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Annotated
Ada Reference Manual

Language and Standard Libraries

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Foreword

1 ISO (the International Organization for Standardization) and IEC (the International Electrotechnical Commission) form the specialized system for worldwide standardization. National bodies that are members of ISO or IEC participate in the development of International Standards through technical committees established by the respective organization to deal with particular fields of technical activity. ISO and IEC technical committees collaborate in fields of mutual interest. Other international organizations, governmental and non-governmental, in liaison with ISO and IEC, also take part in the work.

2 In the field of information technology, ISO and IEC have established a joint technical committee, ISO/IEC JTC 1. Draft International Standards adopted by the joint technical committee are circulated to national bodies for voting. Publication as an International Standard requires approval by at least 75 % of the national bodies casting a vote.

3 International Standard ISO/IEC 8652 was prepared by Joint Technical Committee ISO/IEC JTC 1, *Information Technology*.

4 This second edition cancels and replaces the first edition (ISO 8652:1987), of which it constitutes a technical revision.

5 Annexes A to J form an integral part of this International Standard. Annexes K to P are for information only.

5.a **Discussion:** This document is the Annotated Ada Reference Manual (AARM). It contains the entire text of the Ada 9X standard (ISO/IEC 8652:1995(E)), plus various annotations. It is intended primarily for compiler writers, validation test writers, and other language lawyers. The annotations include detailed rationale for individual rules and explanations of some of the more arcane interactions among the rules.

Introduction

This is the Annotated Ada Reference Manual. 1

Other available Ada documents include: 2

- Rationale for the Ada Programming Language — 1995 edition, which gives an introduction to the new features of Ada, and explains the rationale behind them. Programmers should read this first. 3
- The Ada Reference Manual (RM). This is the International Standard — ISO/IEC 8652:1995(E). 4
- Changes to Ada — 1987 to 1995. This document lists in detail the changes made to the 1987 edition of the standard. 5

Design Goals

Ada was originally designed with three overriding concerns: program reliability and maintenance, programming as a human activity, and efficiency. This revision to the language was designed to provide greater flexibility and extensibility, additional control over storage management and synchronization, and standardized packages oriented toward supporting important application areas, while at the same time retaining the original emphasis on reliability, maintainability, and efficiency. 6

The need for languages that promote reliability and simplify maintenance is well established. Hence emphasis was placed on program readability over ease of writing. For example, the rules of the language require that program variables be explicitly declared and that their type be specified. Since the type of a variable is invariant, compilers can ensure that operations on variables are compatible with the properties intended for objects of the type. Furthermore, error-prone notations have been avoided, and the syntax of the language avoids the use of encoded forms in favor of more English-like constructs. Finally, the language offers support for separate compilation of program units in a way that facilitates program development and maintenance, and which provides the same degree of checking between units as within a unit. 7

Concern for the human programmer was also stressed during the design. Above all, an attempt was made to keep to a relatively small number of underlying concepts integrated in a consistent and systematic way while continuing to avoid the pitfalls of excessive involution. The design especially aims to provide language constructs that correspond intuitively to the normal expectations of users. 8

Like many other human activities, the development of programs is becoming ever more decentralized and distributed. Consequently, the ability to assemble a program from independently produced software components continues to be a central idea in the design. The concepts of packages, of private types, and of generic units are directly related to this idea, which has ramifications in many other aspects of the language. An allied concern is the maintenance of programs to match changing requirements; type extension and the hierarchical library enable a program to be modified while minimizing disturbance to existing tested and trusted components. 9

No language can avoid the problem of efficiency. Languages that require over-elaborate compilers, or that lead to the inefficient use of storage or execution time, force these inefficiencies on all machines and on all programs. Every construct of the language was examined in the light of present implementation techniques. Any proposed construct whose implementation was unclear or that required excessive machine resources was rejected. 10

Language Summary

11 An Ada program is composed of one or more program units. Program units may be subprograms (which define executable algorithms), packages (which define collections of entities), task units (which define concurrent computations), protected units (which define operations for the coordinated sharing of data between tasks), or generic units (which define parameterized forms of packages and subprograms). Each program unit normally consists of two parts: a specification, containing the information that must be visible to other units, and a body, containing the implementation details, which need not be visible to other units. Most program units can be compiled separately.

12 This distinction of the specification and body, and the ability to compile units separately, allows a program to be designed, written, and tested as a set of largely independent software components.

13 An Ada program will normally make use of a library of program units of general utility. The language provides means whereby individual organizations can construct their own libraries. All libraries are structured in a hierarchical manner; this enables the logical decomposition of a subsystem into individual components. The text of a separately compiled program unit must name the library units it requires.

14 *Program Units*

15 A subprogram is the basic unit for expressing an algorithm. There are two kinds of subprograms: procedures and functions. A procedure is the means of invoking a series of actions. For example, it may read data, update variables, or produce some output. It may have parameters, to provide a controlled means of passing information between the procedure and the point of call. A function is the means of invoking the computation of a value. It is similar to a procedure, but in addition will return a result.

16 A package is the basic unit for defining a collection of logically related entities. For example, a package can be used to define a set of type declarations and associated operations. Portions of a package can be hidden from the user, thus allowing access only to the logical properties expressed by the package specification.

17 Subprogram and package units may be compiled separately and arranged in hierarchies of parent and child units giving fine control over visibility of the logical properties and their detailed implementation.

18 A task unit is the basic unit for defining a task whose sequence of actions may be executed concurrently with those of other tasks. Such tasks may be implemented on multicomputers, multiprocessors, or with interleaved execution on a single processor. A task unit may define either a single executing task or a task type permitting the creation of any number of similar tasks.

19 A protected unit is the basic unit for defining protected operations for the coordinated use of data shared between tasks. Simple mutual exclusion is provided automatically, and more elaborate sharing protocols can be defined. A protected operation can either be a subprogram or an entry. A protected entry specifies a Boolean expression (an entry barrier) that must be true before the body of the entry is executed. A protected unit may define a single protected object or a protected type permitting the creation of several similar objects.

20 *Declarations and Statements*

21 The body of a program unit generally contains two parts: a declarative part, which defines the logical entities to be used in the program unit, and a sequence of statements, which defines the execution of the program unit.

The declarative part associates names with declared entities. For example, a name may denote a type, a constant, a variable, or an exception. A declarative part also introduces the names and parameters of other nested subprograms, packages, task units, protected units, and generic units to be used in the program unit. 22

The sequence of statements describes a sequence of actions that are to be performed. The statements are executed in succession (unless a transfer of control causes execution to continue from another place). 23

An assignment statement changes the value of a variable. A procedure call invokes execution of a procedure after associating any actual parameters provided at the call with the corresponding formal parameters. 24

Case statements and if statements allow the selection of an enclosed sequence of statements based on the value of an expression or on the value of a condition. 25

The loop statement provides the basic iterative mechanism in the language. A loop statement specifies that a sequence of statements is to be executed repeatedly as directed by an iteration scheme, or until an exit statement is encountered. 26

A block statement comprises a sequence of statements preceded by the declaration of local entities used by the statements. 27

Certain statements are associated with concurrent execution. A delay statement delays the execution of a task for a specified duration or until a specified time. An entry call statement is written as a procedure call statement; it requests an operation on a task or on a protected object, blocking the caller until the operation can be performed. A called task may accept an entry call by executing a corresponding accept statement, which specifies the actions then to be performed as part of the rendezvous with the calling task. An entry call on a protected object is processed when the corresponding entry barrier evaluates to true, whereupon the body of the entry is executed. The requeue statement permits the provision of a service as a number of related activities with preference control. One form of the select statement allows a selective wait for one of several alternative rendezvous. Other forms of the select statement allow conditional or timed entry calls and the asynchronous transfer of control in response to some triggering event. 28

Execution of a program unit may encounter error situations in which normal program execution cannot continue. For example, an arithmetic computation may exceed the maximum allowed value of a number, or an attempt may be made to access an array component by using an incorrect index value. To deal with such error situations, the statements of a program unit can be textually followed by exception handlers that specify the actions to be taken when the error situation arises. Exceptions can be raised explicitly by a raise statement. 29

Data Types 30

Every object in the language has a type, which characterizes a set of values and a set of applicable operations. The main classes of types are elementary types (comprising enumeration, numeric, and access types) and composite types (including array and record types). 31

An enumeration type defines an ordered set of distinct enumeration literals, for example a list of states or an alphabet of characters. The enumeration types Boolean, Character, and Wide_Character are predefined. 32

33 Numeric types provide a means of performing exact or approximate numerical computations. Exact computations use integer types, which denote sets of consecutive integers. Approximate computations use either fixed point types, with absolute bounds on the error, or floating point types, with relative bounds on the error. The numeric types Integer, Float, and Duration are predefined.

34 Composite types allow definitions of structured objects with related components. The composite types in the language include arrays and records. An array is an object with indexed components of the same type. A record is an object with named components of possibly different types. Task and protected types are also forms of composite types. The array types String and Wide_String are predefined.

35 Record, task, and protected types may have special components called discriminants which parameterize the type. Variant record structures that depend on the values of discriminants can be defined within a record type.

36 Access types allow the construction of linked data structures. A value of an access type represents a reference to an object declared as aliased or to an object created by the evaluation of an allocator. Several variables of an access type may designate the same object, and components of one object may designate the same or other objects. Both the elements in such linked data structures and their relation to other elements can be altered during program execution. Access types also permit references to subprograms to be stored, passed as parameters, and ultimately dereferenced as part of an indirect call.

37 Private types permit restricted views of a type. A private type can be defined in a package so that only the logically necessary properties are made visible to the users of the type. The full structural details that are externally irrelevant are then only available within the package and any child units.

38 From any type a new type may be defined by derivation. A type, together with its derivatives (both direct and indirect) form a derivation class. Class-wide operations may be defined that accept as a parameter an operand of any type in a derivation class. For record and private types, the derivatives may be extensions of the parent type. Types that support these object-oriented capabilities of class-wide operations and type extension must be tagged, so that the specific type of an operand within a derivation class can be identified at run time. When an operation of a tagged type is applied to an operand whose specific type is not known until run time, implicit dispatching is performed based on the tag of the operand.

39 The concept of a type is further refined by the concept of a subtype, whereby a user can constrain the set of allowed values of a type. Subtypes can be used to define subranges of scalar types, arrays with a limited set of index values, and records and private types with particular discriminant values.

40 *Other Facilities*

41 Representation clauses can be used to specify the mapping between types and features of an underlying machine. For example, the user can specify that objects of a given type must be represented with a given number of bits, or that the components of a record are to be represented using a given storage layout. Other features allow the controlled use of low level, nonportable, or implementation-dependent aspects, including the direct insertion of machine code.

42 The predefined environment of the language provides for input-output and other capabilities (such as string manipulation and random number generation) by means of standard library packages. Input-output is supported for values of user-defined as well as of predefined types. Standard means of representing values in display form are also provided. Other standard library packages are defined in annexes of the standard to support systems with specialized requirements.

Finally, the language provides a powerful means of parameterization of program units, called generic program units. The generic parameters can be types and subprograms (as well as objects and packages) and so allow general algorithms and data structures to be defined that are applicable to all types of a given class. 43

Language Changes

This International Standard replaces the first edition of 1987. In this edition, the following major language changes have been incorporated: 44

- Support for standard 8-bit and 16-bit character sets. See Section 2, 3.5.2, 3.6.3, A.1, A.3, and A.4. 45
- Object-oriented programming with run-time polymorphism. See the discussions of classes, derived types, tagged types, record extensions, and private extensions in clauses 3.4, 3.9, and 7.3. See also the new forms of generic formal parameters that are allowed by 12.5.1, ‘‘Formal Private and Derived Types’’ and 12.7, ‘‘Formal Packages’’. 46
- Access types have been extended to allow an access value to designate a subprogram or an object declared by an object declaration (as opposed to just a heap-allocated object). See 3.10. 47
- Efficient data-oriented synchronization is provided via protected types. See Section 9. 48
- The library units of a library may be organized into a hierarchy of parent and child units. See Section 10. 49
- Additional support has been added for interfacing to other languages. See Annex B. 50
- The Specialized Needs Annexes have been added to provide specific support for certain application areas: 51
  - Annex C, ‘‘Systems Programming’’ 52
  - Annex D, ‘‘Real-Time Systems’’ 53
  - Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’ 54
  - Annex F, ‘‘Information Systems’’ 55
  - Annex G, ‘‘Numerics’’ 56
  - Annex H, ‘‘Safety and Security’’ 57

Instructions for Comment Submission

58 {*instructions for comment submission*} {*comments, instructions for submission*} Informal comments on this International Standard may be sent via e-mail to **ada-comment@sw-eng.falls-church.va.us**. If appropriate, the Project Editor will initiate the defect correction procedure.

59 Comments should use the following format:

60

> **!topic** *Title summarizing comment*
> **!reference** RM95-*ss.ss(pp)*
> **!from** *Author Name yy-mm-dd*
> **!keywords** *keywords related to topic*
> **!discussion**
>
> *text of discussion*

61 where *ss.ss* is the section, clause or subclause number, *pp* is the paragraph number where applicable, and *yy-mm-dd* is the date the comment was sent. The date is optional, as is the **!keywords** line.

62 Multiple comments per e-mail message are acceptable. Please use a descriptive ‘‘Subject’’ in your e-mail message.

63 When correcting typographical errors or making minor wording suggestions, please put the correction directly as the topic of the comment; use square brackets [ ] to indicate text to be omitted and curly braces { } to indicate text to be added, and provide enough context to make the nature of the suggestion self-evident or put additional information in the body of the comment, for example:

64

> **!topic** [c]{C}haracter
> **!topic** it[’]s meaning is not defined

65 Formal requests for interpretations and for reporting defects in this International Standard may be made in accordance with the ISO/IEC JTC1 Directives and the ISO/IEC JTC1/SC22 policy for interpretations. National Bodies may submit a Defect Report to ISO/IEC JTC1/SC22 for resolution under the JTC1 procedures. A response will be provided and, if appropriate, a Technical Corrigendum will be issued in accordance with the procedures.

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Changes

72 The International Standard is the same as this version of the Reference Manual, except:

73 • This list of Changes is not included in the International Standard.

74 • The ‘‘Acknowledgements’’ page is not included in the International Standard.

75 • The text in the running headers and footers on each page is slightly different in the International Standard.

76 • The title page(s) are different in the International Standard.

77 • This document is formatted for 8.5-by-11-inch paper, whereas the International Standard is formatted for A4 paper (210-by-297mm); thus, the page breaks are in different places.

Information technology — Programming Languages — Ada

Section 1: General

Ada is a programming language designed to support the construction of long-lived, highly reliable software systems. The language includes facilities to define packages of related types, objects, and operations. The packages may be parameterized and the types may be extended to support the construction of libraries of reusable, adaptable software components. The operations may be implemented as subprograms using conventional sequential control structures, or as entries that include synchronization of concurrent threads of control as part of their invocation. The language treats modularity in the physical sense as well, with a facility to support separate compilation. 1

The language includes a complete facility for the support of real-time, concurrent programming. Errors can be signaled as exceptions and handled explicitly. The language also covers systems programming; this requires precise control over the representation of data and access to system-dependent properties. Finally, a predefined environment of standard packages is provided, including facilities for, among others, input-output, string manipulation, numeric elementary functions, and random number generation. 2

Discussion: This Annotated Ada Reference Manual (AARM) contains the entire text of the Ada Reference Manual (RM9X), plus certain annotations. The annotations give a more in-depth analysis of the language. They describe the reason for each non-obvious rule, and point out interesting ramifications of the rules and interactions among the rules (interesting to language lawyers, that is). Differences between Ada 83 and Ada 9X are listed. (The text you are reading now is an annotation.) 2.a

The AARM stresses detailed correctness and uniformity over readability and understandability. We're not trying to make the language ''appear'' simple here; on the contrary, we're trying to expose hidden complexities, so we can more easily detect language bugs. The RM9X, on the other hand, is intended to be a more readable document for programmers. 2.b

The annotations in the AARM are as follows: 2.c

- Text that is logically redundant is shown [in square brackets, like this]. Technically, such text could be written as a Note in the RM9X, since it is really a theorem that can be proven from the non-redundant rules of the language. We use the square brackets instead when it seems to make the RM9X more readable. 2.d

2.e • The rules of the language (and some AARM-only text) are categorized, and placed under certain *sub-headings* that indicate the category. For example, the distinction between Name Resolution Rules and Legality Rules is particularly important, as explained in 8.6.

2.f • Text under the following sub-headings appears in both documents:

2.g • The unlabeled text at the beginning of each clause or subclause,
2.h • Syntax,
2.i • Name Resolution Rules,
2.j • Legality Rules,
2.k • Static Semantics,
2.l • Post-Compilation Rules,
2.m • Dynamic Semantics,
2.n • Bounded (Run-Time) Errors,
2.o • Erroneous Execution,
2.p • Implementation Requirements,
2.q • Documentation Requirements,
2.r • Metrics,
2.s • Implementation Permissions,
2.t • Implementation Advice,
2.u • NOTES,
2.v • Examples.

2.w • Text under the following sub-headings does not appear in the RM9X:

2.x • Language Design Principles,
2.y • Inconsistencies With Ada 83,
2.z • Incompatibilities With Ada 83,
2.aa • Extensions to Ada 83,
2.bb • Wording Changes From Ada 83.

2.cc • The AARM also includes the following kinds of annotations. These do not necessarily annotate the immediately preceding rule, although they often do.

2.dd **Reason:** An explanation of why a certain rule is necessary, or why it is worded in a certain way.

2.ee **Ramification:** An obscure ramification of the rules that is of interest only to language lawyers. (If a ramification of the rules is of interest to programmers, then it appears under NOTES.)

2.ff **Proof:** An informal proof explaining how a given Note or [marked-as-redundant] piece of text follows from the other rules of the language.

2.gg **Implementation Note:** A hint about how to implement a feature, or a particular potential pitfall that an implementer needs to be aware of.

2.hh **Discussion:** Other annotations not covered by the above.

2.ii **To be honest:** A rule that is considered logically necessary to the definition of the language, but which is so obscure or pedantic that only a language lawyer would care. These are the only annotations that could be considered part of the language definition.

2.jj **Glossary entry:** The text of a Glossary entry — this text will also appear in Annex N, ‘‘Glossary’’.

2.kk **Discussion:** In general, RM9X text appears in the normal font, whereas AARM-only text appears in a smaller font. Notes also appear in the smaller font, as recommended by ISO/IEC style guidelines. Ada examples are also usually printed in a smaller font.

2.ll If you have trouble finding things, be sure to use the index. {*italics, like this*} Each defined term appears there, and also in *italics, like this*. Syntactic categories defined in BNF are also indexed.

2.mm A definition marked ‘‘[distributed]’’ is the main definition for a term whose complete definition is given in pieces distributed throughout the document. The pieces are marked ‘‘[partial]’’ or with a phrase explaining what cases the partial definition applies to.

1.1 Scope

1 This International Standard specifies the form and meaning of programs written in Ada. Its purpose is to promote the portability of Ada programs to a variety of data processing systems.

1.1.1 Extent

This International Standard specifies:

- The form of a program written in Ada;
- The effect of translating and executing such a program;
- The manner in which program units may be combined to form Ada programs;
- The language-defined library units that a conforming implementation is required to supply;
- The permissible variations within the standard, and the manner in which they are to be documented;
- Those violations of the standard that a conforming implementation is required to detect, and the effect of attempting to translate or execute a program containing such violations;
- Those violations of the standard that a conforming implementation is not required to detect.

This International Standard does not specify:

- The means whereby a program written in Ada is transformed into object code executable by a processor;
- The means whereby translation or execution of programs is invoked and the executing units are controlled;
- The size or speed of the object code, or the relative execution speed of different language constructs;
- The form or contents of any listings produced by implementations; in particular, the form or contents of error or warning messages;
- The effect of unspecified execution.
- The size of a program or program unit that will exceed the capacity of a particular conforming implementation.

1.1.2 Structure

This International Standard contains thirteen sections, fourteen annexes, and an index.

{*core language*} The *core* of the Ada language consists of:

- Sections 1 through 13
- Annex A, ‘‘Predefined Language Environment’’
- Annex B, ‘‘Interface to Other Languages’’
- Annex J, ‘‘Obsolescent Features’’

{*Specialized Needs Annexes*} {*Annex (Specialized Needs)*} {*application areas*} The following *Specialized Needs* Annexes define features that are needed by certain application areas:

- Annex C, ‘‘Systems Programming’’
- Annex D, ‘‘Real-Time Systems’’
- Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’
- Annex F, ‘‘Information Systems’’

12 • Annex G, ‘‘Numerics’’

13 • Annex H, ‘‘Safety and Security’’

14 {*normative*} {*Annex (normative)*} The core language and the Specialized Needs Annexes are normative, except that the material in each of the items listed below is informative:

15 • Text under a NOTES or Examples heading.

16 • Each clause or subclause whose title starts with the word ‘‘Example’’ or ‘‘Examples’’.

17 All implementations shall conform to the core language. In addition, an implementation may conform separately to one or more Specialized Needs Annexes.

18 {*informative*} {*non-normative: see informative*} {*Annex (informative)*} The following Annexes are informative:

19 • Annex K, ‘‘Language-Defined Attributes’’

20 • Annex L, ‘‘Language-Defined Pragmas’’

21 • Annex M, ‘‘Implementation-Defined Characteristics’’

22 • Annex N, ‘‘Glossary’’

23 • Annex P, ‘‘Syntax Summary’’

23.a **Discussion:** The idea of the Specialized Needs Annexes is that implementations can choose to target certain application areas. For example, an implementation specifically targeted to embedded machines might support the application-specific features for Real-time Systems, but not the application-specific features for Information Systems.

23.b The Specialized Needs Annexes extend the core language only in ways that users, implementations, and standards bodies are allowed to extend the language; for example, via additional library units, attributes, representation items (see 13.1), pragmas, and constraints on semantic details that are left unspecified by the core language. Many implementations already provide much of the functionality defined by Specialized Needs Annexes; our goal is to increase uniformity among implementations by defining standard ways of providing the functionality.

23.c We recommend that the validation procedures allow implementations to validate the core language, plus any set of the Specialized Needs Annexes. We recommend that implementations *not* be allowed to validate a portion of one of the Specialized Needs Annexes, although implementations can, of course, provide unvalidated support for such portions. We have designed the Specialized Needs Annexes assuming that this recommendation is followed. Thus, our decisions about what to include and what not to include in those annexes are based on the assumption that each annex is validated in an ‘‘all-or-nothing’’ manner.

23.d An implementation may, of course, support extensions that are different from (but possibly related to) those defined by one of the Specialized Needs Annexes. We recommend that, where appropriate, implementations do this by adding library units that are children of existing language-defined library packages.

23.e An implementation should not provide extensions that conflict with those defined in the Specialized Needs Annexes, in the following sense: Suppose an implementation supports a certain error-free program that uses only functionality defined in the core and in the Specialized Needs Annexes. The implementation should ensure that that program will still be error free in some possible full implementation of all of the Specialized Needs Annexes, and that the semantics of the program will not change. For example, an implementation should not provide a package with the same name as one defined in one of the Specialized Needs Annexes, but that behaves differently, *even if that implementation does not claim conformance to that Annex*.

23.f Note that the Specialized Needs Annexes do not conflict with each other; it is the intent that a single implementation can conform to all of them.

24 Each section is divided into clauses and subclauses that have a common structure. Each section, clause, and subclause first introduces its subject. After the introductory text, text is labeled with the following headings:

Language Design Principles

These are not rules of the language, but guiding principles or goals used in defining the rules of the language. In some cases, the goal is only partially met; such cases are explained. 24.a

This is not part of the definition of the language, and does not appear in the RM9X. 24.b

Syntax

{*syntax (under Syntax heading)*} {*grammar (under Syntax heading)*} {*context free grammar (under Syntax heading)*} {*BNF (Backus-Naur Form) (under Syntax heading)*} {*Backus-Naur Form (BNF) (under Syntax heading)*} Syntax rules (indented). 25

Name Resolution Rules

{*name resolution rules*} {*overloading rules*} {*resolution rules*} Compile-time rules that are used in name resolution, including overload resolution. 26

Discussion: These rules are observed at compile time. (We say ''observed'' rather than ''checked,'' because these rules are not individually checked. They are really just part of the Legality Rules in Section 8 that require exactly one interpretation of each constituent of a complete context.) The only rules used in overload resolution are the Syntax Rules and the Name Resolution Rules. 26.a

When dealing with non-overloadable declarations it sometimes makes no semantic difference whether a given rule is a Name Resolution Rule or a Legality Rule, and it is sometimes difficult to decide which it should be. We generally make a given rule a Name Resolution Rule only if it has to be. For example, ''The name, if any, in a raise_statement shall be the name of an exception.'' is under ''Legality Rules.'' 26.b

Legality Rules

{*legality rules*} {*compile-time error*} {*error (compile-time)*} Rules that are enforced at compile time. {*legal (construct)*} {*illegal (construct)*} A construct is *legal* if it obeys all of the Legality Rules. 27

Discussion: These rules are not used in overload resolution. 27.a

Note that run-time errors are always attached to exceptions; for example, it is not ''illegal'' to divide by zero, it just raises an exception. 27.b

Static Semantics

{*static semantics*} {*compile-time semantics*} A definition of the compile-time effect of each construct. 28

Discussion: The most important compile-time effects represent the effects on the symbol table associated with declarations (implicit or explicit). In addition, we use this heading as a bit of a grab bag for equivalences, package specifications, etc. For example, this is where we put statements like so-and-so is equivalent to such-and-such. (We ought to try to really mean it when we say such things!) Similarly, statements about magically-generated implicit declarations go here. These rules are generally written as statements of fact about the semantics, rather than as a you-shall-do-such-and-such sort of thing. 28.a

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*post-compilation error*} {*post-compilation rules*} {*link-time error: see post-compilation error*} {*error (link-time)*} Rules that are enforced before running a partition. {*legal (partition)*} {*illegal (partition)*} A partition is legal if its compilation units are legal and it obeys all of the Post-Compilation Rules. 29

Discussion: It is not specified exactly when these rules are checked, so long as they are checked for any given partition before that partition starts running. An implementation may choose to check some such rules at compile time, and reject compilation_units accordingly. Alternatively, an implementation may check such rules when the partition is created (usually known as ''link time''), or when the partition is mapped to a particular piece of hardware (but before the partition starts running). 29.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*dynamic semantics*} {*run-time semantics*} {*run-time error*} {*error (run-time)*} A definition of the run-time effect of each construct. 30

Discussion: This heading describes what happens at run time. Run-time checks, which raise exceptions upon failure, are described here. Each item that involves a run-time check is marked with the name of the check — these are the same check names that are used in a pragma Suppress. Principle: Every check should have a name, usable in a pragma Suppress. 30.a

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

31 {*bounded error*} {*bounded error*} Situations that result in bounded (run-time) errors (see 1.1.5).

31.a **Discussion:** The ‘‘bounds’’ of each such error are described here — that is, we characterize the set of all possible behaviors that can result from a bounded error occurring at run time.

Erroneous Execution

32 {*erroneous execution*} {*erroneous execution*} Situations that result in erroneous execution (see 1.1.5).

Implementation Requirements

33 {*implementation requirements*} Additional requirements for conforming implementations.

33.a **Discussion:** ...as opposed to rules imposed on the programmer. An example might be, ‘‘The smallest representable duration, Duration’Small, shall not be greater than twenty milliseconds.’’

33.b It’s really just an issue of how the rule is worded. We could write the same rule as ‘‘The smallest representable duration is an implementation-defined value less than or equal to 20 milliseconds’’ and then it would be under ‘‘Static Semantics.’’

Documentation Requirements

34 {*documentation requirements*} {*documentation requirements*} Documentation requirements for conforming implementations.

34.a **Discussion:** These requirements are beyond those that are implicitly specified by the phrase ‘‘implementation defined’’. The latter require documentation as well, but we don’t repeat these cases under this heading. Usually this heading is used for when the description of the documentation requirement is longer and does not correspond directly to one, narrow normative sentence.

Metrics

35 {*metrics*} {*metrics*} Metrics that are specified for the time/space properties of the execution of certain language constructs.

Implementation Permissions

36 {*implementation permissions*} Additional permissions given to the implementer.

36.a **Discussion:** For example, ‘‘The implementation is allowed to impose further restrictions on the record aggregates allowed in code statements.’’ When there are restrictions on the permission, those restrictions are given here also. For example, ‘‘An implementation is allowed to restrict the kinds of subprograms that are allowed to be main subprograms. However, it shall support at least parameterless procedures.’’ — we don’t split this up between here and ‘‘Implementation Requirements.’’

Implementation Advice

37 {*implementation advice*} {*advice*} Optional advice given to the implementer. The word ‘‘should’’ is used to indicate that the advice is a recommendation, not a requirement. It is implementation defined whether or not a given recommendation is obeyed.

37.a **Implementation defined:** Whether or not each recommendation given in Implementation Advice is followed.

37.b **Discussion:** The advice generally shows the intended implementation, but the implementer is free to ignore it. The implementer is the sole arbiter of whether or not the advice has been obeyed, if not, whether the reason is a good one, and whether the required documentation is sufficient. {*ACVC* [Ada Compiler Validation Capability]} {*Ada Compiler Validation Capability* [ACVC]} It would be wrong for the ACVC to enforce any of this advice.

37.c For example, ‘‘Whenever possible, the implementation should choose a value no greater than fifty microseconds for the smallest representable duration, Duration’Small.’’

37.d We use this heading, for example, when the rule is so low level or implementation-oriented as to be untestable. We also use this heading when we wish to encourage implementations to behave in a certain way in most cases, but we do not wish to burden implementations by requiring the behavior.

NOTES
1 {*notes*} Notes emphasize consequences of the rules described in the (sub)clause or elsewhere. This material is informative. 38

Examples

Examples illustrate the possible forms of the constructs described. This material is informative. 39

Discussion: 39.a

The next three headings list all language changes between Ada 83 and Ada 9X. Language changes are any change that changes the set of text strings that are legal Ada programs, or changes the meaning of any legal program. Wording changes, such as changes in terminology, are not language changes. Each language change falls into one of the following three categories:

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} This heading lists all of the upward inconsistencies between Ada 83 and Ada 9X. Upward inconsistencies are situations in which a legal Ada 83 program is a legal Ada 9X program with different semantics. This type of upward incompatibility is the worst type for users, so we only tolerate it in rare situations. 39.b

(Note that the semantics of a program is not the same thing as the behavior of the program. Because of Ada's indeterminacy, the ''semantics'' of a given feature describes a *set* of behaviors that can be exhibited by that feature. The set can contain more than one allowed behavior. Thus, when we ask whether the semantics changes, we are asking whether the set of behaviors changes.) 39.c

This is not part of the definition of the language, and does not appear in the RM9X. 39.d

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} This heading lists all of the upward incompatibilities between Ada 83 and Ada 9X, except for the ones listed under ''Inconsistencies With Ada 83'' above. These are the situations in which a legal Ada 83 program is illegal in Ada 9X. We do not generally consider a change that turns erroneous execution into an exception, or into an illegality, to be upwardly incompatible. 39.e

This is not part of the definition of the language, and does not appear in the RM9X. 39.f

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} {*extensions to Ada 83*} This heading is used to list all upward compatible language changes; that is, language extensions. These are the situations in which a legal Ada 9X program is not a legal Ada 83 program. The vast majority of language changes fall into this category. 39.g

This is not part of the definition of the language, and does not appear in the RM9X. 39.h

As explained above, the next heading does not represent any language change: 39.i

Wording Changes From Ada 83

{*wording changes from Ada 83*} This heading lists some of the non-semantic changes between RM83 and the RM9X. It is incomplete; we have not attempted to list all wording changes, but only the ''interesting'' ones. 39.j

This is not part of the definition of the language, and does not appear in the RM9X. 39.k

1.1.3 Conformity of an Implementation with the Standard

Implementation Requirements

{*conformance (of an implementation with the Standard)*} A conforming implementation shall: 1

Discussion: {*implementation*} The *implementation* is the software and hardware that implements the language. This includes compiler, linker, operating system, hardware, etc. 1.a

We first define what it means to ''conform'' in general — basically, the implementation has to properly implement the normative rules given throughout the standard. Then we define what it means to conform to a Specialized Needs Annex — the implementation must support the core features plus the features of that Annex. Finally, we define what it means to ''conform to the Standard'' — this requires support for the core language, and allows partial (but not conflicting) support for the Specialized Needs Annexes. 1.b

- Translate and correctly execute legal programs written in Ada, provided that they are not so large as to exceed the capacity of the implementation;
- Identify all programs or program units that are so large as to exceed the capacity of the implementation (or raise an appropriate exception at run time);

Implementation defined: Capacity limitations of the implementation.

- Identify all programs or program units that contain errors whose detection is required by this International Standard;

Discussion: Note that we no longer use the term ''rejection'' of programs or program units. We require that programs or program units with errors or that exceed some capacity limit be ''identified.'' The way in which errors or capacity problems are reported is not specified.

An implementation is allowed to use standard error-recovery techniques. We do not disallow such techniques from being used across compilation_unit or compilation boundaries.

See also the Implementation Requirements of 10.2, which disallow the execution of illegal partitions.

- Supply all language-defined library units required by this International Standard;

Implementation Note: An implementation cannot add to or modify the visible part of a language-defined library unit, except where such permission is explicitly granted, unless such modifications are semantically neutral with respect to the client compilation units of the library unit. An implementation defines the contents of the private part and body of language-defined library units.

An implementation can add with_clauses and use_clauses, since these modifications are semantically neutral to clients. (The implementation might need with_clauses in order to implement the private part, for example.) Similarly, an implementation can add a private part even in cases where a private part is not shown in the standard. Explicit declarations can be provided implicitly or by renaming, provided the changes are semantically neutral.

{*italics (implementation-defined)*} Wherever in the standard the text of a language-defined library unit contains an italicized phrase starting with ''*implementation-defined*'', the implementation's version will replace that phrase with some implementation-defined text that is syntactically legal at that place, and follows any other applicable rules.

Note that modifications are permitted, even if there are other tools in the environment that can detect the changes (such as a program library browser), so long as the modifications make no difference with respect to the static or dynamic semantics of the resulting programs, as defined by the standard.

- Contain no variations except those explicitly permitted by this International Standard, or those that are impossible or impractical to avoid given the implementation's execution environment;

Implementation defined: Variations from the standard that are impractical to avoid given the implementation's execution environment.

Reason: The ''impossible or impractical'' wording comes from AI-325. It takes some judgement and common sense to interpret this. Restricting compilation units to less than 4 lines is probably unreasonable, whereas restricting them to less than 4 billion lines is probably reasonable (at least given today's technology). We do not know exactly where to draw the line, so we have to make the rule vague.

- Specify all such variations in the manner prescribed by this International Standard.

{*external effect (of the execution of an Ada program)*} {*effect (external)*} The *external effect* of the execution of an Ada program is defined in terms of its interactions with its external environment. {*external interaction*} The following are defined as *external interactions*:

- Any interaction with an external file (see A.7);
- The execution of certain code_statements (see 13.8); which code_statements cause external interactions is implementation defined.

Implementation defined: Which code_statements cause external interactions.

- Any call on an imported subprogram (see Annex B), including any parameters passed to it; 11
- Any result returned or exception propagated from a main subprogram (see 10.2) or an exported subprogram (see Annex B) to an external caller; 12

  Discussion: By ''result returned'' we mean to include function results and values returned in [**in**] **out** parameters. 12.a

- [Any read or update of an atomic or volatile object (see C.6);] 13
- The values of imported and exported objects (see Annex B) at the time of any other interaction with the external environment. 14

  To be honest: Also other uses of imported and exported entities, as defined by the implementation, if the implementation supports such pragmas. 14.a

A conforming implementation of this International Standard shall produce for the execution of a given Ada program a set of interactions with the external environment whose order and timing are consistent with the definitions and requirements of this International Standard for the semantics of the given program. 15

Ramification: There is no need to produce any of the ''internal effects'' defined for the semantics of the program — all of these can be optimized away — so long as an appropriate sequence of external interactions is produced. 15.a

Discussion: See also 11.6 which specifies various liberties associated with optimizations in the presence of language-defined checks, that could change the external effects that might be produced. These alternative external effects are still consistent with the standard, since 11.6 is part of the standard. 15.b

Note also that we only require ''*an appropriate* sequence of external interactions'' rather than ''*the same* sequence...'' An optimizer may cause a different sequence of external interactions to be produced than would be produced without the optimizer, so long as the new sequence still satisfies the requirements of the standard. For example, optimization might affect the relative rate of progress of two concurrent tasks, thereby altering the order in which two external interactions occur. 15.c

Note that RM83 explicitly mentions the case of an ''exact effect'' of a program, but since so few programs have their effects defined that exactly, we don't even mention this ''special'' case. In particular, almost any program that uses floating point or tasking has to have some level of inexactness in the specification of its effects. And if one includes aspects of the timing of the external interactions in the external effect of the program (as is appropriate for a real-time language), no ''exact effect'' can be specified. For example, if two external interactions initiated by a single task are separated by a ''**delay** 1.0;'' then the language rules imply that the two external interactions have to be separated in time by at least one second, as defined by the clock associated with the delay_relative_statement. This in turn implies that the time at which an external interaction occurs is part of the characterization of the external interaction, at least in some cases, again making the specification of the required ''exact effect'' impractical. 15.d

An implementation that conforms to this Standard shall support each capability required by the core language as specified. In addition, an implementation that conforms to this Standard may conform to one or more Specialized Needs Annexes (or to none). Conformance to a Specialized Needs Annex means that each capability required by the Annex is provided as specified. 16

Discussion: The last sentence defines what it means to say that an implementation conforms to a Specialized Needs Annex, namely, only by supporting all capabilities required by the Annex. 16.a

An implementation conforming to this International Standard may provide additional attributes, library units, and pragmas. However, it shall not provide any attribute, library unit, or pragma having the same name as an attribute, library unit, or pragma (respectively) specified in a Specialized Needs Annex unless the provided construct is either as specified in the Specialized Needs Annex or is more limited in capability than that required by the Annex. A program that attempts to use an unsupported capability of an Annex shall either be identified by the implementation before run time or shall raise an exception at run time. 17

Discussion: The last sentence of the preceding paragraph defines what an implementation is allowed to do when it does not "conform" to a Specialized Needs Annex. In particular, the sentence forbids implementations from providing 17.a

a construct with the same name as a corresponding construct in a Specialized Needs Annex but with a different syntax (e.g., an extended syntax) or quite different semantics. The phrase concerning "more limited in capability" is intended to give permission to provide a partial implementation, such as not implementing a subprogram in a package or having a restriction not permitted by an implementation that conforms to the Annex. For example, a partial implementation of the package Ada.Decimal might have Decimal.Max_Decimal_Digits as 15 (rather than the required 18). This allows a partial implementation to grow to a fully conforming implementation.

17.b A restricted implementation might be restricted by not providing some subprograms specified in one of the packages defined by an Annex. In this case, a program that tries to use the missing subprogram will usually fail to compile. Alternatively, the implementation might declare the subprogram as abstract, so it cannot be called. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Alternatively, a subprogram body might be implemented just to raise Program_Error. The advantage of this approach is that a program to be run under a fully conforming Annex implementation can be checked syntactically and semantically under an implementation that only partially supports the Annex. Finally, an implementation might provide a package declaration without the corresponding body, so that programs can be compiled, but partitions cannot be built and executed.

17.c To ensure against wrong answers being delivered by a partial implementation, implementers are required to raise an exception when a program attempts to use an unsupported capability and this can be detected only at run time. For example, a partial implementation of Ada.Decimal might require the length of the Currency string to be 1, and hence, an exception would be raised if a subprogram were called in the package Edited_Output with a length greater than 1.

Documentation Requirements

18 {*documentation requirements*} {*implementation defined*} {*unspecified*} {*specified (not!)*} {*implementation-dependent: see unspecified*} {*documentation (required of an implementation)*} Certain aspects of the semantics are defined to be either *implementation defined* or *unspecified*. In such cases, the set of possible effects is specified, and the implementation may choose any effect in the set. Implementations shall document their behavior in implementation-defined situations, but documentation is not required for unspecified situations. The implementation-defined characteristics are summarized in Annex M.

18.a **Discussion:** We used to use the term ‘‘implementation dependent’’ instead of ‘‘unspecified’’. However, that sounded too much like ‘‘implementation defined’’. Furthermore, the term ‘‘unspecified’’ is used in the ANSI C and POSIX standards for this purpose, so that is another advantage. We also use ‘‘not specified’’ and ‘‘not specified by the language’’ as synonyms for ‘‘unspecified.’’ The documentation requirement is the only difference between implementation defined and unspecified.

18.b Note that the ‘‘set of possible effects’’ can be ‘‘all imaginable effects’’, as is the case with erroneous execution.

19 The implementation may choose to document implementation-defined behavior either by documenting what happens in general, or by providing some mechanism for the user to determine what happens in a particular case.

19.a **Discussion:** For example, if the standard says that library unit elaboration order is implementation defined, the implementation might describe (in its user’s manual) the algorithm it uses to determine the elaboration order. On the other hand, the implementation might provide a command that produces a description of the elaboration order for a partition upon request from the user. It is also acceptable to provide cross references to existing documentation (for example, a hardware manual), where appropriate.

19.b Note that dependence of a program on implementation-defined or unspecified functionality is not defined to be an error; it might cause the program to be less portable, however.

Implementation Advice

20 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If an implementation detects the use of an unsupported Specialized Needs Annex feature at run time, it should raise Program_Error if feasible.

20.a **Reason:** The reason we don’t *require* Program_Error is that there are situations where other exceptions might make sense. For example, if the Real Time Systems Annex requires that the range of System.Priority include at least 30 values, an implementation could conform to the Standard (but not to the Annex) if it supported only 12 values. Since the rules of the language require Constraint_Error to be raised for out-of-range values, we cannot require Program_Error to be raised instead.

21 If an implementation wishes to provide implementation-defined extensions to the functionality of a language-defined library unit, it should normally do so by adding children to the library unit.

Implementation Note: If an implementation has support code (''run-time system code'') that is needed for the execution of user-defined code, it can put that support code in child packages of System. Otherwise, it has to use some trick to avoid polluting the user's namespace. It is important that such tricks not be available to user-defined code (not in the standard mode, at least) — that would defeat the purpose. 21.a

NOTES
2 The above requirements imply that an implementation conforming to this Standard may support some of the capabilities required by a Specialized Needs Annex without supporting all required capabilities. 22

Discussion: A conforming implementation can partially support a Specialized Needs Annex. Such an implementation does not conform to the Annex, but it does conform to the Standard. 22.a

1.1.4 Method of Description and Syntax Notation

The form of an Ada program is described by means of a context-free syntax together with context-dependent requirements expressed by narrative rules. 1

The meaning of Ada programs is described by means of narrative rules defining both the effects of each construct and the composition rules for constructs. 2

{*syntax (notation)*} {*grammar (notation)*} {*context free grammar (notation)*} {*BNF (Backus-Naur Form) (notation)*} {*Backus-Naur Form (BNF) (notation)*} The context-free syntax of the language is described using a simple variant of Backus-Naur Form. In particular: 3

- Lower case words in a sans-serif font, some containing embedded underlines, are used to denote syntactic categories, for example: 4

  case_statement 5

- Boldface words are used to denote reserved words, for example: 6

  array 7

- Square brackets enclose optional items. Thus the two following rules are equivalent. 8

  return_statement ::= **return** [expression]; 9
  return_statement ::= **return**; | **return** expression;

- Curly brackets enclose a repeated item. The item may appear zero or more times; the repetitions occur from left to right as with an equivalent left-recursive rule. Thus the two following rules are equivalent. 10

  term ::= factor {multiplying_operator factor} 11
  term ::= factor | term multiplying_operator factor

- A vertical line separates alternative items unless it occurs immediately after an opening curly bracket, in which case it stands for itself: 12

  constraint ::= scalar_constraint | composite_constraint 13
  discrete_choice_list ::= discrete_choice {| discrete_choice}

- {*italics (syntax rules)*} If the name of any syntactic category starts with an italicized part, it is equivalent to the category name without the italicized part. The italicized part is intended to convey some semantic information. For example *subtype*_name and *task*_name are both equivalent to name alone. 14

  Discussion: {*LR(1)*} {*ambiguous grammar*} {*grammar (resolution of ambiguity)*} {*grammar (ambiguous)*} The grammar given in the RM9X is not LR(1). In fact, it is ambiguous; the ambiguities are resolved by the overload resolution rules (see 8.6). 14.a

  We often use ''if'' to mean ''if and only if'' in definitions. For example, if we define ''photogenic'' by saying, ''A type is photogenic if it has the following properties...,'' we mean that a type is photogenic if *and only if* it has those properties. It is usually clear from the context, and adding the ''and only if'' seems too cumbersome. 14.b

14.c When we say, for example, ‘‘a declarative_item of a declarative_part’’, we are talking about a declarative_item immediately within that declarative_part. When we say ‘‘a declarative_item in, or within, a declarative_part’’, we are talking about a declarative_item anywhere in the declarative_part, possibly deeply nested within other declarative_parts. (This notation doesn’t work very well for names, since the name ‘‘of’’ something also has another meaning.)

14.d When we refer to the name of a language-defined entity (for example, Duration), we mean the language-defined entity even in programs where the declaration of the language-defined entity is hidden by another declaration. For example, when we say that the expected type for the expression of a delay_relative_statement is Duration, we mean the language-defined type Duration that is declared in Standard, not some type Duration the user might have declared.

15 {*syntactic category*} A *syntactic category* is a nonterminal in the grammar defined in BNF under ‘‘Syntax.’’ Names of syntactic categories are set in a different font, like_this.

16 {*Construct*} [*glossary entry*]A *construct* is a piece of text (explicit or implicit) that is an instance of a syntactic category defined under ‘‘Syntax.’’

16.a **Ramification:** For example, an expression is a construct. A declaration is a construct, whereas the thing declared by a declaration is an ‘‘entity.’’

16.b **Discussion:** ‘‘Explicit’’ and ‘‘implicit’’ don’t mean exactly what you might think they mean: The text of an instance of a generic is considered explicit, even though it does not appear explicitly (in the non-technical sense) in the program text, and even though its meaning is not defined entirely in terms of that text.

17 {*constituent (of a construct)*} A *constituent* of a construct is the construct itself, or any construct appearing within it.

18 {*arbitrary order*} Whenever the run-time semantics defines certain actions to happen in an *arbitrary order*, this means that the implementation shall arrange for these actions to occur in a way that is equivalent to some sequential order, following the rules that result from that sequential order. When evaluations are defined to happen in an arbitrary order, with conversion of the results to some subtypes, or with some run-time checks, the evaluations, conversions, and checks may be arbitrarily interspersed, so long as each expression is evaluated before converting or checking its value. {*type conversion* [arbitrary order]} {*conversion* [arbitrary order]} [Note that the effect of a program can depend on the order chosen by the implementation. This can happen, for example, if two actual parameters of a given call have side effects.]

18.a **Discussion:** Programs will be more portable if their external effect does not depend on the particular order chosen by an implementation.

18.b **Ramification:** Additional reordering permissions are given in 11.6, ‘‘Exceptions and Optimization’’.

18.c There is no requirement that the implementation always choose the same order in a given kind of situation. In fact, the implementation is allowed to choose a different order for two different executions of the same construct. However, we expect most implementations will behave in a relatively predictable manner in most situations.

18.d **Reason:** The ‘‘sequential order’’ wording is intended to allow the programmer to rely on ‘‘benign’’ side effects. For example, if F is a function that returns a unique integer by incrementing some global and returning the result, a call such as P(F, F) is OK if the programmer cares only that the two results of F are unique; the two calls of F cannot be executed in parallel, unless the compiler can prove that parallel execution is equivalent to some sequential order.

