

IC4 Programmer's Manual

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Portions of this manual are adapted from IC manuals for versions 3.1 and 2.8 written by Anne Wright, Randy Sargent, & Fred Martin.

IC v 4 Programmers Manual

Introduction

Interactive C (IC for short) is a C language consisting of a compiler (with interactive command-line compilation and debugging) and a run-time machine language module. IC implements a subset of C including control structures (**for**, **while**, **if**, **else**), local and global variables, arrays, pointers, structures, 16-bit and 32-bit integers, and 32-bit floating point numbers.

IC works by compiling into pseudo-code for a custom stack machine, rather than compiling directly into native code for a particular processor. This pseudo-code (or *p-code*) is then interpreted by the run-time machine language program. This unusual approach to compiler design allows IC to offer the following design tradeoffs:

- **Interpreted execution** that allows run-time error checking. For example, IC does array bounds checking at run-time to protect against some programming errors.
- **Ease of design.** Writing a compiler for a stack machine is significantly easier than writing one for a typical processor. Since IC's p-code is machine-independent, porting IC to another processor entails rewriting the p-code interpreter, rather than changing the compiler.
- **Small object code.** Stack machine code tends to be smaller than a native code representation.
- **Multi-tasking.** Because the pseudo-code is fully stack-based, a process's state is defined solely by its stack and its program counter. It is thus easy to task-switch simply by loading a new stack pointer and program counter. This task-switching is handled by the run-time module, not by the compiler.

Since IC's ultimate performance is limited by the fact that its output p-code is interpreted, these advantages are taken at the expense of raw execution speed.

IC 4 was written by Randy Sargent of KISS Institute for Practical Robotics. Randy was assisted by Mark Sherman. Portions of the code and the libraries are based on the public distribution of IC 2.8 written by Randy Sargent, Anne Wright and Fred Martin.

Using IC

When IC is running and has a connection to a compatible processor board such as the Handy Board or RCX, C expressions, function calls, and IC commands may be typed in the command entry portion of the interaction window.

For example, to evaluate the arithmetic expression `1 + 2`, type in the following:

```
1 + 2;
```

When this expression is entered from the interaction window, it is compiled by the console computer and then downloaded to the attached system for evaluation. The connected board then evaluates the compiled form and returns the result, which is printed on the display section of console interaction window.

To evaluate a series of expressions, create a C block by beginning with an open curly brace { and ending with a close curly brace }. The following example creates a local variable `i` and prints 10 (the sum of `i + 7`) to the board's LCD screen:

```
{int i=3; printf("%d", i+7);}
```

IC Interface

Both new (unsaved) and saved files can be opened for editing in IC. A row of tabs lists the files that have been opened. Clicking a file's tab activates it for editing. The first tab for the interface is always the interaction window.

The **File** button has standard entries for **N**ew, **O**pen, **C**lose, **S**ave, **S**ave **A**s, **P**rint, and **E**xit. Under **File - Save As**, if no file name extension is supplied, IC automatically saves with the ".ic" extension.

To download the active file, simply click the download button. The active file will also be saved, unless it is new, in which case the user is prompted for a "save as" file name. Remark: a preprocessor command `#use` has been added to IC to specify any other saved files (personal libraries) that need to be downloaded along with the active file [Note: `#use` is quite different from the `#include` preprocessor command of standard C environments. `#include` is not implemented for reasons given later in the section describing the IC-preprocessor.]

If a downloaded program does not do what is intended, it may corrupt the p-code interpreter, particularly if pointers are being employed. The interface provides an option under the **Settings** button for downloading the firmware to reinitialize the board.

When there is a connection to a board and the downloaded programs include "main", then "main" can be executed using the **Run Main** button. The **Stop** button will halt execution of the attached system.

Under the **Tools** button, among other options, are ones for listing downloaded files, global variables, and functions (including library functions).

The interface provides additional capabilities for program entry/edit, minor adjustment to the display, and for setting up the serial interface to a board.

C programs are automatically formatted and indented. Keywords, library functions, comments, and text strings are high-lighted with color unless this feature is turned off.

IC does parenthesis-balance-highlighting when the cursor is placed to the right of any right parenthesis, bracket, or brace.

The `main()` Function

After functions have been downloaded to a board, they can be invoked from IC so long as the board is connected. If one of the functions is named `main()`, it can be run directly from the interface as noted earlier, and otherwise will be run automatically when the board is reset.

Note: to reset the Handy Board *without* running the `main()` function (for instance, when hooking the board back to the computer), hold down the board's **Start** button while pressing reset. The board will then reset without running `main()`.

IC versus Standard C

The IC programming language is based loosely on ANSI C. However, there are major differences.

Many of these differences arise from the desire to have IC be "safer" than standard C. For instance, in IC, array bounds are checked at run time; for this reason, arrays cannot be converted to pointers in IC. Also, in IC, pointer arithmetic is not allowed.

Other differences are due to the desire that the IC runtime be small and efficient. For instance, the IC `printf` function does not understand many of the more exotic formatting options specified by ANSI C.

Yet other differences are due to the desire that IC be simpler than standard C. This is the reason for the global scope of all declarations.

In the rest of this document, when we refer to "C", the statement applies to both IC and standard C. When we wish to specify one or the other, we will refer to either "IC" or "standard C". When no such qualifiers are present, you should assume that we are talking about IC.

A Quick C Tutorial

Most C programs consist of function definitions and data structures. Here is a simple C program that defines a single function, called `main`.

```
void main()
{
    printf("Hello, world!\n");
}
```

All functions must have a return type. Since `main` does not return a value, it uses `void`, the null type, as its return type. Other types include integers (`int`) and floating point numbers (`float`). This *function declaration* information must precede each function definition.

Immediately following the function declaration is the function's name (in this case, `main`). Next, in parentheses, are any arguments (or inputs) to the function. `main` has none, but a empty set of parentheses is still required.

