

Ada Distilled

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

by
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Version: February 2002

Acknowledgments

There are always a lot of people involved in the creation of any book, even one as small and modest as this one. Those who have contributed to the best features of this book include my students at Naval Postgraduate School, Mr. Michael Berenato of Computer Sciences Corporation, Mr. Ed Colbert of Absolute Software, and many students from Lockheed-Martin Corporation, Computer Sciences Corporation, British Aerospace, various branches of the uniformed services, to name a few. I also owe a special thanks to Dr. Ben Brosgol, Dr. Robert Dewar, Mr. Mark Gerhardt, and Dr. Mantak Shing for what I have learned from them. Also thanks to the contributors to comp.lang.ada Usenet forum and the Team_Ada Listserve. Phil Thornley deserves extra credit for his detailed reading of the manuscript and many corrections.

Special thanks goes to Ed Colbert for his careful study of some of my program examples. He is one of those people who can spot a program error at fifty paces. Using this unique skill, Ed brought many errors, some big and some small, to my attention. Also thanks to more recent input from Phil Thornley and Adrian Hoe.

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

Audience for this Book

This book is aimed at experienced programmers who want to learn Ada at the programming level. It is not a "...for dummies" book, nor is it intended as a program design book. Instead, we highlight some key features of the Ada language, with coded examples, that are essential for getting started as an Ada programmer.

Ada is a rich and flexible language used 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 targeted toward comprehensive treatment of the language.

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 another 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 platforms such as 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 list 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 is 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 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. Ada's goals 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:

- **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 meet this goal. This means some Ada syntax may seem extraneous but 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 include 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 detailed operator rules, see ALRM 4.5.

One operation, *assignment* uses the compound symbol: :=. The := operation is 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. package | <i>A collection of resources with something in common, usually a data type.</i> |
| 2. procedure | <i>A simple executable series of declarations and associated algorithmic code.</i> |
| 3. function | <i>An executable entity which always returns a data type result.</i> |
| 4. child unit | <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> -- 1 Package specification; requires body -- 2 Specifies the visible part of the data type; -- 3 procedure specification -- 4 procedure specification -- 5 function specification -- 6 private part hidden from a client of contract -- 7 full definition of the publicly declared type -- 8 component of the type; OOP attribute -- 9 scope terminator for the component -- 10 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;">Public part</div> </div> <div style="margin-top: 10px;"> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">Private part</div> </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 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> -- 1 Package body; implements specification declarations -- 2 Repeat procedure specification; compiler checks this -- 3 Starts algorithmic section of procedure -- 4 Simple assignment statement of boolean value -- 5 Procedure scope terminator is required -- 6 Must match profile in specification -- 7 Algorithms between begin and end -- 8 M.Turned called dot notation -- 9 Name is optional but end is required -- 10 In mode is like a constant; it may -- 11 not be on left side of assignment -- 12 return statement required of every function -- 13 Scope terminator for function -- 14 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;">Body</div> </div>
---	--	--

Most often, the specification and the body are compiled separately. A specification must compile 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 creating a client of the package, has visibility only to the public part of the specification. 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 conform, exactly, the code in the body. The Ada compiler detects conformance to ensure consistency over the lifetime of a library unit. A change to a specification requires 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 => Widget); Machinery_1_3.Turn_Off (M => 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, the entire package is in scope, including the body. The body is completely hidden from all views from outside the package even though it is in scope.

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*. An Ada package is usually compiled as two compilation units: package specification and package body. Do not think of a package specification as a C++ .h file. The specification can be compiled separately. Also, 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 separately compiled units are compiled.

The package body for Machinery_1_3 could have been coded for separate compilation as,

```

package body Machinery_1_3 is           -- 1
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is separate; -- 2
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is separate; -- 3
  function Is_On (M : in Machine)           -- 4
  return Boolean is separate             -- 5
end Machinery_1_3;                       -- 6

```

A subprogram declared *is separate* 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

Compilation units in most Ada programs will be the package specification and package body. Sometimes, as in lines 2, 3, 5, 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.

Ada does not require separate compilation, but some Ada compilers do. An implementation is free to impose this requirement. The standards for most Ada development shops also require separate compilation.

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. This also provides a unique opportunity for separate compilation.

Here is an example of parent-child library units.

```

package Messenger is
  type Message is private;
  function Create (S : String) return Message;
  procedure Send (M in Message);
  procedure Receive (M : out Message);
  function Size (M : in Message) return Natural;
private
  type Message is record
    Text : String (1..120) := (others => '');
    Length : Natural := 0;
  end record;
end Messenger;
-- 1 Package specification; requires body
-- 2 Visible part of the data type; name only
-- 3 function specification
-- 4 procedure specification
-- 5 procedure specification
-- 6 function specification
-- 7 private part hidden from a client of contract
-- 8 full definition of the publicly declared type
-- 9 string component of the type; OOP attribute
-- 10 how many of the 120 values are in use
-- 11 scope terminator for the component
-- 12 scope terminator for the specification

with Ada.Calendar;
package Messenger.Dated is
  type Dated_Message is private;
  function Create (M : in Message)
  return Dated_Message;
private
  type Dated_Message is record
    Text : Message;
    Date : Ada.Calendar.Time;
  end record;
end Messenger.Dated;
-- 1 Package specification; requires body
-- 2 Visible part of the data type; name only
-- 3 function specification
-- 4 function always specifies a return type
-- 5 private part hidden from a client of contract
-- 6 full definition of the publicly declared type
-- 7 string component of the type; OOP attribute
-- 8 how many of the 120 values are in use
-- 9 scope terminator for the component
-- 10 scope terminator for the specification

```


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.

<pre>with A; with B; with C; package Q is</pre>	<pre>with A; with B; with C; package R is</pre>	<pre>with R; package T is ... end T;</pre>
<pre>with T; package body Q is ... end Q;</pre>	<pre>with E; with F; package body R is ... end R;</pre>	<pre>with A; package body T is ... end T;</pre>

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.

2.5.1 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.

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

Be conscious of the Ada Comb when studying the subprograms and algorithmic structures in this book. 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 (Jacopini and Böhm): 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 algorithmic code. This includes procedures, functions, package bodies, task bodies, and declare blocks. Any of these units may include some kind of identifier. In production code, it is helpful to include 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

```

The second example has an exception handler localized to the declare block. There is an identifier (label) for this declare block. A block label is any user-defined name followed by a colon. The block repeats the identifier 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. In large-scale systems with many library units, avoiding 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.ESC; -- from Annex A, ALRM
Is_On      : Boolean := True;         -- from Annex A.1, ALRM
Text       : String(1..120) := (others => '*');
```

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 some 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,

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 type.

```
X := Y;
```

X and Y must both be of the same type. If they are not of the same type, the programmer may, under strictly defined rules, convert Y to a type corresponding to the type of X. An example of 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
```

Type conversion is not legal between all types. If both types are numeric, 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. Unchecked conversion may be less certain unless you are careful what you are doing.

2.7.2 Other Operations

There are several reserved words that could be considered 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.

2.7.3 Operators

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

Operators can be thought of as functions. For example, for a type, T, function signatures might be:

