an insn. On machines where some insn or jump_insn is really a function call and its operands are registers whose use is actually in the subroutine it calls, you should define this macro. Doing so allows the delay slot scheduler to move instructions which copy arguments into the argument registers into the delay slot of insn.

You need not define this macro if it would always return zero.

MACHINE_DEPENDENT_REORG (insn)
In rare cases, correct code generation requires extra machine dependent processing between the second jump optimization pass and delayed branch scheduling. On those machines, define this macro as a C statement to act on the code starting at insn.

MULTIPLE_SYMBOL_SPACES
Define this macro if in some cases global symbols from one translation unit may not be bound to undefined symbols in another translation unit without user intervention. For instance, under Microsoft Windows symbols must be explicitly imported from shared libraries (DLLs).

MD_ASM_CLOBBERS
A C statement that adds to CLOBBERS STRING_CST trees for any hard regs the port wishes to automatically clobber for all asms.

ISSUE_RATE
A C expression that returns how many instructions can be issued at the same time if the machine is a superscalar machine.

MD_SCHED_INIT (file, verbose, max_ready)
A C statement which is executed by the scheduler at the beginning of each block of instructions that are to be scheduled. file is either a null pointer, or a stdio
stream to write any debug output to. verbose is the verbose level provided by
‘-fsched-verbose-n’. max_ready is the maximum number of insns in the current
scheduling region that can be live at the same time. This can be used to allocate
scratch space if it is needed.

**MD_SCHED_FINISH** (file, verbose)
A C statement which is executed by the scheduler at the end of each block of
instructions that are to be scheduled. It can be used to perform cleanup of any
actions done by the other scheduling macros. file is either a null pointer, or a stdio
stream to write any debug output to. verbose is the verbose level provided by
‘-fsched-verbose-n’.

**MD_SCHED_REORDER** (file, verbose, ready, n_ready, clock, can_issue_more)
A C statement which is executed by the scheduler after it has scheduled the ready
list to allow the machine description to reorder it (for example to combine two
small instructions together on ‘VLIW’ machines). file is either a null pointer, or a
stdio stream to write any debug output to. verbose is the verbose level provided by
‘-fsched-verbose-n’. ready is a pointer to the ready list of instructions that
are ready to be scheduled. n_ready is the number of elements in the ready list.
The scheduler reads the ready list in reverse order, starting with ready[n_ready-1]
and going to ready[0]. clock is the timer tick of the scheduler. can_issue_more is
an output parameter that is set to the number of insns that can issue this clock;
normally this is just issue_rate. See also ‘MD_SCHED_REORDER2’.

**MD_SCHED_REORDER2** (file, verbose, ready, n_ready, clock, can_issue_more)
Like ‘MD_SCHED_REORDER’, but called at a different time. While the
‘MD_SCHED_REORDER’ macro is called whenever the scheduler starts a new cycle,
this macro is used immediately after ‘MD_SCHED_VARIABLE_ISSUE’ is called; it can
reorder the ready list and set can_issue_more to determine whether there are more
insns to be scheduled in the same cycle. Defining this macro can be useful if there
are frequent situations where scheduling one insn causes other insns to become
ready in the same cycle, these other insns can then be taken into account properly.

**MD_SCHED_VARIABLE_ISSUE** (file, verbose, insn, more)
A C statement which is executed by the scheduler after it has scheduled an insn
from the ready list. file is either a null pointer, or a stdio stream to write any debug
output to. verbose is the verbose level provided by ‘-fsched-verbose-n’. insn is
the instruction that was scheduled. more is the number of instructions that can be
issued in the current cycle. The ‘MD_SCHED_VARIABLE_ISSUE’ macro is responsible
for updating the value of more (typically by ‘more--’).

**MAX_INTEGER_COMPUTATION_MODE**
Define this to the largest integer machine mode which can be used for operations
other than load, store and copy operations.
You need only define this macro if the target holds values larger than word_mode
in general purpose registers. Most targets should not define this macro.

**MATH_LIBRARY**
Define this macro as a C string constant for the linker argument to link in the system
math library, or ‘””’ if the target does not have a separate math library.
You need only define this macro if the default of ‘”-lm”’ is wrong.

**LIBRARY_PATH_ENV**
Define this macro as a C string constant for the environment variable that specifies
where the linker should look for libraries.
You need only define this macro if the default of ‘”LIBRARY_PATH”’ is wrong.
TARGET_HAS_F_SETLKW
Define this macro if the target supports file locking with `fcntl / F_SETLKW`. Note that this functionality is part of POSIX. Defining `TARGET_HAS_F_SETLKW` will enable the test coverage code to use file locking when exiting a program, which avoids race conditions if the program has forked.