After the function arguments is an open curly-brace `{`. This signifies the start of the actual function code. Curly-braces signify program *blocks*, or chunks of code.

Next comes a series of *C statements*. Statements demand that some action be taken. Our demonstration program has a single statement, a `printf` (formatted print). This will print the message "`Hello, world!`" to the LCD display. The `\n` indicates end-of-line. The `printf` statement ends with a semicolon (`;`). *All C statements must be ended by a semicolon*. Beginning C programmers commonly make the error of omitting the semicolon that is required at the end of each statement.

The `main` function is ended by the close curly-brace `}`.

Let's look at an another example to learn some more features of C. The following code defines the function *square*, which returns the mathematical square of a number.

```
int square(int n)
{
    return(n * n);
}
```

The function is declared as type `int`, which means that it will return an integer value.

Next comes the function name `square`, followed by its argument list in parentheses. `square` has one argument, `n`, which is an integer. Notice how declaring the type of the argument is done similarly to declaring the type of the function.

When a function has arguments declared, those argument variables are valid within the "scope" of the function (i.e., they only have meaning within the function's own code). Other functions may use the same variable names independently.

The code for `square` is contained within the set of curly braces. In fact, it consists of a single statement: the `return` statement. The `return` statement exits the function and returns the value of the *C expression* that follows it (in this case "`n * n`").

Except where grouped by parentheses, expressions are evaluated according to a set of precedence rules associated with the various operations within the expression. In this

case, there is only one operation (multiplication), signified by the "*", so precedence is not an issue.

Let's look at an example of a function that performs a function call to the `square` program.

```
float hypotenuse(int a, int b)
{
    float h;
    h = sqrt((float)(square(a) + square(b)));
    return(h);
}
```

This code demonstrates several more features of C. First, notice that the floating point variable `h` is defined at the beginning of the `hypotenuse` function. In general, whenever a new program block (indicated by a set of curly braces) is begun, new local variables may be defined.

The value of `h` is set to the result of a call to the `sqrt` function. It turns out that `sqrt` is a built-in C function that takes a floating point number as its argument.

We want to use the `square` function we defined earlier, which returns its result as an integer. But the `sqrt` function requires a floating point argument. We get around this type incompatibility by *coercing* the integer sum `(square(a) + square(b))` into a `float` by preceding it with the desired type, in parentheses. Thus, the integer sum is made into a floating point number and passed along to `sqrt`.

The `hypotenuse` function finishes by returning the value of `h`.

This concludes the brief C tutorial.

Data Objects

Variables and constants are the basic data objects in a C program. Declarations list the variables to be used, state what type they are, and may set their initial value.

Variables

Variable names are case-sensitive. The underscore character is allowed and is often used to enhance the readability of long variable names. C keywords like `if`, `while`, etc. may not be used as variable names.

Functions and global variables may not have the same name. In addition, if a local variable is named the same as a function or a global variable, the local use takes precedence; i.e., use of the function or global variable is prevented within the scope of the local variable.

Declaration

In C, variables can be declared at the top level (outside of any curly braces) or at the start of each block (a functional unit of code surrounded by curly braces). In general, a variable declaration is of the form:

```
<type> <variable-name>; or  
<type> <variable-name>=<initialization-data>;
```

In IC, <type> can be **int**, **long**, **float**, **char**, or **struct** <struct-name>, and determines the *primary type* of the variable declared. This form changes somewhat when dealing with pointer and array declarations, which are explained in a later section, but in general this is the way you declare variables.

Local and Global Scopes

If a variable is declared within a function, or as an argument to a function, its binding is *local*, meaning that the variable has existence only within that function definition.

If a variable is declared outside of a function, it is a global variable. It is defined for all functions, including functions which are defined in files other than the one in which the global variable was declared.

Variable Initialization

Local and global variables can be initialized to a value when they are declared. If no initialization value is given, the variable is initialized to zero.

All global variable declarations must be initialized to constant values. Local variables may be initialized to the value of arbitrary expressions including any global variables, function calls, function arguments, or local variables which have already been initialized.

Here is a small example of how initialized declarations are used.

```
int i=50;      /* declare i as global integer; initial value 50 */  
long j=100L;  /* declare j as global long; initial value 100 */  
int foo()  
{  
    int x;     /* declare x as local integer; initial value 0 */  
    long y=j;  /* declare y as local integer; initial value j */  
}
```

Local variables are initialized whenever the function containing them is executed. Global variables are initialized whenever a reset condition occurs. Reset conditions occur when:

1. Code is downloaded;
2. The **main()** procedure is run;
3. System hardware reset occurs.

Persistent Global Variables

A special *persistent* form of global variable, has been implemented for IC. A persistent global variable may be initialized just like any other global variable, but its value is only initialized when the code is downloaded and not on any other reset conditions. If no initialization information is included for a persistent variable, its value will be initialized to zero on download, but left unchanged on all other reset conditions.

To make a persistent global variable, prefix the type specifier with the keyword `persistent`. For example, the statement

```
persistent int i=500;
```

creates a global integer called `i` with the initial value `500`.

Persistent variables keep their state when the board is turned off and on, when `main` is run, and when system reset occurs. Persistent variables will lose their state when code is downloaded as a result of loading or unloading a file. However, it is possible to read the values of your persistent variables in IC if you are still running the same IC session from which the code was downloaded. In this manner you could read the final values of calibration persistent variables, for example, and modify the initial values given to those persistent variables appropriately.

Persistent variables were created with two applications in mind:

- Calibration and configuration values that do not need to be re-calculated on every reset condition.
- Robot learning algorithms that might occur over a period when the robot is turned on and off.

