

# Ada Distilled

**An Introduction to Ada Programming Features  
for  
Experienced Computer Programmers**

by  
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Any other errors are strictly mine. Any mistakes in wording, spelling, or facts are mine and mine alone.

I hope this book will be valuable to the intended audience. It is moderate in its intent: help the beginning Ada programmer get a good start with some useful examples of working code. More advanced books are listed in the bibliography. The serious student should also have one of those books at hand when starting in on a real project.

Richard Riehle

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## Audience for this Book

This book is aimed at experienced programmers who want to learn Ada at the programming level. It is not intended as a program design book. Instead, we have summarized some key features of the Ada language that are essential for getting started.

Ada is a rich and flexible language for designing large-scale software systems. This book emphasizes syntax, control structures, subprogram rules, and how-to coding issues rather than design issues. There are some really fine books available that deal with design. Also, this is not a comprehensive treatment of the Ada language. The bibliography lists some books better suited to such comprehensive treatment.

Think of this a quick-start book, one that enables you, the experienced programmer to get into the Ada language quickly and easily.

Happy Coding,

Richard Riehle

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## 1. What is Ada Distilled?

This little book is for the newcomer to Ada. The intended audience is experienced programmers rather than designers. Example programs are commented so an experienced programmer can experiment with Ada. The programmer who knows one language and wants annotated examples will find this helpful. This is not a comprehensive book on the entire Ada language. Many Ada features are ignored. In particular, we say very little about Ada.Finalization, Storage Pool Management, Representation Specifications, Dynamic Binding, Polymorphism, Concurrency, and other more advanced topics. Other books, listed in the bibliography, cover advanced topics. This book is an entry point to your study of Ada.

The text is organized around example programs with line by line comments. A comment might be an explanatory note and/or corresponding section of the Ada Language Reference Manual (ALRM) in the format of ALRM X.5.3/22. So you might see,

```
with Ada.Text_IO;           -- 1 10.1.2, A.10 Context clause
procedure Do_This is      -- 2 6.3      Specification with "is"
begin                    -- 3 6.3      Start algorithmic code
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line("Hello Ada"); -- 4 A.10.6 Executable source code
end Do_This;              -- 5 6.3      End of procedure scope
```

where each line is numbered and the 10.1.2 and 6.3, etc. refer to ALRM Chapter 6.3 and ALRM Chapter 10.1.2, and A.10.6 refers to Annex A.10.6. There is occasional commentary by source code line number.

### 1.1 Ada Compilers and Tools

Ada 95 compilers are available for a wide range of platforms. A free compiler, GNAT, based on GNU technology, can be downloaded from the Web. A partial list of commercial sources for compilers includes Ada Core Technologies (GNAT), DDC-I, Rational, RR Software, Irvine Compiler Corporation, Green Hills, Aonix, and OC Systems.

Development tools are coming into existence at a fairly fast pace. At present, there are nearly a dozen different offerings for developing programs on Microsoft operating systems. There are also GUI development tools such as GtkAda for developing Ada software targeting nearly every popular platform including Microsoft operating systems, Linux, BSD, OS/2, Java Virtual Machine, and every variety of Unix.

### 1.2 Ada Education

The bibliography of this book lists some of the books and educational resources available to the student of Ada. Some colleges and universities that offer Ada courses. In addition, companies such as AdaWorks Software Engineering where this author is employed, provide classes for corporations engaged in Ada software development. You can also find public classes in Ada for industry students. The bibliography of this book lists publications and Internet sources where you can improve your knowledge of Ada.

### 1.3 Ada's Reputation

There is a lot of misinformation about Ada. One misconception that it is a large, bloated language designed by committee. This is not true. Ada is designed around a few simple principles that provide the framework for the language design. Once you understand these principles, Ada will be as easy (if not easier) as many other popular languages. We highlight some of those principles in this book. One important principle is that the Ada compiler never assumes anything. You, the programmer, must always be precise.

## 2. Summary of Language

Ada is not an acronym. It is the name of the daughter of the English Poet, Lord Byron. She is credited with being the "first computer programmer" because of the prescience demonstrated in her early writings that described Charles Babbage's Analytical Engine. She was honored for this contribution by having a language named after her.

### 2.1 Goals and Philosophy

Every programming language is intended to satisfy some purpose, some set of goals. Sometimes the goals are defined in terms of a programming paradigm. For example, a goal might be to design an object-oriented programming language. Another goal might call for a language that conforms to some existing programming model with extensions to satisfy some new notions of programming techniques. The goals of Ada are defined in terms of the final product of the software process, rather than to satisfy an academic notion of how programs should be designed and written. Ada's Goals are quite simple:

- **High reliability and dependability for safety-critical environments**
- **Maintainable over a long span by someone who has never seen the code before**
- **Emphasis on program readability instead of program writeability,**
- **Capability for efficient software development using reusable components**

In summary, Ada is designed to maximize the amount error checking a compiler can do as early in the development process as possible. Each syntactic construct is intended to help the compiler accomplish this goal. This means there is Ada syntax that may seem extraneous but which has an important role in tipping-off the compiler about potential errors in your code. The default for every Ada construct is *safe*. Ada allows you to relax that default when necessary. Contrast Ada's default of *safe* with most of the C family of languages where the default is usually, *unsafe*.

Another important idea is *expressiveness* over *expressibility*. Nearly any idea can be expressed in any programming language. That is not good enough. Ada puts emphasis on expressiveness, not just expressibility. In Ada, we map the solution to the problem rather than the problem to the solution.

### 2.2 Elementary Syntax

The syntax of Ada is actually easy to learn and use. It is only when you get further in your study that you will discover its full power. Just as there is "no royal road to mathematics," there is no royal road to software engineering. Ada can help, but much of programming still requires diligent study and practice.

#### 2.2.1 Identifiers

Identifiers in Ada are not case sensitive. The identifier Niacin, NIACIN, NiAcIn will be interpreted by the compiler as the same. Underbars are common in Ada source code identifiers; e.g. Down\_The\_Hatch. There is a worldwide shortage of curly braces. Consequently, Ada does not use { and }. Also, Ada does not use square braces such as [ and ]. Ada has sixty-nine reserved words. Reserved words will usually be shown in bold-face type in this book. (See Appendix A for a complete list of reserved words).

#### 2.2.2 Statements, Scope Resolution, Visibility

Ada's unique idea of visibility often causes difficulties for new Ada programmers. Once you understand visibility nearly everything else about Ada will be clear to you

An Ada statement is terminated with a semicolon. The entire scope of a statement is contained within the start of that statement and the corresponding semicolon. Compound statements are permitted. A compound statement has an explicit *end* of scope clause. A statement may be a subprogram call, a simple expression, or an assignment statement.

```
X := C * (A + B);           -- 1 Simple assignment statement
Move (X, Y);               -- 2 A procedure call statement
if A = B then              -- 3 Start a compound if statement
    J := Ada.Numerics.Pi * Diameter;
else                      -- 4 Compute the circumference of a circle
    J := Ada.Numerics.Pi * Radius ** 2;
end if;                  -- 5 Part of compound if statement
                           -- 6 Compute area of a circle
                           -- 7 End of compound statement scope
if (A and B) or ((X and T) and (P or Q)) then -- 8 Parentheses required in mixed and/or construct
    Compute(A);            -- 9 Call Compute subprogram
else                      -- 10 Part of compound statement
    Compute(P);            -- 11 Subprogram call statement
end if;                  -- 12 End of compound statement scope
```

Note on Line 8 that an Ada conditional statement cannot mix **and** and **or** unless the expression includes parentheses. This eliminates problems associated with such expressions. It also eliminates arguments about precedence of mixed expressions, and errors due to incorrect assumptions about precedence.

## 2.2.3 Methods (Operators and Operations)

Methods in Ada are subprograms (procedure/function) and included both operators and operations. Operators include the symbols: =, /=, <, >, <=, >=, &, +, -, /, \*. Other operators are the reserved words, **and**, **or**, **xor**, **not**, **abs**, **rem**, **mod**. A designer is permitted to overload operators. Operators for a named type may be made visible through the **use type** clause. They can also be made visible through local renaming of the operator. For operator rules, see ALRM 4.5.

One operation, *assignment* uses the compound symbol: :=. The := operation predefined for all non-limited types. Assignment cannot be directly overloaded. Assignment is never permitted for limited types. A type may be limited in one view and non-limited in another view.

Other operations may be defined by the Ada programmer. These other operations are usually defined within a package specification. Operations are usually implemented as subprograms (procedures or functions).

Another operation is the membership test, not considered an operation by the language. Membership test uses the reserved word **in**. The word **in** can be combined with the word **not** to produce a negative membership test, **not in**. Membership testing is permitted for every Ada type, including limited types.

## 2.3 Library and Compilation Units

A single library unit may be composed of more than one compilation unit. This is called separate compilation. Ada ensures that separately compiled units preserve their continuity in relationship to related units. That is, date and time checking, library name resolution, and date and time checking of compiled units ensures every unit is always in phase with every other related compilation and library unit

### 2.3.1 Library Units

An Ada program is composed of *library units*. A library unit is a unit that can be referred to using a *with* clause. The technical name for the *with* clause is *context clause*. A *context clause* is a little like a *#include* compiler directive in other languages, but with important differences. A library unit, before being placed in scope through a *context clause*, must have been successfully compiled. Once compiled, it is placed in a [sometimes virtual] Ada compilation library. A *context clause* does not make any of the elements of a library unit visible. Instead, a *context clause* simply puts those elements in scope, making them potentially visible. Library units may be composed of more than one *compilation unit*.

A library unit may be a *package* or a *subprogram*. Subprograms are either *functions* or *procedures*.

- |                      |  |
|----------------------|--|
| 1. <b>package</b>    | <i>A collection of resources with something in common, usually a data type.</i>    |
| 2. <b>procedure</b>  | <i>A simple executable series of declarations and associated algorithmic code.</i> |
| 3. <b>function</b>   | <i>An executable entity which always returns a data type result.</i>               |
| 4. <b>child unit</b> | <i>A package, procedure, or function that is a child of a package.</i>             |

An Ada library unit consists of a specification part and implementation part. The implementation is sometimes called a *body*. For a subprogram the specification part could be coded as,

```
procedure Open (F : in out File);           -- Procedure specification; requires body.
function Is_Open (F : File) return Boolean; -- Function specification; requires body
```

C/C++ programmer note: An Ada subprogram specification is analogous to, but not identical to, a function prototype.

A package is a collection of services (public and private), usually related through some data type. Most Ada library units will be packages. A package specification includes type declarations, subprograms (procedures and functions), and exceptions. Also, a package usually consists of a specification part (public and private) and an implementation part. The implementation part of a package is called the *package body*. Rarely, one will see a package specification that does not require a body.

Here is a typical specification for a package library unit. Note that it has two parts. The public part is visible to a client of the package. The private part is never visible to a client.

<pre> package Machinery_1_3 is   type Machine is private;   procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);   procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);   function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean; private   type Machine is record     Turned_On : Boolean := False;   end record; end Machinery_1_3; </pre>	<pre> -- Package specification; requires body -- Specifies the visible part of the data type; -- procedure specification -- procedure specification -- function specification -- private part hidden from a client of contract -- full definition of the publicly declared type -- component of the type; OOP attribute -- scope terminator for the component -- scope terminator for the specification </pre>	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-right: 10px;">Public part</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center; margin-top: 10px;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-right: 10px;">Private part</div> </div>
---	--	--

where a client of the package has visibility only to the public part. Here is a possible package body,

<pre> package body Machinery_1_3 is   procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is   begin     M.Turned_On := True;   end Turn_On;    procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is   begin     M.Turned_On := False;   end Turn_Off;    function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean is   begin     return M.Turned_On;   end Is_On; end Machinery_1_3; </pre>	<pre> -- Function body; implements specification declarations -- Repeat procedure specification; compiler checks this -- Starts algorithmic section of procedure -- Simple assignment statement of boolean value -- Procedure scope terminator is required  -- Must match profile in specification -- Algorithms between begin and end -- M.Turned called dot notation -- Name is optional but end is required  -- In mode is like a constant; it may -- not be on left side of assignment -- return statement required of every function -- Scope terminator for function -- End of all declarations for this package </pre>	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-right: 10px;">Body</div> </div>
---	---	--

Most often, the specification and the body are compiled separately. The specification must be compiled without errors before its body can be compiled. The Ada library manager will issue a fatal compilation error if the body is out of phase with the specification. A programmer, as client of the package, will see only the specification of a package. The specification is a *contract* with a client of the package. The contract must be sufficient for the client to access the promised services. Every declaration in the specification must match, exactly, the declarations in the body. The matching is checked by the compiler and helps ensure consistency over the lifetime of a library unit. A change to a specification will require recompilation of the body. A change to the body does not require recompilation of the specification.

<pre> with Machinery_1_3; procedure Test_Machinery_1_3 is   Widget : Machinery_1_3.Machine; begin   Machinery_1_3.Turn_On (M =&gt; Widget);   Machinery_1_3.Turn_Off (M =&gt; Widget); end Test_Machinery_1_3; </pre>	<pre> -- 1 Context clause. Puts Machinery_1_3 in scope -- 2 Specification for the procedure -- 3 Local object of type Machine -- 4 Starts the algorithmic section of this procedure -- 5 Call the Turn_On using dot notation and named association -- 6 Call the Turn_On using dot notation and named association -- 7 Scope of subprogram terminates with the end clause </pre>
---	--

A client of the package, such as Test\_Machinery\_1\_3, never has visibility to the private part or the body of the package. Its only access is to the public part. However, all of the package is in scope, including the body. The body is completely hidden from all views from outside the package.

### 2.3.2 Compilation Units

Library units can be composed of smaller units called *compilation units*. The library unit is the full entity referenced in a *context clause*. The Ada package is usually compiled as two compilation units: package specification and package body. The package body does not *with* the specification. A package body can

be further subdivided into even smaller compilation units called *subunits*. Subunits, used wisely, can have substantial benefits to the maintenance cycle of existing Ada programs.

The specification of Machinery\_1\_3 in the previous section can be compiled by itself. Later, the package body can be compiled. The procedure Test\_Machinery\_1\_3 may be compiled before the package body of Machinery\_1\_3. The test program cannot be linked until all the separately compiled units are compiled.

The package body for Machinery\_1\_3 could have been coded for separate compilation as,

<b>package body</b> Machinery_1_3 <b>is</b>	-- 1	A subprogram declared <i>is separate</i> places a subunit in the library. The subunit may have its own context clauses, its own local variables, and its own algorithmic code. Also, each subunit may be compiled independently once its parent has been successfully compiled. This means easier, faster maintenance and better unit testing. During development, each subunit can be assigned to a different programmer
<b>procedure</b> Turn_On (M : <b>in out</b> Machine) <b>is separate</b> ;	-- 2	
<b>procedure</b> Turn_Off (M : <b>in out</b> Machine) <b>is separate</b> ;	-- 3	
<b>function</b> Is_On (M : <b>in</b> Machine)	-- 4	
<b>return</b> Boolean <b>is separate</b>	-- 5	
<b>end</b> Machinery_1_3;	-- 6	

Compilation units in most Ada programs will be the package specification and package body. Sometimes you may see a subprogram specification compiled with a semicolon instead of an *... is ... end* implementation. This implies separate compilation of the body for that specification.

Some compilers require separate compilation of the package specification and package body. This is not required by the Ada language, but an implementation is free to impose this requirement.

Ada has a model for parent-child library units. A package, such as package Machinery, may be the root of a tree of child library units.

Here is an example of parent-child library units.

<pre> <b>package</b> Messenger <b>is</b>   <b>type</b> Message <b>is private</b>;   <b>function</b> Create (S : String) <b>return</b> Message;   <b>procedure</b> Send (M <b>in</b> Message);   <b>procedure</b> Receive (M : <b>out</b> Message);   <b>function</b> Size (M : <b>in</b> Message) <b>return</b> Natural; <b>private</b>   <b>type</b> Message <b>is record</b>     Text : String (1..120) := (<b>others</b> =&gt; ' ');     Length : Natural := 0;   <b>end record</b>; <b>end</b> Messenger; </pre>	<pre> -- Package specification; requires body -- Visible part of the data type; name only -- function specification -- procedure specification -- procedure specification -- function specification -- private part hidden from a client of contract -- full definition of the publicly declared type -- string component of the type; OOP attribute -- how many of the 120 values are in use -- scope terminator for the component -- scope terminator for the specification </pre>	
<pre> <b>with</b> Ada.Calendar; <b>package</b> Messenger.Dated <b>is</b>   <b>type</b> Dated_Message <b>is private</b>;   <b>function</b> Create (M : <b>in</b> Message)     <b>return</b> Dated_Message; <b>private</b>   <b>type</b> Dated_Message <b>is record</b>     Text : Message;     Date : Ada.Calendar.Time;   <b>end record</b>; <b>end</b> Messenger.Dated; </pre>	<pre> -- Package specification; requires body -- Visible part of the data type; name only -- function specification -- function always specifies a return type -- private part hidden from a client of contract -- full definition of the publicly declared type -- string component of the type; OOP attribute -- how many of the 120 values are in use -- scope terminator for the component -- scope terminator for the specification </pre>	

At first, this might be mistaken for a form of inheritance. It allows us to extend the original package and add another component. The experienced OOP practitioner will see that it is not inheritance; there is no *is\_a* relationship. Instead, the declarative region for Messenger has been extended to include the declarations of Messenger.Dated. Any client of Messenger.Dated has direct visibility to the public declarations of Messenger. The private part of Messenger.Dated and the body of Messenger.Dated has direct visibility to the private and public parts of Messenger.



Dated\_Message is implemented in a has\_a relationship. This means that Dated\_Message contains a value of type Message. Dated\_Message cannot be converted to an object of type Message. They are two distinct types, even though one contains an instance of the other. We treat the subject of parent-child relationships in greater detail later in this book.

## 2.4 Scope and Visibility

Some programmers find the concept of visibility more difficult than any other part of Ada. Once they really understand visibility, everything else in language makes sense.

Failure to understand the difference between *scope* and *visibility* causes more problems for new Ada programmers than any other single topic. It is an idea central to the design of all Ada software. There is an entire ALRM chapter devoted to it, Chapter 8. A *with* clause puts a library unit into scope; none the resources of that unit are directly *visible* to a client. This is different from a #include in the C family of languages. Ada has several techniques for making elements directly visible, after they are placed in scope. Separating *scope* from *visibility* is an important software engineering concept. It is seldom designed into other programming languages. You will see examples coded in this book that illustrate this language feature. NOTE: ISO Standard C++ *namespace* adopts a weakened form of Ada's scope and visibility model.

### 2.4.1 Scope

Every statement and construct has an enclosing scope. Usually, the scope is easy to see in the source code because it has an entry point (declare, subprogram identifier, composite type identifier, package identifier, etc.) and an explicit point of termination. Explicit terminations are consistently coded with an *end* statement. Anytime you see an *end* clause, you know that is the closing point for some scope. Scope can be nested. For example, a procedure may be declared inside another procedure. Not as easy to notice is when a *with* statement (context clause) brings some library unit into scope. The context clause places all the resources of that library unit in scope, but makes none of those resources visible.

*A pure interpretation of the scope mechanism might better describe this in terms of a declarative region. However, since this book is intended as an introduction to the practical aspects of the language, we limit our discussion to the somewhat more general view of this mechanism. For a more rigorous description, please consult the Ada LRM, Chapter 8.*

### 2.4.2 Visibility

In Ada, an entity may be in scope but not have direct visibility. This concept is more developed in Ada than in most programming languages. Throughout Ada Distilled you will see examples of visibility such as:

- use clauses *makes all public resources of a package directly visible*
- use type clauses *makes public operators directly visible for designated type*
- entity dot notation *entity in notation is directly visible; usually the best option*
- renaming , locally, of operations/operators *usually best option for making operators directly visible*

During development, an Ada compiler error message may advise you that some entity or other is not visible at the point where it is declared or used. Most often this visibility problem will relate to operators. You can use one of the mechanisms from the above list to make that entity visible.

Visibility will be illustrated throughout the examples in this book. It will be easier to demonstrate in the code examples than to trudge through a tedious jungle of prose.

## 2.5 Declarations, Elaboration, Dependencies

Most Ada software systems are composed of many independent components, most in the form of packages. These packages are associated with each other through context (with) clauses.

with A; with B; with C; package Q is	with A; with B; with C; package R is	with R; package T is ... end T;
with T; package body Q is ... end Q;	with E; with F; package body R is ... end R;	with A; package body T is ... end T;

Notice that dependencies between library units can be deferred to the package body. This is a unique feature of Ada, based on the integral nature of packages but taking advantage of their separate compilation capability. This gives us the best of both capabilities. We can minimize the design dependencies by declaring context clauses for the package body instead for the package specification. This eliminates the need to re-compile (or re-examine) the relationships each time we make a change somewhere in our design.

An Ada program includes declarations and executable statements. The specification of a package is a set of declarations. The body of that package may also contain declarations. The scope of the declarations can be thought of as a *declarative region*. In the declarative region, declarations are in scope but not necessarily visible. In fact, declarations within a package body are in the declarative region, but are never visible to a client or child library unit.

Every Ada unit has, potentially, a place for declarations. These declarations must be elaborated before the program can begin its algorithmic part. Elaboration takes place without any action from the programmer, but Ada does provide some pragmas (compiler directives) to give the programmer some control over the timing and order of elaboration. Usually, elaboration occurs at execution time. A programmer may specify compile-time elaboration through pragma Preelaborate or pragma Pure. If that compile-time elaboration is possible, it will occur according to the semantics of each pragma.

The library units named in a context (with) clause must be elaborated before they are actually in scope for a client. When there are many context clauses, each must be elaborated. In some circumstances, resources of one library unit are needed to complete an action involving another library unit.

## 2.5 Ada Comb

An Ada program unit may sometimes be viewed in terms of the "Ada Comb," an idea first presented to me years ago by Mr. Mark Gerhardt. The Ada Comb demonstrates how declarations and algorithms are related within an implementation; i.e, subprogram body, task body, declare block, package body, etc.

<b>kind-of-unit</b> unit-name <i>local declarations</i>	-- 1 <i>procedure, function, package body, declare block, etc.</i> -- 2 <i>Must be elaborated prior to begin statement</i>
<b>begin</b> <i>handled-sequence-of-statements</i>	-- 3 <i>Elaboration is done. Now start executing statements</i> -- 4 <i>Handled because of the exception handler entry</i>
<b>exception</b> <i>sequence-of-statements</i>	-- 5 <i>Optional. Not every comb needs this.</i> -- 6 <i>Not handled. This is the handler code</i>
<b>end</b> unit-name;	-- 7 <i>Every comb requires a scope terminator</i>

Be aware of the Ada Comb when studying the subprograms and algorithmic structures in this book. A unit is some kind of executable entity. Local declarations may be any legal Ada code, except control structures and algorithms. Because Ada is a block-structured language, the local declarations may be other subprogram declarations (including their body), instances of types, instances of generic units, tasks or task types, protected objects or protected types, use clauses, compiler directives (pragma), local type declarations, constants, and anything else that falls into the category of the items just listed.

The handled-sequence of statements includes statements that operate on declarations. This includes assignment, comparisons, transfers of control, algorithmic code. More generally, this includes the three fundamental structures of the structure theorem: sequence, iteration, selection. One may also embed a declare block, with its own local declarations, within the handled-sequence-of-statements.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;           -- 1 Is elaborated before being used
with Machinery;           -- 2 Is elaborated before being used
procedure Ada_Comb_Example_1 is -- 3 Name of enclosing unit
  Data : Machinery.Machine; -- 4 Declarations local to enclosing unit
begin                       -- 5
  declare                   -- 6 Can declare local variables in this block
    Data : Integer := 42;    -- 7 The name, Data, hides the global declarations
  begin                     -- 8 Integer Data now is visible; Outer Data is not
    Data := Data + 1;       -- 9 Handled sequence of statements
  exception                -- 10 Start exception handler part of unit
    when some-exception => -- 11 Name the exception after reserved word, when
      -- sequence of statements -- 12 Any legal sequence of statements here
    end;                   -- 13 End of scope of declare block
end Ada_Comb_Example_1;    -- 14 End of enclosing scope

```

The Ada comb may be found in most units that contain implementation code. This includes procedures, functions, package bodies, task bodies, and declare blocks. Any of these units may include some kind of label. Most of the time, in production code, it is helpful to include both the label at the beginning of the comb as well as at the end of it. Here is a variation on the previous example

```

procedure Ada_Comb_Example_2 is -- 1 Name of procedure
  Data : Float := 0.0;         -- 2 Floating point declaration in scope
begin                         -- 3
  Integer_Block:              -- 4 A label for the declare block
  declare                     -- 5 Can declare local variables in this block
    Data : Integer := 42;    -- 6 The name, Data, hides the global declarations
  begin                       -- 7 Integer Data now is visible; Float Data is not directly visible
    Data := Data + 1;       -- 8 Simple incrementing statement
  exception                  -- 9 Localized exception handling region
    when Constraint_Error => ... -- 10 Statements to handle the exception
  end Integer_Block;         -- 11 Named end of scope for declare block
  Data := Data + 451.0;      -- 12 Float data is once more visible
end Ada_Comb_Example_2;    -- 13 End of scope of procedure

```

Note that in the second example there is an exception handler localized to the declare block. Also, this declare block is named. A block name is any user-defined name followed by a colon. The block repeats the name at the end of its scope. In the scope of the declare block, the floating point variable with the same name as the item in the declare block is automatically made invisible, even though it still in scope. It could be made visible with dot notation (Ada\_Comb\_Example\_2.Data ...). In general, avoid identical names within the same scope. However, in large-scale systems with many library units, this is not always possible.

This section covers basic syntax of Ada in the form of short, annotated programs. The annotations sometimes have ALRM references such as 13.3 (Chapter 13, Section 3) or A.10 (Annex A, Section 10).

## 2.6 Variables and Constants

A variable is an entity that can change its value within your program. That is, you may assign new values to it after it is declared. A constant, once it has been declared with an assigned value, is not permitted to change that value during its lifetime in your program. Variables and constants may be declared in a certain

place in your program, called the *declarative part*. Any variable must be associated with some *type*. The basic syntax for a declaration is,

```
name_of_variable : name_of_type;           -- for a scalar or constrained composite type
name_of_variable : name_of_type(constraint); -- for an unconstrained composite type
```

Declarations for predefined types (see *package Standard* in the appendices of this book)

```
Value      : Integer;           -- from Annex A, package Standard
Degrees   : Float;            -- from Annex A, package Standard
Sentinel  : Character;        -- from Annex A, package Standard
Result    : Boolean;          -- from Annex A, package Standard
Text      : String(1..120);    -- Must constrain a string variable
```

We could also initialize a variable at the time it is declared,

```
Channel   : Integer := 42;           -- "...life, the universe, and everything."
Pi        : Float := Ada.Numerics.Pi; -- from Annex A.5, ALRM
ESC       : Character := Ada.Characters.Latin_1; -- from Annex A, ALRM
Is_On     : Boolean := True;         -- from Annex A.1, ALRM
Text      : String(1..120) := (others => '*'); -- Every element of Text initialized to asterisk
```

## 2.7 Operations and Operators

Ada distinguishes between operations and operators. Operators are usually the infix methods used for arithmetic, comparison, and logical statements. Operators are often a visibility problem for a new Ada programmer.

### 2.7.1 Assignment Operation

Somewhere among his published aphorisms and deprecations, Edsger Dijkstra observes that too few programmers really understand the complexities of the assignment statement. I have not been able to excavate the exact quote from those of his publications immediately at hand. It is true, however, that assignment is more and more complicated as new programming languages are invented. Ada is no exception, and may actually have more complicated rules about assignment than most other languages.

The Ada assignment operation is: **:=** a compound symbol composed of a colon symbol and equal symbol. It is legal for every Ada type except those designated as limited types. It is illegal, in Ada, to directly overload, rename, or alias the assignment operation. In a statement such as,

```
A := B + C * (F / 3);
```

Reminder: the assignment operator is legal only on non-limited types. Also, both sides of the assignment operator must conform to each other. Composite types must have the same size and constraints.

the expression on the right side of the assignment operation is evaluated and the result of that evaluation is placed in the location designated by the variable on the left side. All the variables on both sides must be of the same type. In an expression,

```
X := Y;
```

Note: Ada does not allow direct overloading of the assignment operator. Sometimes it is useful to do that kind of overloading, and Ada does have a facility for designing in this feature safely but indirectly, by deriving from a controlled

X and Y must both be of the same type. If they are not of the same type, the programmer may, under some strictly determined circumstances, convert Y to a type corresponding to the type of X. An example of the syntax for this is,

```

type X_Type is ...           -- Ellipses are not part of the Ada language; used for simplification here
    type Y_Type is ...
    X := X_Type(Y);           -- When type conversion is legal between the types

```

Such type conversion is not always legal. If both types are numeric types, the conversion is probably legal. If one type is derived from another, it is legal. Otherwise, type conversion is probably not legal.

Assignment may be more complicated if the source and target objects in the assignment statement are composite types. It is especially complicated if those composite types include pointers (access values) that reference some other object. In this case, access value components may create very entertaining problems for the programmer. For this reason, composite types constructed from pointers should be *limited types*. For limited types, one would define a *Deep Copy* procedure. Ada makes it illegal to directly overload the assignment operator. Study an example of a deep copy in the generic Queue\_Manager later in this book.

Sometimes two types are so completely different that assignment must be performed using a special generic function, Ada.Unchecked\_Conversion. Do not be too hasty to use this function. Often there is another option. Note the following example:

```

with Ada.Unchecked_Conversion;           -- 1 Chapter 13 or ALRM
procedure Unchecked_Example is          -- 2 Generally speaking, don't do this
    type Vector is array (1 .. 4) of Integer; -- 3 Array with four components
    for Vector'Size use 4 * Integer'Size;   -- 4 Define number of bits for the array
    type Data is record                   -- 5
        V1, V2, V3, V4 : Integer;         -- 6 A record with four components
    end record;                           -- 7
    for Data'Size use 4 * Integer'Size;   -- 8 Same number of bits as the array
    function Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion -- 9
        (Source => Vector, Target => Data); -- 10 Convert a Vector to a Data
    The_Vector : Vector := (2, 4, 6, 8);   -- 11
    The_Data : Data := (1, 3, 5, 7);       -- 12
begin                                     -- 13
    The_Data := Convert(The_Vector);       -- 14 Assignment via unchecked conversion
end Unchecked_Example;                   -- 15

```

Even though Line 14 probably works just fine in all cases, many Ada practitioners will prefer to do the assignments one at a time from the components of Vector to the components of Data. There will be more code, but selected component assignment is guaranteed to work under all circumstances whereas, you cannot be certain of this under all implementations of the Ada compiler using unchecked conversion.

## 2.7.2 Other Operations

There are several reserved words that could be regarded as operations. Most of these such as **abort**, **delay**, **accept**, **select**, and **terminate** are related to tasking. Others include **raise** (for exceptions), **goto**, and **null**. Some Ada practitioners might not agree with the notion that these are operations, however, in any other language they would be so considered.

There are other operations, for non-limited types, predefined in Chapter Four of the Ada Language Reference Manual. Again, these might not be thought of as operations, but they do have functionality that leads us to classify them as operations. These include array slicing, type conversion, type qualification, dynamic allocation of access objects, and attribute modification (Annex K of ALRM).

Because Ada is based in object technology, the designer is allowed to create and overload other operators. Those operators are declared as subprograms: function and procedure specifications. The subprogram specifications (operations) are declared in the public part of a package specification. They are implemented in the body of a package. For example, in a stack package, the operations are Push, Pop, Is\_Full, Is\_Empty, etc. For abstract data types, the operations are typically described as subprograms on the type.

*This topic is reviewed again in Chapter 3*

### 2.7.3 Operators

Ada makes a distinction between operators and operations. This distinction is useful when dealing with visibility issues. The operators are all of the infix logical operators (=, /=, <, >, <=, >=, **and**, **or**, **xor**), and some post-fix operators (**abs**, **not**), and the arithmetic operators (+, -, \*, /, **rem**, **mod**). These operators may be overloaded.

Operators can be thought of as functions. Therefore, for a type, T, think of an equality operator as:

```
function "=" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean;
function ">=" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean;
function "+" (Left, Right : T) return T;
```

This same form applies to all of the operators. The name of the operator is named in double quotes as if it were a string. You may write your own operators for your own types.

There is a special visibility clause that makes all the operators for a named type fully visible:

```
use type typename;
```

Good software engineering practice suggest that one makes selected operators visible using the renames clause instead of the the **use type** clause. For example, if type T is defined in package P,

```
function "+" (Left, Right : P.T) return P.T renames P."+";
```

## 2.8 Elementary Sequential Programs

There is a more in-depth discussion of this topic in Chapter 6

Subprograms, in Ada are of two kinds: *procedures* and *functions*. A subprogram *may* be a standalone library unit. More often it is declared in a package specification. The implementation part of the subprogram is called the "body." The body for Open might be coded as:

```
procedure Open(F : in out File) is
  -- optional local declarations
begin
  -- some sequence of statements
end Open; -- Most standards require repeating the identifier here
```

-- Note the reserved word, is  
 -- Between **is** and **begin**, local declarations  
 -- Subprogram body requires a **begin**  
 -- Some statements or reserved word **null**;  
 -- End required; Identifier optional but usual

Sometimes we code the subprogram specification and body together. We will see many cases of this in the example subprograms that follow. Recall from an earlier discussion that Ada separates the notion of *scope* from that of *visibility*. Also, remember that more Ada programmers have more trouble with visibility rules than with any other aspect of the language. Once you understand visibility, you will understand Ada.

## 2.8.1 Subprogram Parameters

Subprograms may have formal parameters. Formal parameters must have a *name*, a *type*, and a *mode*. A mode tells the compiler how a parameter will be used in a subprogram. There is one other kind of entity that looks like a procedure but has slightly different semantics: a task *entry*. The parameter *mode* may be **in**, **out**, **in out**, or **access**. We can simplify understanding of mode with the following table,

<b>Mode</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Procedure</b>	<b>Assignment Operator Position</b>
<b>in</b>	Yes	Yes	Only right side of := (a constant in subprogram)
<b>out</b>	No	Yes	Right or Left side of := (but has no initial value)
<b>in out</b>	No	Yes	Right or Left side of := (has initial value)
<b>access</b>	Yes	Yes	Only right side of := (but might assign to component)

Although the previous table is something of an over-simplification, it will work well for you as a programmer. Just understand that *out mode* parameters are not called with an initial value, and *access mode* parameters are pointing to some other data. The data being accessed may be modified even though the access value itself may not. Examples of parameters and their modes within a subprogram,

## 2.8.3 Subprogram Specifications with Parameters

```

procedure Clear (The_List : in out List);
function Is_Empty (The_List : in List) return Boolean;
function Is_Full (The_List : List) return Boolean;
procedure Get (The_List : in List; Data : out Item);
procedure Set_Col (To : in Positive_Count := 1);
procedure Update (The_List : in out List; Data : in Item);
function Item_Count (The_List : access List) return Natural;
procedure Item_Count (The_List : access List;
                      Count : out Count);
function M_Data (Azimuth, Elevation, Time : Float) return Float;

```

-- The\_List can be on *either side of* :=  
 -- The\_List can be on *right side of* :=  
 -- *default in mode*  
 -- *two modes; two parameters*  
 -- *default value for in mode*  
 -- *two modes; two parameters*  
 -- The\_List can be on *right side of* :=  
 -- The\_List can be on *allowed on right of* :=  
 -- *uninitialized; left or right of* :=  
 -- *Three parameters, same type*

A call to a formal parameter with an actual parameter should usually include named association. Consider function M\_Data, above. Which is more readable and more likely to be accurate?

