

Ada Declarations

Barnes, chapter 5

Identifiers

- Ada identifiers are case insensitive
 - HELLO = hello = HellO
- Start with a letter
- Ends with a letter or a number
- May contain non-consecutive underscores



Which of the following are legal?

- Something
- My__ld
- _Hello
- A_67_9
- _CONSTANT
- 09_A_2
- YOP_

Comments

Ada provides end of line comments with --

```
-- This is an Ada comment // This is a C++ comment
```

There is no block comment (/* */)

Numbers

- The underscore is allowed for numbers
 - $-1_000_000 = 1000000$
- Numbers can be expressed with an integer base (from 2 to 16)
 - 10#255# = 2#1111_1111# = 8#377# = 16#FF#
- Numbers can be defined with an exponent part
 - -2#1#E8 = 256
 - -2E8 = 200000000
- Real literals must have a dot
 - With a digit before and after the dot.
- All of this can be combined and works for real literals as well
 - -2#11.1#E2 = 14.0
- Exponent is always a base-10 integer

Variables declarations

 Defined by one (or several) names, followed by :, followed by type reference and possibly an initial value

```
A: Integer;
B: Integer := 5;
C: constant Integer := 78;
D, E: Integer := F (5);
int A;
int B = 5;
const int C = 78;
int d = F (5), e = F(5);
```

Elaboration is done sequentially

```
A: Integer := 5;
B: Integer := A;
C: Integer := D; -- COMPILATION ERROR
D: Integer := 0;
```

Initialization is called for each variable individually

```
A, B : Float := Compute_New_Random;
-- This is equivalent to:
A : Float := Compute_New_Random;
B : Float := Compute New Random;
```

• ":=" on a declaration is an initialization, not an assignment (special properties, mentioned later)

Numeric values

No need to give the size – deduced from the context

```
A : Long_Integer := 0; long int A = 0L;
```

It's possible to declare "named numbers" with infinite precision

Declarative blocks

Declarations can only occur in declarative parts

Statements can only occur in the statement parts

 Sub-declaration blocks can be introduced with a block statement

```
declare
    A : Integer := 0;
begin
    A := A + 1;
end;

{
    int A = 0;
    A++;
}
```

- Defines a declaration lifetime
- The scope from an object goes from its declaration point to the corresponding "end"

```
declare
                                            int A;
   A : Integer;
begin
   -- code
                                            // code
   declare
      B : Integer;
                                               int B;
   begin
      -- code
                                               // code
   end;
   A := B; -- COMPILATION ERROR
                                            A = B;
end;
```

Visibility

Nested scopes can "hide" declarations from outer scopes

```
declare
   A : Integer;
begin
   -- references to the outer A
   declare
    A : Float;
begin
    -- references to the inner A
   end;
end;

    A : B : B;
}

(int A;

// references to the outer A

// references to the inner A

// references to the inner A

// references to the inner A

A = B;

A = B;
```

 With named scopes, it's still possible to have access to outer entities

```
Outer : declare
   A : Integer;
begin
   declare
    A : Float;
   B : Integer;
begin
   A := Outer.A;
```

Some Terminology...

In a block statement, or subprogram body:

```
declare
   -- "Declarative part"
   subtype S is Integer range 0 .. 10; -- a declaration
  A: S; -- another declaration
begin
   -- "Statement Part"
   S1; -- A statement
   S2; -- Another statement
  A := X + Y; -- An assignment statement containing
               -- a Name (left hand side) and
               -- an Expression (right hand side).
end;
```

Some Terminology...

- Statements are executed.
- Expressions are evaluated.
- Declarations are elaborated.
- A Static Expression is evaluated at compile-time.
- A Dynamic Expression is evaluated when the program is running.

 Note for C and C++ users: expressions and statements are completely separate things in Ada, and are not interchangeable...



Is there a compilation error? (1/10)



```
V : Natural := 7;
J : constant Natural := V + 4;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/10)



```
V : Natural := 7;
V : Real := 5.5;
```

Is there a compilation error? (3/10)



```
V : Natural := 7;
V : Natural := V + 5;
```

Is there a compilation error? (4/10)



V : Natural := V * 0;

Is there a compilation error? (5/10)



```
V : Natural := 5;
declare
V : Natural := V * 2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (6/10)



V : Float := 5.0;

Is there a compilation error? (7/10)



V : Float := 5.;

Is there a compilation error? (8/10)



```
ClassRoom : constant Natural := 5;
Next ClassRoom : Natural := classroom + 1;
```

Is there a compilation error? (9/10)



```
Class Room : constant Natural := 5;
```

Is there a compilation error? (10/10)



my value : constant Natural := 5;



Ada Basic Types

Barnes, chapter 6

Ada Strong Typing

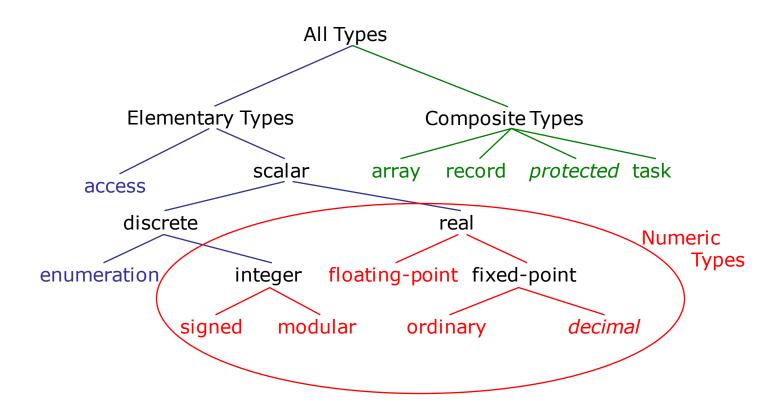
- Types are at the base of the Ada model
- Semantics ≠ Representation
- All Ada types are named
 - (Well, almost all)
- Associated with properties (ranges, attributes...)
 and operators

```
A : Integer := 10 * Integer (0.9);
A : Integer := Integer
(Float (10) * 0.9);

int A = 10 * 0.9
```

The compiler will warn in case of inconsistencies

Types hierarchy



Defining a Type

New types can be created in declaration scopes

```
type <name> is <definition> [with predicate];
type <name> is new <definition> [with predicate];
```

Discrete types

```
type Score is range 0 .. 20;
type Color is (Red, Blue, Green);
type Oranges is new Positive;
type Apples is new Positive;
type Byte is mod 2**8;
```

Floating point types

```
type Size is new Float;
type Low_Precision is digits 4;
```

Fixed point types

```
type Cm is delta 0.125 range 0.0 .. 240.0;
type Euro is delta 0.01 digits 15;
```

What's an enumeration (for a C programmer)

An enumerated type is a scalar type



- Each value has a name
 - Either an identifier
 - Or a character
- No relationship with integer
- Boolean is an enumerated type

```
type Boolean is (False, True);
```

Integer types

Signed integer types are defined by a range



- No values outside the range
- Modular type are defined by a modulus

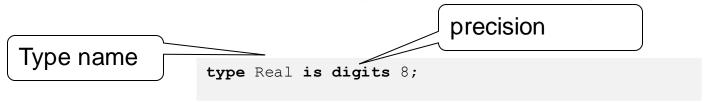


Wrap-around semantic of operators

Floating point types

Defined by relative precision

Minimum number of significant decimal digits



May have a range

```
Type name type Real is digits 8 range 0.0 .. 1.0E10;
```

Type Attributes

Accessed through '

```
T'First
                -- first value of the type
T'Last
                -- last value of the type
                -- equivalent to T'First .. T'Last
T'Range
T'Succ (V)
                -- return the next value in the order
T'Pred (V)
                -- return the previous value in the order
T'Image (V)
                -- return a string representation of the value
T'Value (S)
                -- converts to a value representation
T'Pos (V)
                -- Return a position based on a value
T'Val (I)
                -- Return a value based on a position
T'Min (V1, V2)
                -- Return the min between two values
T'Max (V1, V2)
                -- Return the max between two values
T'Ceiling (V) -- Returns the smallest integral value after V
T'Floor (V)
               -- Returns the largest integral value before V
T'Truncation (V) -- Truncates the value towards 0
T'Size -- Return the size of the values of the type
T'Rounding (V) -- Rounds to the closest integer
```

Example

```
V : Character := Character'Val (0);
S : String := Integer'Image (42);
```

Subtypes

Subtypes add a constraint to a type

```
subtype D is Integer range 0 .. 9;
```

 Subtypes do not create new types, and do not require type conversion

```
subtype D is Integer range 0 .. 9;
A : Integer := 0;
B : D := 1;
begin
A := A + B;
```

The language offers some basic subtypes

```
subtype Positive is Integer range 1 .. Integer'Last;
subtype Natural is Integer range 0 .. Integer'Last;
```

Base Type

 T'Base is the type used by the compiler to implement the type according to the constraints

```
type Small_Int is range 0 .. 10;

Fits in a 8-bits integer
```

- Base types can be used for overflow checks (see later)
- Base types can be used as a regular type

```
Put_Line (Small_Int'Base'Image (Small_Int'Base'First);
-- => -128 (implementation-dependent)
Put_Line (Small_Int'Base'Image (Small_Int'Base'Last);
-- => 127 (implementation-dependent)
```

Subtype checks / Overflow checks

Types and subtypes can be associated with subtype checks

```
Valid values are between 0 and 10

type Small Int is range 0 .. 10;
```

 Subtype checks are computed in well defined places (assignment, parameter passing and conversions...)

```
V1 : Small_Int := 11; -- Exception
```

 In expressions, overflow checks are performed on intermediate values:

```
V1 : Small_Int := 2; -- OK
V2 : Small_Int := V1 + 10 - V1; -- OK, equals 10
V3 : Small_Int := (V1'Base'Last + 1) / 100; -- NOK, overflow check
```

Dynamic Expression vs. Static Expression

- Ada differentiates static expressions and dynamic expressions
- Static expressions are expressions including
 - literals
 - calls to static predefined functions and attributes
 - constants initialized with static expressions
- Static expressions are evaluated at compile-time

Static expressions are required by some constructs

Constants and Named Numbers

It is possible to create a constant value

```
C : constant Integer := 0;
```

- A constant inherits from all properties of its types, except that it can't be written. In particular, it has to respect boundaries.
- A constant can be initialized through a *dynamic* expression, but is then *read-only* for its lifetime.
- A named number doesn't have a type
- It must be valuated by a static expression
- It can represent data out of bounds

```
N : constant := 2 ** 128;
```

Exceptions can be raised at run-time when used

```
V1 : Integer := N - N + 1; -- OK
V2 : Integer := N; -- NOK
```

Conversion / Qualification

- In certain cases, types can be converted from one to the other
 - They're of the same structure (e.g. Numeric)
 - One is the derivation of the other
- Conversion needs to be explicit

```
V1 : Float := 0.0;
V2 : Integer := Integer (V1);
```

 A qualification can be used to specify the type or subtype of an object - it doesn't convert it

```
V1 : Integer := 0;
V2 : Integer := Natural'(V1);
```

 Qualification is most useful when fixing ambiguities (see later)



Is there a compilation error? (1/10)



V : Float := 10;

What's the output of this code? (2/10)



```
type Float_1 is digits 5;
type Float_2 is digits 7;

V_1 : Float_1 := 10.0E10;
W_1 : Float_1 := V_1 + 1.0;

V_2 : Float_2 := 10.0E10;
W_2 : Float_2 := V_2 + 1.0;

begin
    Put_Line (Boolean'Image (V_1 = W_1));
    Put_Line (Boolean'Image (V_2 = W_2));
```

Is there an error? (3/10)



```
type X is mod 10;
```

V1 : X := 10; V2 : X := 9 + 1;

What's the output of this code? (4/10)



```
F : Float := 7.6;
Div : Integer := 10;
begin
F := Float (Integer (F) / Div);
Put_Line (Float'Image (F));
```

Is there an exception? (5/10)



```
type T is range 1 .. 10;

V : T := 9;
W : T := 2;
begin
V := V + W - 1;
```

Is there an exception? (6/10)



```
type T is range 1 .. 10;

V : T := 9;
W : T := 2;
begin
V := T (V + W) - 1;
```

Is there a compilation or runtime error? (7/10)



```
C1 : constant := 2 ** 1024;

C2 : constant := 2 ** 1024 + 10;

C3 : constant := C1 - C2;

V : Integer := C1 - C2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (8/10)



```
type T is (A, B, C);

V1 : T := T'Val ("A");
V2 : T := T'Value (2);
```

Is there a run-time error? (9/10)



```
type T is (A, B, C);

V1 : T := T'Value ("A");

V2 : T := T'Value ("a");

V3 : T := T'Value (" a ");
```

Is there a compilation error? (10/10)



```
type T is range 1 .. 0;
V : T;
```



What is a type?



What is a type?



- A (finite) set of values
- Operations on this set
- Physical representation

Ada vs. C typing



- In Ada, you can create new types for every kind of type
 - Including integers, unsigned
- Strong typing
- (Almost) no built-in types
 - Except Boolean
 - You don't need to use predefined types
- You can create new operators
- You can specify physical representation



Statements

Barnes chapter 7

Simple statements

The main Simple Statements

- Null
- Assignment

- Procedure Call and Return will be dealt with when we get to Subprograms
- Raise Statement will be covered under Exceptions.
- Exit Statement will be covered with Loops.

The rest are to do with *Tasking*.

Null statement

The Null Statement in Ada is written explicitly:

