

The Programming Language "*immediate C*"

- a language for the "Internet of Things"

Reference Manual

Version 3

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Abstract

immediate C - *iC* for short - is a declarative extension of the procedural language *C* - useful for control and robotics as well as dealing with events generated in a GUI.

iC utilizes the syntax of *C* to give meaning to statements that have no semantic support in *C*. In addition to standard variables, which are modified by the flow of instructions, *iC* provides so called '*immediate*' variables, whose values are updated, whenever a change of input calls for an immediate change in output. An efficient Data Flow technique implements this strategy.

iC provides programmers with built in operators, whose function is closely modelled on integrated circuits. The name *iC* is a reminder of this fact. Logical *AND*, *OR*, *EXCLUSIVE-OR* and *NOT* as well as D flip-flops, SR flip-flops, analog chips and many others are implemented in such a way, that their use follows the same design rules, which apply to their hardware counterparts. These rules have led to a well-developed hardware technology, whose effectiveness is demonstrated by the success of today's complex computer hardware. Particularly the concept of clocked functions plays an important role in the language *iC*. It gives the same protection against timing races in *iC* programs, as it provides for hardware IC designs. But *iC* is not a hardware description language nor a simulation language – it provides the functionality and some of the speed of field-programmable gate arrays to *C* programmers.

Writing programs in the language *iC* has the added quality, that many simple ideas and relationships, which should result in direct actions, can be written down *immediately* in one line. The coding of call back routines and other overhead is not required. It was this thought, which also prompted the name "*immediate C*".

immediate C can do direct I/O on a Raspberry Pi. Drivers for digital I/O on GPIOs and PiFace cards as well as a driver for PWM analog output on GPIOs are available. See [Appendix B README.RPi](#).

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For more information about this program, or for information on how to contact the author, see [Appendix A README](#) or visit

<http://immediateC.net/>
<https://github.com/JohnWulff/immediateC/>

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Zusammenfassung

immediate C - kurz *iC* - ist eine deklarative Erweiterung der prozeduralen Programmiersprache *C* – besonders für Automation, Robotik und der Behandlung von Ereignissen aus GUIs geeignet.

iC basiert auf der Syntax von *C* und gibt vielen Befehlen Bedeutung, die keine semantische Unterstützung in *C* haben. Zu den einfachen Variablen, die im normalen Programmfluss verändert werden, kommen in *iC* so genannte '*immediate*' oder '*sofort*' Variablen, dessen Wert sofort verändert wird, wenn eine Eingangsänderung die sofortige Änderung eines Wertes zur Folge hat. Um dies zu erreichen, wird eine effiziente Datenfluss-Technik eingesetzt.

iC stellt Programmierern eingebaute Operatoren zur Verfügung, deren Arbeitsweise die Funktionen von IC-Bausteinen modelliert. Der Name *iC* soll an diese Tatsache erinnern. Logisches *UND*, *ODER*, *EXCLUSIV-ODER* und *NICHT* sowie D flip-flops, SR flip-flops, analoge Bausteine und viele mehr sind so implementiert, dass deren Anwendung den gleichen Entwurfsregeln entspricht, wie die der entsprechenden IC-Bausteine. Diese Regeln haben zu einer ausgereiften Technik geführt, deren Wirksamkeit durch unsere heutige komplexe Computertechnik belegt ist. Besonders das Konzept von getakteten (clocked) Funktionen spielt in der Sprache *iC* eine wichtige Rolle. Damit wird derselbe Schutz gegen Laufzeitprobleme in *iC*-Programmen erreicht, der damit in IC-Schaltkreisen bewirkt wird. Aber *iC* ist keine Hardware-Beschreibungssprache – auch keine Simulationssprache. *iC* bringt *C* Programmierern die Funktionsvielfalt und fast die Geschwindigkeit von FPGAs (field-programmable gate arrays).

Programme die in *iC* geschrieben werden, haben das zusätzliche Merkmal, dass viele einfache Ideen und Zusammenhänge, die zu direkten Aktionen führen sollen, sofort in einer Zeile niedergeschrieben werden können. Callback-Routinen sind nicht notwendig. Auch dieser Gedanke ist im Namen "*immediate C*" enthalten.

immediate C kann direkte Ein/Ausgabe auf einem Raspberry Pi ausführen. Treiber für digitale E/A auf GPIO's und PiFace Karten sowie ein Treiber für PWM analoge Ausgabe auf GPIO's sind vorhanden. Siehe [Appendix B README.RPi](#).

Note on language change for *iC* version 3

Immediate C uses its own pre-compiler *immac*, whose functionality for pre-compile commands are nearly identical to those of *cpp* for *C* compilers. *immediate C* uses three different languages in two types of source files. These are:

1. *iC* source files (with extension .ic)
 - *iC* language statements compiled by *immcc* to .c files
 - embedded *C* language statements in conditional and literal blocks compiled by a *C* compiler.
2. *iCa* source files (with extension .ica)
 - *iCa* language statements (*immediate C* with arrays) compiled directly by *immac* to .ic files.
 - both of the above (*iC* and *C* language statements).

Since all these statement types can occur in any order and each compiler requires its own pre-processor the directives require different identifying characters. Version 1 did not have *iCa* code and no *immac* compiler. *cpp* was used to pre-compile *iC* code first, with prefix # (*#include* etc). To hide pre-compile commands in embedded *C* code, that prefix was made %# (*%#include* etc), which was changed to *#include* by *immcc* when extracting *C* code. Version 2 introduced *iCa* code which was given the prefix % (*%include* etc), which was handled directly by *immac*. %# was a kludge for *C* code and has now been changed for Version 3. The prefixes for the old and new versions are as follows:

"pre-compiler prefix in"	Version 1	Version 2	new Version 3
<i>C</i> code in literal blocks	%#	%#	#
<i>iC</i> code in .ic and .ica	#	#	%
<i>iCa</i> code in .ica		%	%%

This is the only change in the *iC* language version 3. Experience has shown that pre-compile commands for embedded *C* code are the most common. This change makes embedded *C* code look like standard *C*. *iCa* code uses %, which matches double braces { { ... } } used in *iCa* code.

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1 Introduction

immediate C - *iC* for short - is a declarative extension of the procedural language *C*. It utilizes the syntax of *C* to give meaning to statements that have no semantic support in *C*. In addition to standard variables, which are modified by the flow of instructions, *iC* provides so called '*immediate*' variables, whose values are updated, whenever a change of input calls for an immediate change in output. An efficient Data Flow technique implements this strategy.

1.1 Relationship to Object Orientation

immediate C uses the OO-paradigm in its concept. Each *immediate* variable is an independent object, which acts on other *immediate* variables by a number of methods. These methods are expressed in a number of functions and overloaded on to the logical and arithmetic operators. In conventional OO languages like *Smalltalk* or *C++*, a method is an action which acts on the object owning the method. Conceptually descriptions of Object Orientation talk of methods being actions or messages sent from one object to another. It is in this sense that *iC* *immediate* variable objects interact with each other by the use of Data Flow techniques.

1.2 Relationship to procedural Instruction Flow Languages

Traditional High Level procedural Languages such as *Fortran*, *Pascal*, *Basic* or *C* are called Instruction Flow Languages, because they prescribe a systematic order of statements, functions and commands to complete a computational task or program. They do this by expressing instruction sequences for an abstract machine closely modelled on a real computer. By being independent of the actual machine, these languages have helped to hide unessential details of the hardware, to make programs portable and to focus the programmer's attention on the problem to be solved. The overwhelming usefulness of these procedural instruction flow languages to express precise algorithms is recognized in *iC*, by including the whole of *C* as a subset, for dealing with algorithmic problems in established ways. Learning of the language *iC* should therefore be very easy for *C* programmers.

Many of the undesirable characteristics of the underlying hardware are reflected in today's procedural High Level Languages. These characteristics make it difficult to express a large number of everyday problems briefly and clearly. Particularly the manipulation of events is not easy to integrate into programs written in traditional procedural High Level Languages. Yet events play an increasing role in today's interactive, mouse driven programs. Many different functions must be ready to execute as a result of external or user generated events, which occur at unpredictable times. The instruction driven computer only executes a particular instruction, when the flow of instructions in a program gets around to executing that instruction. This statement may sound pedantic, but much of the complexity of procedural programs is a direct result of this fundamental truism. How does one organize a program, so that it can respond quickly to many and varied external events? *iC* provides answers to this question. The interrupt mechanism, designed to tackle such problems at a system level, is intractable for the average programmer and is not supported in a general way by most procedural High Level Languages. *iC* harnesses interrupts and hides their complexity.

1.3 Programmable Logic Controllers

The situation is even more critical in systems that deal with a large number of external inputs. In the early 1980's a completely new class of computer was developed to deal with such problems in the environment of factories and machine control. These are "Programmable Logic Controllers" or PLC's for short. (SPS or Speicher-Programmierbare Steuerung in German) Conventional PLC's have a standard instruction driven architecture. They differ from conventional computers in two main areas:

- They provide bit instructions and data access to individual bits in their instruction set on top of the more conventional instructions to manipulate data words.
- They have a built in operating system, which runs the stored program over and over. Inputs are automatically polled at reasonably short intervals and boolean and arithmetic expressions making up the stored program are re-evaluated continuously. This is necessary, because outputs and intermediate values in a PLC are assumed to reflect an immediate transformation of the inputs, as carried out by the expressions of the stored PLC program.

This organization of PLC's has two very serious drawbacks, which are direct consequences of the differences mentioned:

- Conventional PLC's require a special CPU, which can never be as cheap as a mass produced microprocessor chip, or they emulate the PLC instruction set, in which case they are slower.

- The cyclic execution of the stored program sets very real limits to the length of possible programs. The longer the program, the longer the cycle time, which is the time interval at which inputs are polled. If this time gets too long, the response of the PLC is no longer acceptable for many applications.

PLC's are facing a crisis on two fronts:

- Traditionally PLC program memories in the 80's were measured in kilobytes. Today megabytes of memory are available at low cost. This 1000 fold increase in potential program size cannot be utilized with the cyclic execution strategy of conventional PLC's. Even with a 10 fold increase in speed, these machines would be too slow. (Gigabytes is standard in the 21st century)

Because PLC's are completely compute bound, the type of program organization they use is unacceptable for standard computers. Nevertheless many programmers designing event controlled applications on standard computers resort to polling schemes, despite the drawbacks involved. The procedural High Level Languages they use do not give them any simple alternatives.

- The second crisis is the lack of a High Level Language for PLC's. Most PLC programs are developed with antiquated tools that support semi graphical languages for Boolean logic and assembly programming for numerical subsystems. The international standard IEC-1131 is attempting to fill this vacuum by specifying such a language. Unfortunately this standard simply freezes current programming practice, by incorporating five different languages, four of which are the semi graphical and assembly languages in common use today. For algorithmic programming it introduces a completely new High Level Language called 'Structured Text', which will require a large learning effort by programmers and whose utility in the limited area of PLC's seems doubtful. IEC-1131 makes no attempt to confront the fundamental speed problems facing PLC users.

The declarative language *iC* can be used to program standard computer systems and PLC's in a uniform way. *iC* is fast, because it responds in microseconds to any changes in input, and does not waste time evaluating expressions, whose input operands have not changed. The extensions which *iC* offers over the algorithmic language C, can also be coded graphically, using current CAD packages for IC design. For factory staff, who require very simple programming methods, the use of *Ladder Diagram (LD)* or *Function Block Diagram (FBD)* in conformity with IEC-1131, using suitable front ends is possible.

1.4 Relationship to Integrated Circuits

iC provides programmers with built in operators, whose function is closely modelled on integrated circuits. The name *iC* is a reminder of this fact. Logical *AND*, *OR*, *EXCLUSIVE-OR* and *NOT* are the basic functions implemented using a very fast data-flow algorithm. The full range of arithmetic operators is also available. These are not normally considered as hardware components, although once they formed the basis of the very important "Analog Computer". They can be used for implementing control algorithms, fuzzy logic – the possibilities are endless. Also implemented as efficient built in functions are the D flip-flop, SR flip-flop, JK flip-flop, shift register and many other popular integrated circuit types, which are implemented in such a way, that their use in *iC* programs follows the same design rules, which apply to their hardware counterparts. These rules have led to a well-developed hardware technology, whose effectiveness is demonstrated by the success of today's complex computer hardware. Particularly the concept of clocked function blocks plays an important role in the language *iC*. It gives the same protection against timing races in *iC* programs, as it provides for hardware IC designs.

Another idea taken from integrated circuits is Large-Scale-Integration. User defined Function Blocks emulate LSI circuits and produce complex sub-units with a known functionality and a well defined external interface, which can be re-used without regard to the internals. IC hardware design may not be part of the average programmers repertoire, but there is much literature on the subject. The run-time code is not meant to be just a simulation of IC hardware – the generated code is extremely fast, because of the data-flow techniques used and provides powerful control programs.

1.5 Summary

Writing programs in the language *iC* has the added quality, that many simple ideas and relationships, which should result in direct actions, can be written down *immediately* in one line.

```
if (IX0.0) { printf("Hello! world\n"); }
```

This is a complete runnable *iC* program. *IX0.0* is an external *immediate* bit input in IEC-1131 notation, which generates an event when it changes state. The coding of call back routines and other overhead is not required. It was this thought, which also prompted the name "*immediate C*".

2 Language description

2.1 Immediate Variables

An *immediate* variable is a data object that has a value, but which also has the ability to transmit any change in its value as an event. This event triggers the re-calculation of all expressions that contain the *immediate* variable. The fundamental assumption is, that **the value of an expression only changes, if one of the variables making up the expression changes**. Thus it is only necessary to re-calculate an expression, if one of the variables making up the expression changes. Conversely, if an expression is re-calculated whenever one of its variables changes, and all unnecessary recalculations of expressions are left out, the value of all expressions will be up to date within a very short time. *Immediate* variables provide the mechanism to make this strategy possible.

2.2 Immediate Types

iC introduces the type modifier `imm` or `immC` to declare *immediate* variables of the basic data types `int` in C and the basic data type `bit`, which is a new data type in *iC*. Type `bit` declares variables capable of holding the values 0 and 1, which can also be written as `LO` and `HI`. Since `bit` is not a type in C or C++, the use of type `bit` is restricted to use in *iC* code. The word 'boolean' was avoided deliberately, because it has a different semantic bias in languages where it is used. (Truth of a test rather than a single bit object). Both `imm int` and `imm bit` are value types, which must be assigned once (and only once) in an *immediate* statement. `immC int` and `immC bit` are special *immediate* value types, which must be assigned one or more times in C code.

iC also has clocking types `imm clock` and `imm timer`, which can only be used as function parameters of clocked function blocks. These will be discussed later.

2.2.1 Immediate declarations

An *immediate* declaration declares an *immediate* variable to be either of type `imm int`, `imm bit`, `immC int`, `immC bit`, `imm clock` or `imm timer`, using syntax similar to declarations in C. Calling the ***immcc*** compiler with the strict option `-S` or the statement `use strict`, which is the default since *iC* Version 2, makes declarations mandatory for all `imm` variables. All variables in a declaration may be assigned in the declaration. Calling the ***immcc*** compiler with the no-strict option `-N` or the statement `no strict`, any value type variable not declared before it is used is assumed to be of type `imm bit`. Undeclared clocking type variables inherit the type from the assigning function. `no strict`, is deprecated because it can easily lead to subtle errors.

```
imm int fader, colour;           // declaration only
imm int brightness = fader * colour; // decl with assignment
immC bit running;               // used in C assignment
```

2.2.2 extern immediate declarations

Just like in C, several *iC* sources may be compiled separately and linked into a single application. When *immediate* variables declared and assigned in one source are referenced in another source, they must be declared with an ***extern*** declaration, before they can be used in an expression.

```
extern imm int fader, colour;
extern imm int brightness;
extern immC bit running;
```

2.3 Immediate Expressions

Immediate expressions are arithmetic or logical expressions external to all functions, which contain at least one *immediate* value variable or function block call. **An *immediate* expression is re-evaluated whenever the value of one of the *immediate* variables it contains has changed (and only then).** This is the core of the *iC* event-driven strategy. All *immediate* expressions may contain constants, although they are mostly useless in logical expressions, and therefore not common in logical expressions. If an expression consists only of constants it is a constant arithmetic expression evaluated at compile time (similar to global initialisation in C).

2.4 Operators in immediate expressions

Most operators available in C may be used in *immediate* expressions. The precedence of the operators is the same as in C. Some C operators are not valid for *immediate* expressions, because the semantics in *iC* are different. These are the increment and decrement operators `++` and `--`, as well as

structure and pointer operators `->` `.` (dot) `&` (address of) and `*` (pointer dereference). Assignment expressions `+=` etc. are also not allowed. These restrictions do not apply to embedded C code in literal blocks and *immediate if else* or *switch* statements, which will be introduced later.

Array variables and index expressions using `[]` are available with the Array extensions of the language either as `immC` Arrays or using `imm` variables using the pre-compiler *immac* (called automatically). See [section 7](#).

2.4.1 Arithmetic and Relational Operators

The binary arithmetic operators `+` `-` `*` `/`, the modulo operator `%`, as well as unary `-` and `+` operate on integer numeric values, usually of type `imm int` or constants, and yield numeric results of type `imm int`. The same applies to the shift operators `<<` and `>>`. If one or both of the operands used with one of these operators is type `imm bit`, automatic type conversion takes place. Values of type `imm bit` are converted to the `int` values 0 or 1 corresponding to the values of the `bit`. The relational and equality operators `<`, `<=`, `>`, `>=`, `==`, `!=` also have numeric operands, but these operators yield `imm bit` results by default.

Immediate arithmetic, relational and bitwise integer expressions with numeric operands may and often do contain constants, as well as *immediate* operands.

2.4.2 Bitwise integer Operators

If both operands of the binary operators `&`, `|`, `^` or the single operand of operator `~` are numeric values of type `imm int` or constants, these operators carry out bitwise manipulation on their integer operands – just like in C. The result is an `imm int` numeric value interpreted as a string of bits.

2.4.3 Bit Operators

If one or both of the operands of the binary operators `&`, `|`, `^` or the single operand of operator `~` are of type `imm bit`, these operators carry out the bit manipulation operations **and**, **or**, **exclusive-or** and **not** on `imm bit` objects. The result is an `imm bit`. Any operands of type `imm int` are converted to `imm bit`. The numeric value 0 converts to 0 (LO), any other numeric value converts to 1 (HI). The bit operators are used frequently in *immediate C*, since bit manipulation is very common in event driven systems – more so than in algorithmic programs written in conventional languages like C, which does not even provide a type *bit*. Such logical bit expressions in *immediate C* may not contain any *non-immediate* variables. Constants are allowed, although they do not make much sense. They either do not change a variable e.g. `a & 1 == a`; `b | 0 == b` or they produce another constant e.g. `c & 0 == 0`; `d | 1 == 1` and `~1 == 0`.

2.4.4 Logical Operators

The logical connectives `&&` and `||` are executed as arithmetic expressions, when one or both of the operands are of type `imm int`. Evaluation is from left to right, and evaluation stops when the truth or falsehood of the result is known – just like in C. The result is of type `imm bit` by default. The unary complement operator `!`, operating on an `imm int` operand produces an `imm bit` result.

The operators `&&`, `||` and `!` with only `imm bit` operands are interpreted by the compiler exactly like the bit operators `&`, `|` and `~`, although there is really no point. Since evaluation does not stop when the result is known, the use of `&&` and `||` and `!` in expressions where all operands are `imm bit` is deprecated and causes a warning if `no strict` and an error if `use strict` (which is the default).

2.4.5 Conditional Operators

The operators `? :` implement conditional expressions, just like in C, which are evaluated as a whole in an arithmetic context. The conditional expression

```
expression_1 ? expression_2 : expression_3
```

is a valid *immediate* arithmetic expression, which is triggered by a change in any *immediate* variable in any of the three sub-expressions.

An alternate form of conditional expression, which leaves out the middle expression is allowed by modern C compilers, particularly by `gcc` and is allowed in *iC* (if the C compiler used supports the construct)

```
expression_1 ? : expression_3
```

The following excerpt from 'info gcc explains the advantages and use of the construct:

5.8 Conditionals with Omitted Operands

The middle operand in a conditional expression may be omitted. Then if the first operand is non-zero, its value is the value of the conditional expression.

Therefore, the expression

`x ? : y`

has the value of `x` if that is non-zero; otherwise, the value of `y`.

This example is perfectly equivalent to

`x ? x : y`

In this simple case, the ability to omit the middle operand is not especially useful. When it becomes useful is when the first operand does, or may (if it is a macro argument), contain a side effect. Then repeating the operand in the middle would perform the side effect twice. Omitting the middle operand uses the value already computed without the undesirable effects of re-computing it.

2.4.6 Comma Operator

Commas used as operators have the lowest precedence and are only available in *iC* as a list of expressions in parentheses with further restrictions. As in C the value of the list is the last expression in the list, which may be a plain expression. The leading elements must be either assignments or *immediate* void function calls for the same reason that plain expression statements are not allowed in *iC* as explained in the 2nd paragraph of section [2.6.1](#).

2.4.7 Parentheses

In *immediate C* it is possible to write mixed arithmetic and bit expressions, nested to any depth using the usual C precedence rules and parentheses.

Immediate arithmetic expressions are evaluated as a whole C expression every time one of their component *immediate* variables changes – but only then. To improve execution speed, it is sometimes more efficient to break up very long *immediate* arithmetic expressions with many operands into several sub-expressions – particularly if each sub-expression is triggered by different operands. In this case not all the sub-expressions are executed. On the other hand there is a certain amount of overhead for triggering each new node and execution of a compiled C expression is fast, even if it has many operands.

Immediate bit expressions are compiled into a network of forward looking nodes, one for each different bit operand and execute even more efficiently. There is no need to break up a complex *immediate* bit expression into sub-expressions – the compiler does this already. *Immediate* bit expressions embedded in an arithmetic expression are compiled into separate sub-expressions and only the type converted arithmetic result is used in the arithmetic expression.

2.5 Function and macro calls

Immediate expressions may contain function calls for several types of functions and macros. All of these look very similar to C function calls. The differences will be discussed in later chapters. These can be:

1. Built in *iC* function calls. The parameter ramps and return values are pre-defined.
2. User defined *iC* function block calls. These must be defined by the user before they are called.
3. C function calls – only allowed in *immediate* arithmetic expressions and C code of course.
4. C pre-processor macro calls.

C function and macros called in *immediate* expressions may only have `int` parameters (if any) and an `int` return value. They should be declared in *iC* code as follows to evoke an error message if the function name is mistyped or the parameter ramp or return value is wrong:

```
extern int rand();           // C function with no parameters
extern int rand(void);      // the same with alternative syntax
extern int abs(int);        // C function with 1 parameter
extern int min(int, int);   // C macro with 2 parameters
```

Any C functions or macros, which are called in *immediate* expressions must be declared in the *iC* code (use `strict` is the default). With `no strict` (deprecated), mistyped function names with any type of parameter ramp look like C function calls and will be compiled as such without error. This error is not discovered until link time. With an *iC* `extern` declaration, a clean error message is produced and the extra effort is not great. When a pre-declared C function or macro is called in an *immediate* expression, a check is made, that the number of parameters is correct. Otherwise an error message is issued.

If declared a second time, the following will evoke a warning if `use strict`

```
extern bit rand();           // wrong return type - converted to int
```

If declared a second time, the following will evoke an error if 'strict'

```
extern int rand();           // not used as a function
extern clock rand();         // absolutely wrong return type
extern timer rand();         // absolutely wrong return type
```

No check is made for C function calls in C fragments controlled by `if else` or `switch` statements or other literal C code, since the compilation is handled by the follow up C compiler. Note: built in *iC* functions and *iC* function blocks cannot be called in such C fragments under any circumstances.

2.6 Immediate statements

Most *immediate* statements are *immediate* declarations or *immediate* assignments terminated by a semicolon. *Immediate* declarations and assignments may be combined. Other statements are *immediate* function definitions, *immediate* void function block calls and finally *immediate* control statements `if else` and `switch`.

2.6.1 Immediate Assignments

Immediate assignments are assignments of *immediate* expressions to *immediate* variables external to all functions. Value changes to an *immediate* variable are detected in the assignment and this event triggers the re-calculation of follow on expressions. Like in C, an *immediate* assignment is also an *immediate* expression, which means that assignments embedded in expressions are allowed. As noted earlier, *immediate* assignments can be combined with the declarations of *immediate* variables, but such declaration assignments are not an expression.

Plain expression statements, which are not assigned to anything, as in C are meaningless in *iC* and are not allowed. They would only have meaning if they had a side effect and these have been carefully avoided in *iC*. An exception would be an *immediate* function call that also assigns another value to one or more of its parameters. Since this is rare it was felt that it was more important to use the return value or evoke an error.

2.6.2 The single assignment rule

Immediate assignments must obey the single assignment rule, a rule which applies generally for data flow systems¹. Any *immediate* variable may only be assigned in **one** *immediate* assignment. The value of an *immediate* variable is the value of the single expression, from which it is assigned, at all times. A second assignment to the same *immediate* variable would force different values on that variable, causing a conflict. The *immediate* variable being assigned cannot hold different values simultaneously. The single assignment rule is monitored by the *iC* compiler. An error message is generated if it is broken.

Expressions that occur in C code triggered by *immediate* conditional `if else` or `switch` statements or in C functions in literal blocks may contain `imm` or `immC` *immediate* variables. These expressions are not *immediate* expressions and are not triggered by those variables. When such an expression is executed in the C code, the current value of any *immediate* variable is used.

Immediate variables declared with `immC` may even be assigned in C code embedded in *immediate* conditional `if else` or `switch` statements or in literal blocks. Such an assignment is **not** an *immediate* assignment – the value is changed when the C statement is executed. Nevertheless any change in the *immediate* variable assigned in the C code will trigger *immediate* expressions that contain that variable. Several such assignments to the same *immediate* variable may be made in different sections of C code. Every new assignment changes the variable in accordance with the intended algorithm. *Immediate* variables assigned in C code must be declared as `immC bit` or `immC int` in an *iC* code section. An *immediate* variable that is assigned in C code may not also be assigned in an *immediate* assignment.

2.6.3 Aliases

Immediate arithmetic and bit assignments, in which the right hand expression consists of only a single *immediate* variable or a constant expression are accepted by the *iC* compiler, but generate no code. This type of statement is called an alias. The alias name on the left hand side is simply an alternative name for the *immediate* variable or the result of a constant expression on the right hand side. Any reference to the alias will be substituted by the right hand side variable or constant result, whose value is always the correct value of the intended assignment.

