

CC7A

*C Compiler for the
PIC17 Devices*

Version 1.0

User's Manual



B Knudsen Data
Trondheim - Norway

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COMPILER BUG REPORTS:

The compiler has been carefully tested and debugged. It is, however, not possible to guarantee a 100 % error free product.

If the compiler generates application code bugs, it is almost always possible to rewrite the program slightly in order to avoid the bug. *#pragma optimize* can be used to avoid optimization bugs. Other *#pragma* statements are also useful.

Please report cases of bad generated code and other serious program errors.

- 1) Investigate and describe the problem. If possible, please provide a complete C example program that demonstrates the problem. A fragment from the generated assembly file is sometimes enough.
- 2) This service is intended for difficult compiler problems (not application problems).
- 3) Language: English
- 4) State the compiler version.
- 5) Send your report to support@bknd.com.

Document version: A

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1 INTRODUCTION

Welcome to the CC7A C compiler for the Microchip PIC17 family of microcontrollers. The CC7A compiler enables programming using a subset of the C language. Assembly is no longer required. The reason for moving to C is clear. Assembly language is generally hard to read and errors are easily produced.

C enables the following advantages compared to assembly:

- Source code standardization
- Faster program development
- Improved source code readability
- Easier documentation
- Simplified maintenance
- Portable code

The CC7A compiler was designed to generate tight and optimized code. The optimizer automatically squeezes the code to a minimum. It is possible to write code that compiles into single instructions, but with C syntax. This means that the C source code can be optimized by rewriting inefficient expressions.

The design priority was not to provide full ANSI C support, but to enable best possible usage of the limited code and RAM resources. If the compiler generated less optimal code, this would force assembly to be used for parts of the code.

CC7A features

- Local and global variables of 8, 16, 24 and 32 bits, plus bit variables
- Efficient reuse of local variable space
- Generates tight and optimized code
- Produces binary, assembly, list, COD, error, function outline and variable files
- Automatic updating of the page and bank selection bits
- Enhanced and compact support of bit operations, including bit functions
- Floating and fixed point math up to 32 bit
- Math libraries including functions like `sin()`, `log()`, `exp()`, `sqrt()`, etc.
- Supports standard C constant data and strings in program memory (`const`)
- Pointer models of 8 and 16 bits, mixed sizes in same application allowed
- RAM and/or ROM pointers
- The size of single pointers can be automatically chosen by the compiler
- Extended call level by using `GOTO` instead of `CALL` when possible
- Access to most assembly instructions through corresponding C statements
- Inline assembly
- Integrated interrupt support
- Device configuration information in source code

Size (in bits) of the variables supported by the different compiler editions:

	STANDARD	EXTENDED
<code>integer</code>	8+16+24	8+16+24+32
<code>fixed</code>	8+16+24	8+16+24+32
<code>float</code>	24+32	16+24+32

1.1 Supported devices

PIC17 core using 16 bit wide instructions:

- up to 65536 words of code in 1 - 8 code pages
- up to 16 RAM banks of 256 byte, plus unbanked RAM

1.2 Installation and System Requirements

The CC7A compiler uses 32 bit processing (console application) and runs on PC compatible machines using Microsoft Windows.

Installing CC7A is normally done by running the installation program for the latest version. Multiple versions can be installed.

CC7A is now ready to compile C files. Header and C source files have to be created and edited by a separate editor (not included), for instance in the MPLAB suite.

The same installation program can be used to un-install the compiler. Alternatively can the CC7A files be deleted without any un-installation procedure.

Support for long file names

CC7A supports long file names. It is also possible to use spaces in file names and include directory names. Equivalent include directory option formats:

```
-I"C:\Program Files\cc7a"  
-IC:\progra~1\cc7a
```

Equivalent include file formats:

```
#include "C:\Program Files\cc7a\C file"  
#include "C:\progra~1\cc7a\Cfile~1"
```

The alternative to long names is the truncated short format. The truncated form is decided by the file system. The best guess consists of the 6 first characters of the long name plus ~1. The last number may be different (~2) if the first 6 characters are equal to another name in the same directory.

MPLAB version 5 uses and displays the short format only.

User interface

The CC7A compiler is a command-line program. It requires a list of command line options to compile a C source file and produce the required files.

Starting CC7A from Windows can be done from the Start->Run menu. Then type the full path name including cc7a.exe (or use Browse). The list of compiler command line options is then printed. The normal way of using CC7A is to use it as a tool from an integrate environment like MPLAB.

Compiling a program requires a file name and command line options:

```
cc7a -a demo.c <enter>
```

1.3 MPLAB Support

CC7A can be selected as a tool in MPLAB which offers an integrated environment including editor and tool support (compilers, assemblers, simulators, emulators, device programmers). Compilation errors are easily handled. MPLAB supports point-and-click to go directly to the source line that needs correction. CC7A supports the COD file format used by MPLAB for program debugging. CC7A offers two modes of source file debugging is available: C or assembly mode. Thus, tracing programs in MPLAB can be done using assembly instructions or C statements. MPLAB is free, and can be downloaded from the Microchip Internet site.

Please refer to the supplied file '**install.txt**' for a description on how to install and use CC7A in the MPLAB environment.

1.4 Summary of Delivered Files

```

CC7A.EXE      : compiler

PIC17.TXT    : information on implemented features
CHIP.TXT     : how to make new chip definitions
CDATA.TXT    : info on the #pragma cdata statement
CONFIG.TXT   : the chip configuration bits
MATH.TXT     : math library support
INSTALL.TXT  : installation guide and MPLAB setup

INT17XXX.H   : interrupt header file
INT17XX.c    : interrupt example

HEXCOCODES.H : direct coded instructions

OP.INC       : command line options in a file

DEMO.C       : syntax demo file
DEMO-VAR.C   : defining RAM variables
DEMO-MAT.C   : integer math
DEMO-FPM.C   : floating point math
DEMO-FXM.C   : fixed point math
DEMO-ROM.C   : const data and DW
DEMO-PTR.C   : tables and pointers
DEMO-INS.C   : generating single instructions

MATH16.H     : 8-16 bit math library
MATH24.H     : 8-24 bit math library
MATH32.H (1) : 8-32 bit math library
MATH16X.H    : 16 bit fixed point library
MATH24X.H    : 24 bit fixed point library
MATH32X.H (1) : 32 bit fixed point library
MATH16F.H (1) : 16 bit floating point library
MATH24F.H    : 24 bit floating point library
MATH32F.H    : 32 bit floating point library
MATH24LB.H   : 24 bit floating point functions
               (log,sqrt,cos,..)
MATH32LB.H   : 32 bit floating point functions
               (log,sqrt,cos,..)

17C42.H .. 17C766.H : PICmicro header files

README.TXT

```

(1) Not available on the DEMO and STANDARD edition

1.5 Short Program Example

```

/* global variables */
char a;
bit b1, b2;

/* assign names to port pins */
#pragma bit in @ PORTB.0

```

```

#pragma bit out @ PORTB.1

void sub( void)
{
    char i;      /* a local variable */

    /* generate 20 pulses */
    for ( i = 0; i < 20; i++) {
        out = 1;
        nop();
        out = 0;
    }
}

void main( void)
{
    // if (TO == 1 && PD == 1 /* power up */) {
    //     WARM_RESET:
    //     clearRAM(); // clear all RAM
    // }

    /* first decide the initial output level
    on the output port pins, and then
    define the input/output configuration.
    This avoids spikes at the output pins. */

    PORTC = 0b.0010; /* out = 1 */
    DDRC = 0b.1111.0001; /* xxxx 0001 */

    a = 9; /* value assigned to global variable */

    do {
        if (in == 0) /* stop if 'in' is low */
            break;
        sub();
    } while ( -- a > 0); /* 9 iterations */

    // if (some condition)
    //     goto WARM_RESET;

    /* main is terminated by a SLEEP instruction */
}

```

1.6 Defining the PICmicro Device

CC7A offers 3 ways to select the PICmicro device in an application:

- 1) By a command line option. MPLAB will generate this option automatically.

```
-p17C42
```

- 2) By a pragma statement in the source code. Note that the command line option will override the selection done by #pragma chip.

```
#pragma chip PIC17C42
```

3) By using `include` to directly select a header file. This is not recommended because there will be an error if the command line option is also used.

```
#include "17C42.h"
```

NOTE 1: When using a `pragma` statement or `include` file, remember to use it in the beginning of the C program so that it is compiled first. However, some preprocessor statements like `#define` and `#if` may proceed the `#include/#pragma` statement.

NOTE 2: CC7A will use **automatic** include of the right header file when using the `-p<device>` or `#pragma chip` statement.

NOTE 3: If the header file does not reside in the default project folder, then the path name is required. This can be supplied by a command line option as an include folder/directory (`-I<path>`).

NOTE 4: New header files can be defined according to file '`chip.txt`'.

1.7 What to do next

It is important to know the PICmicro family and the tools well. The easiest way to start is to read the available documentation and experiment with the examples. Then move on to a simple project. Some suggestions:

- study the supplied program samples
- compile code fragments and check out what the compiler accepts
- study the optional assembly file produced by the compiler

Typical steps when developing programs is as follows:

- describe the system, make requirements
- suggest solutions that satisfy these requirements
- write detailed code in the C language
- compile the program using the CC7A compiler
- test the program on a prototype or a simulator

Writing programs for the PICmicro microcontroller family requires careful planning. Program and RAM space are limited, and the key question is often: *Will the application code fit into the selected device?*

2 VARIABLES

The compiler prints information on the screen when compiling. Most important are error messages, and how much RAM and PROGRAM space the program requires. The compiler output information is also written to file *.occ. Example:

```
CC7A Version 1.0, Copyright (c) B Knudsen Data, Norway 2003-2009
--> EXTENDED edition, 8-32 bit int, 16-32 bit float, 32k code words
17\demo.c:
Chip = 17C42
RAM: 00h : -----
RAM: 20h : =====
RAM: 40h : ...6****
RAM: 60h : ****
RAM: 80h : ****
RAM: A0h : ****
RAM: C0h : ****
RAM: E0h : ****
Bank 0:188 bytes free
RAM usage: 44 bytes (29 local), 188 bytes free
Optimizing - removed 9 code words (-2 %)
File 'demo.var'
File 'demo.asm'
File 'demo.lst'
File 'demo.occ'
Origin statement skips 7 words in codepage 0
File 'demo.hex'
Total of 207 code words (10 %)
```

2.1 RAM allocation

Priority when allocating variables:

1. Variables permanently assigned to a location
2. Local variables allocated by the compiler
3. Global variables allocated by the compiler

The compiler prints information on RAM allocation. A full map is printed for the unbanked area and bank 0, which is useful to check out which RAM locations are still free. Detailed information on memory allocation is written to file <src>.var when using the -V command line option.

Symbols:

```
* : free location
- : predefined or pragma variable
= : local variable(s)
. : global variable
7 : 7 free bits in this location
```

A table or structure can not be larger than the size of a bank (224 bytes). Variables are allocated from the start of each bank.

2.2 Defining Variables

CC7A supports integer, fixed and floating point variables. The variable sizes are 1, 8, 16, 24 and 32 bit. The default *int* size is 8 bit, and *long* is 16 bit. Char variables are unsigned by default and thus range from 0 to 255. Note that 32 bit integer variables are not supported by all CC7A editions.

Math libraries may have to be included for math operations (Chapter 6.5 *Library Support* on page 59).

CC7A uses LOW ORDER FIRST (or little-endian) on variables. This means that the least significant byte of a variable is assigned to the lowest address. All variables are allocated from low RAM addresses and upwards. Each RAM location can contain 8 bit variables. Address regions used for special purpose registers are not available for normal allocation. An error message is produced when there is no space left in a specific RAM bank or in the unbanked area.

Note that variables are assigned to the bank 0 by default. See Chapter 2.3 *Using RAM Banks* on page 21 on how to use RAM banks.

Special purpose registers are either predefined or defined in chip-specific header files. This applies to WREG, INDF0, FSR0, PCL, PCLATH, ALUSTA, etc.

Integer variables

```

unsigned a8;           // 8 bit unsigned
char a8;              // 8 bit unsigned
unsigned long i16;    // 16 bit unsigned

char varX;
char counter, L_byte, H_byte;
bit ready; // 0 or 1
bit flag, stop, semafor;

int i;                // 8 bit signed
signed char sc;      // 8 bit signed
long i16;             // 16 bit signed

uns8 u8; // 8 bit unsigned
uns16 u16; // 16 bit unsigned
uns24 u24; // 24 bit unsigned
uns32 u32; // 32 bit unsigned

int8 s8; // 8 bit signed
int16 s16; // 16 bit signed
int24 s24; // 24 bit signed
int32 s32; // 32 bit signed

```

The bitfield syntax can also be used:

```

unsigned x : 24; // 24 bit unsigned
int y : 16; // 16 bit signed

```

The value range of the variables are:

TYPE	SIZE	MIN	MAX
----	----	---	---
int8	1	-128	127
int16	2	-32768	32767

int24	3	-8388608	8388607
int32	4	-2147483648	2147483647
uns8	1	0	255
uns16	2	0	65535
uns24	3	0	16777215
uns32	4	0	4294967295

Floating point

The compiler supports 16, 24 and 32 bit floating point. The 32 bit floating point can be converted to and from IEEE754 by 3 instructions (macro in math32f.h).

Supported floating point types:

```
float16      : 16 bit floating point
float, float24 : 24 bit floating point
double, float32 : 32 bit floating point
```

Format	Resolution	Range
16 bit	2.4 digits	+/- 3.4e38, +/- 1.1e-38
24 bit	4.8 digits	+/- 3.4e38, +/- 1.1e-38
32 bit	7.2 digits	+/- 3.4e38, +/- 1.1e-38

Note that 16 bit floating point is intended for special use where accuracy is less important. More details on the floating point formats is found in '**math.txt**'. Information on floating point libraries is found in Chapter 6.5 *Library Support* on page 59.

Floating point exception flags

The floating point flags are accessible in the application program. At program startup the flags should be initialized:

```
FpFlags = 0;    // reset all flags, disable rounding
FpRounding = 1; // enable rounding
```

Also, after an exception is detected and handled in the application, the exception bit should be cleared so that new exceptions can be detected. Exceptions can be ignored if this is most convenient. New operations are not affected by old exceptions. This also enables delayed handling of exceptions. Only the application program can clear exception flags.

```
char FpFlags; // contains the floating point flags

bit FpOverflow    @ FpFlags.1; // fp overflow
bit FpUnderFlow  @ FpFlags.2; // fp underflow
bit FpDiv0        @ FpFlags.3; // fp divide by zero
bit FpDomainError @ FpFlags.5; // domain error
bit FpRounding    @ FpFlags.6; // fp rounding
// FpRounding=0: truncation
// FpRounding=1: unbiased rounding to nearest LSB
```

IEEE754 interoperability

The floating point format used is not equivalent to the IEEE754 standard, but the difference is very small. The reason for using a different format is code efficiency. IEEE compatibility is needed when floating point values are exchanged with the outside world. It may also happen that inspecting variables during debugging requires the IEEE754 format on some emulators/debuggers. Macros for converting to and from IEEE754 are available:

```

math32f.h:
// before sending a floating point value:
float32ToIEEE754(floatVar);
// change to IEEE754 (3 instr.)

// before using a floating point value received:
IEEE754ToFloat32(floatVar);
// change from IEEE754 (3 instr.)

math24f.h:
float24ToIEEE754(floatVar);
// change to IEEE754 (3 instr.)
IEEE754ToFloat24(floatVar);
// change from IEEE754 (3 instr.)

```

Fixed point variables

Fixed point can be used instead of floating point, mainly to save program space. Fixed point math use formats where the decimal point is permanently set at byte boundaries. For example, fixed8_8 use one byte for the integer part and one byte for the decimal part. Fixed point operations maps nicely to integer operations except for multiplication and division which are supported by library functions. Information on fixed point libraries is found in Chapter 6.5 *Library Support* on page 59.

```

fixed8_8 fx;

fx.low8  : Least significant byte, decimal part
fx.high8 : Most significant byte, integer part

MSB LSB   1/256 = 0.00390625
07 01 : 7 + 0x01*0.00390625 = 7.0039625
07 80 : 7 + 0x80*0.00390625 = 7.5
07 FF : 7 + 0xFF*0.00390625 = 7.99609375
00 00 : 0
FF 00 : -1
FF FF : -1 + 0xFF*0.00390625 = -0.0039625
7F 00 : +127
7F FF : +127 + 0xFF*0.00390625 = 127.99609375
80 00 : -128

```

Convention: fixed<S><I>_<D> :

- <S> : 'U' : unsigned
- <none>: signed
- <I> : number of integer bits
- <D> : number of decimal bits

Thus, fixed16_8 uses 16 bits for the integer part plus 8 bits for the decimals, a total of 24 bits. The resolution for fixed16_8 is $1/256=0.0039$ which is the lowest possible increment. This is equivalent to 2 decimal digits (actually 2.4 decimal digits).

Built in fixed point types:

Type:	#bytes	Range	Resolution
fixed8_8	2 (1+1)	-128, +127.996	0.00390625
fixed8_16	3 (1+2)	-128, +127.99998	0.000015259
fixed8_24	4 (1+3)	-128, +127.99999994	0.000000059605
fixed16_8	3 (2+1)	-32768, +32767.996	0.00390625

```

fixed16_16  4 (2+2)  -32768, +32767.99998  0.000015259
fixed24_8   4 (3+1) -8388608, +8388607.996  0.00390625

fixedU8_8   2 (1+1)    0, +255.996      0.00390625
fixedU8_16  3 (1+2)    0, +255.99998    0.000015259
fixedU8_24  4 (1+3)    0, +255.99999994  0.000000059605
fixedU16_8  3 (2+1)    0, +65535.996    0.00390625
fixedU16_16 4 (2+2)    0, +65535.99998  0.000015259
fixedU24_8  4 (3+1)    0, +16777215.996 0.00390625

(additional types with decimals only; no integer part)
fixed_8     1 (0+1)    -0.5, +0.496     0.00390625
fixed_16    2 (0+2)    -0.5, +0.49998   0.000015259
fixed_24    3 (0+3)    -0.5, +0.49999994 0.000000059605
fixed_32    4 (0+4)    -0.5, +0.4999999998 0.0000000002328

fixedU_8    1 (0+1)    0, +0.996        0.00390625
fixedU_16   2 (0+2)    0, +0.99998      0.000015259
fixedU_24   3 (0+3)    0, +0.99999994   0.000000059605
fixedU_32   4 (0+4)    0, +0.9999999998 0.0000000002328

```

To sum up:

1. All types ending on _8 have 2 correct digits after decimal point
2. All types ending on _16 have 4 correct digits after decimal point
3. All types ending on _24 have 7 correct digits after decimal point
4. All types ending on _32 have 9 correct digits after decimal point

Fixed point constants

The 32 bit floating point format is used during compilation and calculation.

```

fixed8_8 a = 10.24;
fixed16_8 a = 8 * 1.23;
fixed8_16 x = 2.3e-3;
fixed8_16 x = 23.45e1;
fixed8_16 x = 23.45e-2;
fixed8_16 x = 0.;
fixed8_16 x = -1.23;

```

Constant rounding error example:

```

Constant: 0.036
Variable type: fixed16_8 (1 byte for decimals)

```

Error calculation: $0.036 * 256 = 9.216$. The byte values assigned to the variable are simply 0,0,9. The error is $(9/256 - 0.036) / 0.036 = -0.023$. The compiler prints this normalized error as a warning.

Type conversion

The fixed point types are handled as subtypes of float. Type casts are therefore infrequently required.