```

R := M_Data (42.8, 16.2, 32.8);
R := M_Data (Elevation => 42.8, Time => 16.2, Azimuth => 32.8);

```

## 3. Types and the Type Model

### 3.5.1 Strong Typing

This is the language feature for which Ada is best known. It is not the only strong point in Ada, but it is the best known. The following examples will demonstrate how it works. A type, in Ada consists of four parts,

1. **A name for the type**
2. **A set of operations for the type**
3. **A set of values for the type**
4. **A wall between objects of one type and those of another type**

No structural equivalence of types as found in C, C++, and Modula. Strict name equivalence model. No automatic promotion of types from one level to another. Better type safety under Ada

The last feature, the *wall*, is the default of the Ada typing model. Ada does provide capabilities for getting around or over the wall, but the wall is always there. There are two general categories of type, elementary and composite. A composite type is a record or an array. Everything else, for our purposes in this book, is an elementary type. (**Note:** there are minor exceptions to this rule when you get into more advanced Ada). Some types are predefined in a package Standard (see this Appendix A of this book). From the object-oriented viewpoint, a type has state and operations to modify or query the current state.

### 3.5.2 Type Safety

A better way to view strong typing is to think in terms of *type safety*. Every construct in Ada is type safe. For Ada, type safety is the default. For most languages, type safe is not the default. In still other languages, type safety is an illusion because they support structural equivalence or implicit type promotion. Ada does not support either of those concepts because they are not type-safe. An Ada designer declares data types, usually in a *package* specification, with the constrained set of values and operations appropriate to the problem being solved. This ensures a solid contract between the client of a type and the promise made by the *package* in which the type is defined.

### 3.5.3 Declaring and Defining Types

#### 3.5.3.1 Categories of types

Ada types can be viewed in two broad categories: *limited*, and *non-limited*. A type with a limited view cannot be used with the := expression, ever. All other types can be used with := as long as that assignment is between compatible (or converted view of) types. Ada defines certain types as always limited. These include task types, protected types, and record types with access discriminants.

Types in Ada may be considered in terms of their *view*. A type may be defined with a *public view* which can be seen by a client of the type, and a *non-public view* that is seen by the implementation of the type. We sometimes speak of the *partial view* of the type. A partial view is a public view with a corresponding non-public view. Partial views are usually defined as private or limited private. Also, the public view of a type may be limited where the implementation view of that same type may be non-limited.

Another important category is *private* type versus *non-private* type. A limited type may also be private. A type with a private view may also have a view that is not private. Any Ada data type may have a view that is private with a corresponding view that is not private. The predefined operations for a non-limited private type include: := operation, = operator, /= operator. Any other operations for a private type must be declared explicitly by the package specification in which the type is publicly declared.



### 3.5.3.2 A Package of Non-private Type Definitions

In addition to predefined types declare in package Standard, the designer may also define types. These may be constrained or unconstrained, limited or non limited. Here are some sample type declarations.

```

package Own_Types is
  type Color is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet);
    -- 1 An enumerated type;
    -- 2 A single line comment
  type Fahrenheit is digits 7 range -473.0..451.0;
    -- 3 Floating point type
  type Money is delta 0.01 digits 12;
    -- 4 Financial data type for accounting
  type Quarndex is range -3_000..10_000;
    -- 5 Integer type; note underbar notation
  type Vector is array(1..100) of Fahrenheit;
    -- 6 Constrained array type
  type Color_Mix is array(Color) of Boolean;
    -- 7 Constrained by Color set
  type Inventory is record
    Description : String(1..80) := (others => ' ');
    Identifier  : Positive;
  end record;
    -- 8 A constrained record type
    -- 9 Intialized string type record component
    -- 10 A positive type record component
    -- 11 End of record scope required by Ada
  type Inventory_Pointer is access all Inventory;
    -- 12 Declaring a pointer type in Ada
  type QData is array(Positive range <>) of Quarndex;
    -- 13 Unconstrained array type
  type Account is tagged record
    ID          : String(1..20);
    Amount     : Money := 0.0;
  end record;
    -- 14 See next example: 1.5.3.3
    -- 15 Uninitialized string type component
    -- 16 See line 4 of this package
    -- 17 Required by language
  type Account_Ref is access all Account'Class;
    -- 19 Classwide pointer type for tagged type
end Own_Types;

```

### 3.5.3.3 A Private type Package

	<pre> package Own_Private_Types is   type Inventory is limited private;   type Inventory_Pointer is access all Inventory;   procedure Create(Inv : in out Inventory);   -- More operations for type Inventory   type Account is tagged private   type Account_Ref is access all Account'Class;   procedure Create(Inv : in out Inventory);   function Create (D : String; ID : Positive) return Account_Ref;   -- More operations for tagged type, Account private   type Inventory is record     Description : String(1..80) := (others =&gt; ' ');     Identifier  : Positive;   end record;   type Account is tagged record     ID          : String(1..12);     Amount     : Float := 0.0;   end record; end Own_Private_Types; </pre>	<pre> -- 1 -- 2 Partial definition of limited private type -- 3 Declaring a pointer type in Ada -- 4 Create an empty instance of Inventory -- 5 -- 6 Partial definition of a tagged type -- 7 Classwide pointer type for tagged type -- 8 Creates an empty Inventory record -- 9 returns access to new Inventory record -- 10 -- 11 Begin private part of package -- 12 A constrained record type -- 13 Intialized string type record component -- 14 A positive type record component -- 15 End of record scope required by Ada -- 16 -- 17 Extensible record tagged type -- 18 Uninitialized string type component -- 19 A float type record component -- 20 Required by language -- 21 </pre>
Public view of specification		
Privatage view of		

### 3.5.4 Deriving and Extending Types

A new type may be derived from an existing type. Using the definitions from the previous package,

```

type Repair_Parts_Inventory is new Inventory;
    -- no extension of parent record is possible here

```

where Repair\_Parts inherits all the operations and data definitions included in its parent type. Also,

```

type Liability is new Account
with record
  Credit_Value : Float;
  Debit_Value  : Float;
end record
    -- 1 extended from tagged parent, lines 6, 17-20, above
    -- 2 required ;phrase for this construct
    -- 3 extends with third component of the record
    -- 4 fourth component of the record

```

```
end record;
```

```
-- 5 record now extended with four elements
```

in which Liability inherits all the operations and components of its parent type but also adds two more components. This means that Liability now has four components, not just two. This is called extension of the type (extensible inheritance). From the list of declared types, one could have a access (pointer) variable,

```
Current_Account : Account_Ref;
```

```
-- Points to Account or Liability objects
```

which can point to objects of any type derived from Account. That is, any type in Account'Class. This permits the construction of heterogeneous data structures.

### 3.5.5 Operations on Types

A little review from Chapter 2

Ada distinguishes between operators and operations. Operators include =, /=, <, >, <=, >=, **abs**, **and**, **or**, **xor**, +, -, \*, /, **rem**, and **mod**. Operators may be overloaded. Operations include assignment and any named operation. Operations, except for the assignment operation, may also be overloaded.

Legal syntax for operations on types is defined in 4.5 of the ALRM. In general the rules are pretty simple. A limited type has no language-defined operations, not even the := (assignment) operation. Every other type has :=, at minimum. Private type and record operators include = and /=. All other types have operators =, /=, >, <, >=, <=, **and**, **or**, and **xor**. The numeric types have operators +, -, \*, /, and **abs**. Integer numerics have **rem** and **mod**. A designer may create operations for any type as necessary. A membership test, **in/not in**, is legal for every type

Note: membership test is not officially an operation or operator. It cannot be overloaded and is included for limited types.

### 3.5.6 Where to Declare a Type

Usually, a type will be declared in a package specification along with its exported operations. Therefore,

```
package Machinery is
  type Machine is private;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);
  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean;
  function ">" (L, R : Machine) return Boolean;
private
  type Machine is record
    Turned_On : Boolean := False;
  end record;
end Machinery;
```

-- Package specification; requires body  
-- Specifies the visible part of the data type;  
-- procedure specification  
-- procedure specification  
-- function specification  
-- Override the ">" function  
-- private part hidden from a client of contract  
-- full definition of the publicly declared type  
-- component of the type; OOP attribute  
-- scope terminator for the component  
-- scope terminator for the specification

will imply that the public operations available to a client of Machinery, for the type Machine, are:

- pre-defined assignment and test for equality and inequality
- procedures Turn\_On and Turn\_Off
- functions Is\_On and ">"
- no other operations on type Machine are available in package Machinery.

Note: subprograms (procedures and functions) are analogous to methods or member functions in other languages. Most of the time these are public, but sometimes it is useful to make them private.

The language defined operations for a private type, Machine, are only assignment ( := ), Equality ( = ), and Inequality. All other operations and operators for Machine must be explicitly declared in the contract, i.e., the package specification. The package has overloaded the ">" operator, so a client of this package can do a *greater than* compare on two machine objects.

### 3.5.7 The Wall Between Types

The fourth property for a type, the wall, is illustrated using the following declarations,

Note: by a "wall" we mean that values of differing types may not be directly mixed in expressions. Type conversion can sometimes help you across the wall. Other times, more roundabout approaches are required. This is in keeping with Ada's charter to be as type safe as possible.

```

package Some_Types is
  type Channel is range 2..136;
  type Signal is new Integer
    range 1..150
  type Level is digits 7;
  subtype Small_Signal is Signal
    range 2..14;
  type Color is (Red, Yellow, Green, Blue);
  type Light is (Red, Yellow, Green);
  type Traffic is new Color
    range Red..Green;
end Some_Types;
-- 1 Declare specification name
-- 2 A constrained integer
-- 3 Derived from Standard.Integer
-- 4 with a range constraint
-- 5 A floating point type
-- 6 No wall with objects of type Signal
-- 7 but smaller range than Signal
-- 8 Enumerated type with four values
-- 9 Another enumerated type
-- 10 Derived from Color but with a
-- 11 smaller range of values.

```

Warning. Most Ada practitioners recommend against this kind of package. It works well for our teaching example, but is poor design practice. Generally, a package should be designed so each type is accompanied by an explicit set of exported operations rather than depending on those predefined.

### 3.5.7.1 Type Rule Examples

The following procedure uses the package, `Some_Types`. It illustrates how the typing rules work. Therefore, this procedure will not compile for reasons shown. A corrected example will follow .

```

with Some_Types;
procedure Will_Not_Compile is
  Ch1, Ch2, Ch3 : Some_Types.Channel := 42;
  Sig1, Sig2    : Some_Types.Signal := 27;
  Level_1, Level_2 : Some_Types.Level := 360.0;
  Tiny         : Some_Types.Small_Signal := 4;
  Color_1, Color_2 : Some_Types.Color := Some_Types.Red;
  Light_1, Light_2 : Some_Types.Light := Some_Types.Red;
  Tr1, Tr2, Tr3   : Some_Types.Traffic := Some_Types.Red;
begin
  Ch3 := Ch1 + ch2;
  Level_1 := Ch1;
  Tiny := Sig1;
  Color_1 := Light_1;
  Light_2 := Tr1;
  Light_3 := Some_Types.Light(Color_1);
  Tr3 := Color_1;
  Tr1 := Some_Types.Traffic'Succ(Tr2);
end Will_Not_Compile;
-- 1 No corresponding use clause; in scope only
-- 2 Correct. Too many errors for this to compile
-- 3 Notice the dot notation in declaration
-- 4 Dot notation makes type Signal visible
-- 5 Dot notation again. No use clause so this is required
-- 6
-- 7 Dot notation required here
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11 Cannot compile; + operator not directly visible
-- 12 Incompatible data types
-- 13 This is OK because of subtype
-- 14 Incompatible types in expression
-- 15 Incompatible types
-- 16 Type conversion not permitted for these types
-- 17 Incompatible types
-- 18 This statement is OK
-- 19

```

The following example corrects some of the problems with the preceding one. Note the need for type conversion. Also, we include an example of unchecked conversion. Generally, unchecked conversion is a bad idea. The default in Ada is to prevent such conversions. However, Ada does allow one to relax the default so operations can be closer to what is permitted in C and C++, when necessary.

```

with Some_Types;
with Ada.Unchecked_Conversion;
use Ada;
procedure Test_Some_Types is
  Ch1, Ch2, Ch3 : Some_Types.Channel := 42;
  Sig1, Sig2    : Some_Types.Signal := 27;
  Level_1, Level_2 : Some_Types.Level := 360.0;
  Tiny         : Some_Types.Small_Signal := 4;
  Color_1, Color_2 : Some_Types.Color := Some_Types.Red;
  Light_1, Light_2 : Some_Types.Light := Some_Types.Red;
  Tr1, Tr2, Tr3   : Some_Types.Traffic := Some_Types.Red;
use type Some_Types.Channel;
function Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion
  (Source => Some_Types.Light, Target => Some_Types.Traffic);
-- 1 Context clause from prior example
-- 2 Context clause for generic Ada library function
-- 3 Makes package Ada directly visible
-- 4 Name for unparameterized procedure
-- 5 Initialize declared variables
-- 6 Note dot notation in declared variables
-- 7 Declared variables with dot notation
-- 8
-- 9 Enumerated type declarations
-- 10
-- 11
-- 12 Makes operators visible for this type
-- 13 Enable assignment between variables of
-- 14 differing types without compile-time checking

```

```

begin
  Ch3 := Ch1 + ch2;
  Level_1 := Some_Types.Level(Ch1);
  Tiny := Sig1;
  Tr3 := Some_Types.Traffic(Color_1);
  Tr1 := Some_Types.Traffic'Succ(Tr2);
  Tr2 := Convert(Light_1);
  Light_2 := Convert(TR3);
end Test_Some_Types;

```

-- 15  
-- 16 use type makes + operator visible  
-- 17 Type conversion legal between numeric types  
-- 18 This will compile because of subtype  
-- 19 OK. Traffic is derived from Color  
-- 21 This statement is OK  
-- 22 Assign dissimilar data without checking  
-- 23 Convert is only one direction  
-- 24

Notice that operations are not permitted between incompatible types even if they have a set of values with identical names and internal structure. In this regard, Ada is more strongly typed than most other languages, including the Modula family and the C/C++ family. Type conversion is legal, in Ada, when one type is derived from another such as types defined under the substitutability rules of object technology.

### 3.5.7.2 Subtype Declarations

There is a slight deviation in orthogonality in meaning of subtypes in the Ada Language Reference Manual. This discussion relates to the reserved word `subtype`, not the compiler design model.

Ada has a reserved word, *subtype*. This is not the same as a subclass in other languages. If a *subtype* of a *type* is declared, operations between itself and its parent are legal without the need for type conversion.

```

procedure Subtype_Examples is
  type Frequency is digits 12;
  subtype Full_Frequency is Frequency range 0.0 .. 100_000.0;
  subtype High_Frequency is Frequency range 20_000.0 .. 100_000.0;
  subtype Low_Frequency is Frequency range 0.0 .. 20_000.0;
  FF : Full_Frequency := 0.0;
  HF : Full_Frequency := 50_000.0;
  LF : Full_Frequency := 15_000.0;
begin
  FF := HF;
  FF := LF;
  LF := FF;
  HF := LF;
end Subtype_Examples is

```

-- 1 Subprogram specification  
-- 2 Floating point type definition  
-- 3 subtype definition  
-- 4 subtype definition  
-- 5 subtype definition  
-- 6 Variable declaration  
-- 7 Variable declaration  
-- 8 Variable declaration  
-- 9  
-- 10 OK; no possible constraint error  
-- 11 OK; no possible constraint error  
-- 12 Legal, but potential constraint error  
-- 13 Legal, but potential constraint error  
-- 14

### 3.5.8 Elementary Types

Elementary types are of two main categories, *scalar* and *access*. An access type is a kind of pointer and is discussed in Chapter 5 of this book. Scalar types are *discrete* and *real*. Discrete types are enumerated types and integer types. Technically, integer types are also enumerated types with the added functionality of arithmetic operators. Numeric discrete types are signed and unsigned integers.

Non-discrete, real numbers include floating point, ordinary fixed point, and decimal fixed point. The Ada programmer never uses pre-defined real types for safety-critical, production quality software.

All scalar types may be defined in terms of precision and acceptable range of values. The designer is even allowed to specify the internal representation (number of bits) for a scalar value.

```

type Index is mod 2**16
for Index'Size use 16
type Int16 is range -2 ** 15.. 2**15 - 1;
for Int16'Size use 16;
type Int32 is range -2 ** 31 .. 2**31 - 1
for Int32'Size use 32;

```

-- an unsigned number type  
-- allot sixteen bits for this type  
-- a signed integer number type  
-- allot sixteen bits for this type  
-- a signed integer numeric type  
-- allot 32 bits for this type

### 3.5.9 Composite Types

Composite types contain objects/values of some other type. One could think of them as nested types. There are four general categories of composite types: *arrays*, *records*, *task types*, and *protected types*. An

array has components of the same type. A record may have components of different types. The last two, task types and protected types are discussed later in this book

### 3.5.9.1 Arrays

An array may have components of any type as long as they are all the same storage size. Ada has three main options for array definition: anonymous, type-based unconstrained, type-based constrained. Other combinations are possible, but not discussed in this book. Ada allows true multi-dimensional arrays, as well as arrays of arrays. Two common formats for a one dimensional array are:

```

type Array_Type is array(Index_Type range <>) of Component_Type;  -- One dimensional unconstrained array
type Array_Type is array(Range_Constraint) of Component_Type;      -- One dimensional constrained array

```

Ada also has something called anonymous arrays. Avoid anonymous arrays. They are less flexible and cannot be passed as parameters to subprograms. We will not discuss them further in this book.

#### 3.5.9.1.1 Array Procedural Example

The following procedure demonstrates a constrained array and an unconstrained array, along with declarations and some procedural behavior. The constrained array is a boolean array. We show this array because of its special properties when used with logical or, and, and xor. The unconstrained array simply demonstrates that an unconstrained array must be constrained before it may be used.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                -- 1
use Ada;                          -- 2
procedure Array_Definitions is    -- 3
  package BIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum => Boolean); -- 5 IO package for Boolean type
  type Boolean_Set is array(1..4) of Boolean; -- 6 Constrained boolean array
  pragma Pack(Boolean_Set); -- 7 Forces array to four bits
  for Boolean_Set'Alignment use 2; -- 7.1 Align storage on 2 bytes
  type Float_Vector is array(Natural range <>) of Float; -- 8 Unconstrained array
    -- Note that the index is of type Natural and can be any range of values from 0 through Integer'Last
  B1 : Boolean_Set := (True, True, True, False); -- 9
  B2 : Boolean_Set := (False, False, True, False); -- 10
  B3 : Boolean_Set := (True, True, False, True); -- 11
  F1 : Float_Vector(0..9); -- 12
  F2 : Float_Vector(1..10); -- 13
  procedure Display (Data : Boolean_Set; Comment : String) is -- 14
  begin -- 15
    Text_IO.Put(Comment); -- 16
    for I in B3'Range loop -- 17
      BIO.Put(Data(I)); -- 18
      Text_IO.Put(" "); -- 19
    end loop; -- 20
    Text_IO.New_Line; -- 21
  end Display; -- 22
begin -- 23
  F1(2) := F2(4); -- 24 Simple component assignment
  F1(5..7) := F2(6..8); -- 25 This is sometimes called "sliding"
  Display (B1, "B1 is "); -- 26
  Display (B2, "B2 is "); -- 27
  B3 := B1 and B2; -- 28 Logical and of B1 and B2
  Display(B3, "B1 and B2 = "); -- 29
  B3 := B1 or B2; -- 30 Logical or of B1 and B2
  Display(B3, "B1 or B2 = "); -- 31
  B3 := B1 xor B2; -- 32 Logical xor of B1 and B2

```

*Bitwise Logical operators  
and, or, and xor may be  
used on a boolean array.*

*procedure Display factors  
out the responsibility for  
displaying the results of the  
boolean operations in the  
body of this example.*

```

    Display(B3, "B1 xor B2 = ");           -- 33
end Array_Definitions;                   -- 34

```

Line 8, in the previous program illustrates an unconstrained array. Whenever an array is declared as unconstrained, a constrained instance of it is required before it can be used in an algorithm. Here are some other examples of one dimensional, arrays, constrained and unconstrained:

```

type Float_Vector is array(Natural range <>) of Float;           -- One dimensional unconstrained array
type Float_Vector is array(-473..451) of Float;                   -- One dimensional constrained array
type Day is (Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday);
type Float_Vector is array(Day) of Integer;                       -- One dimensional constrained array

```

Note that an array index can be any discrete type and does not have to begin with zero. Also, type String, defined in package Standard is defined as an unconstrained array with a Positive index type. All the operations permitted on ordinary arrays are also permitted on Strings.

### 3.5.9.1.2 Multi-dimensional Arrays

Ada also allows multiple-dimension arrays such as those found in Fortran or arrays of arrays such as those in the C family of languages. For example,

```

type Float_Matrix is array(Natural range <>, Positive range <>) of Float;           -- Two dimensional array
type Bool_Matrix is array( Natural range <>,                                     -- First dimension of three
                           Positive range <>,                                     -- Second dimension of three
                           Color range <>) of Boolean;                       -- Third dimension of three
type Mat_Vector is array (Positive range <>) of Float_Matrix(1..20, 5..15);       -- One dimension of two dimensions

```

### 3.5.9.1.3 Array Initialization

In Ada, arrays may be initialized using a concept called an *aggregate*. The word aggregate is not a reserved word, but it is an important part of the language. An unconstrained array may include an aggregate at the time it is constrained. Any array may be re-initialized after it is declared by applying an aggregate. The rule is that an aggregate must be complete. That is, every component must be included in the aggregate. Here are some examples, using the definitions already shown in this section (2.5.9.1).

#### For one dimensional array:

```

V1 : Float_Vector (1..6) := (others => 0.0);           -- Instance initialized to all 0.0
V2 : Float_Vector (1..3) := (1 => 12.3, 3 => 6.2, 2 => 9.4); -- Instance with initial values
V3 : Float_Vector (0..120) := (0 => 2.6, 120 => 7.5, others => 9.4); -- others must appear last
V4 : Float_Vector (12..80) := (12 => 16.3, 2 => 6.2, others => 1.5); -- Instance with initial values

```

In the above instances, V1 has six elements and is initialize to all 0.0, V2 has three elements and is initialized using named association. Named association allows the programmer to identify the index value and associate a component value. V3 has 121 elements and it is initialized using named association along with an *others* option. V4 has 68 elements, starting with an index of 12. V4 is initialized using named association along with the *others* option.

In Ada, an integer type index value may begin anywhere in the number range. It may even be a negative value, or a large number value. The value of V4'First is 12. The values of V4'Range are 12 and 80.

#### For two dimensional array:

```

M1 : Float_Matrix(1..10, 1..10) := ( 1 => (1 => 0.0, others => 1.0),           -- 1 Named association for each

```

```

10 => (10 => 0.0, others => 1.0), -- 2 dimension of the array and
others => (others => 1.0));      -- 3 others specified last

```

If you wanted to write a loop that would use Text\_IO to display all of the values for M1 on a console, it might look like the following code,

```

for I in M1'Range(1)           -- 1 Range(1) specifies first dimension of array
loop                             -- 2 outer loop; should have been named
  for J in M1'Range(2)         -- 3 Range(2) specifies second dimension of array
  loop                             -- 4 Always name nested loops in production code
    Text_IO.Put(Float'Image(M1(I, J)) & " "); -- 5 Convert component to text and print it
  end loop;                     -- 6
  Text_IO.New_Line;            -- 7 Carriage return/Line feed on display
end loop;                       -- 8

```

### 3.5.9.1.4 Array Catenation

One of the more useful operations on arrays is catenation. Catenation is predefined in the language using the ampersand (&) symbol. As with most operators, you may overload the catenator operator. The rules for catenation are in ALRM 4.5.3/4. Taking the Float\_Vector, defined above, we can have the following:

```

V10 : Float_Vector (1..10) := V1 & V2 & 42.9;      -- Catenate 42.9, V1 and V2

```

Sometimes it is useful to catenate a value of a different type after converting it to an appropriate representation. Let's say we have a variable,

```

Bango : Integer := 451; -- bango is the Japanese word for number.

```

Now suppose we have a string that we want to display on the console with the value of Bango. We could do the following:

```

Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line("Paper burns at " & Integer'Image(Bango) & " Fahrenheit ");

```

This prints a string to the screen. The ampersand catenator enables us to catenate the result of the image attribute (as if it were a built-in function) which in turn is catenated to the word Fahrenheit (notice the leading space to make formatting more readable).

### 3.5.9.2 Records

Ada records come in many forms, most of which we will not deal with in this book. Some of the forms such as variant records, unconstrained records, and discriminated records, are not as important to the novice. These advanced topics get little treatment in this book. We will include some examples of constrained records, some records with a single discriminants, and some tagged records. Consider the following Ada package specification that declares some record types.

```

package Record_Declarations is
  type Library_Book is
    record
      ISBN : String (1..12);
      Title : String(1..30);
      Author : String(1..40);
      Purchase_Price : Float;
      Copies_Available : Natural;
    end record;
-- 1 xxxxxxxxxx xx
-- 2 Simple constrained record
-- 3 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 4 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 5 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 6 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 7 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 8 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 9 xxxxxxxxxx

```

```

type Message_1 is
  record
    Text : Unbounded_String;
    Length : Natural;
  end record;

type Message_2 (Size : Positive) is
  record
    Text : String(1..Size);
    Length : Natural;
  end record;

type Message_3 (Size : Positive := 1) is
  record
    Text : String(1..Size);
    Length : Natural;
  end record;

type Message_4 is tagged
  .record
    Text : Unbounded_String;
    Length : Natural;
  end record;

type Message_5 is new Message_4 with
  record
    Stamp : Calendar.Time;
  end record;

type Message_6 is
  record
    Message_Data : Message_1;
    Library_Data : Library_Book;
  end record;
end Record_Declarations;

-- 10xxxxxxxx
-- 11 Simple record with an
-- 12 unconstrained data type
-- 13 See ALRM A.4.5
-- 14 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 15 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 16 xxxxxxxxxx
-- 17 Record with a discriminant
-- 18 This must be constrained before
-- 19 it may be used. Note that the Size
-- 20 has a corresponding entry in the record
-- 21 Dynamically allocated records might not
-- 22 be as efficient as you would like.
-- 23 Record with a default discriminant
-- 24 This may be constrained or may use
-- 25 the default constraint. There are more
-- 26 rules for this, but we defer them to an
-- 27 advanced discussion of the language
-- 28xxxxxx
-- 29 A tagged type. This may be extended
-- 30 with more components
-- 31 Unbounded String(See Ada.Fixed.Unbounded).
-- 32 xxxxxx
-- 33 xxxxxx
-- 34 xxxxxx
-- 35 Derived from a tagged type and one
-- 36 additional component. This record now x
-- 37 has a total of three components, those
-- 38 it inherits and the one defined within it.
-- 39 xxxxxx
-- 40 Record containing another record
-- 41 xxxxxx
-- 42 See line 11
-- 43 See line 2
-- 44 xxxxxx.
-- 45 xxxxxx

```



## 4. Control Structures for Algorithms

Even in an object-oriented language, there comes the point where we must actually code the algorithmic implementation for some of the problems we are trying to solve. Ada has a rich set of algorithmic constructs that make this easy to code and easy to read.

### 4.1 Iteration Algorithms in Ada

One of the three fundamental building blocks of every computer program is iteration. In nearly every serious program there is at least one loop. I realize Fans of recursion and/or functional programming (LISP, ML, CLOS, Haskell, etc.) will object to this statement.

#### 4.1.1 For Loops

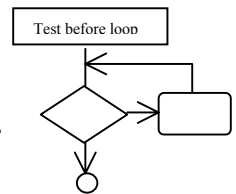
A For loop is simple in Ada. Every *loop* must have an *end loop*. The type of the index is derived from the type of the range variables. The scope of the index is the scope of the loop. The index is never visible outside the loop. Also, during each iteration of the loop, the index is a **constant** within the loop; that is, the index of a loop may not be altered via assignment.

```

with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
procedure Sawatdee (Start, Stop : in Integer) is
begin
  for I in Start..Stop
    loop
      Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Put(I);
    end loop;
end SaWatDee;

```

-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope; A.10.8/21  
 -- 2 "Good morning" in Thailand; 6.2  
 -- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 4 I is a constant to the loop in each iteration; 5.5/9  
 -- 5 Reserved word loop is required; 5.5  
 -- 6 Note the use of "dot notation" to achieve visibility; A.10.8  
 -- 7 End loop is required for every loop; 5.5  
 -- 8 Note the label for the enclosing procedure; 6



An Ada enumerated type is an ordered set. Therefore, it may be used as the index of a loop. This is different from some languages. Also, the machine values for the enumerated type may not be simple numbers as they are in C or C++. You are not likely to need to do arithmetic on them. For an enumerated type, declared as:

```

type Week is (Sun, Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat); -- An enumerated type is an ordered set; (Sun < Mon)

```

consider the following loop.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;
procedure Dobroe_Uutra is
begin
  Loop_Name:
  for Index in Week
    loop
      Ada.Text_IO.Put(Week'Image(Index));
    end loop Loop_Name;
end Dobroe_Uutra;

```

-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope; 8.2, 10.1.2  
 -- 2 "Good morning" in Russian  
 -- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 4 This is a named loop; good coding style; 5.5  
 -- 5 Loop index may be a negative number; 5.5  
 -- 6 Reserved word loop is required; 5.5  
 -- 7 Image converts Value to Text for printing  
 -- 8 The name is required if the loop is named; 5.5  
 -- 9 Note the label for the enclosing procedure

It is useful to label a loop. For the enumerated type, Week, declared above, and an array defined as,

```

Set : array (15..60) of Integer; -- an anonymous array; one of a kind; no type

```

consider the following loop with a loop label,

```

with Text_IO;
procedure Magandang_Umaga is
begin
  Outer:

```

-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope  
 -- 2 "Good morning" in Tagalog (language of Phillipines)  
 -- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 4 This is a named loop; good coding style

```

for Index in Set'Range                -- 5 Index'First = 15; Index'Last = 60
  loop                                  -- 6 Reserved word loop is required
    Text_IO.Put(Integer'Image(Index));   -- 7 'Image converts Integer to Text for printing
    Text_IO.Put_Line(Integer'Image(Set(Index))); -- 8 Print the value in the array using 'Image
    Inner:                                -- 9 Give the inner loop a name
      for Day in Week loop              -- 10 Note how we use type name for the range
        Text_IO.Put(Week'Image(Day));    -- 11 Convert the Day to Text for printing
      end loop Inner;                    -- 12 The name of the loop is required
    end loop Outer;                      -- 13 The name is required if the loop is named
end Magandang_Umaga;                   -- 14 Note the label for the enclosing procedure

```

Lines 7, 8, and 11 have code with the 'Image attribute. Check ALRM, Annex K/88 for details. Line 5 could have been coded as, **for** Index **in** Set'First .. Set'Last **loop** ...

Sometimes you need to traverse a for loop in reverse. Line 5, above could have been coded as,

```

for Index in reverse Set'Range          -- 5 Never for Index in 60..15 loop

```

A for loop might be used to traverse a two dimensional array. A nested loop will be required. Always label each loop when coding a nested loop. Here is the declaration of such an array.

```

type Matrix is array (Positive range <>, Natural range <>) of Integer; -- an unconstrained Matrix

```

```

procedure Process (M : in out Matrix) is      -- 1 Specification for the procedure
begin                                           -- 2 Simple begin
  Outer:                                         -- 3 Label for outer loop
    for I in M'Range(1) loop                    -- 4 M'Range(1) is first dimension of array
      Inner:                                     -- 5 Label for nested loop
        for J in M'Range(2) loop              -- 6 M'Range(2) is second dimension
          -- do some actions on the matrix      -- 7 Algorithmic statements
        end loop Inner;                        -- 8 Inner end loop
      end loop Outer;                          -- 9 Outer end loop
end Process;                                  -- 10 End of procedure scope

```

## 4.1.2 While Loops ALRM 5.5

A while loop is often the preferred type of loop in structured programming.

```

with Text_IO;                                -- 1 Put a library unit in scope
procedure Jo_Regelt is                       -- 2 "Good morning" in Hungarian
  The_File : Text_IO.File_Type;                -- 3 Declare internal file handle
  As_Input : Text_IO.File_Mode := Text_IO.In_File; -- 4 Is it input or output
  External_Name : String := "C:\Data\My.Txt";   -- 5 Declare the external file name
  The_Data : String(1..80);                    -- 6 A simple character variable;
  Line_Length : Natural;                       -- 7 For the input line parameter
begin                                         -- 8 Required to initiated sequence of statements
  Text_IO.Open(The_File, As_Input, External_Name); -- 9 See Text_IO for the types of the parameters
  Input_Routine:                               -- 10 You may name any kind of loop, and should
    while not Text_IO.End_Of_File(The_File)     -- 11 Read The_File until finding the EOF mark
      loop                                     -- 12 Reserved word loop is required
        Text_IO.Get(The_File, The_Data, Line_Length); -- 13 Get a delimited string from the file
        Text_IO.Put_Line(The_Data(1..Line_Length)); -- 14 Echo the string with carriage / return line feed
      end loop Input_Routine;                  -- 15 The name is required if the loop is named
end Jo_Regelt;                               -- 16 Note the label for the enclosing procedure

```

The following while loop uses the Get\_Immediate feature of Ada.Text\_IO, ALRM A.10.1/44.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                            -- 1 Correct context clause
with Ada.Characters.Latin_1;                 -- 2 Replaces Ada 83 package Ascii
procedure Hello_By_Input is                 -- 3 Long procedure name
  ESC : Character renames Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Esc; -- 4 A.3.3/5

```

```

Input : Character := Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Space;           -- 5 Initial value for Variable
Index : Natural := 0;                                       -- 6 package Standard, A.1/13
Hello : String(1..80) := (others => Input);                 -- 7 Input is initialized as space
begin                                                       -- 8 Normally comment this line
  Ada.Text_IO.Get_Immediate(Input);                         -- 9 ALRM A.101./44
  while Input /= ESC loop -- /= is Ada "not equal" symbol   -- 10 Negative condition while loop
    Ada.Text_IO.Put(Input); -- Echo input                  -- 11 Only Echo if it is not ESC
    Index := Index + 1;                                     -- 12 Need to maintain own index
    Hello(Index) := Input;                                  -- 13 Assign the input to the string
    Ada.Text_IO.Get_Immediate(Input);                       -- 14 No need to press enter key
  end loop;                                                -- 15 Every loop needs an end loop
  Ada.Text_IO.New_Line;                                     -- 16 Carriage Return/ Line Feed
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Hello);                             -- 17 Put the string and advance one line
end Hello_By_Input;                                        -- 18 Must be same name as procedure

```

Notice that this loop could be coded to avoid the while condition and simply do an exit. This would eliminate the initial Get\_Immediate on Line 9 but would require an if statement to effect the exit. Sometimes we want to **exit** a loop before we reach the pre-defined conditions. This can be used for a loop with no conditions or a loop in which some associated value goes abnormal. It can also be used to emulate the Pascal **repeat ... until** construct. There are several forms of the exit: **exit when**, **if condition then exit**, and the simple unconditional **exit**. For each form, the careful programmer will include the name of the loop.