NOTES

19 3 The syntax rules describing structured constructs are presented in a form that corresponds to the recommended paragraphing. For example, an if_statement is defined as:

20
```
if_statement ::=
     if condition then
        sequence_of_statements
    {elsif condition then
        sequence_of_statements}
    [else
        sequence_of_statements]
     end if;
```

4 The line breaks and indentation in the syntax rules indicate the recommended line breaks and indentation in the corresponding constructs. The preferred places for other line breaks are after semicolons. 21

1.1.5 Classification of Errors

Implementation Requirements

The language definition classifies errors into several different categories: 1

- Errors that are required to be detected prior to run time by every Ada implementation; 2

  These errors correspond to any violation of a rule given in this International Standard, other than those listed below. In particular, violation of any rule that uses the terms shall, allowed, permitted, legal, or illegal belongs to this category. Any program that contains such an error is not a legal Ada program; on the other hand, the fact that a program is legal does not mean, *per se*, that the program is free from other forms of error. 3

  {*compile-time error*} {*error (compile-time)*} {*link-time error: see post-compilation error*} {*error (link-time)*} The rules are further classified as either compile time rules, or post compilation rules, depending on whether a violation has to be detected at the time a compilation unit is submitted to the compiler, or may be postponed until the time a compilation unit is incorporated into a partition of a program. 4

  Ramification: See, for example, 10.1.3, ''Subunits of Compilation Units'', for some errors that are detected only after compilation. Implementations are allowed, but not required, to detect post compilation rules at compile time when possible. 4.a

- Errors that are required to be detected at run time by the execution of an Ada program; 5

  {*run-time error*} {*error (run-time)*} The corresponding error situations are associated with the names of the predefined exceptions. Every Ada compiler is required to generate code that raises the corresponding exception if such an error situation arises during program execution. [If such an error situation is certain to arise in every execution of a construct, then an implementation is allowed (although not required) to report this fact at compilation time.] 6

- Bounded errors; 7

  The language rules define certain kinds of errors that need not be detected either prior to or during run time, but if not detected, the range of possible effects shall be bounded. {*bounded error*} The errors of this category are called *bounded errors*. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The possible effects of a given bounded error are specified for each such error, but in any case one possible effect of a bounded error is the raising of the exception Program_Error. 8

- Erroneous execution. 9

  {*erroneous execution*} In addition to bounded errors, the language rules define certain kinds of errors as leading to *erroneous execution*. Like bounded errors, the implementation need not detect such errors either prior to or during run time. Unlike bounded errors, there is no language-specified bound on the possible effect of erroneous execution; the effect is in general not predictable. 10

  Ramification: Executions are erroneous, not programs or parts of programs. Once something erroneous happens, the execution of the entire program is erroneous from that point on, and potentially before given possible reorderings permitted by 11.6 and elsewhere. We cannot limit it to just one partition, since partitions are not required to live in separate address spaces. (But implementations are encouraged to limit it as much as possible.) 10.a

  Suppose a program contains a pair of things that will be executed ''in an arbitrary order.'' It is possible that one order will result in something sensible, whereas the other order will result in erroneous execution. If the implementation happens to choose the first order, then the execution is not erroneous. This may seem odd, but it is not harmful. 10.b

10.c Saying that something is erroneous is semantically equivalent to saying that the behavior is unspecified. However, ''erroneous'' has a slightly more disapproving flavor.

Implementation Permissions

11 [{*mode of operation (nonstandard)*} {*nonstandard mode*} An implementation may provide *nonstandard modes* of operation. Typically these modes would be selected by a pragma or by a command line switch when the compiler is invoked. When operating in a nonstandard mode, the implementation may reject compilation_units that do not conform to additional requirements associated with the mode, such as an excessive number of warnings or violation of coding style guidelines. Similarly, in a nonstandard mode, the implementation may apply special optimizations or alternative algorithms that are only meaningful for programs that satisfy certain criteria specified by the implementation. {*mode of operation (standard)*} {*standard mode*} In any case, an implementation shall support a *standard* mode that conforms to the requirements of this International Standard; in particular, in the standard mode, all legal compilation_units shall be accepted.]

11.a **Discussion:** These permissions are designed to authorize explicitly the support for alternative modes. Of course, nothing we say can prevent them anyway, but this (redundant) paragraph is designed to indicate that such alternative modes are in some sense ''approved'' and even encouraged where they serve the specialized needs of a given user community, so long as the standard mode, designed to foster maximum portability, is always available.

Implementation Advice

12 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If an implementation detects a bounded error or erroneous execution, it should raise Program_Error.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

12.a Some situations that are erroneous in Ada 83 are no longer errors at all. For example, depending on the parameter passing mechanism when unspecified is possibly non-portable, but not erroneous.

12.b Other situations that are erroneous in Ada 83 are changed to be bounded errors. In particular, evaluating an uninitialized scalar variable is a bounded error. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The possible results are to raise Program_Error (as always), or to produce a machine-representable value (which might not be in the subtype of the variable). {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Violating a Range_Check or Overflow_Check raises Constraint_Error, even if the value came from an uninitialized variable. This means that optimizers can no longer ''assume'' that all variables are initialized within their subtype's range. Violating a check that is suppressed remains erroneous.

12.c The ''incorrect order dependences'' category of errors is removed. All such situations are simply considered potential non-portabilities. This category was removed due to the difficulty of defining what it means for two executions to have a ''different effect.'' For example, if a function with a side-effect is called twice in a single expression, it is not in principle possible for the compiler to decide whether the correctness of the resulting program depends on the order of execution of the two function calls. A compile time warning might be appropriate, but raising of Program_Error at run time would not be.

1.2 Normative References

1 {*references*} {*bibliography*} The following standards contain provisions which, through reference in this text, constitute provisions of this International Standard. At the time of publication, the editions indicated were valid. All standards are subject to revision, and parties to agreements based on this International Standard are encouraged to investigate the possibility of applying the most recent editions of the standards indicated below. Members of IEC and ISO maintain registers of currently valid International Standards.

2 {*ISO/IEC 646:1991*} {*646:1991, ISO/IEC standard*} {*character set standard (7-bit)*} ISO/IEC 646:1991, *Information technology — ISO 7-bit coded character set for information interchange.*

{*ISO/IEC 1539:1991*} {*1539:1991, ISO/IEC standard*} {*FORTRAN standard*} ISO/IEC 1539:1991, *Information technology — Programming languages — FORTRAN.* 3

{*ISO 1989:1985*} {*1989:1985, ISO standard*} {*COBOL standard*} ISO 1989:1985, *Programming languages — COBOL.* 4

{*ISO/IEC 6429:1992*} {*6429:1992, ISO/IEC standard*} {*character set standard (control functions)*} ISO/IEC 6429:1992, *Information technology — Control functions for coded graphic character sets.* 5

{*ISO/IEC 8859-1:1987*} {*8859-1:1987, ISO/IEC standard*} {*character set standard (8-bit)*} ISO/IEC 8859-1:1987, *Information processing — 8-bit single-byte coded character sets — Part 1: Latin alphabet No. 1.* 6

{*ISO/IEC 9899:1990*} {*9899:1990, ISO/IEC standard*} {*C standard*} ISO/IEC 9899:1990, *Programming languages — C.* 7

{*ISO/IEC 10646-1:1993*} {*10646-1:1993, ISO/IEC standard*} {*character set standard (16-bit)*} ISO/IEC 10646-1:1993, *Information technology — Universal Multiple-Octet Coded Character Set (UCS) — Part 1: Architecture and Basic Multilingual Plane.* 8

Discussion: {*POSIX*} POSIX, *Portable Operating System Interface (POSIX) — Part 1: System Application Program Interface (API) [C Language]*, The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, 1990. 8.a

1.3 Definitions

{*italics (terms introduced or defined)*} Terms are defined throughout this International Standard, indicated by *italic* type. Terms explicitly defined in this International Standard are not to be presumed to refer implicitly to similar terms defined elsewhere. Terms not defined in this International Standard are to be interpreted according to the *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*. Informal descriptions of some terms are also given in Annex N, ''Glossary''. 1

Discussion: The index contains an entry for every defined term. 1.a

Glossary entry: Each term defined in Annex N is marked like this. 1.b

Discussion: Here are some AARM-only definitions: {*Ada Rapporteur Group (ARG)*} {*ARG*} The Ada Rapporteur Group (ARG) interprets the RM83. {*Ada Issue (AI)*} {*AI*} An Ada Issue (AI) is a numbered ruling from the ARG. {*Ada Commentary Integration Document (ACID)*} {*ACID*} The Ada Commentary Integration Document (ACID) is an edition of RM83 in which clearly marked insertions and deletions indicate the effect of integrating the approved AIs. {*Uniformity Rapporteur Group (URG)*} {*URG*} The Uniformity Rapporteur Group (URG) issues recommendations intended to increase uniformity across Ada implementations. {*Uniformity Issue (UI)*} {*UI*} A Uniformity Issue (UI) is a numbered recommendation from the URG. 1.c

Section 2: Lexical Elements

[The text of a program consists of the texts of one or more compilations. The text of a compilation is a sequence of lexical elements, each composed of characters; the rules of composition are given in this section. Pragmas, which provide certain information for the compiler, are also described in this section.] 1

2.1 Character Set

{*character set*} The only characters allowed outside of comments are the graphic_characters and format_effectors. 1

Ramification: Any character, including an other_control_function, is allowed in a comment. 1.a

Note that this rule doesn't really have much force, since the implementation can represent characters in the source in any way it sees fit. For example, an implementation could simply define that what seems to be a non-graphic, non-format-effector character is actually a representation of the space character. 1.b

Discussion: It is our intent to follow the terminology of ISO 10646 BMP where appropriate, and to remain compatible with the character classifications defined in A.3, ''Character Handling''. Note that our definition for graphic_character is more inclusive than that of ISO 10646-1. 1.c

Syntax

character ::= graphic_character | format_effector | other_control_function 2

graphic_character ::= identifier_letter | digit | space_character | special_character 3

Static Semantics

The character repertoire for the text of an Ada program consists of the collection of characters called the Basic Multilingual Plane (BMP) of the ISO 10646 Universal Multiple-Octet Coded Character Set, plus a set of format_effectors and, in comments only, a set of other_control_functions; the coded representation for these characters is implementation defined [(it need not be a representation defined within ISO-10646-1)]. 4

Implementation defined: The coded representation for the text of an Ada program. 4.a

The description of the language definition in this International Standard uses the graphic symbols defined for Row 00: Basic Latin and Row 00: Latin-1 Supplement of the ISO 10646 BMP; these correspond to the graphic symbols of ISO 8859-1 (Latin-1); no graphic symbols are used in this International Standard for characters outside of Row 00 of the BMP. The actual set of graphic symbols used by an implementation for the visual representation of the text of an Ada program is not specified. {*unspecified* [partial]} 5

The categories of characters are defined as follows: 6

{*identifier_letter*} identifier_letter 7

upper_case_identifier_letter | lower_case_identifier_letter

Discussion: We use identifier_letter instead of simply letter because ISO 10646 BMP includes many other characters that would generally be considered "letters." 7.a

{*upper_case_identifier_letter*} upper_case_identifier_letter 8

Any character of Row 00 of ISO 10646 BMP whose name begins ''Latin Capital Letter''.

{*lower_case_identifier_letter*} lower_case_identifier_letter 9

Any character of Row 00 of ISO 10646 BMP whose name begins ''Latin Small Letter''.

9.a **To be honest:** The above rules do not include the ligatures Æ and æ. However, the intent is to include these characters as identifier letters. This problem was pointed out by a comment from the Netherlands.

10 {*digit*} digit — One of the characters 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, or 9.

11 {*space_character*} space_character
The character of ISO 10646 BMP named ‘‘Space’’.

12 {*special_character*} special_character
Any character of the ISO 10646 BMP that is not reserved for a control function, and is not the space_character, an identifier_letter, or a digit.

12.a **Ramification:** Note that the no break space and soft hyphen are special_characters, and therefore graphic_characters. They are not the same characters as space and hyphen-minus.

13 {*format_effector*} format_effector
The control functions of ISO 6429 called character tabulation (HT), line tabulation (VT), carriage return (CR), line feed (LF), and form feed (FF). {*control character: see also format_effector*}

14 {*other_control_function*} other_control_function
Any control function, other than a format_effector, that is allowed in a comment; the set of other_control_functions allowed in comments is implementation defined.

14.a **Implementation defined:** The control functions allowed in comments.

{*control character: see also other_control_function*}

15 {*names of* special_characters} {*special_character (names)*} The following names are used when referring to certain special_characters: {*quotation mark*} {*number sign*} {*ampersand*} {*apostrophe*} {*tick*} {*left parenthesis*} {*right parenthesis*} {*asterisk*} {*multiply*} {*plus sign*} {*comma*} {*hyphen-minus*} {*minus*} {*full stop*} {*dot*} {*point*} {*solidus*} {*divide*} {*colon*} {*semicolon*} {*less-than sign*} {*equals sign*} {*greater-than sign*} {*low line*} {*underline*} {*vertical line*} {*left square bracket*} {*right square bracket*} {*left curly bracket*} {*right curly bracket*}

15.a **Discussion:** These are the ones that play a special role in the syntax of Ada 9X, or in the syntax rules; we don’t bother to define names for all characters. The first name given is the name from ISO 10646-1; the subsequent names, if any, are those used within the standard, depending on context.

symbol	name	symbol	name
"	quotation mark	:	colon
#	number sign	;	semicolon
&	ampersand	<	less-than sign
’	apostrophe, tick	=	equals sign
(	left parenthesis	>	greater-than sign
)	right parenthesis	_	low line, underline
*	asterisk, multiply	|	vertical line
+	plus sign	[	left square bracket
,	comma	]	right square bracket
–	hyphen-minus, minus	{	left curly bracket
.	full stop, dot, point	}	right curly bracket
/	solidus, divide		

Implementation Permissions

16 In a nonstandard mode, the implementation may support a different character repertoire[; in particular, the set of characters that are considered identifier_letters can be extended or changed to conform to local conventions].

16.a **Ramification:** If an implementation supports other character sets, it defines which characters fall into each category, such as ‘‘identifier_letter,’’ and what the corresponding rules of this section are, such as which characters are allowed in the text of a program.

NOTES

1 Every code position of ISO 10646 BMP that is not reserved for a control function is defined to be a graphic_character by this International Standard. This includes all code positions other than 0000 - 001F, 007F - 009F, and FFFE - FFFF. 17

2 The language does not specify the source representation of programs. 18

Discussion: Any source representation is valid so long as the implementer can produce an (information-preserving) algorithm for translating both directions between the representation and the standard character set. (For example, every character in the standard character set has to be representable, even if the output devices attached to a given computer cannot print all of those characters properly.) From a practical point of view, every implementer will have to provide some way to process the ACVC. It is the intent to allow source representations, such as parse trees, that are not even linear sequences of characters. It is also the intent to allow different fonts: reserved words might be in bold face, and that should be irrelevant to the semantics. 18.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Ada 9X allows 8-bit and 16-bit characters, as well as implementation-specified character sets. 18.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rules in this clause are modified to remove the emphasis on basic characters vs. others. (In this day and age, there is no need to point out that you can write programs without using (for example) lower case letters.) In particular, character (representing all characters usable outside comments) is added, and basic_graphic_character, other_special_character, and basic_character are removed. Special_character is expanded to include Ada 83's other_special_character, as well as new 8-bit characters not present in Ada 83. Note that the term ''basic letter'' is used in A.3, ''Character Handling'' to refer to letters without diacritical marks. 18.c

Character names now come from ISO 10646. 18.d

We use identifier_letter rather than letter since ISO 10646 BMP includes many "letters' that are not permitted in identifiers (in the standard mode). 18.e

2.2 Lexical Elements, Separators, and Delimiters

Static Semantics

{*text of a program*} The text of a program consists of the texts of one or more compilations. {*lexical element*} {*token: see lexical element*} The text of each compilation is a sequence of separate *lexical elements*. Each lexical element is formed from a sequence of characters, and is either a delimiter, an identifier, a reserved word, a numeric_literal, a character_literal, a string_literal, or a comment. The meaning of a program depends only on the particular sequences of lexical elements that form its compilations, excluding comments. 1

The text of a compilation is divided into {*line*} *lines*. {*end of a line*} In general, the representation for an end of line is implementation defined. 2

Implementation defined: The representation for an end of line. 2.a

However, a sequence of one or more format_effectors other than character tabulation (HT) signifies at least one end of line.

{*separator*} [In some cases an explicit *separator* is required to separate adjacent lexical elements.] A separator is any of a space character, a format effector, or the end of a line, as follows: 3

Discussion: It might be useful to define ''white space'' and use it here. 3.a

- A space character is a separator except within a comment, a string_literal, or a character_literal. 4
- Character tabulation (HT) is a separator except within a comment. 5
- The end of a line is always a separator. 6

7 One or more separators are allowed between any two adjacent lexical elements, before the first of each compilation, or after the last. At least one separator is required between an identifier, a reserved word, or a numeric_literal and an adjacent identifier, reserved word, or numeric_literal.

8 {*delimiter*} A *delimiter* is either one of the following special characters

9 & ' ( ) * + , - . / : ; < = > |

10 {*compound delimiter*} or one of the following *compound delimiters* each composed of two adjacent special characters

11 => .. ** := /= >= <= << >> <>

12 Each of the special characters listed for single character delimiters is a single delimiter except if this character is used as a character of a compound delimiter, or as a character of a comment, string_literal, character_literal, or numeric_literal.

13 The following names are used when referring to compound delimiters:

14

delimiter	name
=>	arrow
..	double dot
**	double star, exponentiate
:=	assignment (pronounced: ''becomes'')
/=	inequality (pronounced: ''not equal'')
>=	greater than or equal
<=	less than or equal
<<	left label bracket
>>	right label bracket
<>	box

Implementation Requirements

15 An implementation shall support lines of at least 200 characters in length, not counting any characters used to signify the end of a line. An implementation shall support lexical elements of at least 200 characters in length. The maximum supported line length and lexical element length are implementation defined.

15.a **Implementation defined:** Maximum supported line length and lexical element length.

15.b **Discussion:** From URG recommendation.

2.3 Identifiers

1 Identifiers are used as names.

Syntax

2 identifier ::=
identifier_letter {[underline] letter_or_digit}

3 letter_or_digit ::= identifier_letter | digit

4 An identifier shall not be a reserved word.

Static Semantics

All characters of an identifier are significant, including any underline character. {*case insensitive*} Identifiers differing only in the use of corresponding upper and lower case letters are considered the same.

Discussion: Two of the letters of ISO 8859-1 appear only as lower case, "sharp s" and "y with diaeresis." These two letters have no corresponding upper case letter (in particular, they are not considered equivalent to one another).

Implementation Permissions

In a nonstandard mode, an implementation may support other upper/lower case equivalence rules for identifiers[, to accommodate local conventions].

Examples

Examples of identifiers:

Count X Get_Symbol Ethelyn Marion

Snobol_4 X1 Page_Count Store_Next_Item

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We no longer include reserved words as identifiers. This is not a language change. In Ada 83, identifier included reserved words. However, this complicated several other rules (for example, regarding implementation-defined attributes and pragmas, etc.). We now explicitly allow certain reserved words for attribute designators, to make up for the loss.

Ramification: Because syntax rules are relevant to overload resolution, it means that if it looks like a reserved word, it is not an identifier. As a side effect, implementations cannot use reserved words as implementation-defined attributes or pragma names.

2.4 Numeric Literals

{*literal (numeric)*} There are two kinds of numeric_literals, *real literals* and *integer literals*. {*real literal*} A real literal is a numeric_literal that includes a point; {*integer literal*} an integer literal is a numeric_literal without a point.

Syntax

numeric_literal ::= decimal_literal | based_literal

NOTES
3 The type of an integer literal is *universal_integer*. The type of a real literal is *universal_real*.

2.4.1 Decimal Literals

{*literal (decimal)*} A decimal_literal is a numeric_literal in the conventional decimal notation (that is, the base is ten).

Syntax

decimal_literal ::= numeral [.numeral] [exponent]

numeral ::= digit {[underline] digit}

exponent ::= E [+] numeral | E – numeral

An exponent for an integer literal shall not have a minus sign.

Ramification: Although this rule is in this subclause, it applies also to the next subclause.

Static Semantics

6 An underline character in a numeric_literal does not affect its meaning. The letter E of an exponent can be written either in lower case or in upper case, with the same meaning.

6.a **Ramification:** Although these rules are in this subclause, they apply also to the next subclause.

7 An exponent indicates the power of ten by which the value of the decimal_literal without the exponent is to be multiplied to obtain the value of the decimal_literal with the exponent.

Examples

8 *Examples of decimal literals:*

9

```
12      0     1E6   123_456        -- integer literals
12.0    0.0   0.456 3.14159_26     -- real literals
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

9.a We have changed the syntactic category name integer to be numeral. We got this idea from ACID. It avoids the confusion between this and integers. (Other places don't offer similar confusions. For example, a string_literal is different from a string.)

2.4.2 Based Literals

1 [{*literal (based)*} {*binary literal*} {*base 2 literal*} {*binary (literal)*} {*octal literal*} {*base 8 literal*} {*octal (literal)*} {*hexadecimal literal*} {*base 16 literal*} {*hexadecimal (literal)*} A based_literal is a numeric_literal expressed in a form that specifies the base explicitly.]

Syntax

2 based_literal ::=
  base # based_numeral [.based_numeral] # [exponent]

3 base ::= numeral

4 based_numeral ::=
  extended_digit {[underline] extended_digit}

5 extended_digit ::= digit | A | B | C | D | E | F

Legality Rules

6 {*base*} The *base* (the numeric value of the decimal numeral preceding the first #) shall be at least two and at most sixteen. The extended_digits A through F represent the digits ten through fifteen, respectively. The value of each extended_digit of a based_literal shall be less than the base.

Static Semantics

7 The conventional meaning of based notation is assumed. An exponent indicates the power of the base by which the value of the based_literal without the exponent is to be multiplied to obtain the value of the based_literal with the exponent. The base and the exponent, if any, are in decimal notation.

8 The extended_digits A through F can be written either in lower case or in upper case, with the same meaning.

Examples

9 *Examples of based literals:*

10

```
2#1111_1111#  16#FF#     016#0ff#      -- integer literals of value 255
16#E#E1       2#1110_0000#             -- integer literals of value 224
16#F.FF#E+2   2#1.1111_1111_1110#E11   -- real literals of value 4095.0
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

10.a The rule about which letters are allowed is now encoded in BNF, as suggested by Mike Woodger. This is clearly more readable.

2.5 Character Literals

1 [A character_literal is formed by enclosing a graphic character between two apostrophe characters.]

Syntax

2 character_literal ::= ’graphic_character’

NOTES

3 4 A character_literal is an enumeration literal of a character type. See 3.5.2.

Examples

4 *Examples of character literals:*

5 ’A’ ’*’ ’’’ ’ ’

Wording Changes From Ada 83

5.a The definitions of the values of literals are in Sections 3 and 4, rather than here, since it requires knowledge of types.

2.6 String Literals

1 [A string_literal is formed by a sequence of graphic characters (possibly none) enclosed between two quotation marks used as string brackets. They are used to represent operator_symbols (see 6.1), values of a string type (see 4.2), and array subaggregates (see 4.3.3). {*quoted string: see string_literal*}]

Syntax

2 string_literal ::= "{string_element}"

3 string_element ::= "" | *non_quotation_mark*_graphic_character

4 A string_element is either a pair of quotation marks (""), or a single graphic_character other than a quotation mark.

Static Semantics

5 {*sequence of characters (of a* string_literal*)*} The *sequence of characters* of a string_literal is formed from the sequence of string_elements between the bracketing quotation marks, in the given order, with a string_element that is "" becoming a single quotation mark in the sequence of characters, and any other string_element being reproduced in the sequence.

6 {*null string literal*} A *null string literal* is a string_literal with no string_elements between the quotation marks.

NOTES

7 5 An end of line cannot appear in a string_literal.

Examples

8 *Examples of string literals:*

9

```
"Message of the day:"

""                    --  a null string literal
" "   "A"   """"      --  three string literals of length 1

"Characters such as $, %, and } are allowed in string literals"
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

9.a The wording has been changed to be strictly lexical. No mention is made of string or character values, since string_literals are also used to represent operator_symbols, which don't have a defined value.

9.b The syntax is described differently.

2.7 Comments

1 A comment starts with two adjacent hyphens and extends up to the end of the line.

Syntax

2 comment ::= --{*non_end_of_line*_character}

3 A comment may appear on any line of a program.

Static Semantics

4 The presence or absence of comments has no influence on whether a program is legal or illegal. Furthermore, comments do not influence the meaning of a program; their sole purpose is the enlightenment of the human reader.

Examples

5 *Examples of comments:*

6

```
--  the last sentence above echoes the Algol 68 report

end;  --  processing of Line is complete

--  a long comment may be split onto
--  two or more consecutive lines

----------------  the first two hyphens start the comment
```

2.8 Pragmas

1 {*Pragma*} [*glossary entry*]A pragma is a compiler directive. There are language-defined pragmas that give instructions for optimization, listing control, etc. An implementation may support additional (implementation-defined) pragmas.

Syntax

2 pragma ::=
  pragma identifier [(pragma_argument_association {, pragma_argument_association})];

pragma_argument_association ::= 3
[*pragma_argument*_identifier =>] name
| [*pragma_argument*_identifier =>] expression

In a pragma, any pragma_argument_associations without a *pragma_argument*_identifier shall precede any associations with a *pragma_argument*_identifier. 4

Pragmas are only allowed at the following places in a program: 5

- After a semicolon delimiter, but not within a formal_part or discriminant_part. 6
- At any place where the syntax rules allow a construct defined by a syntactic category whose name ends with "declaration", "statement", "clause", or "alternative", or one of the syntactic categories variant or exception_handler; but not in place of such a construct. Also at any place where a compilation_unit would be allowed. 7

Additional syntax rules and placement restrictions exist for specific pragmas. 8

Discussion: The above rule is written in text, rather than in BNF; the syntactic category pragma is not used in any BNF syntax rule. 8.a

Ramification: A pragma is allowed where a generic_formal_parameter_declaration is allowed. 8.b

{*name (of a* pragma*)*} {*pragma name*} The *name* of a pragma is the identifier following the reserved word **pragma**. {*pragma argument*} {*argument of a pragma*} The name or expression of a pragma_argument_association is a *pragma argument*. 9

{*identifier specific to a pragma*} {*pragma, identifier specific to*} An *identifier specific to a pragma* is an identifier that is used in a pragma argument with special meaning for that pragma. 10

To be honest: Whenever the syntax rules for a given pragma allow "identifier" as an argument of the pragma, that identifier is an identifier specific to that pragma. 10.a

Static Semantics

If an implementation does not recognize the name of a pragma, then it has no effect on the semantics of the program. Inside such a pragma, the only rules that apply are the Syntax Rules. 11

To be honest: This rule takes precedence over any other rules that imply otherwise. 11.a

Ramification: Note well: this rule applies only to pragmas whose name is not recognized. If anything else is wrong with a pragma (at compile time), the pragma is illegal. This is true whether the pragma is language defined or implementation defined. 11.b

For example, an expression in an unrecognized pragma does not cause freezing, even though the rules in 13.14, ''Freezing Rules'' say it does; the above rule overrules those other rules. On the other hand, an expression in a recognized pragma causes freezing, even if this makes something illegal. 11.c

For another example, an expression that would be ambiguous is not illegal if it is inside an unrecognized pragma. 11.d

Note, however, that implementations have to recognize **pragma** Inline(Foo) and freeze things accordingly, even if they choose to never do inlining. 11.e

Obviously, the contradiction needs to be resolved one way or the other. The reasons for resolving it this way are: The implementation is simple — the compiler can just ignore the pragma altogether. The interpretation of constructs appearing inside implementation-defined pragmas is implementation defined. For example: ''**pragma** Mumble(X);''. If the current implementation has never heard of Mumble, then it doesn't know whether X is a name, an expression, or an identifier specific to the pragma Mumble. 11.f

To be honest: The syntax of individual pragmas overrides the general syntax for pragma. 11.g

Ramification: Thus, an identifier specific to a pragma is not a name, syntactically; if it were, the visibility rules would be invoked, which is not what we want. 11.h

11.i This also implies that named associations do not allow one to give the arguments in an arbitrary order — the order given in the syntax rule for each individual pragma must be obeyed. However, it is generally possible to leave out earlier arguments when later ones are given; for example, this is allowed by the syntax rule for pragma Import (see B.1, ''Interfacing Pragmas''). As for subprogram calls, positional notation precedes named notation.

11.j Note that Ada 83 had no pragmas for which the order of named associations mattered, since there was never more than one argument that allowed named associations.

11.k **To be honest:** The interpretation of the arguments of implementation-defined pragmas is implementation defined. However, the syntax rules have to be obeyed.

Dynamic Semantics

12 {*execution* [pragma]} {*elaboration* [pragma]} Any pragma that appears at the place of an executable construct is executed. Unless otherwise specified for a particular pragma, this execution consists of the evaluation of each evaluable pragma argument in an arbitrary order.

12.a **Ramification:** For a pragma that appears at the place of an elaborable construct, execution is elaboration.

12.b An identifier specific to a pragma is neither a name nor an expression — such identifiers are not evaluated (unless an implementation defines them to be evaluated in the case of an implementation-defined pragma).

12.c The ''unless otherwise specified'' part allows us (and implementations) to make exceptions, so a pragma can contain an expression that is not evaluated. Note that pragmas in type_definitions may contain expressions that depend on discriminants.

12.d When we wish to define a pragma with some run-time effect, we usually make sure that it appears in an executable context; otherwise, special rules are needed to define the run-time effect and when it happens.

Implementation Requirements

13 The implementation shall give a warning message for an unrecognized pragma name.

13.a **Ramification:** An implementation is also allowed to have modes in which a warning message is suppressed, or in which the presence of an unrecognized pragma is a compile-time error.

Implementation Permissions

14 An implementation may provide implementation-defined pragmas; the name of an implementation-defined pragma shall differ from those of the language-defined pragmas.

14.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined pragmas.

14.b **Ramification:** The semantics of implementation-defined pragmas, and any associated rules (such as restrictions on their placement or arguments), are, of course, implementation defined. Implementation-defined pragmas may have run-time effects.

15 An implementation may ignore an unrecognized pragma even if it violates some of the Syntax Rules, if detecting the syntax error is too complex.

15.a **Reason:** Many compilers use extra post-parsing checks to enforce the syntax rules, since the Ada syntax rules are not LR(k) (for any k). (The grammar is ambiguous, in fact.) This paragraph allows them to ignore an unrecognized pragma, without having to perform such post-parsing checks.

Implementation Advice

16 Normally, implementation-defined pragmas should have no semantic effect for error-free programs; that is, if the implementation-defined pragmas are removed from a working program, the program should still be legal, and should still have the same semantics.

16.a **Ramification:** Note that ''semantics'' is not the same as ''effect;'' as explained in 1.1.3, the semantics defines a set of possible effects.

16.b Note that adding a pragma to a program might cause an error (either at compile time or at run time). On the other hand, if the language-specified semantics for a feature are in part implementation defined, it makes sense to support pragmas that control the feature, and that have real semantics; thus, this paragraph is merely a recommendation.

Normally, an implementation should not define pragmas that can make an illegal program legal, except as follows: 17

- A pragma used to complete a declaration, such as a pragma Import; 18
- A pragma used to configure the environment by adding, removing, or replacing library_items. 19

Ramification: For example, it is OK to support Interface, System_Name, Storage_Unit, and Memory_Size pragmas for upward compatibility reasons, even though all of these pragmas can make an illegal program legal. (The latter three can affect legality in a rather subtle way: They affect the value of named numbers in System, and can therefore affect the legality in cases where static expressions are required.) 19.a

On the other hand, adding implementation-defined pragmas to a legal program can make it illegal. For example, a common kind of implementation-defined pragma is one that promises some property that allows more efficient code to be generated. If the promise is a lie, it is best if the user gets an error message. 19.b

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} In Ada 83, ''bad'' pragmas are ignored. In Ada 9X, they are illegal, except in the case where the name of the pragma itself is not recognized by the implementation. 19.c

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Implementation-defined pragmas may affect the legality of a program. 19.d

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Implementation-defined pragmas may affect the run-time semantics of the program. This was always true in Ada 83 (since it was not explicitly forbidden by RM83), but it was not clear, because there was no definition of ''executing'' or ''elaborating'' a pragma. 19.e

Syntax

The forms of List, Page, and Optimize pragmas are as follows: 20

pragma List(identifier); 21

pragma Page; 22

pragma Optimize(identifier); 23

[Other pragmas are defined throughout this International Standard, and are summarized in Annex L.] 24

Ramification: The language-defined pragmas are supported by every implementation, although ''supporting'' some of them (for example, Inline) requires nothing more than checking the arguments, since they act only as advice to the implementation. 24.a

Static Semantics

A pragma List takes one of the identifiers On or Off as the single argument. This pragma is allowed anywhere a pragma is allowed. It specifies that listing of the compilation is to be continued or suspended until a List pragma with the opposite argument is given within the same compilation. The pragma itself is always listed if the compiler is producing a listing. 25

A pragma Page is allowed anywhere a pragma is allowed. It specifies that the program text which follows the pragma should start on a new page (if the compiler is currently producing a listing). 26

A pragma Optimize takes one of the identifiers Time, Space, or Off as the single argument. This pragma is allowed anywhere a pragma is allowed, and it applies until the end of the immediately enclosing declarative region, or for a pragma at the place of a compilation_unit, to the end of the compilation. It gives advice to the implementation as to whether time or space is the primary optimization criterion, or that optional optimizations should be turned off. [It is implementation defined how this advice is followed.] 27

Implementation defined: Effect of pragma Optimize. 27.a

Discussion: For example, a compiler might use Time vs. Space to control whether generic instantiations are implemented with a macro-expansion model, versus a shared-generic-body model. 27.b

27.c We don't define what constitutes an ''optimization'' — in fact, it cannot be formally defined in the context of Ada. One compiler might call something an optional optimization, whereas another compiler might consider that same thing to be a normal part of code generation. Thus, the programmer cannot rely on this pragma having any particular portable effect on the generated code. Some compilers might even ignore the pragma altogether.

Examples

28 *Examples of pragmas:*

29
```
pragma List(Off); -- turn off listing generation
pragma Optimize(Off); -- turn off optional optimizations
pragma Inline(Set_Mask); -- generate code for Set_Mask inline
pragma Suppress(Range_Check, On => Index); -- turn off range checking on Index
```

Extensions to Ada 83

29.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} The Optimize pragma now allows the identifier Off to request that normal optimization be turned off.

29.b An Optimize pragma may appear anywhere pragmas are allowed.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

29.c We now describe the pragmas Page, List, and Optimize here, to act as examples, and to remove the normative material from Annex L, ''Language-Defined Pragmas'', so it can be entirely an informative annex.

2.9 Reserved Words

Syntax

1

{*reserved word*} The following are the *reserved words* (ignoring upper/lower case distinctions): 2

Discussion: Reserved words have special meaning in the syntax. In addition, certain reserved words are used as attribute names. 2.a

The syntactic category identifier no longer allows reserved words. We have added the few reserved words that are legal explicitly to the syntax for attribute_reference. Allowing identifier to include reserved words has been a source of confusion for some users, and differs from the way they are treated in the C and Pascal language definitions. 2.b

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

NOTES

6 The reserved words appear in **lower case boldface** in this International Standard, except when used in the designator of an attribute (see 4.1.4). Lower case boldface is also used for a reserved word in a string_literal used as an operator_symbol. This is merely a convention — programs may be written in whatever typeface is desired and available. 3

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The following words are not reserved in Ada 83, but are reserved in Ada 9X: **abstract**, **aliased**, **protected**, **requeue**, **tagged**, **until**. 3.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The clause entitled ‘‘Allowed Replacements of Characters’’ has been moved to Annex J, ‘‘Obsolescent Features’’. 3.b

Section 3: Declarations and Types

This section describes the types in the language and the rules for declaring constants, variables, and named numbers. 1

3.1 Declarations

{*entity* [partial]} The language defines several kinds of named *entities* that are declared by declarations. {*name* [partial]} The entity's *name* is defined by the declaration, usually by a defining_identifier, but sometimes by a defining_character_literal or defining_operator_symbol. 1

There are several forms of declaration. A basic_declaration is a form of declaration defined as follows. 2

Syntax

basic_declaration ::= 3

type_declaration | subtype_declaration
| object_declaration | number_declaration
| subprogram_declaration | abstract_subprogram_declaration
| package_declaration | renaming_declaration
| exception_declaration | generic_declaration
| generic_instantiation

defining_identifier ::= identifier 4

Static Semantics

{*Declaration*} [*glossary entry*]A *declaration* is a language construct that associates a name with (a view of) an entity. {*explicit declaration*} {*implicit declaration*} A declaration may appear explicitly in the program text (an *explicit* declaration), or may be supposed to occur at a given place in the text as a consequence of the semantics of another construct (an *implicit* declaration). 5

Discussion: An implicit declaration generally declares a predefined or inherited operation associated with the definition of a type. This term is used primarily when allowing explicit declarations to override implicit declarations, as part of a type declaration. 5.a

{*declaration*} Each of the following is defined to be a declaration: any basic_declaration; an enumeration_literal_specification; a discriminant_specification; a component_declaration; a loop_parameter_specification; a parameter_specification; a subprogram_body; an entry_declaration; an entry_index_specification; a choice_parameter_specification; a generic_formal_parameter_declaration. 6

Discussion: This list (when basic_declaration is expanded out) contains all syntactic categories that end in "_declaration" or "_specification", except for program unit _specifications. Moreover, it contains subprogram_body. A subprogram_body is a declaration, whether or not it completes a previous declaration. This is a bit strange, subprogram_body is not part of the syntax of basic_declaration or library_unit_declaration. A renaming-as-body is considered a declaration. An accept_statement is not considered a declaration. Completions are sometimes declarations, and sometimes not. 6.a

{*Definition*} [*glossary entry*]{*view*} All declarations contain a *definition* for a *view* of an entity. A view consists of an identification of the entity (the entity *of* the view), plus view-specific characteristics that affect the use of the entity through that view (such as mode of access to an object, formal parameter names and defaults for a subprogram, or visibility to components of a type). In most cases, a declaration also contains the definition for the entity itself (a renaming_declaration is an example of a declaration that does not define a new entity, but instead defines a view of an existing entity (see 8.5)). 7

Glossary entry: {*View*} (See Definition.) 7.a

7.b **Discussion:** Most declarations define a view (of some entity) whose view-specific characteristics are unchanging for the life of the view. However, subtypes are somewhat unusual in that they inherit characteristics from whatever view of their type is currently visible. Hence, a subtype is not a *view* of a type; it is more of an indirect reference. By contrast, a private type provides a single, unchanging (partial) view of its full type.

8 {*scope* [informal definition]} For each declaration, the language rules define a certain region of text called the *scope* of the declaration (see 8.2). Most declarations associate an identifier with a declared entity. Within its scope, and only there, there are places where it is possible to use the identifier to refer to the declaration, the view it defines, and the associated entity; these places are defined by the visibility rules (see 8.3). {*name (of (a view of) an entity)*} At such places the identifier is said to be a *name* of the entity (the direct_name or selector_name); {*denote* [informal definition]} the name is said to *denote* the declaration, the view, and the associated entity (see 8.6). {*declare*} The declaration is said to *declare* the name, the view, and in most cases, the entity itself.

9 As an alternative to an identifier, an enumeration literal can be declared with a character_literal as its name (see 3.5.1), and a function can be declared with an operator_symbol as its name (see 6.1).

10 {*defining name*} The syntax rules use the terms defining_identifier, defining_character_literal, and defining_operator_symbol for the defining occurrence of a name; these are collectively called *defining names*. {*usage name*} The terms direct_name and selector_name are used for usage occurrences of identifiers, character_literals, and operator_symbols. These are collectively called *usage names*.

10.a **To be honest:** The terms identifier, character_literal, and operator_symbol are used directly in contexts where the normal visibility rules do not apply (such as the identifier that appears after the **end** of a task_body). Analogous conventions apply to the use of designator, which is the collective term for identifier and operator_symbol.

Dynamic Semantics

11 {*execution* [distributed]} The process by which a construct achieves its run-time effect is called *execution*. {*elaboration* [distributed]} {*evaluation* [distributed]} This process is also called *elaboration* for declarations and *evaluation* for expressions. One of the terms execution, elaboration, or evaluation is defined by this International Standard for each construct that has a run-time effect.

11.a **Glossary entry:** {*Execution*} The process by which a construct achieves its run-time effect is called *execution*. {*elaboration*} {*evaluation*} Execution of a declaration is also called *elaboration*. Execution of an expression is also called *evaluation*.

11.b **To be honest:** The term elaboration is also used for the execution of certain constructs that are not declarations, and the term evaluation is used for the execution of certain constructs that are not expressions. For example, subtype_indications are elaborated, and ranges are evaluated.

11.c For bodies, execution and elaboration are both explicitly defined. When we refer specifically to the execution of a body, we mean the explicit definition of execution for that kind of body, not its elaboration.

11.d **Discussion:** Technically, "the execution of a declaration" and "the elaboration of a declaration" are synonymous. We use the term "elaboration" of a construct when we know the construct is elaborable. When we are talking about more arbitrary constructs, we use the term "execution". For example, we use the term "erroneous execution", to refer to any erroneous execution, including erroneous elaboration or evaluation.

11.e When we explicitly define evaluation or elaboration for a construct, we are implicitly defining execution of that construct.

11.f We also use the term "execution" for things like statements, which are executable, but neither elaborable nor evaluable. We considered using the term "execution" only for non-elaborable, non-evaluable constructs, and defining the term "action" to mean what we have defined "execution" to mean. We rejected this idea because we thought three terms that mean the same thing was enough — four would be overkill. Thus, the term "action" is used only informally in the standard (except where it is defined as part of a larger term, such as "protected action").

11.g **To be honest:** {*elaborable*} A construct is *elaborable* if elaboration is defined for it. {*evaluable*} A construct is *evaluable* if evaluation is defined for it. {*executable*} A construct is *executable* if execution is defined for it.

Discussion: Don't confuse ''elaborable'' with ''preelaborable'' (defined in 10.2.1). 11.h

Evaluation of an evaluable construct produces a result that is either a value, a denotation, or a range. The following are evaluable: expression; name prefix; range; entry_list_iterator; and possibly discrete_range. The last one is curious — RM83 uses the term ''evaluation of a discrete_range,'' but never defines it. One might presume that the evaluation of a discrete_range consists of the evaluation of the range or the subtype_indication, depending on what it is. But subtype_indications are not evaluated; they are elaborated. 11.i

Intuitively, an *executable* construct is one that has a defined run-time effect (which may be null). Since execution includes elaboration and evaluation as special cases, all elaborable and all evaluable constructs are also executable. Hence, most constructs in Ada are executable. An important exception is that the constructs inside a generic unit are not executable directly, but rather are used as a template for (generally) executable constructs in instances of the generic. 11.j

NOTES

1 {*declare*} At compile time, the declaration of an entity *declares* the entity. {*create*} At run time, the elaboration of the declaration *creates* the entity. 12

Ramification: Syntactic categories for declarations are named either *entity*_declaration (if they include a trailing semicolon) or *entity*_specification (if not). 12.a

{*entity*} The various kinds of named entities that can be declared are as follows: an object (including components and parameters), a named number, a type (the name always refers to its first subtype), a subtype, a subprogram (including enumeration literals and operators), a single entry, an entry family, a package, a protected or task unit (which corresponds to either a type or a single object), an exception, a generic unit, a label, and the name of a statement. 12.b

Identifiers are also associated with names of pragmas, arguments to pragmas, and with attributes, but these are not user-definable. 12.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for defining_identifier is new. It is used for the defining occurrence of an identifier. Usage occurrences use the direct_name or selector_name syntactic categories. Each occurrence of an identifier (or simple_name), character_literal, or operator_symbol in the Ada 83 syntax rules is handled as follows in Ada 9X: 12.d

- It becomes a defining_identifier, defining_character_literal, or defining_operator_symbol (or some syntactic category composed of these), to indicate a defining occurrence; 12.e
- It becomes a direct_name, in usage occurrences where the usage is required (in Section 8) to be directly visible; 12.f
- It becomes a selector_name, in usage occurrences where the usage is required (in Section 8) to be visible but not necessarily directly visible; 12.g
- It remains an identifier, character_literal, or operator_symbol, in cases where the visibility rules do not apply (such as the designator that appears after the **end** of a subprogram_body). 12.h

For declarations that come in ''two parts'' (program unit declaration plus body, private or incomplete type plus full type, deferred constant plus full constant), we consider both to be defining occurrences. Thus, for example, the syntax for package_body uses defining_identifier after the reserved word **body**, as opposed to direct_name. 12.i

The defining occurrence of a statement name is in its implicit declaration, not where it appears in the program text. Considering the statement name itself to be the defining occurrence would complicate the visibility rules. 12.j

The phrase ''visible by selection'' is not used in Ada 9X. It is subsumed by simply ''visible'' and the Name Resolution Rules for selector_names. 12.k

(Note that in Ada 9X, a declaration is visible at all places where one could have used a selector_name, not just at places where a selector_name was actually used. Thus, the places where a declaration is directly visible are a subset of the places where it is visible. See Section 8 for details.) 12.l

We use the term ''declaration'' to cover _specifications that declare (views of) objects, such as parameter_specifications. In Ada 83, these are referred to as a ''form of declaration,'' but it is not entirely clear that they are considered simply ''declarations.'' 12.m

RM83 contains an incomplete definition of "elaborated" in this clause: it defines "elaborated" for declarations, declarative_parts, declarative_items and compilation_units, but "elaboration" is defined elsewhere for various other constructs. To make matters worse, Ada 9X has a different set of elaborable constructs. Instead of correcting the list, it is more maintainable to refer to the term "elaborable," which is defined in a distributed manner. 12.n

12.o RM83 uses the term ‘‘has no other effect’’ to describe an elaboration that doesn’t do anything except change the state from not-yet-elaborated to elaborated. This was a confusing wording, because the answer to ‘‘other than what?’’ was to be found many pages away. In Ada 9X, we change this wording to ‘‘has no effect’’ (for things that truly do nothing at run time), and ‘‘has no effect other than to establish that so-and-so can happen without failing the Elaboration_Check’’ (for things where it matters).

12.p We make it clearer that the term "execution" covers elaboration and evaluation as special cases. This was implied in RM83. For example, "erroneous execution" can include any execution, and RM83-9.4(3) has, "The task designated by any other task object depends on the master whose execution creates the task object;" the elaboration of the master’s declarative_part is doing the task creation.

3.2 Types and Subtypes

Static Semantics

1 {*type*} {*primitive operation* [partial]} A *type* is characterized by a set of values, and a set of *primitive operations* which implement the fundamental aspects of its semantics. {*object* [partial]} An *object* of a given type is a run-time entity that contains (has) a value of the type.

1.a **Glossary entry:** {*Type*} Each object has a type. A *type* has an associated set of values, and a set of *primitive operations* which implement the fundamental aspects of its semantics. Types are grouped into *classes*. The types of a given class share a set of primitive operations. {*closed under derivation*} Classes are closed under derivation; that is, if a type is in a class, then all of its derivatives are in that class.

1.b **Glossary entry:** {*Subtype*} A subtype is a type together with a constraint, which constrains the values of the subtype to satisfy a certain condition. The values of a subtype are a subset of the values of its type.

2 {*class (of types)*} Types are grouped into *classes* of types, reflecting the similarity of their values and primitive operations. {*language-defined class (of types)*} There exist several *language-defined classes* of types (see NOTES below). {*elementary type*} *Elementary* types are those whose values are logically indivisible; {*composite type*} {*component*} *composite* types are those whose values are composed of *component* values. {*aggregate: see also composite type*}

2.a **Glossary entry:** {*Class*} {*closed under derivation*} A class is a set of types that is closed under derivation, which means that if a given type is in the class, then all types derived from that type are also in the class. The set of types of a class share common properties, such as their primitive operations.

2.b **Glossary entry:** {*Elementary type*} An elementary type does not have components.

2.c **Glossary entry:** {*Composite type*} A composite type has components.

2.d **Glossary entry:** {*Scalar type*} A scalar type is either a discrete type or a real type.

2.e **Glossary entry:** {*Access type*} An access type has values that designate aliased objects. Access types correspond to ‘‘pointer types’’ or ‘‘reference types’’ in some other languages.

2.f **Glossary entry:** {*Discrete type*} A discrete type is either an integer type or an enumeration type. Discrete types may be used, for example, in case_statements and as array indices.

2.g **Glossary entry:** {*Real type*} A real type has values that are approximations of the real numbers. Floating point and fixed point types are real types.

2.h **Glossary entry:** {*Integer type*} Integer types comprise the signed integer types and the modular types. A signed integer type has a base range that includes both positive and negative numbers, and has operations that may raise an exception when the result is outside the base range. A modular type has a base range whose lower bound is zero, and has operations with ‘‘wraparound’’ semantics. Modular types subsume what are called ‘‘unsigned types’’ in some other languages.

2.i **Glossary entry:** {*Enumeration type*} An enumeration type is defined by an enumeration of its values, which may be named by identifiers or character literals.

2.j **Glossary entry:** {*Character type*} A character type is an enumeration type whose values include characters.

2.k **Glossary entry:** {*Record type*} A record type is a composite type consisting of zero or more named components, possibly of different types.

Glossary entry: {*Record extension*} A record extension is a type that extends another type by adding additional components. 2.l

Glossary entry: {*Array type*} An array type is a composite type whose components are all of the same type. Components are selected by indexing. 2.m

Glossary entry: {*Task type*} A task type is a composite type whose values are tasks, which are active entities that may execute concurrently with other tasks. The top-level task of a partition is called the environment task. 2.n

Glossary entry: {*Protected type*} A protected type is a composite type whose components are protected from concurrent access by multiple tasks. 2.o

Glossary entry: {*Private type*} A private type is a partial view of a type whose full view is hidden from its clients. 2.p

Glossary entry: {*Private extension*} A private extension is like a record extension, except that the components of the extension part are hidden from its clients. 2.q

{*scalar type*} The elementary types are the *scalar* types (*discrete* and *real*) and the *access* types (whose values provide access to objects or subprograms). {*discrete type*} {*enumeration type*} Discrete types are either *integer* types or are defined by enumeration of their values (*enumeration* types). {*real type*} Real types are either *floating point* types or *fixed point* types. 3

The composite types are the *record* types, *record extensions*, *array* types, *task* types, and *protected* types. {*private type*} {*private extension*} A *private* type or *private extension* represents a partial view (see 7.3) of a type, providing support for data abstraction. A partial view is a composite type. 4

To be honest: The set of all record types do not form a class (because tagged record types can have private extensions), though the set of untagged record types do. In any case, what record types had in common in Ada 83 (component selection) is now a property of the composite class, since all composite types (other than array types) can have discriminants. Similarly, the set of all private types do not form a class (because tagged private types can have record extensions), though the set of untagged private types do. Nevertheless, the set of untagged private types is not particularly ''interesting'' — more interesting is the set of all nonlimited types, since that is what a generic formal (nonlimited) private type matches. 4.a

{*discriminant*} Certain composite types (and partial views thereof) have special components called *discriminants* whose values affect the presence, constraints, or initialization of other components. Discriminants can be thought of as parameters of the type. 5

{*subcomponent*} The term *subcomponent* is used in this International Standard in place of the term component to indicate either a component, or a component of another subcomponent. Where other subcomponents are excluded, the term component is used instead. {*part (of an object or value)*} Similarly, a *part* of an object or value is used to mean the whole object or value, or any set of its subcomponents. 6

Discussion: The definition of ''part'' here is designed to simplify rules elsewhere. By design, the intuitive meaning of ''part'' will convey the correct result to the casual reader, while this formalistic definition will answer the concern of the compiler-writer. 6.a

We use the term ''part'' when talking about the parent part, ancestor part, or extension part of a type extension. In contexts such as these, the part might represent an empty set of subcomponents (e.g. in a null record extension, or a nonnull extension of a null record). We also use ''part'' when specifying rules such as those that apply to an object with a ''controlled part'' meaning that it applies if the object as a whole is controlled, or any subcomponent is. 6.b

{*constraint* [partial]} The set of possible values for an object of a given type can be subjected to a condition that is called a *constraint* {*null constraint*} (the case of a *null constraint* that specifies no restriction is also included)[; the rules for which values satisfy a given kind of constraint are given in 3.5 for range_constraints, 3.6.1 for index_constraints, and 3.7.1 for discriminant_constraints]. 7

{*subtype*} A *subtype* of a given type is a combination of the type, a constraint on values of the type, and certain attributes specific to the subtype. The given type is called the type *of* the subtype. Similarly, the 8

associated constraint is called the constraint *of* the subtype. The set of values of a subtype consists of the values of its type that satisfy its constraint. {*belong (to a subtype)*} Such values *belong* to the subtype.

8.a **Discussion:** We make a strong distinction between a type and its subtypes. In particular, a type is *not* a subtype of itself. There is no constraint associated with a type (not even a null one), and type-related attributes are distinct from subtype-specific attributes.

8.b **Discussion:** We no longer use the term "base type." All types were "base types" anyway in Ada 83, so the term was redundant, and occasionally confusing. In the RM9X we say simply "the type *of* the subtype" instead of "the base type of the subtype."

8.c **Ramification:** The value subset for a subtype might be empty, and need not be a proper subset.

8.d **To be honest:** Any name of a class of types (such as ‘‘discrete’’ or ‘‘real’’), or other category of types (such as ‘‘limited’’ or ‘‘incomplete’’) is also used to qualify its subtypes, as well as its objects, values, declarations, and definitions, such as an ‘‘integer type declaration’’ or an ‘‘integer value.’’ In addition, if a term such as ‘‘parent subtype’’ or ‘‘index subtype’’ is defined, then the corresponding term for the type of the subtype is ‘‘parent type’’ or ‘‘index type.’’

8.e **Discussion:** We use these corresponding terms without explicitly defining them, when the meaning is obvious.

9 {*constrained*} {*unconstrained*} {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A subtype is called an *unconstrained* subtype if its type has unknown discriminants, or if its type allows range, index, or discriminant constraints, but the subtype does not impose such a constraint; otherwise, the subtype is called a *constrained* subtype (since it has no unconstrained characteristics).

9.a **Discussion:** In an earlier version of Ada 9X, "constrained" meant "has a non-null constraint." However, we changed to this definition since we kept having to special case composite non-array/non-discriminated types. It also corresponds better to the (now obsolescent) attribute ’Constrained.

9.b For scalar types, ‘‘constrained’’ means ‘‘has a non-null constraint’’. For composite types, in implementation terms, ‘‘constrained’’ means that the size of all objects of the subtype is the same, assuming a typical implementation model.

9.c Class-wide subtypes are always unconstrained.

NOTES

10 2 Any set of types that is closed under derivation (see 3.4) can be called a ‘‘class’’ of types. However, only certain classes are used in the description of the rules of the language — generally those that have their own particular set of primitive operations (see 3.2.3), or that correspond to a set of types that are matched by a given kind of generic formal type (see 12.5). {*language-defined class* [partial]} The following are examples of ‘‘interesting’’ *language-defined classes*: elementary, scalar, discrete, enumeration, character, boolean, integer, signed integer, modular, real, floating point, fixed point, ordinary fixed point, decimal fixed point, numeric, access, access-to-object, access-to-subprogram, composite, array, string, (untagged) record, tagged, task, protected, nonlimited. Special syntax is provided to define types in each of these classes.

10.a **Discussion:** {*value*} A *value* is a run-time entity with a given type which can be assigned to an object of an appropriate subtype of the type. {*operation*} An *operation* is a program entity that operates on zero or more operands to produce an effect, or yield a result, or both.

10.b **Ramification:** Note that a type’s class depends on the place of the reference — a private type is composite outside and possibly elementary inside. It’s really the *view* that is elementary or composite. Note that although private types are composite, there are some properties that depend on the corresponding full view — for example, parameter passing modes, and the constraint checks that apply in various places.

10.c Not every property of types represents a class. For example, the set of all abstract types does not form a class, because this set is not closed under derivation.

10.d The set of limited types forms a class in the sense that it is closed under derivation, but the more interesting class, from the point of generic formal type matching, is the set of all types, limited and nonlimited, since that is what matches a generic formal ‘‘limited’’ private type. Note also that a limited type can ‘‘become nonlimited’’ under certain circumstances, which makes ‘‘limited’’ somewhat problematic as a class of types.

11 These language-defined classes are organized like this:

12

all types
  elementary
    scalar
      discrete
        enumeration
          character
          boolean
          other enumeration
        integer
          signed integer
          modular integer
      real
        floating point
        fixed point
          ordinary fixed point
          decimal fixed point
    access
      access-to-object
      access-to-subprogram
  composite
    array
      string
      other array
    untagged record
    tagged
    task
    protected

The classes ‘‘numeric’’ and ‘‘nonlimited’’ represent other classification dimensions and do not fit into the above strictly hierarchical picture. 13

Wording Changes From Ada 83

13.a This clause and its subclauses now precede the clause and subclauses on objects and named numbers, to cut down on the number of forward references.

13.b We have dropped the term "base type" in favor of simply "type" (all types in Ada 83 were "base types" so it wasn’t clear when it was appropriate/necessary to say "base type"). Given a subtype S of a type T, we call T the "type of the subtype S."

3.2.1 Type Declarations

A type_declaration declares a type and its first subtype. 1

Syntax

2
```
type_declaration ::=  full_type_declaration
  | incomplete_type_declaration
  | private_type_declaration
  | private_extension_declaration
```

3
```
full_type_declaration ::=
    type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] is type_definition;
  | task_type_declaration
  | protected_type_declaration
```

4
```
type_definition ::=
    enumeration_type_definition | integer_type_definition
  | real_type_definition        | array_type_definition
  | record_type_definition      | access_type_definition
  | derived_type_definition
```

Legality Rules

5 A given type shall not have a subcomponent whose type is the given type itself.

Static Semantics

6 {*first subtype*} The defining_identifier of a type_declaration denotes the *first subtype* of the type. The known_discriminant_part, if any, defines the discriminants of the type (see 3.7, ''Discriminants''). The remainder of the type_declaration defines the remaining characteristics of (the view of) the type.

7 {*named type*} A type defined by a type_declaration is a *named* type; such a type has one or more nameable subtypes. {*anonymous type*} Certain other forms of declaration also include type definitions as part of the declaration for an object (including a parameter or a discriminant). The type defined by such a declaration is *anonymous* — it has no nameable subtypes. {*italics (pseudo-names of anonymous types)*} For explanatory purposes, this International Standard sometimes refers to an anonymous type by a pseudo-name, written in italics, and uses such pseudo-names at places where the syntax normally requires an identifier. For a named type whose first subtype is T, this International Standard sometimes refers to the type of T as simply ''the type T.''

7.a **Ramification:** The only user-defined types that can be anonymous in the above sense are array, access, task, and protected types. An anonymous array, task, or protected type can be defined as part of an object_declaration. An anonymous access type can be defined as part of a parameter or discriminant specification.

8 {*full type*} A named type that is declared by a full_type_declaration, or an anonymous type that is defined as part of declaring an object of the type, is called a *full type*. {*full type definition*} The type_definition, task_definition, protected_definition, or access_definition that defines a full type is called a *full type definition*. [Types declared by other forms of type_declaration are not separate types; they are partial or incomplete views of some full type.]

8.a **To be honest:** Class-wide, universal, and root numeric types are full types.

9 {*predefined operator* [partial]} The definition of a type implicitly declares certain *predefined operators* that operate on the type, according to what classes the type belongs, as specified in 4.5, ''Operators and Expression Evaluation''.

9.a **Discussion:** We no longer talk about the implicit declaration of basic operations. These are treated like an if_statement — they don't need to be declared, but are still applicable to only certain classes of types.

10 {*predefined type*} The *predefined types* [(for example the types Boolean, Wide_Character, Integer, *root_integer*, and *universal_integer*)] are the types that are defined in [a predefined library package called] Standard[; this package also includes the [(implicit)] declarations of their predefined operators]. [The package Standard is described in A.1.]

10.a **Ramification:** We use the term ''predefined'' to refer to entities declared in the visible part of Standard, to implicitly declared operators of a type whose semantics are defined by the language, to Standard itself, and to the ''predefined environment''. We do not use this term to refer to library packages other than Standard. For example Text_IO is a language-defined package, not a predefined package, and Text_IO.Put_Line is not a predefined operation.

Dynamic Semantics

11 {*elaboration* [full_type_declaration]} The elaboration of a full_type_declaration consists of the elaboration of the full type definition. {*elaboration* [full type definition]} Each elaboration of a full type definition creates a distinct type and its first subtype.

11.a **Reason:** The creation is associated with the type *definition*, rather than the type *declaration*, because there are types that are created by full type definitions that are not immediately contained within a type declaration (e.g. an array object declaration, a singleton task declaration, etc.).

11.b **Ramification:** Any implicit declarations that occur immediately following the full type definition are elaborated where they (implicitly) occur.

Examples

Examples of type definitions: 12