Fixed point interoperability

It is recommended to stick to one fixed point format in a program. The main problem when using mixed types is the enormous number of combinations which makes library support a challenge. However, many mixed operations are allowed when CC7A can map the types to the built in integer code generator:

```

fixed8_16 a, b;
fixed_16 c;
a = b + c; // OK, code is generated directly

```



```

a = b * 10.22; // OK: library function is supplied

a = b * c; // a new user library function is required!

// a type cast can select an existing library function:
a = b * (fixed8_16)c;

```

Assigning variables to RAM addresses

All variables, including structures and arrays can be assigned to fixed address locations. This is useful for assigning names to port pins. It is also possible to define overlapping variables (similar to union). Variables can overlap parts of another variable, table or structure. Multiple levels of overlapping are allowed. The syntax is:

```

<variable_definition> @ <address | (constant_expression)>;
<variable_definition> @ <variable_element>;

```

Examples:

```

char th @ 0x25;
//bit th1 @ 0x25.1; // overlap warning
bit th1 @ th.1; // no warning

char tty;
bit b0;
char io @ tty;
bit bx0 @ b0;
bit bx2b @ tty.7;
//char tui @ b0; // size exceeded
//long r @ tty; // size exceeded

char tab[5];
long tr @ tab;
struct {
    long tiM;
    long uu;
} ham @ tab;

char aa @ ttb[2]; // char ttb[10];
bit ab @ aa.7; // a second level of overlapping
bit bb @ ttb[1].1;
size2 char *cc @ da.a; // 'da' is a struct
char dd[3] @ da.sloi[1].pi.ncup;
uns16 ee @ fx.mid16; // float32 fx;
TypeX ii @ tab; // TypeX is a typedef struct

```

An expression can define the address of a variable. This makes it easier to move a collection of variables.

```

char tty @ (50+1-1+2);
bit tt1 @ (50+1-1+2+1).3;
bit tt2 @ (50+1-1+2+1).BX1; // enum { .., BX1, .. };

```

Pragma statements can also be used (limited to bit and char types):

```

#pragma char port @ PORTC
#pragma char varX @ 0x23
#pragma bit IOpin @ PORTA.1
#pragma bit ready @ 0x20.2

```

If the compiler detects double assignments to the same RAM location, this will cause a warning to be printed. The warning can be avoided if the second assignment uses the variable name from the first assignment instead of the address (`#pragma char var2 @ var1`).

An alternative is to use the `#define` statement:

```
#define PORTX PORTC
#define ready PA2
```

The `shadowDef` type modifier allow local and global variables and function parameters to be assigned to specific addresses without affecting normal variable allocation. The compiler will ignore the presence of these variables when allocating global and local variable space.

```
shadowDef char gx70 @ 0x70; // global or local variable
```

The above definition allows location 0x70 to be inspected and modified through variable 'gx70'.

Function parameters can be assigned to addresses. No other variables will be assigned by the compiler to these locations. Such manual allocation can be useful when reusing RAM locations manually.

```
void writeByte(char addr @ 0x70, char value @ 0x71) { .. }
```

This syntax is also possible on function prototypes.

Supported type modifiers

```
static char a; /* a global variable; known in the current module
only, or having the same name scope as local variables when used in a
local block */
```

```
extern char a; // global variable (in another module)
```

```
auto char a; // local variable
// 'auto' is normally not used
```

```
register char a; // ignored type modifier
```

```
const char a; /* 'const' tells that compiler that the data is not
modified. This allows global data to be put in program memory. */
```

```
volatile char a; /* ignored type modifier. Note that CC7A use the
address to automatically decide that most of the special purpose
registers are volatile */
```

```
page0 void fx(void); // fx() resides in codepage 0
// page0,page1,..,page7
```

```
bank0 char a; // variable 'a' resides in RAM bank 0
// bank0,bank1,..,bank15
// shrBank : unbanked locations
```

```
size2 char *px; // pointer px is 16 bit wide
// size1,size2
```

```
shadowDef char gx70 @ 0x70; /* a variable can be assigned to a
location without affecting normal allocation */
```

Local variables

Local variables are supported. The compiler performs a safe compression by checking the scope of the variables and reusing the locations when possible. The limited RAM space is therefore used efficiently. This feature is very useful, because deciding which variables can safely overlap is time consuming, especially during program redesign. Function parameters are located together with local variables.

Variables should be defined in the innermost block, because this allows best reuse of RAM locations. It is also possible to add inner blocks just to reduce the scope of the variables as shown in the following example:

```
void main(void)
{
    char i; /* no reuse is possible at the
            outermost level of 'main' */
    i = 9;
    { // an inner block is added
        char a;
        for (a = 0; a < 10; a++)
            i += fx(PORTB,0);
    }
    sub(i);
    { // another inner block to enable better reuse
        char b = s + 1;
        int i1 = -1, i2 = 0;
        // more code
    }
}
```

Local variables may have the same name. However, the compiler adds an extension to produce a unique name in the assembly, list and COD files. When a function is not called (defined but not in use), then all parameters and local variables are truncated to the same (unused) location.

Local variables will normally reside in a single block not crossing any bank boundaries, but it is possible to define a large stack that may cross bank boundaries. The compiler will not move variables from unbanked area to bank 0.

The stack for local variables, parameters and temporary variables is normally allocated separately in each bank and the unbanked area. The bank is normally defined the same way as global variables through `#pragma rambank` or bank type modifiers. This makes it possible to split the stack into several independent stacks. Using a single stack is normally recommended, but sometimes this is not possible when the stack size is too large.

Using a large stack

It is possible to use a single main stack for all local variables. The main stack is not an additional stack, but tells the compiler where the main stack is located (which bank). The main stack can be larger than a single bank, and is defined by the following pragma statement:

```
#pragma mainStack 3 @ 0x110 // set lower main stack address
```

Using this pragma means that local variables, parameters and temporary variables of size 3 bytes and larger (including tables and structures) will be stored in a single stack allocated no lower than address 0x110. Smaller variables and variables with a bank modifier will be stored according to the default/other rules. Using size 0 means all variables including bit variables.

Note that `#pragma rambank` is ignored for variables stored in the main stack. Addresses ranging from 0x100 to 0x1FF are equivalent to the `bank1` type modifier.

In some cases it will be efficient to use unbanked area or a specific bank for local variables up to a certain size. This is possible by using the following pragma:

```
#pragma minorStack 1 @ 0x18
```

In this case, local variables, parameters and temporary variables up to 1 byte will be put in unbanked area from address 0x18 to 0x1F. Larger variables and variables with a bank modifier will be stored according to the default/other rules. Using size 0 means bit variables only. This pragma can be used in combination with the main stack. The variable size defined by the minor stack has priority over the main stack.

The most efficient RAM usage is to use a single stack. Separation into different stacks increase total RAM usage, and should be avoided if possible.

Temporary variables

Operations like multiplication, division, modulo division and shifts often require temporary variables. However, the compiler needs NO PERMANENT SPACE for temporary variables.

The temporary variables are allocated the same way as local variables, but with a narrow scope. This means that the RAM locations can be reused in other parts of the program. This is an efficient strategy and often no extra space is required in application programs.

Arrays, structures and unions

One dimensional arrays are implemented.

```
char t[10], i, index, x, temp;
uns16 tx[3];

tx[i] = 10000;
t[1] = t[i] * 20; // ok
t[i] = t[x] * 20; // not allowed
temp = t[x] * 20;
t[i] = temp;
```

Normal C structures can be defined, also nested types. Unions are allowed.

```
struct hh {
    long a;
    char b;
} vx1;

union {
    struct {
        char a;
        int16 i;
    } pp;
    char x[4];
    uns32 l;
} uni;

// accessing structure elements
vx1.a = -10000;
uni.x[3] = vx1.b - 10;
```

The equivalent of a (small) multidimensional array can be constructed by using a structure. However, only one index can be a variable.

```

struct {
    char e[4];
    char i;
} multi[5];

multi[x].e[3] = 4;
multi[2].e[i+1] += temp;

```

Bitfields

Bitfields in structures are allowed. The size has to be 1, 8, 16, 24 or 32 bit.

```

struct bitfield {
    unsigned a : 1;
    bit      c;
    unsigned d : 32;
    char     aa;
} zz;

```

The CC7A compiler also allows the bitfield syntax to be used outside structures as a general way of defining variable size:

```
int x : 24; // a 24 bit signed variable
```

Typedef

Typedef allows defining new type identifiers consisting of structures or other data types:

```

typedef struct hh HH;
HH var1;
typedef unsigned ux : 16; // equal to uns16
ux r, a, b;

```

2.3 Using RAM Banks

The RAM bank definitions are:

```

unbanked:    0x018/0x1A - 0x01F
bank 0:      0x020 - 0x0FF
bank 1:      0x120 - 0x1FF
bank 2:      0x220 - 0x2FF
..
bank 15:     0xF20 - 0xFFF

```

Using more than one RAM bank is done by setting the active rambank:

```

/* variables proceeding the first rambank statement are placed in
bank 0. This is also valid for local variables and parameters */

#pragma rambank 1

char a,b,c; /* a,b and c are located in bank 1 */
/* parameters and local variables in functions placed here are also
located in bank 1 ! */

```

```
#pragma rambank 0
char d;      /* located in bank 0 */
```

The compiler automatically finds the first free location in the selected bank.

NOTE: Local variables and function parameters also have to be located. It may be necessary to use `#pragma rambank` between some of the functions and even `INSIDE` a function. The recommended strategy is to locate local variables and function parameters in one bank. The unbanked locations are selected by:

```
#pragma rambank -
```

The bank type modifier

It is also possible to use the bank type modifier to select the RAM bank.

```
bank0..bank15, shrBank : can replace #pragma rambank
// shrBank is the unbanked RAM locations

bank1 char tx[3]; // tx[] is located in bank 1
```

The bank type modifier defines the RAM bank to locate the variable. It can locate global variables, function parameters and local variables. The bank type modifier applies to the variable itself, but not to the data accessed. This difference is important for pointers.

NOTE 1: The bank type modifier has higher priority than `#pragma rambank`.

NOTE 2: Using 'extern' makes it possible to state the variable definition several times. However, the first definition defines the rambank, and later definitions must use the same bank.

NOTE 3: When defining a function prototype, this will normally not locate the function parameters. However, when adding a bank type modifier to a function parameter in a prototype, this will define the bank to be used for this variable.

If variables are located in non-existing RAM banks for a device, these variables are mapped into existing RAM banks (bank 0). This applies to the bank type modifiers and the `#pragma rambank` statement.

Using RAM banks requires some planning. The optimal placement requires least code to update the bank selection bits. Some advise when locating variables:

1. All local variables and function parameters should preferably be put in one bank.
2. The most frequently used variables (except arrays) should be placed in same bank.
3. Try to locate variables which are close related to each other in the same bank.
4. Try to locate all variables accessed in the same function in the same bank.

RAM bank selection

RAM and special purpose registers can be located in up to 16 banks. A special bank instruction is used to select the right bank.

The bank selection bits are automatically checked and updated by the compiler, and attempts to update the bank in the source code may be removed by the compiler. This feature can be switched off which means that correct updating has to be done in the source code.

The compiler uses global optimizing techniques to minimize the extra code needed to update the bank selection bits. Removing all unnecessary updating is difficult. However, there should be few redundant instructions.

NOTE: The compiler REMOVE attempts to use the bank instruction (MOVLR/MOVLB) in user source code. However, it is possible to switch to manual updating by the *-b* command line option, or locally by a pragma statement.

Local user update regions

The automatic updating can be switched off locally. This is done by pragma statements:

```
#pragma updateBank 0 /* OFF */
#pragma updateBank 1 /* ON */
```

These statements can be inserted anywhere, but they should surround a smallest possible region. Please check the generated assembly code to ensure that the desired results is achieved. Another use of #pragma updateBank is to instruct the bank update algorithm to do certain selections. Refer to *Section #pragma updateBank* on page 47 in Chapter 4.1 *The pragma Statement* for more details.

NOTE: The safest coding is to not assume any specific contents of the bank selection bits when a local update region is started. The compiler uses complex rules to update the bank selection bits outside the local regions. Also, all updating inside a local update region are traced to enable optimal updating when the local update region ends.

2.4 Pointers

Single level pointers is implemented.

```
char t[10], *p;

p = &t[1];
*p = 100;
p[2] ++;
```

The compiler allows using a 8 bit RAM pointer when all accesses using this pointer is limited to the same bank. The bank is automatically detected and used. In some cases it may be needed to define this bank directly. An error message is printed if a restricted pointer is loaded with an address from the wrong RAM bank.

```
bank1 char t[10];
bank3 char *pi;
#pragma assume *pi in rambank 1
..
pi = &t[2];
```

Pointer models

Using 8 bit pointers when possible saves both code and RAM space. CC7A allows the size of all single pointers to be decided automatically. However, pointers in structures and arrays have to be decided in advance, by using the memory model command line options or a size type modifier. Note that the operator 'sizeof(pointer)' will lock the size according to the chosen default model. Using sizeof(pointer) is normally not required and should be avoided.

That default pointer sizes are used only when the pointer size is not chosen dynamically. The priority when deciding the pointer size is:

- 1) Pointer size type modifiers
- 2) Automatic chosen pointer size (single pointers)
- 3) Pointer size chosen according to the default model

Command line options:

- mc1 : default 'const' pointer size is 1 byte (8 bits)
- mc2 : default 'const' pointer size is 2 bytes (16 bits)
- mr1 : default RAM pointer size is 1 byte
- mr2 : default RAM pointer size is 2 bytes
- mm1 : default pointer size is 1 byte (all pointer types)
- mm2 : default pointer size is 2 bytes (all pointer types)

Pointer size type modifiers:

- size1: pointer size is 1 byte (8 bits)
- size2: pointer size is 2 bytes (16 bits)

```
bank1 size2 float *pf;
```

The supported pointer types are:

- a) 8 bit pointer to RAM. The compiler will automatically update the bank register (BSR).
- b) 16 bit pointer to RAM. This format is required only when the same pointer have to access locations in different 256 byte RAM segments.
- c) 8 bit pointer to program memory. This pointer can access up to 256 byte data.
- d) 16 bit pointer to program memory. This pointer can access more than 256 byte data.
- e) 16 bit pointer to RAM or program memory. Bit 15 is used to detect RAM or program memory access.

2.5 Const Data Support

CC7A supports constant data stored in program memory. The C keyword 'const' tells the compiler that these data do not change. Examples:

```
const char *ps = "Hello world!";
const float ftx[] = { 1.0, 33.34, 1.3e-10 };
..
t = *ps;
ps = "";
fx = ftx[i];
```

The compiler will normally insert 'const' data at the end of the user code (high address). The following pragma statement will allow the 'const' data to be inserted between two user functions, or at a specific address (if using #pragma origin first):

```
#pragma insertConst
```

The implementation of constant data supports the following features:

- both 8 and 16 bit pointers to const data in the same application
- the size of single const pointers can be chosen automatically
- const pointers can access both RAM and program memory
- the compiler will not put all constant data in a single table, but rather make smaller tables if this saves code space
- duplicate strings and other data are automatically merged to save space

Recommendations:

It is recommended to use small data tables and structures. This allows the compiler to merge equal data items and build optimal blocks of constant data.

Limitations:

- 1) The compiler will not initialize RAM variables on startup
- 2) Data items of 16 bit or more in structures with more than 256 byte data must be aligned

Data of size 16 bit or more

The compiler allows access of 8, 16, 24 and 32 bits data, including fixed and floating point formats. When using arrays or structures with more than 256 byte data, single data items have to be aligned. Alignment means that there should not be any remainder when dividing the offset with the size of the data item. This is only a problem when defining structures containing data of different sizes.

```
const long t1[5] = { 10000, -10000, 0, 30000, -1 };
const uns24 th[] = { 1000000, 0xFFFFFFFF, 9000000 };
const int32 ti[] = { 1000000000, 0x7FFFFFFF,
                   -900000000 };
const fixed8_8 tf[] = { -1.1, 200.25, -100.25 };
const float tp[] = { -1.1, 200.25, 23e20 };
const double td[] = { -1.1, 200.25, 23e-30};
const float16 ts[] = { -1.1, 200.25, 23e-30};
..
l = t1[i]; // reading a long integer
d = td[x]; // reading a double float constant
```

Merging data

The compiler will automatically merge equal strings and sub-strings, and also other data items. Using small tables will increase the chance of finding data items that can be merged. Note that data containing initialized addresses (ROM and RAM) are not merged. Examples:

1. The string "world!" is identical to the last part of the string "Hello world!". It is therefore not required to use additional storage for the first string. The compiler handles the address calculations so that merged (or overlapping) strings are handled fully automatically. Note that the string termination '\0' also has to be equal, otherwise merging is not possible. For example, the string "world" can not be merged with the above strings.
2. Merging applies to all kinds of data. Data is compared byte by byte. This allows the first two of the following tables to be merged with the last one.

```
const char a1[] = { 10, 20, 30 };
const char a2[] = "ab";
const char a3[] = { 5, 10, 20, 30, 'a', 'b', 0 };
```

Examples

A table of pointers to strings:

```
const struct {
    const char *s;
} tb[] = {
    "Hello world",
    "Monday",
    "",
    "world" // automatically merged with first string
};

p = tb[i].s; // const char *p; char i;
```

```
t = *p++;    // char t;  
t = p[x];   // char x;
```

Note that 'const struct' is required to put the pointer array in program memory. Using 'const char *tx[];' means that the strings resides in program memory, but the table 'tx[]' resides in RAM.

String parameters:

```
myfunc("Hello"); // void myfunc(const char *str);  
myfunc(&tab[i]); // char tab[20]; // string in RAM  
myfunc(ctab);   // const char ctab[] = "A string";
```

3 SYNTAX

3.1 Statements

C statements are separated by semicolons and surrounded by block delimiters:

```
{ <statement>; .. <statement>; }
```

The typical statements are:

```
// if, while, for, do, switch, break, continue,
// return, goto, <assignment>, <function call>
while (1) {
    k = 3;
    X:
    if (PORTA == 0) {
        for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
            pin_1 = 0;
            do {
                a = sample();
                s += a;
            }
            while (s < 200);
        }
        reg -= 1;
    }
    if (PORTA == 4)
        return 5;
    else if (count == 3)
        goto X;
    if (PORTB.3)
        break;
}
```

if statement

```
if (<condition>)
    <statement>;
else if (<condition>)
    <statement>;
else
    <statement>;
```

The *else if* and *else* parts are optional.

while statement

```
while (<condition>)
    <statement>;

while (1) { .. } // infinite loop
```

for statement

```
for (<initialization>; <condition>; <increment>)
    <statement>;
```

initialization: legal assignment or empty

condition: legal condition or empty

increment: legal increment or assignment or empty

```
for (v = 0; v < 10; v++) { .. }
for (; v < 10; v++) { .. }
for (v = 0; ; v--) { .. }
for (i=0; i<5; a.b[x]+=2) { .. }
```

do statement

```
do
    <statement>;
while (<condition>);
```

switch statement

The switch statement supports variables up to 32 bit. The generated code is more compact and executes faster than the equivalent 'if - else if' chain.

```
switch (<variable>) {
    case <constant1>:
        <statement>; .. <statement>;
        break;
    case <constant2>:
        <statement>; .. <statement>;
        break;
    ..
    default:
        <statement>; .. <statement>;
        break;
}
```

<variable>: all 8-32 bit integer variables including W/WREG

break: optional

default: optional, can be put in the middle of the switch statement

```
switch (token) {
    case 2: i += 2; break;
    case 9:
    case 1:
    default:
        if (PORTA == 0x22) break;

    case 'P':
        pin1 = 0; i -= 2;
        break;
}
```

break statement

The 'break;' statement is used inside loop statements (for, while, do) to terminate the loop. It is also used in *switch* statements.

```
while (1) {
    ..
    if (var == 5)
        break;
    ..
}
```

continue statement

The ‘continue;’ statement is used inside loop statements (for, while, do) to force the next iteration of the loop to be executed, skipping any code in between. In *while* and *do-while* loops, the loop condition is executed next. In *for* loops, the increment is processed before the loop condition.

```
for (i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
    ..
    if (i == 7)
        continue;
    ..
}
```

return statement

```
return <expression>; /* exits the current function */

return; /* no return value */
return i+1; /* return value */
```

goto statement

```
goto <label>;
```

Jumps to a location, forward or backward.

```
goto XYZ;
..
XYZ:
..
```

3.2 Assignment and Conditions

Basic assignment examples:

```
var1 = x + y;
i = x - 100;
y ^= 'A'; // y = y ^ 'A';
W |= 0x10; // W = W | 0x10;
a = b = c + 1; // multiple assignment

// operations: + - & | ^ * / % << >>

flag = 1; // set bit variable

i++; /*or*/ ++i; /*or*/ i = i + 1;
i--; /*or*/ --i; /*or*/ i = i - 1;
```

Special syntax examples

```
#define mx !a
if (!mx) ..

W = W - 3; // ADDLW 256-3
b = fx() - 3;

// Post- and pre-incrementing of pointers
char *cp;
t = *--cp;
```

```

t |= *++cp;
*cp-- = t;
t = *cp++ + 10;

// pre-incrementing of variables
t = ++b | 3;
sum( --b, 10);
t = tab[ --b];

```

Conditions

```

[ ++ | -- ] <variable> <cond-oper> <value>
                                [ && condition ]
                                [ || condition ]

```

```

cond-oper :  ==  !=  >  >=  <  <=

```

```

if (x == 7) ..
if (Carry == 1 && a1 < a2) ..
if (y > 44 || Carry || x != z) ..
if (--index > 0) ..
if (bx == 1 || ++i < max) ..
if (sub_1() != 0) ..