```
function "=" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean; -- signature for equality operator
function ">=" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean; -- signature for equality operator
function "+" (Left, Right : T) return T;      -- signature for addition operator
```

This same signature applies to all 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

Subprograms, in Ada are of two kinds: *procedures* and *functions*. A subprogram *may* be a standalone library unit. Often it is declared in some other unit such as 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 -- Note the reserved word, is
  -- optional local declarations -- Between is and begin, local declarations
begin -- Subprogram body requires a begin
  -- some sequence of statements -- Some statements or reserved word null;
end Open; -- Most standards require repeating the identifier here -- 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,

Mode	Function	Procedure	Assignment Operator Position
in	Yes	Yes	Only right side of := (a constant in subprogram)
out	No	Yes	Right or Left side of := (but has no initial value)
in out	No	Yes	Right or Left side of := (has initial value)
access	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,

2.8.2 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 => 16.2, Time => 32.8, Azimuth => 42.8);

```

This kind of problem happens often in languages where there are three parameters of the same type. For example, in a C or C++ function,

```
int mdata (int x, int y, int z) { ... }
```

there is no easy way to ensure the right actual values are being sent to the right formal arguments

3. Types and the Type Model

3.1 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 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 these rules.

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*, operations to *modify* state and operations to *query* state.

3.2 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.

3.3 Declaring and Defining Types

3.3.1 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.

3.3.2 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 Initialized 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;

```

3.3.3 A Private type Package

```

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 => ' ');
    Identifier : Positive;
  end record;
  type Account is tagged record
    ID : String(1..12);
    Amount : Float := 0.0;
  end record;
end Own_Private_Types;

```

Public view of specification

Private view of

Note the signature of the Create procedure on Line 4. Since the inventory type is *limited private*, we would often want the mode of parameter list to be **in out**. However, it is legal to have mode of **out** only.

3.4 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
    -- 1 extended from tagged parent, lines 6, 17-20, above

```

```

with record                                -- 2 required ;phrase for this construct
  Credit_Value : Float;                      -- 3 extends with third component of the record
  Debit_Value  : Float;                      -- 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 Operations on Types

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, including limited types.

3.6 Where to Declare a Type

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

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

```

package Machinery is                        -- 1 Package specification; requires body
  type Machine is private;                  -- 2 Specifies the visible part of the data type;
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);    -- 3 procedure specification
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);   -- 4 procedure specification
  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean; -- 5 function specification
  function ">" (L, R : Machine) return Boolean; -- 6 Declare the ">" function for private type
private                                     -- 7 private part hidden from a client of contract
  type Machine is record                    -- 8 full definition of the publicly declared type
    Turned_On : Boolean := False;           -- 9 component of the type; OOP attribute
  end record;                               -- 10 scope terminator for the component
end Machinery;                             -- 11 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.

3.7 The Wall Between Types

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

The fourth property for a type, the wall, is i

```

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.

3.7.1 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
-- 7Dot notation required here
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11 Cannot compile; + operator not directly visible
-- 12 Incompatible data types
-- 13This 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;
-- 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
```

```

Light_1, Light_2 : Some_Types.Light := Some_Types.Red; -- 10
Tr1, Tr2, Tr3 : Some_Types.Traffic := Some_Types.Red; -- 11
use type Some_Types.Channel; -- 12 Makes operators visible for this type
function Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion -- 13 Enable assignment between variables of
  (Source => Some_Types.Light, Target => Some_Types.Traffic); -- 14 differing types without compile-time checking
begin -- 15
  Ch3 := Ch1 + ch2; -- 16 use type makes + operator visible
  Level_1 := Some_Types.Level(Ch1); -- 17 Type conversion legal between numeric types
  Tiny := Sig1; -- 18 This will compile because of subtype
  Tr3 := Some_Types.Traffic(Color_1); -- 19 OK. Traffic is derived from Color
  Tr1 := Some_Types.Traffic'Succ(Tr2); -- 21 This statement is OK
  Tr2 := Convert(Light_1); -- 22 Assign dissimilar data without checking
  Light_2 := Convert(Tr3); -- Illegal Illegal Illegal -- 23 Convert is only one direction
end Test_Some_Types; -- 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.

3.7.2 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 -- 1 Subprogram specification
  type Frequency is digits 12; -- 2 Floating point type definition
  subtype Full_Frequency is Frequency range 0.0 .. 100_000.0; -- 3 subtype definition
  subtype High_Frequency is Frequency range 20_000.0 .. 100_000.0; -- 4 subtype definition
  subtype Low_Frequency is Frequency range 0.0 .. 20_000.0; -- 5 subtype definition
  FF : Full_Frequency := 0.0; -- 6 Variable declaration
  HF : Full_Frequency := 50_000.0; -- 7 Variable declaration
  LF : Full_Frequency := 15_000.0; -- 8 Variable declaration
begin -- 9
  FF := HF; -- 10 OK; no possible constraint error
  FF := LF; -- 11 OK; no possible constraint error
  LF := FF; -- 12 Legal, but potential constraint error
  HF := LF; -- 13 Legal, but potential constraint error
end Subtype_Examples is -- 14

```

3.8 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 -- an unsigned number type
for Index'Size use 16 -- allot sixteen bits for this type
type Int16 is range -2 ** 15.. 2**15 - 1; -- a signed integer number type
for Int16'Size use 16; -- allot sixteen bits for this type
type Int32 is range -2 ** 31 .. 2**31 - 1 -- a signed integer numeric type
for Int32'Size use 32; -- allot 32 bits for this type

```

3.9 Composite Types

Composite types contain objects/values of some other type. 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. Task types and protected types are discussed later.

3.9.1 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. An anonymous array is less flexible than a typed array and cannot be passed as a parameter to a subprogram. We will not use them much in this book.

3.9.1.1 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;
use Ada;
procedure Array_Definitions is
package BIO is new Text_IO Enumeration_IO(Enum => Boolean);
type Boolean_Set is array(1..4) of Boolean;
pragma Pack(Boolean_Set);
for Boolean_Set'Alignment use 2;
type Float_Vector is array(Natural range <>) of Float;
-- 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);
B2 : Boolean_Set := (False, False, True, False);
B3 : Boolean_Set := (True, True, False, True);
F1 : Float_Vector(0..9);
F2 : Float_Vector(1..10);
procedure Display (Data : Boolean_Set; Comment : String) is
begin
Text_IO.Put(Comment);
for I in Data'Range loop -- Cannot run off the end of an array
BIO.Put(Data(I));
Text_IO.Put(" ");
end loop;
Text_IO.New_Line;
end Display;
begin
F1(2) := F2(4);
F1(5..7) := F2(6..8); -- This is sometimes called "sliding"
Display (B1, "B1 is "); Display(B2, "B3 is "); Display(B3, "B3 is ");
Display (B2, "B2 is ");
```

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.

```

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

```

Line 8, in the previous program illustrates an unconstrained array. When 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.