Constants

Integer Constants

Integers constants may be defined in decimal integer format (e.g., `4053` or `-1`), hexadecimal format using the "`0x`" prefix (e.g., `0x1fff`), and a non-standard but useful binary format using the "`0b`" prefix (e.g., `0b1001001`). Octal constants using the zero prefix are not supported.

Long Integer Constants

Long integer constants are created by appending the suffix "`l`" or "`L`" (upper- or lower-case alphabetic L) to a decimal integer. For example, `0L` is the long zero. Either the upper or lower-case "`L`" may be used, but upper-case is the convention for readability.

Floating Point Constants

Floating point numbers may use exponential notation (e.g., "10e3" or "10E3") or may contain a decimal period. For example, the floating point zero can be given as "0.", "0.0", or "0E1", but not as just "0". *Since the board has no floating point hardware, floating point operations are much slower than integer operations, and should be used sparingly.*

Characters and String Constants

Quoted characters return their ASCII value (e.g., 'x').

Character string constants are defined with quotation marks, e.g.,
`"This is a character string."`

NULL

The special constant **NULL** has the value of zero and can be assigned to and compared to pointer or array variables (which will be described in later sections). In general, you cannot convert other constants to be of a pointer type, so there are many times when **NULL** can be useful.

For example, in order to check if a pointer has been initialized you could compare its value to **NULL** and not try to access its contents if it was **NULL**. Also, if you had a defined a linked list type consisting of a value and a pointer to the next element, you could look for the end of the list by comparing the next pointer to **NULL**.

Data Types

IC supports the following data types:

16-bit Integers

16-bit integers are signified by the type indicator `int`. They are signed integers, and may be valued from -32,768 to +32,767 decimal.

32-bit Integers

32-bit integers are signified by the type indicator `long`. They are signed integers, and may be valued from -2,147,483,648 to +2,147,483,647 decimal.

32-bit Floating Point Numbers

Floating point numbers are signified by the type indicator `float`. They have approximately seven decimal digits of precision and are valued from about 10^{-38} to 10^{38} .

8-bit Characters

Characters are an 8-bit number signified by the type indicator `char`. A character's value typically represents a printable symbol using the standard ASCII character code, but this is not necessary; characters can be used to refer to arbitrary 8-bit numbers.

Pointers

IC pointers are 16-bit numbers which represent locations in memory. Values in memory can be manipulated by calculating, passing and *dereferencing* pointers representing the location where the information is stored.

Arrays

Arrays are used to store homogenous lists of data (meaning that all the elements of an array have the same type). Every array has a length which is determined at the time the array is declared. The data stored in the elements of an array can be set and retrieved in the same manner as for other variables.

Structures

Structures are used to store non-homogenous but related sets of data. Elements of a structure are referenced by name instead of number and may be of any supported type.

Structures are useful for organizing related data into a coherent format, reducing the number of arguments passed to functions, increasing the effective number of values which can be returned by functions, and creating complex data representations such as directed graphs and linked lists.

Pointers

The address where a value is stored in memory is known as the *pointer* to that value. It is often useful to deal with pointers to objects, but great care must be taken to insure that the pointers used at any point in your code really do point to valid objects in memory.

Attempts to refer to invalid memory locations could corrupt your memory. Most computing environments that you are probably used to return helpful messages like 'Segmentation Violation' or 'Bus Error' on attempts to access illegal memory. However, you won't have this safety net on the board you are connecting to. Invalid pointer dereferencing is very likely to go undetected, and will likely render invalid your data, your program, or even the pcode interpreter.

Pointer Safety

In past versions of IC, you could not return pointers from functions or have arrays of pointers. In order to facilitate the use of structures, these features have been added to the

current version. With this change, the number of opportunities to misuse pointers have increased. However, if you follow a few simple precautions you should do fine.

First, you should always check that the value of a pointer is not equal to **NULL** (a special zero pointer) before you try to access it. Variables which are declared to be pointers are initialized to **NULL**, so many uninitialized values could be caught this way.

Second, you should never use a pointer to a local variable in a manner which could cause it to be accessed after the function in which it was declared terminates. When a function terminates the space where its values were being stored is recycled. Therefore not only may dereferencing such pointers return incorrect values, but assigning to those addresses could lead to serious data corruption. A good way to prevent this is to never return the address of a local variable from the function which declares it and never store those pointers in an object which will live longer than the function itself (a global pointer, array, or **struct**). Global variables and variables local to main will not move once declared and their pointers can be considered to be secure.

The type checking done by IC will help prevent many mishaps, but it will not catch all errors, so be careful.

Pointer Declaration and Use

A variable which is a pointer to an object of a given type is declared in the same manner as a regular object of that type, but with an extra ***** in front of the variable name.

The value stored at the location the pointer refers to is accessed by using the ***** operator before the expression which calculates the pointer. This process is known as dereferencing.

The address of a variable is calculated by using the **&** operator before that variable, array element, or structure element reference.

There are two main differences between how you would use a variable of a given type and a variable declared as a pointer to that type.

For the following explanation, consider **x** and **xptr** as defined as follows:

```
long x; long *xptr;
```

- Space Allocation -- Declaring an object of a given type, as **x** is of type **long**, allocates the space needed to store that value. Because an IC long takes four bytes of memory, four bytes are reserved for the value of **x** to occupy. However, a pointer like **xptr** does not have the same amount of space allocated for it that is needed for an object of the type it points to. Therefore it can only safely refer to space which has already been allocated for globals (in a special section of memory reserved for globals) or locals (temporary storage on the stack).

- Initial Value -- It is always safe to refer to a non-pointer type, even if it hasn't been initialized. However pointers have to be specifically assigned to the address of legally allocated space or to the value of an already initialized pointer before they are safe to use.

So, for example, consider what would happen if the first two statements after **x** and **xptr** were declared were the following:

```
x=50L; *xptr=50L;
```

The first statement is valid: it sets the value of **x** to **50L**. The second statement would be valid if **xptr** had been properly initialized, but in this case it has not. Therefore, this statement would corrupt memory.

