

# READS51 User's Guide

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## 1 READS51 OVERVIEW

Reads51 is an Integrated Development Environment (IDE) that currently supports Rigel's 8051 family of embedded control boards. The IDE includes an assembler, C compiler, editor, linker/locator, debugger, and chip simulator. We've added two new features to the Reads51 software. The first is the ability to look at the Preprocessor output. To generate a file from the preprocessor go to **Tools | Run Preprocessor** and select the file you would like to look at. A \*\*.xc file will be generated which shows the code the preprocessor has generated for the selected file. The second new feature is the ability to implement a simple real-time multithreading kernel. The Project `_rtmt` generates the library `_rtmt.lib`, found in the ".\include" directory. Projects `mt01` to `mt04`, found in the ".\Pi51calch05" directory, illustrate the use of the library. For more details on the use of the real-time multithreading kernel, please refer to the book "Programming and Interfacing the 8051 in C and Assembly".

Graphically, the IDE consists of the main menu, customizable toolbars, and various windows. All windows, except the editor window are dockable. Dockable windows may be attached to any side of the IDE, or left floating anywhere on the desktop.

The following list of IDE features corresponds to the comments on the diagram given on the next page.

- |                        |   |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Window Caption      | Shows the current active project, and file.   |
| 2. Main Menu Commands  | Contains the highest level menu commands  |
| 3. Toolbars            | Displays a set of icons at the top of the editor window. These are shortcuts to the more often used menu commands.                                  |
| 4. Workspace           | Shows all open projects in tabs, the active project's tab is highlighted in red.  |
| 5. Edit Window         | Source modules and files open in this window for editing.   |
| 6. TTY Window          | PC to Board communications shown here.  |
| 7. Output Window       | Shows the result of various processes. The Build tab shows the compiler or assembler results. The Find-in-File tab reports the results of searches. |
| 8. SFR Watch Window    | Shows the value of the SFR's while debugging.   |
| 9. Memory Watch Window | Shows the value in the different types of memory while debugging.   |
| 10. Status Bar         | Shows the result of various operations, software version, target, and the position of the cursor.   |

1. Window Caption

2. Main Menu

3. Toolbars

4. Workspace

5. Edit Window

6. TTY Window (SimTTY, SimIO)

7. OutPut Window (Build, Find-in-Files)

8. SFR Watch Window (SFR Watch, Modify Watch)

9. Memory Watch Window (SFR Page, Code Page, Data Page, Internal Page)

10. Status Bar

Software Version

Target

Current Line in Edit Window

Read51 - Hello - [a01.c]

Project File Module Compile Debug Edit View Tools Options Window Help

RUN/DEBUG mode

Workspace: Hello, a01.c, serial.c

```

void puts(char c);
void puts(char *sz);
char getc(void);
void printf(char *sz);
void InitSerialPort0(int nMode);

#define _9600_11_059_TIMER1 0
#define _9600_24_TIMER1 1
#define _9600_12_80535BRG 2
#define _9600_10_CS15BRG 3

main() {
// --- initialize serial port (9600 Baud) ---
InitSerialPort0(_9600_10_CS15BRG);
puts('\n');

printf("hello world...\n\n");

// the following serves as an absorbing loop

```

Ports (click or shift-click)

P0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	0xFF
P1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	0xFF
P2	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	0xFF
P3	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	0xFF

Output Window: Successful build.

Name	Address	Value	Previous V
ACC	0xE0	0x02	0x40
B	0xF0	0x06	0xFF
DPH	0x83	0x40	0x40
DPL	0x82	0x02	0x06
IE	0xA8	0x00	0x00
IP	0xB8	0x00	0x00
P0	0x80	0xFF	0xFF
P1	0x90	0xFF	0xFF
P2	0xA0	0xFF	0xFF
P3	0xB0	0xFF	0xFF
PCON	0x87	0x00	0x80

Memory Watch Window: Internal

Status Bar: Paused at PC=0x0100 [PUSH IP] V4 RChipSim51 Line 10 Col 18

## 2 READS51 CONCEPTS

Reads51 has two modes, referred to as the "Build Mode" and the "Run/Debug Mode". The IDE Modes reinforce the typical aspects of code creation and development versus code execution and debugging. For example, the Run/Debug mode disables code editing as well as adding or removing modules while the code is being executed.

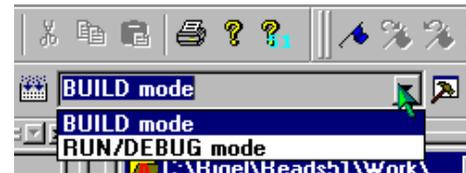
### 2.1 IDE Modes

**Build Mode**- supports source code creation and revision. All project, module, and edit functions are enabled. You may create new projects, new modules, add or remove modules, etc.

**Run/Debug**- is oriented to facilitate code execution and debugging. Project management and source code editing functions are disabled. The commands to run, single step, set/clear breakpoints, watch variables are enabled only in this mode.

The current mode is always displayed in the drop-down list box in the toolbar. There are four alternative actions to toggle the mode.

1. Use menu item **Compile | Toggle BUILD/DEBUG Mode**.
2. Use the toolbar button. 
3. Use the hot key F2.
4. Use the drop-down list box in the toolbar.



### 2.2 Projects and Modules

Reads51 uses a project-oriented code development and management system. Projects contain modules, which may be written in either C or assembly. Modules may freely be shared or copied from one project to another. Moving modules between projects is accomplished by the "cut", "copy", and "paste" commands under the Module menu or by the "Import Module" command under the Module menu.

#### 2.2.1 Projects

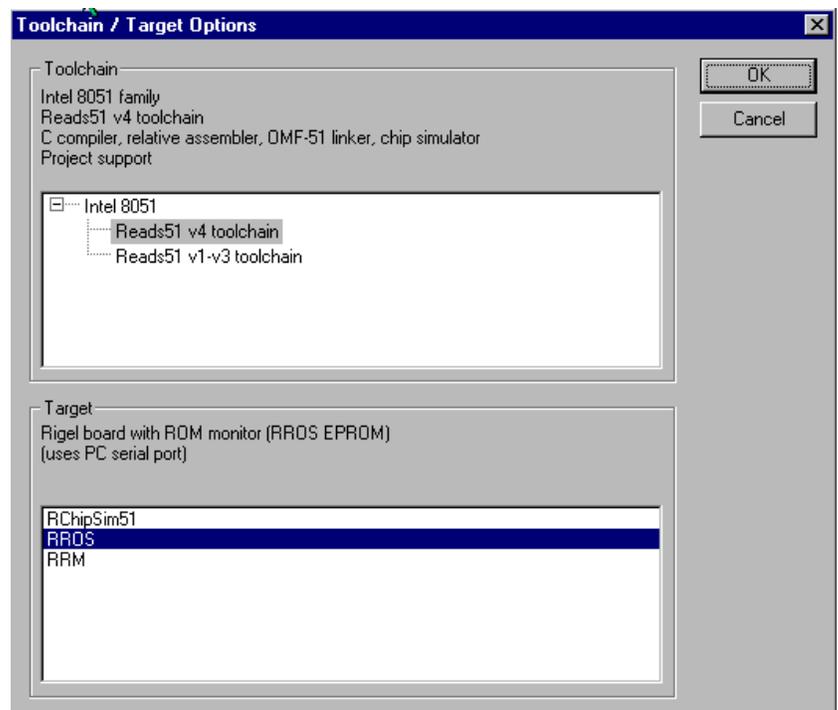
A project is a collection of files managed together. Each code module in a project corresponds to a separate project file. By default all projects are kept in their individual subdirectories. You may copy or save projects as a single entity. When saved under a different name, a new subdirectory is created and all components of the project are duplicated in the new subdirectory. You may use the long names provided by the 32-bit Windows operating systems to keep different versions of your software in a controlled manner. For example, the project "Motor Control 07-20-2000" may be saved under the new name "Motor Control 07-25-2000" as new features are added. This way you may revert to an older version, if needed.

#### 2.2.2 Modules

A module is a single file that belongs to a project. Typically, modules are either assembly language subroutines or C language functions. You may copy modules from one project to another, or share modules in different projects. For example, you may copy previously developed modules from an existing project to a new project by cutting and pasting or by importing. You may also add modules to a project by "drag-and-dropping" them from the Explorer Window. By using existing or previously developed and debugged modules, you may significantly improve code reusability, much in the same manner as libraries. Reusing modules differs from using library functions of existing routines in that modules are kept in source form rather than object form.

### 2.3 Workspaces

The Reads51 IDE allows multiple projects to be open concurrently. The collection of the various visual components of the projects constitute a workspace. You may save workspaces and re-open them later. When a workspace is opened, all projects and their various components are restored.



If multiple projects are open you may toggle between the workspaces by selecting the tabs at the bottom of the workspace window.

The Project menu contains three commands “Open Workspace”, “Save Workspace”, and “Close Workspace”, as well as the command “Recent Workspaces” to view or open recently saved workspaces.

## 2.4 Toolchains

A toolchain refers to a set of software development programs such as a compiler, assembler, and a linker, intended to be used together to perform the steps in generating executable code from various source files.

Reads51 currently contains two toolchains, v4 and v3. V3 contains the Reads51v3.x absolute assembler. The V4 contains the new (v4.00) relative assembler and linker. The v4 toolchain also includes a SmallC compatible C compiler. Use the “Options | Toolchain / Target Options” menu item to select the toolchain and target to be used. If you would like to program in C, you must select the Reads51v4 toolchain. We recommend that you use the v4 toolchain for all new projects.

We have three targets now available, the RChipSim51, the RROS, and the RRM. The RChipSim is our simulator. The RROS and RRM modes use the serial port to download code to the boards. We use the RROS, **ROM Resident Operating System**, on all of our 8051 boards and it is the default monitor. The RRM, **RAM Resident Monitor**, was previously used only for Rigel’s custom OEM hardware. Newer versions of the R31JP and the R515JC support the RRM mode. RRM has two advantages over RROS: it supports higher Baud rates, and larger user programs. RRM is useful in downloading and running larger C programs on the Rigel boards. Check your board hardware manual to see if it supports RRM.

Rigel’s 8051-chip simulator is supported by both toolchains. Reads51 toolchain options are organized for future expansion of the toolchain selections, and microcontroller families. Currently, the IDE only supports the 8051 family.

### 3 READS51 IDE

Graphically, the IDE consists of the main menu, customizable toolbars, and various windows. All windows, except the editor window are dockable. Dockable windows may be attached to any side of the IDE, or left floating anywhere on the desktop.

#### 3.1 Menu Commands

The functionality of the Reads51 components remains fully integrated. The user interface has been improved by placing many of the specific commands into sub-menus. The Main Menu contains the higher-level options such as projects, modules, or tools. Most Windows also support specific pop-up menus, activated by right-clicking the mouse. For details on the menu commands see the appendix.

##### 3.1.1 Project

Under the “Project” menu, you will find many of the familiar file commands such as, “New”, “Open”, “Save”, and “Close”. You’ll also find commands, which involve the workspace and compile options.

##### 3.1.2 File

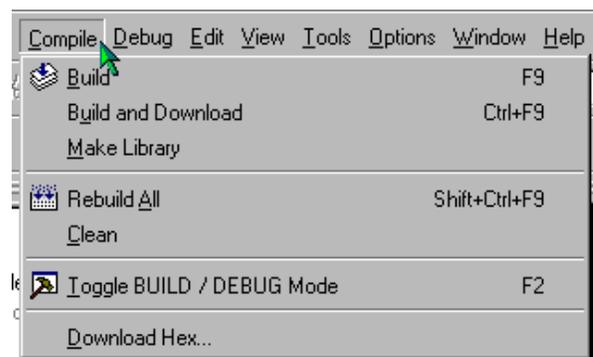
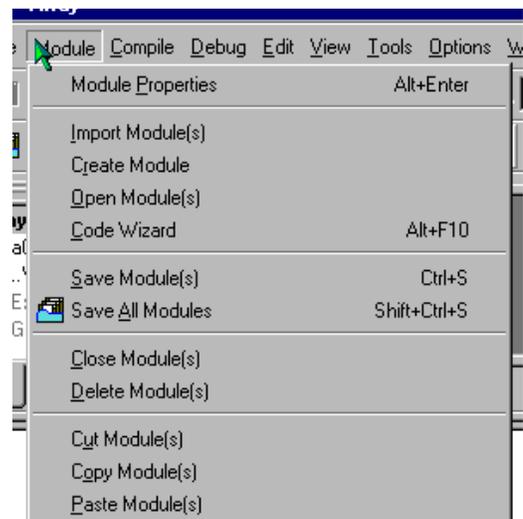
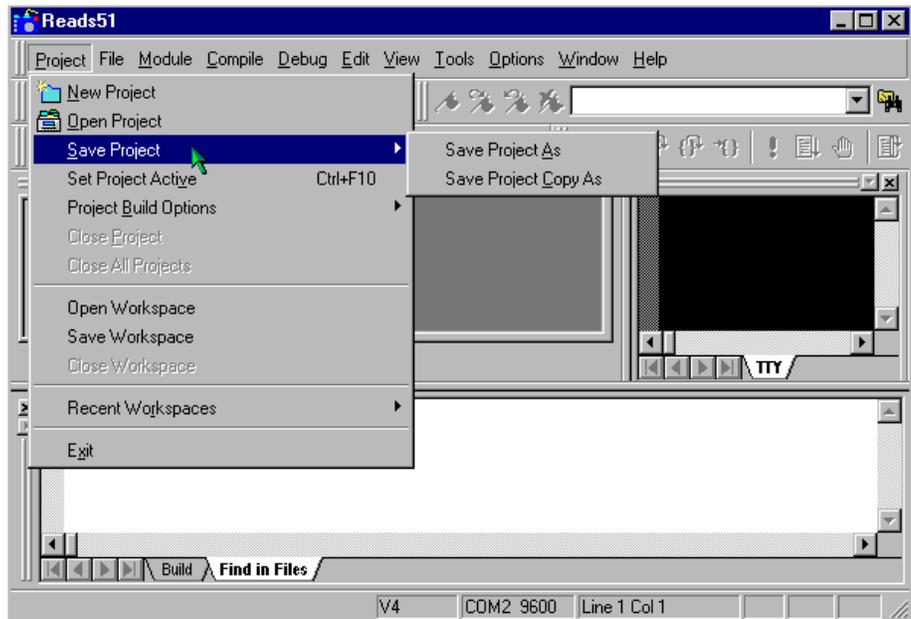
The “File” menu commands include the standard “New”, “Open”, “Save”, “Save As”, “Save All”, and “Close” file commands. The print commands are also located here.

##### 3.1.3 Module

A module is a single file that belongs to a project. Typically modules are subroutines. You may copy modules from one project to another, or share modules in different projects. For example, you may copy a previously developed module from an old project to a new project by importing it or by using the “Cut” or “Copy” and “Paste” commands in the Module menus. You may set “Module Properties”, “Create Modules”, “Open Modules”, “Save”, “Close”, or “Delete Modules” of the current project using the commands under the “Module” menu. The “Code Wizard” is not implemented yet.

##### 3.1.4 Compile

The “Compile” menu commands include “Build”, “Build and Download”, “Make Library”, “Rebuild All”, “Clean”, “Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode”, and “Download Hex”. “Build” compiles the current project. If no project is open and the editor contains a file, this current file is compiled. “Build and Download” compiles the highlighted project and downloads it to the target board. “Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode” switches between the Build and Debug modes. “Rebuild All” and “Download Hex” are basic features that implement the stated command.



### 3.1.5 Debug

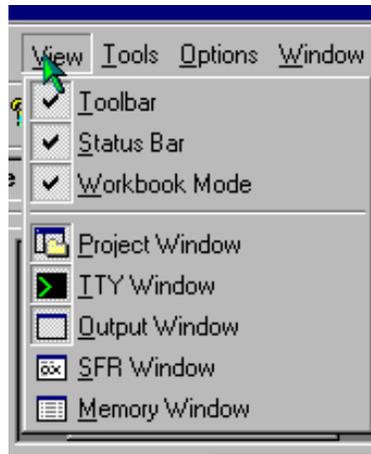
The “Debug” menu allows you to control the debug features of Reads51. You may “Edit Breakpoints”, “Toggle Breakpoints”, “Clear Breakpoints”, and “Run to”, “Run Skip”, “Step Into”, “Over” or “Out of Breakpoints”.