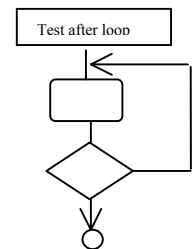
### 4.1.3 Exit Loop ALRM 5.7

```

with Text_IO;
procedure Salaam_Ahlay_Kham is
  The_File : Text_IO.File_Type;
  As_Input : Text_IO.File_Mode := Text_IO.In_File;
  External_Name : String := "C:\Data\My.Txt";
  The_Data : String(1..80) := (others => ' ');
  Line_Length : Natural;
begin
  Text_IO.Open(The_File, As_Input, External_Name);
  Controlled_Input:
  loop
    Text_IO.Get(The_File, The_Data, Line_Length);
    exit Controlled_Input
      when The_Data(1..2) = "##";
    Text_IO.Put_Line(The_Data(1..Line_Length));
  end loop Controlled_Input;
end Salaam_Ahlay_Kham;

```

-- 1 Put a library unit in scope  
-- 2 Parameterless declaration  
-- 3 Declare internal file handle  
-- 4 Is it input or output  
-- 5 Declare the external file name  
-- 6 Constrained, initialized string  
-- 7 For the input line parameter  
-- 8 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
-- 9 See Text\_IO for the types of the parameters  
-- 10 You may name any kind of loop, and should  
-- 11 Unconditional loop statement  
-- 12 Get a delimited string from the file  
-- 13 Note the use of the label name  
-- 14 A conditional exit; should always be labeled  
-- 15 Print the string with carriage / return line feed  
-- 16 The name is required if the loop is named  
-- 17 Note the label for the enclosing procedure



Pay attention to line 10 in this example. A loop label makes this kind of loop easier to maintain. Many Ada practitioners suggest you never use an exit without a label. This can also be checked by the compiler. Also note that the compiler will require the name of the loop at the end loop statement if there is a label.. Here is some alternative syntax for lines 13 through 14 of the loop in P5, above,

```

if The_Data(1..2) = "##" then
  exit Controlled_Input;

```

-- 13 An if statement to control the exit  
-- 14 Exit with a label name

The syntax and rules of the if statement is discussed in the next section.

## 4.3 Selection Statements

Selection comes in two flavors. There is the alternation form, usually represented as an if ...else, and the multiway selection, often coded as a case ... end case. As is true of every elementary structure, there is an entry point and a well-defined end of scope. The end of scope is coded with an "end *kind-of-selection*".

### 4.3.1 If Statements ALRM 5.3

The basic if statement in Ada is not very complicated. There is a rule that every if must have an "end if." Also, unlike a language such as Pascal, an if condition may be compound. There is a reserved word, *elsif*, which permits a kind of multi-way condition selection. The following function is somewhat contrived, but it does illustrate the idea of the *if* along with the *elsif*. The most important thing to observe about elsif is that it might drop through all conditions if none are true. Therefore, you will almost always want a final *else*, even though it is not required by the language. If you fall through all possibilities in a function you may never reach a return statement which will cause the RTE to raise a Program\_Error (ALRM, A.1/46) as an exception.

```

function Select (A,B,C : Float) return Float is
    Result : Float := 0.0;
begin
    if A > B then
        Result := A ** 2;
    elsif A < B then
        Result := B ** 2;
    elsif A <= C then
        Result := C * B;
    else
        Result := C * A;
    end if;
    return Result;
end Select;

```

-- 1 Parameterized function  
 -- 2 Local Variable for return statement.  
 -- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 4 Simple logical comparison  
 -- 5 Exponentiation of A; 4.5.6/7  
 -- 6 Note the spelling; 4.5.2/9  
 -- 7 4.5.6/7  
 -- 8 4.5.2/9  
 -- 9 4.5.5  
 -- 10 Optional else; but always include it  
 -- 11 4.5.5  
 -- 12 Try to have only one return statement.  
 -- 13 If no return is found, Program\_Error is raised  
 -- 14 Always label a subprogram end statement

The if statement is legal for nearly every Ada data type. Some types are designated as limited. Limited objects have no predefined equality or relational testing. Also, record types and private types may only be tested for equality, not for greater than or less than. The creator of the limited or private type may overload an equality or relational operator or write an entirely new Is\_Equal. For example, using the data type, Inventory, defined earlier in Example 1.

```

function "=" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean;
function Is_Equal (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean;
function ">" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean;

```

An implementation of "=" might look like this

```

function "=" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean is
begin
    return L.ID = R.ID;
end "=";

```

-- 1 Redefines an equal operator  
 -- 2 The usual begin statement  
 -- 3 Compare only the ID part.  
 -- 4 Required scope terminator

An implementation of ">" might look like this

```

function ">" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean is
begin
    return L.ID > R.ID;
end ">";

```

-- 1 Redefines ">" operator  
 -- 2 The usual begin statement  
 -- 3 Compare only the ID part.  
 -- 4 Required scope terminator

There is also a form of the if statement called short-circuit form. This takes two syntactic formats: **and then** and **or else**. With the **and then** format, the programmer can explicitly indicate that if the comparison of the first operand fails, don't check the second operand. The **or else** format checks the first operand. If the expression in the first operand is not TRUE, check the second operand. If it is TRUE, then don't bother to check the second operand.

### 4.3.2 Membership Testing 4.5.2/2

Tip: This is one of those powerful syntactic constructs that can make code more readable and easier to maintain.

Sometimes you want a simple membership test. The **in** and **not in** options permit testing a range or even the membership of a value within a type or type range. A membership test is permitted for any data type. It often makes your **if** statements more readable.

```
function Continue(Data : Item) return Boolean is
  Result : Boolean := False;
begin -- Continue
  if Data in 1..20 then
    Result := True;
  end if;
  return Result;
end Continue;
-- 1 Parameterized function
-- 2 Initialized return variable.
-- 3 Comment the begin statement
-- 4 Simple membership test for a range
-- 5 Set the result
-- 6 Always need an end if
-- 7 A single return statement; required
-- 8 Always label the end statement
```

or for a data type derived from another type

```
type Bounded_Integer is new Integer range -473..451; -- Derived type; derived from Standard Integer

procedure Demand
(Data : in out Bounded_Integer'Base) is
  Local : Bounded_Integer'Base := 0;
begin -- Demand
  Data := Data + Local;
  if Data in Bounded_Integer then
    null;
  end if;
end Demand;
-- 1 Procedure Identifier
-- 2 Parameter list for Base type
-- 3 Initialized variable.
-- 4 Comment the begin statement
-- 5 Comment the begin statement
-- 6 Simple membership test for a range
-- 7 Some Action
-- 8 Always need an end if
-- 9 label the end statement
```

### 4.3.3 Case Statements ALRM 5.4

Ada *case* statements easy and consistent. Unlike pathological case constructs in the C family of languages, Ada never requires a “break” statement. A case statement only applies to a discrete type such as an integer or enumerated type. Also, when coding a case statement, all possible cases must be covered. The following case statement illustrates several of these ideas. Consider an enumerated type, Color defined as:

```
type Color is (White, Red, Orange, Yellow, Chartreuse, Green,
              Blue, Indigo, Violet, Black, Brown);
-- The values are the names of the
-- colors. No need for numerics
```

The following function evaluates many of the alternatives.

```
function Evaluate (C : Color) return Integer is
  Result : Integer := 0;
begin -- Evaluate
  case C is
    when Red => Result := 1;
    when Blue => Result := 2;
    when Black .. Brown => Result := 3;
    when Orange | Indigo => Result := 4;
    when others => Result := 5;
  end case;
  return Result;
-- 1 Simple function declaration
-- 2 Local variable
-- 3 Comment the begin statement
-- 4 Start a case statement
-- 5 The => is an association symbol
-- 6 Am I blue? Set result to 2
-- 7 For black through brown ...
-- 8 For either orange or indigo
-- 9 The others required for unspecified cases.
-- 10 Must use others if any cases are not specified
-- 11 Compiler will look for a return statement
```

```
end Evaluate; -- 12 As usual, label the end statement
```

Sometimes, when a case statement result requires a long sequence of statements, consider using a begin end block sequences (see above discussion on blocks). This is especially useful if you label each *begin..end* block.

```
function Decide (C : Color) return Integer is -- 1 Simple function declaration
  Result : Integer := 0; -- 2 Local variable
begin -- Decide -- 3 Comment the begin statement
  case C is -- 4 Start a case statement
    when Red => -- 5 One of the enumerated values
      begin -- 6 An unlabeled begin ... end sequence; see 4.4
        -- sequence-of-statements -- 7 Any sequence of Ada statements
      end; -- 8 Unlabeled end statement
    when Blue => -- 9 One of the enumerated values
      Label_1: -- 10 Better style; use a block label
      begin -- 11 Alternative: consider calling nested subprogram
        -- sequence-of-statements -- 12 A labeled begin requires label name at end
      end Label_1; -- 13 The label is required for the end statement
    when others => -- 14 Ada requires others if some choices are unmentioned
      Label_2: -- 15 Yes. Still using the label; label an embedded begin block
      begin -- 16
        -- handled-sequence-of-statements -- 17 We expect a local exception handler.
      exception -- 18 This is a good use of begin...end blocks
        -- sequence-of-statements -- 19 The exception handling statements
      end Label_2; -- 20 The compiler will look for this
    end case; -- 21 Scope terminator is required
  return Result; -- 22 Compiler will look for a return statement
end Decide; -- 23 As usual, label the end statement
```

On line 14, the **when others** is required when some possible choices are not explicitly stated. An Ada compiler checks for the label at the end of a labeled begin..end block. If there is a **when others** and there are no other choices, the compiler issues an error message. Lastly, a choice may be stated only once. If you repeat the same choice, the Ada compiler will pummel you about the head and shoulders soundly.

## 4.4 Blocks

As shown in the preceding example, Ada allows the programmer to label in-line blocks of code. Sometimes these are labeled loops. Other times they are simply short algorithmic fragments. A block may even include localized declarations. This kind of block is called a "declare block." Some Ada programming managers think in-line declare blocks are a reflection of poor program planning. In spite of that, they appear often in production code. In fact, a declare block is the only way to declare a local variable for a code fragment.

### 4.4.1 Begin ... End Blocks ALRM 5.6

This is a useful feature of Ada for trapping exceptions and sometimes for debugging. Good coding style suggests that they be labeled. Some Ada practitioners suggest using a labeled begin end with a case statement as noted in Section 3.3.3 of this book.

```
with Ada.Text_IO, -- 1 Note the comma instead of semicolon
Ada.Integer_Text_IO; -- 2 Predefined package for Integer I/O
function Get return Integer is -- 3 Parameterless function
  package IIO renames Ada.Integer_Text_IO; -- 4 Make the name shorter via renames clause
  package TIO renames Ada.Text_IO; -- 5 Make the name shorter
  Data : Integer := -0; -- 6 In scope for all of P8
```

```

    Try_Limit : constant := 3; -- universal integer constant
    Try_Count : Natural := 0
begin
  Input_Loop:
  loop
    Try_Block:
    begin
      Try_Count := Try_Count + 1;
      IIO.Get(Data)
      exit Input_Loop;
    exception
      when TIO.Data_Error =>
        if Try_Count > Try_Limit then
          Text_IO.Put_Line("Too many tries");
          exit Input_Loop;
        end if;
      end Try_Block;
    end loop Input_Loop;
  return Data;
end Get;

```

-- 7 A **constant** cannot be changed  
 -- 8 Natural cannot be less than zero  
 -- 9 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 10 Optional label for the loop  
 -- 11 Required reserved word  
 -- 12 Always name a begin..end block  
 -- 13 Start begin ... end block  
 -- 14 Increment a variable by one  
 -- 15 Convert external text to internal number  
 -- 16 unconditional loop exit  
 -- 17 Placed between begin ... end sequence  
 -- 18 Exception handling  
 -- 19 Decide whether to exit the loop  
 -- 20 Because the Try\_Count is too high  
 -- 21 exit the loop  
 -- 22 Every if requires an end if  
 -- 23 The label is required if block is labeled  
 -- 24 Loop is labeled so label is required  
 -- 25 One return statement for this function  
 -- 26 Always label a subprogram end statement

#### 4.4.2 Declare Blocks ALRM 5.6

A `declare` block is an in-line block of code which includes some local declarations. The scope of the declarations ends with the `end` statement of the block. If any local name is the same as some other name in the enclosing scope, the local name is the only one directly visible.

```

with Text_IO;
procedure Tip_A is
  Rare_E : Float := 2.72; -- natural number, e
  Data : Integer := 42;
begin
  Text_IO.Put(Integer'Image(Data));
  declare
    Data : Float := 3.14; -- a short slice of pi
  begin
    Text_IO.Put(Float'Image(Data));
  end;
  Ada.Text_IO.Put(Float'Image(Rare_E));
end Tip_A;

```

-- 1 Put a library unit in scope  
 -- 2 Parameterless declaration  
 -- 3 A rare E; see ALRM A.5  
 -- 4 In scope for entire procedure  
 -- 5 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 6 What will print? Integer is converted to a string  
 -- 7 begin a new scope (declarative region)  
 -- 8 Hide visibility of Integer, X; see ALRM A.5  
 -- 9 [optionally Handled] sequence of statements  
 -- 10 X'Image is allowed for Floating Point  
 -- 11 A scope terminator is required  
 -- 12 A long way to tip a rare e.  
 -- 13 Always include a unit name

You may want to access the `Data` from an outer scope within a `declare` block. Names in an outer scope, with names in conflict with those within a `declare` block, can be done with “dot notation.” It is sometimes observed that `declare` blocks can be used for *ad hoc* routines that someone forgot to design into the software. For this reason, some Ada practitioners recommend frugality when using them. Also, because `declare` blocks can be so easily sprinkled through the code, it is essential that production `declare` blocks are always labeled. The following `declare` block illustrates several of these points.

```

with Text_IO;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO, Ada.Float_Text_IO;
with Ada.Numerics;
procedure P7 is
  package IIO renames Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
  X : Integer := 42;
begin
  IIO.Put(X);
  Local_Block:
  declare
    use Ada.Integer_Float_IO;
    X : Float := Ada.Numerics.Pi;
  begin
    Put(X);

```

-- 1 Put a library unit in scope  
 -- 2 Predefined numeric IO packages  
 -- 3 ALRM, Annex A.5  
 -- 4 Parameterless declaration  
 -- 5 Make the name shorter via a renames clause  
 -- 6 In scope for entire procedure  
 -- 7 Required to initiated sequence of statements  
 -- 8 What will print?  
 -- 9 Always name a declare block  
 -- 10 begin a new scope (declarative region)  
 -- 11 controversial localization of use clause  
 -- 12 Hide visibility of global Integer, P7.X  
 -- 13 [optionally Handled] sequence of statements  
 -- 14 Put is visible because of “use clause”

```
      IIO.Put(P7.X);
    end Local_Block;
end P7;

-- 15 Dot qualifier makes Integer X visible
-- 16 Labeled end name required for labeled block
-- 17 Always label a subprogram end statement
```

Tip: Consider promoting a declare block to a local (nested) parameterless procedure in the declarations of the enclosing unit. This is more maintainable. It can be made more efficient with an inline pragma.



We don't really have pointers in Ada. The use of the word pointers is simply to acknowledge a corresponding capability via access types. The important thing is that the default for access types is *safe*, unlike pointers in the C family of languages

## 5. Access Types (Pointers)

### 5.1 Overview of Access Types

The British computing pioneer, Maurice Wilkes, is credited with inventing *indirection*. Indirection is a generalized notion of a pointer. According to Dr. Wilkes, "There is no problem in computer programming that cannot be solved by not adding yet one more level of indirection." Pointers, in many languages have been problematic. The C family of languages encourages one to do arithmetic on pointers, thereby creating some really tricky errors. Ada pointers, called access types, do not have default capability for pointer arithmetic. Java, to its credit, adopted the Ada philosophy on pointers. Whenever we use the term pointer in Ada, we really mean *access* type or access object. When we refer to an access type, we are referring to a pointer with a default a set of safe rules and no arithmetic operations.

There are three forms of access type.

Access Type Form	Terminology
• Access to a value in a storage pool	<i>storage pool access type</i>
• Access to a declared value	<i>general access type</i>
• Access to a subprogram (procedure or function)	<i>access to subprogram type</i>

Storage pool access types will require some kind of storage pool management since objects are dynamically allocated to an area of memory, possibly, the "Heap." Ada does not require automatic garbage collection but some compilers may provide it. Otherwise, use the package `System.Storage_Pools` defined in ALRM Chapter 13.

Every access type is type specific to some designated type.

<b>type</b> Reference <b>is access</b> Integer;	-- Can only point to predefined type Integer; storage pool access type
<b>type</b> Float_Reference <b>is access all</b> Float;	-- Can only point to predefined type Float; general access type
<b>type</b> Container <b>is limited private</b> ;	-- Defines a data type with limited format; ordinary limited type
<b>type</b> Container_Pointer <b>is access all</b> Container;	-- Can only point to objects of type Container; access to a limited type
<b>type</b> Method <b>is access procedure</b> ... ;	-- Points to a procedure with corresponding parameter profile
<b>type</b> Method <b>is access function</b> ... ;	-- Points to function with corresponding parameter profile and return type

### 5.2 Storage Pool Access Type

A storage pool access type requires an associated set of storage locations for its allocation. This might be a simple heap operation, or the serious Ada programmer can override the operations in `System.Storage_Pool` to enable some form of automatic garbage collection within a bounded storage space.

```

with Ada.Integer_Text_IO; use Ada;           -- 1 Library package for Integer IO
procedure Access_Type_1 is                   -- 2
  type Integer_Pointer is access Integer;     -- 3 Storage pool access type
  Number : Integer := 42;                     -- 4 Declared value
  Location : Integer_Pointer;                 -- 5 Storage pool access value
begin                                         -- 6
  Location := new Integer;                    -- 7 The word new is an allocator
  Location.all := Number;                     -- 8 all permits reference to the data being referenced
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Location);              -- 9 Illegal. Location is not an Integer type
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Location.all);          -- 10 Legal. Location.all is data of Integer type
end Access_Type_1;                           -- 11

```

Line 3 declares a type that points [only] to objects of type Integer. It cannot point to any other type. There is no pointer type in Ada that allows one to point to different types (except for classwide types). Line 4 declares an object of the pointer type. It has no value. The default initial value is **null**. An Ada pointer can never point to some undefined location in memory. Line 7 uses the reserved word **new**. In this context, **new** is an *allocator*. An allocator reserves memory, at run time, for an object of some data type. On Line 7, the address of that memory is assigned to the variable named Location. The pointer named Location is not an Integer. Instead, it points to a storage location that contains an integer.

Ada, by default, prohibits arithmetic on a pointer. The following statement is not allowed in Ada.

```
Location := Location + 1; -- illegal. No pointer arithmetic allowed
```

If one really needs to do pointer arithmetic, it is possible through a special packages from Chapter 13 of the ALRM, package `System.Address_To_Access_Conversions` and package `System.Storage_Elements`. In practice, pointer arithmetic is unnecessary.

Line 8 refers to `Location.all`. This how one refers to the data in the memory where `Location` points. Notice that Line 9 will be rejected by the compiler, but Line 10 would compile OK.

### 5.3 General Access Type

A general access type provides additional capabilities to the storage pool access type. It permits storage allocation like storage pool access types. It also allows access to declared objects when those objects are labeled *aliased*. Returning the example above,

```
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO; use Ada;           -- 1 Library package for Integer IO
procedure Access_Type_2 is                 -- 2
  type Integer_Pointer is access all Integer; -- 3 General access type; requires all
  N1 : aliased Integer := 42;                -- 4 Aliased declared value
  N2 : Integer := 360;                       -- 5 Non-aliased declared value
  Location : Integer_Pointer;                -- 6 General access type value
begin                                       -- 7
  Location := N1'Access;                     -- 8 Point to value declared on Line 4
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Location);              -- 9 Illegal. Location is not an Integer type
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Location.all);         -- 10 Legal. Location.all is data of Integer type
  Location := N2'Access;                     -- 11 Illegal. N2 was not aliased
end Access_Type_2;                          -- 12
```

The first difference in this example is on Line 3. `Integer_Pointer` is a *general access type* because the declaration includes the word, **all**. The next difference is Line 4. `N1` is an *aliased* declared value. A general access type may only reference aliased values. The reserved word, *aliased*, is required under most circumstances. Tagged type parameters for subprograms are automatically aliased. Line 8 is a direct assignment to an aliased value. This is legal. Contrast this with Line 11, which is not legal. Do you see that Line 11 is not legal because `N2`, on line 5, is not aliased?

#### 5.3.1 Preventing Errors with General Access Types

There is a potential danger with direct assignment to pointers. This danger shows itself all the time in the C family of languages. What happens when a data item goes out of scope and still has some other variable pointing to it? Ada has compiler rules to prevent this. The following example illustrates this.

```
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO; use Ada;           -- 1 Library package for Integer IO
procedure Access_Type_3 is                 -- 2
  type Integer_Pointer is access all Integer; -- 3 General access type; requires all
  Location : Integer_Pointer;                -- 4 General access type value
begin                                       -- 5
  declare                                     -- 6 A declare block with local scope
    N1 : aliased Integer := 42;              -- 7 Declare an aliased value locally
  begin                                       -- 8
    Location := N1'Access;                   -- 9 Point to value declared on Line 4
  end;                                       -- 10 End of declare block scope
end Access_Type_3;                          -- 11 Compilation failed! Sorry about that. ☹
```

The Ada compiler will reject this program. The rule is that the general access type declaration must be at the same level (same scope) as its corresponding variables. If you look at this example carefully, you will

see that, when the declare block leaves its scope, Location would still be pointing to a value that has disappeared. Instead of using 'Access on line 9, the programmer could have coded 'Unchecked\_Access, thereby bypassing the compile-time checks. Wisdom would dictate thinking very carefully before resorting to the use of any "unchecked" feature of the language. The word "unchecked" means the compiler does not check the validity or legality of your code. It is almost always an unsafe programming practice.

While the accessibility rules (See 5.3.2) might seem a drawback, they are easily managed in practice. Often it is enough to simply declare a local general access type and use it in a call to appropriate subprograms. The following example shows how this could happen.

```

procedure Access_Type_4 is -- 1
  function Spritz (I : access Integer) return Integer is -- 2
  begin -- 3
    return I.all + 1; -- 4
  end Spritz; -- 5
begin -- 6
  declare -- 7
    type Integer_Pointer is access all Integer; -- 8
    Location : Integer_Pointer; -- 9
    N1 : aliased Integer := 42; -- 10
    N2 : Integer := 0; -- 11
  begin -- 12
    Location := N1'Access; -- 13
    N2 := Spritz(Location); -- 14
  end; -- 15
end Access_Type_4; -- 16

```

Not good coding style. Avoid these kinds of side-effect statements. This is the one and only place where C++ can be more reliable than Ada because of the way C++ controls constants.

All uses of the general access type are localized and the lifetime of each entity is appropriate to the others. There will be no potential dangling references when the declare block leaves its scope.

On line 14, a local access variable is used to call a function that has an access parameter. The access parameter is anonymous. We may not assign a location to it. However, it would be legal to code.

```

I.all := I.all + 1; -- N1 would also be incremented by 1
return I.all;

```

But this is a very naughty thing to do. Shame on you if you do it!

This code would change the actual value of what Location is pointing to. Avoid doing this sort of thing. If you were to print the value for both N1 and N2, you would see the number 43. Some practitioners consider this a side-effect. Side-effects are rare in Ada and usually considered bad programming style.

### 5.3.2 The Accessibility Rules

ALRM Section 3.10.2, paragraphs 3 through 22, describe the accessibility rules. The purpose of the rules is to prevent dangling references. That is, when a variable is no longer in scope, there should be no access value trying to reference it. This is checked by the compiler. Under some rare circumstances, it might not be checked until run-time.

The rules can be summarized in terms of the lifetime of the access type itself. An object referenced by the 'Access attribute may not exist longer than the access type to which it applies. Also, if an object is referenced with the 'Access attribute, it must be able to exist as long as the access type. The following three examples illustrate the point.

```

procedure Accessibility_Problem_1 is -- 1
  type Integer_Reference is access all Integer; -- 2 General access type in scope
  Reference : Integer_Reference; -- 3 Access value in immediate scope
  Data : aliased Integer; -- 4 Data at the same accessibility level
begin -- 5
  Reference := Data'Access; -- 6 OK because types and declarations

```

This example will work just fine. No data will be left dangling when the scope is exited. Lifetime of all entities is the same.

```

end Accessibility_Problem_1;                                -- 7 are at the same accessibility level

procedure Accessibility_Problem_2 is                      -- 1
  type Integer_Reference is access all Integer;          -- 2 General access type
  Reference : Integer_Reference;                           -- 3 Access value
begin                                                     -- 4
  declare                                                 -- 5
    Data : aliased Integer;                               -- 6 An aliased integer value
  begin                                                  -- 7
    Reference := Data'Access;                             -- 8 Will not compile; at wrong level of
  end;                                                  -- 9 accessibility for corresponding types.
end Accessibility_Problem_2;                             -- 10

procedure Accessibility_Problem_3 is                      -- 1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
  type Integer_Reference is access all Integer;          -- 2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
begin                                                     -- 3 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
  declare                                                 -- 4 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
    Reference : Integer_Reference;                         -- 5 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
    Data : aliased Integer;                               -- 6 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
  begin                                                  -- 7 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
    Reference := Data'Access;                             -- 8 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
  end;                                                  -- 9 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
end Accessibility_Problem_3;                             -- 10 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

```

This will not compile. When the program exits the declare block, an outer pointer named Reference would still be pointing to data that no longer existed. This is not simply a dangling reference. It is a reference to data that is no longer valid. The Ada compiler will not let you do this.

This will not compile. You might think that putting the actual pointer in the same local scope as the data being reference would work. The rule is that access value named Reference must exist at least as long as the type

## 5.4 Access to Subprogram Types

A problem with Ada 83/87 was the absence of pointers to subprograms. The current Ada standard corrects this. The rules for formation of such an access type are rather simple. The rules for visibility and accessibility of access to subprogram types are often difficult to manage in one's design.

### 5.4.1 Declaring an Access to Subprogram Type

- The type must have a parameter list corresponding to the subprogram being accessed
- The return type of a function access type must match that of the function being accessed
- Variables of the type may access any subprogram with a conforming profile

Examples:

```

type Action is access procedure(Data : in out Integer);
type Channel is access procedure(M : in out Message; L : out Natural);

type Condition_Stub is access function (Expression : Boolean) return Boolean;
type Compute is access function (L, R : Float) return Float;

```

*The signature (parameter profile) of each subprogram access type must exactly match any subprogram being accessed.*

### 5.4.2 Using an access to Subprogram Type

#### 4.4.2.1 A Procedure Example

The following example demonstrates how to create an array of procedures. This is often useful when you have multiple procedures with the same profile but different behaviors. In this example we have kept the behavior simple to avoid confusion. The astute reader will immediately see the possibilities.

```

with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                                -- 1 ALRM Annex A
with Ada.Text_IO;                                       -- 2 ALRM Annex A
use Ada;                                                -- 3 Makes Ada directly visible
procedure Alternative_Actions is                         -- 4 Name of enclosing procedure

```

```

type Action is access procedure (Data : in out Integer);           -- 5 Access to subprogram definition
procedure Process (D : in out Integer) is                         -- 6 Procedure with correct profile
begin                                                             -- 7
    D := D + D;                                                    -- 8 Details; procedure behavior
end Process;                                                    -- 9 end of scope of procedure
type Process_Set is array(1..10) of Action;                       -- 10 Array type of access types
    Index : Positive range 1..10;                                -- 11 Used for array index later
    Value : Integer := 0;                                         -- 12 Used for actual parameter
    The_Process : Process_Set := (others => Process'Access);     -- 13 access object array with aggregate
begin                                                           -- 14
    loop                                                         -- 15
        Text_IO.Put("Enter Index(1..10): ");                      -- 16
        Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);                               -- 17
        exit when Index not in 1..10;                            -- 18 membership test for exit
        Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 19
        Text_IO.Put("Enter Integer Value: ");                     -- 20
        Integer_Text_IO.Get(Value);                               -- 21
        The_Process(Index)(Data => Value);                        -- 22 Named association clarifies
        Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 23
        Text_IO.Put("The result for Index " & Positive'Image(Index) -- 24
                    & "is" & Integer'Image(Value));              -- 25
    end loop;                                                  -- 26
end Alternative_Actions;                                       -- 27

```

#### 4.4.2.2 A function Example

The following function example has behavior similar to the previous example. It has been altered a little bit to illustrate some additional capabilities.

```

with Ada.Text_IO; use Ada;                                       -- 1
procedure Function_Access_Type is                                 -- 3
    type Real is digits 12;                                         -- 4 Define a floating point type
    package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO(Num => Real);               -- 5 Instantiate IO package
    function Method (D : in Real) return Real is                   -- 6 function w/correct profile
    begin                                                           -- 7
        return D + D; -- Every function must have a return statement -- 8
    end Method;                                                    -- 9
    type Compute is access function (D : in Real) return Real;    -- 10 Corresponding access type
    Result, Value : Real := 0.0;                                    -- 11
    procedure Process (Behavior : Compute; Input : in Real;       -- 12 Note first parameter type
                      Output : out Real) is                       -- 13
    begin                                                           -- 14
        Output := Behavior(Input);                                 -- 15 Reference to a function
    end Process;                                                  -- 16
begin                                                           -- 17
    loop                                                         -- 18
        Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 19
        Text_IO.Put("Enter Real Value (0 to exit): ");            -- 20
        FIO.Get(Value);                                           -- 21
        exit when Value = 0.0;                                    -- 22
        Process(Behavior => Method'Access, Input => Value, Output => Result); -- 23 Key statement in example
        Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 24
        Text_IO.Put_Line("The result is ");                       -- 25
        FIO.Put(Result, Fore => 4, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);            -- 26
        Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 27
    end loop;                                                  -- 28
end Function_Access_Type;                                       -- 29

```

#### 4.4.2.2 A Package Example

Many newcomers to Ada find the accessibility rules frustrating when trying to implement access to subprogram solutions across packages. The accessibility rule remains the same, but one must design a bit more carefully to ensure that access types are at the same level (have the same lifetime) as their access objects and vice versa. Here is an example of how to make that work.

We have a package specification in which we declare a set of access types.

```

package Reference_Types is -- 1
  type Int_32 is range -2**31..2**31 - 1; -- 2
  for Int_32'Size use 32; -- 3
  type Data_Set is array (Natural range <>) of Int_32; -- 4
  type Data_Set_Reference is access all Data_Set; -- 5
  type Validate_Routine is access function(Data : Int_32) -- 6
    return Boolean; -- 7
  type Process_Method is access Procedure(Data : Int_32); -- 8
  procedure Process (Data : in out Data_Set; -- 9
    Method : Process_Method); -- 10
  function Validate (Data : access Data_Set; -- 11
    Validator : Validate_Routine) -- 12
    return Boolean; -- 13
  function Validate (Data : in Data_Set; -- 14
    Validator : Validate_Routine) -- 15
    return Boolean; -- 16
end Reference_Types; -- 17

```

We have a few new ideas in this package. On line 2 we define an signed integer type with a range that can be represented in thirty-two bits. On line 3 we force the representation to thirty-two bits using the 'Size clause. See the Annex K attributes for the definition of this clause. On lines 6 through 8 we declare some access to subprogram types. These are used as parameters in lines 9 through 16. The following package contains some declarations for functions that will be used in our final example. It is dependent on package Reference\_Types.

```

with Reference_Types; -- 1
package Reference_Functions is -- 2
  function My_Process -- 3
    return Reference_Types.Process_Method; -- 4
  function My_Validator -- 5
    return Reference_Types.Validate_Routine; -- 6
end Reference_Functions; -- 7

```

Implementation for both packages will be presented a little later. Here is a little test procedure.

```

with Reference_Types; -- 1
with Reference_Functions; -- 2
with Ada.Text_IO; -- 3
procedure Test_Reference_Types is -- 4
  Test_Data : Reference_Types.Int_32 := 42; -- 5
  package Int_32_IO is new Ada.Text_IO. -- 6
    Integer_IO(Num => Reference_Types.Int_32); -- 7
  Test_Data_Set : Reference_Types.Data_Set(0..20) -- 8
    := (others => Test_Data); -- 9
begin -- 10
  Reference_Types.Process -- 11
    (Data => Test_Data_Set, -- 12
     Method => Reference_Functions.My_Process); -- 14
end Test_Reference_Types; -- 15

```

Line 6 simply demonstrates an instantiation of an I/O package for the Int\_32 type. Line 11 calls the procedure, Process from Reference\_Types and gives it an actual parameter of My\_Process from the package containing the Reference\_Functions. So far, everything is at the same level of accessibility.

Here are the package bodies for Reference\_Types and Reference\_Functions.

```

package body Reference_Types is
  procedure Process (Data : in out Data_Set;
                    Method : in Process_Method) is
  begin
    for I in Data'Range
      loop
        Method(Data(I));
      end loop;
  end Process;
  function Validate (Data : access Data_Set;
                    Validator : Validate_Routine)
                    return Boolean is
  begin
    return Validate(Data.all, Validator);
  end Validate;

  function Validate (Data : in Data_Set;
                    Validator : Validate_Routine)
                    return Boolean is
    Without_Error : Boolean := True;
  begin
    for I in Data'Range
      loop
        Without_Error := Validator(Data => Data(I));
        exit when not Without_Error;
      end loop;
    return Without_Error;
  end Validate;
end Reference_Types;

package body Reference_Functions is
  procedure My_Process (Data : Reference_Types.Int_32) is
  begin
    null;
  end My_Process;
  function My_Validator (Data : Reference_Types.Int_32) return Boolean is
  begin
    return True;
  end My_Validator;
  function My_Process return Reference_Types.Process_Method is
    Test_Process : Reference_Types.Process_Method := My_Process'Access;
  begin
    return Test_Process;
  end My_Process;
  function My_Validator return Reference_Types.Validate_Routine is
    Test_Validation : Reference_Types.Validate_Routine
      := My_Validator'Access;
  begin
    return Test_Validation;
  end My_Validator;
end Reference_Functions;

```

Study these to determine where the 'Access attribute is applied. Note how this can actually work and still prevent the dangling references. Accessibility rules are there to keep you from making wierd errors.

## 6. Subprograms procedures and functions

Subprograms are either functions or procedures. A subprogram may have parameters or not. Subprogram parameters were introduced in an earlier section. The algorithmic code in your program will almost always be contained within some kind of subprogram (or a task). A subprogram may have locally declared variables, locally declared types, and locally nested subprograms or packages.

### 6.1 Procedures

#### 6.1.1 Procedure Format and Syntax

A procedure in Ada may be used to implement a wide variety of algorithms. As shown earlier, a procedure has a rich set of parameter types, including an *out* mode parameter. The format of a procedure body is,

```

procedure Ahoy_There is                                -- 1 Procedure declaration;           6.3
  -- procedure declarations                               -- 2 Local to this procedure
begin                                                    -- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  -- handled sequence of statements                     -- 4 Dot notation makes Put_Line visible   A.10.6
exception                                               -- 5 An optional exception handler for the procedure
  -- a sequence of statements handling the exception    -- 6 Any handling statements legal
end Ahoy_There ;                                       -- 4 Scope terminator with name of unit   6.3

```

#### 6.1.2 Procedure Compilation Units

Not the four parts to the procedure. This is sometimes called the "Ada comb." You may compile a procedure specification as a source file separately from implementation.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                                     -- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope;   10.1.2, A.10
procedure Simple_2;                                   -- 2 Specification for a procedure may be compiled 6.3

```

with the implementation coded and compiled later. For `Simple_2` we have,

```

procedure Simple_2 is                                 -- 1 Parameterless declaration; 6.3
begin                                                  -- 2 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line("Hello Ada");                  -- 3 Dot notation makes Put_Line visible   A.10.6
end Simple_2 ;                                       -- 4 Scope terminator with name of unit   6.3

```

You could have a version of this which executes the `Put_Line` some given number of times using a `for` loop. A `for` loop includes an index value declared locally to the loop and a range of values for the index. The loop will then iterate the number of times indicated by the index range. For example,

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                                     -- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope;   10.1.2, A.10
procedure Simple_2 is                                 -- 2 Parameterless declaration; 6.3
begin                                                  -- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  for Index in 1..10 loop                               -- 4 Specification of a for loop
    Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line("Hello Ada");                 -- 5 Dot notation makes Put_Line visible   A.10.6
  end loop;                                             -- 6 End of loop scope. End of loop index scope
end Simple_2 ;                                       -- 7 Scope terminator with name of unit   6.3

```

A variation on the previous program uses some local declarations, a function with a parameter and a simple call from the main part of the procedure.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                                     -- 1 Put Ada.Text_IO Library Unit in scope
procedure Simple_2 is                                 -- 2 Declaration for parameterless procedure
  function Is_Valid (S : String)                       -- 3 Declaration for a function with a parameter

```



```

    return Boolean is          -- 4 Specify the type of the return value
    ...                       -- 5 three dots is not legal Ada
    end Is_Valid;             -- 6 End of function scope
    Text : String (1..80);    -- 7 Declare a String variable with constraint
    Len : Natural;           -- 8 Uninitialized variable
begin                         -- 9 Begin handled-sequence-of-statments
    Ada.Text_IO.Get_Line(Text, Len); -- 10 Call to Get_Line procedure with two parameters
    if Is_Valid(Text(1..Len)) then -- 11 Call the function with string parameter
        Text_IO.Put_Line(Text(1..Len)); -- 12 Put string w/carriage return and line feed
    end if;                   -- 13 Ends scope of if statement
end Simple_2 ;                -- 14 Ends scope of Simple_2

```

### 6.1.3 A Simple Main Procedure

A main procedure is not required in Ada 95. However, most of your programs will have one. Here is an example of such a procedure.