Here is a sequence of commands you could try which illustrate how pointers and the ***** and **&** operators are used. It also shows that once a pointer has been set to point at a place in memory, references to it actually share the same memory as the object it points to:

```
x=50L;           /* set the memory allocated for X to 50 */
xptr=&x;         /* set Xptr to point to memory address of X */
printf("%d ", *xptr); /* dereference Xptr; value at address is 50 */
x=100L;         /* set X to the value 100 */
printf("%d ", *xptr); /* dereference again; value is now 100 */
*xptr=200L;     /* set value at address given by Xptr to 200 */
printf("%d\n", x); /* check that the value of X changed to 200 */
```

Passing Pointers as Arguments

Pointers can be passed to functions and functions can change the values of the variables that are pointed at. This is termed *call-by-reference*; a reference, or pointer, to a variable is given to the function that is being called. This is in contrast to *call-by-value*, the standard way that functions are called, in which the value of a variable is given to the function being called.

The following example defines an **average_sensor** function which takes a port number and a pointer to an integer variable. The function will average the sensor and store the result in the variable pointed at by **result**.

Prefixing an argument name with ***** declares that the argument is a pointer.

```
void average_sensor(int port, int *result)
{
    int sum = 0;
    int i;
    for (I = 0; I < 10; i++) sum += analog(port);
    *result = sum/10;
}
```

Notice that the function itself is declared as a **void**. It does not need to return anything, because it instead stores its answer in the memory location given by the pointer variable that is passed to it.

The pointer variable is used in the last line of the function. In this statement, the answer **sum/10** is stored at the location pointed at by **result**. Notice that the ***** is used to assign a value to the *location* pointed by **result**.

Returning Pointers from Functions

Pointers can also be returned from functions. Functions are defined to return pointers by preceding the name of the function with a star, just like any other type of pointer declaration.

```
int right, left;
int *dirptr(int dir)
{
    if (dir==0) {
        return(&right);
    }
    if (dir==1) {
        return(&left);
    }
    return(NULL);
}
```

The function **dirptr** returns a pointer to the global **right** when its argument **dir** is **0**, a pointer to **left** when its argument is **1**, and **NULL** if its argument is other than **0** or **1**.

Arrays

IC supports arrays of characters, integers, long integers, floating-point numbers, structures, pointers, and array pointers (multi-dimensional arrays). While unlike regular C arrays in a number of respects, they can be used in a similar manner. The main reasons that arrays are useful are that they allow you to allocate space for many instances of a given type, send an arbitrary number of values to functions, and provide the means for iterating over a set of values.

Arrays in IC are different and incompatible with arrays in other versions of C. This incompatibility is caused by the fact that references to IC arrays are checked to insure that the reference is truly within the bounds of that array. In order to accomplish this checking in the general case, it is necessary that the size of the array be stored with the contents of the array. *It is important to remember that an array of a given type and a pointer to the same type are incompatible types in IC, whereas they are largely interchangeable in regular C.*

Declaring and Initializing Arrays

Arrays are declared using square brackets. The following statement declares an array of ten integers:

```
int foo[10];
```

In this array, elements are numbered from 0 to 9. Elements are accessed by enclosing the index number within square brackets: `foo[4]` denotes the fifth element of the array `foo` (since counting begins at zero).

Arrays are initialized by default to contain all zero values. Arrays may also be initialized at declaration by specifying the array elements, separated by commas, within curly braces. If no size value is specified within the square brackets when the array is declared but initialization information is given, the size of the array is determined by the number of elements given in the declaration. For example,

```
int foo[] = {0, 4, 5, -8, 17, 301};
```

creates an array of six integers, with `foo[0]` equaling 0, `foo[1]` equaling 4, etc.

If a size is specified and initialization data is given, the length of the initialization data may not exceed the specified length of the array or an error results. If, on the other hand, you specify the size and provide fewer initialization elements than the total length of the array, the remaining elements are initialized to zero.

Character arrays are typically text strings. There is a special syntax for initializing arrays of characters. The character values of the array are enclosed in quotation marks:

```
char string[] = "Hello there";
```

This form creates a character array called `string` with the ASCII values of the specified characters. In addition, the character array is terminated by a zero. Because of this zero-termination, the character array can be treated as a string for purposes of printing (for example). Character arrays can be initialized using the curly braces syntax, but they will not be automatically null-terminated in that case. In general, printing of character arrays that are *not* null-terminated will cause problems.

Passing Arrays as Arguments

When an array is passed to a function as an argument, the array's pointer is actually passed, rather than the elements of the array. If the function modifies the array values, the array will be modified, since there is only one copy of the array in memory.

In normal C, there are two ways of declaring an array argument: as an array or as a pointer to the type of the array's elements. In IC array pointers are incompatible with pointers to the elements of an array so such arguments can only be declared as arrays.

As an example, the following function takes an index and an array, and returns the array element specified by the index:

```
int retrieve_element(int index, int array[])
{
    return array[index];
}
```

Notice the use of the square brackets to declare the argument array as a pointer to an array of integers.

When passing an array variable to a function, you are actually passing the value of the array pointer itself and not one of its elements, so no square brackets are used.

```
void foo()
{
    int array[10];
    retrieve_element(3, array);
}
```

Multi-dimensional Arrays

A two-dimensional array is just like a single dimensional array whose elements are one-dimensional arrays. Declaration of a two-dimensional array is as follows:

```
int k[2][3];
```

The number in the first set of brackets is the number of 1-D arrays of `int`. The number in the second set of brackets is the length of each of the 1-D arrays of `int`. In this example, `k` is an array containing two 1-D arrays; `k[0]` is a 1-D array of `int` of length 3; `k[0][1]` is an `int`. Arrays of with any number of dimensions can be generalized from this example by adding more brackets in the declaration.