```
null;
```

- This was a deliberate design decision in Ada to make it very hard to "accidentally" write a null statement.
- Compare:

```
for I in 1 .. 10 loop
    null;
end loop;
```

Assignment statement

Very simple syntax:

```
variable_name := expression ;
```

- A "name" in Ada can be "dotted" to include package names and record components, and also contain parentheses for array elements and so on.
- For example:

```
P.State (1).F1 := 6;
```

Compound statements

- In Ada, statements are terminated with a semicolon ';'
- The main compound statements
 - If
 - Case
 - Loop
 - Block
 - The remainder are concerned with *Tasking*

If Statements

If statements

```
if A = 0 then
    Put_Line ("A is 0");
elsif B = 0 then
    Put_Line ("B is 0");
else
    Put_Line ("Else...");
end if;

if (A == 0) {
    printf ("A is 0");
    printf (B == 0) {
        printf ("B is 0");
    }
    else {
        printf ("Else...");
    }
}
```

Condition symbols

Comparison

- /=
- =
- >=
- <=
- >
- <

Boolean operators

- and
- or
- xor
- and then
- or else
- not (unary)

Beware of the boolean operators



 "and", "or" are not short-circuit, both operands are always evaluated

```
if X \neq 0 and Y \neq X > 1 then -- MAY RAISE AN EXCEPTION
```

 The short-circuit operators are "and then" and "or else"

```
if X \neq 0 and then Y \neq X > 1 then -- OK
```

Case Statement

```
case A is
    when 0 =>
        Put_Line ("zero");

No fall through

when -9 .. -1 | 1 .. 9 =>
        Put_Line ("digit");
    when others =>
        Put_Line ("other")
end case;
```

```
switch (A) {
   case 0:
      printf ("0");
      break;
   case -9:case -8:case -7:case -6:
   case -5:case -4:case -3:case -2:
   case -1:case 1:case 2:case 3:
   case 4:case 5:case 6:case 7:
   case 8:case 9:
      printf ("digit");
      break;
   default:
      printf ("other");
}
```

Case statements rules

 All values covered by the type of the expression should be covered

```
V : Integer;
begin
  case V is
    when 0 =>
        Put_Line (0);
end case; -- NOK!
```

Values must be unique

```
V : Integer;
begin
    case V is
        when 0 =>
            Put_Line ("0");
        when Integer'First .. 0 => -- NOK!
            Put_Line ("Negative");
        when others =>
            null;
end case;
```

Writing ranges for case statements

- A case statement must contain static ranges only
 - e.g. ranges computed out of static expressions

```
V : Integer;
   W : constant Integer := 0;
   subtype I1 is Integer range 1 .. 10;
   subtype I2 is Integer with Static Predicate => I2 >= 1000;
   subtype I3 is Integer with Dynamic Predicate => I3 >= V;
   X : Integer;
begin
   case X is
      when V =>
                                    -- NOK
      when W =>
                                    -- OK
      when T1 =>
                                     -- OK
      when I2 \Rightarrow
                                    -- OK
      when 20 | 30 | 40 =>
                                  -- OK
                                  -- OK
      when 50 + W \Rightarrow
      when I3 \Rightarrow
                                    -- NOK
      when W + 1 .. Integer'Last => -- OK
```

Loop statement

Simple loop

While loop

 No do-while/repeat-until loops, use simple loop with exit instead

For-Loop statement

Iteration over indices

- range has to be growing
- var is constant in the loop

Evaluation of loop range



Loop range is evaluated before the loop

Iterator is constant (can't be modified directly)

```
for J in 1 .. 10 loop
    J := 5; -- NOK
    end loop;
for (int j = 1; j<=10; j++)
    j = 5;
```

Block statement

 The Block Statement introduces a nested declarative part and sequence of statements:

```
[ declare
         declarative_part ]
begin
         handled_sequence_of_statements
end ;
```

- The declarative part is optional.
- Main uses:
 - Introduction of local subtypes and arrays that depend on previously computed dynamic values.

Local exception handling.



Is there an error? (1/10)



```
if A == 0 then
   Put_Line ("A is 0");
end if;
```

Is there an error? (2/10)



```
if A := 0 then
   Put_Line ("A has been assigned to 0");
end if;
```

Is there an error? (3/10)



Is there an error? (4/10)



```
A : Integer := Integer'Value (Get_Line);
begin
    case A is
        when Positive =>
            Put_Line ("Positive");
        when Natural =>
            Put_Line ("Natural");
        when others =>
            Put_Line ("Other");
    end case;
```

Is there an error? (5/10)



Is there an error? (6/10)



```
for I in 0 .. 10 loop
    I := 10;
end loop;
```

What is the output of this code? (7/10)



```
for I in 10 .. 0 loop
    Put_Line (Integer'Image (I));
end loop;
```

Is there an error? (8/10)



```
if A != 0 then
   Put_Line ("A is not 0");
end if;
```

Is there an error? (9/10)



```
I : Natural;
begin
  for I in 0 .. 10 loop
    null;
end loop;
```

What is the output of this code? (10/10)



```
X : Integer := 1;
begin
for I in 1 .. X loop
    X := 10;
    Put_Line ('A');
end loop;
```



Arrays

Barnes chapter 8

Arrays are first class citizens

All arrays are (doubly) typed

```
type T is array (Integer range <>)
  of Integer;

A : T (0 .. 14);
int * A = new int [15];
```

Properties of array types are...

- The index type (can be any discrete type, with optional specific boundaries)
- The component type (can be any definite type)

Properties of array objects are...

- The array type
- Specific boundaries
- Specific values

Definite vs. Indefinite Types

- Definite types are types that can be used to create objects without additional information
 - Their size is known
 - Their constraints are known
- Indefinite types need additional constraint
- Array types can be definite or indefinite

```
type Definite is array (Integer range 1 .. 10) of Integer;
type Indefinite is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
A1 : Definite;
A2 : Indefinite (1 .. 20);
```

Components of array types must be definite

Array Indices

- Array indices can be of any discrete type
 - Integer (signed or modular)
 - Enumeration
- Array indices can be defined on any continuous range
- Array index range may be empty

```
type A1 is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
type A2 is array (Character range 'a' .. 'z') of Integer;
type A3 is array (Integer range 1 .. 0) of Integer;
type A4 is array (Boolean) of Integer;
```

Array indices are computed at the point of array type declaration

```
X : Integer := 0;
type A is array (Integer range 1 .. X) of Integer;
-- changes to X don't change A instances after this point
```

Accessing Array Components

Array components can be directly accessed

```
type A is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
V : A (1 .. 10);
begin
V (1) := 0;
```

- Array types and array objects offer 'Length, 'Range, 'First and 'Last attributes
- On access, bounds are dynamically checked and raise Constraint_Error if overflowed or underflowed

```
type A is array (Integer range <>);
    V : A (1 .. 10);
begin
    V (0) := 0; -- NOK
```

Array operations are first class citizens

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

A1 : T (1 .. 10);
   A2 : T (1 .. 10);
begin
   A1 := A2;
```

In copy operations, lengths are checked, but not actual indices

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

A1 : T (1 .. 10);
A2 : T (11 .. 20);
A3 : T (1 .. 20);
begin
A1 := A2; -- OK
A1 := A3; -- NOK
```

Array Initialization

Array copy can occur at initialization time

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
A1 : T (1 .. 10);
A2 : T (11 .. 20) := A1;
```

 If the array type is of an indefinite type, then an object of this type can deduce bounds from initialization

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
A1 : T (1 .. 10);
A2 : T := A1; -- A2 bounds are 1 .. 10
```

Array Slices

- It's possible to refer to only a part of the array using a slice
 - For array with only one dimension
- Slices can be used in any place that requires an array object

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

A1 : T (1 .. 10);
   A2 : T (1 .. 20);

begin
   A1 := A2 (1 .. 10);
   A1 (2 .. 4) := A2 (5 .. 7);
```

Array Literals (Aggregates)

Aggregates can be used to provide values to an array as a whole

- They can be used wherever an array value is expected
- Finite aggregate can initialize variable constraints, lower bound will be equal to T'First

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

V1 : T := (1, 2, 3);
    V2 : T := (others => 0); -- NOK (initialization)
begin
    V1 := (others => 0); -- OK (assignment)
```

Array Concatenation

- Two arrays can be concatenated through the & operators
 - The resulting array's lower bound is the lower bound of the left operand

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

A1 : T := (1, 2, 3);
A2 : T := (4, 5, 6);
A3 : T := A1 & A2;
```

An array can be concatenated with a value

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
A1 : T := (1, 2, 3);
A2 : T := A1 & 4 & 5;
```

Array Equality

- Two arrays are equal if
 - Their Length is equal
 - Their components are equal one by one

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

A1 : T (1 .. 10);
 A2 : T (1 .. 20);

begin

if A1 = A2 then -- ALWAYS FALSE
```

Actual indices do not matter in array equality

Arrays are first class citizens (2)

 All array types can be passed as formal parameters to/from subprograms.

- Array types can be returned from a function.
 - Function return is by-copy, so can impose some performance penalty.
 - Alternative: use a procedure with an out parameter almost certainly passed by-reference, so efficient.

 A function can even return an unconstrained array type, like String.

Loops over an array

Through an index loop

```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
A : T (1 .. 10);

for I in A'Range loop
   A (I) := 0;
end loop;
```

Two dimensional arrays

```
type T is array (Integer range <>, Integer range <>) of Integer;
V : T (1 .. 10, 0 .. 2);
begin
V (1, 0) := 0;
```

 Attributes are 'First (dimension), 'Last (dimension), 'Range (dimension)

Arrays of arrays

```
type T1 is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
type T2 is array (Integer range <>) of T1 (0 .. 2);
V : T (1 .. 10);
begin
V (1)(0) := 0;
```

Strings

Strings are regular arrays. Type String is declared in package Standard

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

There is a special String literal

```
V : String := "This is it";
V2 : String := "Here come quotes ("")";
```

The package ASCII provides named Character constants.

```
V : String := "This is null terminated" & ASCII.NUL;
```

 In Ada95 onwards, you can also use Ada.Characters.Latin_1 and siblings.

Array Subtypes and Derived Types

When subtyping an array, it's possible to define a constraint

```
type Any_Bounds is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
subtype One_To_Ten is Any_Bounds (1 .. 10);
```

Same with array derivation

```
type Any_Bounds is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
type One_To_Ten is new Any_Bounds (1 .. 10);
```

Once the array is definite, bounds cannot be changed



Is there an error? (1/10)



```
type My_Int is new Integer range 1 .. 10;

type T is array (My_Int) of Integer;

V : T;
begin
V (1) := 2;
```

Is there an error? (2/10)



```
type T is array (Integer) of Integer;

V : T;
begin
V (1) := 2;
```

Is there an error? (3/10)



```
type T1 is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
type T2 is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

V1 : T1 (1 .. 3) := (others => 0);
    V2 : T2 := (1, 2, 3);
begin
    V1 := V2;
```

Is there an error? (4/10)



```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

V : T := (1, 2, 3);
begin

V (0) := V (1) + V (2);
```

Is there an error? (5/10)



```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
subtype TS is T (1 .. 2);

V1 : T (10 .. 11);
    V2 : TS := (others => 0);
begin
    V1 := V2;
```

Is there an error? (6/10)



```
X : Integer := 10;
  type T is array (Integer range 1 .. X) of Integer;
  V1 : T;
begin
  X := 100;
  declare
      V2 : T;
begin
      V1 := V2;
```

Is there an error? (7/10)



```
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
V1 : T (1 .. 3) := (10, 20, 30);
V2 : T := (10, 20, 30):
begin
   for I in V1'Range loop
     V1 (I) := V1 (I) + V2 (I);
end loop;
```

Is there an error? (8/10)



```
type Any_Bounds is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
subtype TS is Any_Bounds (1 .. 10);
type T2 is new TS (1 .. 9);
```

Is there an error? (9/10)



type String_Array is array (Integer range <>) of String;

Is there an error? (10/10)



```
X : Integer := 0;

type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer
   with Default_Component_Value => X;

V : T (1 .. 10);
```



Record types

Barnes chapter 8

Record types

Allow named heterogeneous data in a type

```
type Shape is record
   Id : Integer;
   X, Y : Float;
end record;
```

Fields are accessed through dot notation

```
S : Shape;
begin
S.X := 0.0;
S.Id := 1;
```

Record types

Any definite type can be used as a component type

```
type Position is record
   X, Y : Integer;
end record;

type Shape is record
   Name : String (1 .. 10);
   P : Position;
end record;
```

Size may not be known at compile time

```
Len : Natural := Compute_Len;
type Name_Type is String (1 .. Len);

type Shape is record
   Name : Name_Type;
   P : Position;
end record;
```

Has impact on code generated

Default Values

Default values can be provided to record components:

```
type Position is record
  X : Integer := 0;
  Y : Integer := 0;
end record;
```

Default values are dynamic expressions evaluated at each object declaration

```
Cx, Cy : Integer := 0;

type Position is record
   X : Integer := Cx;
   Y : Integer := Cy;
end record;

P1 : Position; -- = (0, 0);

begin

   Cx := 1;
   Cy := 1;

   declare

   P2 : Position; -- = (1, 1);
```

Aggregates (1/2)

Like arrays, record values can be given through aggregates

```
type Position is record
   X, Y : Integer;
end record;

type Shape is record
   Name : String (1 .. 10);
   P : Position;
end record;

Center : Position := (0, 0);
Circle : Shape := ((others => ' '), Center);
```

 Named aggregates are possible (but cannot switch back to positional)

```
P1 : Position := (0, Y => 0); -- OK
P1 : Position := (X => 0, Y => 0); -- OK
P3 : Position := (Y => 0, X => 0); -- OK
P4 : Position := (X => 0, 0); -- NOK
```

Aggregates (2/2)

Named aggregate is required for one-element records

```
type Singleton is record
   V : Integer;
end record;

V1 : Singleton := (V => 0); -- OK
   V2 : Singleton := (0); -- NOK
```

Default values can be referred as <> after a name or others

```
type Rec is record
   A, B, C, D : Integer;
end record;

V1 : Rec := (others => <>); -- QUIZ is this OK?
V2 : Rec := (A => 0, B => <>, others => <>);
```

If all remaining types are the same, others can use an expression

```
type Rec is record
  A, B : Integer;
  C, D : Float;
end record;

V1 : Rec := (0, 0, others => 0.0);
```

Discriminant problematic

 Only a subset of the components are needed to use this type, depending on the context

```
type Shape is record
  X, Y : Float;
  X2, Y2 : Float;
  Radius : Float;
  Outer_Radius : Float;
end record;
```

 Why do we need to use the memory for Radius if the shape is a line?