3.9.1.2 Multi-dimensional Arrays

Ada allows both multiple-dimension arrays such as those found in Fortran or arrays of arrays such as those in the C family of languages. There is no language defined limit of number of dimensions. For example,

```

type Float_Matrix is array(Integer 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

```

3.9.1.3 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 with a new aggregate in the algorithmic part of a module. 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:

See unconstrained array, Float_Vector, defined in the previous section.

```

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, 20 => 6.2, others => 1.5); -- Instance with initial values
V5 : Float_Vector (-473..-1) := (others => Float'First); -- Negative index range

```

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

In Ada, an integer type index value may begin anywhere in the number range. It may even be a negative value, as in example V5. The value of V4'First is 12. The index bound of V4'Range is 12 through 80.

For a 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
```

3.9.1.4 Array Catenation Some prefer the word concatenation, same idea.

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
```

Often 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.
```

Suppose we want to display the value of Bango on the video. 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 catenates the result of the image attribute (as if it were a built-in function) which in turn is catenated to the constant string, Fahrenheit, (notice the leading space to make formatting more readable). Attributes help to make Ada programs more portable.

3.9.2 Records

Ada records come in several forms, many of which are ignored in this book. Some of the forms such as variant records, unconstrained records, and discriminated records, are not important to the novice. This book is not concerned with advanced or seldom used language features. However, we will include a few examples of constrained records, some records with a single discriminants, and some tagged records for the student's future study.

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;

  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;

```

-- 1 This specification would require a pragma Elaborate_Body
 -- 2 Simple constrained record
 -- 3 reserved word, record
 -- 4 String component
 -- 5 String component
 -- 6 String component
 -- 7 Floating point component
 -- 8 Subtype natural from package Standard
 -- 9 Must identify end of scope of each record
 -- 10
 -- 11 Simple record with an
 -- 12 unconstrained data type
 -- 13 See ALRM A.4.5
 -- 14 See package Standard
 -- 15
 -- 16
 -- 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
 -- 33
 -- 34
 -- 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
 -- 40 Record containing another record
 -- 41
 -- 42 See line 11
 -- 43 See line 2
 -- 44.
 -- 45 This package might require a pragma Elaborate_Body

Note that some Ada practitioners believe this kind of record is not a good idea. Since the Size might be variable at run-time, each compiler will have a unique way of addressing how to best implement the code

The package, Record_Declarations, has no subprograms. Therefore, the rules of the language might require a special pragma (compiler directive) to advise the compiler that there is a package body.

Note that, on line 35, the type Message_5 is derived from and extended from Message_4. This is a form of inheritance. We could have the following:

```

M4 : Message_4;
M5 : Message_5;
...
M4 := Message_4(M5); -- provide a Message_4 view of the object of derived type, Message_5

```

or

```

M5 := (M4 with Library_Book); -- extends M5 with necessary components during assignment

```


4. Control Structures for Algorithms

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

4.1 Iteration Algorithms in Ada

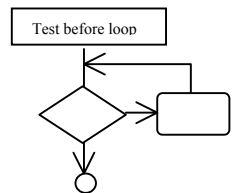
One of the three fundamental building blocks of every computer program is iteration. In nearly every serious program there is at least one loop. I realize some enthusiasts of recursion and/or functional programming (LISP, ML, CLOS, Haskell, etc.) may object to this statement.

4.1.1 For Loops

The famous proof in Italian by Jacopini and Bohm is important here since it is a foundation idea for program structure. From their proof, we understand the three fundamental control structures for imperative languages to be: sequence, iteration, and selection

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. Iteration safety is fundamental to Ada.

with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;	-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope;	A.10.8/21
procedure Sawatdee (Start, Stop : in Integer) is	-- 2 "Good morning" in Thailand;	6.2
begin	-- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements	
for I in Start..Stop	-- 4 I is a constant to the loop in each iteration;	5.5/9
loop	-- 5 Reserved word loop is required;	5.5
Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Put(I);	-- 6 Note the use of "dot notation" to achieve visibility; A.10.8	
end loop ;	-- 7 End loop is required for every loop;	5.5
end SaWatDee; -- Ada is not case sensitive!	-- 8 Note the label for the enclosing procedure;	6



An Ada enumerated type is an ordered set and may be used as the index of a loop. Also, the machine values for the enumerated type are not necessarily simple numbers as they are in C or C++. You will not 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;	-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope; 8.2, 10.1.2
procedure Dobroe_Utra is	-- 2 "Good morning" in Russian
begin	-- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements
Loop_Name:	-- 4 This is a named loop; good coding style; 5.5
for Index in Week	-- 5 Loop index may be any discrete type
loop	-- 6 Reserved word loop is required; 5.5
Ada.Text_IO.Put(Week'Image(Index));	-- 7 Image converts Value to Text for printing
end loop Loop_Name;	-- 8 The name is required if the loop is named; 5.5
end Dobroe_Utra;	-- 9 Note the label for the enclosing procedure

Always label loops in production code. It helps with both maintenance and documentation

Next consider an anonymous array with a range from fifteen through sixty. We can traverse this with a simple loop statement and a 'Range attribute. There can be no indexing off the end of the array.

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

consider the following loop with a loop label,

with Text_IO;	-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope
procedure Magandang_Umaga is	-- 2 "Good morning" in Tagalog (language of Phillipines)
begin	-- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements
Outer:	-- 4 This is a named loop; good coding style
for Index in Set'Range	-- 5 Index'First = 15; Index'Last = 60

```

loop
  Text_IO.Put(Integer'Image(Index));
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Integer'Image(Set(Index)));
  Inner:
  for Day in Week loop
    Text_IO.Put(Week'Image(Day));
  end loop Inner;
end loop Outer;
end Magandang_Umaga;

```

-- 6 Traverse the anonymous array
-- 7 Image converts Integer to Text for printing
-- 8 Print the value in the array using Image
-- 9 Give the inner loop a name
-- 10 Note how we use type name for the range
-- 11 Convert the Day to Text for printing
-- 12 The name of the loop is required
-- 13 The name is required if the loop is named
-- 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 Cannot code: 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
begin
  Outer:
  for I in M'Range(1) loop
    Inner:
    for J in M'Range(2) loop
      -- do some actions on the matrix
    end loop Inner;
  end loop Outer;
end Process;

```

-- 1 Specification for the procedure
-- 2 Simple begin
-- 3 Label for outer loop
-- 4 M'Range(1) is first dimension of array
-- 5 Label for nested loop
-- 6 M'Range(2) is second dimension
-- 7 Algorithmic statements
-- 8 Inner end loop
-- 9 Outer end loop
-- 10 End of procedure scope

Always use loop labels when coding nested loop structures.
--

4.1.2 While Loops ALRM 5.5

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