### 3.1.6 Edit

The “Edit” menu commands are the standard edit commands found in most programs. They allow you to “Redo”, “Cut”, “Copy”, “Paste”, “Find”, “Find Next”, “Replace”, and “Select All” the text.

### 3.1.7 View

The “View” menu commands are again the standard view commands with a couple of specific commands for Reads51 included. These commands allow you to open windows and customize the screen when working with Reads51.



### 3.1.8 Tools

The “Tools” commands allow you to search in files for given strings with the “Find in Files” command, change the toolbars with the “Customize Toolbars” command, or “Burn RIC320 EEPROM” on one of our boards.

### 3.1.9 Options

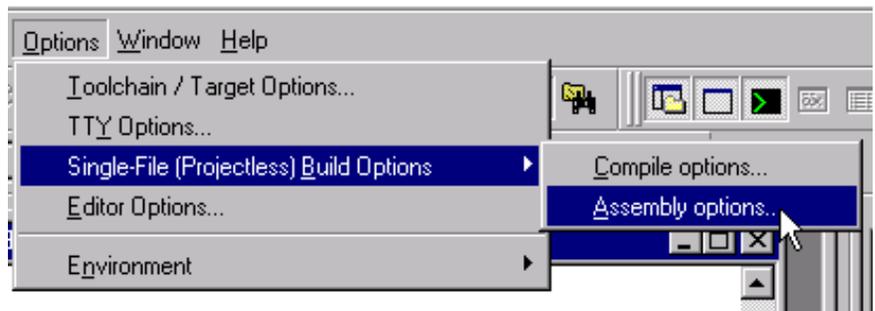
The “Options” menu allows you to select the toolchain and target you want to use. It also allows you to select the “TTY Options”, the compile and assembly options for single files, “Editor Options”, and “Environment” options.

### 3.1.10 Window

These are the standard Window commands found in most programs; “Cascade”, “Tile”, “Arrange Icons”, and “Close All”.

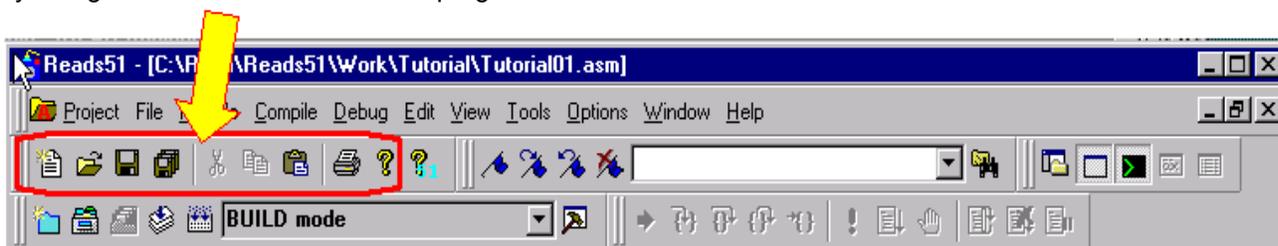
### 3.1.11 Help

A wide variety of information can be found in the Help files. We’ve added the MCS-51 instruction set, HTML help system, Quick Start, and updated our standard help files.



## 3.2 Toolbars

A Toolbar is a row of buttons at the top of the main window, which represent application commands. Clicking one of the buttons is a quick alternative to choosing a command from the menu. Many of the Toolbar buttons are the standard Windows buttons. “New”, “Open”, “Save”, “Save All”, “Cut”, “Copy”, “Paste”, “Print”, and “Help” are easily recognizable from other Windows programs.



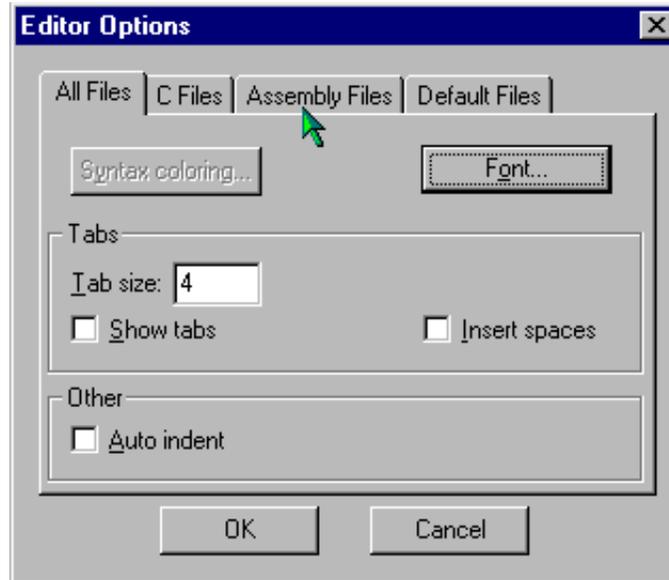
Buttons on the toolbar activate and deactivate according to the state of the application, whether you are in the Build or Run/Debug Mode. Since toolbars are user customizable, it is better to investigate the function of the toolbar buttons for the current IDE by observing the ToolTips or the icons presented in the menus. For example, click on the **Compile | Toggle BUILD/DEBUG Mode** menu command. The corresponding toolbar button icon (a hammer) is shown next to the menu item. Clicking the menu item is equivalent to clicking on the corresponding toolbar button. Also, observe that F2 is given as the hot key to toggle the mode.

### 3.3 Editor

The editor uses a multiple document interface so that several files may be opened at a time. The editor window contains tabs in the bottom to quickly select the active child window. The tabs are especially useful if you maximize the active child window. You may use the Windows “drag-and-drop” feature to open any text file with the editor.

The editor uses standard Windows Notepad- or Windows Wordpad-style commands. In addition, the editor recognizes assembly and C syntax. Several editor settings as well as syntax highlighting may be customized by the **Options | Editor Options** menu.

The corresponding dialog lets you select fonts, set auto indenting, and specifying whether tabs should be replaced by a number of spaces. Note that the “All Files” tab in the dialog sets the properties globally, i.e. affects all other types of files. The check boxes under the “All Files” tab have three states. The checked and uncheck states override all other file type settings. In the grayed state, the properties are determined individually for each file type.



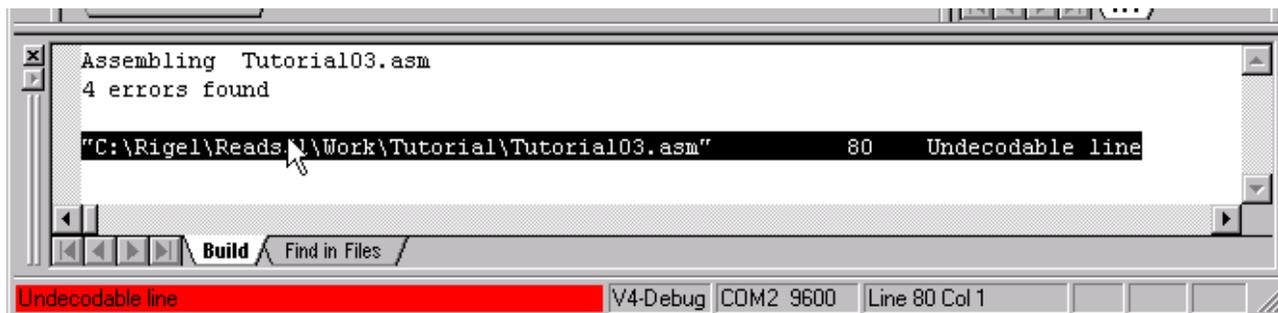
Syntax highlighting lets you specify the colors of keywords, strings, comments as well as default text and the background. The keywords to be highlighted are read from the files assembly.kwd, c.kwd, and default.kwd, found in the .\Bin directory. You may modify the set of keywords by opening these files in the editor and adding new keywords or removing existing ones.

### 3.4 TTY Window

The TTY Window is associated with a terminal emulation routine so that characters typed in the TTY window are sent to the serial port. Similarly, and the characters received from the serial port are displayed in the TTY window. The TTY Window properties are configurable using the **Options | TTY Options** menu. If the selected serial port is unavailable, the TTY Window displays the message “Disconnected.”

### 3.5 Output Window

The output window has tabs to report the result of various activities. The “Build” tab shows the compiler or assembler results. Similarly, the “Find-in-Files” tab reports the results of searches from the Find-in-Files tool. The



results shown in the Output Window often relate to specific lines of source files. Simply double click on the output window results to open the source file and display the corresponding line. For example, if a build operation finds errors in the source, double clicking on the reported error takes you to the offending source line.

## **3.6 Tools**

### **3.6.1 Find-in-Files**

“Find-in-Files” is similar to the UNIX GREP (Get Regular ExPression) utility. It scans a specified set of files to find the occurrences of given strings. A drop-down list box and a button are placed on the default toolbar to facilitate “Find-in-Files”. The results of the search are displayed in one of the tabs of the output window.

### **3.6.2 Run Preprocessor**

The compiler and the assembler call the preprocessor automatically, as part of the build process. This menu command is provided mostly as a debugging aid or a teaching aid. The user may run code containing macros and compiler directives and observe the resultant file.

### **3.6.3 Customize Toolbar**

The corresponding dialog allows you to define new toolbars, or add or remove buttons on existing toolbars. “Cool Look” refers to MS IE4-style dockable toolbars (rebar).

Under the dialog “Commands” tab, you may select any button and add it to an existing toolbar simply by dragging the button onto the toolbar. Similarly, you may remove buttons from an exiting toolbar by dragging the button away from the toolbar. Note that menu items may be added to any toolbar, just like any other button.

## 4 TUTORIALS

All of these tutorials can be found in the Reads\Work\Tutorial Directory. These are single files and will need to be opened using the "Files | Open File" command. Each tutorial builds on the concepts from the previous tutorial and therefore should be done in order.

### 4.1 Single Files

This is the first of six tutorials and is designed to show how to compile and debug single files. Most of the text below is found in the Tutorial0x.asm files.

#### Step 1: Open the tutorial file.

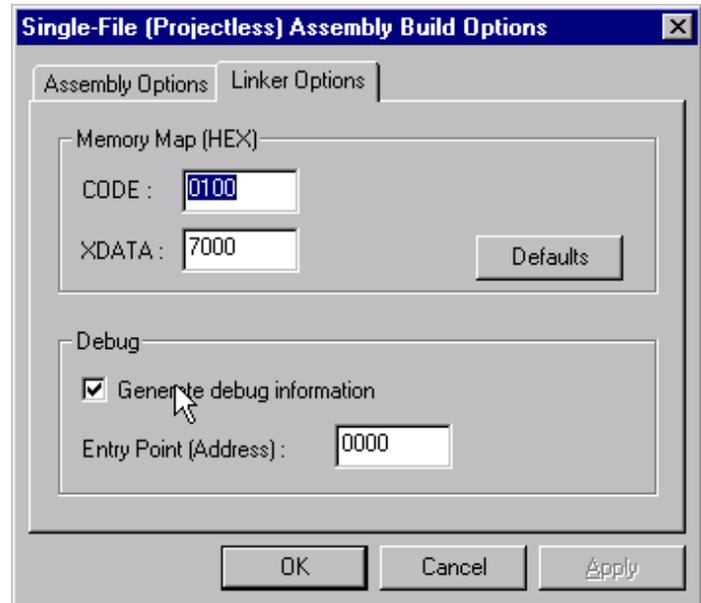
Go to the menu item "File | Open File" and open the file "Tutorial01.asm" in the Rigel\Reads51\Work\Tutorial directory. Click on the file and it will open in the editor window.

#### Step 2: Select Toolchain and Target.

Click on the menu item "Options | Toolchain/Target Options". Select "Reads51 V4 toolchain" and "RChipSim51".

#### Step 3: Specify Memory Map.

Click on the menu item "Options | Single File Build Options | Assembly Options". Select the tab "Linker Options". Specify the memory map to be CODE=0 and XDATA=0.



#### Step 4: Specify Debug Information to be Generated.

Again, using the menu item "Options | Single File Build Options | Assembly Options", Check the box "Generate debug information".

#### Step 5: Build (Assemble and Link).

With "Tutorial01.asm" as the active window in the editor, click menu item "Compile | Build".

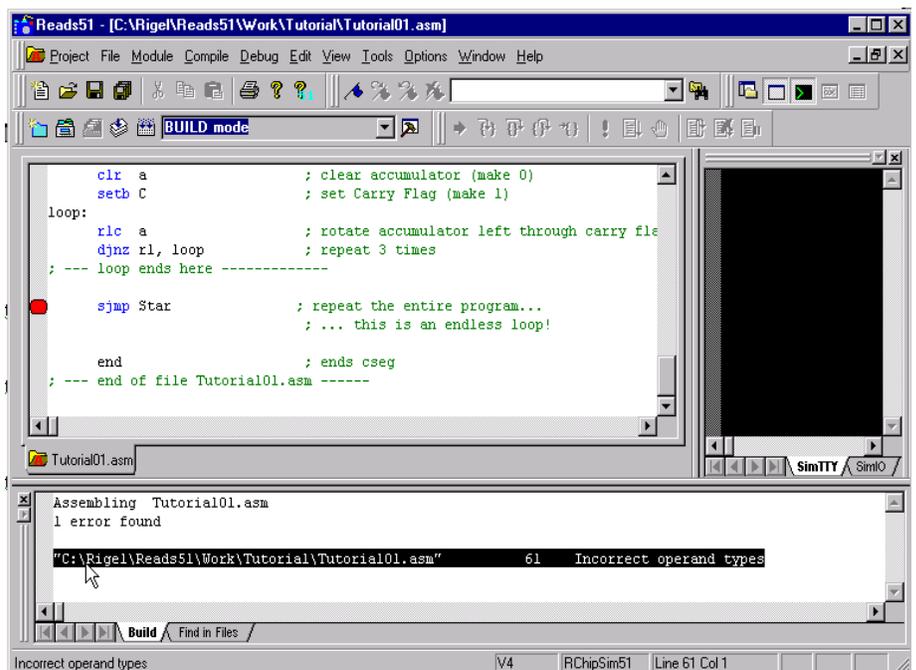
#### Step 6: Fix Errors.

The error "Incorrect operand types" is displayed in the output window.

If the output window is not visible, click the menu item "View | Output Window". Double-click the error message. The instruction

```
sjmp Star
```

has an invalid label. Change "Star" to "Start" and rebuild the file (Repeat Step 5).



#### Step 7: Accelerator Keys and Toolbars.

It is cumbersome to use the menu for the various build and debug commands. As you get more familiar with Reads51 you may use the toolbars or the shortcut keys to invoke the various commands.

## 4.2 Debugging with RChipSim51

### Step 1: Run "Tutorial02.asm"

Follow the steps 1-5 from Tutorial 5.1 and build the source file.

### Step 2: Step Through the Program.

Click the menu item "**Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode**".

This loads the target (selected to be RChipSim in Step 1) with the generated HEX file.

### Step 3: Open the SFR Window.

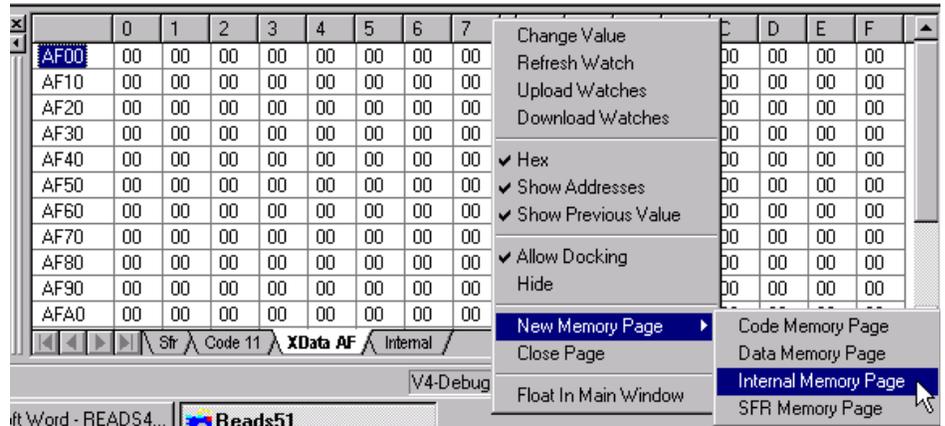
Click the menu item "**View | SFR Window**".