¹ see Werner Kluge: The organization of Reduction, Data Flow, and Control Flow Systems - pp. 317. The MIT Press 1992. [Kluge92]

Bit aliases may be either *normal* or *inverting*. The bit NOT operator `~` does not generate any code when used on an `imm bit` operand. All `~x` sub-expressions are implemented as inverting aliases of `x`. Thus the direct assignment of `~x` to another `imm bit` variable is also an (inverting) alias.

```
imm bit a, b;    b = a;           // b is an alias for a    (normal)
imm bit x, nx;   nx = ~x;         // nx is an alias for ~x  (inverting)
imm int j, k;    k = j;           // k is an alias for j
imm int two;     two = 2;         // two is an alias for 2
imm int area;    area = 4 * 5;    // area is an alias for 20
```

2.7 Immediate control statements

An *immediate* conditional `if else` statement and an *immediate* `switch` statement are the only control constructs available in *iC*. The syntax of both statement types is similar to their C counterpart, except that braces around the C statements are mandatory. In particular an *else if* is not allowed, since the *if* after the *else* would have been part of the C statement controlled by the *else* part of the whole *immediate if* statement, which would be very confusing.

```
if (imm_bit_expression) { C_statement_1 }
if (imm_bit_expression) { C_statement_1 } else { C_statement_2 }
switch (imm_int_expression) { C_statement }
```

These are valid *immediate* statements when they occur external to any C function. The controlling expression in each case must be an *immediate* expression. The controlling expressions in *immediate* conditional `if else` or `switch` statements are synchronized by a clock. The default clock is `iClock`, when no specific clock is coded (as in the above examples). Other clocks or timers may be specified as explained in [section 4](#). In all cases any change in the controlling *immediate* expression, synchronized by the controlling clock, triggers execution of the C statements.

2.7.1 Immediate conditional statement if else

immediate conditional statements use the keyword `if` and optionally `else`. The controlling expression for an *immediate* conditional statement is an *immediate bit* expression. If not, it is converted from `int` to `bit` automatically. A `LO` to `HI` transition or rising edge causes `C_statement_1` to be executed. A `HI` to `LO` transition or falling edge causes `C_statement_2` to be executed (if an *else* is coded). The `C_statements` are embedded C compound statements, **not** *immediate* statements.

```
%{
int a, b, c;           /* C declarations in a literal block */
void reset(void);      /* C function declaration */
}%

imm bit sw1, sw2, sw3;  // immediate declarations
imm clock cl;           // use cl rather than iClock

if (sw1 & sw2 | sw3, cl) { /* imm controlling expression */
    a = 1; b = 12; c = -2; /* C code executed on rising edge */
} else {
    reset();              /* C code executed on falling edge */
}
```

2.7.2 Immediate switch statement

For the *immediate* `switch` statement, the controlling expression is an *immediate int* expression. The `C_statement` is an embedded compound statement, which has the usual form of a C switch statement with case labels. Any change in the controlling expression triggers the switch statement. The value of that expression after the change is applied to the switch and the selected case is executed.

```
%{ enum Fuzzy { OFF, DIM, MEDIUM, BRIGHT }; %} // literal block
switch (brightness, cl) { // declared and assigned above
    case OFF:    lightVoltage(0);    break;
    case DIM:    lightVoltage(10);   break;
    case MEDIUM: lightVoltage(18);   break;
    case BRIGHT: lightVoltage(24);   break;
    default:     lightVoltage(24);   break;
} // end of immediate switch statement
```

The *immediate* conditional *if else* and *switch* statements open the way to trigger the execution of short C fragments on particular events. These events are either rising or falling edges of bit values or changing numeric values. If more than a fragment of C code is involved, it is good practice to code this in a C function, and to call that function in the *immediate* control statement. Long blocks of C code would make the purpose of those statements unclear. Depending on the time critical nature of the application, C code should not take too long to execute, because during the execution of such C fragments the processing of other immediate events is held up. Consider forking blocks of C code.

2.8 Literal blocks

Literal blocks are sections of C code enclosed in special braces `%{` and `%}`. They may occur before, between and after any *immediate* statements. Literal blocks are copied verbatim to the front of the generated C output code (without the special braces). Literal blocks are useful to declare any C variables, define macros and to declare and define auxiliary C functions to support the application. Since *iC* Version 3 any C-pre-processor commands such as `#include`, `#define` or `#ifdef` etc in a literal block are written in standard C form. They used to be `%#include` etc, which has been dropped. C-pre-processor commands for the *iC* sections of code are `%include`, `%define` or `%ifdef` etc. These are resolved before the *iC* compilation. They used to be `#include` etc before Version 3.

```
%{
#include <math.h>           /* standard C-pre-processor syntax */
int x, y, z;               /* declarations in a literal block */
int abs(int);              /* C function declaration */
%}
```

The run-time system will call the function `iCbegin()` when an *iC* application is started before any *immediate* processing. This function can be provided by the user in a literal block. If it is not provided, an empty function `iCbegin()` returning 0 is provided by the system. User implementations should return 1. One use of `iCbegin()` is to initialise `immC` variables. It may even contain a `fork()` call to spawn a child process, which will run in parallel with normal *immediate* processing. This opens up the way to build mixed applications using conventional multi-process or multi-threaded control strategies in parallel with *immediate* C code, which leaves a lot of CPU time to do other things.

The complementary function `iCend()` is called by the run-time system when an *iC* application is terminated externally (*iC* applications never terminate by themselves, unless `iC_quit()` is called in embedded C code). `iCend()` could be used to free memory allocated with `malloc` or `new`.

```
%{
int iCbegin() { ...; return 1; } /* optional C initialisation */
int iCend()   { ...; return 1; } /* optional C termination */
%}
```

If the code in literal blocks, or code in C blocks controlled by an *immediate if else* or *switch*, is specifically C++ code, then the generated code must be compiled by a C++ compiler. The use of C++ has not been tested and is deprecated. The Code generated from the *iC* statements is pure C code.

2.9 Comments

C style comments `/* ... */` can be used anywhere between tokens of *iC* programs. C++ style comments may be used at the end of *iC* lines. `// ...`

Some older C compilers do not support C++ comments, so their use in literal blocks and C statement blocks controlled by *if else* or *switch* may lead to portability problems.

2.10 Scope of immediate statements

Immediate variables are global or static and must be declared external to all C functions like other global variables in C. Moreover all *immediate* statements must also be placed external to C functions. A statement in a C function is only executed (made active) during the execution of that function. *Immediate* statements are active at all times. *Immediate* statements in a Function Block definition are a template, which is cloned, every time the Function Block is used (not called). See [section 6](#).

Consecutive *immediate* statements are **not** executed in sequence. Each *immediate* statement is independent of all other *immediate* statements. They can be placed in any order, without influencing the behaviour of the program. This is analogous to the placement of global variables and their initialisation expressions as well as the placement of functions in C.

Immediate assignments are often combined with their declarations and look like the initialization expressions of ordinary global C variables. In C, this initialization takes place before the function `main()` is started. In *iC* *immediate* statements simply stay active until the program is stopped. For most

of the time the process running the *iC* program waits in a **select(2)** call, which wakes up whenever an external input or internal timer changes, causing an interrupt. Because the processing required to react to such an input is in the order of microseconds, this strategy ensures that the CPU loading of an *iC* process is minimal. This can be observed easily with tools like *xosview* under Linux. Times measured with a modern 1.8 GHz processor were < 50 us, which is mostly overhead to get the input process scheduled. The time to execute a chain of 15 consecutive events is of the order of 5 us. This corresponds to a 0.05% loading for a process in which a chain of *immediate* actions is triggered by a 100 ms timer, of which 0.005% is actually used by the *immediate* statements. This is minimal loading of the processor. Even while debugging with a live display, the loading is only about 10% for a process executing 15 events every 100 ms.

2.11 Simple Example

The following very simple program has 4 external bit inputs and 4 external bit outputs controlling a Water Heater, so that its vessel will always be filled with hot water when it is switched on. Once water is drained from the vessel it will immediately fill with cold water and then heat it to the pre-set temperature, which is indicated by a ready light. (A lot of aliases are used to make debugging easier)

```
/* WATER HEATER PROGRAM */
imm bit on      = IX0.0;      // switch to turn system on/off
imm bit waterLo = IX0.1;      // water level, turns off when full
imm bit tempLo  = IX0.2;      // thermostat, turns off when hot
imm bit drain   = IX0.3;      // causes the vessel to drain
imm bit fill    = on & waterLo; // fill with water until full
imm bit heat    = on & ~waterLo & tempLo; // heat when full until hot
imm bit ready   = on & ~tempLo; // hot water ready light
QX0.0 = fill;      QX0.1 = heat;
QX0.2 = ready;     QX0.3 = drain;
```

2.12 Intrinsic limitations of immediate statements

Arrays of *immediate* variables have been realized and will be covered in [section 7](#). Structures containing *immediate* variables have not been realized in the current release, although they are possible and may be implemented in a future release. Pointers to *immediate* variables in *immediate* expressions are semantically indeterminate. They are therefore not implemented. This is also pointed out in one of the recommendations in the IEC-1131 standard, which justifies the language *Structured Text* instead of *C* on the grounds, that a pointer in a machine control program has no meaning and could cause disaster. The same limitation has been recognized in the language *Java*, which only recognizes references as constant pointers.

Immediate assignments, in which the left hand side variable appears in the right hand side expression are of very doubtful utility. Such a statement expresses a very tight feedback loop, which will either lock up, or generate a high speed oscillator. For this reason a warning message is generated by the *iC* compiler.

```
imm bit a, b;
a = a & b;      // a locks up when b becomes 0
b = ~b | a;     // b oscillates when a is 0
imm int j;
j = j + 1;      // j never catches up with itself
```

For the above reason the *C* assignment operators **+=**, **-=** etc. as well as **++** and **--** cannot be used in *immediate* statements. Feedback over several statements is allowed, but oscillations are controlled so that the system does not become compute bound. If oscillations do occur, a runtime warning is produced since they are probably not intended.

Like in any programming language, it is possible to write incorrect *iC* programs. It is the job of the programmer, to understand the model on which the execution of the *iC* language constructs is based, and to create programs that use these constructs correctly. *iC* is modelled on hardware building blocks, which provides an easy starting point in understanding the model ([section 8](#)).

The following was probably intended by the last statement above:

```
imm bit gate, p;
immC int j;      // j counts every rising edge
if (gate & p) { j++; } // of p, while gate is HI
```

In this example, `gate & p` is an *immediate* expression that triggers execution of the *C* statement `j++`; Assignment operators **+=**, **-=** etc. as well as **++** and **--** with *immediate* variables are normal in

embedded C statements. The above construct is one way to implement a counter in *iC*. Another way is shown in [section 3.9](#).

2.13 Pragmas

Pragmas affect the compilation phase of an *iC* program. Pragmas are introduced by the keywords `use` and `no`.

<code>use</code>	turns a pragma option on
<code>no</code>	turns it off

Currently three pragmas are implemented in *immediate C*: `alias`, `strict` and `list`.

```
use alias;      // equivalent to -A command line option
no alias;      // turn alias option off

use strict;    // equivalent to -S command line option - default
no strict;    // turn strict option off

use list;      // restore listing output from the next line - default
no list;      // suppress listing output from the next line
```

1. The `alias` pragma or `-A` command line option forces the compiler to generate a node for each alias in the generated C code (default is to generate no node). This is needed in two circumstances:
 - It is required, if an *iC* source refers to an alias in another *iC* source by an `extern` reference. Since all references to aliases are normally removed from the compiled code, the C object modules, which are generated from such code could not be linked. With the `use alias` option, the code can be linked and the remaining aliases are resolved at start up.
 - The `use alias` option is also useful for debugging. Only when it is set, are alias names displayed as active words by *iClive*.
2. The `strict` pragma or `-S` command line option (which is the default since Version 2) forces the compiler to expect a declaration of all *immediate* variables, before it is used in an expression or assigned. With `no strict` (deprecated), an `imm bit` variable is assumed for any undeclared value variable. Similarly an assignment to an undeclared name from a `CLOCK()` or `TIMER()` function call results in a default `imm clock` or `imm timer` variable. Such laxness is OK for small single source projects, but can lead to problems with larger projects. I had a case in a large project, where I had declared a number of `imm int` variables and mistyped one of them, so the correct name was not declared. This name was then assigned - but converted to `imm bit` and then back to `imm int` when used, leading to incorrect arithmetic. As noted earlier, C functions and macros should be declared `extern` with their correct parameter ramp and return value. When `strict` is active, error messages are output if an undeclared C function or macro is called in an *immediate C* expression.
3. The `no list` pragma suppresses listing output from the next line until a `use list` statement starts listing output again. Mainly used to suppress listings of function block definitions, which may be regarded as clutter. Typical use:


```
no list;          // %include "adconvert.ih"
#include "adconvert.ih"
use list;
```

Listing output is the `no list` line only. The comment is recommended, telling what will not be listed, which is the whole of the file `adconvert.ih` and the `use list` line.

Several options may be turned on or off together in one pragma call: eg. `use alias strict`;

The scope of these pragmas is a file. If a pragma is enabled in one file it carries over to an included *iC* header file. If on the other hand a pragma is changed in a header file, it reverts to its previous value in the *iC* file after the `#include` statement, which includes the header file. This makes sure that sloppy *iC* programs, which include a header file, which uses "`strict`" syntax, will not report errors, because they do not follow the "`strict`" syntax. This scope feature can only be used successfully with the `strict` and `list` pragmas, since `use alias` only comes into effect during C code generation – at this point the complete source has been parsed. This means `use alias` should definitely be used once in *iC* programs, which consists of several parts with extern references between them. Other single source *iC* programs can `use alias`, which generates slightly larger code, but which can be debugged without recompiling with the `-A` flag.

3 Built-in Functions

iC has a number of built-in functions, which are so central to the operation of the system, that they have been made a part of the language. They are implemented as efficient building blocks in the supporting run time package. All built-in functions are defined internally as pre compiled Function Blocks. All except the **FORCE** and the **LATCH** functions are clocked, which is analogous to similar functionality in hardware IC's. (parameter types shown are all *immediate* – the keyword *imm* is optional for parameters in Function Block definitions and is left out in this description for clarity).

3.0.1 **FORCE** function

The **FORCE** function has the following calling sequence and truth table:

```
imm bit FORCE(bit arg1, bit on, bit off);
```

arg1	on	off	FORCE (arg1,on, off)
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1
X	1	0	1
X	0	1	0
0	1	1	0
1	1	1	1

The **FORCE** function passes the value of *arg1* to the output if both *on* and *off* are 0 (or both are 1). If only *on* is 1 then the output is forced to 1, independent of the value of *arg1*. Conversely if only *off* is 1 then the output is forced to 0. This function is useful for testing.

3.0.2 **Unclocked flip-flop or LATCH**

The unlocked R-S flip-flop is the **LATCH** function with the following calling sequence:

```
imm bit LATCH(bit set, bit reset);
```

The following truth table describes the **LATCH** function:

set	reset	LATCH (set, reset)
		Q
0	0	Q
1	0	1
0	1	0
1	1	Q

The **LATCH** function is particularly fast and efficient, using only a single gate node ².

The **LATCH** function is generated by the more fundamental **FORCE** function as follows:

```
imm bit LATCH(bit set, bit reset)
{ this = FORCE(this, set, reset) }
```

Feedback of its own output *this* is used to hold that value at its input, unless the *set* or *reset* inputs force the output to a different value, which is then maintained.

It is of course possible to program a similar latch function with a pair of cross coupled OR gates. In *iC*. This looks as follows:

```
imm bit set, reset, Q, Qbar;
Q      = set & ~reset | ~Qbar;
Qbar   = reset & ~set | ~Q;
```

²Note the memory behaviour of the **Latch** when both *set* and *reset* is 1.

The disadvantage of this implementation is the fact that four gate nodes are required and that its function as a latch memory element is hidden. **LATCH** clearly shows its function.

3.1 Clocked D flip-flop

The simplest clocked flip-flop is the D flip-flop or delay memory element, a function having a single logic input, a clock input and an output equal to the input in the previous clock period.

```
imm bit D(bit expr, clock c);    or
imm bit D(bit expr);            /* default iClock used as clock */
```

The following truth table describes the D flip-flop:

expr D^n	D(expr, c) Q^{n+1}
0	0
1	1

The D flip-flop has become the most commonly used clocked flip-flop in hardware design. Its application is called for, when several bit expressions must produce synchronized outputs, so that any further logic done with these outputs does not suffer from timing races. A typical example is the implementation of a state machine. The D flip-flop is also a 1 bit memory element, which can store information from one clock period to the next. The D flip-flop is called for in any design where feedback is involved. The use of the clocked D flip-flop in *iC* will probably fall into a similar pattern.

Examples of statements using D flip-flops is the generation of a pulse on the rising edge of an input and of a pulse on a change of input.

```
imm bit    input;
imm bit    rise   = input & ~D(input);
imm bit    change = input ^  D(input);
```

The output **rise** goes **HI** when **input** goes **HI** and goes **LO** again when the output of the inverted D flip-flop goes **LO** after the next (implicit) clock pulse. The second example uses the exclusive-or operator **^** to generate a pulse on both the rising and falling edge of the input.

For all clocked built in functions, each parameter may have its own clock parameter. If a clock parameter is supplied it applies to all parameters on its left, which do not have their own clock. If no clock parameter is specified, the built in **iClock** is used.

3.2 Clocked SR flip-flop

The memory element that is represented in most PLC instruction sets is the R-S flip-flop. This flip-flop has two logic inputs. The rising edge of the set input puts the flip-flop in the "one" state and the rising edge of the reset input puts the flip-flop in the "zero" state. Many books on switching theory describe a simple unclocked latch memory element by the name R-S flip-flop. Following the usage in IEC-1131, and because the set parameter precedes the reset parameter in the calling sequence, the clocked Set-Reset flip-flop was named **SR** flip-flop in *iC*:

```
imm bit SR(bit set, clock sc, bit reset, clock rc);
```

set S^n	reset R^n	SR(set,sc,reset,rc) Q^{n+1}
0	0	Q^n
0/1	X	1
X	0/1	0
1	1	Q^n

A version with one set input and two reset inputs is provided (mainly to implement the full **SRT** monoflop as a function block).

```
imm bit SRR(bit set, clock sc, bit reset1, clock rc1,
             bit reset2, clock rc2);
```

The **SR** flip-flop implemented in *iC* differs marginally from the classical R-S flip-flop described in the literature, which has the disadvantage that Q_{n+1} is undefined for R and S both "one". The design rules for the R-S flip flop state that R and S must never be "one" together. Since this would cause unwarranted confusion the implementation with the above truth table was chosen, which gives identical results with designs following the rules of the classical R-S flip-flop. If the rule of both inputs "one" is ignored, the results are still easy to interpret. For the above reasons clocked R-S flip-flops are rare as integrated circuits.

3.3 Clocked JK flip-flop

Instead **JK** flip-flops were made in hardware. They toggle their output on every clock pulse, when J and K are both "one". In recent years even these have not been listed in the IC data books. A **JK** flip-flop has been implemented in *iC*:

```
imm bit JK(bit set, bit reset, clock c);
equivalent to SR(set & ~Q, reset & Q, c);
```

set	reset	JK(set,sc,reset,rc)
J^n	K^n	Q^{n+1}
0	0	Q^n
1	0	1
0	1	0
1	1	$\sim Q^n$

3.4 Clocked SRX flip-flop

In practice the simple clocked **SR** flip-flop can be difficult to control under the following conditions:

A 0/1 set transition has occurred which sets the flip-flop and some time later a 0/1 reset transition occurs which resets it, while set is still a 1. Even if reset goes back to 0, the set input is not active again until it goes back to 0 and then to 1 again. This works well in many situations, but can be counter intuitive. For this reason the **SRX** flip-flop or the **JK** flip-flop can be used more effectively.

```
imm bit SRX(bit set, clock sc, bit reset, clock rc);
equivalent to SR(set & ~reset,sc, reset & ~set,rc);
```

set	reset	SRX(set,sc,reset,rc)
S^n	R^n	Q^{n+1}
0	0	Q^n
0/1	0	1
0	0/1	0
1	1	Q^n
1\0	1	0
1	1\0	1

When both set and reset are 1, then both internal S and R inputs are 0. If there is a 1\0 transition on either set or reset, then the alternate input has a 0/1 transition, which sets or resets Q.

3.5 D flip-flop with Set and Reset

D flip-flops may have an optional reset input. Another option is to have both a set and reset input as well as the D input. The names of these variants indicate which parameters are required (clocks are optional):

```
imm bit D( bit expr, clock c);          /* simple D flip-flop */
imm bit DR( bit expr, clock c, bit res, clock rc);
imm bit DSR(bit expr, clock c, bit set, clock sc,
            bit res, clock rc);
```

3.6 Mono-Flop *ST*(set, timer, delay) or *SRT*(set, reset, timer, delay)

The Mono-Flop, or *ST*() function is a modified *SR* flip-flop, in which the output is internally connected back to a timed reset input. This internal reset is usually clocked by a *TIMER*, which is controlled by a delay parameter. The delay parameter may have a fixed or variable numeric value. The *ST* mono-flop output is reset, when the number of *TIMER* ticks corresponding to the value of "delay", from the moment when the *ST* was set, has occurred.

```
imm bit ST(bit set, clock sc, timer tim, int delay); or
imm bit ST(bit set, clock sc, clock tc);
```

The *SRT* mono-flop has an additional reset parameter, which can reset the mono-flop prematurely. The *SRT* mono-flop is based on the *SRR* flip flop, which has two reset inputs.

```
imm bit SRT(bit set, clock sc, bit res, clock rc, clock tc);
```

Instead of clocking with a delay *TIMER*, any clock may be used as the last parameter of the *ST* mono-flop, which is then reset on the next clock pulse after it has been set. The last timer, delay or clock must be specified – it may be *iClock* in which case a thin pulse is produced - one fundamental clock period wide. Both set (and reset in the case of *SRT*) can have clock parameters – default is *iClock* if none are provided.

3.7 Sample and Hold

This function is a direct analogy of the clocked *D* flip-flop for numeric values. The numeric output equals the numeric input in the previous clock period.

```
imm int SH(int arithmeticValue, clock c);
```

The sample and hold function can be used to sample fast changing numeric inputs at a constant clock rate. Other uses are the implementation of many useful constructs such as state machines, counters and shift registers, to name a few.

```
imm int count = SH(count + 1, c);    // count clock c pulses
// shift register with b as input in the least significant bit.
imm bit b;                            // b assigned somewhere else
imm int shift = SH((shift << 1) + b, c);
```

3.8 Sample and Hold with Set and Reset

The Sample and Hold function also comes with either reset or set and reset inputs. When the reset input is clocked, the output is set to all 0's. By analogy when the set input is clocked the output is set to all 1's. The inputs *set* and *reset* are *imm bit* expressions; whereas the first input *arithmeticValue* and the output are *imm int*.

```
imm int SHR( int arithmeticValue, clock c, bit res, clock rc);
imm int SHSR(int arithmeticValue, clock c, bit set, clock sc,
              bit res, clock rc);
```

3.9 Edge detectors

It is often useful to generate a pulse on the rising and/or falling edge of a logical signal or on a change of numeric value. These pulses should turn off at the next clock. In connection with the *D* flip-flop, expressions were shown which generate such pulses. Since these operations are quite important, the following more efficient functions are implemented in *iC*.

```
imm bit RISE(bit expr, clock c);      // pulse on rising edge
imm bit FALL(bit expr, clock c);      // pulse on falling edge
imm bit CHANGE(bit expr, clock c);    // pulse on both edges
```

The *CHANGE* function is also implemented for arithmetic expressions. The output is nevertheless of type *imm bit*.

```
imm bit CHANGE(int arithExpr, clock c); // pulse on every change
```

The *bit* output pulses every time *arithExpr* changes, qualified by the clock *c*. The clock limits the rate at which changes are recognized. This is often useful with numeric values, which may change at a high rate, and a slower sampling rate is called for.

The pulse outputs of all edge detectors are just long enough, so that they catch the next clock pulse after the edge, but only that one clock pulse – not more. When the output of an edge detector is used

directly or indirectly as input of another clocked function with the same clock, correct synchronization is achieved. Edge detectors **RISE**, **FALL** and **CHANGE** are an important part of PLC instruction sets.

Note: there is a significant difference between the output of the **RISE** function and the output of the **ST** mono-flop. The output of the **RISE** function turns on with the rising input signal and turns off again on the next clock. The output of the mono-flop turns on with the next clock after the set signal and turns off with the next clock after that, which is one clock pulse later, assuming the same clock is used for set and internal reset. When the two clocks are different, which is usual for **ST** mono-flops, the case is different again.

4 Clock Signals

There are two types of clock signal, '**imm clock**' and '**imm timer**'. It is important to realize that clock signals are not of the same type as logic or numeric signals of type '**imm bit**' or '**imm int**'. Clock signals are declared as follows:

```
imm clock myClock;
imm timer myTimer;
```

Under no circumstances may clocks be interconnected with logic or numeric signals. Any attempt to do so generates an error message. Clock signals in *iC* are best thought of as timeless pulses, whose occurrence marks the separation of one clock period from the next along the time axis. All clocked functions in *iC* follow the *Master-Slave* principle. The *Master* element in a D flip-flop follows the input. The output of this *Master* gate is transferred to the *Slave* element during the active phase of the next clock pulse. The output of the *Slave* element is the output of the D flip-flop. All *Master-Slave* transfers during one particular clock pulse are completed before more combinatorial bit or arithmetic expressions are executed. This insures that the outputs of all functions, which are synchronized by the same clock, change simultaneously as far as the input logic is concerned.