Use of a discriminant

Types can be parameterized by a discrete type

 This type is *indefinite*, so needs to be constrained at object declaration

```
V : Shape (Circle);
```

General Syntax

```
type Id ([Discriminant : Discrete_Type] {, Discriminant : Discrete_Type}) is
    record
    [common part]

[variant part]
end record;
```

- All identifiers must be unique even if declared in distinct variant parts
- There can be a variant part within the variant part
- All values must have a branch in the case use others if needed
- The object will fit the size needed to work with the given discriminant – unnecessary fields won't get allocated

Usage of a record with discriminant

As for arrays – the unconstrained part has to be specified

```
V1 : Shape (Circle);
V2 : Shape := V1; -- OK, constrained by initialization

begin

V1.Radius := 0.0; -- OK, radius is in the Circle case
V2.X2 := 0.0; -- Raises constraint error
```

 Accessing a component not accessible for a given constraint will raise Constraint_Error

Aggregates

Same as record aggregates – but have to give a value to the discriminant

 Only the values related to the constraint have to be valuated

Constraints on record components

Record component types need to be definite

 If a constraint is needed, it can be dependent on the discriminant value

```
type String_Container (Size : Positive) is record
   S : String (1 .. Size);
end record;

V : String_Container (20);
```

Mutable objects (1/2)

- We may want to change the constraint of an object over time
- Such objects need to have an default initial value for their discriminants – they are constrained
- The discriminant can't be changed on its own the whole object has to be assigned to a new value
- The discriminant of an object with an explicit constraint can't be changed

```
type Shape (Kind : Shape_Kind := Line) is record
...
end record;

V : Shape (Circle); -- Still Ok
V2 : Shape; -- Ok, of type line
begin

V2 := V; -- OK, since the object is mutable
V := (Line, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 0.0);
-- Raises Constraint_Error, V has been explicitly constrained
```

Mutable objects (2/2)

- The size of a mutable object is the maximal size needed to represent all possible objects
- Be careful when used with array constraints!

```
type String_Container (Size : Positive := 1) is record
   S : String (1 .. Size);
end record;

V : String_Container;
```

 The above might raise Storage_Error, since the maximal size is enough memory to store Positive'Last characters.



Is there an error? (1/10)



```
type R is record
   A, B, C : Integer := 0;
end record;

V : R := (A => 1);
```

Is there an error? (2/10)



Is there an error? (3/10)



```
type Cell is record
   Val : Integer;
   Next : Cell;
end record;
```

Is there an error? (4/10)



```
type My_Integer is new Integer;

type R is record
   A, B, C : Integer;
   D : My_Integer;
end record;

V : R := (others => <>);
```

Is there an error? (5/10)



```
type R is record
   A : Integer := 0;
end record;

V : R := (0);
```

Is there an error? (6/10)



```
type R is record
   V : String;
end record;

V : R := (V => "Hello");
```

Is there an error? (7/10)



```
type R (D : Integer) is record
    null;
end record;

V1 : R := (D => 5);
V2 : R := (D => 6);
begin
V1 := V2;
```

Is there an error? (8/10)



```
type R (Size : Integer := 0) is record
   S : String (1 .. Size);
end record;

V : R := (5, "Hello");
```

Is there an error? (9/10)



```
type Shape_Kind is (Circle, Line);

type Shape (Kind : Shape_Kind) is record
  case Kind is
    when Line =>
        X, Y : Float;
        X2, Y2 : Float;
    when Circle =>
        X, Y : Float;
        Radius : Float;
    end case;
end record;
```

Is there an error? (10/10)



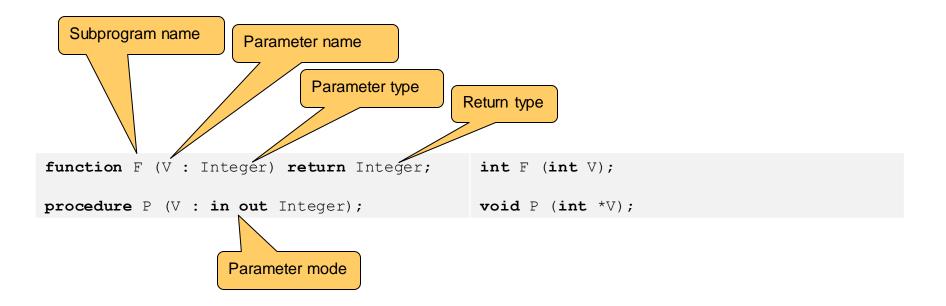
```
type Shape Kind is (Circle, Line);
   type Shape (Kind : Shape Kind) is record
      X, Y : Float;
      case Kind is
         when Line =>
            X2, Y2 : Float;
         when Circle =>
           Radius : Float;
      end case;
   end record;
   V : Shape := (Circle, others => <>);
   V2 : Shape := (Line, others => <>);
begin
  V := V2;
```



Subprograms

Barnes chapter 10

Subprograms in Ada: Specifications



- Ada differentiates functions (returning values) and procedures (with no return values)
 - A function call is an expression.
 - A procedure call is a statement.

Subprograms in Ada: Declaration and Body

```
Declaration

function F (V : Integer) return Integer;

function F (V : Integer) return Integer is
    R : Integer := V * 2;
begin
    R := R * 2;
    return R - 1;
end F;
```

- Declaration is optional, but must be given before use
- Functions' result cannot be ignored
- Completion / body is introduced by "is"

Parameter Modes

Mode "in"

- Actual parameter is not altered
- Only reading of formals is allowed
- Default mode

Mode "out"

- Actual is expected to be altered
- Writing is expected, but reading is also allowed
- Initial value is not defined
- Only for procedure

Mode "in out"

- Actual is expected to be both read and altered
- Both reading & updating of formals is allowed
- Only for procedure

```
function F (V : in Integer) return Integer is
    R : Integer := V * 2;
begin
    return R - 1;
end F;

procedure P (V : in out Integer) is
begin
    V := 0;
end P;
```

Parameter Passing Mechanisms

Passed either "by-copy" or "by-reference"

By-Copy

- The formal denotes a separate object from the actual
- A copy of the actual is placed into the formal before the call
- A copy of the formal is placed back into the actual after the call

By-Reference

- The formal denotes a view of the actual
- Reads and updates to the formal directly affect the actual

Parameter types control mechanism selection

Not the parameter modes

Standardized Parameter Passing Rules

By-Copy types

- Scalar types
- Access types
- Private types that are fully defined as by-copy types

By-Reference types

- Tagged types
- Task types and Protected types
- Limited types
- Composite types with by-reference component types
- Private types that are fully defined as by-reference types

Implementation-defined types

- Array types containing only by-copy components
- Non-limited record types containing only by-copy components

Implementation chooses most efficient method

Subprogram Calls

If no parameter is given, no parenthesis is allowed

```
function F return Integer;

V : Integer := F;
```

Named parameter association is possible

```
procedure P (A, B, C : Integer);
P (B => 0, C => 0, A => 1);
```

out and in out modes require a variable object

```
procedure P (X : out Integer);

V : Integer;
VC : constant Integer := 1;

P (V); -- OK
P (VC); -- NOT OK
```

Default Values

"in" parameters can be provided with a default value

```
procedure P (A : Integer := 0; B : Integer := 0);
```

 Default values are dynamic expressions, evaluated at the point of call if no explicit expression is given

```
P; --A = 0, B = 0;

P (1); --A = 1, B = 0;

P (B => 2); --A = 0, B = 2;

P (1, 2); --A = 1, B = 2;
```

Indefinite Parameters and Return Types

Subprograms can have indefinite parameters and return types

```
function Comment (Stmt : String) return String is
begin
    return "/*" & Stmt & "*/";
end Comment;

S : String := Comment ("a=0"); -- return /*a=0*/
```

- Constraints are computed at the point of call
- Don't assume boundaries!



```
procedure Init (Stmt : in out String) is
begin
    for J in 1 .. Stmt'Length loop
        Stmt (J) := ' ';
    end loop;
end Init;

S : String := "ABCxxx";
begin
Init (S (4 .. 6));
```

Overloading (1/2)

Ada allows overloading of subprograms

```
procedure Print (V : Integer);
procedure Print (V : Float);
```

- Overloading is allowed if specifications differ by
 - Number of parameters
 - Type of parameters
 - Result type

```
subtype Positive is Integer range 1 .. Integer'Last;
procedure Print (V : Integer);
procedure Print (W : out Positive); -- NOK
```

- Some aspects of the specification are not taken into account
 - Parameter names
 - Parameter subtypes
 - Parameter modes
 - Parameter default expressions

Overloading (2/2)

- Overloading may introduce ambiguities at call time
- Ambiguities can be solved with additional information

```
type Apples is new Integer;
type Oranges is new Integer;

procedure Print (Nb_Apples : Apples);
procedure Print (Nb_Oranges : Oranges);

N_A : Apples := 0;

begin

Print (N_A); -- OK
Print (O); -- NOK
Print (Oranges'(0)); -- OK
Print (Nb_Oranges => 0); -- OK
```

Operator Overloading

Default operators (=, /=, *, /, +, -, >, <, >=, <=, and, or...)
 can be overloaded, added or removed for types

```
type Distance is new Float;
type Surface is new Float;
function "*" (L, R : Distance) return Distance is abstract; -- removes "*"
function "*" (L, R : Surface) return Surface is abstract; -- removes "*"
-- Add "*" for (Distance, Distance) -> Surface
function "*" (L, R : Distance) return Surface;
type R is record
   Unimportant Field: Integer;
   Important Field : Integer;
end record;
function "=" (Left, Right : R) return Boolean is
begin
   return Left.Important Field = Right.Important Field;
end "=";
```

 "=" overloading will automatically generate the corresponding "/="

Hiding

 It is possible to declare two subprograms of the exact same profile but in different scope

 Overloading rules don't apply here - the nested subprogram hides the one declared in the parent scope

A : declare
 procedure P (V : Integer);
begin
 P (0); -- calls A.P

B : declare
 procedure P (V : Integer);
begin
 P (0); -- calls B.P
 A.P (0); -- calls A.P

This is considered bad practice

Nested Subprograms and Access to Globals

- A subprogram can be nested in any scope
- A nested subprogram will have access to the parent subprogram parameters, and variables declared before

```
procedure P (V : Integer) is
   W : Integer;

procedure Nested is
begin
   W := V + 1;
end Nested;

begin
   W := 0;
Nested;
```



Is there an error? (1/10)



```
function F (V : Integer) return Integer is
begin
    Put_Line (Integer'Image (V));
    return V + 1;
end F;
begin

F (999);
```

Is there an error? (2/10)



```
procedure P (V : Integer) is
begin
  V := V + 1;
end P;
```

Is there an error? (3/10)



```
function F () return Integer is
    return 0;
end F;

V : Integer := F ();
```

Is there an error? (4/10)



```
procedure P (V : Integer) is
   procedure Nested is
   begin
      W := V + 1;
   end Nested;

W : Integer;
begin
   W := 0;
   Nested;
```

Is there an error? (5/10)



```
function F return String is
begin
    return "A STRING";
end F;

V : String (1 .. 2) := F;
```

Is there an error? (6/10)



```
procedure P (V : Integer := 0);
procedure P (V : Float := 0.0);
begin
P;
```

