

Ada Distilled

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

by
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<http://www.adaworks.com>

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

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

Richard Riehle

Intended 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 for designing large-scale software systems. This book emphasizes syntax, control structures, subprogram rules, and how-to coding issues rather than design issues. There are other really fine books available that deal with design. Also, this is not a comprehensive treatment of the Ada language. The bibliography lists some books that can help you once you have finished the material in this book.

Think of this a quick-start book, one that enables you, the experienced programmer, to get into the Ada language quickly and easily. The examples use text-oriented programs for simplicity of learning. If you prefer to do the exercises for a GUI environment, check out the sites listed for compilers and tools so you can download bindings for programming in a variety of windowing environments, including Wintel, Linux, and Unix. Of particular interest to those wanting to explore Window style programming are GtkAda, CLAW, GWindows, and JEWL. The last of these, JEWL, is especially useful if you have no prior experience writing Windows programs.

Happy Coding,

RICHARD RIEHLE

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Author's Observation and Opinion

The Ada language is designed to maximize the possibilities for error detection early in the development process. This reduces the overall cost of software development since it is known that errors corrected early, will cost less than those detected late. No other language, not C++, not Java, not Eiffel, provides the level of support for safety-critical software found in Ada. Developers can and do make mistakes, even using Ada, but the probability of such mistakes is substantially less when using Ada than it is when using other languages. Therefore, when failure is not acceptable, during development or during software execution, the wise developer will select Ada. Although Ada is not as popular as some of the more well-known languages, it has substantial benefits over most of them when software dependability is a primary objective. In addition, contemporary Ada is as appropriate for developing GUI-based applications, information systems applications, and computationally intensive systems as any existing language. It is truly a general-purpose language, well-suited to any kind of software problem you might encounter.

1. What is Ada Distilled?

This book is for experienced programmers new to Ada. Heavily commented example programs help experienced programmer experiment with Ada. This is not a comprehensive book on the entire Ada language. In particular, we say very little about Ada.Finalization, Storage Pool Management, Representation Specifications, 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. Ada comments are the double-hyphen and continue to the end of a line. Comments might be explanatory notes and/or corresponding section of the Ada Language Reference Manual (ALRM) in the format of ALRM X.5.3/22.

This will compile and execute with any Ada compiler.

```
with Ada.Text_IO;           -- 1 10.1.2, A.10 Context clause
procedure Hello 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 Hello;                -- 5 6.3 End of procedure scope
```

A hello program in Ada.

where each line is numbered. The 10.1.2 and 6.3, etc. refer to ALRM Chapters 6.3, 10.1.2. A.10.6 refers to Annex A.10.6. There is occasional commentary by source code line number. The line numbers are not part of Ada, but provided on our examples for ease of commentary. Boxed notes are also included for some examples. The preceding example shows one of these as:

1.1 Ada Compilers and Tools

Ada 95 compilers support a wide range of platforms. A free, open source, compiler, GNAT, based on GNU technology, can be downloaded from the Web. Commercial Ada compilers and tools are available from: Ada Core Technologies (GNAT), DDC-I, Rational (recently acquired by IBM), RR Software, Irvine Compiler Corporation, Green Hills, SofCheck, Aonix, and OC Systems. Free editors, including AdaGide, are useful for developing small Ada programs. More information on tools, including GUI development tools, can be accessed using one of the URL's mentioned in the introduction and in the bibliography.

Development tools exist for many operating systems. These include CLAW for Microsoft Operating Systems, and GtkAda for other GUI environments including Microsoft operating systems, Linux, BSD, OS/2, Java Virtual Machine, and every variety of Unix. The AdaGide editor is available for MS Windows.

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 offer Ada courses. In addition, companies such as AdaWorks Software Engineering provide classes for anyone interested in Ada software development.

1.3 Ada Software Practice

If the software must absolutely work without error, where a software accident could kill or maim, Ada is the correct choice.

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 architecture for the language syntax and semantics. Once you understand these principles, Ada will be as easy as many other languages. We highlight some of those design principles in this book. One important principle is that the Ada compiler never assumes anything. Everything is explicit. Nothing in Ada is implicit. This helps the compiler help you write more dependable code. Oh, and you'll rarely need the debugger once you are experienced with Ada. Also, your Ada programs will usually compile to nearly any contemporary platform and execute on that platform without change.

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 stated 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 correspond to the final product of the software process. Ada is not designed 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**

Yes, you can hack solutions in Ada if you want. However, it is intended as a language for disciplined design and construction of high reliability software.

In summary, Ada is designed to maximize the error checking a compiler can do early in the development process. Each syntactic construct is intended to help the compiler meet this goal. This means some Ada syntax may initially seem extraneous but has an important role in alerting the compiler to 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*. The safety default is one of Ada's most important contributions to engineering software.

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 identifiers 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. Here are some sample statements:

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

No curly braces in Ada

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 (procedures/functions) and include both operators and operations. Operators include the symbols: =, /=, <, >, <=, >=, &, +, -, /, *. Other operators are the reserved words, **and**, **or**, **xor**, **not**, **abs**, **rem**, **mod**. One issue that annoys newcomers to Ada is the strictness of the *visibility* rules associated with operators. We will discuss the visibility rules and techniques for using them sensibly in Section 2.4 and elsewhere in this book. For detailed operator rules, see ALRM 4.5.

All other methods are called operations. One operation, *assignment* uses the compound symbol: :=. The Ada programmer may not directly overload the assignment operation. Assignment is predefined for most Ada types. It is prohibited for *limited* types. We describe limited types later in this book.

The Ada programmer may declare type-specific methods. An experienced Ada designer uses the package specification for declaring such methods, and for overriding/overloading existing methods.

The membership test, not considered an operation by the language, has important method-like properties. Membership test uses the reserved word **in**. Combine the word **in** with the word **not** (**not in**) for a negative membership test. Membership testing is permitted for every Ada type, including limited types.

See 4.2.2

2.3 Library and Compilation Units

2.3.1 Library 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

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 must successfully compile before the compiler will recognize it in a *context clause*. Each compiled unit is placed in a [sometimes virtual] library. Unlike a *#include*, the *context clause* does not make elements of a library unit visible. Instead, a *context clause* simply puts the library unit in scope, making it potentially visible.

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> |

Note: Library units may be generic. See chapter 12.

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**. A package specification almost always (not always) requires a package body.

Here is a typical specification for a package library unit. The specification has two parts, public and private. A client of a package can access only specification's public part, not its private part.

```

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;

```

-- 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*

Public part

Private part

Here is a possible package body, which implements the specification. It is separately compiled.

```

package body Machinery_1_3 is
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is
  begin
    M.Turned_On := True;
  end Turn_On;

  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is
  begin
    M.Turned_On := False;
  end Turn_Off;

  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean is
  begin
    return M.Turned_On;
  end Is_On;
end Machinery_1_3;

```

-- 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*

Body

Most often, the specification and the body are compiled separately. A specification must compile without errors before its body can be compiled. The Ada compiler will issue a fatal error if the body is out of phase with the specification. A programmer creating a client of the package, can only see 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 engage the promised services. Every declaration in the specification must conform, exactly, to the code in the body. The Ada compiler detects non-conformance to ensure consistency over the lifetime of the whole library unit. A change to a specification requires recompilation of the body. A change to the body does not require recompilation of the specification. Consider this client subprogram:

```

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;

```

-- 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*

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 view 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.

Note the use of named association in the procedure call. The syntax includes the compound symbol => where the formal parameter is on the left and the actual parameter is on the right. This Ada feature helps to make code more readable and eliminates a lot of errors in the final source code. Named association is optional, but it is very powerful and used often in production code.

2.3.2 Compilation Units

As noted earlier, 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, as a library unit, 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 Ada rules are more rigorous than those for C++ .h files. The package body does not need to *with* its own specification. A package body can be further subdivided into even smaller compilation units called *subunits*. Subunits, used wisely, benefit 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
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is separate;
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is separate;
  function Is_On (M : in Machine)
  return Boolean is separate;
end Machinery_1_3;

```

-- 1 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 a package specification and package body. Sometimes, as in lines 2, 3, 5, you may see a subprogram specification compiled with the word *separate* instead of an *is ... end* implementation. This implies separate compilation of the body for that subprogram.

Ada does not force 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.

An Ada package may have *child library* units. A package, such as package Machinery, may be the root of a tree of *child library* units. This provides a unique opportunity for separate compilation and extension.

Here is an example of parent-child library units.

See Chapter 8 for more on child library units.

<pre> 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; </pre>	<pre> -- 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 </pre>	<div style="font-size: 3em;">}</div>	Parent Library Unit
<pre> 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; </pre>	<pre> -- 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 </pre>	<div style="font-size: 3em;">}</div>	Child Library Unit

Note how a child library unit is formed using the parent name followed by a dot and the child

At first, a child library unit might be mistaken as a form of inheritance. The experienced OOP practitioner will see that it is not inheritance; the *is_a* relationship is absent. Rather, it allows one to extend the original package and add more features. 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 is 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 is nested within another.

Important

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; but none of the resources of that unit are directly *visible* to a client. This is different from a *#include* in the C family of languages. Separating *scope* from *visibility* is an important software engineering concept. It is seldom designed into other programming languages. This book has many coded examples that illustrate visibility rules. Ada has several techniques for making *in-scope* elements directly visible.

NOTE: ISO Standard C++ *namespace* adopts a weakened form of Ada's scope and visibility model.

2.4.1 Scope

Every Ada statement has an enclosing scope. Sometimes the scope is easy to see in the source code. There is an entry point (declare, subprogram identifier, composite type identifier, package identifier, etc.) and an explicit point of termination. Explicit terminations are coded with an *end* statement. Anytime you see an *end* clause, you know it is closing a scope. Scope can be nested. For example, a procedure may be declared inside another procedure. The scope of context clause (*with* clause) is not as obvious. The context clause puts the full resources of a library unit in scope, but makes none directly 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 Ada, we limit our discussion to a more pragmatic view of the visibility mechanism. For a more rigorous description, please consult the Ada LRM, Chapter 8.

A *with* (context) clause implies a dependency on the library unit named in that clause. This dependency can be at either the specification level of the withing library unit or deferred to the body of that unit.

2.4.2 Visibility

Understanding visibility is the key to understanding Ada.

An entity may be in scope but not directly visible. This concept is better developed in Ada than in most programming languages. Throughout Ada Distilled you will see visibility examples such as:

- **use clauses**
- **use type clauses**
- **entity dot notation**
- **renaming , locally, of operations/operators**

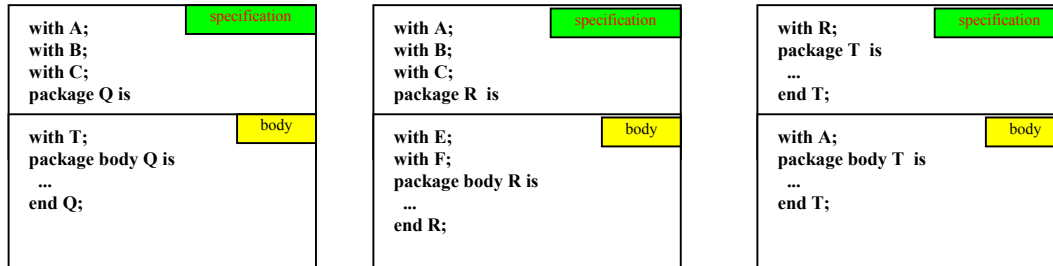
makes all public resources of a package directly visible
makes public operators directly visible for designated type
entity in notation is directly visible; usually the best option
usually best option for making operators directly visible

During development, an Ada compiler error message may advise you that some entity is not visible at the point where it is declared or used. Most often a visibility problem will relate to operators (2.7). One of the mechanisms from the above list can make that entity visible. It will be easier to demonstrate visibility in the code examples than to trudge through a tedious jungle of prose. Watch the uses of the visibility mechanisms above in our coded examples.

The general rule for the use clause is to not use it. However, for lots of programs where dependability and maintainability are less important (e.g., experimental programs), one may use the use clause freely to simplify the coding process.

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 clauses (i.e., *with* clause).



Notice that dependencies between library units can be deferred to the package body. This unique feature of Ada is based on the integral nature of library units and takes advantage of the separate compilation capability. Ada 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. A package specification is a set of declarations. The package body may also contain localized 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. Declarations in a package body are in the declarative region, but are not visible to a client or child library unit.

2.5.1 Elaboration

Elaboration brings declarations into existence, usually at run-time

Declarations must be elaborated before the program can begin its algorithmic part. Elaboration is the set of actions a program must complete before it can begin its algorithmic actions. It usually takes place without action by the programmer. Ada does provide some *pragmas* (compiler directives) for 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 may occur according to the semantics of each pragma.

Library units named in a context (*with*) clause must be elaborated before they are actually available to a client. When there are multiple context clauses, each must be elaborated. In some circumstances, resources of one library unit must finish elaborating before another library unit complete its elaboration.

2.5.2 Ada Comb

An Ada program unit may sometimes be viewed in terms of the "Ada Comb," an idea first introduced 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>

Ada is a block-structured language. Local declarations may contain: 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 (pragmas), local type declarations, constants, and anything else that falls into the category of the items just listed. Even though the list of legal entities in a declaration is long, only a few elements are actually used in practice. Be aware of the Ada Comb when studying the subprograms and algorithmic structures in this book.

The *handled-sequence-of-statements* includes statements that operate on declarations. This includes assignment, comparisons, transfers of control, algorithmic code. More specifically, we see the three fundamental control structures of the structure theorem (Jacopini and Böhm): sequence, iteration, selection. You may also see a declare block, with local declarations, within the handled-sequence-of-statements.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;
with Machinery;
procedure Ada_Comb_Example_1 is
  Data : Machinery.Machine;
begin
  declare
    Data : Integer := 42;
  begin
    Data := Data + 1;
  exception
    when some-exception =>
      -- sequence of statements
  end;
end Ada_Comb_Example_1;

```

-- 1 *Is elaborated before being used*
-- 2 *Is elaborated before being used*
-- 3 *Name of enclosing unit*
-- 4 *Declarations local to enclosing unit*
-- 5
-- 6 *Can declare local variables in this block*
-- 7 *The name, Data, hides the global declarations*
-- 8 *Integer Data now is visible; Outer Data is not*
-- 9 *Handled sequence of statements*
-- 10 *Start exception handler part of unit*
-- 11 *Name the exception after reserved word, when*
-- 12 *Any legal sequence of statements here*
-- 13 *End of scope of declare block*
-- 14 *End of enclosing scope*

The Ada comb may be found in most algorithmic units. This includes procedures, functions, package bodies, task bodies, and declare blocks. These units may also include some kind of identifier (label). 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
  Data : Float := 0.0;
begin
  Integer_Block:
  declare
    Data : Integer := 42;
  begin
    Data := Data + 1;
  exception
    when Constraint_Error => ...
  end Integer_Block;
  Data := Data + 451.0;
end Ada_Comb_Example_2;

```

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

The second example has an exception handler localized in the declare block. Note the 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. Because it is still in scope, it could be made visible with dot notation (Ada_Comb_Example_2.Data ...). Try to avoid identical names within the same scope. In large-scale systems with many library units, avoiding this is not always possible.

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 declared with an assigned value, may not be changed during its lifetime in your program. Variables and constants may be declared in a certain place in your program, called the *declarative part*. Every variable and constant must be associated with some *type*. The basic syntax for a variable 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;           -- see Annex A.1, package Standard
Degrees    : Float;            -- see Annex A.1, package Standard
Sentinel   : Character;        -- see Annex A.1, package Standard
Result     : Boolean;          -- see Annex A.1, package Standard
Text       : String(1..120);    -- Must always constrain a string variable
```

String is defined in package Standard as an unconstrained array

Strings in Ada have index values of subtype positive which means the lowest possible value for a string index is 1, not zero.

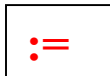
We could also initialize a variable at the time it is declared,

```
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 => '*'); -- Every element initialized to asterisk
```

2.7 Operations and Operators

Ada distinguishes between operations and operators. Operators are usually the infix methods used for arithmetic, comparison, and logical statements. Operators present a visibility problem for a new Ada programmer. Watch for the discussion of operator visibility that follows in this section.

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 increasingly 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 predefined for every Ada type except 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: Although Ada does not allow direct overloading of the assignment operator, it is sometimes useful to do that kind of overloading, and Ada has a facility for designing in this feature safely but indirectly, by deriving from a controlled type.

X and Y must both be of the same type. If values in an assignment statement are not of the same type, the programmer may, under strictly defined rules, convert Y to a type corresponding to the type of X.

```

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 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 Initialize a Vector with values
    The_Data : Data := (1, 3, 5, 7);     -- 12 Initialize a Record with values
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 about what you are doing.

2.7.2 Other Operations

There are several reserved words that behave like 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.

Other operations, for non-limited types, are described 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 supports object technology, the designer is allowed to create, overload, and override operations (except assignment) and operators. Subprogram (procedure and function) specifications may

be 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 might be Push, Pop, Is_Full, Is_Empty. For abstract data types, the operations are described as subprograms on the type.

2.7.3 Operators

Understanding visibility is the key to understanding Ada

As mentioned in Section 3.2.2, Ada distinguishes between operators and operations. This distinction is useful for visibility management. 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 signature style applies to all operators. The name of the operator is named in double quotes as if it were a string. You may overload operators for your own types. In Ada, the return type is part of the signature. There is a special visibility clause that makes all the operators for a named type fully visible:

```
use type typename; -- typename is the name of the type in scope. It might need to be dot qualified
```

Some designers prefer to make 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."+"; -- makes "+" directly visible
```

The above function renames the addition operator for a specific type. It uses dot notation to reference the package in which the type is defined. You can code this in the declarations of a unit that has a context clause for (for example) P and a type P.T. This makes the plus operator directly visible in the immediately enclosing scope. Many Ada practitioners feel this is a better engineering solution to controlling visibility than any of the other options. It does have the effect of ensuring that no accidental coding of some other operator is possible since only this one is directly visible.