Clock signals can come from four different sources:

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| 1. The built-in iClock , which is signal type | imm clock |
| 2. The CLOCK function, which generates type | imm clock |
| 3. The TIMER function, which generates type | imm timer |
| 4. The TIMER1 function, which also generates type | imm timer |

4.1 Built-in immediate clock

There is a built-in *immediate* clock with the name **iClock**. This clock runs at the highest system rate. **iClock** is used as the default clock, when no other clock is specified. It may also be specified by the name **iClock** when no default clock is allowed by the syntax of a function call.

```
x = SR(set, reset); // set and reset clocked by built-in iClock
y = SR(set, iClock, reset, rc); // clock for the set argument
                                   // must be named if different
                                   // from the reset clock rc
```

4.2 CLOCK function

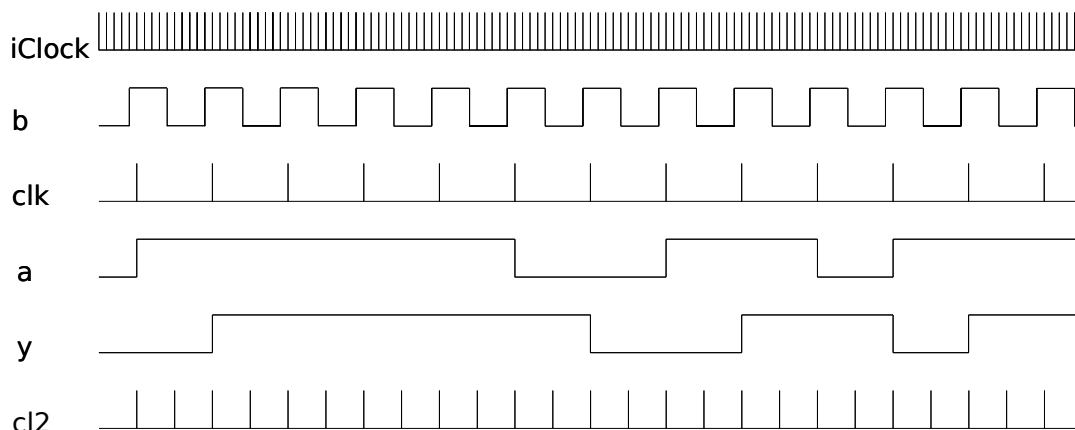
The second source of clock signals is the **CLOCK** function, which has one or two logic inputs – each with an optional clock input. The **CLOCK** function produces an output **clock** pulse during the active phase of the input clock, which follows a **LO** to **HI** transition of one of the logic inputs. If no **clock** input is specified, **iClock** is used. All **CLOCK** outputs are synchronous with their input clock.

```
imm clock CLOCK(bit in, clock c);      or
imm clock CLOCK(bit in1, clock c1, bit in2, clock c2);
```

```

imm clock clk = CLOCK(b);    // 'clk' on the rising edge of b
                             // clocked by next 'iClock' (default)
imm bit   y   = D(a, clk);   // D flip-flop clocked by 'clk'
imm clock c12 = CLOCK(b,~b); // clock on rising and falling edge
                             // of b, both clocked by 'iClock'

```



4.3 TIMER function

The third source of clock signals is the **TIMER** function, which also has one or two logic inputs – each with an optional **clock** input. The output generated by the **TIMER** function are of signal type **imm timer** and are generated in precisely the same way and at the same time as **clock** pulses from a **CLOCK** function with the same inputs. **timer** pulses differ from **clock** pulses in the way they are used. Input parameters of type **timer** are followed by an optional delay parameter, which may be a constant value or an arithmetic expression (if missing a value of 1 is used). The current value of the delay expression is read on the rising edge or change of the associated input, and the result **n** is used to count **timer** pulses. The output is changed by the **n**'th **timer** pulse after the changing input. Use of a **clock** rather than a **timer** changes the output of a function on the next **clock** after a change in input. If the delay value **n** of a **timer** call is 0 - or on the falling edge of a logic input for a function other than the **SH**, **CHANGE** or **switch** function - the output is changed immediately by the next **iClock**. For a **SH**, **CHANGE** or **switch** function the input is usually arithmetic and those functions are timed on all changes of input, even if they are a logic input, which is possible for the **CHANGE** function.

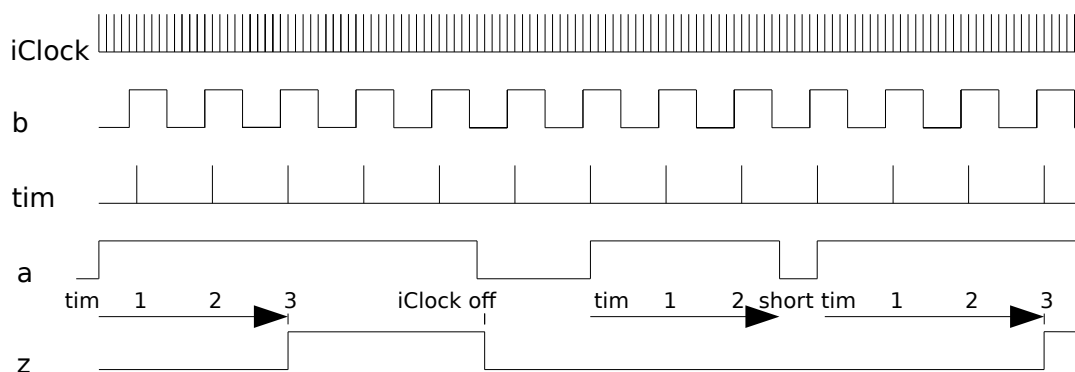
```

imm timer TIMER(bit in, clock c);    or
imm timer TIMER(bit in1, clock c1, bit in2, clock c2);

imm timer tim = TIMER(b);           // 'tim' on the rising edge of b
                                     // clocked by next 'iClock' (default)
imm bit   z   = D(a, tim, 3);        // D flip-flop clocked by 'tim',
                                     // turn on delayed by 3 'tim' pulses,
                                     // immediate turn off clocked by 'iClock'

```

The following diagram shows the behaviour of a **TIMER** generated **timer** for different length's of input 'a' relative to the **timer** 'tim' pulses:



A D flip-flop clocked with a `timer` generates a function with turn on delay. If the logic input to such a delay element turns off before the delay time is up, the output never turns on. This is a very useful function to implement time-outs, which are notoriously difficult to implement by conventional means.

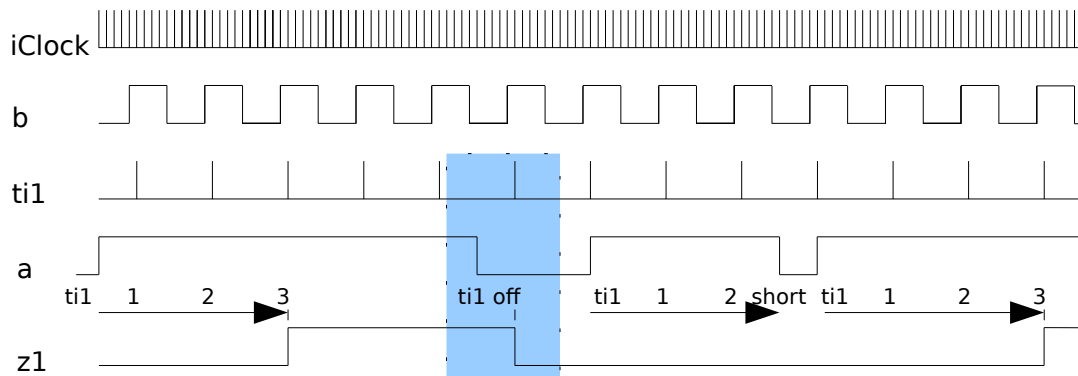
4.4 *TIMER1* function

The fourth source of clock signals is the `TIMER1` function, which is very similar to the normal `TIMER` function. The signal type generated is `imm timer` – the same as the type generated by a normal `TIMER`. The only difference is the way in which a 0 delay and the falling logic input is handled, when a `timer`, generated by the `TIMER1` function controls a clocked function. A 0 delay is handled like a delay of 1 – turn on is at the next `timer` pulse. On the falling edge of the input the output is clocked on the next `timer` pulse, rather than by the next `iClock`, which is the case for `TIMER` generated `timer` signals unless the input is to an `SH`, `CHANGE` or `switch` function, in which case the falling edge is also timed – just like for the `TIMER` function. A `TIMER1` generated `timer`, used with a delay of 1 (or 0), functions identically to a `CLOCK` generated `clock` signal, except there is a small, but significant amount of overhead in handling `timer` signals. For this reason `CLOCK` functions are to be preferred – their use is very fast.

```
imm timer TIMER1(bit in, clock c); or
imm timer TIMER1(bit in1, clock c1, bit in2, clock c2);

imm timer ti1 = TIMER1(b); // 'ti1' on the rising edge of b
                        // clocked by next 'iClock' (default)
imm bit z1 = D(a, ti1, 3); // D flip-flop clocked by 'ti1',
                        // turn on delayed by 3 'ti1' pulses,
                        // turn off clocked by next 'ti1'
```

The following diagram shows the different turn-off handling for a `TIMER1` generated `timer` (in the shaded area):



`CLOCK`, `TIMER` and `TIMER1` functions have optional clock inputs, which may come from other `CLOCK` or `TIMER` functions. All `CLOCK`, `TIMER` or `TIMER1` outputs are synchronous with their input clock(s). This absolute synchronisation is an important aspect of the robust performance of clocked *immediate* C applications. The cascading of clocked functions allows the realization of many useful applications.

5 Inputs and Outputs

5.1 Built-in Inputs

There are a number of inputs, which have such universal significance, that they are implemented in the run time system.

5.1.1 *iClock*

There is a built-in *immediate* clock with the name `iClock`. This clock runs at the highest system rate. The name `iClock` is built-in and may be used as defined above in [section 4.1](#).

Because secondary clocks either use `iClock` by default, or another clock that is eventually clocked by `iClock`, all clocks (and timers) are synchronous with `iClock`. The execution of *immediate* logic is triggered by some input, which causes evaluation of follow up statements, until no more changes occur. `iClock` generates a clock pulse after every such burst of activity in the logic. `iClock` has the same significance for *immediate* logic as the end of the program cycle in a conventional PLC. The main difference is, that for a conventional PLC all statements are executed for each program cycle. For *immediate* logic only the changes triggered by one or at most a few simultaneous inputs are executed for each program cycle. This typically takes a few microseconds at most for a modern processor. There are support tools which can measure and display this time in microseconds.

5.1.2 Timing and miscellaneous inputs

To allow programs to work with real time, the following timing inputs have been provided as internal inputs in *iC*:

```
TX0.3 or T10ms      // 10 ms, 5 ms on, 5 ms off
TX0.4 or T100ms     // 100 ms, 50 ms on, 50 ms off
TX0.5 or T1sec      // 1 second, 500 ms on, 500 ms off
TX0.6 or T10sec     // 10 seconds, 5 seconds on, 5 seconds off
TX0.7 or T1min      // 1 minute, 30 seconds on, 30 seconds off
```

These are `imm bit` inputs, not `imm clock` signals. They are mainly used to generate clocks or timers, which are synchronous with real time. For example:

```
imm clock clk100ms = CLOCK(T100ms);           // clock every 100 ms
imm timer tim500ms = TIMER(T1sec, ~T1sec);    // timer every 500 ms
```

The following miscellaneous internal inputs will be discussed in later examples.

```
TX0.0 or EOI        // off during initialization, then always on
TX0.1 or STDIN      // notification of a line of standard input
```

The aliases `T10ms`, `T100ms`, `T1sec`, `T10sec` and `T1min` for the IEC-1131 names `TX0.3` - `TX0.7` as well as `EOI`, `STDIN`, for `TX0.0`, `TX0.1` are compiler generated when those words are used in expressions. `LO` is a compiler generated `imm bit` variable with no input and `HI` is generated as the alias of `~LO`. They are all keywords in the *iC* language and may not be declared a second time. Bit constants `LO` and `HI` are provided to fill unneeded `bit` call parameters required by a function block.

The rising edge of `EOI` (end of initialisation) is guaranteed to be the first input to the system and can be used for initializing user constructs. It starts `LO` and then is `HI` for the remainder of the program (forever as far as applications are concerned)

Keyboard or other input received from standard input (`stdin`) causes an interrupt every time a line terminated by a carriage return has been received. This interrupt causes `STDIN` to pulse `HI` for one `iClock` period. The data from `stdin` is available in the global C array `char iC_stdinBuf[]`.

5.2 External Inputs and Outputs

Input and Output names in *iC* follow the IEC-1131 standard. Inputs start with the letter **I**, outputs with the letter **Q**. These are followed by a second letter, which defines the type of the input or output. **X** defines a byte of 8 bit I/O variables. **B** defines a numerical byte I/O variable, **W** a 16 bit word I/O and **L** a 32 bit long word I/O variable. The 2 capital letters are followed by a number, which defines the address index of the variable in the I/O field. For bit I/O variables the address is followed by a full stop and a number in the range 0 to 7, marking the bit address of the actual bit variable in the addressed I/O byte. The maximum address index that can be used depends on the implementation of the driver and the underlying hardware. Addresses in the I/O field may be used for bit, byte, word or long word I/O. If all of these are in the same physical address space, care must be taken not to overlap different types of I/O. For some drivers byte addresses for 16 and 32 bit word I/O variables must be on a 16 bit word or a 32 bit long word boundary respectively. The *iC* compiler can generate warnings if I/O fields overlap. In the default case, each size variable is assumed to be in its own address space and the address of each variable is simply an index into each of these address spaces.

5.2.1 Digital inputs

IX0.0	bit 0 of input byte 0 - pre-declared as imm bit
IX0.1	bit 1 of input byte 0
IX0.2	bit 2 of input byte 0
IX0.3	bit 3 of input byte 0
IX0.4	bit 4 of input byte 0
IX0.5	bit 5 of input byte 0
IX0.6	bit 6 of input byte 0
IX0.7	bit 7 of input byte 0
IX1.0	bit 0 of input byte 1
IX1.1	bit 1 of input byte 1
IX1.2	bit 2 of input byte 1
IX1.3	bit 3 of input byte 1
IX1.4	bit 4 of input byte 1
IX1.5	bit 5 of input byte 1
IX1.6	bit 6 of input byte 1
IX1.7	bit 7 of input byte 1
IX2.0	bit 0 of input byte 2
IX2.1	bit 1 of input byte 2
...	

5.2.2 Digital outputs

QX0.0	bit 0 of output byte 0 - pre-declared as imm bit
QX0.1	bit 1 of output byte 0
QX0.2	bit 2 of output byte 0
QX0.3	bit 3 of output byte 0
QX0.4	bit 4 of output byte 0
QX0.5	bit 5 of output byte 0
QX0.6	bit 6 of output byte 0
QX0.7	bit 7 of output byte 0
QX1.0	bit 0 of output byte 1
QX1.1	bit 1 of output byte 1
QX1.2	bit 2 of output byte 1
QX1.3	bit 3 of output byte 1
QX1.4	bit 4 of output byte 1
QX1.5	bit 5 of output byte 1
QX1.6	bit 6 of output byte 1
QX1.7	bit 7 of output byte 1
QX2.0	bit 0 of output byte 2
QX2.1	bit 1 of output byte 2
...	

5.2.3 Analog inputs

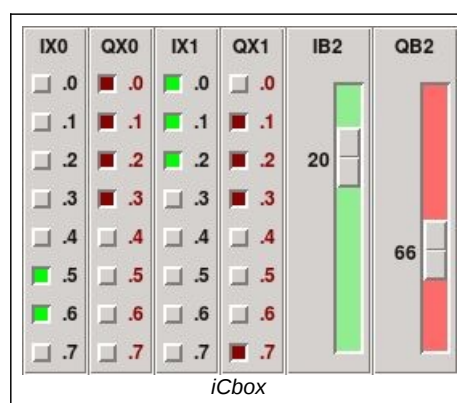
IB3	input byte 3 - pre-declared as imm int (8 bit input)
IB4	input byte 4
IB5	input byte 5
IB6	input word 6
IB7	input byte 7
IW8	input word 8 (16 bit input)
IW10	input word 10
IW12	input word 12
IW14	input word 14
IL16	input long 16 (32 bit input)
IL20	input long 20
IL24	input long 24
IL28	input long 28
...	

5.2.4 Analog outputs

QB3	output byte 3 - pre-declared as imm int (8 bit output)	
QB4	output byte 4	
QB5	output byte 5	
QB6	output byte 6	
QB7	output byte 7	
QW8	output word 8	(16 bit output)
QW10	output word 10	
QW12	output word 12	
QW14	output word 14	
QL16	output long 16	(32 bit output)
QL20	output long 20	
QL24	output long 24	
QL28	output long 28	
...		

The IEC-1131 names above define the physical addresses of inputs and outputs in the I/O field. Standard practice for PLC I/O electronics is to package I/O units in narrow plug in units, which are labelled as shown on the right. The *iCbox* simulated I/O widget emulates this scheme, showing the relationship of physical addresses to their IEC-1131 names.

For more readable applications it is highly recommended, that alternate descriptive names are defined for IEC-1131 input and output names. This would normally be done in a table of alias assignments at the start of an *iC* program. One advantage of this scheme is, that if an input or output is physically moved to another I/O pin, only 1 statement in the source needs to be changed.



It was common practice at one factory automation company that I worked for in Australia to run large bunches of unlabelled wires from plant switches and actuators to the PLC connection field. The only identification was grey for inputs and brown for outputs as well as some other colours for analog inputs and outputs. All these wires were randomly terminated at the PLC. The first action when commissioning was to activate each switch in the plant and note which input came up at the programming unit. Similarly for the outputs. Then an alias table was written into the program and from then on everything worked according to the PLC program, which was written in terms of descriptive I/O names. This procedure saved a large amount of time of tedious labelling, which also tends to be error prone.

```

imm bit   waterLo, motorOn, heaterOn;
imm int   waterTemp, motorSpeed;

waterLo   = IX1.3;           // these statements define aliases
waterTemp = IB2;             // which produce no run-time overhead

QX10.2    = motorOn;         // here the IEC-1131 names are the
QX10.3    = heaterOn;        // aliases, which is appropriate
QW8       = motorSpeed;      // for outputs

```

IEC-1131 I/O variable names are pre-declared as immediate variables in *iC* program code and as rvalues in C code, but they are not defined for assignment in embedded C code. IEC-1131 output variables which are going to be assigned in C code must be declared with an `immC bit` or `immC int` declaration in an *iC* code section.

6 User defined *immediate* Function Blocks

User defined *immediate* functions are commonly called function blocks in the PLC world, because they act more like functional blocks or templates rather than functions in the instruction flow sense, where a function evaluates a sequence of instructions whenever it is called. An *immediate* Function Block is a separate *immediate* subsystem with *immediate* parameters which are its inputs and outputs from other section of the *immediate* system, optional internal *immediate* variables, which must be declared inside the Function Block and an optional *immediate* return value, which may be used like any other immediate value – in an expression – assigned to an immediate variable or used as an input parameter in a built in function or function block call. Only standard IEC-1131 I/O variables may be used in a Function Block without being declared, although they may only be used as inputs, since any assignment to an I/O variable such as QX0.0 inside a Function Block would lead to a multiple assignment, once the Function Block is used more than once. Another way to look at an *immediate* Function Block is like a higher level or LSI integrated circuit, which has connections into the system and provides a certain complex functionality with many internal components and connections.

6.1 *immediate* Function Block Definition

An *immediate* Function Block must be defined before it is used. Since the definition of a Function Block does not itself generate any C Code on compilation it can be and usually is defined with its code body in a header file, if multiple source files are used for a project. For small projects with a single source file Function Blocks can be defined at the start of the source file.

immediate Function Block definitions are very similar to C functions, although there are significant differences in detail. The definition of an *immediate* Function Block consists of a return value type, a Function Block name, a comma separated parameter list in parentheses and a function body in curly braces, e.g.

```
imm bit fall(bit f, clock c) { this = RISE(~f, c); }
```

The return value may be one of 5 types:

```
imm bit
imm int
imm clock
imm timer
imm void          // which means no value is returned
```

The **imm** modifier is mandatory for the return type – it identifies an immediate Function Block Definition syntactically. The Function Block name can be any valid name starting with a letter followed by any number of alphanumeric characters or underscores. A leading underscore is possible, but should be avoided. The name must be distinct from all other immediate variable names in a project. The individual formal parameters in the parameter list must be of the following types:

```
imm bit          // or simply bit          // imm is implied
imm int          // or int
imm clock        // or clock
imm timer        // or timer
const int        // call parameter must be a constant expression
```

It is also possible to specify **immC** **bit** and **immC** **int** Arrays in the formal parameter list as follows:

```
immC bit bb[10] // or bit bb[10] // immC is implied
immC int aa[]   // or int aa[]   // size is optional
```

The **imm** modifier (or **immC** for arrays) is optional for parameters in a parameter list. The variable declared is nevertheless immediate. Parameters may be either input value parameters, in which case only their type is written in the list or the parameter may be an immediate output to which a value from the Function Block is to be assigned. In this case the type of the parameter must be preceded by the keyword **assign**.

```
assign imm bit // or assign bit
```

Array parameters cannot be assigned. If the size in square brackets is left out for an array parameter, that position can be filled by an array of any size – there is one drawback – no indexed array references to that array can be made in the *iC* code of the Function Block.

The body of a Function Block is one or more immediate statements defining the functionality of the block encoded in curly braces. Immediate variables internal to the function must be declared before use in the Function Block. Parameter names and internal variable names are in a separate name

space for each function block, which is also separate from the global name space. If a Function Block is not `imm void` the body must contain a `return` statement. The semantics of the `return` statement is the assignment to the variable to which the Function Block is assigned, when it is called. This variable, which is identified by the keyword `this`, may be used in other expressions inside the Function Block. The preferred way to write the `return` statements is:

```
this = some + immediate + expression;    // preferred return syntax
```

The usual C syntax may also be used, but does not make the action as clear:

```
return some + immediate + expression;    // deprecated earlier syntax
```

The `return` statement need not be the last statement in the Function Block definition – its position does not influence when it is executed – that is controlled purely by changes in the values of the variables making up the `return` statement – something which holds for all *immediate* statements. This situation is more clearly expressed by the assignment to `this`. An `imm void` Function Block has no `this` variable, may not contain a `return` statement and may not be assigned when called.

Each `assign` parameter must be on the left side of an assignment statement in the Function Block. The values of `assign` parameters may be used inside the Function Block. Each variable declared inside the Function Block must also be assigned in the Function Block. Variables declared `extern` outside or inside the Function Block may not be assigned to inside the Function Block. As is the case with I/O variables (which are implicitly `extern`). `extern` variables may only be used as values inside the Function Block. They may not be declared again as local inside the Function Block. Variables declared `extern` in a Function Block may be declared after the definition of the Function Block in the *iC* code following the definition. This declares that the variable will be assigned in this module. A variable with the same name as an `extern` variable may be declared locally in another Function Block, but it is a different formal variable local to that Function Block.

All *immediate* statement types – assignments, *if else*, *switch*, Built in Function calls and previously user defined Function Block calls may be used in Function Block definitions. Function Blocks may be nested to any depth as long as Function Blocks are used, which have previously been fully defined. This implies that Function Blocks cannot be called recursively, either directly or indirectly. Function Blocks may be very simple one line definitions or complex systems with hundreds of parameters. Several examples follow:

The SRX flip-flop is built into the compiler, but defined in just this way during initialisation of the compiler. Since Version 2 of the compiler, all built in functions are defined as Function Blocks.

```
/* SRX flip-flop defined as a function block */
imm bit srx(imm bit set, imm clock scl,
            imm bit res, imm clock rcl)
{
    this = SR(set & ~res, scl, res & ~set, rcl);
}
```

The CountClk function adds 'increment' to 'this' for every occurrence of 'clk':

```
imm int CountClk(imm clock clk, imm int increment)
{
    this = SH(this + increment, clk);
}
```

The CountBit function adds 'increment' to 'this' for every rising edge of 'step':

```
imm int CountBit(imm bit step, imm int increment)
{
    this = CountClk(CLOCK(step), increment); // nested call
}
```

The SelectClk function selects either a 100 ms or a 1 second clock with variable 'second':

```
imm clock SelectClk(imm bit second)
{
    this = CLOCK(TX0.4 & ~second |           // 100 ms
                 TX0.5 &  second );         // 1 second
}
```

The following function block ADConvert assigns the conversion of `int val` to 8 `assign bit` variables `b0` to `b7` passed as parameters (`imm` is implied for value and `assign` parameters).

```

/* Analog to digital conversion of a byte value */
imm void ADConvert(int val,           // input parameter
                  assign bit b0,      // output parameters
                  assign bit b1,
                  assign bit b2,
                  assign bit b3,
                  assign bit b4,
                  assign bit b5,
                  assign bit b6,
                  assign bit b7,
                  )
{
    b0 = val & (1 << 0);              // assignments to outputs
    b1 = val & (1 << 1);
    b2 = val & (1 << 2);
    b3 = val & (1 << 3);
    b4 = val & (1 << 4);
    b5 = val & (1 << 5);
    b6 = val & (1 << 6);
    b7 = val & (1 << 7);
}

```

Note: the parameter list may have a trailing comma before the closing parentheses. This is generally the case for comma separated lists in *iC* and makes it easier to edit the lists and copy parameters when written vertically, which is useful for large parameter lists.

The *iC* compiler builds a template of the Function Block, replacing each parameter and internally declared variable by the name of the Function Block followed by a '@' and the formal parameter or declared variable name. This strategy ensures a private name space for each Function Block. When called, the template is copied, with each formal parameter replaced by its real parameter and internally declared variables replaced by the formal name with the '@' replaced by an underscore '_' followed by an instance number and another underscore. The instance number scheme ensures that there is no clash of compiler generated variable names (even for separately compiled modules).

6.2 immediate Function Block Call

An *immediate* Function Block is called in a similar fashion to a C function, again with some significant differences. In practice *immediate* Function Blocks are not called. When the compiler encounters a Function Block call, the pre-compiled Function Block, which is a template, is cloned, with all calling parameters and internal variables replacing the formal parameters and formal internal variables in the template. The resulting network of individual nodes associated with the call will then be used at run-time like the network of nodes generated from all other immediate statements.

If an `imm void` function is encountered it looks like a subroutine call:

```

ADConvert (IB1,
          QX0.0, QX0.1, QX0.2, QX0.3,
          QX0.4, QX0.5, QX0.6, QX0.7,
          );

```

This statement will assign bits 0 to 7 of IB1 to QX0.0 to QX0.7 whenever IB1 changes.

A Function Block with a return value must either be assigned to a suitable variable or else it must be used as a value of a suitable type in an expression or in a parameter list. An `imm bit` Function Block may be used as an `imm int` value and vice versa – appropriate conversion takes place. `imm clock` and `imm timer` Function Blocks can either be assigned to correctly declared `clock` or `timer` variables or else used as a `clock` or `timer` value in a parameter list.

```

/* count every rise of IX1.0 */
imm int count = CountBit(IX1.0, 1);

/* selects 1 sec when IX1.7 is on else 100 ms */
imm clock clk = SelectClk(IX1.7);

```

Real parameters of type `imm int` and `imm bit` may be mismatched with their formal parameter types – value and assign parameters in the call will be forced to their formal type. `assign` parameters of type `imm clock` and `imm timer` must match – so must a value parameter of type `imm timer`. Real `immC` Array parameters are only the name of a previously declared `immC` Array of the same type as the formal parameter. The size must also match unless the formal parameter did not specify a size.

The handling of formal `imm clock` parameters is more complex, allowing the use of default clocks. Positions for formal `imm clock` parameters which do not immediately follow another formal clock parameter are handled as follows:

1. The position may be filled by a real `imm clock` parameter.
2. The position may be filled by a real `imm timer` parameter followed by an optional `imm int` delay (if delay is left out it will be set to 1).
3. The position may be left out altogether, in which case the next clock or timer parameter on the right separated by at least one non clock parameter will be replicated for the position. If there is no real clock parameter following on the right, `iClock` will be used.