This enables the SFR Watch Window.

### Step 4: Open the Memory Watch Window to View Internal Data Memory.

Click the menu item "**View | Memory Window**".

This enables the Memory Watch Window. Inside the Memory Window, right-click and select "New Memory Page". Specify "Internal Data Page".



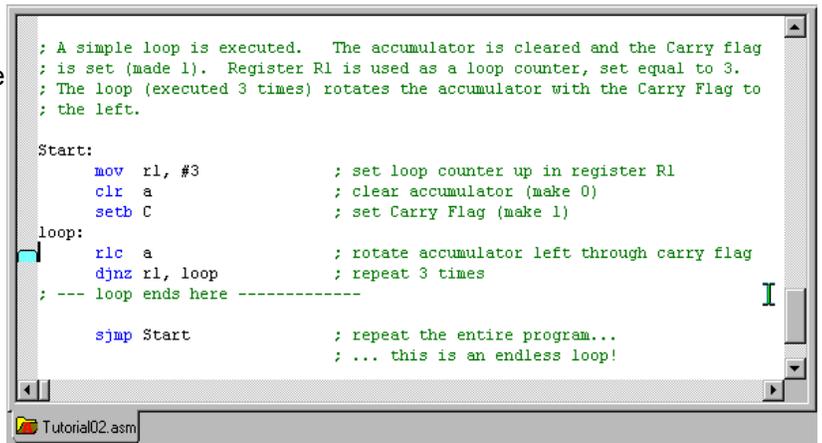
### Step 5: Single Step.

Click the menu item "**Debug | Step Into**".

The current instruction is indicated in the source window by an arrow. Similarly, the status bar (at the very bottom of the frame) shows the current instruction. When the instruction

```
mov r1, #3
```

is executed and the arrow points to the following instruction (clr a) observe that the internal data memory page shows that location 1 (R1) holds the value 3. Continue to single-step (press F8) to execute more instructions. Note how R1 and ACC change.



### Step 6: Set a Breakpoint.

Click on a valid instruction to move the caret (blinking vertical bar of the editor).

Click the menu item "**Debug | Toggle Breakpoint**".

A small blue mark appears next to the instruction.

Now click "**Debug | Run to Breakpoint**".

This executes all instructions up to the breakpoint. RChipSim51 supports an unlimited number of breakpoints. You may set other breakpoints and execute the program, stopping at each breakpoint.

### Step 7: Clear All Breakpoints.

Move the caret to each breakpoint line and toggle the breakpoint.

You may remove all breakpoints with the menu item "**Debug | Clear Breakpoints**".

### Step 8: Run to Cursor.

First click on a valid instruction to move the caret.  
Then, click the menu item "**Debug | Run to Cursor**"

### Step 9: Running and Stopping.

With no breakpoints set, click the menu item "**Debug | Run to Breakpoint**".

Since there are no breakpoints, RChipSim51 executes the instructions.

Click the menu item "**Debug | Break Execution**" to stop the execution.

You may now inspect the registers, single step, etc.

### Step 10: Return to the Build Mode.

Click the menu item "**Compile | Toggle RUN/DEBUG Mode**".

Note that the source is not editable (is "read only") during debugging. Also note that the watch windows are closed and the output window is displayed in the build mode.

## 4.3 Debugging on a Rigel Board (RROS)

### Step 1: Open the file "Tutorial03.asm".

### Step 2: Select Toolchain and Target.

Click on the menu item "**Options | Toolchain/Target Options**".

Select "Reads51 V4 toolchain" and "RROS".

### Step 3: Specify Memory Map.

Click on the menu item "**Options | Single File Build Options | Assembly Options**".

Select the tab "Linker Options".

Specify the memory map to be CODE=8000 and XDATA=8000. Specify the entry point to be 8000. Note that the origin of the program is now 8000h, as specified by the line "cseg at 8000h", the first line of the program.

```
cseg at 8000h      ; absolute
segment starting at (origin) 0
```

Click the menu item "**Compile | Clean**" before building the source.

It is a good idea to always remove any output files generated by a previous setting. The "Clean" command deletes these intermediate files. When rebuilt, the new memory map will take effect.

### Step 4: Specify Debug Information to be Generated.

Again, using the menu item "**Options | Single File Build Options | Assembly Options**", Check the box "Generate debug information".

### Step 5: Open the TTY Window.

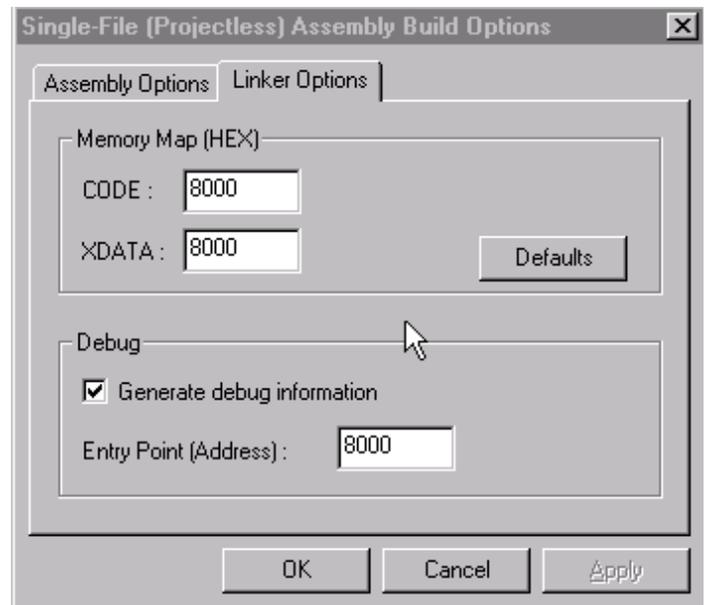
Click the menu item "**View | TTY Window**".

Press the Reset button on the board.

If you do not observe the monitor prompt, use the menu item "**Options | TTY Options**" to select an available port. Unless otherwise stated in the board's hardware manual, set the Baud rate to 9600.

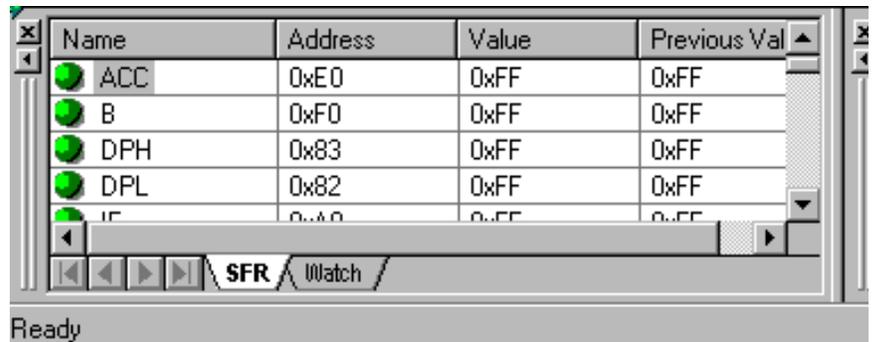
### Step 6: Step Through the Program.

Click the menu item "**Compile | Toggle BUILD/DEBUG Mode**". This assembles the file and loads the target (selected to be RROS) with the generated HEX file. The Build and Debug modes have their own layouts. If the TTY window is not visible, open it as in the previous step.



**Step 7: Open the SFR Watch Window.**  
Click the menu item "View | SFR Watch Window"

This enables the SFR Watch Window.



**Step 8: Open the Memory Watch Window to View Internal Data Memory.**  
Click the menu item "View | Memory Window"

This enables the Memory Watch Window. Inside the Memory Window. Right-click and select "New Memory Page". Specify "Internal Data Page".

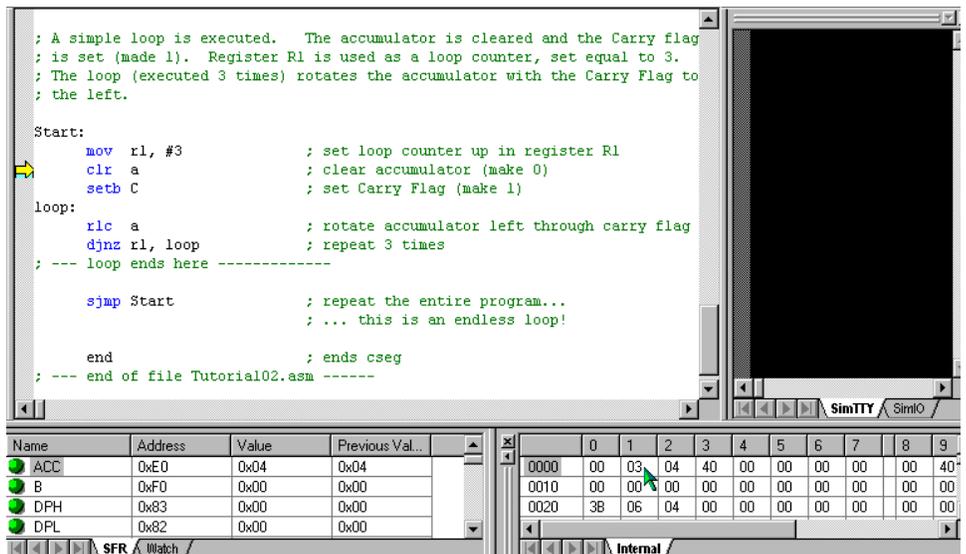
**Step 9: Single Step.**

Click the menu item "Debug | Step Into".

The current instruction is indicated in the source window by an arrow. Similarly, the status bar (at the very bottom of the frame) shows the current instruction. When the instruction

```
mov r1, #3
```

is executed and the arrow points to the following instruction (clr a) observe that the internal data memory page shows that location 1 (R1) holds the value 3. Continue to single-step (press F8) to execute more instructions. Note how R1 and ACC change. Compared to RChipSim51, note that single stepping takes more time. After each step, the IDE communicates with the board to upload the watch values. This takes time.



**Step 10: Run to Cursor.**

RROS does not support multiple breakpoints. However, "Run to Cursor" allows you to execute code up to a given point. This command works as in Tutorial02.

**Step 11: Running and Stopping.**

The "Running" and "Stopping" commands are not available with the RROS target. When the board starts "Running" the program it stops inspecting the serial port and the IDE has no mechanism to stop the execution. If you run the program (without breakpoints) press the Reset button on the board to stop execution.

**4.4 Watching Selected Variables During Debug**

**Step 1: Open "Tutorial04.asm".**

This tutorial is an extension of Tutorial02.

Follow the steps in Tutorial02 to single step through the code.

## Step 2: Create a List of Selected Watch Variables

While in the debug mode, open the SFR window as in Tutorial02.

Click on the tab "Watch".

An empty window will appear.

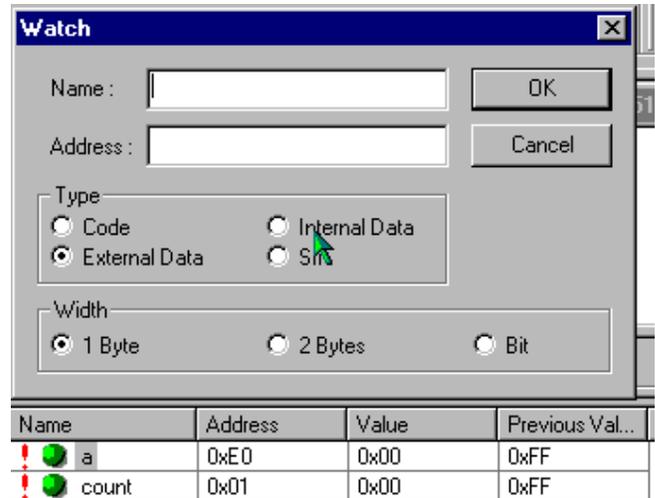
Right-click to invoke the local menu. Select "Add Watch". Specify the following:

Name: A  
 Address: 0xE0  
 Type: SFR  
 Width: 1

This is the accumulator. Depending on your application, you may give more descriptive names to your variables.

You may find the addresses of the SFRs by clicking the SFR tab and observing their addresses.

Also note that you may hide the "Address Field" and the "Previous Value" field using the local menu. The values are updated as you step through the program. The values may be displayed in HEX or decimal, again determined by the local menu choice.



## Step 3: Editing the Watch.

Double-click the name field or column ("A") of the added watch to edit its properties.

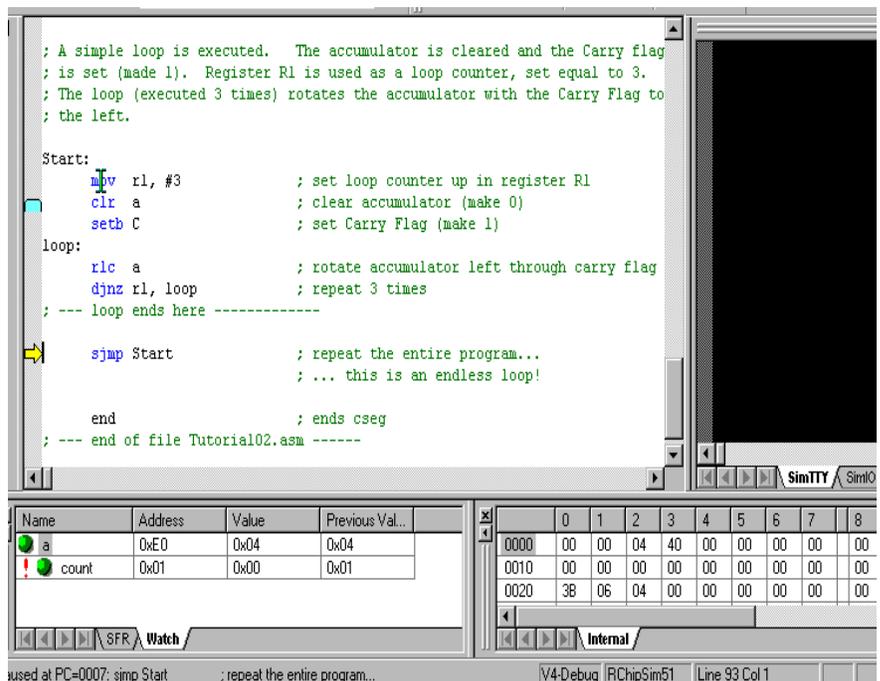
Double-click any other field (column) to change the value.

Add the following watch:

Name: Count  
 Address: 1  
 Type: Internal Data  
 Width: 1

This is register 1 (R1) which is decremented in the loop. The count is initialized to 3 and is decremented each time the accumulator is rotated.

At a breakpoint, select the watch "Count" by clicking on its name. Double-click its value field and change its current value. Continue single stepping to observe the effects.



## Step 4: Editing the Memory Watch Window Entries.

Open the memory watch window as in Tutorial02 and open the "Internal Data Memory" page.

Again, at a break point, select the row you want to edit by clicking on the first column entry. Double-click a cell to modify its value.

## Step 5: Debugging on the Board.

Repeat the same steps using a Rigel board as in Tutorial03. Change the program origin to 8000h, and similarly use the "Options | Single File Build Options | Assembly Options" menu to change the memory map under the "Linker Options" tab.

#### 4.5 Simulated I/O (SimIO)

**Step 1: Open "Tutorial05.asm".**

**Select the RChipSim51 option.**

Assemble the program "Tutorial05.asm" as in the previous tutorials.

**Step 2: Open the simulated TTY and IO window (View | TTY Window).**

Click the "SimIO" tab to see the ports buttons/indicators.

**Step 3: Remove any breakpoints (Debug | Edit Breakpoints menu)**

Run the program (Debug | Run to Breakpoint).

The program runs the endless loop. There are two inputs P1.0 and P1.1. The two outputs, P1.6 and P1.7 are computed from the inputs using the bitwise AND and OR operations.