```

Bit variables

```

bit a, b, c, d;
char i, j, k;

bit bitfun(void) // bit return type (using Carry bit)
{
    return 0; // Clear Carry, return
    return 1; // Set Carry, return
    nop();
    return Carry; // return
    return b; // Carry=b; return
    return !i;
    return b & PORTA.3;
}
..
b = bitfun2(bitfun(), 1);
if (bitfun()) ..
if (!bitfun()) ..
if (bitfun() == 0) ..

b = !charfun();
b = charfun() > 0;
b = !bitfun();
Carry = bitfun();
b &= bitfun();

if (bitfun() == b) ..
if (bitfun() == PORTA.1) ..
i += b; // conditional increment
i -= b; // conditional decrement
i = k+Carry;
i = k-Carry;
b = !b; // Toggle bit (or b=b==0;)

```

```

b = !c; // assign inverted bit
PORTA.0 = !Carry;
a &= PORTA.0;
PORTA.1 |= a;
PORTA.2 &= a;

// assign condition using 8 bit char variables
b = !i;
b = !W;
b = j == 0;
b = k != 0;
b = i > 0;

// assign bit conditions
b = c&d; //also &&, |, ||, +, ^, ==, !=, <, >, >=, <=

// conditions using bit variables
if (b == c) .. // also !=, >, <, >=, <=

// initialized local bit variables
bit bx = cx == '+';
bit by = fx() != 0xFF;

```

Multiplication, division and modulo

```

multiplication : a16 = b16 * c16; // 16 * 16 bit

```

A general multiplication algorithm is implemented, allowing most combinations of variable sizes.

Including a math library allows library calls to be generated instead of inline code. The algorithm makes shortcuts when possible, for instance when multiplying by 2. This is treated as a left shift.

```

division      : a16 = b16 / c8; // 16 / 8 bit
modulo       : a32 = b32 % c16; // 32 % 16 bit

```

The division algorithm also allows most combinations of variable sizes. Shortcuts are made when dividing by 2 (or 2*2*..). These are treated as right shifts.

Precedence of C operators

```

Highest:      ( )
              ++ --
              * / %
              + -
              << >>
              < <= > >=
              == !=
              &
              ^
              |
              &&
              ||
Lowest:      = += -= *= /= etc.

```

Mixed variable sizes are allowed

```

a32 = (uns32) b24 * c8; // 24 * 8 bit, result 32 bit
a16 = a16 + b8; // 16 + 8 bit, result 16 bit

```

Most combinations of variables are allowed, the compiler performs sign extension is required. Multiple operations in the same expression are allowed when using 8 bit variables.

```
a8 = b8 + c8 + d8 + 10;
```

3.3 Constants

```
x = 34;           /* decimal */
x = 0x22;        /* hexadecimal */
x = 'A';         /* ASCII */
x = 0b010101;   /* binary */

x = 0x1234 / 256; /* 0x12 : MSB */
x = 0x1234 % 256; /* 0x34 : LSB */
x = 33 % 4;      /* 1 */
x = 0xF & 0xF3;  /* 3 */
x = 0x2 | 0x8;   /* 10 */
x = 0x2 ^ 0xF;   /* 0b1101 */
x = 0b10 << 2;   /* 8 */
x = r1 + (3 * 8 - 2); /* 22 */
x = r1 + (3 + 99 + 67 - 2); /* 167 */
x = ((0xF & 0xF3) + 1) * 4; /* 16 */
```

Please note that parentheses are required in some cases.

Constant expressions

The size of integers is by default 8 bits for this compiler (other C compilers use typically 16 or 32 bits depending on the CPU capabilities). An error is printed if the constant expression loses significant bits because of value range limitations.

```
char a;
a = (10 * 100) / 256;           // an error is printed
a = (10L * 100) / 256;         // no error
a = ((uns16) 10 * 100) / 256; // no error
a = (uns16) (10 * 100) / 256; // error again
a = (10 * 200) / 256;         // no error, 200 is a long int
```

Adding a *L* means conversion to long (16 bit).

The command line option *-cu* force 32 bit evaluation of constants so that no significant bits are lost.

Some new built in types can also be used:

TYPE	SIZE	MIN	MAX
----	----	---	---
int8 : 8 bit signed	1	-128	127
int16: 16 bit signed	2	-32768	32767
int24: 24 bit signed	3	-8388608	8388607
int32: 32 bit signed	4	-2147483648	2147483647
uns8 : 8 bit unsigned	1	0	255
uns16: 16 bit unsigned	2	0	65535
uns24: 24 bit unsigned	3	0	16777215
uns32: 32 bit unsigned	4	0	4294967295

The constant type is by default the shortest signed integer. Adding a *U* behind a constant means that it is treated as unsigned. Note that constants above 0x7FFFFFFF are unsigned by default (with or without a *U* behind).

Enumeration

An enumeration is a set of named integer constants. It can often replace a number of *#define* statements. The numbering starts with 0, but this can be changed:

```
enum { A1, A2, A3, A4 };
typedef enum { alfa = 8, beta, zeta = -4, eps, } EN1;
EN1 nn;
enum con { Read_A, Read_B };
enum con mm;
mm = Read_A;
nn = eps;
```

3.4 Functions

Function definitions can look as follows:

```
void subroutine2(char p) { /* C statements */}
bit function1(void) { }
long function2(char W) { }
void main(void) { }
```

Function calls:

```
subroutine1();
subroutine2(24);
bitX = function1();
x = function2(W);
y = fx1(fx3(x));
```

The compiler needs to know the definition of a function before it is called to enable type checking. A prototype is a function definition without statements. Prototypes are useful when the function is called before it is defined. The parameter name is optional in prototypes:

```
char function3(char);
void subroutine1(void);
```

Function return values

Functions can return values up to 4 bytes wide. Return values can be assigned to a variable or discarded. Handling and using return values is automated by the compiler.

The least significant byte is always placed in W. Signed variables and variables larger than 8 bits also use temporary variables on the computed stack.

A function can return any value type. The W register is used for 8 bit return value if possible. The Carry flag is used for bit return values. The compiler will automatically allocate a temporary variable for other return types. A function with no return value is of type *void*.

Parameters in function calls

There is no fixed limit on the number of parameters allowed in function calls. Space for parameters are allocated in the same way as local variables which allows efficient reuse. The bit type is also allowed. Note that if W is used, this has to be the LAST parameter.

```
char func(char a, uns16 b, bit ob, char W);
```

Internal functions

The internal functions provide direct access to certain inline code:

```
btsc(Carry); // void btsc(char); - BTFSC f,b
btss(bit2); // void btss(char); - BTFSS f,b
```

```

clrwdt(); // void clrwdt(void); - CLRWDT
clearRAM(); // void clearRAM(void); clears all RAM
i = decsz(i); // char decsz(char); - DECFSZ f,d
W = incsz(i); // char incsz(char); - INCFSZ f,d
nop(); // void nop(void); - NOP
nop2(); // void nop2(void); - branch (2 cycles)
retint(); // void retint(void); - RETFIE
W = rl(i); // char rl(char); - RLF i,d
i = rr(i); // char rr(char); - RRF i,d
sleep(); // void sleep(void); - SLEEP
skip(i); // void skip(char); - computed goto (single word)
k = swap(k); // char swap(char); - SWAPF k,d
W = addWFC(k); // char addWFC(char); - ADDWFC k,d
i = subFWB(k); // char subFWB(char); - SUBFWB k,d
W = rlnc(i); // char rlnc(char); - RLNCF i,d
i = rrnc(i); // char rrnc(char); - RRNCF i,d
i = decsnz(i); // char decsnz(char); - DCFSNZ f,d
W = incsnz(i); // char incsnz(char); - INFSNZ f,d
b = negate(b); // char negate(char); - NEGF f
W = decadj(W); // char decadj(char); - DAW
multiply(i); // void multiply(char); - MULWF f
multiply(50); // void multiply(char); - MULLW literal
skipIfEQ(a); // void skipIfEQ(char); - CPFSEQ f
skipIfLT(a); // void skipIfLT(char); - CPFSLT f
skipIfGT(a); // void skipIfGT(char); - CPFSGT f
skipIfZero(a); // void skipIfZero(char); - TSTFSZ f
a = readLUInc(void); // char readLUInc(void); - TABLRD 0,1,a
a = readLU(void); // char readLU(void); - TABLRD 0,0,a
a = readHUInc(void); // char readHUInc(void); - TABLRD 1,1,a
a = readHU(void); // char readHU(void); - TABLRD 1,0,a
a = readL(void); // char readL(void); - TLRD 0,a
a = readH(void); // char readH(void); - TLRD 1,a
writeLUInc(char); // void writeLUInc(char); - TABLWT 0,1,a
writeLU(char); // void writeLU(char); - TABLWT 0,0,a
writeHUInc(char); // void writeHUInc(char); - TABLWT 1,1,a
writeHU(char); // void writeHU(char); - TABLWT 1,0,a
writeL(char); // void writeL(char); - TLWT 0,a
writeH(char); // void writeH(char); - TLWT 1,a

```

The internal rotate functions (rl, rr) are also available for the larger variable sizes:

```

a16 = rl(a16); // 16 bit left rotation
a32 = rr(a32); // 32 bit right rotation

```

The inline function nop2() is implemented by a GOTO to the next address. Thus, nop2() can replace two nop() to get more compact code. The main use of nop() and nop2() is to design exact delays in timing critical parts of the application.

3.5 Type Cast

Constants and variables of different types can be mixed in expressions. The compiler converts them automatically to the same type according to the stated rules. For example, the expression:

```
a = b + c;
```

consists of 2 separate operations. The first is the plus operation and the second is the assignment. The type conversion rules are first applied to $b+c$. The result of the plus operation and a are treated last.

The CC7A compiler use 8 bit int size and contains significantly many data types (integers, fixed and floating point). The type cast rules have been set up to provide best possible compatibility with standard C compilers (which typically use 16 or 32 bit int size).

The type conversion rules implemented are:

1. if one operand is double -> the other is converted to double
2. if one operand is float -> the other is converted to float
3. if one operand is 32 bit -> the other is converted to 32 bit
4. if one operand is 24 bit -> the other is converted to 24 bit
5. if one operand is long -> the other is converted to long
6. if one operand is unsigned -> the other is converted to unsigned

NOTES:

- The sign is extended before the operand is converted to unsigned.
- Assignment is also an operation.
- Constants are SIGNED, except if U is added.
- The bit type is converted to unsigned char.
- The fixed point types are handled as subtypes of float.

Type conversion in C is difficult. The compiler may generate a warning if a type cast is required to make the intention clear. Remember that assignment (=) is a separate operation. The separate operations are marked (1:), (2:) and (3:) in the following examples.

```

uns16 a16;
uns8 b8, c8;
int8 i8, j8;

```

`a16 = b8 * c8;` /* (1:) In this case both b8 and c8 are 8 bit unsigned, so the type of the multiplication is 8 bit unsigned. (2:) The result is then assigned to a 16 bit unsigned variable a16. Converting the 8 bit unsigned result to 16 bit unsigned means clearing the most significant bits of a16. The compiler generates a warning because significant bits of the multiplication are lost due to the type conversion rules. */

`a16 = (uns16) (b8 * c8);` /* (1:) Adding parenthesis just isolate the multiplication and the multiplication result is still 8 bit unsigned. (2:) The (uns16) type cast is not needed because this type cast is done automatically before the assignment. The compiler generates a warning because significant bits of the multiplication are lost due to the type conversion rules. */

`a16 = (uns16) b8 * c8;` /* (1:) Converting one of the arguments to 16 bit unsigned BEFORE the multiplication is the right syntax to get a 16 bit result. (2:) The result and the destination a16 now have the same type for the assignment and no type conversion is needed. */

`a16 = (uns8) (b8 * c8);` /* (1:) The multiplication result is 8 bit unsigned. (2:) The (uns8) type cast tells the compiler that the result should be 8 bit unsigned, and no warning is generated even though it looks like significant bits of the multiplication are lost. */

`a16 = b8 * 200;` /* (1:) Constant 200 is a 16 bit signed constant (note that 200U is an 8 bit unsigned constant, and that 127 is the largest 8 bit signed constant). Argument b8 is therefore automatically converted to 16 bit. The constant is then converted to unsigned and the result is 16 bit unsigned. (2:) The result and the destination a16 now have the same type for the assignment and no type conversion is needed. */

`a16 = (int16) i8 * j8;` /* (1:) Both arguments are converted to 16 bit signed and the result is 16 bit signed. (2:) The result is converted to unsigned before the assignment, but this does not mean any real change when the size is the same (example: -1 and 0xFFFF have the same 16 bit representation). */

`a16 = (uns16) (uns8)i8 * (uns8)j8; /* (1:) To get an 8*8 bit unsigned multiplication it is required to cast both arguments to unsigned before extending the size to 16 bit unsigned. Otherwise the sign bit will be extended and the multiplication will need more code and cycles to execute. (2:) The result and the destination a16 now have the same type for the assignment and no type conversion is needed. */`

`a16 = ((uns16) b8 * c8) / 3; /* (1:) Converting one of the arguments to 16 bit unsigned before the multiplication gives a 16 bit result. (2:) Division is the next operation and is using the 16 bit unsigned multiplication result. Constant 3 is 8 bit signed, and is then automatically converted to 16 bit signed and further to 16 bit unsigned. The result of the division is 16 bit unsigned. (3:) The division result and the destination a16 now have the same type for the assignment and no type conversion is needed. */`

3.6 Accessing Parts of a Variable

Each bit in a variable can be accessed directly:

```
uns32 a;
a.7 = 1;    // set bit 7 of variable a to 1
if (a.31 == 0) // test bit 31 of variable a
    t[i].4 = 0; // bit 4 of the i'th element
```

Bit 0: least significant bit
 Bit 7: most significant bit of a 8 bit variable
 Bit 15: most significant bit of a 16 bit variable
 Bit 23: most significant bit of a 24 bit variable
 Bit 31: most significant bit of a 32 bit variable

Also, parts of a variable can be accessed directly:

```
uns16 a;
uns32 b;
a.low8 = 100; // set the least significant 8 bits
a = b.high16; // load the most significant 16 bits
```

low8 : least significant byte
 high8 : most significant byte
 mid8 : second byte
 midL8 : second byte
 midH8 : third byte
 low16 : least significant 16 bit
 mid16 : middle 16 bit
 high16: most significant 16 bit
 low24 : least significant 24 bit
 high24: most significant 24 bit

The table shows which bits are accessed depending on the variable size in bytes (1,2,3,4) and the sub-index used. The * indicates normal use of the sub-index:

	1	2	3	4
low8	0-7	* 0-7	* 0-7	* 0-7
high8	0-7	* 8-15	* 16-23	* 24-31
mid8	0-7	8-15	* 8-15	8-15
midL8	0-7	8-15	8-15	* 8-15
midH8	0-7	8-15	16-23	* 16-23
low16	0-7	0-15	* 0-15	* 0-15
mid16	0-7	0-15	8-23	* 8-23
high16	0-7	0-15	* 8-23	* 16-31
low24	0-7	0-15	0-23	* 0-23
high24	0-7	0-15	0-23	* 8-31

3.7 C Extensions

CC7A adds some extensions to the standard C syntax:

1. The *bit* variable type
2. The *interrupt* function type
3. C++ style comments are allowed :

```
// a comment, valid to the end of the line
```
4. Local variables can be declared between statements as in C++. Standard C requires local variables to be defined in the beginning of a block.
5. Binary constants : 0bxxxxxx or bin(xxxxxx)
 The individual bits can be separated by the ':':

```
0b0100
0b.0.000.1.01.00000
bin(0100)
bin(0001.0100)
```
6. Preprocessor statements can be put into macros. Such preprocessor statements are not extended to multiple lines. The inserted preprocessor statements are evaluated when the macro is expanded, and not when it is defined.

```
#define MAX      \
{               \
  a = 0;        \
  #if AAA == 0 && BBB == 0 \
    b = 0;      \
  #endif        \
}
```

7. Several of the type modifiers are not standard in C (bank0..bank15, shrBank, size1,size2)

More C extensions are allowed by the #pragma statement.

3.8 Predefined Symbols

The basic PICmicro registers are predefined (header files define the rest):

```
INDF0, FSR0, PCL, PCLATH, ALUSTA, TOSTA, CPUSTA, INTSTA,
INDF1, FSR1, W, WREG, TMR0L, TMR0H, TBLPTR, TBLPTRL, TBLPTRH,
BSR, BSRL, BSRH, PRODH, PRODL, Carry, DC, Zero_, Overflow
```

The following names are defined as internal functions, and are translated into special instructions or instruction sequences.

```
btsc, btss, clearRAM, clrwdt, decsz, incsz, nop, nop2, retint, rl,
rr, sleep, skip, swap, decsnz, incsnz, addWFC, subWFB, rlnc, rrnc,
negate, decadj, multiply, skipIfEQ, skipIfLT, skipIfGT, skipIfZero
```

Extensions to the standard C keywords

```
bank0, .. bank15, bit, fixed8_8, .. fixed24_8, float16, float24,
float32, int8, int16, int24, int32, interrupt, page0, .. page7,
shrBank, size1, size2, uns8, uns16, uns24, uns32
```

Standard C keywords used

auto, break, case, char, const, continue, default, double, enum, extern, do, else, float, for, goto, if, inline, int, long, return, short, signed, sizeof, static, struct, switch, typedef, union, unsigned, void, while, define, elif, ifdef, ifndef, include, endif, error, pragma, undef

The remaining standard C keywords are detected and compiled. One is ignored (*register*), and the rest cause a warning to be printed (*volatile, line*).

The sizeof operator

The operator `sizeof()` gives the size in bytes of the argument. The argument can be a type name, a variable name, a pointer, a structure name, an array name, a string literal or a constant. `sizeof` can also be used in a preprocessor statement. Examples: `sizeof(char)` is 1, `sizeof(bit)` is 0, `sizeof("abc")` is 4, `sizeof(int24)` is 3.

Function `offsetof(struct_type, struct_member)`

Function `offsetof()` returns the offset to a structure member. The first argument must be a struct type, and the second a structure member. The function can also be used in a preprocessor expression.

```
typedef struct sStx {
    char a;
    uns16 b;
} Stx;
x = offsetof( Stx, b);
x = offsetof( struct sStx, a);
x = offsetof( struct_x, member_n.sub2.q[3]);
```

Automatically defined macros and symbols

The following symbols are automatically defined when using the CC7A compiler, and can be used in preprocessor macros:

```
__CC7A__ := Integer version number: 1000 means version 1.0
          * first 2 digits : main version
          * last 2 digits : minor release (01='A', 02='B', etc.)

__CoreSet__ := 1742 for PIC17C42 (core 16 a)
              1700 for other PIC17 devices (core 17 b)
```

Macro's `__FILE__` and `__LINE__`

Macro `__FILE__` is replaced by the name (string literal) of the current source file. Macro `__LINE__` is replaced by the current line number (decimal constant) of the source file being compiled.