```
(White, Red, Yellow, Green, Blue, Brown, Black)                    13
range 1 .. 72
array(1 .. 10) of Integer
```

Examples of type declarations: 14

```
type Color  is (White, Red, Yellow, Green, Blue, Brown, Black);    15
type Column is range 1 .. 72;
type Table  is array(1 .. 10) of Integer;
```

NOTES

3 Each of the above examples declares a named type. The identifier given denotes the first subtype of the type. Other named subtypes of the type can be declared with subtype_declarations (see 3.2.2). Although names do not directly denote types, a phrase like ‘‘the type Column’’ is sometimes used in this International Standard to refer to the type of Column, where Column denotes the first subtype of the type. For an example of the definition of an anonymous type, see the declaration of the array Color_Table in 3.3.1; its type is anonymous — it has no nameable subtypes. 16

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntactic category full_type_declaration now includes task and protected type declarations. 16.a

We have generalized the concept of first-named subtype (now called simply ‘‘first subtype’’) to cover all kinds of types, for uniformity of description elsewhere. RM83 defined first-named subtype in Section 13. We define first subtype here, because it is now a more fundamental concept. We renamed the term, because in Ada 9X some first subtypes have no name. 16.b

We no longer elaborate discriminant_parts, because there is nothing to do, and it was complex to say that you only wanted to elaborate it once for a private or incomplete type. This is also consistent with the fact that subprogram specifications are not elaborated (neither in Ada 83 nor in Ada 9X). Note, however, that an access_definition appearing in a discriminant_part is elaborated when an object with such a discriminant is created. 16.c

3.2.2 Subtype Declarations

A subtype_declaration declares a subtype of some previously declared type, as defined by a subtype_indication. 1

Syntax

subtype_declaration ::= 2
  subtype defining_identifier **is** subtype_indication;

subtype_indication ::= subtype_mark [constraint] 3

subtype_mark ::= *subtype*_name 4

Ramification: Note that name includes attribute_reference; thus, S’Base can be used as a subtype_mark. 4.a

Reason: We considered changing subtype_mark to subtype_name. However, existing users are used to the word "mark," so we’re keeping it. 4.b

constraint ::= scalar_constraint | composite_constraint 5

scalar_constraint ::= 6
  range_constraint | digits_constraint | delta_constraint

composite_constraint ::= 7
  index_constraint | discriminant_constraint

Name Resolution Rules

A subtype_mark shall resolve to denote a subtype. {*determines (a type by a* subtype_mark*)*} The type *determined by* a subtype_mark is the type of the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark. 8

8.a **Ramification:** Types are never directly named; all subtype_marks denote subtypes — possibly an unconstrained (base) subtype, but never the type. When we use the term *anonymous type* we really mean a type with no namable subtypes.

Dynamic Semantics

9 {*elaboration* [subtype_declaration]} The elaboration of a subtype_declaration consists of the elaboration of the subtype_indication. {*elaboration* [subtype_indication]} The elaboration of a subtype_indication creates a new subtype. If the subtype_indication does not include a constraint, the new subtype has the same (possibly null) constraint as that denoted by the subtype_mark. The elaboration of a subtype_indication that includes a constraint proceeds as follows:

10 • The constraint is first elaborated.

11 • {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} A check is then made that the constraint is *compatible* with the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark.

11.a **Ramification:** The checks associated with constraint compatibility are all Range_Checks. Discriminant_Checks and Index_Checks are associated only with checks that a value satisfies a constraint.

12 The condition imposed by a constraint is the condition obtained after elaboration of the constraint. {*compatibility (constraint with a subtype)* [distributed]} The rules defining compatibility are given for each form of constraint in the appropriate subclause. These rules are such that if a constraint is *compatible* with a subtype, then the condition imposed by the constraint cannot contradict any condition already imposed by the subtype on its values. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if any check of compatibility fails.

12.a **To be honest:** The condition imposed by a constraint is named after it — a range_constraint imposes a range constraint, etc.

12.b **Ramification:** A range_constraint causes freezing of its type. Other constraints do not.

NOTES

13 4 A scalar_constraint may be applied to a subtype of an appropriate scalar type (see 3.5, 3.5.9, and J.3), even if the subtype is already constrained. On the other hand, a composite_constraint may be applied to a composite subtype (or an access-to-composite subtype) only if the composite subtype is unconstrained (see 3.6.1 and 3.7.1).

Examples

14 *Examples of subtype declarations:*

15
```
subtype Rainbow   is Color range Red .. Blue;        -- see 3.2.1
subtype Red_Blue  is Rainbow;
subtype Int       is Integer;
subtype Small_Int is Integer range -10 .. 10;
subtype Up_To_K   is Column range 1 .. K;            -- see 3.2.1
subtype Square    is Matrix(1 .. 10, 1 .. 10);       -- see 3.6
subtype Male      is Person(Sex => M);               -- see 3.10.1
```

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

15.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} In Ada 9X, all range_constraints cause freezing of their type. Hence, a type-related representation item for a scalar type has to precede any range_constraints whose type is the scalar type.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

15.b Subtype_marks allow only subtype names now, since types are never directly named. There is no need for RM83-3.3.2(3), which says a subtype_mark can denote both the type and the subtype; in Ada 9X, you denote an unconstrained (base) subtype if you want, but never the type.

15.c The syntactic category type_mark is now called subtype_mark, since it always denotes a subtype.

3.2.3 Classification of Operations

Static Semantics

{*operates on a type*} An operation *operates on a type T* if it yields a value of type *T*, if it has an operand whose expected type (see 8.6) is *T*, or if it has an access parameter (see 6.1) designating *T*. {*predefined operation (of a type)*} A predefined operator, or other language-defined operation such as assignment or a membership test, that operates on a type, is called a *predefined operation* of the type. {*primitive operations (of a type)*} The *primitive operations* of a type are the predefined operations of the type, plus any user-defined primitive subprograms. 1

Glossary entry: {*Primitive operations*} The primitive operations of a type are the operations (such as subprograms) declared together with the type declaration. They are inherited by other types in the same class of types. For a tagged type, the primitive subprograms are dispatching subprograms, providing run-time polymorphism. A dispatching subprogram may be called with statically tagged operands, in which case the subprogram body invoked is determined at compile time. Alternatively, a dispatching subprogram may be called using a dispatching call, in which case the subprogram body invoked is determined at run time. 1.a

To be honest: Protected subprograms are not considered to be ''primitive subprograms,'' even though they are subprograms, and they are inherited by derived types. 1.b

Discussion: We use the term ''primitive subprogram'' in most of the rest of the manual. The term ''primitive operation'' is used mostly in conceptual discussions. 1.c

{*primitive subprograms (of a type)*} The *primitive subprograms* of a specific type are defined as follows: 2

- The predefined operators of the type (see 4.5); 3
- For a derived type, the inherited (see 3.4) user-defined subprograms; 4
- For an enumeration type, the enumeration literals (which are considered parameterless functions — see 3.5.1); 5
- For a specific type declared immediately within a package_specification, any subprograms (in addition to the enumeration literals) that are explicitly declared immediately within the same package_specification and that operate on the type; 6
- {*override (a primitive subprogram)*} Any subprograms not covered above [that are explicitly declared immediately within the same declarative region as the type] and that override (see 8.3) other implicitly declared primitive subprograms of the type. 7

Discussion: In Ada 83, only subprograms declared in the visible part were ''primitive'' (i.e. derivable). In Ada 9X, mostly because of child library units, we include all operations declared in the private part as well, and all operations that override implicit declarations. 7.a

Ramification: It is possible for a subprogram to be primitive for more than one type, though it is illegal for a subprogram to be primitive for more than one tagged type. See 3.9. 7.b

Discussion: The order of the implicit declarations when there are both predefined operators and inherited subprograms is described in 3.4, ''Derived Types and Classes''. 7.c

{*primitive operator (of a type)*} A primitive subprogram whose designator is an operator_symbol is called a *primitive operator*. 8

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The attribute S'Base is no longer defined for non-scalar subtypes. Since this was only permitted as the prefix of another attribute, and there are no interesting non-scalar attributes defined for an unconstrained composite or access subtype, this should not affect any existing programs. 8.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The primitive subprograms (derivable subprograms) include subprograms declared in the private part of a package specification as well, and those that override implicitly declared subprograms, even if declared in a body. 8.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

8.c We have dropped the confusing term *operation of a type* in favor of the more useful *primitive operation of a type* and the phrase *operates on a type*.

8.d The description of S'Base has been moved to 3.5, ''Scalar Types'' because it is now defined only for scalar types.

3.3 Objects and Named Numbers

1 [Objects are created at run time and contain a value of a given type. {*creation (of an object)*} An object can be created and initialized as part of elaborating a declaration, evaluating an allocator, aggregate, or function_call, or passing a parameter by copy. Prior to reclaiming the storage for an object, it is finalized if necessary (see 7.6.1).]

Static Semantics

2 {*object*} All of the following are objects:

2.a **Glossary entry:** {*Object*} An object is either a constant or a variable. An object contains a value. An object is created by an object_declaration or by an allocator. A formal parameter is (a view of) an object. A subcomponent of an object is an object.

3 • the entity declared by an object_declaration;

4 • a formal parameter of a subprogram, entry, or generic subprogram;

5 • a generic formal object;

6 • a loop parameter;

7 • a choice parameter of an exception_handler;

8 • an entry index of an entry_body;

9 • the result of dereferencing an access-to-object value (see 4.1);

10 • the result of evaluating a function_call (or the equivalent operator invocation — see 6.6);

11 • the result of evaluating an aggregate;

12 • a component, slice, or view conversion of another object.

13 {*constant*} {*variable*} {*constant object*} {*variable object*} {*constant view*} {*variable view*} An object is either a *constant* object or a *variable* object. The value of a constant object cannot be changed between its initialization and its finalization, whereas the value of a variable object can be changed. Similarly, a view of an object is either a *constant* or a *variable*. All views of a constant object are constant. A constant view of a variable object cannot be used to modify the value of the variable. The terms constant and variable by themselves refer to constant and variable views of objects.

14 {*read (the value of an object)*} The value of an object is *read* when the value of any part of the object is evaluated, or when the value of an enclosing object is evaluated. {*update (the value of an object)*} The value of a variable is *updated* when an assignment is performed to any part of the variable, or when an assignment is performed to an enclosing object.

14.a **Ramification:** Reading and updating are intended to include read/write references of any kind, even if they are not associated with the evaluation of a particular construct. Consider, for example, the expression ''X.**all**(F)'', where X is an access-to-array object, and F is a function. The implementation is allowed to first evaluate ''X.**all**'' and then F. Finally, a read is performed to get the value of the F'th component of the array. Note that the array is not necessarily read as part of the evaluation of ''X.**all**''. This is important, because if F were to free X using Unchecked_Deallocation, we want the execution of the final read to be erroneous.

Whether a view of an object is constant or variable is determined by the definition of the view. The following (and no others) represent constants:

- an object declared by an object_declaration with the reserved word **constant**;
- a formal parameter or generic formal object of mode **in**;
- a discriminant;
- a loop parameter, choice parameter, or entry index;
- the dereference of an access-to-constant value;
- the result of evaluating a function_call or an aggregate;
- a selected_component, indexed_component, slice, or view conversion of a constant.

To be honest: A noninvertible view conversion to a general access type is also defined to be a constant — see 4.6.

{*nominal subtype*} At the place where a view of an object is defined, a *nominal subtype* is associated with the view. {*actual subtype*} {*subtype (of an object): see actual subtype of an object*} The object's *actual subtype* (that is, its subtype) can be more restrictive than the nominal subtype of the view; it always is if the nominal subtype is an *indefinite subtype*. {*indefinite subtype*} {*definite subtype*} A subtype is an indefinite subtype if it is an unconstrained array subtype, or if it has unknown discriminants or unconstrained discriminants without defaults (see 3.7); otherwise the subtype is a *definite* subtype [(all elementary subtypes are definite subtypes)].[A class-wide subtype is defined to have unknown discriminants, and is therefore an indefinite subtype. An indefinite subtype does not by itself provide enough information to create an object; an additional constraint or explicit initialization expression is necessary (see 3.3.1). A component cannot have an indefinite nominal subtype.]

{*named number*} A *named number* provides a name for a numeric value known at compile time. It is declared by a number_declaration.

NOTES

5 A constant cannot be the target of an assignment operation, nor be passed as an **in out** or **out** parameter, between its initialization and finalization, if any.

6 The nominal and actual subtypes of an elementary object are always the same. For a discriminated or array object, if the nominal subtype is constrained then so is the actual subtype.

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} There are additional kinds of objects (choice parameters and entry indices of entry bodies).

The result of a function and of evaluating an aggregate are considered (constant) objects. This is necessary to explain the action of finalization on such things. Because a function_call is also syntactically a name (see 4.1), the result of a function_call can be renamed, thereby allowing repeated use of the result without calling the function again.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This clause and its subclauses now follow the clause and subclauses on types and subtypes, to cut down on the number of forward references.

The term nominal subtype is new. It is used to distinguish what is known at compile time about an object's constraint, versus what its "true" run-time constraint is.

The terms definite and indefinite (which apply to subtypes) are new. They are used to aid in the description of generic formal type matching, and to specify when an explicit initial value is required in an object_declaration.

We have moved the syntax for object_declaration and number_declaration down into their respective subclauses, to keep the syntax close to the description of the associated semantics.

26.g We talk about variables and constants here, since the discussion is not specific to object_declarations, and it seems better to have the list of the kinds of constants juxtaposed with the kinds of objects.

26.h We no longer talk about indirect updating due to parameter passing. Parameter passing is handled in 6.2 and 6.4.1 in a way that there is no need to mention it here in the definition of read and update. Reading and updating now includes the case of evaluating or assigning to an enclosing object.

3.3.1 Object Declarations

1 {*stand-alone object*} {*explicit initial value*} {*initialization expression*} An object_declaration declares a *stand-alone* object with a given nominal subtype and, optionally, an explicit initial value given by an initialization expression. {*anonymous array type*} {*anonymous task type*} {*anonymous protected type*} For an array, task, or protected object, the object_declaration may include the definition of the (anonymous) type of the object.

Syntax

2
```
object_declaration ::=
    defining_identifier_list : [aliased] [constant] subtype_indication [:= expression];
  | defining_identifier_list : [aliased] [constant] array_type_definition [:= expression];
  | single_task_declaration
  | single_protected_declaration
```

3
```
defining_identifier_list ::=
  defining_identifier {, defining_identifier}
```

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*expected type* [object_declaration initialization expression]} For an object_declaration with an expression following the compound delimiter :=, the type expected for the expression is that of the object. {*initialization expression*} This expression is called the *initialization expression*. {*constructor: see initialization expression*}

Legality Rules

5 An object_declaration without the reserved word **constant** declares a variable object. If it has a subtype_indication or an array_type_definition that defines an indefinite subtype, then there shall be an initialization expression. An initialization expression shall not be given if the object is of a limited type.

Static Semantics

6 An object_declaration with the reserved word **constant** declares a constant object. {*full constant declaration*} If it has an initialization expression, then it is called a *full constant declaration*. {*deferred constant declaration*} Otherwise it is called a *deferred constant declaration*. The rules for deferred constant declarations are given in clause 7.4. The rules for full constant declarations are given in this subclause.

7 Any declaration that includes a defining_identifier_list with more than one defining_identifier is equivalent to a series of declarations each containing one defining_identifier from the list, with the rest of the text of the declaration copied for each declaration in the series, in the same order as the list. The remainder of this International Standard relies on this equivalence; explanations are given for declarations with a single defining_identifier.

8 {*nominal subtype*} The subtype_indication or full type definition of an object_declaration defines the nominal subtype of the object. The object_declaration declares an object of the type of the nominal subtype.

8.a **Discussion:** The phrase ‘‘full type definition’’ here includes the case of an anonymous array, task, or protected type.

Dynamic Semantics

{*constraint (of an object)*} If a composite object declared by an object_declaration has an unconstrained nominal subtype, then if this subtype is indefinite or the object is constant or aliased (see 3.10) the actual subtype of this object is constrained. The constraint is determined by the bounds or discriminants (if any) of its initial value; {*constrained by its initial value*} the object is said to be *constrained by its initial value*. {*actual subtype (of an object)*} {*subtype (of an object): see actual subtype of an object*} [In the case of an aliased object, this initial value may be either explicit or implicit; in the other cases, an explicit initial value is required.] When not constrained by its initial value, the actual and nominal subtypes of the object are the same. {*constrained (object)*} {*unconstrained (object)*} If its actual subtype is constrained, the object is called a *constrained object*.

{*implicit initial values (for a subtype)*} For an object_declaration without an initialization expression, any initial values for the object or its subcomponents are determined by the *implicit initial values* defined for its nominal subtype, as follows:

- The implicit initial value for an access subtype is the null value of the access type.
- The implicit initial (and only) value for each discriminant of a constrained discriminated subtype is defined by the subtype.
- For a (definite) composite subtype, the implicit initial value of each component with a default_expression is obtained by evaluation of this expression and conversion to the component's nominal subtype (which might raise Constraint_Error — see 4.6, ''Type Conversions''), unless the component is a discriminant of a constrained subtype (the previous case), or is in an excluded variant (see 3.8.1). {*implicit subtype conversion* [component defaults]} For each component that does not have a default_expression, any implicit initial values are those determined by the component's nominal subtype.
- For a protected or task subtype, there is an implicit component (an entry queue) corresponding to each entry, with its implicit initial value being an empty queue.

Implementation Note: The implementation may add implicit components for its own use, which might have implicit initial values. For a task subtype, such components might represent the state of the associated thread of control. For a type with dynamic-sized components, such implicit components might be used to hold the offset to some explicit component.

{*elaboration* [object_declaration]} The elaboration of an object_declaration proceeds in the following sequence of steps:

1. The subtype_indication, array_type_definition, single_task_declaration, or single_protected_declaration is first elaborated. This creates the nominal subtype (and the anonymous type in the latter three cases).
2. If the object_declaration includes an initialization expression, the (explicit) initial value is obtained by evaluating the expression and converting it to the nominal subtype (which might raise Constraint_Error — see 4.6). {*implicit subtype conversion* [initialization expression]}
3. The object is created, and, if there is not an initialization expression, any per-object expressions (see 3.8) are evaluated and any implicit initial values for the object or for its subcomponents are obtained as determined by the nominal subtype.

Discussion: For a per-object constraint that contains some per-object expressions and some non-per-object expressions, the values used for the constraint consist of the values of the non-per-object expressions evaluated at the point of the type_declaration, and the values of the per-object expressions evaluated at the point of the creation of the object.

The elaboration of per-object constraints was presumably performed as part of the dependent compatibility check in Ada 83. If the object is of a limited type with an access discriminant, the access_definition is elaborated at this time (see 3.7).

18.c **Reason:** The reason we say that evaluating an explicit initialization expression happens before creating the object is that in some cases it is impossible to know the size of the object being created until its initial value is known, as in ''X: String := Func_Call(...);''. The implementation can create the object early in the common case where the size can be known early, since this optimization is semantically neutral.

19 4. {*initialization (of an object)*} {*assignment operation (during elaboration of an* object_declaration*)*} Any initial values (whether explicit or implicit) are assigned to the object or to the corresponding subcomponents. As described in 5.2 and 7.6, Initialize and Adjust procedures can be called. {*constructor: see initialization*}

19.a **Ramification:** Since the initial values have already been converted to the appropriate nominal subtype, the only Constraint_Errors that might occur as part of these assignments are for values outside their base range that are used to initialize unconstrained numeric subcomponents. See 3.5.

20 For the third step above, the object creation and any elaborations and evaluations are performed in an arbitrary order, except that if the default_expression for a discriminant is evaluated to obtain its initial value, then this evaluation is performed before that of the default_expression for any component that depends on the discriminant, and also before that of any default_expression that includes the name of the discriminant. The evaluations of the third step and the assignments of the fourth step are performed in an arbitrary order, except that each evaluation is performed before the resulting value is assigned.

20.a **Reason:** For example:

20.b
```
type R(D : Integer := F) is
    record
        S : String(1..D) := (others => G);
    end record;
```

20.c
```
X : R;
```

20.d For the elaboration of the declaration of X, it is important that F be evaluated before the aggregate.

21 [There is no implicit initial value defined for a scalar subtype.] {*uninitialized variables* [partial]} In the absence of an explicit initialization, a newly created scalar object might have a value that does not belong to its subtype (see 13.9.1 and H.1).

21.a **To be honest:** It could even be represented by a bit pattern that doesn't actually represent any value of the type at all, such as an invalid internal code for an enumeration type, or a NaN for a floating point type. It is a generally a bounded error to reference scalar objects with such ''invalid representations'', as explained in 13.9.1, ''Data Validity''.

21.b **Ramification:** There is no requirement that two objects of the same scalar subtype have the same implicit initial ''value'' (or representation). It might even be the case that two elaborations of the same object_declaration produce two different initial values. However, any particular uninitialized object is default-initialized to a single value (or invalid representation). Thus, multiple reads of such an uninitialized object will produce the same value each time (if the implementation chooses not to detect the error).

NOTES

22 7 Implicit initial values are not defined for an indefinite subtype, because if an object's nominal subtype is indefinite, an explicit initial value is required.

23 8 {*stand-alone constant*} {*stand-alone variable*} As indicated above, a stand-alone object is an object declared by an object_declaration. Similar definitions apply to ''stand-alone constant'' and ''stand-alone variable.'' A subcomponent of an object is not a stand-alone object, nor is an object that is created by an allocator. An object declared by a loop_parameter_specification, parameter_specification, entry_index_specification, choice_parameter_specification, or a formal_object_declaration is not called a stand-alone object.

24 9 The type of a stand-alone object cannot be abstract (see 3.9.3).

Examples

25 *Example of a multiple object declaration:*

26
```
-- the multiple object declaration
```

27
```
John, Paul : Person_Name := new Person(Sex => M);  -- see 3.10.1
```

28
```
-- is equivalent to the two single object declarations in the order given
```

```
John : Person_Name := new Person(Sex => M);
Paul : Person_Name := new Person(Sex => M);
```

29

Examples of variable declarations:

30

```
Count, Sum  : Integer;
Size        : Integer range 0 .. 10_000 := 0;
Sorted      : Boolean := False;
Color_Table : array(1 .. Max) of Color;
Option      : Bit_Vector(1 .. 10) := (others => True);
Hello       : constant String := "Hi, world.";
```

31

Examples of constant declarations:

32

```
Limit     : constant Integer := 10_000;
Low_Limit : constant Integer := Limit/10;
Tolerance : constant Real := Dispersion(1.15);
```

33

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for object_declaration is modified to allow the **aliased** reserved word. 33.a

A variable declared by an object_declaration can be constrained by its initial value; that is, a variable of a nominally unconstrained array subtype, or discriminated type without defaults, can be declared so long as it has an explicit initial value. In Ada 83, this was permitted for constants, and for variables created by allocators, but not for variables declared by object_declarations. This is particularly important for tagged class-wide types, since there is no way to constrain them explicitly, and so an initial value is the only way to provide a constraint. It is also important for generic formal private types with unknown discriminants. 33.b

We now allow an unconstrained_array_definition in an object_declaration. This allows an object of an anonymous array type to have its bounds determined by its initial value. This is for uniformity: If one can write ''X: **constant array**(Integer **range** 1..10) **of** Integer := ...;'' then it makes sense to also allow ''X: **constant array**(Integer **range** <>) **of** Integer := ...;''. (Note that if anonymous array types are ever sensible, a common situation is for a table implemented as an array. Tables are often constant, and for constants, there's usually no point in forcing the user to count the number of elements in the value.) 33.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have moved the syntax for object_declarations into this subclause. 33.d

Deferred constants no longer have a separate syntax rule, but rather are incorporated in object_declaration as constants declared without an initialization expression. 33.e

3.3.2 Number Declarations

A number_declaration declares a named number. 1

Discussion: {*static*} If a value or other property of a construct is required to be *static* that means it is required to be determined prior to execution. A *static* expression is an expression whose value is computed at compile time and is usable in contexts where the actual value might affect the legality of the construct. This is fully defined in clause 4.9. 1.a

Syntax

number_declaration ::= 2

defining_identifier_list : **constant** := *static*_expression;

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [number_declaration expression]} The *static*_expression given for a number_declaration is expected to be of any numeric type. 3

Legality Rules

The *static*_expression given for a number declaration shall be a static expression, as defined by clause 4.9. 4

Static Semantics

5 The named number denotes a value of type *universal_integer* if the type of the *static*_expression is an integer type. The named number denotes a value of type *universal_real* if the type of the *static*_expression is a real type.

6 The value denoted by the named number is the value of the *static*_expression, converted to the corresponding universal type. {*implicit subtype conversion* [named number value]}

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*elaboration* [number_declaration]} The elaboration of a number_declaration has no effect.

7.a **Proof:** Since the *static*_expression was evaluated at compile time.

Examples

8 *Examples of number declarations:*

9
```
Two_Pi        : constant := 2.0*Ada.Numerics.Pi;    -- a real number (see A.5)
```

10
```
Max           : constant := 500;                    -- an integer number
Max_Line_Size : constant := Max/6                   -- the integer 83
Power_16      : constant := 2**16;                  -- the integer 65_536
One, Un, Eins : constant := 1;                      -- three different names for 1
```

Extensions to Ada 83

10.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow a static expression of any numeric type to initialize a named number. For integer types, it was possible in Ada 83 to use 'Pos to define a named number, but there was no way to use a static expression of some non-universal real type to define a named number. This change is upward compatible because of the preference rule for the operators of the root numeric types.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

10.b We have moved the syntax rule into this subclause.

10.c AI-00263 describes the elaboration of a number declaration in words similar to that of an object_declaration. However, since there is no expression to be evaluated and no object to be created, it seems simpler to say that the elaboration has no effect.

3.4 Derived Types and Classes

1 {*derived type*} A derived_type_definition defines a new type (and its first subtype) whose characteristics are *derived* from those of a *parent type*.

1.a **Glossary entry:** {*Derived type*} A derived type is a type defined in terms of another type, which is the parent type of the derived type. Each class containing the parent type also contains the derived type. The derived type inherits properties such as components and primitive operations from the parent. A type together with the types derived from it (directly or indirectly) form a derivation class.

{*inheritance: see derived types and classes*}

Syntax

2 derived_type_definition ::= [**abstract**] **new** *parent*_subtype_indication [record_extension_part]

Legality Rules

3 {*parent subtype*} {*parent type*} The *parent*_subtype_indication defines the *parent subtype*; its type is the parent type.

4 A type shall be completely defined (see 3.11.1) prior to being specified as the parent type in a derived_type_definition — [the full_type_declarations for the parent type and any of its subcomponents have to precede the derived_type_definition.]

4.a **Discussion:** This restriction does not apply to the ancestor type of a private extension — see 7.3; such a type need not be completely defined prior to the private_extension_declaration. However, the restriction does apply to record

extensions, so the ancestor type will have to be completely defined prior to the full_type_declaration corresponding to the private_extension_declaration.

Reason: We originally hoped we could relax this restriction. However, we found it too complex to specify the rules for a type derived from an incompletely defined limited type that subsequently became nonlimited. 4.b

{*record extension*} If there is a record_extension_part, the derived type is called a *record extension* of the parent type. A record_extension_part shall be provided if and only if the parent type is a tagged type. 5

Implementation Note: We allow a record extension to inherit discriminants; a previous version of Ada 9X did not. If the parent subtype is unconstrained, it can be implemented as though its discriminants were repeated in a new known_discriminant_part and then used to constrain the old ones one-for-one. However, in an extension aggregate, the discriminants in this case do not appear in the component association list. 5.a

Ramification: This rule needs to be rechecked in the visible part of an instance of a generic unit. 5.b

Static Semantics

{*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} The first subtype of the derived type is unconstrained if a known_discriminant_part is provided in the declaration of the derived type, or if the parent subtype is unconstrained. {*corresponding constraint*} Otherwise, the constraint of the first subtype *corresponds* to that of the parent subtype in the following sense: it is the same as that of the parent subtype except that for a range constraint (implicit or explicit), the value of each bound of its range is replaced by the corresponding value of the derived type. 6

Discussion: A digits_constraint in a subtype_indication for a decimal fixed point subtype always imposes a range constraint, implicitly if there is no explicit one given. See 3.5.9, ''Fixed Point Types''. 6.a

The characteristics of the derived type are defined as follows: 7

- Each class of types that includes the parent type also includes the derived type. 8

  Discussion: This is inherent in our notion of a ''class'' of types. It is not mentioned in the initial definition of ''class'' since at that point type derivation has not been defined. In any case, this rule ensures that every class of types is closed under derivation. 8.a

- If the parent type is an elementary type or an array type, then the set of possible values of the derived type is a copy of the set of possible values of the parent type. For a scalar type, the base range of the derived type is the same as that of the parent type. 9

  Discussion: The base range of a type defined by an integer_type_definition or a real_type_definition is determined by the _definition, and is not necessarily the same as that of the corresponding root numeric type from which the newly defined type is implicitly derived. Treating numerics types as implicitly derived from one of the two root numeric types is simply to link them into a type hierarchy; such an implicit derivation does not follow all the rules given here for an explicit derived_type_definition. 9.a

- If the parent type is a composite type other than an array type, then the components, protected subprograms, and entries that are declared for the derived type are as follows: 10

  - The discriminants specified by a new known_discriminant_part, if there is one; otherwise, each discriminant of the parent type (implicitly declared in the same order with the same specifications) — {*inherited discriminant*} {*inherited component*} in the latter case, the discriminants are said to be *inherited*, or if unknown in the parent, are also unknown in the derived type; 11

  - Each nondiscriminant component, entry, and protected subprogram of the parent type, implicitly declared in the same order with the same declarations; {*inherited component*} {*inherited protected subprogram*} {*inherited entry*} these components, entries, and protected subprograms are said to be *inherited*; 12

  Ramification: The profiles of entries and protected subprograms do not change upon type derivation, although the type of the ''implicit'' parameter identified by the prefix of the name in a call does. 12.a

  To be honest: Any name in the parent type_declaration that denotes the current instance of the type is replaced with a name denoting the current instance of the derived type, converted to the parent type. 12.b

13 • Each component declared in a record_extension_part, if any.

14 Declarations of components, protected subprograms, and entries, whether implicit or explicit, occur immediately within the declarative region of the type, in the order indicated above, following the parent subtype_indication.

14.a **Discussion:** The order of declarations within the region matters for record_aggregates and extension_aggregates.

14.b **Ramification:** In most cases, these things are implicitly declared *immediately* following the parent subtype_indication. However, 7.3.1, ''Private Operations'' defines some cases in which they are implicitly declared later, and some cases in which the are not declared at all.

14.c **Discussion:** The place of the implicit declarations of inherited components matters for visibility — they are not visible in the known_discriminant_part nor in the parent subtype_indication, but are usually visible within the record_extension_part, if any (although there are restrictions on their use). Note that a discriminant specified in a new known_discriminant_part is not considered ''inherited'' even if it has the same name and subtype as a discriminant of the parent type.

15 • The derived type is limited if and only if the parent type is limited.

15.a **To be honest:** The derived type can become nonlimited if the derivation takes place in the visible part of a child package, and the parent type is nonlimited as viewed from the private part of the child package — see 7.5.

16 • [For each predefined operator of the parent type, there is a corresponding predefined operator of the derived type.]

16.a **Proof:** This is a ramification of the fact that each class that includes the parent type also includes the derived type, and the fact that the set of predefined operators that is defined for a type, as described in 4.5, is determined by the classes to which it belongs.

16.b **Reason:** Predefined operators are handled separately because they follow a slightly different rule than user-defined primitive subprograms. In particular the systematic replacement described below does not apply fully to the relational operators for Boolean and the exponentiation operator for Integer. The relational operators for a type derived from Boolean still return Standard.Boolean. The exponentiation operator for a type derived from Integer still expects Standard.Integer for the right operand. In addition, predefined operators "reemerge" when a type is the actual type corresponding to a generic formal type, so they need to be well defined even if hidden by user-defined primitive subprograms.

17 • {*inherited subprogram*} For each user-defined primitive subprogram (other than a user-defined equality operator — see below) of the parent type that already exists at the place of the derived_type_definition, there exists a corresponding *inherited* primitive subprogram of the derived type with the same defining name. {*equality operator (special inheritance rule for tagged types)*} Primitive user-defined equality operators of the parent type are also inherited by the derived type, except when the derived type is a nonlimited record extension, and the inherited operator would have a profile that is type conformant with the profile of the corresponding predefined equality operator; in this case, the user-defined equality operator is not inherited, but is rather incorporated into the implementation of the predefined equality operator of the record extension (see 4.5.2). {*type conformance* [partial]}

17.a **Ramification:** We say ''...already exists...'' rather than ''is visible'' or ''has been declared'' because there are certain operations that are declared later, but still exist at the place of the derived_type_definition, and there are operations that are never declared, but still exist. These cases are explained in 7.3.1.

17.b Note that nonprivate extensions can appear only after the last primitive subprogram of the parent — the freezing rules ensure this.

17.c **Reason:** A special case is made for the equality operators on nonlimited record extensions because their predefined equality operators are already defined in terms of the primitive equality operator of their parent type (and of the tagged components of the extension part). Inheriting the parent's equality operator as is would be undesirable, because it would ignore any components of the extension part. On the other hand, if the parent type is limited, then any user-defined equality operator is inherited as is, since there is no predefined equality operator to take its place.

17.d **Ramification:** Because user-defined equality operators are not inherited by record extensions, the formal parameter names of = and /= revert to Left and Right, even if different formal parameter names were used in the user-defined equality operators of the parent type.

The profile of an inherited subprogram (including an inherited enumeration literal) is obtained from the profile of the corresponding (user-defined) primitive subprogram of the parent type, after systematic replacement of each subtype of its profile (see 6.1) that is of the parent type with a *corresponding subtype* of the derived type. {*corresponding subtype*} For a given subtype of the parent type, the corresponding subtype of the derived type is defined as follows: 18

- If the declaration of the derived type has neither a known_discriminant_part nor a record_extension_part, then the corresponding subtype has a constraint that corresponds (as defined above for the first subtype of the derived type) to that of the given subtype. 19
- If the derived type is a record extension, then the corresponding subtype is the first subtype of the derived type. 20
- If the derived type has a new known_discriminant_part but is not a record extension, then the corresponding subtype is constrained to those values that when converted to the parent type belong to the given subtype (see 4.6). {*implicit subtype conversion* [derived type discriminants]} 21

Reason: An inherited subprogram of an untagged type has an Intrinsic calling convention, which precludes the use of the Access attribute. We preclude 'Access because correctly performing all required constraint checks on an indirect call to such an inherited subprogram was felt to impose an undesirable implementation burden. 21.a

The same formal parameters have default_expressions in the profile of the inherited subprogram. [Any type mismatch due to the systematic replacement of the parent type by the derived type is handled as part of the normal type conversion associated with parameter passing — see 6.4.1.] 22

Reason: We don't introduce the type conversion explicitly here since conversions to record extensions or on access parameters are not generally legal. Furthermore, any type conversion would just be "undone" since the parent's subprogram is ultimately being called anyway. 22.a

If a primitive subprogram of the parent type is visible at the place of the derived_type_definition, then the corresponding inherited subprogram is implicitly declared immediately after the derived_type_definition. Otherwise, the inherited subprogram is implicitly declared later or not at all, as explained in 7.3.1. 23

{*derived type* [partial]} A derived type can also be defined by a private_extension_declaration (see 7.3) or a formal_derived_type_definition (see 12.5.1). Such a derived type is a partial view of the corresponding full or actual type. 24

All numeric types are derived types, in that they are implicitly derived from a corresponding root numeric type (see 3.5.4 and 3.5.6). 25

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [derived_type_definition]} The elaboration of a derived_type_definition creates the derived type and its first subtype, and consists of the elaboration of the subtype_indication and the record_extension_part, if any. If the subtype_indication depends on a discriminant, then only those expressions that do not depend on a discriminant are evaluated. 26

{*execution* [call on an inherited subprogram]} For the execution of a call on an inherited subprogram, a call on the corresponding primitive subprogram of the parent type is performed; the normal conversion of each actual parameter to the subtype of the corresponding formal parameter (see 6.4.1) performs any necessary type conversion as well. If the result type of the inherited subprogram is the derived type, the result of calling the parent's subprogram is converted to the derived type. {*implicit subtype conversion* [result of inherited function]} 27

27.a **Discussion:** If an inherited function returns the derived type, and the type is a record extension, then the inherited function is abstract, and (unless overridden) cannot be called except via a dispatching call. See 3.9.3.

NOTES

28 10 {*closed under derivation*} Classes are closed under derivation — any class that contains a type also contains its derivatives. Operations available for a given class of types are available for the derived types in that class.

29 11 Evaluating an inherited enumeration literal is equivalent to evaluating the corresponding enumeration literal of the parent type, and then converting the result to the derived type. This follows from their equivalence to parameterless functions. {*implicit subtype conversion* [inherited enumeration literal]}

30 12 A generic subprogram is not a subprogram, and hence cannot be a primitive subprogram and cannot be inherited by a derived type. On the other hand, an instance of a generic subprogram can be a primitive subprogram, and hence can be inherited.

31 13 If the parent type is an access type, then the parent and the derived type share the same storage pool; there is a **null** access value for the derived type and it is the implicit initial value for the type. See 3.10.

32 14 If the parent type is a boolean type, the predefined relational operators of the derived type deliver a result of the predefined type Boolean (see 4.5.2). If the parent type is an integer type, the right operand of the predefined exponentiation operator is of the predefined type Integer (see 4.5.6).

33 15 Any discriminants of the parent type are either all inherited, or completely replaced with a new set of discriminants.

34 16 For an inherited subprogram, the subtype of a formal parameter of the derived type need not have any value in common with the first subtype of the derived type.

34.a **Proof:** This happens when the parent subtype is constrained to a range that does not overlap with the range of a subtype of the parent type that appears in the profile of some primitive subprogram of the parent type. For example:

34.b
```
type T1 is range 1..100;
subtype S1 is T1 range 1..10;
procedure P(X : in S1);  -- P is a primitive subprogram
type T2 is new T1 range 11..20;
-- implicitly declared:
-- procedure P(X : in T2'Base range 1..10);
--     X cannot be in T2'First .. T2'Last
```

35 17 If the reserved word **abstract** is given in the declaration of a type, the type is abstract (see 3.9.3).

Examples

36 *Examples of derived type declarations:*

37
```
type Local_Coordinate is new Coordinate;    -- two different types
type Midweek is new Day range Tue .. Thu;   -- see 3.5.1
type Counter is new Positive;               -- same range as Positive
```

38
```
type Special_Key is new Key_Manager.Key;    -- see 7.3.1
  -- the inherited subprograms have the following specifications:
  --     procedure Get_Key(K : out Special_Key);
  --     function "<"(X,Y : Special_Key) return Boolean;
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