Determining the size of Arrays at Runtime

An advantage of the way IC deals with arrays is that you can determine the size of arrays at runtime. This allows you to do size checking on an array if you are uncertain of its dimensions and possibly prevent your program from crashing.

Since `_array_size` is not a standard C feature, code written using this primitive will only be able to be compiled with IC.

The `_array_size` primitive returns the size of the array given to it regardless of the dimension or type of the array. Here is an example of declarations and interaction with the `_array_size` primitive:

```
int i[4]={10,20,30};
int j[3][2]={{1,2},{2,4},{15}};
```

```

int k[2][2][2];
_array_size(i);    /* returns 4 */
_array_size(j);    /* returns 3 */
_array_size(j[0]); /* returns 2 */
_array_size(k);    /* returns 2 */
_array_size(k[0]); /* returns 2 */

```

Structures

Structures are used to store non-homogenous but related sets of data. Elements of a structure are referenced by name instead of number and may be of any supported type. Structures are useful for organizing related data into a coherent format, reducing the number of arguments passed to functions, increasing the effective number of values which can be returned by functions, and creating complex data representations such as directed graphs and linked lists.

The following example shows how to define a structure, declare a variable of structure type, and access its elements.

```

struct foo
{
    int i;
    int j;
};
struct foo f1;
void set_f1(int i,int j)
{
    f1.i=i;
    f1.j=j;
}
void get_f1(int *i,int *j)
{
    *i=f1.i;
    *j=f1.j;
}

```

The first part is the structure definition. It consists of the keyword `struct`, followed by the name of the structure (which can be any valid identifier), followed by a list of named elements in curly braces. This definition specifies the structure of the type `struct foo`. Once there is a definition of this form, you can use the type `struct foo` just like any other type. The line

```
struct foo f1;
```

is a global variable declaration which declares the variable `f1` to be of type `struct foo`.

The dot operator is used to access the elements of a variable of structure type. In this case, `f1.i` and `f1.j` refer to the two elements of `f1`. You can treat the quantities `f1.i`

and `f1.j` just as you would treat any variables of type `int` (the type of the elements was defined in the structure declaration at the top to be `int`).

Pointers to structure types can also be used, just like pointers to any other type. However, with structures, there is a special short-cut for referring to the elements of the structure pointed to.

```
struct foo *fptr;
void main()
{
    fptr=&f1;
    fptr->i=10;
    fptr->j=20;
}
```

In this example, `fptr` is declared to be a pointer to type `struct foo`. In `main`, it is set to point to the global `f1` defined above. Then the elements of the structure pointed to by `fptr` (in this case these are the same as the elements of `f1`), are set. The arrow operator is used instead of the dot operator because `fptr` is a pointer to a variable of type `struct foo`. Note that `(*fptr).i` would have worked just as well as `fptr->i`, but it would have been clumsier.

Note that only pointers to structures, not the structures themselves, can be passed to or returned from functions.

Complex Initialization examples

Complex types -- arrays and structures -- may be initialized upon declaration with a sequence of constant values contained within curly braces and separated by commas.

Arrays of character may also be initialized with a quoted string of characters.

For initialized declarations of single dimensional arrays, the length can be left blank and a suitable length based on the initialization data will be assigned to it. *Multi-dimensional arrays must have the size of all dimensions specified when the array is declared.* If a length is specified, the initialization data may not overflow that length in any dimension or an error will result. However, the initialization data may be shorter than the specified size and the remaining entries will be initialized to 0.

Following is an example of legal global and local variable initializations:

```
/* declare many globals of various types */
int i=50;
int *ptr=NULL;
float farr[3]={ 1.2, 3.6, 7.4 };
int tarr[2][4]={ { 1, 2, 3, 4 }, { 2, 4, 6, 8 } };
char c[]="Hi there how are you?";
```

```

char carr[5][10]={"Hi", "there", "how", "are", "you"};
struct bar
{
    int i;
    int *p;
    long j;
} b={5, NULL, 10L};
struct bar barr[2] = { { 1, NULL, 2L }, { 3 } };
/* declare locals of various types */
int foo()
{
    int x;           /* local variable x with initial value 0 */
    int y= tarr[0][2]; /* local variable y with initial value 3 */
    int *iptr=&i;    /* local pointer to integer
                    which points to the global i */
    int larr[2]={10,20}; /* local array larr
                        with elements 10 and 20 */
    struct bar lb={5,NULL,10L}; /* local variable of type
                                struct bar with i=5 and j=10 */
    char lc[]=carr[2]; /* local string lc with
                       initial value "how" */
    ...
}

```

Statements and Expressions

Operators act upon objects of a certain type or types and specify what is to be done to them. Expressions combine variables and constants to create new values. Statements are expressions, assignments, function calls, or control flow statements which make up C programs.

Operators

Each of the data types has its own set of operators that determine which operations may be performed on them.

Integer Operations

The following operations are supported on integers:

- **Arithmetic.** addition +, subtraction -, multiplication *, division /.
- **Comparison.** greater-than >, less-than <, equality ==, greater-than-equal >=, less-than-equal <=.
- **Bitwise Arithmetic.** bitwise-OR |, bitwise-AND &, bitwise-exclusive-OR ^, bitwise-NOT ~.
- **Boolean Arithmetic.** logical-OR ||, logical-AND &&, logical-NOT !. When a C statement uses a boolean value (for example, `if`), it takes the integer zero as meaning false, and any integer other than zero as meaning true. The boolean operators return zero for false and one for true. Boolean operators `&&` and `||` will

stop executing as soon as the truth of the final expression is determined. For example, in the expression `a && b`, if `a` is false, then `b` does not need to be evaluated because the result must be false. The `&&` operator therefore will not evaluate `b`.