```

with Application; -- See the previous exzample for this package
procedure Main is
    The_Application : Application.Application_Type;
begin -- Main
    Restart_Iterator:
    loop
        Application_Control:
        begin -- Application_Control
            Application.Start(Data => The_Application);
            Application.Stop(Data => The_Application);
            exit Restart_Iterator;
        exception
            when others =>
                Application.Cleanup(Data => The_Application);
                Application.Restart (Data => The_Application);
        end Application_Control;
    end loop Restart_Iterator;
    Application.Finalization (Data => The_Application);
end Main;

```

-- 1 Put package Application in scope; 10.1.2,  
-- 2 Parameterless declaration; 6.3  
-- 3 Some kind of type for the application  
-- 4 Begins Main subprogram; 6.3  
-- 5 We want a non-stop system so we  
-- 6 create a restart iterator as a loop.  
-- 7 Label the Application control block  
-- 8 No harm in commenting every begin  
-- 9 Start the application code  
-- 10 Stop the application code  
-- 11 If all goes well, exit the loop here.  
-- 12 If there is an exception anywhere, do this.  
-- 13 Others captures any kind of exception  
-- 14 Start the cleanup before Restarting  
-- 15 Now restart the application  
-- 16 Block label required because it is labeled  
-- 17 Loop label required because it is labeled  
-- 18 The finalization routines for application  
-- 19 Scope terminator with unit name 6.3

### 6.1.4 Procedure Parameters

Any procedure or function may have parameters. The following example is a variation on the Diamond procedure and demonstrates the use of named association in calling formal parameters. The syntax for named association is *(formal-parameter-name => actual-parameter-name)*. This example was originally designed and programmed by a young US Marine Corps Lance Corporal who, at the time, had a high-school education. Notice that he used his knowledge of elementary algebra to write this program with only one loop and simply called the inner procedure by changing the algebraic signs of the actual parameters. While one can easily find ways to improve on this code, it demonstrates how this young Marine thought about the problem before coding it.

```

-- =====
-- diamond.ada
-- Solution to Diamond Problem by LCPL Mathiowetz, USMC
-- Camp Kinser, Okinawa. June 1993. AdaWorks Intro to Ada Class
-- =====
with ada.text_io; use Ada; -- Makes all of package Ada visible
procedure Diamond is
    package TIO renames Text_IO;
    subtype Column is TIO.Positive_Count;
    Center : constant := 37;

```

-- 1 These first five lines illustrate a useful  
-- 2 technique for documenting Ada source  
-- 3 code unit. The author of this solution  
-- 4 was a USMC Lance Corporal with a  
-- 5 High School education. Very bright man.  
-- 6 Only Text\_IO is required for this program  
-- 7 Specification with no parameters  
-- 8 A shortened name for Text\_IO  
-- 9 Subtype may be used with its parent type  
-- 10 A named constant

```

Left_Temp, Right_Temp : Integer := Center;           -- 11 Temporary values, initialized
Plus_2  : constant := 2;                             -- 12 Positive constant value
Minus_2 : constant := -2;                             -- 13 Negative constant value
procedure Draw (Left, Right, Depth : in Integer) is   -- 14 Nested procedure with parameter list
  Symbol : String(1..1) := "X";                       -- 15 The character we will print
  Left_Col, Right_Col : Column;                       -- 16 These are probably extraneous
begin                                                 -- 17 We are in a nested procedure
  for Index in 1..Depth loop                          -- 18 Index declared here; type is range type
    if Left_Temp = Center then                          -- 19 Is it time to Put the center character?
      TIO.Set_Col(Center);                               -- 20 Using renamed Text_IO.Count
      TIO.Put(Symbol);                                  -- 21
    else                                               -- 22
      Left_Col := Column(Left_Temp);                   -- 23 Extraneous assignment on these two lines;
      Right_Col := Column(Right_Temp);                 -- 24 we could do type conversion in Set_Col
      TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col);                           -- 25 TIO.Set_Col(Column(Right_Temp))
      TIO.Put(Symbol);                                  -- 26 might be better coding on line 25 and 27
      TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col);                           -- 27
      TIO.Put(Symbol);                                  -- 28
    end if;                                           -- 29
    TIO.New_Line;                                       -- 30
    Left_Temp := Left_Temp + Left;                     -- 31 Arithmetic on Temporary values using
    Right_Temp := Right_Temp + Right;                  -- 32 algebraic addition on negative parameter
  end loop;                                           -- 33
end Draw;                                           -- 34 End of nested procedure
begin -- Diamond                                     -- 35 Always comment this kind of thing
  Draw (Left => Minus_2, Right => Plus_2, Depth => 9);  -- 36 Use named association for these calls.
  Draw (Left => Plus_2, Right => Minus_2, Depth => 10); -- 37 Reverse the signs to get a different shape
end Diamond;                                         -- 38 End of unit with named unit at end

```

Sometimes we want a variable to enter the procedure with one value and exit with a new value. Here is a simple procedure which uses **in out** parameter mode. Although this example is trivially simple, it can be extended to a large range of other data types where one must alter that state of an object in some carefully controlled way.

```

procedure Update (Data : in out Integer) is           -- 1 in out allowed on either side of :=
begin                                                 -- 2 start algorithmic part of procedure
  Data := Data + 1;                                    -- 3 In with one value; out with a new value
end Update;                                           -- 4 end of unit with unit name

```

Other times, it is useful to get a variable with an in value and return some other value within a procedure parameter list. This is not always a good design model since it leads us to combine two ideas, modifier and query, into a single operation. Many OOP practitioners suggest that modifiers and queries should be kept separate. This example shows an update operation on an AVL Tree in which the procedure returns a Boolean to indicate whether the tree is now in balance.

```

procedure Balance (The_Tree : in out AVL_Tree; Balanced : out Boolean) is -- 1 Dynamically, self-balancing tree
begin                                                 -- 2 built on access types for flexibility.
  -- long, complex, dynamically self-balancing algorithm -- 3 node rotations: LL, LR, RR, RL
  Balanced := -- a boolean result from the balancing algorithm -- 4 Must be checked by caller
end Balance;                                         -- 5

```

The problem with the above example is that, any subprogram making the call, must also be sure to check the Boolean result. If the *Balanced* parameter is not evaluated, the Boolean out parameter is of no value.

```

procedure Insert (Tree : in out AVL_Tree; Value : in Item) is -- 1 From collection of AVL_Tree methods
  OK_To_Proceed : Boolean := False;                  -- 2 Should be initialized
begin -- Insert                                     -- 3 Good practice to comment a begin
  -- algorithm to insert a node in the tree          -- 4 Pre-order, in-order, post-order?
  Balance(The_Tree => Tree, Balanced => OK_To_Proceed); -- 5 Named association call
  if OK_To_Proceed then                               -- 6 If you fail to do this check, you are
    -- some additional source code here              -- 7 Making use of the out parameter of
  end if;                                             -- 8 type Boolean.
end Insert;                                         -- 9 If name is supplied, compiler checks.

```

Some Ada practitioners believe it is better to raise an exception in a function than to return a Boolean out parameter in a procedure. Their rationale for this is that an exception cannot be ignored, but an out parameter, is easy to overlook or ignore or both.

## 6.2 Functions

A function must return a result of the type indicated in its profile. The compiler will check for this and not permit any errors. A function may be called as part of an assignment statement or as an argument returning a type within another function or procedure call. Ada also allows pointers (access types) to reference functions.

### 6.2.2 Function Format and Design

The Is\_Valid function from a previous section might be coded to look like this,

```

function Is_Valid (S : String)
                                return Boolean is
  Result : Boolean := True;
begin
  for I in S'Range loop
    case S(I) is
      when 'a'..'z' | 'A'..'Z' =>
        null;
      when others =>
        Result := False;
        exit;
    end case;
  end loop;
  return Result;
end Is_Valid;

```

-- 1 Default mode is in for type String  
 -- 2 Boolean defined in package Standard  
 -- 3 Return type named Result as local variable  
 -- 4 Begin the handled-sequence of statements  
 -- 5 I takes the index type of String: Positive  
 -- 6 Examine a single character from the String  
 -- 7 Check both upper and lower case  
 -- 8 No break statement is required  
 -- 9 others required if not all options are covered  
 -- 10 Simple assignment of Boolean value  
 -- 11 exit leaves the loop. all indices are reset  
 -- 12 Every control structure requires terminator  
 -- 13 Ends the scope of the loop including, I  
 -- 14 Compiler requires a return statement  
 -- 15 Scope terminator for the function. Required.

### 6.2.2 Function Examples

The next program is an example of an Ada function. This function simply evaluates the greater of two values in a parameter list and returns it. Every function must have at least one return statement.

```

function Largest (L, R : Integer) return Integer is
begin
  if L > R then
    return L;
  else
    return R;
  end if;
end Largest;

```

-- 1 Parameterized function declaration; 6.3  
 -- 2 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3  
 -- 3 Compare L to R  
 -- 4 function must return a value of return type 6.3  
 -- 5 If the comparison is false 5.3  
 -- 6 Another return; would a single return be better?  
 -- 7 Every if must have a corresponding end if. 5.3  
 -- 8 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

To call this function you will use an assignment statement.

```

with Largest;
procedure Hrothgar (Y, Z : in Integer; X : out Integer) is
begin
  X := Largest(L => Y, R => Z);
end Hrothgar;

```

-- 1 with is permitted for library unit function  
 -- 2 Note the modes of the parameter list  
 -- 3  
 -- 4 Named Association syntax 6.3  
 -- 5 As usual, include the name with the end statement

Line 4 shows *named association* syntax. In this case, L and R name the formal parameters. Y and Z name the actual parameters. The arrow, in the form of =>, associate the actual parameter with the formal. This is a powerful feature, unique to Ada, that makes source code more readable and more maintainable.

Suppose we have a record type called Stack. It contains two components. Every `type ... is record` declaration must contain an `end record` statement. In the Stack record, shown below, there is also a component of an array type. This is a constrained array of type Stack\_Data.

```

type Stack_Data is array(1..1000) of Integer;           -- 1 Constrained array type definition for Integers
type Stack is record                                     -- 2 Record type format
  Data : Stack_Data;                                     -- 3 Array component within a record
  Top  : Natural := 0;                                   -- 4 Natural data type; note the initialization
end record;                                           -- 5 Every record structure requires an end record

```

Here is a function that returns a boolean value for a record type, Stack, that contains a component, Top

```

function Is_Empty (S : Stack) return Boolean is         -- 1 Parameterized function declaration; 6.3
  Result : Boolean := False;                             -- 2 A locally declared result variable
begin                                                    -- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  if S.Top = 0 then -- Equality test                    -- 4 Syntax for an if statement; then is required
    Result := True;                                     -- 5 Assignment statement based on true path
  else                                                  -- 6 An else takes the false path
    Result := False;                                    -- 7 Another assignment
  end if;                                              -- 8 An if requires an end if; checked by compiler
  return Result;                                       -- 9 A function must contain at least one return
end Is_Empty;                                         -- 10 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

```

Would it be better to have coded the Is\_Empty function as,

```

function Is_Empty (S : Stack) return Boolean is         -- 1 Parameterized function declaration; 6.3
begin                                                    -- 2 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  return S.Top = 0;                                     -- 3 Compare S.Top to Zero True or False
end Is_Empty;                                         -- 4 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

```

Function parameters are only allowed to be **in** or **access** mode. The default mode is always **in**. An **in** parameter is the equivalent of a **constant** to the function. That is, you can never assign a value to an **in** mode parameter value. For an enumerated type, Month, where you want to cycle through the months, returning to January when you reach December. Consider,

```

type Month is (January, February, March, April, June, July, August, September, October, November, December);

```

```

function Next (Value : Month) return Month is         -- 1 Declare a parameterized function
begin                                                    -- 2 No other declarations
  if Value = Month'Last then                             -- 3 Month'Last is December
    return Month'First;                                    -- 4 Month'First is January
  else                                                    -- 5 The usual behavior of else
    return Month'Succ(Value);                             -- 6 Month'Succ(June) is July
  end if;                                                -- 7 End Scope of if statement
end Next;                                               -- 8 End scope of function

```

Consider another type, Vector, defined as an unconstrained array:

```

type Vector is array (Positive range <>) of Float; -- An unconstrained array; must be constrained when used

```

with an exception defined in a visible package specification as:

```

Range_Imbalance : exception; -- An exception declaration, visible somewhere in the design
-- Note: an exception is not a data type

function "+" (L, R : Vector) return Vector is         -- 1 Overloading an infix operator
  Result : Vector (L'Range) := (others => 0.0);         -- 2 Constrain and initialize the result array
begin                                                  -- 3
  if L'Length /= R'Length then                         -- 4 Ensure R and L are of the same length
    raise Range_Imbalance;                               -- 5 Raise user-defined exception shown above.

```

```

end if;
for Index in L'Range
  loop
    Result (Index) := L(Index) + R(Index);
  end loop;
return Result;
end "+";

```

-- 6 We never reach this point if exception is raised  
-- 7 The 'Range attribute generalizes the Index  
-- 8 Index only lives the scope of the loop  
-- 9 Index is a constant in the loop  
-- 10 The end of scope for the loop  
-- 11 No exception handler. The exception is propagated  
-- 12 to the calling subprogram. Looks for handler.

If the exception is not handled locally, the RTE will unwind through the calling stack searching for a handler. If none is found, the program will *crash and burn*. You might want to have a function with an access parameter. This has potential side effects. Consider the following record definition,

```

type Data is record
  Value : Integer := 0;
  Description : String(1..20);
end record;
type Ref is access all Data;

```

-- 1 Define a record type with a name  
-- 2 Initialize the values when possible  
-- 3 Probably should be initialized  
-- 4 Scope terminator for the record data  
-- 5 Define a pointer to the record

You could have a function,,

```

function Is_Zero (The_Data : access Data) return Boolean is
begin
  return The_Data.Value = 0;
end Is_Zero;

```

-- 1 Note access parameter  
-- 2 Of course, by now you know this  
-- 3 Return result of equality test  
-- 4 Scope terminator for the function

It is not possible to do the following,

```

function Fix_It_A (The_Data : access Data) return Ref is
  Fix_It_Data : Ref := new Data'(some initial values);
begin
  The_Data := Fix_It_Data; -- illegal, illegal, illegal
  return The_Data;
end Fix_It_A;

```

-- 1 Access parameter and access result  
-- 2 Declare some initialized access object  
-- 3 Of course, by now you know this  
-- 4 No assignment allowed to parameter value  
-- 5 Will never get to this; will not compile  
-- 6 Scope terminator for the function

but is permitted to do this, unfortunately,

```

function Fix_It_B (The_Data : access Data) return Ref is
  Fix_It_Data : Integer := 25;
begin
  The_Data.Value := Fix_It_Data;
  return The_Data;
end Fix_It_B;

```

-- 1 Access parameter and access result  
-- 2 Declare initialized Integer object  
-- 3  
-- 4 Assignment allowed to component  
-- 5 Yes. Returns updated value for The\_Data  
-- 6 Always include the name of the function

This is one of Ada's weaknesses vis a vis C++. In C++ we can declare a function as *const* or a parameter as *const*. This will probably be fixed in the next Ada ISO standard so the access parameter can be **constant**.

One of the useful algorithmic capabilities of modern programming languages is **recursion**. For a recursive solution, the subprogram must include a way to terminate before it runs out of memory. The following academic example for a recursive function, is seldom a practical in real programming applications.

```

function Factorial (N : Natural )
  return Positive is
begin
  if N <= 1 then
    return 1;
  else
    return N * Factorial (N - 1);
  end if;
end Factorial;

```

-- 1  
-- 2 Must have a return type  
-- 3 Start of algorithmic part  
-- 4 Less than or equal to ...  
-- 5 Lowest positive value  
-- 6 Alternative path  
-- 7 The recursive call; function calls itself  
-- 8 Terminate if statement  
-- 9 Scope of the recursive function

Many sort routines, tree searching routines, and other algorithms use recursion. It is possible to do this in Ada because every subprogram call is re-entrant. Each internal call of itself puts a result in a *stack frame*. When the algorithm reaches a stopping point, based on the if statement, it unwinds itself from the stack frame entries with a final result of the computation. The following program will work to test the Factorial program,

```

with Factorial;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
with Ada.Text_IO;
use Ada;
procedure Test_Factorial is
  Data : Natural := 0;
begin
  Text_IO.Put("Enter Positive Integer: ");
  Integer_Text_IO.Get(Data);
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Factorial(Data));
end Test_Factorial;
-- 1 Yes, you may with a subprogram
-- 2 I/O for Standard Integer
-- 3 Character and String I/O
-- 4 Make Ada visible; not a problem
-- 5 Specification with "is"
-- 6 In scope up to end of procedure
-- 7 You know what this means by now
-- 8 Display a prompt on the screen
-- 9 Get an integer from the keyboard
-- 10 Display an integer on the screen
-- 11 End of declarative region for procedure

```

Note: Although this is the usual example given in textbooks to illustrate recursion, it is not always the best way to accomplish factorial computation.

It is important to understand that recursion can result in a `Storage_Error` (see package `Standard`). Also, intelligent use of Ada's visibility rules can often prevent accidental, infinite recursion.

A function can be compiled by itself in the library. Even more interesting is that a function specification can be compiled into the library by itself. When the specification is compiled it must be completed later with an implementation. This is identical to the procedure example, `Simple_2`, in 6.1.2 above.

### 6.3 Subprograms in A Package

An Ada package specification may group a set of subprogram declarations. No implementation code is permitted in the specification. The implementation will be in the package body. This is more fully covered in Chapter 7, below. Here is a simple package specification with a corresponding body. First the specification:

```

package Kia_Ora is
  procedure Kia_Menemene;
  function Menemene return Boolean;
end Kia_Ora;
-- 1 Hello in Maori, early language of New Zealand
-- 2 Be happy, in Maori
-- 3 Are you happy?
-- 4 end of package specification

```

Then a package body highlighting separate compilation:

```

package body Kia_Ora is
  procedure Kia_Menemene is separate;
  function Menemene return Boolean is separate;
end Kia_Ora;
-- 1 Now includes the word, body
-- 2 Defer actual implementation for the subprograms
-- 3 to separate compilation units.
-- 4

```

The separately compiled procedure could be coded:

```

separate (Kia_Ora)
procedure Kia_Menemene is
begin
  -- some implementation code here
end Kia_Menemene;
-- 1 Note absence of semicolon
-- 2 Makes maintenance much easier in small chunks
-- 3
-- 4 Any standard Ada algorithmic code here

```

## 7. Package Design

At the beginning of this book, we showed an example of an Ada package. Most Ada programs are designed with packages. In fact, a single program is usually composed of many packages. A *package is a module* for collecting related information and services. It can be thought of as a *contract* for services. The user of that contract may be thought of as a *client*. In this sense, a client may ask for the services to be available but may not want to use all of those services. Ada allows a client to ask for only those services needed, even though all of them might be available.

The services are in the form of type definitions, data declarations, and subprograms. A well-designed package will rarely have data declarations as part of the contract. Instead, references to data should be through a call to some subprogram.

### 7.1 A Simple Package

We revisit the specification for Messenger.

<pre> package Messenger is   type Message is private;   function Null_Message return Message;   function Create (S : String) return Message;   function Get return Message;   procedure Put (M : in out Message);   procedure Clear (M : in out Message);   function Text (M : Message) return String;   function Length (M : Message) return Natural; private   type Message is record     Data : String(1..200) := (others =&gt; '');     Len : Natural := 0;   end record; end Messenger; </pre>	<pre> -- 1 An Ada Module -- 2 A partial definition of message -- 3 Gives a null message -- 4 Make a message from a String -- 5 Get message from keyboard -- 6 Put Message to Screen -- 7 Set message to null message -- 8 The string portion of message -- 9 How many of characters -- 10 Begin private part of package -- 11 Full definition of message -- 12 Message content; initialized -- 13 Message size; initialized -- 14 End of message definition -- 15 End of the specification </pre>	
---	---	--

Notice there is no algorithmic code in a package specification. Ada lets you declare all the subprograms in the specification. The implementation is in another compilation unit called the package body but the specification and body are both part of the same library unit. The specification is a contract with a client. It tells what it will do, not how it will be done. Ada forbids algorithmic code in the specification part.

A client of package Messenger is only able to see lines 1 through 9 of the specification. The rest (lines 10 through 14) is only in the specification to satisfy the requirements of the Ada compiler. We call lines 1 through 9 the public part of the specification and lines 10 through 14, the private part.

The package Messenger exports some services as subprograms (procedures and functions). The algorithmic (procedural) part of these subprograms must be coded someplace. Ada does not allow algorithmic in the package specification, so algorithms must be coded in the package body. Because there are subprograms in the specification, the compiler knows this package will require a body. That is, any package specification that includes a function or procedure specification will also require a package body. Also, the compiler will require the package specification be compiled before the package body. Yes, the compiler actually checks for this.

## 7.2 Package Body

Not every package needs a package body. In practice, only packages that export subprograms need a body. Now and then a package may require a body even if it does not export a subprogram. This would be the exception rather than the rule.

Here is a package body for Messenger.

```

package body Messenger is
  function Create (S : String) return Message is
  begin
    -- algorithm to create object of type Message
    -- must have at least one return statement
  end Create;
  function Get return Message is
  begin
    -- algorithm to Get a message from some container or input device
    -- must have at least one return statement
  end Create;
  procedure Put (M : in out Message) is
  begin
    -- algorithm
  end Put;
  procedure Clear (M : in out Message) is
  begin
    -- algorithm to clear the Message
  end Clear;
  function Text (M : Message) return String is
  begin
    -- algorithm, if necessary
    -- must have at least one return statement
  end Text;
  function Length (M : Message) return Natural is
  begin
    -- algorithm to get length of Message Text
    -- must have at least one return statement
  end Length;
end Messenger;

```

An acceptable variation on this body would be to code each subprogram with the reserved word *separate*. For example,

```

procedure Put
  (M : in out Message) is separate;

```

This would cause a stub for a subunit to be created in the library for the completed code corresponding to procedure Put. This technique is useful when one wants to divide the implementation of a package over a team of several people, or preserve the confidentiality of a particular piece of source code.

A Client of package Messenger never has visibility to any part of the package body. We say that the implementation (always in a package body) is *encapsulated*.

## 7.3 More Simple Package Examples

### 7.3.1 Monetary Conversion Package

Here is another simple package specification. An implementation would convert currencies.

```

package Conversions is
  type Money is digits 12 delta 0.0001;
  type Yen is new Money;
  type Dollars is new Money;
  function Convert (Y : Yen; Rate : Money) return Dollars;
  function Convert (D : Dollars; Rate : Money) return Yen;
  Conversion_Error : exception;
end Conversions;

package body Conversions is
  function Convert (Y : Yen; Rate : Money) return Dollars is
  Result : Dollars := 0.0;
  begin

```



```

    return Result;           -- 5 after algorithm to do conversion
end Convert;               -- 6
function Convert (D : Dollars; Rate : Money) return Yen is
    Result : Yen := 0.0;    -- 7
begin                      -- 8 declare result of return type
    return Result;         -- 9 temporarily stub out the begin..end part
end Convert;               -- 10 after algorithm to do conversion
end Conversions;          -- 11
                          -- 12

```

The technique here is to stub out a function. Notice we must first declare a Result of the return type. Then we can code the return statement in the begin..end part. A procedure can be stubbed out with the reserved word, null. A function must have at least one return statement. This technique satisfies that requirement.

### 7.3.2 Simple Statistics Package

Here is another kind of package. This package provides a simple set of statistical services.

```

package Statistics is
    type Data is array (Positive range <>) of Float;
    function Mean (The_Data : Data) return Float;
    function Mode (The_Data : Data) return Float;
    function Max (The_Data : Data) return Float;
    function Min (The_Data : Data) return Float;
    function Variance (The_Data : Data) return Float;
    function StdDev (The_Data : Data) return Float;
end Statistics;
-- 1 Specification declaration
-- 2 An unconstrained array.
-- 3 Computes the statistical Mean
-- 4 Computes the statistical Mode
-- 5 Computes Maximum Value of array
-- 6 Computes Minimum Value of array
-- 7 Computes Statistical Variance
-- 8 Computes Standard Deviation
-- 9 Package specification requires

```

The following procedure is a client of the Statistics package.

```

with Statistics;
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;
use Ada;
procedure Compute_Statistics is
    Stat_Data : Statistics.Data(1..100);
begin
    for Index in Stat_Data'Range
    loop
        Float_Text_IO.Get(Stat_Data(Index));
    end loop;
    Float_Text_IO.Put(Statistics.Mean(Stat_Data));
    Float_Text_IO.Put(Statistics.StdDev(Stat_Data));
end Compute_Statistics;
-- 1 Put Statistics library unit in scope
-- 2 Library unit for floating point I/O
-- 3 Makes Ada visible; discussed later
-- 4 A stand-alone procedure
-- 5 An array of float; note the constraint
-- 6 Starts the algorithmic part of procedure
-- 7 Specification of a for loop; more later
-- 8 Every loop must have the word loop
-- 9 Fill the array with data using I for index
-- 10 Every loop must have an end loop
-- 11 Call Statistics.Mean and output result
-- 12 Call Statistics.StdDev and output result
-- 13 End of the procedure scope

```

The *with* statement on Line 1 puts the resources of the Statistics package in scope. The Variance function may be called by referencing, `Statistics.Variance`. Line 2 puts the language-defined library unit, `Ada.Float_Text_IO` in scope. Line 3 makes the parent of `Float_Text_IO` directly visible. Therefore, the `Get` operation of `Float_Text_IO` on Line 9 is legal. Program declarations are between the *is* on Line 4 and the *begin* on Line 6. On Line 5, the declaration is for data of the array type `Statistics.Data`. Since `Statistics.Data` is declared with no actual range in the Statistics package, the programmer must specify beginning and ending index values. Ada allows starting indexes other than zero. The defined index for an array type may even be negative values.

The expression, `Stat_Data'Range` in the loop specification, indicates that the loop will traverse the entire array, beginning with the first value through the last value. The loop index, `Index`, will start with the first value in the Range and proceed to the end. The `Get` operation on Line 9 is defined in the package `Ada.Float_Text_IO`. Because we have a *use* clause for `Ada` on Line 3, we may reference it as shown. The same is true for the `Put` operations on Lines 11 and 12. We call the `Mean` and `StdDev` functions from `Statistics`. These functions take a parameter of type `Data` and return a floating point value. This package and procedure combination should be an easy one for you to study.

## 7.4 Simple Mathematics Packages

Ada has a rich set of capabilities for numeric algorithms. One of the key packages is `Ada.Numerics`. This package has some child packages. The most important are `Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions`, `Ada.Numerics.Float_Random`, and `Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random`. It also defines, in Annex G, a model for *strict* and *relaxed* mode for floating point values.

### 7.4.1 Example without Numerics Library

You do not are not required to use the standard libraries for numerics. This mathematical example will compile.

```

with AdaText_IO;                -- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope;      10.1.2, A.10
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;        -- 2 Predefined in Annex A          A.10.9/33
procedure Pi_Symbol is        -- 3 Parameterless declaration;      6.3
  Pi : constant Float := 3.14.15; -- 4 Should have used Ada.Numerics for this
  Radius : Float := 12.0;      -- 5 Ordinary Floating point initialized
  Area : Float := 0.0;        -- 6 I prefer to initialize all variables; not require here
begin                          -- 7 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  Area := Pi * Radius ** 2;    -- 8 Possible to paste in the special character
  Ada.Float_Text_IO.Put(Area); -- 4 Dot notation makes Put visible    A.10.6
end Pi_Symbol;                -- 5 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

```

### 7.4.2 Using Numerics Library

A better approach to declaring `Pi` and using `Ada` for number crunching is to use the language-defined numerics libraries. The following program illustrates some ideas from this set of libraries.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                -- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;        -- 2 A.10.9/33
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions; -- 3 A.5.1
use Ada;                       -- 4 Gives direct visibility to all of package Ada 8.4
procedure Compute_Trigs is    -- 5 Parameterless declaration;      6.3
  package Compute is new Ada.   -- 6 A.2 A new instance with a new name
    Numerics.                  -- 7 A.5 Root package for numerics
    Generic_Elementary_Functions -- 8 A.5.1 Contains Trig and other functions
    (Float_Type => Float);     -- 9 A.1/25 for definition of type Float
  Pi : Float := Ada.Numerics.Pi; -- 10 Pi is defined in Ada.Numerics
  Radius : Float := 12.0;      -- 11 Ordinary Floating point initialized
  Area : Float := 0.0;        -- 12 I prefer to initialize all variables; not require here
  Sqrt_Result : Float := 0.0; -- 13 For our Square root computation
begin                          -- 14 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  Area := Pi * Radius ** 2;    -- 15 Compute the area of the circle
  Ada.Float_Text_IO.Put(Area); -- 16 dot notation makes Put visible    A.10.6
  Sqrt_Result := Compute.Sqrt(Area); -- 17 Note use of Compute with dot notation
end Compute_Trigs;            -- 18 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

```

### 7.4.3 Precompile Numerics Library

Sometimes it is useful to precompile a generic library package for a frequently used data type. The math library is one such package, especially if you are using the same floating point type over and over in your application. Consider,

```

package Defined_Types is
  type Real is digits 7 range -2.0 ** 32 .. 2.0 ** 32;
end Defined_Types;

```

Now you could precompile the generic elementary functions package for this type so it could be brought into scope through a simple "with" clause. For example,

```
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions;
with Defined_Types;
package Real_Functions is new Ada.Numerics.
    Generic_Elementary_Functions(Defined_Types.Real);
```

Now, you can access this package easily by "with Defined\_Types" in a context clause.

## 7.4.4 Mathematical Expressions

The following examples demonstrate the use of the generic mathematics package with calls to some of the functions in that package. Note that the default type for trigonometric functions is in Radians.

```
with Defined_Types; -- 1
with Real_Functions; -- 2
with Generic_Uilities; -- 3
procedure Test_Math_Functions is -- 4
  subtype Degree is Defined_Types.Real range 1.0..360.0; -- 5
  subtype Radian is Defined_Types.Real range 0.0..6.28; -- 6
  function To_Degrees is new Generic_Uilities.To_Degrees(Degree => Degree, Radian => Radian); -- 7
  function To_Radians is new Generic_Uilities.To_Radians(Degree => Degree, Radian => Radian); -- 8
  R1, R2, R3, R4 : Radian := 0.0; -- 9
  D1 : Degree := 90.0; -- 10
  D2 : Degree := 360.0; -- 11
begin -- 12
  R1 := To_Radians(D1); -- 13
  R2 := Real_Functions.Sin(X => R1); -- 14
  R2 := Real_Functions.Sin(X => R1, Cycle => D2); -- 15
  R2 := Real_Functions.ArcSin(X => R1, Cycle => 6400.0); -- 16
  R3 := Real_Functions.ArcCot(X => R1, Cycle => 400.0); -- 17
  R4 := Real_Functions.Cos(X => R1, Cycle => D2); -- 18
  R3 := Real_Functions.Tan(X => R1); -- 19
  D2 := To_Degrees(R2); -- 20
end Test_Math_Functions; -- 21
```

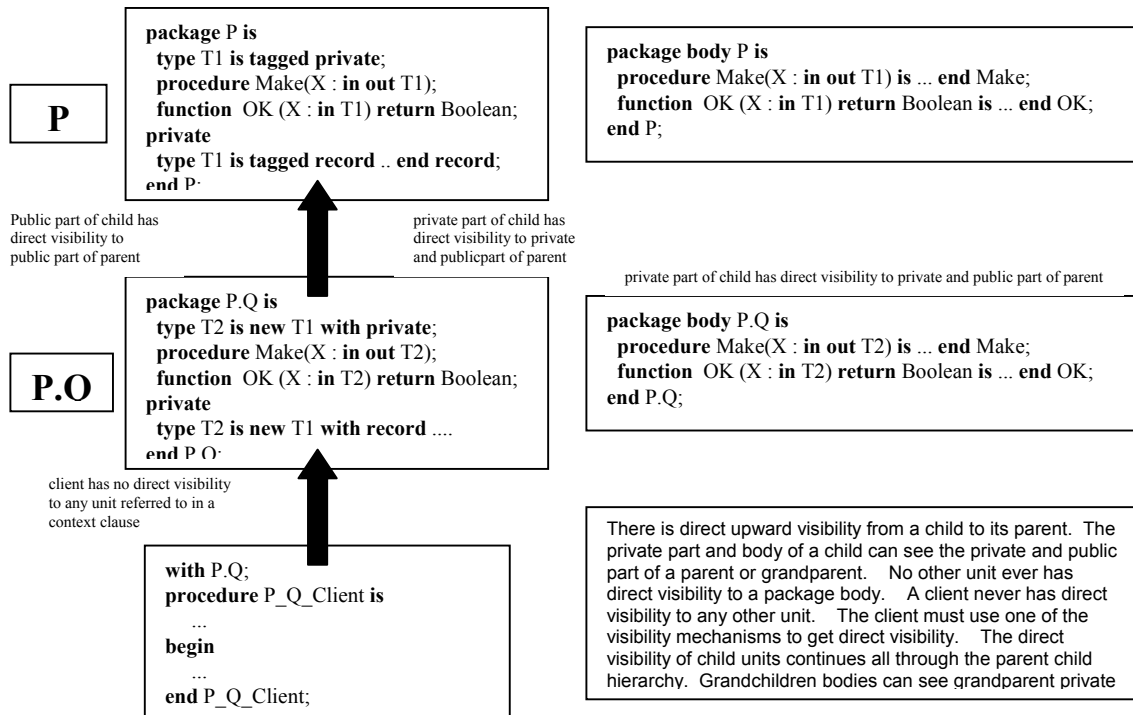
The package `Generic_Uilities` is not fully described in this book. It is fully coded in the program files that come with this book. For trigonometric functions with no cycle parameter, assume a natural cycle of  $2\pi$ , which means all calculations are done in radians. Lines 16 and 17 show that you can provide other parameter values for the cycle parameter. Line 16 has an angle in *mils*. Line 17 is in *grads*.

## 7.4.5 Annex K Attributes

There are a lot of attributes in Annex K specifically designed to enhance your ability to create flexible, easy to read mathematical expressions. If you are doing a lot of numerical work, pay particular attention to attributes: `Adjacent`, `Copy_Sign`, `Denorm`, `Exponent`, `Floor`, `Ceiling`, `Fraction`, `Compose`, `Model`, `Remainder`, `Machine_Rounds`, `Machine_Overflows`, other Machine attributes, `Rounding`, the Safe attributes, `Scaling`, `Signed_Zeros`, `Unbiased_Rounding`, `Truncation`, all of the Model attributes. This is not a complete list. The point of this paragraph is that Ada has a rich set of facilities for numerical analysis and scientific computation. Also, there are libraries of numerical functions available in public libraries.