38.a {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} When deriving from a (nonprivate, nonderived) type in the same visible part in which it is defined, if a predefined operator had been overridden prior to the derivation, the derived type will inherit the user-defined operator rather than the predefined operator. The work-around (if the new behavior is not the desired behavior) is to move the definition of the derived type prior to the overriding of any predefined operators.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

38.b {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} When deriving from a (nonprivate, nonderived) type in the same visible part in which it is defined, a primitive subprogram of the parent type declared before the derived type will be inherited by the derived type. This can cause upward incompatibilities in cases like this:

```
   package P is                                                    38.c
      type T is (A, B, C, D);
      function F( X : T := A ) return Integer;
      type NT is new T;
      -- inherits F as
      -- function F( X : NT := A ) return Integer;
      -- in Ada 9X only
      ...
   end P;
   ...
   use P;   -- Only one declaration of F from P is use-visible in
            -- Ada 83;  two declarations of F are use-visible in
            -- Ada 9X.
begin
   ...
   if F > 1 then ... -- legal in Ada 83, ambiguous in Ada 9X
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for a derived_type_definition is amended to include an optional record_extension_part (see 3.9.1). 38.d

A derived type may override the discriminants of the parent by giving a new discriminant_part. 38.e

The parent type in a derived_type_definition may be a derived type defined in the same visible part. 38.f

When deriving from a type in the same visible part in which it is defined, the primitive subprograms declared prior to the derivation are inherited as primitive subprograms of the derived type. See 3.2.3. 38.g

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We now talk about the classes to which a type belongs, rather than a single class. 38.h

As explained in Section 13, the concept of "storage pool" replaces the Ada 83 concept of "collection." These concepts are similar, but not the same. 38.i

3.4.1 Derivation Classes

In addition to the various language-defined classes of types, types can be grouped into *derivation classes*. 1

Static Semantics

{*derived from (directly or indirectly)*} A derived type is *derived from* its parent type *directly*; it is derived *indirectly* from any type from which its parent type is derived. {*derivation class (for a type)*} {*root type (of a class)*} {*rooted at a type*} The derivation class of types for a type *T* (also called the class *rooted* at *T*) is the set consisting of *T* (the *root type* of the class) and all types derived from *T* (directly or indirectly) plus any associated universal or class-wide types (defined below). 2

Discussion: Note that the definition of ‘‘derived from’’ is a recursive definition. We don’t define a root type for all interesting language-defined classes, though presumably we could. 2.a

To be honest: By the class-wide type ‘‘associated’’ with a type *T*, we mean the type *T*’Class. Similarly, the universal type associated with *root_integer*, *root_real*, and *root_fixed* are *universal_integer*, *universal_real*, and *universal_fixed*, respectively. 2.b

Every type is either a *specific* type, a *class-wide* type, or a *universal* type. {*specific type*} A specific type is one defined by a type_declaration, a formal_type_declaration, or a full type definition embedded in a declaration for an object. Class-wide and universal types are implicitly defined, to act as representatives for an entire class of types, as follows: 3

To be honest: The root types *root_integer*, *root_real*, and *root_fixed* are also specific types. They are declared in the specification of package Standard. 3.a

{*class-wide type*} Class-wide types 4

Class-wide types are defined for [(and belong to)] each derivation class rooted at a tagged type (see 3.9). Given a subtype S of a tagged type *T*, S’Class is the subtype_

mark for a corresponding subtype of the tagged class-wide type *T*'Class. Such types are called ''class-wide'' because when a formal parameter is defined to be of a class-wide type *T*'Class, an actual parameter of any type in the derivation class rooted at *T* is acceptable (see 8.6).

{*first subtype*} The set of values for a class-wide type *T*'Class is the discriminated union of the set of values of each specific type in the derivation class rooted at *T* (the tag acts as the implicit discriminant — see 3.9). Class-wide types have no primitive subprograms of their own. However, as explained in 3.9.2, operands of a class-wide type *T*'Class can be used as part of a dispatching call on a primitive subprogram of the type *T*. The only components [(including discriminants)] of *T*'Class that are visible are those of *T*. If S is a first subtype, then S'Class is a first subtype.

Reason: We want S'Class to be a first subtype when S is, so that an attribute_definition_clause like ''**for** S'Class'Output **use** ...;'' will be legal.

{*universal type*} Universal types

Universal types are defined for [(and belong to)] the integer, real, and fixed point classes, and are referred to in this standard as respectively, *universal_integer*, *universal_real*, and *universal_fixed*. These are analogous to class-wide types for these language-defined numeric classes. As with class-wide types, if a formal parameter is of a universal type, then an actual parameter of any type in the corresponding class is acceptable. In addition, a value of a universal type (including an integer or real numeric_literal) is ''universal'' in that it is acceptable where some particular type in the class is expected (see 8.6).

The set of values of a universal type is the undiscriminated union of the set of values possible for any definable type in the associated class. Like class-wide types, universal types have no primitive subprograms of their own. However, their ''universality'' allows them to be used as operands with the primitive subprograms of any type in the corresponding class.

Discussion: A class-wide type is only class-wide in one direction, from specific to class-wide, whereas a universal type is class-wide (universal) in both directions, from specific to universal and back.

We considered defining class-wide or perhaps universal types for all derivation classes, not just tagged classes and these three numeric classes. However, this was felt to overly weaken the strong-typing model in some situations. Tagged types preserve strong type distinctions thanks to the run-time tag. Class-wide or universal types for untagged types would weaken the compile-time type distinctions without providing a compensating run-time-checkable distinction.

We considered defining standard names for the universal numeric types so they could be used in formal parameter specifications. However, this was felt to impose an undue implementation burden for some implementations.

To be honest: Formally, the set of values of a universal type is actually a *copy* of the undiscriminated union of the values of the types in its class. This is because we want each value to have exactly one type, with explicit or implicit conversion needed to go between types. An alternative, consistent model would be to associate a class, rather than a particular type, with a value, even though any given expression would have a particular type. In that case, implicit type conversions would not generally need to change the value, although an associated subtype conversion might need to.

{*root_integer* [partial]} {*root_real* [partial]} The integer and real numeric classes each have a specific root type in addition to their universal type, named respectively *root_integer* and *root_real*.

{*cover (a type)*} A class-wide or universal type is said to *cover* all of the types in its class. A specific type covers only itself.

{*descendant (of a type)*} A specific type *T2* is defined to be a *descendant* of a type *T1* if *T2* is the same as *T1*, or if *T2* is derived (directly or indirectly) from *T1*. A class-wide type *T2*'Class is defined to be a descendant of type *T1* if *T2* is a descendant of *T1*. Similarly, the universal types are defined to be descendants of the root types of their classes. {*ancestor (of a type)*} If a type *T2* is a descendant of a type *T1*, then *T1* is called an *ancestor* of *T2*. {*ultimate ancestor (of a type)*} {*ancestor (ultimate)*} The *ultimate ancestor* of a type is the ancestor of the type that is not a descendant of any other type.

Ramification: A specific type is a descendant of itself. Class-wide types are considered descendants of the corresponding specific type, and do not have any descendants of their own. 10.a

A specific type is an ancestor of itself. The root of a derivation class is an ancestor of all types in the class, including any class-wide types in the class. 10.b

Discussion: The terms root, parent, ancestor, and ultimate ancestor are all related. For example: 10.c

- Each type has at most one parent, and one or more ancestor types; each type has exactly one ultimate ancestor. In Ada 83, the term ''parent type'' was sometimes used more generally to include any ancestor type (e.g. RM83-9.4(14)). In Ada 9X, we restrict parent to mean the immediate ancestor. 10.d
- A class of types has at most one root type; a derivation class has exactly one root type. 10.e
- The root of a class is an ancestor of all of the types in the class (including itself). 10.f
- The type *root_integer* is the root of the integer class, and is the ultimate ancestor of all integer types. A similar statement applies to *root_real*. 10.g

{*inherited (from an ancestor type)*} An inherited component [(including an inherited discriminant)] of a derived type is inherited *from* a given ancestor of the type if the corresponding component was inherited by each derived type in the chain of derivations going back to the given ancestor. 11

NOTES
18 Because operands of a universal type are acceptable to the predefined operators of any type in their class, ambiguity can result. For *universal_integer* and *universal_real*, this potential ambiguity is resolved by giving a preference (see 8.6) to the predefined operators of the corresponding root types (*root_integer* and *root_real*, respectively). Hence, in an apparently ambiguous expression like 12

```
1 + 4 < 7
```
13

where each of the literals is of type *universal_integer*, the predefined operators of *root_integer* will be preferred over those of other specific integer types, thereby resolving the ambiguity. 14

Ramification: Except for this preference, a root numeric type is essentially like any other specific type in the associated numeric class. In particular, the result of a predefined operator of a root numeric type is not ''universal'' (implicitly convertible) even if both operands were. 14.a

3.5 Scalar Types

{*scalar type*} *Scalar* types comprise enumeration types, integer types, and real types. {*discrete type*} Enumeration types and integer types are called *discrete* types; {*position number*} each value of a discrete type has a *position number* which is an integer value. {*numeric type*} Integer types and real types are called *numeric* types. [All scalar types are ordered, that is, all relational operators are predefined for their values.] 1

Syntax

```
range_constraint ::= range range_attribute_reference
range ::= range_attribute_reference
  | simple_expression .. simple_expression
```
2 3

Discussion: These need to be simple_expressions rather than more general expressions because ranges appear in membership tests and other contexts where expression .. expression would be ambiguous. 3.a

{*range*} {*lower bound (of a range)*} {*upper bound (of a range)*} {*type of a range*} A *range* has a *lower bound* and an *upper bound* and specifies a subset of the values of some scalar type (the *type of the range*). A range with lower bound L and upper bound R is described by ''L .. R''. {*null range*} If R is less than L, then the range is a *null range*, and specifies an empty set of values. Otherwise, the range specifies the values of the type from the lower bound to the upper bound, inclusive. {*belong (to a range)*} A value *belongs* to a range if it is of the type of the range, and is in the subset of values specified by the range. {*satisfies* [a range constraint]} A 4

value *satisfies* a range constraint if it belongs to the associated range. {*included (one range in another)*} One range is *included* in another if all values that belong to the first range also belong to the second.

Name Resolution Rules

5 {*expected type* [range_constraint range]} For a subtype_indication containing a range_constraint, either directly or as part of some other scalar_constraint, the type of the range shall resolve to that of the type determined by the subtype_mark of the subtype_indication. {*expected type* [range simple_expressions]} For a range of a given type, the simple_expressions of the range (likewise, the simple_expressions of the equivalent range for a range_attribute_reference) are expected to be of the type of the range.

5.a **Discussion:** In Ada 9X, constraints only appear within subtype_indications; things that look like constraints that appear in type declarations are called something else like range_specifications.

5.b We say "the expected type is ..." or "the type is expected to be ..." depending on which reads better. They are fundamentally equivalent, and both feed into the type resolution rules of clause 8.6.

5.c In some cases, it doesn't work to use expected types. For example, in the above rule, we say that the ''type of the range shall resolve to ...'' rather than ''the expected type for the range is ...''. We then use ''expected type'' for the bounds. If we used ''expected'' at both points, there would be an ambiguity, since one could apply the rules of 8.6 either on determining the type of the range, or on determining the types of the individual bounds. It is clearly important to allow one bound to be of a universal type, and the other of a specific type, so we need to use ''expected type'' for the bounds. Hence, we used ''shall resolve to'' for the type of the range as a whole. There are other situations where ''expected type'' is not quite right, and we use ''shall resolve to'' instead.

Static Semantics

6 {*base range (of a scalar type)* [distributed]} The *base range* of a scalar type is the range of finite values of the type that can be represented in every unconstrained object of the type; it is also the range supported at a minimum for intermediate values during the evaluation of expressions involving predefined operators of the type.

6.a **Implementation Note:** Note that in some machine architectures intermediates in an expression (particularly if static), and register-resident variables might accommodate a wider range. The base range does not include the values of this wider range that are not assignable without overflow to memory-resident objects.

6.b **Ramification:** {*base range* [of an enumeration type]} The base range of an enumeration type is the range of values of the enumeration type.

6.c **Reason:** If the representation supports infinities, the base range is nevertheless restricted to include only the representable finite values, so that 'Base'First and 'Base'Last are always guaranteed to be finite.

6.d **To be honest:** By a "value that can be assigned without overflow" we don't mean to restrict ourselves to values that can be represented exactly. Values between machine representable values can be assigned, but on subsequent reading, a slightly different value might be retrieved, as (partially) determined by the number of digits of precision of the type.

7 {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} [A constrained scalar subtype is one to which a range constraint applies.] {*range (of a scalar subtype)*} The *range* of a constrained scalar subtype is the range associated with the range constraint of the subtype. The *range* of an unconstrained scalar subtype is the base range of its type.

Dynamic Semantics

8 {*compatibility* [range with a scalar subtype]} A range is *compatible* with a scalar subtype if and only if it is either a null range or each bound of the range belongs to the range of the subtype. {*compatibility* [range_constraint with a scalar subtype]} A range_constraint is *compatible* with a scalar subtype if and only if its range is compatible with the subtype.

8.a **Ramification:** Only range_constraints (explicit or implicit) impose conditions on the values of a scalar subtype. The other scalar_constraints, digit_constraints and delta_constraints impose conditions on the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark in a subtype_indication, but don't impose a condition on the values of the subtype being defined. Therefore, a scalar subtype is not called *constrained* if all that applies to it is a digits_constraint. Decimal subtypes are subtle, because a digits_constraint without a range_constraint nevertheless includes an implicit range_constraint.

{*elaboration* [range_constraint]} The elaboration of a range_constraint consists of the evaluation of the range. 9
{*evaluation* [range]} The evaluation of a range determines a lower bound and an upper bound. If simple_expressions are given to specify bounds, the evaluation of the range evaluates these simple_expressions in an arbitrary order, and converts them to the type of the range. {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of a range]} If a range_attribute_reference is given, the evaluation of the range consists of the evaluation of the range_attribute_reference.

Attributes 10

For every scalar subtype S, the following attributes are defined: 11

S'First — S'First denotes the lower bound of the range of S. The value of this attribute is of the type of S. 12

Ramification: Evaluating S'First never raises Constraint_Error. 12.a

S'Last — S'Last denotes the upper bound of the range of S. The value of this attribute is of the type of S. 13

Ramification: Evaluating S'Last never raises Constraint_Error. 13.a

S'Range — S'Range is equivalent to the range S'First .. S'Last. 14

{*base subtype (of a type)*} S'Base 15
S'Base denotes an unconstrained subtype of the type of S. This unconstrained subtype is called the *base subtype* of the type.

S'Min — S'Min denotes a function with the following specification: 16

```
function S'Min(Left, Right : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```
17

The function returns the lesser of the values of the two parameters. 18

Discussion: {*italics (formal parameters of attribute functions)*} The formal parameter names are italicized because they cannot be used in calls — see 6.4. Such a specification cannot be written by the user because an attribute_reference is not permitted as the designator of a user-defined function, nor can its formal parameters be anonymous. 18.a

S'Max — S'Max denotes a function with the following specification: 19

```
function S'Max(Left, Right : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```
20

The function returns the greater of the values of the two parameters. 21

S'Succ — S'Succ denotes a function with the following specification: 22

```
function S'Succ(Arg : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```
23

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one more than that of the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of adding one to the value of *Arg*. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of adding *small* to the value of *Arg*. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately above the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such machine number. 24

Ramification: S'Succ for a modular integer subtype wraps around if the value of *Arg* is S'Base'Last. S'Succ for a signed integer subtype might raise Constraint_Error if the value of *Arg* is S'Base'Last, or it might return the out-of-base-range value S'Base'Last+1, as is permitted for all predefined numeric operations. 24.a

S'Pred — S'Pred denotes a function with the following specification: 25

26
```
function S'Pred(Arg : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```

27 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one less than that of the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of subtracting one from the value of *Arg*. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of subtracting *small* from the value of *Arg*. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately below the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such machine number.

27.a **Ramification:** S'Pred for a modular integer subtype wraps around if the value of *Arg* is S'Base'First. S'Pred for a signed integer subtype might raise Constraint_Error if the value of *Arg* is S'Base'First, or it might return the out-of-base-range value S'Base'First–1, as is permitted for all predefined numeric operations.

28 S'Wide_Image S'Wide_Image denotes a function with the following specification:

29
```
function S'Wide_Image(Arg : S'Base)
  return Wide_String
```

30 {*image (of a value)*} The function returns an *image* of the value of *Arg*, that is, a sequence of characters representing the value in display form. The lower bound of the result is one.

31 The image of an integer value is the corresponding decimal literal, without underlines, leading zeros, exponent, or trailing spaces, but with a single leading character that is either a minus sign or a space.

31.a **Implementation Note:** If the machine supports negative zeros for signed integer types, it is not specified whether "–0" or " 0" should be returned for negative zero. We don't have enough experience with such machines to know what is appropriate, and what other languages do. In any case, the implementation should be consistent.

32 {*nongraphic character*} The image of an enumeration value is either the corresponding identifier in upper case or the corresponding character literal (including the two apostrophes); neither leading nor trailing spaces are included. For a *nongraphic character* (a value of a character type that has no enumeration literal associated with it), the result is a corresponding language-defined or implementation-defined name in upper case (for example, the image of the nongraphic character identified as *nul* is ''NUL'' — the quotes are not part of the image).

32.a **Implementation Note:** For an enumeration type T that has ''holes'' (caused by an enumeration_representation_clause), {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} T'Wide_Image should raise Program_Error if the value is one of the holes (which is a bounded error anyway, since holes can be generated only via uninitialized variables and similar things.

33 The image of a floating point value is a decimal real literal best approximating the value (rounded away from zero if halfway between) with a single leading character that is either a minus sign or a space, a single digit (that is nonzero unless the value is zero), a decimal point, S'Digits–1 (see 3.5.8) digits after the decimal point (but one if S'Digits is one), an upper case E, the sign of the exponent (either + or –), and two or more digits (with leading zeros if necessary) representing the exponent. If S'Signed_Zeros is True, then the leading character is a minus sign for a negatively signed zero.

33.a **To be honest:** Leading zeros are present in the exponent only if necessary to make the exponent at least two digits.

33.b **Reason:** This image is intended to conform to that produced by Text_IO.Float_IO.Put in its default format.

33.c **Implementation Note:** The rounding direction is specified here to ensure portability of output results.

34 The image of a fixed point value is a decimal real literal best approximating the value (rounded away from zero if halfway between) with a single leading character that is either a minus sign or a space, one or more digits before the decimal point (with no

redundant leading zeros), a decimal point, and S'Aft (see 3.5.10) digits after the decimal point.

Reason: This image is intended to conform to that produced by Text_IO.Fixed_IO.Put. 34.a

Implementation Note: The rounding direction is specified here to ensure portability of output results. 34.b

Implementation Note: For a machine that supports negative zeros, it is not specified whether "–0.000" or " 0.000" is returned. See corresponding comment above about integer types with signed zeros. 34.c

S'Image

S'Image denotes a function with the following specification: 35

```
function S'Image(Arg : S'Base)
  return String
```
36

The function returns an image of the value of *Arg* as a String. The lower bound of the result is one. The image has the same sequence of graphic characters as that defined for S'Wide_Image if all the graphic characters are defined in Character; otherwise the sequence of characters is implementation defined (but no shorter than that of S'Wide_Image for the same value of *Arg*). 37

Implementation defined: The sequence of characters of the value returned by S'Image when some of the graphic characters of S'Wide_Image are not defined in Character. 37.a

S'Wide_Width

S'Wide_Width denotes the maximum length of a Wide_String returned by S'Wide_Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is *universal_integer*. 38

S'Width

S'Width denotes the maximum length of a String returned by S'Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is *universal_integer*. 39

S'Wide_Value

S'Wide_Value denotes a function with the following specification: 40

```
function S'Wide_Value(Arg : Wide_String)
  return S'Base
```
41

This function returns a value given an image of the value as a Wide_String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces. 42

{*evaluation* [Wide_Value]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For the evaluation of a call on S'Wide_Value for an enumeration subtype S, if the sequence of characters of the parameter (ignoring leading and trailing spaces) has the syntax of an enumeration literal and if it corresponds to a literal of the type of S (or corresponds to the result of S'Wide_Image for a nongraphic character of the type), the result is the corresponding enumeration value; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} otherwise Constraint_Error is raised. 43

Discussion: It's not crystal clear that Range_Check is appropriate here, but it doesn't seem worthwhile to invent a whole new check name just for this weird case, so we decided to lump it in with Range_Check. 43.a

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For the evaluation of a call on S'Wide_Value (or S'Value) for an integer subtype S, if the sequence of characters of the parameter (ignoring leading and trailing spaces) has the syntax of an integer literal, with an optional leading sign character (plus or minus for a signed type; only plus for a modular type), and the corresponding numeric value belongs to the base range of the type of S, then that value is the result; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} otherwise Constraint_Error is raised. 44

Discussion: We considered allowing 'Value to return a representable but out-of-range value without a Constraint_Error. However, we currently require (see 4.9) in an assignment_statement like "X := <numeric_literal>;" that the value of the numeric-literal be in X's base range (at compile time), so it seems unfriendly and confusing to have a different range allowed for 'Value. Furthermore, for modular types, without the requirement for being in the base range, 'Value would have to handle arbitrarily long literals (since overflow never occurs for modular types). 44.a

45 For the evaluation of a call on S'Wide_Value (or S'Value) for a real subtype S, if the sequence of characters of the parameter (ignoring leading and trailing spaces) has the syntax of one of the following:

46 • numeric_literal

47 • numeral.[exponent]

48 • .numeral[exponent]

49 • base#based_numeral.#[exponent]

50 • base#.based_numeral#[exponent]

51 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} with an optional leading sign character (plus or minus), and if the corresponding numeric value belongs to the base range of the type of S, then that value is the result; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} otherwise Constraint_Error is raised. The sign of a zero value is preserved (positive if none has been specified) if S'Signed_Zeros is True.

52 S'Value S'Value denotes a function with the following specification:

53
```
function S'Value(Arg : String)
  return S'Base
```

54 This function returns a value given an image of the value as a String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces.

55 {*evaluation* [Value]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For the evaluation of a call on S'Value for an enumeration subtype S, if the sequence of characters of the parameter (ignoring leading and trailing spaces) has the syntax of an enumeration literal and if it corresponds to a literal of the type of S (or corresponds to the result of S'Image for a value of the type), the result is the corresponding enumeration value; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} otherwise Constraint_Error is raised. For a numeric subtype S, the evaluation of a call on S'Value with *Arg* of type String is equivalent to a call on S'Wide_Value for a corresponding *Arg* of type Wide_String.

55.a **Reason:** S'Value is subtly different from S'Wide_Value for enumeration subtypes since S'Image might produce a different sequence of characters than S'Wide_Image if the enumeration literal uses characters outside of the predefined type Character. That is why we don't just define S'Value in terms of S'Wide_Value for enumeration subtypes. S'Value and S'Wide_Value for numeric subtypes yield the same result given the same sequence of characters.

Implementation Permissions

56 An implementation may extend the Wide_Value, [Value, Wide_Image, and Image] attributes of a floating point type to support special values such as infinities and NaNs.

56.a **Proof:** The permission is really only necessary for Wide_Value, because Value is defined in terms of Wide_Value, and because the behavior of Wide_Image and Image is already unspecified for things like infinities and NaNs.

56.b **Reason:** This is to allow implementations to define full support for IEEE arithmetic. See also the similar permission for Get in A.10.9.

NOTES

57 19 The evaluation of S'First or S'Last never raises an exception. If a scalar subtype S has a nonnull range, S'First and S'Last belong to this range. These values can, for example, always be assigned to a variable of subtype S.

57.a **Discussion:** This paragraph addresses an issue that came up with Ada 83, where for fixed point types, the end points of the range specified in the type definition were not necessarily within the base range of the type. However, it was later clarified (and we reconfirm it in 3.5.9, ''Fixed Point Types'') that the First and Last attributes reflect the true bounds chosen for the type, not the bounds specified in the type definition (which might be outside the ultimately chosen base range).

58 20 For a subtype of a scalar type, the result delivered by the attributes Succ, Pred, and Value might not belong to the subtype; similarly, the actual parameters of the attributes Succ, Pred, and Image need not belong to the subtype.

21 For any value V (including any nongraphic character) of an enumeration subtype S, S'Value(S'Image(V)) equals V, as does S'Wide_Value(S'Wide_Image(V)). Neither expression ever raises Constraint_Error. 59

Examples

Examples of ranges: 60

```
-10 .. 10                                                    61
X .. X + 1
0.0 .. 2.0*Pi
Red .. Green       -- see 3.5.1
1 .. 0             -- a null range
Table'Range        -- a range attribute reference (see 3.6)
```

Examples of range constraints: 62

```
range -999.0 .. +999.0                                       63
range S'First+1 .. S'Last-1
```

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} S'Base is no longer defined for nonscalar types. One conceivable existing use of S'Base for nonscalar types is S'Base'Size where S is a generic formal private type. However, that is not generally useful because the actual subtype corresponding to S might be a constrained array or discriminated type, which would mean that S'Base'Size might very well overflow (for example, S'Base'Size where S is a constrained subtype of String will generally be 8 * (Integer'Last + 1)). For derived discriminated types that are packed, S'Base'Size might not even be well defined if the first subtype is constrained, thereby allowing some amount of normally required ''dope'' to have been squeezed out in the packing. Hence our conclusion is that S'Base'Size is not generally useful in a generic, and does not justify keeping the attribute Base for nonscalar types just so it can be used as a prefix. 63.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The attribute S'Base for a scalar subtype is now permitted anywhere a subtype_mark is permitted. S'Base'First .. S'Base'Last is the base range of the type. Using an attribute_definition_clause, one cannot specify any subtype-specific attributes for the subtype denoted by S'Base (the base subtype). 63.b

The attribute S'Range is now allowed for scalar subtypes. 63.c

The attributes S'Min and S'Max are now defined, and made available for all scalar types. 63.d

The attributes S'Succ, S'Pred, S'Image, S'Value, and S'Width are now defined for real types as well as discrete types. 63.e

Wide_String versions of S'Image and S'Value are defined. These are called S'Wide_Image and S'Wide_Value to avoid introducing ambiguities involving uses of these attributes with string literals. 63.f

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We now use the syntactic category range_attribute_reference since it is now syntactically distinguished from other attribute references. 63.g

The definition of S'Base has been moved here from 3.3.3 since it now applies only to scalar types. 63.h

More explicit rules are provided for nongraphic characters. 63.i

3.5.1 Enumeration Types

[{*enumeration type*} An enumeration_type_definition defines an enumeration type.] 1

Syntax

enumeration_type_definition ::= 2
  (enumeration_literal_specification {, enumeration_literal_specification})

enumeration_literal_specification ::= defining_identifier | defining_character_literal 3

defining_character_literal ::= character_literal 4

Legality Rules

5 [The defining_identifiers and defining_character_literals listed in an enumeration_type_definition shall be distinct.]

5.a **Proof:** This is a ramification of the normal disallowance of homographs explicitly declared immediately in the same declarative region.

Static Semantics

6 {*enumeration literal*} Each enumeration_literal_specification is the explicit declaration of the corresponding *enumeration literal*: it declares a parameterless function, whose defining name is the defining_identifier or defining_character_literal, and whose result type is the enumeration type.

6.a **Reason:** This rule defines the profile of the enumeration literal, which is used in the various types of conformance.

6.b **Ramification:** The parameterless function associated with an enumeration literal is fully defined by the enumeration_type_definition; a body is not permitted for it, and it never fails the Elaboration_Check when called.

7 Each enumeration literal corresponds to a distinct value of the enumeration type, and to a distinct position number. {*position number* [of an enumeration value]} The position number of the value of the first listed enumeration literal is zero; the position number of the value of each subsequent enumeration literal is one more than that of its predecessor in the list.

8 [The predefined order relations between values of the enumeration type follow the order of corresponding position numbers.]

9 [{*overloaded* [enumeration literal]} If the same defining_identifier or defining_character_literal is specified in more than one enumeration_type_definition, the corresponding enumeration literals are said to be *overloaded*. At any place where an overloaded enumeration literal occurs in the text of a program, the type of the enumeration literal has to be determinable from the context (see 8.6).]

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*elaboration* [enumeration_type_definition]} {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} The elaboration of an enumeration_type_definition creates the enumeration type and its first subtype, which is constrained to the base range of the type.

10.a **Ramification:** The first subtype of a discrete type is always constrained, except in the case of a derived type whose parent subtype is Whatever'Base.

11 When called, the parameterless function associated with an enumeration literal returns the corresponding value of the enumeration type.

NOTES

12 22 If an enumeration literal occurs in a context that does not otherwise suffice to determine the type of the literal, then qualification by the name of the enumeration type is one way to resolve the ambiguity (see 4.7).

Examples

13 *Examples of enumeration types and subtypes:*

14
```
type Day    is (Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun);
type Suit   is (Clubs, Diamonds, Hearts, Spades);
type Gender is (M, F);
type Level  is (Low, Medium, Urgent);
type Color  is (White, Red, Yellow, Green, Blue, Brown, Black);
type Light  is (Red, Amber, Green); -- Red and Green are overloaded
```

15
```
type Hexa   is ('A', 'B', 'C', 'D', 'E', 'F');
type Mixed  is ('A', 'B', '*', B, None, '?', '%');
```

```
subtype Weekday is Day   range Mon .. Fri;                                    16
subtype Major   is Suit  range Hearts .. Spades;
subtype Rainbow is Color range Red .. Blue;  -- the Color Red, not the Light
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for defining_character_literal is new. It is used for the defining occurrence of a character_literal, analogously to defining_identifier. Usage occurrences use the name or selector_name syntactic categories. 16.a

We emphasize the fact that an enumeration literal denotes a function, which is called to produce a value. 16.b

3.5.2 Character Types

Static Semantics

{*character type*} An enumeration type is said to be a *character type* if at least one of its enumeration literals is a character_literal. 1

{*Latin-1*} {*BMP*} {*ISO 10646*} {*Character*} The predefined type Character is a character type whose values correspond to the 256 code positions of Row 00 (also known as Latin-1) of the ISO 10646 Basic Multilingual Plane (BMP). Each of the graphic characters of Row 00 of the BMP has a corresponding character_literal in Character. Each of the nongraphic positions of Row 00 (0000-001F and 007F-009F) has a corresponding language-defined name, which is not usable as an enumeration literal, but which is usable with the attributes (Wide_)Image and (Wide_)Value; these names are given in the definition of type Character in A.1, ‘‘The Package Standard’’, but are set in *italics*. {*italics (nongraphic characters)*} 2

{*Wide_Character*} {*BMP*} {*ISO 10646*} The predefined type Wide_Character is a character type whose values correspond to the 65536 code positions of the ISO 10646 Basic Multilingual Plane (BMP). Each of the graphic characters of the BMP has a corresponding character_literal in Wide_Character. The first 256 values of Wide_Character have the same character_literal or language-defined name as defined for Character. The last 2 values of Wide_Character correspond to the nongraphic positions FFFE and FFFF of the BMP, and are assigned the language-defined names *FFFE* and *FFFF*. As with the other language-defined names for nongraphic characters, the names *FFFE* and *FFFF* are usable only with the attributes (Wide_)Image and (Wide_)Value; they are not usable as enumeration literals. All other values of Wide_Character are considered graphic characters, and have a corresponding character_literal. 3

Reason: The language-defined names are not usable as enumeration literals to avoid "polluting" the name space. Since Wide_Character is defined in Standard, if the names FFFE and FFFF were usable as enumeration literals, they would hide other nonoverloadable declarations with the same names in **use**-d packages. 3.a

ISO 10646 has not defined the meaning of all of the code positions from 0100 through FFFD, but they are all considered graphic characters by Ada to simplify the implementation, and to allow for revisions to ISO 10646. In ISO 10646, FFFE and FFFF are special, and will never be associated with graphic characters in any revision. 3.b

Implementation Permissions

{*localization*} In a nonstandard mode, an implementation may provide other interpretations for the predefined types Character and Wide_Character[, to conform to local conventions]. 4

Implementation Advice

{*localization*} If an implementation supports a mode with alternative interpretations for Character and Wide_Character, the set of graphic characters of Character should nevertheless remain a proper subset of the set of graphic characters of Wide_Character. Any character set ‘‘localizations’’ should be reflected in the results of the subprograms defined in the language-defined package Characters.Handling (see A.3) available in such a mode. In a mode with an alternative interpretation of Character, the implementation should also support a corresponding change in what is a legal identifier_letter. 5

NOTES

6 23 The language-defined library package Characters.Latin_1 (see A.3.3) includes the declaration of constants denoting control characters, lower case characters, and special characters of the predefined type Character.

6.a **To be honest:** The package ASCII does the same, but only for the first 128 characters of Character. Hence, it is an obsolescent package, and we no longer mention it here.

7 24 A conventional character set such as *EBCDIC* can be declared as a character type; the internal codes of the characters can be specified by an enumeration_representation_clause as explained in clause 13.4.

Examples

8 *Example of a character type:*

9
```
type Roman_Digit is ('I', 'V', 'X', 'L', 'C', 'D', 'M');
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

9.a {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} The declaration of Wide_Character in package Standard hides use-visible declarations with the same defining identifier. In the unlikely event that an Ada 83 program had depended on such a use-visible declaration, and the program remains legal after the substitution of Standard.Wide_Character, the meaning of the program will be different.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

9.b {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The presence of Wide_Character in package Standard means that an expression such as

9.c
```
'a' = 'b'
```

9.d is ambiguous in Ada 9X, whereas in Ada 83 both literals could be resolved to be of type Character.

9.e The change in visibility rules (see 4.2) for character literals means that additional qualification might be necessary to resolve expressions involving overloaded subprograms and character literals.

Extensions to Ada 83

9.f {*extensions to Ada 83*} The type Character has been extended to have 256 positions, and the type Wide_Character has been added. Note that this change was already approved by the ARG for Ada 83 conforming compilers.

9.g The rules for referencing character literals are changed (see 4.2), so that the declaration of the character type need not be directly visible to use its literals, similar to **null** and string literals. Context is used to resolve their type.

3.5.3 Boolean Types

Static Semantics

1 {*Boolean*} There is a predefined enumeration type named Boolean, [declared in the visible part of package Standard]. {*False*} {*True*} It has the two enumeration literals False and True ordered with the relation False < True. {*boolean type*} Any descendant of the predefined type Boolean is called a *boolean* type.

1.a **Implementation Note:** An implementation is not required to support enumeration representation clauses on boolean types that impose an unacceptable implementation burden. See 13.4, ''Enumeration Representation Clauses''. However, it is generally straightforward to support representations where False is zero and True is 2**n – 1 for some n.

3.5.4 Integer Types

1 {*integer type*} {*signed integer type*} {*modular type*} An integer_type_definition defines an integer type; it defines either a *signed* integer type, or a *modular* integer type. The base range of a signed integer type includes at least the values of the specified range. A modular type is an integer type with all arithmetic modulo a specified positive *modulus*; such a type corresponds to an unsigned type with wrap-around semantics. {*unsigned type: see modular type*}

Syntax

2 integer_type_definition ::= signed_integer_type_definition | modular_type_definition

3 signed_integer_type_definition ::= **range** *static*_simple_expression .. *static*_simple_expression

Discussion: We don't call this a range_constraint, because it is rather different — not only is it required to be static, but the associated overload resolution rules are different than for normal range constraints. A similar comment applies to real_range_specification. This used to be integer_range_specification but when we added support for modular types, it seemed overkill to have three levels of syntax rules, and just calling these signed_integer_range_specification and modular_range_specification loses the fact that they are defining different classes of types, which is important for the generic type matching rules. 3.a

modular_type_definition ::= **mod** *static*_expression 4

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [signed_integer_type_definition simple_expression]} Each simple_expression in a signed_integer_type_definition is expected to be of any integer type; they need not be of the same type. {*expected type* [modular_type_definition expression]} The expression in a modular_type_definition is likewise expected to be of any integer type. 5

Legality Rules

The simple_expressions of a signed_integer_type_definition shall be static, and their values shall be in the range System.Min_Int .. System.Max_Int. 6

{*modulus (of a modular type)*} {*Max_Binary_Modulus*} {*Max_Nonbinary_Modulus*} The expression of a modular_type_definition shall be static, and its value (the *modulus*) shall be positive, and shall be no greater than System.Max_Binary_Modulus if a power of 2, or no greater than System.Max_Nonbinary_Modulus if not. 7

Reason: For a 2's-complement machine, supporting nonbinary moduli greater than System.Max_Int can be quite difficult, whereas essentially any binary moduli are straightforward to support, up to 2*System.Max_Int+2, so this justifies having two separate limits. 7.a

Static Semantics

The set of values for a signed integer type is the (infinite) set of mathematical integers[, though only values of the base range of the type are fully supported for run-time operations]. The set of values for a modular integer type are the values from 0 to one less than the modulus, inclusive. 8

{*base range* [of a signed integer type]} A signed_integer_type_definition defines an integer type whose base range includes at least the values of the simple_expressions and is symmetric about zero, excepting possibly an extra negative value. {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A signed_integer_type_definition also defines a constrained first subtype of the type, with a range whose bounds are given by the values of the simple_expressions, converted to the type being defined. {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of signed integer type]} 9

Implementation Note: The base range of a signed integer type might be much larger than is necessary to satisfy the aboved requirements. 9.a

{*base range* [of a modular type]} A modular_type_definition defines a modular type whose base range is from zero to one less than the given modulus. {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A modular_type_definition also defines a constrained first subtype of the type with a range that is the same as the base range of the type. 10

{*Integer*} There is a predefined signed integer subtype named Integer[, declared in the visible part of package Standard]. It is constrained to the base range of its type. 11

Reason: Integer is a constrained subtype, rather than an unconstrained subtype. This means that on assignment to an object of subtype Integer, a range check is required. On the other hand, an object of subtype Integer'Base is unconstrained, and no range check (only overflow check) is required on assignment. For example, if the object is held in an extended-length register, its value might be outside of Integer'First .. Integer'Last. All parameter and result subtypes of the predefined integer operators are of such unconstrained subtypes, allowing extended-length registers to be used as operands or for the result. In an earlier version of Ada 9X, Integer was unconstrained. However, the fact 11.a

that certain Constraint_Errors might be omitted or appear elsewhere was felt to be an undesirable upward inconsistency in this case. Note that for Float, the opposite conclusion was reached, partly because of the high cost of performing range checks when not actually necessary. Objects of subtype Float are unconstrained, and no range checks, only overflow checks, are performed for them.

12 {*Natural*} {*Positive*} Integer has two predefined subtypes, [declared in the visible part of package Standard:]

13
```
subtype Natural  is Integer range 0 .. Integer'Last;
subtype Positive is Integer range 1 .. Integer'Last;
```

14 {*root_integer*} {*Min_Int*} {*Max_Int*} A type defined by an integer_type_definition is implicitly derived from *root_integer*, an anonymous predefined (specific) integer type, whose base range is System.Min_Int .. System.Max_Int. However, the base range of the new type is not inherited from *root_integer*, but is instead determined by the range or modulus specified by the integer_type_definition. {*universal_integer* [partial]} {*integer literals*} [Integer literals are all of the type *universal_integer*, the universal type (see 3.4.1) for the class rooted at *root_integer*, allowing their use with the operations of any integer type.]

14.a **Discussion:** This implicit derivation is not considered exactly equivalent to explicit derivation via a derived_type_definition. In particular, integer types defined via a derived_type_definition inherit their base range from their parent type. A type defined by an integer_type_definition does not necessarily inherit its base range from *root_integer*. It is not specified whether the implicit derivation from *root_integer* is direct or indirect, not that it really matters. All we want is for all integer types to be descendants of *root_integer*.

14.b **Implementation Note:** It is the intent that even nonstandard integer types (see below) will be descendants of *root_integer*, even though they might have a base range that exceeds that of *root_integer*. This causes no problem for static calculations, which are performed without range restrictions (see 4.9). However for run-time calculations, it is possible that Constraint_Error might be raised when using an operator of *root_integer* on the result of 'Val applied to a value of a nonstandard integer type.

15 {*position number* [of an integer value]} The *position number* of an integer value is equal to the value.

16 For every modular subtype S, the following attribute is defined:

17 S'Modulus — S'Modulus yields the modulus of the type of S, as a value of the type *universal_integer*.

Dynamic Semantics

18 {*elaboration* [integer_type_definition]} The elaboration of an integer_type_definition creates the integer type and its first subtype.

19 For a modular type, if the result of the execution of a predefined operator (see 4.5) is outside the base range of the type, the result is reduced modulo the modulus of the type to a value that is within the base range of the type.

20 {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For a signed integer type, the exception Constraint_Error is raised by the execution of an operation that cannot deliver the correct result because it is outside the base range of the type.[{*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For any integer type, Constraint_Error is raised by the operators "/", "**rem**", and "**mod**" if the right operand is zero.]

Implementation Requirements

21 {*Integer*} In an implementation, the range of Integer shall include the range –2**15+1 .. +2**15–1.

22 {*Long_Integer*} If Long_Integer is predefined for an implementation, then its range shall include the range –2**31+1 .. +2**31–1.

System.Max_Binary_Modulus shall be at least 2**16. 23

Implementation Permissions

For the execution of a predefined operation of a signed integer type, the implementation need not raise Constraint_Error if the result is outside the base range of the type, so long as the correct result is produced. 24

Discussion: Constraint_Error is never raised for operations on modular types, except for divide-by-zero (and **rem**/**mod**-by-zero). 24.a

{*Long_Integer*} {*Short_Integer*} An implementation may provide additional predefined signed integer types[, declared in the visible part of Standard], whose first subtypes have names of the form Short_Integer, Long_Integer, Short_Short_Integer, Long_Long_Integer, etc. Different predefined integer types are allowed to have the same base range. However, the range of Integer should be no wider than that of Long_Integer. Similarly, the range of Short_Integer (if provided) should be no wider than Integer. Corresponding recommendations apply to any other predefined integer types. There need not be a named integer type corresponding to each distinct base range supported by an implementation. The range of each first subtype should be the base range of its type. 25

Implementation defined: The predefined integer types declared in Standard. 25.a

{*nonstandard integer type*} An implementation may provide *nonstandard integer types*, descendants of *root_integer* that are declared outside of the specification of package Standard, which need not have all the standard characteristics of a type defined by an integer_type_definition. For example, a nonstandard integer type might have an asymmetric base range or it might not be allowed as an array or loop index (a very long integer). Any type descended from a nonstandard integer type is also nonstandard. An implementation may place arbitrary restrictions on the use of such types; it is implementation defined whether operators that are predefined for ''any integer type'' are defined for a particular nonstandard integer type. [In any case, such types are not permitted as explicit_generic_actual_parameters for formal scalar types — see 12.5.2.] 26

Implementation defined: Any nonstandard integer types and the operators defined for them. 26.a

{*one's complement* [modular types]} For a one's complement machine, the high bound of the base range of a modular type whose modulus is one less than a power of 2 may be equal to the modulus, rather than one less than the modulus. It is implementation defined for which powers of 2, if any, this permission is exercised. 27

Implementation Advice

{*Long_Integer*} An implementation should support Long_Integer in addition to Integer if the target machine supports 32-bit (or longer) arithmetic. No other named integer subtypes are recommended for package Standard. Instead, appropriate named integer subtypes should be provided in the library package Interfaces (see B.2). 28

Implementation Note: To promote portability, implementations should explicitly declare the integer (sub)types Integer and Long_Integer in Standard, and leave other predefined integer types anonymous. For implementations that already support Byte_Integer, etc., upward compatibility argues for keeping such declarations in Standard during the transition period, but perhaps generating a warning on use. A separate package Interfaces in the predefined environment is available for pre-declaring types such as Integer_8, Integer_16, etc. See B.2. In any case, if the user declares a subtype (first or not) whose range fits in, for example, a byte, the implementation can store variables of the subtype in a single byte, even if the base range of the type is wider. 28.a

{*two's complement* [modular types]} An implementation for a two's complement machine should support modular types with a binary modulus up to System.Max_Int*2+2. An implementation should support a nonbinary modulus up to Integer'Last. 29

29.a **Reason:** Modular types provide bit-wise "**and**", "**or**", "**xor**", and "**not**" operations. It is important for systems programming that these be available for all integer types of the target hardware.

29.b **Ramification:** Note that on a one's complement machine, the largest supported modular type would normally have a nonbinary modulus. On a two's complement machine, the largest supported modular type would normally have a binary modulus.

29.c **Implementation Note:** Supporting a nonbinary modulus greater than Integer'Last can impose an undesirable implementation burden on some machines.

NOTES

30 25 {*universal_integer*} {*integer literals*} Integer literals are of the anonymous predefined integer type *universal_integer*. Other integer types have no literals. However, the overload resolution rules (see 8.6, ''The Context of Overload Resolution'') allow expressions of the type *universal_integer* whenever an integer type is expected.

31 26 The same arithmetic operators are predefined for all signed integer types defined by a signed_integer_type_definition (see 4.5, ''Operators and Expression Evaluation''). For modular types, these same operators are predefined, plus bit-wise logical operators (**and**, **or**, **xor**, and **not**). In addition, for the unsigned types declared in the language-defined package Interfaces (see B.2), functions are defined that provide bit-wise shifting and rotating.

32 27 Modular types match a generic_formal_parameter_declaration of the form "**type** T **is mod** <>;"; signed integer types match "**type** T **is range** <>;" (see 12.5.2).

Examples

33 *Examples of integer types and subtypes:*

34
```
type Page_Num  is range 1 .. 2_000;
type Line_Size is range 1 .. Max_Line_Size;
```

35
```
subtype Small_Int   is Integer   range -10 .. 10;
subtype Column_Ptr  is Line_Size range 1 .. 10;
subtype Buffer_Size is Integer   range 0 .. Max;
```

36
```
type Byte        is mod 256; -- an unsigned byte
type Hash_Index  is mod 97;  -- modulus is prime
```

Extensions to Ada 83

36.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} An implementation is allowed to support any number of distinct base ranges for integer types, even if fewer integer types are explicitly declared in Standard.

36.b Modular (unsigned, wrap-around) types are new.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

36.c Ada 83's integer types are now called "signed" integer types, to contrast them with "modular" integer types.

36.d Standard.Integer, Standard.Long_Integer, etc., denote constrained subtypes of predefined integer types, consistent with the Ada 9X model that only subtypes have names.

36.e We now impose minimum requirements on the base range of Integer and Long_Integer.

36.f We no longer explain integer type definition in terms of an equivalence to a normal type derivation, except to say that all integer types are by definition implicitly derived from *root_integer*. This is for various reasons.

36.g First of all, the equivalence with a type derivation and a subtype declaration was not perfect, and was the source of various AIs (for example, is the conversion of the bounds static? Is a numeric type a derived type with respect to other rules of the language?)

36.h Secondly, we don't want to require that every integer size supported shall have a corresponding named type in Standard. Adding named types to Standard creates nonportabilities.

36.i Thirdly, we don't want the set of types that match a formal derived type "type T is new Integer;" to depend on the particular underlying integer representation chosen to implement a given user-defined integer type. Hence, we would have needed anonymous integer types as parent types for the implicit derivation anyway. We have simply chosen to identify only one anonymous integer type — *root_integer*, and stated that every integer type is derived from it.

36.j Finally, the ''fiction'' that there were distinct preexisting predefined types for every supported representation breaks down for fixed point with arbitrary smalls, and was never exploited for enumeration types, array types, etc. Hence, there seems little benefit to pushing an explicit equivalence between integer type definition and normal type derivation.

3.5.5 Operations of Discrete Types

Static Semantics

For every discrete subtype S, the following attributes are defined: 1

S'Pos S'Pos denotes a function with the following specification: 2

```
function S'Pos(Arg : S'Base)
  return universal_integer
```
3

This function returns the position number of the value of *Arg*, as a value of type *universal_integer*. 4

S'Val S'Val denotes a function with the following specification: 5