**Step 4: Momentarily change an input.**

Click and hold the mouse left button on P1.0.

Clicking on a button simulates grounding the corresponding port bit. Note that the ports have internal pull-up resistors. Their active state is 0 (grounded). P1.0 will remain green, indicating its active state, as long as you hold the Reset button down.

Also note that P1.6 becomes low, since P1.6 is the AND of P1.0=0 and P1.1=1. Also try clicking on P1.1.

**Step 5: Toggle an input.**

Hold the shift key and click on P1.0. P1.0 will remain active when you release the mouse button. Shift-clicks simulate toggle switches. If you now click P1.0 (without the shift button pressed), the bit will momentarily be 1. It will resume its active state as soon as you release the button.

Toggle P1.0 to remain active (low) and then click on P1.1 to make P1.7 active. (P1.7 is low when both P1.0 and P1.1 are low.)

**Step 6: Terminate the program**

Use the "Debug | Stop Debugging" or the "Debug | Break Execution" commands.

#### 4.6 Simulated Serial I/O (SimTTY)

**Step 1: Open "Tutorial06.asm".**

**Select the RChipSim51 option.**

Assemble "Tutorial06.asm" as in the previous tutorials.

**Step 2: Open the simulated TTY and IO window (View | TTY Window).**

Click the "SimTTY" tab to see the ports buttons/indicators.

**Step 3: Remove any breakpoints (Debug | Edit Breakpoints menu)**

Run the program (Debug | Run to Breakpoint).

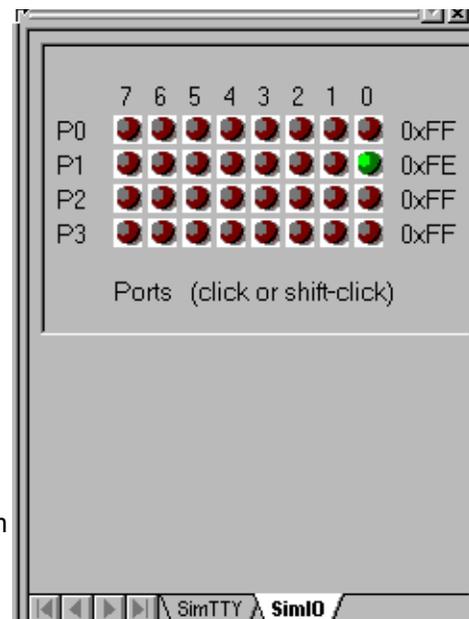
The program runs the endless loop. It waits for a character from the serial port. Once received, it echoes the character back.

**Step 4: Type characters in the SimTTY window**

Observe the response.

**Step 5: Terminate the program**

Use the "Debug | Stop Debugging" or the "Debug | Break Execution" commands.



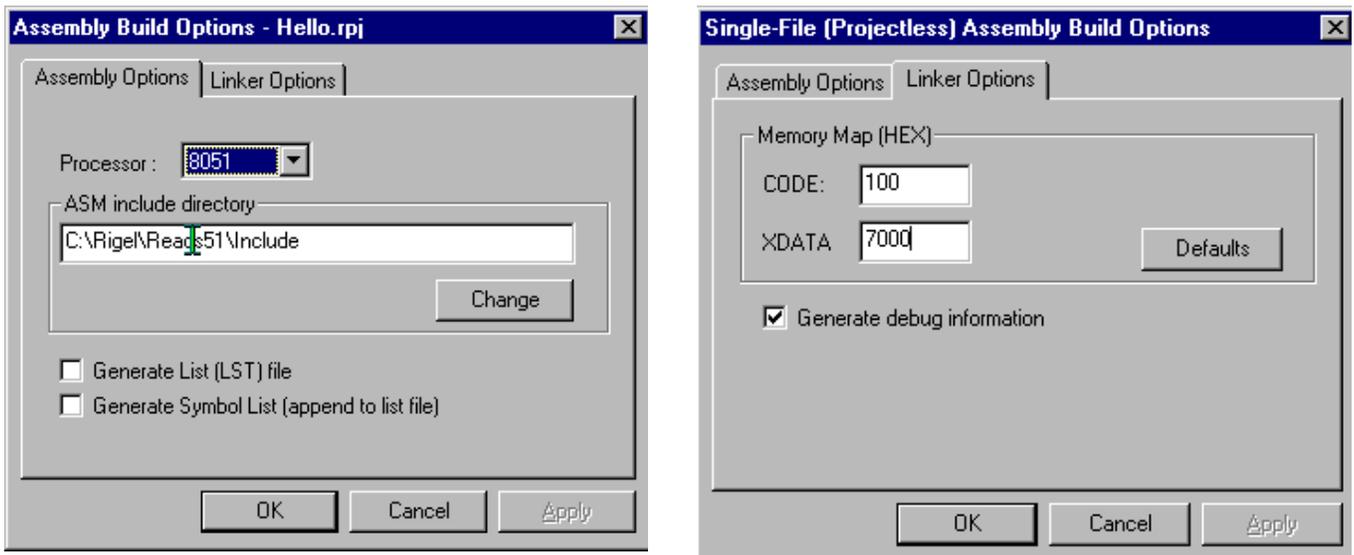
## 5 GENERATING HEX FILES

There are several ways to write and compile (or assemble) programs using the Reads51 environment. The alternatives depend on the target, the source, and whether the code is to be debugged.

1. Target: RROS, rChipSim51, or Embedded ROM.
2. Source: C source, relative assembly source, or absolute assembly source.
3. Debug: On or off.

The memory map of the generated HEX code depends on the linker options, found in the “Assembly Options” menu dialog box, under the “Linker Options” tag. If you are compiling a project, use the “**Project | Project Build Options | Assembly Options**” menu. If you are compiling a single file, use the “**Options | Single-File Build Options | Assembly Options**” menu.

The following parameters affect the way the final HEX code is generated:



1. The “Generate debug information” box must be checked if you want to debug the code in the Reads51 environment. Please note that currently Reads51 only supports low-level debugging. That is, single stepping, etc. are supported only at the assembly level.
2. The CODE origin. This parameter specifies the starting address of the code. Note that this parameter is meaningful only if relative assembly is used. Since the C compiler output is assembled using the relative assembler and the linker, this field must also be set correctly for C projects. C projects must be written to run from the lower 32K of memory. By default, the CODE parameter is set to 100 (hex) to allow room for the interrupt vectors. Note that the C compiler automatically places a jump instruction at the reset vector (address 0). Similarly, the C compiler places jump instructions at the specified addresses when interrupt routines are used.
3. The XDATA origin. This parameter specifies the starting address of the external data segment. The Reads51 C compiler requires external data memory. By default, XDATA is set to 7000 (hex)

The target you want to run the HEX code on will determine how the parameters will need to be set. If you intend to place the generated HEX code in ROM, use the same setting as those for the rChipSim51.

### 5.1 Running Code on a Rigel Board

Most Rigel boards in the RROS mode use 64K of overlapped CODE and XDATA memory. On the Rigel boards the RROS resides in the lower 32K memory and the 8051 interrupts are redirected to high memory (RAM) to the range FF00h...FFFFh. It is important to keep in mind that any HEX file downloaded through RROS is always placed into RAM. More specifically, RROS sets the most-significant-bit of the HEX record address. This way, HEX records with addresses in the range 8000h to FFFFh are downloaded in the usual manner to their respective addresses. On the other hand, HEX records with addresses in the range 0 to 7FFFh are downloaded to RAM with an added offset of 8000h.

The RUN/MON slide switch used on the Rigel 8051 boards determines the memory map. In the MON position, the first 32K of memory is mapped to the (RROS) EPROM and the second 32K of memory is mapped to RAM. In the RUN position, the blocks are swapped, with RAM in the lower 32K of memory, and the EPROM in the upper 32K of memory. Note that most boards have a red and a green LED. The red LED is turned on in the MON position while the green LED is turned on in the RUN position. The boards respond to the RROS monitor commands when the slide switch is in the MON position. With the slide switch in the RUN position the RROS is unavailable. For more information on the RROS please see the document "RROS Manual" available from the web at [www.rigelcorp.com](http://www.rigelcorp.com).

To run a program from low memory on a Rigel board press and hold the reset button while moving the slide switch from the MON to the RUN position. Verify that the green LED is turned on. Then release the reset button. The microcontroller responds to the reset by starting the execution at address 0.

In general, you may,

1. Compile your code with a start address in the first 32K block of memory and flip the slide switch to the RUN position, or,
2. Compile your code with a start address in the second 32K block of memory and run it through the RROS monitor.

C projects must be compiled with a start address in the first 32K block of memory. Assembly projects may have a start address in either the first or second block of 32K memory.

### 5.1.1 Running C Code

The default CODE and XDATA parameters are the best choice for compiling C projects to be executed in the Reads51 environment. After you compile the code, switch to the Run / Debug Mode (Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode). The HEX code is automatically loaded to the board. You are now ready to run the program and observe its performance using the TTY window. To start execution on the board, move the slide switch to the RUN position, while keeping the reset button pressed. The microcontroller responds to the release of the reset button by starting the execution at address 0. Note that the slide switch in the RUN position also swaps the memory map, so that the RAM (containing the downloaded HEX code) occupies in the first 32K block, and the RROS EPROM occupies the second 32K block of the memory map. While the program is running in this fashion, the RROS monitor is unavailable, and thus, this mode does not support debugging.

### 5.1.2 Running Assembly Code with Start Address in the 0 to 7FFFh Range

Assembly projects with a start address in the first 32K of memory are downloaded to RAM by the RROS monitor and the Reads51 IDE when you toggle the IDE mode from BUILD to RUN/DEBUG. To start execution on the board, move the slide switch to the RUN position, while keeping the reset button pressed. The microcontroller responds to the release of the reset button by starting the execution at address 0. Note that the slide switch in the RUN position also swaps the memory map, so that the RAM (containing the downloaded HEX code) occupies in the first 32K block, and the RROS EPROM occupies the second 32K block of the memory map. While the program is running in this fashion, the RROS monitor is unavailable, and thus, this mode does not support debugging. On the other hand, all interrupt vectors are in RAM, which allows you to run interrupt routines without having to use the remapped vectors.

#### 5.1.2.1 Running Relative Assembly Code (V4 Toolchain)

You may use the default CODE and XDATA parameters for compiling relative assembly projects and switch the memory map by toggling the MON/RUN slide switch as with running C code. Again, in this case, you must explicitly place a jump instruction at address 0 (the reset vector) to the entry point of your program. The following code is from the demo project RelativeAssembly02 in the \Work directory.

```
cseg at 0          ; cseg is the keyword to start an absolute code segment
ljmp  _main
end               ; each segment must terminate with an "end" directive
```

After you compile the code, switch to the **Run / Debug Mode** (Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode). The HEX code is automatically loaded to the board through the RROS monitor. You are now ready to run the program and observe its performance using the TTY window. To start execution on the board, move the slide switch to the RUN position, while keeping the reset button pressed.

### 5.1.3 Running Assembly Code with Start Address in the 8000h to FFFFh Range

Assembly projects with a start address in the upper 32K of memory are downloaded to RAM by the RROS monitor and the Reads51 IDE when you toggle the IDE mode from BUILD to RUN/DEBUG. These programs may be run under the supervision of the RROS monitor, and thus, may be debugged. The CODE and parameter determines the entry point to the code under RROS supervision. That is, when the IDE enters the RUN/DEBUG mode, the program may be run or debugged by using the commands under the “Debug” menu. Check the “Generate debug information” box in the Linker tab under the “Assembly Options”. Again, note that project build options are under the menu “**Project | Project Build Options**”, whereas build options for individual files are under the “**Option | Single-File Build Options**”. When running the programs under RROS supervision, the slide switch remains in the MON position.

The CODE and XDATA parameters must be in the upper 32K of memory. Note that since CODE and XDATA spaces overlap, use different values for the two parameters. Consider, for example, code of size a few kilobytes. Let CODE=8000 (hex) and XDATA=A000 (hex). This allows code to be up to 8KByte (A000h - 8000h = 2000h or 8K). The remaining 24K is then available for XDATA.

#### 5.1.3.1 Running Relative Assembly Code (V4 Toolchain)

The linker groups all code segments and allocates them according to the selected parameters. If you use more than one code segment, or if you use libraries, the sequence of the various code segments are determined by the linker. In such cases, it is safer to place a jump instruction at the starting address (CODE parameters) to the entry point of your program. In simple cases with single code segments, this is not necessary. Assuming CODE=8000 (hex), the following code may be used:

```
cseg at 8000h      ; cseg is the keyword to start an absolute code segment
ljmp  _main      ; _main is the entry point to the program
end              ; each segment must terminate with an "end" directive
```

After you compile the code, switch to the **Run / Debug Mode** (Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode). The HEX code is automatically loaded to the board through the RROS monitor. If the program is compiled with the debug option, you may run the program using the commands under the “Debug” menu.

## 5.2 Running Code with rChipSim51

rChipSim51 simulates an 8051 which starts execution after reset. That is, execution always starts at address 0. Moreover, rChipSim51 assumes that the code and external data spaces are separate (non-overlapping). In this respect, generating code to be executed with rChipSim51 is almost always the same as generating code to be placed in ROM. Care must be taken only if code and external data memory spaces overlap in the hardware implementation. Select the rChipSim51 target in the “**Options | Toolchain | Target Options**”.

### 5.2.1 Running C Code

The default CODE and XDATA parameters are the best choice for compiling C projects to be executed in the Reads51 environment. After you compile the code, switch to the **Run / Debug Mode** (Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode). The HEX code is automatically loaded to the chip simulator. You are now ready to run the program and observe its performance using the SimTTY and SimIO windows. Although you may debug (e.g. single step) generated assembly code, debugging C projects is not recommended.

### 5.2.2 Running Relative Assembly Code (V4 Toolchain)

The default CODE and XDATA parameters are also the best choice for compiling relative assembly projects to be executed in the Reads51 environment. Note that you must explicitly place a jump instruction at the reset vector to direct the program execution to the entry point of your application. The following code is from the demo project RelativeAssembly02 in the \Work directory.

```
cseg at 0         ; cseg is the keyword to start an absolute code segment
ljmp  _main      ; _main is the application's entry point
end            ; each segment must terminate with an "end" directive
```

After you compile the code, switch to the **Run / Debug Mode** (Compile | Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode). The HEX code is automatically loaded to the chip simulator. You are now ready to run the program and observe its performance using the SimTTY and SimIO windows. You may also debug (e.g. single step) the code and watch memory and SFRs.

## 6 PROGRAMMING THE 89C4XX IN SINGLE CHIP MODE

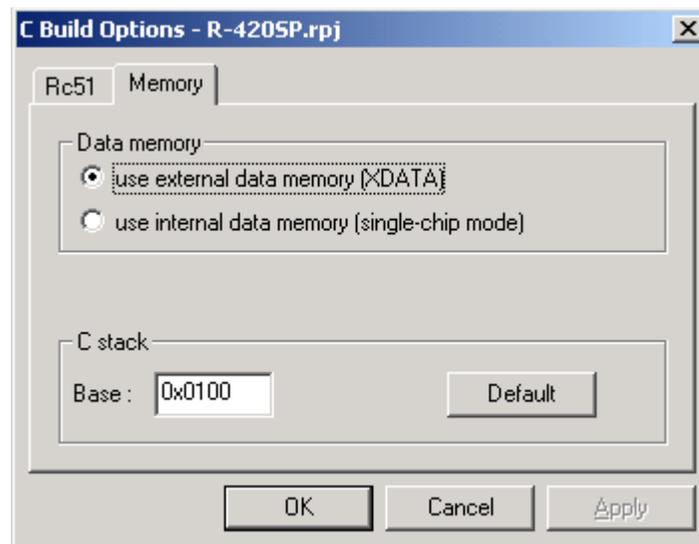
### 6.1 Programming the DS89C4X0

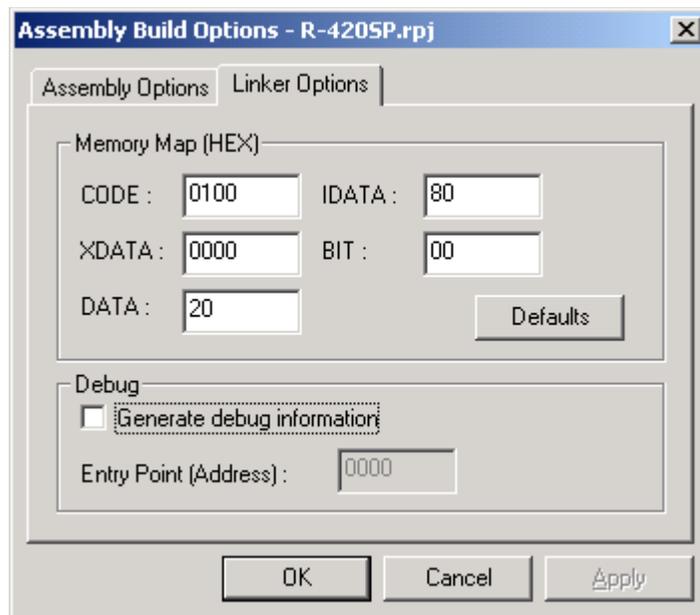
The board is placed in the program mode by moving the slide switch (S1) to the upper position marked “<PRG>.” Once the board is programmed the switch should be moved to the operating position marked “<RUN>” and the power cycled.