2.8 Elementary Sequential Programs

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

Ada supports two kinds of subprograms: *procedures* and *functions*. A subprogram *may* be a standalone library unit. Often it a subprogram 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 -- 1 Note the reserved word, is
  -- optional local declarations -- 2 Between is and begin, local declarations
begin -- 3 Subprogram body requires a begin
  -- some sequence of statements -- 4 Some statements or reserved word null;
end Open; -- Most standards require repeating the identifier here -- 5 End required; Identifier optional but usual
```

Sometimes we code the subprogram specification and body together, as just shown. There are many cases of this in the example subprograms in this book. The *optional local declarations* on Line 2 are local to the subprogram. That is, they are never visible to another unit. This is one more level of *visibility*. When you fully understand the visibility rules, you will understand most of 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. The parameter *mode* may be **in**, **out**, **in out**, or **access**. The following table simplifies the concept of parameter mode:

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)

The table is 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 (See Chapter 5) 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?

Named association where actual parameter is associated with formal formal

```

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

```

The compound symbol means associate the formal parameter with the named actual parameter.

Consider a problem that often occurs in languages such as C or C++ with three parameters of the same type:

```
int mdata (int x, int y, int z) { ... } What happens if the wrong parameters of the right type are passed?
```

In C, there is no easy way to explicitly ensure correct actual values are being sent to the right formal arguments. Consequently, it is easy to accidentally call a function with the wrong data, even if that data is of the correct type. Some more recent languages have adopted this feature from Ada.

Ada programmers, using named association, prevent this kind of accident because errors are easily detected by the compiler. This can save countless hours of debugging time. Later, when someone needs to maintain a program using named association there is less difficulty determining what parameters are being used and when. This is especially useful for parameter lists where some of the formal parameters have default values.

Named association enables explicit interfaces. This is an important engineering principle for software.

3. Types and the Type Model

Ada has no structural equivalence as found in C, C++, and Modula-3. Strict name equivalence model. Ada has no automatic promotion of types from one level to another. We enjoy better type safety under these rules. Even Java falls short of Ada when considering type safety. This is one reason Ada is the right choice for safety-critical and human-rated software applications.

3.1 Rigorous Type Rules

Type safety is the language feature for which Ada is best known. It is actually only one of the many strong points in Ada. The following discussion will clarify 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 set of rules governing type relationships; e.g., a wall between objects of differing types**

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 definition 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 safe is the default. For most languages, type safe is not the default. In still other languages, type safety is an illusion because of 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. The declared types include a constrained set of values and operations appropriate to the problem being solved. This ensures a rigorous 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. Ada does not define a protected view directly analogous to C++ or Java. However, some of the essential properties of that view are available as necessary.

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 specification

-- 1
 -- 2 Partial definition of limited private type
 -- 3 Declaring a pointer type in Ada
 -- 4 Create an empty instance of Inventory
 -- 5
 -- 6 Partial definition of a tagged type
 -- 7 Classwide pointer type for tagged type
 -- 8 Creates an empty Inventory record
 -- 9 returns access to new Inventory record
 -- 10
 -- 11 Begin private part of package
 -- 12 A constrained record type
 -- 13 Initialized string type record component
 -- 14 A positive type record component
 -- 15 End of record scope required by Ada
 -- 16
 -- 17 Extensible record tagged type
 -- 18 Uninitialized string type component
 -- 19 A float type record component
 -- 20 Required by language
 -- 21

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
    -- because it is not a tagged type

```

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

```

type Liability is new Account
with record
  Credit_Value : Float;
  Debit_Value  : Float;
end record;

```

-- 1 *extended from tagged parent, lines 6, 17-20, above*
-- 2 *required ;phrase for this construct*
-- 3 *extends with third component of the record*
-- 4 *fourth component of the record*
-- 5 *record now extended with four elements*

in which Liability, derived from Account, 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 extensible type inheritance. From the above list of types, one might 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

As mentioned in Section 2.7.3, Ada distinguishes between *operators* and *operations*. 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. The following table summarizes some (not all) of these possibilities.

	:=	=	<, >, <=, >=	&	+, -, *, /	abs	rem/mod	in	not in
A. Non-Limited Types	Y	Y	Y	Y
1. Elementary	Y	Y	Y	Y
a. Scalar	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1) Discrete	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Enumerated	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Integer	Y	Y	Y	..	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Modular (Unsigned)	Y	Y	Y	..	Y	N	Y	Y	Y
2) Not Discrete	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Float	Y	Y	Y	..	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Fixed	Y	Y	Y	..	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
Decimal	Y	Y	Y	..	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
2. Composite	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
1) Record	Y	Y	N	..	N	N	N	Y	Y
2) Array	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
Constrained	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y
Unconstrained	N	..	N	N	N	Y	Y
3. Private	Y	..	N	..	N	N	N	Y	Y
B. Limited	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y
C. May Overload?	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N

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

```

-- 1 *Package specification; requires body*
-- 2 *Specifies the visible part of the data type;*
-- 3 *procedure specification*
-- 4 *procedure specification*
-- 5 *function specification*
-- 6 *Declare the ">" function for private type*
-- 7 *private part hidden from a client of contract*
-- 8 *full definition of the publicly declared type*
-- 9 *component of the type; OOP attribute*
-- 10 *scope terminator for the component*
-- 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 illustrated using the following declarations,

```

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.
-- 12.
```

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
-- 7 Dot notation required here
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11 Cannot compile; + operator not directly visible
-- 12 Incompatible data types
-- 13 This is OK because of subtype
-- 14 Incompatible types in expression
-- 15 Incompatible types
-- 16 Type conversion not permitted for these types
-- 17 Incompatible types
-- 18 This statement is OK
-- 19
```

The following example corrects some of the problems with the preceding one. Note the need for type conversion. We include an example of unchecked conversion. Generally, unchecked conversion is a bad

idea. The default in Ada is to *prevent* such conversions. However, Ada does allow one to relax the default so operations can be closer to what is permitted in C and C++, when necessary.

```

with Some_Types;
with Ada.Unchecked_Conversion;
use Ada;
procedure Test_Some_Types is
  Ch1, Ch2, Ch3 : Some_Types.Channel := 42;
  Sig1, Sig2    : Some_Types.Signal  := 27;
  Level_1, Level_2 : Some_Types.Level := 360.0;
  Tiny         : Some_Types.Small_Signal := 4;
  Color_1, Color_2 : Some_Types.Color := Some_Types.Red;
  Light_1, Light_2 : Some_Types.Light := Some_Types.Red;
  Tr1, Tr2, Tr3   : Some_Types.Traffic := Some_Types.Red;
use type Some_Types.Channel;
function Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion
  (Source => Some_Types.Light, Target => Some_Types.Traffic);
begin
  Ch3 := Ch1 + ch2;
  Level_1 := Some_Types.Level(Ch1);
  Tiny := Sig1;
  Tr3 := Some_Types.Traffic(Color_1);
  Tr1 := Some_Types.Traffic'Succ(Tr2);
  Tr2 := Convert(Light_1);
  Light_2 := Convert(TR3);
end Test_Some_Types;

```

-- 1 Context clause from prior example
-- 2 Context clause for generic Ada library function
-- 3 Makes package Ada directly visible
-- 4 Name for unparameterized procedure
-- 5 Initialize declared variables
-- 6 Note dot notation in declared variables
-- 7 Declared variables with dot notation
-- 8
-- 9 Enumerated type declarations
-- 10
-- 11
-- 12 Makes operators visible for this type
-- 13 Enable assignment between variables of
-- 14 differing types without compile-time checking
-- 15
-- 16 use type makes + operator visible
-- 17 Type conversion legal between numeric types
-- 18 This will compile because of subtype
-- 19 OK. Traffic is derived from Color
-- 21 This statement is OK
-- 22 Assign dissimilar data without checking
-- 23 Convert is only one direction
-- 24

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

3.7.2 Subtype Declarations

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

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

```

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

```

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

3.8 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;                -- 1 Context clause
use Ada;                          -- 2 Visibility clause
procedure Array_Definitions is    -- 3
  package BIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum => Boolean); -- 5 IO package for Boolean type
  type Boolean_Set is array(1..4) of Boolean; -- 6 Constrained boolean array
  pragma Pack(Boolean_Set); -- 7 Forces array to four bits
  for Boolean_Set'Alignment use 2; -- 7.1 Align storage on 2 bytes
  type Float_Vector is array(Natural range <>) of Float; -- 8 Unconstrained array
  -- Note that the index is of type Natural and can be any range of values from 0 through Integer'Last
  B1 : Boolean_Set := (True, True, True, False); -- 9
  B2 : Boolean_Set := (False, False, True, False); -- 10
  B3 : Boolean_Set := (True, True, False, True); -- 11
  F1 : Float_Vector(0..9); -- 12
  F2 : Float_Vector(1..10); -- 13
  procedure Display (Data : Boolean_Set; Comment : String) is -- 14
  begin -- 15
    Text_IO.Put(Comment); -- 16
    for I in Data'Range loop -- Cannot run off the end of an array -- 17

```

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.

```

        BIO.Put(Data(I));                -- 18
        Text_IO.Put(" ");                -- 19
    end loop;                            -- 20
    Text_IO.New_Line;                    -- 21
end Display;                            -- 22
begin                                    -- 23
    F1(2) := F2(4);                      -- 24 Simple component assignment
    F1(5..7) := F2(6..8); -- This is sometimes called "sliding" -- 25 Assign slices of different sizes
    Display (B1, "B1 is "); Display(B2, "B3 is "); Display(B3, "B3 is "); -- 26
    Display (B2, "B2 is ");              -- 27
    B3 := B1 and B2;                     -- 28 Logical and of B1 and B2
    Display(B3, "B1 and B2 = ");         -- 29
    B3 := B1 or B2;                      -- 30 Logical or of B1 and B2
    Display(B3, "B1 or B2 = ");         -- 31
    B3 := B1 xor B2;                     -- 32 Logical xor of B1 and B2
    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(Integer 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 <>,
    Positive range <>,
    Color range <>) of Boolean;      -- First dimension of three
                                        -- Second dimension of three
                                        -- 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 display. 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 not covered in this book. Some of the record 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 discriminant, and some tagged records for the student's future study. The following Ada package specification 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 might 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*
-- 28
-- 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

type extension

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

In the case of the assignment to M4, the target of the assignment is provided a *view* of M5 that is restricted to components in a type Message_4. However, the tag of the object does not change and the content remains stable. This has important implications. Consider the following package.

```
with Record_Declarations; use Record_Declarations;           -- 1
package Messenger_Processes is                                -- 2
  procedure Display (The_Data : Message_4);                  -- 3
  procedure Display (The_Data : Message_5);                  -- 4
  procedure Print (Print_Data : Message_4'Class);           -- 5
  procedure Process (Process_Data : in out Message_4);      -- 6
end Messenger_Process;                                       -- 7

package body Messenger_Processes is                          -- 1
  procedure Display (The_Data : Message_4) is                -- 2
  begin                                                      -- 3
    -- display the data for Message_4                        -- 4
  end Display;                                               -- 5
  procedure Display (The_Data : Message_5) is                -- 6
  begin                                                      -- 7
    -- display the data for Message_5                        -- 8
  end Display;                                               -- 9
  procedure Print (Print_Data : Message_4'Class) is          -- 10
  begin                                                      -- 11
    Display (Print_Data);                                     -- 12
  end Print;                                                 -- 13
  procedure Process (Process_Data : in out Message_4) is    -- 14
  begin                                                      -- 15
    -- perform some algorithms                               -- 16
    Print(Process_Data);                                     -- 17
  end Process;                                               -- 18
end Messenger_Process;                                       -- 19
```

Suppose we called Process with the following statement:

```
Process (Message_4 (M5) ); -- see the immediately preceding example
```

The procedure Process does its work and then calls Print. Print has a classwide parameter. The tag of the object operated upon in Process corresponds to Message_5. The result is a call to the correct version of Display for Message_5 because of the tag. All information originally included in M5 is intact because a view conversion does not change the data or the tag. This is called *re-dispatching*. For a full discussion of inheritance and dispatching, see Chapter Nine of this book.

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.

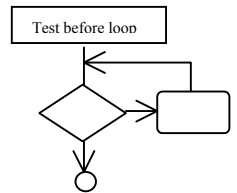
4.1.1 For Loops

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;
procedure Sawatdee (Start, Stop : in Integer) is
begin
  for I in Start..Stop
    loop
      Ada.Integer_Text_IO.Put(I);
    end loop;
end SaWatDee; -- Ada is not case sensitive!
```

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



An Ada enumerated type is an ordered set 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;
procedure Dobroe_Uutra is
begin
  Loop_Name:
  for Index in Week
    loop
      Ada.Text_IO.Put(Week'Image(Index));
    end loop Loop_Name;
end Dobroe_Uutra;
```

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

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;
procedure Magandang_Umaga is
begin
```

-- 1 Put Library Unit in Scope
 -- 2 "Good morning" in Tagalog (language of Phillipines)
 -- 3 Required to initiated sequence of statements

```

Outer:
for Index in Set'Range
  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;

```

-- 4 *This is a named loop; good coding style*
 -- 5 *Index'First = 15; Index'Last = 60*
 -- 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*

Remember, the apostrophe when used as a qualifier in a statement is pronounced "tick"

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_Line(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;

```

-- 1 *Correct context clause*
 -- 2 *Replaces Ada 83 package ASCII*

```

procedure Hello_By_Input is
  ESC : Character renames Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Esc;
  Input : Character := Ada.Characters.Latin_1.Space;
  Index : Natural := 0;
  Hello : String(1..80) := (others => Input);
begin
  Ada.Text_IO.Get_Immediate(Input);
  while Input /= ESC loop -- /= is Ada "not equal" symbol
    Ada.Text_IO.Put(Input); -- Echo input
    Index := Index + 1;
    Hello(Index) := Input;
    Ada.Text_IO.Get_Immediate(Input);
  end loop;
  Ada.Text_IO.New_Line;
  Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Hello);
end Hello_By_Input;

```

-- 3 Long procedure name
 -- 4 A.3.3/5; Ada is not case sensitive
 -- 5 Initial value for Variable
 -- 6 package Standard, A.1/13
 -- 7 Input is initialized as space
 -- 8 Normally comment this line
 -- 9 ALRM A.101./44
 -- 10 Negative condition while loop
 -- 11 Only Echo if it is not ESC
 -- 12 Need to maintain own index
 -- 13 Assign the input to the string
 -- 14 No need to press enter key
 -- 15 Every loop needs an end loop
 -- 16 Carriage Return/ Line Feed
 -- 17 Put the string and advance one line
 -- 18 Must be same name as procedure

The above 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. Exit can 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.

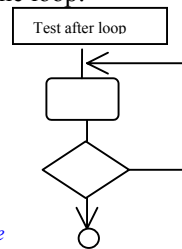
4.1.3 Exit Loop ALRM 5.7

```

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 labled
 -- 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 a loop with a label name
 --
 --
 --

The *exit* statement only works within a loop. 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*. Ada allows a multiway selection with an *elsif* in an *if* statement. As is true of every elementary structure, there is an entry point and a well-defined end of scope.

4.2.1 If Statements ALRM 5.3

The ordinary *if* statement in Ada is not very complicated. The rule is that every *if* must have an “*end if*.” Also, unlike Pascal, an *if* condition may be compound. There is a reserved word, *elsif*, which permits a kind of multi-way condition selection. The following example 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_Option (A,B,C : Float) return Float is           -- 1 Parameterized function
  Result : Float := 0.0;                                         -- 2 Local Variable for return statement.
begin                                                           -- 3 Required to initiate sequence of statements
  if A > B then                                                 -- 4 Simple logical comparison
    Result := A ** 2;                                           -- 5 Exponentiation of A; 4.5.6/7
  elsif A < B then                                             -- 6 Note the spelling; 4.5.2/9
    Result := B ** 2;                                           -- 7 4.5.6/7
  elsif A <= C then                                           -- 8 4.5.2/9
    Result := C * B;                                           -- 9 4.5.5
  else                                                         -- 10 Optional else; but always include it
    Result := C * A;                                           -- 11 4.5.5
  end if;                                                       -- 12 Try to have only one return statement.
  return Result;                                               -- 13 If no return is found, compiler will reject the code
end Select_Option;                                           -- 14 Always label a subprogram end statement

```

The *if* statement is legal for nearly every Ada data type. Some types designated as limited 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 in Section 3.3..3, Line 12.

```

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

In code examples, see procedure

```

function "=" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean is           -- 1 Redefines (overloads) an equal operator
begin                                                         -- 2 The usual begin statement
  return L.ID = R.ID;                                         -- 3 Compare only the ID part.
end "=";                                                       -- 4 Required scope terminator

```

An implementation of ">" might look like this

```

function ">" (L, R : Inventory) return Boolean is           -- 1 Redefines (overloads) ">" operator

```



```

begin                                -- 2 The usual begin statement
  return L.ID > R.ID;                  -- 3 Compare only the ID part.
end "=";                             -- 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**. The **and then** format explicitly indicates that when comparison of the first operand fails, ignore the second operand. The **or else** format says if 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 maintain.

Sometimes you want a simple membership test. The **in** and **not in** options permit testing membership of a value within a type or type range. Membership test is permitted for any data type.

```

function Continue(Data : Item) return Boolean is           -- 1 Parameterized function
  Result : Boolean := False;                                -- 2 Initialized return variable.
begin -- Continue                                         -- 3 Comment the begin statement
  if Data in 1..20 then                                     -- 4 Simple membership test for a range
    Result := True;                                        -- 5 Set the result
  end if;                                                 -- 6 Always need an end if
  return Result;                                         -- 7 At least one return statement; required
end Continue;                                           -- 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                                         -- 1 Procedure Identifier
  (Data : in out Bounded_Integer'Base) is                -- 2 Parameter list for Base type
  Local : Bounded_Integer'Base := 0;                     -- 3 Initialized variable.
begin -- Demand                                          -- 4 Comment the begin statement
  Data := Data + Local;                                   -- 5 Increment by value of Local
  if Data in Bounded_Integer then                       -- 6 Simple membership test for a range
    null;                                               -- 7 Some Action
  end if;                                               -- 8 Always need an end if.
end Demand;                                             -- 9 Use a label for 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. 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        -- 1 Simple function declaration
  Result : Integer := 0;                                   -- 2 Local variable
begin -- Evaluate                                        -- 3 Comment the begin statement
  case C is                                             -- 4 Start a case statement
    when Red => Result := 1;                               -- 5 The => is an association symbol
    when Blue => Result := 2;                               -- 6 Am I blue? Set result to 2
    when Black .. Brown => Result := 3;                   -- 7 For black through brown ...
    when Orange | Indigo => Result := 4;                 -- 8 For either orange or indigo
    when others => Result := 5;                           -- 9 others required for unspecified cases.
  end case;                                             -- 10 Must use others if any cases are not specified
  return Result;                                         -- 11 Compiler will look for a return statement

```

It is not always a good idea to initialize variables. You might get a valid result even if there is an error in the algorithm.

```
end Evaluate; -- 12
```

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 -- 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.