```
function S'Val(Arg : universal_integer)
  return S'Base
```
6

{*evaluation* [Val]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} This function returns a value of the type of S whose position number equals the value of *Arg*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} For the evaluation of a call on S'Val, if there is no value in the base range of its type with the given position number, Constraint_Error is raised. 7

Ramification: By the overload resolution rules, a formal parameter of type *universal_integer* allows an actual parameter of any integer type. 7.a

Reason: We considered allowing S'Val for a signed integer subtype S to return an out-of-range value, but since checks were required for enumeration and modular types anyway, the allowance didn't seem worth the complexity of the rule. 7.b

Implementation Advice

For the evaluation of a call on S'Pos for an enumeration subtype, if the value of the operand does not correspond to the internal code for any enumeration literal of its type [(perhaps due to an uninitialized variable)], then the implementation should raise Program_Error. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} This is particularly important for enumeration types with noncontiguous internal codes specified by an enumeration_representation_clause. 8

Reason: We say Program_Error here, rather than Constraint_Error, because the main reason for such values is uninitialized variables, and the normal way to indicate such a use (if detected) is to raise Program_Error. (Other reasons would involve the misuse of low-level features such as Unchecked_Conversion.) 8.a

NOTES

28 Indexing and loop iteration use values of discrete types. 9

29 {*predefined operations* [of a discrete type]} The predefined operations of a discrete type include the assignment operation, qualification, the membership tests, and the relational operators; for a boolean type they include the short-circuit control forms and the logical operators; for an integer type they include type conversion to and from other numeric types, as well as the binary and unary adding operators – and +, the multiplying operators, the unary operator **abs**, and the exponentiation operator. The assignment operation is described in 5.2. The other predefined operations are described in Section 4. 10

30 As for all types, objects of a discrete type have Size and Address attributes (see 13.3). 11

31 For a subtype of a discrete type, the result delivered by the attribute Val might not belong to the subtype; similarly, the actual parameter of the attribute Pos need not belong to the subtype. The following relations are satisfied (in the absence of an exception) by these attributes: 12

```
S'Val(S'Pos(X)) = X
S'Pos(S'Val(N)) = N
```
13

Examples

Examples of attributes of discrete subtypes: 14

-- For the types and subtypes declared in subclause 3.5.1 the following hold: 15

```
--  Color'First   = White,   Color'Last   = Black
--  Rainbow'First = Red,     Rainbow'Last = Blue
```
16

17
```
--  Color'Succ(Blue) = Rainbow'Succ(Blue) = Brown
--  Color'Pos(Blue)  = Rainbow'Pos(Blue)  = 4
--  Color'Val(0)     = Rainbow'Val(0)     = White
```

Extensions to Ada 83

17.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} The attributes S'Succ, S'Pred, S'Width, S'Image, and S'Value have been generalized to apply to real types as well (see 3.5, ''Scalar Types'').

3.5.6 Real Types

1 {*real type*} Real types provide approximations to the real numbers, with relative bounds on errors for floating point types, and with absolute bounds for fixed point types.

Syntax

2
```
real_type_definition ::=
  floating_point_definition | fixed_point_definition
```

Static Semantics

3 {*root_real*} A type defined by a real_type_definition is implicitly derived from *root_real*, an anonymous predefined (specific) real type. [Hence, all real types, whether floating point or fixed point, are in the derivation class rooted at *root_real*.]

3.a **Ramification:** It is not specified whether the derivation from *root_real* is direct or indirect, not that it really matters. All we want is for all real types to be descendants of *root_real*.

4 [{*universal_real* [partial]} {*real literals*} Real literals are all of the type *universal_real*, the universal type (see 3.4.1) for the class rooted at *root_real*, allowing their use with the operations of any real type. {*universal_fixed* [partial]} Certain multiplying operators have a result type of *universal_fixed* (see 4.5.5), the universal type for the class of fixed point types, allowing the result of the multiplication or division to be used where any specific fixed point type is expected.]

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*elaboration* [real_type_definition]} The elaboration of a real_type_definition consists of the elaboration of the floating_point_definition or the fixed_point_definition.

Implementation Requirements

6 An implementation shall perform the run-time evaluation of a use of a predefined operator of *root_real* with an accuracy at least as great as that of any floating point type definable by a floating_point_definition.

6.a **Ramification:** Static calculations using the operators of *root_real* are exact, as for all static calculations. See 4.9.

6.b **Implementation Note:** The Digits attribute of the type used to represent *root_real* at run time is at least as great as that of any other floating point type defined by a floating_point_definition, and its safe range includes that of any such floating point type with the same Digits attribute. On some machines, there might be real types with less accuracy but a wider range, and hence run-time calculations with *root_real* might not be able to accommodate all values that can be represented at run time in such floating point or fixed point types.

Implementation Permissions

7 [For the execution of a predefined operation of a real type, the implementation need not raise Constraint_Error if the result is outside the base range of the type, so long as the correct result is produced, or the Machine_Overflows attribute of the type is false (see G.2).]

8 {*nonstandard real type*}

8.a **Implementation defined:** Any nonstandard real types and the operators defined for them.

An implementation may provide *nonstandard real types*, descendants of *root_real* that are declared out-

side of the specification of package Standard, which need not have all the standard characteristics of a type defined by a real_type_definition. For example, a nonstandard real type might have an asymmetric or unsigned base range, or its predefined operations might wrap around or ''saturate'' rather than overflow (modular or saturating arithmetic), or it might not conform to the accuracy model (see G.2). Any type descended from a nonstandard real type is also nonstandard. An implementation may place arbitrary restrictions on the use of such types; it is implementation defined whether operators that are predefined for ''any real type'' are defined for a particular nonstandard real type. [In any case, such types are not permitted as explicit_generic_actual_parameters for formal scalar types — see 12.5.2.]

NOTES

32 As stated, real literals are of the anonymous predefined real type *universal_real*. Other real types have no literals. However, the overload resolution rules (see 8.6) allow expressions of the type *universal_real* whenever a real type is expected. 9

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for real_type_definition is modified to use the new syntactic categories floating_point_definition and fixed_point_definition, instead of floating_point_constraint and fixed_point_constraint, because the semantics of a type definition are significantly different than the semantics of a constraint. 9.a

All discussion of model numbers, safe ranges, and machine numbers is moved to 3.5.7, 3.5.8, and G.2. Values of a fixed point type are now described as being multiples of the *small* of the fixed point type, and we have no need for model numbers, safe ranges, etc. for fixed point types. 9.b

3.5.7 Floating Point Types

{*floating point type*} For floating point types, the error bound is specified as a relative precision by giving the required minimum number of significant decimal digits. 1

Syntax

floating_point_definition ::= 2
  digits *static*_expression [real_range_specification]

real_range_specification ::= 3
  range *static*_simple_expression .. *static*_simple_expression

Name Resolution Rules

{*requested decimal precision (of a floating point type)*} The *requested decimal precision*, which is the minimum number of significant decimal digits required for the floating point type, is specified by the value of the expression given after the reserved word **digits**. {*expected type* [requested decimal precision]} This expression is expected to be of any integer type. 4

{*expected type* [real_range_specification bounds]} Each simple_expression of a real_range_specification is expected to be of any real type[; the types need not be the same]. 5

Legality Rules

{*Max_Base_Digits*} The requested decimal precision shall be specified by a static expression whose value is positive and no greater than System.Max_Base_Digits. Each simple_expression of a real_range_specification shall also be static. {*Max_Digits*} If the real_range_specification is omitted, the requested decimal precision shall be no greater than System.Max_Digits. 6

Reason: We have added Max_Base_Digits to package System. It corresponds to the requested decimal precision of *root_real*. System.Max_Digits corresponds to the maximum value for Digits that may be specified in the absence of a real_range_specification, for upward compatibility. These might not be the same if root_real has a base range that does not include ± 10.0**(4*Max_Base_Digits). 6.a

7 A floating_point_definition is illegal if the implementation does not support a floating point type that satisfies the requested decimal precision and range.

7.a **Implementation defined:** What combinations of requested decimal precision and range are supported for floating point types.

Static Semantics

8 The set of values for a floating point type is the (infinite) set of rational numbers. {*machine numbers (of a floating point type)*} The *machine numbers* of a floating point type are the values of the type that can be represented exactly in every unconstrained variable of the type. {*base range* [of a floating point type]} The base range (see 3.5) of a floating point type is symmetric around zero, except that it can include some extra negative values in some implementations.

8.a **Implementation Note:** For example, if a 2's complement representation is used for the mantissa rather than a sign-mantissa or 1's complement representation, then there is usually one extra negative machine number.

8.b **To be honest:** If the Signed_Zeros attribute is True, then minus zero could in a sense be considered a value of the type. However, for most purposes, minus zero behaves the same as plus zero.

9 {*base decimal precision (of a floating point type)*} The *base decimal precision* of a floating point type is the number of decimal digits of precision representable in objects of the type. {*safe range (of a floating point type)*} The *safe range* of a floating point type is that part of its base range for which the accuracy corresponding to the base decimal precision is preserved by all predefined operations.

9.a **Implementation Note:** In most cases, the safe range and base range are the same. However, for some hardware, values near the boundaries of the base range might result in excessive inaccuracies or spurious overflows when used with certain predefined operations. For such hardware, the safe range would omit such values.

10 {*base decimal precision* [of a floating point type]} A floating_point_definition defines a floating point type whose base decimal precision is no less than the requested decimal precision. {*safe range* [of a floating point type]} {*base range* [of a floating point type]} If a real_range_specification is given, the safe range of the floating point type (and hence, also its base range) includes at least the values of the simple expressions given in the real_range_specification. If a real_range_specification is not given, the safe (and base) range of the type includes at least the values of the range –10.0**(4*D) .. +10.0**(4*D) where D is the requested decimal precision. [The safe range might include other values as well. The attributes Safe_First and Safe_Last give the actual bounds of the safe range.]

11 A floating_point_definition also defines a first subtype of the type. {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} If a real_range_specification is given, then the subtype is constrained to a range whose bounds are given by a conversion of the values of the simple_expressions of the real_range_specification to the type being defined. {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of a floating point type]} Otherwise, the subtype is unconstrained.

12 {*Float*} There is a predefined, unconstrained, floating point subtype named Float[, declared in the visible part of package Standard].

Dynamic Semantics

13 {*elaboration* [floating_point_definition]} [The elaboration of a floating_point_definition creates the floating point type and its first subtype.]

Implementation Requirements

14 {*Float*} In an implementation that supports floating point types with 6 or more digits of precision, the requested decimal precision for Float shall be at least 6.

{*Long_Float*} If Long_Float is predefined for an implementation, then its requested decimal precision shall be at least 11. 15

Implementation Permissions

{*Short_Float*} {*Long_Float*} An implementation is allowed to provide additional predefined floating point types[, declared in the visible part of Standard], whose (unconstrained) first subtypes have names of the form Short_Float, Long_Float, Short_Short_Float, Long_Long_Float, etc. Different predefined floating point types are allowed to have the same base decimal precision. However, the precision of Float should be no greater than that of Long_Float. Similarly, the precision of Short_Float (if provided) should be no greater than Float. Corresponding recommendations apply to any other predefined floating point types. There need not be a named floating point type corresponding to each distinct base decimal precision supported by an implementation. 16

Implementation defined: The predefined floating point types declared in Standard. 16.a

Implementation Advice

{*Long_Float*} An implementation should support Long_Float in addition to Float if the target machine supports 11 or more digits of precision. No other named floating point subtypes are recommended for package Standard. Instead, appropriate named floating point subtypes should be provided in the library package Interfaces (see B.2). 17

Implementation Note: To promote portability, implementations should explicitly declare the floating point (sub)types Float and Long_Float in Standard, and leave other predefined float types anonymous. For implementations that already support Short_Float, etc., upward compatibility argues for keeping such declarations in Standard during the transition period, but perhaps generating a warning on use. A separate package Interfaces in the predefined environment is available for pre-declaring types such as Float_32, IEEE_Float_64, etc. See B.2. 17.a

NOTES
33 If a floating point subtype is unconstrained, then assignments to variables of the subtype involve only Overflow_Checks, never Range_Checks. 18

Examples

Examples of floating point types and subtypes: 19

```
type Coefficient is digits 10 range -1.0 .. 1.0;
```
20

```
type Real is digits 8;
type Mass is digits 7 range 0.0 .. 1.0E35;
```
21

```
subtype Probability is Real range 0.0 .. 1.0;    -- a subtype with a smaller range
```
22

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} No Range_Checks, only Overflow_Checks, are performed on variables (or parameters) of an unconstrained floating point subtype. This is upward compatible for programs that do not raise Constraint_Error. For those that do raise Constraint_Error, it is possible that the exception will be raised at a later point, or not at all, if extended range floating point registers are used to hold the value of the variable (or parameter). 22.a

Reason: This change was felt to be justified by the possibility of improved performance on machines with extended-range floating point registers. An implementation need not take advantage of this relaxation in the range checking; it can hide completely the use of extended range registers if desired, presumably at some run-time expense. 22.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rules for floating_point_constraint and floating_accuracy_definition are removed. The syntax rules for floating_point_definition and real_range_specification are new. 22.c

A syntax rule for digits_constraint is given in 3.5.9, ‘‘Fixed Point Types’’. In J.3 we indicate that a digits_constraint may be applied to a floating point subtype_mark as well (to be compatible with Ada 83’s floating_point_constraint). 22.d

Discussion of model numbers is postponed to 3.5.8 and G.2. The concept of safe numbers has been replaced by the concept of the safe range of values. The bounds of the safe range are given by T’Safe_First .. T’Safe_Last, rather than -T’Safe_Large .. T’Safe_Large, since on some machines the safe range is not perfectly symmetric. The concept of machine numbers is new, and is relevant to the definition of Succ and Pred for floating point numbers. 22.e

3.5.8 Operations of Floating Point Types

Static Semantics

1 The following attribute is defined for every floating point subtype S:

2 S'Digits — S'Digits denotes the requested decimal precision for the subtype S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. The requested decimal precision of the base subtype of a floating point type *T* is defined to be the largest value of *d* for which ceiling(*d* * log(10) / log(T'Machine_Radix)) + 1 <= T'Model_Mantissa.

NOTES

3 34 {*predefined operations* [of a floating point type]} The predefined operations of a floating point type include the assignment operation, qualification, the membership tests, and explicit conversion to and from other numeric types. They also include the relational operators and the following predefined arithmetic operators: the binary and unary adding operators – and +, certain multiplying operators, the unary operator **abs**, and the exponentiation operator.

4 35 As for all types, objects of a floating point type have Size and Address attributes (see 13.3). Other attributes of floating point types are defined in A.5.3.

3.5.9 Fixed Point Types

1 {*fixed point type*} {*ordinary fixed point type*} {*decimal fixed point type*} A fixed point type is either an ordinary fixed point type, or a decimal fixed point type. {*delta (of a fixed point type)*} The error bound of a fixed point type is specified as an absolute value, called the *delta* of the fixed point type.

Syntax

2 fixed_point_definition ::= ordinary_fixed_point_definition | decimal_fixed_point_definition

3 ordinary_fixed_point_definition ::=
  delta *static*_expression real_range_specification

4 decimal_fixed_point_definition ::=
  delta *static*_expression **digits** *static*_expression [real_range_specification]

5 digits_constraint ::=
  digits *static*_expression [range_constraint]

Name Resolution Rules

6 {*expected type* [fixed point type delta]} For a type defined by a fixed_point_definition, the *delta* of the type is specified by the value of the expression given after the reserved word **delta**; this expression is expected to be of any real type. {*expected type* [decimal fixed point type digits]} {*digits (of a decimal fixed point subtype)*} {*decimal fixed point type*} For a type defined by a decimal_fixed_point_definition (a *decimal* fixed point type), the number of significant decimal digits for its first subtype (the *digits* of the first subtype) is specified by the expression given after the reserved word **digits**; this expression is expected to be of any integer type.

Legality Rules

7 In a fixed_point_definition or digits_constraint, the expressions given after the reserved words **delta** and **digits** shall be static; their values shall be positive.

8 {*small (of a fixed point type)*} The set of values of a fixed point type comprise the integral multiples of a number called the *small* of the type. {*ordinary fixed point type*} For a type defined by an ordinary_fixed_point_definition (an *ordinary* fixed point type), the *small* may be specified by an attribute_definition_clause (see 13.3); if so specified, it shall be no greater than the *delta* of the type. If not specified, the *small* of an ordinary fixed point type is an implementation-defined power of two less than or equal to the *delta*.

Implementation defined: The *small* of an ordinary fixed point type. 8.a

For a decimal fixed point type, the *small* equals the *delta*; the *delta* shall be a power of 10. If a real_range_specification is given, both bounds of the range shall be in the range –(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_ .. +(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_. 9

A fixed_point_definition is illegal if the implementation does not support a fixed point type with the given *small* and specified range or *digits*. 10

Implementation defined: What combinations of *small*, range, and *digits* are supported for fixed point types. 10.a

For a subtype_indication with a digits_constraint, the subtype_mark shall denote a decimal fixed point subtype. 11

To be honest: Or, as an obsolescent feature, a floating point subtype is permitted — see J.3. 11.a

Static Semantics

{*base range* [of a fixed point type]} The base range (see 3.5) of a fixed point type is symmetric around zero, except possibly for an extra negative value in some implementations. 12

{*base range* [of an ordinary fixed point type]} An ordinary_fixed_point_definition defines an ordinary fixed point type whose base range includes at least all multiples of *small* that are between the bounds specified in the real_range_specification. The base range of the type does not necessarily include the specified bounds themselves. {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} An ordinary_fixed_point_definition also defines a constrained first subtype of the type, with each bound of its range given by the closer to zero of: 13

- the value of the conversion to the fixed point type of the corresponding expression of the real_range_specification; {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of a fixed point type]} 14
- the corresponding bound of the base range. 15

{*base range* [of a decimal fixed point type]} A decimal_fixed_point_definition defines a decimal fixed point type whose base range includes at least the range –(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_ .. +(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_. {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A decimal_fixed_point_definition also defines a constrained first subtype of the type. If a real_range_specification is given, the bounds of the first subtype are given by a conversion of the values of the expressions of the real_range_specification. {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of a decimal fixed point type]} Otherwise, the range of the first subtype is –(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_ .. +(10**_digits_–1)*_delta_. 16

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [fixed_point_definition]} The elaboration of a fixed_point_definition creates the fixed point type and its first subtype. 17

For a digits_constraint on a decimal fixed point subtype with a given *delta*, if it does not have a range_constraint, then it specifies an implicit range –(10**_D_–1)*_delta_ .. +(10**_D_–1)*_delta_, where *D* is the value of the expression. {*compatibility (digits_constraint with a decimal fixed point subtype)*} A digits_constraint is *compatible* with a decimal fixed point subtype if the value of the expression is no greater than the *digits* of the subtype, and if it specifies (explicitly or implicitly) a range that is compatible with the subtype. 18

Discussion: Except for the requirement that the *digits* specified be no greater than the *digits* of the subtype being constrained, a digits_constraint is essentially equivalent to a range_constraint. 18.a

Consider the following example: 18.b

```
type D is delta 0.01 digits 7 range -0.00 .. 9999.99;
```
18.c

18.d The compatibility rule implies that the digits_constraint "**digits** 6" specifies an implicit range of "– 99.9999 .. 99.9999". Thus, "**digits** 6" is not compatible with the constraint of D, but "**digits** 6 range 0.00 .. 9999.99" is compatible.

18.e A value of a scalar type belongs to a constrained subtype of the type if it belongs to the range of the subtype. Attributes like Digits and Delta have no affect on this fundamental rule. So the obsolescent forms of digits_constraints and delta_constraints that are called ''accuracy constraints'' in RM83 don't really represent constraints on the values of the subtype, but rather primarily affect compatibility of the ''constraint'' with the subtype being ''constrained.'' In this sense, they might better be called ''subtype assertions'' rather than ''constraints.''

18.f Note that the digits_constraint on a decimal fixed point subtype is a combination of an assertion about the *digits* of the subtype being further constrained, and a constraint on the range of the subtype being defined, either explicit or implicit.

19 {*elaboration* [digits_constraint]} The elaboration of a digits_constraint consists of the elaboration of the range_constraint, if any. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} If a range_constraint is given, a check is made that the bounds of the range are both in the range –(10**D*–1)**delta* .. +(10**D*–1)**delta*, where *D* is the value of the (static) expression given after the reserved word **digits**. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If this check fails, Constraint_Error is raised.

Implementation Requirements

20 The implementation shall support at least 24 bits of precision (including the sign bit) for fixed point types.

20.a **Reason:** This is sufficient to represent Standard.Duration with a *small* no more than 50 milliseconds.

Implementation Permissions

21 Implementations are permitted to support only *small*s that are a power of two. In particular, all decimal fixed point type declarations can be disallowed. Note however that conformance with the Information Systems Annex requires support for decimal *small*s, and decimal fixed point type declarations with *digits* up to at least 18.

21.a **Implementation Note:** The accuracy requirements for multiplication, division, and conversion (see G.2.1, ''Model of Floating Point Arithmetic'') are such that support for arbitrary *small*s should be practical without undue implementation effort. Therefore, implementations should support fixed point types with arbitrary values for *small* (within reason). One reasonable limitation would be to limit support to fixed point types that can be converted to the most precise floating point type without loss of precision (so that Fixed_IO is implementable in terms of Float_IO).

NOTES

22 36 The base range of an ordinary fixed point type need not include the specified bounds themselves so that the range specification can be given in a natural way, such as:

23
```
type Fraction is delta 2.0**(-15) range -1.0 .. 1.0;
```

24 With 2's complement hardware, such a type could have a signed 16-bit representation, using 1 bit for the sign and 15 bits for fraction, resulting in a base range of –1.0 .. 1.0–2.0**(–15).

Examples

25 *Examples of fixed point types and subtypes:*

26
```
type Volt is delta 0.125 range 0.0 .. 255.0;
```

27
```
   -- A pure fraction which requires all the available
   -- space in a word can be declared as the type Fraction:
type Fraction is delta System.Fine_Delta range -1.0 .. 1.0;
   -- Fraction'Last = 1.0 - System.Fine_Delta
```

28
```
type Money is delta 0.01 digits 15;   -- decimal fixed point
subtype Salary is Money digits 10;
   -- Money'Last = 10.0**13 - 0.01, Salary'Last = 10.0**8 - 0.01
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

28.a {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} In Ada 9X, S'Small always equals S'Base'Small, so if an implementation chooses a *small* for a fixed point type smaller than required by the *delta*, the value of S'Small in Ada 9X might not be the same as it was in Ada 83.

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Decimal fixed point types are new, though their capabilities are essentially similar to that available in Ada 83 with a fixed point type whose *small* equals its *delta* equals a power of 10. However, in the Information Systems Annex, additional requirements are placed on the support of decimal fixed point types (e.g. a minimum of 18 digits of precision). 28.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rules for fixed_point_constraint and fixed_accuracy_definition are removed. The syntax rule for fixed_point_definition is new. A syntax rule for delta_constraint is included in the Obsolescent features (to be compatible with Ada 83's fixed_point_constraint). 28.c

3.5.10 Operations of Fixed Point Types

Static Semantics

The following attributes are defined for every fixed point subtype S: 1

S'Small — S'Small denotes the *small* of the type of S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. {*specifiable* [of Small for fixed point types]} {*Small clause*} Small may be specified for nonderived fixed point types via an attribute_definition_clause (see 13.3); the expression of such a clause shall be static. 2

S'Delta — S'Delta denotes the *delta* of the fixed point subtype S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. 3

Reason: The *delta* is associated with the *sub*type as opposed to the type, because of the possibility of an (obsolescent) delta_constraint. 3.a

S'Fore — S'Fore yields the minimum number of characters needed before the decimal point for the decimal representation of any value of the subtype S, assuming that the representation does not include an exponent, but includes a one-character prefix that is either a minus sign or a space. (This minimum number does not include superfluous zeros or underlines, and is at least 2.) The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 4

S'Aft — S'Aft yields the number of decimal digits needed after the decimal point to accommodate the *delta* of the subtype S, unless the *delta* of the subtype S is greater than 0.1, in which case the attribute yields the value one. [(S'Aft is the smallest positive integer N for which (10**N)*S'Delta is greater than or equal to one.)] The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 5

The following additional attributes are defined for every decimal fixed point subtype S: 6

S'Digits — S'Digits denotes the *digits* of the decimal fixed point subtype S, which corresponds to the number of decimal digits that are representable in objects of the subtype. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. Its value is determined as follows: {*digits (of a decimal fixed point subtype)*} 7

- For a first subtype or a subtype defined by a subtype_indication with a digits_constraint, the digits is the value of the expression given after the reserved word **digits**; 8
- For a subtype defined by a subtype_indication without a digits_constraint, the digits of the subtype is the same as that of the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark in the subtype_indication. 9

Implementation Note: Although a decimal subtype can be both range-constrained and digits-constrained, the digits constraint is intended to control the Size attribute of the subtype. For decimal types, Size can be important because input/output of decimal types is so common. 9.a

- The digits of a base subtype is the largest integer *D* such that the range –(10**_D_–1)*_delta_ .. +(10**_D_–1)*_delta_ is included in the base range of the type. 10

11 S'Scale — S'Scale denotes the *scale* of the subtype S, defined as the value N such that S'Delta = 10.0**(–N). {*scale (of a decimal fixed point subtype)*} [The scale indicates the position of the point relative to the rightmost significant digits of values of subtype S.] The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*.

11.a **Ramification:** S'Scale is negative if S'Delta is greater than one. By contrast, S'Aft is always positive.

12 S'Round — S'Round denotes a function with the following specification:

13
```
function S'Round(X : universal_real)
  return S'Base
```

14 The function returns the value obtained by rounding X (away from 0, if X is midway between two values of the type of S).

NOTES

15 37 All subtypes of a fixed point type will have the same value for the Delta attribute, in the absence of delta_constraints (see J.3).

16 38 S'Scale is not always the same as S'Aft for a decimal subtype; for example, if S'Delta = 1.0 then S'Aft is 1 while S'Scale is 0.

17 39 {*predefined operations* [of a fixed point type]} The predefined operations of a fixed point type include the assignment operation, qualification, the membership tests, and explicit conversion to and from other numeric types. They also include the relational operators and the following predefined arithmetic operators: the binary and unary adding operators – and +, multiplying operators, and the unary operator **abs**.

18 40 As for all types, objects of a fixed point type have Size and Address attributes (see 13.3). Other attributes of fixed point types are defined in A.5.4.

3.6 Array Types

1 {*array*} {*array type*} An *array* object is a composite object consisting of components which all have the same subtype. The name for a component of an array uses one or more index values belonging to specified discrete types. The value of an array object is a composite value consisting of the values of the components.

Syntax

2 array_type_definition ::=
  unconstrained_array_definition | constrained_array_definition

3 unconstrained_array_definition ::=
  array(index_subtype_definition {, index_subtype_definition}) **of** component_definition

4 index_subtype_definition ::= subtype_mark **range** <>

5 constrained_array_definition ::=
  array (discrete_subtype_definition {, discrete_subtype_definition}) **of** component_definition

6 discrete_subtype_definition ::= *discrete*_subtype_indication | range

7 component_definition ::= [**aliased**] subtype_indication

Name Resolution Rules

8 {*expected type* [discrete_subtype_definition range]} For a discrete_subtype_definition that is a range, the range shall resolve to be of some specific discrete type[; which discrete type shall be determined without using any context other than the bounds of the range itself (plus the preference for *root_integer* — see 8.6).]

Legality Rules

9 {*index subtype*} Each index_subtype_definition or discrete_subtype_definition in an array_type_definition defines an *index subtype*; {*index type*} its type (the *index type*) shall be discrete.

Discussion: {*index (of an array)*} An *index* is a discrete quantity used to select along a given dimension of an array. A component is selected by specifying corresponding values for each of the indices. 9.a

{*component subtype*} The subtype defined by the subtype_indication of a component_definition (the *component subtype*) shall be a definite subtype. 10

Ramification: This applies to all uses of component_definition, including in record_type_definitions and protected_definitions. 10.a

Within the definition of a nonlimited composite type (or a limited composite type that later in its immediate scope becomes nonlimited — see 7.3.1 and 7.5), if a component_definition contains the reserved word **aliased** and the type of the component is discriminated, then the nominal subtype of the component shall be constrained. 11

Reason: If we allowed the subtype to be unconstrained, then the discriminants might change because of an assignment to the containing (nonlimited) object, thus causing a potential violation of an access subtype constraint of an access value designating the aliased component. 11.a

Note that the rule elsewhere defining all aliased discriminated objects to be constrained does not help — that rule prevents assignments to the component itself from doing any harm, but not assignments to the containing object. 11.b

We allow this for components within limited types since assignment to the enclosing object is not a problem. Furthermore, it is important to be able to use a default expression for a discriminant in arrays of limited components, since that is the only way to give the components different values for their discriminants. For example: 11.c

```
protected type Counter_Type(Initial_Value : Integer := 1) is                    11.d
   procedure Get_Next(Next_Value : out Integer);
      -- Returns the next value on each call, bumping Count
      -- before returning.
private
   Count : Integer := Initial_Value;
end Counter_Type;
protected body Counter_Type is ...

function Next_Id(Counter : access Counter_Type) return Integer is               11.e
    Result : Integer;
begin
    Counter.Get_Next(Result);
    return Result;
end Next_Id;

C : aliased Counter_Type;                                                       11.f
task type T(Who_Am_I : Integer := Next_Id(C'Access));
task body T is ...

Task_Array : array(1..100) of aliased T;                                        11.g
   -- Array of task elements, each with its own unique ID.
   -- We specify "aliased" so we can use Task_Array(I)'Access.
   -- This is safe because Task_Array is of a limited type,
   -- so there is no way an assignment to it could change
   -- the discriminants of one of its components.
```

Ramification: Note that this rule applies to array components and record components, but not to protected type components (since they are always limited). 11.h

Static Semantics

{*dimensionality (of an array)*} {*one-dimensional array*} {*multi-dimensional array*} An array is characterized by the number of indices (the *dimensionality* of the array), the type and position of each index, the lower and upper bounds for each index, and the subtype of the components. The order of the indices is significant. 12

A one-dimensional array has a distinct component for each possible index value. A multidimensional array has a distinct component for each possible sequence of index values that can be formed by selecting one value for each index position (in the given order). The possible values for a given index are all the values between the lower and upper bounds, inclusive; {*index range*} this range of values is called the *index* 13

range. {*bounds (of an array)*} The *bounds* of an array are the bounds of its index ranges. {*length (of a dimension of an array)*} The *length* of a dimension of an array is the number of values of the index range of the dimension (zero for a null range). {*length (of a one-dimensional array)*} The *length* of a one-dimensional array is the length of its only dimension.

14 An array_type_definition defines an array type and its first subtype. For each object of this array type, the number of indices, the type and position of each index, and the subtype of the components are as in the type definition[; the values of the lower and upper bounds for each index belong to the corresponding index subtype of its type, except for null arrays (see 3.6.1)].

15 {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} An unconstrained_array_definition defines an array type with an unconstrained first subtype. Each index_subtype_definition defines the corresponding index subtype to be the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark.[{*box* [compound delimiter]} The compound delimiter <> (called a *box*) of an index_subtype_definition stands for an undefined range (different objects of the type need not have the same bounds).]

16 {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A constrained_array_definition defines an array type with a constrained first subtype. Each discrete_subtype_definition defines the corresponding index subtype, as well as the corresponding index range for the constrained first subtype. {*constraint* [of a first array subtype]} The *constraint* of the first subtype consists of the bounds of the index ranges.

16.a **Discussion:** Although there is no namable unconstrained array subtype in this case, the predefined slicing and concatenation operations can operate on and yield values that do not necessarily belong to the first array subtype. This is also true for Ada 83.

17 The discrete subtype defined by a discrete_subtype_definition is either that defined by the subtype_indication, or a subtype determined by the range as follows:

18 • If the type of the range resolves to *root_integer*, then the discrete_subtype_definition defines a subtype of the predefined type Integer with bounds given by a conversion to Integer of the bounds of the range; {*implicit subtype conversion* [bounds of a range]}

18.a **Reason:** This ensures that indexing over the discrete subtype can be performed with regular Integers, rather than only *universal_integer*s.

18.b **Discussion:** We considered doing this by simply creating a ‘‘preference’’ for Integer when resolving the range. {*Beaujolais effect* [partial]} However, this can introduce *Beaujolais* effects when the simple_expressions involve calls on functions visible due to **use** clauses.

19 • Otherwise, the discrete_subtype_definition defines a subtype of the type of the range, with the bounds given by the range.

20 {*nominal subtype* [of a component]} The component_definition of an array_type_definition defines the nominal subtype of the components. If the reserved word **aliased** appears in the component_definition, then each component of the array is aliased (see 3.10).

20.a **Ramification:** In this case, the nominal subtype cannot be an unconstrained discriminated subtype. See 3.8.

Dynamic Semantics

21 {*elaboration* [array_type_definition]} The elaboration of an array_type_definition creates the array type and its first subtype, and consists of the elaboration of any discrete_subtype_definitions and the component_definition.

22 {*elaboration* [discrete_subtype_definition]} The elaboration of a discrete_subtype_definition creates the discrete subtype, and consists of the elaboration of the subtype_indication or the evaluation of the range.

{*elaboration* [component_definition]} The elaboration of a component_definition in an array_type_definition consists of the elaboration of the subtype_indication. The elaboration of any discrete_subtype_definitions and the elaboration of the component_definition are performed in an arbitrary order.

NOTES

41 All components of an array have the same subtype. In particular, for an array of components that are one-dimensional arrays, this means that all components have the same bounds and hence the same length. 23

42 Each elaboration of an array_type_definition creates a distinct array type. A consequence of this is that each object whose object_declaration contains an array_type_definition is of its own unique type. 24

Examples

Examples of type declarations with unconstrained array definitions: 25

```
type Vector     is array(Integer  range <>) of Real;                          26
type Matrix     is array(Integer  range <>, Integer range <>) of Real;
type Bit_Vector is array(Integer  range <>) of Boolean;
type Roman      is array(Positive range <>) of Roman_Digit; -- see 3.5.2
```

Examples of type declarations with constrained array definitions: 27

```
type Table    is array(1 .. 10) of Integer;                                   28
type Schedule is array(Day) of Boolean;
type Line     is array(1 .. Max_Line_Size) of Character;
```

Examples of object declarations with array type definitions: 29

```
Grid : array(1 .. 80, 1 .. 100) of Boolean;                                   30
Mix  : array(Color range Red .. Green) of Boolean;
Page : array(Positive range <>) of Line :=  -- an array of arrays
  (1 | 50  => Line'(1 | Line'Last => '+', others => '-'),  -- see 4.3.3
   2 .. 49 => Line'(1 | Line'Last => '|', others => ' '));
    -- Page is constrained by its initial value to (1..50)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for component_definition is modified to allow the reserved word **aliased**. 30.a

The syntax rules for unconstrained_array_definition and constrained_array_definition are modified to use component_definition (instead of *component*_subtype_indication). The effect of this change is to allow the reserved word **aliased** before the component subtype_indication. 30.b

A range in a discrete_subtype_definition may use arbitrary universal expressions for each bound (e.g. –1 .. 3+5), rather than strictly "implicitly convertible" operands. The subtype defined will still be a subtype of Integer. 30.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We introduce a new syntactic category, discrete_subtype_definition, as distinct from discrete_range. These two constructs have the same syntax, but their semantics are quite different (one defines a subtype, with a preference for Integer subtypes, while the other just selects a subrange of an existing subtype). We use this new syntactic category in **for** loops and entry families. 30.d

The syntax for index_constraint and discrete_range have been moved to their own subclause, since they are no longer used here. 30.e

The syntax rule for component_definition (formerly component_subtype_definition) is moved here from RM83-3.7. 30.f

3.6.1 Index Constraints and Discrete Ranges

An index_constraint determines the range of possible values for every index of an array subtype, and thereby the corresponding array bounds. 1

Syntax

2 index_constraint ::= (discrete_range {, discrete_range})

3 discrete_range ::= *discrete*_subtype_indication | range

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*type of a* discrete_range} The type of a discrete_range is the type of the subtype defined by the subtype_indication, or the type of the range. {*expected type* [index_constraint discrete_range]} For an index_constraint, each discrete_range shall resolve to be of the type of the corresponding index.

4.a **Discussion:** In Ada 9X, index_constraints only appear in a subtype_indication; they no longer appear in constrained_array_definitions.

Legality Rules

5 An index_constraint shall appear only in a subtype_indication whose subtype_mark denotes either an unconstrained array subtype, or an unconstrained access subtype whose designated subtype is an unconstrained array subtype; in either case, the index_constraint shall provide a discrete_range for each index of the array type.

Static Semantics

6 {*bounds (of a* discrete_range*)*} A discrete_range defines a range whose bounds are given by the range, or by the range of the subtype defined by the subtype_indication.

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*compatibility* [index constraint with a subtype]} An index_constraint is *compatible* with an unconstrained array subtype if and only if the index range defined by each discrete_range is compatible (see 3.5) with the corresponding index subtype. {*null array*} If any of the discrete_ranges defines a null range, any array thus constrained is a *null array*, having no components. {*satisfies* [an index constraint]} An array value *satisfies* an index_constraint if at each index position the array value and the index_constraint have the same index bounds.

7.a **Ramification:** There is no need to define compatibility with a constrained array subtype, because one is not allowed to constrain it again.

8 {*elaboration* [index_constraint]} The elaboration of an index_constraint consists of the evaluation of the discrete_range(s), in an arbitrary order. {*evaluation* [discrete_range]} The evaluation of a discrete_range consists of the elaboration of the subtype_indication or the evaluation of the range.

NOTES

9 43 The elaboration of a subtype_indication consisting of a subtype_mark followed by an index_constraint checks the compatibility of the index_constraint with the subtype_mark (see 3.2.2).

10 44 Even if an array value does not satisfy the index constraint of an array subtype, Constraint_Error is not raised on conversion to the array subtype, so long as the length of each dimension of the array value and the array subtype match. See 4.6.

Examples

11 *Examples of array declarations including an index constraint:*

12
```
Board     : Matrix(1 .. 8,  1 .. 8);  -- see 3.6
Rectangle : Matrix(1 .. 20, 1 .. 30);
Inverse   : Matrix(1 .. N,  1 .. N);  -- N need not be static
```

13
```
Filter    : Bit_Vector(0 .. 31);
```

14 *Example of array declaration with a constrained array subtype:*

15
```
My_Schedule : Schedule;  -- all arrays of type Schedule have the same bounds
```

Example of record type with a component that is an array: 16

```
type Var_Line(Length : Natural) is                                    17
   record
      Image : String(1 .. Length);
   end record;
Null_Line : Var_Line(0);  -- Null_Line.Image is a null array          18
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} We allow the declaration of a variable with a nominally unconstrained array subtype, so long as it has an initialization expression to determine its bounds. 18.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have moved the syntax for index_constraint and discrete_range here since they are no longer used in constrained_array_definitions. We therefore also no longer have to describe the (special) semantics of index_constraints and discrete_ranges that appear in constrained_array_definitions. 18.b

The rules given in RM83-3.6.1(5,7-10), which define the bounds of an array object, are redundant with rules given elsewhere, and so are not repeated here. RM83-3.6.1(6), which requires that the (nominal) subtype of an array variable be constrained, no longer applies, so long as the variable is explicitly initialized. 18.c

3.6.2 Operations of Array Types

Legality Rules

[The argument N used in the attribute_designators for the N-th dimension of an array shall be a static expression of some integer type.] The value of N shall be positive (nonzero) and no greater than the dimensionality of the array. 1

Static Semantics

The following attributes are defined for a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype: 2

Ramification: These attributes are not defined if A is a subtype-mark for an access-to-array subtype. They are defined (by implicit dereference) for access-to-array values. 2.a

A'First — A'First denotes the lower bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. 3

A'First(N) — A'First(N) denotes the lower bound of the N-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type. 4

A'Last — A'Last denotes the upper bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. 5

A'Last(N) — A'Last(N) denotes the upper bound of the N-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type. 6

A'Range — A'Range is equivalent to the range A'First .. A'Last, except that the prefix A is only evaluated once. 7

A'Range(N) — A'Range(N) is equivalent to the range A'First(N) .. A'Last(N), except that the prefix A is only evaluated once. 8

A'Length — A'Length denotes the number of values of the first index range (zero for a null range); its type is *universal_integer*. 9

A'Length(N) — A'Length(N) denotes the number of values of the N-th index range (zero for a null range); its type is *universal_integer*. 10

Implementation Advice

An implementation should normally represent multidimensional arrays in row-major order, consistent with the notation used for multidimensional array aggregates (see 4.3.3). However, if a **pragma** 11

Convention(Fortran, ...) applies to a multidimensional array type, then column-major order should be used instead (see B.5, ‘‘Interfacing with Fortran’’).

NOTES

12 45 The attribute_references A’First and A’First(1) denote the same value. A similar relation exists for the attribute_references A’Last, A’Range, and A’Length. The following relation is satisfied (except for a null array) by the above attributes if the index type is an integer type:

13
```
A’Length(N) = A’Last(N) - A’First(N) + 1
```

14 46 An array type is limited if its component type is limited (see 7.5).

15 47 {*predefined operations* [of an array type]} The predefined operations of an array type include the membership tests, qualification, and explicit conversion. If the array type is not limited, they also include assignment and the predefined equality operators. For a one-dimensional array type, they include the predefined concatenation operators (if nonlimited) and, if the component type is discrete, the predefined relational operators; if the component type is boolean, the predefined logical operators are also included.

16 48 A component of an array can be named with an indexed_component. A value of an array type can be specified with an array_aggregate, unless the array type is limited. For a one-dimensional array type, a slice of the array can be named; also, string literals are defined if the component type is a character type.

Examples

17 *Examples (using arrays declared in the examples of subclause 3.6.1):*

18
```
--  Filter’First       =    0   Filter’Last        =  31   Filter’Length  =  32
--  Rectangle’Last(1)  =   20   Rectangle’Last(2)  =  30
```

3.6.3 String Types

Static Semantics

1 {*string type*} A one-dimensional array type whose component type is a character type is called a *string* type.

2 [There are two predefined string types, String and Wide_String, each indexed by values of the predefined subtype Positive; these are declared in the visible part of package Standard:

3
```
subtype Positive is Integer range 1 .. Integer’Last;
```

4
```
type String is array(Positive range <>) of Character;
type Wide_String is array(Positive range <>) of Wide_Character;
```

]

NOTES

5 49 String literals (see 2.6 and 4.2) are defined for all string types. The concatenation operator & is predefined for string types, as for all nonlimited one-dimensional array types. The ordering operators <, <=, >, and >= are predefined for string types, as for all one-dimensional discrete array types; these ordering operators correspond to lexicographic order (see 4.5.2).

