

#### **Ada Declarations**

Barnes, chapter 5

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### 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\_

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
  - $1_{000} = 1000000$
- Numbers can be expressed with an integer base (from 2 to 16)
  - 10#255# = 2#1111\_111# = 8#377# = 16#FF#
- Numbers can be defined with an exponent part
  - 2#1#E8 = 256
  - 2E8 = 20000000
- 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)

 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;
    A := A + 1;
    end;
    A := A + 1;
    A := A + 1;
```



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

	declare	{
	A : Integer;	<pre>int A;</pre>
	begin	
	code	// code
	declare	{
	B : Integer;	<pre>int B;</pre>
	begin	
	code	// code
	end;	}
8	A := B; COMPILATION ERROR	A = B;
	end;	}

# Visibility

Nested scopes can "hide" declarations from outer scopes

```
declare
                                         ł
  A : Integer;
                                            int A;
begin
   -- references to the outer A
                                            // references to the outer A
   declare
                                            {
      A : Float;
                                               float A;
   begin
      -- references to the inner A
                                               // references to the inner A
                                            }
   end;
 end;
                                            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...



# Quiz



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



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



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



V : Natural := V \* 0;



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



V : Float := 5.0;



V : Float := 5.;



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



Class Room : constant Natural := 5;



my value : constant Natural := 5;



#### Ada Basic Types

Barnes, chapter 6

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# **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); int A = 10 \* 0.9
A : Integer := Integer
 (Float (10) \* 0.9);

#### The compiler will warn in case of inconsistencies



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);

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



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



- 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) 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

• 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)


# Quiz



V : Float := 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));
```



tyr	)e	Х	is	mod	10;
V1	:	X	:=	10;	1;
V2	:	X	:=	9+	



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



type T is range 1 .. 10; V : T := 9; W : T := 2; begin V := V + W - 1;



type T is range 1 .. 10; V : T := 9; W : T := 2; begin V := T (V + W) - 1;



C1 : constant := 2 \*\* 1024; C2 : constant := 2 \*\* 1024 + 10; C3 : constant := C1 - C2; V : Integer := C1 - C2;



tyr	e	Т	is	(A,	Β,	С	);		
V1	:	Т	:=	T'Va	al	( "	A")	;	
V2	:	Т	:=	T'Va	alu	е	(2)	;	



#### type T is (A, B, C); V1 : T := T'Value ("A"); V2 : T := T'Value ("a"); V3 : T := T'Value (" a ");



**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



- 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

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- 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*.

• 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 for (i = 1; i <= 10; i++);
 null;
end loop;</pre>

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

### **Condition symbols**

- Comparison
  - /=
  - =

- Boolean operators
  - and
- or
- >= xor
- <= and then</p>
- > or else
- < not (unary)



 "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 \dots -1 \mid 1 \dots 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
\mathbf{x}
         when V =>
                                      -- NOK
         when W =>
                                       -- OK
         when T1 =>
                                        -- OK
         when I2 =>
                                       -- OK
         when 20 | 30 | 40 =>
                                     -- OK
                                     -- OK
         when 50 + W =>
\mathbf{x}
         when I3 =>
                                      -- NOK
         when W + 1 .. Integer'Last => -- OK
```

### • Simple loop

loop	No direct equivalent
<statements></statements>	
{ <b>exit</b> [ <b>when</b> <condition>];}</condition>	
<statements></statements>	
end 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



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;
```

• 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.





if A == 0 then
 Put\_Line ("A is 0");
end if;



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



```
A : Integer := Integer'Value (Get_Line);
begin
case A is
    when 1 .. 9 =>
        Put_Line ("Simple digit");
    when 10 .. Integer'Last =>
        Put_Line ("Long positive");
    when Integer'First .. -1 =>
        Put_Line ("Negative");
    end case;
```



```
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;
```



```
A : Float := 10.0;
begin
  case A is
    when 1.0 .. Float'Last =>
        Put_Line ("Positive");
    when Float'First .. -1.0 =>
        Put_Line ("Negative");
    when others =>
        Put_Line ("Other");
    end case;
```


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



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



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



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



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



#### Arrays

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• All arrays are (doubly) typed

- 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
```

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 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
```

- 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);
```

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

```
({[<position> => ] <expression>, } [others => <expression>])
(1, 2, 3) -- finite positional aggregate
(1 => 1, 2 => 10, 3 => 30) -- finite named aggregate
(1, others => 0) -- indefinite positional aggregate
(1 => 1, others => 0) -- indefinite named aggregate
```

- 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)
```

- 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

- 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.

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