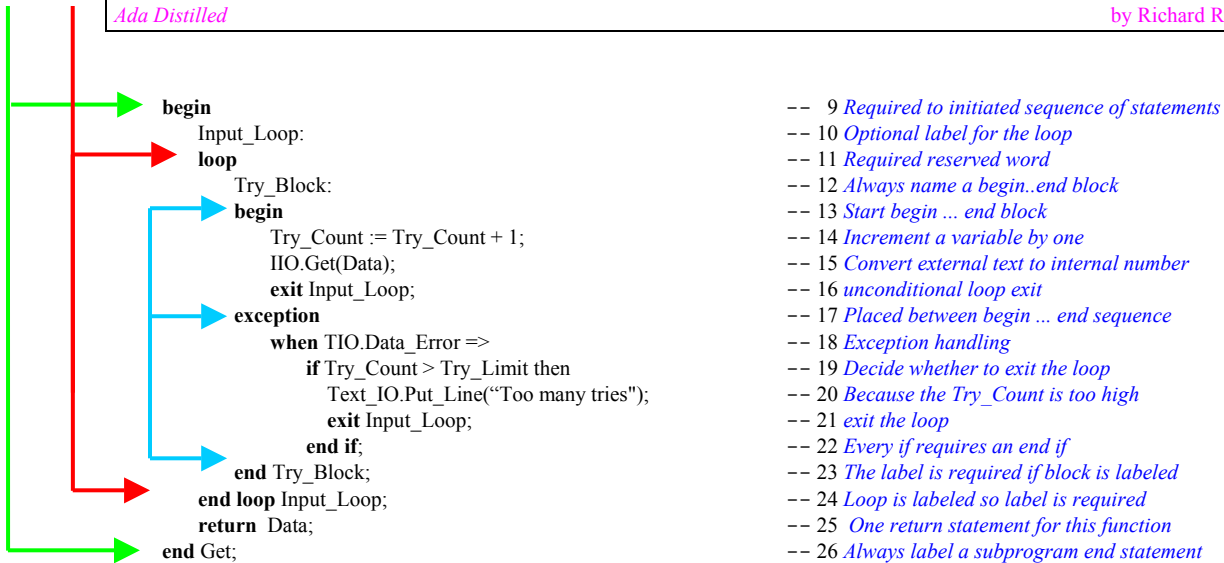
4.3 Blocks

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

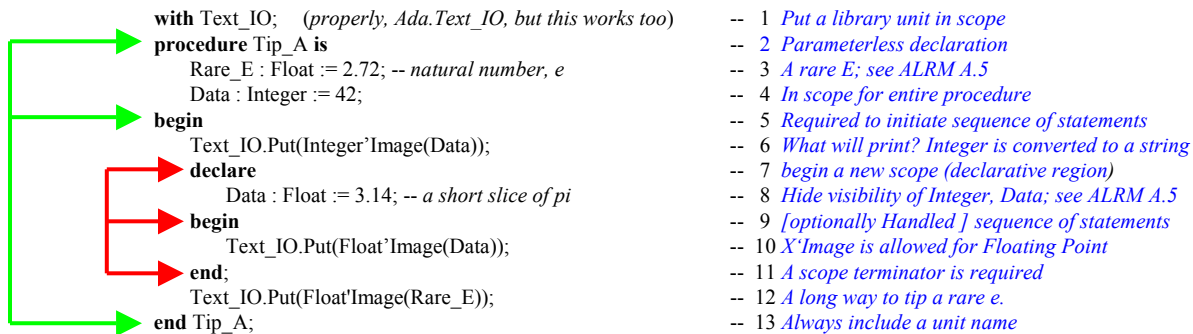
This is a useful feature of Ada for trapping exceptions and sometimes for debugging. Good coding style suggests that they be labeled. Some Ada practitioners suggest using a labeled begin end with a case statement as noted in Section 3.3.3 of this book.

```
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 PS
  Try_Limit : constant := 3; -- universal integer constant -- 7 A constant cannot be changed
  Try_Count : Natural := 0; -- 8 Natural cannot be less than zero
```

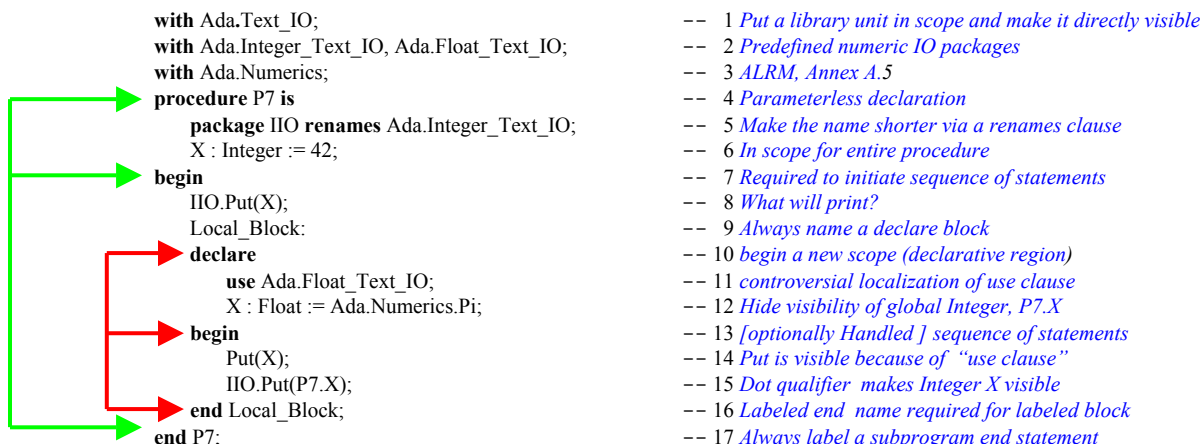


4.3.2 Declare Blocks ALRM 5.6

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.



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.



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.

5. Access Types (Pointers)

5.1 Overview of Access Types

We don't really have true pointers in Ada. The use of the word pointer is simply to acknowledge a corresponding capability via access types. The important thing is that the default for Ada access types is *safe*, unlike pointers in the C family of languages; no void pointers in Ada.

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 Array_Of_Procedures 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 Array_Of_Procedures;                                     -- 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. The following package specification declares some 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;

```

There are a few new ideas in this package. Line 2 has a 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;

```

Note that this package is at the same level, the package level as the access types in package Reference_Types

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;

```

Note that Lines 11 and 12 make a call to a procedure using a "pointer" to a function as the actual parameter.

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;

```

Method is an access value that references a procedure.

Validate is an access value that references a function.

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

```

with clause could be moved to

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_3 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_3 ;                                         -- 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_4 is                                  -- 2 Declaration for parameterless procedure
  function Is_Valid (S : String)                       -- 3 Declaration for a function with a parameter
    return Boolean is                                  -- 4 Specify the type of the return value
    ...                                                -- 5 three dots not legal Ada

```

```

end Is_Valid;           -- 6 End of scope for function Is_Valid
Text : String (1..80); -- 7 Declare a String variable with constraint
Len  : Natural;        -- 8 Uninitialized variable
begin                  -- 9 Begin handled-sequence-of-statments
Ada.Text_IO.Get_Line(Text, Len); -- 10 Call to Get_Line procedure with two parameters
if Is_Valid(Text(1..Len)) then -- 11 Call the function with string parameter
    Text_IO.Put_Line(Text(1..Len)); -- 12 Put string w/carriage return and line feed
end if;                -- 13 Ends scope of if statement
end Simple_4;          -- 14 Ends scope of Simple_2

```

6.1.3 A Main Subprogram

Technically, a main subprogram is either a procedure or function. Most often it is a procedure. When it is a function, the return value is an integer to the operating system as in Unix or Linux.

A main subprogram is not required, but most programs have one. Here is an example of a main 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 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 this code can be improved, 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;
    procedure Draw (Left, Right, Depth : in Integer) is
        Symbol : String(1..1) := "X";
        Left_Col, Right_Col : Column;
    begin

```

-- 1 These first five lines illustrate a
 -- 2 style for documenting an Ada source
 -- 3 code unit. The author of this solution
 -- 4 was a USMC Lance Corporal with a
 -- 5 High School education.
 -- 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
 -- 14 Nested procedure with parameter list
 -- 15 The character we will print
 -- 16 These are probably extraneous
 -- 17 We are in a nested procedure

```

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

```

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

```

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

```

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

```

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

```

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

```

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

```

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

6.2 Functions

A function must return a result of the type indicated in its profile. The compiler will check this and disallow a wrong return type. A function may be called in an assignment statement or as an argument within another function or procedure call. Ada also allows pointers (access types) to functions and procedures.

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

```

Function parameters modes are only allowed to be *in* or *access*. The default mode is always *in*. An *in* parameter is the equivalent of a *constant* to the function. One may never assign a value to an *in* mode parameter value. Consider enumerated type, Month, and 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
begin
    if Value = Month'Last then
        return Month'First;
    else
        return Month'Succ(Value);
    end if;
end Next;
-- 1 Declare a parameterized function
-- 2 No other declarations
-- 3 Month'Last is December
-- 4 Month'First is January
-- 5 The usual behavior of else
-- 6 Month'Succ(June) is July
-- 7 End Scope of if statement
-- 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
    Result : Vector (L'Range) := (others => 0.0);
begin
    if L'Length /= R'Length then
        raise Range_Imbalance;
    end if;
    for Index in L'Range
        loop
            Result (Index) := L(Index) + R(Index);
        end loop;
    return Result;
end "+";
-- 1 Overloading an infix operator
-- 2 Constrain and initialize the result array
-- 3
-- 4 Ensure R and L are of the same length
-- 5 Raise user-defined exception shown above.
-- 6 We never reach this point if exception is raised
-- 7 The 'Range attribute generalizes the Index
-- 8 Index only lives the scope of the loop
-- 9 Index is a constant in the loop
-- 10 The end of scope for the loop
-- 11 No exception handler. The exception is propagated
-- 12 to the calling subprogram. Looks for handler.

```

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

```

type Data is record                                -- 1 Define a record type with a name
  Value : Integer := 0;                               -- 2 Initialize the values when possible
  Description : String(1..20);                       -- 3 Probably should be initialized
end record;                                         -- 4 Scope terminator for the record data
type Ref is access all Data;                         -- 5 Define a pointer to the record

```

You could have a function,

```

function Is_Zero (The_Data : access Data) return Boolean is -- 1 Note access parameter
begin                                                 -- 2 Of course, by now you know this
  return The_Data.Value = 0;                          -- 3 Return result of equality test
end Is_Zero;                                         -- 4 Scope terminator for the function

```

The Ada compiler will reject the following code,

```

function Fix_It_A (The_Data : access Data) return Ref is -- 1 Access parameter and access result
  Fix_It_Data : Ref := new Data(some initial values); -- 2 Declare some initialized access object
begin                                                 -- 3 Of course, by now you know this
  The_Data := Fix_It_Data; -- illegal, illegal, illegal -- 4 No assignment allowed to parameter value
  return The_Data;                                     -- 5 Will never get to this; will not compile
end Fix_It_A;                                        -- 6 Scope terminator for the function

```

but the compiler will accept the following modification of a component of an access object,

```

function Fix_It_B (The_Data : access Data) return Ref is -- 1 Access parameter and access result
  Fix_It_Data : Integer := 25;                        -- 2 Declare initialized Integer object
begin                                                 -- 3
  The_Data.Value := Fix_It_Data;                     -- 4 Assignment allowed to component
  return The_Data;                                   -- 5 Yes. Returns updated value for The_Data
end Fix_It_B;                                       -- 6 Always include the name of the function

```

This is one of Ada's rare weaknesses vis a vis C++. In C++ we can declare a function as *const* or a parameter as *const*. This may be fixed in a future ISO Ada 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 )                    -- 1
  return Positive is                                -- 2 Must have a return type
begin                                                 -- 3 Start of algorithmic part
  if N <= 1 then                                     -- 4 Less than or equal to ...
    return 1;                                         -- 5 Lowest positive value
  else                                                -- 6 Alternative path
    return N * Factorial (N - 1);                    -- 7 The recursive call; function calls itself
  end if;                                           -- 8 Terminate if statement
end Factorial;                                      -- 9 Scope of the recursive function

```

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

```

with Factorial;
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;
with Ada.Text_IO;
use Ada;
procedure Test_Factorial is
  Data : Natural := 0;
begin
  Text_IO.Put("Enter Positive Integer: ");
  Integer_Text_IO.Get(Data);
  Integer_Text_IO.Put(Factorial(Data));
end Test_Factorial;

```

-- 1 *Yes, you may with a subprogram*
-- 2 *I/O for Standard Integer*
-- 3 *Character and String I/O*
-- 4 *Make Ada visible; not a problem*
-- 5 *Specification with "is"*
-- 6 *In scope up to end of procedure*
-- 7 *You know what this means by now*
-- 8 *Display a prompt on the screen*
-- 9 *Get an integer from the keyboard*
-- 10 *Display an integer on the screen*
-- 11 *End of declarative region for procedure*

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

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

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

6.3 Subprograms in A Package

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

```

package Kia_Ora is
  procedure Kia_Menemene;
  function Menemene return Boolean;
end Kia_Ora;

```

-- 1 *Hello in Maori, early language of New Zealand*
-- 2 *Be happy, in Maori*
-- 3 *Are you happy?*
-- 4 *end of package specification*

Then a package body highlighting separate compilation:

```

package body Kia_Ora is
  procedure Kia_Menemene is separate;
  function Menemene return Boolean is separate;
end Kia_Ora;

```

-- 1 *Now includes the word, body*
-- 2 *Defer actual implementation for the subprograms*
-- 3 *to separate compilation units.*
-- 4

The separately compiled procedure could be coded:

```

separate (Kia_Ora)
procedure Kia_Menemene is
begin
  -- some implementation code here
end Kia_Menemene;

```

-- 1 *Note absence of semicolon*
-- 2 *Makes maintenance much easier in small chunks*
-- 3
-- 4 *Any standard Ada algorithmic code here*

7. Package Design

At the beginning of this book, we showed an example of an Ada package. Most Ada programs are designed with packages. In fact, a single program is usually composed of many packages. A *package* is a *module* for collecting related information and services. It can be thought of as a *contract* for services. The user of that contract may be thought of as a *client*. In this sense, a client may 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.

```

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;

```

-- 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

Public Part

Private

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 goes here
  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 delta 0.0001 digits 12;
  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;
-- 1
-- 2
-- 3 declare result of return type

```

```

begin                                     -- 4 stub out the function temporarily
    return Result;                         -- 5 after algorithm to do conversion
end Convert;                               -- 6
function Convert (D : Dollars; Rate : Money) return Yen is -- 7
    Result : Yen := 0.0;                   -- 8 declare result of return type
begin                                     -- 9 temporarily stub out the begin..end part
    return Result;                         -- 10 after algorithm to do conversion
end Convert;                               -- 11
end Conversions;                           -- 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                     -- 1 Specification declaration
    type Data is array (Positive range <>) of Float; -- 2 An unconstrained array.
    function Mean (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 3 Computes the statistical Mean
    function Mode (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 4 Computes the statistical Mode
    function Max (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 5 Computes Maximum Value of array
    function Min (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 6 Computes Minimum Value of array
    function Variance (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 7 Computes Statistical Variance
    function StdDev (The_Data : Data) return Float; -- 8 Computes Standard Deviation
end Statistics;                           -- 9 Package specification requires end

```

The following procedure is a client of the Statistics package.

```

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

7.4.1 Example without Numerics Library

This example will compile and execute. However, it is better to use the language-defined libraries.

```

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 sometimes initialize all variables; not required here*
-- 7 *Begins sequence of algorithmic statements;* 6.3
-- 8 *Pi is also pre-defined in Ada.Numerics*
-- 9 *Dot notation makes Put visible* A.10.6
-- 10 *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 *Not everyone agrees that initialization is a good idea!*
-- 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.

Suppose you have declared the following example somewhere in your design,

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

Ada allows you to 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

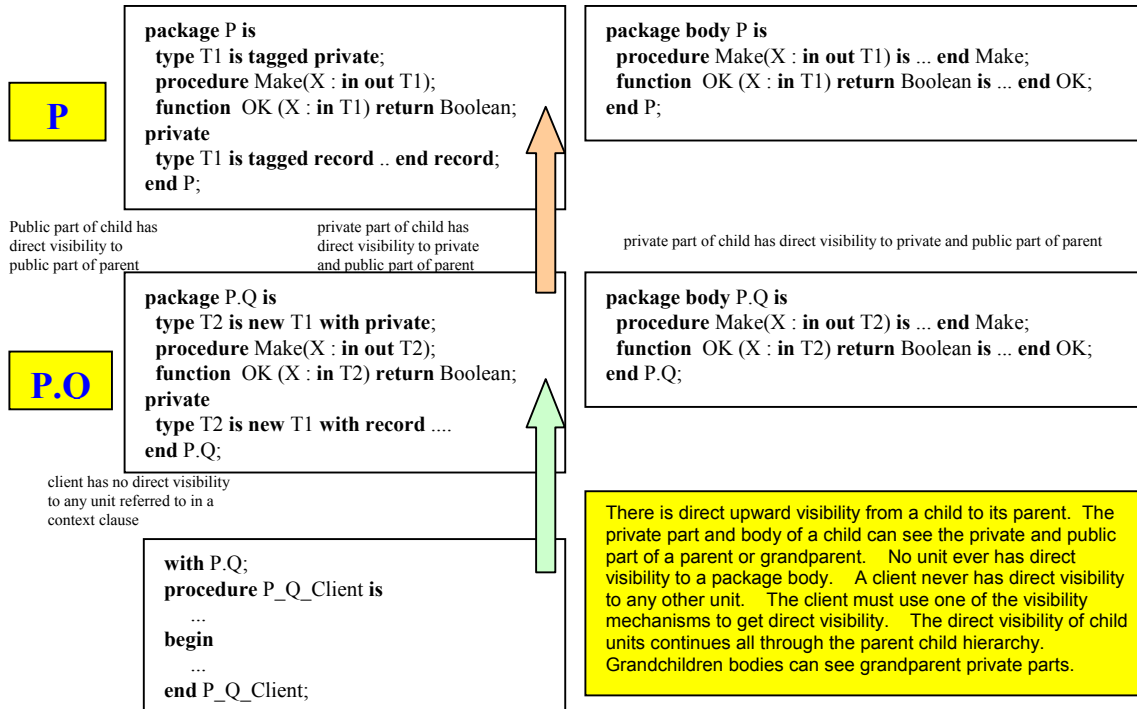
The following examples demonstrate the use of the generic mathematics package with calls to some of the functions in that package. Note that the default type for trigonometric functions is in Radians.