Examples

6 *Examples of string objects:*

7
```
Stars      : String(1 .. 120) := (1 .. 120 => ’*’ );
Question   : constant String  := "How many characters?";
                                          -- Question’First = 1, Question’Last = 20
                                          -- Question’Length = 20 (the number of characters)
```

8
```
Ask_Twice  : String  := Question & Question;    -- constrained to (1..40)
Ninety_Six : constant Roman   := "XCVI";       -- see 3.5.2 and 3.6
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

8.a {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} The declaration of Wide_String in Standard hides a use-visible declaration with the same defining_identifier. In rare cases, this might result in an inconsistency between Ada 83 and Ada 9X.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} Because both String and Wide_String are always directly visible, an expression like 8.b

```
"a" < "bc"
```
8.c

is now ambiguous, whereas in Ada 83 both string literals could be resolved to type String. 8.d

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The type Wide_String is new (though it was approved by ARG for Ada 83 compilers as well). 8.e

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We define the term *string type* as a natural analogy to the term *character type*. 8.f

3.7 Discriminants

[{*discriminant*} {*type parameter: see discriminant*} {*parameter: see also discriminant*} A composite type (other than an array type) can have discriminants, which parameterize the type. A known_discriminant_part specifies the discriminants of a composite type. A discriminant of an object is a component of the object, and is either of a discrete type or an access type. An unknown_discriminant_part in the declaration of a partial view of a type specifies that the discriminants of the type are unknown for the given view; all subtypes of such a partial view are indefinite subtypes.] 1

Glossary entry: {*Discriminant*} A discriminant is a parameter of a composite type. It can control, for example, the bounds of a component of the type if that type is an array type. A discriminant of a task type can be used to pass data to a task of the type upon creation. 1.a

Discussion: {*unknown discriminants* [partial]} {*discriminants* [unknown]} A type, and all of its subtypes, have *unknown discriminants* when the number or names of the discriminants, if any, are unknown at the point of the type declaration. A discriminant_part of (<>) is used to indicate unknown discriminants. 1.b

Syntax

discriminant_part ::= unknown_discriminant_part | known_discriminant_part 2

unknown_discriminant_part ::= (<>) 3

known_discriminant_part ::= 4
  (discriminant_specification {; discriminant_specification})

discriminant_specification ::= 5
  defining_identifier_list : subtype_mark [:= default_expression]
 | defining_identifier_list : access_definition [:= default_expression]

default_expression ::= expression 6

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [discriminant default_expression]} The expected type for the default_expression of a discriminant_specification is that of the corresponding discriminant. 7

Legality Rules

A known_discriminant_part is only permitted in a declaration for a composite type that is not an array type [(this includes generic formal types)]; {*discriminated type*} a type declared with a known_discriminant_part is called a *discriminated* type, as is a type that inherits (known) discriminants. 8

Implementation Note: Discriminants on array types were considered, but were omitted to ease (existing) implementations. 8.a

Discussion: Note that the above definition for ‘‘discriminated type’’ does not include types declared with an unknown_discriminant_part. This seems consistent with Ada 83, where such types (in a generic formal part) would not be considered discriminated types. Furthermore, the full type for a type with unknown discriminants need not even be composite, much less have any discriminants. 8.b

9 The subtype of a discriminant may be defined by a subtype_mark, in which case the subtype_mark shall denote a discrete or access subtype, or it may be defined by an access_definition [(in which case the subtype_mark of the access_definition may denote any kind of subtype)]. {*access discriminant*} A discriminant that is defined by an access_definition is called an *access discriminant* and is of an anonymous general access-to-variable type whose designated subtype is denoted by the subtype_mark of the access_definition.

9.a **Reason:** In an earlier version of Ada 9X, we allowed access discriminants on nonlimited types, but this created unpleasant complexities. It turned out to be simpler and more uniform to allow discriminants of a named access type on any discriminated type, and keep access discriminants just for limited types.

9.b Note that discriminants of a named access type are not considered ''access discriminants.'' Similarly, ''access parameter'' only refers to a formal parameter defined by an access_definition.

10 A discriminant_specification for an access discriminant shall appear only in the declaration for a task or protected type, or for a type with the reserved word **limited** in its [(full)] definition or in that of one of its ancestors. In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit.

10.a **Discussion:** This rule implies that a type can have an access discriminant if the type is limited, but not if the only reason it's limited is because of a limited component. Compare with the definition of limited type in 7.5.

10.b **Ramification:** It is a consequence of this rule that only a return-by-reference type can have an access discriminant (see 6.5). This is important to avoid dangling references to local variables.

10.c **Reason:** We also considered the following rules:

10.d • If a type has an access discriminant, this automatically makes it limited, just like having a limited component automatically makes a type limited. This was rejected because it decreases program readability, and because it seemed error prone (two bugs in a previous version of the RM9X were attributable to this rule).

10.e • A type with an access discriminant shall be limited. This is equivalent to the rule we actually chose, except that it allows a type to have an access discriminant if it is limited just because of a limited component. For example, any record containing a task would be allowed to have an access discriminant, whereas the actual rule requires ''**limited record**''. This rule was also rejected due to readability concerns, and because would interact badly with the rules for limited types that ''become nonlimited''.

11 Default_expressions shall be provided either for all or for none of the discriminants of a known_discriminant_part. No default_expressions are permitted in a known_discriminant_part in a declaration of a tagged type [or a generic formal type].

11.a **Reason:** The all-or-none rule is related to the rule that a discriminant constraint shall specify values for all discriminants. One could imagine a different rule that allowed a constraint to specify only some of the discriminants, with the others provided by default. Having defaults for discriminants has a special significance — it allows objects of the type to be unconstrained, with the discriminants alterable as part of assigning to the object.

11.b Defaults for discriminants of tagged types are disallowed so that every object of a tagged type is constrained, either by an explicit constraint, or by its initial discriminant values. This substantially simplifies the semantic rules and the implementation of inherited dispatching operations. For generic formal types, the restriction simplifies the type matching rules. If one simply wants a "default" value for the discriminants, a constrained subtype can be declared for future use.

12 For a type defined by a derived_type_definition, if a known_discriminant_part is provided in its declaration, then:

13 • The parent subtype shall be constrained;

14 • If the parent type is not a tagged type, then each discriminant of the derived type shall be used in the constraint defining the parent subtype;

14.a **Implementation Note:** This ensures that the new discriminant can share storage with an existing discriminant.

- If a discriminant is used in the constraint defining the parent subtype, the subtype of the discriminant shall be statically compatible (see 4.9.1) with the subtype of the corresponding parent discriminant. 15

  Reason: This ensures that on conversion (or extension via an extension aggregate) to a distantly related type, if the discriminants satisfy the target type's requirements they satisfy all the intermediate types' requirements as well. 15.a

  Ramification: There is no requirement that the new discriminant have the same (or any) default_expression as the parent's discriminant. 15.b

The type of the default_expression, if any, for an access discriminant shall be convertible to the anonymous access type of the discriminant (see 4.6). {*convertible* [required]} 16

Ramification: This requires convertibility of the designated subtypes. 16.a

Static Semantics

A discriminant_specification declares a discriminant; the subtype_mark denotes its subtype unless it is an access discriminant, in which case the discriminant's subtype is the anonymous access-to-variable subtype defined by the access_definition. 17

[For a type defined by a derived_type_definition, each discriminant of the parent type is either inherited, constrained to equal some new discriminant of the derived type, or constrained to the value of an expression.] {*corresponding discriminants*} When inherited or constrained to equal some new discriminant, the parent discriminant and the discriminant of the derived type are said to *correspond*. Two discriminants also correspond if there is some common discriminant to which they both correspond. A discriminant corresponds to itself as well. {*specified discriminant*} If a discriminant of a parent type is constrained to a specific value by a derived_type_definition, then that discriminant is said to be *specified* by that derived_type_definition. 18

Ramification: The correspondence relationship is transitive, symmetric, and reflexive. That is, if A corresponds to B, and B corresponds to C, then A, B, and C each corresponds to A, B, and C in all combinations. 18.a

{*depend on a discriminant (for a* constraint *or* component_definition*)*} A constraint that appears within the definition of a discriminated type *depends on a discriminant* of the type if it names the discriminant as a bound or discriminant value. A component_definition depends on a discriminant if its constraint depends on the discriminant, or on a discriminant that corresponds to it. 19

Ramification: A constraint in a task_body is not considered to *depend* on a discriminant of the task type, even if it names it. It is only the constraints in the type definition itself that are considered dependents. Similarly for protected types. 19.a

{*depend on a discriminant (for a component)*} A component *depends on a discriminant* if: 20

- Its component_definition depends on the discriminant; or 21

  Ramification: A component does *not* depend on a discriminant just because its default_expression refers to the discriminant. 21.a

- It is declared in a variant_part that is governed by the discriminant; or 22

- It is a component inherited as part of a derived_type_definition, and the constraint of the *parent*_subtype_indication depends on the discriminant; or 23

  Reason: When the parent subtype depends on a discriminant, the parent part of the derived type is treated like a discriminant-dependent component. 23.a

  Ramification: Because of this rule, we don't really need to worry about ''corresponding'' discriminants, since all the inherited components will be discriminant-dependent if there is a new known_discriminant_part whose discriminants are used to constrain the old discriminants. 23.b

24 • It is a subcomponent of a component that depends on the discriminant.

24.a **Reason:** The concept of discriminant-dependent (sub)components is primarily used in various rules that disallow renaming or 'Access, or specify that certain discriminant-changing assignments are erroneous. The goal is to allow implementations to move around or change the size of discriminant-dependent subcomponents upon a discriminant-changing assignment to an enclosing object. The above definition specifies that all subcomponents of a discriminant-dependent component or parent part are themselves discriminant-dependent, even though their presence or size does not in fact depend on a discriminant. This is because it is likely that they will move in a discriminant-changing assignment if they are a component of one of several discriminant-dependent parts of the same record.

25 Each value of a discriminated type includes a value for each component of the type that does not depend on a discriminant[; this includes the discriminants themselves]. The values of discriminants determine which other component values are present in the value of the discriminated type.

25.a **To be honest:** Which values are present might depend on discriminants of some ancestor type that are constrained in an intervening derived_type_definition. That's why we say "values of discriminants" instead of "values of *the* discriminants" — a subtle point.

26 {*known discriminants*} {*discriminants (known)*} {*constrained (subtype)*} {*unconstrained (subtype)*} A type declared with a known_discriminant_part is said to have *known discriminants*; its first subtype is unconstrained. {*unknown discriminants*} {*discriminants (unknown)*} A type declared with an unknown_discriminant_part is said to have *unknown discriminants*. A type declared without a discriminant_part has no discriminants, unless it is a derived type; if derived, such a type has the same sort of discriminants (known, unknown, or none) as its parent (or ancestor) type. A tagged class-wide type also has unknown discriminants. {*class-wide type*} {*indefinite subtype*} [Any subtype of a type with unknown discriminants is an unconstrained and indefinite subtype (see 3.2 and 3.3).]

26.a **Discussion:** An unknown_discriminant_part ''(<>)'' is only permitted in the declaration of a (generic or nongeneric) private type, private extension, or formal derived type. Hence, only such types, descendants thereof, and class-wide types can have unknown discriminants. An unknown_discriminant_part is used to indicate that the corresponding actual or full type might have discriminants without defaults, or be an unconstrained array subtype. Tagged class-wide types are also considered to have unknown discriminants because discriminants can be added by type extensions, so the total number of discriminants of any given value of a tagged class-wide type is not known at compile time.

26.b A subtype with unknown discriminants is indefinite, and hence an object of such a subtype needs explicit initialization. If the subtype is limited, no (stand-alone) objects can be declared since initialization is not permitted (though formal parameters are permitted, and objects of the actual/full type will generally be declarable). A limited private type with unknown discriminants is ''extremely'' limited; such a type is useful for keeping complete control over object creation within the package declaring the type.

26.c A partial view of a type might have unknown discriminants, while the full view of the same type might have known, unknown, or no discriminants,

Dynamic Semantics

27 An access_definition is elaborated when the value of a corresponding access discriminant is defined, either by evaluation of its default_expression or by elaboration of a discriminant_constraint. [The elaboration of an access_definition creates the anonymous access type. When the expression defining the access discriminant is evaluated, it is converted to this anonymous access type (see 4.6).] {*implicit subtype conversion* [access discriminant]}

27.a **Ramification:** This conversion raises Constraint_Error if the initial value is **null**, or, for an object created by an allocator of an access type T, if the initial value is an access parameter that designates a view whose accessibility level is deeper than that of T.

NOTES

28 50 If a discriminated type has default_expressions for its discriminants, then unconstrained variables of the type are permitted, and the values of the discriminants can be changed by an assignment to such a variable. If defaults are not provided for the discriminants, then all variables of the type are constrained, either by explicit constraint or by their initial value; the values of the discriminants of such a variable cannot be changed after initialization.

28.a **Discussion:** This connection between discriminant defaults and unconstrained variables can be a source of confusion. For Ada 9X, we considered various ways to break the connection between defaults and unconstrainedness, but ultimately gave up for lack of a sufficiently simple and intuitive alternative.

{*mutable*} An unconstrained discriminated subtype with defaults is called a *mutable* subtype, and a variable of such a subtype is called a mutable variable, because the discriminants of such a variable can change. There are no mutable arrays (that is, the bounds of an array object can never change), because there is no way in the language to define default values for the bounds. Similarly, there are no mutable class-wide subtypes, because there is no way to define the default tag, and defaults for discriminants are not allowed in the tagged case. Mutable tags would also require a way for the maximum possible size of such a class-wide subtype to be known. (In some implementations, all mutable variables are allocated with the maximum possible size. This approach is appropriate for real-time applications where implicit use of the heap is inappropriate.) 28.b

51 The default_expression for a discriminant of a type is evaluated when an object of an unconstrained subtype of the type is created. 29

52 Assignment to a discriminant of an object (after its initialization) is not allowed, since the name of a discriminant is a constant; neither assignment_statements nor assignments inherent in passing as an **in out** or **out** parameter are allowed. Note however that the value of a discriminant can be changed by assigning to the enclosing object, presuming it is an unconstrained variable. 30

Discussion: An unknown_discriminant_part is permitted only in the declaration of a private type (including generic formal private), private extension, or generic formal derived type. These are the things that will have a corresponding completion or generic actual, which will either define the discriminants, or say there are none. The (<>) indicates that the actual/full subtype might be an indefinite subtype. An unknown_discriminant_part is not permitted in a normal untagged derived type declaration, because there is no separate full type declaration for such a type. Note that (<>) allows unconstrained array bounds; those are somewhat like undefaulted discriminants. 30.a

For a derived type, either the discriminants are inherited as is, or completely respecified in a new discriminant_part. In this latter case, each discriminant of the parent type shall be constrained, either to a specific value, or to equal one of the new discriminants. Constraining a parent type's discriminant to equal one of the new discriminants is like a renaming of the discriminant, except that the subtype of the new discriminant can be more restrictive than that of the parent's one. In any case, the new discriminant can share storage with the parent's discriminant. 30.b

53 A discriminant that is of a named access type is not called an access discriminant; that term is used only for discriminants defined by an access_definition. 31

Examples

Examples of discriminated types: 32

```
type Buffer(Size : Buffer_Size := 100)  is          -- see 3.5.4
   record
      Pos   : Buffer_Size := 0;
      Value : String(1 .. Size);
   end record;
```
33

```
type Matrix_Rec(Rows, Columns : Integer) is
   record
      Mat : Matrix(1 .. Rows, 1 .. Columns);        -- see 3.6
   end record;
```
34

```
type Square(Side : Integer) is new Matrix_Rec(Rows => Side, Columns => Side);
```
35

```
type Double_Square(Number : Integer) is
   record
      Left  : Square(Number);
      Right : Square(Number);
   end record;
```
36

```
type Item(Number : Positive) is
   record
      Content : Integer;
      -- no component depends on the discriminant
   end record;
```
37

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for a discriminant_specification is modified to allow an *access discriminant*, with a type specified by an access_definition (see 3.10). 37.a

Discriminants are allowed on all composite types other than array types. 37.b

Discriminants may be of an access type. 37.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

37.d Discriminant_parts are not elaborated, though an access_definition is elaborated when the discriminant is initialized.

3.7.1 Discriminant Constraints

1 A discriminant_constraint specifies the values of the discriminants for a given discriminated type.

Language Design Principles

1.a The rules in this clause are intentionally parallel to those given in Record Aggregates.

Syntax

2 discriminant_constraint ::=
(discriminant_association {, discriminant_association})

3 discriminant_association ::=
[*discriminant*_selector_name {| *discriminant*_selector_name} =>] expression

4 {*named discriminant association*} A discriminant_association is said to be *named* if it has one or more *discriminant*_selector_names; {*positional discriminant association*} it is otherwise said to be *positional*. In a discriminant_constraint, any positional associations shall precede any named associations.

Name Resolution Rules

5 Each selector_name of a named discriminant_association shall resolve to denote a discriminant of the subtype being constrained; {*associated discriminants (of a named* discriminant_association*)*} the discriminants so named are the *associated discriminants* of the named association. {*associated discriminants (of a positional* discriminant_association*)*} For a positional association, the *associated discriminant* is the one whose discriminant_specification occurred in the corresponding position in the known_discriminant_part that defined the discriminants of the subtype being constrained.

6 {*expected type* [discriminant_association expression]} The expected type for the expression in a discriminant_association is that of the associated discriminant(s).

Legality Rules

7 A discriminant_constraint is only allowed in a subtype_indication whose subtype_mark denotes either an unconstrained discriminated subtype, or an unconstrained access subtype whose designated subtype is an unconstrained discriminated subtype.

8 A named discriminant_association with more than one selector_name is allowed only if the named discriminants are all of the same type. A discriminant_constraint shall provide exactly one value for each discriminant of the subtype being constrained.

9 The expression associated with an access discriminant shall be of a type convertible to the anonymous access type. {*convertible* [required]}

9.a **Ramification:** This implies both convertibility of designated types, and static accessibility. This implies that if an object of type T with an access discriminant is created by an allocator for an access type A, then it requires that the type of the expression associated with the access discriminant have an accessibility level that is not statically deeper than that of A. This is to avoid dangling references.

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*compatibility* [discriminant constraint with a subtype]} A discriminant_constraint is *compatible* with an unconstrained discriminated subtype if each discriminant value belongs to the subtype of the corresponding discriminant.

10.a **Ramification:** The "dependent compatibility check" has been eliminated in Ada 9X. Any checking on subcomponents is performed when (and if) an object is created.

Discussion: There is no need to define compatibility with a constrained discriminated subtype, because one is not allowed to constrain it again. 10.b

{*satisfies* [a discriminant constraint]} A composite value *satisfies* a discriminant constraint if and only if each discriminant of the composite value has the value imposed by the discriminant constraint. 11

{*elaboration* [discriminant_constraint]} For the elaboration of a discriminant_constraint, the expressions in the discriminant_associations are evaluated in an arbitrary order and converted to the type of the associated discriminant (which might raise Constraint_Error — see 4.6); the expression of a named association is evaluated (and converted) once for each associated discriminant. {*implicit subtype conversion* [discriminant values]} The result of each evaluation and conversion is the value imposed by the constraint for the associated discriminant. 12

Reason: We convert to the type, not the subtype, so that the definition of compatibility of discriminant constraints is not vacuous. 12.a

NOTES
54 The rules of the language ensure that a discriminant of an object always has a value, either from explicit or implicit initialization. 13

Discussion: Although it is illegal to constrain a class-wide tagged subtype, it is possible to have a partially constrained class-wide subtype: If the subtype S is defined by T(A => B), then S'Class is partially constrained in the sense that objects of subtype S'Class have to have discriminants corresponding to A equal to B, but there can be other discriminants defined in extensions that are not constrained to any particular value. 13.a

Examples

Examples (using types declared above in clause 3.7): 14

```
Large   : Buffer(200);   -- constrained, always 200 characters          15
                         --  (explicit discriminant value)
Message : Buffer;        -- unconstrained, initially 100 characters
                         --  (default discriminant value)
Basis   : Square(5);     -- constrained, always 5 by 5
Illegal : Square;        -- illegal, a Square has to be constrained
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} Dependent compatibility checks are no longer performed on subtype declaration. Instead they are deferred until object creation (see 3.3.1). This is upward compatible for a program that does not raise Constraint_Error. 15.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Everything in RM83-3.7.2(7-12), which specifies the initial values for discriminants, is now redundant with 3.3.1, 6.4.1, 8.5.1, and 12.4. Therefore, we don't repeat it here. Since the material is largely intuitive, but nevertheless complicated to state formally, it doesn't seem worth putting it in a "NOTE." 15.b

3.7.2 Operations of Discriminated Types

[If a discriminated type has default_expressions for its discriminants, then unconstrained variables of the type are permitted, and the discriminants of such a variable can be changed by assignment to the variable. For a formal parameter of such a type, an attribute is provided to determine whether the corresponding actual parameter is constrained or unconstrained.] 1

Static Semantics

For a prefix A that is of a discriminated type [(after any implicit dereference)], the following attribute is defined: 2

A'Constrained Yields the value True if A denotes a constant, a value, or a constrained variable, and False otherwise. 3

Implementation Note: This attribute is primarily used on parameters, to determine whether the discriminants can be changed as part of an assignment. The Constrained attribute is statically True for **in** parameters. For **in out** and **out** 3.a

parameters of a discriminated type, the value of this attribute needs to be passed as an implicit parameter, in general. However, if the type does not have defaults for its discriminants, the attribute is statically True, so no implicit parameter is needed. Parameters of a limited type with defaulted discriminants need this implicit parameter, unless there are no nonlimited views, because they might be passed to a subprogram whose body has visibility on a nonlimited view of the type, and hence might be able to assign to the object and change its discriminants.

Erroneous Execution

4 {*erroneous execution*} The execution of a construct is erroneous if the construct has a constituent that is a name denoting a subcomponent that depends on discriminants, and the value of any of these discriminants is changed by this execution between evaluating the name and the last use (within this execution) of the subcomponent denoted by the name.

4.a **Ramification:** This rule applies to assignment_statements, calls (except when the discriminant-dependent subcomponent is an **in** parameter passed by copy), indexed_components, and slices. Ada 83 only covered the first two cases. AI-00585 pointed out the situation with the last two cases. The cases of object_renaming_declarations and generic formal **in out** objects are handled differently, by disallowing the situation at compile time.

Extensions to Ada 83

4.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} For consistency with other attributes, we are allowing the prefix of Constrained to be a value as well as an object of a discriminated type, and also an implicit dereference. These extensions are not important capabilities, but there seems no reason to make this attribute different from other similar attributes. We are curious what most Ada 83 compilers do with F(1).X'Constrained.

4.c We now handle in a general way the cases of erroneousness identified by AI-585, where the prefix of an indexed_component or slice is discriminant-dependent, and the evaluation of the index or discrete range changes the value of a discriminant.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

4.d We have moved all discussion of erroneous use of names that denote discriminant-dependent subcomponents to this subclause. In Ada 83, it used to appear separately under assignment_statements and subprogram calls.

3.8 Record Types

1 {*record*} {*record type*} A record object is a composite object consisting of named components. The value of a record object is a composite value consisting of the values of the components. {*structure: see record type*}

Syntax

2 record_type_definition ::= [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] record_definition

3
```
record_definition ::=
   record
     component_list
   end record
  | null record
```

4
```
component_list ::=
     component_item {component_item}
   | {component_item} variant_part
   |  null;
```

5 component_item ::= component_declaration | representation_clause

6
```
component_declaration ::=
  defining_identifier_list : component_definition [:= default_expression];
```

Name Resolution Rules

7 {*expected type* [component_declaration default_expression]} The expected type for the default_expression, if any, in a component_declaration is the type of the component.

Legality Rules

A default_expression is not permitted if the component is of a limited type. 8

{*components* [of a record type]} Each component_declaration declares a *component* of the record type. Besides components declared by component_declarations, the components of a record type include any components declared by discriminant_specifications of the record type declaration. [The identifiers of all components of a record type shall be distinct.] 9

Proof: The identifiers of all components of a record type have to be distinct because they are all declared immediately within the same declarative region. See Section 8. 9.a

Within a type_declaration, a name that denotes a component, protected subprogram, or entry of the type is allowed only in the following cases: 10

- A name that denotes any component, protected subprogram, or entry is allowed within a representation item that occurs within the declaration of the composite type. 11
- A name that denotes a noninherited discriminant is allowed within the declaration of the type, but not within the discriminant_part. If the discriminant is used to define the constraint of a component, the bounds of an entry family, or the constraint of the parent subtype in a derived_type_definition then its name shall appear alone as a direct_name (not as part of a larger expression or expanded name). 12

  Reason: This restriction simplifies implementation, and allows the outer discriminant and the inner discriminant or bound to possibly share storage. 12.a

  Ramification: Other rules prevent such a discriminant from being an inherited one. 12.b

  A discriminant shall not be used to define the constraint of a scalar component.

  Reason: This restriction is inherited from Ada 83. The restriction is not really necessary from a language design point of view, but we did not remove it, in order to avoid unnecessary changes to existing compilers. 12.c

  Discussion: Note that a discriminant can be used to define the constraint for a component that is of an access-to-composite type. 12.d

  Reason: The above rules, and a similar one in 6.1 for formal parameters, are intended to allow initializations of components or parameters to occur in an arbitrary order — whatever order is most efficient, since one default_expression cannot depend on the value of another one. It also prevent circularities. 12.e

  Ramification: Inherited discriminants are not allowed to be denoted, except within representation items. However, the *discriminant*_selector_name of the parent subtype_indication is allowed to denote a discriminant of the parent. 12.f

If the name of the current instance of a type (see 8.6) is used to define the constraint of a component, then it shall appear as a direct_name that is the prefix of an attribute_reference whose result is of an access type, and the attribute_reference shall appear alone. 13

Reason: This rule allows T'Access or T'Unchecked_Access, but disallows, for example, a range constraint (1..T'Size). Allowing things like (1..T'Size) would mean that a per-object constraint could affect the size of the object, which would be bad. 13.a

Static Semantics

{*nominal subtype* [of a record component]} The component_definition of a component_declaration defines the (nominal) subtype of the component. If the reserved word **aliased** appears in the component_definition, then the component is aliased (see 3.10). 14

Ramification: In this case, the nominal subtype cannot be an unconstrained discriminated subtype. See 3.6. 14.a

{*null record*} If the component_list of a record type is defined by the reserved word **null** and there are no discriminants, then the record type has no components and all records of the type are *null records*. A record_definition of **null record** is equivalent to **record null; end record**. 15

15.a **Ramification:** This short-hand is available both for declaring a record type and a record extension — see 3.9.1.

Dynamic Semantics

16 {*elaboration* [record_type_definition]} The elaboration of a record_type_definition creates the record type and its first subtype, and consists of the elaboration of the record_definition. {*elaboration* [record_definition]} The elaboration of a record_definition consists of the elaboration of its component_list, if any.

17 {*elaboration* [component_list]} The elaboration of a component_list consists of the elaboration of the component_items and variant_part, if any, in the order in which they appear. {*elaboration* [component_declaration]} The elaboration of a component_declaration consists of the elaboration of the component_definition.

17.a **Discussion:** If the defining_identifier_list has more than one defining_identifier, we presume here that the transformation explained in 3.3.1 has already taken place. Alternatively, we could say that the component_definition is elaborated once for each defining_identifier in the list.

18 {*per-object expression*} {*per-object constraint*} {*entry index subtype*} Within the definition of a composite type, if a component_definition or discrete_subtype_definition (see 9.5.2) includes a name that denotes a discriminant of the type, or that is an attribute_reference whose prefix denotes the current instance of the type, the expression containing the name is called a *per-object expression*, and the constraint being defined is called a *per-object constraint*.

18.a **Discussion:** The evaluation of other expressions that appear in component_definitions and discrete_subtype_definitions is performed when the type definition is elaborated. The evaluation of expressions that appear as default_expressions is postponed until an object is created. Expressions in representation items that appear within a composite type definition are evaluated according to the rules of the particular representation item.

{*elaboration* [component_definition]} For the elaboration of a component_definition of a component_declaration, if the constraint of the subtype_indication is not a per-object constraint, then the subtype_indication is elaborated. On the other hand, if the constraint is a per-object constraint, then the elaboration consists of the evaluation of any included expression that is not part of a per-object expression.

NOTES

19 55 A component_declaration with several identifiers is equivalent to a sequence of single component_declarations, as explained in 3.3.1.

20 56 The default_expression of a record component is only evaluated upon the creation of a default-initialized object of the record type (presuming the object has the component, if it is in a variant_part — see 3.3.1).

21 57 The subtype defined by a component_definition (see 3.6) has to be a definite subtype.

22 58 If a record type does not have a variant_part, then the same components are present in all values of the type.

23 59 A record type is limited if it has the reserved word **limited** in its definition, or if any of its components are limited (see 7.5).

24 60 {*predefined operations* [of a record type]} The predefined operations of a record type include membership tests, qualification, and explicit conversion. If the record type is nonlimited, they also include assignment and the predefined equality operators.

25 61 A component of a record can be named with a selected_component. A value of a record can be specified with a record_aggregate, unless the record type is limited.

Examples

26 *Examples of record type declarations:*

```
type Date is                                                              27
   record
      Day   : Integer range 1 .. 31;
      Month : Month_Name;
      Year  : Integer range 0 .. 4000;
   end record;
type Complex is                                                           28
   record
      Re : Real := 0.0;
      Im : Real := 0.0;
   end record;
```

Examples of record variables: 29

```
Tomorrow, Yesterday : Date;                                               30
A, B, C : Complex;
-- both components of A, B, and C are implicitly initialized to zero      31
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for component_declaration is modified to use component_definition (instead of component_subtype_definition). The effect of this change is to allow the reserved word **aliased** before the component_subtype_definition. 31.a

A short-hand is provided for defining a null record type (and a null record extension), as these will be more common for abstract root types (and derived types without additional components). 31.b

The syntax rule for record_type_definition is modified to allow the reserved words **tagged** and **limited**. Tagging is new. Limitedness is now orthogonal to privateness. In Ada 83 the syntax implied that limited private was sort of more private than private. However, limitedness really has nothing to do with privateness; limitedness simply indicates the lack of assignment capabilities, and makes perfect sense for nonprivate types such as record types. 31.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rules now allow representation_clauses to appear in a record_definition. This is not a language extension, because Legality Rules prevent all language-defined representation clauses from appearing there. However, an implementation-defined attribute_definition_clause could appear there. The reason for this change is to allow the rules for representation_clauses and representation pragmas to be as similar as possible. 31.d

3.8.1 Variant Parts and Discrete Choices

A record type with a variant_part specifies alternative lists of components. Each variant defines the components for the value or values of the discriminant covered by its discrete_choice_list. 1

Discussion: {*cover a value* [distributed]} Discrete_choice_lists and discrete_choices are said to *cover* values as defined below; which discrete_choice_list covers a value determines which of various alternatives is chosen. These are used in variant_parts, array_aggregates, and case_statements. 1.a

Language Design Principles

The definition of ‘‘cover’’ in this subclause and the rules about discrete choices are designed so that they are also appropriate for array aggregates and case statements. 1.b

The rules of this subclause intentionally parallel those for case statements. 1.c

Syntax

variant_part ::= 2
  case *discriminant*_direct_name **is**
    variant
    {variant}
  end case;

variant ::= 3
  when discrete_choice_list =>
    component_list

discrete_choice_list ::= discrete_choice {| discrete_choice} 4

5 discrete_choice ::= expression | discrete_range | **others**

Name Resolution Rules

6 {*discriminant (of a* variant_part*)*} The *discriminant*_direct_name shall resolve to denote a discriminant (called the *discriminant of the* variant_part) specified in the known_discriminant_part of the full_type_declaration that contains the variant_part. {*expected type* [variant_part discrete_choice]} The expected type for each discrete_choice in a variant is the type of the discriminant of the variant_part.

6.a **Ramification:** A full_type_declaration with a variant_part has to have a (new) known_discriminant_part; the discriminant of the variant_part cannot be an inherited discriminant.

Legality Rules

7 The discriminant of the variant_part shall be of a discrete type.

7.a **Ramification:** It shall not be of an access type, named or anonymous.

8 The expressions and discrete_ranges given as discrete_choices in a variant_part shall be static. The discrete_choice **others** shall appear alone in a discrete_choice_list, and such a discrete_choice_list, if it appears, shall be the last one in the enclosing construct.

9 {*cover a value* [by a discrete_choice]} A discrete_choice is defined to *cover a value* in the following cases:

10 • A discrete_choice that is an expression covers a value if the value equals the value of the expression converted to the expected type.

11 • A discrete_choice that is a discrete_range covers all values (possibly none) that belong to the range.

12 • The discrete_choice **others** covers all values of its expected type that are not covered by previous discrete_choice_lists of the same construct.

12.a **Ramification:** For case_statements, this includes values outside the range of the static subtype (if any) to be covered by the choices. It even includes values outside the base range of the case expression's type, since values of numeric types (and undefined values of any scalar type?) can be outside their base range.

13 {*cover a value* [by a discrete_choice_list]} A discrete_choice_list covers a value if one of its discrete_choices covers the value.

14 The possible values of the discriminant of a variant_part shall be covered as follows:

15 • If the discriminant is of a static constrained scalar subtype, then each non-**others** discrete_choice shall cover only values in that subtype, and each value of that subtype shall be covered by some discrete_choice [(either explicitly or by **others**)];

16 • If the type of the discriminant is a descendant of a generic formal scalar type then the variant_part shall have an **others** discrete_choice;

16.a **Reason:** The base range is not known statically in this case.

17 • Otherwise, each value of the base range of the type of the discriminant shall be covered [(either explicitly or by **others**)].

18 Two distinct discrete_choices of a variant_part shall not cover the same value.

Static Semantics

19 If the component_list of a variant is specified by **null**, the variant has no components.

20 {*govern a* variant_part} {*govern a* variant} The discriminant of a variant_part is said to *govern* the variant_part and its variants. In addition, the discriminant of a derived type governs a variant_part and its variants if it corresponds (see 3.7) to the discriminant of the variant_part.

Dynamic Semantics

A record value contains the values of the components of a particular variant only if the value of the discriminant governing the variant is covered by the discrete_choice_list of the variant. This rule applies in turn to any further variant that is, itself, included in the component_list of the given variant. 21

{*elaboration* [variant_part]} The elaboration of a variant_part consists of the elaboration of the component_list of each variant in the order in which they appear. 22

Examples

Example of record type with a variant part: 23

```
type Device is (Printer, Disk, Drum);                                    24
type State  is (Open, Closed);

type Peripheral(Unit : Device := Disk) is                                25
   record
      Status : State;
      case Unit is
         when Printer =>
            Line_Count : Integer range 1 .. Page_Size;
         when others =>
            Cylinder   : Cylinder_Index;
            Track      : Track_Number;
         end case;
      end record;
```

Examples of record subtypes: 26

```
subtype Drum_Unit is Peripheral(Drum);                                   27
subtype Disk_Unit is Peripheral(Disk);
```

Examples of constrained record variables: 28

```
Writer   : Peripheral(Unit  => Printer);                                 29
Archive  : Disk_Unit;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 83, the discriminant of a variant_part is not allowed to be of a generic formal type. This restriction is removed in Ada 9X; an **others** discrete_choice is required in this case. 29.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntactic category choice is removed. The syntax rules for variant, array_aggregate, and case_statement now use discrete_choice_list or discrete_choice instead. The syntax rule for record_aggregate now defines its own syntax for named associations. 29.b

We have added the term Discrete Choice to the title since this is where they are talked about. This is analogous to the name of the subclause "Index Constraints and Discrete Ranges" in the clause on Array Types. 29.c

The rule requiring that the discriminant denote a discriminant of the type being defined seems to have been left implicit in RM83. 29.d

3.9 Tagged Types and Type Extensions

[{*dispatching operation* [partial]} {*polymorphism*} {*dynamic binding: see dispatching operation*} {*generic unit: see also dispatching operation*} {*variant: see also tagged type*} Tagged types and type extensions support object-oriented programming, based on inheritance with extension and run-time polymorphism via *dispatching operations*. {*object-oriented programming (OOP): see tagged types and type extensions*} {*OOP (object-oriented programming): see tagged types and type extensions*} {*inheritance: see also tagged types and type extension*}] 1

Language Design Principles

1.a The intended implementation model is for a tag to be represented as a pointer to a statically allocated and link-time initialized type descriptor. The type descriptor contains the address of the code for each primitive operation of the type. It probably also contains other information, such as might make membership tests convenient and efficient.

1.b The primitive operations of a tagged type are known at its first freezing point; the type descriptor is laid out at that point. It contains linker symbols for each primitive operation; the linker fills in the actual addresses.

1.c Other implementation models are possible.

1.d The rules ensure that ''dangling dispatching'' is impossible; that is, when a dispatching call is made, there is always a body to execute. This is different from some other object-oriented languages, such as Smalltalk, where it is possible to get a run-time error from a missing method.

1.e Dispatching calls should be efficient, and should have a bounded worst-case execution time. This is important in a language intended for real-time applications. In the intended implementation model, a dispatching call involves calling indirect through the appropriate slot in the dispatch table. No complicated "method lookup" is involved.

1.f The programmer should have the choice at each call site of a dispatching operation whether to do a dispatching call or a statically determined call (i.e. whether the body executed should be determined at run time or at compile time).

1.g The same body should be executed for a call where the tag is statically determined to be T'Tag as for a dispatching call where the tag is found at run time to be T'Tag. This allows one to test a given tagged type with statically determined calls, with some confidence that run-time dispatching will produce the same behavior.

1.h All views of a type should share the same type descriptor and the same tag.

1.i The visibility rules determine what is legal at compile time; they have nothing to do with what bodies can be executed at run time. Thus, it is possible to dispatch to a subprogram whose declaration is not visible at the call site. In fact, this is one of the primary facts that gives object-oriented programming its power. The subprogram that ends up being dispatched to by a given call might even be designed long after the call site has been coded and compiled.

1.j Given that Ada has overloading, determining whether a given subprogram overrides another is based both on the names and the type profiles of the operations.

1.k When a type extension is declared, if there is any place within its immediate scope where a certain subprogram of the parent is visible, then a matching subprogram should override. If there is no such place, then a matching subprogram should be totally unrelated, and occupy a different slot in the type descriptor. This is important to preserve the privacy of private parts; when an operation declared in a private part is inherited, the inherited version can be overridden only in that private part, in the package body, and in any children of the package.

1.l If an implementation shares code for instances of generic bodies, it should be allowed to share type descriptors of tagged types declared in the generic body, so long as they are not extensions of types declared in the specification of the generic unit.

Static Semantics

2 {*tagged type*} A record type or private type that has the reserved word **tagged** in its declaration is called a *tagged* type. [When deriving from a tagged type, additional components may be defined. As for any derived type, additional primitive subprograms may be defined, and inherited primitive subprograms may be overridden.] {*type extension*} {*extension (of a type)*} The derived type is called an *extension* of the ancestor type, or simply a *type extension*. {*extension (of a record type)*} {*private extension*} {*extension (of a private type)*} Every type extension is also a tagged type, and is either a *record extension* or a *private extension* of some other tagged type. A record extension is defined by a derived_type_definition with a record_extension_part. A private extension, which is a partial view of a record extension, can be declared in the visible part of a package (see 7.3) or in a generic formal part (see 12.5.1).

2.a **Glossary entry:** {*Tagged type*} The objects of a tagged type have a run-time type tag, which indicates the specific type with which the object was originally created. An operand of a class-wide tagged type can be used in a dispatching call; the tag indicates which subprogram body to invoke. Nondispatching calls, in which the subprogram body to invoke is determined at compile time, are also allowed. Tagged types may be extended with additional components.

2.b **Ramification:** If a tagged type is declared other than in a package_specification, it is impossible to add new primitive subprograms for that type, although it can inherit primitive subprograms, and those can be overridden. If the user incorrectly thinks a certain subprogram is primitive when it is not, and tries to call it with a dispatching call, an error message will be given at the call site.

Note that the accessibility rules imply that a tagged type declared in a library package_specification cannot be extended in a nested subprogram or task body. 2.c

{*tag of an object*} An object of a tagged type has an associated (run-time) *tag* that identifies the specific tagged type used to create the object originally. [The tag of an operand of a class-wide tagged type *T*'Class controls which subprogram body is to be executed when a primitive subprogram of type *T* is applied to the operand (see 3.9.2); {*dispatching*} using a tag to control which body to execute is called *dispatching*.] {*type tag: see tag*} {*run-time type: see tag*} {*type: see also tag*} {*class: see also tag*} 3

The tag of a specific tagged type identifies the full_type_declaration of the type. If a declaration for a tagged type occurs within a generic_package_declaration, then the corresponding type declarations in distinct instances of the generic package are associated with distinct tags. For a tagged type that is local to a generic package body, the language does not specify whether repeated instantiations of the generic body result in distinct tags. 4

Reason: This eases generic code sharing. 4.a

Implementation Note: The language does not specify whether repeated elaborations of the same full_type_declaration correspond to distinct tags. In most cases, we expect that all elaborations will correspond to the same tag, since the tag will frequently be the address (or index) of a statically allocated type descriptor. However, with shared generics, the type descriptor might have to be allocated on a per-instance basis, which in some implementation models implies per-elaboration of the instantiation. 4.b

The following language-defined library package exists: 5

```
package Ada.Tags is                                                    6
    type Tag is private;

    function Expanded_Name(T : Tag) return String;                     7
    function External_Tag(T : Tag) return String;
    function Internal_Tag(External : String) return Tag;

    Tag_Error : exception;                                             8
private                                                                9
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Tags;
```

Reason: Tag is a nonlimited, definite subtype, because it needs the equality operators, so that tag checking makes sense. Also, equality, assignment, and object declaration are all useful capabilities for this subtype. 9.a

For an object X and a type T, ''X'Tag = T'Tag'' is not needed, because a membership test can be used. However, comparing the tags of two objects cannot be done via membership. This is one reason to allow equality for type Tag. 9.b

The function Expanded_Name returns the full expanded name of the first subtype of the specific type identified by the tag, in upper case, starting with a root library unit. The result is implementation defined if the type is declared within an unnamed block_statement. 10

To be honest: This name, as well as each prefix of it, does not denote a renaming_declaration. 10.a

Implementation defined: The result of Tags.Expanded_Name for types declared within an unnamed block_statement. 10.b

The function External_Tag returns a string to be used in an external representation for the given tag. The call External_Tag(S'Tag) is equivalent to the attribute_reference S'External_Tag (see 13.3). 11

Reason: It might seem redundant to provide both the function External_Tag and the attribute External_Tag. The function is needed because the attribute can't be applied to values of type Tag. The attribute is needed so that it can be specifiable via an attribute_definition_clause. 11.a

The function Internal_Tag returns the tag that corresponds to the given external tag, or raises Tag_Error if the given string is not the external tag for any specific type of the partition. 12

13 For every subtype S of a tagged type *T* (specific or class-wide), the following attributes are defined:

14 S'Class — S'Class denotes a subtype of the class-wide type (called *T*'Class in this International Standard) for the class rooted at *T* (or if S already denotes a class-wide subtype, then S'Class is the same as S).

15 {*unconstrained (subtype)*} {*constrained (subtype)*} S'Class is unconstrained. However, if S is constrained, then the values of S'Class are only those that when converted to the type *T* belong to S.

15.a **Ramification:** This attribute is defined for both specific and class-wide subtypes. The definition is such that S'Class'Class is the same as S'Class.

15.b Note that if S is constrained, S'Class is only partially constrained, since there might be additional discriminants added in descendants of *T* which are not constrained.

15.c **Reason:** The Class attribute is not defined for untagged subtypes (except for incomplete types and private types whose full view is tagged — see 3.10.1 and 7.3.1) so as to preclude implicit conversion in the absence of run-time type information. If it were defined for untagged subtypes, it would correspond to the concept of universal types provided for the predefined numeric classes.

16 S'Tag — S'Tag denotes the tag of the type *T* (or if *T* is class-wide, the tag of the root type of the corresponding class). The value of this attribute is of type Tag.

16.a **Reason:** S'Class'Tag equals S'Tag, to avoid generic contract model problems when S'Class is the actual type associated with a generic formal derived type.

17 Given a prefix X that is of a class-wide tagged type [(after any implicit dereference)], the following attribute is defined:

18 X'Tag — X'Tag denotes the tag of X. The value of this attribute is of type Tag.

18.a **Reason:** X'Tag is not defined if X is of a specific type. This is primarily to avoid confusion that might result about whether the Tag attribute should reflect the tag of the type of X, or the tag of X. No such confusion is possible if X is of a class-wide type.

Dynamic Semantics

19 The tag associated with an object of a tagged type is determined as follows:

20 • {*tag of an object* [stand-alone object, component, or aggregate]} The tag of a stand-alone object, a component, or an aggregate of a specific tagged type *T* identifies *T*.

20.a **Discussion:** The tag of a formal parameter of type *T* is not necessarily the tag of *T*, if, for example, the actual was a type conversion.

21 • {*tag of an object* [object created by an allocator]} The tag of an object created by an allocator for an access type with a specific designated tagged type *T*, identifies *T*.

21.a **Discussion:** The tag of an object designated by a value of such an access type might not be *T*, if, for example, the access value is the result of a type conversion.

22 • {*tag of an object* [class-wide object]} The tag of an object of a class-wide tagged type is that of its initialization expression.

22.a **Ramification:** The tag of an object (even a class-wide one) cannot be changed after it is initialized, since a ''class-wide'' assignment_statement raises Constraint_Error if the tags don't match, and a ''specific'' assignment_statement does not affect the tag.

23 • {*tag of an object* [returned by a function]} The tag of the result returned by a function whose result type is a specific tagged type *T* identifies *T*.

23.a **Implementation Note:** This requires a run-time check for limited tagged types, since they are returned "by-reference." For a nonlimited type, a new anonymous object with the appropriate tag is created as part of the function return, and then assigned the value of the return expression. See 6.5, ''Return Statements''.

24 • {*tag of an object* [returned by a function]} The tag of the result returned by a function with a class-wide result type is that of the return expression.

{*tag of an object* [preserved by type conversion and parameter passing]} The tag is preserved by type conversion and by parameter passing. The tag of a value is the tag of the associated object (see 6.2). 25

Implementation Permissions

The implementation of the functions in Ada.Tags may raise Tag_Error if no specific type corresponding to the tag passed as a parameter exists in the partition at the time the function is called. 26

Reason: In most implementations, repeated elaborations of the same type_declaration will all produce the same tag. In such an implementation, Tag_Error will be raised in cases where the internal or external tag was passed from a different partition. However, some implementations might create a new tag value at run time for each elaboration of a type_declaration. In that case, Tag_Error could also be raised if the created type no longer exists because the subprogram containing it has returned, for example. We don't require the latter behavior; hence the word ''may'' in this rule. 26.a

NOTES

62 A type declared with the reserved word **tagged** should normally be declared in a package_specification, so that new primitive subprograms can be declared for it. 27

63 Once an object has been created, its tag never changes. 28

64 Class-wide types are defined to have unknown discriminants (see 3.7). This means that objects of a class-wide type have to be explicitly initialized (whether created by an object_declaration or an allocator), and that aggregates have to be explicitly qualified with a specific type when their expected type is class-wide. 29

65 If S denotes an untagged private type whose full type is tagged, then S'Class is also allowed before the full type definition, but only in the private part of the package in which the type is declared (see 7.3.1). Similarly, the Class attribute is defined for incomplete types whose full type is tagged, but only within the library unit in which the incomplete type is declared (see 3.10.1). 30

Examples

Examples of tagged record types: 31

```
type Point is tagged                                                    32
  record
    X, Y : Real := 0.0;
  end record;
type Expression is tagged null record;                                  33
  -- Components will be added by each extension
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Tagged types are a new concept. 33.a

3.9.1 Type Extensions

[{*type extension*} {*extension (of a type)*} {*record extension*} {*extension (of a record type)*} {*private extension*} {*extension (of a private type)*} Every type extension is a tagged type, and is either a *record extension* or a *private extension* of some other tagged type.] 1

Language Design Principles

We want to make sure that we can extend a generic formal tagged type, without knowing its discriminants. 1.a

We don't want to allow components in an extension aggregate to depend on discriminants inherited from the parent value, since such dependence requires staticness in aggregates, at least for variants. 1.b

Syntax

record_extension_part ::= **with** record_definition 2

Legality Rules

The parent type of a record extension shall not be a class-wide type. If the parent type is nonlimited, then each of the components of the record_extension_part shall be nonlimited. {*accessibility rule* [record extension]} 3

The accessibility level (see 3.10.2) of a record extension shall not be statically deeper than that of its parent type. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), these rules apply also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit.

3.a **Reason:** If the parent is a limited formal type, then the actual might be nonlimited.

3.b A similar accessibility rule is not needed for private extensions, because in a package, the rule will apply to the full_type_declaration, and for a generic formal private extension, the actual is all that matters.

4 A type extension shall not be declared in a generic body if the parent type is declared outside that body.

4.a **Reason:** This paragraph ensures that a dispatching call will never attempt to execute an inaccessible subprogram body.

4.b The part about generic bodies is necessary in order to preserve the contract model.

4.c Since a generic unit can be instantiated at a deeper accessibility level than the generic unit, it is necessary to prevent type extensions whose parent is declared outside the generic unit. The same is true if the parent is a formal of the generic unit. If the parent is declared in the generic_declaration (but is not a formal), we don't run afoul of the accessibility rules, because we know that the instance declaration and body will be at the same accessibility level. However, we still have a problem in that case, because it might have an unknown number of abstract subprograms, as in the following example:

4.d
```
package P is
    type T is tagged null record;
    function F return T; -- Inherited versions will be abstract.
end P;
```

4.e
```
generic
    type TT is tagged private;
package Gp is
    type NT is abstract new TT with null record;
    procedure Q(X : in NT) is abstract;
end Gp;
```

4.f
```
package body Gp is
    type NT2 is new NT with null record; -- Illegal!
    procedure Q(X : in NT2) is begin null; end Q;
    -- Is this legal or not? Can't decide because
    -- we don't know whether TT had any functions that go abstract
    -- on extension.
end Gp;
```

4.g
```
package I is new Gp(TT => P.T);
```

4.h I.NT is an abstract type with two abstract subprograms: F (inherited as abstract) and Q (explicitly declared as abstract). But the generic body doesn't know about F, so we don't know that it needs to be overridden to make a nonabstract extension of NT. Furthermore, a formal tagged limited private type can be extended with limited components, but the actual might not be limited, which would allow assignment of limited types, which is bad. Hence, we have to disallow this case as well.

4.i If TT were declared as abstract, then we could have the same problem with abstract procedures.

4.j We considered disallowing all tagged types in a generic body, for simplicity. We decided not to go that far, in order to avoid unnecessary restrictions.

4.k {*accessibility rule* [not part of generic contract]} We also considered trying make the accessibility level part of the contract; i.e. invent some way of saying (in the generic_declaration) ''all instances of this generic unit will have the same accessibility level as the generic_declaration.'' Unfortunately, that doesn't solve the part of the problem having to do with abstract types.

4.l Children of generic units obviate the need for extension in the body somewhat.

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*elaboration* [record_extension_part]} The elaboration of a record_extension_part consists of the elaboration of the record_definition.

NOTES

66 The term ‘‘type extension’’ refers to a type as a whole. The term ‘‘extension part’’ refers to the piece of text that defines the additional components (if any) the type extension has relative to its specified ancestor type. 6

Discussion: We considered other terminology, such as ‘‘extended type.’’ However, the terms ‘‘private extended type’’ and ‘‘record extended type’’ did not convey the proper meaning. Hence, we have chosen to uniformly use the term ‘‘extension’’ as the type resulting from extending a type, with ‘‘private extension’’ being one produced by privately extending the type, and ‘‘record extension’’ being one produced by extending the type with an additional record-like set of components. Note also that the term ‘‘type extension’’ refers to the result of extending a type in the language Oberon as well (though there the term ‘‘extended type’’ is also used, interchangeably, perhaps because Oberon doesn’t have the concept of a ‘‘private extension’’). 6.a

67 The accessibility rules imply that a tagged type declared in a library package_specification can be extended only at library level or as a generic formal. When the extension is declared immediately within a package_body, primitive subprograms are inherited and are overridable, but new primitive subprograms cannot be added. 7

68 A name that denotes a component (including a discriminant) of the parent type is not allowed within the record_extension_part. Similarly, a name that denotes a component defined within the record_extension_part is not allowed within the record_extension_part. It is permissible to use a name that denotes a discriminant of the record extension, providing there is a new known_discriminant_part in the enclosing type declaration. (The full rule is given in 3.8.) 8

Reason: The restriction against depending on discriminants of the parent is to simplify the definition of extension aggregates. The restriction against using parent components in other ways is methodological; it presumably simplifies implementation as well. 8.a

69 Each visible component of a record extension has to have a unique name, whether the component is (visibly) inherited from the parent type or declared in the record_extension_part (see 8.3). 9

Examples

Examples of record extensions (of types defined above in 3.9): 10

```
type Painted_Point is new Point with                                    11
  record
    Paint : Color := White;
  end record;
    -- Components X and Y are inherited
Origin : constant Painted_Point := (X | Y => 0.0, Paint => Black);      12
type Literal is new Expression with                                     13
  record                  -- a leaf in an Expression tree
    Value : Real;
  end record;
type Expr_Ptr is access all Expression'Class;                           14
                                  -- see 3.10
type Binary_Operation is new Expression with                            15
  record                  -- an internal node in an Expression tree
    Left, Right : Expr_Ptr;
  end record;
type Addition is new Binary_Operation with null record;                 16
type Subtraction is new Binary_Operation with null record;
  -- No additional components needed for these extensions
Tree : Expr_Ptr :=          -- A tree representation of ''5.0 + (13.0-7.0)''   17
   new Addition'(
      Left  => new Literal'(Value => 5.0),
      Right => new Subtraction'(
         Left  => new Literal'(Value => 13.0),
         Right => new Literal'(Value => 7.0)));
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Type extension is a new concept. 17.a

3.9.2 Dispatching Operations of Tagged Types

1 {*dispatching operation* [distributed]} {*dispatching call (on a dispatching operation)*} {*nondispatching call (on a dispatching operation)*} {*statically determined tag*} {*dynamically determined tag*} {*polymorphism*} {*run-time polymorphism*} {*controlling tag (for a call on a dispatching operation)*} The primitive subprograms of a tagged type are called *dispatching operations*. [A dispatching operation can be called using a statically determined *controlling* tag, in which case the body to be executed is determined at compile time. Alternatively, the controlling tag can be dynamically determined, in which case the call *dispatches* to a body that is determined at run time;] such a call is termed a *dispatching call*. [As explained below, the properties of the operands and the context of a particular call on a dispatching operation determine how the controlling tag is determined, and hence whether or not the call is a dispatching call. Run-time polymorphism is achieved when a dispatching operation is called by a dispatching call.] {*object-oriented programming (OOP): see dispatching operations of tagged types*} {*OOP (object-oriented programming): see dispatching operations of tagged types*} {*message: see dispatching call*} {*method: see dispatching subprogram*} {*virtual function: see dispatching subprogram*}

Language Design Principles

1.a The controlling tag determination rules are analogous to the overload resolution rules, except they deal with run-time type identification (tags) rather than compile-time type resolution. As with overload resolution, controlling tag determination may depend on operands or result context.

Static Semantics

2 {*call on a dispatching operation*} {*dispatching operation*} A *call on a dispatching operation* is a call whose name or prefix denotes the declaration of a primitive subprogram of a tagged type, that is, a dispatching operation.

2.a **Ramification:** This definition implies that a call through the dereference of an access-to-subprogram value is never considered a call on a dispatching operation. Note also that if the prefix denotes a renaming_declaration, the place where the renaming occurs determines whether it is primitive; the thing being renamed is irrelevant.