## 8. Child Library Units

An Ada package may have a child. The child may be another package or a subprogram. A subprogram may not have a child. Most of the time, design child library units as packages so they can be extended. A child package specification is just like any other package specification.



### 8.1 Root Packages

Sometimes we want to design a root package that is the home node for a hierarchy or subsystem of other library units. A root package can vary greatly in its form. Here is one possible root package

```

package Root is
  Bad_Bad_Bad : exception;
  No_No_No : exception;
  type Number is private;
  function "+" (N : Number) return Number;
  function "-" (N : Number) return Number;
  function Set (To : Integer) return Number;
  function Integer_Is(N : Number) return Integer;
private
  type Number is range -2**31..2**31-1;
end Root;
-- 1 Declare a root package specification
-- 2 An exception declaration which will be
-- 3 visible throughout the entire hierarchy.
-- 4 A partial definition for a type
-- 5 Overloading equivalent to ++
-- 6 Overloading equivalent to i-
-- 7 Set number to a value
-- 8 Convert number to an Integer
-- 9 Begin the private part of package
-- 10 Full definition of the private type
-- 11 End of scope for package specification

```

This package illustrates a possible design for a root package. Not every root package will look like this, but we suggest it as food for thought in creating your own root library units. Here is a simple child package of the preceding Root package.

```

package Root.Application is
  type Application_Type is private;
  procedure Create (A : in out Application_Type);
  function Is_Empty(A : Application_Type) return Boolean;
  -- more operations

```

```

private
  type Application_Type is ... ; -- full definition for type
end Root.Application;

```

Earlier in this book we had a package that resembled the following,

```

package Machinery is
  type Machine is tagged private;
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class;
  function Create (Desc : String)
    return Machine'Class;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);
  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean;
private
  type Machine is abstract tagged record
    Turned_On : Boolean := False;
    Description : String(1..120);
  end record;
end Machinery;

```

*-- Package specification; requires body*  
*-- Specifies the visible part of the data type;*  
*-- Tagged type should have classwide access*  
*-- Parameter for Create*  
*-- Tagged return type should be classwide*  
*-- procedure specification*  
*-- procedure specification*  
*-- function specification*  
*-- private part hidden from a client of contract*  
*-- full definition of the publicly declared type*  
*-- component of the type; OOP attribute*  
*-- Constrained array component*  
*-- scope terminator for the component*  
*-- scope terminator for the specification*

This is a base package for designing many kinds of machines that can be turned on and off. The data type, Machine, is declared abstract. That means no instances of it are allowed. One could create some child packages for this, combining child library units and inheritance.

```

package Machinery.Classwide is
  type FIFO_Container(Size : Positive)
    is limited private;
  procedure Put(CM : in out FIFO_Container;
    Data : access Machine'Class);
  procedure Get(CM : in out FIFO_Container)
    Data : access Machine'Class);
private
  type Machine_Data is array
    (Positive range <>) of Reference;
  type FIFO_Container(Size : Positive) is
    record
      Current : Natural;
      Data : Machine_Data(1..Size);
    end record;
end Machinery.Classwide;

```

*-- Package specification; requires body*  
*-- Parameterized type; make it any size*  
*-- No assignment for limited type*  
*-- Put into the next available location*  
*-- Any member of class, Machine*  
*-- Get, destructively, first item*  
*-- Any member of Machine' class*  
*-- Start hidden part of the package*  
*-- Define an unconstrained array*  
*-- The array is pointers to Machine'Class*  
*-- Full definition of parameterized type*  
*-- In the format of a record*  
*-- What is the current item*  
*-- Pointer array to Machine derivations*  
*-- Terminate scope of the record*  
*-- scope terminator for the specification*

This classwide child package will let you put any object of type Machine'Class into a container. This is quite a handy thing to be able to do. You could have a container of different kinds of machines. This is sometimes called a heterogeneous container.

## 9. Object-Oriented Programming With Packages

One of the powerful features of Ada is its support for inheritance and dynamic binding, two of the key features of object-oriented programming. Ada accomplishes this through the type model. One type may be derived from another and inherit all the properties of the parent type. In object-oriented programming, straight inheritance is not enough. One must be able to extend the derived type with new operations and components. Ada enables this through the tagged type.

### 9.1 An Object-Oriented Type

Consider this package containing a tagged type. Every instance of a tagged type contains an internal tag. A tagged type may be extended with additional components.

```

package Machinery is
  type Machine is tagged private;
  type Reference is access all Machine^Class;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);
  function Is_On (M : Machine) return Boolean;
private
  type Machine is tagged record
    Is_On : Boolean := False;
  end record;
end Machinery;
-- 1 An Ada Module
-- 2 A tagged partial definition of machine
-- 3 A classwide access type
-- 5 Turn on the machine
-- 6 Turn off the Machine
-- 7 Is the Machine turned on?
-- 8 Begin private part of package
-- 9 Full tagged definition of message
-- 10 Machine content; initialized
-- 11 End of machine definition
-- 12 End of the package specification

```

### 9.2 A Possible Client of the Type

A client of package Messenger might be set up as,

```

with Machinery;
procedure Machinery_Processor ... end Machinery_Processor;
-- 1 A context clause
-- 2 Three dots are not legal Ada

```

The first line, with Machinery, puts the package named Machinery and all of its services in the declarative region available to Machinery\_Processor. Those services can be made visible through a use clause, a use type clause, renaming of the operations, or simple dot notation.

### 9.3 Inheritance and Extension

The Machinery package specification, with its tagged type, Machine, illustrates some important ideas in Ada. A tagged type may be extended. Therefore, one could have a client package, Rotating\_Machinery,

```

with Machinery;
package Rotating_Machinery is
  type Rotational is new Machinery.Machine with private;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Rotational);
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Rotational);
  procedure Set_Speed(M : in out Rotational; S : in Positive);
private
  type Rotational is new Machinery.Machine
    with record
      RPM : Natural := 0;
    end record;
end Rotating_Machinery;
-- 1
-- 2
-- 3 Inherits Machine methods & data
-- 4 Overrides Machinery.Turn_On
-- 5 Overrides Machinery.Turn_Off
-- 6 New primitive operation
-- 7
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10 New component in derivation
-- 11
-- 12

```

The Rotating\_Machinery package declares a data type that extends the content of the parent type. The type, Rotational now contains two components. It has the one originally included in Machine plus the one we added in the type derivation statement.

## 9.4 Dynamic Polymorphism

The operations Turn\_On, Turn\_Off, Is\_On, and Set\_Speed are called *primitive operations*. They can be called dynamically, depending on the tag of the object. The following procedure demonstrates one way to do this. Note: the actual procedure to be called cannot be determined until run-time in this example.

```

with Machinery, Rotating_Machinery;           -- 1 Context clause
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                     -- 2 Enables the input of the array index
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_1 is       -- 3 Specification for the example procedure
Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference := -- 4 Anonymous array of access objects
      (1 => new Machinery.Machine,           -- 5 Dynamically allocate new Object
       2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational); -- 6 Dynamically allocate new Object
      Index : Natural range 0..2 := 0;      -- 7 Use this to index into the array
begin                                        -- 8
      Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);        -- 9 Get the index for the next statement
      Machinery.Turn_On(Data(Index).all);    -- 10 Dynamically call one of the Turn_On methods
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_1;              -- 11

```

The next example does essentially what the previous example did. However, this example illustrates how to code a classwide procedure. Once again, which version of Turn\_On to choose is known only at run-time.

```

with Machinery, Rotating_Machinery;           -- 1 With both packages; no use clause required
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                     -- 2 Enables the input of the array index
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_2 is       -- 3 Specification for the example procedure
Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference := -- 4 Anonymous array of access objects
      (1 => new Machinery.Machine,           -- 5 Dynamically allocate new Object
       2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational); -- 6 Dynamically allocate new Object
      Index : Natural range 0..2 := 0;      -- 7 Use this to index into the array
      procedure Start(M : Machine'Class) is -- 8 Procedure with classwide parameter
      begin                                  -- 9
          Machinery.Turn_On(M);              -- 10 Turn_On is dynamically determined via the tag
      end Start;                             -- 11
begin                                        -- 12
      Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);        -- 13 Get the index for the next statement
      Start(M => Data(Index).all);          -- 14 Call the classwide procedure
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_2;              -- 15

```

Here is still one more example that illustrates the usefulness of a function that returns a classwide value..

```

with Machinery, Rotating_Machinery;           -- 1 No use clause is required for this example
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                     -- 2 Enables the input of the array index
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_3 is       -- 3 Specification for the example procedure
      Index : Natural range 0..2 := 0;      -- 4 Use this to index into the array
      function Get(The_Index : Natural) return Machine'Class is -- 5 Procedure with classwide parameter
      Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference := -- 6 Anonymous array of access objects
            (1 => new Machinery.Machine,     -- 7 Dynamically allocate new Object
             2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational); -- 8 Dynamically allocate new Object
      begin                                  -- 9
          return Data(Index).all);          -- 10 return the data access by Data(Index)
      end Get;                               -- 11
begin                                        -- 12
      Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);        -- 13 Get the index for the next statement
      declare                                -- 14 Start a local declare block
          The_Machine : Machine'Class := Get(Index); -- 15 Declare and constrain classwide variable
      begin                                  -- 16
          Turn_On(The_Machine);              -- 17 Call classwide procedure dynamically constrained data
      end;                                  -- 18
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_3;              -- 19

```

## 9.5 Abstract Classes

Knowing what level of abstraction is appropriate for a software design is one of the most difficult problems of software engineering. Experienced object technology practitioners will usually create a top level class for a design called an abstract class. In C++, this based on pure virtual functions. In other languages, one will see the word abstract used to explicitly identify the class (or type) as abstract.

One important characteristic of an abstract class is that no instances (class objects) can be created from it. A full discussion of the uses and virtues of an abstract class are beyond the scope of this book, but we can provide some examples of how these are defined and extended in Ada.

Taking the Machinery package example from above, consider the following example.

```

package Abstract_Machinery_1 is
  type Machine is abstract tagged private;
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);
  function Is_On (M : Machine) return Boolean;
private
  type Machine is abstract tagged record
    Is_On : Boolean := False;
  end record;
end Abstract_Machinery_1;
-- 1 An Ada Module
-- 2 Machine is now abstract
-- 3 A classwide access type
-- 5 Turn on the machine
-- 6 Turn off the Machine
-- 7 Is the Machine turned on?
-- 8 Begin private part of package
-- 9 Full tagged definition of message
-- 10 Machine content; initialized
-- 11 End of machine definition
-- 12 End of the package specification

```

In the above example, type Machine is now abstract. One can derive either concrete or even other abstract types from it. In this example, the methods, Turn\_On, Turn\_Off, etc., are not abstract. In the following example, everything is abstract. Therefore, there are no implementations. That is, no package body is permitted. The user of this package must derived a concrete type and override all of the methods before it can be used.

```

package Abstract_Machinery_2 is
  type Machine is abstract tagged null record;
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is abstract;
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is abstract;
  function Is_On (M : Machine) return Boolean is abstract;
end Abstract_Machinery_2;
-- 1 An Ada Module
-- 2 An abstract record
-- 3 Classwide access
-- 5 Abstract method: modifier
-- 6 Abstract method: modifier
-- 7 Abstract method: query
-- 8

```

The following child package demonstrates one possibility for creating a concrete derivation using type Machine in Abstract\_Machinery\_2.

```

package Abstract_Machinery_2.Identified
  type I_Machine is new Machine with private;
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class;
  procedure Turn_On (I : in out I_Machine);
  procedure Turn_Off (I : in out I_Machine);
  function Is_On (I : I_Machine) return Boolean;
private
  type I_Machine is new Machine with record
    Is_On : Boolean := False;
  end record;
end Abstract_Machinery_2.Identified;
-- 1 Child package specification
-- 2 Derived from abstract record
-- 3 Classwide reference
-- 4 Overriding method
-- 5 Overriding method
-- 6 Overriding function
-- 7
-- 8 Full definition of derived type
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11

```



## 10. Using Standard Libraries

String handling is a simple idea that becomes complicated in some programming environments. In particular, C, C++, and COBOL have made this more difficult than it needs to be. Ada is especially handy for string manipulation. Not only is an Ada string easy to declare and process, the language has predefined libraries (in Annex A) for most of the operations one might want to do on strings, a set of convenient attributes (Annex K) for special functions, and simple methods for converting between strings values and numeric values.

### 10.1 String Examples

This program illustrates several additional features of the language. Notice the syntax for declaring a **constant**. On line 3, if the string variable is declared with a range constraint, the initializing string must have exactly the same number of characters. On line 4, if there is no range constraint, the index of the first character is 1 and the index of the last character is whatever the character count might be, in this case 9. Line 15 “slides” a string slice from one string into a slice in another string using the assignment operator and parenthetical notation to designate the source and target slices.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;
procedure Bon_Jour is
  Hello : String (1..5) := "Salut";
  Howdy : String := "Howdy Joe";
  Bon_Jour : constant String := "Bon Jour";
begin
  Ada.Text_IO.Put(Hello);
  Ada.Text_IO.Set_Col(20);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Hello);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put(Howdy);
  Ada.Text_IO.Set_Col (20);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put(Howdy);
  Ada.Text_IO.New_Line(2);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Bon_Jour);
  Howdy(7..9) := Bon_Jour(1..3);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line (Howdy);
end Bon_Jour;

```

-- 1 Put Ada.Text\_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10  
-- 2 Parameterless declaration; 6.3  
-- 3 Number of characters must match range; 4.1, A.1/37  
-- 4 Compiler determines constraint from string; 2.6, 3.3.1/13  
-- 5 A true **constant**; cannot be altered; 3.3.1/5-6  
-- 6 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3  
-- 7 Put a string with no carriage return; A.10.6  
-- 8 On same line, position cursor at column 20; A.10.5  
-- 9 Put a string with a carriage return / line feed; A.10.7  
-- 10 Put a string with no carriage return; A.10.7  
-- 11 Set the cursor to column 20 / line feed; A.10.5  
-- 12 Put a string with no carriage return / line feed; A.10.7  
-- 13 Position cursor to a new line; double space; A.10.5  
-- 14 Put a **constant** to the screen with CR/LF; A.10.7  
-- 15 Slide (assign) one string slice into another; 4.1.2  
-- 16 Put the modified string with CR/LF; A.10.7  
-- 17 Note the label for the enclosing procedure; 6.3

There are better alternatives for String handling in a set of packages in Annex A.4 Here is a simple example of one of the packages. This is easier than string slicing and other low-level code.

#### 10.1.2 Using the Fixed Strings Package

```

with Ada.Text_IO;
with Ada.Strings.Fixed;
use Ada;
procedure Ni_Hao_Ma is
  Greeting : String(1..80);
  Farewell : String(1..120);
begin
  Ada.Strings.Fixed.Move(Greeting, Farewell);
end Ni_Hao_Ma;

```

-- 1 Put Ada.Text\_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10  
-- 2 A language defined string package A.4.1, A.4.3  
-- 3 Makes all of package Ada visible  
-- 4 Hello in Mandarin Chinese 6.3  
-- 5 80 character string; String defined in package Standard ALRM A.1  
-- 6 120 character string  
-- 7 Start sequence of statements  
-- 8 Move shorter string to longer string; may also move longer to shorter  
-- 9 End of procedure scope.

### 10.1.3 Bounded Strings

It is also possible to do operations on Bounded and Unbounded\_Strings. Bounded strings are those with a fixed size at compilation time through a generic instantiation. Unbounded strings are those which can be of any size, mixed size, etc. Many compilers will do automatic garbage collection of unbounded strings. If you want to try these two features of the language, they are defined in Annex A.4 of the Ada Language Reference Manual.

### 10.1.4 Unbounded Strings

Consider the following program that lets you concatenate data to an unbounded string, convert that string to a standard fixed string, and then print it out to the screen.

```

with Ada.Strings.Unbounded;           -- 1
with Ada.Text_IO;                   -- 2
use Ada; use Strings;                -- 3
procedure Unbounded_String_Demonstration is -- 4
  Input  : Character := '~';         -- 5
  Output : String (1..80) := (others => ' '); -- 6
  Buffer  : Unbounded.Unbounded_String; -- 7
  Length : Natural;                 -- 8
begin                                 -- 9
  loop                                -- 10
    Text_IO.Put("Enter a character: "); -- 11
    Text_IO.Get(Input);                -- 12
    exit when Input = '~';             -- 13
    Unbounded.Append(Source => Buffer, New_Item => Input); -- 14
  end loop;                            -- 15
  Length := Unbounded.Length(Buffer); -- 16
  Output(1..Length) := Unbounded.To_String(Buffer); -- 17
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Output(1..Length)); -- 18
end Unbounded_String_Demonstration;   -- 19

```

### 10.1.5 Other String Operations

There are many other facilities for string handling in Ada. We show here an example from another useful library, packageAda.Characters. Here is a little package that converts lower case letters to upper case.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                    -- 1 Put Ada.Text_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10
with Ada.Characters.Handling;       -- 2 Character Handling Operations      A.3.2
use Ada;                             -- 3 Makes package Ada visible
procedure Arirang is                 -- 4 Famous Korean love song          6.3
  Data : String := "arirang";       -- 5 initialized lower case character string
begin                                -- 6 Start sequence of statements
  Text_IO.Put(Characters.Handling.Is_Upper(Data)); -- 7 Convert output to upper case characters and print it
end Arirang;                         -- 8 End of procedure scope.

```

## 10.2 Converting Strings to Other Types

Sometimes it is necessary to represent a string value in some other format. Other times we need to convert some other type to a string representation. One could easily write a small generic subprogram to accomplish this. Also, Ada provides an unchecked conversion capability. Unchecked features are seldom used since they circumvent the fundamental philosophy of Ada: every construct should be, by default, safe.

## 10.2.1 Converting a String to an Scalar Type

The following procedure demonstrates many of the features of the language for converting a string to an integer, a string to a floating point, a string to an unsigned number, and a string to an enumerated value.

```
-- ===== String_To_Scalar_Demonstration =====
-- String_To_Scalar_Demonstration.adb by Richard Riehle
-- This program demonstrates several ways to convert a
-- a string to a scalar value.
--
-- =====

with Ada.Text_IO;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;
use Ada;

procedure String_To_Scalar_Demonstration is
  type Spectrum is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green,
    Blue, Indigo, Violet);
  type Unsigned is mod 2**8;
  Num : Integer := 0;
  FNum : Float := 0.0;
  Color : Spectrum := Blue;
  MNum : Unsigned := 0;
  Text : String(1..10);
  Text_Integer : String := "451";
  Text_Float : String := "360.0";
  Text_Color : String := "Orange";
  Text_Unsigned : String := "42";
  Integer_Last : Natural;
  Float_Last : Natural;
  Spectrum_Last : Natural;
  Modular_Last : Natural;
  package SIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum => Spectrum);
  package MIO is new Text_IO.Modular_IO (Num => Unsigned);
  package IIO is new Text_IO.Integer_IO (Num => Integer);
  package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO (Num => Float);
begin
  Text_IO.Put_Line("The String Values are: ");
  Text_IO.Put("Orange for Enumerated Type ");
  Text_IO.Put_Line("451 for Integer Type ");
  Text_IO.Put("360.0 for Float Type ");
  Text_IO.Put_Line("42 for Unsigned Type ");
  Text_IO.New_Line;
  -- Example 1; using the Value attribute
  Text_IO.New_Line;
  Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>>> Example 1; Using 'Value Attribute <<<< ");
  Color := Spectrum'Value(Text_Color);
  Num := Integer'Value(Text_Integer);
  FNum := Float'Value(Text_Float);
  MNum := Unsigned'Value(Text_Unsigned);
  SIO.Put(Color); Text_IO.New_Line;
  IIO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line;
  FIO.Put(FNum); Text_IO.New_Line;
  MIO.Put(MNum); Text_IO.New_Line;
  Text_IO.New_Line;
  -- Example 2; using the procedures of pre-instantiated packages
  Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>>> Example 2; using pre-instantiated packages <<<< ");
  Integer_Text_IO.Get(From => Text_Integer,
    Item => Num,
    Last => Integer_Last);
  Float_Text_IO.Get(From => Text_Float,
    Item => FNum,
    Last => Float_Last);
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line;
  Float_Text_IO.Put (FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);
  Text_IO.New_Line(2);
  -- Example 3; using your own instantiated packages
```

```

Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>>> Example 3; Using own instantiations <<<< ");
Text_IO.New_Line;
SIO.Get(From => Text_Color, Item => Color, Last => Spectrum_Last);
MIO.Get(From => Text_Unsigned, Item => MNum, Last => Modular_Last);
IIO.Get(From => Text_Integer, Item => Num, Last => Integer_Last);
FIO.Get(From => Text_Float, Item => FNum, Last => Float_Last);
-- Now Write the Results to the Screen
SIO.Put(Item => Color); Text_IO.New_Line;
IIO.Put(Item => Num); Text_IO.New_Line;
FIO.Put(Item => FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);
Text_IO.New_Line;
MIO.Put(Item => MNum);
Text_IO.New_Line(2);
Text_IO.Put_Line(" **** End of String_To_Scalar_Demonstration **** ");
end String_To_Scalar_Demonstration;

```

## 10.2.2 Converting a Scalar to a String

This program is exactly the opposite of the previous one..

```

with Ada.Text_IO, Ada.Integer_Text_IO, Ada.Float_Text_IO;
use Ada;
procedure Scalar_To_String_Demonstration is
  type Spectrum is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet);
  type Unsigned is mod 2**8;
  Num : Integer := 451;
  FNum : Float := 360.0;
  Color : Spectrum := Blue;
  MNum : Unsigned := 42;
  Text : String(1..10);
  package SIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum => Spectrum);
  package MIO is new Text_IO.Modular_IO (Num => Unsigned);
  package IIO is new Text_IO.Integer_IO (Num => Integer);
  package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO (Num => Float);
begin
  Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 1; Using 'Image Attribute ");
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Spectrum'Image(Color));
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Unsigned'Image(MNum));
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Integer'Image(Num));
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Float'Image(FNum));
  Text_IO.New_Line;
  Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 2; using pre-instantiated packages ");
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line;
  Float_Text_IO.Put (FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);
  Text_IO.New_Line(2);
  Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 3; Using own instantiations ");
  SIO.Put(Color); Text_IO.New_Line;
  MIO.Put(MNum); Text_IO.New_Line;
  IIO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line;
  FIO.Put(FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);
  Text_IO.New_Line(2);
  -- Example 4; convert to text and then print
  Text_IO.Put_Line("Example 4; Convert to text, then print ");
  SIO.Put(To => Text, Item => Color);
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Text);
  MIO.Put(To => Text, Item => MNum);
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Text);
  IIO.Put(To => Text, Item => Num);
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Text);
  FIO.Put(To => Text, Item => FNum, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Text);
  Text_IO.New_Line;
  Text_IO.Put_Line("End of Image_Demonstration ");
end Scalar_To_String_Demonstration;

```

```

-- 1
-- 2 May safely use Ada
-- 3 Convert a string to a scalar object
-- 4 Enumerated type
-- 5 Unsigned modular type
-- 6 Combustion point of paper in fahrenheit
-- 7 Don't go off on a tangent
-- 8 Hmmmm. "You don't look bluish."
-- 9 Life, the Universe, and Everything
-- 10
-- 11 Instantiate IO for enumerated type
-- 12 Instantiate IO for modular type
-- 13 Instantiate IO for predefined Integer
-- 14 Instantiate IO for predefined Float
-- 15
-- 17 -- Example 1; using the image attribute
-- 18
-- 19
-- 20
-- 21
-- 22
-- 24 -- Example 2; pre-instantiated packages
-- 25
-- 26
-- 27 -- Example 3; own instantiated packages
-- 29
-- 30
-- 31
-- 32
-- 33
-- 34
-- 35
-- 36
-- 37
-- 38
-- 39
-- 40
-- 41
-- 42
-- 43
-- 44
-- 45
-- 46
-- 47

```

Output using the 'Image attributes from Annex K. Leading space for positive values. Leading sign for negative values.

Convert each value to a String and then print it. This is built-in to Ada.Text\_IO. Don't write your own version of this.

## 11. Exception Management

Ada was one of the first languages to include exception management as a language feature. Nearly all contemporary languages now have this feature.

Ada has certain predefined exceptions and allows the programmer to declare exceptions specific to the problem being solved. Predefined exceptions from package Standard (Annex A.1) are:

Constraint\_Error, Storage\_Error, Program\_Error, Tasking\_Error

Predefined input/output errors in package IO\_Exceptions are,

Status\_Error, Mode\_Error, Name\_Error, Use\_Error, Device\_Error,  
End\_Error, Data\_Error, Layout\_Error

Other Annex packages define other kinds of exceptions. You will also find exceptions declared in library packages from various software repositories.

### 11.1 Handling an Exception (ALRM 11.4)

An exception handler must appear in a **begin...end** sequence. Therefore you could have something such as,

<b>Ada comb</b>	<b>function</b> Ohm (Volt, Amp : Float) <b>return</b> Float <b>is</b>	-- 1 Parameterized function declaration; 6.3
	Result : Float := 0.0;	-- 2 Initialized local variable
	<b>begin</b>	-- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
	Result := Volt / Amp;	-- 4 Simple division operation; cannot divide by zero
	<b>exception</b>	-- 5 If we try to divide by zero, land here.
	<b>when</b> Constraint_Error =>	-- 6 This error is raised on divide-by-zero; handle it here.
	Text_IO.Put_Line("Divide by Zero");	-- 7 Display the error on the console
	<b>raise</b> ;	-- 8 Re-raises the exception after handling it.
	<b>end</b> Ohm;	-- 9 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

Reminder:  
Every Ada program body can be viewed in terms of the Ada comb even if one tooth of the comb is not present.

We do not want to return an invalid value from a function so it is better to raise an exception. Sometimes you want a **begin ... exception ... end** sequence in-line in other code. To call the function Ohm from a procedure, we would want another exception handler. Since the handler re-raised the exception, we need another handler in the calling subprogram.

<b>with</b> Ada.Exceptions;	-- 1 Chapter 11.4.1 ALRM; also, see the end of this chapter
<b>use</b> Ada;	-- 2 OK for use clause on package Ada
<b>procedure</b> Electric (Amp, Volt : <b>in</b> Float;	-- 3 In parameters
Resistance : <b>out</b> Float) <b>is</b>	-- 4 Out parameter; 6.3
<b>function</b> MSG (X : Exceptions.Exception_Occurrence)	-- 5 Profile for Exception_Message function
<b>return</b> String	-- 6 Return type for Exception_Message
<b>renames</b> Exceptions.Exception_Message;	-- 7 Rename it to three character function name
<b>begin</b>	-- 8 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
Resistance := Ohm(Amp => Amp, Volt => Volt);	-- 9 Simple division operation; cannot divide by zero
<b>exception</b>	-- 10 If we try to divide by zero, land here.
<b>when</b> Electric_Error:	-- 11 Ada.Exceptions.Exception_Occurrence
Constraint_Error =>	-- 12 This error is raised on divide-by-zero; handle it here.
Text_IO.Put_Line(MSG(Electric_Error.);	-- 13 See lines 5-7; renamed Exception_Message function
Exceptions.Reraise_Occurrence(Electric_Error);	-- 14 Procedure for re-raising the exception by occurrence name
<b>end</b> Electric;	-- 15 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

### 11.2 Declaring your Own Exceptions

You may also define and raise your own exceptions.

```

with Ada.Exceptions; use Ada;
package Exception_Manager is
  Overflow : exception;
  Underflow : exception;
  Divide_By_Zero : exception;
  type Exception_Store is tagged limited private;
  type Reference is access all Exception_Store'Class;
  procedure Save ...
  procedure Log ...
  procedure Display ...
private
  type Exception_Set is array (1..100)
    of Exceptions.Exception_Occurrence_Access;
  type Exception_Store is tagged
    record
      Current_Exception : Natural := 0;
      Exception_Set;
    end record;
end Exception_Manager;

with Exception_Manager;
package Application is
  type Application_Type is private;
  procedure Start (Data : in out Application_Type);
  procedure Restart (Data : in out Application_Type);
  procedure Stop (Data : in out Application_Type);
  procedure Cleanup (Data : in out Application_Type);
  procedure Finalization (Data : in out Application_Type);
  Application_Exception : exception;
private
  type Application_Type is ... -- full definition of type
end Application;

```

-- 1 Chapter 11.4.1 ALRM  
-- 2 A typical exception/error management package  
-- 3 Own named exception; User-defined exception  
-- 4 Ada exception is not a first class object  
-- 5 This could be handy for some applications  
-- 6 A place to store exception occurrences  
-- 7 In case you need to reference this in another way  
-- 8 Saves an exception to Exception\_Store  
-- 9 Logs an exception  
-- 10 Displays and exception  
-- 11 Useful to have more operations before this  
-- 12 Array of access values to Exception\_Occurrence  
-- 13 Exception\_Occurrence\_Access is an access type  
-- 14 A record containing an array of exceptions  
-- 15  
-- 16 And index over the Exception\_Set  
-- 17 Instance of type from Lines 12-13  
-- 18  
-- 19 Package scope terminator

-- 1 Put Exception\_Manager package in scope  
-- 2  
-- 3 Private here is partial definition of type  
-- 4 Create and initialize the application  
-- 5 If there is an exception, you may need to restart  
-- 6 Stop the application; may be able to restart  
-- 7 When there is an error, call this procedure  
-- 8 Not be confused with Ada.Finalization  
-- 9 Your locally defined exception for this package  
-- 10 Nothing is public from here forward  
-- 11 Full definition of the private type  
-- 12 End of the specification unit. Needs a body.

In the Application package, any one of the subprograms defined might raise an Application\_Exception or some other kind of exception. Since we have not used any of the resources of Exception\_Manager, it would be better to defer its context clause (put it in scope) in the package body.

```

with Exception_Manager;
package body Application is
  -- Implementation code for the package body
end Application;

```

-- 1 Localize the context clause  
-- 2  
-- 3  
-- 4

### 11.3 Raising Exceptions

There is always the question of whether to raise an exception or not. Exceptions are supposed to be indications that something strange has occurred that cannot be handled with the usual coding conventions. Ada 95 even includes an attribute, X'Valid, to help the developer avoid exceptions on scalar types. Consider this program that uses X'Valid.

First an exception should be visible for the user. Compound\_Data\_Error : exception;

```

procedure Test_The_Valid_Attribute is
  type Real is digits 7;
  type Number is range 0..32_767;
  type Compound is
    record
      Weight : Real := 42.0;

```

-- 1  
-- 2  
-- 3  
-- 4  
-- 5  
-- 6

Scalar types declared within the record definition. X'Valid will not work on a record but can be used on scalar components.

```

        Height : Number;           -- 7
        Width  : Number;           -- 8
    end record;                   -- 9
    Data : Compound := (80.0, 64, 97); -- 10 Record initialized with aggregate
begin                               -- 11
    if Data.Weight'Valid then       -- 12 Test the Weight to see if it is valid
        null;                       -- 13
    elsif                           -- 14
        Data.Height'Valid then     -- 15
            null;                   -- 16
        elsif                       -- 17
            Data.Width'Valid then  -- 18
                null;               -- 19
            else                     -- 20
                raise Compound_Data_Error; -- 21 Failed all around, raise an exception
            end if;                 -- 22
    end Test_The_Valid_Attribute;  -- 23

```

Not all Ada designers will agree with the above example. It is your responsibility to decide whether this is an appropriate choice in designing your software. The important consideration is that you may define and raise your own exceptions when you feel it is necessary.

## 11.4 Package Ada.Exceptions

If you are going to manage your own exceptions, consider using the language-defined package,

```

package Ada.Exceptions is -- This is an Ada language defined package -- 1 ALRM 11.4.1
    type Exception_Id is private; -- 2
    Null_Id : constant Exception_Id; -- 3
    function Exception_Name(Id : Exception_Id) return String; -- 4
    type Exception_Occurrence is limited private; -- 5
    type Exception_Occurrence_Access is access all Exception_Occurrence; -- 6
    Null_Occurrence : constant Exception_Occurrence; -- 7
    procedure Raise_Exception(E : in Exception_Id; Message : in String := ""); -- 8
    function Exception_Message(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 9
    procedure Reraise_Occurrence(X : in Exception_Occurrence); -- 10

    function Exception_Identity(X : Exception_Occurrence) return Exception_Id; -- 11
    function Exception_Name(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 12
    -- Same as Exception_Name(Exception_Identity(X)). -- 13
    function Exception_Information(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 14
    procedure Save_Occurrence(Target : out Exception_Occurrence; -- 15
        Source : in Exception_Occurrence); -- 16
    function Save_Occurrence(Source : Exception_Occurrence) -- 17
        return Exception_Occurrence_Access; -- 18
private -- 19
    ... -- not specified by the language -- 20
end Ada.Exceptions; -- 21

```

## 12. Generic Components

### 12.1 Generic Subprograms

Whenever you design an algorithm which can be used for many different types, it is worthwhile to put it in the library as a generic routine. Be sure to let the others on your project know about its existence. Also, there are huge libraries of such algorithms already in place such as the Public Ada Library, PAL, a *labor of love* by Richard Conn, Professor of Computing Science at Monmouth College in New Jersey. Here are a couple of really simple generic subprograms. The next example is a generalization of the Next function shown earlier. First we must define the generic specification.

```

generic                                -- 1 Reserved word for defining templates
  type Item is ( $\diamond$ ); -- Any enumerated type      -- 2 Generic formal Parameter (GFP)
function Next (Value : Item) return Item;      -- 3 Specification for generic subprogram

```

We would not be allowed to code a generic specification with an **is** such as,

```

generic                                -- 1 As in line 1, above
  type Item is ( $\diamond$ );                        -- 2 As in line 2, above
function Next (Value : Item) return Item is    -- 3 Illegal; Specification required
  ...                                           -- 4 body of function
end Next;                                       -- 5 before implementation

```

because any generic subprogram must be first specified as a specification. The specification may actually be compiled or may be declared in the specification of a package.

Then we code the actual algorithm. Notice that the algorithm does not change at all for the earlier version of function Next, even though we may now use it for any discrete data type.

```

function Next (Value : Item) return Item is    -- 1 Item is a generic formal parameter
begin                                           -- 2 No local declarations for this function
  if Item'Succ(Value) = Item'Last then          -- 3 A good use of attribute; see ALRM K/104
    return Item'First;                          -- 4 ALRM 6.3
  else                                          -- 5 ALRM 5.3
    return Item'Succ(Value);                    -- 6 Note two returns; may not be good idea end if;
    -- 7 ALRM 5.3
end Next;                                       -- 8 Always include the function identifier

```

This can be instantiated for any data type. Given the following types, write a few little procedures to cycle through the types,

```

type Month is (January, February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October, November, December);
type Color is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet); -- our friend, Roy G. Biv.
type Day is (Sunday, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday);
type Priority is (Very_Low, Low, Sorta_Medium, Medium, Getting_Higher, High, Very_High, The_Very_Top);

```

The next generic subprogram is also quite simple. Here we have the famous Swap procedure. Recall that any private type has the predefined operations, =, /=, and assignment. Also, nearly every other Ada data type also has those operations predefined. The only types without these operations are limited types such as limited private, limited records, tasks, and protected types. Therefore, we can instantiate the Swap procedure with nearly any type in Ada.

```

generic                                -- 1
  type Element ( $\diamond$ ) is private;              -- 2
procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out Element); -- 3

```



Then we code the actual algorithm. Notice that the algorithm does not change at all even though we may now use it for any discrete data type.

```

procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out Element) is           -- 1
    Temp : Element := Left;                                -- 2
begin                                                       -- 3
    Left := Right;                                         -- 4
    Right := Temp;                                         -- 5
end Swap;                                                 -- 6

```

An algorithm does not get much easier than the Swap procedure just shown. However, it should be clear from seeing it that you can use this technique to generalize hundreds of other algorithms on your own projects. You can also use this idea to share code with your colleagues.