On the other hand the second of two consecutive formal clock parameters must be matched by a real clock or by a real timer parameter optionally followed by an `imm int` delay parameter. If the first of the formal clock pair is not matched by a real clock or timer parameter, it and all unmatched formal clock parameters to the left will be set to `iClock`.

These rules for optional clock parameters are the same as for the clocked built-in functions `D`, `SR`, `SRR`, `SH`, `SHR`, `SHSR`, `RISE`, `CHANGE`, `CLOCK`, `TIMER` and `TIMER1` as well as for the `if` and `switch` statements.

Real `timer` parameters for formal `timer` parameters cannot be extended by a delay – the delay used is determined in the Function Block with delay(s) associated with the use of the formal `timer` parameter in the code of the Function Block.

Formal parameters of type `const int` must be filled by a constant value or constant expression when called. `const int` parameters can be used in Function Blocks as initialiser values for `immC` variables and index values for `immC` array members, which must be constants. They can also be used as timer delay values and generally in immediate arithmetic expressions.

The following are calls of the `SRX()` Function Block with two formal clock parameters – one each for set and reset and the `ST()` function block with two consecutive formal clock parameters – one optional for set and the second a non optional delayed self reset timer or clock.

```
imm clock clk0 = CLOCK(IX1.0), clk1 = CLOCK(IX1.1);
imm timer t = TIMER(IX1.2);
imm bit s, r;
imm bit m1 = SRX(s, clk0, r, clk1);    // uses individual clocks
imm bit m2 = SRX(s, t, 3, r, t, 5);    // individual timer delays
imm bit m3 = SRX(s, r, clk1);          // same clock for s and r
imm bit m4 = SRX(s, r, t, 5);          // one timer for s and r
imm bit m5 = SRX(s, clk0, r)           // default iClock for r
imm bit m6 = SRX(s, iClock, r, clk1);  // must specify iClock here
imm bit m7 = SRX(s, r);                // default iClock for both

imm bit m8 = ST(s, clk0, t, 5);         // t is not optional
                                         // because it fills 2nd formal clock

imm bit m9 = ST(s, t, 5);              // iClock for s - t is not optional
```

7 Arrays

Arrays in conventional instruction flow languages are a named collection (often of fixed length) of similar variables, which are accessed by an index expression, eg `a[5]`. Each such entity is an individual object, but in instruction flow languages the index is often a variable, which is manipulated in a loop and references to the individual indexed entities occur sequentially, as in the following C example:

```
for (n = 0; n < 4; n++) {
    a[n] = b[n] * c[n];
}
```

7.1 Immediate Arrays

In data flow languages like *immediate C* loops at run-time are meaningless. Each *immediate* variable is an entity, which is controlled by one assignment statement. The variable changes, when a variable in the expression of the controlling statement changes and not when some loop runs. It is well to remember, that *immediate* variables and their controlling expressions are more like IC building blocks connected in a static network. In that sense *immediate* Arrays are like hardware registers containing a number of hardware objects, which act out their individual function inside the hardware IC register.

Arrays may be defined in *immediate C*, but each entity acts individually at run-time, which means that an individual *immediate* object must be generated for each *immediate* array member.

7.2 Use of immediate Arrays

Arrays in conventional languages as well as in *immediate C* give programmers extra capabilities to express themselves. These fall into two distinct categories:

1. Arrays allow the writing of repeated similar statements as one statement – this saves a lot of writing, but could also be done without arrays.
2. Additionally arrays allow the parametrisation of the array length, both within the program source and in the command line of the compiler, which is probably more important. For *immediate C*, this makes possible the writing of control programs in which the number of control elements or groups is variable and the actual number is not bound until compile time. This would not be possible without arrays in the language.
3. Arrays are also useful to select another variable in one indexing operation. If the index is itself a variable, this sort of operation can only be done in embedded C code in *immediate C* using *immC* variables whose changes can act back in normal *iC* code. To allow this sort of fast access, *immC* Arrays have been implemented in *iC* – they are discussed at the end of this chapter in [section 7.6](#). Note: *immC* arrays are not part of the extended *iCa* language.
4. The definition of dynamic arrays, whose sizes change at run-time is meaningless for a data flow language and is not possible in *immediate C*.

An example of the usefulness of arrays in the language would be an *iC* program controlling lifts in a building. The number of floors varies from building to building – so do the number of parallel lifts, which may be required. With arrays, a single *iC* program can be written, which can be compiled for a different number of floors and a different number of parallel lifts as follows:

```
immac -P FLOORS=12 -P LIFTS=2 liftControl.ica
```

7.3 Implementation of immediate Arrays

Since each immediate array member is an individual immediate object at run time, it is important for debugging with *iClive* to be able to have a listing showing each individual array member – not just its collective form, eg `a[N]`. To achieve this, an *iC* program containing arrays is translated by the pre-processor *immac* to *iC* code without arrays. This is a simple text operation in which macros are expanded, loops are unrolled and index expressions are evaluated.

The *iC* language with arrays has four additional language extensions:

1. C or Perl-style 'FOR' loops, which define a loop variable and a range.
2. C or Perl-style 'IF', 'ELSE IF' and 'ELSE' statements ('ELSIF' is a synonym for 'ELSE IF')
3. Index expressions in square brackets, which allow the definition of array variables – usually in a loop.
4. Macro definitions, which are processed directly by *immac* - can be defined in two ways:

- in C-pre-processor style with `%%define` instead of `#define`, eg
`%%define FLOORS 12`
- in the command line, just like for a C compiler, eg
`-P FLOORS=12`

Macros will mostly be used inside the square brackets of an array variable or in the control line of a 'FOR loop', but they can be used anywhere in the *iC* code or in the definition of another `%%define` macro – macros may be nested. The above implies, that the *immac* pre-compiler could be used as a macro pre-processor for *iC* programs without any arrays at all.

Note: *immC* Arrays are part of *iC* and are not handled by the *immac* pre-compiler.

iC programs containing the above four extensions are called *iCa* programs and should be written in a file with the extension `.ica` – the *immac* pre-compiler translates an *iCa* program to an *iC* program with the extension `.ic` in which macros and 'FOR loops' are expanded and *immediate* array instances are converted to simple *immediate* variables. The following *iCa* snippet in file `lift.ica`

```
%%define FLOORS 4
FOR (N = 0; N < FLOORS; N++) {{
    imm bit liftTo[N] = up[N] | down[N];
}}
```

expands to the following *iC* file `lift.ic` when compiled by *immac*:

```
imm bit liftTo0 = up0 | down0;
imm bit liftTo1 = up1 | down1;
imm bit liftTo2 = up2 | down2;
imm bit liftTo3 = up3 | down3;
```

The 'FOR loop' is executed at compile time and generates repeated copies of the statement(s) in the compound statement controlled by the loop. This only makes sense, if there are elements in the loop statement(s), which are modified by index operations using the control variable of the 'FOR statement' – in the above example that is the variable `N`.

The translation of indices in square brackets is carried out in two steps:

1. The expression in square brackets is evaluated as an integer expression.
2. The numerical value produced replaces the square brackets and the expression it contains.

In the above example the index expressions are simply the variable `N`. But the index expressions can be more complex. A feature of *iCa* indexing may seem strange at first, but it turns out to be very useful; the square bracketed index expression may be placed anywhere in a word, not only at the end of a word. It may even be placed on its own – in that case the expression is evaluated and becomes a suitably modified integer constant in an *iC* statement. The following example shows both:

```
FOR (N = 0; N < 7; N++) {{
    QB[N] = IB[N+1] * [N+2];
    QX[N/8].[N%8] = IX[N/8].[N%8] & IX[10+(N/8)].[N%8]; // out: [N]
}}
```

expands to :

```
QB0 = IB1 * 2;
QX0.0 = IX0.0 & IX10.0; // out: 0
QB1 = IB2 * 3;
QX0.1 = IX0.1 & IX10.1; // out: 1
QB2 = IB3 * 4;
QX0.2 = IX0.2 & IX10.2; // out: 2
QB3 = IB4 * 5;
QX0.3 = IX0.3 & IX10.3; // out: 3
QB4 = IB5 * 6;
QX0.4 = IX0.4 & IX10.4; // out: 4
QB5 = IB6 * 7;
QX0.5 = IX0.5 & IX10.5; // out: 5
QB6 = IB7 * 8;
QX0.6 = IX0.6 & IX10.6; // out: 6
```

As shown above, index expressions may even be used in comments. This can be useful, because the expanded *iC* text must later be used for debugging with *iClive* – the original text with 'FOR loops' and index expressions is not meaningful for following the values of actual nodes at run-time. The above

example already gives a hint of how much writing can be saved. The way I/O bit variables following the IEC-1131 standard are expanded is particularly useful.

The *iCa* extensions to the *iC* language can be embedded as additional lines in regular *iC* code. A `%%define` macro definition may **not** be embedded in the middle of a line of *iC* code – not even between *iC* statements, which have been written in one line. This limitation is similar to the limitations imposed by the C pre-processor `cpp` on the C language.

7.3.1 FOR loops

'FOR loops' follow the syntax of C 'for statements' with the difference, that the word **FOR** is upper case (to avoid clashes with 'for statements' in embedded C code) and the controlled *iC* code **must** be enclosed in twin braces (single braces are required for *immediate* **switch** and **if else** statements as well as for function block bodies):

```
FOR (expr1; expr2; expr3) {{
    iC code, which is repeated under control of the loop
    or nested 'FOR loops'
}}
```

The only restrictions are:

1. Each 'FOR statement' must define one (and only one) control variable, which is an `int` by default:

```
FOR (N = 0; N < 10; N++) or FOR (int N = 0; N < 10; N++)
```

The control variable is the first 'word' of `expr1`, which is not '`int`' i.e. **N** in the example. The word '`int`' in the second form is optional and can be written to remind programmers, that the control variable is an integer. The control variable cannot be declared anywhere else.

2. Other atoms in the three expressions must be either constant expressions or expressions which contain control variables of the current and/or outer 'FOR loops'. All expressions may contain macros, which must expand to integer constants, strings or expressions containing valid 'FOR' loop control variables. Under no circumstances may *immediate* variables be used in these expressions.
3. The names of control variables must be different from any *immediate* variable. It is highly recommended, that upper case names be used for 'FOR loop' control variables. This and the upper case keyword 'FOR' and the twin braces `{ { }` make these code generating statements in the *iCa* language stand out from normal *iC* and C code.
4. The scope of the control variable of a 'FOR loop' begins when the control variable is initialised in the 'FOR statement' and ends with the final matching twin braces. The control variable is not valid outside of this scope. 'FOR loop' control variables will never appear in the generated *iC* files (except as comments if the `immac -a` option is used).

Since *immac* is implemented as a Perl script, an alternate Perl type of 'FOR loop' using a list in various forms may also be used.

```
FOR N (<Perl type list>) {{
    iC code, which is repeated under control of the loop
    or nested 'FOR loops'
}}
```

Similar restrictions to those above apply. The variable after the 'FOR' is the loop control variable. It may optionally be preceded by the word '`int`'. The control variable is given each value of the 'Perl type list' for each iteration of the loop. Some powerful manipulations are possible with this form. Although a perlsh syntax is used in the second form of the `FOR` control statement, any variables in either form follow the C syntax for scalar variables – they are never preceded by a `$` as in Perl.

```
FOR int N (0 .. 3) {{ a[N], }}
```

internally generates the following Perl code (see optional .log file)

```
$out = ""; for my $N (0 .. 3) {$out .= " a@{[$N]},";} print $out;
```

which is executed as an eval to generate the following output:

```
a0, a1, a2, a3,
```

iC code embedded in twin braces is repeated without a LF, if the final braces are on the same line as the *iC* code. The same can be achieved by terminating an *iC* code line with a back slash '\', which works as follows:


```
FOR int N (0 .. 3) {{
    a[N],\
}}
```

generates the same as above.

Lists in the second form of the 'FOR loop' may be made up of decimal numbers or strings. Strings may be embedded in parentheses although lists of bare words will also be interpreted as strings.

```
imm int FOR N ("in", "out", "tmp") {{ fast_[N], }};
```

generates

```
imm int fast_in, fast_out, fast_tmp,;
```

The above *iC* declaration would have produced a syntax error until recently. The *iC* language has been extended to allow such comma separated lists to have a final comma before the semi-colon to end the statement. This is in line with other comma separated parameter lists, which may also have an extra comma at the end.

Again the same can be achieved with backslashes. The following (with barewords in the list) generates the same output as above, although this *iCa* snippet is not nearly as readable:

```
imm int\
FOR N (in, out, tmp) {{
    fast_[N],\
}}\
;
```

As shown above, lines terminated by a back-slash (\) are output without starting a new line – this makes it possible to generate lists in a single line. This applies both inside a 'FOR loop' and directly before and after a 'FOR loop'. The end of the 'FOR loop' would normally terminate such a generated list, unless the final brace of the 'FOR loop' is also followed by a back-slash (\) as shown in the generated function block call statement in the last example above.

For those who don't like to see a comma followed by a semicolon ',' at the end of a declaration, a special characteristic of *iCa* index expressions can be used (see next paragraph). The value in square brackets may be strings as well as numbers, since they are actually generated by Perl code. To generate a variable length – single line – declaration, use the following:

```
imm bit FOR N (0 .. 5) {{ a[N] [N < 5 ? "," : ";"] }}
```

generates

```
imm bit a0, a1, a2, a3, a4, a5;
```

Each execution of the second conditional index expression `[N < 5 ? "," : ";"]` in the loop generates a single comma, which is appended – the last execution of the index expression generates a semi colon.

The 'FOR statements' for both types of 'FOR loop' and the the associated twin braces are not copied to the target except as comment lines, if the **-a** option is active for the **immac** compiler.

7.3.2 IF ELSE control statements

Sometimes it is necessary to suppress the output of code lines in a 'FOR loop' or to supply one or more alternative output lines depending on some condition of the existing loop variables. This can be achieved with an 'IF' or 'IF ELSE' control statement. The syntax and semantics is identical to C 'if' or 'if else' statements – except that again the 'IF' and 'ELSE' keywords are upper-case not lower-case. Even one or more 'ELSE IF' statements may follow an initial 'IF' statement followed by a final (optional) 'ELSE' statement. ('ELSE IF' may be written as 'ELSIF' – it is translated to this form anyway to execute as Perl code). The 'IF' conditional expression in parentheses may only contain existing 'FOR loop' control variables and constants. No new control variable can be defined. Again *immediate* variables may not be used in these expressions. The *iC* or *C* code controlled by an 'IF', 'ELSE IF' or 'ELSE' statement must be contained in twin braces (like the 'FOR loop'). The following generates the same as example above:

```
imm bit FOR N (0..5) {{ IF (N < 5){{ a[N], }} ELSE {{ a[N]; }} }}
```

7.3.3 Index expressions

Index expressions are expressions in square brackets usually involving loop control variables and integer constants. Unlike in other computer languages these 'index' expressions can be placed anywhere in the *iC* code – not just as an index of an array variable. *immediate* array variables cannot

even be declared directly – they come into existence as simple immediate variables by evaluating the index expression and replacing the square brackets by the numeric or string result of that evaluation. The underlying simple *immediate* variables must of course be declared (unless `not strict` (which you wouldn't, would you)). Such a group declaration is best done as follows:

```
FOR (N = 0; N < 10; N++) {{
    imm bit a[N];
}}
```

Normally the square brackets are placed after a name, which then makes the array variables look like those in C. But there are special cases where the square bracketed index expression is placed somewhere else, as we saw in the earlier examples (computing IEC-1131 I/O variable names).

The semantics of index expressions is, that the expression in square brackets is evaluated during the execution of the *immac* compiler (written in Perl) as a Perl eval. The numerical or string result of the eval replaces the square brackets and the expression they enclose. When the index expression is a simple array reference, this generates a name followed by a number. The fact that evaluation of the index expressions is done by Perl means, that the expression syntax and semantics of Perl integer arithmetic apply, since `use int` is declared in the *immac* compiler. Since most arithmetic operators are the same for Perl and C, this is not of great consequence. One notable exception is the Perl exponentiation operator `**`, which may be used in `FOR` loops and index expressions with good effect:

```
FOR (J = 0; 2**J < 16; J++) {{
    imm int mask[J] = [2**J];
}}
```

generates

```
imm int mask0 = 1;
imm int mask1 = 2;
imm int mask2 = 4;
imm int mask3 = 8;
```

Any *iC* or C code may have strings which contain the backslashed characters `'\n'` or `'\t'`, which stand for a Newline or a Horizontal tab both in C or in Perl and also in *iC*. These special characters do not actually execute as a Newline or a Tab until the final machine code executes.

```
FOR (I = 0; I < 4; I++) {{
    printf("Hello world\t%d\n", [I]);
}}
```

generates

```
printf("Hello world\t%d\n", 0);
printf("Hello world\t%d\n", 1);
printf("Hello world\t%d\n", 2);
printf("Hello world\t%d\n", 3);
```

Not brilliant code but notice that `'\t'` and `'\n'` are correctly preserved in the generated *iC* code strings.

An exception to this rule are `'\n'` and `'\t'` characters contained in string expressions of an *iCa* index expression in square brackets. These `'\n'` and `'\t'` characters are converted to a Newline or Tab directly in the conversion from *iCa* to *iC* code. This allows the embedding of real Newlines or Tabs in lists of *iC* code generated by a `FOR` loop.

```
imm int trans = \
FOR (I = 0; I < 16; I++) {{
    IX[I/8].[I%8][I==16-1?" ":"I%4==3?" |\n\t\t": " | "]\
}} // | NL TAB TAB after each group of 4 generates:

imm bit trans = IX0.0 | IX0.1 | IX0.2 | IX0.3 | NL
TAB TAB = IX0.4 | IX0.5 | IX0.6 | IX0.7 | NL
TAB TAB = IX1.0 | IX1.1 | IX1.2 | IX1.3 | NL
TAB TAB = IX1.4 | IX1.5 | IX1.6 | IX1.7;
```

Normally index expressions occur in *iC* code in a '`FOR` loop'. I deliberately say *iC* code and not *iC* statements, because '`FOR` loops' are used not only to generate lists of statements, but also lists of parameters – both for the definition and the call of function blocks, whose parameter lists can be varied at compile time. Another use is varying constant parameters. Inside a '`FOR` loop' or a nest of '`FOR` loops', the *iC* code usually use the '`FOR` loop' control variable(s) in the index expression(s) to make each repeated *iC* code line different.

For index expressions in *immediate C* code outside of a 'FOR loop', the expression must be a constant expression – no variables are allowed (remember no 'FOR loop' control variables are in scope anyway). Nevertheless an *iC* variable, which must be used as an indexed array variable inside a 'FOR loop' looks better if it follows the same syntax outside of the loop. The variable `a[1]` could of course be written as `a1` – this is the same immediate variable. But inside a loop it must be written as `a[N]` and only the varying value of `N` will generate `a0 a1 a2` etc.

Index expressions in embedded C code – either in a literal block or in a compound C statement controlled by an *immediate* `if else` or `switch` statement may have index expressions, but they are part of the C code and are not changed except index expressions, which contain an in-scope 'FOR loop' control variable. This means that the translation of constant index expressions – as described in the previous paragraph – are not carried out in embedded C code. In the rare instances where such a translation is needed, it must be done manually – write `a1` instead of `a[1]`.

A special case in embedded C code occurs, if a numerical value generated by the control variable of a 'FOR loop' must be placed inside the square brackets of a C array reference. This can be done by simply embedding the *iCa* index expression in the C index expression – eg:

```
if (IX0.0) {
    int carray[3];           // start of embedded C code
    FOR (N = 0; N < 3; N++) {{
        carray[N] = icarray[N];
    }}
}
```

generates

```
if (IX0.0) {
    int carray[3];           // start of embedded C code
    carray[0] = icarray0;
    carray[1] = icarray1;
    carray[2] = icarray2;
}
```

As can be seen in the above example, *iCa* 'FOR loops' may be embedded in C code – this is the reason why the keyword 'FOR' was chosen instead of 'for' – the C code may also contain C 'for statements'.

7.3.4 *immediate Array syntax*

To sum up, immediate arrays are not declared as such – variable names are used with index expressions in square brackets. The programmer must be aware that this generates simple *immediate* variables starting with the array name followed by a number. Such generated variable names cannot be used anywhere else – this would show up as a multiple declaration during *iC* compilation. If we use a one-dimensional array in an *iCa* program – eg `sa`, any array reference will simply have a number appended to the array name in the generated *iC* code.

```
i = 2,          sa[i]      generates sa2
i = 22,         sa[i+1]    generates sa23
```

A special case are multi-dimensional arrays. If we use the standard C syntax to write a multi-dimensional array reference, eg `ma[i][j]`, and the *immac* pre-processor did not take special action, we would get the following compile output for the following pairs of index values:

```
i = 2,  j = 34    ma[i][j] would generate ma234 // NOT output
i = 23, j = 4     ma[i][j] would generate ma234 // NOT output
```

This would be unsatisfactory, because it is ambiguous – therefore *immac* inserts a letter `x` between adjacent index expressions, producing the following output instead:

```
i = 2,  j = 34    ma[i][j] generates ma2x34
i = 23, j = 4     ma[i][j] generates ma23x4
```

This is no longer ambiguous. Any multiple index is separated by an `x`, which is easily recognised in the generated *iC* code as a member of a multiple-dimensional array – even the numerical index values can be recognised easily in the generated names.

Both in C and by analogy in *immediate C* with arrays (*iCa*), array names and the index expressions in square brackets (and of course the expressions in the square brackets) may be separated by spaces and tab's – as follows:

```

i = 2, j = 34    ma [ i ] [ j ]    still generates ma2x34
i = 23, j = 4   ma [ i ] [ j ]    still generates ma23x4

```

One caveat applies for **immac**: such an array name with all its subsequent square bracketed index expressions must be in the same line. (In C any sort of white space is allowed).

Another case where **immac** inserts an extra character are array names which finish with a numeral. This could also lead to ambiguity if special action were not taken:

```

i = 2,          sa9 [ i ]          generates sa9y2
i = 22,         sa9 [ i+1 ]        generates sa9y23

```

Although the way **immac** handles array names, which finish with a numeral avoids ambiguity, such names should be avoided, because in the generated *iC* code they look too much like expanded array names with an extra index, which could easily lead to clashes. To avoid this clash a *y* is inserted in this case.

String index expressions in square brackets, which contain a string value in parentheses, eg

```
[N < MAX ? ", " : ";"]
```

are not separated from an adjacent index expression by *x* or *y*.

In every case, the names generated from single- and multi-dimensional array references are well formed *iC* variables, which show their name and index value(s). The main thing to remember with array references is, that every array reference translates to a simple *iC* variable name, which shows up in the generated *iC* code, which will normally be a lot longer than the *iCa* code, but which must be used for live debugging with **iClive**. The mental translation between indexed array references and the resolved *iC* names is so simple, that it should not cause any problems to the user.

7.4 **immac** Macro facility

The pre-compiler **immac** provides a full macro facility very similar to that provided by the C pre-processor **cpp**. Object like macros without parameters as well as function like macros with parameters in parentheses are supported. The keyword to introduce an **immac** macro definition is **%%define** not **#define**; that is reserved for **cpp** or **immac -m**. The latter is an alternative to **cpp** and is used in conjunction with the full *iC* compiler **immcc** to resolve C type macro's in embedded C code fragments.

```
%%define LENGTH 4
```

The same macro term **LENGTH** could also be pre-defined in the command line with the **-P** option:

```
immac -P LENGTH=8
```

Unlike **cpp**, the definition in the command line has precedence over the definition with a **%%define** line in the program. This allows *iCa* programs to define default values for macro terms, which can be re-defined in the command line. It is an error to **%%define** a macro, which has been previously defined (except on the command line - the new definition is ignored). The command **%%undef X** will undefine the macro X, which can then be re-defined. This is important if an internal definition is to have precedence over a (possible) command line definition – do a **%%undef** first. It is not an error to **%%undef** a non-existing macro.

Macros must be a word starting with a letter or underscore followed optionally by letters underscores or decimal digits (same as a C or *iC* identifier). It is highly recommended that letters in a macro are all upper case (same recommendation as for **cpp**). Macro replacements can be any sort of text, which may also include previously defined macros. For replacement as index values, they should of course reduce to numeric values or string constants.

```

%%define WIDTH (5+1)          /* C comment */
%%define AREA  (LENGTH * WIDTH) // C++ comment

```

If a replacement text is longer than one line, each line except the last must finish with a backslash \. As shown above **%%define** lines may be terminated with a C or C++ comment. Replacement texts may also contain embedded C comments, which will be replaced by a single space on expansion. Multiple spaces will be replaced by one space (same as **cpp**). As with 'FOR loop' control lines, a C comment must finish on the **%%define** line. Replacement texts for function like macros should contain at least one sample of each parameter text. If not a warning will be issued.

Parameters may be 'stringified' in the replacement by preceding them with a single **#**. Two parameters or indeed any words may be concatenated by placing **##** between them. Every effort has been made to obtain the same translations for replacement texts as those obtained by using **cpp**.

There are some deliberate minor differences. Replacements which resolve to a constant arithmetic expression involving only the operators + - * / and % as well as () decimal integers and spaces are evaluated in the definition. This brings error messages a little closer to the source of any erroneous constant expression. The final result is the same though.

For the above macro **immac** translates `%%define AREA` to 48 whereas **immac -m** and **cpp** translates `#define AREA` to `(8 * (5 + 1))`.

The `%%define` lines are not copied to the target except as comment lines, if the `-a` option is active for the **immac** compiler.

Macro replacements may be made in all parts of the *iCa* code. They are of course particularly useful to parametrise the termination of a 'FOR loop' and hence the number of blocks of *iC* code, which is generated by the 'FOR loop'.

File inclusion with `%%include "file"` and conditional compilation with `%%ifdef`, `%%ifndef`, `%%if`, `%%elif`, `%%else`, `%%endif` and `%%error` are also supported using the same rules as **cpp**. The word 'defined' in an `%%if` or `%%elif` expression has the usual **cpp** meaning - it is set to 1 (true) if defined else 0 (false). Identifiers in such an expression which are not defined in a previous `%%define` or `-P` are also set to 0 (false).

When **immac** is called with the `-m` option it simply becomes a macro processor handling `#define`, `#undef`, `-D`, `-U`, `#include`, `#if`, `#else` etc. No *iCa* constructs are translated in this mode. Every attempt has been made to make **immac -m** equivalent to **cpp**.