```

with Text_IO;
procedure Jo_Regelt is
  The_File : Text_IO.File_Type;
  As_Input : constant Text_IO.File_Mode := Text_IO.In_File;
  External_Name : String := "C:\Data\My.Txt";
  The_Data : String (1..80);
  Line_Length : Natural;
begin
  Text_IO.Open(The_File, As_Input, External_Name);
  Input_Routine:
  while not Text_IO.End_Of_File(The_File)
  loop
    Text_IO.Get(The_File, The_Data, Line_Length);
    Text_IO.Put_Line(The_Data(1..Line_Length));
  end loop Input_Routine;
end Jo_Regelt;

```

-- 1 Put a library unit in scope
-- 2 "Good morning" in Hungarian
-- 3 Declare internal file handle
-- 4 Is it input or output
-- 5 Declare the external file name
-- 6 A simple string variable;
-- 7 For the input line parameter
-- 8 Required to initiate a sequence of statements
-- 9 See Text_IO for the types of the parameters
-- 10 You may name any kind of loop, and should!
-- 11 Read The_File until finding the EOF mark
-- 12 Reserved word loop is required
-- 13 Get a delimited string from the file
-- 14 Echo the string with carriage / return line feed
-- 15 end loop name is required if the loop is named
-- 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;
with Ada.Characters.Latin_1;
procedure Hello_By_Input is
  ESC : Character renames Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Esc;

```

-- 1 Correct context clause
-- 2 Replaces Ada 83 package ASCII
-- 3 Long procedure name
-- 4 A.3.3/5; Ada is not case sensitive

```

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.

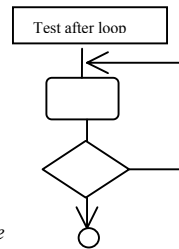
4.1.3 Exit Loop ALRM 5.7

```

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. For consistency checking, 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;
else
  ...
end if;

```

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

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

4.2 Selection Statements

Selection comes in two flavors. There is the alternation form, usually represented as an *if ...end if*, 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*".

4.2.1 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;
statement

```

-- 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*

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 but do permit membership *if* tests. record types and private types have predefined *if* tests for equality and membership. The creator of a limited type may define an equality or relational operator. For a private type or record the designer may overload equality or define a relational operator. Sometimes it is better to create an entirely new operation such as *Is_Equal* or *Is_Greater*. For example, using the data type, *Inventory*, defined earlier.

```

function "=" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean; -- Specify an equality operator; operator overloading
function Is_Equal (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean; -- Specify an equality operation; Could be more readable
function ">" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean; -- Specify an greater-than operator

```

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. In the **or else** format, if the expression in the first operand is not TRUE, evaluate the second operand. If it is TRUE, then don't bother to evaluate the second operand.

4.2.2 Membership Testing 4.5.2/2

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

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 At least one 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
```

4.2.3 Case Statements ALRM 5.4

Ada *case* statements are 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; -- I like to initialize everything
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;
-- 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 others required for unspecified cases.
-- 10 Must use others if any cases are not specified
```

```

    return Result;           -- 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). Always label a **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.

4.3 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.

4.3.1 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

4.3.2 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 initiate 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, Data; 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 made visible 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_Text_IO;
    X : Float := Ada.Numerics.Pi;
  begin
    Put(X);
  end Local_Block;
end P7;

```

-- 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 initiate 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);                -- 15 Dot qualifier makes Integer X visible
    end Local_Block;              -- 16 Labeled end name required for labeled block
end P7;                            -- 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 some of 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 operators.

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.

type Reference is access Integer;	-- Can only point to predefined type Integer; storage pool access type
type Float_Reference is access all Float;	-- Can only point to predefined type Float; general access type
type Container is limited private ;	-- Defines a data type with limited format; ordinary limited type
type Container_Pointer is access all Container;	-- Can only point to objects of type Container; access to a limited type
type Method is access procedure ... ;	-- Points to a procedure with corresponding parameter profile
type Method is access function ... ;	-- 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 General Access Type Errors

There is a potential danger with direct assignment to pointers. This danger is present 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 Assign location of N1 to Location
    N2 := Spritz(Location); -- 14 Call function with access variable parameter
  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
  type Integer_Reference is access all Integer;          -- 2
begin                                                     -- 3
  declare                                                 -- 4
    Reference : Integer_Reference;                       -- 5
    Data : aliased Integer;                               -- 6
  begin                                                  -- 7
    Reference := Data'Access;                             -- 8
  end;                                                  -- 9
end Accessibility_Problem_3;                             -- 10

```

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

5.4 Access to Subprogram Types

One of the problems with the Ada 83/87 standard for Ada was the unavailability of some kind of pointer capability for subprograms. The current Ada standard does permit 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

5.4.2.1 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;                                           -- 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

```

5.4.2.2 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                             -- 2
  type Real is digits 12;                                       -- 3 Define a floating point type
  package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO(Num => Real);              -- 4 Instantiate IO package
  function Method (D : in Real) return Real is                  -- 5 function w/correct profile
  begin                                                         -- 6
    return D + D;                                               -- 7
  end Method;                                                  -- 8
  type Compute is access function (D : in Real) return Real;   -- 9 Corresponding access type
  Result, Value : Real := 0.0;                                  -- 10
  procedure Process (Behavior : Compute; Input : in Real;      -- 11 Note first parameter type
                    Output : out Real) is                      -- 12
  begin                                                         -- 13
    Output := Behavior(Input);                                  -- 14 Reference to a function
  end Process;                                                -- 15
begin                                                         -- 16
  loop                                                         -- 17
    Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 18
    Text_IO.Put("Enter Real Value (0 to exit): ");            -- 19
    FIO.Get(Value);                                           -- 20
    exit when Value = 0.0;                                       -- 21
    Process(Behavior => Method'Access, Input => Value, Output => Result); -- 22 Key statement in example
    Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 23
    Text_IO.Put_Line("The result is ");                       -- 24
    FIO.Put(Result, Fore => 4, Aft => 3, Exp => 0);            -- 25
    Text_IO.New_Line;                                         -- 26
  end loop;                                                  -- 27
end Function_Access_Type;                                     -- 28

```

5.4.2.2 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
    type Int_32 is range -2**31..2**31 - 1;
    for Int_32'Size use 32;
    type Data_Set is array (Natural range <>) of Int_32;
    type Data_Set_Reference is access all Data_Set;
    type Validate_Routine is access function(Data : Int_32)
        return Boolean;
    type Process_Method is access Procedure(Data : Int_32);
    procedure Process (Data : in out Data_Set;
        Method : in Process_Method);
    function Validate (Data : access Data_Set;
        Validator : in Validate_Routine) return Boolean;
    function Validate (Data : in Data_Set;
        Validator : in Validate_Routine) return Boolean;
end Reference_Types;

```

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 which for parameters in lines 9 through 15. The following package contains declarations for functions for our final example. It depends on package Reference_Types.

```

with Reference_Types;
package Reference_Functions is
    function My_Process return Reference_Types.Process_Method;
    function My_Validator return Reference_Types.Validate_Routine;
end Reference_Functions;

```

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

```

with Reference_Types;
with Reference_Functions;
with Ada.Text_IO;
procedure Test_Reference_Types is
    Test_Data : Reference_Types.Int_32 := 42;
    package Int_32_IO is new Ada.Text_IO
        Integer_IO(Num => Reference_Types.Int_32);
    Test_Data_Set : Reference_Types.Data_Set(0..20)
        := (others => Test_Data);
begin
    Reference_Types.Process (Data => Test_Data_Set,
        Method => Reference_Functions.My_Process);
end Test_Reference_Types;