MAXCONDITIONAL_EXECUTE
A C expression for the maximum number of instructions to execute via conditional execution instructions instead of a branch. A value of `BRANCH_COST+1` is the default if the machine does not use `cc0`, and 1 if it does use `cc0`.

IFCVT_MODIFY_TESTS
A C expression to modify the tests in `TRUE_EXPR` and `FALSE_EXPR` for use in converting insns in `TEST_BB`, `THEN_BB`, `ELSE_BB`, and `JOIN_BB` basic blocks to conditional execution. Set either `TRUE_EXPR` or `FALSE_EXPR` to a null pointer if the tests cannot be converted.

IFCVT_MODIFYInsn
A C expression to modify the `PATTERN` of an `INSN` that is to be converted to conditional execution format.

IFCVT_MODIFY_FINAL
A C expression to perform any final machine dependent modifications in converting code to conditional execution in the basic blocks `TEST_BB`, `THEN_BB`, `ELSE_BB`, and `JOIN_BB`.

IFCVT_MODIFY_CANCEL
A C expression to cancel any machine dependent modifications in converting code to conditional execution in the basic blocks `TEST_BB`, `THEN_BB`, `ELSE_BB`, and `JOIN_BB`.

MD_INIT_BUILTIN
Define this macro if you have any machine-specific built-in functions that need to be defined. It should be a C expression that performs the necessary setup.

Machine specific built-in functions can be useful to expand special machine instructions that would otherwise not normally be generated because they have no equivalent in the source language (for example, SIMD vector instructions or prefetch instructions).

To create a built-in function, call the function `builtin_function` which is defined by the language front end. You can use any type nodes set up by `build_common_tree_nodes` and `build_common_tree_nodes_2`; only language front ends that use these two functions will use `MD_INIT_BUILTIN`.

MD_EXPAND_BUILTIN(`exp`, `target`, `subtarget`, `mode`, `ignore`)
Expand a call to a machine specific built-in function that was set up by `MD_INIT_BUILTIN`. `exp` is the expression for the function call; the result should go to `target` if that is convenient, and have mode `mode` if that is convenient. `subtarget` may be used as the target for computing one of `exp`’s operands. `ignore` is nonzero if the value is to be ignored. This macro should return the result of the call to the built-in function.
22 The Configuration File

The configuration file ‘xm-machine.h’ contains macro definitions that describe the machine and system on which the compiler is running, unlike the definitions in ‘machine.h’, which describe the machine for which the compiler is producing output. Most of the values in ‘xm-machine.h’ are actually the same on all machines that GCC runs on, so large parts of all configuration files are identical. But there are some macros that vary:

**USG**
Define this macro if the host system is System V.

**VMS**
Define this macro if the host system is VMS.

**FATAL_EXIT_CODE**
A C expression for the status code to be returned when the compiler exits after serious errors.

**SUCCESS_EXIT_CODE**
A C expression for the status code to be returned when the compiler exits without serious errors.

**HOST_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN**
Defined if the host machine stores words of multi-word values in big-endian order. (GCC does not depend on the host byte ordering within a word.)

**HOST_FLOAT_WORDS_BIG_ENDIAN**
Define this macro to be 1 if the host machine stores DFmode, XFmode or TFmode floating point numbers in memory with the word containing the sign bit at the lowest address; otherwise, define it to be zero.
This macro need not be defined if the ordering is the same as for multi-word integers.

**HOST_FLOAT_FORMAT**
A numeric code distinguishing the floating point format for the host machine. See TARGET_FLOAT_FORMAT in Section 21.4 [Storage Layout], page 358 for the alternatives and default.

**HOST_BITS_PER_CHAR**
A C expression for the number of bits in `char` on the host machine.

**HOST_BITS_PER_SHORT**
A C expression for the number of bits in `short` on the host machine.

**HOST_BITS_PER_INT**
A C expression for the number of bits in `int` on the host machine.

**HOST_BITS_PER_LONG**
A C expression for the number of bits in `long` on the host machine.

**HOST_BITS_PER_LONGLONG**
A C expression for the number of bits in `long long` on the host machine.

**ONLY_INT_FIELDS**
Define this macro to indicate that the host compiler only supports `int` bit-fields, rather than other integral types, including `enum`, as do most C compilers.

**OBSTACK_CHUNK_SIZE**
A C expression for the size of ordinary obstack chunks. If you don’t define this, a usually-reasonable default is used.