7.5 Differences between *iC* and *iCa* code

Straight *immediate C* code is usually made up of short statements declaring the relationship between input and intermediate variables to output or intermediate variables - very similar to PLC code, which is easy to understand by technicians. It presents a clean picture of control expressions acting on control variables, which build up to a clear picture of the interactions with the plant to be controlled. This interaction is most clearly visible when a live display is active, where individual changes in the real plant parameters show up as state information in the code. This PLC style of coding is a very important aspect of producing *immediately* understandable and straight forward control programs. This was the most important design consideration for the *immediate C* language.

On the other hand *iCa* code with arrays introduces another level of algorithmic loops, control statements and indexing in the middle of *iC* code for generating larger blocks of *iC* code. Frankly the actual *iC* code required is hidden quite deeply and it requires a certain amount of skill when developing *iCa* code snippets, to simply concentrate on what is to be generated and adjust the looping and control algorithms accordingly. Frequently translating the code with the **immac** compiler is the best way to see that what is generated is really the *iC* code envisaged. In fact I found it important to code a small block of *iC* code first to lay down the control strategy. Once that is fixed, repeating statements can be rolled into loops fairly easily. Comparing the generated code with the hand coded part using **diff** confirms that *iCa* loop and control algorithms are correct.

Here is a hand coded *iC* program segment which need to be variable in length:

```
imm bit m0, m1, m2, m3, m4, m5, m6, m7, m8;

QX0.0 = m0 = SR(~m8,      m8 & ~m1, c0);
QX0.1 = m1 = SR(~m8 & m0, m8 & ~m2, c0);
QX0.2 = m2 = SR(~m8 & m1, m8 & ~m3, c0);
QX0.3 = m3 = SR(~m8 & m2, m8 & ~m4, c0);
QX0.4 = m4 = SR(~m8 & m3, m8 & ~m5, c0);
QX0.5 = m5 = SR(~m8 & m4, m8 & ~m6, c0);
QX0.6 = m6 = SR(~m8 & m5, m8 & ~m7, c0);
QX0.7 = m7 = SR(~m8 & m6, m8,      c0);
QX1.0 = m8 = SR(~m8 & m7, m8 & ~m0, c0);
```

This is the required *iCa* code which looks rather ghastly but does generate blocks of any length:

```

%%define LAST 8          // iC code snippets are highlighted
immC bit FOR (I = 0; I <= LAST; I++) {{ m[I], }};

FOR (I = 0; I <= LAST; I++) {{
QX[I/8].[I%8] = m[I] = SR(~m[LAST]\
IF (I == 0) {{["", " ]}} ELSE {{ & m[I-1],}} m[LAST]\
IF (I == LAST-1) {{["", " ]}} ELSE {{ & ~m[(I+1)%(LAST+1)],}} c0);
}}

```

A larger example if *iCa* code is the [Parcel Sorter \(section 7.7\)](#).

7.6 immC Arrays

immC Arrays are arrays of *immC bit* or *immC int* variables of the same type as its members. They are part of the *iC* language proper and are translated by the *immcc* compiler. (not *immac*)

Just like ordinary *immC* variables indexed references to an *immC* Array may be used as immediate values in both *iC* and C code, but they may only be assigned and changed in C code – either in *if* *else* or *switch* C code fragments or in literal blocks. Another limitation is, that *immC* Array indexed value references in *iC* code may only use a constant expression index. Such an indexed variable is an alias for the *immC* member referred to and as such simply provides some syntactic sugar. In the example below, *bb[0]* is the same as *bx* - it simplifies coding though. Whole *immC* Arrays may be passed by name in a Function Block call, if the Function Block definition specifies an *immC* array in that position in its formal parameter list.

immC Arrays are declared in *iC* code – either with or without a list of named members.

```

immC int aa[3];          // immC int aa0, aa1, aa2; corres-
                        // ponding to aa[0] aa[1] and aa[2]
                        // are automatically generated

immC bit bx, by, bz;     // the immC members in an initialiser
immC bit bb[] = { bx, by, bz }; // list may be pre-declared
immC bit cc[3];

```

A declaration of an *immC* Array without a member list must specify a size. The member names automatically generated follow the same pattern as *imm* Arrays resolved by *immac* – the name of the array followed by a number equal to the index. This choice was deliberate. Multi-dimensional *immC* arrays have not been implemented.

For an array with a member list the size specification is optional, but must equal the number of members in the list if it is specified. The names in the member list can be any previously declared *immC* variable – they may even be indexed references of a previously declared *immC* Array. If not previously declared, the members are generated in the array declaration, just like automatic members.

```

immC bit ccr[3] = { cc[2], cc[1], cc[0] }; // reverse of cc[3]

```

immC Arrays may be used in another source if they have been previously declared *extern*. The *extern* declaration must match the final declaration exactly. The size must match and if a member list is provided it must also be provided identically in the *extern* declaration. Only that way can the members of an *immC* Array be used correctly both in *iC* code and C code of another source file.

```

extern immC int aa[3];

extern immC bit bx, by, bz;
extern immC bit bb[] = { bx, by, bz };

extern immC bit cc[3];
extern immC bit ccr[3] = { cc[2], cc[1], cc[0] };

```

An *immC* Array knows its own size and a run time warning occurs if an indexed reference is not within the size range of the array. An indexed reference, which is out of range returns *bit* or *int* 0.

immC Arrays may be passed as formal parameters in a function block definition (section 6.1). A formal array parameter is a name followed by square brackets which either contain a numeric size or is empty. If a size is given (*b[4]*), the call to that function block must provide a previously declared array of exactly that size. In this case *iC* code in the function block can also access the array. If no size is specified (*a[]*), any size array can be provided in the call. That array can only be accessed in C code in the function block. It is up to the C code algorithm to make sure that index values are within range.

The built in *iC* operator `sizeof array` returns the number of elements of an **immC** array (not its size in bytes). The `sizeof` operator works best in C code fragments where its value is dynamic at run time. It also works in *iC* code, where its value is determined at compile time. A difference occurs in function blocks which have been passed an array of indeterminate size (`a []`) as a parameter. Only the `sizeof` operator in C code will return the actual size of the array passed in a call. Since in this situation only indexed references in C code fragments are possible, the `sizeof` test in the C code is appropriate.

`sizeof` may be used to test index values to produce own error strategies. The following must be true:

`index < sizeof array`

The following *iC* code triggers 1 of 100 **ST()** mono-flops selected by the int variable `selIndex` on the rising edge of the bit variable `trig`. For each `trig` event only one of the **immC** members of the **immC** array `selGate[]` fires. The whole triggering would be done in about 2 usec on a modern processor.

```

/*****
 *      Select 1 of 100 output gates
 *****/

imm timer tick;          /* timer to produce delay time of selected gate */
imm bit  trig;           /* short pulse to initiate selection */
imm int  selIndex;       /* numerical index of the selected gate */

immC bit  selGate[100]; /* immC Array declaration */

%{ int    temp; %}       /* C variable temp used only in C code */

if (trig & selIndex < sizeof selGate) { /* rising trig /
    temp = selIndex; /* assignment to C variable temp */
    selGate[temp] = 1; /* variable indexed array reference in C code */
} else { /* falling trig */
    selGate[temp] = 0; /* temp is changed on the next rising trig */
}

imm bit gate0 = ST(selGate[0], tick, 10); // start mono-flop for 10 tick
imm bit gate1 = ST(selGate[1], tick, 10);
imm bit gate2 = ST(selGate[2], tick, 10); // constant indexed array
imm bit gate3 = ST(selGate[3], tick, 10); // references in iC code
imm bit gate4 = ST(selGate[4], tick, 10);
imm bit gate5 = ST(selGate[5], tick, 10);
imm bit gate6 = ST(selGate[6], tick, 10);
imm bit gate7 = ST(selGate[7], tick, 10);
imm bit gate8 = ST(selGate[8], tick, 10);
imm bit gate9 = ST(selGate[9], tick, 10);
imm bit gate10 = ST(selGate[10], tick, 10);
imm bit gate11 = ST(selGate[11], tick, 10);
imm bit gate12 = ST(selGate[12], tick, 10);
imm bit gate13 = ST(selGate[13], tick, 10);
imm bit gate14 = ST(selGate[14], tick, 10);
imm bit gate15 = ST(selGate[15], tick, 10);
imm bit gate16 = ST(selGate[16], tick, 10);
imm bit gate17 = ST(selGate[17], tick, 10);
imm bit gate18 = ST(selGate[18], tick, 10);
imm bit gate19 = ST(selGate[19], tick, 10);
...
imm bit gate90 = ST(selGate[90], tick, 10);
imm bit gate91 = ST(selGate[91], tick, 10);
imm bit gate92 = ST(selGate[92], tick, 10);
imm bit gate93 = ST(selGate[93], tick, 10);
imm bit gate94 = ST(selGate[94], tick, 10);
imm bit gate95 = ST(selGate[95], tick, 10);
imm bit gate96 = ST(selGate[96], tick, 10);
imm bit gate97 = ST(selGate[97], tick, 10);
imm bit gate98 = ST(selGate[98], tick, 10);
imm bit gate99 = ST(selGate[99], tick, 10);

```

This is a great efficiency improvement over the only previously possible *iC* strategy – a comparison statement in each of the 100 triggering lines. In this code each of the 100 expressions

`selIndex == 0, selIndex == 1, selIndex == 2` etc

is executed every time `selIndex` changes. This would use up about 100 usec of CPU time.

```

/*****
 *      Old style select 1 of 100 output gates
 *****/

imm timer tick;          /* timer to produce delay time of selected gate */
imm bit   trig;          /* short pulse to initiate selection */
imm int   selIndex;      /* numerical index of the selected gate */

imm bit gate0 = ST(trig & selIndex == 0, tick, 10); // start mono-flop
imm bit gate1 = ST(trig & selIndex == 1, tick, 10);
imm bit gate2 = ST(trig & selIndex == 2, tick, 10);
imm bit gate3 = ST(trig & selIndex == 3, tick, 10);
imm bit gate4 = ST(trig & selIndex == 4, tick, 10);
imm bit gate5 = ST(trig & selIndex == 5, tick, 10);
imm bit gate6 = ST(trig & selIndex == 6, tick, 10);
imm bit gate7 = ST(trig & selIndex == 7, tick, 10);
imm bit gate8 = ST(trig & selIndex == 8, tick, 10);
imm bit gate9 = ST(trig & selIndex == 9, tick, 10);
imm bit gate10 = ST(trig & selIndex == 10, tick, 10);
imm bit gate11 = ST(trig & selIndex == 11, tick, 10);
imm bit gate12 = ST(trig & selIndex == 12, tick, 10);
imm bit gate13 = ST(trig & selIndex == 13, tick, 10);
imm bit gate14 = ST(trig & selIndex == 14, tick, 10);
imm bit gate15 = ST(trig & selIndex == 15, tick, 10);
imm bit gate16 = ST(trig & selIndex == 16, tick, 10);
imm bit gate17 = ST(trig & selIndex == 17, tick, 10);
imm bit gate18 = ST(trig & selIndex == 18, tick, 10);
imm bit gate19 = ST(trig & selIndex == 19, tick, 10);

...
imm bit gate90 = ST(trig & selIndex == 90, tick, 10);
imm bit gate91 = ST(trig & selIndex == 91, tick, 10);
imm bit gate92 = ST(trig & selIndex == 92, tick, 10);
imm bit gate93 = ST(trig & selIndex == 93, tick, 10);
imm bit gate94 = ST(trig & selIndex == 94, tick, 10);
imm bit gate95 = ST(trig & selIndex == 95, tick, 10);
imm bit gate96 = ST(trig & selIndex == 96, tick, 10);
imm bit gate97 = ST(trig & selIndex == 97, tick, 10);
imm bit gate98 = ST(trig & selIndex == 98, tick, 10);
imm bit gate99 = ST(trig & selIndex == 99, tick, 10);

```

7.7 Parcel Sorter

The following example `sortm28.ica` is a controller for a full scale application which required all the space and speed resources of a PLC in the mid 80's. This project for a parcel sorting system for the Australian Railways prompted the author to look at alternate event driven systems for machine control.

The program is meant to control 4 high speed belts moving at 5 metres/second generating independent strobe pulses for every 15 mm movement of the belt. That means a strobe pulse every 3 ms. Each belt is normally equipped with 32 destination gates spaced 12 strobe pulse apart and open for 10 strobe pulses (in practice this must be 72 strobe pulses or more).

This implementation was written as an *iCa* language file with arrays (see [section 7](#)), which can be scaled to any number of gates per belt. The *iCa* version shows the full use of **FOR** loops, **IF ELSE** code selection and Macros.

The compiled *iC* program `sortm28.ic` shows a version with only 8 destination gates. It makes use of the **TIMER** clock function, which is meant to step the timer tick for every increment of the belt (in the original parcel sorter this was obtained from a toothed wheel on the drive shaft). **TIMERs** are very efficient, because parallel delays are handled simultaneously by the one **TIMER** by storing deltas in a list of timed events and counting down only the delta at the head of the list. This can be seen in action in the traces produced by **GTKWave** shown at the end of this example.


```

/*****
*
*   Parcel sorter control - using analog memory for destinations
*
*****/

use strict;
%%define GATES          8                // number of gate destinations per belt
%%define GATES_2        ((GATES-1)/2)
%%define GATE_OFFSET    12
%%define GATE_FACTOR    "34 / 3"        // 11.333 no parentheses
%%define GATE_OPEN      10

/*****
*   Step timer
*****/

imm timer tick = TIMER(TX0.4, ~TX0.4);

/*****
*   Destination selection inputs
*****/

FOR (J = 0; (1<<J) < GATES; J++) {{
imm bit inp[J] = IX[(1<<J)/8].[ (1<<J)%8]\
  FOR (I = (1<<J)+1; I < GATES; I++) {{
    IF (I & (1<<J)) {{                // uses every 2nd input
[I%8 == ((1<<J)&7) ? "\n\t\t" : " | "]IX[I/8].[I%8]\
    }}\
  }};

}}
imm bit trans = RISE(
  IX0.0\
FOR (I = 1; I < GATES; I++) {{[I%8==0?"\n\t\t":" | "]IX[I/8].[I%8]}});

/*****
*   Generate analog value of destination
*****/

imm int dest = [GATES > 1 ? "inp0" : "0"]\
  FOR (J = 1; 1<<J < GATES; J++) {{ + inp[J]*[1<<J]}};    // dest =

/*****
*   Generate delay along sorting belt.
*   This delay value changes every time one of the destination
*   selection inputs 'IX0.0 - IX[(GATES-1)/8].[ (GATES-1)%8]' is activated.
*   This delay is used to set a delay timer immediately.
*   NOTE: GATE_FACTOR_ can be a fractional factor by putting it in
*   double quotes
*****/

imm int del = GATE_OFFSET + dest * [GATE_FACTOR];    // del =

/*****
*   As parcels travel along the sorting belt there have to be a
*   number of simultaneous delay timers 'pt' - one for each group.
*   Worst case is a delay timer per gate if parcels are all for
*   the final destination and placed on the belt as fast as possible.
*
*   A timer should only be used, if the timers in the previous
*   groups are already running. That makes simultaneous parallel
*   timers for each parcel input possible. The same applies to the
*   logic opening the gates, which may also happen simultaneously
*   if several timers happen to finish simultaneously.
*****/

FOR (I = 0; I < GATES; I++) {{
imm bit xt[I];
imm bit tr[I] = SR(trans & ~tr[I]\
  FOR (J = I-1; J >= 0; J--) {{[J%8==7?"\n\t\t":" & "]tr[J]}}), xt[I]);
imm bit dt[I] = RISE(tr[I]);
imm bit pt[I] = D(tr[I], tick, del);
  xt[I] = tr[I] & pt[I]\
  FOR (J = I-1; J >= 0; J--) {{[J%8==7?"\n\t\t":" & "]~pt[J]}};
imm int ma[I] = SH(dt[I] ? dest : ma[I]);
}}

```

```

/*****
 *      Output gates - selected via imm int busa and immC bit array openGate[]
 *****/

imm int busa = xt[0] ? ma[0]\
    FOR (I = 1; I < GATES; I++) {{[I%4==0?" :\n\t\t": " : "]xt[I] ? ma[I]}} : 0;

imm bit trig = xt[0]\
    FOR (I = 1; I < GATES; I++) {{[I%8==0?" |\n\t\t": " | "]xt[I]}};

immC bit      openGate[[GATES]];

%{
static int      temp;
%}

if (trig) {
    openGate[temp = busa] = 1;
} else {
    openGate[temp] = 0; /* temp is changed on the next rising trig */
}

FOR (I = 0; I < GATES; I++) {{
imm bit gate[I] = ST(openGate[[I]], tick, GATE_OPEN);
}}

FOR (I = 0; I < GATES; I++) {{
QX[I/8].[I%8] = gate[I];
}}

```

The compiled *iC* program `sortm28.ic` shows a version with only 8 destination gates. This code uses an `immC bit` array `openGate[]` to select the final gate opening mono-flops, which is very efficient. The generated C code consists of 164 Gate nodes, 631 links and 5 C functions consisting mostly of 1 line of C code each.

```

/*****
 *
 *      Parcel sorter control - using analog memory for destinations
 *
 *****/

use strict;

/*****
 *      Step timer
 *****/

imm timer tick = TIMER(TX0.4, ~TX0.4);

/*****
 *      Destination selection inputs
 *****/

imm bit inp0 = IX0.1 | IX0.3 | IX0.5 | IX0.7;
imm bit inp1 = IX0.2 | IX0.3 | IX0.6 | IX0.7;
imm bit inp2 = IX0.4 | IX0.5 | IX0.6 | IX0.7;

imm bit trans = RISE(
    IX0.0 | IX0.1 | IX0.2 | IX0.3 | IX0.4 | IX0.5 | IX0.6 | IX0.7);

/*****
 *      Generate analog value of destination
 *****/

imm int dest = inp0 + inp1*2 + inp2*4; // dest =

/*****
 *      Generate delay along sorting belt.
 *      This delay value changes every time one of the
 *      destination selection inputs 'IX0.0 - IX0.7' is activated.
 *      This delay is used to set a delay timer immediately.
 *      NOTE: GATE_FACTOR_ can be a fractional factor by putting it in
 *      double quotes
 *****/

imm int del = 12 + dest * 34 / 3; // del =

```

```

/*****
*   As parcels travel along the sorting belt there have to be a
*   number of simultaneous delay timers 'pt' - one for each group.
*   Worst case is a delay timer per gate if parcels are all for
*   the final destination and placed on the belt as fast as possible.
*
*   A timer should only be used, if the timers in the previous
*   groups are already running. That makes simultaneous parallel
*   timers for each parcel input possible. The same applies to the
*   logic opening the gates, which may also happen simultaneously
*   if several timers happen to finish simultaneously.
*****/

imm bit xt0;
imm bit tr0 = SR(trans & ~tr0, xt0);
imm bit dt0 = RISE(tr0);
imm bit pt0 = D(tr0, tick, del);
      xt0 = tr0 & pt0;
imm int ma0 = SH(dt0 ? dest : ma0);

imm bit xt1;
imm bit tr1 = SR(trans & ~tr1 & tr0, xt1);
imm bit dt1 = RISE(tr1);
imm bit pt1 = D(tr1, tick, del);
      xt1 = tr1 & pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma1 = SH(dt1 ? dest : ma1);

imm bit xt2;
imm bit tr2 = SR(trans & ~tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt2);
imm bit dt2 = RISE(tr2);
imm bit pt2 = D(tr2, tick, del);
      xt2 = tr2 & pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma2 = SH(dt2 ? dest : ma2);

imm bit xt3;
imm bit tr3 = SR(trans & ~tr3 & tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt3);
imm bit dt3 = RISE(tr3);
imm bit pt3 = D(tr3, tick, del);
      xt3 = tr3 & pt3 & ~pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma3 = SH(dt3 ? dest : ma3);

imm bit xt4;
imm bit tr4 = SR(trans & ~tr4 & tr3 & tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt4);
imm bit dt4 = RISE(tr4);
imm bit pt4 = D(tr4, tick, del);
      xt4 = tr4 & pt4 & ~pt3 & ~pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma4 = SH(dt4 ? dest : ma4);

imm bit xt5;
imm bit tr5 = SR(trans & ~tr5 & tr4 & tr3 & tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt5);
imm bit dt5 = RISE(tr5);
imm bit pt5 = D(tr5, tick, del);
      xt5 = tr5 & pt5 & ~pt4 & ~pt3 & ~pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma5 = SH(dt5 ? dest : ma5);

imm bit xt6;
imm bit tr6 = SR(trans & ~tr6 & tr5 & tr4 & tr3 & tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt6);
imm bit dt6 = RISE(tr6);
imm bit pt6 = D(tr6, tick, del);
      xt6 = tr6 & pt6 & ~pt5 & ~pt4 & ~pt3 & ~pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma6 = SH(dt6 ? dest : ma6);

imm bit xt7;
imm bit tr7 = SR(trans & ~tr7 & tr6 & tr5 & tr4 & tr3 & tr2 & tr1 & tr0, xt7);
imm bit dt7 = RISE(tr7);
imm bit pt7 = D(tr7, tick, del);
      xt7 = tr7 & pt7 & ~pt6 & ~pt5 & ~pt4 & ~pt3 & ~pt2 & ~pt1 & ~pt0;
imm int ma7 = SH(dt7 ? dest : ma7);

/*****
*   Output gates - selected via imm int busa and immC bit array openGate[]
*****/

imm int busa = xt0 ? ma0 : xt1 ? ma1 : xt2 ? ma2 : xt3 ? ma3 :
              xt4 ? ma4 : xt5 ? ma5 : xt6 ? ma6 : xt7 ? ma7 : 0;

imm bit trig = xt0 | xt1 | xt2 | xt3 | xt4 | xt5 | xt6 | xt7;

immC bit      openGate[8];

```

```

%{
static int      temp;
%}

if (trig) {
    openGate[temp = busa] = 1;
} else {
    openGate[temp] = 0; /* temp is changed on the next rising trig */
}

imm bit gate0 = ST(openGate[0], tick, 10);
imm bit gate1 = ST(openGate[1], tick, 10);
imm bit gate2 = ST(openGate[2], tick, 10);
imm bit gate3 = ST(openGate[3], tick, 10);
imm bit gate4 = ST(openGate[4], tick, 10);
imm bit gate5 = ST(openGate[5], tick, 10);
imm bit gate6 = ST(openGate[6], tick, 10);
imm bit gate7 = ST(openGate[7], tick, 10);

QX0.0 = gate0;
QX0.1 = gate1;
QX0.2 = gate2;
QX0.3 = gate3;
QX0.4 = gate4;
QX0.5 = gate5;
QX0.6 = gate6;
QX0.7 = gate7;

```

The following are the 5 generated C code fragments. The macro `iC_MV(1)` accesses a logical value on the generated link array. Fragment (5) are the two C code snippets for the `if` part and the `else` part. `iC_LAI(2, temp = iC_AV(3), 0, 1)` performs an indexed assignment to a logical `immC` variable (2), which is `openGate[]`, which is indexed by `iC_AV(3)`, which gets an analog value from (3), which is `busa` (and which is also assigned to `temp`). The last number 1 is the logical value assigned – thereby setting the `ST()` mono-flop for the selected gate. It is 0 in the `else` part.

One can see from this that even for `int` nodes the execution time for one event is going to be no more than a few microseconds.

```

***** C CODE *****
124
125     static int  temp;
126
202     #line 202 "init.c"      /* in pre-compiled function block SHR */
      (1)     return iC_MV(1)?iC_MV(2):iC_MV(3);
      #line 32 "sortm28.ic"
032     (2)     return iC_MV(1)+iC_MV(2)*2+iC_MV(3)*4;

042     (3)     return 12+iC_MV(1)*34/3;

118     (4)     return iC_MV(1)?iC_MV(2):iC_MV(3)?iC_MV(4):iC_MV(5)?iC_MV(6):
118             iC_MV(7)?iC_MV(8):iC_MV(9)?iC_MV(10):iC_MV(11)?iC_MV(12):
118             iC_MV(13)?iC_MV(14):iC_MV(15)?iC_MV(16):0;

128     (5) {
129         iC_LAI(2, temp = iC_AV(3), 0, 1);
130     }

130     {
131         iC_LAI(2, temp, 0, 0);      /* temp is changed on the next rising trig */
132     }

```

To start `sortm28` to produce VCD files execute the following on the command line: ctrl-C when done

```
iCserver -kr 'sortm28 -v sortm28.vcd' 'iCbox IX0,,250 QX0'
```

This also starts an `iCbox` with 8 digital inputs `IX0.0 - IX0.7`, which in this case are push-buttons with a 250 ms turn-off delay. They only need to be clicked to send a 250 ms on/off pulse to the application. It also implements 8 digital outputs `QX0.0 – QX0.7`. The `iCbox` man-page provides more details for configuring push-buttons, which were only introduced with version 1.31.

Each input starts a timer varying from 12 ticks for `IX0.0` to 91 ticks for `IX0.7`. At the end of their respective timer delays the outputs `QX0.0` to `QX0.7` will turn on for 10 ticks.