Macro's `__DATE__` and `__TIME__`

Macro's for date and time are defined when compilation starts.

Macro	Format	Example
<code>__TIME__</code>	HOUR:MIN:SEC	"23:59:59"
<code>__DATE__</code>	MONTH DAY YEAR	"Jan 1 2009"
<code>__DATE2__</code>	DAY MONTH YEAR	" 1 Jan 2009"

3.9 Upward Compatibility

The aim is to provide best possible upward compatibility from version to version. Sometimes the generated code is improved. If the application programs contain timing critical parts (depends on an exact instruction count), then these parts should be verified again, for example by using the MSDOS program *fc* (file compare) on the generated assembly files.

4 PREPROCESSOR DIRECTIVES

The preprocessor recognizes the following keywords:

```
#define, #undef, #include
#if, #ifdef, #ifndef, #elif, #else, #endif
#error, #warning, #message
#pragma
```

A preprocessor line can be extended by putting a `\` at the end of the line. This requires that there are no space characters behind the `\`.

#define

```
#define counter v1
#define MAX 145
#define echo(x) v2 = x
#define mix() echo(1) /* nested macro */
```

Note that all *#define's* are global, even if they are put inside a function. Preprocessor directives can be put into the *#define* statement.

Macro concatenation

The concatenation operator `##` allows tokens to be merged while expanding macros. Examples:

```
#define CONCAT(NAME) NAME ## _command()
CONCAT(quit) => quit_command()
CONCAT() => _command()
CONCAT(dummy(); help); => dummy(); help_command()

#define CONCAT2(N1,N2) N1 ## _comm ## N2()
CONCAT2(help, and) => help_command()

#define CONCAT3(NBR) 0x ## NBR
CONCAT3(0f); => 0x0f

#define CONCAT4(TKN) TKN ## =
CONCAT4(+ ) => +=

#define mrg(s) s ## _msg(s)
#define xmrg(s) mrg(s)
#define foo alt

mrg(foo) => foo_msg(alt)
xmrg(foo) => alt_msg(alt)

#define ILLEGAL1() ## _command
#define ILLEGAL2() _command ##
```

Macro stringification

The stringification operator `#` allows a macro argument to be converted into a string constant. Examples:

```
#define STRINGI1(ARG) #ARG
STRINGI1(help) => "help"
STRINGI1(p="foo\n"); => "p=\"foo\\n\";"
```

```

#define STRINGI2(A1,A2) #A1 " " #A2
STRINGI2(x,y)           =>      "x" " " "y"  (equivalent to "x y")

#define str(s)  #s
#define xstr(s) str(s)
#define foo    4

str(foo)         =>      "foo"
xstr(foo)       =>      "4"

#define WARN_IF(EXP) \
do { if (EXP) \
    warn("Warning: " #EXP "\n"); } \
while (0)

WARN_IF (x==0);           => do { if (x==0)
warn("Warning: " "x==0" "\n"); } while (0);

```

#include

```

#include "test.h"
#include <test.h>

```

#include's can be nested. When using *#include "test.h"* the current directory is first searched. If the file is not found there, then the library directories are searched, in the same order as supplied in the command line option list (*-I<dir>*). The current directory is skipped when using *#include <test.h>*.

Macro's can be used in *#include* files. The following examples show the possibilities. Note that this is not standard C.

```

#include "file1" ".h"
#define MAC1 "c:\project\"
#include MAC1 "file2.h"
#define MAC2 MAC1 ".h"
#include MAC2
#define MAC3 <file3.h>
#include MAC3

```

Rules for macro's in *#include*:

1. Strings using "" can be splitted, but not strings using <>
2. Only the first partial string can be a macro
3. Nested macro's is possible
4. Only one makro at each level is possible

#undef

```

#define MAX 145
..
#undef MAX /* removes definition of MAX */

```

#undef does the opposite of *#define*. The *#undef* statement will not produce any error message if the symbol is not defined.

#if

```
#if defined ALFA && ALFA == 1
..
/* statements compiled if ALFA is equal to 1 */
/* conditional compilation may be nested */
#endif
```

An arbitrary complex constant expression can be supplied. The expression is evaluated the same way as a normal C conditional statement is processed. However, every constant is converted to a 32 bit signed constant first.

- 1) macro's are automatically expanded
- 2) *defined(SYMBOL)* and *defined SYMBOL* are replaced by 1 if the symbol is defined, otherwise 0.
- 3) legal constants : 1234 -1 'a' '\\'
- 4) legal operations : + - * / % >> <<
 - == != < <= > >= || &&
 - ! ~ ()

#ifdef

```
#ifdef SYMBOL
..
/* Statements compiled if SYMBOL is defined.
Conditional compilation can be nested. SYMBOL
should not be a variable or a function name. */
#endif
```

#ifndef

```
#ifndef SYMBOL
/* statements compiled if SYMBOL is not defined */
#endif
```

#elif

```
#ifdef AX
..
#elif defined BX || defined CX
/* statements compiled if AX is not
defined, and BX or CX is defined */
#endif
```

#else

```
#ifdef SYMBOL
..
#else
/* statements compiled if SYMBOL is not defined */
#endif
```

#endif

```
#ifdef SYMBOL
..
#endif /* end of conditional statements */
```

#error

```
#error This is a custom defined error message
```

The compiler generates an error message using the text found behind #error.

#warning

```
#warning This is a warning
```

The following output is produced. Note that this directive is not standard C.

```
Warning test.c 7: This is a warning
```

#message

```
#message This is message 1
```

The following output is produced. Note that this directive is not standard C.

```
Message: This is message 1
```

4.1 The pragma Statement

The pragma statement is used for processor specific implementations.

#pragma alignLsbOrigin <a> [to]

This pragma statement allows the origin to be aligned. The compiler will check if the least significant byte of the origin address is equal to <a>, or alternatively within the range <a> to . If this is not true, the origin is incremented until the condition becomes true. Both <a> and may range from -254 to 254, and should be even numbers.

```
#pragma alignLsbOrigin 0
#pragma alignLsbOrigin 6 to 100
#pragma alignLsbOrigin 0 to 190 // [-254 .. 254]
#pragma alignLsbOrigin -100 to 10
```

Such alignment is useful to make sure that a computed goto does not cross a 256 byte address boundary. More details are found in Section *Origin alignment* on page 86 in Chapter 9.1 Computed Goto.

#pragma asm2var 1

Enable equ to variable transformation. This is defined in Chapter 6.6 *Inline Assembly* on page 67.

#pragma assert [/] <type> <text field>

Assert statements allow messages to be passed to the simulator, emulator, etc. Refer to Chapter 7.3 *Assert Statements* on page 79 for details.

#pragma assume *<pointer> in rambank <n>

The *pragma assume* statement tells the compiler that a 8 bit RAM pointer operates in a limited address range. Refer to Chapter 2.4 *Pointers* on page 23 for details.

```
#pragma assume *p in rambank 3
```

#pragma bit <name> @ <N.B or variable[B]>

Defines the global bit variable <name>. It is useful for assigning a bit variable to a certain address. Only valid addresses are allowed:

```
#pragma bit bitxx @ 0x20.7
```

```
#pragma bit rx      @ FSR0.1
#pragma bit C_bit @ Carry
```

NOTE: If the compiler detects double assignments to the same RAM location, this will cause a warning to be printed. The warning can be avoided if the second assignment uses the variable name from the first assignment instead of the address (*#pragma bit var2 @ var1*).

#pragma cdata[ADDRESS] = <VXS>, .., <VXS>

The cdata statement can store 16 bit data in program memory at fixed addresses. Refer to Chapter 6.9 *The cdata Statement* on page 74 for details.

```
#pragma cdata[ADDRESS] = <VXS>, .., <VXS>
#pragma cdata[]         = <VXS>, .., <VXS>
#pragma cdata.IDENTIFIER = <VXS>, .., <VXS>

ADDRESS: 16 bit word address
VXS : < VALUE | EXPRESSION | STRING>
VALUE: 0 .. 0xFFFFF
EXPRESSION: any valid C constant expression,
            i.e. 0x1000 | (3*1234)
STRING: "Valid C String\r\n\0\x24\x8\xe\xff\xff\\\""
```

#pragma char <name> @ <constant or variable>

Defines the global variable <name>. The statement is useful for assigning a variable to a certain address. Only valid addresses are allowed:

```
#pragma char i @ 0x20
#pragma char PORTX @ PORTC
```

NOTE: If the compiler detects double assignments to the same RAM location, this will cause a warning to be printed. The warning can be avoided if the second assignment uses the variable name from the first assignment instead of the address (*#pragma char var2 @ var1*).

#pragma chip [=] <device>

Defines the chip type. This allows the compiler to select the right boundaries for code and memory size, variable names, etc. Note that the chip type can also be defined as a command line option.

```
#pragma chip PIC17C42
```

This statement have to proceed any normal C statements, but some preprocessor statements, like #if and #define, can be compiled first.

The supported devices are defined in a PICmicro header file (i.e. '17C42.h'). It is also possible to make new header files. Refer to file '**chip.txt**' for details.

#pragma computedGoto [=] <0,1>

This statement can be used when constructing complicated computed goto's. Refer to Chapter 9.1 *Computed Goto* on page 85 for details.

```
#pragma computedGoto 1 // start region
#pragma computedGoto 0 // end of region
```

#pragma config [<offset>] = <expression>

This statement allows PICmicro configuration information to be put in the generated hex and assembly file.

```
#pragma config[<offset>] = <expression>
```

Examples:

```
#pragma config[0] = 0 // FOSC0 = 0
#pragma config[1] = 0 // FOSC1 = 0
//#pragma config[2] = 1 // WDTPS0 unprogrammed (=1)
//#pragma config[3] = 1 // WDTPS1 unprogrammed (=1)
```

Refer to Chapter 4.2 *PICmicro Configuration* on page 47 for more details.

#pragma inlineMath <0,1>

The compiler can be instructed to generate inline **integer** math code after a math library is included.

```
#pragma inlineMath 1
  a = b * c; // inline integer code is always generated
#pragma inlineMath 0
```

#pragma insertConst

The compiler will normally insert 'const' data at the end of the user code (high address). The following pragma statement will allow the 'const' data to be inserted between two user functions, or at a specific address (if using #pragma origin first):

```
#pragma insertConst
```

#pragma interruptSaveCheck <n,w,e>

The compiler will automatically check that vital registers are saved and restored during interrupt. Please refer to Chapter 6.3 *Interrupts* on page 55 for details (or file 'int17xxx.h'). The error and warning messages can be removed:

```
#pragma interruptSaveCheck n // no warning or error
#pragma interruptSaveCheck w // warning only
#pragma interruptSaveCheck e // error and warning (default)
```

#pragma library <0/1>

CC7A will automatically delete unused (library) functions.

```
#pragma library 1
  // functions that are deleted if unused
  // applies to prototypes and function definitions
#pragma library 0
```

#pragma mainStack <minVarSize> @ <lowestStartAddr>

This statement defines a main stack for local variables, parameters and temporary variables. The main stack is not an additional stack, but tells the compiler where the main stack is located (which bank). The main stack can cross bank boundaries if necessary. Only variables above or equal to <minVarSize> will automatically be put in the main stack. The <lowestStartAddr> is the lowest possible start address for the main stack (the stack grows upwards).

```
#pragma mainStack 3 @ 0x110
```

Using this pragma means that local variables, parameters and temporary variables of size 3 bytes and larger (including tables and structures) will be stored in a single stack allocated no lower than address 0x110. Smaller variables and variables with a bank modifier will be stored according to the default/other rules. Using size 0 means all variables including bit variables.

Note that #pragma rambank is ignored for variables stored in the main stack. Addresses ranging from 0x100 to 0x1FF are equivalent to the bank1 type modifier, although the actual bank will be different after stack allocation for some variables if the main stack crosses a bank boundary.

#pragma minorStack <maxVarSize> @ <lowestStartAddr>

This statement defines a minor stack for local variables, parameters and temporary variables. One reason for defining a minor stack is that it may be efficient to use unbanked locations or a specific bank for local variables up to a certain size. Only variables below or equal to <maxVarSize> will automatically be put in the minor stack. The <lowestStartAddr> is the lowest possible start address for the minor stack (the stack grows upwards).

```
#pragma minorStack 1 @ 0x18
```

In this case, local variables, parameters and temporary variables up to 1 byte will be put in unbanked locations from address 0x18 to 0x1F. Larger variables and variables with a bank modifier will be stored according to the default/other rules. Using size 0 means bit variables only. This pragma can be used in combination with the main stack. The variable size defined by the minor stack has priority over the main stack.

#pragma optimize [=] [N:] <0,1>

This statement enables optimization to be switched ON or OFF in a local region. A specific type of optimization can also be switched on or off. The default setting is on.

1. redirect goto to goto.
2. remove superfluous gotos.
3. replace goto by skip instructions.
4. remove instructions that affects the zero-flag only.
5. replace INCF and DECF by INCFSZ and DECFSZ.
6. remove superfluous updating of PA0 and PA1.
7. remove other superfluous instructions.
8. remove superfluous loading of W.
9. to be defined.
10. inserts TSTFSZ, CPFSEQ.

Examples:

```
#pragma optimize 0 /* ALL off */
#pragma optimize 1 /* ALL on */
#pragma optimize 2:1 /* type 2 on */
#pragma optimize 1:0 /* type 1 off */

/* combinations are also possible */
#pragma optimize 3:0, 4:0, 5:1
#pragma optimize 1, 1:0, 2:0, 3:0
```

NOTE: The command line option `-u` will switch optimization off globally, which means that all settings in the source code are ignored.

#pragma origin [=] <expression>

Valid byte address region : 0x0000 - <upper device byte code address>

The statement defines the byte address of the following code. The current active location can not be moved backwards, even if there is no code in that area. Origin can not be changed inside a function.

```
#pragma origin 8 // high priority interrupt start address
#pragma origin 0x700 + 2
```

#pragma rambank [=] <- ,0,1,2,...,15>

```
- => unbanked:    0x018/0x1A - 0x01F
0 => bank 0:      0x020 - 0x0FF
1 => bank 1:      0x120 - 0x1FF
2 => bank 2:      0x220 - 0x2FF
. .
15 => bank 15:    0xF20 - 0xF7F
```

#pragma rambank defines the region where the compiler will allocate variable space. The compiler gives an error message when all locations in the current bank are allocated.

RAM banks are only valid for some of the devices. Non-existing banks for the other devices are mapped into bank 0.

#pragma rambase [=] <n>

Defines the start address when declaring global variables. The use of *rambank* and *rambase* are very similar. The address has to be within the RAM space of the chip used. NOTE that the start address is not valid for local variables, but *rambase* can be used to select a specific RAM-bank.

#pragma resetVector <n>

Some chips have an unusual startup vector location. The reset-vector then has to be specified. This statement is normally NOT required, because the compiler normally use the default location, which is the first location. It is possible to locate *main()* in any codepage when not using a reset-vector.

```
#pragma resetVector 0 // at byte address 0
#pragma resetVector 10 // at byte address 10
#pragma resetVector - // NO reset-vector
```

#pragma return[<n>] = <strings or constants>

Allows multiple return statements to be inserted. This statement should be preceded by the *skip()* statement. The compiler may otherwise remove most returns. The constant <n> is optional, but it allows the compiler to print a warning when the number of constants is not equal to <n>. Refer to Chapter 9.1 *Computed Goto* on page 85 for more details. Note that 'const' data types should normally be used for constant data.

```
skip(W);
#define NoH 11
#pragma return[NoH] = "Hello world"
#pragma return[5] = 1, 4, 5, 6, 7
#pragma return[] = 0 1 2 3 44 'H' \
                  "Hello" 2 3 4 0x44
#pragma return[] = 'H' 'e' 'l' 'l' 'o'
#pragma return[3] = 0b010110 \
                  0b111 0x10
#pragma return[9] = "a \" \r\n\0"
#pragma return[] = (10+10*2), (0x80+'E') "nd"
#pragma return[] = 10000 : 16 /* 16 bit constant */ \
```

```

        0x123456 : 24 /* 24 bit constant */ \
(10000 * 10000) : 32 /* 32 bit constant */

```

#pragma sharedAllocation

This pragma allow functions containing local variables and parameters to be shared between independent call trees (interrupt and the main program). However, when doing this there will be a risk of overwriting these shared variables unless special care is taken. Further description is found in Section “Functions shared between independent call trees” in Chapter 6.2 Subroutine Call Level Checking.

#pragma stackLevels <n>

The number of call levels can be defined (normally not required). PIC17 uses by default 16 levels.

```
#pragma stackLevels 14 // max 64
```

#pragma unlockISR

The interrupt routines normally have to reside on address 0x8/0x10/0x18/0x20. The following pragma statement will allow the interrupt routine to be placed anywhere. Note that the compiler will NOT generate the link from address 0x8/0x10/0x18/0x20 to the interrupt routine.

```
#pragma unlockISR
```

#pragma updateBank [entry | exit | default] [=] <0,1>

The main usage of #pragma updateBank is to allow the automatic updating of the bank selection register to be switched on and off locally. These statements can also be inserted outside the functions, but they should surround a region as small as possible

```
#pragma updateBank 0 /* OFF */
#pragma updateBank 1 /* ON */
```

Another use of #pragma updateBank is to instruct the bank update algorithm to do certain selections. These statements can only be used inside the functions:

```
#pragma updateBank entry = 0
/* The 'entry' bank force the bank bits to be set
   to a certain value when calling this function */

#pragma updateBank exit = 1
/* The 'exit' bank force the bank bits to be set
   to a certain value at return from this function */

#pragma updateBank default = 0
/* The 'default' bank is used by the compiler at
   loops and labels when the algorithm gives up
   finding the optimal choice */
```

#pragma versionFile [<file>]

Allows a version number at the end of the include file to be incremented for each compilation. The use of this statement is defined in Chapter 5.2 *Automatic incrementing version number in a file* on page 52.

4.2 PICmicro Configuration

PIC17 configuration information can be put in the generated hex and assembly file. The configuration information is generated IF AND ONLY IF the #pragma config statement is included.

The PIC17 devices has several configuration locations. Each locations allow one bit to be programmed (read as '0') or left unprogrammed (read as '1') to select various device configurations. Any write to a configuration location, regardless of the data, will program that configuration bit.

Syntax:

```
#pragma config[<offset>] = <expression>
```

Examples:

```
#pragma config[0] = 0 // FOSC0 = 0
#pragma config[1] = 0 // FOSC1 = 0
//#pragma config[2] = 1 // WDTPS0 unprogrammed (=1)
//#pragma config[3] = 1 // WDTPS1 unprogrammed (=1)
#pragma config[4] = 0 // PM0 = 0
#pragma config[5] = 0 // PM1 = 0
//#pragma config[14] = 1 // BODEN unprogrammed (=1)
#pragma config[15] = 0 // PM2 = 0

// Device specific definitions (PIC17C7XX devices)
#define CONFIG_FOSC0_1 //leave unprogrammed // FOSC0 = 1
#define CONFIG_FOSC0_0 #pragma config[0] = 0 // FOSC0 = 0
#define CONFIG_FOSC1_1 //leave unprogrammed // FOSC1 = 1
#define CONFIG_FOSC1_0 #pragma config[1] = 0 // FOSC1 = 0
#define CONFIG_WDTPS0_1 //leave unprogrammed // WDTPS0 = 1
#define CONFIG_WDTPS0_0 #pragma config[2] = 0 // WDTPS0 = 0
#define CONFIG_WDTPS1_1 //leave unprogrammed // WDTPS1 = 1
#define CONFIG_WDTPS1_0 #pragma config[3] = 0 // WDTPS1 = 0
#define CONFIG_PM0_1 //leave unprogrammed // PM0 = 1
#define CONFIG_PM0_0 #pragma config[4] = 0 // PM0 = 0
#define CONFIG_PM1_1 //leave unprogrammed // PM1 = 1
#define CONFIG_PM1_0 #pragma config[5] = 0 // PM1 = 0
#define CONFIG_BODEN_1 //leave unprogrammed // BODEN = 1
#define CONFIG_BODEN_0 #pragma config[14] = 0 // BODEN = 0
#define CONFIG_PM2_1 //leave unprogrammed // PM2 = 1
#define CONFIG_PM2_0 #pragma config[15] = 0 // PM2 = 0

// Actual configuration
// XT oscillator
CONFIG_FOSC0_0
CONFIG_FOSC1_1
// WDT enabled, postscaler = 256
CONFIG_WDTPS0_0
CONFIG_WDTPS1_1
// 110 = Microcontroller mode
CONFIG_PM0_0
CONFIG_PM1_1
CONFIG_PM2_1
// Brown-out Detect circuitry is enabled
CONFIG_BODEN_1
```

It is also possible to define the CONFIG locations by using #pragma cdata statements.