```
type My_Int is new Integer range 1 .. 10;
type T is array (My_Int) of Integer;
V : T;
begin
V (1) := 2;
```



type T is array (Integer) of Integer; V : T; begin V (1) := 2;



```
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;
```



type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer; V : T := (1, 2, 3); begin V (0) := V (1) + V (2);



```
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;
```



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



```
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;
```



type Any\_Bounds is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;

subtype TS is Any Bounds (1 .. 10);

type T2 is new TS (1 .. 9);



#### type String\_Array is array (Integer range <>) of String;



```
X : Integer := 0;
type T is array (Integer range <>) of Integer
  with Default_Component_Value => X;
V : T (1 .. 10);
```



# Record types

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• 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; 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 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
```

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? • Types can be parameterized by a discrete type

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

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

V : Shape (Circle);

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

 Only the values related to the constraint have to be valuated

V2 : Shape := (Circle, 0.0, 0.0, 5.0);

#### **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);
```

- 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.





```
type R is record
    A, B, C : Integer := 0;
end record;
V : R := (A => 1);
```



```
type My_Integer is new Integer;
type R is record
A, B, C : Integer := 0;
D : My_Integer := 0;
end record;
V : R := (others => 1);
```



#### type Cell is record

Val : Integer; Next : Cell; end record;



```
type My_Integer is new Integer;
type R is record
A, B, C : Integer;
D : My_Integer;
end record;
V : R := (others => <>);
```



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



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

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



```
type R (D : Integer) is record
    null;
end record;
V1 : R := (D => 5);
V2 : R := (D => 6);
begin
V1 := V2;
```



```
type R (Size : Integer := 0) is record
    S : String (1 .. Size);
end record;
V : R := (5, "Hello");
```



```
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;
```



```
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

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# 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*.



- 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;
```

- 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

• 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 "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));
```

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 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 (0); -- OK
Print (Oranges'(0)); -- OK
Print (Nb Oranges => 0); -- OK
```

 $\mathbf{\mathbb{S}}$ 

## **Operator Overloading**

Default operators (=, /=, \*, /, +, -, >, <, >=, <=, and, or...)</li>
 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;
```




```
function F (V : Integer) return Integer is
begin
        Put_Line (Integer'Image (V));
        return V + 1;
    end F;
begin
    F (999);
```



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



```
function F () return Integer is
   return 0;
end F;
V : Integer := F ();
```



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

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



```
function F return String is
begin
   return "A STRING";
end F;
V : String (1 .. 2) := F;
```



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



```
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;
```



```
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);
```



```
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
....
```



```
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
...
```





Barnes chapters 12, 13

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- 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 PH
                                       #define PH
   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;
```



- 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
                                     package P2 is
   procedure Pub Proc;
                                         procedure Proc;
end P1;
                                      end P2;
package body P1 is
                                     with P1;
  procedure Priv Proc;
                                     package body P2 is
end P1;
                                        procedure Proc is
                                        begin
                                           P1.Pub Proc;
                                 \mathbf{x}
                                           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.ads package P is	
	end P;	
p-child_1.ads package P.Child_1 is	p-child_2.ads package P.Child_2 is	p-child_3.ads package P.Child_3 is
<pre>end P.Child_1;</pre>	<pre>end P.Child_2;</pre>	<pre>end P.Child_3;</pre>
	p-child_2-grand_child.ads package P.Child_2.Grand_Child is	

```
end P.Child_2.Grand_Child;
```

• 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 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)

<pre>limited with Medical;</pre>		<pre>limited with Person;</pre>
package Person is	•	package Medical is
type Person_R is record		type Medical_R is record
T_Info : <b>access</b> Medical.Medical_R;		T_Info : <b>access</b> Person.Person_R;
end record;	$\sim$	end record;
end Person;		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 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 PH
                                          #define PH
   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



# **Compilation with GNAT** (2/2)

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







type T is null record;

end P1;

package P2 is

X : P1.T;

end P2;



end P1;

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

package body P1 is

type T is null record;

end P1;



with	P2;
------	-----

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;



with P2;	<pre>limited with P1;</pre>
package P1 is	package P2 is
type T1 is null record;	type T2 is null record;
V : P2.T2;	V : access P1.T1;
end P1;	end P2;



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;



type T is null record;

end P1;

package P1.Child is

end P1.Child;

package body P1.Child is

Х:Т;

end P1.Child;



with P1.Child;

package P1 is

X : P1.Child.T;

end P1;

package P1.Child is

type T is null record;

end P1.Child;



end P1;

package P1.Child is

type T is null record;

end P1.Child;

with P1.Child;

package body P1 is

X : P1.Child.T;

end P1;



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;



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

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# Private types

# Typical problem

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