Is there an error? (7/10)



```
procedure P1 (V : Integer := 0) is ... end;

procedure P2 (V : Integer := 0) is ... end;

begin
    declare
    procedure P1 (V : Integer := 0) is ... end;

procedure P2 (V : Float := 0.0) is ... end;

begin
    P1;
    P2;
end;
```

Is there an error? (8/10)



```
procedure Multiply (V : out Integer; Times : Integer) is
begin
    for J in 1 .. Times loop
        V := V + V;
    end loop;
end Multiply;

X : Integer := 10;
begin
    Multiply (X, 50);
```

Is there an error? (9/10)



```
type My_Int is new Integer;
function "=" (L, R : My_Int) return Boolean;
function "=" (L, R : My_Int) return Boolean is
begin
    if L <= 0 or else R <= 0 then
        return True;
    else
        return L = R;
    end if;
end "=";

V, W : My_Int := 1;
begin
    if V = W then
...</pre>
```

Is there an error? (10/10)



```
type My_Int is new Integer;
function "=" (L, R : My_Int) return Boolean;
function "=" (L, R : My_Int) return Boolean is ...

A, B : My_Int;
begin
   if A /= B then
   ...
```



Packages

Barnes chapters 12, 13

The Ada Package

- A package is the base of software architecture in Ada
- It's a semantic entity checked by the compiler
- It separates clearly a specification and an implementation

```
/* p.h */
-- p.ads
package P is
                                       #ifndef P H
                                       #define P H
   procedure Proc;
end P;
                                       void Proc ();
-- p.adb
                                       #endif
package body P is
                                       /* p.c */
   procedure Proc is
   begin
                                       int V;
      null;
   end Proc;
                                       void Proc () {
end P:
```

General Structure of a Package

```
package P is
    -- Public part of the specification.
    -- Declaration of subprograms, variables exceptions, tasks.
    -- Visible to the external user.
    -- Used by the compiler for all dependencies.
end P;

package body P is
    -- Body
    -- Declaration of subprograms, variables exceptions, tasks.
    -- Implementation of subprograms.
    -- Used by the compiler to generate code for P.
    -- In certain cases (e.g. Inlining and Generics), used by the -- compiler to compile clients of P.
end P;
```

- Entities should be put in the body except if they have to be exported
- The body is easier to change than the specification

Uses of a Package

1. Provide a common naming space for a logically related set of entities

- The package acts as a name wrapper
- These kind of packages are typically stateless (i.e. there are no global objects)

2. Group related types and objects

- A package of this sort provides a single place for inter-related types and objects
- This type of package does not typically have a body

3. One-of-a-kind (aka "singleton") objects

- One-of-a-kind objects are objects for which a single instance exists
- One-of-a-kind packages have the object state in their body

4. Create a data type abstraction

- Also known as "Abstract Data Type" (ADT)
- An ADT is a data type T (or family thereof) together with the operations that are allowed to manipulate objects of type T

Accessing components of a package

- Only entities declared in the public part are visible
- Entities are referenced through the dot notation

```
package P1 is
    procedure Pub_Proc;
end P1;
```

```
package body P1 is

procedure Priv_Proc;
...
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
    procedure Proc;
end P2;
```

```
with P1;

package body P2 is

procedure Proc is
begin
    P1.Pub_Proc;
    P1.Priv_Proc;
end Proc;
end P2;
```

Child units

- A public child unit is an extension of a package
- Can be used to organize the namespace or break big packages into pieces
- Child units have visibility over parents

```
-- p-child_1.ads
package P.Child_1 is
end P.Child_1;
```

```
-- p.ads
package P is
end P;
```

```
-- p-child_2.ads
package P.Child_2 is
end P.Child_2;
```

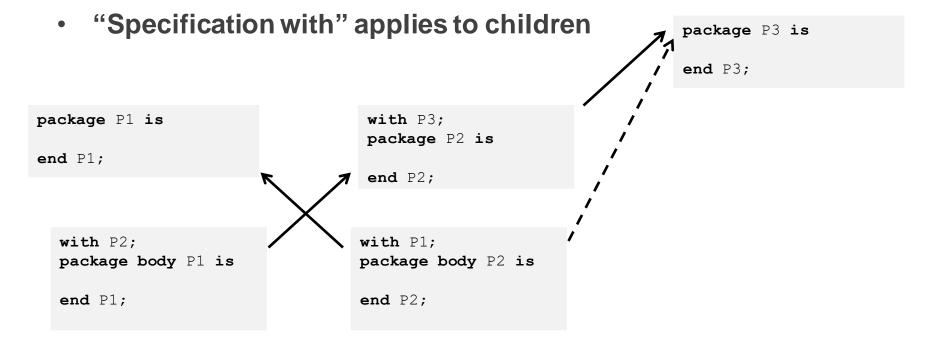
```
-- p-child_2-grand_child.ads
package P.Child_2.Grand_Child is
end P.Child_2.Grand_Child;
```

-- p-child_3.ads
package P.Child_3 is
end P.Child_3;

 Generally speaking, it's a good habit to split functionality into packages as much as possible

Full dependencies ("with clause")

- "With clause" defines a dependency between two packages
- Gives access to all the public declarations
- Can be applied to the spec or the body
- A dependency is normally done to a specification
- "Specification with" applies to the body



Partial dependencies ("limited with")

 Circular dependencies between units are forbidden (to avoid illegal circular constructions)

```
with Medical;
package Person is
   type Person_R is record
       T_Info : Medical.Medical_R;
end record;
end Person;
with Person;

package Medical is

type Medical_R is record
      T_Info : Person.Person_R;
end record;
end Person;
```

 A partial dependency ("limited with") allows such circularity, but gives visibility of an incomplete view of type declarations only (see later for more details)

```
limited with Medical;
package Person is
   type Person_R is record
       T_Info : access Medical.Medical_R;
end record;
end Person;
limited with Person;

package Medical is
   type Medical_R is record
       T_Info : access Person.Person_R;
end record;
end Person;
```

Regular "with clauses" can still be used in bodies

Dependency shortcut ("use clause")

- Prefix may be overkill
- The "use clause" grants "direct visibility" so the prefix can be omitted.
- Can introduce ambiguities
- Can be placed in any scope

```
package P1 is

procedure Proc1;
type T is null record;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
    procedure Proc1;
end P2;
```

```
with P1;
with P2; use P2;

package body P3 is

X : T;

procedure Proc is
    use P1;
    X : T;

begin
    Proc1;
    P1.Proc1;
    P2.Proc1;
    end Proc;

end P3;
```

A Package is a High Level Semantic Entity

 The compiler is responsible for checking structural and semantic consistency

```
/* p.h */
-- p.ads
package P is
                                           #ifndef P H
                                           #define P H
   V : Integer;
   procedure Proc;
   pragma Inline (Proc);
                                           extern int V;
                                           inline void Proc ();
end P;
                                           #include "p.hi"
-- p.adb
                                           #endif
package body P is
                                          /* p.hi */
   procedure Proc is
   begin
                                          #ifndef P HI
      null;
                                           #define P HI
   end Proc;
end P;
                                           inline void Proc () {
                                           #endif
                                          /* p.c */
                                           int V;
```

Compilation with GNAT (1/2)

The compiler knows how to work just with the specification

```
package Dep1 is
                                 package P is
                                                                     package Dep2 is
end Dep1;
                                 end P;
                                                                     end Dep2;
                                 with Dep1;
                                                                     Package body Dep2 is
package body Dep1 is
                                 with Dep2;
                                                                     end Dep2;
end Dep1;
                                 package body P is
                                 end P;
                                     gcc -c p.adb
```

Compilation with GNAT (2/2)

 If information is needed from the body (generic, inline), the compiler works transparently

```
package Dep1 is
                                 package P is
                                                                     package Dep2 is
   procedure Proc;
   pragma Inline (Proc);
                                 end P;
                                                                     end Dep2;
end Dep1;
                                 with Dep1;
                                                                     package body Dep2 is
package body Dep1 is
                                 with Dep2;
                                                                     end Dep2;
end Dep1;
                                 package body P is
                                 end P;
```

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gcc -c p.adb



Is there a compilation error? (1/10)



```
package P1 is
    type T is null record;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
   X : P1.T;
end P2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/10)



```
package P1 is
end P1;
```

```
with P1; use P1;
package P2 is
   X : T;
end P2;
```

```
package body P1 is
  type T is null record;
end P1;
```

Is there a compilation error? (3/10)



```
with P2;
package P1 is
    type T1 is null record;
    V : P2.T2;
end P1;
```

```
with P1;
package P2 is
    type T2 is null record;
    V : P1.T1;
end P2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (4/10)



```
with P2;
package P1 is
    type T1 is null record;
    V : P2.T2;
end P1;
```

```
limited with P1;

package P2 is
    type T2 is null record;

V : access P1.T1;
end P2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (5/10)



```
with P2;
package P1 is
    type T1 is null record;
    V : P2.T2;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
    type T2 is null record;
end P2;
```

```
with P1;
package body P2 is
   X : P1.T1;
end P2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (6/10)



```
package P1 is
    type T is null record;
end P1;
```

```
package P1.Child is
end P1.Child;
```

```
package body P1.Child is

X : T;
end P1.Child;
```

Is there a compilation error? (7/10)



```
with P1.Child;
package P1 is
    X : P1.Child.T;
end P1;
```

```
package P1.Child is
    type T is null record;
end P1.Child;
```

Is there a compilation error? (8/10)



```
package P1 is
end P1;
```

```
with P1.Child;
package body P1 is
   X : P1.Child.T;
end P1;
```

```
package P1.Child is

type T is null record;
end P1.Child;
```

Is there a compilation error? (9/10)



```
limited with P2;
package P1 is
    type T1 is null record;
    V : P2.T2;
end P1;
```

```
limited with P1;

package P2 is
    type T2 is null record;

V : access P1.T1;
end P2;
```

Is there a compilation error? (10/10)



```
package Dep is
    type T is null record;
end Dep;
```

```
with Dep;
package P1 is
end P1;
```

```
package P1.Child is
end P1.Child;
```

```
package body P1.Child is

X : Dep.T;
end P1.Child;
```



Basic Privacy

Barnes chapter 12

Private types

Typical problem

Having the full implementation of the types accessible is error-prone

```
type Stack_Data is array (1 .. 100) of Integer;

type Stack_Type is record
   Max : Integer := 0;
   Data : Stack_Data;
end record;

procedure Push
   (Stack : in out Stack_Type; Val : Integer);

procedure Pop
   (Stack : in out Stack_Type; Val : out Integer);
end Stacks;
```

```
procedure Main is
   S : Stacks.Stack_Type;
   V : Integer;
begin
   Push (S, 15);
   S.Max := 10;
   Pop (S, V);
end Main;
```

- But the compiler needs to have access to the representation (needs to know how much memory is to be used)
- So the representation has to stay in the specification

Private types

- Introduces a new section in the package specification: the private section
 - Visible to the compiler
 - Visible to the body and any child packages
 - Not visible to the user of the package
- In Ada, private applies to a type as a whole, not on a field by field basis
- In Ada, privacy is managed at package level, not at class level

```
package Stacks is
                                                   namespace Stacks {
   type Stack Type is private;
                                                       class Stack Type {
                                                          public:
   procedure Push
                                                             void Push (int val);
      (Stack : in out Stack Type;
       Val : Integer);
                                                          private:
                                                             int [] Data;
private
                                                             int Max;
                                                       };
  type Stack Data is array (1 .. 100)
      of Integer;
   type Stack Type is record
      Max : Integer := 0;
      Data: Stack Data;
   end record;
end Stacks;
```

Who has access to the private information?

Body, and child units have access to the implementation

```
package Stacks is
   type Stack Type is private;
  procedure Push
      (Stack : in out Stack Type;
             : Integer);
private
   type Stack Data is array (1 .. 100)
      of Integer;
   type Stack Type is record
      Max : Integer := 0;
      Data: Stack Data;
   end record;
end Stacks;
package body Stacks is
 procedure Push
      (Stack : in out Stack Type;
       Val : Integer)
  is
 begin
      Stack.Data (Stack.Max + 1) := Val;
      Stack.Max := Stack.Max + 1;
  end Push:
end Stacks;
```

```
package Stacks.Utils is
   procedure Empty
        (Stack : in out Stack_Type);
end Stacks.Utils;

package body Stack.Utils is
   procedure Empty
        (Stack : in out Stack_Type) is
   begin
        Stack.Max := 0;
   end Stack.Utils;
end Stack.Utils;
```

```
with Stacks; use Stacks;
with Stacks.Utils; use Stacks.Utils;

procedure Main is
   S : Stack_Type;
begin
   Push (S, 10);
   Empty (S);
   S.Max := 0;
end Main;
```

What can you do with a private type?

- From the user perspective, a private type is equivalent to a null record
- It can be used for
 - Variables, parameters and components declarations
 - Copies (":=" is predefined)
 - Comparisons ("=" and "/=")

```
package Stacks is

   type Stack_Type is private;
   procedure Push
        (Stack : in out Stack_Type;
        Val : Integer);

private

[...]
end Stacks;
```

```
procedure Main is
    S1, S2 : Stacks.Stack_Type;
begin
    Push (S1, 15);
    S2 := S1;

Push (S2, 0);
Push (S1, 0);

if S1 = S2 then
    Push (S1, 1);
end if;
end Main;
```

How can a private type be implemented?