**OBSTACK_CHUNK_ALLOC**
The function used to allocate obstack chunks. If you don’t define this, `xmalloc` is used.
OBSTACK_CHUNK_FREE
The function used to free obstack chunks. If you don’t define this, free is used.

USE_C_ALLOCA
Define this macro to indicate that the compiler is running with the _alloca implemented in C. This version of _alloca can be found in the file ‘alloca.c’; to use it, you must also alter the ‘Makefile’ variable ALLOCA. (This is done automatically for the systems on which we know it is needed.) If you do define this macro, you should probably do it as follows:

```c
#ifdef __GNUC__
#define USE_C_ALLOCA
#else
#define alloca __builtin_alloca
#endif
```
so that when the compiler is compiled with GCC it uses the more efficient built-in alloca function.

FUNCTION_CONVERSION_BUG
Define this macro to indicate that the host compiler does not properly handle converting a function value to a pointer-to-function when it is used in an expression.

MULTIBYTE_CHARS
Define this macro to enable support for multibyte characters in the input to GCC. This requires that the host system support the ISO C library functions for converting multibyte characters to wide characters.

POSIX
Define this if your system is POSIX.1 compliant.

USE_PROTOTYPES
Define this to be 1 if you know that the host compiler supports prototypes, even if it doesn’t define __STDC__, or define it to be 0 if you do not want any prototypes used in compiling GCC. If ‘USE_PROTOTYPES’ is not defined, it will be determined automatically whether your compiler supports prototypes by checking if ‘__STDC__’ is defined.

PATH_SEPARATOR
Define this macro to be a C character constant representing the character used to separate components in paths. The default value is the colon character

DIR_SEPARATOR
If your system uses some character other than slash to separate directory names within a file specification, define this macro to be a C character constant specifying that character. When GCC displays file names, the character you specify will be used. GCC will test for both slash and the character you specify when parsing filenames.

DIR_SEPARATOR_2
If your system uses an alternative character other than ‘DIR_SEPARATOR’ to separate directory names within a file specification, define this macro to be a C character constant specifying that character. If you define this macro, GCC will test for slash, ‘DIR_SEPARATOR’, and ‘DIR_SEPARATOR_2’ when parsing filenames.

OBJECT_SUFFIX
Define this macro to be a C string representing the suffix for object files on your machine. If you do not define this macro, GCC will use ‘.o’ as the suffix for object files.
EXECUTABLE_SUFFIX
Define this macro to be a C string representing the suffix for executable files on your machine. If you do not define this macro, GCC will use the null string as the suffix for object files.

NO_AUTO_EXE_SUFFI
Define this macro if executable files on your machine have a suffix, but the compiler driver should not automatically append it to the output file name, if user hasn’t specified one.

HOST_BIT_BUCKET
The name of a file or file-like object on the host system which acts as a “bit bucket”. If you do not define this macro, GCC will use ‘/dev/null’ as the bit bucket. If the target does not support a bit bucket, this should be defined to the null string, or some other illegal filename. If the bit bucket is not writable, GCC will use a temporary file instead.

COLLECT_EXPORT_LIST
If defined, collect2 will scan the individual object files specified on its command line and create an export list for the linker. Define this macro for systems like AIX, where the linker discards object files that are not referenced from main and uses export lists.

COLLECT2_HOST_INITIALIZATION
If defined, a C statement (sans semicolon) that performs host-dependent initialization when collect2 is being initialized.

GCC_DRIVER_HOST_INITIALIZATION
If defined, a C statement (sans semicolon) that performs host-dependent initialization when a compilation driver is being initialized.

UPDATE_PATH_HOST_CANONICALIZE (path, key)
If defined, a C statement (sans semicolon) that performs host-dependent canonicalization when a path used in a compilation driver or preprocessor is canonicalized. path is the path to be canonicalized, and key is a translation prefix when its value isn’t NULL. If the C statement does canonicalize path, the new path should be returned.

In addition, configuration files for system V define bcopy, bzero and bcmp as aliases. Some files define alloca as a macro when compiled with GCC, in order to take advantage of the benefit of GCC’s built-in alloca.
23 Makefile Fragments

When you configure GCC using the `configure` script (see Chapter 4 [Installation], page 111), it will construct the file `Makefile` from the template file `Makefile.in`. When it does this, it will incorporate makefile fragment files from the `config` directory, named `t-target` and `x-host`. If these files do not exist, it means nothing needs to be added for a given target or host.

23.1 The Target Makefile Fragment

The target makefile fragment, `t-target`, defines special target dependent variables and targets used in the `Makefile`:

LIBGCC1 The rule to use to build `libgcc1.a`. If your target does not need to use the functions in `libgcc1.a`, set this to empty. See Chapter 16 [Interface], page 221.