```
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 one the program files in the ZIP file of programs available 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.

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 Kinds of Child Library Units

Child library units may be packages, functions, or procedures. A function or procedure may not have additional children. Ada supports both public and private child library units. A child unit is public, by default. The identifier of a public child may appear in any context clause anywhere in a system. A private child may only appear in a context clause for a body (e.g., package body) when that body is for a specification with the same root (parent, grandparent, etc.). It is also possible to have generic child library units. However, children of generic units must also be generic.

8.2 Visibility Rules

Visibility Rules are a little tricky but easy once you grok them.

- a) Public part of child has direct visibility to public part of parent
- b) Private part of child has direct visibility to private and public part of parent.
- c) Body of child has direct visibility to private and public part of parent.
- d) Grandchild units have direct visibility that corresponds to child units.
- e) Private unit can only be with'ed by body of unit if both have same root package.

8.3 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. Sometimes a root package contains nothing but a few exception declarations. Other times it is more complex, possibly with specialized type declarations. The general rule is to keep the root package as simple as possible. 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 i++*
-- 6 *Overloading equivalent to i--*
-- 7 *Set number to a value*
-- 8 *Convert number to an Integer*
-- 9 *Begin the private part of package*
-- 10 *Full definition of the private type*
-- 11 *End of scope for package specification*

This package illustrates a possible design for a root package. This is simply a model, not a suggested design approach. 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;
private
  type Application_Type is ... ;
end Root.Application;

```

-- partial definition of type
-- more operations(modifier and query methods)
-- full definition of private type

Dot notation to signifies that Application is a child unit of package Root. Public part of Application has direct visibility to public part of package Root. Private part of Application has direct visibility to private and public part of package Root.

8.4 Classwide Child Package

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

```

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

```

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

Visible part of contract.

Not visible to client of contract.

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

```

-- 1 *Package specification; requires body*
-- 2 *Parameterized type; make it any size*
-- 3 *No assignment ever allowed for limited view of a type*
-- 4 *Put into the next available Container location*
-- 5 *Any member of class, Machine*
-- 6 *Get, destructively, first item, from the Container*
-- 7 *Any member in derivation tree for Machine' class*
-- 8 *Start hidden part of the package; never visible to a client*
-- 9 *Define an unconstrained array*
-- 10 *The array is pointers to Machine'Class*
-- 11 *Full definition of parameterized type; parameter call a discriminant*
-- 12 *in the format of a record*
-- 13 *What is the current item; this is an index into the array*
-- 14 *Pointer array to Machine derivations*
-- 15 *Terminate scope of the record*
-- 16 *scope terminator for the child library unit specification*

The preceding classwide child package lets you put any object of type Machine'Class into a container. This is quite a handy thing to be able to do. This is a heterogeneous container for different kinds of machines.

8.5 Private Child Library Unit

Sometimes we want to promote the internals of a package to the level of a separate package. The following example is a simplified contrivance that is intended to show how one might refactor a design into better abstractions. We use the language feature called, private child units to accomplish this.

Consider a package that has a simple specification where the public methods are implemented in package body. The example package, shown below, does some simple message handling, but also stores and retrieves each message from a fixed size array. A real application would be more designed to more robust standards, but we keep this simple to illustrate our central point.

8.5.3.1 Root Package for Application

```

package Application is
  type Assertion is access function return Boolean;
  Precondition_Error : exception;
  Postcondition_Error : exception;
  Invariant_Error : exception;
end Application;
-- 1 Declare a root package for application
-- 2 A pointer (access type) to a function
-- 3
-- 4
-- 5
-- 6

```

Three exceptions, each of which will be directly visible throughout the entire hierarchy of child library units.

This style of package should be self-evident by now. It is nothing more than an access type to a parameterless function and few exceptions that can be raised throughout the parent-child hierarchy.

8.5.3.2 Child of Application Root

This is a child package of the root package in 8.1.2.1. It has direct visibility to all of the public features of the parent package. The pre- and post-conditions are access parameters in the procedures. This is possible because the functions are at the same accessibility level as the access type in package Application.

```

package Application.Messenger is
  type Message is tagged private;
  type Reference is access all Message'Class;
  function Require_Not_Empty return Boolean;
  function Ensure_Length_Adjusted return Boolean;
  function Require_Not_Full return Boolean;
  procedure Make(M : in out Message; S : String);
  procedure Get
    (M : out Message;
     Precondition : Assertion := Require_Not_Empty'Access;
     Postcondition : Assertion := Ensure_Length_Adjusted'Access);
  procedure Put
    (M : in Message;
     Precondition : Assertion := Require_Not_Full'Access;
     Postcondition : Assertion := Ensure_Length_Adjusted'Access);
  function Len(M : in Message) return Natural;
private
  type Message is tagged record
    Text : String(1..120);
    Length : Natural := 0;
  end record;
end Application.Messenger;
-- 1 A child of package Application
-- 2 A simple tagged type; public view
-- 3 Always include a classwide access
-- 4 Pre-condition
-- 5 Post-condition
-- 6 Pre-condition
-- 7
-- 7.1
-- 8
-- 9 Access to a subprogram
-- 10 Access to subprogram
-- 10.1
-- 11
-- 12 Access to subprogram
-- 13 Access to subprogram
-- 14
-- 15
-- 16 Full definition of tagged type
-- 17
-- 18
-- 19
-- 20

```

8.5.3.3 A Private Child Package

Important Ada Design Feature

A private child library unit may only be referenced by a context clause in the body of a unit rooted at the same level as the direct parent unit. In this case, Messenger is the parent of this private package.

Note

```

private package Application.Messenger.Storage is -- Note the word private and dot notation -- 1
  type Message_Container is private; -- 2
  procedure Insert_At_End (Into : in out Message_Container; M : in Message'Class); -- 3
  procedure Get_First_Message (From : in out Message_Container; M : out Message'Class); -- 4
private -- 5
  type Container is array(1..500) of Reference; -- 6
  type Message_Container is -- 7
    record -- 8
      Data : Container; -- An array of 500 Message'Class access values -- 9
      Count : Natural := 0; -- 10
    end record; -- 11
end Application.Messenger.Storage; -- 12

```

This private package specification is a child of Messenger which is a child of Application.

8.5.3.4 The Body of Application.Messenger

This example, by itself, is not to be taken too seriously. You will enjoy designing your own version when you study this feature in more depth. It does compile and execute. However, we have not defined all the algorithms and functionality that you might want for a robust application.

```

with Application.Messenger.Storage; -- Context clause only permitted in body of sibling package -- 1
package body Application.Messenger is -- 2
  The_Storage_Container : Application.Messenger.Storage; -- 3
  Message_Container; -- 4
  procedure Get (M : out Message; -- 5
    Precondition : Assertion := Require_Not_Empty'Access; -- 6
    Postcondition : Assertion := Ensure_Length_Adjusted'Access) is -- 7
  begin -- 8
    if Require_Not_Empty then -- 9
      Application.Messenger.Storage.Get_First_Message -- 10
      (From => The_Storage_Container, M => M); -- Note use of named association -- 11
    end if; -- 12
    if Ensure_Length_Adjusted then -- 13
      null; -- This would usually contain actual code but we stubbed it out. -- 14
    end if; -- 15
  end Get; -- 16
  function Len (M : in Message) return Natural is -- 17
  begin -- 18
    return M.Length; -- 19
  end Len; -- 20
  procedure Make (M : in out Message; S : String) is -- 21
  begin -- 22
    if S'Length > M.Text'Length then -- 23
      raise PreCondition_Error; -- 24
    else -- 25
      M.Text(1..S'Length) := S(S'Range); -- 26
    end if; -- 27
    M.Length := S'Length; -- 28
  end Make; -- 29
  procedure Put (M : in Message; -- 30
    Precondition : Assertion := Require_Not_Full'Access; -- 31
    Postcondition : Assertion := Ensure_Length_Adjusted'Access) is -- 32
  begin -- 33
    Application.Messenger.Storage.Insert_At_End(Into => The_Storage_Container, M => M); -- 34

```

```

end Put; -- 35
function Require_Not_Empty return Boolean is -- 36
  Result : Boolean := False; -- 37
begin -- 38
  return Result; -- 39
end Require_Not_Empty; -- 40
function Ensure_Length_Adjusted return Boolean is -- 41
  Result : Boolean := False; -- 42
begin -- 43
  return Result; -- 44
end Ensure_Length_Adjusted; -- 45
function Require_Not_Full return Boolean is -- 46
  Result : Boolean := False; -- 47
begin -- 48
  return Result; -- 49
end Require_Not_Full; -- 50
end Application.Messenger; -- 51

```

8.5.3.5 Body for The Private Child Unit

This example is all done except for the body of the private child unit. Notice that we have stubbed out some of the implementation. This also compiles and executes. You will want to expand on the functionality. You might even want to change the implementation of the container to something more generic.

```

with Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation; -- 1
package body Application.Messenger.Storage is -- 2
  procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation -- 3
    (Object => Message'Class, -- 4
     Name => Reference); -- 5
  procedure Get_First_Message (From : in out Message_Container; M : out Message'Class) is -- 6
    Work_Container : Container := From.Data; -- 7
  begin -- 8
    M := From.Data(1).all; -- 9
    Free(From.Data(1)); -- 10
    From.Data(1..From.Count) := From.Data(2..From.Data'Last); -- 11
  end Get_First_Message; -- 12
  procedure Insert_At_End (Into : in out Message_Container; M : in Message'Class) is -- 13
  begin -- 14
    if Into.Count < Container'Length then -- 15
      Into.Count := Into.Count + 1; -- 16
      Into.Data(Into.Count) := new Message'(M); -- 17
    else -- 18
      raise PreCondition_Error; -- 19
    end if; -- 20
  end Insert_At_End; -- 21
end Application.Messenger.Storage; -- 22

```

8.6 Summary

Child library units are one of the most powerful features of the current Ada standard. When you have practised with them long enough, you will find many ways to use them to factor your designs into smaller, more compact, and more maintainable compilation units.

9. Object-Oriented Programming With Packages

Ada includes support for extensible inheritance, polymorphism, and dynamic binding. These are three key features of object-oriented programming (OOP). Ada enables this through the extensible tagged type.

9.1 An Object-Oriented Type

An Ada package is not a first-class object. You cannot create instances of a package, unless it is a generic package.

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 context clause, **with** Messenger, makes package Messenger and all its public services available, but not directly visible, to Messenger_Processor. Public 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

Essential for true object-oriented programming

9.4.1 Dispatching with Primitive Operations

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

```

Dynamic Binding

The next example does essentially what the previous example did. However, this example illustrates how to code a classwide procedure. Once again, the 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

```

Dynamic Binding

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
-- 18
-- 19

```

Dynamic Binding

9.4.2 Dynamic Binding with Mixed Library Units

Ada makes the dynamic binding (dispatching) feature really easy to use in your object-oriented programming design. The following example shows a derivation class with a combined set of base packages, child units, and client units. Notice that the base type is an abstract type. This means there can be no instances of Machine, only of non-abstract derivations from Machine. Abstract type Machine is the base type of Machine'Class.

important →

```

package Machinery is -- 1
  type Machine is abstract tagged private; -- 2
  type Reference is access all Machine'Class; -- 3
  type Machine_Set is -- 4
    array (Positive range <>) of Reference; -- 5
  procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine) is abstract; -- 6
  procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine) is abstract; -- 7
  function Is_On (M : in Machine) return Boolean; -- 8
private -- 9
  type Machine is abstract tagged record -- 10
    Is_On : Boolean := False; -- 11
  end record; -- 12
end Machinery; -- 13

```

This package defines an abstract type (class root) along with two abstract methods. Note the important access type Reference that can access any type derived from the abstract type.

Followed by a child library unit specification with an extended type; direct visibility; dot notation unnecessary.

```

package Machinery.Rotating is -- 1
  type Rotator_Type is new Machine with private; -- 2
  type Rotator_Type_Reference is access -- 3
    Rotator_Type_Type'Class; -- 4
  procedure Turn_On (R : in out Rotator_Type); -- 5
  procedure Turn_Off (R : in out Rotator_Type); -- 6
  procedure Set_RPM (R : in out Rotator_Type; -- 7
    Speed : Natural); -- 8
  function RPM_Is (R : in Rotator_Type) -- 9
    return Natural; -- 10
private -- 11
  type Rotator_Type is new Machine with record -- 12
    RPM : Natural := 0; -- 13
  end record; -- 14
end Machinery.Rotating; -- 15

```

This is a child package of Machinery. It contains a derivation from the abstract type, Machine. Note that dot notation is unnecessary because the child unit has direct visibility to the public part of the parent unit.

We inherit the Is_On function and override the Turn_On and Turn_Off methods.

Followed by a client library unit specification with an extended type; no direct visibility; dot notation is necessary.

```

with Machinery; -- 1
package Oscillator is -- 2
  type Oscillator_Type is -- 3
    new Machinery.Machine with private; -- 4
  type Reference is -- 5
    access all Oscillator_Type'Class; -- 6
  procedure Turn_On (OS : in out Oscillator_Type); -- 7
  procedure Turn_Off (OS : in out Oscillator_Type); -- 8
  procedure Set_Frequency(OS : in out Oscillator_Type; -- 9
    To : in Float); -- 10
  function Frequency_Is(OS : Oscillator_Type) -- 11
    return Float; -- 12
private -- 13
  type Oscillator_Type is new Machinery.Machine -- 14
    with record -- 15
    Frequency : Float := 0.0; -- 16
  end record; -- 17
end Oscillator; -- 18

```

This is a client package of Machinery. It contains a derivation from the abstract type, Machine. Note that dot notation is required because the client unit has no direct visibility to the public part of the parent unit.

We inherit the Is_On function and override the Turn_On and Turn_Off methods. We also add another method to set Frequency and one to get the current value of Frequency

Followed by a client procedure; client never has direct visibility; dot notation is necessary to achieve visibility.

```

with Ada.Text_IO; -- 1 pre-defined library unit
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO; -- 2 pre-defined library unit
use Ada; -- 3 parent of pre-defined library units
with Machinery.Rotating; -- 4 context clause for library unit
with Oscillator; -- 5 client unit
procedure Test_Machinery is -- 6
  package Rotating renames Machinery.Rotating; -- 7 shorter name with renames clause
  The_Machinery : Machinery.Machine_Set(1..2) := -- 8 array instance, constrained

```

```

        (1 => new Oscillator.Oscillator_Type,           -- 9 dynamic storage allocator
         2 => new Rotating.Rotator_Type);           -- 10 dynamic storage allocator
    Input : Integer;                               -- 11 will be used as array index
begin                                             -- 12
    loop                                         -- 13
        Text_IO.Put("Enter either a 1 or a 2 "); -- 14 get the array index
        Integer_Text_IO.Get(Input);             -- 15
        exit when Input not in 1..2;           -- 16 Notice membership test here
        Machinery.Turn_On(The_Machinery(Input).all); -- 17 dynamic binding
    end loop;                                    -- 18
end Test_Machinery;                             -- 19

```

This version of Test_Machinery demonstrates two kinds of dynamic binding. In one case the derived type, Rotator_Type is declared in a child library unit. In the other, the derived type is declared in a client unit. There are no visibility clauses in Test_Machinery for any of the Machinery'Class types. When we all Machinery.Turn_On or Machinery.Turn_Off, on the abstract type, Machine, we dynamically call the correct version of Turn_On or Turn_Off because of the tag of the actual parameter in the call.

We could easily extend this design with more client packages. The dynamic dispatching model will remain in operational regardless of how many library units are added.

Dispatching works because of the tag. For each derivation of a tagged type the compiler creates a dispatch table on the primitive operations for that type. The dispatch table is linked into the combined set of library units so it is easily reachable from anywhere in the program.

The tag binds each object directly to its dispatch table. Anytime a primitive operation is called, the tag directs the call to the dispatch table which, in -turn, references the appropriate primitive operation. This works well when you have the objects heterogeneously stored in a list, array, or table. This property is called object persistence. Ada allows object persistence even in files.

9.4.3 Parameter Lists With Multiple Tagged Types

It is illegal to have a primitive operation with more than one definite tagged type in the parameter list. However, a primitive operation may have one definite type and multiple classwide tagged types. The following example demonstrates this. First we have the package specification.