{*controlling operand*} A *controlling operand* in a call on a dispatching operation of a tagged type *T* is one whose corresponding formal parameter is of type *T* or is of an anonymous access type with designated type *T*; {*controlling formal parameter*} the corresponding formal parameter is called a *controlling formal parameter*. If the controlling formal parameter is an access parameter, the controlling operand is the object designated by the actual parameter, rather than the actual parameter itself. {*controlling result*} If the call is to a (primitive) function with result type *T*, then the call has a *controlling result* — the context of the call can control the dispatching.

3 A name or expression of a tagged type is either *statically* tagged, *dynamically* tagged, or *tag indeterminate*, according to whether, when used as a controlling operand, the tag that controls dispatching is determined statically by the operand's (specific) type, dynamically by its tag at run time, or from context. A qualified_expression or parenthesized expression is statically, dynamically, or indeterminately tagged according to its operand. For other kinds of names and expressions, this is determined as follows:

4 • {*statically tagged*} The name or expression is *statically tagged* if it is of a specific tagged type and, if it is a call with a controlling result, it has at least one statically tagged controlling operand;

4.a **Discussion:** It is illegal to have both statically tagged and dynamically tagged controlling operands in the same call -- see below.

5 • {*dynamically tagged*} The name or expression is *dynamically tagged* if it is of a class-wide type, or it is a call with a controlling result and at least one dynamically tagged controlling operand;

6 • {*tag indeterminate*} The name or expression is *tag indeterminate* if it is a call with a controlling result, all of whose controlling operands (if any) are tag indeterminate.

[A type_conversion is statically or dynamically tagged according to whether the type determined by the subtype_mark is specific or class-wide, respectively.] For a controlling operand that is designated by an actual parameter, the controlling operand is statically or dynamically tagged according to whether the designated type of the actual parameter is specific or class-wide, respectively. 7

Ramification: A type_conversion is never tag indeterminate, even if its operand is. A designated object is never tag indeterminate. 7.a

Legality Rules

A call on a dispatching operation shall not have both dynamically tagged and statically tagged controlling operands. 8

Reason: This restriction is intended to minimize confusion between whether the dynamically tagged operands are implicitly converted to, or tag checked against the specific type of the statically tagged operand(s). 8.a

If the expected type for an expression or name is some specific tagged type, then the expression or name shall not be dynamically tagged unless it is a controlling operand in a call on a dispatching operation. Similarly, if the expected type for an expression is an anonymous access-to-specific tagged type, then the expression shall not be of an access-to-class-wide type unless it designates a controlling operand in a call on a dispatching operation. 9

Reason: This prevents implicit "truncation" of a dynamically-tagged value to the specific type of the target object/formal. An explicit conversion is required to request this truncation. 9.a

Ramification: This rule applies to all expressions or names with a specific expected type, not just those that are actual parameters to a dispatching call. This rule does not apply to a membership test whose expression is class-wide, since any type that covers the tested type is explicitly allowed. See 4.5.2. 9.b

In the declaration of a dispatching operation of a tagged type, everywhere a subtype of the tagged type appears as a subtype of the profile (see 6.1), it shall statically match the first subtype of the tagged type. {*statically matching* [required]} If the dispatching operation overrides an inherited subprogram, it shall be subtype conformant with the inherited subprogram. {*subtype conformance (required)*} A dispatching operation shall not be of convention Intrinsic. If a dispatching operation overrides the predefined equals operator, then it shall be of convention Ada [(either explicitly or by default — see 6.3.1)]. 10

Reason: These rules ensure that constraint checks can be performed by the caller in a dispatching call, and parameter passing conventions match up properly. A special rule on aggregates prevents values of a tagged type from being created that are outside of its first subtype. 10.a

The default_expression for a controlling formal parameter of a dispatching operation shall be tag indeterminate. A controlling formal parameter that is an access parameter shall not have a default_expression. 11

Reason: The first part ensures that the default_expression always produces the "correct" tag when called with or without dispatching, or when inherited by a descendant. If it were statically tagged, the default would be useless for a dispatching call; if it were dynamically tagged, the default would be useless for a nondispatching call. 11.a

The second part is consistent with the first part, since designated objects are never tag-indeterminate. 11.b

A given subprogram shall not be a dispatching operation of two or more distinct tagged types. 12

Reason: This restriction minimizes confusion since multiple dispatching is not provided. The normal solution is to replace all but one of the tagged types with their class-wide types. 12.a

The explicit declaration of a primitive subprogram of a tagged type shall occur before the type is frozen (see 13.14). [For example, new dispatching operations cannot be added after objects or values of the type exist, nor after deriving a record extension from it, nor after a body.] 13

Reason: This rule is needed because (1) we don't want people dispatching to things that haven't been declared yet, and (2) we want to allow tagged type descriptors to be static (allocated statically, and initialized to link-time-known symbols). Suppose T2 inherits primitive P from T1, and then overrides P. Suppose P is called *before* the declaration of 13.a

the overriding P. What should it dispatch to? If the answer is the new P, we've violated the first principle above. If the answer is the old P, we've violated the second principle. (A call to the new one necessarily raises Program_Error, but that's beside the point.)

13.b Note that a call upon a dispatching operation of type *T* will freeze *T*.

13.c We considered applying this rule to all derived types, for uniformity. However, that would be upward incompatible, so we rejected the idea. As in Ada 83, for an untagged type, the above call upon P will call the old P (which is arguably confusing).

13.d **Implementation Note:** Because of this rule, the type descriptor can be created (presumably containing linker symbols pointing at the not-yet-compiled bodies) at the first freezing point of the type. It also prevents, for a tagged type declared in a package_specification, overriding in the body or by a child subprogram.

13.e **Ramification:** A consequence is that for a derived_type_declaration in a declarative_part, only the first primitive subprogram can be declared by a subprogram_body.

Dynamic Semantics

14 {*execution* [call on a dispatching operation]} {*controlling tag value*} For the execution of a call on a dispatching operation of a type *T*, the *controlling tag value* determines which subprogram body is executed. The controlling tag value is defined as follows:

15 • {*statically determined tag* [partial]} If one or more controlling operands are statically tagged, then the controlling tag value is *statically determined* to be the tag of *T*.

16 • If one or more controlling operands are dynamically tagged, then the controlling tag value is not statically determined, but is rather determined by the tags of the controlling operands. {*Tag_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Tag_Check)*} If there is more than one dynamically tagged controlling operand, a check is made that they all have the same tag. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If this check fails, Constraint_Error is raised unless the call is a function_call whose name denotes the declaration of an equality operator (predefined or user defined) that returns Boolean, in which case the result of the call is defined to indicate inequality, and no subprogram_body is executed. This check is performed prior to evaluating any tag-indeterminate controlling operands.

16.a **Reason:** Tag mismatch is considered an error (except for "=" and "/=") since the corresponding primitive subprograms in each specific type expect all controlling operands to be of the same type. For tag mismatch with an equality operator, rather than raising an exception, "=" returns False and "/=" returns True. No equality operator is actually invoked, since there is no common tag value to control the dispatch. Equality is a special case to be consistent with the existing Ada 83 principle that equality comparisons, even between objects with different constraints, never raise Constraint_Error.

17 • If all of the controlling operands are tag-indeterminate, then:

18 • If the call has a controlling result and is itself a (possibly parenthesized or qualified) controlling operand of an enclosing call on a dispatching operation of type *T*, then its controlling tag value is determined by the controlling tag value of this enclosing call;

19 • {*statically determined tag* [partial]} Otherwise, the controlling tag value is statically determined to be the tag of type *T*.

19.a **Ramification:** This includes the cases of a tag-indeterminate procedure call, and a tag-indeterminate function_call that is used to initialize a class-wide formal parameter or class-wide object.

20 For the execution of a call on a dispatching operation, the body executed is the one for the corresponding primitive subprogram of the specific type identified by the controlling tag value. The body for an explicitly declared dispatching operation is the corresponding explicit body for the subprogram. The body for an implicitly declared dispatching operation that is overridden is the body for the overriding subprogram, [even if the overriding occurs in a private part.] The body for an inherited dispatching operation that is not overridden is the body of the corresponding subprogram of the parent or ancestor type.

To be honest: In the unusual case in which a dispatching subprogram is explicitly declared (overridden) by a body (with no preceding subprogram_declaration), the body for that dispatching subprogram is that body; that is, the ‘‘corresponding explicit body’’ in the above rule is the body itself. 20.a

Reason: The wording of the above rule is intended to ensure that the same body is executed for a given tag, whether that tag is determined statically or dynamically. For a type declared in a package, it doesn't matter whether a given subprogram is overridden in the visible part or the private part, and it doesn't matter whether the call is inside or outside the package. For example: 20.b

```
package P1 is                                                    20.c
    type T1 is tagged null record;
    procedure Op_A(Arg : in T1);
    procedure Op_B(Arg : in T1);
end P1;

with P1; use P1;                                                 20.d
package P2 is
    type T2 is new T1 with null record;
    procedure Op_A(Param : in T2);
private
    procedure Op_B(Param : in T2);
end P2;

with P1; with P2;                                                20.e
procedure Main is
    X : T2;
    Y : T1'Class := X;
begin
    P2.Op_A(Param => X); -- Nondispatching call.
    P1.Op_A(Arg => Y); -- Dispatching call.
    P2.Op_B(Arg => X); -- Nondispatching call.
    P1.Op_B(Arg => Y); -- Dispatching call.
end Main;
```

The two calls to Op_A both execute the body of Op_A that has to occur in the body of package P2. Similarly, the two calls to Op_B both execute the body of Op_B that has to occur in the body of package P2, even though Op_B is overridden in the private part of P2. Note, however, that the formal parameter names are different for P2.Op_A versus P2.Op_B. The overriding declaration for P2.Op_B is not visible in Main, so the name in the call actually denotes the implicit declaration of Op_B inherited from T1. 20.f

If a call occurs in the program text before an overriding, which can happen only if the call is part of a default expression, the overriding will still take effect for that call. 20.g

Implementation Note: Even when a tag is not *statically determined*, a compiler might still be able to figure it out and thereby avoid the overhead of run-time dispatching. 20.h

NOTES

70 The body to be executed for a call on a dispatching operation is determined by the tag; it does not matter whether that tag is determined statically or dynamically, and it does not matter whether the subprogram's declaration is visible at the place of the call. 21

71 This subclause covers calls on primitive subprograms of a tagged type. Rules for tagged type membership tests are described in 4.5.2. Controlling tag determination for an assignment_statement is described in 5.2. 22

72 A dispatching call can dispatch to a body whose declaration is not visible at the place of the call. 23

73 A call through an access-to-subprogram value is never a dispatching call, even if the access value designates a dispatching operation. Similarly a call whose prefix denotes a subprogram_renaming_declaration cannot be a dispatching call unless the renaming itself is the declaration of a primitive subprogram. 24

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The concept of dispatching operations is new. 24.a

3.9.3 Abstract Types and Subprograms

1 [{*abstract type*} {*abstract data type (ADT): see also abstract type*} {*ADT (abstract data type): see also abstract type*} {*concrete type: see nonabstract type*} An *abstract type* is a tagged type intended for use as a parent type for type extensions, but which is not allowed to have objects of its own. {*abstract subprogram*} {*concrete subprogram: see nonabstract subprogram*} An *abstract subprogram* is a subprogram that has no body, but is intended to be overridden at some point when inherited. Because objects of an abstract type cannot be created, a dispatching call to an abstract subprogram always dispatches to some overriding body.]

Language Design Principles

1.a An abstract subprogram has no body, so the rules in this clause are designed to ensure (at compile time) that the body will never be invoked. We do so primarily by disallowing the creation of values of the abstract type. Therefore, since type conversion and parameter passing don't change the tag, we know we will never get a class-wide value with a tag identifying an abstract type. This means that we only have to disallow nondispatching calls on abstract subprograms (dispatching calls will never reach them).

Legality Rules

2 {*abstract type*} {*type (abstract)*} An *abstract type* is a specific type that has the reserved word **abstract** in its declaration. Only a tagged type is allowed to be declared abstract.

2.a **Ramification:** Untagged types are never abstract, even though they can have primitive abstract subprograms. Such subprograms cannot be called, unless they also happen to be dispatching operations of some tagged type, and then only via a dispatching call.

2.b Class-wide types are never abstract. If T is abstract, then it is illegal to declare a stand-alone object of type T, but it is OK to declare a stand-alone object of type T'Class; the latter will get a tag from its initial value, and this tag will necessarily be different from T'Tag.

3 {*abstract subprogram*} {*subprogram (abstract)*} A subprogram declared by an abstract_subprogram_declaration (see 6.1) is an *abstract subprogram*. If it is a primitive subprogram of a tagged type, then the tagged type shall be abstract.

3.a **Ramification:** Note that for a private type, this applies to both views. The following is illegal:

3.b
```
package P is
    type T is abstract tagged private;
    function Foo (X : T) return Boolean is abstract; -- Illegal!
private
    type T is tagged null record; -- Illegal!
    X : T;
    Y : Boolean := Foo (T'Class (X));
end P;
```

3.c The full view of T is not abstract, but has an abstract operation Foo, which is illegal. The two lines marked "-- *Illegal!*" are illegal when taken together.

3.d **Reason:** We considered disallowing untagged types from having abstract primitive subprograms. However, we rejected that plan, because it introduced some silly anomalies, and because such subprograms are harmless (if not terribly useful). For example:

3.e
```
package P is
   type Field_Size is range 0..100;
   type T is abstract tagged null record;
   procedure Print(X : in T; F : in Field_Size := 0) is abstract;
  . . .
package Q is
   type My_Field_Size is new Field_Size;
   -- implicit declaration of Print(X : T; F : My_Field_Size := 0) is abstract;
end Q;
```

3.f It seemed silly to make the derivative of My_Field_Size illegal, just because there was an implicitly declared abstract subprogram that was not primitive on some tagged type. Other rules could be formulated to solve this problem, but the current ones seem like the simplest.

For a derived type, if the parent or ancestor type has an abstract primitive subprogram, or a primitive function with a controlling result, then: 4

- If the derived type is abstract or untagged, the inherited subprogram is *abstract*. 5

  Ramification: Note that it is possible to override a concrete subprogram with an abstract one. 5.a

- Otherwise, the subprogram shall be overridden with a nonabstract subprogram; [for a type declared in the visible part of a package, the overriding may be either in the visible or the private part.] However, if the type is a generic formal type, the subprogram need not be overridden for the formal type itself; [a nonabstract version will necessarily be provided by the actual type.] 6

  Reason: A function that returns the parent type becomes abstract for an abstract type extension (if not overridden) because conversion from a parent type to a type extension is not defined, and function return semantics is defined in terms of conversion. (Note that parameters of mode **in out** or **out** do not have this problem, because the tag of the actual is not changed.) 6.a

  Note that the overriding required above can be in the private part, which allows the following: 6.b

```
package Pack1 is                                                    6.c
    type Ancestor is abstract ...;
    procedure Do_Something(X : in Ancestor) is abstract;
end Pack1;

with Pack1; use Pack1;                                              6.d
package Pack2 is
    type T1 is new Ancestor with record ...;
        -- A concrete type.
    procedure Do_Something(X : in T1); -- Have to override.
end Pack2;

with Pack1; use Pack1;                                              6.e
with Pack2; use Pack2;
package Pack3 is
    type T2 is new Ancestor with private;
        -- A concrete type.
private
    type T2 is new T1 with -- Parent different from ancestor.
      record ... end record;
    -- Here, we inherit Pack2.Do_Something.
end Pack3;
```

  T2 inherits an abstract Do_Something, but T is not abstract, so Do_Something has to be overridden. However, it is OK to override it in the private part. In this case, we override it by inheriting a concrete version from a different type. Nondispatching calls to Pack3.Do_Something are allowed both inside and outside package Pack3. 6.f

A call on an abstract subprogram shall be a dispatching call; [nondispatching calls to an abstract subprogram are not allowed.] 7

Ramification: If an abstract subprogram is not a dispatching operation of some tagged type, then it cannot be called at all. 7.a

The type of an aggregate, or of an object created by an object_declaration or an allocator, or a generic formal object of mode **in**, shall not be abstract. The type of the target of an assignment operation (see 5.2) shall not be abstract. The type of a component shall not be abstract. If the result type of a function is abstract, then the function shall be abstract. 8

Reason: This ensures that values of an abstract type cannot be created, which ensures that a dispatching call to an abstract subprogram will not try to execute the nonexistent body. 8.a

Generic formal objects of mode **in** are like constants; therefore they should be forbidden for abstract types. Generic formal objects of mode **in out** are like renamings; therefore, abstract types are OK for them, though probably not terribly useful. 8.b

9 If a partial view is not abstract, the corresponding full view shall not be abstract. If a generic formal type is abstract, then for each primitive subprogram of the formal that is not abstract, the corresponding primitive subprogram of the actual shall not be abstract.

9.a **Discussion:** By contrast, we allow the actual type to be nonabstract even if the formal type is declared abstract. Hence, the most general formal tagged type possible is "**type** T(<>) **is abstract tagged limited private**;".

9.b For an abstract private extension declared in the visible part of a package, it is only possible for the full type to be nonabstract if the private extension has no abstract dispatching operations.

10 For an abstract type declared in a visible part, an abstract primitive subprogram shall not be declared in the private part, unless it is overriding an abstract subprogram implicitly declared in the visible part. For a tagged type declared in a visible part, a primitive function with a controlling result shall not be declared in the private part, unless it is overriding a function implicitly declared in the visible part.

10.a **Reason:** The ''visible part'' could be that of a package or a generic package. This rule is needed because a non-abstract type extension declared outside the package would not know about any abstract primitive subprograms or primitive functions with controlling results declared in the private part, and wouldn't know that they need to be overridden with non-abstract subprograms. The rule applies to a tagged record type or record extension declared in a visible part, just as to a tagged private type or private extension. The rule applies to explicitly and implicitly declared abstract subprograms:

10.b
```
package Pack is
    type T is abstract new T1 with private;
private
    type T is abstract new T2 with record ... end record;
    ...
end Pack;
```

10.c The above example would be illegal if T1 has a non-abstract primitive procedure P, but T2 overrides P with an abstract one; the private part should override P with a non-abstract version. On the other hand, if the P were abstract for both T1 and T2, the example would be legal as is.

11 A generic actual subprogram shall not be an abstract subprogram. The prefix of an attribute_reference for the Access, Unchecked_Access, or Address attributes shall not denote an abstract subprogram.

11.a **Ramification:** An abstract_subprogram_declaration is not syntactically a subprogram_declaration. Nonetheless, an abstract subprogram is a subprogram, and an abstract_subprogram_declaration is a declaration of a subprogram.

11.b The part about generic actual subprograms includes those given by default.

NOTES

12 74 Abstractness is not inherited; to declare an abstract type, the reserved word **abstract** has to be used in the declaration of the type extension.

12.a **Ramification:** A derived type can be abstract even if its parent is not. Similarly, an inherited concrete subprogram can be overridden with an abstract subprogram.

13 75 A class-wide type is never abstract. Even if a class is rooted at an abstract type, the class-wide type for the class is not abstract, and an object of the class-wide type can be created; the tag of such an object will identify some nonabstract type in the class.

Examples

14 *Example of an abstract type representing a set of natural numbers:*

15
```
package Sets is
    subtype Element_Type is Natural;
    type Set is abstract tagged null record;
    function Empty return Set is abstract;
    function Union(Left, Right : Set) return Set is abstract;
    function Intersection(Left, Right : Set) return Set is abstract;
    function Unit_Set(Element : Element_Type) return Set is abstract;
    procedure Take(Element : out Element_Type; From : in out Set) is abstract;
end Sets;
```

NOTES

76 *Notes on the example:* Given the above abstract type, one could then derive various (nonabstract) extensions of the type, representing alternative implementations of a set. One might use a bit vector, but impose an upper bound on the largest element representable, while another might use a hash table, trading off space for flexibility. 16

Discussion: One way to export a type from a package with some components visible and some components private is as follows: 16.a

```
package P is                                                    16.b
    type Public_Part is abstract tagged
        record
            ...
        end record;
    type T is new Public_Part with private;
    ...
private
    type T is new Public_Part with
        record
            ...
        end record;
end P;
```

The fact that Public_Part is abstract tells clients they have to create objects of type T instead of Public_Part. Note that the public part has to come first; it would be illegal to declare a private type Private_Part, and then a record extension T of it, unless T were in the private part after the full declaration of Private_Part, but then clients of the package would not have visibility to T. 16.c

3.10 Access Types

{*access type*} {*access value*} {*designate*} A value of an access type (an *access value*) provides indirect access to the object or subprogram it *designates*. Depending on its type, an access value can designate either subprograms, objects created by allocators (see 4.8), or more generally *aliased* objects of an appropriate type. {*pointer: see access value*} {*pointer type: see access type*} 1

Discussion: A name *denotes* an entity; an access value *designates* an entity. The ''dereference'' of an access value X, written ''X.**all**'', is a name that denotes the entity designated by X. 1.a

Language Design Principles

Access values should always be well defined (barring uses of certain unchecked features of Section 13). In particular, uninitialized access variables should be prevented by compile-time rules. 1.b

Syntax

access_type_definition ::= 2
  access_to_object_definition
 | access_to_subprogram_definition

access_to_object_definition ::= 3
  access [general_access_modifier] subtype_indication

general_access_modifier ::= **all** | **constant** 4

access_to_subprogram_definition ::= 5
  access [**protected**] **procedure** parameter_profile
 | **access** [**protected**] **function** parameter_and_result_profile

access_definition ::= **access** subtype_mark 6

Static Semantics

{*access-to-object type*} {*access-to-subprogram type*} {*pool-specific access type*} {*general access type*} There are two kinds of access types, *access-to-object* types, whose values designate objects, and *access-to-subprogram* types, whose values designate subprograms. {*storage pool*} Associated with an access-to-object type is a *storage pool*; several access types may share the same storage pool. {*pool element*} A storage pool is an area of storage used to hold dynamically allocated objects (called *pool elements*) created by allocators[; storage pools are described further in 13.11, ''Storage Management'']. 7

8 {*pool-specific access type*} {*general access type*} Access-to-object types are further subdivided into *pool-specific* access types, whose values can designate only the elements of their associated storage pool, and *general* access types, whose values can designate the elements of any storage pool, as well as aliased objects created by declarations rather than allocators, and aliased subcomponents of other objects.

8.a **Implementation Note:** The value of an access type will typically be a machine address. However, a value of a pool-specific access type can be represented as an offset (or index) relative to its storage pool, since it can point only to the elements of that pool.

9 {*aliased*} A view of an object is defined to be *aliased* if it is defined by an object_declaration or component_definition with the reserved word **aliased**, or by a renaming of an aliased view. In addition, the dereference of an access-to-object value denotes an aliased view, as does a view conversion (see 4.6) of an aliased view. Finally, the current instance of a limited type, and a formal parameter or generic formal object of a tagged type are defined to be aliased. [Aliased views are the ones that can be designated by an access value.] {*constrained (object)*} {*unconstrained (object)*} {*constrained by its initial value*} If the view defined by an object_declaration is aliased, and the type of the object has discriminants, then the object is constrained; if its nominal subtype is unconstrained, then the object is constrained by its initial value. [Similarly, if the object created by an allocator has discriminants, the object is constrained, either by the designated subtype, or by its initial value.]

9.a **Glossary entry:** {*Aliased*} An aliased view of an object is one that can be designated by an access value. Objects allocated by allocators are aliased. Objects can also be explicitly declared as aliased with the reserved word **aliased**. The Access attribute can be used to create an access value designating an aliased object.

9.b **Ramification:** The current instance of a nonlimited type is not aliased.

9.c The object created by an allocator is aliased, but not its subcomponents, except of course for those that themselves have **aliased** in their component_definition.

9.d The renaming of an aliased object is aliased.

9.e Slices are never aliased. See 4.1.2 for more discussion.

9.f **Reason:** The current instance of a limited type is defined to be aliased so that an access discriminant of a component can be initialized with T'Access inside the definition of T.

9.g A formal parameter of a tagged type is defined to be aliased so that a (tagged) parameter X may be passed to an access parameter P by using P => X'Access. Access parameters are most important for tagged types because of dispatching-on-access-parameters (see 3.9.2). By restricting this to formal parameters, we minimize problems associated with allowing components that are not declared aliased to be pointed-to from within the same record.

9.h A view conversion of an aliased view is aliased so that the type of an access parameter can be changed without first converting to a named access type. For example:

9.i
```
type T1 is tagged ...;
procedure P(X : access T1);
```

9.j
```
type T2 is new T1 with ...;
procedure P(X : access T2) is
begin
    P(T1(X.all)'Access);   -- hand off to T1's P
    . . .                  -- now do extra T2-specific processing
end P;
```

9.k The rule about objects with discriminants is necessary because values of a constrained access subtype can designate an object whose nominal subtype is unconstrained; without this rule, a check on every use of such values would be required to ensure that the discriminants of the object had not changed. With this rule (among others), we ensure that if there might exist aliased views of a discriminated object, then the object is necessarily constrained. Note that this rule is necessary only for untagged types, since a discriminant of a tagged type can't have a default, so all tagged discriminated objects are always constrained anyway.

9.l We considered making more kinds of objects aliased by default. In particular, any object of a by-reference type will pretty much have to be allocated at an addressable location, so it can be passed by reference without using bit-field pointers. Therefore, one might wish to allow the Access and and Unchecked_Access attributes for such objects.

However, private parts are transparent to the definition of ''by-reference type'', so if we made all objects of a by-reference type aliased, we would be violating the privacy of private parts. Instead, we would have to define a concept of ''visibly by-reference'' and base the rule on that. This seemed to complicate the rules more than it was worth, especially since there is no way to declare an untagged limited private type to be by-reference, since the full type might by nonlimited.

Discussion: Note that we do not use the term ''aliased'' to refer to formal parameters that are referenced through multiple access paths (see 6.2). 9.m

An access_to_object_definition defines an access-to-object type and its first subtype; {*designated subtype (of a named access type)*} {*designated type (of a named access type)*} the subtype_indication defines the *designated subtype* of the access type. If a general_access_modifier appears, then the access type is a general access type. {*access-to-constant type*} If the modifier is the reserved word **constant**, then the type is an *access-to-constant type*[; a designated object cannot be updated through a value of such a type]. {*access-to-variable type*} If the modifier is the reserved word **all**, then the type is an *access-to-variable type*[; a designated object can be both read and updated through a value of such a type]. If no general_access_modifier appears in the access_to_object_definition, the access type is a pool-specific access-to-variable type. 10

To be honest: The type of the designated subtype is called the *designated type*. 10.a

Reason: The modifier **all** was picked to suggest that values of a general access type could point into ''all'' storage pools, as well as to objects declared aliased, and that ''all'' access (both read and update) to the designated object was provided. We couldn't think of any use for pool-specific access-to-constant types, so any access type defined with the modifier **constant** is considered a general access type, and can point into any storage pool or at other (appropriate) aliased objects. 10.b

Implementation Note: The predefined generic Unchecked_Deallocation can be instantiated for any named access-to-variable type. There is no (language-defined) support for deallocating objects designated by a value of an access-to-constant type. Because of this, an allocator for an access-to-constant type can allocate out of a storage pool with no support for deallocation. Frequently, the allocation can be done at link-time, if the size and initial value are known then. 10.c

Discussion: For the purpose of generic formal type matching, the relevant subclasses of access types are access-to-subprogram types, access-to-constant types, and (named) access-to-variable types, with its subclass (named) general access-to-variable types. Pool-specific access-to-variable types are not a separately matchable subclass of types, since they don't have any ''extra'' operations relative to all (named) access-to-variable types. 10.d

{*access-to-subprogram type*} An access_to_subprogram_definition defines an access-to-subprogram type and its first subtype; {*designated profile (of an access-to-subprogram type)*} the parameter_profile or parameter_and_result_profile defines the *designated profile* of the access type. {*calling convention (associated with a designated profile)*} There is a *calling convention* associated with the designated profile[; only subprograms with this calling convention can be designated by values of the access type.] By default, the calling convention is ''*protected*'' if the reserved word **protected** appears, and ''Ada'' otherwise. [See Annex B for how to override this default.] 11

Ramification: The calling convention *protected* is in italics to emphasize that it cannot be specified explicitly by the user. This is a consequence of it being a reserved word. 11.a

Implementation Note: For an access-to-subprogram type, the representation of an access value might include implementation-defined information needed to support up-level references — for example, a static link. The accessibility rules (see 3.10.2) ensure that in a "global-display-based" implementation model (as opposed to a static-link-based model), an access-to-(unprotected)-subprogram value need consist only of the address of the subprogram. The global display is guaranteed to be properly set up any time the designated subprogram is called. Even in a static-link-based model, the only time a static link is definitely required is for an access-to-subprogram type declared in a scope nested at least two levels deep within subprogram or task bodies, since values of such a type might designate subprograms nested a smaller number of levels. For the normal case of an access-to-subprogram type declared at the outermost (library) level, a code address by itself should be sufficient to represent the access value in many implementations. 11.b

For access-to-protected-subprogram, the access values will necessarily include both an address (or other identification) of the code of the subprogram, as well as the address of the associated protected object. This could be thought of as a static link, but it will be needed even for global-display-based implementation models. It corresponds to the value of 11.c

the ‘‘implicit parameter’’ that is passed into every call of a protected operation, to identify the current instance of the protected type on which they are to operate.

11.d Any Elaboration_Check is performed when a call is made through an access value, rather than when the access value is first "created" via a ’Access. For implementation models that normally put that check at the call-site, an access value will have to point to a separate entry point that does the check. Alternatively, the access value could point to a "subprogram descriptor" that consisted of two words (or perhaps more), the first being the address of the code, the second being the elaboration bit. Or perhaps more efficiently, just the address of the code, but using the trick that the descriptor is initialized to point to a Raise-Program-Error routine initially, and then set to point to the "real" code when the body is elaborated.

11.e For implementations that share code between generic instantiations, the extra level of indirection suggested above to support Elaboration_Checks could also be used to provide a pointer to the per-instance data area normally required when calling shared code. The trick would be to put a pointer to the per-instance data area into the subprogram descriptor, and then make sure that the address of the subprogram descriptor is loaded into a "known" register whenever an indirect call is performed. Once inside the shared code, the address of the per-instance data area can be retrieved out of the subprogram descriptor, by indexing off the "known" register.

11.f Essentially the same implementation issues arise for calls on dispatching operations of tagged types, except that the static link is always known "statically."

11.g Note that access parameters of an anonymous access-to-subprogram type are not permitted. If there were such parameters, full ‘‘downward’’ closures would be required, meaning that in an implementation that uses a per-task (global) display, the display would have to be passed as a hidden parameter, and reconstructed at the point of call. This was felt to be an undue implementation burden, given that an equivalent (actually, more general) capability is available via formal subprogram parameters to a generic.

12 {*anonymous access type*} {*designated subtype (of an anonymous access type)*} {*designated type (of an anonymous access type)*} An access_definition defines an anonymous general access-to-variable type; the subtype_mark denotes its *designated subtype*. [An access_definition is used in the specification of an access discriminant (see 3.7) or an access parameter (see 6.1).]

13 {*null value (of an access type)*} For each (named) access type, there is a literal **null** which has a null access value designating no entity at all. [The null value of a named access type is the default initial value of the type.] Other values of an access type are obtained by evaluating an attribute_reference for the Access or Unchecked_Access attribute of an aliased view of an object or non-intrinsic subprogram, or, in the case of a named access-to-object type, an allocator[, which returns an access value designating a newly created object (see 3.10.2)].

13.a **Ramification:** A value of an anonymous access type (that is, the value of an access parameter or access discriminant) cannot be null.

13.b **Reason:** Access parameters allow dispatching on the tag of the object designated by the actual parameter (which gets converted to the anonymous access type as part of the call). In order for dispatching to work properly, there had better be such an object. Hence, the type conversion will raise Constraint_Error if the value of the actual parameter is null.

14 {*constrained* [subtype]} {*unconstrained* [subtype]} [All subtypes of an access-to-subprogram type are constrained.] The first subtype of a type defined by an access_type_definition or an access_to_object_definition is unconstrained if the designated subtype is an unconstrained array or discriminated type; otherwise it is constrained.

14.a **Proof:** The Legality Rules on range_constraints (see 3.5) do not permit the subtype_mark of the subtype_indication to denote an access-to-scalar type, only a scalar type. The Legality Rules on index_constraints (see 3.6.1) and discriminant_constraints (see 3.7.1) both permit access-to-composite types in a subtype_indication with such _constraints. Note that an access-to-access-to-composite is never permitted in a subtype_indication with a constraint.

14.b **Reason:** Only composite_constraints are permitted for an access type, and only on access-to-composite types. A constraint on an access-to-scalar or access-to-access type might be violated due to assignments via other access paths that were not so constrained. By contrast, if the designated subtype is an array or discriminated type, the constraint could not be violated by unconstrained assignments, since array objects are always constrained, and aliased discriminated objects are also constrained (by fiat, see Static Semantics).

Dynamic Semantics

{*compatibility* [composite_constraint with an access subtype]} A composite_constraint is *compatible* with an unconstrained access subtype if it is compatible with the designated subtype. {*satisfies* [for an access value]} An access value *satisfies* a composite_constraint of an access subtype if it equals the null value of its type or if it designates an object whose value satisfies the constraint. 15

{*elaboration* [access_type_definition]} The elaboration of an access_type_definition creates the access type and its first subtype. For an access-to-object type, this elaboration includes the elaboration of the subtype_indication, which creates the designated subtype. 16

{*elaboration* [access_definition]} The elaboration of an access_definition creates an anonymous general access-to-variable type [(this happens as part of the initialization of an access parameter or access discriminant)]. 17

NOTES

77 Access values are called ‘‘pointers’’ or ‘‘references’’ in some other languages. 18

78 Each access-to-object type has an associated storage pool; several access types can share the same pool. An object can be created in the storage pool of an access type by an allocator (see 4.8) for the access type. A storage pool (roughly) corresponds to what some other languages call a ‘‘heap.’’ See 13.11 for a discussion of pools. 19

79 Only index_constraints and discriminant_constraints can be applied to access types (see 3.6.1 and 3.7.1). 20

Examples

Examples of access-to-object types: 21

```
type Peripheral_Ref is access Peripheral;  -- see 3.8.1                    22
type Binop_Ptr is access all Binary_Operation'Class;
                                           -- general access-to-class-wide, see 3.9.1
```

Example of an access subtype: 23

```
subtype Drum_Ref is Peripheral_Ref(Drum);  -- see 3.8.1                    24
```

Example of an access-to-subprogram type: 25

```
type Message_Procedure is access procedure (M : in String := "Error!");    26
procedure Default_Message_Procedure(M : in String);
Give_Message : Message_Procedure := Default_Message_Procedure'Access;
...
procedure Other_Procedure(M : in String);
...
Give_Message := Other_Procedure'Access;
...
Give_Message("File not found.");  -- call with parameter (.all is optional)
Give_Message.all;                 -- call with no parameters
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for access_type_definition is changed to support general access types (including access-to-constants) and access-to-subprograms. The syntax rules for general_access_modifier and access_definition are new. 26.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We use the term "storage pool" to talk about the data area from which allocation takes place. The term "collection" is no longer used. ("Collection" and "storage pool" are not the same thing because multiple unrelated access types can share the same storage pool; see 13.11 for more discussion.) 26.b

3.10.1 Incomplete Type Declarations

1 There are no particular limitations on the designated type of an access type. In particular, the type of a component of the designated type can be another access type, or even the same access type. This permits mutually dependent and recursive access types. An incomplete_type_declaration can be used to introduce a type to be used as a designated type, while deferring its full definition to a subsequent full_type_declaration.

Syntax

2 incomplete_type_declaration ::= **type** defining_identifier [discriminant_part];

Legality Rules

3 {*requires a completion* [incomplete_type_declaration]} An incomplete_type_declaration requires a completion, which shall be a full_type_declaration. [If the incomplete_type_declaration occurs immediately within either the visible part of a package_specification or a declarative_part, then the full_type_declaration shall occur later and immediately within this visible part or declarative_part. If the incomplete_type_declaration occurs immediately within the private part of a given package_specification, then the full_type_declaration shall occur later and immediately within either the private part itself, or the declarative_part of the corresponding package_body.]

3.a **Proof:** This is implied by the next AARM-only rule, plus the rules in 3.11.1, ''Completions of Declarations'' which require a completion to appear later and immediately within the same declarative region.

3.b **To be honest:** If the incomplete_type_declaration occurs immediately within the visible part of a package_specification, then the full_type_declaration shall occur immediately within this visible part.

3.c **To be honest:** If the implementation supports it, an incomplete_type_declaration can be completed by a pragma Import.

4 If an incomplete_type_declaration has a known_discriminant_part, then a full_type_declaration that completes it shall have a fully conforming (explicit) known_discriminant_part (see 6.3.1). {*full conformance (required)*} [If an incomplete_type_declaration has no discriminant_part (or an unknown_discriminant_part), then a corresponding full_type_declaration is nevertheless allowed to have discriminants, either explicitly, or inherited via derivation.]

5 The only allowed uses of a name that denotes an incomplete_type_declaration are as follows:

5.a **Discussion:** No need to say "prior to the end of the full_type_declaration" since the name would not denote the incomplete_type_declaration after the end of the full_type_declaration. Also, with child library units, it would not be well defined whether they come before or after the full_type_declaration for deferred incomplete types.

6 • as the subtype_mark in the subtype_indication of an access_to_object_definition; [the only form of constraint allowed in this subtype_indication is a discriminant_constraint;]

6.a **Implementation Note:** We now allow discriminant_constraints even if the full type is deferred to the package body. However, there is no particular implementation burden because we have dropped the concept of the dependent compatibility check. In other words, we have effectively repealed AI-00007.

7 • as the subtype_mark defining the subtype of a parameter or result of an access_to_subprogram_definition;

7.a **Reason:** This allows, for example, a record to have a component designating a subprogram that takes that same record type as a parameter.

8 • as the subtype_mark in an access_definition;

9 • as the prefix of an attribute_reference whose attribute_designator is Class; such an attribute_reference is similarly restricted to the uses allowed here; when used in this way, the corresponding full_type_declaration shall declare a tagged type, and the attribute_reference shall occur in the same library unit as the incomplete_type_declaration.

Reason: This is to prevent children from imposing requirements on their ancestor library units for deferred incomplete types. 9.a

A dereference (whether implicit or explicit — see 4.1) shall not be of an incomplete type. 10

Static Semantics

{*incomplete type*} An incomplete_type_declaration declares an incomplete type and its first subtype; the first subtype is unconstrained if a known_discriminant_part appears. 11

Reason: If an unknown_discriminant_part or no discriminant_part appears, then the constrainedness of the first subtype doesn't matter for any other rules or semantics, so we don't bother defining it. The case with a known_discriminant_part is the only case in which a constraint could later be given in a subtype_indication naming the incomplete type. 11.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [incomplete_type_declaration]} The elaboration of an incomplete_type_declaration has no effect. 12

Reason: An incomplete type has no real existence, so it doesn't need to be "created" in the usual sense we do for other types. It is roughly equivalent to a "forward;" declaration in Pascal. Private types are different, because they have a different set of characteristics from their full type. 12.a

NOTES

80 {*completion legality* [partial]} Within a declarative_part, an incomplete_type_declaration and a corresponding full_type_declaration cannot be separated by an intervening body. This is because a type has to be completely defined before it is frozen, and a body freezes all types declared prior to it in the same declarative_part (see 13.14). 13

Examples

Example of a recursive type: 14

```
type Cell;  -- incomplete type declaration                                    15
type Link is access Cell;

type Cell is                                                                  16
   record
      Value  : Integer;
      Succ   : Link;
      Pred   : Link;
   end record;

Head   : Link  := new Cell'(0, null, null);                                   17
Next   : Link  := Head.Succ;
```

Examples of mutually dependent access types: 18

```
type Person(<>);     -- incomplete type declaration                           19
type Car;            -- incomplete type declaration

type Person_Name is access Person;                                            20
type Car_Name    is access all Car;

type Car is                                                                   21
   record
      Number  : Integer;
      Owner   : Person_Name;
   end record;

type Person(Sex : Gender) is                                                  22
   record
      Name     : String(1 .. 20);
      Birth    : Date;
      Age      : Integer range 0 .. 130;
      Vehicle  : Car_Name;
      case Sex is
         when M => Wife          : Person_Name(Sex => F);
         when F => Husband       : Person_Name(Sex => M);
      end case;
   end record;
```

23
```
My_Car, Your_Car, Next_Car : Car_Name := new Car;  -- see 4.8
George : Person_Name := new Person(M);
   ...
George.Vehicle := Your_Car;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

23.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} The full_type_declaration that completes an incomplete_type_declaration may have a known_discriminant_part even if the incomplete_type_declaration does not.

23.b A discriminant_constraint may be applied to an incomplete type, even if it its completion is deferred to the package body, because there is no ''dependent compatibility check'' required any more. Of course, the constraint can be specified only if a known_discriminant_part was given in the incomplete_type_declaration. As mentioned in the previous paragraph, that is no longer required even when the full type has discriminants.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

23.c Dereferences producing incomplete types were not explicitly disallowed in RM83, though AI-00039 indicated that it was not strictly necessary since troublesome cases would result in Constraint_Error at run time, since the access value would necessarily be null. However, this introduces an undesirable implementation burden, as illustrated by Example 4 of AI-00039:

23.d
```
package Pack is
    type Pri is private;
private
    type Sep;
    type Pri is access Sep;
    X : Pri;
end Pack;
```

23.e
```
package body Pack is -- Could be separately compiled!
    type Sep is ...;
    X := new Sep;
end Pack;
```

23.f
```
pragma Elaborate(Pack);
private package Pack.Child is
    I : Integer := X.all'Size; -- Legal, by AI-00039.
end Pack.Child;
```

23.g Generating code for the above example could be a serious implementation burden, since it would require all aliased objects to store size dope, and for that dope to be in the same format for all kinds of types (or some other equivalently inefficient implementation). On the contrary, most implementations allocate dope differently (or not at all) for different designated subtypes.

3.10.2 Operations of Access Types

1 [The attribute Access is used to create access values designating aliased objects and non-intrinsic subprograms. The ''accessibility'' rules prevent dangling references (in the absence of uses of certain unchecked features — see Section 13).]

Language Design Principles

1.a It should be possible for an access value to designate an object declared by an object declaration, or a subcomponent thereof. In implementation terms, this means pointing at stack-allocated and statically allocated data structures. However, dangling references should be prevented, primarily via compile-time rules, so long as features like Unchecked_Access and Unchecked_Deallocation are not used.

1.b In order to create such access values, we require that the access type be a general access type, that the designated object be aliased, and that the accessibility rules be obeyed.

Name Resolution Rules

2 {*expected type* [access attribute_reference]} For an attribute_reference with attribute_designator Access (or Unchecked_Access — see 13.10), the expected type shall be a single access type[; the prefix of such an attribute_reference is never interpreted as an implicit_dereference]. {*expected profile* [Access attribute_reference prefix]} If the expected type is an access-to-subprogram type, then the expected profile of the prefix is the designated profile of the access type.

Discussion: Saying that the expected type shall be a "single access type" is our "new" way of saying that the type has to be determinable from context using only the fact that it is an access type. See 4.2 and 8.6. Specifying the expected profile only implies type conformance. The more stringent subtype conformance is required by a Legality Rule. This is the only Resolution Rule that applies to the name in a prefix of an attribute_reference. In all other cases, the name has to be resolved without using context. See 4.1.4. 2.a

Static Semantics

{*accessibility level*} {*level (accessibility)*} {*deeper (accessibility level)*} {*depth (accessibility level)*} {*dangling references (prevention via accessibility rules)*} {*lifetime*} [The accessibility rules, which prevent dangling references, are written in terms of *accessibility levels*, which reflect the run-time nesting of *masters*. As explained in 7.6.1, a master is the execution of a task_body, a block_statement, a subprogram_body, an entry_body, or an accept_statement. An accessibility level is *deeper than* another if it is more deeply nested at run time. For example, an object declared local to a called subprogram has a deeper accessibility level than an object declared local to the calling subprogram. The accessibility rules for access types require that the accessibility level of an object designated by an access value be no deeper than that of the access type. This ensures that the object will live at least as long as the access type, which in turn ensures that the access value cannot later designate an object that no longer exists. The Unchecked_Access attribute may be used to circumvent the accessibility rules.] 3

{*statically deeper*} {*deeper (statically)*} [A given accessibility level is said to be *statically deeper* than another if the given level is known at compile time (as defined below) to be deeper than the other for all possible executions. In most cases, accessibility is enforced at compile time by Legality Rules. Run-time accessibility checks are also used, since the Legality Rules do not cover certain cases involving access parameters and generic packages.] 4

Each master, and each entity and view created by it, has an accessibility level: 5

- The accessibility level of a given master is deeper than that of each dynamically enclosing master, and deeper than that of each master upon which the task executing the given master directly depends (see 9.3). 6
- An entity or view created by a declaration has the same accessibility level as the innermost enclosing master, except in the cases of renaming and derived access types described below. A parameter of a master has the same accessibility level as the master. 7
- The accessibility level of a view of an object or subprogram defined by a renaming_declaration is the same as that of the renamed view. 8
- The accessibility level of a view conversion is the same as that of the operand. 9
- For a function whose result type is a return-by-reference type, the accessibility level of the result object is the same as that of the master that elaborated the function body. For any other function, the accessibility level of the result object is that of the execution of the called function. 10
- The accessibility level of a derived access type is the same as that of its ultimate ancestor. 11
- The accessibility level of the anonymous access type of an access discriminant is the same as that of the containing object or associated constrained subtype. 12
- The accessibility level of the anonymous access type of an access parameter is the same as that of the view designated by the actual. If the actual is an allocator, this is the accessibility level of the execution of the called subprogram. 13
- The accessibility level of an object created by an allocator is the same as that of the access type. 14

15 • The accessibility level of a view of an object or subprogram denoted by a dereference of an access value is the same as that of the access type.

16 • The accessibility level of a component, protected subprogram, or entry of (a view of) a composite object is the same as that of (the view of) the composite object.

17 {*statically deeper*} {*deeper (statically)*} One accessibility level is defined to be *statically deeper* than another in the following cases:

18 • For a master that is statically nested within another master, the accessibility level of the inner master is statically deeper than that of the outer master.

18.a **To be honest:** Strictly speaking, this should talk about the *constructs* (such as subprogram_bodies) being statically nested within one another; the masters are really the *executions* of those constructs.

18.b **To be honest:** If a given accessibility level is statically deeper than another, then each level defined to be the same as the given level is statically deeper than each level defined to be the same as the other level.

19 • The statically deeper relationship does not apply to the accessibility level of the anonymous type of an access parameter; that is, such an accessibility level is not considered to be statically deeper, nor statically shallower, than any other.

20 • For determining whether one level is statically deeper than another when within a generic package body, the generic package is presumed to be instantiated at the same level as where it was declared; run-time checks are needed in the case of more deeply nested instantiations.

21 • For determining whether one level is statically deeper than another when within the declarative region of a type_declaration, the current instance of the type is presumed to be an object created at a deeper level than that of the type.

21.a **Ramification:** In other words, the rules are checked at compile time of the type_declaration, in an assume-the-worst manner.

22 {*library level*} {*level (library)*} The accessibility level of all library units is called the *library level*; a library-level declaration or entity is one whose accessibility level is the library level.

22.a **Ramification:** Library_unit_declarations are library level. Nested declarations are library level if they are nested only within packages (possibly more than one), and not within subprograms, tasks, etc.

22.b **To be honest:** The definition of the accessibility level of the anonymous type of an access parameter cheats a bit, since it refers to the view designated by the actual, but access values designate objects, not views of objects. What we really mean is the view that ''would be'' denoted by an expression ''X.**all**'', where X is the actual, even though such an expression is a figment of our imagination. The definition is intended to be equivalent to the following more verbose version: The accessibility level of the anonymous type of an access parameter is as follows:

22.c • if the actual is an expression of a named access type — the accessibility level of that type;

22.d • if the actual is an allocator — the accessibility level of the execution of the called subprogram;

22.e • if the actual is a reference to the Access attribute — the accessibility level of the view denoted by the prefix;

22.f • if the actual is a reference to the Unchecked_Access attribute — library accessibility level;

22.g • if the actual is an access parameter — the accessibility level of its type.

22.h Note that the allocator case is explicitly mentioned in the RM9X, because otherwise the definition would be circular: the level of the anonymous type is that of the view designated by the actual, which is that of the access type.

22.i **Discussion:** A deeper accessibility level implies a shorter maximum lifetime. Hence, when a rule requires X to have a level that is ''not deeper than'' Y's level, this requires that X has a lifetime at least as long as Y. (We say ''maximum lifetime'' here, because the accessibility level really represents an upper bound on the lifetime; an object created by an allocator can have its lifetime prematurely ended by an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation.)

22.j Package elaborations are not masters, and are therefore invisible to the accessibility rules: an object declared immediately within a package has the same accessibility level as an object declared immediately within the declarative region containing the package. This is true even in the body of a package; it jibes with the fact that objects declared in

a package_body live as long as objects declared outside the package, even though the body objects are not visible outside the package.