Long Integers

A subset of the operations implemented for integers are implemented for long integers: arithmetic addition `+`, subtraction `-`, and multiplication `*`, and the integer comparison operations. Bitwise and boolean operations and division are not supported.

Floating Point Numbers

IC uses a package of public-domain floating point routines distributed by Motorola. This package includes arithmetic, trigonometric, and logarithmic functions. Since floating point operations are implemented in software, they are much slower than the integer operations; we recommend against using floating point if you're concerned about performance.

The following operations are supported on floating point numbers:

- **Arithmetic.** addition `+`, subtraction `-`, multiplication `*`, division `/`.
- **Comparison.** greater-than `>`, less-than `<`, equality `==`, greater-than-equal `>=`, less-than-equal `<=`.
- **Built-in Math Functions.** A set of trigonometric, logarithmic, and exponential functions is supported. See section [Floating Point Functions](#), for details.

Characters

Characters are only allowed in character arrays. When a cell of the array is referenced, it is automatically coerced into a integer representation for manipulation by the integer operations. When a value is stored into a character array, it is coerced from a standard 16-bit integer into an 8-bit character (by truncating the upper eight bits).

Assignment Operators and Expressions

The basic assignment operator is `=`. The following statement adds 2 to the value of `a`.

```
a = a + 2;
```

The abbreviated form

```
a += 2;
```

could also be used to perform the same operation.

All of the following binary operators can be used in this fashion:

```
+ - * / % << >> & ^ |
```

Increment and Decrement Operators

The increment operator "++" increments the named variable. For example, the construction "a++" is equivalent to "a= a+1" or "a+= 1".

A statement that uses an increment operator has a value. For example, the statement

```
a= 3; printf("a=%d a+1=%d\n", a, ++a);
```

will display the text "a=3 a+1=4".

If the increment operator comes after the named variable, then the value of the statement is calculated *after* the increment occurs. So the statement

```
a= 3; printf("a=%d a+1=%d\n", a, a++);
```

would display "a=3 a+1=3" but would finish with a set to 4.

The decrement operator "--" is used in the same fashion as the increment operator.

Data Access Operators

&

A single ampersand preceding a variable, an array reference, or a structure element reference returns a pointer to the location in memory where that information is being stored. This should not be used on arbitrary expressions as they do not have a stable place in memory where they are being stored.

*

A single * preceding an expression which evaluates to a pointer returns the value which is stored at that address. This process of accessing the value stored within a pointer is known as dereferencing.

[<expr>]

An expression in square braces following an expression which evaluates to an array (an array variable, the result of a function which returns an array pointer, etc.) checks that the value of the expression falls within the bounds of the array and references that element.

.

A dot between a structure variable and the name of one of its fields returns the value stored in that field.

->

An arrow between a pointer to a structure and the name of one of its fields in that structure acts the same as a dot does, except it acts on the structure pointed at by its left hand side. Where **f** is a structure of a type with **i** as an element name, the two expressions **f.i** and **(&f)->i** are equivalent.

Precedence and Order of Evaluation

The following table summarizes the rules for precedence and associativity for the C operators. Operators listed earlier in the table have higher precedence; operators on the same line of the table have equal precedence.

Operator	Associativity
() []	left to right
! ~ ++ -- - (<type>)	right to left
* / %	left to right
+ -	left to right
<< >>	left to right
< <= > >=	left to right
== !=	left to right
&	left to right
^	left to right
	left to right
&&	left to right
	right to left
= += -= etc.	right to left
,	left to right

Control Flow

IC supports most of the standard C control structures. One notable exception is the switch statement, which is not supported.

Statements and Blocks

A single C statement is ended by a semicolon. A series of statements may be grouped together into a *block* using curly braces. Inside a block, local variables may be defined.

If-Else

The **if else** statement is used to make decisions. The syntax is:

```
if (<expression>
    <statement-1>
else
    <statement-2>
```

<expression> is evaluated; if it is not equal to zero (e.g., logic true), then *<statement-1>* is executed.

The **else** clause is optional. If the **if** part of the statement did not execute, and the **else** is present, then *<statement-2>* executes.

While

The syntax of a **while** loop is the following:

```
while (<expression>
    <statement>
```

while begins by evaluating *<expression>*. If it is false, then *<statement>* is skipped. If it is true, then *<statement>* is evaluated. Then the expression is evaluated again, and the same check is performed. The loop exits when *<expression>* becomes zero.

One can easily create an infinite loop in C using the **while** statement:

```
while (1)
    <statement>
```

For

The syntax of a **for** loop is the following:

```
for (<expr-1>; <expr-2>; <expr-3>)
    <statement>
```

This is equivalent to the following construct using **while**:

```
<expr-1>;
while (<expr-2>)
{
    <statement>
    <expr-3>;
}
```

Typically, *<expr-1>* is an assignment, *<expr-2>* is a relational expression, and *<expr-3>* is an increment or decrement of some manner. For example, the following code counts from 0 to 99, printing each number along the way:

```
int i;
for (i= 0; i < 100; i++)
    printf("%d\n", i);
```

Break

Use of the **break** provides an early exit from a **while** or a **for** loop.

LCD Screen Printing

IC has a version of the C function `printf` for formatted printing to the LCD screen.

The syntax of `printf` is the following:

```
printf(<format-string>, <arg-1> , ... , <arg-N>);
```

This is best illustrated by some examples.

Printing Examples

Example 1: Printing a message.

The following statement prints a text string to the screen.

```
printf("Hello, world!\n");
```

In this example, the format string is simply printed to the screen.

The character `\n` at the end of the string signifies *end-of-line*. When an end-of-line character is printed, the LCD screen will be cleared when a subsequent character is printed. Thus, most `printf` statements are terminated by a `\n`.

Example 2: Printing a number.