- A "simple" private type can be implemented by any type giving at least the same level of capabilities
 - The type must allow variable declarations without the need of constraints, it has to be definite (e.g. no unconstrained arrays)
 - The type must allow copy and comparison (e.g. no limited types)

```
package Stacks is

type Stack_Type is private;
```

```
private
    type Stack_Type is range 1 .. 10;
end Stacks;

private

type Stack_Type is record
    V : Integer;
end record;

end Stacks;

end Stacks;

end Stacks;

private

type Stack_Type is array
    (Integer range 1 .. 10);
    of Integer;

end Stacks;
```

```
private

type Stack_Type (Size : Integer) is record

V : Integer;
end record;
end Stacks;
```

```
private

type Stack_Type is array (Integer range <>)
    of Integer;
end Stacks;
```

How can a private type be implemented?

- An "indefinite" private type can be implemented by any type that can be implemented by private type as well as indefinites
 - But the user needs to consider it as indefinite (no declaration without initialization)

```
package Stacks is

type Stack_Type (<>) is private;
```

```
private
    type Stack_Type is range 1 .. 10;
end Stacks;

private

type Stack_Type is record
    V : Integer;
end record;

end Stacks;

end Stacks;

private

type Stack_Type is array
    (Integer range 1 .. 10);
    of Integer;
end Stacks;
```

```
private

type Stack_Type (Size : Integer) is record
    V : Integer;
end record;
end Stacks;

private

type Stack_Type is array (Integer range <>)
    of Integer;
end Stacks;
end Stacks;
```

Public Discriminants on Private Types

 It's possible to specify the discriminants of a private type

```
package Stacks is

  type Stack_Type (Size : Integer) is private;

private

  type Stack_Type (Size : Integer) is record
      V : Integer;
  end record;
end Stacks;
```

Deferred private constants

- It's useful to declare constants visible in the public view
- Values can't be given before the representation is accessible – so constants of private types have a public and a private view

```
package Stacks is
   type Stack_Type is private;

Empty_Stack : constant Stack_Type;

private

type Stack_Data is array (1 .. 100)
   of Integer;

type Stack_Type is record
   Max : Integer := 0;
   Data : Stack_Data;
   end record;

Empty_Stack : constant Stack_Type :=
        (0, (others => 0));
end Stacks;
```

Private part is not only for private types

- Any kind of declaration can be provided in the private part of the package
- Entities declared only in the private part are not visible at all to a client

```
package P is
   -- Public part of the specification.
   -- Declaration of subprograms, variables exceptions, tasks.
   -- Visible to the external user
   -- Used by the compiler for all dependencies.
private
   -- Private part of the specification.
   -- Declaration of subprograms, variables exceptions, tasks.
   -- Visible to the children and the implementation.
   -- Used by the compiler for all dependencies.
end P:
package body P is
  -- Body
  -- Declaration of subprograms, variables exceptions, tasks.
  -- Implementation of subprograms
end P;
```



Is there a compilation error? (1/7)



```
package P is
   type T is private;
private
   type T is range 0 .. 10;
end P;
```

```
with P; use P;
procedure P.Main is
   V : T;
begin
   V := 0;
end P.Main;
```

```
with P; use P;

procedure Main is
   V : T;
begin
   V := 0;
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/7)



```
package P is
    type T is private;
    Zero : constant T := 0;
private
    type T is range 0 .. 10;
end P;
```

```
with P; use P;

package P2 is
   type T2 is record
    F : T;
   end record;
end P2;
```

```
with P; use P;
with P2; use P2;

procedure Main is
   V : T2;
begin
   V.F := Zero;
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (3/7)



```
package P is
   type T is private;
private
   type T is range 0 .. 10;
   Zero : constant T := 0;
end P;
```

```
with P; use P;
procedure P.Main is
   V : T;
begin
   V := Zero;
end P.Main;
```

```
with P; use P;

procedure Main is
   V : T;
begin
   V := Zero;
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (4/7)



```
package P is
   type T is private;
private
   type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
end P;
```

```
procedure P.Main is
    V : T (1 .. 10);
begin
    V (1) := 0;
end P.Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (5/7)



```
package P is
   type T (<>) is private;
private
   type T is array (Integer range 1 .. 10) of Integer;
end P;
```

```
with P; use P;
procedure Main is
   V : T;
begin
   null;
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (6/7)



```
package P is
    type T is private;

One : constant T;
private
    type T is range 0 .. 10;
    One : constant T := 0;
end P;
```

```
with P; use P;

procedure Main is
   Val : T;
begin
   Val := One + One;
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (7/7)



```
package P is
   type T is private;
private
   type T is range 0 .. 10;
end P;
```

```
package P.Constants is
    Zero : constant T := 0;
    One : constant T := 1;
end P.Constants;
```

```
with P; use P;
with P.Constants; use P.Constants;

procedure Main is
   V : T := One;
begin
   null;
end Main;
```



Exceptions

Barnes chapter 15

Exception Declaration and Raise

- Ada exceptions are a dedicated kind of entity
 - associated with a scope and visibility
 - declared like a variable

```
My Exception : exception;
```

- The environment can raise predefined exceptions
 - Constraint_Error
 - Program_Error
 - Storage_Error

– ...

Manual Exception Raise

- An exception can be raised manually, and associated with a message
 - As a raise statement

```
raise My_Exception;
raise My Exception with "My message";
```

Exception Handling

Exception can be caught at the end of any block of statements

```
begin
    -- some code
exception
when My_Exception =>
    -- some code
end;

try {
    // some code
    // some code
}

catch (My_Exception e) {
    // some code
}
```

Several exceptions can be handled by the same code

Exceptions Occurences and Reraise

 In an exception block, the current exception can be re-raised

```
exception
  when others =>
    raise;
end;
```

 It is possible to manipulate the current occurrence by naming it, allowing its message to be extracted or to re-raise an occurrence explicitly

```
with Ada.Exceptions; use Ada.Exceptions;
[...]
exception
   when E : others =>
        Put_Line (Exception_Message (E));
        Reraise_Occurrence (E);
end;
```

Class Exercise

- In the Ada RM, find and have a look at the specification of the package
 - Ada. Exceptions

- In the GNAT Runtime Sources, find and have a look at the specification of the package
 - System.Traceback.Symbolic



What will be printed? (1/5)



```
with Text_IO; use Text_IO;
procedure E is
begin
    declare
        A : Positive;
begin
        A := -5;
    exception
        when Constraint_Error =>
            Put_Line ("caught it");
    end;
exception
    when others =>
        Put_Line ("last chance handler");
end;
```

What will be printed? (2/5)



```
with Text IO; use Text IO;
procedure E is
begin
   declare
      A : Positive;
   begin
      A := -5;
   exception
      when Constraint Error =>
         Put Line ("caught it");
         raise;
   end;
exception
   when others =>
      Put Line ("last chance handler");
end;
```

What will be printed? (3/5)



What will be printed? (4/5)



```
with Text IO; use Text IO;
procedure E is
begin
   declare
      A, B, C : Positive;
   begin
     A := 10;
      B := 9;
      C := 2;
      A := B - A + C;
   exception
      when Constraint Error =>
         Put Line ("caught it");
   end;
exception
   when others =>
      Put Line ("last chance handler");
end;
```

What is the assignment result? (5/5)



```
A, B : Integer := 5;
...
B := (if A /= 0 or raise Division_Error then B / A else 0);
```



Genericity

Barnes chapter 19

The notion of a pattern

 Sometimes, algorithms can be abstracted from the types that they operate on

```
procedure Swap_Int (Left, Right : in out Integer) is
    V : Integer;

begin
    V := Left;
    Left := Right;
    Right := V;
end Swap_Int;
procedure Swap_Bool (Left, Right : in out Boolean) is
    V := Boolean;
    V := Left;
    Left := Right;
    Right := V;
    end Swap_Bool;
```

 It would be nice to extract these properties in some common pattern, and then just replace the parts that need to be replaced

```
procedure Swap (Left, Right : in out (Integer | Boolean)) is
   V : (Integer | Boolean);
begin
   V := Left;
   Left := Right;
   Right := V;
end Swap;
```

Solution: generics

- A generic unit is a unit that doesn't exist
- It is a pattern based on properties
- The instantiation applies the pattern to certain parameters

```
generic
                                            template <class T>
   type T is private;
                                            void Swap (T & L, T & R);
procedure Swap (L, R : in out T)
                                            template <class T>
procedure Swap (L, R : in out T)
                                            void Swap (T & L, T & R) {
is
                                               T Tmp = L;
   Tmp : T := L
                                               L = R;
begin
                                               R = Tmp;
   L := R;
  R := Tmp;
                                            int I1, I2;
end Swap;
                                            float F1, F2;
procedure Swap I is new Swap (Integer);
procedure Swap F is new Swap (Float);
                                            void Main (void) {
                                               Swap <int> (I1, I2);
I1, I2 : Integer;
                                               Swap <float> (F1, F2);
F1, F2 : Float;
procedure Main is
begin
   Swap I (I1, I2);
   Swap F (F1, F2);
end Main;
```

What can be made generic?

- Subprograms & packages can be made generic
- Children of generic units have to be generic themselves

```
generic
   type T is private;
package Parent is [...]
generic
package Parent.Child is [...]
package I is new Parent (Integer);
package I Child is new I.Child;
```

What can be made generic?

 Generic instantiation creates a new set of data where a generic package contains library-level variables:

```
generic
      type T is private;
   package P is
      V : T;
   end P;
   package I1 is new P (Integer);
   package I2 is new P (Integer);
begin
   I1.V := 5;
   12.V := 6;
   if I1.V /= I2.V then
      -- will go there
```

Generic types parameters

- A generic parameter is a template
- It specifies the properties the generic body can rely on

- The actual parameter must provide at least as many properties as the generic contract
- The usage in the generic has to follow the contract

```
generic
    type T (<>) is private;
procedure P (V : T);

procedure P (V : T)
is
    X1 : T := V; -- OK, we can constrain the object by initialization
    X2 : T; -- Compilation error, there is no constraint for this object
begin [...]

procedure P1 is new P (String); -- OK, unconstrained objects are accepted
procedure P2 is new P (Integer); -- OK, the object is already constrained
```

Properties that can be expressed on generic types

- private any definite (and non-limited) type
- (<>) private allowed to be indefinite
- (<>) any discrete (integer or enumeration)
- range <> any signed integer
- mod <> any modular integer
- digits <> any float
- array array type (needs index and components)
- access access type (needs target)

```
generic
   type T is (<>);
function Add_One (V : T) return T is
begin
   return T'Succ (V);
end Add_One;

function Add_One_I is new Add_One (Integer);
function Add_One_C is new Add_One (Character);
```

Generic parameters can be built one on top of the other

Consistency is checked at compile-time

```
generic
   type T is private;
   type Index is (<>);
   type Arr is array (Index range <>) of T;
procedure P;

type Int_Array is array (Character range <>) of Integer;

procedure P_String is new P
   (T => Integer,
   Index => Character,
   Arr => Int_Array);
```

Generic constants & variables parameters

- Variables can be specified in the generic contract
- The mode specifies the way the variable can be used:
 - in -> read only
 - in out -> read write
- Generic variables can be defined after generic types

```
generic
   type T is private;
   X1 : Integer;
   X2 : in out T;
procedure P;

V : Float;

procedure P_I is new P
   (T => Float,
        X1 => 42,
        X2 => V);
```

Generic subprograms parameters

- Subprograms can be defined in the generic contract
- Must be introduced by "with" to differ from the generic unit

```
generic
    with procedure Callback;
procedure P;

procedure P is
begin
    Callback;
end P;

procedure Something;

procedure P_I is new P (Something);
```

- "is <>" matching subprogram is taken by default
- "is null" null subprogram is taken by default

```
generic
   with procedure Callback_1 is <>;
   with procedure Callback_2 is null;
procedure P;

procedure Callback_1;

procedure P_I is new P; -- Will take Callback_1 and null
```

Generic Child Units

 A generic unit can only have generic children, even if they don't have any parameters

```
generic
   type T is private;
package Lists is
[...]
```

```
generic

package Lists.Utils is
[...]
```

 To use a generic child, the parent must be instantiated first

```
package L is new Lists (Integer);
package U is new L.Utils;
```



Is there a compilation error? (1/8)



```
generic
    type T is private;
package G is
    V : T;
end G;
```

```
with G; use G;

procedure P is
   package I is new G (Integer);
begin
   V := 0;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/8)



```
generic
    type T is private;
package G is
    V : T;
end G;
```

```
with G;
procedure P is
   type My Integer is new Integer;
  package I1 is new G (Integer);
  package I2 is new G (My Integer);
  use I1, I2;
begin
 V := 0;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (3/8)



```
generic
    type T is private;
package G is
    V : T;
end G;
```

```
with G;
procedure P is
   type My Integer is new Integer;
   package I1 is new G (Integer);
   package I2 is new G (My Integer);
   use I1;
begin
 V := 0;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (4/8)