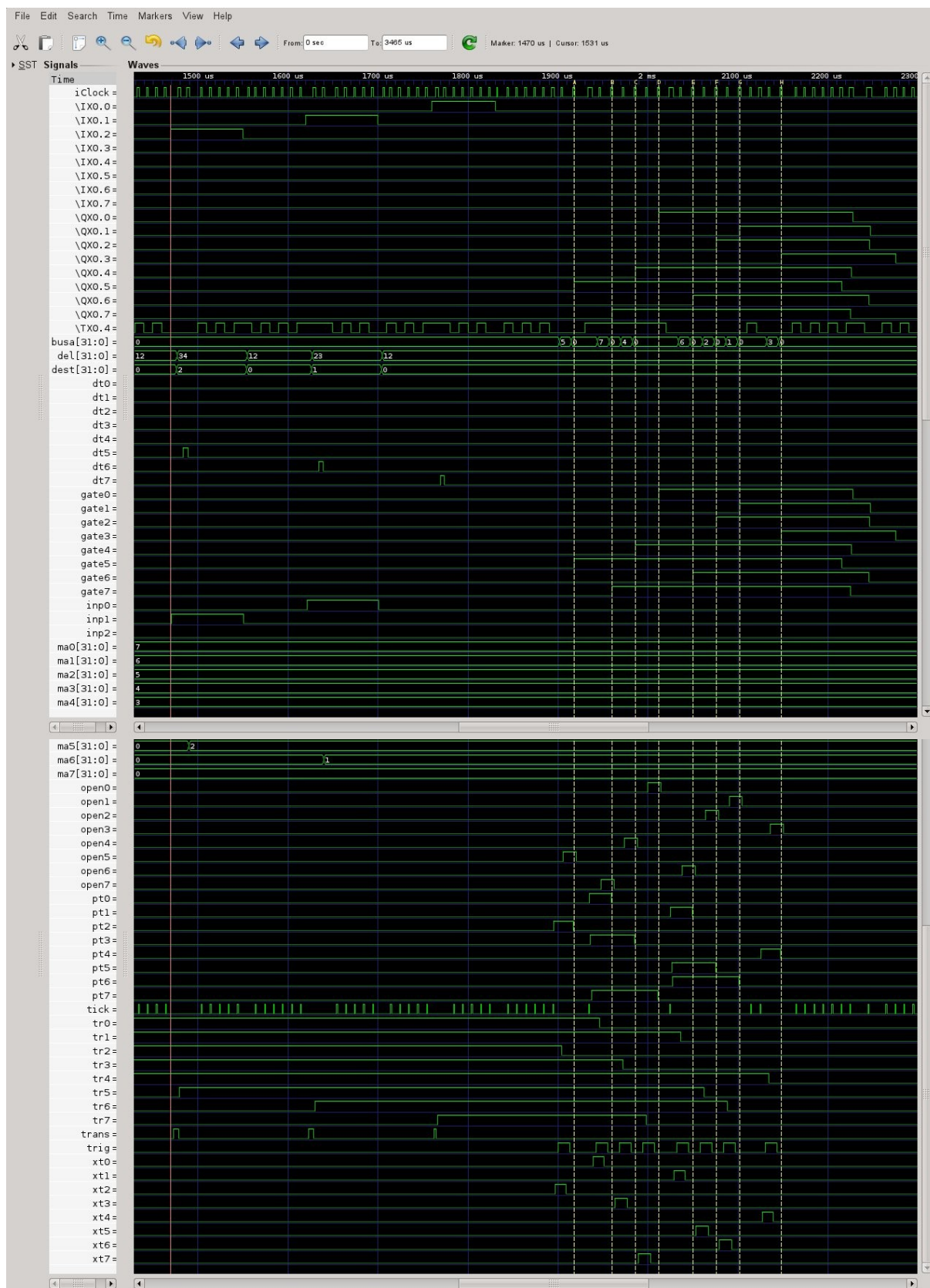


Fig. 1 **GTKWave** traces of all nodes of `sortm28.ic` with `gtkwave sortm25.vcd sortm25.sav`

For this set of traces `IX0.7` to `IX0.0` were clicked one after the other so that the respective delays caused the outputs to turn on nearly simultaneously. At the top we can see `IX0.2` `IX0.1` and `IX0.0` transferring 2 1 and 0 to `dest` and `ma5` to `ma7` and the computed delays 34 28 and 12 to `del`. This starts delays in `tr5` to `tr7`. When the delays terminate they are transferred via `openGate[busa]` to start the output delays `gate0` to `gate7`, which are aliased by `QX0.0` to `QX0.7`.

8 The *iC* run-time model

The *iC* compiler *immcc* parses the statements of an *iC* source, e.g. **example.ic** and generates a C file **example.c** and optionally a listing file **example.lst**. The C file is compiled by a C compiler to produce **example.o** (**example.obj** under Windows), which is linked with the *iC* runtime library *libict.so* (or *libict.a*) to produce an executable **example** (**example.exe** under Windows).

```
***** SOURCE example.ic *****
imm bit a = IX0.0 & ~IX0.1 | ~IX0.0 & IX0.1;
QX0.0 = a;
imm bit b = IX0.2 ^ IX0.3;
imm bit d = ~IX0.2 & ~IX0.3;
imm bit mem = LATCH(b, d);
QX0.1 = mem;
***** LISTING example.lst *****
001  imm bit a = IX0.0 & ~IX0.1 | ~IX0.0 & IX0.1;

      a_1      ---|  a
      a_2      ---|

      IX0.0     ---&  a_1
      IX0.1     ~ ---&

      IX0.0     ~ ---&  a_2
      IX0.1     ---&

002  QX0.0 = a;

      a          ---|  QX0.0 X

003  imm bit b = IX0.2 ^ IX0.3;

      IX0.2     ---^  b
      IX0.3     ---^

004  imm bit d = ~IX0.2 & ~IX0.3;

      IX0.2     ~ ---&  d
      IX0.3     ~ ---&

005  imm bit mem = LATCH(b, d);

      mem       ---%  mem
      b         ---%
      d         ~ ---%      *

006  QX0.1 = mem;

      mem       ---|  QX0.1 X

***** NET TOPOLOGY *****
IX0.0  <    ~a_2&    a_1&
IX0.1  <    a_2&    ~a_1&
IX0.2  <    b^      ~d&
IX0.3  <    b^      ~d&
QX0.0  |  X
QX0.1  |  X
a      |  QX0.0 |
a_1    &    a |
a_2    &    a |
b      ^    mem%
d      &    ~mem%  *
mem    %    mem%   QX0.1 |
```

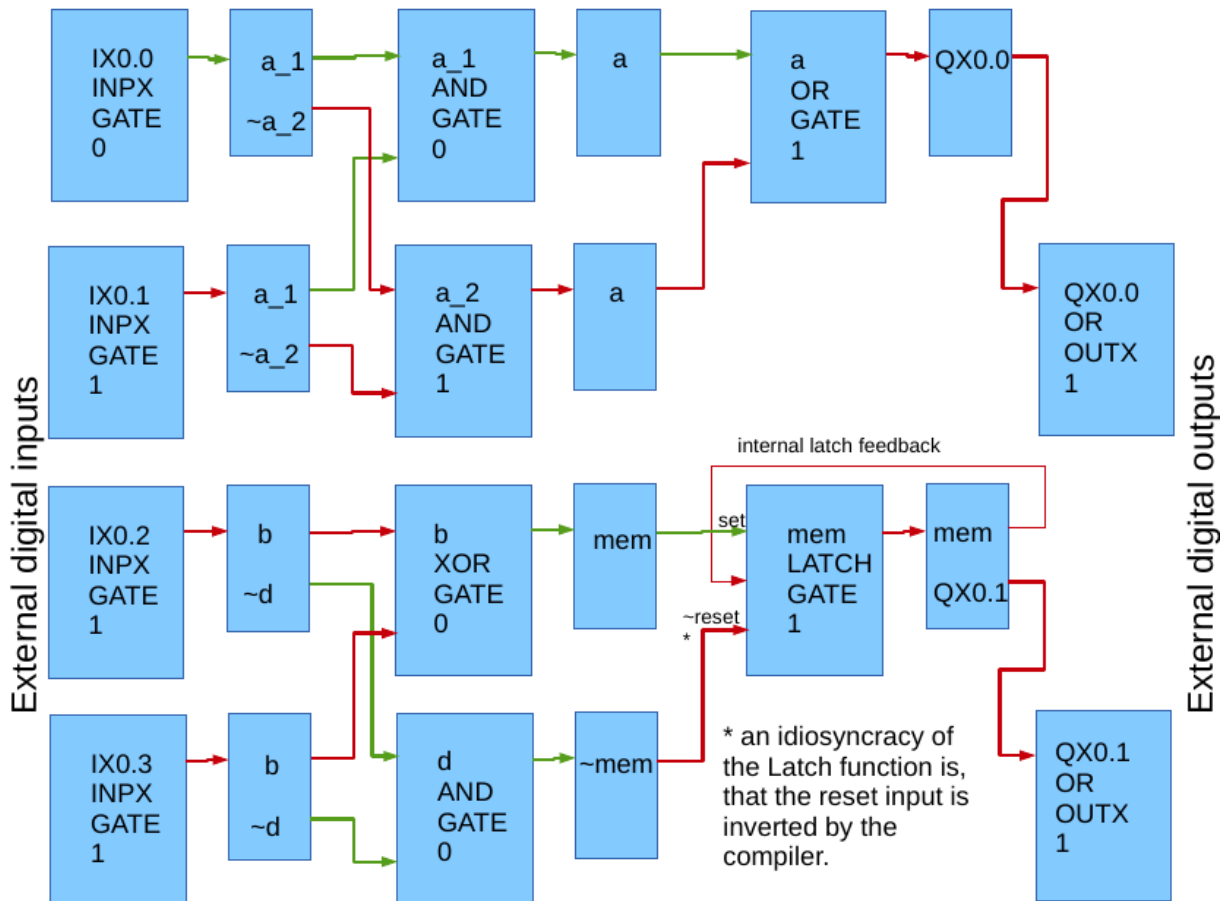


Fig. 2 Graph representation of the iC program **example.ic**

```

***** C OUTPUT CODE example.c *****
static Gate * l_[];
/*****
* Gate list
*****/
Gate IX0_0 = { 1, INPX, GATE, 0, "IX0.0", 0, 0, 0 };
Gate IX0_1 = { 1, INPX, GATE, 0, "IX0.1", 0, 0, &IX0_0 };
Gate IX0_2 = { 1, INPX, GATE, 0, "IX0.2", 0, 0, &IX0_1 };
Gate IX0_3 = { 1, INPX, GATE, 0, "IX0.3", 0, 0, &IX0_2 };
Gate QX0_0 = { 1, OR, OUTX, 0, "QX0.0", 0, &l_[0], &IX0_3 };
Gate QX0_1 = { 1, OR, OUTX, 0, "QX0.1", 0, &l_[3], &QX0_0 };
Gate a = { 1, OR, GATE, 0, "a", 0, &l_[6], &QX0_1 };
Gate a_1 = { 1, AND, GATE, 0, "a_1", 0, &l_[10], &a };
Gate a_2 = { 1, AND, GATE, 0, "a_2", 0, &l_[14], &a_1 };
Gate b = { 1, XOR, GATE, 0, "b", 0, &l_[18], &a_2 };
Gate d = { 1, AND, GATE, 0, "d", 0, &l_[22], &b };
Gate mem = { 1, LATCH, GATE, 0, "mem", 0, &l_[26], &d };
/*****
* Connection lists
*****/
static Gate * l_[] = {
/* QX0.0 */ &a, 0, 0,
/* QX0.1 */ &mem, 0, 0,
/* a */ &a_2, &a_1, 0, 0,
/* a_1 */ &IX0_0, 0, &IX0_1, 0,
/* a_2 */ &IX0_1, 0, &IX0_0, 0,
/* b */ &IX0_3, &IX0_2, 0, 0,
/* d */ 0, &IX0_3, &IX0_2, 0,
/* mem */ &mem, &b, 0, &d, 0,
};

```

The C output of the **immcc** compiler consists mainly of initialised data definitions, which describe a directed graph of vertices or nodes and edges joining the nodes. Each node of this graph corresponds to an expression in the iC program - they are called Expression nodes. The graph produced by the

compiler is directed towards the inputs, which are called sources in graph theory (see Fig 2 above). This means that a list of the inputs to each Expression is associated with a particular Expression node. These are the edges of the graph. This direction represents the way in which expressions are usually evaluated in a procedural strategy following the flow of instructions – consecutive instructions read the values of all input variables of an expression and arithmetic or bit operators, acting on adjacent operands, determine the result. Programmers are used to think about expressions this way.

The run-time model for *iC* is best visualized by thinking of expressions as digital or analog IC components, interconnected as in the above graph. The listing file represents all Expression nodes generated by the compiler in this way (see LISTING above). Each time the output of one of these components changes, that change will act on any inputs to which that output is connected.

For *immediate C*, the compiled graph, whose edges point towards the inputs of each node, is loaded into memory and as a first step, all edges are reversed. This means, that each Expression node is associated with a list of follow on Expression nodes, for which the current Expression result is an input. What this means is, that when a particular Expression node changes its value, then all the expressions for the Expression nodes on its target list should be re-evaluated (see NET TOPOLOGY above)

8.1 Combinatorial immediate actions

Combinatorial *immediate* actions are the evaluation of arithmetic or bit expressions, which excludes the full evaluation of any embedded clocked functions. Expressions contain *immediate* variables combined with operators, which describe a (possibly) changed result when an input variable to the expression changes. Although the evaluation of an expression takes a certain (small) amount of time – both for hardware IC's and for *iC* expressions, conceptually we are dealing with a mathematical statement, whose evaluation describes a change of state – an operation, which does not necessarily take any time. One completed scan of the combinatorial action list is such a conceptually timeless combinatorial set of state-changing actions.

To implement this scheme, the *iC* run-time uses Expression nodes, which can be linked into action lists and which store the old value of the node – that is the value before the expression is re-evaluated - as well as the new value after re-evaluation. If these values are equal after a change of input and re-evaluation, no further action is taken – follow on nodes will not change either, because of this particular change of input. If the new value is different from the old value, the Expression node is said to “fire” (a term borrowed from Petri Nets). When this happens, the Expression node is linked to the end of an action list. While on an action list, the old and new values are kept in the node. Arithmetic nodes are implemented like this – each node is associated with an arithmetic expression, which is evaluated as a snippet of C code, each time one of it's inputs changes.

Bit expression nodes are implemented differently. Each logical GATE node implements just one bit expression of type AND, OR, XOR or LATCH. (GATES of type LATCH implement the single gate FORCE function). The algorithm used for AND, OR and LATCH GATES is majority logic. In majority logic, the number of '1' inputs on a gate are counted. If this number exceeds a certain threshold, the output is '1' – otherwise it is '0'. The only difference between the AND, OR and LATCH function is the threshold. This means, that for all three types of GATES, only the initialisation of the threshold is different – the same counting operation at run-time holds for all three. **This algorithm is very similar to biological neurons**, which prompted the idea.

a	b	c	'1' count	OR threshold 1	AND threshold 3	LATCH threshold 2
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	1	0	0
1	1	0	2	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	1	0	0
1	0	1	2	1	0	1
0	1	1	2	1	0	1
1	1	1	3	1	1	1

For the OR function, the threshold is always 1, no matter how many inputs the GATE has. Only when no inputs (<1) are '1' is the output '0' – otherwise it is always '1'.

For the AND function, the threshold is set to the number of inputs the GATE has. When all inputs are '1' the output is '1' – otherwise it is '0' (at least one input is '0').

The three input FORCE function described in [section 3.2](#) is shown here in more detail and with the 'off' input inverted.

FORCE(arg1, on, ~off)

arg1	on	~off	FORCE(arg1,on,~off)
0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0
0	1	0	0
1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0
1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

This is the same truth-table as the 3 input majority LATCH GATE with a threshold of 2. Only the 'off' input needs to be inverted.

Each GATE node has a signed byte member `gt_val`, which counts input changes and provides the logic output. The sign bit of `gt_val` is the bit value of the output. Thus -1, -2, -3 ... -127 are all a '1' output.

+1, +2, +3 ... +127 are all a '0' output. These values are normalised to -1 for '1' and +1 for '0' when doing majority logic. Because of this counting algorithm with a signed byte, the number of inputs to simple AND and OR GATES are limited to 127. (Should more inputs be required a final post-processor of the compiler splits those large GATES into several smaller ones). GATES are initialised, so that all inputs are logically '0' and `gt_val` is initialised to +1 for OR gates, +n for AND gates (where n is the number of inputs) and +2 for LATCH gates (where the number of inputs is always 3). Since all inputs and outputs are thus initially '0' they can only change to '1'. A change to '1' causes the numerical value of '1' – namely -1 to be added to `gt_val` of the target. If this change causes `gt_val` to be 0, the gate is said to fire. This results in the numeric value being added again resulting in `gt_val` now being -1 and the master GATE action being executed. For GATE nodes the master action is simply linking the node, which holds the updated logical value in `gt_val`, to the output list. This propagates the change in bit value. The following very compact piece of C code implements this algorithm:

```

if ((gp->gt_val += val) == 0) {
    gp->gt_val = val;
    (*masterAct[gp->gt_fni])(gp, iC_oList);
}
/* gate function */
/* step past 0 */
/* master action */

```

To implement logical inversion each logical GATE node has two null terminated target lists – the first list is for actions which are non-inverting – the second list is for actions which are inverting. When scanning the second list, the source logic value is inverted by subtracting the logic value +1 or -1. Arithmetic nodes have only one null terminated target list.

```

val = (op->gt_val < 0) ? -1 : 1; /* logic value from source node */
lp = op->gt_list                /* lp points to 1st target list */
while ((gp = *lp++) != 0) {    /* scan non-inverted targets */
    if ((gp->gt_val += val) == 0) {
        gp->gt_val = val;
        (*masterAct[gp->gt_fni])(gp, iC_oList);
    }
}
/* lp points to 2nd target list */
while ((gp = *lp++) != 0) {    /* scan inverted targets */
    if ((gp->gt_val -= val) == 0) {
        gp->gt_val = -val;
        (*masterAct[gp->gt_fni])(gp, iC_oList);
    }
}
/* normal and inverting actions completed */

```

The logical XOR function is handled differently again. Each change of input from 1/0 or 0/1 causes the target to be negated from +1 to -1 or -1 to +1 and fire immediately. XOR GATES are initialised to +1 (logical '0') for all inputs '0', which is the initial condition. Logical inversion is the same as above, although the action is the same for both non-inverting and inverting target lists (negate the target and fire).

There are four types of action list to which Expression nodes may be linked when they “fire” during the combinatorial scan:

1. **oList**, to which logical GATE nodes are linked.
2. **aList**, to which arithmetic expression nodes are linked.
3. **cList** or another **clock list**, to which clocked function Master nodes are linked.
4. **sList**, to which external output expression nodes are linked.

To simplify the description, **oList** and **aList** are discussed here as a single combinatorial action list. For the combinatorial scan, the Expression node at the head of the combinatorial action list is taken and the target list(s) of that node is scanned, using the code on the previous page. Every Expression node on that target list is re-evaluated, using the new value of the Expression node just taken from the combinatorial action list, with the result that some Expression nodes on the target list may change and “fire”. These nodes are then linked to the end of an appropriate action list. The old value of the original Expression node is assigned the new value at this time and it is unlinked from the head of the combinatorial action list – that node is now no longer active. The combinatorial scan is continued with the new head of the combinatorial action list until the list is empty.

There is another possibility. The target Expression node is already somewhere on some action list, which means its value has recently changed, but the new value has not yet been transmitted to any follow on nodes. Now another Expression node acts on this particular Expression node and re-evaluation changes its value a second time. There are two possibilities:

1. The latest value is still different from the old value (the value it had when its target list was last scanned and follow on nodes were re-evaluated). In this case the Expression node is left on the action list with a (possibly) changed new value.
2. Re-evaluation changes the new value back to the old value. This situation is called a “**glitch**”. The Expression node is now unlinked from the action list and becomes inactive, before it acts on any follow on nodes. The reasoning behind this strategy is, that any temporary change, which occurs through one path of the graph, which is immediately undone by some expression on another path, should not influence the output. **This handling of glitches and subsequent clocking, which is guaranteed to ignore glitches, make hardware IC circuits and iC programs really robust.**

Initially nodes can only get on the combinatorial action list due to changes of external inputs (sources) of the graph. Normally such a change will percolate through paths of the graph to one or more external output nodes (sinks). At this stage the combinatorial action list is usually empty.

Cycles are allowed in the graph – they occur when there is feedback in the *iC* program. Such feedback is often necessary for implementing designs, but the designer should control it. Feedback may result in situations, where continuous oscillations occur. When this happens, certain nodes will change to a new value – act on some follow on node(s), which will then change the original node back to the old value after it has acted on other nodes. This means the action list will never get empty. If nothing were done about this, the *iC* program would lock up the processor.

Continuous oscillations at the Expression node level should not be part of a design and this situation results in a warning message at run-time. Nevertheless for testing purposes, such a program should be able to run without locking up the processor. To achieve this, a strategy is used, where the number of times a particular node may be re-evaluated in one scan is limited – usually to three. This is the *maximum oscillator count*, which may be changed with the `-n <count>` command-line switch. If the *maximum oscillator count* for any node is exceeded after re-evaluation of that node, it is not linked to the normal combinatorial action list, but to an alternate action list. This way the current combinatorial action list will always get empty within a finite number of actions. At the end of the scan, when the current combinatorial action list does become empty, the combinatorial action list and the alternate action list are swapped. At this point in time the *iC* run-time process goes to sleep, waiting for new input.

When a new external input interrupts the system, the associated input node is linked to the now current swapped combinatorial action list and triggers a new scan. Together with the new input and its follow up events, the oscillating nodes, which were linked to the (then alternate) list during the previous scan, will be evaluated again. This way the oscillations do get re-evaluated over and over – but at a rate

which does not block the processor. This is similar to the way oscillations manifest themselves in a hardware IC circuit – a large but finite number of oscillations will occur between any two consecutive external input events. In *iC* programs, this number has been reduced to three, which does not change the way these oscillations affect other parts of the program. In practice it has been found useful to make this an odd number, so that rising and falling edges alternate for digital oscillations.

All this takes care of what is called “combinatorial logic” for digital systems. Sequencing requires different mechanisms and they are provided in the *iC* language by clocking and clocked functions.

8.2 Clocked immediate actions

As mentioned before, clock signals in *iC* are best thought of as timeless pulses, whose occurrence marks the separation of one clock period from the next along the time axis. For these purposes actions in the *iC* run-time occur in two phases – *combinatorial immediate actions*, which were described in the previous section and *clocked immediate actions*, which are always master-slave actions, which occur during the clock phase.

Clocked functions contain one or more Master nodes and exactly one Slave node. Master nodes are expression nodes – just like the ones described in the previous section, except their output does not act directly on follow on expression nodes and therefore are not linked to the current combinatorial action list when they “fire”. There is a Master node for every non-clock input parameter to a function. Associated with each such non-clock parameter is a clock parameter. If it is not mentioned explicitly in the parameter list, it has a default value – usually **iClock**. Master nodes which “fire”, are linked to the clock list associated with the clock parameter for the particular Master node.

Clock lists are similar to action lists – they may be empty or have one or more expression nodes linked to them. Clock lists are associated with the Slave node of a clock function or “driver”. There is one special clock list called **cList**, which is associated with the default **iClock** and which is scanned every time a combinatorial scan completes unless **cList** is empty. This clock scan marks the occurrence of **iClock**. In other words combinatorial scans and clock scans alternate until both the current combinatorial action list and **cList** are empty. For the purpose of synchronisation, it is important to remember that during the combinatorial scan new nodes are evaluated and linked to one of the following:

1. the current combinatorial action lists **oList** or **aList** – described in the previous section.
2. **cList** or another clock list – which receive Master nodes of clocked functions.
3. **sList** – which receives those Expression nodes whose action is external output.

During the clock scan only **cList** is scanned. There are several different clock actions, but they only involve the value of a Master node modifying the value of a Slave node and some side effect associated with the clocked function. The different clock actions are:

1. Clocking of a logical or arithmetic function – the new value of the Slave node is determined by the slave action of the Master node on the Slave node, which is linked to the current combinatorial action list if its value changes – it becomes a new logical or numeric output, which will **not** have any effect on inputs until after the current clock scan has completed.
2. Clocking of a **CLOCK** or **TIMER** driver function – the clock list associated with the **CLOCK** or **TIMER** function Slave node, which contains the accumulated Master nodes linked to that clock list, is linked to the end of **cList**. This means, that the **CLOCK** or **TIMER** function has “fired” and the slave actions of the Master nodes, which have accumulated on its clock list will also be executed during the current clock scan, since they are now on **cList**.
3. Clocking of a conditional **if else** or **switch** statement condition. Because these clocked conditions cause execution of *C* code embedded in the *iC* program, which may involve using values of clocked slave nodes, some of which may have been modified during the current clock scan whereas others may not have been modified yet. For this reason the actual execution of the *C* code must be deferred until after completion of the current clock scan so that all slave node values are synchronised. For this purpose the Master nodes of any conditional **if else** or **switch** statement condition on the clock list are unlinked and linked to another action list called **fList**.

The scan of **cList** is always finite, since no new Master nodes are added to any clock list during the clock scan. When the clock scan terminates a single scan of **fList** follows, unless **fList** is empty. The start of the **fList** scan marks the end of a clock phase and the beginning of a new combinatorial phase. After this another combinatorial scan followed by a clock scan is done, because both clocked slave actions and the **fList** scan may have generated new combinatorial actions.

8.3 Output actions

Finally, when both the current combinatorial action list and `cList` are empty, a single scan of `sList` follows. During that scan the actual external output is performed. Each `bit` output is first distributed to an output byte and then the output bytes, words and long words which have changed since the last cycle are either output directly (currently only possible on a Raspberry Pi) or transmitted via TCP/IP to *iCserver*, which distributes them to their final output destinations, where they act physically. At this point the process sleeps until it is interrupted by an external or internal input.

8.4 Input actions

External inputs come from physical input device drivers and are transmitted as bytes, words or long words again either directly or via TCP/IP through *iCserver*, using the same protocol as the output.

Most drivers use TCP/IP as the transport protocol from and to the *iC* run-time system and the final physical input and output device(s) in the current implementation. This ensures, that no input or output is lost during transmission. Nagle's algorithm is inhibited to ensure immediate delivery. Other safe transmission systems can be used – only the actual input and output driver software needs to be changed.

The run-time system also recognises internal inputs which are mainly interrupts from the processors real-time-clock used for timing operations. These are described in [section 5.1.3](#).

External and internal inputs interrupt the run-time system. Initially the source of the interrupt is analysed and Input nodes are “fired” for every changed input (and only those that have changed) and these are linked immediately to the current combinatorial action list. Then a new cycle is initiated starting with a scan of the current combinatorial action list.

8.5 Input/Output network

The network clients around *iCserver* can comprise one or more *iC* applications and any number of real I/O drivers as well as *iCboxes* and *iClift*, which simulate real I/O in the current implementation. Input and output can be transmitted not only to and from *iC* applications and *iCboxes* but also between *iC* applications. Since all of these elements can run on any processor in a LAN or even in the Internet, this opens up interesting possibilities for the *iC* system.