Refer to the C-language examples in Reads51 to see how the internal XDATA RAM of the DS89C4X0 is enabled. Once you develop your code, you may download it to the board using the Reads51 TTY window. Place the board in the program (PGM) mode and press the “enter” key. The DS89C4X0 internal “ROM LOADER” monitor program answers with a prompt. Note that the DS89C4X0 monitor extracts the Baud rate from the received character. Refer to the DS89C4X0 data sheet to see what Baud rate – crystal frequency combinations are supported. In general, an 11.0592MHz crystal frequency supports almost all Baud rates.

Once the internal monitor program answers with the prompt, use the monitor command ‘K’ to erase internal memory. That is, press ‘K’ and enter. Refer to the DS89C4X0 data sheet for a complete set of monitor commands. Then enter the load command ‘L’ (and enter). This places the monitor in the download state. It expects code in the Intel Hex format. Use the Reads51 “Tools -> Download ASCII file” command to download your program to the board. Note that the “Options->TTY Options” dialog has three fields related to the ASCII downloads. You may specify a delay after each character and each line of ASCII text. (The hex file is ASCII text.) You may also instruct the Reads51 down-loader to wait for an acknowledgement character before sending the next line of text. The DS89C4X0 monitor returns a ‘G’ (for good record) when it is ready for the next line. It is recommended that you set the character delay to 0 (no delay).

Use the Reads51 to communicate with the board. Note that the 89C4X0 internal XDATA RAM is only 1K. The settings below reserve the first 256 bytes (0x100) for global variables, and the remaining 768 bytes (0x300) for the C-stack. That is, the C-stack starts at 0x100.





Include a start-up module in your project. This module must be named "c0.src." Enable the internal XDATA RAM in the start-up code. That is, set the PMR (0xC4) to 1. The project R-420SP shows the compiler and linker settings. It also includes the start-up code.

## 6.2 Downloading HEX Code to the DS89C4xx Microcontrollers

The menu item "Download ASCII File" in the "Tools" menu can be used to send generated HEX code to the DS89C4xx microcontrollers.

These microcontrollers have a built-in monitor program called the "ROM Loader." The microcontroller must be placed in the so-called "ROM Loader Mode" by selecting the appropriate hardware signals. The Rigel boards usually have a slide switch that allows you to toggle between the modes. On the Rigel boards, the two modes are referred to as the "Program (or Pgm)" and "Run" modes.

Once the microcontroller is in the PGM mode, it communicates through its serial port (SP0). The on-chip monitor detects the communications Baud rate from the characters it receives. In Reads51, open the TTY window and select a suitable Baud rate. The on-chip monitor (ROM Loader) expects a carriage return character. Press the "Enter" key. If the monitor can match the Baud rate, it responds with a prompt message. Note that although a broad range of Baud rates are supported, some Baud rates may not work at certain crystal frequencies. Usually, trying a different Baud rate solves the problem. Refer to the data sheet for more information on exactly which Baud rates are detected at different crystal frequencies.

Once the monitor (ROM Loader) is invoked, the remaining operations are carried out by a series of commands. Again refer to the data sheet for a complete set of commands. Below, we summarize the most important three commands.

### 6.2.1 Clear FLASH

At the monitor prompt, press 'K' and "Enter" to clear the internal FLASH. The FLASH should be erased before loading a new Hex file. Clearing the FLASH also clears the security bits (Lock Bits or LB).

### 6.2.2 Download HEX File

At the monitor prompt, press 'L' and "Enter" to initialize a download session. The monitor expects to receive Intel Hex records. At this point, use the "Download ASCII File" menu to specify a HEX file. The menu item is under the "Tools" menu. Once you specify a HEX file, the transmission starts.

The monitor acknowledges the reception and successful programming of a record by a 'G' character. You may use the TTY options dialog (from the "Options" menu, select "TTY Options") to specify 'G' as the "Line ACK char." This improves transmission speed. If you use another TTY program such as the Windows HyperTerminal, make sure you insert enough delays after each line to allow for FLASH programming time.

At the end of the transmission, the monitor will once again display its prompt.

### 6.2.3 Setting the Security Bits

Use the 'W' command to set the security bits LB1, LB1+LB2, or LB1+LB2+LB3. These bits provide increasing levels of security, as explained in the data sheet. The "Lock Bits" LB are bit mapped. LB1 is the least significant bit, while LB3 is the most significant. A value of 3, for instances, sets LB1 and LB2. The following are permissible combinations:

Command : "W LB 1 <enter>"

Command : "W LB 3 <enter>"

Command : "W LB 7 <enter>"

## 7 READS51 v4 TOOLCHAIN

The Reads51v4 toolchain contains Rigel's relative assembler that was introduced with Reads51 v4.00 (1999). The IDE views the toolchains selection as is a global choice that affects all build operations of all open projects or single-file sources. Use the "Options | Toolchain Options" menu to specify the toolchain.

The relative assembler generates Intel HEX records from assembly source files in two steps. First the assembler generates object files in the Intel OMF-51 format. The object files are said to be relative, or relocatable, since they are not specified to be placed in any constant memory location in code memory. All memory-specific information is left out. The decision about where in the memory map the code is to be placed is made later. In this sense, the object files may be viewed as modules which may be placed anywhere in the memory map of the 8051. Accordingly, the object files contain the so-called "fixup" records. These records specify how references to memory locations need to be modified once the final location of the code is determined.

The second step in generating HEX code is the link step. Here, the memory locations are determined. The linker combines the object files and performs the fixup operations. The CODE and XDATA start addresses are perhaps the most important two parameters the linker needs.

### 7.1 Preprocessor

The macro preprocessor may be used with any type of file, assembly, C, or any other programming language. Its syntax is C-like. The macro preprocessor supports definitions, macros, and conditional compilation. The preprocessor directives start with the pound sign ('#'). The preprocessor may be viewed as the first step in preparing the source for compilation or assembly. The include files are inserted, the macros are substituted, and the conditional compilation directives are used to further include or exclude blocks of the source. The output of the preprocessor is a single source file.

#### **#include "file name"**

Inserts the specified file. The file should be in the current directory or on the path.`#include <file name>`

#### **#include <file name>**

Inserts the specified file. The file should be in the current directory, on the path, or in the designated default include directory. The default include directories are specified by the project options of the current project.

#### **#define**

Equates a symbol to another.  
For example,

```
#define MAX 10
```

defines MAX to be equivalent to 10. The preprocessor replaces all instances of MAX with 10. The define directive may include arguments. These are called macro definitions. For example, in the following code,

```
#define ADD(a,b) (a+b)
.
.
X=ADD(acc, 20)
.
.
```

ADD(acc, 20) is replaced by

```
X=(acc+20)
```

#### **#undef**

Removes a previously defined symbol from the list.

#### **#ifdef**

Includes the following block of source if the specified symbol is previously defined. Consider, for example,

```
#define DEBUG
```

```

.
.
#ifdef DEBUG
mov a, TMOD
#else
clr a
#endif
.
.

```

The output of the preprocessor will include the line

```
mov a, TMOD
```

but not the line

```
clr a
```

because DEBUG was previously defined.

### **#ifndef**

Includes the following block of source if the specified symbol is not previously defined.

### **#else**

This directive is used with the `#ifdef` directive. The following block of source is included if the specified symbol is not previously defined.

### **#endif**

Delimits the `#ifdef` directive or `#ifdef/#else` pair of directives.

## **7.2 C Compiler**

The C compiler is a SmallC-compatible compiler that generates MCS-51 relative assembly language from C source. The output is intended to be assembled by the Reads51v4 relative assembler and subsequently be linked by the Reads51v4 linker.

The C compiler has some of the limitations of SmallC. However, it also introduces some significant extensions and improvements over standard SmallC.

The C-Compiler's limitations (SmallC has these same limitations)

1. Structures and Unions are not implemented
2. Only one-dimensional arrays are allowed.
3. Only one level of indirection (pointer) is allowed.
4. Only int and char types are allowed.

Reads51v4 C-Compiler improvements

1. Uses the more modern (ANSI C) function argument definition syntax.
2. Arguments are passed to the functions in the C convention. This allows a variable number of arguments to be passed on to functions, such as in `printf()`.
3. Supports MCS-51 interrupts.
4. Supports function prototypes.
5. Supports the void type.
6. Uses Rigel's proprietary macro preprocessor.
7. Supports `sfr` and `sfrbit` types.

The Appendix titled "A Brief Review of C" gives an overview of the language. Please refer to the various demos in the work directory for further examples.

## **7.3 Relative Assembler (Reads51v4 Toolchain)**

The relative assembler generates Intel HEX records from assembly source files in two steps. First the assembler generates object files in the Intel OMF-51 format. The object files are said to be relative, or relocatable, since they are not specified to be placed in any constant memory location in code memory. All memory-specific information is left out. The decision about where in the memory map the code is to be placed is made later. In

this sense, the object files may be viewed as modules which may be placed anywhere in the memory map of the 8051. Accordingly, the object files contain the so-called “fixup” records. These records specify how references to memory locations need to be modified once the final location of the code is determined.

### 7.3.1 Constants

Decimal constants are written as regular numbers.

Hexadecimal constants include numbers 0 to 9 and the letters a to f. They must start with a number and be terminated by the letter h (or H). Constants are case insensitive, e.g. 0ah is the same as 0aH, 0Ah, or 0AH.

Hexadecimal numbers may also be written in ‘C’ language syntax with a preceding “0x” and no terminating ‘h’. For example

```
0x100
```

is 100h or 256 in decimal.

Binary constants may include only the numbers 0 and 1. They must be terminated by the letter ‘b’ (or ‘B’).

```
101b or 101B
```

ASCII constants are written within single quotes, such as

```
'A'.
```

String constants are written within double quotation marks.

```
db "A line feed (ASCII 10) and a null (zero) follow this string.", 10, 0
```

### 7.3.2 Expressions

Basic arithmetic and logic operations are supported in a C-like syntax. Parentheses may be used to group terms of an expression. The parentheses may be nested. The number of such nestings is limited only by the amount of dynamic memory available.

**Binary arithmetic operations: \*, /, %, +, -, <<, >>**

```
mov a, #(1+2)           ; addition
mov a, #(1-2)           ; subtraction
mov a, #(2*2)           ; multiplication
mov a, #(8/2)           ; division
mov a, #(1%2)           ; modulus (remainder)
mov a, #((1+2)*(8-2))   ; use parentheses
mov a, #(1<<2)           ; shift left
mov a, #(0x100>>4)     ; shift right
```

**Unary arithmetic operations: -**

```
mov a, #-1              ; unary minus
```

**Binary bitwise (Boolean) operations: &, |, ^**

```
mov a, #(1&2)           ; bitwise and
mov a, #(1|2)           ; bitwise or
mov a, #(1^2)           ; bitwise exclusive or (exor)
```

**Unary bitwise (Boolean) operations: ~**

```
mov a, #(~1)            ; one's complement
```

**Binary logic (Boolean) operations: &&, ||**

```
mov a, #(1&&2)          ; logic and
mov a, #(1||2)          ; logic or
```

**Conditions**

```
mov a, #(1==2)          ; equal
mov a, #(1!=2)          ; not equal
mov a, #(1<2)           ; less than
```

```

mov a, #(1<=2)           ; less than or equal
mov a, #(1>2)           ; greater than
mov a, #(1>=2)         ; greater than or equal

```

### Unary logic (Boolean) operations: ! |

```

mov a, #(!1)           ; logical not
mov a, #low(0x101*0x3)

```

```

here:
  mov a, #high($)
  mov a, #((here&0xFF00)>>8)
  mov a, #(($&0xFF00)>>8)
  mov a, #($&0xFF00)

```

### 7.3.3 Functions

The functions `low()` and `high()` of Reads51v3.x are preserved for backward compatibility. Note that these may also be written as expressions. `Low(N)` is the same as `(N & 0xFF)` and `High(N)` is the same as `(N>>8)`.

#### **low()**

Function: extracts the low byte of a word constant.

Description: Given the word (2-byte value) `N`, the value of `low(N)` is equal to the low byte of `N`.

Example:

```

LABEL:
  .
  .
  MOV  A, LOW(LABEL)           ; LABEL is a 16-bit address
  .                             ; get the low byte of this address

```

#### **high()**

Function: extracts the high byte of a word constant.

Description: Given the word (2-byte value) `N`, the value of `high(N)` is equal to the high byte of `N`.

Example:

```

LABEL:
  .
  .
  MOV  A, HIGH(LABEL)         ; LABEL is a 16-bit address
  .                             ; get the high byte of this address

```

### 7.3.4 Pseudo Operations

The relative assembler of Reads51v4.x uses a preprocessor to support include files, macro definitions and conditional assembly. Most pseudo operations are related to how code segments and modules are defined in the MCS-51 assembly language. Pseudo operation (pseudo ops) are used in assembly language, similar to machine language instructions. Unlike machine language instructions, pseudo operations do not correspond to a given processor operation. Rather, pseudo ops are directives to the assembler. Most of the pseudo ops are related to segment and module definitions. Also, note that some pseudo ops are used in more than one context.

### 7.3.5 Constant Definitions

#### **EQU (pseudo op)**

Function: constant definition

Description: Assigns symbols to constants. EQU pseudo ops improve the readability of your code by using more meaningful variable names rather than numerical addresses. It also allows you to quickly reassign the variables by simply modifying the EQU definition rather than making changes for all occurrences of the variable.

Example:

```

COUNT EQU 28h           ; internal register 28h is called "COUNT"
.
.

```

```

MOV    COUNT, TL0                ; save count
.
.
MOV    A, COUNT                  ; get "count"
.
.

```

### 7.3.6 Initialized Data Storage

#### DB (pseudo op)

Function: data storage

Description: The data bytes or strings of ASCII characters are placed starting from the current memory location. Strings must be delimited with double quotations. Strings may not include the comma (',') character. Strings and constants may be combined, separated by commas. Data defined by each DB pseudo op must be 255 bytes or less. For larger data blocks, use two or more DB pseudo ops.

Note that only data defined in a code segment may be initialized. Internal and external data is, by the nature of the 8051 architecture, volatile, and thus does not retain initialization values.

Example:

```

DB    0,1,2,3,4                  ; defines 5 bytes (ov value 0 to 4)
DB    "hello"                    ; defines 5 bytes of value 'h','e','l','l','o'

DB    "dog", 0                   ; defines 4 bytes of value 'd','o','g', 0

; since commas are not allowed within strings,
; the following uses the ASCII value 2Ch instead.

DB    "one", 02Ch, "two"        ; the string "one,two"DW

```

#### DW (pseudo op)

Function: data storage

Description: The data words or strings of ASCII characters are placed starting from the current memory location. Each data word occupies two bytes. Each character of the string is kept in two bytes, the ASCII value of the character in the low byte, and 0 (zero) in the high byte. Strings must be delimited with double quotations. Strings may not include the comma (',') character. Strings and constants may be combined, separated by commas. The DB pseudo op is usually more suitable for defining strings. Data defined by each DW pseudo op must be 255 bytes or less. For larger data blocks, use two or more DW pseudo ops.