CROSS_LIBGCC1 The rule to use to build `libgcc1.a` when building a cross compiler. If your target does not need to use the functions in `libgcc1.a`, set this to empty.

LIBGCC2_CFLAGS Compiler flags to use when compiling `libgcc2.c`.

LIB2FUNCS_EXTRA A list of source file names to be compiled or assembled and inserted into `libgcc.a`.

Floating Point Emulation
To have GCC include software floating point libraries in `libgcc.a` define FPBIT and DPBIT along with a few rules as follows:

```
# We want fine grained libraries, so use the new code
# to build the floating point emulation libraries.
FPBIT = fp-bit.c
DPBIT = dp-bit.c
```

```
fp-bit.c: $(srcdir)/config/fp-bit.c
    echo '#define FLOAT' > fp-bit.c
    cat $(srcdir)/config/fp-bit.c >> fp-bit.c

dp-bit.c: $(srcdir)/config/fp-bit.c
    cat $(srcdir)/config/fp-bit.c > dp-bit.c
```

You may need to provide additional #defines at the beginning of `fp-bit.c` and `dp-bit.c` to control target endianness and other options.

CRTSTUFF_T_CFLAGS Special flags used when compiling `crtstuff.c`. See Section 21.17.5 [Initialization], page 425.

CRTSTUFF_T_CFLAGS_S Special flags used when compiling `crtstuff.c` for shared linking. Used if you use `crtbeginS.o` and `crtendS.o` in EXTRA-PARTS. See Section 21.17.5 [Initialization], page 425.

MULTILIB_OPTIONS For some targets, invoking GCC in different ways produces objects that can not be linked together. For example, for some targets GCC produces both big and little
endian code. For these targets, you must arrange for multiple versions of ‘libgcc.a’ to be compiled, one for each set of incompatible options. When GCC invokes the linker, it arranges to link in the right version of ‘libgcc.a’, based on the command line options used.

The MULTILIB_OPTIONS macro lists the set of options for which special versions of ‘libgcc.a’ must be built. Write options that are mutually incompatible side by side, separated by a slash. Write options that may be used together separated by a space. The build procedure will build all combinations of compatible options.

For example, if you set MULTILIB_OPTIONS to ‘m68000/m68020 msoft-float’, ‘Makefile’ will build special versions of ‘libgcc.a’ using the following sets of options: ‘-m68000’, ‘-m68020’, ‘-msoft-float’, ‘-m68000 -msoft-float’, and ‘-m68020 -msoft-float’.

MULTILIB_DIRNAMES
If MULTILIB_OPTIONS is used, this variable specifies the directory names that should be used to hold the various libraries. Write one element in MULTILIB_DIRNAMES for each element in MULTILIB_OPTIONS. If MULTILIB_DIRNAMES is not used, the default value will be MULTILIB_OPTIONS, with all slashes treated as spaces.

For example, if MULTILIB_OPTIONS is set to ‘m68000/m68020 msoft-float’, then the default value of MULTILIB_DIRNAMES is ‘m68000 m68020 msoft-float’. You may specify a different value if you desire a different set of directory names.

MULTILIB_MATCHES
Sometimes the same option may be written in two different ways. If an option is listed in MULTILIB_OPTIONS, GCC needs to know about any synonyms. In that case, set MULTILIB_MATCHES to a list of items of the form ‘option=option’ to describe all relevant synonyms. For example, ‘m68000=mc68000 m68020=mc68020’.

MULTILIB_EXCEPTIONS
Sometimes when there are multiple sets of MULTILIB_OPTIONS being specified, there are combinations that should not be built. In that case, set MULTILIB_EXCEPTIONS to be all of the switch exceptions in shell case syntax that should not be built.

For example, in the PowerPC embedded ABI support, it is not desirable to build libraries compiled with the ‘-mcall-aix’ option and either of the ‘-fleading-underscore’ or ‘-mlittle’ options at the same time. Therefore MULTILIB_EXCEPTIONS is set to *mcall-aix/*fleading-underscore* *mlittle/*mcall-aix*.

MULTILIB_EXTRA_OPTS
Sometimes it is desirable that when building multiple versions of ‘libgcc.a’ certain options should always be passed on to the compiler. In that case, set MULTILIB_EXTRA_OPTS to be the list of options to be used for all builds.