```

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 : in Validate_Routine) return Boolean is
    begin
        return Validate(Data.all, Validator);
    end Validate;

    function Validate (Data : in Data_Set;
                      Validator : in 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 stupid 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 algorithms. As shown earlier, procedure have a rich set of parameter types and parameter modes. The format of a procedure body is,

```

procedure Ahoy_There is                                -- 1 Procedure declaration with no parameters; 6.3
  -- procedure declarations                               -- 2 Local to this procedure
begin                                                    -- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  -- handled sequence of statements                     -- 4 Handled by exception handler on error 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

Note 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 its 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

```

The implementation may be coded and compiled later. The implementation for Simple_2 could be,

```

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

```

Another version of this might execute 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

```



```

...
end Is_Valid;
Text : String (1..80);
Len : Natural;
begin
Ada.Text_IO.Get_Line(Text, Len);
if Is_Valid(Text(1..Len)) then
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Text(1..Len));
end if;
end Simple_2 ;

```

-- 5 three dots is not legal Ada
-- 6 End of function scope
-- 7 Declare a String variable with constraint
-- 8 Uninitialized variable
-- 9 Begin handled-sequence-of-statments
-- 10 Call to Get_Line procedure with two parameters
-- 11 Call the function with string parameter
-- 12 Put string w/carriage return and line feed
-- 13 Ends scope of if statement
-- 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; -- This could be any Application 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;
  Left_Temp, Right_Temp : Integer := Center;
  Plus_2 : constant := 2;
  Minus_2 : constant := -2;

```

-- 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
-- 11 Temporary values, initialized
-- 12 Positive constant value
-- 13 Negative constant value

```

procedure Draw (Left, Right, Depth : in Integer) is
    Symbol : String(1..1) := "X";
    Left_Col, Right_Col : Column;
begin
    for Index in 1..Depth loop
        if Left_Temp = Center then
            TIO.Set_Col(Center);
            TIO.Put(Symbol);
        else
            Left_Col := Column(Left_Temp);
            Right_Col := Column(Right_Temp);
            TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col);
            TIO.Put(Symbol);
            TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col);
            TIO.Put(Symbol);
        end if;
        TIO.New_Line;
        Left_Temp := Left_Temp + Left;
        Right_Temp := Right_Temp + Right;
    end loop;
end Draw;
begin -- Diamond
    Draw (Left => Minus_2, Right => Plus_2, Depth => 9);
    Draw (Left => Plus_2, Right => Minus_2, Depth => 10);
end Diamond;

```

-- 14 Nested procedure with parameter list
-- 15 The character we will print
-- 16 These are probably extraneous
-- 17 We are in a nested procedure
-- 18 Index declared here; type is range type
-- 19 Is it time to Put the center character?
-- 20 Using renamed Text_IO.Count
-- 21
-- 22
-- 23 Extraneous assignment on these two lines;
-- 24 we could do type conversion in Set_Col
-- 25 TIO.Set_Col(Column(Right_Temp))
-- 26 might be better coding on line 25 and 27
-- 27
-- 28
-- 29
-- 30
-- 31 Arithmetic on Temporary values using
-- 32 algebraic addition on negative parameter
-- 33
-- 34 End of nested procedure
-- 35 Always comment this kind of thing
-- 36 Use named association for these calls.
-- 37 Reverse the signs to get a different shape
-- 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
begin
    Data := Data + 1;
end Update;

```

-- 1 in out allowed on either side of :=
-- 2 start algorithmic part of procedure
-- 3 In with one value; out with a new value
-- 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
begin
    -- long, complex, dynamically self-balancing algorithm
    Balanced := -- a boolean result from the balancing algorithm
end Balance;

```

-- 1 Dynamically, self-balancing tree
-- 2 built on access types for flexibility.
-- 3 node rotations: LL, LR, RR, RL
-- 4 Must be checked by caller
-- 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
    OK_To_Proceed : Boolean := False;
begin -- Insert
    -- algorithm to insert a node in the tree
    Balance(The_Tree => Tree, Balanced => OK_To_Proceed);
    if OK_To_Proceed then
        -- some additional source code here
    end if;
end Insert;

```

-- 1 From collection of AVL_Tree methods
-- 2 Should be initialized
-- 3 Good practice to comment a begin
-- 4 Pre-order, in-order, post-order?
-- 5 Named association call
-- 6 If you fail to do this check, you are
-- 7 Making use of the out parameter of
-- 8 type Boolean.
-- 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.

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.

6.2.1 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 =>, associates 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, May, 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;                                         -- 6 We never reach this point if exception is raised

```

```

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

```

-- 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 may be strengthened in a future ISO Ada 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;                                -- 1 Yes, you may with a subprogram
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                       -- 2 I/O for Standard Integer
with Ada.Text_IO;                               -- 3 Character and String I/O
use Ada;                                        -- 4 Make Ada visible; not a problem
procedure Test_Factorial is                   -- 5 Specification with "is"
  Data : Natural := 0;                           -- 6 In scope up to end of procedure
begin                                          -- 7 You know what this means by now
  Text_IO.Put("Enter Positive Integer: ");      -- 8 Display a prompt on the screen
  Integer_Text_IO.Get(Data);                    -- 9 Get an integer from the keyboard
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Factorial(Data));         -- 10 Display an integer on the screen
end Test_Factorial;                            -- 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                             -- 1 Hello in Maori, early language of New Zealand
  procedure Kia_Menemene;                         -- 2 Be happy, in Maori
  function Menemene return Boolean;              -- 3 Are you happy?
end Kia_Ora;                                    -- 4 end of package specification

```

Then a package body highlighting separate compilation:

```

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

```

The separately compiled procedure could be coded:

```

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

```

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 use some of the services but not want to use all of those services. Ada allows a client to identify only those services needed, through its visibility rules, even though all services might be in scope and potentially visible.

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 revise the specification for the earlier Messenger package.

<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 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 => ''); 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>	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">Public Part</div> </div> <div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 3em; margin-right: 10px;">}</div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">Private Part</div> </div>
--	--	---

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 private part of an Ada package specification is somewhat analogous to a C++ class protected part. A child library unit may have some visibility to private part just as C++ derived class has visibility to a protected part of its parent class. We examine these visibility issues later.

The package Messenger exports some services as subprograms. The algorithmic (procedural) part of these subprograms must be coded someplace. Ada forbids algorithms in the package specification. Algorithms must be coded in the package body. Subprogram declarations in the specification require a corresponding implementation in the body. The package body depends on successful compilation of its fully conforming package specification. The Ada compiler checks this dependency through compilation unit date and time stamps. The package body is an integral part of the library unit. The package body never needs to *with* the package specification because both are part of the same library unit.

7.2 Package Body

Not every package needs a package body. In practice, only packages that declare public 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. This exception to the rule is also rigorously managed by the compiler.

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 Get;
  procedure Put (M : in 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;
-- 1
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4
-- 5
-- 6
-- 7
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11
-- 12
-- 13
-- 14
-- 15
-- 16
-- 17
-- 18
-- 19
-- 20
-- 21
-- 22
-- 23
-- 24
-- 25
-- 26
-- 27
-- 28
-- 29
-- 30