```

package Double_Tagged_Type is                    -- 1
    type T1 is tagged private;                  -- 2
    type T1_Reference is access all T1'Class;    -- 3
    type T1_Class is array (Positive range <>) of T1_Reference; -- 4
    type T2 is new T1 with private;             -- 5
    procedure Process(D1 : in out T1; D2 : in out T1'Class); -- 6
    procedure Process(D2 : in out T2; D1 : in out T1'Class); -- 7
    procedure Process_All(D1 : in out T1'Class; D2 : in out T1'Class); -- 8
private                                         -- 9
    type T1 is tagged null record;              -- 10
    type T2 is new T1 with null record;         -- 11
end Double_Tagged_Type;                        -- 12

```

primitive operation must be primitive for only one type; the other parameter may be classwide

line 8 is not actually necessary; it is simply here to illustrate a point about classwide methods.

This package contains a root type at Line 2 and a derivation at Line 5. The two procedures named Process are overloaded and disambiguated because of the definite tagged type as a first parameter. Both versions of Process are primitive methods (and will dispatch) for the named definite types. One of the types in each parameter list must be classwide or this would not compile. Next we look at the package body.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                               -- 1
use Ada;                                         -- 2
package body Double_Tagged_Type is              -- 3
    procedure Process (D1 : in out T1; D2 : in out T1'Class) is -- 4
    begin                                         -- 5
        Text_IO.Put("D1 is concrete T1 and D2 is classwide" ); -- 6
    end Process;                                 -- 7

```

Call this with one definite type and another that is classwide. It does not matter which comes first since we have a primitive for both versions.

```

procedure Process (D2 : in out T2;                -- 8 definite parameter
                  D1 : in out T1'Class) is        -- 9 classwide parameter
begin                                              -- 10
    Text_IO.Put("D2 is concrete T1 and D1 is classwide" ); -- 11
end Process;                                     -- 12
procedure Process_All (D1 : in out T1'Class;     -- 13 classwide parameter
                      D2 : in out T1'Class) is -- 14 classwide parameter
begin                                             -- 15
    Process(D1, D2);                               -- 16
end Process_All;                                 -- 17
end Double_Tagged_Type;                          -- 18

```

We could easily have designed this without the `Process_All` procedure, but including it demonstrates the power of a fully classwide subprogram. For example, it is often useful to have a function that returns a classwide type. In this package, we might have wanted to create a function such as,

```
function Get (From : T1_Class; Index : Integer) return T1'Class;
```

Primitive method that includes a classwide formal parameter.

The `Get` function would be especially useful if we had a lot of derivations from `T1` and a large array of such objects. In the `Double_Tagged_Type` example, `Get` is unnecessary. Keep it in mind for future designs. The following client of this package demonstrates how dynamic dispatching might take form.

```

with Double_Tagged_Type;                          -- 1 package defined above
with Ada.Text_IO;                                 -- 2 package from Ada Annex A
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                        -- 3 Library instantiation
use Ada;                                         -- 4 OK occurrence of visibility clause
procedure Test_Double_Tagged_Type is           -- 5
    Data : Double_Tagged_Type.T1_Class (1..6) := -- 6
        (1 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T1,         -- 7
         2 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T2,         -- 8
         3 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T1,         -- 9
         4 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T2,         -- 10 dynamic allocation of instances
         5 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T1,         -- 11
         6 => new Double_Tagged_Type.T2);        -- 12
    Input_1, Input_2 : Integer := 0;             -- 13 for indices into the array
begin                                           -- 14
    loop                                         -- 15
        Text_IO.Put("Enter First Integer Value: "); -- 16 prompt for keyboard input
        Integer_Text_IO.Get(Input_1);           -- 17 get index value for array
        exit when Input_1 not in 1..6;         -- 18 early loop exit
        Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 19 carriage-return/line-feed
        Text_IO.Put("Enter First Integer Value: "); -- 20 prompt for keyboard input
        Integer_Text_IO.Get(Input_2);           -- 21 get index value for array
        exit when Input_2 not in 1..6;         -- 22
        Double_Tagged_Type.Process_All(Data(Input_1).all, -- 23
                                       Data(Input_2).all); -- 24
        Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 25
    end loop;                                   -- 26
end Test_Double_Tagged_Type;                    -- 27

```

array of access objects; dynamically allocated in a ragged array

dynamic dispatching on method `Process_All`; this could avoid the `Process_All` call and call `Process` directly; this will also dynamically dispatch.

9.4.4 Dispatching on File Data

If you have your Ada Language Reference Manual handy, look for a package called `Ada.Streams.Stream_IO` in Annex A. This is a special input-output package that lets you store a tagged type with its tag intact. You can design `Stream_IO` files that are sequential or using some direct access method. Because the tag is stored in the file, each object is virtually bound to its set of operations. We start with the following package of tagged types and their associated methods:

```

package Machinery_For_Streams is                -- 1 An Ada Module
    type Machine is abstract tagged private;     -- 2 Tagged partial definition

```

```

type Reference is access all Machine'Class;           -- 3 Classwide access type
type Machine_Set is array(Positive range <>)        -- 4 Array of access values
  of Reference;                                     -- 5
procedure Turn_On (M : in out Machine)              -- 6 Turn on the machine
procedure Turn_Off (M : in out Machine);           -- 7 Turn off the Machine
function Is_On (M : Machine) return Boolean;        -- 8 Is the Machine turned on?
type Machine_1 is new Machine with private;        -- 9
function Create(S : String := "Machn_1") return Machine_1; -- 10
procedure Turn_On (M1 : in out Machine_1);         -- 11 Turn on the machine_1
procedure Turn_Off (M1 : in out Machine_1);        -- 12 Turn off the Machine_1
type Machine_2 is new Machine with private;        -- 13
function Create(S : String := "Machn_2") return Machine_2; -- 14
procedure Turn_On (M2 : in out Machine_2);         -- 15 Turn on the machine_2
procedure Turn_Off (M2 : in out Machine_2);        -- 16 Turn off the Machine_2
type Machine_3 is new Machine_1 with private;      -- 17
function Create(S : String := "Machn_3") return Machine_3; -- 18
procedure Turn_On (M3 : in out Machine_3);         -- 19 Turn on the machine_3
procedure Turn_Off (M3 : in out Machine_3);        -- 20 Turn off the Machine_3
type Machine_4 is new Machine_3 with private;      -- 21
function Create(S : String := "Machn_4") return Machine_4; -- 22
procedure Turn_On (M4 : in out Machine_4);         -- 23 Turn on the machine_4
procedure Turn_Off (M4 : in out Machine_4);        -- 24 Turn off the Machine_4
function Get (From : Machine_Set)                   -- 25
  return Machine'Class;                             -- 26
private                                             -- 27 Begin private part
  type Machine is tagged                             -- 28 Full tagged definition
  record                                             -- 29
    Identifier : String(1..7) := (others => ' ');    -- 30 Machine content
    Is_On : Boolean := False;                       -- 31 Machine content;
  end record;                                       -- 32 End of machine definition
  type Machine_1 is new Machine with null record;   -- 33
  type Machine_2 is new Machine with null record;   -- 34
  type Machine_3 is new Machine_1 with null record; -- 35
  type Machine_4 is new Machine_3 with null record; -- 36
end Machinery_For_Streams;                          -- 37 End of specification

```

Now we can create two procedures using `Stream_IO` to store the items of type `Machine'Class` in a file along with their tags. This permits the program to dispatch automatically on each item as it is retrieved from the file and called by the `Turn_On` operation. The first procedure will output the data with its tag to the `Stream_IO` file.

```

with Ada.Streams.Stream_Io;                         -- 1 Stream_IO from Annex A
use Ada.Streams;                                    -- 2
with Ada.Text_IO;                                   -- 3
use Ada;                                            -- 4
with Machinery_For_Streams;                         -- 5
procedure Stream_Output_For_Machine is              -- 6
  The_File : Stream_Io.File_Type;                   -- 7
  Reference : Stream_Io.Stream_Access;               -- 8 Access value
  Data : Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_Set(1..9)    -- 9
  := (1 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_1,     -- 10 Dynamic allocation of instances
      2 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_2,     -- 11
      3 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_3,     -- 12
      4 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_3,     -- 13
      5 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_2,     -- 14
      6 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_1,     -- 15
      7 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_4,     -- 16
      8 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_1,     -- 17
      9 => new Machinery_For_Streams.Machine_4);    -- 18 End of dynamic allocation
  File_Name : String(1..80) := (others => ' ');     -- 19 External file name
  File_Name_Length : Natural;                       -- 20
begin                                               -- 21
  Text_IO.Put("Enter File Name: ");                 -- 22
  Text_IO.Get_Line(File_Name, File_Name_Length);    -- 23
  Stream_Io.Create(File => The_File,                 -- 24
                  Mode => Stream_IO.Out_File,       -- 25
                  Name => File_Name(1..File_Name_Length)); -- 26
  Reference := Stream_Io.Stream(The_File);          -- 27

```

Allocate some data
in an array for the
stream file

Create a Stream_IO output file.

```

for I in Data'Range -- 28
  loop -- 29
    Machinery_For_Streams. -- 31
      Machine'Class'Output(Reference, Data(I).all); -- 32
  end loop; -- 33
Stream_Io.Close(The_File); -- 34
end Stream_Output_For_Machine; -- 35

```

Output data
from array to
stream file.

The preceding procedure will put tagged data in the output file. The next procedure will retrieve the data and call, polymorphically, the Turn_On method.

```

with Ada.Streams.Stream_Io; -- 1
use Ada.Streams; -- 2
with Ada.Text_IO; -- 3
use Ada; -- 4
with Machinery_For_Streams; -- 5
procedure Stream_Input_For_Machine is -- 6
  The_File : Stream_Io.File_Type; -- 7
  Reference : Stream_Io.Stream_Access; -- 8
  File_Name : String(1..80) := (others => ' '); -- 9
  File_Name_Length : Natural; -- 10
begin -- 11
  Text_IO.Put("Enter File Name: "); -- 12
  Text_IO.Get_Line(File_Name, File_Name_Length); -- 13
  Stream_Io.Open(File => The_File, -- 14
    Mode => Stream_IO.In_File, -- 15
    Name => File_Name(1..File_Name_Length)); -- 16
  Reference := Stream_Io.Stream(The_File); -- 17
  while not Stream_Io.End_Of_File(The_File) -- 18
  loop -- 19
    declare -- 20
      Data : Machinery_For_Streams.Machine'Class -- 21
        := Machinery_For_Streams. -- 22
          Machine'Class'Input(Reference); -- 23
    begin -- 24
      Machinery_For_Streams.Turn_On(Data); -- 25
    end; -- 26
  end loop; -- 27
  Stream_Io.Close(The_File); -- 28
end Stream_Input_For_Machine; -- 29

```

Get tagged
data from a
Stream file.

Sequential Stream File

Data in a declare block
so it can be dynamically
initialized as classwide

Dispatching Call

This is a sequential Stream_IO file. It would be perfectly OK to create a random access file using some kind of key processing algorithm such as a B-Tree. In this case, you would be able to create a true object-oriented database system. People have used Ada for object-oriented database applications successfully.

On Lines 21 through 23 we initialize the declaration Data when it is declared. A tagged object must always be initialized when it is declared. Initialization may be static or dynamic. In this example, the initialization is dynamic. This is analogous to an unconstrained array such as a type String, where the size of the object is not known until run-time. The earlier example of a Get function also illustrates a technique for dynamically constraining a tagged object declaration.

10. Using Standard Libraries and Annexes

The Ada language standard is published in two parts: **Core** language and **Annexes**. The Annexes, labeled A through H, include some standard library units. One library unit in Annex A, **package Standard**, is always in scope and always visible. Other libraries support special needs such as real-time system development, platform-specific systems programming, distributed systems, and safety and security. Still other units support input-output, string handling, and mathematical functions.

The most commonly used and misused library unit is package Standard, where all the predefined types (Boolean, Integer, Float, Character and String) are declared. Never use Standard numeric types for production software. Annexes A through K constitute some implementations of the language, but never define new syntax or semantics. Annex K defines the equivalent of intrinsic functions, called Attributes in Ada, that enable portability of algorithmic design.

10.1 Attributes for Portability (ALRM Annex K)

The term, attribute, was used in Ada before it became a term in OOP. It has a different meaning from that in the OOP community.

Attributes enhance your ability to create flexible, portable, and easy to read code. Many attributes behave like built-in functions. The format for an attribute is a prefix of a type or object name along followed by an apostrophe, followed by the attribute itself. Attributes may have parameters. The format is,

Q'Attribute	<i>where there is no parameter for the attribute</i>
Q'Attribute(parameter)	<i>where there is a parameter for the attribute</i>

The apostrophe is pronounced, "tic." In this example we would say, Q tic Attribute

In an expression, an attribute might be coded as,

X := Q'Attribute	<i>where there is no parameter for the attribute</i>
X := Q'Attribute(parameter)	<i>where there is a parameter for the attribute</i>
for X use Y'Attribute	<i>in a representation specification clause</i>

along with other kinds of attribute expressions such as conditional and declarative statements.

The prefix Q, shown above can be replaced by any of a number of Ada entities. When the attributes are defined in Annex K, they are shown with a prefix that indicates what kind of prefix is required. The possibilities are summarized in the following table.

Legend for Attribute Prefixes	
P	Subprogram
X	an object or variable name
S	type or subtype identifier
E	entry or exception
T	task
R	record (component is R.C')
A	array

Examples of attributes are:

Integer'Last	<i>The last value in the set for predefined type Integer</i>
Float'Last	<i>The last value for predefined type Float</i>
T1'Callable	<i>Is task T1 still callable</i>
Vector'Last	<i>Where Vector is an array, Last is largest index value</i>
Vector'Length	<i>Where Vector is an array, Length is the length of the array</i>
Byte'Size	<i>The number of bits in type Byte</i>
X'Valid	<i>Is instance named X a valid representation of its own type?</i>

Each attribute is rigorously defined for its associated entity. As mentioned above, many attributes make floating point operations more precise. Other attributes allow one to generalize an algorithm so it can be used for any type in a given set of types. Consider the following generic function, Next.

```

generic                                -- 1
  type Element is (<>);                 -- 2
function Next (Data : Element) return Element; -- 3

function Next (Data : Element) return Element is -- 1
begin                                    -- 2
  if Data = Element'Last then           -- 3
    return Element'First;                -- 4
  else                                    -- 5
    return Element'Succ(Data);           -- 6
  end if;                                -- 7
end Next;                                -- 8

```

Generic formal discrete type parameter

Body of generic function; note the use of attributes 'Last, 'First, and 'Succ to generalize the algorithm.

Notice how we are able to use attributes in this algorithm to generalize the code. Element can be instantiated with any discrete type. This is a powerful feature of Ada. It has been copied by other languages, but never quite as well as originally designed in Ada.

10.1.1 Classification of Attributes

Some attributes are unique to specific types. Others are for machine/platform representation specifications. Still others are specific to object-oriented programming. The following charts organize some common attributes according to typical usage.

Floating Point Attributes (*where S is name of a floating point type*)

S'Adjacent	S'Fraction	S'Machine_Radix	S'Safe_First
S'Ceiling	S'Leading_Part	S'Model	S'Safe_Last
S'Compose	S'Machine	S'Model_Emin	S'Scaling
S'Copy_Sign	S'Machine_Emax	S'Model_Epsilon	S'Signed_Zeros
S'Denorm	S'Machine_Emin	S'Model_Mantissa	S'Unbiased_Rounding
S'Digits	S'Machine_Mantissa	S'Model_Small	
S'Exponent	S'Machine_Overflows	S'Remainder	
S'Floor	S'Machine_Radix	S'Rounding	

The floating-point attributes are particularly useful for numerically intensive applications such as scientific, engineering, and analytical programs. In particular, note the presence of both Machine number and Model number attributes. These can be used to create highly portable numerical software. Some of the above attributes also apply to fixed-point types.

The following attributes are available for any scalar type. As a reminder, scalar types include all integers, enumeration types, floating-point types and fixed-point types. Scalar does not include records, arrays, access types, private types, task types, or protected types.

Scalar Type Attributes (*where S is name of a scalar type*)

S'Base	S'Pred	S'Wide_Image
S'First	S'Range	S'Wide_Value
S'Image	S'Succ	S'Wide_Width
S>Last	S'Valid	S'Width
S'Max	S'Value	
S'Min		

Of special interest in this list are the attributes, S'Base and S'Valid. The 'Base attribute encompasses the range supported for every unconstrained object of the type. It enables the designer to create functions that ensure there will be no constraint_error due to overflow of intermediate range overflow. The Valid attribute is used to test the result of an expression before using that result in another expression. It is also useful in avoiding exceptions when using features such as unchecked_conversion.

Array Type/Object Attributes (where *A* is name of a array type or array object)

A'First	A'Last(N)	A'Range(N)	A'Constrained
A'First(N)	A'Range	A'Length	A'Component_Size
A'Last		A'Length(N)	

Array attributes are among the most useful in developing portable Ada code. They are especially good to use in generic reusable components designed as unconstrained array types.

Object-Oriented Programming Attributes (Using legend from beginning of this section)

S'Class	S'Class'Input	S'Input	S'Class'Output
S'Output	S'Class'Read	S'Read	S'Tag
X'Tag	S'Class'Write	S'Write	

Actually, all the attributes in the preceding box in which the class does not appear are used for Stream operations. We include them together because they are most often used in conjunction with an object-oriented programming design.

Other Attributes (where prefix is as shown in the legend box at the beginning of this section)

P'Access	X'Access	S'Aft	X'Alignment
S'Bit_Order	P'Body_Version	T'Callable	E'Caller
E'Count	S'Definite	S'Delta	E'Identity
T'Identity	R.C'First_Bit	R.C'Last_Bit	S'Modulus
D'Partition_ID	S'Pos	R.C'Position	S'Scale
S'Size	X'Size	S'Small	S'Storage_Pool
T'Terminated	S'Val	T'Storage_Size	S'Storage_Size
P'Version	X'Unchecked_Access		

The above attributes cover everything from tasks to exceptions. As with other attributes, these can be used to make a design more portable. We have described the attributes declared in Annex K of the Ada Language Reference Manual. A compiler publisher is permitted to add attributes for their specific compiler. For example, the GNAT compiler has a special attribute, Unrestricted_Access, which corresponds to Unchecked_Access for subprogram access objects.