```
generic
    type T is private;
package G is
end G;

generic
package G.Child is
    V : T;
end G.Child;
```

```
with G;
procedure P is
   package I1 is new G (Integer);
begin
   I1.Child.V := 0;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (5/8)



```
generic
   type T (<>) is private;
package G is
   V : T;
end G;
```

```
with G;
procedure P is
   package I1 is new G (Integer);
begin
   I1.V := 0;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (6/8)



```
generic
    type T is private;
package G is
    V : T;
end G;
```

```
with G;

package P is
   type My_Type is private;

   package I1 is new G (My_Type);
private
   type My_Type is null record;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (7/8)



```
generic
   type T is private;
procedure P;
type R is record
   null;
end record;
type A is access all R;
procedure I1 is new P (Integer);
procedure I2 is new P (Float);
procedure I3 is new P (Character);
procedure I4 is new P (String);
procedure I5 is new P (R);
procedure I6 is new P (A);
```

Is there a compilation error? (8/8)



```
generic
   type T (<>) is private;
procedure P;
type R is record
   null;
end record;
type A is access all R;
procedure I1 is new P (Integer);
procedure I2 is new P (Float);
procedure I3 is new P (Character);
procedure I4 is new P (String);
procedure I5 is new P (R);
procedure I6 is new P (A);
```



Access Types

Barnes chapter 11

Access types design

- Java references, or C/C++ pointers are called access type in Ada
- An object is associated to a pool of memory
- Different pools may have different allocation / deallocation policies
- Without doing unchecked deallocations, and by using poolspecific access types, access values are guaranteed to be always meaningful
- In Ada, access types are typed

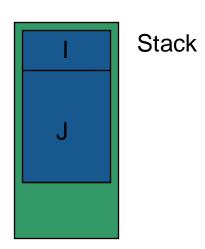
Access types are dangerous

- Multiple memory issues
 - Leaks / corruptions
- Introduces potential random failures complicated to analyze
- Increase the complexity of the data structures
- May decrease the performances of the application
 - Dereferences are slightly more expensive than direct access
 - Allocations are a lot more expensive than stacking objects
- Ada avoids to use accesses as much as possible
 - Arrays are not pointers
 - Parameters are implicitly passed by reference

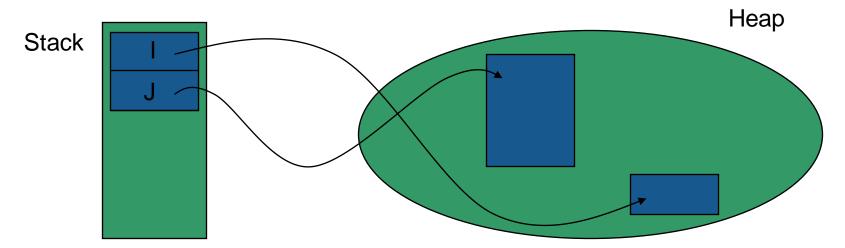
Only use them when needed

Stack vs Heap

```
I : Integer := 0;
J : String := "Some Long String";
```



```
I : Access_Integer := new Integer'(0);
J : Access String := new String'("Some Long String");
```



Pool specific access type

An access type is a type

```
type T is [...]
type T_Access is access T;
V : T_Access := new T;
```

- Conversion is needed to move an object pointed by one type to another (pools may differ)
- You can not do this kind of conversion with a pool-specific access type:

```
type T_Access_2 is access T;

V2 : T_Access_2 := T_Access_2 (V);
```

General access types

Can point to any pool (including stack)

```
type T is [...]
type T_Access is access all T;
V : T_Access := new T;
```

- Still distinct type
- Conversions are possible

```
type T_Access_2 is access all T;
V2 : T_Access_2 := T_Access_2 (V);
```

Declaration location

Can be at library level

```
package P is
   type String_Access is access all String;
end P;
```

Can be nested in a procedure

```
package body P is
    procedure Proc is
        type String_Access is access all String;
    begin
        ...
    end Proc;
end P;
```

Nesting adds non-trivial issues

- Creates a nested pool with a nested accessibility
- Don't do that unless you know what you are doing! (see later)

Null values

- A pointer that does not point to any actual data has a null value
- Without an initialization, a pointer is null by default
- null can be used in assignments and comparisons

```
type Acc is access all Integer;

V : Acc;
begin
   if V = null then
        -- will go here
   end if

V := new Integer'(0);
   V := null; -- semantically correct, but introduces a leak
```

Allocations

- Objects are created with the "new" reserved word
- The created object must be constrained;
 the constraint is given during the allocation

```
V : String_Access := new String (1 .. 10);
```

 The object can be created by copying an existing object – using a qualifier

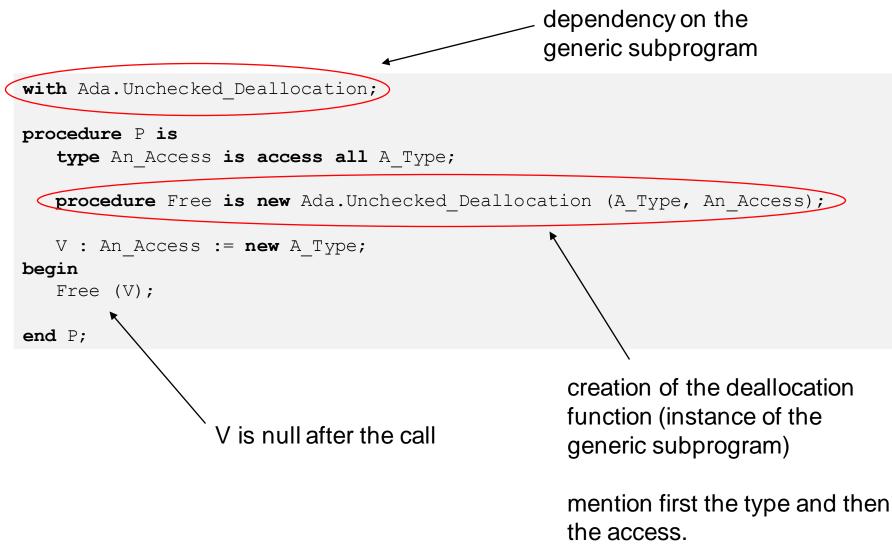
```
V : String_Access := new String'("This is a String");
```

Deallocations

Deallocations are unsafe

- Multiple deallocations problems
- Memory corruptions
- Access to deallocated objects
- As soon as you use them:
 you lose the safety of your pointers
- But sometimes, you have to do what you have to do ...
 - There's no simple way of doing it
 - Ada provides Ada. Unchecked_Deallocation
 - Has to be instantiated (it's a generic)
 - Must work on an object, reset to null afterwards

Deallocation example



Dereferencing pointers

- all does the access dereference
 - Lets you access the object pointed to by the pointer
- .all is optional for
 - Access on a component of an array
 - Access on a component of a record

Dereference examples

```
type R is record
   F1, F2 : Integer:
end record;
type A Int is access all Integer;
type A String is access all String;
type A R is access all R;
V Int : A Int := new Integer;
V String : A String := new String'("abc");
V R : A R := new R;
[...]
V Int.all := 0;
V String.all := "cde";
V String (1) := 'z'; -- similar to V String.all (1) := 'z';
V R.all := (0, 0);
V R.F1 := 1; -- similar to V R.all.F1 := 1;
```

Pointing on objects declared on the stack

By default: you cannot point to objects from the stack

— What if the compiler has optimized the object to a register?

Stack Objects on which an access can be created:

- Must be declared aliased
- Accesses are then obtained through the 'Access attribute
- Only general pointers (declared with all) can point to such objects
- Should not be deallocated
- You should not keep references outside the scope of an object

Aliased objects example (1/2)

```
type Acc is access all Integer;
V : Acc;
I : aliased Integer;
begin
V := I'Access;
V.all := 5; -- Same a I := 5
```

Aliased objects example (2/2)

```
type Acc is access all Integer;
G : Acc;

procedure P1 is
    I : aliased Integer;
begin
    G := I'Unchecked_Access; -- Same as 'Access (see after)
end P1;

procedure P2 is
begin
    G.all := 5; -- What if P2 is called after P1 ???
end P2;
```

Introduction to accessibility checks (1/2)

The depth of an object depends on its nesting within declarative scopes

```
package body P is
    -- Library level, depth 0
    procedure Proc is
          -- Library level subprogram, depth 1
        procedure Nested is
          -- Nested subprogram, enclosing + 1, here 2
        begin
            null;
        end Nested;
    begin
        null;
    end Proc;
end P;
```

- Access types can access to objects at most of the same depth
- The compiler checks it statically (Removing checks is a workaround!)

Introduction to accessibility checks (2/2)

```
package body P is
   type T0 is access all Integer;
   A0 : T0;
   V0 : aliased Integer;
   procedure Proc is
      type T1 is access all Integer;
      A1 : T1;
      V1 : aliased Integer;
   begin
      A0 := V0'Access;
     A0 := V1'Access;
      A0 := V1'Unchecked Access;
      A1 := V0'Access;
     A1 := V1'Access;
     A1 := T1 (A0);
      A0 := T0 (A1);
      A1 := new Integer;
      A0 := T0 (A1);
  end Proc;
end P;
```

 To avoid having to face these issues, avoid nested access types

Using pointers to create recursive structures

- It is not possible to declare recursive structure
- But there can be an access to the enclosing type

Common memory problems – uninitialized pointers

```
type An_Access is access all Integer;

V : An_Access;
begin
    V.all := 5;
```

Will raise Constraint_Error

Common memory problems – double deallocation

```
type An_Access is access all Integer;
procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation (Integer, An_Access);

V1 : An_Access := new Integer;
    V2 : An_Access := V1;
begin
    Free (V1);
...
Free (V2);
```

May raise Storage_Error if the memory is still protected (deallocated)

May deallocate an other object if the memory has been reallocated – putting an object in an inconsistent state

Common memory problems – accessing deallocated memory

```
type An_Access is access all Integer;
procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation (Integer, An_Access);

V1 : An_Access := new Integer;
    V2 : An_Access := V1;
begin
    Free (V1);
    ...
    V2.all := 5;
```

May raise Storage_Error if the memory is still protected (deallocated)

May change an other object if the memory has been reallocated – putting an object in an inconsistent state

Common memory problems – memory leaks

```
type An_Access is access all Integer;
procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation (Integer, An_Access);

V : An_Access := new Integer;
begin
V := null;
```

Silent problem

Might raise Storage_Error if too many leaks

Might slow down the program if too many page faults

How to fix memory problems?

- There is no language-defined solution
- Use the debugger!
- Use additional tools
 - gnatmem
 - valgrind
 - GNAT.Debug_Pools

Others...

- → monitor memory leaks
- → monitor all the dynamic memory
- → gives a pool for an access type, raising explicit exception in case of invalid access



Is there an error? (1/10)



```
type An_Access is access all Integer;
```

W : Integer;

V : An Access := W'Access;

Is there an error? (2/10)



```
type An_Access is access Integer;
```

W : aliased Integer;

V : An Access := W'Access;

Is there an error? (3/10)



```
type An_Access is access all Integer;

procedure Proc is
    W : aliased Integer;
    X : An_Access := W'Access;
begin
    null;
end Proc;
```

Is there an error? (4/10)



```
type R is record
   F1, F2 : Integer;
end record;

type R_Access is access all R;

procedure Proc is
   V : R_Access := new R;

begin
   V.F1 := 0;
   V.all.F2 := 0;
end Proc;
```

Is there an error? (5/10)



```
G : aliased Integer;

procedure Proc is
    type A_Access is access all Integer;
    V : A_Access;
begin
    V := G'Access;
end Proc;
```

Is there an error? (6/10)



```
type R is record
    F1, F2, F3 : Integer;
end record;

type R_Access is access all R;
type R_Access_Access is access all R_Access;

V : R_Access_Access;
begin

V := new R_Access;
V.all := new R;
V.F1 := 0;
V.all.F2 := 0;
V.all.all.F3 := 0;
```

Is there an error? (7/10)



```
type A_Access is access all Integer;

procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation
     (Integer, A_Access);

V1 : A_Access := new Integer;
     V2 : A_Access := V1;
begin
     Free (V1);
     Free (V2);
```

Is there an error? (8/10)



```
type A_Access is access all Integer;

procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation
      (Integer, A_Access);

V : A_Access;

begin
    Free (V);
    V := new Integer;
    Free (V);
    Free (V);
```

Is there an error? (9/10)



```
type A_Access is access all Integer;

procedure Free is new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation
     (Integer, A_Access);

V : A_Access;
W : aliased Integer;
begin

V := W'Access;
Free (V);
```

Is there an error? (10/10)



```
type A_Access is access all Integer;

type R is record
    V : A_Access;
    W : aliased Integer;
end record;

G : R;

procedure P is
    L : R;
begin
    G.V := G.W'Access;
    L.V := L.W'Access;
end P;
```



Inheritance

Barnes chapter 14

Primitives

The notion of a primitive

- A type is characterized by two sets of properties
 - Its data structure
 - The set of operations that applies to it
- These operations are called "methods" in C++, or "Primitive Operations" in Ada
- In Ada
 - the primitive relationship is implicit
 - The "hidden" parameter "this" is explicit (and can have any name)

```
type T is record
   Attribute_Data : Integer;
end record;

public:
   int Attribute_Data;
   void Attribute_Function (This : T);

procedure Attribute_Function (This : T);
};
```

General rule for a primitive

A subprogram S is a primitive of type T if

- S is declared in the scope of T
- S has at least one parameter of type T (of any mode, including access) or returns a value of type T

```
package P is

type T is range 1 .. 10;

procedure P1 (V : T);
procedure P2 (V1 : Integer; V2 : T);
function F return T;
end P;
```

A subprogram can be a primitive of several types

```
package P is

  type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
  type T2 is (A, B, C);

  procedure Proc (V1 : T1; V2 : T2);
end P;
```

Beware of access types!