```

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

```

procedure Put
  (M : in 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.

Neither a client or child of package Messenger ever has visibility to 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;
-- 1
-- 2 a decimal fixed-point type
-- 3 derive from Money
-- 4 derive from Money
-- 5 declare a function specification
-- 6 declare a function specification
-- 7 declare an exception
-- 8

```



```

package body Conversions is
  function Convert (Y : Yen; Rate : Money) return Dollars is
    Result : Dollars := 0.0;
  begin
    return Result;
  end Convert;
  function Convert (D : Dollars; Rate : Money) return Yen is
    Result : Yen := 0.0;
  begin
    return Result;
  end Convert;
end Conversions;
-- 1
-- 2
-- 3 declare result of return type
-- 4 stub out the function temporarily
-- 5 after algorithm to do conversion
-- 6
-- 7
-- 8 declare result of return type
-- 9 temporarily stub out the begin..end part
-- 10 after algorithm to do conversion
-- 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 end

```

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
-- 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 include a range of 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.

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

```

with Ada.Text_IO;
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;
procedure Pi_Symbol is
  Pi : constant Float := 3.1415;
  Radius : Float := 12.0;
  Area : Float := 0.0;
begin
  Area := Pi * Radius ** 2;
  Ada.Float_Text_IO.Put(Area);
end Pi_Symbol;
-- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10
-- 2 Predefined in Annex A A.10.9/33
-- 3 Parameterless declaration; 6.3
-- 4 Should have used Ada.Numerics for this
-- 5 Ordinary Floating point initialized
-- 6 I prefer to initialize all variables; not require here
-- 7 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
-- 8 Possible to paste in the special character
-- 4 Dot notation makes Put visible A.10.6
-- 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;
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions;
use Ada;
procedure Compute_Trigs is
  package Compute is new Ada.
    Numerics.
    Generic_Elementary_Functions
    (Float_Type => Float);
  Pi : Float := Ada.Numerics.Pi;
  Radius : Float := 12.0;
  Area : Float := 0.0;
  Sqrt_Result : Float := 0.0;
begin
  Area := Pi * Radius ** 2;
  Ada.Float_Text_IO.Put(Area);
  Sqrt_Result := Compute.Sqrt(Area);
end Compute_Trigs;
-- 1 Put Text_IO library unit in scope; 10.1.2, A.10
-- 2 A.10.9/33
-- 3 A.5.1
-- 4 Gives direct visibility to all of package Ada 8.4
-- 5 Parameterless declaration; 6.3
-- 6 A.2 A new instance with a new name
-- 7 A.5 Root package for numerics
-- 8 A.5.1 Contains Trig and other functions
-- 9 A.1/25 for definition of type Float
-- 10 Pi is defined in Ada.Numerics
-- 11 Ordinary Floating point initialized
-- 12 I prefer to initialize variables; not required here
-- 13 For our Square root computation
-- 14 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
-- 15 Compute the area of the circle
-- 16 dot notation makes Put visible A.10.6
-- 17 Note use of Compute with dot notation
-- 18 Scope terminator with name of unit 6.3

```

Note: Not everyone agrees with line 12, above. Some developers prefer not to initialize variables because they might contribute to unexpected errors during maintenance.

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);

```

This fragment of code can actually be compiled as a new library unit that can be referenced in a context clause through a with clause

Now, you can access this package easily by "with Real_Functions" 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..2.0 * 3.14; -- 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.ArcSinh(X => R1); -- 16
  R3 := Real_Functions.ArcCot(X => R1, Cycle => 40.0); -- 17
  R4 := Real_Functions.Cos(X => R1, Cycle => D2); -- 18
  R1 := To_Radians(D2); -- 19
  R3 := Real_Functions.Tan(X => R1); -- 20
  D2 := To_Degrees(R2); -- 21
end Test_Math_Functions; -- 22

```

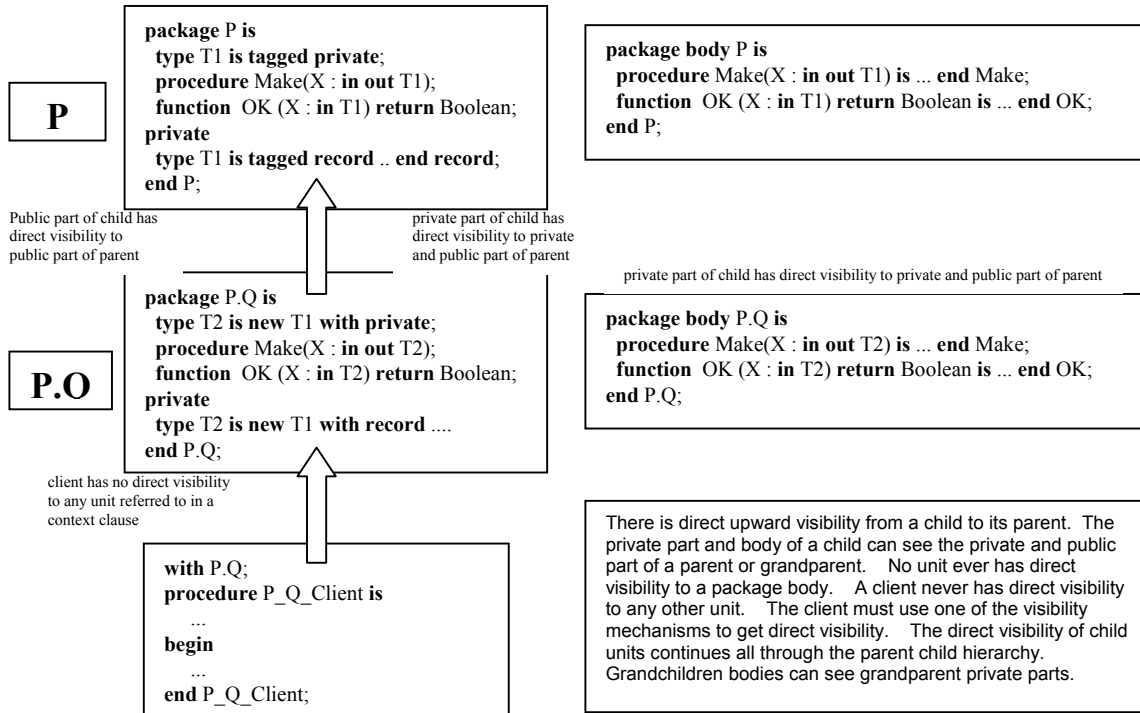
The package Generic_Uilities is not described in this book. It is in the program files that come with this book. For functions with no cycle parameter, assume a natural cycle of 2 Pi, which means all calculations are done in radians. Lines 17 shows that you can provide other parameter values for the cycle parameter.