Note that only data defined in a code segment may be initialized. Internal and external data is, by the nature of the 8051 architecture, volatile, and thus does not retain initialization values.

Example:

```

DW    1234h,0ABCDh              ; defines 2 words (4 bytes)
DW    "dog", 0                  ; defines 4 words (8 bytes)

```

#### DS (pseudo op)

Function: data storage

Description: DS reserves a block of data. The data block may optionally be initialized to a given value.

Note that only data defined in a code segment may be initialized. Internal and external data is, by the nature of the 8051 architecture, volatile, and thus does not retain initialization values.

Example:

```

DS    10                        ; reserves 10 bytes
DS    10 << 0xFF              ; reserves 10 bytes and initializes all to 0xFF

```

#### DBIT (pseudo op)

Function: bitwise data storage  
Description: Reserves a block of bits in internal bit addressable memory. The block of bits may be referenced by an optional label.

Example:

```
USER_FLAG:
DBIT 1 ; defines 1 bit at location "USER_FLAG"
IO_COPY:
DB 0x18 ; reserves a block of 24 bits
```

### 7.3.7 Code Origin and Offset

#### AT (pseudo op)

Function: sets absolute segment origin

Description: Absolute segment origins are determined at the source level. The AT pseudo op is used in conjunction with one of the absolute segment definition directives CSEG, XSEG, DSEG, ISEG, or BSEG. Segments must be terminated by an END directive.

Example:

```
CSEG AT 0x2000 ; starts an absolute code segment at address
                ; 2000h
.
.
.
.
END
```

#### ORG (pseudo op)

Function: sets segment origin or offset

Description: The effect of the ORG directive depends on the type of the current segment. If the current segment is an absolute segment, then ORG specifies an origin. That is, the address of the instruction that follows. If the current segment is a relative segment, then ORG specifies an offset from the beginning of the segment.

Note that the absolute address of a relative segment is not determined until the end of the linking process.

Example:

```
CSEG ; absolute segment
ORG 0x2000 ; origin at 2000h
```

has the same effect as  
CSEG AT 0x2000END

#### END (pseudo op)

Function: terminates an absolute or relative segment.

Description: In most cases the assembler is smart enough to end the current segment whenever a new segment is initiated. In order to avoid ambiguities, it is safer to always terminate a segment by an END directive.

Example:

```
SERIAL SEGMENT CODE
RSEG SERIAL ; start relative segment "SERIAL"
.
.
.
.
END ; end of current relative segment
```

```

CSEG AT 0x2000          ; starts an absolute code segment at address
2000h
.
.
.
.
END                    ; end the absolute segment
RSEG SERIAL            ; re-open segment "SERIAL"
.
.
.
.
END                    ; end of relative segment

```

### 7.3.8 Absolute Segments

#### CSEG (pseudo op)

Function: defines an absolute code segment.

Description: CSEG defines and starts a new absolute code segment. Optionally, the absolute address of the segment origin may be specified using the AT directive.

Example: The following segment contains a simple subroutine that inspects the value in the accumulator and returns 0 if the accumulator value is even, and 0FFh if odd. The segment is placed in code memory at address 2800h.

```

CSEG AT 0x2800          ; start a new code segment

Odd:
    jb acc.0, IsOdd
    clr a
    ret
IsOdd:
    mov a, #0xFF
    ret
END                    ; end the segment

```

#### XSEG (pseudo op)

Function: defines an absolute external data segment.

Description: XSEG defines and starts a new absolute data segment. Optionally, the absolute address of the segment origin may be specified using the AT directive. Note that only the code segment may contain initialized data. The segment defined by an XSEG directive may reserve data bytes or words to be written to or read from during program execution.

Example: The following segment contains a simple subroutine that defines data in external memory. A separate code segment contains code to modify the data.

```

XSEG AT 0x8000          ; start a new external data segment

X: DS 1                ; byte variable X
Y: DS 2                ; word variable Y
A: DS 10               ; array A contains 10 bytes

    END                ; end the segment

CSEG AT 0x2000          ; start a new code segment

    mov dptr, #X        ; byte variable X
    movx a, @dptr       ; read X

```

```

        inc a                ; increment X
        movx @dptr, a       ; write incremented X back to external ; data

        END                ; end the segment

```

### DSEG (pseudo op)

**Function:** defines an absolute internal direct data segment.

**Description:** DSEG defines and starts a new absolute direct data segment. Note that directly addressable internal memory of the 8051 architecture includes the 128 internal data memory and the special function registers. Portions of the internal data space are also addressable as the register banks or bit addressable.

Optionally, the absolute address of the segment origin may be specified using the AT directive. Note that only the code segment may contain initialized data. The segment defined by a DSEG directive may reserve data bytes or words to be written to or read from during program execution.

**Example:** The following segment contains a simple subroutine that defines data in direct memory. A separate code segment contains code to modify the data.

```

DSEG AT 0x70                ; start a new external data segment

X: DS 1                    ; byte variable X
Y: DS 2                    ; word variable Y
A: DS 10                   ; array A contains 10 bytes

END                        ; end the segment

CSEG AT 0x2000             ; start a new code segment

mov a, X                   ; read byte variable X
  mov b, #3                ;
  mul ab                   ; X*3
  mov X, a                 ; write X*3 back to internal data memory

END                        ; end the segment

```

### ISEG (pseudo op)

**Function:** defines an absolute internal indirect data segment.

**Description:** ISEG defines and starts a new absolute indirect data segment. Note that indirectly addressable internal memory of the 8051 architecture is the upper 128 internal data memory.

Optionally, the absolute address of the segment origin may be specified using the AT directive. Note that only the code segment may contain initialized data. The segment defined by a DSEG directive may reserve data bytes or words to be written to or read from during program execution.

**Example:** The following segment contains a simple subroutine that defines data in internal indirect memory. A separate code segment contains code to modify the data.

```

ISEG AT 0xF0               ; start a new internal indirect data segment

X: DS 1                    ; byte variable X
Y: DS 2                    ; word variable Y
A: DS 10                   ; array A contains 10 bytes

END                        ; end the segment

CSEG AT 0x2000             ; start a new code segment

```

```

mov r0, #X           ; address of X
mov a, @r0          ; read byte variable X
mov b, #3
mul ab              ; X*3
mov @r0, a          ; write X*3 back to internal data memory

END                 ; end the segment

```

### BSEG (pseudo op)

Function: defines an absolute bit segment.

Description: BSEG defines and starts a new absolute bit segment. Note that bit addressable memory of the 8051 architecture is located in internal data memory, bytes 20h to 2Fh.

Optionally, the absolute address of the segment origin may be specified using the AT directive. Note that only the code segment may contain initialized data. The segment defined by a BSEG directive may reserve data bits to be written to or read from during program execution.

Example: The following segment defines bits. The segment is placed in code memory at address 2800h to read from and write to the defined bits.

```

BSEG AT 0           ; start a new external data segment

X:      DBIT 1      ; bit variable X
FLAGS:  DBIT 8      ; array FLAGS contains 8 bits

END          ; end the segment

CSEG AT 0x2000     ; start a new code segment

clr X            ; clear bit X
mov C, X         ; read X into the carry flag
anl C, (FLAGS+3) ; logic and of X and FLAGS bit 3
mov (FLAGS(2), C ; write result to FLAGS bit 2

END          ; end the segment

```

### 7.3.9 Relative Segments

#### CODE (keyword)

Function: refers to a relative code segment.

Description: CODE identifies the segment as a relative code segment. Code segments are placed in code memory at link time. The CODE keyword is used in declaring code segments, as below.

```

Main      segment code

```

Also, the CODE keyword is used in identifying the type of external references. For example,

```

extern   code   init_8031   ; function (label)

```

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

#### XDATA (keyword)

Function: refers to a relative external data segment.

Description: XDATA identifies the segment as a relative external data segment. External data segments are placed in external data memory at link time. The XDATA keyword is used in declaring code segments, as below.

```

Prompt   segment xdata

```

Also, the XDATA keyword is used in identifying the type of external references. For example,

```

extern   xdata   sz           ; external (RAM) data (symbol)

```

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

### **DATA (keyword)**

Function: refers to a relative internal direct data segment.

Description: DATA identifies the segment as a relative internal direct data segment. Internal direct data segments are placed in internal memory at link time. The DATA keyword is used in declaring internal direct data segments, as below.

```
PWM          segment data
```

Also, the DATA keyword is used in identifying the type of external references. For example,

```
extern      data      PWM          ; PWM value is saved in internal RAM
```

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

### **IDATA (keyword)**

Function: refers to a relative internal indirect data segment.

Description: IDATA identifies the segment as a relative internal indirect data segment. Internal indirect data segments are placed in internal memory at link time. The IDATA keyword is used in declaring internal indirect data segments, as below.

```
PWM          segment idata
```

Also, the IDATA keyword is used in identifying the type of external references. For example,

```
extern      idata     PWM          ; PWM value is saved in internal RAM
```

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

### **BIT (keyword)**

Function: refers to a relative bit segment.

Description: BIT identifies the segment as a relative bit segment. Bit segments are placed in bit addressable internal memory at link time. The BIT keyword is used in declaring bit segments, as below.

```
FLAG_1      segment bit
```

Also, the BIT keyword is used in identifying the type of external references. For example,

```
extern      bit       FLAG_1
```

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

## **7.3.10 Modules and Intermodule Linkage**

### **RSEG (pseudo op)**

Function: starts a relative segment.

Description: Relative segments must first be declared. Then, the RSEG directive instructs the assembler to start placing the following instructions in the corresponding segment.

Example: Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for an example.

```
MainCode    segment code

              cseg at 0                ; start an absolute code segment
              ljmp  main                ; branch to main upon reset
              end                       ; end segment

              rseg  MainCode           ; rseg is the keyword to start a relative
                                      ; segment
main:        ; entry upon reset
.
.
.
.
.
```

```
end ; terminate segment MainCode
```

### 7.3.11 EXTERN IMPORT (pseudo op)

Function: identify labels or symbols which are defined in another module.

Description: EXTERN is used with an identifier of the relative segment type to specify that the given labels or symbols are defined in other modules. IMPORT is an alternative keyword that is interpreted as EXTERN. EXTERN (IMPORT) and PUBLIC (EXPORT) pairs provide the primary mechanism for multimodule programming. They allow symbols (variables) or labels (code addresses) to be publicized (exported) by one module and imported (by extern) by another. For example, a function label may be exported (by PUBLIC or EXPORT). This function may be called from another module, provided that the label is imported (by EXTERN or IMPORT).

Note that labels and symbols not publicized are not accessible from other modules. These are said to be “local” or “invisible”. Local symbols allow you to hide the private tedious details of modules from the rest of the modules.

Example: The syntax is shown below. Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for a working example.

Module containing serial input/output routines publicize its functions:

```
public getc ; function (label)
export putc ; function (label)
```

Other modules may call the functions getc and putc, provided that they import the labels.

```
extern code getc ; function (label)
extern code putc ; function (label)
```

### 7.3.12 Public (Export)

Function: identify labels or symbols which are publicized to other modules.

Description: PUBLIC is used to specify that the given labels or symbols are defined in the current module and are made available to other modules. EXPORT is an alternative keyword that is interpreted as PUBLIC.

EXTERN (IMPORT) and PUBLIC (EXPORT) pairs provide the primary mechanism for multimodule programming. They allow symbols (variables) or labels (code addresses) to be publicized (exported) by one module and imported (by extern) by another. For example, a function label may be exported (by PUBLIC or EXPORT). This function may be called from another module, provided that the label is imported (by EXTERN or IMPORT). Note that labels and symbols not publicized are not accessible from other modules. These are said to be “local” or “invisible”. Local symbols allow you to hide the private tedious details of modules from the rest of the modules.

Example: The syntax is shown below. Refer to the demo project RelativeAssembly01 in the work directory for a working example.

Module containing serial input/output routines publicize its functions:

```
public getc ; function (label)
export putc ; function (label)
```

Other modules may call the functions getc and putc, provided that they import the labels.

```
extern code getc ; function (label)
extern code putc ; function (label)
```

## 7.4 Linker

Currently, the Reads51v4.x linker is configured to generate executable code for Rigel embedded control boards. Please refer to the section Relative Assembly Concepts for a discussion about the linker and for an example.

## 8 rCHIPSIM51

rChipSim51 simulates the functionality of a standard 8051 in software. That is, it implements a virtual 8051 chip. rChipSim51 may be selected as a target on which the compiled programs run. (Use the “Options | Toolchain / Target Options” menu). rChipSim51 supports the following features:

- Standard Interrupts: T0, T1, EX0, EX1, Serial Port (TI+RI)
- Standard Timers T0 and T1
- Simulated Serial I/O
- Simulated Ports

### 8.1 SimTTY Window and Serial I/O

rChipSim51 supports simple simulated serial input/outputs through the SimTTY window. The simulated serial port need not be initialized, nor the Baud rate generated. The bytes placed in the SFR SBUF are sent to the SimTTY window. Similarly, keystrokes in the SimTTY window are put into SBUF. As in the 8051, SBUF is a double buffer to support concurrent inputs and outputs.

### 8.2 SimIO Window and Simulated Ports

The functionality of the compiled program may be observed through the SimIO window. The user may interact with the ports while the program is running. rChipSim51 reflects the current state of its four ports (P0 through P3). Note that the 8051 ports have pull-up resistors. Any port may be grounded by simply clicking on the port icon. Such clicks correspond to momentarily grounding the port. That is, the port is grounded as long as the mouse button is held down. Holding the SHIFT key while clicking on a port simulates toggling the port state. The ports in the SimIO window do not show the address, data or control signals when accessing external code or data memory.



## APPENDIX A MENU COMMANDS

Menu Item	Hot Key	Action
<b>Project Menu</b>		
New Project		Opens a new project.
Open Project		Opens an existing project.
Save Project		Saves the current project to disk
Save Project As		Saves the current project under a different name
Save Project Copy As		Saves a copy of the current project under a different name
Set Project Active	Ctrl+F10	Sets project as active when more than one project is open.
<b>Project Build Options</b>		
Compiler Options		Opens window to allow you to select compiler options
Assembly Options		Opens window to allow you to select assembly options
Close Project		Close current project
Close All Projects		Close all open projects
Open Workspace		Opens workspace
Save Workspace		Saves workspace
Close Workspace		Close workspace
Recent Workspaces		Shows recently used workspaces
Exit		Exits the program
<b>File Menu</b>		
New File	Ctrl+N	Opens a new file.
Open File	Ctrl+O	Opens an existing file.
Save File	Ctrl+S	Saves the current file to disk.
Save File As		Saves the current file under a different file name.
Save All		Saves all open files
Close File		Closes the current file.
Print	Ctrl+P	Prints the current file.
Print Preview		Displays the page as it will be printed.
Print Setup		Selects printer options.
<b>Module Menu</b>		
Module Properties	Alt+Enter	
Import Module(s)		Imports module from another project
Create Module		Create a new module
Open Module(s)		Open an existing module
Code Wizard	Alt+F10	Not active in this release
Save Module(s)	Ctrl+S	Save current module
Save All modules	Shift+Ctrl+S	Saves all modules
Close Module(s)		Closes module
Delete Module(s)		Deletes module
Cut Module(s)		Cut module onto the clipboard
Copy Module(s)		Copy module onto the clipboard
Paste Module(s)		Paste module from clipboard into a project
<b>Compile Menu</b>		
Build	F9	Compiles or assembles project
Build and Download	Ctrl+F9	Compiles or assembles project and downloads to target
Make Library		Saves .obj files in project to the library
Rebuild All	Shift+Ctrl+F9	Recompiles or reassembles all files

Clean		Deletes all intermediate files of a project.
Toggle BUILD / DEBUG	ModeF2	Toggles between Build and Debug Mode of the IDE
Download Hex		Downloads HEX file to target
<b>Debug Menu</b>		
Run to Breakpoint	Ctrl+F8	
Run Skip Breakpoints		
Run to Cursor		
Step Into	F8	
Step Over	Alt+f8	
Step Out	Shift+F8	
Show Next Statement		
Stop Debugging	Ctrl+F2	
Break Execution	Shift+Ctrl+F2	
Restart		
Toggle Breakpoint	F5	Allows you to turn on or off selected breakpoints.
Clear Breakpoint	Ctrl+F5	Removes all breakpoints from your selected program.
<b>Edit Menu</b>		
Undo	Ctrl+Z	Restores the document to its state immediately before the last edit command.
Redo	Ctrl+Y	
Cut	Ctrl+X	Cut the highlighted text and places it into the clipboard.
Paste	Ctrl+V	Places the contents of the clipboard into the file at the current carret position.
Copy	Ctrl+C	Copies the highlighted text into the clipboard without removing it from the file.
Select All	Ctrl+A	Selects the contents of the entire file.
Find	Ctrl+F	Finds a string in a file
Find Next	F3	Finds the next instance of the string in the file
Replace	Ctrl+H	Replaces the text with new string
Jump	Ctrl+G	Jumps to the specified code line
<b>View Menu</b>		
Toolbar		Toggles on and off the standard toolbar
Status Bar		Toggles on and off the status bar
Workbook Mode		Toggles on and off the workbook mode
Project Manager		Toggles the project window open and closed
TTY Window		Toggles the TTY window open and closed
Output Window		Toggles the output window open and closed
SFR Window		Toggles the SFR window open and closed
Memory Window		Toggles the memory window open and closed
<b>Tools Menu</b>		
Find in Files		Find a string in the files
Customize Toolbars		Allows you to customize the toolbar
Burn RIC320 EEPROM		
<b>Options Menu</b>		
Toolchain / Target Options		Allows you to set the toolchain and target options
TTY Options		Allows you set the TTY options
Single-File (Projectless) Build Options		
Compiler Options		
Assembly Options		

Editor Options

Allows you to set the editor options for font, syntax highlighting

Environment

Work Directory  
Workbook Icons  
Default Settings

Allows you to set the default work directory  
Toggles on and off the ICONs on the workbook Tabs  
Clears all settings and sets them back to the default settings

### **Window Menu**

New Window

Cascade

Tile Horizontally

Tile Vertically

Arrange Icons

Close All

Arranges all editor windows in a cascade fashion  
Tiles all editor windows. This is especially useful to view two files simultaneously.