23.2 The Host Makefile Fragment
The host makefile fragment, ‘x-host’, defines special host dependent variables and targets used in the ‘Makefile’:

CC       The compiler to use when building the first stage.
CLIB     Additional host libraries to link with.
OLDCC    The compiler to use when building ‘libgcc1.a’ for a native compilation.
OLDAR    The version of ar to use when building ‘libgcc1.a’ for a native compilation.
INSTALL  The install program to use.
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If you want to have more free software a few years from now, it makes sense for you to help encourage people to contribute funds for its development. The most effective approach known is to encourage commercial redistributors to donate.

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By establishing the idea that supporting further development is “the proper thing to do” when distributing free software for a fee, we can assure a steady flow of resources into making more free software.

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Linux and the GNU Project

Many computer users run a modified version of the GNU system every day, without realizing it. Through a peculiar turn of events, the version of GNU which is widely used today is more often known as “Linux”, and many users are not aware of the extent of its connection with the GNU Project.

There really is a Linux; it is a kernel, and these people are using it. But you can’t use a kernel by itself; a kernel is useful only as part of a whole system. The system in which Linux is typically used is a modified variant of the GNU system—in other words, a Linux-based GNU system.

Many users are not fully aware of the distinction between the kernel, which is Linux, and the whole system, which they also call “Linux”. The ambiguous use of the name doesn’t promote understanding.

Programmers generally know that Linux is a kernel. But since they have generally heard the whole system called “Linux” as well, they often envisage a history which fits that name. For example, many believe that once Linus Torvalds finished writing the kernel, his friends looked around for other free software, and for no particular reason most everything necessary to make a Unix-like system was already available.

What they found was no accident—it was the GNU system. The available free software added up to a complete system because the GNU Project had been working since 1984 to make one. The GNU Manifesto had set forth the goal of developing a free Unix-like system, called GNU. By the time Linux was written, the system was almost finished.

Most free software projects have the goal of developing a particular program for a particular job. For example, Linus Torvalds set out to write a Unix-like kernel (Linux); Donald Knuth set out to write a text formatter (TeX); Bob Scheifler set out to develop a window system (X Windows). It’s natural to measure the contribution of this kind of project by specific programs that came from the project.

If we tried to measure the GNU Project’s contribution in this way, what would we conclude? One CD-ROM vendor found that in their “Linux distribution”, GNU software was the largest single contingent, around 28% of the total source code, and this included some of the essential major components without which there could be no system. Linux itself was about 3%. So if you were going to pick a name for the system based on who wrote the programs in the system, the most appropriate single choice would be “GNU”.

But we don’t think that is the right way to consider the question. The GNU Project was not, is not, a project to develop specific software packages. It was not a project to develop a C compiler, although we did. It was not a project to develop a text editor, although we developed one. The GNU Project’s aim was to develop a complete free Unix-like system.

Many people have made major contributions to the free software in the system, and they all deserve credit. But the reason it is a system—and not just a collection of useful programs—is because the GNU Project set out to make it one. We wrote the programs that were needed to make a complete free system. We wrote essential but unexciting major components, such as the assembler and linker, because you can’t have a system without them. A complete system needs more than just programming tools, so we wrote other components as well, such as the Bourne Again SHell, the PostScript interpreter Ghostscript, and the GNU C library.

By the early 90s we had put together the whole system aside from the kernel (and we were also working on a kernel, the GNU Hurd, which runs on top of Mach). Developing this kernel has been a lot harder than we expected, and we are still working on finishing it.

Fortunately, you don’t have to wait for it, because Linux is working now. When Linus Torvalds wrote Linux, he filled the last major gap. People could then put Linux together with the GNU system to make a complete free system: a Linux-based GNU system (or GNU/Linux system, for short).
Putting them together sounds simple, but it was not a trivial job. The GNU C library (called glibc for short) needed substantial changes. Integrating a complete system as a distribution that would work “out of the box” was a big job, too. It required addressing the issue of how to install and boot the system—a problem we had not tackled, because we hadn’t yet reached that point. The people who developed the various system distributions made a substantial contribution.

The GNU Project supports GNU/Linux systems as well as the GNU system—even with funds. We funded the rewriting of the Linux-related extensions to the GNU C library, so that now they are well integrated, and the newest GNU/Linux systems use the current library release with no changes. We also funded an early stage of the development of Debian GNU/Linux.

We use Linux-based GNU systems today for most of our work, and we hope you use them too. But please don’t confuse the public by using the name “Linux” ambiguously. Linux is the kernel, one of the essential major components of the system. The system as a whole is more or less the GNU system.
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Option Index

GCC’s command line options are indexed here without any initial ‘-’ or ‘--’. Where an option has both positive and negative forms (such as ‘-foption’ and ‘-fno-option’), relevant entries in the manual are indexed under the most appropriate form; it may sometimes be useful to look up both forms.

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