10.2 String Examples

String handling is a simple idea that often becomes complicated in some programming environments. In particular, C, C++, and COBOL have made string handling 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 predefined libraries (in Annex A) support most of the operations one might want to do on strings. Ada supports three kinds of strings: fixed strings, bounded strings, and unbounded strings. One kind of string may easily be converted into another kind of string. Fixed strings are those defined in package Standard.

The following 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.

	Ada Language Reference Manual
with Ada.Text_IO;	-- 1 <i>Put Ada.Text_IO library unit in scope;</i> 10.1.2, A.10
procedure Bon_Jour is	-- 2 <i>Parameterless declaration;</i> 6.3
Hello : String (1..5) := “Salut”;	-- 3 <i>Number of characters must match range;</i> 4.1, A.1/37
Howdy : String := “Howdy Joe”;	-- 4 <i>Compiler determines constraint from string;</i> 2.6, 3.3.1/13
Bon_Jour : constant String := “Bon Jour”;	-- 5 <i>A true constant; cannot be altered;</i> 3.3.1/5-6
begin	-- 6 <i>Begins sequence of algorithmic statements;</i> 6.3
Ada.Text_IO.Put(Hello);	-- 7 <i>Put a string with no carriage return;</i> A.10.6
Ada.Text_IO.Set_Col(20);	-- 8 <i>On same line, position cursor at column 20;</i> A.10.5
Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Hello);	-- 9 <i>Put a string with a carriage return / line feed;</i> A.10.7
Ada.Text_IO.Put(Howdy);	-- 10 <i>Put a string with no carriage return;</i> A.10.7
Ada.Text_IO.Set_Col (20);	-- 11 <i>Set the cursor to column 20 / line feed;</i> A.10.5
Ada.Text_IO.Put(Howdy);	-- 12 <i>Put a string with no carriage return / line feed;</i> A.10.7
Ada.Text_IO.New_Line(2);	-- 13 <i>Position cursor to a new line; double space;</i> A.10.5
Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Bon_Jour);	-- 14 <i>Put a constant to the screen with CR/LF;</i> A.10.7
Howdy(7..9) := Bon_Jour(1..3);	-- 15 <i>Slide (assign) one string slice into another;</i> 4.1.2
Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line (Howdy);	-- 16 <i>Put the modified string with CR/LF;</i> A.10.7
end Bon_Jour;	-- 17 <i>Note the label for the enclosing procedure;</i> 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.

10.2.1 Using the Fixed Strings Package

ALRM A.4.4.4 **package** Ada.Strings.Fixed

with Ada.Text_IO;	-- 1 <i>Put Ada.Text_IO library unit in scope;</i> 10.1.2, A.10
with Ada.Strings.Fixed;	-- 2 <i>A language defined string package</i> A.4.1, A.4.3
use Ada;	-- 3 <i>Makes all of package Ada visible</i>
procedure Ni_Hao_Ma is	-- 4 <i>Hello in Mandarin Chinese</i> 6.3
Greeting : String(1..80);	-- 5 <i>80 character string; String defined in package Standard ALRM A.1</i>
Farewell : String(1..120);	-- 6 <i>120 character string</i>
begin	-- 7 <i>Start sequence of statements</i>
Ada.Strings.Fixed.Move(Greeting, Farewell);	-- 8 <i>Move shorter string to longer string; may also move longer to shorter</i>
end Ni_Hao_Ma;	-- 9 <i>End of procedure scope.</i>

10.2.2 Bounded Strings

ALRM A.4.4.4 **package** Ada.Strings.Bounded

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.

10.2.3 Unbounded Strings

ALRM A.4.4.4 **package** Ada.Strings.UnBounded

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.

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.

This is useful when you have a need for an input buffer of unknown size.

with Ada.Strings.Unbounded;	-- 1	Unbounded strings are usually implemented with automatic garbage collection. This saves storage but any kind of automatic garbage collection is time non-determinate.
with Ada.Text_IO;	-- 2	
use Ada; use Strings;	-- 3	
procedure Unbounded_String_Demonstration is	-- 4	
Input : Character := '';	-- 5 <i>Elementary character</i>	
Output : String (1..80) := (others => '');	-- 6 <i>Fixed length output string</i>	

```

Buffer : Unbounded.Unbounded_String;           -- 7 An unbounded buffer of input
Length : Natural;                               -- 8 Size of the buffer
begin                                           -- 9
  loop                                         -- 10
    Text_IO.Put("Enter a character: ");        -- 11
    Text_IO.Get(Input);                        -- 12 Get the character
    exit when Input = '~';                    -- 13 Exit when tilde is entered
    Unbounded.Append(Source => Buffer, New_Item => Input); -- 14 Add the character to the buffer
  end loop;                                    -- 15
  Length := Unbounded.Length(Buffer);         -- 16 How big is the buffer?
  Output(1..Length) := Unbounded.To_String(Buffer); -- 17 Copy the buffer to a String
  Text_IO.Put_Line(Output(1..Length));        -- 18 Output the entire string
end Unbounded_String_Demonstration;          -- 19

```

10.2.4 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.

```

10.3 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.

10.3.1 Converting a String to an Scalar Type

Note the many variations possible

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.

```

with Ada.Text_IO;                               -- 1
with Ada.Integer_Text_IO;                       -- 2
with Ada.Float_Text_IO;                        -- 3
use Ada; -- It is generally OK to use a visibility clause for package Ada -- 4
procedure String_To_Scalar_Demonstration is     -- 5
  type Spectrum is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet); -- 6
  type Unsigned is mod 2**8; -- Reminder: mod defines an unsigned integer type -- 7
  Num : Integer := 0;                            -- 8
  FNum : Float := 0.0;                          -- 9
  Color : Spectrum := Blue;                      -- 10
  MNum : Unsigned := 0;                         -- 11
  Text : String(1..10);                         -- 12
  Text_Integer : String := "451";               -- 13
  Text_Float : String := "360.0";               -- 14
  Text_Color : String := "Orange";              -- 15
  Text_Unsigned : String := "42";               -- 16
  Integer_Last : Natural;                       -- 17
  Float_Last : Natural;                         -- 18
  Spectrum_Last : Natural;                      -- 19
  Modular_Last : Natural;                       -- 20
package SIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum => Spectrum); -- 21

```

Good use of named association

Instantiate IO packages for each data type that needs conversion to or from a string.

```

package MIO is new Text_IO.Modular_IO      (Num => Unsigned);      -- 22
package IIO is new Text_IO.Integer_IO     (Num => Integer);       -- 23
package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO       (Num => Float);         -- 24
begin                                     -- 25
Text_IO.Put_Line("The String Values are: "); -- 26
Text_IO.Put("Orange for Enumerated Type   "); -- 27
Text_IO.Put_Line("451 for Integer Type   "); -- 28
Text_IO.Put("360.0 for Float Type         "); -- 29
Text_IO.Put_Line("42 for Unsigned Type   "); -- 30
Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 31
-- Example 1; using the Value attribute    -- 32
Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 33
Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>> Example 1; Using 'Value Attribute <<< "); -- 34
Color := Spectrum'Value(Text_Color);    -- 35
Num   := Integer'Value(Text_Integer); -- See Annex K for meaning of 'Value -- 36
FNum  := Float'Value(Text_Float);      -- 37
MNum  := Unsigned'Value(Text_Unsigned); -- 38
SIO.Put(Color); Text_IO.New_Line; -- I/O for Spectrum data type -- 39
IIO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line; -- I/O for Integer data type -- 40
FIO.Put(FNum); Text_IO.New_Line; -- I/O for Float data type -- 41
MIO.Put(MNum); Text_IO.New_Line; -- I/O for Modular data type -- 42
Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 43
-- Example 2; using the procedures of pre-instantiated packages -- 44
Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>>> Example 2; using pre-instantiated packages << " ); -- 45
Integer_Text_IO.Get(From => Text_Integer, Item => Num, Last => Integer_Last); -- 46
Float_Text_IO.Get(From => Text_Float, Item => FNum, Last => Float_Last); -- 47
Integer_Text_IO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 48
Float_Text_IO.Put (FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0); Named association -- 49
Text_IO.New_Line(2);                   -- 50
-- Example 3; using your own instantiated packages -- 51
Text_IO.Put_Line(" >>>> Example 3; Using own instantiations <<<< "); -- 52
Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 53
SIO.Get(From => Text_Color, Item => Color, Last => Spectrum_Last); -- 54
MIO.Get(From => Text_Unsigned, Item => MNum, Last => Modular_Last); -- 55
IIO.Get(From => Text_Integer, Item => Num, Last => Integer_Last); -- 56
FIO.Get(From => Text_Float, Item => FNum, Last => Float_Last); -- 57
-- Now Write the Results to the Screen -- 58
SIO.Put(Item => Color); Text_IO.New_Line; Named association -- 59
IIO.Put(Item => Num); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 60
FIO.Put(Item => FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0); -- 61
Text_IO.New_Line;                       -- 62
MIO.Put(Item => MNum);                   -- 63
Text_IO.New_Line(2);                   -- 64
Text_IO.Put_Line(" **** End of String_To_Scalar_Demonstration **** "); -- 65
end String_To_Scalar_Demonstration;    -- 66

```

10.3.2 Converting a Scalar to a String

Note the many variations possible

This program is the opposite of the one in 10.2.2, above. We can convert almost any kind of scalar value to a string. The package, `Ada.Text_IO` contains nested generic packages that make it easy to convert any kind of number to a string. The programmer may also use the `X'Image` attribute (See ALRM Annex K) from an internal (machine based) representation to a string.

```

with Ada.Text_IO, Ada.Integer_Text_IO, Ada.Float_Text_IO; -- 1
use Ada; -- 2 May safely use Ada
procedure Scalar_To_String_Demonstration is -- 3 Convert a string to a scalar object
type Spectrum is (Red, Orange, Yellow, Green, Blue, Indigo, Violet); -- 4 Enumerated type
type Unsigned is mod 2**8; -- 5 Unsigned modular type
Num : Integer := 451; -- 6 Combustion point of paper in fahrenheit
FNum : Float := 360.0; -- 7 Don't go off on a tangent
Color : Spectrum := Blue; -- 8 Hmmm. "You don't look bluish."
MNum : Unsigned := 42; -- 9 Life, the Universe, and Everything
Text : String(1..10); -- 10
package SIO is new Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Enum=> Spectrum); -- 11 Instantiate IO for enumerated type
package MIO is new Text_IO.Modular_IO (Num => Unsigned); -- 12 Instantiate IO for modular type
package IIO is new Text_IO.Integer_IO (Num => Integer); -- 13 Instantiate IO for predefined Integer
package FIO is new Text_IO.Float_IO (Num => Float); -- 14 Instantiate IO for predefined Float
begin -- 15
Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 1; Using 'Image Attribute "); -- 17 Example 1; using the image attribute

```

```

Text_IO.Put_Line(Spectrum'Image(Color)); -- 18
Text_IO.Put_Line(Unsigned'Image(MNum)); -- 19
Text_IO.Put_Line(Integer'Image(Num)); -- 20
Text_IO.Put_Line(Float'Image(FNum)); -- 21
Text_IO.New_Line; -- 22
Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 2; using pre-instantiated packages "); -- 24
Integer_Text_IO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 25
Float_Text_IO.Put (FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0); -- 26
Text_IO.New_Line(2); -- 27
Text_IO.Put_Line(" Example 3; Using own instantiations "); -- 29
SIO.Put(Color); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 30
MIO.Put(MNum); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 31
HIO.Put(Num); Text_IO.New_Line; -- 32
FIO.Put(FNum, Fore => 3, Aft => 3, Exp => 0); -- 33
Text_IO.New_Line(2); -- 34
-- Example 4; convert to text and then print -- 35
Text_IO.Put_Line("Example 4; Convert to text, then print "); -- 36
SIO.Put(To => Text, Item => Color); -- 37
Text_IO.Put_Line(Text); -- 38
MIO.Put(To => Text, Item => MNum); -- 39
Text_IO.Put_Line(Text); -- 40
HIO.Put(To => Text, Item => Num); -- 41
Text_IO.Put_Line(Text); -- 42
FIO.Put(To => Text, Item => FNum, Aft => 3, Exp => 0); -- 43
Text_IO.Put_Line(Text); -- 44
Text_IO.New_Line; -- 45
Text_IO.Put_Line("End of Image_Demonstration "); -- 46
end Scalar_To_String_Demonstration; -- 47

```

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

Example 2; pre-instantiated packages

Named association for parameters

Example 3; own instantiated packages

Two statements on single line

Named association for parameters

Named association for parameters

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.

10.4 Wide Strings

Both Ada and Java are designed to support international (Unicode) character sets. Ada calls this wide-strings. We will add some examples of wide string processing in a future edition of Ada Distilled.

11. Exception Management

Ada 83 was one of the first languages to include exception management. Nearly all modern programming languages now have this feature. Exceptions are an essential feature of typed-languages that support encapsulation. Think of an exception handler as a kind of software circuit-breaker. Just as a real circuit-breaker prevents your house from catching fire, the software circuit-breaker can prevent your program from aborting at uncontrollable points during execution.

Ada 95 has four 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

Input/output errors in package IO_Exceptions (Annex A.13) 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. Exceptions appear in library packages from various software repositories, including the many freeware packages available from Internet sources.

11.1 Handling an Exception (ALRM 11.4)

An exception handler must appear in a **begin...end** sequence. Therefore it might appear as,

Ada comb	function Ohm (Volt, Amp : Float) return Float is	-- 1 <i>Parameterized function declaration;</i>	6.3
	Result : Float := 0.0;	-- 2 <i>Initialized local variable</i>	
	begin	-- 3 <i>Begins algorithmic statements;</i>	6.3
	Result := Volt / Amp;	-- 4 <i>Simple division; cannot divide by zero</i>	
	return Result;	-- 5	
	exception	-- 6 <i>If we try to divide by zero, land here.</i>	
	when Constraint_Error =>	-- 7 <i>Raised on divide-by-zero; handle it here.</i>	
	Text_IO.Put_Line("Divide by Zero");	-- 8 <i>Display the error on the console</i>	
	raise ;	-- 9 <i>Re-raises the exception after handling it.</i>	
	end Ohm;	-- 10 <i>Scope terminator with name of unit</i>	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 shown.

It is better not to return an invalid value from a function so it is useful 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 same exception (on line 8), we need another handler in the calling subprogram.

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

11.2 Declaring your Own Exceptions

Ada allows user-defined exceptions. These can be declared and raised by the designer.

```

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_With_Exception 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 ... -- requires full definition of type
end Application_With_Exception;

```

ellipses are not part of Ada

-- 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_With_Exception 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_With_Exception is
  -- Implementation code for the package body
end Application_With_Exception;

```

-- 1 Localize the context clause to package body
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4

11.3 Raising Exceptions

Exceptions should indicate a strange event that cannot be handled with the usual coding conventions. Ada 95 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;
      Height : Number;
    end record;

```

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

Given: 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.

```

        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 agree with the above example. It is your responsibility to decide whether this is appropriate in designing your software. The important consideration is that you may define and raise exceptions when you determine they are necessary. Object-oriented programming has a strong bias toward encapsulation. When encapsulation is strong, an exception may be the appropriate technique to notify a client that something has gone wrong within the software object they are using.

11.4 Package *Ada.Exceptions* Ada 95 only

The following language-defined can be useful for some kinds of applications.

```

package Ada.Exceptions is -- This is an Ada language defined package -- 1 ALRM 11.4.1
    type Exception_Id is private; -- 2 predefined assignment
    Null_Id : constant Exception_Id; -- 3 this is called a deferred constant
    function Exception_Name(Id : Exception_Id) return String; -- 4 Associate a string with an exception
    type Exception_Occurrence is limited private; -- 5 no assignment operation
    type Exception_Occurrence_Access is access all Exception_Occurrence; -- 6 useful for a limited private type
    Null_Occurrence : constant Exception_Occurrence; -- 7 Deferred constant; no assignment
    procedure Raise_Exception(E : in Exception_Id; Message : in String := ""); -- 8 Exception_ID from line 2
    function Exception_Message(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 9 String value of exception message
    procedure Reraise_Occurrence(X : in Exception_Occurrence); -- 10 After handling, raise it again
    function Exception_Identity(X : Exception_Occurrence) return Exception_Id; -- 11 Exception_ID from line 2
    function Exception_Name(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 12 String value of Exception_Occurrence
    -- Same as Exception_Name(Exception_Identity(X)). -- 13
    function Exception_Information(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String; -- 14 Some compilers give lots of info here
    procedure Save_Occurrence(Target : out Exception_Occurrence; -- 15 A lot like a copy or assignment
        Source : in Exception_Occurrence); -- 16
    function Save_Occurrence(Source : Exception_Occurrence) -- 17 Create an access object
        return Exception_Occurrence_Access; -- 18
private -- 19
    ... -- not specified by the language -- 20
end Ada.Exceptions; -- 21

```

One can design with this package so objects of type `Exception_Occurrence` are stored in a volatile data structure (list, array, etc) and held for later processing. Any exception can be converted into a text format and stored as text in a log file. This feature is useful for non-stop systems that require handling exceptions but cannot stop executing for each processing anomaly. Even though standard Ada exceptions are not first-class objects, the availability of `Exception_ID` and `Exception_Occurrence` gives the designer an opportunity to promote them to first-class objects. This enables the efficiency associated with ordinary Ada exceptions with the less efficient option of designing them as objects.