Tiles all editor windows. This is especially useful to view two files simultaneously.

You may arrange the minimized edit windows neatly by this command.

Closes all windows

### **Help Menu**

Help Topics

MCS-51 Overview

About Reads51

F1

Opens the help files

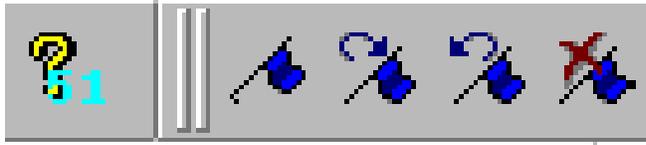
Opens the help file for the MCS-51 instructions

## APPENDIX B TOOLBAR BUTTONS

The following are the Toolbar Buttons, which are specific to the Reads51 IDE.



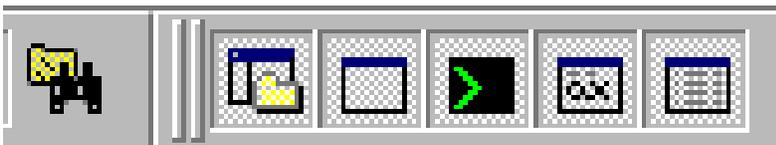
- New Project
- Open Project
- Save Modified Modules (Shift+Ctrl+S)
- Build Active Project (F9)



- Rebuild Project (Shift+Ctrl+F9)
- MCS-51 Help
- Toggle Bookmark
- Next Bookmark
- Previous Bookmark
- Clear All Bookmarks



- Toggle BUILD / DEBUG Mode (F2)
- Show Next Statement
- Step Into (F8)
- Step Over (Alt+F8)
- Step Out (Shift+F8)
- Run to Cursor
- Run Skip Breakpoint
- Run to Breakpoint
- Toggle Breakpoint (F5)
- Restart
- Restart Program Execution
- Stop Program Execution



- Find String in Multiple Files
- Project
- Output
- TTY
- SFR
- Memory Page

## APPENDIX C RELATIVE ASSEMBLY CONCEPTS

Relative assembly is sometimes referred to as relocatable assembly. Mechanically speaking, it provides the basis for modular programming, be it assembly or any high-level language (HLL) such as C. The entire software is regarded as a collection of modules. Parenthetically, terms such as module and segment are frequently used in conjunction with software and may mean different things in different contexts.

Each such software module is considered as a building block. Each module may have locally used variables, invisible to other modules. Eventually, modules must interact. For example, a function (subroutine) in one module may be called from another module. In this case, the function address (code label) need be publicized by the module. Similarly, a module may contain data that needs to be accessed by other modules. In this sense, such data is no longer local and invisible to other modules. Rather, it is global data. Accordingly, modules that contain global data must make the data addresses (labels) public. Code or data defined in other modules are said to be external references to the module which needs access to them. Clearly, when such a module is assembled (by a relative assembler) the result is not readily executable. That is because the exact value (address) of external references is not known. A closer inspection of a module reveals that modules contain different types of labels and symbols, primarily depending on their place in the memory map, or memory space. For example, labels to code and labels to external data need to be differentiated in the 8051. This also implies a block of code memory, most probably containing machine instructions, must be treated differently from a block of external data memory, perhaps containing global variables. Relative assembly takes this distinction a step further: more than a single block of a given type of memory may be defined as a cohesive unit. Such units are called segments. Again, the term segment may be somewhat confusing to the first-time users, since the same term is used for the collection of all segments of the same type. We will clarify this later after we discuss the linker. In the MCS-51 architecture, a module may contain one or more segments of type code, external data, internal direct data, internal indirect data, or bit. The keywords CODE, XDATA, DATA, IDATA, and BIT are used to designate these types.

The output of the relative assembler is referred to as an object module. Object modules are usually composed in binary. They contain the output code from the relative assembler, but lack any specific address information. For example, branches to absolute addresses are not completely specified. Instead, the object modules contain the so-called fixup records. Fixup records list the function and symbols made public by the current module, as well as external references needed to generate executable code.

Modules of an application are all assembled, yielding a set of object modules. The term “relative” in relative assembly comes from the fact that any absolute start address (also called offset or base address) may be assigned to the module. The term “relocatable” also implies this aspect. Once a set of object modules are at hand, the final step is called linking, and the program that performs this is called a linker. The linker takes the object modules, reviews the public labels and symbols as well as the external references. Several checks are performed. For instance, if a module specifies an external reference, say a function label, but none of the modules have publicized the function label, it becomes impossible to generate executable code. This is often referred to as the module having “unresolved external references.” Similarly, an ambiguity arises if the same function (label) is publicized by more than one module. In such a case, it is not clear which function should actually be called. If no such inconsistency is detected, the linker proceeds by collecting the modules into one executable program.

Object modules are stacked following precise rules. Typically, first all of the segments of the same name of each module are stacked together. Then all the modules are scanned and all the segments of the same type are stacked, keeping the segments with the same name as contiguous blocks. This is done for all five segment types of the MCS-51 architecture. At the end of this aggregation the total size of each segment type is known. Moreover, the offset of each segment of each module is known. Usually some size checking is performed to verify that the segments would fit into the available resources. Finally, the linker locates the segments. That is, absolute starting addresses are assigned to each segment. Since locating the segments is a fundamental task in generating final executable code, the linker is sometimes

referred to as a linker/locator. At a minimum, the start address of code and external data memory need to be specified. Once known, the linker may now compute the absolute address of each segment. This information is subsequently used, along with the fixup information contained in the object modules, to resolve all external references and all absolute internal references. This approach to generating executable code is fairly flexible. In fact, almost all approaches to assembly language programming are supported as special cases. Moreover, keywords and pseudo ops are provided to support absolute assembly.

For example, it is possible to specify an absolute origin to a module. If the module does not have external references, then the assembler may generate executable code, just as an absolute assembler. Similarly, code may consist of a single module with only one segment for each type. In this case, linker simply stacks the segment types and locates the code into an executable program. On the other hand, a HLL may take advantage of the features of relative assembly and the multi-module programming support it provides. For instance, the 'C' language keyword extern is simply forwarded to the relative assembler, specifying the variable to be defined in another module.

### Example

```

; a minimal two-module relative assembly source
; -----
; module 1
; -----

Routines    segment code
Variables   segment xdata

; imported labels and symbols (defined in other
; modules but referred to in this module)
extern      code    putc      ; function (label)
extern      xdata   Ch        ; external (RAM) data (symbol)

; code written to an absolute code segment at the reset vector
; the following code is automatically added by the project
; manager it assumes there is a function called "main"

cseg at 0                                ; cseg is the keyword to start an absolute
                                        ; code segment
ljmp      main
end                                           ; each segment must terminate with an "end"
                                        ; directive

; code written to the relative code segment "Routines"
rseg      Routines      ; rseg is the keyword to start a
                        ; relative segment

main:                                          ; this label is exported
mov       dptr, #Ch      ; address of variable Ch
movx     a, @dptr        ; get Ch
lcall    putc           ; putc prints Ch (in acc)
ret                                             ; done
end                                           ; each segment must terminate with an
                                        ; "end" directive

; -----
; module 2
; -----
Routines    segment code

```

```

Variables    segment xdata

; declare exported labels and symbols (defined in this
; module and referred to in other modules)
public    putc                ; function (label)
public    Ch                  ; external (RAM) data (symbol)

rseg     Variables            ; rseg is the keyword to start a
                               ; relative segment
Ch:      ; this label is exported
ds 1     ; reserve 1 byte for variable Ch
end      ; each segment must terminate with an
         ; "end" directive

rseg     Routines            ; rseg is the keyword to start a
                               ; relative segment
putc:    ; this label is exported
clr     TI                   ; transmit flag
mov     sbuf, a              ; send char in acc
jnb     TI, $                ; $ has the value of the current
                               ; location pointer
                               ; i.e., the current address
clr     TI                   ; transmit flag
ret
end      ; each segment must terminate with an
         ; "end" directive

```

## APPENDIX D A BRIEF REVIEW OF C

### C Language Philosophy

C is by far the High-Level Language (HLL) of choice. C is the first truly portable computer language. There is a C compiler for virtually all processors. Moreover, C will most likely continue to be the dominant HLL for future generations of processors. This means you may port your code to future hardware with ease. C, being closer to assembly language, makes it a good language for microcontrollers. Compared to other HLLs, such as BASIC, you can have finer control over the microcontroller hardware with C.

C forces the code to be more structured. It is not uncommon to see unstructured code with many forward and backward jumps (among programmers this is referred to as spaghetti code) in assembly or BASIC. C imposes structure by minimizing or eliminating labels, and by forcing variable declarations.

C is a highly capable language when it comes to making use of previously compiled code. Traditionally libraries of precompiled code would be linked with C code to produce final executable code. Thus, making use of external components (external functions or variables, for example) is fundamental to the success of C. With the appropriate libraries, C may be customized to undertake demanding tasks it was not originally intended to do. For example, with a good complex number library, C may be used as a number-crunching platform. This chameleon-like feature of C makes it the language of choice in scientific computing as well as writing large-scale applications such as computer graphics, word processing, desktop publishing, data base management, communications programming, and networking.

C is not a language without its critics. The language was designed for writing operating systems. Numerical work were not top priority issues in designing C. For example, the ANSI standard only requires trigonometric functions to be provided in double-precision versions, although many compilers do provide them in single-precision as well. Similarly, handling multi-dimensional array pointers may seem difficult to the new comer.

Many programmers, when first introduced to C complain that it is a very cryptic language. Granted, it is easier to write opaque code in C than it is in, say BASIC. Cryptic code usually is a result of trying to shorten the code. It almost always results in reducing code readability. Although it is possible to write cryptic code in C it is not necessary.

Finally, C imposes fewer restrictions on the programmer. For example, it is not a strict type checking or strict range checking language. This gives the programmer more freedom and power, at the expense of added responsibility to write good crash-proof code. But this is hardly new to assembly programmers. In fact it is this freedom that makes C a convenient HLL for microcontrollers.

### Ingredients of a C Program

A C program consists of functions, variables, and statements. These functions may be user provided, or may come from one or more Run-Time Libraries (RTLs). A RTL is a collection of precompiled functions that are linked to your program to produce the final executable code.

Sometimes C is called a function-oriented language. All C instructions must belong to a function. In fact the entire program is initiated when a special function called "main" is called. When main returns, your program terminates. The latter must be reviewed in the case of embedded controller code, since embedded controller code may be required never to terminate.

The traditional "Hello World" program below shows some of the ingredients of the language.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void main(void) {
    printf("\nHello World\n");
}
```

The void preceding `main` indicates that function `main` does not return a value. Similarly, the keyword `void` which appears inside the set of parentheses immediately following `main` specifies that the function `main` has no arguments. That is, no parameters are passed to the function.

C string constants are written between double quotation marks. The characters `\\n` prints a `\\n` "new line" character, which brings the cursor onto the next line.

### Code Appearance and Style

The code starts with a series of comments indicating its purpose, as well as its author. It is considered good programming style to identify and document your work (although, sadly, most people only do this as an afterthought). Comments can be written anywhere in the code: any characters between `/*` and `*/` are ignored by the compiler and can be used to make the code easier to understand. The use of variable names that are meaningful within the context of the problem is also a good idea.

### Functions

#### Function Prototypes

Functions are declared by specifying the type and number of arguments they take and by the type of value they return. Such declarations are called function prototypes. Consider, for example, the prototype of a successor function which takes an integer and returns the next integer:

```
int GetNextInteger(int);
```

Semicolons are used as delimiters to mark the end of the statements. Blocks of statements are put in curly brackets (also referred to as braces). A collection of statements placed in curly brackets is called a compound statement, which acts as a statement.

All C statements are defined in free format, i.e., with no specified layout or column assignment. (Old FORTRAN programmers will remember the significance of column 6 and 7!) Whitespaces (tabs or spaces) are never significant, with the exception of being a part of a character string. Thus it is possible to write the "Hello World" program as follows

```
#include <stdio.h>void main(void){printf("\\nHello World\\n");}
```

which sometimes leads to a cryptic appearance.

### Variables

#### Scalars

Variable names are arbitrary (with some compiler-defined maximum length, typically 32 characters). C uses the following standard variable types:

<code>int</code>	integer variable
<code>short</code>	short integer
<code>long</code>	long integer
<code>float</code>	single precision real (floating point) variable
<code>double</code>	double precision real (floating point) variable
<code>char</code>	character variable (single byte)

C requires the variables to be defined before they are used. The following example illustrates the use of variables.

```
main(void){
int nNumber, nSuccessor;

nNumber=1;
nSuccessor=GetNextNumber(nNumber);
}

int GetNextInteger(int n){
return n+1;
}
```

C is case sensitive, so function and variable names must be case consistent throughout your program. For example, nNumber and nNUMBER are not the same!

In this example, variables are defined within the compound statement. Such variables are called local variables. They may be used only within the compound statement in which they are defined. All local variables must be defined before any other statements.

Alternatively, you may have global variables, defined outside the compound statements. These are called global variables. For example,

```
int nNumber, nSuccessor;

main(void) {

    nNumber=1;
    nSuccessor=GetNextNumber(nNumber);
}

int GetNextInteger(int n) {
    return n+1;
}
```

defines the two integers nNumber and nSuccessor as global variables.

In strict C, global variables may only be used in compound statements that appear below their definitions. R66 does not impose this limitation.

Variables may be initialized when defined. Assembly programmers will recognize the similarity between these definitions and the DB pseudo operation.

```
int n=0;
```

not only defines the integer n, but it also sets its initial value to 0.

### Pointers

Similar to the BASIC peek and poke functions, C allows direct access to memory. In fact, C provides a very powerful method of memory access, which makes it the language of choice to write memory intensive applications.

The approach is based on storing the memory address as a variable. Such a variable is called a pointer (to memory). Pointers variables (variables which store memory addresses) are declared using the asterisk. Below, we define an integer n and a pointer to an integer pn.