CONFIG word start address:

```
PIC17 : 0xFE00
```


5 COMMAND LINE OPTIONS

The compiler needs a C source file name to start compiling. Other arguments can be added if required. The syntax is:

```
CC7A [options] <src>.c [options]
```

-a[<asmfile>] : produce assembly file.
The default file name is <src>.asm

-A[scHDftumiJRN+N+N] : assembly file options
s: symbolic arguments are replaced by numbers
c: no C source code is printed
H: hexadecimal numbers only
D: decimal numbers only
f: no object format directive is printed
t: no tabulators, normal spaces only
u: no extra info at the end of the assembly file
m: single source line only
i: no source indentation, straight left margin
J: put source after instructions to achieve a compact assembly file.
R: detailed macro expansion
N+N+N: label, mnemonic and argument spacing. Default is 8+6+10.

-b : do not update bank selection bits (BSR register)
-bu : non-optimized updating of the bank selection bits

-B[pims] : write output from preprocessor to <src>.cpr
p : partial preprocessing
i : no include files
m: modify symbols
s : modify strings

-CC[<file>] : produce COD file, C mode
-CA[<file>] : produce COD file, ASM mode

-cd : allow cdata outside program space (warning only)
-cfc : use old format on config and idlocs in generated assembly file
-cu : use 32 bit evaluation of constant expressions
-cxc : do not search current directory for include files

-dc : do not write compiler output file <src>.occ

-D<name>[<token>xxx] : define macro. Equivalent to #define name xxx

-e : single line error messages (no source lines are printed).
-ed : do not print error details
-ew : do not print warning details
-eL : list error and warning details at the end
-E<N> : stop after <N> errors (default is 4).

-f<hex-file-format> : i.e. INHX8M, INHX8S, INHX16, INHX32. Default is INHX32. Note that INHX8S use output files: <file>.HXH and <file>.HXL

-F : produce error file <src>.err

-FM : MPLAB compatible error format

-g : do not replace call by goto

-GW : dynamic selected skip() format, warning on long format

-GD : dynamic selected skip() format (default)

-GS : always short skip() format (error if 256 byte boundary is crossed)

-GL : always long skip() format

-I<directory> : include files directory/folder. Up to 5 library directories can be supplied by using separate **-I<dir>** options. When using **#include "test.h"** the current directory is first searched. If the file is not found there, then the library directories are searched, in the same order as supplied in the command line option list (**-I<dir>**). The current directory is skipped when using **#include <test.h>**.

-li<ENVI> : include directory from environment variable (default CCINC)

-lh<ENVD> : load default directory from environment variable (default CCHOME)

-L[<col>,<lin>] : produce list file <src>.lst

The maximum number of columns per line <col> and lines per page <lin> can be changed. The default setting is **-L80,60**

-mc1 : default 'const' pointer size is 1 byte (8 bits)

-mc2 : default 'const' pointer size is 2 bytes (16 bits)

-mr1 : default RAM pointer size is 1 byte

-mr2 : default RAM pointer size is 2 bytes

-mm1 : default pointer size is 1 byte (all pointer types)

-mm2 : default pointer size is 2 bytes (all pointer types)

-Ma : truncate all automatic generated labels in the assembly/list files

-o<name> : write hex file to name

-O<directory> : output files directory. Files generated by the compiler are put on this directory, except when a full path name is supplied.

-p<device> : defines the chip type (i.e. **-pPIC17C42** or **-p17C42**). The device has to be supported by a header file (i.e. **17C42.H**). No default device is available.

-p- : clear any preceding **-p<chip>** to allow chip redefinition

-q<N> : assume disabled interrupt at the <N> deepest call levels. For example, **-q1** allows the main program to use all stack levels for function calls. Disabling interrupt at the deepest call level **MUST** then be properly ensured in the user application program.

-Q : write the call tree to <src>.fcs.

-S : silent operation of the compiler

-u : no optimizing

-V[rnuD**]** : generate variable file, <src>.var, sorted by address as default.

r: only variables which are referenced in the code

n: sort by name

u: unsorted

D: decimal numbers

-wC : warning on upward compatibility issues
-we : no warning when fixed point constants are rounded
-wi : no warning on multiple inline math integer operations
-wm : no warning on single call to math integer function
-wO : warning on operator library calls
-wr : no warning on recursive calls
-wS : warning (no error) when constant expression loses significant bits
-wU : warning on uncalled functions

-W : wait until key pressed after compilation

-x<file> : assembler executable: -x"C:\Program Files\Microchip\MPASM Suite\mpasmwin.exe"

-X<option> : assembler option: -X/q (all options must be separate)

-zZ : optimize (inline multiplication) for size

-zD : optimize (inline multiplication) for speed (default)

Doublequotes " " allows spaces in the option:

```
-I"C:\Program Files\cc7a"
```

A path name can be written using '/' if this is supported by the file system, example:

```
c:/compiler/lib/file.h
```

Default compiler settings:

- hex file output to file <name>.hex
- optimizing on
- extended call level is allowed
- update bank selection bits

Permanent assigned settings:

- nested comments is allowed
- char is unsigned

5.1 Options in a file

Options can be put in a file. The syntax is:

```
cc7a [...] +<filename> [...]
```

Many option files can be included, and up to 5 levels of nested include files are allowed. Options in a file allow an unlimited number of options to be stated. Linefeed, space and TAB separates each option.

Comments can be added in the option file using the syntax:

```
// the rest of the line is a comment
```

Spaces can be added to each option if a space is added behind the '-' starting the option. This syntax disables using more than one option on each line. Examples:

```

- D MAC = 1 + OP
- p 17C42      // comment
-p 17C42      // this will not work
- p 17C42 -a  // not this either

```

Note that the file path is required if the file does not reside on the current directory.

String translation rules for options in a file:

1. Doublequotes " " allows spaces in the option, quotes are removed
2. Using \" means a single quote " in an option

```

-I"C:\Program Files\cc7a"      ==>  -IC:\Program Files\cc7a
-IC:"\Program Files"\cc7a     ==>  -IC:\Program Files\cc7a

-DMyString="\Hello\n\"      ==>  -DMyString="Hello\n"
-DQuote='\"'                 ==>  -DQuote='\"'

```

5.2 Automatic incrementing version number in a file

The compiler is able to automatically increment one or more version numbers for each compilation. Three different syntax alternatives are available.

```

1. Option : -ver#verfile.c
#include "verfile.c" // or <verfile.c>

2. Option : -ver
#pragma versionFile // next include is version file
#include "verfile.c" // or <verfile.c>

3. Option : -ver
#pragma versionFile "verfile.c" // or <verfile.c>

```

Note that the command line option is required to make this increment happen. It is the decimal number found at end of the included file that is incremented. The updated file is written back before the file is compiled. No special syntax is assumed in the version file. Suggestions:

```

#define MY_VERSION 20
#define VER_STRING "1.02.0005"
/* VERSION : 01110 */

```

If the decimal number is 99, then the new number will be 100 and the file length increases by 1. If the number is 099, then the file length remains the same. A version file should not be too large (up to 20k), otherwise an error is printed.

Formats 2 and 3 above allows more than one version file. It is recommended to use conditional compilation to manage several editions of the same program.

5.3 Environment Variables

Environment variables can be used to define include folders and primary folder:

Variable CCINC is an alternative to the -I<path> option. The compiler will only read this variable (or specified variable) when using the following command line option:

```

-li      : read default environment variable CCINC
-li<ENVI> : read specific environment variable

```

Variable CCHOME can be used to define the primary folder during compilation. The compiler will only read this variable (or specified variable) when using the following command line option:

```

-lh      : read default environment variable CCHOME
-lh<ENVP> : read specific environment variable

```

6 PROGRAM CODE

6.1 Program Code Pages

The PIC17 series may have up to 8 code pages each having 8k words of code. Using more than one code page requires page selection. For example, all functions following a *#pragma codepage* statement are put on the page specified. Codepage 0 is used as default.

```
/* functions proceeding the first codepage statement are placed on
codepage 0 */

#pragma codepage 2

char fx(void) { .. }
/* this function is placed on codepage 2 */

#pragma codepage 1

/* following functions are placed on codepage 1 */
```

When switching between codepages, the compiler will keep track on the next free location on each codepage. Use of codepages is just a matter of optimization, as long as the compiler accepts the selection. The optimal combination requires least code (or has a speed advantage). The optimizer removes unnecessary setting and clearing of the page selection bits.

Switching between code pages requires 1 or 2 instructions. The compiler will insert the required instructions automatically.

The compiler produces an error message when page limits are exceeded. Invalid code pages are mapped to valid ones.

Another way of locating functions

The statement *#pragma location* is capable of locating prototypes on codepages as well as function definitions. The statement is useful when locating functions defined in library files, or when locating functions in large programs. Its normal use is in limited regions in header files. The rules when using *#pragma location* are:

1. A function prototype will locate the function on the desired codepage, even if the current active codepage is different when the function definition is compiled.
2. *#pragma location* has higher priority than *#pragma codepage*.
3. *#pragma location -* restores the active codepage defined by the last *#pragma codepage* (or *#pragma origin*).

```
#pragma location 1 // codepage 1
void f1(void);    // assigned to codepage 1
void f2(void);
void f3(void);

#pragma location 3 // codepage 3
void f4(void);

#pragma location - // return to the active codepage
void f5(void);    // this prototype is not located
```

Notes:

1. The location statements have to be compiled before the function definition
2. Functions not located are placed on the current active codepage
3. A warning is printed in case of conflicts

The *#pragma location* statement should only be used if required. An example is when functions inside a module (file) have to be placed on different codepages, or if much tuning is required to find the optimal combination. The *#pragma codepage* statement is normally sufficient.

The page type modifier

The page type modifiers `page0..page7` can replace `#pragma location/codepage`.

```
page2 void fx(void) { .. } // in codepage 2
page1 char f2(char a);    // in codepage 1
```

The page type modifier defines the codepage to locate the function in, both for function prototypes and function definitions.

NOTE 1: The page type modifier has higher priority than both `#pragma codepage` and `#pragma location`

NOTE 2: When the codepage have been defined using the page type modifier or `#pragma location`, then the location is fixed and can not be changed in the function definition or by using a second prototype.

Invalid code pages are mapped to valid ones.

Page selection bits

The page selection bits (3 bits in PCLATH) are automatically updated by the compiler, and attempts to set or clear these bits in the source code are removed by the optimizer. This can be switched off by the `-j` command line option.

6.2 Subroutine Call Level Checking

Subroutine calls are limited to 16 levels for the PIC17 devices. The compiler **automatically** checks that this limit is not exceeded.

The compiler can replace `CALL` by `GOTO` to seemingly achieve deeper call levels.

1. When a function is called once only, the `CALL` can be replaced by a `GOTO`. All corresponding returns are replaced by `GOTO`. Note that the call will only be replaced by `GOTO` when the call level must be reduced. Also, the `CALL` is NOT replaced by `GOTO` when:
 - a) The program counter (PCL) is manipulated in the user code (computed goto) in a function of type *char*.
 - b) The number of return literal exceeds 10
2. Call followed by return is replaced by a single goto.

Stack level checking when using interrupt

CC7A will normally assume that an interrupt can occur anywhere in the main program, also at the deepest call level. An error message is printed if stack overflow may occur. This is not always true, because the interrupt enable bits controls when interrupts are allowed. Sometimes the main program needs all 31 stack levels for making calls.

The `-q<N>` option force CC7A to assume that interrupt will NOT occur at the `<N>` deepest call levels of the main program.

The application writer must then ensure that interrupt will not occur when executing functions at the deepest <N> call levels, normally by using the global interrupt enable bit. CC7A will generate a warning for the critical functions. (The normal error message is always generated when the application contains more than 31 call levels.)

For example, the -q1 option generates a warning for functions calls that will put the return address at stack level 31 (no free stack entry for interrupt). Using -q2 means an additional warning at stack level 30 if the interrupt routine requires 2 levels, i.e. contains function calls.

It is NOT recommended to use the -q<N> as a default option.

Functions shared between independent call trees

An error message is normally printed when the compiler detects functions that are called both from main() and during interrupt processing if this function contains local variables or parameters. This also applies to math library calls and const access functions. The reason for the error is that local variables are allocated statically and may be overwritten if the routine is interrupted and then called during interrupt processing.

The error message will be changed to a warning by the following pragma statement. Note that this means that local variable and parameter overwriting must be avoided by careful code writing.

```
#pragma sharedAllocation
```

Recursive functions

Recursive functions are possible. Please note that the termination condition have to be defined in the application code, and therefore the call level checking can not be done by the compiler. Also note that the compiler does not allow any local variables in recursive functions. Function parameters and local variables can be handled by writing code that emulates a stack.

A warning is printed when the compiler detects a function that which call itself directly or through another function. This warning can be switched off with the -wr command line option.

6.3 Interrupts

The PIC17 devices allow both low priority and high priority interrupts.

The structure of the interrupt service routine is as follows:

```
#include "int17XXX.h"

#pragma origin 0x8

interrupt iServer( void)
{
    multi_interrupt_entry_and_save

    PERIPHERAL_service:
    // save on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1
    // the right peripheral interrupt flag must be cleared manually
    /* process periferal interrupt */
    if (RC1IF) {
        RC1IF = 0;    // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (TX1IF) {
        TX1IF = 0;    // application code to be inserted here
    }
}
```

```
    if (CA1IF) {
        CA1IF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (CA2IF) {
        CA2IF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (TMR1IF) {
        TMR1IF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (TMR2IF) {
        TMR2IF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (TMR3IF) {
        TMR3IF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }
    if (RBIF) {
        RBIF = 0; // application code to be inserted here
    }

    // restore on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1
    goto RESTORE_and_return;

TMR0_service:
    // save on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1

    /* process Timer 0 interrupt */
    // T0IF is automatically cleared when the CPU vectors to 0x10
    // application code to be inserted here

    // restore on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1

    goto RESTORE_and_return;

T0CKI_service:
    // save on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1

    /* process T0CKI pin interrupt */
    // T0CKIF is automatically cleared when the CPU vectors to 0x18
    // application code to be inserted here

    // restore on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1

    goto RESTORE_and_return;

INT_service:
    // save on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1

    /* process INT pin interrupt */
    // INTF is automatically cleared when the CPU vectors to 0x8
    // application code to be inserted here

    // restore on demand: PRODL,PRODH,TBLPTRH,TBLPTRL,FSR0,FSR1
```



```

RESTORE_and_return:
    interrupt_exit_and_restore
}

```

The keyword *interrupt* allows the routine to be terminated by a RETFIE instruction. It is possible to call a function from the interrupt routine (it has to be defined by a prototype function definition first).

The interrupt routine requires at least one free stack location because the return address is pushed on the stack. This is automatically checked by the compiler, even function calls from the interrupt routine. However, if the program contains recursive functions, then the call level can not be checked by the compiler.

The interrupt vector is permanently set to address 0x8/0x10/0x18/0x20. The interrupt service routines can only be located at these addresses. The #pragma origin statement has to be used in order to skip unused program locations.

The following pragma statement will allow the interrupt routine to be placed anywhere. Note that the compiler will NOT generate the link from address 0x8/0x10/0x18/0x20 to the interrupt routine.

```
#pragma unlockISR
```

Vital registers such as W/WREG, ALUSTA, PCLATH and BSR should be saved and restored by the interrupt routine. However, registers that are not modified by the interrupt routine do not have to be saved. The file '**int17xxx.h**' contains recommended program sequences for saving and restoring registers. Other registers must be saved manually. The interrupt routine can also contain local variables. Storage for local variables is allocated separately because interrupts can occur anytime.

IMPORTANT: CC7A will AUTOMATICALLY check that vital registers are saved and restored during interrupt. This applies to:

Group 1:	W/WREG, ALUSTA, PCLATH, BSR	: most frequent used
Group 2:	FSR0, FSR1	: indirect access
Group 3:	TBLPTR	: reading 'const' data
Group 4:	PRODL, PRODH	: multiplication instructions

NOTE that it is not required to save registers before starting to service the interrupt. Section *Custom interrupt save and restore* on page 58, shows a list of instructions that that will not disturb the main registers.

It is normally not required to save PCLATH on devices using one code page only (max 8192 words of code). However, PCLATH must be saved if computed goto is used in both the main() routine and interrupt.

It is possible to limit the save and restore of a specific register to a small region inside the interrupt service routine, if this register is modified only inside this region.

CC7A supports CUSTOM save and restore sequences. If you want to use your own register save and restore during interrupt, please read the following Section *Custom interrupt save and restore*.

The compiler will detect if the initially mentioned registers are modified during interrupt processing without being saved and restored. The supplied macros for saving and restoring registers will only save W/WREG, ALUSTA, PCLATH and BSR. The other registers have to be saved and restored by user code when needed.

For example, if FSR0 is modified by a table or pointer access, or by direct writing, the compiler will check that FSR0 is saved and restored, also in nested function calls. Note that the FSR0 saving and restoring can be done in a local region surrounding the indexed access, and does not need to be done in the beginning and end of the interrupt routine.

A warning is printed if the Group 2 - 4 registers mentioned above are saved but not changed. The error and warning messages printed can be removed:

```
#pragma interruptSaveCheck n // no warning or error
#pragma interruptSaveCheck w // warning only
#pragma interruptSaveCheck e // error and warning (default)
```

Note that the above pragma changes the checking done on all registers.

Custom interrupt save and restore

It is not required to use the above save and restore macros. CC7A also supports custom interrupt structures.

A) You may want to use your own save and restore sequence. This can be done by inline assembly. If CC7A does not accept your code, just insert (on your own risk):

```
#pragma interruptSaveCheck n // no warning or error
```

B) No registers need to be saved when using the following instructions in the interrupt routine. The register save checking should NOT be disabled.

```
bx2 = 1;          // BSF   0x1F,bx2  ; unbanked locations only
bx1 = 0;          // BCF   0x1F,bx1  ; unbanked locations only
bx3 = !bx3;      // BTG   0x1F,bx3  ; unbanked locations only
btss(bx1);       // BTFSS 0x1F,bx1  ; unbanked locations only
btsc(bx1);       // BTFSC 0x1F,bx1  ; unbanked locations only
vs = swap(vs);   // SWAPF vs,1    ; unbanked locations only
vs = incsz(vs);  // INCFSZ vs,1    ; unbanked locations only
vs = decsz(vs);  // DECFSZ vs,1    ; unbanked locations only
vs = incsnz(vs); // INFSNZ vs,1    ; unbanked locations only
vs = decsnz(vs); // DCFSNZ vs,1    ; unbanked locations only
a = b;           // MOVFP a,b      ; unbanked locations only
a = 0;           // CLRF a,1      ; unbanked locations only
a = 0xFF;        // SETF a,1      ; unbanked locations only
vs = rrenc(vs); // RRNC vs,1     ; unbanked locations only
vs = rlnc(vs);  // RRNC vs,1     ; unbanked locations only
skipIfZero(vs); // TSTFSZ vs     ; unbanked locations only
nop();          // NOP
clrwdt();       // CLRWDT
```

C) It is possible to enable interrupt only in special regions (wait loops) in such a way that main registers can be modified during interrupt without disturbing the main program. The register save can then be omitted and the save checking must be switched off to avoid the error messages:

```
#pragma interruptSaveCheck n // no warning or error
```

INTERRUPTS CAN BE VERY DIFFICULT. THE PITFALLS ARE MANY.