When you have a lot of generic subprograms for your application, it is often useful to collect those with some common properties into an Ada package. For example, using those already described,

```

package Utilities is
  generic
    type Item is private;
    procedure Swap(L, R : in out Item);

  generic
    type Item is (<>);
    function Next (Data : Item) return Item;

  generic
    type Item is (<>);
    function Prev (Data : Item) return Item;

  -- more generic subprograms as appropriate

end Utilities;

```

The Utilities package can be used to collect common algorithms, thereby making up a set of reusable components that can be used to create even larger components. Build generics from other generics.

## 12.2 Other Generic Formal Parameters

A generic formal type parameter is possible for any type. This includes access types, derived types, array types, and even limited types. For limited types, the designer must include a corresponding set of generic formal operations. Even for other types, generic formal operations are often useful. Consider this private type.

```

generic
  type Item is private;
  with function ">" (L, R : Item) return Boolean;
  with function "<" (L, R : Item) return Boolean;
package Doubly_Linked_Ring_1 is
  -- Specification of a Doubly_Linked_Ring data structure
end Doubly_Linked_Ring_1;

```

In the example for the Doubly\_Linked\_Ring\_1, we know that implementation requires some operations beyond simple test for equality. The only operator predefined for a private type is test for equality. Consequently, we may include parameters for other operators. These are instantiated by the client of the package. Before showing the instantiation of this example, we provide the following example that is preferred by many designers of reusable generic data structure components.

```

generic
  type Item is private;
  type Item_Reference is access all Item;
  with function Is_Equal (L, R : Item) return Boolean;
  with function Is_Less_Than (L, R : Item) return Boolean;
  with function Is_Greater_Than (L, R : Item) return Boolean;
package Doubly_Linked_Ring_2 is
  type Ring is limited private;
  -- Specification of a Doubly_Linked_Ring data structure
end Doubly_Linked_Ring_2;

```

Even though test for equality is predefined for a private type, the test is on the binary value of the data not on its selected components. If the actual parameter is a record or constrained array, a pure binary comparison may not give the intended result. Instead, by supplying a generic formal parameter, the client of the generic package can ensure the structure is organized according to a given record key. Also, by including an access type for the generic formal private type, the client may have lists of lists, trees of queues, lists of rings, etc. The following example instantiates the Doubly\_Linked\_Ring\_2.

```

with Doubly_Linked_Ring_2 ;
procedure Test_Doubly_Linked_Ring_2 is
  type Stock is record
    Stock_Key : Positive;
    Description : String (1..20);
  end record;
  type Stock_Reference is access all Stock;
  function Is_Equal (L, R : Stock) return Boolean is
  begin
    return L.Key = R.Key;
  end Is_Equal;
  function ">" ... -- Overload ">" Implement using the model of Is_Equal
  function "<" ...
  package Stockkeeper is new Doubly_Linked_Ring_2( Item => Stock,
                                                    Item_Reference => Stock_Reference,
                                                    Is_Equal => Is_Equal,
                                                    Is_Less_Than => "<",
                                                    Is_Greater_Than => ">");

  The_Ring : Stockkeeper.Ring;
  The_Data : Stock;
begin
  -- Insert and remove stuff from the Ring
end Test_Doubly_Linked_Ring_2;

```

Sometimes it is convenient to combine a set of generic formal parameters into a signature package. A signature package can be reused over and over to instantiate many different kinds of other generic packages. A signature package will often have nothing in it except the generic parameters. It must be instantiated before it can be used. This is an advanced topic. Here is one small, oversimplified, example, derived and expanded from the Ada 95 Language Rationale.

```

package Mapping_Example is -- Begin the enclosing package specification
  generic
    type Mapping_Type is private;
    type Key is limited private;
    type Value is limited private;
    with procedure Add (M : in out Mapping_Type; K : in Key; V : in Value);
    with procedure Remove (M : in out Mapping_Type; K : in Key; V : in Value);
    with procedure Apply (M : in out Mapping_Type; K : in Key; V : in Value);
  package Mapping is end Mapping;
  -- Now declare the specification for the generic procedure in the same package

```

```

-- 1
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4
-- 5
-- 6
-- 7
-- 8
-- 9

```

<p>Note the generic formal parameters for the signature package, Mapping. The package contains no other operations. This is legal and handy</p>
---

```

generic                                     -- 10
  with package Mapping_Operations is new Mapping (<>); -- 11
  -- This is a generic formal package parameter instead of a generic formal subprogram -- 12
  procedure Do_Something(M : in out Mapping_Type; K : in Key; V : in Value); -- 13
end Mapping_Example; -- End of the enclosing package specification -- 14

```

Lines 2 through 9 define the *generic formal signature* that will become our generic formal package parameter for the Do\_Something procedure. It is important to note that this model has no specification and therefore will not have a body. It is typical of a generic formal model to be nothing more than a set of parameters for later instantiation. The code on Line 17 is the syntax for a generic formal package parameter. The parenthetical box (<>) may have the formal parameters associated with actual parameters if any are visible at this point.

The code beginning on Line 13 is a generic procedure declaration. It is the only procedure in the package specification so it does not represent reality. However, making it a simple procedure with its own formal parameters helps to keep this example simple.

The package body for Mapping\_Example will simply implement the procedure Do\_Something.

```

package body Mapping_Example is             -- 1
  procedure Do_Something(M : in out Mapping_Type; -- 2
    K : in Key; -- 3
    V : in Value) is -- 4
  begin -- Do_Something -- 5
    Mapping_Operations.Add(M, K, V); -- 6
  end Do_Something; -- 7
end Mapping_Example; -- 8

```

We comment the begin statement on Line 5 to emphasize that it belongs to Do\_Something. The call on Line 6 is to the Add procedure in the generic formal parameter list for Mapping\_Operations. We use dot notation here to emphasize that we are referencing the formal parameter name not the “is new” name. Granted, this example is more of a “do nothing” than a “do something” in spite of its precocious name. However, it will serve to illustrate our first example of the mechanism. Now we can instantiate the units in Mapping\_Example

```

with Mapping_Example; -- 1
procedure Test_Mapping_Example is -- 2
  Map_Key : Integer := 0; -- 3
  Map_Data : Character := 'A'; -- 4
  Map_Value : Integer := Map_Key; -- 5
  procedure Add (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 6
  begin -- 9
    null; -- 10
  end Add; -- 11
  procedure Remove (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 12
  begin -- 15
    null; -- 16
  end Remove; -- 17
  procedure Apply (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 18
  begin -- 21
    null; -- 22
  end Apply; -- 23
-- 24
package Character_Mapping is new Mapping_Example.Mapping -- 25
  (Mapping_Type => Character, -- 26
    Key => Integer, -- 27
    Value => Integer, -- 28
    Add => Add, -- 29

```

```

        Remove    => Remove,           -- 30
        Apply     => Apply);           -- 31
procedure Do_Something_To_Map       -- 32
is new Mapping_Example.Do_Something -- 33
    (Mapping_Operations => Character_Mapping); -- 34
begin                                -- 35
    Do_Something_To_Map(M => Map_Data,  -- 36
                        K => Map_Key,   -- 37
                        V => Map_Value); -- 38
end Test_Mapping_Example;           -- 39

```

### 12.3 Longer Generic Code Example

Just as you can create simple generic subprograms, as shown above, you can also generalize entire packages. This book has some examples of how to do this. Here is an example of a generic container package which corresponds to some of the the generic packages you will see when programming with Ada.

This package is a *managed* FIFO Queue\_Manager which includes an *iterator*. A *managed data structure* is one which includes some kind of automatic *garbage collection*. An *iterator* is a mechanism by which you may non-destructively visit every node of a data structure. There are two fundamental kinds of iterators, *active* and *passive*. A *passive iterator* is somewhat safer than an active iterator. Also, a passive iterator requires less work from the client. We show a package with an *active iterator*.

```

with Ada.Finalization;                -- 1
generic                                -- 2
    type Element is tagged private;     -- 3
    -- A more robust design would defined Element as a derivation from Ada.Finalization.Controlled -- 4
    with function Is_Valid(Data : Element) return Boolean; -- 6
package Queue_Manager_1 is           -- 7
    type List is limited private;       -- 8
    type List_Reference is access all List; -- 9
    type List_Item is new Element with private; -- 10
    type Item_Reference is access all List_Item'Class; -- 11
    -- A classwide access type permitting a heterogenous queue -- 12
    procedure Clear (L : in out List); -- 13
    procedure Insert_At_Head (L : in out List; I : in List_Item'Class); -- 14
    procedure Insert_At_Head (L : access List; I : access List_Item'Class); -- 15
    -- A more complete design would include added options for the Insert operation -- 16
    procedure Copy (Source : in List; Target : in out List); -- 17
    function Remove_From_Tail (L : access List) return List_Item'Class; -- 18
    -- A more complete design would include added options for the Remove operation -- 19
    function "=" (L, R : List) return Boolean; -- 20
    function Node_Count (L : access List) return Natural; -- 21
    function Is_Empty (L : access List) return Boolean; -- 22
-- ===== Define the Active Iterator ===== -- 23
    type Iterator is private;          -- 24
    -- 25
    procedure Initialize_Iterator(This : in out Iterator; -- 26
                                  The_List : access List); -- 27
    function Next(This : in Iterator) return Iterator; -- 28
    -- 29
    function Get (This : in Iterator) return List_Item'Class; -- 30
    function Get (This : in Iterator) return Item_Reference; -- 31
    -- 32
    function Is_Done(This : in Iterator) return Boolean; -- 33
    -- 34
    Iterator_Error : exception;        -- 35
private                                -- 36
    use Ada.Finalization;                -- 37
    type List_Node;                       -- 38
    type Link is access all List_Node; -- 39
    type Iterator is new Link;          -- 40
    type List_Item is new Element with null record; -- 41

```

```

type List_Node is new Controlled with                                -- 42
  record                                                    -- 43
    Data : Item_Reference;                                     -- 44
    Next : Link;                                           -- 45
    Prev : Link;                                           -- 46
  end record;                                           -- 47
type List is new Limited_Controlled with                  -- 48
  record                                                    -- 49
    Count : Natural := 0;                                   -- 50
    Head  : Link;                                          -- 51
    Tail  : Link;                                          -- 52
    Current : Link;                                       -- 53
  end record;                                           -- 54
procedure Finalize(One_Node : in out List_Node);         -- 55
procedure Finalize(The_List : in out List);             -- 56
end Queue_Manager_1;                                     -- 57

```

An active iterator would require the client to write a loop which successively calls the Next function followed by a Get function. An active iterator is not quite as safe as a passive iterator, but it can be used as an effective building block for constructing passive iterators. Since the list is potentially heterogeneous, the Get returns a classwide type. This can be used in conjunction with dispatching operations. Here is an annotated package body for the above specification. This is a long set of source code but it should be useful to the student because of its near completeness. It also serves as a model for creating other data structures. This package body was compiled using the GNAT Ada compiler.

```

with Text_IO;                                           -- 1
with Ada.Exceptions;                                   -- 2
with Unchecked_Deallocation;                           -- 3
package body Queue_Manager_1 is                       -- 4

  -- This instantiation enables destruction of unreferenced allocated storage -- 5
  procedure Free_Node is new Unchecked_Deallocation     -- 6
    (Object => List_Node,                                -- 7
     Name   => Link);                                   -- 8

  -- This instantiation enables destruction of unreferenced Data items      -- 9
  procedure Free_Item is new Unchecked_Deallocation    -- 10
    (Object => List_Item'Class,                          -- 11
     Name   => Item_Reference);                          -- 12

  -- We override Ada.Finalizaion for a single node                         -- 13
  procedure Finalize(One_Node : in out List_Node) is -- 14
  begin                                                 -- 15
    Free_Item (One_Node.Data);                          -- 16
    Free_Node (One_Node.Next);                          -- 17
  end Finalize;                                       -- 18

  -- When the list goes out of scope, this is called to clean up the storage -- 19
  procedure Finalize(The_List : in out List) is      -- 20
  begin                                                 -- 21
    -- Use the Iterator to traverse the list and call Free_Item; add this code yourself -- 22
    Free_Node (The_List.Current);                       -- 23
    Free_Node (The_List.Tail);                          -- 24
    Free_Node (The_List.Head);                         -- 25
  end Finalize;                                       -- 26

  -- The name says what it does. Note the allocation of a temp. Finalization will -- 27
  -- occur to ensure there is no left over storage.                       -- 28
  procedure Insert_At_Head (L : in out List;          -- 29
                           I : in List_Item'Class) is -- 30
    Temp_Item : Item := new List_Item'(I);            -- 31
    Temp : Link := new List_Node'(Controlled with    -- 32
      Data => Temp_Item,                               -- 33
      Next => null,                                   -- 34
      Prev => null);                                  -- 35
  begin                                                 -- 36
    if Is_Empty(L'Access)                             -- 37
    then                                               -- 38

```

```

    L.Head := Temp; -- 39
    L.Tail := Temp; -- 40
  else -- 41
    L.Head.Prev := Temp; -- 42
    Temp.Next := L.Head; -- 43
    L.Head := Temp; -- 44
  end if; -- 45
  L.Count := L.Count + 1; -- 46
end Insert_At_Head; -- 47

-- This is implemented in terms of the non-access version. Simply makes it convenient -- 48
-- to call this with access to object values, general or storage-pool access values. -- 49
procedure Insert_At_Head (L : access List; -- 50
                        I : access List_Item'Class) is -- 51
begin -- 52
  Insert_At_Head(L => L.all, -- 53
                I => I.all); -- 54
end Insert_At_Head; -- 55

-- We implement this as a function instead of a procedure with in out modes -- 56
-- because this can be used in an expression to constrain a classwide variable -- 57
-- For example, X : List_Item'Class := Remove(L); -- 58
function Remove_From_Tail (L : access List) -- 59
                        return List_Item'Class is -- 60
  Result : Item := L.Tail.Data; -- 61
begin -- 62
  L.Tail := L.Tail.Prev; -- 63
  L.Count := L.Count - 1; -- 64
  Free_Item(L.Tail.Next.Data); -- 65
  Free_Node(L.Tail.Next); -- 66
  return Result.all; -- 67
end Remove_From_Tail; -- 68

-- You might want a more robust "=" . For example, it might be better to traverse -- 69
-- each list, node by node, to ensure that each element is the same. -- 70
function "=" (L, R : List) return Boolean is -- 71
begin -- 72
  return L.Count = R.Count; -- 73
end "="; -- 74

-- The name says it. Simply returns how many nodes in this list. -- 75
function Node_Count (L : access List) return Natural is -- 76
begin -- 77
  return L.Count; -- 78
end Node_Count; -- 79

-- This will not be correct unless you keep careful count of the inserted and deleted nodes. -- 80
function Is_Empty(L : access List) return Boolean is -- 81
begin -- 82
  return L.Count = 0; -- 83
end Is_Empty; -- 84

-- We made List a limited private to prevent automatic assignment. Instead, we design -- 85
-- this "deep copy" procedure to ensure there will be two separate copies of the data -- 86
procedure Copy (Source : in List; -- 87
                Target : in out List) is -- 88
  type Item_Ref is access all List_Item'Class; -- 89
  Temp : Link := Source.Tail; -- 90
  Local_Data : Item_Reference; -- 91
begin -- 92
  Clear(Target); -- Be sure the target is initialized before copying. -- 93
  loop -- 94
    exit when Temp = null; -- 95
    Local_Data := new List_Item'(Temp.Data.all); -- 96
    declare -- 97
      Local_List_Item -- 98
        : List_Item'Class := Local_Data.all; -- 99
    begin -- 100
      Insert_At_Head(Target, Local_List_Item); -- 101
    end; -- 102
    Temp := Temp.Prev; -- 103
  end loop; -- 104

```

```

end Copy; -- 105

-- This is pretty simple. It is also an important part of the overall design. -- 106
procedure Clear (L : in out List) is -- 107
begin -- 108
    L.Head := null; -- 109
    L.Tail := null; -- 110
    L.Current := null; -- 111
    L.Count := 0; -- 112
end Clear; -- 113

procedure Initialize_Iterator(This : in out Iterator; -- 114
                             The_List : access List) is -- 115
begin -- 116
    This := Iterator(The_List.Head); -- 117
end Initialize_Iterator; -- 118

function Next(This : access Iterator) return Iterator is -- 119
begin -- 120
    return Next(This.all); -- 121
end Next; -- 122

function Next (This : Iterator) return Iterator is -- 123
begin -- 124
    return Iterator(This.Next); -- 125
end Next; -- 126

function Get (This : in Iterator) -- 127
                             return List_Item'Class is -- 128
begin -- 129
    return This.Data.all; -- 130
end Get; -- 131

function Get (This : in Iterator) return Item_Reference is -- 132
begin -- 133
    return This.Data; -- 134
end Get; -- 135

function Is_Done(This : in Iterator) return Boolean is -- 136
begin -- 137
    return This = null; -- 138
end Is_Done; -- 139

function Is_Done(This : access Iterator) -- 140
                             return Boolean is -- 141
begin -- 142
    return Is_Done(This.all); -- 143
end Is_Done; -- 144
end Queue_Manager_1; -- 145

```

Also need to free data storage in this routine
--

## 13. New Names from Old Ones

Renaming is sometimes controversial in Ada programming organizations. Some people like it. Others hate it. The important things to understand are:

1. Renaming does not create new data space. It simply provides a convenient new name for an existing entity.
2. Don't rename the same item over and over with new names. You will simply confuse your colleagues, and probably yourself.
3. Use renaming to simplify your code. A new name can sometimes make the code easier to read.

### 13.1 Making a Long Name Shorter

This section demonstrates some useful ideas such as renaming long package names, commenting the begin statement, getting a line of data from a terminal using `Get_Line`, and concatenating two strings. Also, note that a string may be initialized to all spaces using the **others =>** aggregate notation.

```

with Text_IO, Ada.Integer_Text_IO;           -- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope;           A.10.8/21
procedure Gun_Aydin is                       -- 2 "Good morning" in Turkish;           6.1
  package TIO renames Text_IO;                 -- 3 Shorten a long name with renaming;   8.5.3
  package IIO renames Ada.Integer_Text_IO;    -- 4 Shorter name is same as full name to compiler; 8.5.3
  Text_Data : String (1..80) := (others => ' '); -- 5 others => ' ' initializes string to spaces; 4.3.3
  Len : Natural;                               -- 4 To be used as parameter in Get_Line;   A.10.7
begin -- Hello_2                               -- 6 Good idea to comment every begin statement; 2.7/2
  TIO.Put("Enter Data: ");                     -- 7 Put a string prompt with no carriage return; A.10
  TIO.Get_Line(Text_Data, Len);                -- 8 After cursor, get a line of text with its length; A.10
  IIO.Put (Len);                               -- 9 Convert number to text and print it;   A.10 and line 4
  TIO.Put_Line(" " & Text_Data(1..Len));      -- 10 Put concatenated string with carriage return; 4.4.1
end Gun_Aydin;                               -- 17 end Label same as procedure name;    6.3

```

### 13.2 Renaming an Operator ALRM 8.5

Sometimes an operator for a type declared in a *with'ed* package is in scope but not visible. In fact, the rules of Ada are that no entity in scope is actually visible to a client until it is explicitly made visible. An operator is one of the symbol-based operations such as "+", "/", or "=". A use clause for a package will always make these visible, but a use clause also makes too many other things visible. You can selectively import the operators you require through renaming.

Renaming makes a specific operator visible without making all other operators visible. In the following procedure, which draws a diamond on the screen, we rename the packages to make their names shorter and rename the "+" and "-" operators for `Text_IO.Count` to make them explicitly visible.

```

with ada.text_io;                               -- 1 A.10; context clause.
with ada.integer_text_io;                       -- 2 A.10.8/21
procedure diamond1 is                           -- 3 Parameterless procedure
  package TIO renames ada.text_io;               -- 4 Rename a library unit; 8.5.3
  package IIO renames ada.integer_text_io;      -- 5 Renames; 8.5.3
  function "+" (L, R : TIO.Count) return TIO.Count
    renames TIO."+";                             -- 6 Rename Operator; 8.5.4
    -- 7 Makes the operators directly
  function "-" (L, R : TIO.Count) return TIO.Count
    renames TIO."-";                             -- 8 visible for "+" and "-" to avoid
    -- 9 the need for a "use" clause.
  Center : constant TIO.Count := 37;            -- 10 type-specific constant; named number
  Left_Col, Right_Col : TIO.Count := Center;    -- 11 type-specific variables
  Symbol : constant Character := 'X';          -- 12 a character type constant

```



```

Spacing : TIO.Count := 1;
Increment : TIO.Count := 2;
begin -- Diamond1
  TIO.Set_Col(Center);
  TIO.Put(Symbol);
  for I in 1..8 loop
    TIO.New_Line(Spacing);
    Left_Col := Left_Col - Increment;
    Right_Col := Right_Col + Increment;
    TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col);
    TIO.Put(Symbol);
    TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col);
    TIO.Put(Symbol);
  end loop;
  for I in 9..15 loop
    TIO.New_Line(Spacing);
    Left_Col := Left_Col + Increment;
    Right_Col := Right_Col - Increment;
    TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col);
    TIO.Put(Symbol);
    TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col);
    TIO.Put(Symbol);
  end loop;
  TIO.Set_Col(Center);
  TIO.Put(Symbol);
end Diamond1;

```

-- 13 Local variables for counting  
-- 14 Initialize the variable  
-- 15 Always declare comment at begin  
-- 16 Set the column on the screen  
-- 17 Put a character  
-- 18 begin a for loop with constants  
-- 19 Advance one line at a time  
-- 20 See lines 8 & 9, above  
-- 21 Data type and operator visibility  
-- 22  
-- 23  
-- 24  
-- 25  
-- 26  
-- 27  
-- 28  
-- 29 Increment the Left Column by 1  
-- 30 Increment the Right Column by 1  
-- 31 Set the column  
-- 32 Print the symbol  
-- 33 Set the column  
-- 34 Print the symbol  
-- 35 Loop requires an end loop  
-- 36 Set the column for final character output  
-- 37 The last character for the diamond  
-- 38 End of scope and declarative region

You may want to plan ahead for ease of operator usage through careful package design. In the following example, the operators are renamed in a nested package which can be made visible with a use clause.

```

package Nested is
  type T1 is private; -- this is called a partial view of the type
  type Status is (Off, Low, Medium, High, Ultra_High, Dangerous);
  -- operations on T1 and Status
  package Operators is
    function ">=" (L, R : Status) return Boolean
      renames Nested.">=";
    function "<=" (L, R : Status) return Boolean
      renames Nested."<=";
  end Operators;
private
  type T1 is ...
end Nested;

```

-- 1 Package specification  
-- 2 Only =, /=, and :=  
-- 3 Enumerated type; full set  
-- 4 of infix operators is available  
-- 5 A nested package specification  
-- 6 Profile for a function and  
-- 7 renames for the >= operator  
-- 8 Profile for an = function and  
-- 9 renames of the = operator  
-- 10 Nested specification requires end  
-- 11 Private part of package  
-- 12 Full definition of type from line 2  
-- 13 Always include the identifier

The above package can be accessed via a "with Nested;" context clause followed by a "use Nested.Operators;" to make the comparison operators explicitly visible. Not everyone will approve of this approach, but it has been employed in many Ada designs to simplify the use of infix operators because it eliminates the need for localized renaming. We caution you to use this technique with discretion.

```

with Nested;
procedure Test_Nested is
  use Nested.Operators;
  X, Y : Nested.Status := Nested.Status'First;
begin -- Test_Nested
  -- Get some values for X, and Y
  if X = Nested.Status'Last then
    -- Some statements here
  end if;
end Test_Nested;

```

-- 1 Always include the identifier  
-- 2 A simple procedure body  
-- 3 Use clause for nested package  
-- 4 Declare some Status objects  
-- 5 Always include Identifier  
-- 6 This code is commented  
-- 7 = is made visible with line 3  
-- 8 Comments again  
-- 9 Of course. End if required  
-- 10 Always use identifier with end

The code just shown illustrates a technique for letting the client make the selected operators visible via a use clause on the nested package specification. This is actually a better solution than the *use type* (ALRM 8.4/4) because it only makes a restricted set of operators visible. The downside of this is that it requires the designer to think ahead. Thinking ahead is probably an unreasonable expectation of designers.

### 13.3 Renaming an Exception

Sometimes it is useful to rename an exception locally to where it will be used. For example,

```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
package My_IO is
  -- various IO services
  -- Data_Error : exception renames Ada.IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
  ...
end My_IO;
```

### 13.4 Renaming a Component

One of the most frequently overlooked features of Ada renaming is the option of giving a component of a composite type its own name.

```
with Ada.Text_IO;
package Rename_A_Variable is
  -- various IO services
  -- Record_Count : renames Ada.Text_IO.Count;
  ...
end Rename_A_Variable;
```

#### 13.4.1 Renaming an Array Slice

Suppose you have a string,

```
Name : String(1..60);
```

where 1..30 is the last name, 31..59 is the first name and 60 is the middle initial. You could do the following.

```
declare
  Last   : String renames Name(1..30);
  First  : String renames Name(31..59);
  Middle : String renames Name(60..60);
begin
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Last);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(First);
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Middle);
end;
```

where each `Put_Line` references a named object instead of a range of indices. Notice that the object still holds the same indices. Also, the renamed range constrains the named object. No new space is declared. The renaming simply gives a new name for existing data.

### 13.4.2 Renaming a Record Component

Consider the following definitions,

```

subtype Number_Symbol is Character range '0'..'9';
subtype Address_Character is Character range Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Space
    .. Ada.Characters.Latin_1.LC_Z;
type Address_Data is array(Positive range <>) of Address_Character;
type Number_Data is array(Positive range <>) of Number_Symbol;
type Phone_Number is record
    Country_Code : Number_Data(1..2);
    Area_Code : Number_Data(1..3);
    Prefix : Number_Data(1..3);
    Last_Four : Number_Data(1..4);
end record;
type Address_Record is
    The_Phone : Phone_Number;
    Street_Address_1 : Address_Data(1..30);
    Street_Address_2 : Address_Data(1..20);
    City : Address_Data(1..25);
    State : Address_Data(1..2);
    Zip : Number_Data(1..5);
    Plus_4 : Number_Data(1..4);
end record;

One_Address_Record : Address_Record;

```

Now you can rename an inner component for direct referencing in your program. For example, to rename the Area\_Code in a declare block,

```

declare
    AC : Number_Data renames One_Address_Record.The_Phone.Area_Code;
begin
    null;
end;

```

The declaration of AC does not create any new data space. Instead, it localizes the name for the component nested more deeply within the record. If the record had deeply nested components that you needed in an algorithm, this renaming could be a powerful technique for simplifying the names within that algorithm.

### 13.5 Renaming a Library Unit

Suppose you have a package in your library that everyone on the project uses. Further, suppose that package has a long name. You can with that library unit, rename it, and compile it back into the library with the new name. Anytime you with the new name, it is the same as withing the original.

```

-- The following code compiles a renamed library unit into the library
with Ada.Generic_Elementary_Functions;
package Elementary_Functions renames Ada.Generic_Elementary_Functions;

with Graphics.Common_Display_Types;
package CDT renames Graphics.Common_Display_Types;

```

Take care when doing this kind of thing. You don't want to confuse others on the project by making up new names that no one knows about. Also, renaming can be a problem when the renamed entity is too far from its origins.

### 13.6. Renaming an Object or Value

This can be especially troublesome when done too often. I recall a project where the same value was renamed about seven times throughout a succession of packages. Each new name had meaning within the context of the new package but was increasingly untraceable the further one got from its original value.

```

package Messenger is
  type Message is tagged private;
  type Message_Pointer is access all Message'Class;
  procedure Create(M : in out Message;
    S : in String);
  procedure Clear (M : in out Message);
  function Message_Text (M : Message) return String;
  function Message_Length(M : Message) return Natural;
private
  type String_Pointer is access all String;
  type Message is tagged record
    Data : String_Pointer;
    Length : Natural;
  end record;
end Messenger;
-- 1 Specification Declaration
-- 2 Partial definition , tagged type
-- 3 Classwide pointer
-- 4 Operation on the type
-- 5 Second parameter for Operation
-- 6 Clear all fields of the Message
-- 7 Return the Data of Message
-- 8 Return the Length of Message
-- 9 Private part of specification
-- 10 Private pointer declaration
-- 11 Full definition of type Message
-- 12 Component of Message
-- 13 Component of Message
-- 14 Ends scope of Message
-- 15 End scope of specification

```

## 14. Concurrency with Tasking

Ada is unique among general purpose programming languages in its support for concurrency. There are two models for Ada concurrency: multitasking, and distributed objects. The latter, distributed objects is beyond the scope of this book. We focus our discussion on multitasking. In Ada this is simply called tasking. Tasking is implemented using standard Ada language syntax and semantics along with two additional types: task types and protected types. The syntax and semantics of *task* types and *protected* types is described in Chapter 9 of the Ada Language Reference Manual (ALRM). The semantics are augmented in Annex D and Annex C of the ALRM.

Each task is a sequential entity that may operate concurrently with other tasks. A task object may be either an anonymous type or an object of a task type.

### 14.1 A Keyboard Entry Example

The following tasks are anonymous types, and will operate concurrently.

```

package Set_Of_Tasks is
  task T1;                -- object of anonymous task type
  task T2 is              -- communicating object
    entry A;              -- entry point to task
    entry B;              -- entry point to task
  end T2;                 -- end of task specification
  task T3 is              -- communicating task object
    entry X(I : in Character); -- parameterized entry point
    entry Y(I : out Character); -- parameterized entry point
  end T3;                 -- end of task specification
end Set_Of_Tasks;        -- end of package specification

```

A task has two parts: specification and body. A task may not be a library unit and cannot be compiled by itself. A task must be declared inside some other library unit. In the example, above, there are three task specifications within a package specification. The body of each task will be within the body of the package. For example,

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                -- 1 Context clause
with Ada.Characters.Latin_1;     -- 2 For referencing special characters
use Ada;                          -- 3 Make package Ada visible
use Characters;                   -- 4 Make package Characters visible
package body Set_Of_Tasks is      -- 5 Enclosing scope for the task bodies
  task body T1 is                 -- 6 Implement task T1
    Input : Character;            -- 7 Local variable
    Output : Character;          -- 8 Local variable
    Column : Positive := 1;      -- 9 Could be Text_IO.Positive_Count
  begin                            -- 10
    loop                           -- 11
      Text_IO.Get_Immediate (Input); -- 12 Input character with no return key entry
      exit when Input = '~';      -- 13 If the character is a tilde, exit the loop
      T3.X(Input);                -- 14 Put entry in queue for T3.X; suspend
      T2.A;                       -- 15 Put entry in queue for T2.A; suspend
      T2.B;                       -- 16 Put entry in queue for T2.B; suspend
      T3.Y(Output);              -- 17 Put entry in queue for T3.Y; suspend
      if Column > 40 then         -- 18 No more than 40 characters per line
        Column := 1;             -- 19 Start the character count over from 1
        Text_IO.New_Line;        -- 20 and then start a new line
      else                          -- 21
        Column := Column + 1;     -- 22 Increment the character per line count
      end if;                      -- 23
      Text_IO.Set_Col(Text_IO.Positive_Count(Column)); -- 24 Note type conversion here
    end loop;
  end task body T1;
end package body Set_Of_Tasks;

```

```

Ada.Text_IO.Put (Output);           -- 25 Print the character on the screen; echo
end loop;                           -- 26
end T1;                              -- 27 End of task T1 implementation
                                   -- 28
task body T2 is                     -- 29 Implement body of task T2
begin                                -- 30
  loop                              -- 31
    select                          -- 32 Select this alternative or terminate when done
      accept A;                    -- 33 Rendezvous point; corresponds to entry in
      accept B;                    -- 34 task specification. These are sequential here.
    or                              -- 35 The alternative to selecting accept A;
      terminate;                  -- 36 Taken only when nothing can call this anymore
    end select;                    -- 37
  end loop ;                       -- 38
end T2;                              -- 39
                                   -- 40
task body T3 is                     -- 41 Implement task T3 body
  Temp : Character := Latin_1.Nul;  -- 42 Local variable
begin                                -- 43
  loop                              -- 44 Choose rendezvous alternative
    select                          -- 45 Another selective accept statement
      accept X (I : in Character ) do -- 46 Begins critical region for rendezvous
        Temp := Latin_1.Nul;        -- 47 Critical region between do and end for accept
        Temp := I;                  -- 48 Calling task is suspended until end statement
      end X;                        -- 49 Rendezvous complete. Caller is not suspended
    or                              -- 50 or this next alternative
      accept Y (I : out Character ) do -- 51 Critical region begins with do statement
        I := Temp;                  -- 52 Caller is suspended at this point
        Temp := Latin_1.Nul;        -- 53 The non-printing nul character
      end Y;                        -- 54 Rendezvous complete at this point
    or                              -- 55 or the terminate alternative which will only
      terminate;                  -- 56 be taken if no other task can call this one
    end select;                    -- 57 end of scope for the select statement
  end loop;                         -- 58
end T3;                              -- 59
end Set_Of_Tasks;                   -- 60

```

We apologize for the length of this example. It does serve to show a lot of interesting issues related to tasking. You can key it in and it will work. We also suggest you experiment with it by little alterations.

Each task is coded as a loop. Task T1 simply gets a character from the keyboard, sends that character to T3, gets it back from T3, and prints it to the screen. T3 does nothing with the character, but it could have more logic for examining the character to see if it is OK. You could modify this program to behave as a simple data entry application. We recommend you do this as an exercise.

Here is a simple little test program you can use with this package.