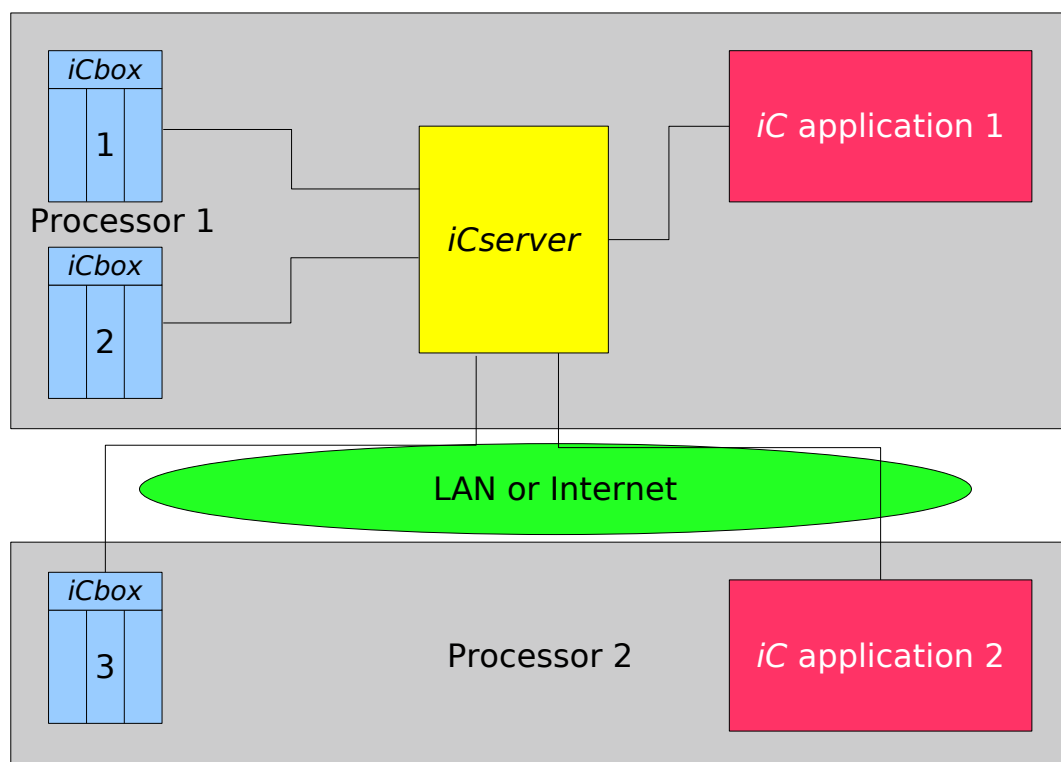


Fig. 3 Input/output network

9 Compiler and Run-time system

9.1 Compiler

The *iC* compiler **immcc** generates C code with the extension **.c** from *iC* source files with the extension **.ic**, which is suggested for *iC* sources. It is also suggested, that *iC* header files have the extension **.ih**. For larger projects, several **.ic** files may be compiled to **.c** files, which are then compiled by **cc** to **.o** files and linked with the dynamic library **libict.so**, which contains the run-time code. This produces a finished application, which can be run in an environment compatible with the features of the run-time library. Alternatively the static library **libict.a** can be used. This generates much larger code, but does provide extensive debugging output from a running system.

The *iCa* pre-compiler **immac** generates *iC* source files with the extension **.ic** from *iC* with arrays (*iCa*) source files with the extension **.ica**.

The shell script **iCmake** executes all these steps automatically – it makes a complete **iC** application from one or more *iC* and/or *iCa* source files.

9.2 Run-time libraries

There are several versions of the run time library, depending on the hardware interfaces available for Input and Output. The libraries **libict.so** or **libict.a** communicate their Input and Output via TCP/IP, which provides a turnaround time of an input change to the arrival of the corresponding output change in a lightly loaded network of less than 1.7 milliseconds (measured on a Raspberry Pi 2B). The uncertainty of load occurring in such a network forces one to look at specialized bus systems for high speed applications. Using direct I/O rather than TCP/IP 90 microseconds turnaround was measured on the Raspberry Pi 2B.

Other libraries have been built for industrial field bus systems. The library for InterBus-S is complete and has been extensively tested with InterBus-S I/O modules. A library for a proprietary high speed field bus system was used for early tests and provided turnaround times of under a 100 microseconds on a 386 8 MHz processor. A CAN-Bus library is planned and could be implemented at short notice.

9.3 Run-time environment and system

For any applications where hard real time constraints are not a problem, the TCP/IP run-time system provides a very flexible and easy to configure environment where Input and Output may be distributed over a number of computers in a local area network. The system consists of a server called **iCserver** and a number of clients for which **iCserver** is the hub. An *iC* application linked with the **libict.so** library is one type of client, providing control in the system. The other client types are Input and Output modules (or combined I/O modules) and debugging tools.

iCserver has been implemented in Perl, which is very flexible and fast enough to keep up with TCP/IP traffic generated in a local area network. A faster C implementation of **iCserver** is possible. The program **iCbox** simulates Input/Output modules as Perl/Tk dialog boxes for digital and analog inputs and outputs. For real inputs and outputs **iCbox** can serve as a program template. Only the translation of the I/O signals to a short network message for transmission to the **iCserver** is necessary to port an I/O device. This has been done with **iCpiFace** for the Raspberry Pi. A simple and very compact protocol for passing messages to and from the **iCserver** has been defined.

The program **iClive** provides an IDE for editing and debugging **iC** programs. It provides an edit window, in which program text can be displayed and optionally edited, searched, saved, made into runnable code, run and stopped. When running and debugging an **iC** program, **iClive** is a client of **iCserver** and indirectly of the running **iC** program. In "Live" mode **iClive** colours words in the program text according to the state of the node named by a word – green/black for bit 0, yellow/red for bit 1, blue for arithmetic variables, Rust red for clocks and cadet blue for timers. To be effective, the displayed text must be either the source of the running **iC** program or a text derived from that source, such as the compiler generated listing, which shows all compiler generated extra nodes. Short transients are extended to display for 50 ms – an idea taken from the Hewlett Packard logic probe. The numerical value of a node is also displayed when the cursor hovers over a word. With this colour coded display of the statements of the **iC** program, it is easy to follow the progress of execution and the related logic at run time. "Live displays" are commonly used in programming units for PLC's in industrial control environments to provide debugging support. *immediate C* follows this example. In "Debug" mode "Watch" points can be applied to *iC* variables, which cause the program to stop when they change. "Single stepping" through every change is also provided for.

9.3.1 iCbox, iClive and iCman in action

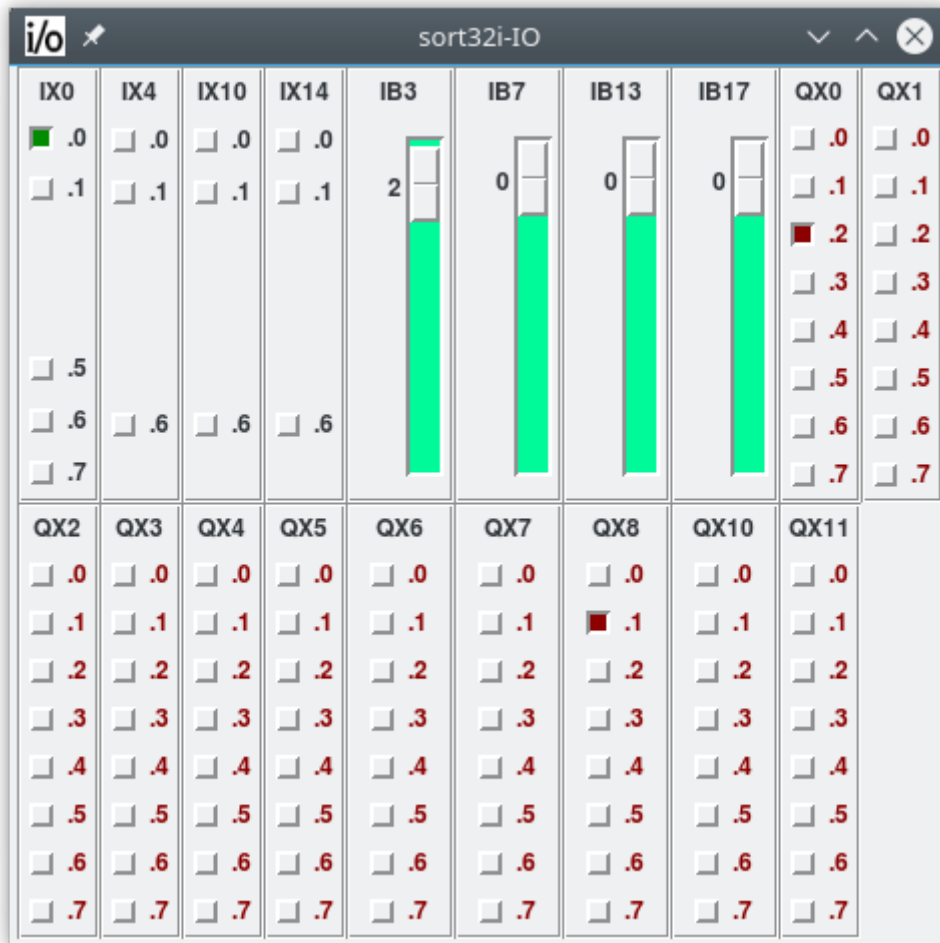


Fig. 4 **iCbox** as IO for “sort32i” - IX0.0, QX0.2 and QX8.1 are “on” - the rest are “off”. IB3 has a value of 3, othe analog inputs are 0.

```

iC iClive: sort32i.ic
File Build Run Live / IX0.5 - + Debug Help

/*****
 *
 *      4 belts
 *
 *      Each belt has 32 gates
 *
 *****/

imm bit reset = IX0.7; /* general re-initialisation */

QX8.0 = belt (
    QX8.1, /* lock indicator */
    QX0.0, QX0.1, QX0.2, QX0.3, QX0.4, QX0.5, QX0.6, QX0.7,
    QX1.0, QX1.1, QX1.2, QX1.3, QX1.4, QX1.5, QX1.6, QX1.7,
    QX2.0, QX2.1, QX2.2, QX2.3, QX2.4, QX2.5, QX2.6, QX2.7,
    QX3.0, QX3.1, QX3.2, QX3.3, QX3.4, QX3.5, QX3.6, QX3.7,
    IB3, /* gate code 0 to 31 for parcel destination */
    IX0.1, /* photo cell monitoring parcel onto belt */
    tick(IX0.0, IX0.6, IX0.5), /* strobe pulse from belt movement */
);
line 180, char 24

```

Fig. 5 **iClive** in EDIT mode with a search for IX0.5 shown. The application “sort32i” is not running – press “Run” and then “Live” to get to Fig. 6. - press “Help” to get the man-page (see Fig. 7).

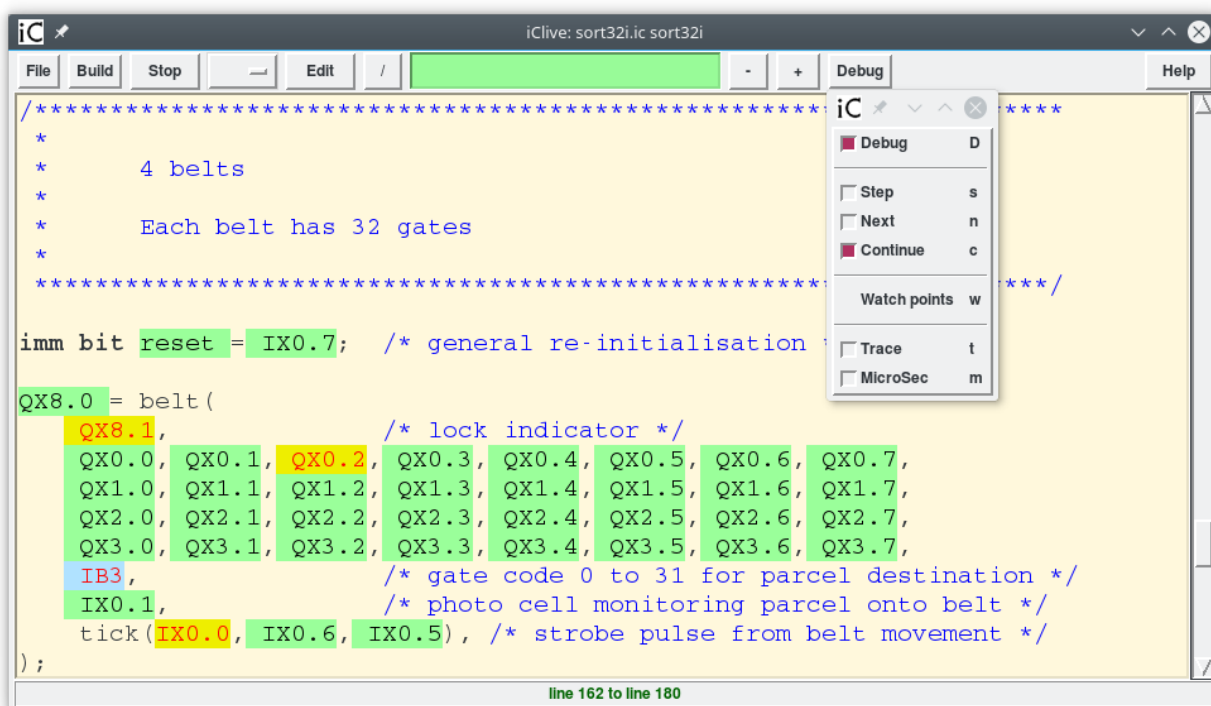


Fig. 6 **iClive** in LIVE mode - QX8.1, QX0.2 and IX0.0 are “1” - the rest are “0”. IB3 is non-zero. “sort32i” is running. – it can be stopped by pressing the “Stop” button and/or switched to Edit mode by pressing the “Edit” button (see Fig. 5). Debug mode allows setting and continuing from Watch points and single stepping.

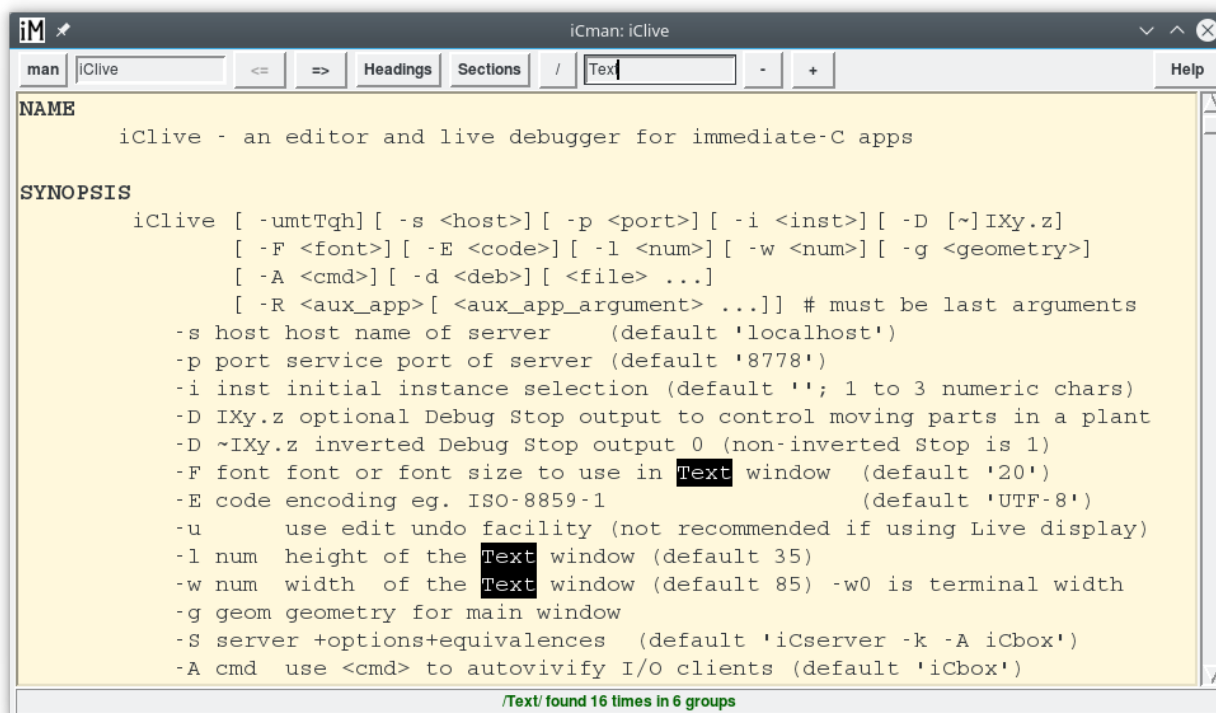


Fig. 7 **iCman** showing the start of the man-page for **iClive**. A search for “Text” is shown.

For command line use, a shell script **iCmake** builds one or more applications from **iC** sources using the compilers **immac**, **immcc** and the libraries **libict.so** or **libict.a**. The programs **immac**, **immcc**, **iCserver**, **iCbox**, **iClive** and **iCmake** as well as each compiled and linked **iC** application provide a generous help output with the -h switch option. Each of these programs also has a full man page which may be viewed with 'man' in a Unix like environment or with **iCman**, a man page viewer with interesting hyperlink, search and text magnification features, much like a browser.

9.4 GTKWave Wave Analyzer

GTKWave (an open-source program) is an analysis tool originally intended to perform debugging on Verilog or VHDL simulation models. Except for interactive VCD viewing, it is not intended to run interactively with simulation, but instead relies on a post-mortem approach through the use of dump-files. Various dump-file formats are supported:

- VCD: Value Change Dump. This is an industry standard file format generated by most Verilog simulators and is specified in IEEE-1364.

(Extract from the GTKWave 3.3 Wave Analyzer User's Guide) Use in the *iC* system is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

Since version 1.131 of the *iC* run-time a VCD file and an associated SAV file can be generated by an *iC* application by using the -v option. This allows the interactive or post-mortem viewing of both logic and analog traces against a virtual time scale. This time scale was chosen so that each sequential change in any signal is 1 virtual microsecond. *iClock* cycles take up 2 virtual microseconds. Each new external input (Ixn.m, IBn, IWn ILn or TX0.m) occurs on the next 10 virtual microsecond boundary.

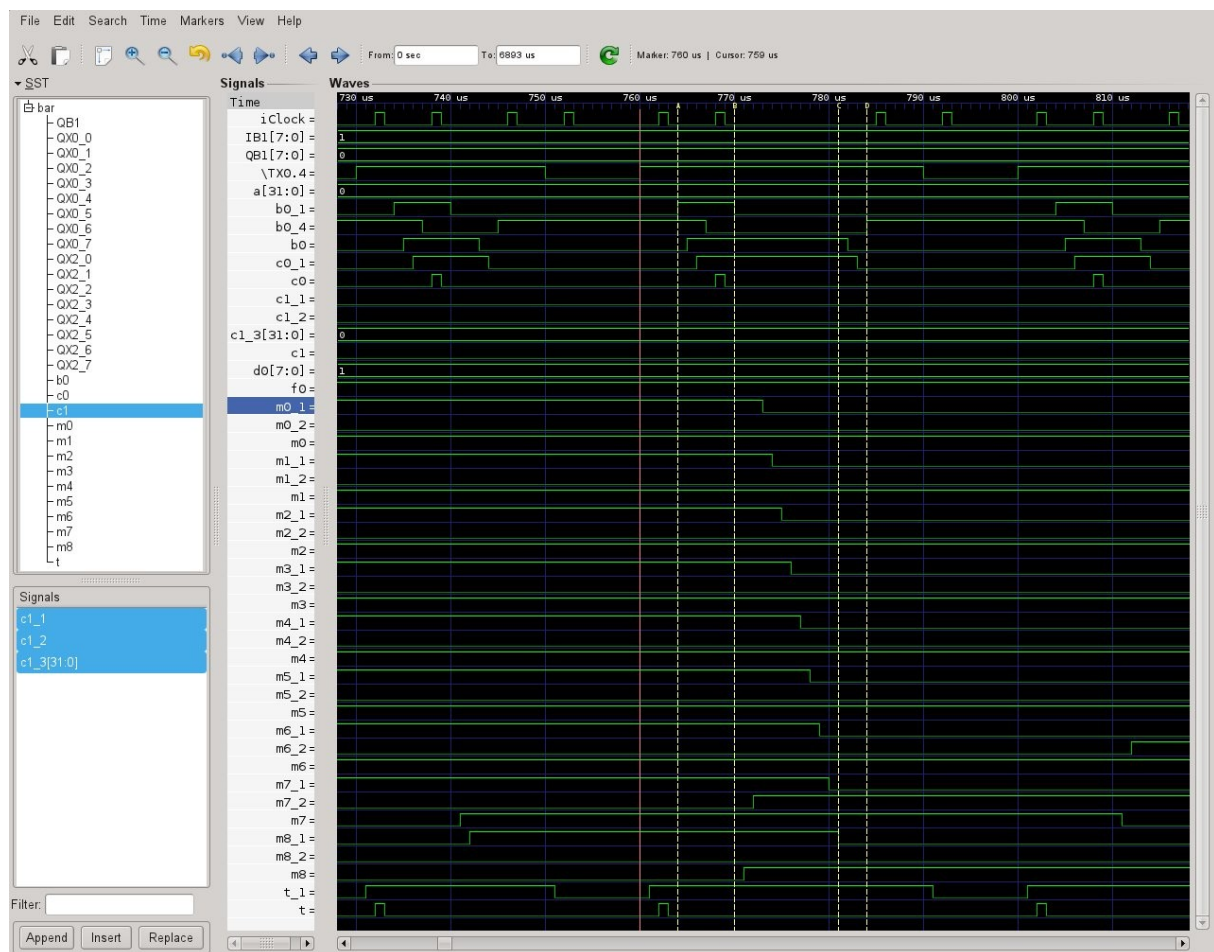


Fig. 7 **GTKWave** showing part of the running of the *iC* application 'bar -v bar.vcd'.

iClock is shown as the top trace. The auxiliary clock *c0* and the timer *t* are in sync with *iClock* as can be seen just before and after marker A. The rising edge of TX0.4 (the 100 ms timer) sets *t_1*, which in turn is the slave input to the TIMER producing timer *t* (which occurs in the next *iClock* phase). The following is an excerpt from the listing file bar.lst:

```
019   imm timer t = TIMER(TX0.4);

      t_1      T ---!  t      !

      iClock   : ---|  t_1      T
      TX0.4     ---|

025   imm bit b0 = D(~b0 & f0, t, d0) | CHANGE(IX0.0 & ~f0);

      b0_1      ---|  b0
```



```

b0_2      ---|

b0_4      D ---#  b0_1

b0_3      V --->  b0_2

iClock    : ---&  b0_3      V
IX0.0     ---&
f0        ~ ---&

t          ! ---&  b0_4      D
IB1        A<---&
b0         ~ ---&
f0         ---&

026  imm clock c0 = CLOCK(b0);

c0_1      C ---:  c0        :

iClock    : ---|  c0_1      C
b0        ---|

035  imm bit m7 = SR(~m8 & m6, m8      , c0);

m7_1      S ---#  m7
m7_2      R ---#

c0         : ---&  m7_1      S
m8         ~ ---&
m6         ---&

c0         : ---|  m7_2      R
m8         ---|

036  imm bit m8 = SR(~m8 & m7, m8 & ~m0, c0);

m8_1      S ---#  m8
m8_2      R ---#

c0         : ---&  m8_1      S
m8         ~ ---&
m7         ---&

c0         : ---&  m8_2      R
m8         ---&
m0         ~ ---&

```

(At marker A) D flip-flop b0_1 sets with the next timer t tick, because d0 (alias IB1) is currently 1 (as seen in the trace). This raises b0, which sets CLOCK slave c0_1 and lowers gate b0_4 in that order.

Next (at marker B) *iClock* resets flip-flop b0_1 because input b0_4 is now '0'. This is followed by clock c0 setting SR flip-flop m8 (slave m8_1 was set by ~m8 & m7 at the previous clock c0). The setting of m8 sets slave gate m7_2 and resets slave gates m0_1 to m8_1 (at marker C). This is followed by the resetting of b0 (input b0_1 was reset earlier in this combinatorial cycle). b0 in turn resets c0_1 and sets b0_4 (at marker D). This finishes the combinatorial cycle and starts another *iClock* which does nothing. The next action is the external TX0.4 resetting, which resets slave gate t_1, which has no follow-up.

GTKWave is not part of the OpenSUSE Linux distribution, but it can be easily installed with an RPM package from the internet. Caveat: conversion of VCD files to LXT files with 'vcd2lxt' does not work satisfactorily. **CLOCK** and **TIMER** events are not converted. Therefore use VCD files only for *iC*.

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11 The Author

John E. Wulff studied Electrical Engineering at the University of New South Wales in Sydney, Australia graduating in 1960. His first professional experience was in the Telephone industry, developing switching circuits with electro-mechanical relays but also with vacuum tubes, cold cathode tubes and very soon with the emerging transistors. In 1964 he spent 6 months in England, getting know-how on a new family of switching circuits using germanium diodes and transistors, but which already supported clocked flip-flops. These had been developed at the BICC research laboratory near Hampton Court, where John Sparkes had invented the principle of clocking a few years earlier. With this experience, John Wulff was chief designer for a special purpose computer with 100 kilobytes of magnetic drum memory, 1 million transistors, 2.5 million diodes for logic and 100,000 silicon controlled rectifiers for power output drivers, switching 24 Volt rotary solenoids drawing up to 5 Amps. This computer controlled a letter sorting system with 150 input consoles and a throughput of 5 million letters a day. The system worked reliably for 25 years at the Redfern Mail Exchange in Sydney.

Experience with logic design based on integrated circuits followed. The availability of mini computers led to an interest in programming. A Master of Engineering Science Degree in Information Science at the University of New South Wales provided a solid foundation for future work as a Software Engineer. The design and implementation of a Real Time Operating System (or Monitor, as it was then called) on a PDP-8, which provided a task context switch in 15 machine instructions was the content of his Masters Thesis [Wulff72], and later provided the basis for some very fast industrial machine control systems with Data General Nova mini-computers, whose instruction execution time was 6 microseconds.

In the mid 80's John Wulff came in contact with PLC's. He was asked to help during the commissioning of a PLC-system, controlling a parcel sorting complex consisting of 100 standard conveyor systems and 4 high speed conveyors (2 metres/second) which had mechanical gates along their length, to divert parcels. The gates on these high speed belts needed a control resolution of 15 milliseconds, in which time a parcel had moved 30 mm. Unfortunately the function blocks for the 100 standard conveyors, whose outputs hardly ever changed once they were started, had to be executed 100 times each cycle, once for each conveyor. Because PLC's execute all their instructions over and over, this brought the total cycle time to over 1 second!! What to do? Fortunately the PLC had just enough (8) interrupt inputs, to allow the implementation of an event driven sub-system using the assembler instructions of the PLC. This saved the company a lot of liquidated damages.

That experience spawned the idea for an event driven PLC, which resulted in the current *iC* system. The design was very much influenced by thinking about biological neural networks in the brain. How is it possible that such relatively slow components as neurons and synapses can process such vast amounts of information at the speed that they do? The algorithms at the heart of the *iC* system are based directly on synapses and biological neural networks - not for artificial learning, but simply to gain speed. *iC* is orders of magnitude faster than a PLC with the same speed for any reasonable application one can think of. I was programming the firmware of conventional PLC's for a manufacturer at the time (1989). The IEC-1131 standard with its new language 'Structured Text' had just been published. *immediate C* is simply not compatible with Structured Text, which relies on the cyclic model of PLC's, although *iC* is fully compatible with Ladder Logic. For that reason *immediate C* was never accepted by industry.