6.4 Startup and Termination Code

The startup code consists of a jump to *main()*. No variables are initiated. All initialization has to be done by user code. This simplifies design when using the watchdog timer or MCLR pin for wakeup purposes.

It is possible to locate *main()* in any codepage if the reset vector is omitted. This is done by the following pragma statement. Proper startup code must be inserted manually when removing the automatic reset vector, for example by *cdata[]* statements (file '*cdata.txt*').

```
#pragma resetVector -
```

The SLEEP instruction is executed when the processor exit *main()*. This stops program execution and the chip enters the low power mode. Program execution may be restarted by a watchdog timer timeout or a low state on the MCLR pin.

PIC17 also allows restart by interrupt. An extra GOTO is therefore inserted if *main* is allowed to terminate (SLEEP). This ensures repeated execution of the main program. No extra GOTO is added when a *sleep()* command is inserted anywhere else in the application program.

Clearing ALL RAM locations

The internal function *clearRAM()* will set all RAM locations to zero. The generated code uses the FSR0 register. The recommended usage is:

```
void main(void)
{
    if (TO == 1 && PD == 1 /* power up */) {
        WARM_RESET:
        clearRAM(); // set all RAM to 0
    }
    ..
    if (condition)
        goto WARM_RESET;
}
```

The code size and timing depends on the actual chip. Typically 4 instruction cycles is required for each RAM location. At 4 MHz, each instruction cycle is 1 microsecond. The PIC17C766 device contains 902 RAM locations which mean $902 \cdot 4 + 31 = 3639$ instruction cycles or 3.6 milliseconds at 4 MHz.

6.5 Library Support

The library support includes **standard math** and support for **user defined libraries**. The library files should be included in the beginning of the application, but after the interrupt routines.

```
// ..interrupt routines
#include "math16.h" // 16 bit integer math
#include "math24f.h" // 24 bit floating point
#include "math24lb.h" // 24 bit math functions
```

CC7A will automatically delete unused library functions. This feature can also be used to delete unused application functions:

```
#pragma library 1
// library functions that are deleted if unused
#pragma library 0
```

Math libraries

Integer: 8, 16, 24 and 32 bit, signed and unsigned
 Fixed point: 20 formats, signed and unsigned
 Floating point: 16, 24 and 32 bit

All libraries are optimized to get compact code. All variables (except for the floating point flags) are allocated on the generated stack to enable efficient RAM reuse with other local variables.

Note that fixed point requires manual worst case analysis to get correct results. This must include calculation of accumulated error and avoiding truncation and loss of significant bits. It is often straight forward to get correct results when using floating point. However, floating point functions requires significantly more code. In general, floating point and fixed point are both slow to execute. Floating point is FASTER than fixed point on multiplication and division, but slower on most other operations.

Operations not found in the libraries are handled by the built in code generator. Also, the compiler will use inline code for operations that are most efficient handled inline.

The following command line options are available:

-we : no warning when fixed point constants are rounded
-wo : warning on operator library calls
-wi : no warning on multiple inline math integer operations
-wm : no warning on single call to math integer function

Integer libraries

The math integer libraries allow selection between different optimizations, speed or size. The libraries contain operations for multiplication, division and division remainder.

math16.h : basic library, up to 16 bit
 math24.h : basic library, up to 24 bit
 math32.h : basic library, up to 32 bit

The min and max timing cycles are approximate only.

Sign: -: unsigned, S: signed

Sign	Res=arg1	op	arg2	Program	Approx. CYCLES		
A:math32.h							
B:math24.h							
C:math16.h							
.B.	S	24	= 16 * 16	28	40	40	42
A..	S	32	= 16 * 16	37	47	48	53
A..	-	32	= 16 * 16	25	41	41	41
.B.	-	24	= 24 * 24	28	46	46	46
A..	S	32	= 32 * 16	45	62	62	65
A..	-	32	= 32 * 16	39	65	65	65
A..	S/-	32	= 32 * 32	53	77	77	77
ABC	-	16	= 16 / 8	19	229	229	229
AB.	-	24	= 24 / 8	20	362	362	362
A..	-	32	= 32 / 8	21	511	511	511
ABC	-	16	= 16 / 16	23	248	251	296
.B.	-	24	= 24 / 16	27	429	453	533
A..	-	32	= 32 / 16	28	594	637	738

.B.	-	24 = 24 / 24	30	464	470	584
A..	-	32 = 32 / 32	37	744	754	968
ABC	S	16 = 16 / 8	35	190	195	205
AB.	S	24 = 24 / 8	38	299	305	318
A..	S	32 = 32 / 8	41	424	431	447
ABC	S	16 = 16 / 16	46	257	266	320
.B.	S	24 = 24 / 16	49	398	418	489
A..	S	32 = 32 / 16	52	555	587	674
.B.	S	24 = 24 / 24	57	473	487	612
A..	S	32 = 32 / 32	68	753	772	1000
ABC	-	8 = 16 % 8	18	221	221	221
.B.	-	8 = 24 % 8	19	352	352	352
A..	-	8 = 32 % 8	20	499	499	499
ABC	-	16 = 16 % 16	21	241	243	273
.B.	-	16 = 24 % 16	25	412	439	500
A..	-	16 = 32 % 16	26	567	618	695
.B.	-	24 = 24 % 24	28	456	461	552
A..	-	32 = 32 % 32	35	735	743	927
ABC	S	8 = 16 % 8	31	186	187	192
.B.	S	8 = 24 % 8	34	294	295	302
A..	S	8 = 32 % 8	37	417	419	427
ABC	S	16 = 16 % 16	44	252	257	294
.B.	S	16 = 24 % 16	47	393	405	451
A..	S	16 = 32 % 16	50	549	569	625
.B.	S	24 = 24 % 24	57	467	476	575
A..	S	32 = 32 % 32	70	746	760	954

Fixed point libraries

math16x.h : 16 bit fixed point, 8_8, signed and unsigned

math24x.h : 24 bit fixed point 8_16, 16_8, signed and unsigned

math32x.h : 32 bit fixed point 8_24, 16_16, 24_8, signed and unsigned

The libraries can be used separately or combined.

The timing stated is measured in instruction cycles (4*clock) and includes parameter transfer, call, return and assignment of the return value. The timing values are found by executing a large number of iterations using selected argument values.

Sign: -: unsigned, S: signed

Sign	Res=arg1	op	arg2	Program Code	Approx. CYCLES		
					min	aver	max
math16x.h:							
S	8_8	=	8_8 * 8_8	46	48	51	56
-	8_8	=	8_8 * 8_8	22	36	36	36
S	8_8	=	8_8 / 8_8	49	445	464	532
-	8_8	=	8_8 / 8_8	31	476	499	580
math24x.h:							
S	16_8	=	16_8 * 16_8	79	82	87	94
-	16_8	=	16_8 * 16_8	49	70	70	70
S	16_8	=	16_8 / 16_8	60	718	749	897
-	16_8	=	16_8 / 16_8	38	765	797	965

S	8_16 = 8_16 * 8_16	94	97	102	109
-	8_16 = 8_16 * 8_16	64	85	85	85
S	8_16 = 8_16 / 8_16	60	886	935	1105
-	8_16 = 8_16 / 8_16	38	941	999	1197
math32x.h:		Code	min	aver	max
S	24_8 = 24_8 * 24_8	158	123	130	139
-	24_8 = 24_8 * 24_8	122	111	111	111
S	24_8 = 24_8 / 24_8	71	1054	1097	1357
-	24_8 = 24_8 / 24_8	45	1117	1159	1445
S	16_16= 16_16*16_16	143	146	153	162
-	16_16= 16_16*16_16	107	134	134	134
S	16_16= 16_16/16_16	71	1254	1322	1613
-	16_16= 16_16/16_16	45	1325	1399	1725
S	8_24 = 8_24 * 8_24	120	161	168	177
-	8_24 = 8_24 * 8_24	84	149	149	149
S	8_24 = 8_24 / 8_24	71	1454	1549	1869
-	8_24 = 8_24 / 8_24	45	1533	1639	2005

Floating point libraries

math16f.h : 16 bit floating point basic math

math24f.h : 24 bit floating point basic math

math24lb.h : 24 bit floating point library

math32f.h : 32 bit floating point basic math

math32lb.h : 32 bit floating point library

NOTE: The timing values include parameter transfer, call and return and also assignment of the return value.

Basic 32 bit math:		Approx. CYCLES		
	Size	min	aver	max
a * b: multiplication	138	132	136	152
a / b: division	117	512	560	657
a + b: addition	168	38	130	205
a - b: subtraction	add+5	45	137	212
int32 -> float32	78	46	69	119
float32 -> int32	84	36	77	143

Basic 24 bit math:		Approx. CYCLES		
	Size	min	aver	max
a * b: multiplication	89	82	86	98
a / b: division	100	309	343	400
a + b: addition	145	32	111	169
a - b: subtraction	add+5	39	118	176
int24 -> float24	61	36	64	107
float24 -> int24	73	31	72	116

Basic 16 bit math:		Approx. CYCLES		
	Size	min	aver	max
a * b: multiplication	58	50	54	62
a / b: division	84	138	156	174

a + b:	addition	118	26	86	131
a - b:	subtraction	add+5	33	93	138
int16 -> float16		69	39	71	108
float16 -> int16		53	26	60	98

The following operations are handled by inline code: assignment, comparing with constants, multiplication and division by a multiple of 2 (i.e. $a*0.5$, $b * 1024.0$, $c/4.0$)

Floating point library functions

```
float24 sqrt(float24); // square root
  Input range: positive number including zero
  Accuracy: ME:1, relative error:  $1.5*10^{*-5}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 589 619 657 (**)
  Size: 56 words
  Minimum complete program example: 70 words

float32 sqrt(float32); // square root
  Input range: positive number including zero
  Accuracy: ME:1, relative error:  $6*10^{*-8}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 1026 1110 1183 (**)
  Size: 66 words
  Minimum complete program example: 83 words

float24 log(float24); // natural log function
  Input range: positive number above zero
  Accuracy: ME:1, relative error:  $< 1.5*10^{*-5}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 1323 1872 2157 (**)
  Size: 213 words + basic 24 bit math library
  Minimum complete program example: 628 words

float32 log(float32); // natural log function
  Input range: positive number above zero
  Accuracy: ME:1, relative error:  $< 6*10^{*-8}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 1840 2549 2898 (**)
  Size: 267 words + basic 32 bit math library
  Minimum complete program example: 791 words

float24 log10(float24); // log10 function
  Input range: positive number above zero
  Accuracy: ME:1-2, relative error:  $< 3*10^{*-5}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 1408 1954 2253 (**)
  Size: 15 words + size of log()
  Minimum complete program example: 643 words

float32 log10(float32); // log10 function
  Input range: positive number above zero
  Accuracy: ME:1-2, relative error:  $< 1.2*10^{*-7}$  (*)
  Timing: min aver max 1975 2679 3014 (**)
  Size: 17 words + size of log()
  Minimum complete program example: 808 words

float24 exp(float24); // exponential (e**x) function
  Input range: -87.3365447506, +88.7228391117
  Accuracy: ME:1, relative error:  $< 1.5*10^{*-5}$  (*)
```

```

Timing: min aver max  951  1652  1850  (**)
Size: 248 words + 82(floor24) + basic 24 bit math
Minimum complete program example: 671 words

float32 exp(float32); // exponential (e**x) function
Input range: -87.3365447506, +88.7228391117
Accuracy: ME:1, relative error: < 6*10**-8 (*)
Timing: min aver max  1637  2178  2441  (**)
Size: 320 words + 125(floor32) + basic 32 bit math
Minimum complete program example: 872 words

float24 expl0(float24); // 10**x function
Input range: -37.9297794537, +38.531839445
Accuracy: ME:1, relative error: < 1.5*10**-5 (*)
Timing: min aver max  966  1732  1866  (**)
Size: 255 words + 82(floor24) + basic 24 bit math
Minimum complete program example: 643 words

float32 expl0(float32); // 10**x function
Input range: -37.9297794537, +38.531839445
Accuracy: ME:1, relative error: < 6*10**-8 (*)
Timing: min aver max  1638  2201  2469  (**)
Size: 326 words + 125(floor32) + basic 32 bit math
Minimum complete program example: 878 words

float24 sin(float24); // sine function, input in radians
float24 cos(float24); // cosine function, input in radians
Input range: -512.0, +512.0
Accuracy: error: < 3*10**-5 (*)
    The relative error can be larger when the output is near
    0 (for example near sin(2*PI)), but the absolute error is
    lower than the stated value.
Timing: min aver max  400  1290  1499  (**)
Size: 214 words + basic 24 bit math library
Minimum complete program example: 597 words

float32 sin(float32); // sine function, input in radians
float32 cos(float32); // cosine function, input in radians
Input range: -512.0, +512.0
    * can be used over a much wider range if lower accuracy
    is accepted (degrades gradually to 1 significant
    decimal digit at input value 10**6)
Accuracy: error: < 1.2*10**-7 (*)
    The relative error can be larger when the output is near
    0 (for example near sin(2*PI)), but the absolute error is
    lower than the stated value.
Timing: min aver max  551  2417  2667  (**)
Size: 352 words + basic 32 bit math library
Minimum complete program example: 847 words

```

(*) The accuracy of the math functions have been checked using many thousands of calculations. ME=1 means that the mantissa value can be wrong by +/- 1 (i.e. 1 bit). The relative error is then $1.5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ for 24 bit floating point, and $6 \cdot 10^{-8}$ for 32 bit floating point. Only a small fraction of the calculations may have the stated error.

(**) The min and max timing stated have been found by simulating many thousands calculations. However, the min and max limits are approximate only. All timing is measured in instruction cycles. When using a 4 MHz oscillator, one instruction cycle is 1 microsecond.

Fast and compact inline operations

The compiler will use inline code for efficiency at some important operations:

Integer:

- converting to left and right shifts: $a * 8$, $a / 2$
- selecting high/low bytes/words: $a / 256$, $a \% 256$, $b \% 0x10000$
- replacing remainder by AND operation: $a \% 64$, $a \% 0x80$

Fixed Point:

- converting to left and right shifts: $a * 8$, $a / 2$
- all operations except multiplication and division are implemented inline

Floating point:

- add/sub (incr/decr) of exponent: $a * 128.0$, $a / 2$
- operations == and != : $a == b$, $a != 0.0$
- comparing with constants: $a > 0$, $a <= 10.0$
- inverting the sign bit: $a = -a$, $b = -a$

Combining inline integer math and library calls

It is possible to force the compiler to generate inline integer math code after a math library is included. This may be useful when speed is critical or in the interrupt service routine. Functions with parameters or local variables are not reentrant because local variables are mapped to global addresses, and therefore the compiler will not allow calls from both main and the interrupt service routine to the same function.

```

uns16 a, b, c;
..
a = b * c;    // inline code is generated
..
#include "math16.h"
..
a = b * c;    // math library function is called
..
#pragma inlineMath 1
a = b * c;    // inline code is generated
#pragma inlineMath 0
..
a = b * c;    // math library function is called

```

Inline type modifier on math operations

It is possible to combine inline integer math and math library functions without making a special purpose math library. This is done by stating that the selected operations are inline BEFORE the standard math library is included. It is optimal to use inline code when there is only one operation of a certain type.

```

inline uns24 operator * (uns24 arg1, uns24 arg2);
#include "math24.h"

```

The math prototypes are found in the beginning of the standard math libraries. Just remember to remove the operator name before adding the inline type modifier.

A warning is printed when there is ONE call to a unsigned integer math library function. The warning can be disabled by the -wm command line option.

NOTE that the inline type modifier is currently IGNORED, except for the math operations.

Detection of multiple inline math integer operations

The compiler will print a warning when detecting more than one inline math integer operation of the same type. Including a math library will save code, but execute slightly slower. Note that assembly code inspection and type casts are sometimes needed to reduce the number of library functions inserted.

The warning can be disabled by the `-wi` command line option.

Fixed point example

```
#pragma chip PIC17C766
#include "math24x.h"
uns16 data;
fixed16_8 tx, av, mg, a, vx, prev, kp;

void main(void)
{
    vx = 3.127;
    tx += data;           // automatic type cast
    data = kp;           // assign integer part
    if (tx < 0)
        tx = -tx;       // make positive
    av = tx/20.0;
    mg = av * 1.25;
    a = mg * 0.98;       // 0.980469, error: 0.000478
    prev = vx;
    vx = a/5.0 + prev;
    kp = vx * 0.036;     // 0.03515626, error: 0.024
    kp = vx / (1.0/0.036); // 27.7773437
}
```

CODE: 266 code words including library (129)

Floating point example

CODE: 596 code words including library (424). The statements are identical to the above fixed point example to enable code size comparison.

```
#pragma chip PIC17C766
#include "math24f.h"
uns16 data;
float tx, av, mg, a, vx, prev, kp;

void main(void)
{
    InitFpFlags();      // enable rounding as default
    vx = 3.127;
    tx += data;         // automatic type cast
    data = kp;         // assign integer part
    if ( tx < 0)
        tx = -tx;     // make positive
    av = tx/20.0;
    mg = av * 1.25;
    a = mg * 0.98;
    prev = vx;
```

```

    vx = a/5.0 + prev;
    kp = vx * 0.036;
    kp = vx / (1.0/0.036);
}

```

How to save code

Choices that influence code size:

1. What libraries to include (24/32 bit float or fixed point)

2. Rounding can be disabled permanently.

```

#define DISABLE_ROUNDING
#include "math32f.h"

```

3. Optimization. Note that “optimize for speed” is default. Also note that the code saving is small.

```

#define FP_OPTIM_SIZE // optimize for SIZE
#define FP_OPTIM_SPEED // optimize for SPEED: default

```

The recommended strategy is to select a main library for the demanding math operations. Different floating and fixed point operations should only be mixed if there is a good reason for it.

Mixing different data types is possible to save code and RAM space. For example by using a small type in an array and a larger type for the math operations.

So, first decide what math library to include. For floating point the main decision is between the 24 bit and the 32 bit library. If you use 32 bit operations, this can be combined with 24 (and 16) bit floating point types to save RAM.

Automatic type conversion:

```

integer <-> float/double
integer <-> fixed point
float <-> double
fixed point <-> float/double : requires additional functions

```

In general, using the smallest possible data type will save code and RAM space. This must be balanced against the extra work to analyze the program to prevent overflow and too large accumulated errors. If there is plenty of code space in the device, and timing is no problem, then large types can be used. Otherwise analysis is required to get optimal selections.

It is recommended to keep the number of called library functions as low as possible. Although function selection is done automatically by the compiler, it is possible to use type casts or even make a custom library by copying the required functions from existing libraries. All libraries are written in C. CC7A can print a warning for each operator function that is called (option -wO).