12. Generic Components

12.1 Generic Subprograms

In Ada, an algorithm or object can be designed as type-independent, and can be put in the library as a generic reusable component. There are huge libraries of generic Ada components already in place such as the Public Ada Library. Here are examples of simple generic subprograms. The first example is a generalization of the Next function shown earlier. First we are required to define the generic specification.

```
generic
  type Item is (<>); -- Any discrete type
  function Next (Value : Item) return Item;
-- 1 Reserved word for defining templates
-- 2 Generic formal Parameter (GFP)
-- 3 Specification for generic subprogram
```

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

Illegal

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

This function can be instantiated for any discrete 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 the famous, but simple Swap procedure. Recall that every non-limited type including a private type has the predefined operators, =, /=, and operation := (assignment). Therefore, we can instantiate the Swap procedure with any non-limited type in Ada. That is, a private generic formal parameter, as defined on line 2 below, can be associated with any non-limited type

```
generic
  type Element (<>) is private;
  procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out Element);
-- 1 Start the generic formal parameters
-- 2 Unconstrained generic parameter
-- 3 Usually compiled separately
```

First we code the the specification then the actual implementation. Notice the algorithm in the implementation works for any non-limited data type.

```

procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out Element) is
    Temp : Element := Left;
begin
    Left := Right;
    Right := Temp;
end Swap;

```

-- 1 *Compile separately in its own body file*
 -- 2 *Must be constrained in declaration*
 -- 3
 -- 4 *First part of exchange*
 -- 5 *Second part of exchange*
 -- 6

An algorithm does not get much easier than the Swap procedure. What should be clear from seeing generic Swap is that you can use this technique to generalize hundreds of other algorithms on your own projects. You can also use this technique to easily share algorithmic code with your colleagues.

Sometimes it is useful to collect generic subprogram specifications some common properties in one package. For example, using those already described,

```

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

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

    generic
        type Item is (<>);
    function Prev (Data : Item) return Item;
    -- more generic subprograms as appropriate to your particular project needs

end Utilities;

```

-- *A handy package at the project-specific level*
 -- *A constrained generic formal parameter*
 -- *A discrete type generic formal parameter*
 -- *A discrete type generic formal parameter*

Tip:
 You can create this kind of utility package for algorithms unique to your team's project.

The Utilities package can be used to collect common generic algorithms. This set of small reusable components is useful for creating larger components; i.e., build new generics from existing generics.

12.2 Other Generic Formal Parameters

A generic formal type parameter is possible for any type; e.g., 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;

```

-- *Start the generic formal parameters*
 -- *Generic formal type parameter*
 -- *Generic formal ">" operator*
 -- *Generic formal "<" operator*
 -- *Generic reusable data structure*
 --
 --

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 "own code" operators are instantiated by the client of the package. Before looking at the instantiation of this example, study 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;

```

-- 1 *start a generic package specification*
 -- 2 *Predefined assignment and equality*
 -- 3 *general access type formal parameter*
 -- 4 *formal parameter for own code "="*
 -- 5 *formal parameter for own code "<"*
 -- 6 *formal parameter for own code ">"*
 -- 7 *Generic reusable data structure*
 -- 8 *limited private type for container*

Many Ada designers prefer to use function names instead of function operators for generic formal subprogram parameters.

```

-- Specification of a Doubly_Linked_Ring data structure
end Doubly_Linked_Ring_2;
-- 9 more operations on limited type
-- 10 end of package specification

```

Although 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 associating a generic actual operation with a generic formal operation, the client of the generic package can ensure the structure behaves according to a given record key definition. 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. This 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 same rules as in function Is_Equal, above
  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;

```

The Key is only one field of the record.

Compare only the record Key, not the whole record.

Notice the use of named association; good for readability and documentation

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 extended into a fully coded program, adapted 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
  generic
    with package Mapping_Operations is new Mapping (<>);
    use Mapping_Operations;
    -- This is a generic formal package parameter instead of a generic formal subprogram
  procedure Do_Something(M : in out Mapping_Type; K : in Key; V : in Value);
end Mapping_Example; -- End of the enclosing package specification

```

-- 1 Note the generic
-- 2 formal parameters
-- 3 for the signature
-- 4 package, Mapping.
-- 5 The package
-- 6 contains no other
-- 7 operations. This is
-- 8 legal and handy

-- 9 Signature package
-- 9.1
-- 10
-- 11 See line 9, above
-- 12 Use clause OK here
-- 13
-- 14 Generic procedure
-- 15

Lines 2 through 9 define the *generic formal signature* that will become our generic formal package parameter for the Do_Something procedure. This model has no specification and therefore will not have a body. It is typical of a generic formal signature to be 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. By making it a simple procedure with its own formal parameters we keep this example simple. The package body for Mapping_Example will simply implement the procedure Do_Something.

```

package body Mapping_Example is                                -- 1 Implementation of the
  procedure Do_Something(M : in out Mapping_Type;             -- 2 generic formal program
                        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

```

The comment the begin statement on Line 5 to emphasizes 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. Dot notation makes clear the referencing of the formal parameter name, not the “is new” name. Here is an example of how to 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; -- Stubbed out; usually is the algorithmic part of the code -- 8
  end Add;                                                       -- 9
  procedure Remove (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 10
  begin                                                         -- 11
    null; -- Stubbed out; usually is the algorithmic part of the code -- 12
  end Remove;                                                   -- 13
  procedure Apply (M : in out Character; K : Integer; V : Integer) is -- 14
  begin                                                         -- 15
    null; -- Stubbed out; usually is the algorithmic part of the code -- 16
  end Apply;                                                    -- 17
  -- 18
  package Character_Mapping is new Mapping_Example.Mapping -- 19
    (Mapping_Type => Character,
      Key      => Integer,
      Value    => Integer,
      Add      => Add,
      Remove   => Remove,
      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,
                        K => Map_Key,
                        V => Map_Value); -- 32
  end Test_Mapping_Example; -- 33

```

Implementation of procedures intended to be used as generic formal subprogram parameters.

Instantiation of the signature package using generic actual parameters.

Instantiation of generic package associating the generic formal package parameter with generic actual from lines 19-25.

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;
use Ada;
generic
  type Element is tagged private;
  with function Is_Valid(Data : Element) return Boolean;
package Queue_Manager_1 is
  type List is limited private;
  type List_Reference is access all List;
  type List_Item is new Element with private;
  type Item_Reference is access all List_Item'Class;
  procedure Clear (L : in out List);
  procedure Insert_At_Head (L : in out List; I : in List_Item'Class);
  procedure Insert_At_Head (L : access List; I : access List_Item'Class);
  procedure Copy (Source : in List; Target : in out List);
  function Remove_From_Tail (L : access List) return List_Item'Class;
  function "=" (L, R : List) return Boolean;
  function Node_Count (L : access List) return Natural;
  function Is_Empty (L : access List) return Boolean;
  ===== Define the Active Iterator =====
  type Iterator is private;
  procedure Initialize_Iterator(This : in out Iterator; The_List : access List);
  function Next(This : in Iterator) return Iterator;
  function Get (This : in Iterator) return List_Item'Class;
  function Get (This : in Iterator) return Item_Reference;
  function Is_Done(This : in Iterator) return Boolean;

  Iterator_Error : exception;
private
  use Ada.Finalization;
  type List_Node;
  type Link is access all List_Node;
  type Iterator is new Link;
  type List_Item is new Element with null record;
  type List_Node is new Controlled with -- Derived from a controlled type
  record
    Data : Item_Reference;
    Next : Link;
    Prev : Link;
  end record;
  type List is new Limited_Controlled with -- Derived from limited controlled type
  record
    Count : Natural := 0;
    Head : Link;
    Tail : Link;
    Current : Link;

```



```

    end record;                                -- 50
    procedure Finalize(One_Node : in out List_Node); -- 51 reclaim Node storage
    procedure Finalize(The_List : in out List);      -- 52 reclaim List storage
end Queue_Manager_1;                             -- 53

```

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 an effective building block for constructing passive iterators. Since the list is potentially heterogeneous, the Get returns a classwide type. This can be used in conjunction with dispatching operations. Here is an annotated package body for the above specification. This is a long set of source code but it should be useful to the student because of its near completeness. It also serves as a model for creating other data structures. This package body was compiled using the GNAT Ada compiler.

```

package body
with Text_IO;                                -- 1
with Ada.Exceptions;                          -- 2
with Unchecked_Deallocation;                  -- 3
package body Queue_Manager_1 is              -- 4
    -- This instantiation enables destruction of unreferenced allocated storage -- 5
    procedure Free_Node is new Unchecked_Deallocation -- 6
        (Object => List_Node, -- 7
         Name   => Link); -- 8

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

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

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

    -- The name says what it does. Note the allocation of a temp. Finalization will -- 27
    -- occur to ensure there is no left over storage. -- 28
    procedure Insert_At_Head (L : in out List; -- 29
                             I : in List_Item'Class) is -- 30
        Temp_Item : Item := new List_Item'(I); -- 31
        Temp : Link := new List_Node'(Controlled with -- 32
                                       Data => Temp_Item, -- 33
                                       Next => null, -- 34
                                       Prev => null); -- 35
    begin -- 36
        if Is_Empty(L'Access) -- 37
        then -- 38
            L.Head := Temp; -- 39
            L.Tail := Temp; -- 40
        else -- 41
            L.Head.Prev := Temp; -- 42
            Temp.Next := L.Head; -- 43
            L.Head := Temp; -- 44
        end if; -- 45
        L.Count := L.Count + 1; -- 46
    end Insert_At_Head; -- 47

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

```

```

begin                                                    -- 52
  Insert_At_Head(L => L.all,                               -- 53
                I => I.all);                             -- 54
end Insert_At_Head;                                     -- 55

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

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

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

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

-- We made List a limited private to prevent automatic assignment. Instead, we design -- 85
-- this "deep copy" procedure to ensure there will be two separate copies of the data -- 86
procedure Copy (Source : in List;                     -- 87
               Target : in out List) is              -- 88
  type Item_Ref is access all List_Item'Class;      -- 89
  Temp : Link := Source.Tail;                       -- 90
  Local_Data : Item_Reference;                       -- 91
begin                                                -- 92
  Clear(Target); -- Be sure the target is initialized before copying. -- 93
  loop                                              -- 94
    exit when Temp = null;                          -- 95
    Local_Data := new List_Item'(Temp.Data.all);    -- 96
    declare                                         -- 97
      Local_List_Item                               -- 98
        : List_Item'Class := Local_Data.all;        -- 99
    begin                                           -- 100
      Insert_At_Head(Target, Local_List_Item);      -- 101
    end;                                           -- 102
    Temp := Temp.Prev;                              -- 103
  end loop;                                         -- 104
end Copy;                                           -- 105

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

procedure Initialize_Iterator(This : in out Iterator; -- 114
                              The_List : access List) is -- 115

```

Also need to free data storage in this routine

```

begin
    This := Iterator(The_List.Head);
end Initialize_Iterator;

function Next(This : access Iterator) return Iterator is
begin
    return Next(This.all);
end Next;

function Next (This : Iterator) return Iterator is
begin
    return Iterator(This.Next);
end Next;

function Get (This : in Iterator)
                return List_Item'Class is
begin
    return This.Data.all;
end Get;

function Get (This : in Iterator) return Item_Reference is
begin
    return This.Data;
end Get;

function Is_Done(This : in Iterator) return Boolean is
begin
    return This = null;
end Is_Done;

function Is_Done(This : access Iterator)
                return Boolean is
begin
    return Is_Done(This.all);
end Is_Done;
end Queue_Manager_1;

```

12.3 Generics and Software Reuse

Be sure to let the others on your project know about generic components you might design. Watch for opportunities during design and code walkthroughs to promote code that is specific to one type into a generic component. This is a project manager's responsibility.

Don't write code that already exists in libraries. Most data structures and common algorithms are already written and residing in component repositories. Some of those repositories are commercial. Others are open source and free. For military systems, there are libraries of classified components that can be helpful in building weapon systems.

One strategy is to define, at the beginning of the project, what kinds of components are likely to be needed. Select a dozen or so of these from existing libraries. Require that everyone on the project, during the early stages of development, use the same generic linked-list, sort routine, etc. This will help you produce a working solution early. Later, if there is a need for refinement, you can search for components that more closely accomplish your needs.

13. New Names from Old Ones

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

1. Renaming does not create new data space. It simply provides compiler with a new name for an existing entity.
2. Don't rename same item over and over with new names; you will confuse colleagues -- and 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;                                -- 11 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. The rules of Ada require that no entity in scope is directly 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* makes operators directly visible, but a *use clause* also makes too many other entities directly visible. You can selectively make operators visible through renaming as shown on lines 6 and 8 below.

Renaming makes a specific operator visible without making all other operators visible. In the following procedure, which draws a text-based 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
    -- 8 visible for "+" and "-" to avoid
    -- 9 the need for a "use" clause.
  Center : constant TIO.Count := 37;          -- 10 type-specific constant; named number
  Left_Col, Right_Col : TIO.Count := Center;  -- 11 type-specific variables
  Symbol : constant Character := 'X';         -- 12 a character type constant
  Spacing : TIO.Count := 1;                   -- 13 Local variables for counting
  Increment : TIO.Count := 2;                 -- 14 Initialize the variable
begin -- Diamond1                             -- 15 Always declare comment at begin
  TIO.Set_Col(Center);                        -- 16 Set the column on the screen

```

```

TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 17 Put a single character to video display
for I in 1..8 loop -- 18 begin a for loop with constants
  TIO.New_Line(Spacing); -- 19 Advance one line at a time
  Left_Col := Left_Col - Increment; -- 20 See lines 8 & 9, above
  Right_Col := Right_Col + Increment; -- 21 Data type and operator visibility
  TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col); -- 22
  TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 23
  TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col); -- 24
  TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 25
end loop; -- 26
for I in 9..15 loop -- 27
  TIO.New_Line(Spacing); -- 28
  Left_Col := Left_Col + Increment; -- 29 Increment the Left Column by 1
  Right_Col := Right_Col - Increment; -- 30 Increment the Right Column by 1
  TIO.Set_Col(Left_Col); -- 31 Set the column
  TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 32 Print the symbol
  TIO.Set_Col(Right_Col); -- 33 Set the column
  TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 34 Print the symbol
end loop; -- 35 Loop requires an end loop
TIO.Set_Col(Center); -- 36 Set the column for final character output
TIO.Put(Symbol); -- 37 The last character for the diamond
end Diamond1; -- 38 End of scope and declarative region

```

Always plan ahead to ease 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.

Could also be designed as a child package

```

package Nested is -- 1 Package specification
  type T1 is private; -- this is called a partial view of the type -- 2 Only =, /=, and :=
  type Status is (Off, Low, Medium, High, Ultra_High, Dangerous); -- 3 Enumerated type; full set
  -- operations on T1 and Status -- 4 of infix operators is available
  package Operators is -- 5 A nested package specification
    function ">=" (L, R : Status) return Boolean -- 6 Profile for a function and
      renames Nested.">="; -- 7 renames for the >= operator
    function "=" (L, R : Status) return Boolean -- 8 Profile for an = function and
      renames Nested."="; -- 9 renames of the = operator
  end Operators; -- 10 Nested specification requires end
  private -- 11 Private part of package
  type T1 is ... -- 12 Full definition of type from line 2
end Nested; -- 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; -- 1 Always include the identifier
procedure Test_Nested is -- 2 A simple procedure body
  use Nested.Operators; -- 3 Use clause for nested package
  X, Y : Nested.Status := Nested.Status'First; -- 4 Declare some Status objects
begin -- Test_Nested -- 5 Always include Identifier
  -- Get some values for X, and Y -- 6 This code is commented
  if X = Nested.Status'Last then -- 7 = is made directly visible at line 3
    -- Some statements here -- 8
  end if; -- 9 Of course. End if required
end Test_Nested; -- 10 Always use identifier with end

```

The code just shown illustrates a technique for letting the client make the selected operators directly visible via a use clause on the nested package specification. I prefer this solution to *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 all too rare for package 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 the following string,

```
Name : String(1..60); -- A String is a special kind of array that must be constrained
```

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..29);
  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;
```

In this example, you can rename slices of arrays including String arrays. Each slice will have its own name that can be used in any statement where that type is legal.

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; -- Notice continuation of range to this line
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;

```

Diagram annotations:

- An arrow points from the `Phone_Number` record definition to a box labeled *Inner record*.
- An arrow points from the `Address_Record` record definition to a box labeled *Inner record contained in outer 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
  -- Operations directly on variable AC
end;

```

Diagram annotation:

- An arrow points from the `renames` clause to a box labeled *Nested data*.

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 original definition or description.

13.6 Renaming an Object or Value

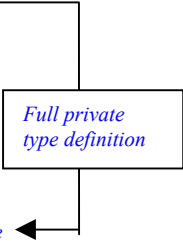
This can be especially troublesome when done too often. I recall a project where the same value was renamed about seven times throughout a succession of packages. Each new name had meaning within the context of the new package but was increasingly untraceable the further one got from its original value.


```

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 access type (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 type*
 -- 12 *Component of Message record*
 -- 13 *Component of Message record*
 -- 14 *Ends scope of Message record*
 -- 15 *End scope of specification*



13.7. Renaming a Type or Subprogram

The rename option does not apply to a type declaration. However, if you look back at the example of subtypes elsewhere in this book, you will see that a subtype can be used any place its parent type can be used. John English, in his JEWL package for Windows development, use this capability in clever ways.

Professor English first declares certain types using the spelling of his native England and they renames them for his cousins across the pond. Consider the following examples from JEWL.

Original type declaration

```
type Colour is ...
```

Renamed by a subtype declaration;

```
subtype Color is Color;
```

Original subprogram declaration.

```
function Centre return Alignment_Type;
```

Renamed by a renaming declaration;

```
function Center return Alignment_Type renames Centre;
```

13.8. Notes on renaming

Ada developers are cautious about renaming. If the renames is used to localize the effect of an entity, or clarify the understanding of that entity, it can be a good thing. If the renaming is applied to a global variable or to some entity at a great distance from its original declaration, readability might be reduced.

Use renaming to improve readability, understandability, and maintainability for the programmer who will need to update your program after you are finished with it. Array renaming, while often handy, can introduce confusion for a programmer unaccustomed to it.

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 this 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, and communicate with, other tasks. A task object may be either an anonymous type or an object of a task type.

14.1 Fundamental Ideas

Tasks are concurrent *active* objects. The word *active* in that sentence is important. An active object is called a *task* in Ada. Once it is created and activated a task is in one of two states: *executing* or *suspended*. Ada can support multiple active tasks. In a single processor implementation, only one task can be executing at any instant. In this environment, other active tasks are suspended. When one active task begins to execute, all other tasks are suspended. Tasks can be assigned priorities so they can enter suspended/executing states according to a scheduling algorithm. The underlying Ada Run-time Executive (it comes with every Ada compiler) has a scheduler that controls tasks according to a scheduling model. The scheduling model may vary according to the needs of the execution environment.

Tasks may be designed so they communicate with each other. The communication is called a *rendezvous*. One task communicates with another by placing requests for rendezvous in the *entry queue* of the called task. The calling task goes into a suspended state until the entry (request for rendezvous) in the queue is consumed and processed by the called task. The called task does not know its caller.

14.2 A Keyboard Entry Example

Task may be anonymous or instances of task types. The following tasks are anonymous. They are concurrently active. Only one executes while the others are suspended.