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 --
-- 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 Abstract_Machinery is                                     -- Package specification; requires body
  type Machine is abstract tagged private;                       -- Specifies the visible part of the data type;
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class;                   -- Tagged type should have classwide access
  function Create (Desc : String)                                -- Parameter for Create
    return Machine'Class;                                       -- Tagged return type should be classwide
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine);                       -- procedure specification
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);                      -- procedure specification
  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean;               -- function specification
private                                                        -- private part hidden from a client of contract
  type Machine is abstract tagged record                        -- full definition of the publicly declared type
    Turned_On : Boolean := False;                                -- component of the type; OOP attribute
    Description : String(1..120);                               -- Constrained array component
  end record;                                                  -- scope terminator for the component
end Abstract_Machinery;                                       -- 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 Abstract_Machinery.Classwide is                         -- Package specification; requires body
  type FIFO_Container(Size : Positive)                            -- Parameterized type; make it any size
    is limited private;                                         -- No assignment for limited type
  procedure Put(CM : in out FIFO_Container;                      -- Put into the next available location
    Data : access Machine'Class);                               -- Any member of class, Machine
  procedure Get(CM : in out FIFO_Container)                      -- Get, destructively, first item
    Data : access Machine'Class);                               -- Any member of Machine' class
private                                                        -- Start hidden part of the package
  type Machine_Data is array                                    -- Define an unconstrained array
    (Positive range <>) of Reference;                            -- The array is pointers to Machine'Class
  type FIFO_Container(Size : Positive) is                       -- Full definition of parameterized type
    record                                                       -- In the format of a record
      Current : Natural;                                         -- What is the current item
      Data : Machine_Data(1..Size);                             -- Pointer array to Machine derivations
    end record;                                                -- Terminate scope of the record
end Abstract_Machinery.Classwide;                               -- 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 message
-- 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 Messenger;
procedure Messenger_Processor ... end Messenger_Processor;
-- 1 A context clause
-- 2 Three dots are not legal Ada

```

The first line, with Messenger, puts the package named Messenger and all of its services in the declarative region available to Messenger_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;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_1 is
  Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference :=
    (1 => new Machinery.Machine,
     2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational);
  Index : Natural range 1..2 := 0;
begin
  Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);
  Machinery.Turn_On(Data(Index).all);
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_1;

```

-- 1 Context clause
-- 2 Enables the input of the array index
-- 3 Specification for the example procedure
-- 4 Anonymous array of access objects
-- 5 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 6 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 7 Use this to index into the array
-- 8
-- 9 Get the index for the next statement
-- 10 Dynamically call one of the Turn_On methods
-- 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;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_2 is
  Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference :=
    (1 => new Machinery.Machine,
     2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational);
  Index : Natural range 0..2 := 0;
procedure Start(M : Machine'Class) is
begin
  Machinery.Turn_On(M);
end Start;
begin
  Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);
  Start(M => Data(Index).all);
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_2;

```

-- 1 With both packages; no use clause required
-- 2 Enables the input of the array index
-- 3 Specification for the example procedure
-- 4 Anonymous array of access objects
-- 5 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 6 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 7 Use this to index into the array
-- 8 Procedure with classwide parameter
-- 9
-- 10 Turn_On is dynamically determined via the tag
-- 11
-- 12
-- 13 Get the index for the next statement
-- 14 Call the classwide procedure
-- 15

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

```

with Machinery, Rotating_Machinery;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
procedure Dynamic_Binding_Example_3 is
  Index : Natural range 0..2 := 0;
  function Get (The_Index : Natural) return Machine'Class is
    Data : array (1..2) of Machinery.Reference :=
      (1 => new Machinery.Machine,
       2 => new Rotating_Machinery.Rotational);
begin
  return Data(Index).all);
end Get;
begin
  Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Get(Index);
  declare
    The_Machine : Machine'Class := Get(Index);
begin
  Turn_On(The_Machine);
end;
end Dynamic_Binding_Example_3;

```

-- 1 No use clause is required for this example
-- 2 Enables the input of the array index
-- 3 Specification for the example procedure
-- 4 Use this to index into the array
-- 5 Procedure with classwide parameter
-- 6 Anonymous array of access objects
-- 7 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 8 Dynamically allocate new Object
-- 9
-- 10 return the data access by Data(Index)
-- 11
-- 12
-- 13 Get the index for the next statement
-- 14 Start a local declare block
-- 15 Declare and constrain classwide variable
-- 16
-- 17 Call classwide procedure dynamically constrained data
-- 18
-- 19

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.

10.1.1 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.

10.1.2 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.

10.1.3 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

```

10.1.4 Other String Operations

There are many other facilities for string handling in Ada. We show here an example from another useful library, package Ada.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.To_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
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-- 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,

```

Ada comb
function Ohm (Volt, Amp : Float) return Float is -- 1 Parameterized function declaration; 6.3
  Result : Float := 0.0; -- 2 Initialized local variable
begin -- 3 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  Result := Volt / Amp; -- 4 Simple division operation; cannot divide by zero
exception -- 5 If we try to divide by zero, land here.
  when 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
    raise; -- 8 Re-raises the exception after handling it.
end 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.

```

with Ada.Exceptions; -- 1 Chapter 11.4.1 ALRM; also, see the end of this chapter
use Ada; -- 2 OK for use clause on package Ada
procedure Electric (Amp, Volt : in Float; -- 3 In parameters
  Resistance : out Float) is -- 4 Out parameter; 6.3
  function MSG (X : Exceptions.Exception_Occurrence) -- 5 Profile for Exception_Message function
    return String -- 6 Return type for Exception_Message
  renames Exceptions.Exception_Message; -- 7 Rename it to three character function name
begin -- 8 Begins sequence of algorithmic statements; 6.3
  Resistance := Ohm(Amp => Amp, Volt => Volt); -- 9 Simple division operation; cannot divide by zero
exception -- 10 If we try to divide by zero, land here.
  when 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
end 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.

```

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

Suppose we have the following visible declaration:
Compound_Data_Error : exception;

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 Usually some sequence of statements
    elsif Data.Height'Valid then   -- 14 Test the Height to see if it is valid
        null;                       -- 15 Usually some sequence of statements
    elsif Data.Width'Valid then    -- 16 Test the Widht to see if it is valid
        null;                       -- 17 Usually some sequence of statements
    else                           -- 18 An else part is usually a good idea
        raise Compound_Data_Error; -- 19 Failed all around; raise an exception
    end if;                         -- 20
end Test_The_Valid_Attribute;      -- 21