The following statement prints the value of the integer variable `x` with a brief message.

```
printf("Value is %d\n", x);
```

The special form `%d` is used to format the printing of an integer in decimal format.

Example 3: Printing a number in binary.

The following statement prints the value of the integer variable `x` as a binary number.

```
printf("Value is %b\n", x);
```

The special form `%b` is used to format the printing of an integer in binary format. Only the *low byte* of the number is printed.

Example 4: Printing a floating point number.

The following statement prints the value of the floating point variable `n` as a floating point number.

```
printf("Value is %f\n", n);
```

The special form `%f` is used to format the printing of floating point number.

Example 5: Printing two numbers in hexadecimal format.

```
printf("A=%x B=%x\n", a, b);
```

The form `%x` formats an integer to print in hexadecimal.

Formatting Command Summary

Format Command	Data Type	Description
<code>%d</code>	<code>int</code>	decimal number
<code>%x</code>	<code>int</code>	hexadecimal number
<code>%b</code>	<code>int</code>	low byte as binary number
<code>%c</code>	<code>int</code>	low byte as ASCII character
<code>%f</code>	<code>float</code>	floating point number
<code>%s</code>	<code>char</code> array	char array (string)

Special Notes

- The final character position of the LCD screen is used as a system "heartbeat." This character continuously blinks between a large and small heart when the board is operating properly. If the character stops blinking, the board has failed.
- Characters that would be printed beyond the final character position are truncated.
- When using a two-line display, the `printf()` command treats the display as a single longer line.
- Printing of long integers is not presently supported.

Preprocessor

The preprocessor processes a file before it is sent to the compiler. The IC preprocessor allows definition of macros, and conditional compilation of sections of code. Using preprocessor macros for constants and function macros can make IC code more efficient as well as easier to read. Using `#if` to conditionally compile code can be very useful, for instance, for debugging purposes.

The special preprocessor command `#use` has been included to allow programs to cause a program to download to initiate the download of stored programs that are not in the IC library. For example, suppose you have a set of stored programs in a file named `"mylib.ic"`, some of which you need for your current program to work.

```
/* load my library*/
#use "mylib.ic"

void main()
{
    char s[32] = "text string wrapping badly\n";
    fix (s);    /* apply my fix function to s and print it */
    printf(s);
}
```

Preprocessor Macros

Preprocessor macros are defined by using the `#define` preprocessor directive at the start of a line. If a macro is defined anywhere in any of the files loaded into IC, it can be used anywhere in any file. The following example shows how to define preprocessor macros.

```
#define RIGHT_MOTOR 0
#define LEFT_MOTOR 1
#define GO_RIGHT(power) (motor(RIGHT_MOTOR, (power)))
#define GO_LEFT(power) (motor(LEFT_MOTOR, (power)))
#define GO(left,right) {GO_LEFT(left); GO_RIGHT(right);}
void main()
{
    GO(0,0);
}
```

Preprocessor macro definitions start with the `#define` directive at the start of a line, and continue to the end of the line. After `#define` is the name of the macro, such as `RIGHT_MOTOR`. If there is a parenthesis directly after the name of the macro, such as the `GO_RIGHT` macro has above, then the macro has arguments. The `GO_RIGHT` and `GO_LEFT` macros each take one argument. The `GO` macro takes two arguments. After the name and the optional argument list is the body of the macro.

Each time a macro is invoked, it is replaced with its body. If the macro has arguments, then each place the argument appears in the body is replaced with the actual argument provided.

Invocations of macros without arguments look like global variable references. Invocations of macros with arguments look like calls to functions. To an extent, this is how they act. However, macro replacement happens before compilation, whereas global references and function calls happen at run time. Also, function calls evaluate their arguments before they are called, whereas macros simply perform text replacement. For example, if the actual argument given to a macro contains a function call, and the macro instantiates its argument more than once in its body, then the function would be called multiple times, whereas it would only be called once if it were being passed as a function argument instead.

Appropriate use of macros can make IC programs and easier to read. It allows constants to be given symbolic names without requiring storage and access time as a global would. It also allows macros with arguments to be used in cases when a function call is desirable for abstraction, without the performance penalty of calling a function.

Conditional compilation

It is sometimes desirable to conditionally compile code. The primary example of this is that you may want to perform debugging output sometimes, and disable it at other times.

The IC preprocessor provides a convenient way of doing this by using the `#ifdef` directive.

```
void go_left(int power)
{
    GO_LEFT(power);
#ifdef DEBUG
    printf("Going Left\n");
    beep();
#endif
}
```

In this example, when the macro `DEBUG` is defined, the debugging message "Going Left" will be printed and the board will beep each time `go_left` is called. If the macro is not defined, the message and beep will not happen. Each `#ifdef` must be followed by an `#endif` at the end of the code which is being conditionally compiled. The macro to be checked can be anything, and `#ifdef` blocks may be nested.

Unlike regular C preprocessors, macros cannot be conditionally defined. If a macro definition occurs inside an `#ifdef` block, it will be defined regardless of whether the `#ifdef` evaluates to true or false. The compiler will generate a warning if macro definitions occur within an `#ifdef` block.

The `#if`, `#else`, and `#elif` directives are also available, but are outside the scope of this document. Refer to a C reference manual for how to use them.

Comparison with regular C preprocessors

The way in which IC deals with loading multiple files is fundamentally different from the way in which it is done in standard C. In particular, when using standard C, files are compiled completely independently of each other, then linked together. In IC, on the other hand, all files are compiled together. This is why standard C needs function prototypes and `extern` global definitions in order for multiple files to share functions and globals, while IC does not.

In a standard C preprocessor, preprocessor macros defined in one C file cannot be used in another C file unless defined again. Also, the scope of macros is only from the point of definition to the end of the file. The solution then is to have the prototypes, `extern` declarations, and macros in header files which are then included at the top of each C file using the `#include` directive. This style interacts well with the fact that each file is compiled independent of all the others.