 Using a named access type in a subprogram creates a primitive of the <u>access type</u>, <u>NOT</u> the type of the accessed object!

```
type T is range 1 .. 10;
type A_T is access all T;
procedure Proc (V : A_T); -- Primitive of A_T
end P;
```

 In order to create a primitive using an access type, the access mode should be used

```
package P is
    type T is range 1 .. 10;
    procedure Proc (V : access T); -- Primitive of T
end P;
```

Implicit primitive operations

 At type declaration, primitives are implicitly created if not explicitly given by the developer, depending on the kind of the type

```
type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
-- implicitly declares function "+" (Left, Right : T1) return T1;
-- implicitly declares function "-" (Left, Right : T1) return T1;
-- ...

type T2 is null record;
-- implicitly declares function "=" (Left, Right : T2) return T2;
end P;
```

These primitives can be used just as any others

```
procedure Main is
    V1, V2 : P.T1;
begin
    V1 := P."+" (V1, V2);
end Main;
```

Use clauses

 Often, to avoid ambiguity and confusing overloading, "use package clauses" are forbidden by a coding standard.
 This means that all operations have to be prefixed, thus:

```
package A.B.C is
   type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
   procedure Print (V : T1);
end A.B.C;
```

```
with A.B.C;

procedure Main is
    V1, V2 : A.B.C.T1;
begin
    V1 := A.B.C."+" (V1, V2);
    A.B.C.Print (V1);
end Main;
```

This is very annoying, though. I would prefer to write
 "V1 := V1 + V2" in the natural way...

Simple derivation

Simple type derivation

In Ada, any (non-tagged) type can be derived

```
Type Child is new Parent;
```

- A child is a distinct type inheriting from:
 - The data representation of the parent
 - The primitives of the parent

```
type Parent is range 1 .. 10;
procedure Prim (V : Parent);

type Child is new Parent;
   -- implicit procedure Prim (V : Child);

V : Child;
begin
   V := 5;
   Prim (V);
```

Conversions are possible for non-primitive operations

```
package P is
   type Parent is range 1 .. 10;
   type Child is new Parent;
end P;
```

```
procedure Main is
    procedure Not_A_Primitive (V : Parent);

V1 : Parent;
    V2 : Child;

begin
    Not_A_Primitive (V1);
    Not_A_Primitive (Parent (V2));
end Main;
```

What can simple derivation do to the structure?

- The structure of the type has to be kept
 - An array stays an array
 - A scalar stays a scalar
- Scalar ranges can be reduced

```
type Int is range -100 .. 100;
type Nat is new Int range 0 .. 100;
type Pos is new Nat range 1 .. 100;
```

 Constraints on unconstrained types can be specified

```
type Arr is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

type Ten_Elem_Arr is new Arr (1 .. 10);

type Rec (Size : Integer) is record
    Elem : Arr (1 .. Size);
end record;

type Ten_Elem_Rec is new Rec (10);
```

- The "Basic Types" lecture introduced Ada's signed integer types, and the predefined Integer types in package Standard.
- But...we missed one important detail.
- A declaration like this:

```
type T is range L ... R;
```

Is actually a short-hand for:

```
type <Anon> is new Predefined-Integer-Type;
subtype T is <Anon> range L .. R;
```

What's going on?

```
type <Anon> is new Predefined-Integer-Type;
subtype T is <Anon> range L .. R;
```

- The compiler looks at L and R (which must be static) and chooses a predefined signed Integer type from Standard (e.g. Integer, Short_Integer, Long_Integer etc.) which at least includes the range L .. R.
- 2. This choice is implementation-defined.
- 3. An anonymous type *<Anon>* is created, derived from that predefined type. *<Anon>* inherits all of the predefined type's primitive operations, like "+", "-", "*" and so on.
- 4. A subtype T of <Anon> is created with range L .. R

<Anon> can be referred to as T'Base in your program.

What's going on?

```
type <Anon> is new Predefined-Integer-Type;
subtype T is <Anon> range L .. R;
```

- Warning! The choice of T'Base affects whether runtime computations will overflow.
 - Example: on one machine, the compiler chooses Integer, which is 32-bit, and your code runs fine with no overflows.
 - On another machine, a compiler might choose Short_Integer, which is 16-bit, and your code will fail an Overflow Check.
 - Extra care is needed if you have two compilers e.g. for Host (like Windows or Linux)
 and Cross targets...

 Good news! GNAT makes consistent and predictable choices on all major platforms.

- Guidance
- You can avoid the implementation-defined choice by deriving your own Base Types explicitly, and using Assert to enforce the expected range
- Something like

```
type My_Base_Integer is new Integer;
pragma Assert (My_Base_Integer'First = -2**31);
pragma Assert (My_Base_Integer'Last = 2**31-1);
```

- Then derive further types and subtypes from My_Base_Integer
- Don't assume that "Shorter = Faster" for integer maths. On some machines, 32-bit is more efficient than 8- or 16-bit maths!

Guidance 2

 If you want to derive from a base type that has a well-defined bit length (for example when dealing with hardware registers that must be a particular bit length), then package Interfaces declares types such as:

```
type Integer_8 is range -2**7 .. 2**7-1;
for Integer_8'Size use 8;
-- and so on for 16, 32, 64 bit types...
```



Is there a compilation error? (1/10)



```
package P1 is
   type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
end P1;
```

```
with P1; use P1;
package P2 is
    type T2 is new T1;
end P2;
```

```
with P1; use P1;
package P3 is
    procedure Proc (V : T1);
end P3;
```

```
with P1; use P1;
with P2; use P2;
with P3; use P3;

procedure Main is
   V : T2;
begin
   Proc (V);
end Main;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/10)



```
package P1 is

type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
procedure Proc (V : T1);

end P1;

with P1; use P1;

package P2 is

type T2 is new T1;

end P2;
```

```
with P1; use P1;
with P2; use P2;

procedure Main is
    V : T2;
begin
    Proc (V);
end Main;
```

What's the result of this call? (3/10)



```
type T1 is range 1 .. 10;
procedure Proc (V : T1);

type T2 is range 1 .. 10;
procedure Proc (V : T2);
end P;
```

```
with Ada.Text_IO; use Ada.Text_IO;

package body P is

procedure Proc (V : T1) is
begin
    Put_Line ("1");
end Proc;

procedure Proc (V : T2) is
begin
    Put_Line ("2");
end Proc;

end Proc;
```

```
with P; use P;

procedure Main is
    V1 : T1;
    V2 : T2;

begin
    Proc (V1);
    Proc (V2);
    Proc (T2 (V1));
    Proc (T1 (V2));
end Main;
```



Elaboration

Barnes chapter 13

Why elaboration is needed

Ada has some powerful features that require initialization:

```
with Dep1;
package P1 is
    Value is not known by the compiler

Val : constant Integer := Dep1.Call;
end P1;
```

May also involve dynamic allocation:

```
with P1;
package P2 is
    Buffer : String (1 .. P1.Val);
end P1;
Size is not known by the compiler
```

Or explicit user code to initialize a package

```
package body P3 is
    ...
begin
    Put_Line ("Starting P3");
end P3;
```

- Requires initialization code at startup
- Implies ordering

Elaboration

- Process where entities are created
- The Rule: "an entity has to be elaborated before use"
 - Subprograms have to be elaborated before being called
 - Variables have to be elaborated before being referenced
- Such elaboration issues typically arise on
 - Global variable initialization
 - Package sequence of statements

```
with Dep1;
package P1 is
    V_Spec : Integer := Dep1.Call;
    -- Dep1 body has to be elaborated before this point
end P1;

with Dep2;
package body P1 is
    V_Body : Integer;
begin
    V_Body := Dep2.Call;
    -- Dep2 body has to be elaborated before this point
end P1;
```

Elaboration order

- The elaboration order is the order in which the packages are created
- It may or may not be deterministic

```
package P1 is
   V_Spec : Integer := Call;
end P1;

package body P1 is
   V_Body : Integer := Call;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
    V_Spec : Integer := Call;
end P1;

package body P2 is
    V_Body : Integer := Call;
end P1;
```

- The binder (GNAT: gnatbind) is responsible for finding an elaboration order
 - Computes the possible ones
 - Reports an error when no order is possible

Circular elaboration dependencies

- Although not explicitly specified by the with clauses, elaboration dependencies may exhibit circularities
- Sometimes, they are static

```
package P1 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P1;

with P2;
package body P1 is
   V_Body : Integer := P2.Call;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P2;

with P1;
package body P2 is
   V_Body : Integer := P1.Call;
end P2;
```

Sometimes they are dynamic

```
with P2;
package body P1 is
    V_Body : Integer;
begin
    if Day mod 2 = 1 then
        V_Body := P2.Call;
    end if;
end P1;
```

```
with P1;
package body P2 is
    V_Body : Integer;
begin
    if Day mod 2 = 0 then
        V_Body := P1.Call;
    end if;
end P2;
```

GNAT Static Elaboration Model

By default, GNAT ensures elaboration safety

- It adds elaboration control pragma to statically ensure that elaboration is possible
- Very safe, but…
- Not fully Ada compliant (may reject some valid programs)
- Highly recommended however (least surprising effect)

Performed by gnatbind

- Automatically called by a builder (gnatmake or gprbuild)
- Reads ALI files from the closure
- Generates b~xxx.ad[sb] or b__xxx.ad[sb] files
- Contains elaboration and finalization procedures

Defines the entry point procedure, main().

Pragma Preelaborate

- Adds restrictions on a unit to ease elaboration
- Elaboration without explicit execution of code
 - No user initialization code
 - No calls to subprograms
 - Static values
 - Dependencies only on Preelaborate packages

```
package P1 is
   pragma Preelaborate;
   Var : Integer := 7;
end P1;
```

But compiler may generate elaboration code

```
package P1 is
  pragma Preelaborate;
  type ptr is access String;
  v : ptr := new String'("hello");
end P1;
```

Pragma Pure

- Adds restrictions on a unit to ease elaboration
- Preelaborate +
 - No variable declaration
 - No allocators
 - No access type declaration
 - Dependencies only on Pure packages

```
package Ada.Numerics is
    pragma Pure;
    Argument_Error : exception;
    Pi : constant := 3.14...;
end Ada.Numerics;
```

But compiler may generate elaboration code

```
package P2 is
   pragma Pure;
   Var : constant Array (1 .. 10 * 1024) of Integer := (others => 118);
end P2;
```

Pragma Elaborate_Body

- Forces the elaboration of a body just after a specification
- Forces a body to be present even if none is required
- Problem: it may introduce extra circularities

```
package P1 is
    pragma Elaborate_Body;
    function Call return Integer;
end P1;
with P2;
package body P1 is
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
    pragma Elaborate_Body;
    function Call return Integer;
end P2;
with P1;
package body P2 is
end P2;
```

 Useful in the case where a variable declared in the specification is initialized in the body

Pragma Elaborate

- Pragma Elaborate forces the elaboration of a dependency body
- It does not force the elaboration of transitive dependencies

```
package P1 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P1;
```

```
with P2;
pragma Elaborate (P2);

package body P3 is
   V : Integer;
begin
   V := P2.Call;
end P3;
```

```
package P2 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P1;

with P1;
package body P2 is
   function Call return Integer
   begin
      P1.Call;
end Call;
end P2;
```

Pragma Elaborate_All

- Pragma Elaborate forces the elaboration of a dependency body and all transitive dependencies
- May introduce unwanted cycles
- Safer than Elaborate

```
package P1 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P1;
```

```
with P2;
pragma Elaborate_All (P2);

package body P3 is
   V : Integer;
begin
   V := P2.Call;
end P3;
```

```
package P2 is
   function Call return Integer;
end P2;

with P1;
package body P2 is
   function Call return Integer
   begin
      P1.Call;
end Call;
end P2;
```

Bottom line

- Elaboration is a difficult problem to deal with
- The binder tries to resolve it in a "safe way"
- If it can't, it's possible to manually place elaboration pragmas
- Better to avoid elaboration constraints as much as possible
- Use dynamic elaboration (gnat binder switch -E) as last resort
- See 'Elaboration Order Handling in GNAT' annex in GNAT Pro User's Guide.



Is there a compilation error? (1/2)



```
package P is
  function F return Integer;

A : Integer := F;
end P;
```

Is there a compilation error? (2/2)



```
with P2;
pragma Elaborate_All (P2);

package P1 is
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is
end P2;
```