```

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 discrete 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 Unconstrained generic parameter
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 non-limited data type.

```

procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out Element) is                -- 1
    Temp : Element := Left;                                       -- 2 Must be constrained in declaration
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;                                       -- A constrained generic formal parameter
  procedure Swap(L, R : in out Item);

  generic
    type Item is (<>);                                           -- A discrete type generic formal parameter
  function Next (Data : Item) return Item;

  generic
    type Item is (<>);                                           -- A discrete type generic formal parameter
  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 11 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 -- 7
    null; -- 8
  end Add; -- 9
  procedure Remove (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 10
  begin -- 11
    null; -- 12
  end Remove; -- 13
  procedure Apply (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 14
  begin -- 15
    null; -- 16
  end Apply; -- 17
-- 18
package Character_Mapping is new Mapping_Example.Mapping -- 19
  (Mapping_Type => Character, -- 20
  Key => Integer, -- 21
  Value => Integer, -- 22
  Add => Add, -- 23

```

```

        Remove    => Remove,           -- 24
        Apply     => Apply);           -- 25
procedure Do_Something_To_Map       -- 26
is new Mapping_Example.Do_Something -- 27
    (Mapping_Operations => Character_Mapping); -- 28
begin                                -- 29
    Do_Something_To_Map(M => Map_Data,  -- 30
                        K => Map_Key,   -- 31
                        V => Map_Value); -- 32
end Test_Mapping_Example;           -- 33

```

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
use Ada;                               -- 2
generic                                 -- 3
    type Element is tagged private;     -- 4
    -- A more robust design would defined Element as a derivation from Ada.Finalization.Controlled -- 5
    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 heterogenous, 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
        : List_Item'Class := Local_Data.all; -- 98
    begin -- 99
      Insert_At_Head(Target, Local_List_Item); -- 100
    end; -- 101
    Temp := Temp.Prev; -- 102
  end loop; -- 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
  function "-" (L, R : TIO.Count) return TIO.Count
    renames TIO."-";                          -- 7 Makes the operators directly
  Center : constant TIO.Count := 37;          -- 8 visible for "+" and "-" to avoid
  Left_Col, Right_Col : TIO.Count := Center; -- 9 the need for a "use" clause.
  Symbol : constant Character := 'X';         -- 10 type-specific constant; named number
  -- 11 type-specific variables
  -- 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 := I;                   -- 47 Calling task is suspended until end statement
      end X;                          -- 48 Rendezvous complete. Caller is not suspended
    or                                  -- 49 or this next alternative
      accept Y (I : out Character) do -- 50 Critical region begins with do statement
        I := Temp;                   -- 51 Caller is suspended at this point
        Temp := Latin_1.Nul;         -- 52 The non-printing nul character
      end Y;                          -- 53 Rendezvous complete at this point
    or                                  -- 54 or the terminate alternative which will only
      terminate;                     -- 55 be taken if no other task can call this one
    end select;                       -- 56 end of scope for the select statement
  end loop;                           -- 57
end T3;                               -- 58
end Set_Of_Tasks;                     -- 59

```

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. There a lot of reasons why you would not want to design a task-based application in exactly the way this one is designed. There are some inherent inefficiencies in the design but it does illustrate some fundamental ideas you should know.

```

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
    end loop;

```

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.

```

        Variable.Display(Output, "T1 ");           -- 39
    end loop;                                     -- 40
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 attendendant 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

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

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.

Some Ada reserved words are overloaded with 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.

This package defines the types, Integer, Boolean, Float, Character, String, Duration. It also defines two 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.

```

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

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#)

```

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);
```

-- 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;
```

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

```
type Wide_String is array(Positive range <>) of Wide_Character;
pragma Pack(Wide_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;
```

These exceptions are predefined in this package. A designer may define more exceptions. Note the absence of `Numeric_Error`, which is now obsolescent in the current standard.

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 is a compiler directive. This directive is of little interest to you at this stage of your study. It will be very 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 it 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 from internal to external format is required. For all other types, transformations should be done with Text_IO. Some operations are overloaded. Overloading is most common when there are two file destinations for an action: a named file or default standard file.

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 dependent.

  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; -- Query the mode of a file
  function Name (File : in File_Type) return String; -- Query the external name of a file
  function Form (File : in File_Type) return String; -- Varies by compiler implementation

  function Is_Open (File : in File_Type) return Boolean; -- Query the open status of a file
  -- 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 output 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
```

Note overloading of subprogram names from this point on.

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); -- 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;

```

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.

```

        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 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);

```

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.


```

-- 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;
              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;
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;

```

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;
                Year : out Year_Number;
                Month : out Month_Number;
                Day : out Day_Number;
                Seconds : out Day_Duration);
-- 12
-- 13
-- 14
-- 15
-- 16
function Time_Of (Year : Year_Number;
                 Month : Month_Number;
                 Day : Day_Number;
                 Seconds : Day_Duration := 0.0) return Time;
-- 17
-- 18
-- 19
-- 20

```

type Duration is defined in package Standard

```

-- 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
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

```

System Description Package

Also see: *System.Storage_Elements*
System.Address_To_Access_Conversion
System.Storage_Pools

```

package System is -- 1 Required for every compiler
  pragma Praelaborate(System); -- 2 Elaborate at compile time
  type Name is implementation-defined-enumeration-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 Usually a private type
  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

```

Arithmetic operators 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

P'Access	For a prefix P that denotes a subprogram:
P'Access	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.
X'Access	For a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object:
X'Access	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.
X'Address	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.
S'Adjacent	For every subtype S of a floating point type T: S'Adjacent denotes a function with the following specification: function S'Adjacent (X, Towards : T) return 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.
S'Aft	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.
X'Alignment	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.
S'Base	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.
S'Bit_Order	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.
P'Body_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 body (but not any subunits) of the program unit. See E.3.
T'Callable	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.
E'Caller	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.
S'Ceiling	For every subtype S of a floating point type T: S'Ceiling denotes a function with the following specification: function S'Ceiling (X : T) return T

- The function yields the value ϵX , 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 $\frac{1}{2}v \leq v < \frac{3}{2}v$ `T'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	<p>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</p> <p>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.</p>
S'Rounding	<p>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</p> <p>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.</p>
S'Safe_First	<p>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.</p>
S'Safe_Last	<p>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.</p>
S'Scale	<p>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.</p>
S'Scaling	<p>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</p> <p>Let v be the value X:T'Machine_Radix**(Adjustment). If v is a machine number of the type T, or if $v \geq T'Model_Small$, 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.</p>
S'Signed_Zeros	<p>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.</p>
S'Size	<p>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.</p>
X'Size	<p>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.</p>
S'Small	<p>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.</p>
S'Storage_Pool	<p>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.</p>
S'Storage_Size	<p>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.</p>

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 <code>universal_integer</code> . The <code>Storage_Size</code> 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; <code>Constraint_Error</code> 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; <code>Constraint_Error</code> 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 <code>Tag</code> . 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 <code>Tag</code> . See 3.9.
T'Terminated	For a prefix T that is of a task type (after any implicit dereference): Yields the value <code>True</code> if the task denoted by T is terminated, and <code>False</code> otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type <code>Boolean</code> . 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 <code>True</code> . 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 <code>True</code> . 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 : <i>universal_integer</i>) 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 <code>True</code> 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 <code>Boolean</code> . 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 <code>String</code> 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.

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

C. Bibliography

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Be sure you get the second edition; many improvements over the first edition

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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

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 JEWL 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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