However, since declarations in IC do not file scope, it would be inconsistent to have a preprocessor with file scope. Therefore, for consistency it was desirable to give IC macros the same behavior as globals and functions. Therefore, preprocessor macros have global scope. If a macro is defined anywhere in the files loaded into IC, it is defined

everywhere. Therefore, the `#include` and `#undef` directives did not seem to have any appropriate purpose, and were accordingly left out.

The fact that `#define` directives contained within `#if` blocks are defined regardless of whether the `#if` evaluates to be true or false is a side effect of making the preprocessor macros have global scope.

Other than these modifications, the IC preprocessor should be compatible with regular C preprocessors.

The IC Library File

Library files provide standard C functions for interfacing with hardware on the robot controller board. These functions are written either in C or as assembly language drivers. Library files provide functions to do things like control motors, make tones, and input sensors values.

IC automatically loads the library file every time it is invoked. Depending on which board is being used, a different library file will be required. IC may be configured to load different library files as its default; IC will automatically load the correct library for the board you're using at the moment.

Separate documentation covers all library functions available for the Handy Board and RCX; if you have another board, see your owner's manual for documentation.

To understand better how the library functions work, study of the library file source code is recommended; e.g., the main library file for the Handy Board is named `lib_hb.lis`.

For convenience, commonly a description of commonly used library functions follows.

Commonly Use IC Library Functions

(RCX specific in **gold** , HB specific in **orange**, **dark blue** for common to both)

```
start_button();
    /* returns 1 if button is pressed, otherwise 0 */

stop_button();
    /* returns 1 if button is pressed, otherwise 0 */

view_button();
    /* returns 1 if button is pressed, otherwise 0 */

prgm_button();
    /* returns 1 if button is pressed, otherwise 0 */
```

```

digital(<port#>);
    /* returns 0 if the switch attached to the port is open and
       returns 1 if the switch is closed. Digital ports are numbered
       7-15. Typically used for bumpers or limit switches. */

analog(<port#>);
    /* returns the analog value of the port (a value in the range 0-255).
       Analog ports on the handy board are numbered 2-6 and 16-23. Light
       sensors and range sensors are examples of sensors you would
       use in analog ports (only on Handy Board). */

light(<port#>);
    /* RCX only. Reads the light sensor in the port specified with LED
       turned on (making it into a reflectance sensor) */

light_passive(<port#>);
    /* RCX only. Reads the light sensor in the port specified with the
       LED turned off */

knob();
    /* returns an int between 0 and 255 depending on knob position */

sleep(<float_secs>);
    /* waits specified number of seconds */

beep();
    /* causes a beep sound */

tone(<float_frequency>, <float_secs>)
    /* plays at specified frequency for specified time (seconds) */

printf(<string>, <arg1>, <arg2>, ... );
    /* prints <string>. if the string contains % codes then the args
       after the string will be printed in place of the % codes in the
       format specified by the code. %d prints a decimal number. %f
       prints a floating point number. %c prints a character, %b prints
       an integer in binary, %x prints an integer in hexadecimal. */

motor(<motor_#>, <speed>)
    /* controls the motors. <motor_#> is an integer between 0 and 3 (1
       less for RCX). <speed> is an integer between -100 and 100 where 0
       means the motor is off and negative numbers run the motor in the
       reverse direction */

fd(<motor_#>);
    /* turns on the motor specified (direction is determined by plug
       orientation */

bk(<motor_#>);
    /* turns on the motor specified in the opposite direction from fd */

off(<motor_#>);
    /* turns off the motor specified */

```

```

ao();
  /* turns all motor ports off */

brake(<motor_#>);
  /* brakes the motor specified for a quick stop (only on RCX) */

allbrake();
  /* brakes all motors (only on RCX) */

```

Processes

Processes work in parallel. Each process, once it is started, will continue until it finishes or until it is killed by another process using the `kill_process (<process_id>);` statement. Each process that is active gets 50ms of processing time. Then the process is paused temporarily and the next process gets its share of time. This continues until all the active process have gotten a slice of time, then it all repeats again. From the user's standpoint it appears that all the active processes are running in parallel.

Processes can communicate with one another by reading and modifying global variables. The globals can be used as semaphores so that one process can signal another. Process IDs may also be stored in globals so that one process can kill another when needed.

Up to 4 processes initiated by the `start_process ()` library function can be active at any time.

The library functions for controlling processes are:

```

start_process (<function_name> (<arg1>, <arg2>, ...));
  /* start_process returns an integer that is the <process_id>
     and starts the function <function_name> as a separate
     process */

defer ();
  /* when placed in a function that is used as a process this
     will cause that process to give up the remainder of its time
     slice whenever defer is called */

kill_process (<process_id>);
  /* this will terminate the process specified by the
     <process_id> */

```

Encoders (Handy Board only)

The `enable_encoder ()` library function is used to start a process which updates the transition count for the encoder specified. The encoder library functions are designed for sensors connected to (digital) ports 7,8,12,13. The corresponding `<encoder#>` values are 0,1,2,3. Every enabled encoder uses a lot of the HB's processor -- so don't enable an encoder unless you are going to use it, and *never put an enable statement inside of a loop.*

```
enable_encoder(<encoder#>);
/* turns on the specified encoder (either 0,1,2, or 3 which are
   plugged into digital ports 7 through 10 respectively). This
   should be done only once - never enable an already enabled
   encoder. If an encoder is not enabled, read_encoder will
   always return 0. */

disable_encoder(<encoder#>)
/* turns off the specified encoder */

reset_encoder(<encoder#>)
/* sets the specified encoder value to 0 */

read_encoder(<encoder#>)
/* returns an int that is the current value of the specified
   encoder */
```