```
int n, *pn;
```

You may extract the memory address of a given variable by the C operator '&'. Thus, the statement

```
pn=&n;
```

gets the memory address of the integer n and places it into the pointer variable pn. The ampersand operator is referred to the reference operator.

The opposite operation is also needed. The contents of the memory referenced by a pointer is obtained using the ``\*'' operator, referred to as the dereference operator. Provided that pn contains the memory address of the variable n, \*pn has the same value as n. For example,

```
*pn=5;
```

is equivalent to

```
n=5;
```

### **Arrays**

Arrays of any type can be formed in C. The syntax is simple:

```
type name[dim];
```

For example,

```
int nADC[16];
```

defines an array of 16 integers. C arrays start at position 0. The elements of the array occupy adjacent locations in memory. C treats the name of the array as if it were a pointer to the first element. This is important in understanding how to do arithmetic with arrays. Thus, if v is an array, \*v is the same as v[0], \*(v+1) is the same as v[1]:

### **Constants**

#### **Compiler Directives**

You can define constants of any type by using the #define compiler directive. Its syntax is simple--for instance

```
#define ANGLE_MIN 0
#define ANGLE_MAX 360
```

would define ANGLE\_MIN and ANGLE\_MAX to the values 0 and 360, respectively. C distinguishes between lowercase and uppercase letters in variable names. It is customary to use capital letters in defining global constants.

### **Statements**

C has six basic classes of statements:

- Compound Statements
- Expressions
- Iteration Statements
- Selection Statements
- Jump Statements
- Labeled Statements

Expressions are the basic staple of any programming language. Statements are usually built around one or more expressions.

#### **Compound Statements**

Compound statements collect a set of statements as well as definitions of local variables. Compound statements play a central role in iteration statements or selection statements when more than one statement needs to be executed during an iteration, or as a result of a condition. Consider, for example, the iteration statement

```
while(expression) statement
```

In most cases, the statement of the above while loop needs to perform several tasks. This is easily accomplished by a compound statement. In effect, a compound statement introduces a set of statements which, from a syntactic point of view, act as a single statement.

```
while (expression)
{
    statement_1;
    statement_2;
    .
    .
    .
    statement_n;
}
```

### Expressions

Expressions are the basic staple of any programming language. Perhaps the most commonly used expression is the assignment expression, such as

```
n=5;
```

C allows many assignment operators besides the simple equal assignment.

=	assignment
+=	addition assignment
-=	subtraction assignment
*=	multiplication assignment
/=	division assignment
%=	remainder/modulus assignment
&=	bitwise AND assignment
=	bitwise OR assignment
^=	bitwise exclusive OR assignment
>=	right shift assignment

The format “variable operation=” is short for “variable=variable operation”. For example,

```
n+=5;
```

is equivalent to

```
n=n+5;
```

C allows you to put multiple expression in the same statement, separated by a comma. The expressions are evaluated in left-to-right order. The value of the overall expression is then equal to that of the rightmost expression.

For example,

```
n = ( (k=1) , 2 ) ;
```

is equivalent to the two assignments

```
n=2;
k=1;
```

Similarly, when used as a function argument,

```
f ( n , ( k=1 , k+1 ) , 1 ) ;
```

is equivalent to the assignment and function call

```
k=1;
f(n, 2, 1);
```

The comma operator is useful in some cases, such as in iteration statements, but in general, overusing the comma operator produces unreadable code.

C conditions are also expressions. If an expression is evaluated to be zero, the condition is considered to be false. Otherwise the condition is true.

### Conditions

C conditions are also expressions. If an expression is evaluated to be zero, the condition is considered to be false. Otherwise the condition is true.

C provides many conditional or logical operations to simplify the evaluation of expressions to be used as conditions.

==	equal to
!=	not equal
>	greater than
<	less than
>=	greater than or equal to
<=	less than or equal to
&&	logical and
	logical or
!	logical not

For example, the expression

```
(j==2)
```

has the value 1 only if j is equal to 2.

### Iteration Statements

Iteration statements provide code loops, which are structured ways to accomplish repetitive algorithmic procedures. C supports three basic types of iteration statements: the “while” statement, the “do-while” statement, and the “for” statement. The syntax of each type of iteration statement is given below.

```
while(expression) statement
do statement while (expression);
for(expression;expression;expression) statement
```

Note that the statements may be compound statements, possibly (and often) containing other iteration statements. The while statement evaluates its expression. The statement is executed if the expression is nonzero. The process is repeated until the expression is evaluated to be zero. For example,

```
void main(void){
int n=0;

SendStr("Hello World\n");
while(n<10)
{
SendStr("hello again\n");
n++;
}
}
```

prints "Hello World" followed by ten lines of "hello again." Note that the statement of the while statement is a compound statement. This way, the statement accomplishes more than one task: it prints a string, and it increments n. The latter task is most important, since otherwise the while expression would never be evaluated as zero, hence resulting in an endless loop.

Endless loops are not all evil though. Neither is the statement always necessary. Consider for example the while statement

```
.  
. .  
. .  
while (P2_0);  
. .  
. .  
. .
```

where P2\_0 is the value of port 2.0. The program will remain at the while loop until the state of the port bit becomes 0. Note that the program simply waits (or hangs) at the while statement without executing any other statement.

The do-while statement is similar to the while statement, except that the statement is first executed, and the expression evaluated afterwards. The above example could be rewritten as,

```
void main(void) {  
    int n=0;  
  
    SendStr("Hello World\n");  
    do  
    {  
        SendStr("hello again\n");  
        n++;  
    } while (n<10);  
}
```

Perhaps the C for statement is the most often used iteration statements by programmers new to C. This statement closely resembles the BASIC for statement and the FORTRAN do statement. There are three expressions in the C for statement: the initialization expression, the condition expression, and the iteration expression.

for (initialization\_expression; condition\_expression; iteration\_expression) statement

The for statement may be viewed as a special case of the C while statement, equivalent to the following:

```
{  
    initialization_expression;  
  
    while (condition_expression)  
    {  
        statement;  
        iteration_expression;  
    }  
}
```

The above example is now written with the for statement.

```
void main(void) {
```

```

int n;

SendStr("Hello World\n");
for(n=0; n<10; n++) SendStr("hello again\n");
}

```

Note that the initialization of the iteration counter `n` is now moved to the `for` statement. This is not necessary, however, since any one of the `for` expressions may actually be null expressions. That is, the following code has the same effect.

```

void main(void){
int n=0;

SendStr("Hello World\n");
for( ; n<10; n++) SendStr("hello again\n");
}

```

It was mentioned that infinite loops may have their use in programming. In addition, C provides a good mechanism to break out of a loop. The two C keywords “continue” and “break” provide this additional control. The “continue” command skips the rest of the statements and repeats the iteration. The “break” command terminates the iteration and exits from the loop. Again, consider our example.

```

void main(void){
int n=0;

SendStr("Hello World\n");
for( ; ; n++)
{
    SendStr("hello again\n");
    if(n>=9) break;
}
}

```

Here, we have made two changes. First we replaced the old statement with a compound statement. Next, we removed the condition from the “for” statement. The loop is now terminated when `n` reaches 9 by the `break` command. Note that the iteration limit is 9 since `n` will go from 0 to 9 and hence print the string 10 times.

As an extreme case, consider

```

void main(void){
int n=0;

SendStr("Hello World\n");
for( ; ; )
{
    SendStr("hello again\n");
    if(n>=9) break;
    n++;
}
}

```

Although such programming style may at first seem unusual, it is actually practiced by some. Similarly, it is perfectly legitimate to write

```

void main(void){
int n;

```

```

SendStr("Hello World\n");
for(n=0; n<10; n++, SendStr("hello again\n"));
}

```

moving the statement into the for expression. The programmer should strive not only for correct code but for readable code. With attention to variable and function names as well as programming style as illustrated by these examples, C could become quite a self-documenting programming language.

### Selection Statements

There are two types of selection statements in C: the if (and if-else) statement, and the switch statement.

The if and if-else statements have a straightforward structure:

```

if(expression) statement
if(expression) statement else statement

```

For example, consider

```

void main(void){
int n;

for(n=0; n<10; n++)
    if(n%2) SendStr("odd\n");
    else SendStr("Even\n");
}

```

This example prints a series of strings (Even, Odd, ...). Note that although the syntax of the program is correct, many programmers prefer to place any statement following an if(expression) inside curly brackets, as below.

```

void main(void){
int n;

for(n=0; n<10; n++)
{
    if(n%2) SendStr("odd\n");
    else SendStr("Even\n");
}
}

```

This improves readability by clearly isolating the statement to be executed when the expression is nonzero. The switch statement is a powerful construct with the following syntax:

```

switch (expression)
{
    case const_expression_1: statement
    case const_expression_2: statement
    .
    .
    default: statement
}

```

The expression must evaluate to an integral value. The value is compared to each constant expression. If an equal constant expression is found, the corresponding statement is executed. Note that the cases are actually labels. The program will normally continue executing after the statement. Thus you will frequently find switch statements in the form

```

switch (expression)

```

```

        {
        case const_expression_1: statement;
break;
        case const_expression_2: statement
                break;
        .
        .
        default: statement
        }

```

## Comments

C comments start with the character pair `'/*'` and terminate with the pair `'*/'`. For example,

```

/*
the traditional Hello World program
another line of comments
and yet another
*/

/* --- header files --- */
#include <stdio.h>

/* --- main function --- */

void main(void){
    printf("\nHello World\n"); /* print the string */
}
/* --- end of code --- */

```

illustrates the use of C comments.

Assembly language programmers may find writing 4 extra characters per comment a bit too much, since anything from a semicolon to the end of the line is a comment in assembly language. C++ introduced a similar type of comments where a double forward slash denotes the beginning of the comment. As in assembly language, the comment terminates at the end of the line. Although strict C compilers will not recognize such comments, Rc66 does. It is then possible to write

```

/*
the traditional Hello World program
another line of comments
and yet another
*/

// --- main function ---

void main(void){
    SendStr("\nHello World\n"); // print the string
}
// --- end of code ---

```

Note that the C-type comments are still convenient for multi-line comments.

## Standard (Run Time) Libraries

You will notice that the central role is played by the function `"printf"` (short for print function) which is actually a library function, rather than a built in C feature. That is, somebody has written the function `"printf()."` The first line is a compiler directive instructing the compiler to include the file `"stdio.h"` in which a prototype of the function `"printf"` may be found. The file `"stdio.h"` is called a header file (thus the extension `'h'`.)The compiler must also be instructed to link the code with the standard libraries containing the

precompiled version of "printf." Unlike other HLLs, to include a header file or to link with the proper library is the responsibility of the programmer. RTL functions such as "printf" are now standard in ANSI C. The K & R textbook lists the content of these and other standard libraries in its appendix.

The compiler is not an ANSI C compiler. It is written with a graphical Integrated Development System (IDE) in mind. The compiler does not require function prototypes. Rather, it performs a scan pass over the code to see which functions are used, and which functions are available. Thus, in the compiler the "Hello" program becomes

```
void main(void) {  
    SendStr("\nHello World\n");  
}
```

Note that the function SendStr() accomplishes the same as "printf," that is, prints the given string. It is a part of serial communications routines. SendStr() actually sends the characters out the serial port of the microcontroller.

### **References**

An excellent textbook on C by two well-known and widely respected authors is:  
The C Programming Language -- ANSI C Brian W. C. Kernighan & Dennis M. Ritchie, Prentice Hall, 1988

## APPENDIX E SmallC

SmallC implements a subset of the K&R C language. It was written by Ron Cain and published in the May 1980 issue of Dr.Dobb's Journal. Later, James E.Hendrix improved and extended the original SmallC compiler. He describes the SmallC compiler in the book "The Small-C Handbook", ISBN 0-8359-7012-4 (1984). Originally, SmallC was written to produce 8080 assembly language code from the C source.

Since its introduction, it has been ported to several processor and microcontrollers. Many of these implementations are in the public domain. Consequently, SmallC has been a popular choice of experimenters, educational institutions and embedded systems developers.

It has a few restrictions compared to K&R C or ANSI C:

1. Structures and Unions are not implemented
2. Only one-dimensional arrays are allowed.
3. Only one level of indirection (pointer) is allowed.
4. Only integer and character types are allowed.

The C compiler in Reads51 is a SmallC-compatible compiler that generates MCS-51 relative assembly language from C source. The output is intended to be assembled by the Reads51v4 relative assembler and subsequently linked by the Reads51v4 linker.

The C compiler has some of the limitations of SmallC. However, it also introduces some significant extensions and improvements over standard SmallC.

Reads51v4 C Compiler:

1. Uses the more modern (ANSI C) function argument definition syntax.
2. Arguments are passed to the functions in the C convention. This allows a variable number of arguments to be passed on to functions, such as in printf().
3. Supports MCS-51 interrupts.
4. Supports function prototypes.
5. Supports the void type.
6. Uses Rigel's proprietary macro preprocessor.
7. Supports sfr and sfr bit types.

## APPENDIX F OVERVIEW OF THE MCS-51 INSTRUCTION SET

### MCS-51 Addressing Modes and Notation

The addressing mode refers to the various ways operands are specified. For example, move instructions require a source and a destination, or addition requires two operands.

### The MCS-51 Instruction Set

Instruction	Function
ACALL	addr11 absolute call
ADD A,<src-byte>	ADD adds a source byte to the accumulator.
ADDC A,<src-byte>	ADDC adds a source byte to the accumulator with carry.
AJMP addr11	Absolute jump
ANL <dest-byte>,<src-byte>	Logical AND for byte variables
ANL C,<src-bit>	Logical AND for bit variables
CJNE <dest-byte>,<src-byte>,rel	Compare and jump if not equal
CLR A	Clear accumulator
CLR bit	Clear a bit
CPL A	Compliment accumulator
CPL bit	Compliment accumulator
DA A	Decimal adjust accumulator for addition
DEC byte	Decrement byte
DIV AB	Divide
DJNZ <byte>,<rel-addr>	Decrement byte and jump if not zero
INC byte	Increment byte
INC DPTR	Increment data pointer
JB bit,rel	Jump if bit set
JBC bit,rel	Jump if bit set and clear bit
JC rel	Jump if Carry is set
JMP @A+DPTR	Indexed jump
JNB bit,rel	Jump if bit not set
JNC rel	Jump if Carry is not set
JNZ rel	Jump if accumulator is not zero
JZ rel	Jump if accumulator is zero
LCALL addr16	Long Call
LJMP addr16	Long Jump
MOV <dest-byte>,<src-byte>	Move byte variable
MOV <dest-bit>,<src-bit>	Move bit data
MOV DPTR,#data16	Load data pointer with a 16-bit constant
MOVC A,@A+<base reg>	Move code byte
MOVX <dest-byte>,<src-byte>	External move.
MUL AB	Multiply
NOP	No operation
ORL <dest-byte>,<src-byte>	Logical-OR for byte variables
ORL C,<src-byte>	Logical-OR the Carry Bit with a bit variable.
POP direct	Pop from stack
PUSH direct	Push onto the stack
RET	Return from subroutine
RETI	Return from interrupt
RL A	Rotate accumulator left
RLC A	Rotate accumulator left the Carry flag

RR A	Rotate accumulator right
RRC A	Rotate accumulator right through Carry flag
SETB <bit>	Set bit
SJMP rel	Short jump
SUBB A,<src-byte>	Subtract with borrow
SWAP A	Swap the two Accumulator nibbles.
XCH A,<byte>	Exchange Accumulator with byte variable
XCHD A,@Ri	Exchange digit.
XRL <dest-byte>,<src-byte>	Logical Exclusive-OR for byte variables

## **APPENDIX G OMF-51**

The OMF-51 ("Object Module Format for the MCS-51) was developed by Intel. It has become the de facto object file standard for the MCS-51 language. Almost all professional assemblers, compilers, and in-circuit emulators (ICEs) support the OMF-51 specifications. The specifications are freely available on the Intel web site as well as other web sites. Refer to the Rigel Corporation web site [www.rigelcorp.com](http://www.rigelcorp.com) Download Documents to find a copy in PDF format.