6.6 Inline Assembly

The CC7A compiler supports inline assembly located inside a C function. There are some restrictions compared to general assembly. First, it is only possible to CALL other functions. Second, GOTO is restricted to labels inside the function.

```

#asm
.. assembly instructions
#endasm

```

Features:

- many assembly formats

- equ statements can be converted to variable definitions
- macro and conditional assembly capabilities
- call C functions and access C variables
- C style comments is possible
- optional optimization
- optional automatic bank updating

Inline assembly is NOT C statements, but are executed in between the C statements. It is not recommended to write the code like this:

```
if (a==b)
  #asm
    nop // this is not a C statement (by definition)
  #endasm
a = 0; // THIS is the conditional statement!!!
```

Inline assembly supports DW. This can be used to insert data or special instructions. CC7A will assume that the data inserted are instructions, but will not interpret or know the action performed. Bank selection bits are assumed to be undefined when finishing executing DW instructions.

```
#asm
  DW 0xFFFF ; any data or instruction (2 bytes stored)
  DW 0xFFFF, 0, 0xC000 ; multiple words
#endasm
```

Assembly instructions are not case sensitive. However, variables and symbols require the right lower or upper case on each letter.

```
clrwdt
Nop
NOP
```

The supported operand formats are:

```
k      EXPR
f      VAR + EXPR
f,d    VAR + EXPR, D
f,b    VAR + EXPR, EXPR
fs,fd  VAR + EXPR, VAR + EXPR
f,k    VAR + EXPR, EXPR
a      LABEL or FUNCTION_NAME
```

```
EXPR := [ EXPR OP EXPR | (EXPR) | -EXPR ]
EXPR := a valid C constant expression, plus assembly extensions
```

Constant formats:

```
MOVLW 10 ; decimal radix is default
MOVLW 0xFF ; hexadecimal
MOVLW 0b010001 ; binary (C style)
MOVLW 'A' ; a character (C style)
MOVLW .31 ; decimal constant
MOVLW .31 + 20 - 1 ; plus and minus are allowed
MOVLW H'FF' ; hexadecimal (radix 16)
MOVLW h'0FF'
MOVLW B'011001' ; binary (radix 2)
MOVLW b'1110.1101'
```

```

MOVLW D'200'      ; decimal (radix 10)
MOVLW d'222'
MOVLW MAXNUM24EXP ; defined by EQU or #define
;MOVLW 22h       ; NOT allowed

```

Formats when loading then result into the W register:

```

decf ax,0 // load result into W
iorwf ax,w
iorwf ax,W

```

Formats when writing the result back to the RAM register:

```

decf ax
decf ax,1
iorwf ax,f
iorwf ax,F

```

Bit variables are accessed by the following formats:

```

bcf Carry
bsf Zero_
bcf ax,B2      ; B2 defined by EQU or #define
bcf ax,1
bcf ALUSTA,Carry ; Carry is a bit variable

```

Arrays, structures and variables larger than 1 byte can be accessed by using an offset.

```

clrf a32      ; uns32 a32; // 4 bytes
clrf a32+0
clrf a32+3
clrf tab+9    ; char tab[10];
; clrf tab-1 ; not allowed

```

Labels can start anywhere on the line:

```

goto LABEL4
LABEL1
:LABEL2
LABEL3:
LABEL4 nop
nop
goto LABEL2

```

Functions are called directly. A single unsigned 8 bit parameter can be transferred using the W register.

```

movlw 10
call f1      ; equivalent to f1( 10);
rcall f1     ; equivalent to f1( 10);

```

The ONLY way to transfer multiple parameters (and parameters different from 8 bit) is to end assembly mode, use C syntax and restart assembly mode again.

```

#endasm
func( a, 10, e);
#asm

```

The EQU statement can be used for defining constants. Assembly blocks containing EQU's only can be put outside the functions. Note that Equ constants can only be accessed in assembly mode. Constants defined by #define can be used both in C and assembly mode.

```
#asm
B0          equ    0
B7          equ    7
MAXNUM24EXP equ    0xFF
#endasm
```

Equ can also be used to define variable addresses. However, the compiler does not know the difference between an Equ address and an Equ constant until it is used by an instruction. When an Equ symbol is used as a variable, that location is disabled for use by other variables. The symbol then changes from an Equ symbol to a variable symbol and is made available in C mode also. There is a slight danger in this logic. DO NOT USE a series of Equ's to define an array. If one of the locations are not read or written directly, the compiler will not know that it is a part of an array and may use it for other purposes. Reading and writing through FSRx and INDFx is not used to transform equ definitions. Therefore, define arrays by using C syntax (or #pragma char).

```
// enable equ to variable transformation
#pragma asm2var 1
..
A1          equ    0x20
..
CLRFR A1
;A1 is changed from an equ constant to a char variable
```

The following address operations are possible when the variable (structure/array) is set to a fixed address:

```
char tab[5] @ 0x110;
struct { char x; char y; } stx @ 0x120;
#asm
MOVLW tab
MOVLW &tab[1]
MOVLW LOW &tab[2]
MOVLW HIGH &tab[2]
MOVLW UPPER &tab[2]
MOVLW HIGH (&tab[2] + 2)
MOVLW HIGH (&stx.y)
MOVLW &stx.y
MOVLW &ALUSTA
#endasm
```

Comments types allowed in assembly mode:

```
NOP      ; a comment
NOP      // C style comments are also valid
/*
CLRWDT   ;
NOP      /* nested C style comments are also valid */
*/
```

Conditional assembly is allowed. However, the C style syntax has to be used.

```
#ifdef SYMBOLA
nop
```

```
#else
clrwdt
#endif
```

Most preprocessor statements can be used in assembly mode:

```
#pragma return[] = "Hello"
```

C style macros can contain assembly instructions, and also conditional statements. Note that the compiler does not check the contents of a macro when it is defined.

```
#define UUA(a,b)\
clrwdt\
movlw a \
#if a == 10 \
nop \
#endif \
clrf b

UUA(10,ax)
UUA(9,PORTA)
```

Note that labels inside a macro often need to be supplied as a parameter if the macro is used more than once. Also note that there should always be a backslash '\' after a #endasm in a macro to avoid error messages when this macro is expanded in the C code. This applies to all preprocessor statements inside a macro.

```
#define waitX(uSec, LBM) \
#asm \
LBM: \
NOP \
NOP \
DECFSZ uSec,1 \
GOTO LBM \
#endasm \

waitX(i, LL1);
waitX(i, LL2);
```

The compiler can optimize and perform bank updating in assembly mode. This does not happen automatically, but has to be switched on in the source code. It is normally safe to switch on optimization and bank updating. Instructions updating the bank register are removed before the compiler insert new instructions. If the assembly contains critical timing, then the settings should be left off, at least in local regions.

```
// default local assembly settings are b- o-
#pragma asm default b+ o+ // change default settings

#asm // using default local settings
#endasm

#asm b- o- // define local settings
#pragma asm o+ // change setting in assembly mode
#endasm // end current local settings
```

Interpretation:

```
o+ : current optimization is performed in assembly mode
o- : no optimization in assembly mode
```

b+ : current bank bit updating is performed in assembly mode
 b- : no bank bit update in assembly mode

Note that *b+ o+* means that updating is performed if the current setting in C mode is on. Updating is NOT performed if it is switched off in the C code when assembly mode starts. The command line options *-b*, *-u* will switch updating off globally. The corresponding source code settings are then ignored.

Direct coded instructions

The file "hexcodes.h" contains C macro's that allow direct coding of instructions.

Note that direct coded instructions are different from inline assembly seen from the compiler. The compiler will view the instruction codes as values only and not as instructions. All high level properties are lost. The compiler will reset optimization, bank updating, etc. after a DW statement.

Example usage:

```
#include "hexcodes.h"
..
// 1. In DW statements:
#asm
DW __SLEEP                // Enter sleep mode
DW __MOVWF(__INDF0)      // Store indirectly
DW __ANDLW(0x80)         // W = W & 0x80;
DW __DECF(__FSR0,__F)    // Decrement FSR0
DW __CLRF(0xFF,1)       // Clear ram (banked access)
DW __BCF(__ALUSTA,__Carry) // Clear Carry bit
DW __MOVFP(__INDF0, __INDF1) // Move byte indirectly
DW __GOTO(0)             // Goto byte address 0
#endasm
..
// 2. In cdata statements:
#pragma cdata[1] = __GOTO(0x3FF)
```

Generating single instructions using C statements

The compiler will normally generate single instructions if the C statements are simple. Remember to inspect the generated assembly file if the application algorithm depends upon a precisely defined instruction sequence. The following example show how to generate single instructions from C code.

```
nop();           // NOP
f = W;           // MOVWF f
f = 0;           // CLRF f
W = f - W;      // SUBWF f,W
f = f - W;      // SUBWF f
W = f - 1;     // DECF f,W
f = f - 1;     // DECF f
W = f | W;     // IORWF f,W
f = f | W;     // IORWF f
W = f & W;     // ANDWF f,W
f = f & W;     // ANDWF f
W = f ^ W;     // XORWF f,W
f = f ^ W;     // XORWF f
W = f + W;     // ADDWF f,W
f = f + W;     // ADDWF f
W = f;         // MOVF f,W
W = f ^ 255;   // COMF f,W
f = f ^ 255;   // COMF f
```



```

W = f + 1;      // INCF f,W
f = f + 1;      // INCF f
W = decsz(i);  // DECFSZ f,W
f = decsz(i);  // DECFSZ f
W = rr(f);     // RRCF f,W
f = rr(f);     // RRCF f
W = rl(f);     // RLCF f,W
f = rl(f);     // RLCF f
W = swap(f);   // SWAPF f,W
f = swap(f);   // SWAPF f
W = incsz(i);  // INCFSZ f,W
f = incsz(i);  // INCFSZ f
b = 0;         // BCF f,b
b = 1;         // BSF f,b
b = !b;        // BTG f,b
btsc(b);       // BTFSC f,b
btss(b);       // BTFSS f,b
sleep();       // SLEEP
clrwdt();      // CLRWDT
return 5;      // RETLW 5
s1();          // CALL s1
goto X;        // GOTO X
W = 45;        // MOVLW 45
W = W | 23;    // IORLW 23
W = W & 53;    // ANDLW 53
W = W ^ 12;    // XORLW 12
W = 33 + W;    // ADDLW 33
W = 33 - W;    // SUBLW 33
return;        // RETURN
retint();      // RETFIE
W = addWFC(f); // ADDWFC f,W
f = addWFC(f); // ADDWFC f
W = subWFB(f); // SUBWFB f,W
f = subWFB(f); // SUBWFB f
W = rrnc(f);   // RRNCF f,W
f = rrnc(f);   // RRNCF f
W = rlnc(f);   // RLNCF f,W
f = rlnc(f);   // RLNCF f
W = decsnz(i); // DCFSNZ f,W
f = decsnz(i); // DCFSNZ f
W = incsnz(i); // INFSNZ f,W
f = incsnz(i); // INFSNZ f
f = negate(W); // NEGF f,1
a = decadj(W); // DAW a,1
multiply(f);   // MULWF f
multiply(50);  // MULLW 50
skipIfEQ(f);   // CPFSEQ f
skipIfLT(f);   // CPFSLT f
skipIfGT(f);   // CPFSGT f
skipIfZero(f); // TSTFSZ f
f = refdLUInc(); // TABLRD 0,1,f
f = refdLU();    // TABLRD 0,0,f
f = refdHUInc(); // TABLRD 1,1,f
f = refdHU();    // TABLRD 1,0,f
writeLUInc(f);  // TABLWT 0,1,f
writeLU(f);     // TABLWT 0,0,f
writeHUInc(f);  // TABLWT 1,1,f

```

```

writeHU(f);          // TABLWT 1,0,f
f = refdL();         // TLRD 0,f
f = refdH();         // TLRD 1,f
writeL(f);           // TLWT 0,f
writeH(f);           // TLWT 1,f

```

6.7 Optimizing the Code

The CC7A compiler contains an advanced code generator which is designed to generate compact code. For example when comparing a 32 bit unsigned variable with a 32 bit constant, this normally requires 12 instructions. When comparing a 32 bit variable with 0, this count is reduced to 5. The code generator detects and takes advantage of similar situations to enable compact code.

Most of the code is generated inline, even multiplication and division. However, if many similar and demanding math operations have to be performed, then it is recommended to include a math library.

Optimized Syntax

Testing multiple bits of 16 bit variables or greater:

```

uns16 x;
if (x & 0xF0)
if (!(x & 0x3C))
if ((x & 0xF00) == 0x300)
if ((x & 0x7F00) < 0x4000)

```

Testing single bits using the '&' operator:

```

if (a & 0x10)           // BTFSC/BTFSS a,4
if (!(a & 0x80))        // BTFSS/BTFSC a,7
if ((a16 & 0x200) == 0) // BTFSS/BTFSC a16+1,1

```

Peephole optimization

Peephole optimizing is done in a separate compiler pass which removes superfluous instructions or rewrite the code by using other instructions. This optimization can be switched off by the `-u` command line option. The optimization steps are:

- 1) redirect goto to goto
- 2) remove superfluous gotos
- 3) replace goto by skip instructions
- 4) replace INCF and DECF by INCFSZ and DECFSZ
- 5) remove instructions that affects the zero- flag only.
- 6) remove superfluous updating of page bit updating
- 7) remove other superfluous instructions
- 8) remove superfluous loading of the W register
- 9) to be defined
- 10) inserts TSTFSZ, CPFSEQ

NOTE: Optimization can also be switched on or off in a local region. Please refer to the `#pragma optimize` statement for more details.

6.8 The cdata Statement

The `cdata` statement stores 16 bit data in program memory.

NOTE 1: Constant data should normally be stored using the 'const' type modifier. However, `cdata[]` is useful for storing data and instructions at fixed addresses.

NOTE 2: There is no check on validity of the inserted data or address. However, it is NOT possible to overwrite program code and other cdata sections (except config and ID data). The data is added at the end of the assembly and hex file in the same order as it is defined.

SYNTAX:

```
#pragma cdata[ADDRESS] = <VXS>, .., <VXS>
#pragma cdata[] = <VXS>, .., <VXS>
#pragma cdata.IDENTIFIER = <VXS>, .., <VXS>
```

ADDRESS: 16 bit word address

VXS : < VALUE | EXPRESSION | STRING>

VALUE: 0 .. 0xFFFF

EXPRESSION: C constant expr. (i.e. 0x1000+(3*1234))

STRING: "Valid C String\r\n\0\x24\x8\xe\xff\xff\\\""

String translation: \xHH or \xH : hexadecimal number

```
\0 => 0   \1 => 1   \2 => 2   \3 => 3   \4 => 4
\5 => 5   \6 => 6   \7 => 7   \a => 7   \b => 8
\t => 9   \n => 10  \f => 12  \v => 11  \r => 13
\\ => the backslash character itself (0x5C)
\" => '"' (0x22)
```

\xHH or \xH : hexadecimal number

"\x1Conflict" is better written as "\x1" "Conflict"

Strings are stored as 8 bit ASCII characters. The least significant 8 bits of each code word are filled first. Strings are aligned on word addresses for each <VXS>. However, alignment does not occur when writing "abc" "def".

IDENTIFIER: any undefined identifier. It is converted to a macro identifier and set to the current cdata word address. The purpose is to provide an automatic way to find the address of stored items.

Empty cdata statements can be used to set or read the current cdata address.

```
#pragma cdata[ADDRESS] // set current cdata address
#pragma cdata.IDENTIFIER // "get" current cdata address
```

Only cdata within the valid code space is counted when calculating the total number of code words.

Using the cdata statement

1. Defining special startup sequences:

```
#include "hexcodes.h"
#pragma cdata[0] = __NOP
#pragma resetVector 2 // goto main at byte address 2
```

2. Storing packed strings and other data

The cdata definitions should be put in a separate file and included in the beginning of the program. This enables identifiers to be used in the program and checking to be performed.

```
#define CDATA_START 0x80
#pragma cdata[CDATA_START] // start of cdata block
#pragma cdata[] = 0xFFFF, 0x2000, 0x1000
#pragma cdata[] = 0x100, (10<<4) + 3456,\
10, 456, 10000
```

```

#define D8(l,h)  (((l)&0xFF) + ((h)&0xFF)*256)
#define D32(x)  x%0x10000, x/0x10000
#pragma cdata[] = D8(10,20), D32(10234543)

#pragma cdata.ID0 = 0x10, 200+3000
#pragma cdata.ID1 = "Hello world\0"
#pragma cdata.ID2 = "Another string\r\n" "merged"

#pragma cdata.ID_TABLE = ID0, ID1, ID2 // store addresses

#pragma cdata.CDATA_END // end of cdata block
..
#pragma origin CDATA_END // program code follow here

void write(uns16 strID);
..

write(ID1);
write(ID2);

```

All cdata start addresses have to be decided manually. The setup could be as follows:

```

.. cdata definitions
.. C functions at addresses lower than CDATA_START
// #pragma origin CDATA_START // optional
#pragma origin CDATA_END
.. C functions at addresses higher than CDATA_END

```

The `#pragma origin CDATA_START` is not required, because data overlapping is detected automatically. However, the compiler tells how many instructions are skipped for each origin statement. The cdata words are not counted at this printout.

Statement `#pragma origin CDATA_END` allows functions to be stored right after the cdata area. This origin statement is not required if all cdata are located at the end of the code space.

Preprocessor statements can be used for checking size during compilation:

```

#if CDATA_END - CDATA_START > 20
#error This is too much
#endif

```

7 DEBUGGING

Removing compilation errors is a simple task. The real challenge is to reveal the many application bugs. ALWAYS remember to check the assembly file if the application program does not behave as expected. Using a compiler does not remove the need for understanding assembly code.

Debugging methods

There are several ways of debugging the program:

1. Test (parts of) the program on a *simulator*. This allows full control of the input signals and thus exact repetition of program execution. It is also possible to speed up testing to inspect long term behavior and check out rare situations. How to do this is application dependent.
2. Use a hardware *emulator*. An emulator allows inspection and tracing of the internal program state during execution in the normal application environment, including digital and analog electronics.
3. Insert application specific *test-code* and run the program on a prototype board. Then gradually remove the extra code from the verified program parts. The key is to take small steps and restore the program to a working state before doing the next change. The extra test code can consist of:
 - 1) Code that produces patterns (square waves) on the output pins. This can be checked by an oscilloscope.
 - 2) Repetition of output sequences.
 - 3) Extra delays or extra code to handle special situations.

The different debugging methods have their advantages and disadvantages. It can be efficient to switch between several methods.

Compiler bugs

Compiler bugs are hard to detect, because they are not checked out until most other tests have failed. (Silicon bugs can be even harder). Compiler bugs can often be removed by rewriting the code slightly, or depending on the type of bug, try:

- 1) `#pragma optimize`
- 2) `#pragma updateBank`
- 3) command line option: `-u`
- 4) command line option: `-bu`
- 5) command line option: `-b`

ALWAYS remember to report instances of compiler bugs to B Knudsen Data.

7.1 Compilation Errors

The compiler prints error messages when errors are detected. The error message is preceded by 2 lines of source code and a marker line indicating where the compiler has located the error. The printing of source and marker lines can be switched off by the `-e` command line option. The maximum number of errors printed can also be altered. Setting the maximum to 12 lines is done by the command line option `-E12`.

The format of the error messages is:

```
Error <filename> <line number>: <error message>
```

Some errors are fatal, and cause the compiler to stop immediately. Otherwise the compiling process continues, but no output files are produced.

If there is a syntax error in a defined macro, then it may be difficult to decide what the problem actually is. This is improved by printing extra error messages which points to the macro definition, and doing this recursively when expanding nested macro's.

NOTE: When an error is detected, the compiler deletes existing hex and assembly files produced by the last successful compilation of the same source file.

Error and warning details

The compiler prints a short description of the error message to the output screen and to the *.occ file, but not to the *.err file. Note that the description will not be visible when enabling the error file in MPLAB. The *.occ file can then be opened and inspected.

```
-ed : do not print error details (disable)
-ew : do not print warning details (disable)
-eL : list error and warning details at the end
```

Some common compilation problems

- not enough variable space

Solution: Some redesign is required. The scope of local variables can be made more narrow. A better overlapping strategy for global variables can be tried.

- the compiler is unable to generate code

Solution: Some of the C statements have to be rewritten, possibly using simpler statements.

- too much code generated

Solution: rewrite parts of the code. By checking the assembly file it may be possible to detect inefficient code fragments. Rewriting by using the W register directly may sometimes reduce the code size. Experience has shown that around 10% of the hex code can be removed by hand-optimizing the C code. Optimal usage of RAM banks is important.

- too deep call level

Solution: rewrite the code. Remember that the compiler handles most cases where functions are called once only.

7.2 MPLAB Debugging Support

The CC7A compiler can be used inside the MPLAB environment. The COD file format for debugging purposes is supported. Two modes of source file debugging are available:

- Using the C source file(s).
- Using the generated assembly file as the source file. The format of the assembly file can be changed in order to suit the debugging tool. Take a look at the assembly file options. Some suggestions:

```
-A1+6+10 -AmiJ      : simulator I
-A1+6+6  -AmiJs     : simulator II
-A6+8+12Jt      : compact I
-Am6+8+12Jt     : compact II
```

Enabling the COD-file is done by a command line option:

-CC<filename>: generate debug file using C source file(s). <filename> is optional. The asm file option is also switched on.