```
package Stacks is
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);
```

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

end Stacks;

- 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);
       Val
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)



## 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		
<pre>type Stack_Type (&lt;&gt;) is private;</pre>		
private	private	private
<pre>type Stack_Type is range 1 10; end Stacks;</pre>	<pre>type Stack_Type is record     V : Integer; end record;</pre>	<pre>type Stack_Type is array   (Integer range 1 10);   of Integer;</pre>
	end Stacks;	<pre>end Stacks;</pre>
private	private	
<pre>type Stack_Type (Size : Integer)     V : Integer; end record; end Stacks;</pre>	<pre>is record type Stack_Ty of Intege end Stacks;</pre>	ype <b>is array</b> (Integer <b>range</b> <>) er;

## **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;
```

- 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;
```

- 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;
```





```
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;



```
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;
```



```
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;



```
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;
```



```
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;
```



```
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;
```



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

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## **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	// some code	
exception	} <b>catch</b> (My_Exception e) {	
<pre>when My_Exception =&gt;</pre>	// some code	
some code	}	
end;		

 Several exceptions can be handled by the same code

```
begin
   -- some code
exception
   when Constraint_Error | Storage_Error =>
        -- some code
   when others =>
        -- code for all other exceptions
end;
```

 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;
```

- 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





```
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;
```



```
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;
```



```
with Text_IO; use Text_IO;
procedure E is
begin
    declare
        A : Positive := -1;
    begin
        A := -5;
    exception
        when Constraint_Error =>
            Put_Line ("caught it");
    end;
exception
    when others =>
        Put_Line ("last chance handler");
end;
```



```
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;
```



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



## Genericity

Barnes chapter 19

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#### 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 := Begin
V := Left;
Left := Right;
Right := V;
end Swap_Int;
```

 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;





```
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;
```



```
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;
```

5	

```
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;
```

```
?
```

```
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;
```



```
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;
```

```
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);
```





```
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

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### 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

```
type Integer_Access is access Integer; int * V = malloc (sizeof (int));
V : Integer_Access := new Integer; /* or in C++ */
int * V = new int;
```

- 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







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);
```

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); 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)

- 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
```

- 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**



# • .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

```
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 := 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;
```

• 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

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

```
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;
8
         A0 := V1'Access;
          A0 := V1'Unchecked Access;
          A1 := V0'Access;
         A1 := V1'Access;
         A1 := T1 (A0);
\mathbf{\overline{8}}
          A0 := T0 (A1);
          A1 := new Integer;
8
          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



```
type An_Access is access all Integer;
V : An_Access;
begin
V.all := 5;
```

Will raise Constraint\_Error

```
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

```
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

```
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

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

- Others...




### type An Access is access all Integer;

- W : Integer;
- V : An Access := W'Access;



### type An Access is access Integer;

- W : aliased Integer;
- V : An Access := W'Access;



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



```
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;
```



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



```
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.F2 := 0;
```



```
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);
```



```
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);
```



```
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);
```



```
type A_Access is access all Integer;
type R is record
    V : A_Access;
    W : aliased Integer;
end record;
G : R;
G : R;
procedure P is
    L : R;
begin
    G.V := G.W'Access;
    L.V := L.W'Access;
```

end P;



### Inheritance

Barnes chapter 14

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## **Primitives**

- 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;

procedure Attribute Function (This : T);
};

class T {
   public:
   int Attribute_Data;
   void Attribute_Function (void);
};
```

### **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!

```
package P is
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

```
package P is
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);

# Signed Integer Types (revisited...)

### Signed Integer Types (revisited)

- 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...
```





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;

?

package P is

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 P;
```

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

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### Why elaboration is needed

• Ada has some powerful features that require initialization:

```
with Dep1;
package P1 is
Val : constant Integer := Dep1.Call;
end P1;
Value is not known by the compiler
```

May also involve dynamic allocation:



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;
```

- 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;
```

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





# package P is function F return Integer; A : Integer := F; end P;



with P2;	
<pre>pragma Elaborate_All (P2);</pre>	
	package P2
package P1 is	
and D1.	end P2;

with P1;
package body P2 is
end P2;

is



# Tasking

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# 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

- 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

# 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

- 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 0;
```

# **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 0_Access is access all 0;
```

V1, V2 : O; V3 : O Access := **new** O;

```
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 O;
```

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

```
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 O;
```

# **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
    0.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

- 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




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



```
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;
```



```
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;
```



```
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;
```



```
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;
```



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

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



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

begin

begin

end;

0.P;

```
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 T is
      delay 1.0;
      Ok := True;
      0.P2;
   end T;
```