```

with Set_Of_Tasks;
procedure Test_Set_Of_Tasks is
begin
  null;
end Test_Set_Of_Tasks;

```

The tasks, in package Set\_Of\_Tasks, will begin executing as soon as the null statement is executed. It is not necessary to call the tasks.

Some tasks will have one or more *entry* specifications. In Ada, an entry is unique because it implies an entry queue. That is, a call to an entry simply places an entry into a queue. An entry call is not a request for immediate action. If there are already other entries in that queue, the request for action will have to wait for the entries ahead of it to be consumed. Entries disappear from the queue in one of several ways. The most common is for them to complete the rendezvous request.

Each task has a begin statement. Two of the tasks, T2 and T3, have local variables. The accept statements in the bodies of T2 and T3 correspond to the entry statements in their specifications. A task body may have more than one accept statement for each entry. When an accept statement includes a *do* part,

everything up to the end of accept statement is called the *critical region*. A calling task is suspended until the critical region is finished for its entry into the task queue.

Now we examine the details of the program example. Each task specification in the package specification is an anonymous task. We know this because the word *type* does not appear in the specification. Task T1 is not callable because it has no entries. Task T2 is callable, but has no parameters in the call. T3 is callable and includes a parameter list in each entry. Any call to an entry is nothing more than placement of a request for action in an entry queue.

The body of the package contains the bodies of the corresponding task specifications. Task body T1 is implemented as a loop. This is not a good model for task design. In fact, it is a bad design. However, it does give us an entry point into understanding. A better design would permit interrupts to occur and be handled as they occur rather than within the confines of a loop. We show an example of this kind in the next example.

Line 14 is an entry call to T3.X. It includes a parameter of type Character. This entry call puts a request for action in the T3.X queue. There are, potentially, other entries already in that queue. The default, in Ada, is that the entries will be consumed in a FIFO order. This default may be overridden by the designer when deemed appropriate. At Line 14, Task T1 is suspended while waiting for the completion of its request for action. Task T1 will resume once that request is completed.

Lines 15 and 16 are *do nothing* entry calls. We include them in this example for educational purposes, not because they add anything to the design or performance. If we were to reverse Lines 15 and 16, this program would deadlock. Each task is a sequential process. The two accept statements in task T2 are sequential. Entry B cannot be processed until Entry A is processed. This is an important feature of Ada, and almost all models for communicating sequential processes that operate concurrently.

On line 32 in task T2 and line 45 of task T3, we show the start of a *select* statement. This construct allows the task to take a choice of *accept* alternatives, depending on which entry is called. The accept statements in task T3 are not sequential. That is, entry X is not dependent on entry Y and entry Y is not dependent on entry X. The corresponding accept statements may proceed regardless of which is called first.

Lines 36 and 56 have the *terminate* alternative within a select statement. This alternative will never be taken unless no other task can call one of the other entries. The Ada run-time will take the terminate path for every task that has reached the state where it cannot be called, cannot call any other task, and has no other tasks currently dependent on it. This is a graceful way to for a task to die. There is no need for a special *shutdown* entry. Terminate should be used for most service tasks.

If you do not understand the mechanisms associated with an entry queue, you will not understand communicating tasks. It is a rule that, when a task puts an entry into the queue of another task, that entry remains in the queue until it is consumed or otherwise is removed from the queue. The task that puts the entry is suspended until the request for action is completed. The calling task may request, as part of the call, that the request remain in the queue for a limited period, after which it is removed from the queue.

Task T3 cannot identify who called which entry. It cannot purge its own queue. It can determine how many entries are in each queue. That is, we could have a statement that gets X'Count or Y'Count within task T3.

Lines 47-48 and 52-53 are the procedural statements within an accept statement. Every statement between the word *do* and the corresponding *end* is in the *critical region*, mentioned earlier. Statement 47 must occur before statement 48. Task T1, when it makes a call, T3.Input(...), is suspended until the entire critical region is finished. T3.Input will consume an entry from its own queue, process that entry in the critical region, and finish. Once it is finished with the statements in the critical region, task T1 is released from its suspended state and may continue.

In tasks T2 and T3, the loop serves a slightly different purpose than in task T1. Here the loop is more of a semantic construct to prevent the task from doing one set of actions and then terminating. That is, the loop guarantees the task will remain active for as long as it is needed.

## 14.2 Protecting Shared Data

It has been traditional for a design in which concurrent threads share access to the same resource to use some kind of Semaphore. Semaphores come in many different varieties. The two most common are the counting semaphore and the binary semaphore. The latter is sometimes called a Mutex. A Semaphore is a low-level mechanism that exposes a program to many kinds of potential hazards. Ada uses a different mechanism, the protected object, which allows the programmer to design encapsulated, self-locking objects where the data is secure against multiple concurrent updates.

Protected types are a large topic. Therefore, we show only one simple version in this book. The reader is encouraged to study this in greater depth if they need to develop Ada software using the tasking model. The following example illustrates all of three operators of a protected object.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                                -- 1
procedure Protected_Variable_Example is         -- 2
  package TIO renames Ada.Text_IO;             -- 3
  task T1;                                       -- 4
  task T2;                                       -- 5
  protected Variable is                        -- 6 Could have been a type definition
    procedure Modify(Data : Character);         -- 7 Object is locked for this operation
    function Query return Character ;          -- 8 Read-only. May not update data
    entry Display(Data : Character; T : String); -- 9 An entry has a queue
  private                                       -- 10
    Shared_Data : Character := '0';            -- 11 All data is declared here
  end Variable;                                  -- 12
  protected body Variable is                   -- 13 No begin end part in protected body
    entry Display(Data : Character; T : String) -- 14 A queue and a required barrier that
      when Display'Count > 0 is                -- 15 acts like a pre-condition
        begin                                   -- 16
          TIO.Put(T & " ");                       -- 17
          TIO.Put(Data);                          -- 18
          TIO.New_Line;                          -- 19
        end Display;                             -- 20
    procedure Modify (Data : Character) is     -- 21
      begin                                       -- 22
        Shared_Data := Data;                     -- 23
      end Modify;                                  -- 24
    function Query return Character is        -- 25
      begin                                       -- 26
        return Shared_Data;                     -- 27
      end Query;                                  -- 28
  end Variable;                                  -- 29
  task body T1 is                                -- 30
    Local : Character := 'a';                    -- 31
    Output : Character;                          -- 32
  begin                                           -- 33
    loop                                           -- 34
      TIO.Get_Immediate(Local);                  -- 35
      exit when Local not in '0'..'z';          -- 36
      Variable.Modify(Local);                    -- 37
      Output := Variable.Query;                  -- 38
      Variable.Display(Output, "T1 ");           -- 39
    end loop;                                     -- 40

```

When a procedure is executed, the object is locked for update only. It is performed in mutual exclusion. No other updates can be performed at the same time. Any other calls to modify must wait for it to be the protected object to be unlocked.

The object is locked for read-only. No updates can be performed. A function is not allowed to update the encapsulated data.

It does not matter how many tasks are trying to update the data. Only one can do so at any time. This task, and its corresponding task will update the protected variable in mutual exclusion.



```

end T1; -- 41
task body T2 is -- 42
  Local : Character := 'a'; -- 43
  Output : Character; -- 44
begin -- 45
  loop -- 46
    TIO.Get_Immediate(Local); -- 47
    exit when Local not in '0'..'z'; -- 48
    Variable.Modify(Local); -- 49
    Output := Variable.Query; -- 50
    Variable.Display(Output, "T2 "); -- 51
  end loop; -- 52
end T2; -- 53
begin -- 54
  null; -- 55
end Protected_Variable_Example; -- 56

```

Every operation in a protected object is performed in mutual exclusion. The object is locked for update only during the modification operations. It is locked for read only during query operations. It is impossible for both update and query to occur at the same time. A function is read-only. During function calls, the object is locked for read-only. An entry, as with a task, has a queue. Every entry is controlled by a boolean pre-condition that must be satisfied before it can be entered.

Think of the difference between a semaphore and a protected type in terms of an airplane lavatory. If you were to enter the lavatory and depend on the flight attendant to set the lock when you enter and remove the lock to let you out, that would be analogous to a semaphore. In a protected type, once you enter the lavatory, you set the lock yourself. Once you are finished with your business in the lavatory, you unlock it yourself, and it is now free for someone else to use. A protected object knows when it is finished with its work and can unlock itself so another client can enter.

## A. Annexes, Appendices and Standard Libraries

### Reserved Word List

<b>abort</b>	<b>case</b>	<b>for</b>	<b>new</b>	<b>raise</b>	<b>tagged</b>
<b>abs</b>	<b>constant</b>	<b>function</b>	<b>not</b>	<b>range</b>	<b>task</b>
<b>abstract</b>			<b>null</b>	<b>record</b>	<b>terminate</b>
<b>accept</b>	<b>declare</b>	<b>generic</b>		<b>rem</b>	<b>then</b>
<b>access</b>	<b>delay</b>	<b>goto</b>	<b>of</b>	<b>renames</b>	<b>type</b>
<b>aliased</b>	<b>delta</b>		<b>or</b>	<b>requeue</b>	
<b>all</b>	<b>digits</b>	<b>if</b>	<b>others</b>	<b>return</b>	<b>until</b>
<b>and</b>	<b>do</b>	<b>in</b>	<b>out</b>	<b>reverse</b>	<b>use</b>
<b>array</b>		<b>is</b>			
<b>at</b>	<b>else</b>		<b>package</b>	<b>select</b>	<b>when</b>
	<b>elsif</b>	<b>limited</b>	<b>pragma</b>	<b>separate</b>	<b>while</b>
<b>begin</b>	<b>end</b>	<b>loop</b>	<b>private</b>	<b>subtype</b>	<b>with</b>
<b>body</b>	<b>entry</b>		<b>procedure</b>		
	<b>exit</b>	<b>mod</b>	<b>protected</b>		<b>xor</b>

Every language has reserved words, sometimes called keywords. Notice that, among Ada's 69 reserved words, there are no explicit data types. Instead, pre-defined types are declared in package Standard.

Sometimes people will try to evaluate a language by counting the number of reserved words. This is a silly metric and the intelligent student will select more substantive criteria.

An Ada reserved word may be overloaded to have more than one meaning, depending on context. The compiler will not let you make a mistake in the use of a reserved word.

### A.1 Package Standard

**Standard is always in scope. Every entity is directly visible. Think of it as the root parent of every other package in any Ada program.**

```

package Standard is
  pragma Pure (Standard);
  type Boolean is (False, True); -- An enumerated type; and ordered set; False is less than True
  -- The predefined relational operators for this type are as follows:
  -- function "=" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "/=" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "<" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "<=" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function ">" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function ">=" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;

  -- The predefined logical operators and the predefined logical
  -- negation operator are as follows:
  -- function "and" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "or" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "xor" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
  -- function "not" (Right : Boolean) return Boolean;

  -- The integer type root_integer is predefined; The corresponding universal type is universal_integer.
  type Integer is range implementation-defined;
  subtype Natural is Integer range 0 .. Integer'Last;
  subtype Positive is Integer range 1 .. Integer'Last;
  -- The predefined operators for type Integer are as follows:

  -- function "=" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;
  -- function "/=" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;
  -- function "<" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;
  -- function "<=" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;
  -- function ">" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;
  -- function ">=" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Boolean;

  -- function "+" (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "-" (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "abs" (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "+" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "-" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "*" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
  -- function "/" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;

```

Package Standard is the implied parent of every other Ada package. It does not need a with clause or a use clause. Every element of package Standard is always visible to every part of every Ada program.

Here are defined the predefined types, Integer, Boolean, Float, Character, String, Duration. Also are defined two predefined subtypes, Natural and Positive.

All numeric types are implementation dependent. Therefore, do not use predefined numeric types in your Ada program designs. Instead, define your own numeric types with problem-based constraints.

**Note:** Parameter and return types are Integer'Base rather than Integer.

```

-- function "rem" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
-- function "mod" (Left, Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;

-- function "***" (Left : Integer'Base; Right : Natural) return Integer'Base;

-- The floating point type root_real is predefined; The corresponding universal type is universal_real.
type Float is digits implementation-defined;
-- The predefined operators for this type are as follows:
-- function "=" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;
-- function "/=" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;
-- function "<" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;
-- function "<=" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;
-- function ">" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;
-- function ">=" (Left, Right : Float) return Boolean;

-- function "+" (Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "-" (Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "abs" (Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "+" (Left, Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "-" (Left, Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "*" (Left, Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "/" (Left, Right : Float) return Float;

-- function "***" (Left : Float; Right : Integer'Base) return Float;

-- In addition, the following operators are predefined for the root numeric types:
function "*" (Left : root_integer; Right : root_real) return root_real;
function "*" (Left : root_real; Right : root_integer) return root_real;
function "/" (Left : root_real; Right : root_integer) return root_real;
-- The type universal_fixed is predefined.
-- The only multiplying operators defined between fixed point types are:

function "*" (Left : universal_fixed; Right : universal_fixed)
return universal_fixed;
function "/" (Left : universal_fixed; Right : universal_fixed)
return universal_fixed;

-- The declaration of type Character is based on the standard ISO 8859-1 character set.
-- There are no character literals corresponding to the positions for control characters.
-- They are indicated in italics in this definition. See 3.5.2.

```

type Character is

```

(nul, soh, stx, etx, eot, enq, ack, bel,          -- 0 (16#00#) .. 7 (16#07#)
 bs, ht, lf, vt, ff, cr, so, si,                -- 8 (16#08#) .. 15 (16#0F#)
 dle, dcl, dc2, dc3, dc4, nak, syn, etb,        -- 16 (16#10#) .. 23 (16#17#)
 can, em, sub, esc, fs, gs, rs, us,            -- 24 (16#18#) .. 31 (16#1F#)
 ' ', '!', '"', '#', '$', '%', '&', '\'',        -- 32 (16#20#) .. 39 (16#27#)
 '(', ')', '*', '+', ',', '-', '.', '/',        -- 40 (16#28#) .. 47 (16#2F#)
 '0', '1', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7',        -- 48 (16#30#) .. 55 (16#37#)
 '8', '9', ':', ';', '<', '=', '>', '?',        -- 56 (16#38#) .. 63 (16#3F#)
 '@', 'A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F', 'G',        -- 64 (16#40#) .. 71 (16#47#)
 'H', 'I', 'J', 'K', 'L', 'M', 'N', 'O',        -- 72 (16#48#) .. 79 (16#4F#)
 'P', 'Q', 'R', 'S', 'T', 'U', 'V', 'W',        -- 80 (16#50#) .. 87 (16#57#)
 'X', 'Y', 'Z', '[', '\', ']', '^', '_',        -- 88 (16#58#) .. 95 (16#5F#)
 '\'', 'a', 'b', 'c', 'd', 'e', 'f', 'g',        -- 96 (16#60#) .. 103 (16#67#)
 'h', 'i', 'j', 'k', 'l', 'm', 'n', 'o',        -- 104 (16#68#) .. 111 (16#6F#)
 'p', 'q', 'r', 's', 't', 'u', 'v', 'w',        -- 112 (16#70#) .. 119 (16#77#)
 'x', 'y', 'z', '{', '|', '}', '~', del,         -- 120 (16#78#) .. 127 (16#7F#)
 reserved_128, reserved_129, bph, nbh,         -- 128 (16#80#) .. 131 (16#83#)
 reserved_132, nel, ssa, esa,                  -- 132 (16#84#) .. 135 (16#87#)
 hts, htj, vts, pld, plu, ri, ss2, ss3,        -- 136 (16#88#) .. 143 (16#8F#)
 dcs, pul, pu2, sts, cch, mw, spa, epa,        -- 144 (16#90#) .. 151 (16#97#)
 sos, reserved_153, sci, csi,                 -- 152 (16#98#) .. 155 (16#9B#)
 st, osc, pm, apc,                             -- 156 (16#9C#) .. 159 (16#9F#)
 ' ', '¡', '¢', '£', '¤', '¥', '¦', '§',        -- 160 (16#A0#) .. 167 (16#A7#)
 '¨', '©', 'ª', «», '¬', '®', '¯',            -- 168 (16#A8#) .. 175 (16#AF#)
 '°', '±', '²', '³', '´', 'µ', '¶', '·',        -- 176 (16#B0#) .. 183 (16#B7#)
 '¸', '¹', 'º', »', '¼', '½', '¾', '¿'         -- 184 (16#B8#) .. 191 (16#BF#)

```

**Warning:**

Do not use predefined Float from package Standard in your production programs. This type is useful for student programs but is not well-suited to portable software targeted to some actual production application.

Note: Fixed point arithmetic on root types and universal fixed-point types is defined here. See also ALRM 4.5.5/16-20

**see also:**

package Ada.Characters  
package Ada.Characters.Latin\_1  
package Ada.Characters.Handling

Characters beyond the normal 7 bit ASCII format now use 8 bits. Also see Wide-Character

```
'À', 'Á', 'Â', 'Ã', 'Ä', 'Å', 'Æ', 'Ç'      -- 192 (16#C0#) .. 199 (16#C7#)
'È', 'É', 'Ê', 'Ë', 'Ì', 'Í', 'Î', 'Ï'    -- 200 (16#C8#) .. 207 (16#CF#)
'Ð', 'Ñ', 'Ò', 'Ó', 'Ô', 'Õ', 'Ö', '×'     -- 208 (16#D0#) .. 215 (16#D7#)
'Ø', 'Ù', 'Ú', 'Û', 'Ü', 'Ý', 'Þ', 'ß'     -- 216 (16#D8#) .. 223 (16#DF#)
'à', 'á', 'â', 'ã', 'ä', 'å', 'æ', 'ç'     -- 224 (16#E0#) .. 231 (16#E7#)
'è', 'é', 'ê', 'ë', 'ì', 'í', 'î', 'ï'    -- 232 (16#E8#) .. 239 (16#EF#)
'ð', 'ñ', 'ò', 'ó', 'ô', 'õ', 'ö', '÷'     -- 240 (16#F0#) .. 247 (16#F7#)
'ø', 'ù', 'ú', 'û', 'ü', 'ý', 'þ', 'ÿ'     -- 248 (16#F8#) .. 255 (16#FF#)
```

-- The predefined operators for the type `Character` are the same as for any enumeration type.  
 -- The declaration of type `Wide_Character` is based on the standard ISO 10646 BMP character set.  
 -- The first 256 positions have the same contents as type `Character`. See 3.5.2.

```
type Wide_Character is (nul, soh ... FFFE, FFFF);
```

This is equivalent to **Unicode**. Can be used for internationalization of a language implementation.

```
package ASCII is ... end ASCII; -- Obsolescent; see J.5
```

-- Predefined string types:

```
type String is array(Positive range <>) of Character;
pragma Pack(String);
```

Be sure to use the `Ada.Strings` facilities for managing strings, even though you can do it with primitive operators

-- The predefined operators for this type are as follows:

```
-- function "=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
-- function "/=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
-- function "<" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
-- function "<=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
-- function ">" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
-- function ">=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
```

Strings of with the same constraint can take advantage of these operators.

```
-- function "&" (Left: String; Right: String) return String;
-- function "&" (Left: Character; Right: String) return String;
-- function "&" (Left: String; Right: Character) return String;
-- function "&" (Left: Character; Right: Character) return String;
type Wide_String is array(Positive range <>) of Wide_Character;
pragma Pack(Wide_String);
```

This operator is used to concatenate arrays to arrays, arrays to components, etc. It is also defined for any kind of array as well as for predefined type `String`

-- The predefined operators for `Wide_String` correspond to those for `String`

```
type Duration is delta implementation-defined range implementation-defined;
-- The predefined operators for the type Duration are the same as for any fixed point type.
```

Used in delay statements in tasking. See data types in package `Calendar`, ALRM 9.6

-- The predefined exceptions:

```
Constraint_Error : exception;
Program_Error   : exception;
Storage_Error   : exception;
Tasking_Error   : exception;
```

A designer may define more exceptions. Note the absence of `Numeric_Error`, which is now obsolescent in the current standard. All exceptions in package `Standard` are always in scope and always visible.

```
end Standard;
```

## A.2 The Package `Ada` ←

```
package Ada is
  pragma Pure(Ada);
end Ada
```

package `Ada` is the parent package for many of the library units. It has no type definitions and no operations. It is nothing more than a placeholder package that provides a common root (common ancestor) for all of its descendants. As you learn more about parent and child packages, you will understand the value for having one package that is a common root.

The expression, `pragma Pure(Ada)`, is a compiler directive. Pragma's are compiler directives. This directive is of little interest to you at this stage of your study. It will be important when you are developing larger software systems, especially those that require the Distributed Systems Annex (Annex E).

## package Numerics

This is the root package for a variety of numerics packages.

```
package Ada.Numerics is
  pragma Pure(Numerics);
  Argument_Error : exception;
  Pi : constant := 3.14159_26535_89793_23846_26433_83279_50288_41971_69399_37511;
  e : constant := 2.71828_18284_59045_23536_02874_71352_66249_77572_47093_69996;
end Ada.Numerics;
```

### A.5.1 Elementary Functions

Elementary functions are defined as a generic package. This means it must be instantiated before it can be used. Note also that trigonometric functions are in radians. Also, the function "\*\*" is an operator that must be made directly visible before it can be used. We recommend renaming it in the scope where it is required. Also, note that the parameters and return type are Float\_Type'Base. This reduces any overflow problems associated with intermediate results in extended expressions.

```
generic
  type Float_Type is digits <>;
package Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions is
  pragma Pure(Generic_Elementary_Functions);
  function Sqrt (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Log (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Log (X, Base : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Exp (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function "**" (Left, Right : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;

  -- Trigonometric functions default in Radians
  function Sin (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Sin (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Cos (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Cos (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Tan (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Tan (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Cot (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Cot (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arcsin (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arcsin (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccos (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccos (X, Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arctan (Y : Float_Type'Base;
                  X : Float_Type'Base := 1.0) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arctan (Y : Float_Type'Base;
                  X : Float_Type'Base := 1.0;
                  Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccot (X : Float_Type'Base;
                  Y : Float_Type'Base := 1.0) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccot (X : Float_Type'Base;
                  Y : Float_Type'Base := 1.0;
                  Cycle : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Sinh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Cosh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Tanh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Coth (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arcsinh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccosh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arctanh (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
  function Arccoth (X : Float_Type'Base) return Float_Type'Base;
end Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions;
```

Log default base is natural (e). The base may be other than e.

For the \*\* function, you may have a visibility problem. You can solve it by renaming \*\* locally after instantiating the package.

If cycle is not supplied, the default is in radians.

Float\_Type'Base permits an unconstrained result that will not raise a constraint error during intermediate operations. This eliminates spurious range constraint violations in complex expressions.

Text\_IO enables machine-readable data to be formatted as human-readable data and human-readable data to be converted to machine-readable. For character and string types, no conversion is required. For all other types, transformations should be done with Text\_IO:

## A.10 Ada.Text\_IO (Annotated)

```

with Ada.IO_Exceptions; -- Declared in Annex A of the Ada Language Reference Manual
package Ada.Text_IO is -- Converts human-readable text to machine-readable as well as standard input/output
  type File_Type is limited private; -- Internal file handle for a program
  type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File); -- Controls direction of data flow
  type Count is range 0 .. implementation-defined; -- An integer data type; see Positive_Count
  subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last; -- May be used freely with type Count
  Unbounded : constant Count := 0; -- line and page length
  subtype Field is Integer range 0 .. implementation-defined;
  subtype Number_Base is Integer range 2 .. 16; -- Only use: 2, 8, 10 and 16

  type Type_Set is (Lower_Case, Upper_Case); -- Use this for enumerated types
  -- File Management
  procedure Create (File : in out File_Type; -- Program refers to this parameter
                   Mode : in File_Mode := Out_File; -- Almost always an output file
                   Name : in String := ""; -- The external name for the file
                   Form : in String := ""); -- Usage not defined by the language
  procedure Open (File : in out File_Type;
                 Mode : in File_Mode; -- May be opened for input or for append
                 Name : in String;
                 Form : in String := ""); -- Rarely used in Ada 95. Compilers differ.

  procedure Close (File : in out File_Type);
  procedure Delete (File : in out File_Type);
  procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode); -- Resets the mode of the file
  procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type); -- Resets the mode of the file
  function Mode (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
  function Name (File : in File_Type) return String; -- The external name of a file
  function Form (File : in File_Type) return String; -- Varies from one implementatin to another

  function Is_Open (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
  -- Control of default input and output files
  procedure Set_Input (File : in File_Type); -- Set this file as the default input file; must be open
  procedure Set_Output (File : in File_Type); -- Set this file as the default ouput file; must be open
  procedure Set_Error (File : in File_Type); -- Use this as the standard error file; must be open
  function Standard_Input return File_Type; -- Standard input is usually a keyboard
  function Standard_Output return File_Type; -- Standard output is usually a video display terminal
  function Standard_Error return File_Type;

  function Current_Input return File_Type; -- Usually the same as Standard Input
  function Current_Output return File_Type;
  function Current_Error return File_Type;
  type File_Access is access constant File_Type; -- Enable a pointer value to a file handle
  function Standard_Input return File_Access;
  function Standard_Output return File_Access;
  function Standard_Error return File_Access;

  function Current_Input return File_Access;
  function Current_Output return File_Access;
  function Current_Error return File_Access;
  -- Buffer control
  procedure Flush (File : in out File_Type); -- Flushes any internal buffers
  procedure Flush; -- Flush synchronizes internal file with external file by Flushing internal buffers
  -- Specification of line and page lengths
  procedure Set_Line_Length (File : in File_Type; To : in Count);
  procedure Set_Line_Length (To : in Count);

  procedure Set_Page_Length (File : in File_Type; To : in Count);
  procedure Set_Page_Length (To : in Count);
  function Line_Length (File : in File_Type) return Count;
  function Line_Length return Count;
  function Page_Length (File : in File_Type) return Count;
  function Page_Length return Count;
  -- Column, Line, and Page Control

```

Access to File\_Type has been added to Ada 95 version of Text\_IO.  
This turns out to be quite useful for many situations.

Note: You may use Count instead of Positive\_Count but be careful of potential constraint error.

```

procedure New_Line (File : in File_Type;           -- Carriage return/Line Feed for a File
                    Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1); -- Default to 1 unless otherwise called
procedure New_Line (Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1); -- CR/LF on the default output device
procedure Skip_Line (File : in File_Type;         -- Discard characters up to line terminator
                    Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1); -- for a single line by default
procedure Skip_Line (Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
function End_Of_Line (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
function End_Of_Line return Boolean;

procedure New_Page (File : in File_Type); -- Terminate current page with page terminator
procedure New_Page;
procedure Skip_Page (File : in File_Type); -- Discard characters to end of page
procedure Skip_Page;
function End_Of_Page (File : in File_Type) return Boolean; -- Is this the end of a page?
function End_Of_Page return Boolean;
function End_Of_File (File : in File_Type) return Boolean; -- Is this the end of file?
function End_Of_File return Boolean;

procedure Set_Col (File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count); -- Cursor to designated col
procedure Set_Col (To : in Positive_Count); -- Do not set this to a number less than current Col
procedure Set_Line (File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count); -- Cursor to designated line
procedure Set_Line (To : in Positive_Count); -- Must be value greater than current Line
function Col (File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count; -- What column number in file?
function Col return Positive_Count; -- What column number?
function Line (File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count; -- What line number in file?
function Line return Positive_Count; -- What line number?

function Page (File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count; -- What page number in file?
function Page return Positive_Count; -- What page number?
-- Character Input-Output
procedure Get (File : in File_Type; Item : out Character); -- Gets single character from file
procedure Get (Item : out Character); -- Gets single character from keyboard
procedure Put (File : in File_Type; Item : in Character); -- Put single character; no CR/LF
procedure Put (Item : in Character); -- Put never emits CR/LF

procedure Look_Ahead (File : in File_Type; -- Item set to next character without
                    Item : out Character; -- consuming it.
                    End_Of_Line : out Boolean); -- False if End of Line/End of Page/End of File
procedure Look_Ahead (Item : out Character; -- What is next character; don't get it yet
                    End_Of_Line : out Boolean);
procedure Get_Immediate (File : in File_Type; -- Get the next character without CR/LF
                    Item : out Character);
procedure Get_Immediate (Item : out Character);

procedure Get_Immediate (File : in File_Type; -- Only get character if it is available
                    Item : out Character;
                    Available : out Boolean); -- False if character is not available
procedure Get_Immediate (Item : out Character;
                    Available : out Boolean);

-- String Input-Output
procedure Get (File : in File_Type; Item : out String); -- Get fixed sized string
procedure Get (Item : out String); -- Must enter entire string of size specified

procedure Put (File : in File_Type; Item : in String); -- Output string; no CR/LF
procedure Put (Item : in String);
procedure Get_Line (File : in File_Type; -- String will vary in size based on value of Last
                    Item : out String; -- Must be large enough to hold all characters of input
                    Last : out Natural); -- Number of characters up to line terminator (CR/LF)
procedure Get_Line (Item : out String; Last : out Natural);
procedure Put_Line (File : in File_Type; Item : in String);
procedure Put_Line (Item : in String);

-- Generic packages for Input-Output of any type of signed integer
-- Consider Ada.Integer_Text_IO for standard Integer; you can with that package and get the same result for type Integer.
generic
▶ type Num is range <>; -- Parameter for any kind of whole number type except modular type
package Integer_IO is -- Conversion between human-readable text and internal number format.

```

```

Default_Width : Field := Num'Width;    -- How big is the number going to be?
Default_Base  : Number_Base := 10;    -- See the options for number base in beginning of Text_IO
procedure Get (File : in File_Type;
               Item  : out Num;        -- Corresponds to generic formal parameter, above
               Width : in Field := 0); -- May specify exact number of input characters.
procedure Get (Item : out Num;
               Width : in Field := 0); -- Should usually leave this as zero

procedure Put (File : in File_Type;
               Item  : in Num;        -- Corresponds to generic formal parameter, above
               Width : in Field := Default_Width; -- Ordinarily, don't change this
               Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
procedure Put (Item : in Num;
               Width : in Field := Default_Width;
               Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
procedure Get (From : in String;    -- Get a number from a string value; convert string to integer type
               Item  : out Num;      -- The actual numeric value of the string
               Last  : out Positive); -- Index value of last character in From
procedure Put (To : out String;     -- Get a string from an integer type; convert integer type to string
               Item : in Num;       -- Can raise a data error, or other IO_Error. Check this first.
               Base : in Number_Base := Default_Base); -- Consider output in other than base ten.

end Integer_IO;

generic
  type Num is mod <>; -- An unsigned numeric type. See ALRM 3.5.4/10
package Modular_IO is
  Default_Width : Field := Num'Width;
  Default_Base  : Number_Base := 10;
  procedure Get (File : in File_Type;
                Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Get (Item : out Num; Width : in Field := 0);

  procedure Put (File : in File_Type;
                Item  : in Num;
                Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
  procedure Put (Item : in Num;
                Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
  procedure Get (From : in String;
                Item  : out Num;
                Last  : out Positive);
  procedure Put (To : out String;
                Item : in Num; -- Get a string from an float type; convert float type to string
                Base : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
end Modular_IO;

-- Generic packages for Input-Output of Real Types
generic
  type Num is digits <>; -- Any floating point type; ALRM 3.5.7
package Float_IO is
  Default_Fore : Field := 2;          -- Positions to left of decimal point
  Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Digits-1; -- Positions to right of decimal point
  Default_Exp  : Field := 3;          -- For scientific notation; often zero is OK
  procedure Get (File : in File_Type;
                Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0); -- May specify exact width; usually don't; leave as zero
  procedure Get (Item : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);

  procedure Put (File : in File_Type;
                Item  : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);
  procedure Put (Item : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);

```

Modular\_IO is new to Ada 95 and applies to a new Modular data type.

A Modular type is unsigned and has wraparound arithmetic semantics. It is especially useful for array indexes instead of a signed integer type.



```

-- Use these procedures to convert a floating-point value to a string or a string to a floating-point value
procedure Get(From : in String;  -- Get floating point value from a string value
              Item  : out Num;    -- Converts a valid floating point string to a float value
              Last  : out Positive);

procedure Put(To   : out String;  -- Write a floating point value into an internal string
              Item  : in Num;    -- Converts a floating point value to a variable of type String
              Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
              Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);

end Float_IO;

generic
  type Num is delta <>;  -- Input/Output of fixed point numeric types
package Fixed_IO is

  Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
  Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Aft;
  Default_Exp  : Field := 0;
  procedure Get(File : in File_Type;
                Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
                Item  : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);
  procedure Put(Item  : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);

-- Use these procedures to convert a fixed-point value to a string or a string to a fixed-point value
procedure Get(From : in String;
              Item  : out Num;
              Last  : out Positive);
procedure Put(To   : out String;
              Item  : in Num;
              Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
              Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);

end Fixed_IO;

generic
  type Num is delta <> digits <>;
package Decimal_IO is -- Decimal types are used for financial computing.

  Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
  Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Aft;
  Default_Exp  : Field := 0;
  procedure Get(File : in File_Type;
                Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
                Item  : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);
  procedure Put(Item  : in Num;
                Fore  : in Field := Default_Fore;
                Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;
                Exp   : in Field := Default_Exp);

-- Use these procedures to convert a decimal value to a string or a string to a decimal value
procedure Get(From : in String;
              Item  : out Num;
              Last  : out Positive);
procedure Put(To   : out String;
              Item  : in Num;
              Aft   : in Field := Default_Aft;

```

See: ALRM Annex F  
ALRM 3.5.9/4, ALRM 3.5.9/16

A decimal type is a special kind of fixed-point type in which the delta must be a power of ten. This is unlike a normal fixed point type where the granularity is a power of two.

Decimal types are more accurate for monetary applications and others that can be best served using power of ten decimal fractions.

```

        Exp : in Field := Default_Exp);
end Decimal_IO;

-- Generic package for Input-Output of Enumeration Types
generic
  type Enum is (<>); -- Actual must be a discrete type
package Enumeration_IO is

  Default_Width : Field := 0;
  Default_Setting : Type_Set := Upper_Case;
  procedure Get(File : in File_Type;
                Item : out Enum);
  procedure Get(Item : out Enum);
  procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
                Item : in Enum;
                Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                Set : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
  procedure Put(Item : in Enum;
                Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                Set : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
  -- Use these procedures to convert a enumerated value to a string or a string to a enumerated value
  procedure Get(From : in String;
                Item : out Enum;
                Last : out Positive);
  procedure Put(To : out String;
                Item : in Enum;
                Set : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
end Enumeration_IO;

-- Exceptions
Status_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Status_Error;
Mode_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Mode_Error;
Name_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Name_Error;
Use_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Use_Error;
Device_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Device_Error;
End_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.End_Error;
Data_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
Layout_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Layout_Error;
private
  ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Text_IO;

```

An enumerated type is an ordered set of values for a named type. Example:

```

type Color is (Red, Yellow, Blue);
type Month is (Jan, Feb,..., Dec)
    ... is not legal Ada
type Day is (Monday, Tuesday, ...);
type Priority is (Low, Medium, High);

```

-- from package IO\_Exceptions

## Ada.Stream\_IO

Permits input/output of data in terms of System.Storage\_Unit. Use this with attributes: S'Input, S'Output, S'Read, S'Write. This package makes it possible to store a tag of a tagged type along with the rest of the data in the object.

```

with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
package Ada.Streams.Stream_IO is
  type Stream_Access is access all Root_Stream_Type'Class;
  type File_Type is limited private;
  type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File);
  type Count is range 0 .. implementation-defined;
  subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last;
  -- Index into file, in stream elements.
  procedure Create (File : in out File_Type;
                  Mode : in File_Mode := Out_File;
                  Name : in String := "";
                  Form : in String := "");
  procedure Open (File : in out File_Type;
                 Mode : in File_Mode;
                 Name : in String;
                 Form : in String := "");
  procedure Close (File : in out File_Type);
  procedure Delete (File : in out File_Type);
  procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
  procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type);
  function Mode (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
  function Name (File : in File_Type) return String;
  function Form (File : in File_Type) return String;
  function Is_Open (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
  function End_Of_File (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;

```

Count and Positive\_Count are useful when creating the equivalent of direct access files with Stream\_IO.

```

function Stream (File : in File_Type) return Stream_Access;
-- Return stream access for use with T'Input and T'Output
-- Read array of stream elements from file
procedure Read (File : in File_Type;
                Item : out Stream_Element_Array;
                Last : out Stream_Element_Offset;
                From : in Positive_Count);
procedure Read (File : in File_Type;
                Item : out Stream_Element_Array;
                Last : out Stream_Element_Offset);
-- Write array of stream elements into file
procedure Write (File : in File_Type;
                 Item : in Stream_Element_Array;
                 To   : in Positive_Count);
procedure Write (File : in File_Type;
                 Item : in Stream_Element_Array);
-- Operations on position within file
procedure Set_Index(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);

function Index(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;
function Size (File : in File_Type) return Count;
procedure Set_Mode(File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
procedure Flush(File : in out File_Type);
-- Exceptions
Status_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Status_Error;
Mode_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Mode_Error;
Name_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Name_Error;
Use_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Use_Error;
Device_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Device_Error;
End_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.End_Error;
Data_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
private
... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Streams.Stream_IO;

```

From parameter is relative record number from beginning of the file where first record is valued 1.