In 2013 the *iC* system was ported to the Raspberry Pi running under Raspbian Linux. This computer is slow by current standards (700 MHz), but its size and I/O capabilities make it an ideal platform for *immediate C*. A number of drivers have already been written for real I/O devices connected to the Raspberry Pi (PiFace, PiFaceCAD with others to follow).

The complete system has been published under the Open Source GPL License. With the current emphasis on Linux in embedded Systems, I see great scope here for control systems based on the GPIO I/Os and other peripherals of the Raspberry PI and other similar powerful micro-processors using the language *immediate C*.

John E. Wulff, BE, M EngSc – Bowen Mountain, Australia.

Appendix A README

immediate C, iC rev icc_3.6

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Acknowledgments to Larry Wall, whose README I used as a template. - and for Perl - which is just GREAT.

Acknowledgments to Nick Ing-Simmons for Perl/Tk - which is SMOOTH.

Acknowledgments to Sriram Srinivasan for Msg.pm - which is COOL.

Acknowledgments to the developers of GTKWave - which is POWERFUL.

Acknowledgments to Linus Torvalds and the Open-Source community - for Linux(R) - which is SOMETHING ELSE.

-

Notes for the installation of iC rev icc_3.6

0) Pre-requisites. You need the following on your system:

```
C compiler      # tested with gcc, Clang
bison or yacc   # to translate the grammar
flex or lex
Perl, Perl/Tk   # to build and run iC applications
Time::HiRes
```

1) To start with immediate C, clone the whole GIT repository from <https://github.com/JohnWulff/immediatec.git> OR download the ZIP file of the latest release from the same GitHub site and unzip it.

```
cd immediatec/src
```

2) Execute the following:

```
configure OR
./configure # it helps to put . in your PATH
sudo m -I   # do once as SU

this executes chmod +s /usr/bin/install /usr/bin/ranlib
to allow running make install as an ordinary user
```

To make a Debug version (and install it) do

```
m -cIS OR m -cISi # makes the following
immcc      # the iC to C compiler
libict.a    # the static run-time library
libict.so   # the dynamic run-time library
```

For a regression test (with the debug version) do

```
make test # should output 'test OK'
```

Note: for the release version .ini files don't match

3) To make a Release version do

```
make OR
make quiet # to suppress intermediate output
```

4) To install immcc, libraries and scripts do

```
sudo make install ### SU Password required ###
```

This copies the executables to /usr/local/bin, the include file icg.h to /usr/local/include, libict.a, libict.so to /usr/local/lib or /usr/local/lib64 and Msg.pm to /usr/lib/perl5/site...

```
sudo make uninstall # remove all these files
```

5) To use the Perl support programs, it is mandatory that you install the Perl packages Tk804.029 or later and Time::HiRes unless they are already installed on your system. Both can be found on the internet.

6) To build and run the iC application 'hello.ic' do

```
iClive hello.ic # starts the IDE with hello.ic
press [Build] / Build executable
# displays 'hello' successfully built
press [Run]     # opens iCbox with 1 button IX0.0
press button IX0.0 # button turns HI (input is green)
# 'Hello! world' is output in the
# window iClive was started from
press [Live]     # The word IX0.0 (the only
# immediate variable in hello.ic is
# coloured yellow/red, because
# IX0.0 is HI.
```

```
press button IX0.0 # button turns LO (input is grey)
# live display changes to
# green/black, indicating LO.
press [File] / Quit # 'hello' and iCbox are terminated
```

7) A slightly bigger application is 'simple.ic'. Build and run it with iClive. An iCbox with 16 inputs and 8 outputs is started automatically. Explore the logic of the statements by changing inputs and following the outputs in iCbox and the live display in iClive.

8) The application 'bar.ic' uses flip flops to produce a bar of running lights. The application also explores the use of programmable time delays, giving some idea of the scope of the iC language.

Running 'iClive bar.ic' as a separate process, while 'bar' is running will display the source file in the edit window, connects to iCserver as an auxiliary client to receive updates of all variables from the running iC program (bar). In 'Live' mode these updates will change the colours of all words which are immediate variables. This 'Live display' shows the current state of logical relationships in visible statements of the iC program as green/black = 0, yellow/red = 1. Arithmetic variables are blue and their value can be displayed in a balloon, when the cursor rests on the variable.

In 'Live' mode, when a 'live display' is shown, the text is read only. When the 'Edit' button is pressed 'iClive' is a full featured editor. The edit facilities of this program are described in the iClive man page under the Heading 'KEYBOARD BINDINGS' (press Help button in 'iClive').

'iClive' can use the Tk::TextUndo package, an extension of Tk::Text. This allows undoing changes with the Ctrl-u key. (Control-u is <<Undo>>) This is achieved by starting iClive with the -u option. Use this option only for editing. In 'Live' mode the display is very jerky with -u active.

9) iCserver distributes TCP/IP messages between iC apps and iC real and virtual I/O drivers. It is started automatically by any iC app or driver unless it is already running. iCserver can be started manually in another window to have more control over the iC network configuration with real inputs.

10) iCserver is usually started with the -a (auto-vivify) option, which will start a simulated I/O iCbox for every input and output, every time an iC application is started. Otherwise these must be started manually, which can be tedious for large applications.

```
iCserver -a & # auto-vivify iCbox for application
simple        # starts iCbox with 3 sets of I/O
```

If iClive is started first, it does all this automatically. It then stops iCserver automatically when it quits. When iCserver stops it stops all registered applications and I/O's.

11) iC applications can of course be run without iClive. They do need iCserver though, which every app starts automatically in auto-vivify mode unless it is already running.

```
hello OR # start hello + iCserver -ak + iCbox
hello -l # additionally start iClive
type q   # to stop hello, iCserver and iCbox
```

12) Bernstein chaining. If several different iC applications, or different instances of the same application are to be started together, their initialisation sequences must be run sequentially, but after that they must all run in parallel as separate processes (and in parallel with iCserver, iCbox and iClive). This is difficult to achieve with shell commands.

THESE DO NOT WORK!

```
bar; bar -i1 # does not start bar -i1 until bar stops
bar &; bar -i1 # is a shell syntax error
bar &         # this starts processes in parallel
bar -i1       # but initialisation sequences clash
```

None of these is what we want. To achieve the desired result, Bernstein chaining has been implemented with the -R option for every iC app and for all iC drivers.

```
bar -R bar -i1 # starts bar and bar -i1 with well
# sequenced initialisation
# and then in parallel
```

```
bar -l -R bar -i1 -R bar -i2 -R bar -i3
# starts:

iCserver -z -ak
iClive bar.ic # from -l
bar -z -i1 -R bar -i2 -R bar -i3
bar -z -i2 -R bar -i3
bar -z -i3
```

by auto-vivification iCserver starts:

```
iCbox X0 B1 X2 # for bar
iCbox X0-1 B1-1 X2-1 # for bar -i1
iCbox X0-2 B1-2 X2-2 # for bar -i2
iCbox X0-3 B1-3 X2-3 # for bar -i3
```

Only the first app in the chain has keyboard input. It can be stopped by typing 'q'. This in turn stops iCserver, which stops all other apps in the chain. (-z blocks keyboard input for all chained apps).

Chaining is important for driver calls with real I/O arguments.

13) A reasonably large iC app controlling 'iClift' shows the full power of iC.

iClift, a Perl/Tk GUI, is a simulation of the physics and appearance of lifts in a building with IEC inputs sent to an iC control application from simulated sensors and buttons and using IEC outputs received from an iC control application to initiate and stop simulated movement and to reset buttons and activate indicators.

```
iClift -e # run iClift with the default 1 Lift and
# 3 Floors and execute a matching iC
# control program

iClift -L2 -F5 -l # run iClift with 2 lifts and
# 5 Floors and execute a matching iC
# control program and open iClive
```

With any configuration of lifts, you can call lifts to any floor and then use the column of buttons to send the lift to another floor as well as being able to open and close doors. Pressing the [C] button at the top left starts continuous testing. Adding the -d option to the above calls will start a monitoring iCbox, which shows the state of all the IEC signals passing from iClift to the iC control program and back. These signals as well as all internal variables of the control program can be monitored in the iClive display with the [Live] button pressed.

14) Another powerful debugging tool is the GTKWave Wave Analyzer.

GTKWave (an open-source program) is an analysis tool originally intended to perform debugging on Verilog or VHDL simulation models. With the exception of interactive VCD viewing, it is not intended to run interactively with simulation, but instead relies on a post-mortem approach through the use of dumpfiles. Various dumpfile formats are supported: VCD: Value Change Dump. This is an industry standard file format generated by most Verilog simulators and is specified in IEEE-1364. (Extract from the GTKWave 3.3 Wave Analyzer User's Guide) Use in the iC system is hereby gratefully acknowledged.

gtkwave-3.1.10-4.33.i586.rpm was downloaded from the internet. To install gtwave on OpenSUSE Linux do:

```
sudo rpm -i gtwave-3.1.10-4.33.i586.rpm
```

For other Linux distributions download and follow the instructions in the internet to install GTKWave for those systems.

Since version 1.131 of the iC run-time a VCD file and an associated SAV file is generated by an iC application when run with the -v option. This allows the interactive or post-mortem viewing of both logic and analog traces against a virtual time scale. This time scale was chosen so that each sequential change in any signal is 1 virtual microsecond. iClock cycles take up 2 virtual microseconds. Each new external input (Ixn.m, IBn, IWn ILn or TX0.m) occurs on the next 10 virtual microsecond boundary. To test this do:

```
simple -v simple.vcd
# writes simple.vcd and simple.sav
# press IX0.0 to IX0.7 in iCbox one
# after the other to turn them on
```

```
# then press IX0.0 to IX0.7 one after
# the other to turn them off again
```

```
type q # stop simple, iCserver, iCbox. This
# writes simple.vcd and simple.sav

gtkwave simple.vcd simple.sav # displays timing
# for all non-extended variables
```

A more detailed example uses the running of 'bar -v bar.vcd' shown in the iC manual iC.pdf and barx.sav, which is in the distribution and which shows extra extended gates and markers used in the description in the manual. barx.sav was generated by first running gtwave bar.vcd bar.sav - inserting extended variables from modules, setting markers and then saving as barx.sav.

```
gtkwave bar.vcd barx.sav
# display some extended variables
```

15) I have included a script called 'iCstop' from my private toolkit. It can be used effectively to kill iCserver when it is executing in the background, which is appropriate for a server.

```
iCserver &
iCstop iCserver # local copy of 'iCstop'
```

16) To make executable applications from iC sources, use the script iCmake. iCmake is a shell script to compile iC sources into C sources using the 'immcc' compiler. These in turn are compiled and linked into an executable iC applications (currently using gcc - this can be changed). Various options allow partial compilation and generation of listings.

```
iCmake -h OR iCman iCmake # gives a lot of help
```

17) The LibreOffice 3.3.1 document doc/iC.odt (or doc/iC.pdf) is the Reference Manual for the iC Programming Language. It opens the way to use "immediate C" fully.

18) There is a generous help output for every tool in the 'iC Project' initiated with the -h option. Each generated iC application also has two help outputs:

```
hello -h # list available common options
hello --h # extra app specific help
```

The common options shown in the help output explain how to connect to iCserver on another computer in a LAN with the -s option or with a different port number with -p. Very detailed debugging output, showing the change of state of every event in the system is available for the Debug version of the iC system with -t. (Suppressed for Release version)

Extra options and help output specific to a particular iC app can be inserted in the C function

```
int iCbegin(int argc, char **argv);
```

in a literal block of your iC source (see rfid.ic for help).

19) There are 'man' pages for all the tools used in the 'iC Project'. These can be viewed with the normal 'man' command under Linux or with 'iCman'. The man page viewer 'iCman' has some nifty web-browser features to view and search man pages - try it with 'iCman iCman'.

Lots of success

\$Id: README 1.34 2021-04-18 John E Wulff \$

Main development is on openSUSE (Leap 15.2) and perlTk Tk804.034, which provides fast live updates in iClive. They seem to be as fast as with Tk800.24. A Test with Knoppix and Tk804.25, which is still available for Debian also provided good performance with fast live updates in iClive.

In Sept 2013 I ported immediate C to the Raspberry Pi running Raspbian. There were no problems, except the gcc ARM compiler defaults to 'unsigned char'. Since the core of the iC system is based on signed arithmetic with char's, I had to change the declaration of those to 'signed char'. The following packages had to be installed with sudo apt-get install: perl-tk, bison and flex. The following packages are optional but useful: git, gtwave and vim. (2 weeks with an old vi from the Raspbian distribution was punishment enough). After that all tests passed.

During 2014 I wrote drivers for direct I/O for the PiFace and PiFaceCAD digital interfaces for the Raspberry Pi - see man page for iCpiFace and README.Rpi.

Appendix B README.RPi

Raspberry Pi Development and Run-time Environment

For building the *immediate C* system on a Raspberry Pi, the development environment for the Raspbian distribution of Linux is just as powerful as for Linux on a PC. It natively supports gcc 4.6.3 and perl 5.14. For the *iC* system Perl/Tk, bison and flex are also required. All of these tools are available with apt-get. I also rely on vim for writing and maintaining code, ddd for debugging, GTKWave for visualizing and GIT for source code control. These are also available for the Raspberry Pi.

The *iC* system consists of the *immediate C* compiler 'immcc', the static library 'libict.a', which has debugging support and the shared library 'libict.so', which does not. On top of this are the Raspberry Pi specific I/O drivers **iCpiFace**, **iCpiPWM** and **iCtherm**. The 'immcc' compiler has no Raspberry Pi specific code. The libraries have driver extensions which are optionally compiled if an **armv** CPU is used. To build the various components 'make' must be called with different options. The auxiliary script 'makeAll' looks after this (see the 'makeAll' man page). 'makeAll' tests which processor it is running on and defines RASPBERRYPI if it runs on an **armv** CPU. This means the calls to make are identical on all processors (currently x86_64, armv6l and armv7l) The Makefile also looks after storing the libraries in the correct directory - /usr/local/lib or /usr/local/lib64 for 64 bit processors. To make things even easier the script 'm' builds various versions very simply. (I used to have a colleague who found 'make' too long to type).

```
m      # build immcc and libict.a with debugging support
m -cl  # same as m
m -clS # also build the shared library without debugging
m -P   # build the I/O program iCpiFace and iCgpioPUD
m -i   # build immcc and libict.a and install everything
m -clSi # build and install everything
```

On top of this all *iC* programs have to be re-compiled if 'immcc' has been modified or simply re-linked if only the libraries have changed. The script 'iCmake' looks after this. It's arguments are one or more *iC* files ending in .ic (or .ica, in which case more arguments are usually needed).

```
iCmake -sA *.ic
# re-link all iC files in the current directory with the
# static library libict.a for debugging
# the -A switch shows ALIASES as live data in iClive
iCmake -f *.ic
# force re-linking with the shared library libict.so
```

It may be worthwhile mentioning at this point, that the *iC* apps behaved very strangely when I did a complete 'apt-get dist-upgrade' recently. Everything worked again when I re-linked everything to the upgraded system libraries.

Build times of the complete *iC* compiler as well as static and shared libraries on the RPi B and B+ versions, which have an ARM6 processor running at 700 MHz and 500 Mbytes of memory, are 3 min 50 sec (230 seconds).

Build time for the RPi 2B version, which has a four core ARM7 processor running at 800 MHz and 1 Gbyte of memory, is 1 min 14 sec (74 seconds).

My development machine is a Compaq Presario CQ57 with a two core Intel Pentium CPU 8940 (x86_64) running at 2.0 GHz with 4 Gbytes of memory running openSUSE 13.1 Linux. It runs gcc 4.8.1 and perl 5.18.

Build time for the Compaq PC is 10.8 seconds, which makes a ratio of 21.7-1 for the 3 machines. Execution times for 'make test' times for the 3 machines are 330 seconds, 117 seconds and 17.9 seconds respectively, which is a ratio of 18.5-6.5-1, which is similar.

The build times mentioned above are for a complete distribution clean followed by compiling the *iC* and C yacc files and a lex file followed by 31 C compiles and 3 link compiles. Also 14 man page files are re-compiled from POD-text attached directly to the relevant sources. All relevant files are also installed. During normal development only one or a few files are recompiled, which only takes seconds, even on the slow RPi B.

I have written, compiled and debugged all the RPi specific drivers on a RPi B connected via ssh -X to a number of console windows on the Compaq PC. That way I get the fastest turnaround time. The only program which does not run well in a SSH window is ddd. It works perfectly in a native window on the Raspberry Pi.

I also mount the central Compaq PC via nfs on each RPi. This allows archiving of modified sources on the Compaq PC and distributing modified files to other RPi's on the network.

The *immediate C* IDE program **iClive** is both a text editor for writing new *iC* programs or for updating them as well as a debugger for displaying the state of immediate bit, int, clock and timer variables in real time by colour changes of the variables in the program text or in balloon windows for analog values. **iClive** also has a button for executing the usual File operations, a button to build an *iC* executable, a button to switch between different instances of the current program, a button to switch between Edit and Live mode and a button for a powerful search facility. The Edit window provides a modest amount of syntax highlighting. Nevertheless I mostly use vim for editing *iC* programs and **iClive** only for debugging. I provide 3 files: ic.vim, filetype.vim and wulff.vim to provide syntax highlighting for *iC* files in vim. The command line tool 'iCmake' generates executables from *iC* source file ending in .ic or .ica (see man pages for more details).

The graphical program **iClive** and a number of other support widgets (most importantly **iCbox**) run perfectly on the Linux PC when started remotely on a RPi in a ssh -X window. This makes testing networked *iC* programs on several RPi's very easy.

Raspberry Pi Direct I/O with GPIO's

The ARM processors have GPIO signals, some of which are brought out on the P1 connector of the Raspberry Pi boards.

The Raspberry Pi A or B brings out 17 GPIO signals on a 26 pin connector, 5 of which double up to do the SPI interface, 2 for a UART, leaving 10 for general purpose input/output (there are 4 more on a 2nd connector, which is not normally fitted). The Raspberry Pi B+ and 2B bring out 9 more GPIO signals on their 40 pin connectors making a total of 19 free GPIO pins. The Linux "sysfs" can access the value of these GPIO pins from user space and more importantly can generate interrupts from them.

Because GPIO pins are not buffered, great care must be taken using them. Output voltages are 0 volts (lo) and 3.3 volts (hi) and load current is limited. A useful indicator circuit is a low power LED connected to 3.3 volts via a 270 ohm resistor. This can be used as an output indicator and provides input bias and an indicator for input switches connecting to 0 volts. For both inputs and outputs 0 volts (lo) is the active signal when the light is on and the switch is closed. The software drivers provided allow for this by arranging that both outputs and inputs can be independently active hi or active lo. (For GPIO's each bit can be independently active hi or lo).

In *iC*, direct digital I/O on GPIO pins is handled by the Linux "sysfs" and its interrupts.

For details see:

http://elinux.org/RPi_Low-level_peripherals
<http://www.auctoris.co.uk/2012/07/19/gpio-with-sysfs-on-a-raspberry-pi/>

Other Raspberry Pi I/O drivers with GPIO's

iCpiPWM provides pulse width modulated outputs on GPIO pins to provide pseudo analog output from 0 to 3.3 volts or to drive Servos with 500 to 2500 us pulses at 20 ms intervals. It also measures analog inputs using the **MCP3008** 8 channel 10 bit A/D converter.

iCtherm measures temperature using one or more **DS18B20** 1-Wire digital thermometers connected to GPIO4.

More details for both drivers can be found in the respective man pages.

PiFace I/O extension boards

One PiFace 1 board can be plugged directly into the 26 pin P1 connector of a RPi B board. Up to 8 PiFace boards can be connected using up to 3 PiRacks. I have tested 4 PiFace 1's on one PiRack as well as a 40 pin PiFace 2 and 2 x PiFace Relay+ with Relay Extra extensions together on a RPi2.

Each PiFace provides 8 bits of buffered digital output, each of which is connected to a LED indicator and 2 of which also drive relays with 1 changeover switch each. Each PiFace also has 8 bits of digital input, which can be configured as extra outputs. 4 pushbutton switches pull inputs 0 to 3 to 0 volts. All 8 outputs, the 6 wires from the contacts of the relays and the 8 inputs are brought out to terminal blocks.

The output LED's and the relays are switched on when the output is 0 volts, which is active lo. The way the switches are arranged the input is also active lo for the 4 switches. Like for GPIO's the drivers can select either active hi or active lo (for PiFaces all 8 outputs and independently all 8 inputs may be configured to be active hi or lo).

PiFaceCAD I/O extension board

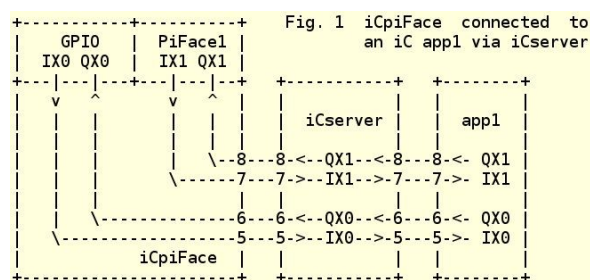
One PiFaceCAD board can be plugged directly into the 26 pin P1 connector of a RPi B board or into the top connector of a PiRack together with PiFaces.

The PiFaceCAD uses output to control a 16 x 2 LCD character display. It also has 6 pushbutton switches and 1 changeover switch, which connect to 0 volts when activated. The inputs are not brought out to a terminal block.

RPi Drivers for GPIO's, PiFaces and a PiFaceCAD

Because the *iC* system is geared to using interrupts to get immediate response from inputs, a common driver is preferable to handle interrupts via a single select() call.

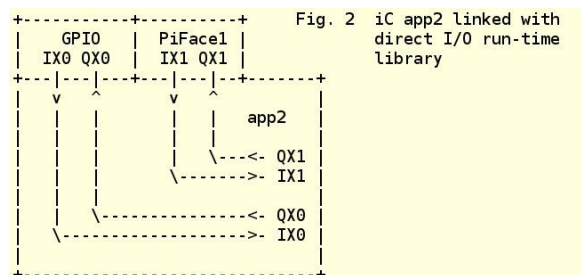
Two versions of the driver have been implemented. The simplest is a program called *iCpiFace*, which takes input and sends output to GPIO's, PiFaces and a PiFaceCAD from data transmitted to the app by TCP/IP messages transmitted to and from an *iC* app via *iCserver*. This program can also be called by the alternative name *iCpiGPIO*, in which case only GPIO's are handled.



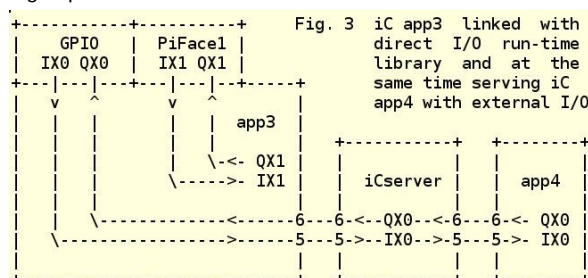
(The numbers at the boundaries of the three boxes are iCserver channel numbers)

The advantage of *iCpiFace* is, that *iC* apps are compiled and linked without regard to where the data originates. The disadvantage is, that I/O speeds are limited by the speed of transmission of the TCP/IP messages and the time taken by *iCserver*. On an RPi 2B a turnaround time of 1.7 ms was measured if an input is switched on a GPIO or PiFace input and the *iC* app immediately outputs it to a GPIO or PiFace output. On an RPi B or B+ this was 5.5 ms. As can be seen in Fig. 1, four separate TCP/IP messages and 2 delays in *iCserver* are involved - *iCpiFace* input to *iCserver* - *iCserver* in to out - *iCserver* to the *iC* app input - *iC* app output to *iCserver* - *iCserver* in to out and *iCserver* to the *iCpiFace* output. This speed is similar to the speed of a fast mechanical relay and is quite useful for many control applications. It is still faster than most PLC's.

A second version of the driver is built directly into the run-time library linked to *iC* apps and is therefore much faster. External inputs interrupt the system directly and act directly in the *iC* execution network generating values, which are transmitted directly to external outputs. Turnaround times of 90 us were measured for GPIO's on an RPi 2B (170 us on an RPi B or B+) and 450 us for PiFaces on an RPi B. PiFaces are a bit slower, because speed is limited by the serial transmissions of the SPI interface.



A feature of the direct I/O in the run-time library is, that any GPIO or PiFace I/O's, which are not called for in the *iC* app the library is linked to, will be handled as TCP/IP I/O's, just like *iCpiFace*. This means several *iC* apps can utilize GPIO and PiFace I/O's. Of course only one app can use direct high-speed I/O.



The command line switches and I/O arguments are explained in detail in the *iCpiFace* man page and in the -h help output for *iCpiFace* and each app linked to the RPi library. These arguments are mostly identical for both versions. Here are command line calls for the three examples above.

- 1) *iCpiFace* -I IX0.0,18 QX0.0,24 X1:1 # OR
iCpiFace -IX0.0,18 -QX0.0,24 -X1:1 # separate inversion
all inputs and outputs active lo
IX0.0 GPIO 18 external input
QX0.0 GPIO 24 external output
IX1.0-IX1.7 external on PiFace1
QX1.0-QX1.7 external on PiFace1
app1 # uses IX0.0, QX0.0 as well as
IX1.0 - IX1.7 and QX1.0 - QX1.7
- 2) app2 -I IX0.0,18 QX0.0,24 X1:1
all inputs and outputs active lo
app2 uses all inputs and outputs
IX0.0 GPIO 18 direct input
QX0.0 GPIO 24 direct output
IX1.0-IX1.7 direct on PiFace1
QX1.0-QX1.7 direct on PiFace1
- 3) app3 -I IX0.0,18 QX0.0,24 X1:1
all inputs and outputs active lo
app3 uses IX1.0 - IX1.7 and
QX1.0 - QX1.7 only
IX1.0-IX1.7 direct on PiFace1
QX1.0-QX1.7 direct on PiFace1
IX0.0 GPIO 18 external input
QX0.0 GPIO 24 external output
app4 # uses IX0.0, QX0.0 only

All calls to the I/O systems have been done with active lo inputs and outputs. This means that if a variable is '1' in the *iC* app, it is 0 volts or lo at the in or output terminal, which is appropriate for input switches connected to 0 volts and driving LED's and relays connected to 3.3 volts. If inverting buffers are used the calls can be adjusted appropriately.

When an app is called with only direct inputs and outputs, it does not connect to *iCserver* at all, which means *iClive* cannot be used with that app. To enable *iClive*, the app must be called with the -L option, which connects it to *iCserver* anyway and thus enabling *iClive* debugging. Another useful option is -B, which causes *iCpiFace* and an app with direct I/O to generate an auxiliary *iCbox* to monitor the direct inputs and outputs, which otherwise are only electrical signals at the I/O terminals.

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