```

package Set_Of_Tasks is
  task T1;
  task T2 is
    entry A;
    entry B;
  end T2;
  task T3 is
    entry X(I : in Character);
    entry Y(I : out Character);
  end T3;
end Set_Of_Tasks;
-- 1  object of anonymous task type
-- 2  communicating object
-- 3  entry point to task
-- 4  entry point to task
-- 5  end of task specification
-- 6  communicating task object
-- 7  parameterized entry point
-- 8  parameterized entry point
-- 9  end of task specification
-- 10 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;
with Ada.Characters.Latin_1;
use Ada;
use Characters;
package body Set_Of_Tasks is
  task body T1 is
    Input  : Character;
    Output : Character;
    Column : Positive := 1;
  begin
    loop
      Text_IO.Get_Immediate (Input);
      exit when Input = '~';
      T3.X(Input);
      T2.A;
      T2.B;
      T3.Y(Output);
      if Column > 40 then
        Column := 1;
        Text_IO.New_Line;
      else
        Column := Column + 1;
      end if;
      Text_IO.Set_Col(Text_IO.Positive_Count(Column));
      Ada.Text_IO.Put(Output);
    end loop;
  end T1;

  task body T2 is
  begin
    loop
      select
        accept A;
        accept B;
      or
        terminate;
      end select;
    end loop ;
  end T2;

  task body T3 is
    Temp : Character := Latin_1.Nul;
  begin
    loop
      select
        accept X (I : in Character) do
          Temp := I;
        end X;
      or
        accept Y (I : out Character) do
          I := Temp;
          Temp := Latin_1.Nul;
        end Y;
      or
        terminate;
      end select;
    end loop;
  end T3;
end Set_Of_Tasks;

```

-- 1 Context clause
-- 2 For referencing special characters
-- 3 Make package Ada visible
-- 4 Make package Characters visible
-- 5 Enclosing scope for the task bodies
-- 6 Implement task T1
-- 7 Local variable
-- 8 Local variable
-- 9 Could be Text_IO.Positive_Count
-- 10
-- 11
-- 12 Input character with no return key entry
-- 13 If the character is a tilde, exit the loop
-- 14 Put entry in queue for T3.X; suspend
-- 15 Put entry in queue for T2.A; suspend
-- 16 Put entry in queue for T2.B; suspend
-- 17 Put entry in queue for T3.Y; suspend
-- 18 No more than 40 characters per line
-- 19 Start the character count over from 1
-- 20 and then start a new line
-- 21
-- 22 Increment the character per line count
-- 23
-- 24 Note type conversion here
-- 25 Print the character on the screen; echo
-- 26
-- 27 End of task T1 implementation
-- 28
-- 29 Implement body of task T2
-- 30
-- 31
-- 32 Select this alternative or terminate when done
-- 33 Rendezvous point; corresponds to entry in
-- 34 task specification. These are sequential here.
-- 35 The alternative to selecting accept A;
-- 36 Taken only when nothing can call this anymore
-- 37
-- 38
-- 39
-- 40
-- 41 Implement task T3 body
-- 42 Local variable
-- 43
-- 44 Choose rendezvous alternative
-- 45 Another selective accept statement
-- 46 Begins critical region for rendezvous
-- 47 Calling task is suspended until end statement
-- 48 Rendezvous complete. Caller is not suspended
-- 49 or this next alternative
-- 50 Critical region begins with do statement
-- 51 Caller is suspended at this point
-- 52 The non-printing nul character
-- 53 Rendezvous complete at this point
-- 54 or the terminate alternative which will only
-- 55 be taken if no other task can call this one
-- 56 end of scope for the select statement
-- 57
-- 58
-- 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 body 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 in this 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 entry. T3 is callable and includes a parameter list in each entry. A call to an entry is simply places a request for action in an entry queue. This is more like message passing than subprogram calling.

The body of this 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 introductory 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.

14.3 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;
procedure Protected_Variable_Example is
  package TIO renames Ada.Text_IO;
  task T1;
  task T2;
  protected Variable is
    procedure Modify(Data : Character);
    function Query return Character ;
    entry Display(Data : Character; T : String);
  private
    Shared_Data : Character := '0';
  end Variable;
-- 1
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4
-- 5
-- 6 Could have been a type definition
-- 7 Object is locked for this operation
-- 8 Read-only. May not update data
-- 9 An entry has a queue
-- 10
-- 11 All data is declared here
-- 12

protected body Variable is
-- 13 No begin end part in protected body

```

Although this will work with Text_IO, it is not a good idea to use protected types with Text_IO in this way. We do this only for pedagogical purposes.

```

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
  end Modify;                                       -- 24
function Query return Character is                -- 25
begin                                               -- 26
  return Shared_Data;                               -- 27
end Query;                                         -- 28
end Variable;                                       -- 29
task body T1 is                                    -- 30
  Local : Character := 'a';                          -- 31
  Output : Character;                                -- 32
  begin                                             -- 33
  loop                                             -- 34
    TIO.Get_Immediate(Local);                        -- 35
    exit when Local not in '0'..'z';              -- 36
    Variable.Modify(Local);                          -- 37
    Output := Variable.Query;                        -- 38
    Variable.Display(Output, "T1 ");                 -- 39
  end loop;                                       -- 40
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

```

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.

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 attendent 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

The reserved words in blue are for concurrency and tasking.
Be careful when using the words in red.

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

package Standard is always in scope. Every entity is directly visible to every part of an Ada program. 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;
type Wide_String is array(Positive range <>) of Wide_Character;
pragma Pack(Wide_String);
```

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

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

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

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

-- The predefined exceptions:

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

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 with type Count
  Unbounded : constant Count := 0; -- line and page length
  subtype Field is Integer range 0 .. implementation-defined; -- Varies by platform.
  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 := ""); -- Form is rarely used in Ada 95. Compiler dependent.

  procedure Close (File : in out File_Type); -- Pretty much what you would think this would do
  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. Since file type is a limited private type, assignment is impossible. However, assignment is possible on an access value (value of an access type).

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); -- single line by default
function End_Of_Line (File : in File_Type) return Boolean; -- Are we at the end of a line?
function End_Of_Line return Boolean;                 -- Are we at the end of a line?

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); -- True 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); -- Wait until character is available
procedure Get_Immediate (Item : out Character); -- Wait until character is available

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); -- False if character is not available
-- 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); -- No carriage return/line feed character
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); -- Include carriage return/line feed character

```

Following is a set of generic input/output packages nested within Ada.Text_IO

-- 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 <>; -- Generic formal parameter for signed numeric integer 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; -- The file type is the internal handle for the file
                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; -- 10.2.1 of this book, line 56 for an example of this
                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; -- 10.2.2 of this book, line 41 for an example of this
                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 <>; -- Generic formal parameter for 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;

```

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.

-- Generic packages for Input-Output of Real Types

```

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

  procedure Get(Item : out Num;
                Width : in Field := 0);

  procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
                Item : in Num;
                Fore : in Field := Default_Fore; -- Number of Positions to left of decimal point
                Aft : in Field := Default_Aft; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point

```

```

    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation
procedure Put(Item : in Num;
    Fore : in Field := Default_Fore; -- Number of Positions to left of decimal point
    Aft : in Field := Default_Aft; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation

-- 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; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation
end Float_IO;

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

  Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
  Default_Aft : Field := Num'Aft; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
  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; -- Number of Positions to left of decimal point
    Aft : in Field := Default_Aft; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation
  procedure Put(Item : in Num;
    Fore : in Field := Default_Fore; -- Number of Positions to left of decimal point
    Aft : in Field := Default_Aft; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation
-- 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; -- Number of Positions to right of decimal point
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- Set this to zero if you don't want scientific notation
end Fixed_IO;

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

  Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
  Default_Aft : Field := Num'Aft;
  Default_Exp : Field := 0;
  procedure Get(File : in File_Type;
    Item : out Num;
    Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Get(Item : out Num;
    Width : in Field := 0);
  procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
    Item : in Num;
    Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
    Aft : in Field := Default_Aft;
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp);
  procedure Put(Item : in Num;
    Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
    Aft : in Field := Default_Aft;
    Exp : in Field := Default_Exp);
-- Use these procedures to convert a decimal value to a string or a string to a decimal value

```

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.


```

procedure Get(From : in String;
              Item : out Num;
              Last : out Positive);
procedure Put(To : out String;
              Item : in Num;
              Aft : in Field := Default_Aft; -- see type defined above
              Exp : in Field := Default_Exp); -- see type defined above
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); -- see type defined above
end Enumeration_IO;

-- Input-Output 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.Streams.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;
```

Note the consistency of this package
with other input-output packages

Supports direct_IO on
stream items

Ada.Calendar -- ALRM 9..6 (also See ALRM, Annex D.8 for Ada.Real-Time calendar package)

```

package Ada.Calendar is
    type Time is private;
    subtype Year_Number is Integer range 1901 .. 2099;
    subtype Month_Number is Integer range 1 .. 12;
    subtype Day_Number is Integer range 1 .. 31;
    subtype Day_Duration is Duration range 0.0 .. 86_400.0;
    function Clock return Time;
    function Year (Date : Time) return Year_Number;
    function Month (Date : Time) return Month_Number;
    function Day (Date : Time) return Day_Number;
    function Seconds(Date : Time) return Day_Duration;

    procedure Split (Date : in Time;
                    Year : out Year_Number;
                    Month : out Month_Number;
                    Day : out Day_Number;
                    Seconds : out Day_Duration);
    function Time_Of(Year : Year_Number;
                   Month : Month_Number;
                   Day : Day_Number;
                   Seconds : Day_Duration := 0.0) return Time;

    function "+" (Left : Time; Right : Duration) return Time;
    function "+" (Left : Duration; Right : Time) return Time;
    function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Duration) return Time;
    function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Time) return Duration;
    function "<" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
    function "<=" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
    function ">" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
    function ">=" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
    Time_Error : exception;
private
    ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Calendar;

```

```

-- 1
-- 2 Encapsulated; use public methods
-- 3 Ada has always been Y2K compliant
-- 4
-- 5
-- 6 Total number of seconds in one day
-- 7 Gets the current clock time
-- 8
-- 9
-- 10
-- 11
-- 12
-- 13
-- 14
-- 15
-- 16
-- 17
-- 18
-- 19
-- 20
-- 21
-- 22
-- 23
-- 24
-- 25
-- 26
-- 27
-- 28
-- 29
-- 30
-- 31
-- 32
-- 33

```

type Duration is defined in
package Standard

System Description Package

Also see: [System.Storage_Elements](#)
[System.Address_To_Access_Conversion](#)
[System.Storage_Pools](#)

```

package System is
  pragma Preelaborate(System);
  type Name is implementation-defined-enumeration-type;
  System_Name : constant Name := implementation-defined;
  -- System-Dependent Named Numbers:
  Min_Int      : constant := root_integer'First;
  Max_Int      : constant := root_integer'Last;
  Max_Binary_Modulus : constant := implementation-defined;
  Max_Nonbinary_Modulus : constant := implementation-defined;
  Max_Base_Digits : constant := root_real'Digits;
  Max_Digits   : constant := implementation-defined;
  Max_Mantissa : constant := implementation-defined;
  Fine_Delta   : constant := implementation-defined;
  Tick         : constant := implementation-defined;
  -- Storage-related Declarations:
  type Address is implementation-defined;
  Null_Address : constant Address;
  Storage_Unit : constant := implementation-defined;
  Word_Size    : constant := implementation-defined * Storage_Unit;
  Memory_Size  : constant := implementation-defined;
  Address Comparison
  function "<" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  function "<=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  function ">" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  function ">=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  function "=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  -- function "/=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
  -- "/=" is implicitly defined
  pragma Convention(Intrinsic, "<");
  ... -- and so on for all language-defined subprograms in this package
  -- Other System-Dependent Declarations:
  type Bit_Order is (High_Order_First, Low_Order_First);
  Default_Bit_Order : constant Bit_Order;
  -- Priority-related declarations (see D.1):
  subtype Any_Priority is Integer range implementation-defined;
  subtype Priority is Any_Priority range Any_Priority'First .. implementation-defined;
  subtype Interrupt_Priority is Any_Priority range Priority'Last+1 .. Any_Priority'Last;
  Default_Priority : constant Priority := (Priority'First + Priority'Last)/2;
private
  ... -- not specified by the language
end System;

```

-- 1 *Required for every compiler*
 -- 2 *Elaborate at compile time*
 -- 3 *Look this up for your compiler*
 -- 4
 -- 5
 -- 6 *root integer is base type*
 -- 7 *for all integers in this system*
 -- 8
 -- 9
 -- 10
 -- 11
 -- 12
 -- 13
 -- 14
 -- 15
 -- 16 *Usually a private type*
 -- 17
 -- 18
 -- 19
 -- 20
 -- 21
 -- 22
 -- 23
 -- 24
 -- 25
 -- 26
 -- 27
 -- 28
 -- 29
 -- 30
 -- 31
 -- 32 *Big-endian/Little-endian*
 -- 33
 -- 34
 -- 35 *Used for tasking*
 -- 36
 -- 37
 -- 38
 -- 39
 -- 40
 -- 41

*Arithmetic operators for type
 Address are defined in package
 System.Storage_Elements*

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

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 95/98/NT/XP/ME/2000 Programming

Not a part of Ada, but a useful package for many simple programs where formatting is required.

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 Microsoft Windows console screen. You can access all of the control characters, and you can print the characters defined in Annex A, package Ada.Characters.Latin_1. This package is required form implementing the tasking problems shown in this book.

```
-----
--
-- File:    nt_console.ads
-- Description: Win95/NT console support
-- Rev:    0.1
-- Date:    18-jan-1998
-- Author:   Jerry van Dijk  Mail:   jdijk@acm.org
--
-- Copyright (c) Jerry van Dijk, 1997, 1998
-- Billie Holidaystraat 28 2324 LK LEIDEN THE NETHERLANDS tel int + 31 71 531 43 65
--
-- Permission granted to use for any purpose, provided this copyright remains attached and unmodified.
--
-- THIS SOFTWARE IS PROVIDED ``AS IS'' AND WITHOUT ANY EXPRESS OR IMPLIED WARRANTIES, INCLUDING,
-- WITHOUT LIMITATION, THE IMPLIED WARRANTIES OF MERCHANTABILITY AND FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR
-- PURPOSE.
-----

package NT_Console is
-- TYPE DEFINITIONS --

  subtype X_Pos is Natural range 0 .. 79;
  subtype Y_Pos is Natural range 0 .. 24;

  type Color_Type is (Black, Blue, Green, Cyan, Red, Magenta, Brown, Gray,
                    Light_Blue, Light_Green, Light_Cyan, Light_Red,
                    Light_Magenta, Yellow, White);

-- CURSOR CONTROL --

  function Where_X return X_Pos;
  function Where_Y return Y_Pos;

  procedure Goto_XY (X : in X_Pos := X_Pos'First;
                   Y : in Y_Pos := Y_Pos'First);

-- COLOR CONTROL --

  function Get_Foreground return Color_Type;
  function Get_Background return Color_Type;

  procedure Set_Foreground (Color : in Color_Type := Gray);
  procedure Set_Background (Color : in Color_Type := Black);

-- SCREEN CONTROL --

  procedure Clear_Screen (Color : in Color_Type := Black);

-- SOUND CONTROL --

  procedure Bleep;

-- INPUT CONTROL --
```

```

function Get_Key return Character;
function Key_Available return Boolean;

-- EXTENDED PC KEYS -- Provides access to upper eight bit scan-code on a PC
-- Defined here 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 they are 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.

Console_IO

This package is designed by Jerry Van Dijk and Richard Riehle. The package body is written by Jerry. It is a more extensive and more robust version of NT_Console. It is included with the software provided with this book. Console_IO is excellent for doing I/O on predefined types, formatting a screen, using color, positioning a cursor exactly where you want it, and accessing low-level scan codes in your program.

CLAW

This is a powerful set of libraries for programming in Microsoft Windows. Available at:
<http://www.rrsoftware.com>

GWindows

This is a set of freeware windows development libraries created by David Botton. You can get this from:
<http://www.adapower.com>

JEWL

By far the easiest library for developing elementary Windows programs. This will not take you far in building industrial strength Windows software, but it will get you started. This library set is particularly useful if you are completely new to Windows programming.

GtkAda

A portable GUI development environment. You can target Windows, Linux, Unix, and many other variations on Windowing operating systems. This is not an easy product to use, but it is powerful enough that you can do almost anything you might want to do. However, if you are only targeting Microsoft, consider CLAW or GWindows.

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- [Other Books to be added]

Recommended Periodicals & Other Current Information

Most popular programming periodicals are staffed by editors who have little knowledge or interest in software engineering. Those who do care about software engineering seem woefully ignorant about Ada. Some of this ignorance reflects the general ignorance in the software community about Ada. Some of the following sources 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 and reliable source of accurate information regarding Ada

JOOP, Journal of Object-Oriented Programming, SIGS Publications, (Now out of business)

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> and <http://www.adaic.org/>

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

Portable Windows and Graphics Programming

Check out the Gtk+ and OpenGL bindings available free on the Web. The GtkAda binding is a powerful set of tools that allows you to build graphical user interfaces (GUI) and leverage the power of the portable graphics development toolset, OpenGL. With these tools, you can build Ada applications that will be second to none in usability, efficiency, and portability.

Caution: Do not depend on any information from www.adahome.com. It is unreliable and out-of-date.

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