```
with P1;
package body P2 is
end P2;
```



Tasking

Overview

A simple task

Ada implements the notion of a "thread" via the task entity

```
procedure Main is
   task T;

task body T is
begin
   loop
       delay 1.0;
       Put_Line ("T");
   end loop;
end T;
begin
   loop
      delay 1.0;
      Put_Line ("Main");
end loop;
end;
```

- A task is started when its declaration scope is elaborated
- Its enclosing scope exits when all tasks have finished

Interacting with tasks

Active synchronization

- Client/server model of interaction ("asymmetric rendezvous")
- Server task declares "entries" for interacting
 - Services it offers to other tasks
 - Can wait for a client task to request its service
- Client task makes an "entry call"
 - Request for a service offered by another task
 - Will wait for the server task to "accept" and handle entry call

Passive synchronization

- Uses data objects with concurrency-safe access semantics
- "Protected objects" in Ada more about them later

Rendezvous (1/2)

 A task can declare "entries" for interacting and wait for an "entry call" to arrive

```
task T is
    entry Start;
    entry Receive_Message (V : String);
end T;

task body T is
begin
    loop
        accept Start;
        accept Receive_Message (V : String);
end loop;
end T;
```

- When reaching an accept statement, the task will wait until its entry is called
- When calling an entry, the caller waits until the task is ready to be called

```
-- OK
T.Start;
T.Receive_Message ("");
-- Locks until somebody calls Start
T.Receive_Message ("");
```

Rendezvous (2/2)

 The task can perform operations while the caller and the callee are in the entry / accept statement

```
task T is
    entry Start;
    entry Receive_Message (V : String);
end T;

task body T is
begin
    loop
        accept Start do
            Put_Line ("Start");
        end Start;

    accept Receive_Message (V : String) do
        Put_Line ("Message : " & V);
    end Receive_Message;
end loop;
end T;
```

 The caller will be released once the end of the accept block is reached

Accepting a rendezvous

Simple accept statement

 Used by a server task to indicate a willingness to provide the service at a given point

Selective accept statement

- Wait for more than one rendezvous at any time
- Time-out if no rendezvous within a period of time
- Withdraw its offer if no rendezvous is immediately available
- Terminate if no clients can possibly call its entries
- Conditionally accept a rendezvous based on a guard expression

Protected objects

- Tasks are "active" objects
- Synchronization can be achieved through "passive" objects that hold and manage values
- A protected object is an object with an interface
 - No concurrent modifications are allowed
- It is a natural replacement for a lot of cases where a semaphore is needed

```
protected 0 is
    -- Only subprograms are allowed here
    procedure Set (V : Integer);
    function Get return Integer;
private
    -- Data declaration
    Local : Integer;
end 0;
```

```
protected body 0 is
   procedure Set (V : Integer) is
   begin
       Local := V;
   end Set;

function Get return Integer is
   begin
      return Local;
   end Get;
end O;
```

Protected functions vs. protected procedures

- Procedures can modify the state of the protected data
 - No concurrent access to procedures can be done
 - No procedure can be called when functions are called

- Functions are just ways to retrieve values, the protected data is read-only
 - Concurrent access to functions can be done
 - No function can be called when a procedure is called

Task types

- It is possible to create task types
 - Objects can be instantiated on the stack or on the heap
- Tasks instantiated on the stack are activated at the end of the elaboration of their enclosing declarative part
 - As if they were declared there
- Tasks instantiated on the heap are activated right away

```
task type T is
   entry Start;
end T;

type T_A is access all
T;

task body T is
begin
   accept Start;
end T;
```

```
V1 : T;
V2 : T;
V3 : A_T;
begin
    V1.Start;
    V2.Start;
V3 := new T;
V3.all.Start;
```

Tasks are limited objects (no copies allowed)

Protected object types

- Like tasks, protected objects can be defined through types
- Instantiation can then be done on the heap or the stack
- Protected object types are limited types

```
protected type 0 is
   entry Push (V : Integer);
   entry Pop (V : out Integer);
private
   Buffer : Integer_Array (1 .. 10);
   Size : Integer := 0;
end 0;

type O_Access is access all 0;
```

```
V1, V2 : O;
V3 : O_Access := new O;
```

```
protected body O is
   entry Push (V : Integer)
      when Size < Buffer'Length</pre>
   is
   begin
      Buffer (Size + 1) := V;
      Size := Size + 1:
   end Push:
   entry Pop (V : out Integer)
      when Size > 0
   is
   begin
     V := Buffer (Size);
      Size := Size - 1:
   end Pop;
end 0;
```

Scope of a task

- Tasks can be nested in any declarative block
- When nested in e.g. a subprogram, the task and the subprogram body have to finish before the subprogram ends
- Tasks declared at library level all have to finish before the program terminates

```
package P is
   task T;
end P;

package body P is
   task body T is
    loop
        delay 1.0;
        Put_Line ("tick");
        end loop;
   end T;
end P;
```

Some Advanced Concepts...

Waiting on different entries

- It is convenient to be able to accept several entries
- The select statements can wait simultaneously on a list of entries, and accept the first one that is requested

```
task T is
   entry Start;
   entry Receive Message (V : String);
   entry Stop;
end T;
task body T is
begin
   accept Start;
   loop
      select
         accept Receive Message (V : String) do
            Put Line ("Message: " & String);
         end Receive Message;
      or
         accept Stop;
         exit;
      end select;
   end loop;
end T:
```

```
T.Start;
T.Receive_Message ("A");
T.Receive_Message ("B");
T.Stop;
```

Waiting with a delay

 A select statement can wait for only a given amount of time, and then do something when that delay is exceeded

```
task T is
   entry Receive Message (V : String);
end T:
task body T is
begin
   loop
      select
         accept Receive Message (V : String) do
            Put Line ("Message: " & String);
         end Receive Message;
      or
         delay 50.0;
         Put Line ("Don't wait any longer");
         exit:
      end select:
   end loop;
end T:
```

- the "delay until" statement can be used as well
- there can be multiple delay statements (useful when the value is not hard-coded)

Calling an entry with a delay protection

- A call to an entry normally blocks the thread until the entry can be accepted by the task
- It is possible to wait for a given amount of time using a select ... delay statement

```
task T is
    entry Receive_Message (V : String);
end T;

procedure Main is
begin
    select
     T.Receive_Message ("A");
    or
        delay 50.0;
    end select;
end Main;
```

- Only one entry call is allowed
- No "accept statement" is allowed

Avoid waiting if no entry or accept can be taken

- The "else" part allows to avoid waiting if the accept statements or entries are not ready to be entered
- No delay statement is allowed in this case

```
task T is
   entry Receive Message (V : String);
end T:
task body T is
begin
   select
      accept Receive Message (V : String) do
         Put Line ("Received: " & V);
      end Receive Message;
   else
      Put Line ("Nothing to receive");
   end select;
end T;
procedure Main is
begin
   select
      T.Receive Message ("A");
   else
      Put Line ("Receive message not called");
   end select:
end Main:
```

Terminate alternative

- When waiting for an entry, if all other task dependent on the same master task (including the master task) are terminated, the entry can't be called anymore
- This can be detected by the "or terminate" alternative, which terminates the tasks if all other tasks are terminated
 - Or themselves waiting on "or terminate" select statements
- Once reached, the task is terminated right away, no additional code is called

```
select
   accept E;
or
   terminate;
end select;
```

Guard expressions

- The accept statement can be activated according to a guard condition
- This condition is evaluated when entering select

```
task T is
   entry Put (V : Integer);
   entry Get (V : out Integer);
end T;
task body T is
   Val : Integer;
   Initialized : Boolean := False;
begin
   loop
      select
         accept Put (V : Integer) do
            Val := V;
            Initialized := True;
         end Put;
      or
         when Initialized =>
            accept Get (V : out Integer) do
               V := Val;
            end Get.:
      end select;
   end loop;
end T;
```

Protected object entries (1/2)

- Protected entries are a special kind of protected procedures
- They can be defined using a barrier, a conditional expression allowing the entry to be called or not
- The barriers are evaluated...
 - Every time a task request to call an entry
 - Every time a protected entry or procedure is exited

```
protected 0 is
   entry Push (V : Integer);
   entry Pop (V : out Integer);
private
   Buffer : Integer_Array (1 .. 10);
   Size : Integer := 0;
end 0;
```

```
protected body 0 is
   entry Push (V : Integer)
      when Size < Buffer'Length</pre>
   is
   begin
      Buffer (Size + 1) := V;
      Size := Size + 1;
   end Push;
   entry Pop (V : out Integer)
      when Size > 0
   is
   begin
      V := Buffer (Size);
      Size := Size - 1;
   end Pop;
end 0;
```

Protected object entries (2/2)

- Several tasks can be waiting on entries
- Only one task is reactivated when the barrier is relieved, depending on the activation policy

```
task body T1 is
   V : Integer;
begin
   O.Pop (V);
end T1;

task body T2 is
   V : Integer;
begin
   O.Pop (V);
end T2;

task body T3 is
begin
   delay 1.0;
   O.Push (42);
end T3;
```

Select on protected objects entries

- Works the same way as select on task entries
 - With a delay part

```
select
   O.Push (5);
or
   delay 10.0;
   Put_Line ("Delayed overflow");
end select;
```

With an else part

```
select
    O.Push (5);
else
    Put_Line ("Overflow");
end select;
```

Notion of a Queue

- Protected entries, protected procedures and task entries can only be activated by one task at a time
- If several tasks are trying to enter a mutually exclusion section, they are put in a queue
- By default, task are entering the queue in FIFO
- If several tasks are in a queue when the server task is terminated, TASKING_ERROR is sent to the waiting tasks

Requeue instruction

- The "requeue" instruction can be called in an entry (task or protected)
- It places the queued task back to another entry with the same profile
 - Or the same entry...
- Useful if the treatment couldn't be done and need to be re-considered later

```
entry Extract (Qty : Integer) when True is
begin
   if not Try_Extract (Qty) then
      requeue Extract;
   end if;
end Extract;
```

Same parameter values will be used on the queue



All tasks can be abruptly aborted

```
procedure Main is
  task T;

task T is
begin
  loop
     delay 1.0;
     Put_Line ("A");
  end loop;
  end T;
begin
  delay 10.0;
  abort T;
end;
```

- Abortion may stop the task almost anywhere in the assembly code
- Highly unsafe should be used only as last resort



Does this code compile? (1/8)



```
protected 0 is
   function Get return Integer;
   procedure Set (V : Integer);
private
   Val : Integer;
   Access Count : Integer := 0;
end 0;
protected body O is
   function Get return Integer is
   begin
      Access Count := Access Count + 1;
      return Val;
   end Get;
   procedure Set (V : Integer) is
   begin
      Val := V;
   end Set;
end 0;
```

What is the output of this code? (2/8)



```
procedure Main is
   task T is
      entry A;
   end T;
   task body T is
   begin
      select
         accept A;
      or
         terminate;
      end select;
      Put Line ("Terminated");
   end T;
begin
   null;
end Main;
```

What is the output of this code? (3/8)



```
procedure Main is
begin
    select
        delay 2.0;
    then abort
        loop
            delay 1.5;
            Put_Line ("A");
        end loop;
    end select;
    Put_Line ("B");
end Main;
```

Does this code compile? (4/8)



```
task T is
   entry Remove Items (Nb : Integer);
   entry Replenish;
end T;
task body T is
   Nb Items : Integer := 100;
begin
   loop
      select
         accept Remove Items (Nb : Integer) do
             if Nb Items < Nb then</pre>
                requeue Replenish;
             else
                Nb Items := Nb Items - Nb;
             end if;
         end Remove Items;
      or
         accept Replenish do
             Nb Items := Nb Items + 100;
         end Replenish;
      end select;
   end loop;
end T;
```

What's the output of this code? (5/8)



```
task body T1 is
begin
    loop
        select
            accept A;
            Put_Line ("SELECT TASK");
    else
            delay 1.0;
            Put_Line ("ELSE TASK");
            end select;
    end loop;
end T1;
```

```
task body T2
begin
    loop
     select
        T1.A;
     else
        delay 1.0;
    end select;
    end loop;
end T2;
```

Does this code compile? (6/8)



```
task T1 is
   entry E1;
   entry E2;
end T1;
```

```
task body T2
begin
    select
       T1.E1;
    or
       T1.E2;
    end select;
end T2;
```

Does this code terminate? (7/8)



```
procedure Main is
   Ok : Boolean := False;
   protected O is
      entry P;
   end 0;
   protected body O is
   begin
      entry P when Ok is
         Put Line ("OK");
      end P;
   end 0;
   task T;
   task body T is
   begin
      delay 1.0;
      Ok := True;
   end T;
begin
   0.P;
end;
```

Does this code terminate? (8/8)



```
procedure Main is
   Ok : Boolean := False;
   protected O is
      entry P;
      procedure P2;
   end O;
   protected body O is
      entry P when Ok is
      begin
         Put Line ("OK");
      end P;
      procedure P2 is
      begin
         null;
      end P2;
   end O;
   task T;
   task body {\mathbb T} is
   begin
      delay 1.0;
      Ok := True;
      0.P2;
   end T;
begin
   0.P;
end;
```