-CA<filename>: generate debug file using generated assembly file as source. <filename> is optional. The asm file option is also switched on.

Arrays:

Arrays and structures represent a slight challenge, because all variables passed in the COD file are currently either char or bit types.

This is solved by adding new variables which appears during debugging:

```

char table[3];    -->  table,      /* offset 0 */
                   table_e1,    /* offset 1 */
                   table_e2     /* offset 2 */

struct {
    char a;
    char b;
} st;            -->  st,        /* offset 0 (element 'a') */
                   st_e1     /* offset 1 (element 'b') */

```

This means that the name of a structure element is not visible when inspecting variables in a debugger.

7.3 Assert Statements

Assert statements allows messages to be passed to the simulator, emulator, etc.

Syntax: `#pragma assert [/] <type> <text field>`

[/] : optional character

<type> : a = user defined assert
 e = user defined emulator command
 f = user defined printf
 l = user defined log command

<text field>: undefined syntax, valid to the end of the line. The line can be extended by a '\' character like other preprocessor statements.

```

#pragma assert /e text passed to the debugger
#pragma assert e text passed to the debugger

```

```

#pragma assert ; this assert command is ignored

```

NOTE 1: comments in the <text field> will not be removed, but passed to the debugger.

NOTE 2: Only ASCII characters are allowed in the assert text field. However, a backslash allows some translation:

```

\0 => 0, \1 => 1, \2 => 2, \3 => 3, \4 => 4
\5 => 5, \6 => 6, \7 => 7, \a => 7, \b => 8
\t => 9, \n => 10, \v => 11, \f => 12, \r => 13

```

USE OF MACRO'S: Macro's can be used inside assert statements with some limitations. The macro should cover the whole text field AND the <type> identifier (or none of them). Macro's limited to a part of the text field are not translated. Macro's can be used to switch on and off a group of assert statements or to define similar assert statements.

```

#define COMMON_ASSERT a text field
#define AA /
..
#pragma assert COMMON_ASSERT
#pragma assert AA a text field

```

Macro AA can also disable a group of assert statements if writing:

```

#define AA ;

#define XX /a /* this will NOT work */
#pragma assert XX causes an error message

```

7.4 Debugging in Another Environment

Testing a program larger than 500-1000 instructions can be difficult. It is possible to debug parts of the program in the Windows/MSDOS environment. Another C compiler has to be used for this purpose. Using another environment has many advantages, like faster debugging, additional test code, use of `printf()`, use of powerful debuggers, etc. The disadvantage is that some program rewriting is required.

All low level activity, like IO read and write, have to be handled different. Conditional compilation is recommended. This also allows additional test code to be easily included.

```
#ifndef SIM
    // simulated sequence
    // or test code (printf statements, etc.)
#else
    // low-level PICmicro code
#endif
```

The following can be compiled and debugged without modifications:

1. General purpose RAM access
2. Bit operations (overlapping variables requires care)
3. Use of `FSRx` and `INDFx` (with some precautions)
4. Use of `rl()`, `rr()`, `swap()`, `nop()` and `nop2()`. Carry can be used together with `rl()` and `rr()`. Direct use of `Zero_` should be avoided.
5. Use of the W register

The recommended sequence is to:

1. Write the program for the actual PICmicro device.
2. Continue working until it can be compiled successfully.
3. Debug low-level modules separately by writing small test programs (i.e. for keyboard handling, displays, IIC-bus IO, RT-clocks).
4. Add the necessary SIM code and definitions to the code. Debug (parts of) the program in another environment. Writing alternative code for the low-level modules is possible.
5. Return to the PICmicro environment and compile with SIM switched off and continue debugging using the actual chip.

8 FILES PRODUCED

The compiler produces a compiler output file and a hex file that may be used for programming the PICmicro chips directly. The hex file is produced only there are no errors during compilation. The compiler may also produce other files by setting some command line options:

- assembly, variable, list, function outline, COD, preprocessor output and error files

8.1 Hex File

The default hex file format is INHX32. The format is changed by the *-f* command line option. The INHX8M, INHX8S and INHX32 formats are:

```
:BBaaaaTT112233...CC
BB  - number of data words of 8 bits, max 16
aaaa - hexadecimal address (byte-address)
TT  - type :
      00 : normal objects
      01 : end-of-file   (:00000001FF)
11  - 8 bits data word
CC  - checksum - the sum of all bytes is zero.
```

The 16 bit format used by INHX16 is defined by:

```
:BBaaaaTT111122223333...CC
BB  - number of data words of 16 bits, max 8
aaaa - hexadecimal address (of 16 bit words)
TT  - type :
      00 : normal objects
      01 : end-of-file   (:00000001FF)
1111 - 16 bits data word
CC  - checksum - the sum of all bytes is zero.
```

8.2 Assembly Output File

The compiler produces a complete assembly file. This file can be used as input to an assembler. Text from the source file is merged into the assembly file. This improves readability. Variable names are used throughout. A hex format directive is put into the assembly file. This can be switched off if needed. Local variables may have the same name. The compiler will add an extension to ensure that all variable names are unique.

The compiler will use `__config` and `__idlocs` in the generated assembly file when `#pragma config` is used in the source. The old assembly format is still available by using the command line option `-cfc`.

Command line option `-Ma` will truncate all automatic generated labels in the assembly and list files. This option is sometimes useful when comparing assembly files generated by different compiler versions.

There are many command line options which change the assembly file produced. Please note the difference between the `-a` and the `-A` options. The `-a` option is needed to produce an assembly file, while the `-A` option changes the contents of the assembly and list files.

The general format is `-A[scHDftumiJN+N+N]`.

- s: symbolic arguments are replaced by numbers
- c: no C source code is printed
- H: hexadecimal numbers only
- D: decimal numbers only
- f: no object format directive is printed
- t: no tabulators, normal spaces only
- u: no extra info at the end of the assembly file

m: single source line only
 i: no source indentation, straight left margin
 J: put source after instructions to achieve a compact assembly file.
 R: detailed macro expansion
 N+N+N: label, mnemonic and argument spacing. Default is 8+6+10.

Note that the options are CASE sensitive.

Some examples:

```
Default :                               ;    x++;
      m001    INCF  x
-AsDJ :   m001    INCF  10                ;    x++;
-Ac :     m001    INCF  x
-AJ6+8+11 : m001  INCF  x                ;    x++;
-AiJ1+6+10 : m001
           INCF  x                ;x++;
-AiJs1+6+6 : m001
           INCF  0Ah            ;x++;
```

8.3 Variable File

The variable list file contains information on the variables declared. Variables are sorted by address by default, but this can be changed. The compiler needs the command line option `-V` to produce this file. The file name is `<src>.var`.

The general format is `-V[rnuD]`. The additional letters allows the file contents to be adjusted:

r: only variables which are referenced in the code
 n: sort variables by name
 u: keep the variables unsorted
 D: use decimal numbers

Variable file contents:

```
X B Address Size #AC Name
X -> L : local variable
      G : global variable
      P : assigned to certain address
      E : extern variable
      R : overlapping, directly assigned
      C : const variable

B -> - : unbanked RAM
      0 : bank 0
      1 : bank 1
      .. etc.

Address -> 0x00A : file address
           0x00C.0 : bit address (file + bit number)

Size -> size in bytes (0 for bit)

#AC -> 12: number of direct accesses to the variable
```

Examples:

```
X B Address Size #AC Name
R [-] 0x01B 1 : 10: alfa
P [-] 0x01B 1 : 12: fixc
```

```

L [-] 0x01D      1 : 1:  lok
L [0] 0x022.0   0 : 6:  b1
G [0] 0x022.1   0 : 16: bx
G [0] 0x025     1 : 23:  b

```

When a function is not called (unused), all its parameters and local variables are truncated to the same location. Example:

```

L [-] 0x00F      1 : 16<> pm_2_

```

8.4 List File

The compiler can also produce a list file. The command line option is `-L` or `-L[<col>,<lin>]`. The maximum number of columns per line `<col>` and lines per page `<lin>` can be altered. The default setting is `-L200,60`. The contents of the list file can be changed by using the `-A` option.

8.5 Function Call Structure

The function call structure can be written to file `<src>.fcs`. This is useful for function restructuring in case of call level problems. Note that two different formats are produced; the first is a list of functions, the second is a recursive expansion of the function call structure. The command line option is `-Q` for both formats.

Format sample:

```

F: function1      : #1
   func2          : #5
   delay          : #2
   func3          : #3

```

The meaning of the symbols is:

1. `func2`, `delay` and `func3` are called from `function1`
2. `#1` : `function1` is called once
3. `#3` : `func3` is called 3 times (once from `function1`)

The call structure is expanded recursively. The indentation show the nesting of the function calls in the source. The true call level is printed at the beginning of the line. The true call level is different from the indentation level when `CALL`'s have been replaced by `GOTO`'s. A mark is then printed at the end of the line in such cases. The interrupt call level is handled automatically and checked. There is a separate expansion for the interrupt service routine.

```

L0  main
L1  function1
L2  func2
L2  delay
L2  func3
L1  function1 ..

```

Explanation of symbols used:

- `L1` : stack level 1 (max 31 levels). This is the REAL stack level, compensated when `CALL`'s have been replaced by `GOTO`.
- `..` : only the first call is fully expanded if more than one call to the same function occur inside the same function body.
- `[CALL->GOTO]` : `CALL` replaced by `GOTO` in order to get more call levels
- `[T-GOTO]` : `CALL+RETURN` is replaced by `GOTO` to save a call level.
- `[RECURSIVE]` : recursive function call

8.6 Preprocessor Output File

The compiler will write the output from the preprocessor to a file (<src>.cpr) when using the **-B** command line option. Preprocessor directives are either removed or simplified. Macro identifiers are replaced by the macro contents. This file can be useful to check out macro expansion, for example when the compiler produce an error message when nested macro's are used.

The option format is *-B[pims]* where the additional letters allow some alternatives:

- p : partial preprocessing
- i : no include files
- m: modify symbols
- s : modify strings

Compilation will stop after preprocessing when using any of the additional letters.

9 APPLICATION NOTES

9.1 Computed Goto

Computed goto is a compact and elegant way of implementing a multi-selection. It can also be used for storing a table of constants. However, the 'const' type modifier is normally the best way to store constant data in program memory.

WARNING: Designing computed goto's of types not described in this section may fail. The generated assembly file will then have to be studied carefully because optimization and updating of the bank selection bits can be wrong.

The PCLATH register must be correctly updated before loading PCL. The compiler can do ALL updating and checking automatically. Study the following code samples.

```
char sub0(char i)
{
    skip(i); // jumps 'i' instructions forward
    #pragma return[] = "Hello world"
    #pragma return[] = 10 "more text" 0 1 2 3 0xFF

    /* This is a safe and position-independent method
       of coding return arrays or lookup constant
       tables. It works for all PICmicro devices. The
       compiler handles all checking and code
       generation issues. It is possible to use return
       arrays like above or any C statements. */

    return 110;
    return 0x2F;
}

char sub01(char W)
{
    skip(W); // using W saves one instruction
    #pragma return[] = "Simple, isn't it" 0
    // skip(W) is allowed for the first 256 addresses of each page
}
```

Built in skip() function for computed goto

The skip() function also allow a 16 bit parameter. When using an 8 bit parameter, carry is automatically generated (3 code words extra) if the table cross a 256 word address boundary. Options available:

- GD** : dynamic selected skip format (default)
- GW** : dynamic selected skip format, warning on long format
- GS** : always short skip format (error if boundary is crossed)
- GL** : always long skip format

When using the -GS option, CC7A will generate an error if the table cross a 256 word code address boundary. The short format enables most compact code, but requires manually moving the table in the source code if the error is produced.

Origin alignment

It is possible to use `#pragma origin` to ensure that a computed goto inside a function does not cross a 256 word address boundary. However, this may require many changes during program development. An alternative is to use `#pragma alignLsbOrigin` to automatically align the least significant byte of the origin address.

Example: A function contains a computed goto. After inspecting the generated list file, there are 16 instructions between the function start and the first destination address (offset 0) right after the `ADDWF PCL,0` instruction that perform the computed goto. The last destination address (offset 10) resides 10 instructions after the first destination. A fast compact computed goto requires that the first and last destination resides on the same “byte page” (i.e. `(address & 0xFF00)` are identical for the two addresses). This is achieved with the statement:

```
#pragma alignLsbOrigin -16 to 255 - 10 - 16
```

The alignment pragma statement is not critical. The compiler will generate an error (option `-GS`) or a warning (`-GW`) if the computed goto cross a boundary because of a wrong alignment. An easier approach is to align the LSB to a certain value (as long as program size is not critical).

```
#pragma alignLsbOrigin 0           // align on LSB = 0
#pragma alignLsbOrigin 0 to 190   // [-255 .. 255]
#pragma alignLsbOrigin -100 to 10
```

Computed goto regions

The compiler enters a goto region when `skip()` is detected. In this region optimization is slightly changed, and some address checks are made. The goto region normally ends where the function ends.

A goto region can also be started by a pragma statement:

```
#pragma computedGoto 1 // start c-goto region
// useful if PCL is written directly
```

A goto region can also be stopped by a pragma statement:

```
#pragma computedGoto 0 // end of c-goto region
/* recommended if the function contains code
   below the goto region, for instance when the
   table consists of an array of goto
   statements (examples follow later). */
```

Computed Goto Regions affects:

1. Optimization
2. Register bank bit updating
3. 256 word boundary checks

Examples

```
void sub3(char s)
{
    /* the next statements could also be written as
       a switch statement, but this solution is
       fastest and most compact. */

    if (s >= 3)
        goto Default;
```

```

    skip(s);
    goto Case0;
    goto Case1;
    goto LastCase;
#pragma computedGoto 0 // end of c-goto region

Case0:
    /* user statements */
    return;

Case1:
LastCase:
    /* user statements */
    return;

Default:
    /* user statements */
    return;
}

void sub4(char s)
{
    /* this solution can be used if very fast
       execution is important and a fixed number of
       instructions (2/4/8/..) is executed at each
       selection. Please note that extra statements
       have to be inserted to fill up empty space
       between each case. */

    if (s >= 10)
        goto END;
    s = rlnc(s); /* multiply by 2 */
    s = rlnc(s); /* multiply by 2 */
    skip(s);

    // execute 4 instructions at each selection
Case0: nop(); nop(); nop(); return;
Case1: nop(); nop(); nop(); return;
Case2: nop(); nop(); nop(); return;
Case3: nop(); nop(); nop(); return;
Case4: nop(); nop(); nop(); return;
Case5: nop(); nop(); nop(); goto END;
Case6: nop(); nop(); nop(); goto END;
Case7: nop(); nop(); nop(); goto END;
Case8: nop(); nop(); nop(); goto END;
Case9: nop(); nop(); nop(); goto END;
#pragma computedGoto 0 /* end of region */
END:
; // More statements
}

```

9.2 The switch statement

```

char select(char W)
{

```

```
switch(W) {
  case 1:      /* XORLW 1 */
    /* .. */
    break;
  case 2:      /* XORLW 3 */
    break;
  case 3:      /* XORLW 1 */
  case 4:      /* XORLW 7 */
    return 4;
  case 5:      /* XORLW 1 */
    return 5;
}
return 0; /* default */
}
```

The compiler performs a sequence of *XORLW <const>*. These constants are NOT the same as the constants written in the C code. However, the produced code is correct! If more compact code is required, then consider rewriting the switch statement as a computed goto. This is very efficient if the cases are close to each other (i.e. 2, 3, 4, 5, ..).

APPENDIX

A1 Predefined Register Names

All register names, including the predefined ones, are found in the header files. The predefined register names are:

```
char W, WREG;
char INDF0, FSR0;
char PCL, PCLATH;
char ALUSTA, TOSTA, CPUSTA, INTSTA;
char INDF1, FSR1;
char TMR0L, TMR0H;
char TBLPTR, TBLPTRL, TBLPTRH;
char BSR, BSRL, BSRH;
bit Carry, DC, Zero_, Overflow;
```

A2 Assembly Instructions

Assembly:	ALUSTA:	Operation:
ADDLW k	C,DC,Z,OV	W = k + W; Add literal and W
ADDWF f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f + W; Add W and f
ADDWFC f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f + W + C; Add with Carry
ANDLW k	Z	W = W & k; AND literal and W
ANDWF f,d	Z	d = f & W; AND W and f
BCF f,b	-	f.b = 0; Bit clear f
BSF f,b	-	f.b = 1; Bit set f
BTG f,b	-	f.b = !f.b; Bit toggle
BTFSC f,b	-	Bit test f, skip if clear
BTFSS f,b	-	Bit test f, skip if set
CALL k	-	Call subroutine
CLRF f,d	-	f = 0; Clear f (and WREG)
CLRWDI -	TO,PD	WDT = 0; Clear watchdog timer
COMF f,d	Z,N	d = f ^ 255; Complement f
CPFSEQ f	-	Skip if f=W
CPFSGT f	-	Skip if f>W
CPFSLT f	-	Skip if f<W
DAW f,d	C	Decimal adjust W, store in f (and WREG)
DCFSNZ f,d	-	Decrement f, skip if not zero
DECFSZ f,d	-	Decrement f, skip if zero
DECF f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f - 1; Decrement f
GOTO k	-	Go to address
INCF f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f + 1; Increment f
INCFSZ f,d	-	Increment f, skip if zero
INFSNZ f,d	-	Increment f, skip if not zero
IORLW k	Z	W = W k; Inclusive OR literal
IORWF f,d	Z	d = f W; Inclusive OR W and f
MOVFP f,p	-	Move f to p
MOVFP f,p	Z	Move p to f
MOVLB k	-	BSR (bit 0-3) = k
MOVLR k	-	BSR (bit 4-7) = k
MOVLW k	-	W = k; Move literal to W
MOVWF f	-	f = W; Move W to f
MULLW k	-	PRODH,PRODL = W * k; Multiply
MULWF f	-	PRODH,PRODL = W * f; Multiply
NEGF f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	Negate W, store in f (and WREG)

NOP	-	-	No operation
RETLW	k	-	Return, put literal in W
RETURN	-	-	Return from subroutine
RETFIE	-	-	Return from interrupt
RLCF	f,d	C	Rotate left f through carry bit
RLNCF	f,d		Rotate left f
RRCF	f,d	C	Rotate right f through carry bit
RRNCF	f,d		Rotate right f
SETF	f,d	-	f = 0xFF; Store in f (and WREG)
SLEEP	-	TO,PD	Go into standby mode, WDT = 0
SUBLW	k	C,DC,Z,OV	W = k - W; Subtract W from literal
SUBWF	f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f - W; Subtract W from f
SUBFWB	f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = W - f - ~C; Subtract with borrow
SUBWFB	f,d	C,DC,Z,OV	d = f - W - ~C; Subtract with borrow
SWAPF	f,d	-	Swap halves f
TABLWD	t,i,f	-	Table read update
TABLWT	t,i,f	-	Table write update
TLRD	t,f	-	Table read
TLWT	t,f	-	Table write
TSTFSZ	f,a	-	Skip if f=0
XORLW	k	Z	W = W ^ k; Exclusive OR literal
XORWF	f,d	Z	d = f ^ W; Exclusive OR W and f

Notes:

d = 1	:	destination f
d = 0	:	destination W
f	:	file register
Z	:	Zero bit : Z = 1 if result is 0
C	:	Carry bit
		C = 1 : indicates carry on addition
		C = 0 : indicates borrow on subtraction
DC	:	Digit Carry bit
		DC = 1 : indicates carry on addition
		DC = 0 : indicates borrow on subtraction
TO	:	Timeout bit
PD	:	Power down bit

Instruction execution time

Most instructions execute in 4 clock cycles. The exceptions are instructions that modify the program counter. These execute in 8 clock cycles:

- GOTO and CALL
- skip instructions when next instruction is skipped
- instructions that modify the program counter, i.e: ADDWF PCL