## Ada.Calendar -- ALRM 9.6 (also See ALRM, Annex D.8 for Ada.Real-Time calendar package)

```

package Ada.Calendar is -- 1
  type Time is private; -- 2
  subtype Year_Number is Integer range 1901 .. 2099; -- 3 Ada has always been Y2K compliant
  subtype Month_Number is Integer range 1 .. 12; -- 4
  subtype Day_Number is Integer range 1 .. 31; -- 5
  subtype Day_Duration is Duration range 0.0 .. 86_400.0; -- 6 Total number of seconds in one day
  function Clock return Time; -- 7
  function Year (Date : Time) return Year_Number; -- 8
  function Month (Date : Time) return Month_Number; -- 9
  function Day (Date : Time) return Day_Number; -- 10
  function Seconds(Date : Time) return Day_Duration; -- 11

  procedure Split (Date : in Time; -- 12
                  Year  : out Year_Number; -- 13
                  Month : out Month_Number; -- 14
                  Day   : out Day_Number; -- 15
                  Seconds : out Day_Duration); -- 16
  function Time_Of(Year : Year_Number; -- 17
                  Month : Month_Number; -- 18
                  Day   : Day_Number; -- 19
                  Seconds : Day_Duration := 0.0) return Time; -- 20
-- 21
  function "+" (Left : Time; Right : Duration) return Time; -- 22
  function "+" (Left : Duration; Right : Time) return Time; -- 23
  function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Duration) return Time; -- 24
  function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Time) return Duration; -- 25
  function "<" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean; -- 26

```

type Duration is defined in package Standard

```

function "<="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;           -- 27
function ">" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;           -- 28
function ">="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;           -- 29
Time_Error : exception;                                     -- 30
private                                                     -- 31
... -- not specified by the language                         -- 32
end Ada.Calendar;                                           -- 33

```

## package System

### ALRM 13.7

```

package System is                                           -- 1 Required for every compiler
  pragma Preelaborate(System);                                -- 2 Elaborate at compile time
  type Name is implementation-defined-enumertation-type;    -- 3 Look this up for your compiler
  System_Name : constant Name := implementation-defined;  -- 4
  -- System-Dependent Named Numbers:                          -- 5
  Min_Int      : constant := root_integer'First;            -- 6 root integer is base type
  Max_Int      : constant := root_integer'Last;              -- 7 for all integers in this system
  Max_Binary_Modulus : constant := implementation-defined; -- 8
  Max_Nonbinary_Modulus : constant := implementation-defined; -- 9
  Max_Base_Digits : constant := root_real'Digits;           -- 10
  Max_Digits    : constant := implementation-defined;       -- 11
  Max_Mantissa   : constant := implementation-defined;       -- 12
  Fine_Delta     : constant := implementation-defined;       -- 13
  Tick           : constant := implementation-defined;       -- 14
  -- Storage-related Declarations:                            -- 15
  type Address is implementation-defined;                    -- 16
  Null_Address : constant Address;                           -- 17
  Storage_Unit : constant := implementation-defined;         -- 18
  Word_Size    : constant := implementation-defined * Storage_Unit; -- 19
  Memory_Size  : constant := implementation-defined;         -- 20
  -- Address Comparison:                                     -- 21
  function "<" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;        -- 22
  function "<="(Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;        -- 23
  function ">" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;        -- 24
  function ">="(Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;        -- 25
  function "=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;       -- 26
  -- function "/=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;     -- 27
  -- "/=" is implicitly defined                                -- 28
  pragma Convention(Intrinsic, "<");                          -- 29
  ... -- and so on for all language-defined subprograms in this package -- 30
  -- Other System-Dependent Declarations:                    -- 31
  type Bit_Order is (High_Order_First, Low_Order_First);    -- 32 Big-endian/Little-endian
  Default_Bit_Order : constant Bit_Order;                    -- 33
  -- Priority-related declarations (see D.1):                  -- 34
  subtype Any_Priority is Integer range implementation-defined; -- 35 Used for tasking
  subtype Priority is Any_Priority range Any_Priority'First .. implementation-defined; -- 36
  subtype Interrupt_Priority is Any_Priority range Priority'Last+1 .. Any_Priority'Last; -- 37
  Default_Priority : constant Priority := (Priority'First + Priority'Last)/2; -- 38
private                                                     -- 39
... -- not specified by the language                         -- 40
end System;                                                 -- 41

```

Also see: *System.Storage\_Elements* ALRM 13.7.1  
*System.Address\_To\_Access\_Conversion* ALRM 13.7.2  
*System.Storage Pools* ALRM 13.11

*type Address is  
usually a private type*

Arithmetic operators for type  
Address are defined in package  
System.Storage\_Elements

*An implementation may add more  
specifications and declarations to this  
package to make it conformant with the  
underlying system platform.*

**Legend for Attribute Prefixes**

P	Subprogram
X	an object
S	type or subtype
E	entry or exception
T	task
R	record
A	array

**Annex K (informative): Language-Defined Attributes**

<b>P'Access</b>	For a prefix P that denotes a subprogram:
<b>P'Access</b>	yields an access value that designates the subprogram denoted by P. The type of P'Access is an access-to-subprogram type (S), as determined by the expected type. See 3.10.2.
<b>X'Access</b>	For a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object:
<b>X'Access</b>	yields an access value that designates the object denoted by X. The type of X'Access is an access-to-object type, as determined by the expected type. The expected type shall be a general access type. See 3.10.2.
<b>X'Address</b>	For a prefix X that denotes an object, program unit, or label: Denotes the address of the first of the storage elements allocated to X. For a program unit or label, this value refers to the machine code associated with the corresponding body or statement. The value of this attribute is of type System.Address. See 13.3.
<b>S'Adjacent</b>	For every subtype S of a floating point type T: S'Adjacent denotes a function with the following specification: <b>function</b> S'Adjacent (X, Towards : T) <b>return</b> T If Towards=X, the function yields X; otherwise, it yields the machine number of the type T adjacent to X in the direction of Towards, if that machine number exists. If the result would be outside the base range of S, Constraint_Error is raised. When T'Signed_Zeros is True, a zero result has the sign of X. When Towards is zero, its sign has no bearing on the result. See A.5.3.
<b>S'Aft</b>	For every fixed point subtype S: S'Aft yields the number of decimal digits needed after the decimal point to accommodate the delta of the subtype S, unless the delta of the subtype S is greater than 0.1, in which case the attribute yields the value one. (S'Aft is the smallest positive integer N for which $(10*N)*S'Delta$ is greater than or equal to one.) The value of this attribute is of the type universal_integer. See 3.5.10.
<b>X'Alignment</b>	For a prefix X that denotes a subtype or object: The Address of an object that is allocated under control of the implementation is an integral multiple of the Alignment of the object (that is, the Address modulo the Alignment is zero). The offset of a record component is a multiple of the Alignment of the component. For an object that is not allocated under control of the implementation (that is, one that is imported, that is allocated by a user-defined allocator, whose Address has been specified, or is designated by an access value returned by an instance of Unchecked_Conversion), the implementation may assume that the Address is an integral multiple of its Alignment. The implementation shall not assume a stricter alignment. object is not necessarily aligned on a storage element boundary. See 13.3.
<b>S'Base</b>	For every scalar subtype S: S'Base denotes an unconstrained subtype of the type of S. This unconstrained subtype is called the base subtype of the type. See 3.5.
<b>S'Bit_Order</b>	For every specific record subtype S: Denotes the bit ordering for the type of S. The value of this attribute is of type System.Bit_Order. See 13.5.3.
<b>P'Body_Version</b>	For a prefix P that statically denotes a program unit: Yields a value of the predefined type String that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the body (but not any subunits) of the program unit. See E.3.
<b>T'Callable</b>	For a prefix T that is of a task type (after any implicit dereference): Yields the value True when the task denoted by T is callable, and False otherwise; See 9.9.
<b>E'Caller</b>	For a prefix E that denotes an entry_declaration: Yields a value of the type Task_ID that identifies the task whose call is now being serviced. Use of this attribute is allowed only inside an entry_body or accept_statement corresponding to the entry_declaration denoted by E. See C.7.1.
<b>S'Ceiling</b>	For every subtype S of a floating point type T: S'Ceiling denotes a function with the following specification: <b>function</b> S'Ceiling (X : T) <b>return</b> T

The function yields the value  $\epsilon X$ , i.e., the smallest (most negative) integral value greater than or equal to  $X$ . When  $X$  is zero, the result has the sign of  $X$ ; a zero result otherwise has a negative sign when `S'Signed_Zeros` is True. See A.5.3.

- S'Class** For every subtype  $S$  of a tagged type  $T$  (specific or class-wide):  
**S'Class** denotes a subtype of the class-wide type (called `T'Class` in this International Standard) for the class rooted at  $T$  (or if  $S$  already denotes a class-wide subtype, then `S'Class` is the same as  $S$ ). `S'Class` is unconstrained. However, if  $S$  is constrained, then the values of `S'Class` are only those that when converted to the type  $T$  belong to  $S$ . See 3.9.
- S'Class** For every subtype  $S$  of an untagged private type whose full view is tagged:  
Denotes the class-wide subtype corresponding to the full view of  $S$ . This attribute is allowed only from the beginning of the private part in which the full view is declared, until the declaration of the full view. After the full view, the `Class` attribute of the full view can be used. See 7.3.1.
- X'Component\_Size** For a prefix  $X$  that denotes an array subtype or array object (after any implicit dereference): Denotes the size in bits of components of the type of  $X$ . The value of this attribute is of type `universal_integer`. See 13.3.
- S'Compose** For every subtype  $S$  of a floating point type  $T$ :  
**S'Compose** denotes a function with the following specification:  

```
function S'Compose (Fraction : T;
                   Exponent : universal_integer) return T
```

Let  $v$  be the value  $\text{Fraction} \cdot T' \text{Machine\_Radix}^{*(\text{Exponent}-k)}$ , where  $k$  is the normalized exponent of `Fraction`. If  $v$  is a machine number of the type  $T$ , or if  $\frac{1}{2}v \geq T' \text{Model\_Small}$ , the function yields  $v$ ; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type  $T$  adjacent to  $v$ . `Constraint_Error` is optionally raised if  $v$  is outside the base range of  $S$ . A zero result has the sign of `Fraction` when `S'Signed_Zeros` is True.
- A'Constrained** For a prefix  $A$  that is of a discriminated type (after any implicit dereference):  
Yields the value True if  $A$  denotes a **constant**, a value, or a constrained variable, and False otherwise.
- S'Copy\_Sign** For every subtype  $S$  of a floating point type  $T$ :  
**S'Copy\_Sign** denotes a function with the following specification:  

```
function S'Copy_Sign (Value, Sign : T) return T
```

If the value of `Value` is nonzero, the function yields a result whose magnitude is that of `Value` and whose sign is that of `Sign`; otherwise, it yields the value zero. `Constraint_Error` is optionally raised if the result is outside the base range of  $S$ . A zero result has the sign of `Sign` when `S'Signed_Zeros` is True. See A.5.3.
- E'Count** For a prefix  $E$  that denotes an entry of a task or protected unit:  
Yields the number of calls presently queued on the entry  $E$  of the current instance of the unit. The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_integer`. See 9.9.
- S'Definite** For a prefix  $S$  that denotes a formal indefinite subtype:  
**S'Definite** yields True if the actual subtype corresponding to  $S$  is definite; otherwise it yields False. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See 12.5.1.
- S'Delta** For every fixed-point subtype  $S$ : **S'Delta** denotes the delta of the fixed-point subtype  $S$ .  
The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_real`.
- S'Denorm** For every subtype  $S$  of a floating point type  $T$ :  
Yields the value True if every value expressible in the form  

$$\pm \text{mantissa} \cdot T' \text{Machine\_Radix}^{*(T' \text{Machine\_Emin})}$$
where `mantissa` is a nonzero `T'Machine_Mantissa`-digit fraction in the number base `T'Machine_Radix`, the first digit of which is zero, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type  $T$ ; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.
- S'Digits** For every decimal fixed point subtype  $S$ :  
**S'Digits** denotes the digits of the decimal fixed point subtype  $S$ , which corresponds to the number of decimal digits that are representable in objects of the subtype. The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_integer`. See 3.5.10.
- S'Digits** For every floating point subtype  $S$ :  
**S'Digits** denotes the requested decimal precision for the subtype  $S$ . The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_integer`. See 3.5.8.
- S'Exponent** For every subtype  $S$  of a floating point type  $T$ :  
**S'Exponent** denotes a function with the following specification:

- function** S'Exponent (X : T) **return** universal\_integer  
The function yields the normalized exponent of X. See A.5.3.
- S'External\_Tag** For every subtype S of a tagged type T (specific or class-wide):  
S'External\_Tag denotes an external string representation for S'Tag; it is of the predefined type String.  
External\_Tag may be specified for a specific tagged type via an attribute\_definition\_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static. The default external tag representation is implementation defined.
- A'First(N)** For a prefix A that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: A'First(N) denotes the lower bound of the N-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type.
- A'First** For a prefix A that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: A'First denotes the lower bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.
- S'First** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'First denotes the lower bound of the range of S. The value of this attribute is of the type of S. See 3.5.
- R.C'First\_Bit** For a component C of a composite, non-array object R:  
Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by C, of the first bit occupied by C. This offset is measured in bits. The first bit of a storage element is numbered zero. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 13.5.2.
- S'Floor** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Floor denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Floor (X : T) **return** T  
The function yields the value  $\lceil X \rceil$ , i.e., the largest (most positive) integral value less than or equal to X. When X is zero, the result has the sign of X; a zero result otherwise has a positive sign. See A.5.3.
- S'Fore** For every fixed point subtype S:  
S'Fore yields the minimum number of characters needed before the decimal point for the decimal representation of any value of the subtype S, assuming that the representation does not include an exponent, but includes a one-character prefix that is either a minus sign or a space. (This minimum number does not include superfluous zeros or underlines, and is at least 2.) The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 3.5.10.
- S'Fraction** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Fraction denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Fraction (X : T) **return** T  
The function yields the value  $X \cdot T' \text{Machine\_Radix}^{-(k)}$ , where k is the normalized exponent of X. A zero result, which can only occur when X is zero, has the sign of X. See A.5.3.
- E'Identity** For a prefix E that denotes an exception:  
E'Identity returns the unique identity of the exception. The type of this attribute is Exception\_Id. See 11.4.1.
- T'Identity** For a prefix T that is of a task type (after any implicit dereference):  
Yields a value of the type Task\_ID that identifies the task denoted by T. See C.7.1.
- S'Image** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Image denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Image(Arg : S'Base) **return** String  
The function returns an image of the value of Arg as a String. See 3.5.
- S'Class'Input** For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type T'Class:  
S'Class'Input denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Class'Input(Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class)  
**return** T'Class  
First reads the external tag from Stream and determines the corresponding internal tag (by calling Tags.Internal\_Tag(String'Input(Stream)) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Input attribute of the specific type identified by the internal tag; returns that result. See 13.13.2.
- S'Input** For every subtype S of a specific type T:  
S'Input denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Input (Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class) **return** T  
S'Input reads and returns one value from Stream, using any bounds or discriminants written by a corresponding S'Output to determine how much to read. See 13.13.2.

- A'Last(N)** For a prefix *A* that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: *A'Last(N)* denotes the upper bound of the *N*-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.
- A'Last** For a prefix *A* that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: *A'Last* denotes the upper bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.
- S'Last** For every scalar subtype *S*:  
*S'Last* denotes the upper bound of the range of *S*. The value of this attribute is of the type of *S*. See 3.5.
- R.C'Last\_Bit** For a component *C* of a composite, non-array object *R*:  
Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by *C*, of the last bit occupied by *C*. This offset is measured in bits. The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_integer`. See 13.5.2.
- S'Leading\_Part** For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:  
*S'Leading\_Part* denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** *S'Leading\_Part* (*X* : *T*; *Radix\_Digits* : `universal_integer`) **return** *T*  
Let *v* be the value  $T'Machine\_Radix^{k-Radix\_Digits}$ , where *k* is the normalized exponent of *X*. The **function** yields the value  
 $\lfloor X/v \rfloor v$ , when *X* is nonnegative and *Radix\_Digits* is positive;  
 $\lceil X/v \rceil v$ , when *X* is negative and *Radix\_Digits* is positive.  
Constraint\_Error is raised when *Radix\_Digits* is zero or negative. A zero result, which can only occur when *X* is zero, has the sign of *X*. See A.5.3.
- A'Length(N)** For a prefix *A* that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: *A'Length(N)* denotes the number of values of the *N*-th index range (zero for a null range); its type is `universal_integer`. See 3.6.2.  
**A'Length** For a prefix *A* that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype:  
*A'Length* denotes the number of values of the first index range (zero for a null range); its type is `universal_integer`. See 3.6.2.
- S'Machine** For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:  
*S'Machine* denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** *S'Machine* (*X* : *T*) **return** *T*  
If *X* is a machine number of the type *T*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the value obtained by rounding or truncating *X* to either one of the adjacent machine numbers of the type *T*. Constraint\_Error is raised if rounding or truncating *X* to the precision of the machine numbers results in a value outside the base range of *S*. A zero result has the sign of *X* when *S'Signed\_Zeros* is True. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Emax** For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:  
Yields the largest (most positive) value of exponent such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a mantissa of *T'Machine\_Mantissa* digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type `universal_integer`. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Emin** For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:  
Yields the smallest (most negative) value of exponent such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a mantissa of *T'Machine\_Mantissa* digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type `universal_integer`. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Mantissa**  
For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:  
Yields the largest value of *p* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *p*-digit mantissa and an exponent between *T'Machine\_Emin* and *T'Machine\_Emax*, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type `universal_integer`. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Overflows**  
For every subtype *S* of a fixed point type *T*:  
Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint\_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.4.
- S'Machine\_Overflows**  
For every subtype *S* of a floating point type *T*:



- Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint\_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type T; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Radix** For every subtype S of a fixed point type T:  
Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type T. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See A.5.4.
- S'Machine\_Radix** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type T. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See A.5.3.
- S'Machine\_Rounds** For every subtype S of a fixed point type T:  
Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type T; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.4.
- S'Machine\_Rounds** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type T; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.
- S'Max** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Max denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Max(Left, Right : S'Base) **return** S'Base  
The function returns the greater of the values of the two parameters. See 3.5.
- S'Max\_Size\_In\_Storage\_Elements**  
For every subtype S: Denotes the maximum value for Size\_In\_Storage\_Elements that will be requested via Allocate for an access type whose designated subtype is S. The value of this attribute is of type universal\_integer. See 13.11.1.
- S'Min** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Min denotes a *function* with the following specification:  
**function** S'Min(Left, Right : S'Base) **return** S'Base  
The function returns the lesser of the values of the two parameters. See 3.5.
- S'Model** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Model denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Model (X : T) **return** T  
If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the meaning of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. See A.5.3.
- S'Model\_Emin** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to the value of T'Machine\_Emin. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer.
- S'Model\_Epsilon** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the value T'Machine\_Radix\*\*(1-T'Model\_Mantissa). The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_real. See A.5.3.
- S'Model\_Mantissa** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to  $d \log(10) / \log(T'Machine\_Radix) + 1$ , where d is the requested decimal precision of T, and less than or equal to the value of T'Machine\_Mantissa. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See A.5.3.
- S'Model\_Small** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the value T'Machine\_Radix\*\*(T'Model\_Emin-1). The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_real. See A.5.3.
- S'Modulus** For every modular subtype S:  
S'Modulus yields the modulus of the type of S, as a value of the type universal\_integer. See 3.5.4.
- S'Class'Output** For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type T'Class:

- S'Class'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Class'Output(Stream : **access** Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class;  
Item : **in** T'Class)
- String'Output(Tags.External\_Tag(Item'Tag) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Output attribute of the specific type identified by the tag. See 13.13.2.
- S'Output** For every subtype S of a specific type T:  
S'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Output(Stream : **access** Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class;  
Item : **in** T)
- S'Output writes the value of Item to Stream, including any bounds or discriminants. See 13.13.2.
- D'Partition\_ID** For a prefix D that denotes a library-level declaration, excepting a declaration of or within a declared-pure library unit:  
Denotes a value of the type universal\_integer that identifies the partition in which D was elaborated. If D denotes the declaration of a remote call interface library unit (see E.2.3) the given partition is the one where the body of D was elaborated. See E.1.
- S'Pos** For every discrete subtype S:  
S'Pos denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Pos(Arg : S'Base) **return** universal\_integer
- This function returns the position number of the value of Arg, as a value of type universal\_integer. See 3.5.5.
- R.C'Position** For a component C of a composite, non-array object R:  
Denotes the same value as R.C'Address – R'Address. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 13.5.2.
- S'Pred** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Pred denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Pred(Arg : S'Base) **return** S'Base
- For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one less than that of the value of Arg; Constraint\_Error is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of subtracting one from the value of Arg. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of subtracting small from the value of Arg. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately below the value of Arg; Constraint\_Error is raised if there is no such machine number. See 3.5.
- A'Range(N)** For a prefix A that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: A'Range(N) is equivalent to the range A'First(N).. A'Last(N), except that the prefix A is only evaluated once.
- A'Range** For a prefix A that is of an array type (after any implicit dereference), or denotes a constrained array subtype: A'Range is equivalent to the range A'First.. A'Last, except that the prefix A is only evaluated once. See 3.6.2.
- S'Range** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Range is equivalent to the range S'First.. S'Last. See 3.5.
- S'Class'Read** For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type T'Class:  
S'Class'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Class'Read( Stream : **access** Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class; : **out** T'Class)
- Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Read attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item.
- S'Read** For every subtype S of a specific type T:  
S'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Read( Stream : **access** Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class;  
Item : **out** T)
- S'Read reads the value of Item from Stream. See 13.13.2.
- S'Remainder** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Remainder denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Remainder(X, Y : T) **return** T
- For nonzero Y, let v be the value  $X - n \cdot Y$ , where n is the integer nearest to the exact value of X/Y; if  $\frac{1}{2}n - X/Y \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , then n is chosen to be even. If v is a machine number of the type T, the function yields v; otherwise, it yields zero. Constraint\_Error is raised if Y is zero. A zero result has the sign of X when S'Signed\_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

- S'Round** For every decimal fixed point subtype S:  
S'Round denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Round(X : universal\_real) **return** S'Base  
The function returns the value obtained by rounding X (away from 0, if X is midway between two values of the type of S). See 3.5.10.
- S'Rounding** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Rounding (X : T) **return** T  
The function yields the integral value nearest to X, rounding away from zero if X lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of X when S'Signed\_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.
- S'Safe\_First** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the lower bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type T. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_real. See A.5.3.
- S'Safe\_Last** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the upper bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type T. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_real. See A.5.3.
- S'Scale** For every decimal fixed point subtype S:  
S'Scale denotes the scale of the subtype S, defined as the value N such that  $S'\Delta = 10.0^{*(-N)}$ . The scale indicates the position of the point relative to the rightmost significant digits of values of subtype S. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 3.5.10.
- S'Scaling** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Scaling denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Scaling (X : T; Adjustment : universal\_integer) **return** T  
Let v be the value  $X \cdot T'\text{Machine\_Radix}^{*(\text{Adjustment})}$ . If v is a machine number of the type T, or if  $|v| \geq T'\text{Model\_Small}$ , the function yields v; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type T adjacent to v. Constraint\_Error is optionally raised if v is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of X when S'Signed\_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.
- S'Signed\_Zeros** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
Yields the value True if the hardware representation for the type T has the capability of representing both positively and negatively signed zeros, these being generated and used by the predefined operations of the type T as specified in IEC 559:1989; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.
- S'Size** For every subtype S:  
If S is definite, denotes the size (in bits) that the implementation would choose for the following objects of subtype S: A record component of subtype S when the record type is packed. The formal parameter of an instance of Unchecked\_Conversion that converts from subtype S to some other subtype. If S is indefinite, the meaning is implementation defined. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 13.3.
- X'Size** For a prefix X that denotes an object:  
Denotes the size in bits of the representation of the object. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_integer. See 13.3.
- S'Small** For every fixed point subtype S:  
S'Small denotes the small of the type of S. The value of this attribute is of the type universal\_real. See 3.5.10.
- S'Storage\_Pool** For every access subtype S:  
Denotes the storage pool of the type of S. The type of this attribute is Root\_Storage\_Pool'Class. See 13.11.
- S'Storage\_Size** For every access subtype S:  
Yields the result of calling Storage\_Size(S'Storage\_Pool), which is intended to be a measure of the number of storage elements reserved for the pool. The type of this attribute is universal\_integer. See 13.11.

- T'Storage\_Size** For a prefix T that denotes a task object (after any implicit dereference):  
Denotes the number of storage elements reserved for the task. The value of this attribute is of the type `universal_integer`. The `Storage_Size` includes the size of the task's stack, if any. The language does not specify whether or not it includes other storage associated with the task (such as the "task control block" used by some implementations.) See 13.3.
- S'Succ** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Succ denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Succ(Arg : S'Base) **return** S'Base  
For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one more than that of the value of Arg; `Constraint_Error` is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of adding one to the value of Arg. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of adding small to the value of Arg. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately above the value of Arg; `Constraint_Error` is raised if there is no such machine number. See 3.5.
- S'Tag** For every subtype S of a tagged type T (specific or class-wide):  
S'Tag denotes the tag of the type T (or if T is class-wide, the tag of the root type of the corresponding class). The value of this attribute is of type `Tag`. See 3.9.
- X'Tag** For a prefix X that is of a class-wide tagged type (after any implicit dereference):  
X'Tag denotes the tag of X. The value of this attribute is of type `Tag`. See 3.9.
- T'Terminated** For a prefix T that is of a task type (after any implicit dereference):  
Yields the value `True` if the task denoted by T is terminated, and `False` otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type `Boolean`. See 9.9.
- S'Truncation** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Truncation denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Truncation (X : T) **return** T  
The function yields the value  $\acute{e}X\grave{u}$  when X is negative, and  $\grave{e}X\acute{u}$  otherwise. A zero result has the sign of X when S'Signed\_Zeros is `True`. See A.5.3.
- S'Unbiased\_Rounding** For every subtype S of a floating point type T:  
S'Unbiased\_Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Unbiased\_Rounding (X : T) **return** T  
The **function** yields the integral value nearest to X, rounding toward the even integer if X lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of X when S'Signed\_Zeros is `True`. See A.5.3.
- X'Unchecked\_Access** For a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object:  
All rules and semantics that apply to X'Access (see 3.10.2) apply also to X'Unchecked\_Access, except that, for the purposes of accessibility rules and checks, it is as if X were declared immediately within a library package. See 13.10.
- S'Val** For every discrete subtype S:  
S'Val denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Val(Arg : *universal\_integer*) **return** S'Base  
This function returns a value of the type of S whose position number equals the value of Arg. See 3.5.5.
- X'Valid** For a prefix X that denotes a scalar object (after any implicit dereference):  
Yields `True` if and only if the object denoted by X is normal and has a valid representation. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type `Boolean`. See 13.9.2.
- S'Value** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Value denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Value(Arg : String) **return** S'Base  
This function returns a value given an image of the value as a String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces.
- P'Version** For a prefix P that statically denotes a program unit:  
Yields a value of the predefined type `String` that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the declaration of the program unit. See E.3.
- S'Wide\_Image** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Wide\_Image denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Wide\_Image(Arg : S'Base) **return** Wide\_String

The function returns an image of the value of Arg, that is, a sequence of characters representing the value in display form. See 3.5.

- S'Wide\_Value** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Wide\_Value denotes a function with the following specification:  
**function** S'Wide\_Value(Arg : Wide\_String) return S'Base  
This function returns a value given an image of the value as a Wide\_String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces. See 3.5.
- S'Wide\_Width** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Wide\_Width denotes the maximum length of a Wide\_String returned by S'Wide\_Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is universal\_integer. See 3.5.
- S'Width** For every scalar subtype S:  
S'Width denotes the maximum length of a String returned by S'Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is universal\_integer. See 3.5.
- S'Class'Write** For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type T'Class:  
S'Class'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Class'Write( Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class;  
Item : in T'Class)  
Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Write attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item.
- S'Write** For every subtype S of a specific type T:  
S'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification:  
**procedure** S'Write (Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root\_Stream\_Type'Class;  
Item : in T)  
S'Write writes the value of Item to Stream. See 13.13.2.

## Annex L Pragmas - Language-defined Compiler Directives

Pragmas are Ada compiler directives. The word pragma has the same root as the word, pragmatic. It originates in a Greek word which, roughly translated, means “Do this.” Some pragmas affect the process of compilation. Others tell the compiler about what elements belong in the Run-time Environment (RTE), and others restrict or expand the role of some language feature.

<b>pragma</b>	All_Calls_Remote(library_unit_name);	— See E.2.3.
<b>pragma</b>	Asynchronous(local_name);	— See E.4.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Atomic(local_name);	— See C.6.
<b>pragma</b>	Atomic_Components(array_local_name);	— See C.6.
<b>pragma</b>	Attach_Handler(handler_name, expression);	— See C.3.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Controlled(first_subtype_local_name);	— See 13.11.3.
<b>pragma</b>	Convention([Convention =>] convention_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name);	— See B.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Discard_Names([On =>] local_name);	— See C.5.
<b>pragma</b>	Elaborate(library_unit_name{, library_unit_name});	— See 10.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Elaborate_All(library_unit_name{, library_unit_name});	— See 10.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Elaborate_Body(library_unit_name);	— See 10.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Export([Convention =>] convention_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name [, [External_Name =>] string_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] string_expression]);	— See B.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Import([Convention =>] convention_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name [, [External_Name =>] string_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] string_expression]);	— See B.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Inline(name {, name});	— See 6.3.2.
<b>pragma</b>	Inspection_Point(object_name {, object_name});	— See H.3.2.
<b>pragma</b>	Interrupt_Handler(handler_name);	— See C.3.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Interrupt_Priority(expression);	— See D.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Linker_Options(string_expression);	— See B.1.
<b>pragma</b>	List(identifier);	— See 2.8.
<b>pragma</b>	Locking_Policy(policy_identifier);	— See D.3.
<b>pragma</b>	Normalize_Scalars;	— See H.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Optimize(identifier);	— See 2.8.
<b>pragma</b>	Pack(first_subtype_local_name);	— See 13.2.
<b>pragma</b>	Page;	— See 2.8.
<b>pragma</b>	Preelaborate(library_unit_name);	— See 10.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Priority(expression);	— See D.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Pure(library_unit_name);	— See 10.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Queuing_Policy(policy_identifier);	— See D.4.
<b>pragma</b>	Remote_Call_Interface(library_unit_name);	— See E.2.3.
<b>pragma</b>	Remote_Types(library_unit_name);	— See E.2.2.
<b>pragma</b>	Restrictions(restriction{, restriction});	— See 13.12.
<b>pragma</b>	Reviewable;	— See H.3.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Shared_Passive(library_unit_name);	— See E.2.1.
<b>pragma</b>	Storage_Size(expression);	— See 13.3.
<b>pragma</b>	Suppress(identifier [, [On =>] name]);	— See 11.5.
<b>pragma</b>	Task_Dispatching_Policy(policy_identifier);	— See D.2.2.
<b>pragma</b>	Volatile(local_name);	— See C.6.
<b>pragma</b>	Volatile_Components(array_local_name);	— See C.6.

## Windows 95 and NT Console Package

This package can be used to format a window with colors, place a cursor wherever you wish, and create character-based graphics on a Windows 95 or Windows NT console screen. You can access all of the control characters, and you can print the characters defined in Annex A, package Ada.Characters.Latin\_1. This package is required form implementing the tasking problems shown in this book.

```

-----
--
-- File:    nt_console.ads
-- Description: Win95/NT console support
-- Rev:     0.1
-- Date:    18-jan-1998
-- Author:   Jerry van Dijk
-- Mail:    jdijk@acm.org
--
-- Copyright (c) Jerry van Dijk, 1997, 1998
-- Billie Holidaystraat 28
-- 2324 LK LEIDEN
-- THE NETHERLANDS
-- tel int + 31 71 531 43 65
--
-- Permission granted to use for any purpose, provided this copyright
-- remains attached and unmodified.
--
-- THIS SOFTWARE IS PROVIDED ``AS IS" AND WITHOUT ANY EXPRESS OR
-- IMPLIED WARRANTIES, INCLUDING, WITHOUT LIMITATION, THE IMPLIED
-- WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE.
--
-----

package NT_Console is

  -----
  -- TYPE DEFINITIONS --
  -----

  subtype X_Pos is Natural range 0 .. 79;
  subtype Y_Pos is Natural range 0 .. 24;

  type Color_Type is (Black, Blue, Green, Cyan, Red, Magenta, Brown, Gray,
                     Light_Blue, Light_Green, Light_Cyan, Light_Red,
                     Light_Magenta, Yellow, White);

  -----
  -- CURSOR CONTROL --
  -----

  function Where_X return X_Pos;
  function Where_Y return Y_Pos;

  procedure Goto_XY (X : in X_Pos := X_Pos'First;
                    Y : in Y_Pos := Y_Pos'First);

  -----
  -- COLOR CONTROL --
  -----

  function Get_Foreground return Color_Type;
  function Get_Background return Color_Type;

  procedure Set_Foreground (Color : in Color_Type := Gray);
  procedure Set_Background (Color : in Color_Type := Black);

  -----
  -- SCREEN CONTROL --

```

```

-----
procedure Clear_Screen (Color : in Color_Type := Black);
-----
-- SOUND CONTROL --
-----
procedure Bleep;

-----
-- INPUT CONTROL --
-----

function Get_Key return Character;
function Key_Available return Boolean;

-----
-- EXTENDED PC KEYS -- Provides access to upper eight bit scan-code on a PC
-----

```

This is a list of special function keys available in Microsoft Operating Systems. The full list is in the package specification but we do not include here since it is seldom used.

Each keypress on a standard PC keyboard generates a scan-code. The scan-code is contained in an eight bit format that uniquely identifies the format of the keystroke. The scan code is interpreted by the combination of press and release of a keystroke. The PC's ROM-BIOS sees an Interrupt 9 which triggers the call of an interrupt handling routine. The Interrupt handling routine reads Port 96 (Hex 60) to decide what keyboard action took place. The interrupt handler returns a 2 byte code to the BIO where a keyboard service routine examines low-order and high order bytes of a sixteen bit value. The scan code is in the high-order byte.

Certain scan code actions are buffered in a FIFO queue for reading by some application program. Others trigger some immediate action such as reboot instead of inserting them into the queue.

The special keys in this list are those that can be queued rather than those that trigger an immediate operating system action.



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- [ Other Books to be added ]

## **Recommended Periodicals & Other Current Information**

Most popular programmer's periodicals are staffed by editors who have little knowledge or interest in software engineering. Those who do have the knowledge and interest are woefully ignorant about Ada. Some of this ignorance stems from the general ignorance in the software community about Ada. Some of the following periodicals are listed for their general interest rather than their attention to serious software issues.

Ada Letters, A Bimonthly Publication of SIGAda, the ACM Special Interest Group on Ada  
(ISSN 1094-3641)

*A good source of accurate information regarding Ada*

JOOP, Journal of Object-Oriented Programming, SIGS Publications,  
Publishes articles and columns with positive perspective on Ada

C++ Report, (especially the Column, Obfuscated C++), SIGS Publications  
If you want to be frightened about just how dangerous C++ really is, go to this source!

Embedded Systems Programming, Miller-Freeman Publications  
Good Ada articles from time to time. Other good articles of interest to Ada practitioners

Dr. Dobbs Journal, Miller-Freeman  
Generally misinformed about Ada. Editors, however, are open-minded about learning more accurate information

Internet Usenet Forum: `comp.lang.ada`

Internet Ada Advocacy ListServe: [team-ada@acm.org](mailto:team-ada@acm.org)

Internet AdaWorks Web Site: <http://www.adaworks.com>

Internet Ada Resources Association Web Site: <http://www.adapower.com>

### **Microsoft Windows Programming in Ada.**

There are several good options. The easiest to learn is JEWEL from John English. The FTP is: <ftp://ftp.brighton.ac.uk/pub/je/jewl/>.

A commercial library, for serious Windows developers is CLAW from RR Software. This has a price tag but is worth every penny if you need industrial strength Ada Windows programs.  
<http://www.rrsoftware.com>

The adapower.com site lists other options for those who want to program in Windows

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