Note that the level of the *view* denoted by X.**all** can be different from the level of the *object* denoted by X.**all**. The former is determined by the type of X; the latter is determined either by the type of the allocator, or by the master in which the object was declared. The former is used in several Legality Rules and run-time checks; the latter is used to define when X.**all** gets finalized. The level of a view reflects what we can conservatively ''know'' about the object of that view; for example, due to type_conversions, an access value might designate an object that was allocated by an allocator for a different access type. 22.k

Similarly, the level of the view denoted by X.**all**.Comp can be different from the level of the object denoted by X.**all**.Comp. 22.l

If Y is statically deeper than X, this implies that Y will be (dynamically) deeper than X in all possible executions. 22.m

Most accessibility checking is done at compile time; the rules are stated in terms of ''statically deeper than''. The exceptions are: 22.n

- Checks involving access parameters. The fact that ''statically deeper than'' is not defined for the anonymous access type of an access parameter implies that any rule saying ''shall not be statically deeper than'' does not apply to such a type, nor to anything defined to have ''the same'' level as such a type. 22.o
- Checks involving entities and views within generic packages. This is because an instantiation can be at a level that is more deeply nested than the generic package itself. In implementations that use a macro-expansion model of generics, these violations can be detected at macro-expansion time. For implementations that share generics, run-time code is needed to detect the error. 22.p
- Checks during function return. 22.q

Note that run-time checks are not required for access discriminants, because their accessibility is determined statically by the accessibility level of the enclosing object. 22.r

The accessibility level of the result object of a function reflects the time when that object will be finalized; we don't allow pointers to the object to survive beyond that time. 22.s

We sometimes use the terms ''accessible'' and ''inaccessible'' to mean that something has an accessibility level that is not deeper, or deeper, respectively, than something else. 22.t

Implementation Note: If an accessibility Legality Rule is satisfied, then the corresponding run-time check (if any) cannot fail (and a reasonable implementation will not generate any checking code) unless access parameters or shared generic bodies are involved. 22.u

Accessibility levels are defined in terms of the relations ''the same as'' and ''deeper than''. To make the discussion more concrete, we can assign actual numbers to each level. Here, we assume that library-level accessibility is level 0, and each level defined as ''deeper than'' is one level deeper. Thus, a subprogram directly called from the environment task (such as the main subprogram) would be at level 1, and so on. 22.v

Accessibility is not enforced at compile time for access parameters. The ''obvious'' implementation of the run-time checks would be inefficient, and would involve distributed overhead; therefore, an efficient method is given below. The ''obvious'' implementation would be to pass the level of the caller at each subprogram call, task creation, etc. This level would be incremented by 1 for each dynamically nested master. An Accessibility_Check would be implemented as a simple comparison — checking that X is not deeper than Y would involve checking that X <= Y. 22.w

A more efficient method is based on passing *static* nesting levels (within constructs that correspond at run time to masters — packages don't count). Whenever an access parameter is passed, an implicit extra parameter is passed with it. The extra parameter represents (in an indirect way) the accessibility level of the anonymous access type, and, therefore, the level of the view denoted by a dereference of the access parameter. This is analogous to the implicit ''Constrained'' bit associated with certain formal parameters of an unconstrained but definite composite subtype. In this method, we avoid distributed overhead: it is not necessary to pass any extra information to subprograms that have no access parameters. For anything other than an access parameter and its anonymous type, the static nesting level is known at compile time, and is defined analogously to the RM9X definition of accessibility level (e.g. derived access types get their nesting level from their parent). Checking ''not deeper than'' is a "<=" test on the levels. 22.x

For each access parameter, the static depth passed depends on the actual, as follows: 22.y

- If the actual is an expression of a named access type, pass the static nesting level of that type. 22.z
- If the actual is an allocator, pass the static nesting level of the caller, plus one. 22.aa

22.bb • If the actual is a reference to the Access attribute, pass the level of the view denoted by the prefix.

22.cc • If the actual is a reference to the Unchecked_Access attribute, pass 0 (the library accessibility level).

22.dd • If the actual is an access parameter, usually just pass along the level passed in. However, if the static nesting level of the formal (access) parameter is greater than the static nesting level of the actual (access) parameter, the level to be passed is the minimum of the static nesting level of the access parameter and the actual level passed in.

22.ee For the Accessibility_Check associated with a type_conversion of an access parameter of a given subprogram to a named access type, if the target type is statically nested within the subprogram, do nothing; the check can't fail in this case. Otherwise, check that the value passed in is <= the static nesting depth of the target type. The other Accessibility_Checks are handled in a similar manner.

22.ff This method, using statically known values most of the time, is efficient, and, more importantly, avoids distributed overhead.

22.gg **Discussion:** Examples of accessibility:

22.hh
```
package body Lib_Unit is
    type T is tagged ...;
    type A0 is access all T;
    Global: A0 := ...;
    procedure P(X: T) is
        Y: aliased T;
        type A1 is access all T;
        Ptr0: A0 := Global; -- OK.
        Ptr1: A1 := X'Access; -- OK.
    begin
        Ptr1 := Y'Access; -- OK;
        Ptr0 := A0(Ptr1); -- Illegal type conversion!
        Ptr0 := X'Access; -- Illegal reference to Access attribute!
        Ptr0 := Y'Access; -- Illegal reference to Access attribute!
        Global := Ptr0; -- OK.
    end P;
end Lib_Unit;
```

22.ii The above illegal statements are illegal because the accessibility level of X and Y are statically deeper than the accessibility level of A0. In every possible execution of any program including this library unit, if P is called, the accessibility level of X will be (dynamically) deeper than that of A0. Note that the accessibility levels of X and Y are the same.

22.jj Here's an example involving access parameters:

22.kk
```
procedure Main is
    type Level_1_Type is access all Integer;
```

22.ll
```
    procedure P(X: access Integer) is
        type Nested_Type is access all Integer;
    begin
        ... Nested_Type(X) ... -- (1)
        ... Level_1_Type(X) ... -- (2)
    end P;
```

22.mm
```
    procedure Q(X: access Integer) is
        procedure Nested(X: access Integer) is
        begin
            P(X);
        end Nested;
    begin
        Nested(X);
    end Q;
```

22.nn
```
    procedure R is
        Level_2: aliased Integer;
    begin
        Q(Level_2'Access); -- (3)
    end R;
```

```
    Level_1: aliased Integer;                                          22.oo
begin
    Q(Level_1'Access); -- (4)
    R;
end Main;
```

The run-time Accessibility_Check at (1) can never fail, and no code should be generated to check it. The check at (2) will fail when called from (3), but not when called from (4). 22.pp

Within a type_declaration, the rules are checked in an assume-the-worst manner. For example: 22.qq

```
package P is                                                           22.rr
    type Int_Ptr is access all Integer;
    type Rec(D: access Integer) is limited private;
private
    type Rec_Ptr is access all Rec;
    function F(X: Rec_Ptr) return Boolean;
    function G(X: access Rec) return Boolean;
    type Rec(D: access Integer) is
        record
            C1: Int_Ptr := Int_Ptr(D); -- Illegal!
            C2: Rec_Ptr := Rec'Access; -- Illegal!
            C3: Boolean := F(Rec'Access); -- Illegal!
            C4: Boolean := G(Rec'Access);
        end record;
end P;
```

C1, C2, and C3 are all illegal, because one might declare an object of type Rec at a more deeply nested place than the declaration of the type. C4 is legal, but the accessibility level of the object will be passed to function G, and constraint checks within G will prevent it from doing any evil deeds. 22.ss

Note that we cannot defer the checks on C1, C2, and C3 until compile-time of the object creation, because that would cause violation of the privacy of private parts. Furthermore, the problems might occur within a task or protected body, which the compiler can't see while compiling an object creation. 22.tt

The following attribute is defined for a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object: 23

X'Access — X'Access yields an access value that designates the object denoted by X. The type of X'Access is an access-to-object type, as determined by the expected type. The expected type shall be a general access type. {*Unchecked_Access attribute: see also Access attribute*} X shall denote an aliased view of an object[, including possibly the current instance (see 8.6) of a limited type within its definition, or a formal parameter or generic formal object of a tagged type]. The view denoted by the prefix X shall satisfy the following additional requirements, presuming the expected type for X'Access is the general access type *A*: 24

- If *A* is an access-to-variable type, then the view shall be a variable; [on the other hand, if *A* is an access-to-constant type, the view may be either a constant or a variable.] 25

Discussion: The current instance of a limited type is considered a variable. 25.a

- The view shall not be a subcomponent that depends on discriminants of a variable whose nominal subtype is unconstrained, unless this subtype is indefinite, or the variable is aliased. 26

Discussion: This restriction is intended to be similar to the restriction on renaming discriminant-dependent subcomponents. 26.a

Reason: This prevents references to subcomponents that might disappear or move or change constraints after creating the reference. 26.b

Implementation Note: There was some thought to making this restriction more stringent, roughly: "X shall not denote a subcomponent of a variable with discriminant-dependent subcomponents, if the nominal subtype of the variable is an unconstrained definite subtype." This was because in some implementations, it is not just the discriminant-dependent subcomponents that might move as the result of an assignment that changed the 26.c

discriminants of the enclosing object. However, it was decided not to make this change because a reasonable implementation strategy was identified to avoid such problems, as follows:

26.d • Place non-discriminant-dependent components with any aliased parts at offsets preceding any discriminant-dependent components in a discriminated record type with defaulted discriminants.

26.e • Preallocate the maximum space for unconstrained discriminated variables with aliased subcomponents, rather than allocating the initial size and moving them to a larger (heap-resident) place if they grow as the result of an assignment.

26.f Note that for objects of a by-reference type, it is not an error for a programmer to take advantage of the fact that such objects are passed by reference. Therefore, the above approach is also necessary for discriminated record types with components of a by-reference type.

26.g To make the above strategy work, it is important that a component of a derived type is defined to be discriminant-dependent if it is inherited and the parent subtype constraint is defined in terms of a discriminant of the derived type (see 3.7).

27 • If the designated type of *A* is tagged, then the type of the view shall be covered by the designated type; if *A*'s designated type is not tagged, then the type of the view shall be the same, and either *A*'s designated subtype shall statically match the nominal subtype of the view, or the designated subtype shall be discriminated and unconstrained; {*statically matching* [required]}

27.a **Implementation Note:** This ensures that the dope for an aliased array object can always be stored contiguous with it, but need not be if its nominal subtype is constrained.

28 • The accessibility level of the view shall not be statically deeper than that of the access type *A*. In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. {*accessibility rule* [Access attribute]} {*generic contract issue* [partial]}

28.a **Ramification:** In an instance body, a run-time check applies.

28.b If *A* is an anonymous access type, then the view can never have a deeper accessibility level than *A*, except when X'Access is used to initialize an access discriminant of an object created by an allocator. The latter case is illegal if the accessibility level of X is statically deeper than that of the access type of the allocator; a run-time check is needed in the case where the initial value comes from an access parameter.

30 {*Accessibility_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Accessibility_Check)*} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} A check is made that the accessibility level of X is not deeper than that of the access type *A*. If this check fails, Program_Error is raised.

29.a **Ramification:** The check is needed for access parameters and in instance bodies.

29.b **Implementation Note:** This check requires that some indication of lifetime is passed as an implicit parameter along with access parameters. No such requirement applies to access discriminants, since the checks associated with them are all compile-time checks.

30 {*implicit subtype conversion* [Access attribute]} If the nominal subtype of X does not statically match the designated subtype of *A*, a view conversion of X to the designated subtype is evaluated (which might raise Constraint_Error — see 4.6) and the value of X'Access designates that view.

31 The following attribute is defined for a prefix P that denotes a subprogram:

32 P'Access P'Access yields an access value that designates the subprogram denoted by P. The type of P'Access is an access-to-subprogram type (*S*), as determined by the expected type. {*accessibility rule* [Access attribute]} The accessibility level of P shall not be statically deeper than that of *S*. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. The profile of P shall be subtype-conformant with the designated profile of *S*, and shall not be Intrinsic. {*subtype conformance*

(required)} If the subprogram denoted by P is declared within a generic body, *S* shall be declared within the generic body.

Discussion: The part about generic bodies is worded in terms of the denoted subprogram, not the denoted view; this implies that renaming is invisible to this part of the rule. This rule is partly to prevent contract model problems with respect to the accessibility rules, and partly to ease shared-generic-body implementations, in which a subprogram declared in an instance needs to have a different calling convention from other subprograms with the same profile. 32.a

Overload resolution ensures only that the profile is type-conformant. This rule specifies that subtype conformance is required (which also requires matching calling conventions). P cannot denote an entry because access-to-subprogram types never have the *entry* calling convention. P cannot denote an enumeration literal or an attribute function because these have intrinsic calling conventions. 32.b

NOTES

81 The Unchecked_Access attribute yields the same result as the Access attribute for objects, but has fewer restrictions (see 13.10). There are other predefined operations that yield access values: an allocator can be used to create an object, and return an access value that designates it (see 4.8); evaluating the literal **null** yields a null access value that designates no entity at all (see 4.2). 33

82 {*predefined operations* [of an access type]} The predefined operations of an access type also include the assignment operation, qualification, and membership tests. Explicit conversion is allowed between general access types with matching designated subtypes; explicit conversion is allowed between access-to-subprogram types with subtype conformant profiles (see 4.6). {*subtype conformance* [partial]} Named access types have predefined equality operators; anonymous access types do not (see 4.5.2). 34

Reason: By not having equality operators for anonymous access types, we eliminate the need to specify exactly where the predefined operators for anonymous access types would be defined, as well as the need for an implementer to insert an implicit declaration for "=", etc. at the appropriate place in their symbol table. Note that 'Access and ".**all**" are defined, and ":=" is defined though useless since all instances are constant. The literal **null** is also defined for the purposes of overload resolution, but is disallowed by a Legality Rule of this subclause. 34.a

83 The object or subprogram designated by an access value can be named with a dereference, either an explicit_dereference or an implicit_dereference. See 4.1. 35

84 A call through the dereference of an access-to-subprogram value is never a dispatching call. 36

Proof: See 3.9.2. 36.a

85 {*downward closure*} {*closure (downward)*} The accessibility rules imply that it is not possible to use the Access attribute to implement ''downward closures'' — that is, to pass a more-nested subprogram as a parameter to a less-nested subprogram, as might be desired for example for an iterator abstraction. Instead, downward closures can be implemented using generic formal subprograms (see 12.6). Note that Unchecked_Access is not allowed for subprograms. 37

86 Note that using an access-to-class-wide tagged type with a dispatching operation is a potentially more structured alternative to using an access-to-subprogram type. 38

87 An implementation may consider two access-to-subprogram values to be unequal, even though they designate the same subprogram. This might be because one points directly to the subprogram, while the other points to a special prologue that performs an Elaboration_Check and then jumps to the subprogram. See 4.5.2. 39

Ramification: If equality of access-to-subprogram values is important to the logic of a program, a reference to the Access attribute of a subprogram should be evaluated only once and stored in a global constant for subsequent use and equality comparison. 39.a

Examples

Example of use of the Access attribute: 40

```
Martha : Person_Name := new Person(F);        -- see 3.10.1
Cars   : array (1..2) of aliased Car;
   ...
Martha.Vehicle := Cars(1)'Access;
George.Vehicle := Cars(2)'Access;
```

41

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} We no longer make things like 'Last and ".component" (basic) operations of an access type that need to be "declared" somewhere. Instead, implicit dereference in a prefix takes care of them all. This means that there should never be a case when X.**all**'Last is legal while X'Last is not. See AI-00154. 41.a

3.11 Declarative Parts

1 [A declarative_part contains declarative_items (possibly none).]

Syntax

2 declarative_part ::= {declarative_item}

3 declarative_item ::=
basic_declarative_item | body

4 basic_declarative_item ::=
basic_declaration | representation_clause | use_clause

5 body ::= proper_body | body_stub

6 proper_body ::=
subprogram_body | package_body | task_body | protected_body

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*elaboration* [declarative_part]} The elaboration of a declarative_part consists of the elaboration of the declarative_items, if any, in the order in which they are given in the declarative_part.

8 {*elaborated*} An elaborable construct is in the *elaborated* state after the normal completion of its elaboration. Prior to that, it is *not yet elaborated*.

8.a **Ramification:** The elaborated state is only important for bodies; certain uses of a body raise an exception if the body is not yet elaborated.

8.b Note that "prior" implies before the start of elaboration, as well as during elaboration.

8.c The use of the term "normal completion" implies that if the elaboration propagates an exception or is aborted, the declaration is not elaborated. RM83 missed the aborted case.

9 {*Elaboration_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Elaboration_Check)*} For a construct that attempts to use a body, a check (Elaboration_Check) is performed, as follows:

10 • For a call to a (non-protected) subprogram that has an explicit body, a check is made that the subprogram_body is already elaborated. This check and the evaluations of any actual parameters of the call are done in an arbitrary order.

10.a **Discussion:** AI-00180 specifies that there is no elaboration check for a subprogram defined by a pragma Interface (or equivalently, pragma Import). AI-00430 specifies that there is no elaboration check for an enumeration literal. AI-00406 specifies that the evaluation of parameters and the elaboration check occur in an arbitrary order. AI-00406 applies to generic instantiation as well (see below).

11 • For a call to a protected operation of a protected type (that has a body — no check is performed if a pragma Import applies to the protected type), a check is made that the protected_body is already elaborated. This check and the evaluations of any actual parameters of the call are done in an arbitrary order.

11.a **Discussion:** A protected type has only one elaboration ‘‘bit,’’ rather than one for each operation, because one call may result in evaluating the barriers of other entries, and because there are no elaborable declarations between the bodies of the operations. In fact, the elaboration of a protected_body does not elaborate the enclosed bodies, since they are not considered independently elaborable.

11.b Note that there is no elaboration check when calling a task entry. Task entry calls are permitted even before the associated task_body has been seen. Such calls are simply queued until the task is activated and reaches a corresponding accept_statement. We considered a similar rule for protected entries — simply queuing all calls until the protected_body was seen, but felt it was not worth the possible implementation overhead, particularly given that there might be multiple instances of the protected type.

12 • For the activation of a task, a check is made by the activator that the task_body is already elaborated. If two or more tasks are being activated together (see 9.2), as the result of the elaboration of a declarative_part or the initialization for the object created by an allocator, this check is done for all of them before activating any of them.

Reason: As specified by AI-00149, the check is done by the activator, rather than by the task itself. If it were done by the task itself, it would be turned into a Tasking_Error in the activator, and the other tasks would still be activated. 12.a

- For the instantiation of a generic unit that has a body, a check is made that this body is already elaborated. This check and the evaluation of any explicit_generic_actual_parameters of the instantiation are done in an arbitrary order. 13

{*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Program_Error is raised if any of these checks fails. 14

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for declarative_part is modified to remove the ordering restrictions of Ada 83; that is, the distinction between basic_declarative_items and later_declarative_items within declarative_parts is removed. This means that things like use_clauses and variable_declarations can be freely intermixed with things like bodies. 14.a

The syntax rule for proper_body now allows a protected_body, and the rules for elaboration checks now cover calls on protected operations. 14.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for later_declarative_item is removed; the syntax rule for declarative_item is new. 14.c

RM83 defines ''elaborated'' and ''not yet elaborated'' for declarative_items here, and for other things in 3.1, ''Declarations''. That's no longer necessary, since these terms are fully defined in 3.1. 14.d

In RM83, all uses of declarative_part are optional (except for the one in block_statement with a **declare**) which is sort of strange, since a declarative_part can be empty, according to the syntax. That is, declarative_parts are sort of ''doubly optional''. In Ada 9X, these declarative_parts are always required (but can still be empty). To simplify description, we go further and say (see 5.6, ''Block Statements'') that a block_statement without an explicit declarative_part is equivalent to one with an empty one. 14.e

3.11.1 Completions of Declarations

Declarations sometimes come in two parts. {*requires a completion*} A declaration that requires a second part is said to *require completion*. {*completion (compile-time concept)*} The second part is called the *completion* of the declaration (and of the entity declared), and is either another declaration, a body, or a pragma. 1

Discussion: Throughout the RM9X, there are rules about completions that define the following: 1.a

- Which declarations require a corresponding completion. 1.b
- Which constructs can only serve as the completion of a declaration. 1.c
- Where the completion of a declaration is allowed to be. 1.d
- What kinds of completions are allowed to correspond to each kind of declaration that allows one. 1.e

Don't confuse this compile-time concept with the run-time concept of completion defined in 7.6.1. 1.f

Note that the declaration of a private type (if limited) can be completed with the declaration of a task type, which is then completed with a body. Thus, a declaration can actually come in *three* parts. 1.g

Name Resolution Rules

A construct that can be a completion is interpreted as the completion of a prior declaration only if: 2

- The declaration and the completion occur immediately within the same declarative region; 3
- The defining name or defining_program_unit_name in the completion is the same as in the declaration, or in the case of a pragma, the pragma applies to the declaration; 4
- If the declaration is overloadable, then the completion either has a type-conformant profile, or is a pragma. {*type conformance (required)*} 5

Legality Rules

6 An implicit declaration shall not have a completion. {*requires a completion* [distributed]} For any explicit declaration that is specified to *require completion*, there shall be a corresponding explicit completion.

6.a **Discussion:** The implicit declarations of predefined operators are not allowed to have a completion. Enumeration literals, although they are subprograms, are not allowed to have a corresponding subprogram_body. That's because the completion rules are described in terms of constructs (subprogram_declarations) and not entities (subprograms). When a completion is required, it has to be explicit; the implicit null package_body that Section 7 talks about cannot serve as the completion of a package_declaration if a completion is required.

7 At most one completion is allowed for a given declaration. Additional requirements on completions appear where each kind of completion is defined.

7.a **Ramification:** A subunit is not a completion; the stub is.

7.b If the completion of a declaration is also a declaration, then *that* declaration might have a completion, too. For example, a limited private type can be completed with a task type, which can then be completed with a task body. This is not a violation of the ''at most one completion'' rule.

8 {*completely defined*} A type is *completely defined* at a place that is after its full type definition (if it has one) and after all of its subcomponent types are completely defined. A type shall be completely defined before it is frozen (see 13.14 and 7.3).

8.a **Reason:** Index types are always completely defined — no need to mention them. There is no way for a completely defined type to depend on the value of a (still) deferred constant.

NOTES

9 88 Completions are in principle allowed for any kind of explicit declaration. However, for some kinds of declaration, the only allowed completion is a pragma Import, and implementations are not required to support pragma Import for every kind of entity.

9.a **Discussion:** In fact, we expect that implementations will *not* support pragma Import of things like types — it's hard to even define the semantics of what it would mean. Therefore, in practice, *not* every explicit declaration can have a completion. In any case, if an implementation chooses to support pragma Import for, say, types, it can place whatever restrictions on the feature it wants to. For example, it might want the pragma to be a freezing point for the type.

10 89 There are rules that prevent premature uses of declarations that have a corresponding completion. The Elaboration_Checks of 3.11 prevent such uses at run time for subprograms, protected operations, tasks, and generic units. The rules of 13.14, ''Freezing Rules'' prevent, at compile time, premature uses of other entities such as private types and deferred constants.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

10.a This subclause is new. It is intended to cover all kinds of completions of declarations, be they a body for a spec, a full type for an incomplete or private type, a full constant declaration for a deferred constant declaration, or a pragma Import for any kind of entity.

Section 4: Names and Expressions

[The rules applicable to the different forms of name and expression, and to their evaluation, are given in this section.] 1

4.1 Names

[Names can denote declared entities, whether declared explicitly or implicitly (see 3.1). Names can also denote objects or subprograms designated by access values; the results of type_conversions or function_calls; subcomponents and slices of objects and values; protected subprograms, single entries, entry families, and entries in families of entries. Finally, names can denote attributes of any of the foregoing.] 1

Syntax

name ::= 2
direct_name | explicit_dereference
| indexed_component | slice
| selected_component | attribute_reference
| type_conversion | function_call
| character_literal

direct_name ::= identifier | operator_symbol 3

Discussion: character_literal is no longer a direct_name. character_literals are usable even when the corresponding enumeration_type_declaration is not visible. See 4.2. 3.a

prefix ::= name | implicit_dereference 4

explicit_dereference ::= name.**all** 5

implicit_dereference ::= name 6

[Certain forms of name (indexed_components, selected_components, slices, and attributes) include a prefix that is either itself a name that denotes some related entity, or an implicit_dereference of an access value that designates some related entity.] 7

Name Resolution Rules

{*dereference*} {*expected type* [dereference name]} The name in a *dereference* (either an implicit_dereference or an explicit_dereference) is expected to be of any access type. 8

Static Semantics

{*nominal subtype* [associated with a dereference]} If the type of the name in a dereference is some access-to-object type *T*, then the dereference denotes a view of an object, the *nominal subtype* of the view being the designated subtype of *T*. 9

Ramification: If the value of the name is the result of an access type conversion, the dereference denotes a view created as part of the conversion. The nominal subtype of the view is not necessarily the same as that used to create the designated object. See 4.6. 9.a

To be honest: {*nominal subtype* [of a name]} We sometimes refer to the nominal subtype of a particular kind of name rather than the nominal subtype of the view denoted by the name (presuming the name denotes a view of an object). These two uses of nominal subtype are intended to mean the same thing. 9.b

{*profile* [associated with a dereference]} If the type of the name in a dereference is some access-to-subprogram type *S*, then the dereference denotes a view of a subprogram, the *profile* of the view being the designated profile of *S*. 10

10.a **Ramification:** This means that the formal parameter names and default expressions to be used in a call whose name or prefix is a dereference are those of the designated profile, which need not be the same as those of the subprogram designated by the access value, since 'Access requires only subtype conformance, not full conformance.

Dynamic Semantics

11 {*evaluation* [name]} The evaluation of a name determines the entity denoted by the name. This evaluation has no other effect for a name that is a direct_name or a character_literal.

12 {*evaluation* [name that has a prefix]} [The evaluation of a name that has a prefix includes the evaluation of the prefix.] {*evaluation* [prefix]} The evaluation of a prefix consists of the evaluation of the name or the implicit_dereference. The prefix denotes the entity denoted by the name or the implicit_dereference.

13 {*evaluation* [dereference]} The evaluation of a dereference consists of the evaluation of the name and the determination of the object or subprogram that is designated by the value of the name. {*Access_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Access_Check)*} A check is made that the value of the name is not the null access value. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. The dereference denotes the object or subprogram designated by the value of the name.

Examples

14 *Examples of direct names:*

15

```
Pi       -- the direct name of a number          (see 3.3.2)
Limit    -- the direct name of a constant        (see 3.3.1)
Count    -- the direct name of a scalar variable (see 3.3.1)
Board    -- the direct name of an array variable (see 3.6.1)
Matrix   -- the direct name of a type            (see 3.6)
Random   -- the direct name of a function        (see 6.1)
Error    -- the direct name of an exception      (see 11.1)
```

16 *Examples of dereferences:*

17

```
Next_Car.all    -- explicit dereference denoting the object designated by
                -- the access variable Next_Car (see 3.10.1)
Next_Car.Owner  -- selected component with implicit dereference;
                -- same as Next_Car.all.Owner
```

Extensions to Ada 83

17.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Type conversions and function calls are now considered names that denote the result of the operation. In the case of a type conversion used as an actual parameter or that is of a tagged type, the type conversion is considered a variable if the operand is a variable. This simplifies the description of "parameters of the form of a type conversion" as well as better supporting an important OOP paradigm that requires the combination of a conversion from a class-wide type to some specific type followed immediately by component selection. Function calls are considered names so that a type conversion of a function call and the function call itself are treated equivalently in the grammar. A function call is considered the name of a constant, and can be used anywhere such a name is permitted. See 6.5.

17.b Type conversions of a tagged type are permitted anywhere their operand is permitted. That is, if the operand is a variable, then the type conversion can appear on the left-hand side of an assignment_statement. If the operand is an object, then the type conversion can appear in an object renaming or as a prefix. See 4.6.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

17.c Everything of the general syntactic form name(...) is now syntactically a name. In any realistic parser, this would be a necessity since distinguishing among the various name(...) constructs inevitably requires name resolution. In cases where the construct yields a value rather than an object, the name denotes the value rather than an object. Names already denote values in Ada 83 with named numbers, components of the result of a function call, etc. This is partly just a wording change, and partly an extension of functionality (see Extensions heading above).

The syntax rule for direct_name is new. It is used in places where direct visibility is required. It's kind of like Ada 83's simple_name, but simple_name applied to both direct visibility and visibility by selection, and furthermore, it didn't work right for operator_symbols. The syntax rule for simple_name is removed, since its use is covered by a combination of direct_name and selector_name. The syntactic categories direct_name and selector_name are similar; it's mainly the visibility rules that distinguish the two. The introduction of direct_name requires the insertion of one new explicit textual rule: to forbid statement_identifiers from being operator_symbols. This is the only case where the explicit rule is needed, because this is the only case where the declaration of the entity is implicit. For example, there is no need to syntactically forbid (say) ''X: "Rem";'', because it is impossible to declare a type whose name is an operator_symbol in the first place. 17.d

The syntax rules for explicit_dereference and implicit_dereference are new; this makes other rules simpler, since dereferencing an access value has substantially different semantics from selected_components. We also use name instead of prefix in the explicit_dereference rule since that seems clearer. Note that these rules rely on the fact that function calls are now names, so we don't need to use prefix to allow functions calls in front of .**all**. 17.e

Discussion: Actually, it would be reasonable to allow any primary in front of .**all**, since only the value is needed, but that would be a bit radical. 17.f

We no longer use the term *appropriate for a type* since we now describe the semantics of a prefix in terms of implicit dereference. 17.g

4.1.1 Indexed Components

[An indexed_component denotes either a component of an array or an entry in a family of entries. {*array indexing: see indexed_component*}] 1

Syntax

indexed_component ::= prefix(expression {, expression}) 2

Name Resolution Rules

The prefix of an indexed_component with a given number of expressions shall resolve to denote an array (after any implicit dereference) with the corresponding number of index positions, or shall resolve to denote an entry family of a task or protected object (in which case there shall be only one expression). 3

{*expected type* [indexed_component expression]} The expected type for each expression is the corresponding index type. 4

Static Semantics

When the prefix denotes an array, the indexed_component denotes the component of the array with the specified index value(s). {*nominal subtype* [associated with an indexed_component]} The nominal subtype of the indexed_component is the component subtype of the array type. 5

Ramification: In the case of an array whose components are aliased, and of an unconstrained discriminated subtype, the components are constrained even though their nominal subtype is unconstrained. (This is because all aliased discriminated objects are constrained. See 3.10.2.) In all other cases, an array component is constrained if and only if its nominal subtype is constrained. 5.a

When the prefix denotes an entry family, the indexed_component denotes the individual entry of the entry family with the specified index value. 6

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [indexed_component]} For the evaluation of an indexed_component, the prefix and the expressions are evaluated in an arbitrary order. The value of each expression is converted to the corresponding index type. {*implicit subtype conversion* [array index]} {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} A check is made that each index value belongs to the corresponding index range of the array or entry family denoted by the prefix. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. 7

Examples

Examples of indexed components:

```
My_Schedule(Sat)      -- a component of a one-dimensional array  (see 3.6.1)
Page(10)              -- a component of a one-dimensional array  (see 3.6)
Board(M, J + 1)       -- a component of a two-dimensional array  (see 3.6.1)
Page(10)(20)          -- a component of a component              (see 3.6)
Request(Medium)       -- an entry in a family of entries         (see 9.1)
Next_Frame(L)(M, N)   -- a component of a function call          (see 6.1)
```

NOTES

1 *Notes on the examples:* Distinct notations are used for components of multidimensional arrays (such as Board) and arrays of arrays (such as Page). The components of an array of arrays are arrays and can therefore be indexed. Thus Page(10)(20) denotes the 20th component of Page(10). In the last example Next_Frame(L) is a function call returning an access value that designates a two-dimensional array.

4.1.2 Slices

[{*array slice*} A slice denotes a one-dimensional array formed by a sequence of consecutive components of a one-dimensional array. A slice of a variable is a variable; a slice of a constant is a constant;] a slice of a value is a value.

Syntax

slice ::= prefix(discrete_range)

Name Resolution Rules

The prefix of a slice shall resolve to denote a one-dimensional array (after any implicit dereference).

{*expected type* [slice discrete_range]} The expected type for the discrete_range of a slice is the index type of the array type.

Static Semantics

A slice denotes a one-dimensional array formed by the sequence of consecutive components of the array denoted by the prefix, corresponding to the range of values of the index given by the discrete_range.

The type of the slice is that of the prefix. Its bounds are those defined by the discrete_range.

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [slice]} For the evaluation of a slice, the prefix and the discrete_range are evaluated in an arbitrary order. {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} {*null slice*} If the slice is not a *null slice* (a slice where the discrete_range is a null range), then a check is made that the bounds of the discrete_range belong to the index range of the array denoted by the prefix. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

NOTES

2 A slice is not permitted as the prefix of an Access attribute_reference, even if the components or the array as a whole are aliased. See 3.10.2.

Proof: Slices are not aliased, by 3.10, ‘‘Access Types’’.

Reason: This is to ease implementation of general-access-to-array. If slices were aliased, implementations would need to store array dope with the access values, which is not always desirable given access-to-incomplete types completed in a package body.

3 For a one-dimensional array A, the slice A(N .. N) denotes an array that has only one component; its type is the type of A. On the other hand, A(N) denotes a component of the array A and has the corresponding component type.

Examples

Examples of slices:

```
Stars(1 .. 15)          -- a slice of 15 characters          (see 3.6.3)
Page(10 .. 10 + Size)   -- a slice of 1 + Size components    (see 3.6)
Page(L)(A .. B)         -- a slice of the array Page(L)      (see 3.6)
Stars(1 .. 0)           -- a null slice                      (see 3.6.3)
My_Schedule(Weekday)    -- bounds given by subtype           (see 3.6.1 and 3.5.1)
Stars(5 .. 15)(K)       -- same as Stars(K)                  (see 3.6.3)
                        -- provided that K is in 5 .. 15
```

4.1.3 Selected Components

[Selected_components are used to denote components (including discriminants), entries, entry families, and protected subprograms; they are also used as expanded names as described below. {*dot selection: see selected_component*}]

Syntax

selected_component ::= prefix . selector_name

selector_name ::= identifier | character_literal | operator_symbol

Name Resolution Rules

{*expanded name*} A selected_component is called an *expanded name* if, according to the visibility rules, at least one possible interpretation of its prefix denotes a package or an enclosing named construct (directly, not through a subprogram_renaming_declaration or generic_renaming_declaration).

Discussion: See AI-00187.

A selected_component that is not an expanded name shall resolve to denote one of the following:

Ramification: If the prefix of a selected_component denotes an enclosing named construct, then the selected_component is interpreted only as an expanded name, even if the named construct is a function that could be called without parameters.

- A component [(including a discriminant)]:

  The prefix shall resolve to denote an object or value of some non-array composite type (after any implicit dereference). The selector_name shall resolve to denote a discriminant_specification of the type, or, unless the type is a protected type, a component_declaration of the type. The selected_component denotes the corresponding component of the object or value.

  Reason: The components of a protected object cannot be named except by an expanded name, even from within the corresponding protected body. The protected body may not reference the the private components of some arbitrary object of the protected type; the protected body may reference components of the current instance only (by an expanded name or a direct_name).

  Ramification: Only the discriminants and components visible at the place of the selected_component can be selected, since a selector_name can only denote declarations that are visible (see 8.3).

- A single entry, an entry family, or a protected subprogram:

  The prefix shall resolve to denote an object or value of some task or protected type (after any implicit dereference). The selector_name shall resolve to denote an entry_declaration or subprogram_declaration occurring (implicitly or explicitly) within the visible part of that type. The selected_component denotes the corresponding entry, entry family, or protected subprogram.

  Reason: This explicitly says ‘‘visible part’’ because even though the body has visibility on the private part, it cannot call the private operations of some arbitrary object of the task or protected type, only those of the current instance (and expanded name notation has to be used for that).

10 An expanded name shall resolve to denote a declaration that occurs immediately within a named declarative region, as follows:

11 • The prefix shall resolve to denote either a package [(including the current instance of a generic package, or a rename of a package)], or an enclosing named construct.

12 • The selector_name shall resolve to denote a declaration that occurs immediately within the declarative region of the package or enclosing construct [(the declaration shall be visible at the place of the expanded name — see 8.3)]. The expanded name denotes that declaration.

12.a **Ramification:** Hence, a library unit or subunit can use an expanded name to refer to the declarations within the private part of its parent unit, as well as to other children that have been mentioned in with_clauses.

13 • If the prefix does not denote a package, then it shall be a direct_name or an expanded name, and it shall resolve to denote a program unit (other than a package), the current instance of a type, a block_statement, a loop_statement, or an accept_statement (in the case of an accept_statement or entry_body, no family index is allowed); the expanded name shall occur within the declarative region of this construct. Further, if this construct is a callable construct and the prefix denotes more than one such enclosing callable construct, then the expanded name is ambiguous, independently of the selector_name.

Dynamic Semantics

14 {*evaluation* [selected_component]} The evaluation of a selected_component includes the evaluation of the prefix.

15 {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} For a selected_component that denotes a component of a variant, a check is made that the values of the discriminants are such that the value or object denoted by the prefix has this component. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

Examples

16 *Examples of selected components:*

17

```
Tomorrow.Month      -- a record component                    (see 3.8)
Next_Car.Owner      -- a record component                    (see 3.10.1)
Next_Car.Owner.Age  -- a record component                    (see 3.10.1)
                    -- the previous two lines involve implicit dereferences
Writer.Unit         -- a record component (a discriminant)   (see 3.8.1)
Min_Cell(H).Value   -- a record component of the result      (see 6.1)
                    -- of the function call Min_Cell(H)
Control.Seize       -- an entry of a protected object        (see 9.4)
Pool(K).Write       -- an entry of the task Pool(K)          (see 9.4)
```

18 *Examples of expanded names:*

19

```
Key_Manager."<"     -- an operator of the visible part of a package (see 7.3.1)
Dot_Product.Sum     -- a variable declared in a function body       (see 6.1)
Buffer.Pool         -- a variable declared in a protected unit      (see 9.11)
Buffer.Read         -- an entry of a protected unit                 (see 9.11)
Swap.Temp           -- a variable declared in a block statement     (see 5.6)
Standard.Boolean    -- the name of a predefined type                (see A.1)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

19.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow an expanded name to use a prefix that denotes a rename of a package, even if the selector is for an entity local to the body or private part of the package, so long as the entity is visible at the place of the reference. This eliminates a preexisting anomaly where references in a package body may refer to declarations of its visible part but not those of its private part or body when the prefix is a rename of the package.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for selector_name is new. It is used in places where visibility, but not necessarily direct visibility, is required. See 4.1, ‘‘Names’’ for more information. 19.b

The description of dereferencing an access type has been moved to 4.1, ‘‘Names’’; name.**all** is no longer considered a selected_component. 19.c

The rules have been restated to be consistent with our new terminology, to accommodate class-wide types, etc. 19.d

4.1.4 Attributes

{*attribute*} [An *attribute* is a characteristic of an entity that can be queried via an attribute_reference or a range_attribute_reference.] 1

Syntax

attribute_reference ::= prefix’attribute_designator 2

attribute_designator ::= 3
identifier[(*static*_expression)]
| Access | Delta | Digits

range_attribute_reference ::= prefix’range_attribute_designator 4

range_attribute_designator ::= Range[(*static*_expression)] 5

Name Resolution Rules

In an attribute_reference, if the attribute_designator is for an attribute defined for (at least some) objects of an access type, then the prefix is never interpreted as an implicit_dereference; otherwise (and for all range_attribute_references), if the type of the name within the prefix is of an access type, the prefix is interpreted as an implicit_dereference. Similarly, if the attribute_designator is for an attribute defined for (at least some) functions, then the prefix is never interpreted as a parameterless function_call; otherwise (and for all range_attribute_references), if the prefix consists of a name that denotes a function, it is interpreted as a parameterless function_call. 6

Discussion: The first part of this rule is essentially a "preference" against implicit dereference, so that it is possible to ask for, say, ’Size of an access object, without automatically getting the size of the object designated by the access object. This rule applies to ’Access, ’Unchecked_Access, ’Size, and ’Address, and any other attributes that are defined for at least some access objects. 6.a

The second part of this rule implies that, for a parameterless function F, F’Address is the address of F, whereas F’Size is the size of the anonymous constant returned by F. 6.b

We normally talk in terms of expected type or profile for name resolution rules, but we don’t do this for attributes because certain attributes are legal independent of the type or the profile of the prefix. 6.c

{*expected type* [attribute_designator expression]} {*expected type* [range_attribute_designator expression]} The expression, if any, in an attribute_designator or range_attribute_designator is expected to be of any integer type. 7

Legality Rules

The expression, if any, in an attribute_designator or range_attribute_designator shall be static. 8

Static Semantics

An attribute_reference denotes a value, an object, a subprogram, or some other kind of program entity. 9

Ramification: The attributes defined by the language are summarized in Annex K. Implementations can define additional attributes. 9.a

10 [A range_attribute_reference X'Range(N) is equivalent to the range X'First(N) .. X'Last(N), except that the prefix is only evaluated once. Similarly, X'Range is equivalent to X'First .. X'Last, except that the prefix is only evaluated once.]

Dynamic Semantics

11 {*evaluation* [attribute_reference]} {*evaluation* [range_attribute_reference]} The evaluation of an attribute_reference (or range_attribute_reference) consists of the evaluation of the prefix.

Implementation Permissions

12 An implementation may provide implementation-defined attributes; the identifier for an implementation-defined attribute shall differ from those of the language-defined attributes.

12.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined attributes.

12.b **Ramification:** They cannot be reserved words because reserved words are not legal identifiers.

12.c The semantics of implementation-defined attributes, and any associated rules, are, of course, implementation defined. For example, the implementation defines whether a given implementation-defined attribute can be used in a static expression.

NOTES

13 4 Attributes are defined throughout this International Standard, and are summarized in Annex K.

14 5 In general, the name in a prefix of an attribute_reference (or a range_attribute_reference) has to be resolved without using any context. However, in the case of the Access attribute, the expected type for the prefix has to be a single access type, and if it is an access-to-subprogram type (see 3.10.2) then the resolution of the name can use the fact that the profile of the callable entity denoted by the prefix has to be type conformant with the designated profile of the access type. {*type conformance (required)*}

14.a **Proof:** In the general case, there is no ''expected type'' for the prefix of an attribute_reference. In the special case of 'Access, there is an ''expected profile'' for the prefix.

14.b **Reason:** 'Access is a special case, because without it, it would be very difficult to take 'Access of an overloaded subprogram.

Examples

15 *Examples of attributes:*

16

```
Color'First          -- minimum value of the enumeration type Color  (see 3.5.1)
Rainbow'Base'First   -- same as Color'First                          (see 3.5.1)
Real'Digits          -- precision of the type Real                   (see 3.5.7)
Board'Last(2)        -- upper bound of the second dimension of Board (see 3.6.1)
Board'Range(1)       -- index range of the first dimension of Board  (see 3.6.1)
Pool(K)'Terminated   -- True if task Pool(K) is terminated           (see 9.1)
Date'Size            -- number of bits for records of type Date      (see 3.8)
Message'Address      -- address of the record variable Message       (see 3.7.1)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

16.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} We now uniformly treat X'Range as X'First..X'Last, allowing its use with scalar subtypes.

16.b We allow any integer type in the *static*_expression of an attribute designator, not just a value of *universal_integer*. The preference rules ensure upward compatibility.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

16.c We use the syntactic category attribute_reference rather than simply "attribute" to avoid confusing the name of something with the thing itself.

16.d The syntax rule for attribute_reference now uses identifier instead of simple_name, because attribute identifiers are not required to follow the normal visibility rules.

16.e We now separate attribute_reference from range_attribute_reference, and enumerate the reserved words that are legal attribute or range attribute designators. We do this because identifier no longer includes reserved words.

The Ada 9X name resolution rules are a bit more explicit than in Ada 83. The Ada 83 rule said that the "meaning of the prefix of an attribute must be determinable independently of the attribute designator and independently of the fact that it is the prefix of an attribute." That isn't quite right since the meaning even in Ada 83 embodies whether or not the prefix is interpreted as a parameterless function call, and in Ada 9X, it also embodies whether or not the prefix is interpreted as an implicit_dereference. So the attribute designator does make a difference — just not much. 16.f

Note however that if the attribute designator is Access, it makes a big difference in the interpretation of the prefix (see 3.10.2). 16.g

4.2 Literals

[{*literal*} A *literal* represents a value literally, that is, by means of notation suited to its kind.] A literal is either a numeric_literal, a character_literal, the literal **null**, or a string_literal. {*constant: see also literal*} 1

Discussion: An enumeration literal that is an identifier rather than a character_literal is not considered a *literal* in the above sense, because it involves no special notation ''suited to its kind.'' It might more properly be called an enumeration_identifier, except for historical reasons. 1.a

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [null literal]} The expected type for a literal **null** shall be a single access type. 2

Discussion: This new wording ("expected type ... shall be a single ... type") replaces the old "shall be determinable" stuff. It reflects an attempt to simplify and unify the description of the rules for resolving aggregates, literals, type conversions, etc. See 8.6, ''The Context of Overload Resolution'' for the details. 2.a

{*expected type* [character_literal]} {*expected profile* [character_literal]} For a name that consists of a character_literal, either its expected type shall be a single character type, in which case it is interpreted as a parameterless function_call that yields the corresponding value of the character type, or its expected profile shall correspond to a parameterless function with a character result type, in which case it is interpreted as the name of the corresponding parameterless function declared as part of the character type's definition (see 3.5.1). In either case, the character_literal denotes the enumeration_literal_specification. 3

Discussion: See 4.1.3 for the resolution rules for a selector_name that is a character_literal. 3.a

{*expected type* [string_literal]} The expected type for a primary that is a string_literal shall be a single string type. 4

Legality Rules

A character_literal that is a name shall correspond to a defining_character_literal of the expected type, or of the result type of the expected profile. 5

For each character of a string_literal with a given expected string type, there shall be a corresponding defining_character_literal of the component type of the expected string type. 6

A literal null shall not be of an anonymous access type[, since such types do not have a null value (see 3.10)]. 7

Reason: This is a legality rule rather than an overloading rule, to simplify implementations. 7.a

Static Semantics

An integer literal is of type *universal_integer*. A real literal is of type *universal_real*. 8

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [numeric literal]} {*evaluation* [null literal]} {*null access value*} {*null pointer: see null access value*} The evaluation of a numeric literal, or the literal **null**, yields the represented value. 9

10 {*evaluation* [string_literal]} The evaluation of a string_literal that is a primary yields an array value containing the value of each character of the sequence of characters of the string_literal, as defined in 2.6. The bounds of this array value are determined according to the rules for positional_array_aggregates (see 4.3.3), except that for a null string literal, the upper bound is the predecessor of the lower bound.

11 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} For the evaluation of a string_literal of type *T*, a check is made that the value of each character of the string_literal belongs to the component subtype of *T*. For the evaluation of a null string literal, a check is made that its lower bound is greater than the lower bound of the base range of the index type. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if either of these checks fails.

11.a **Ramification:** The checks on the characters need not involve more than two checks altogether, since one need only check the characters of the string with the lowest and highest position numbers against the range of the component subtype.

NOTES

12 6 Enumeration literals that are identifiers rather than character_literals follow the normal rules for identifiers when used in a name (see 4.1 and 4.1.3). Character_literals used as selector_names follow the normal rules for expanded names (see 4.1.3).

Examples

13 *Examples of literals:*

14

```
3.14159_26536   -- a real literal
1_345           -- an integer literal
'A'             -- a character literal
"Some Text"     -- a string literal
```

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

14.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} Because character_literals are now treated like other literals, in that they are resolved using context rather than depending on direct visibility, additional qualification might be necessary when passing a character_literal to an overloaded subprogram.

Extensions to Ada 83

14.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} Character_literals are now treated analogously to **null** and string_literals, in that they are resolved using context, rather than their content; the declaration of the corresponding defining_character_literal need not be directly visible.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

14.c Name Resolution rules for enumeration literals that are not character_literals are not included anymore, since they are neither syntactically nor semantically "literals" but are rather names of parameterless functions.

4.3 Aggregates

1 [{*aggregate*} An *aggregate* combines component values into a composite value of an array type, record type, or record extension.] {*literal: see also aggregate*}

Syntax

2 aggregate ::= record_aggregate | extension_aggregate | array_aggregate

Name Resolution Rules

3 {*expected type* [aggregate]} The expected type for an aggregate shall be a single nonlimited array type, record type, or record extension.

3.a **Discussion:** See 8.6, ''The Context of Overload Resolution'' for the meaning of ''shall be a single ... type.''

Legality Rules

An aggregate shall not be of a class-wide type. 4

Ramification: When the expected type in some context is class-wide, an aggregate has to be explicitly qualified by the specific type of value to be created, so that the expected type for the aggregate itself is specific. 4.a

Discussion: We used to disallow aggregates of a type with unknown discriminants. However, that was unnecessarily restrictive in the case of an extension aggregate, and irrelevant to a record aggregate (since a type that is legal for a record aggregate could not possibly have unknown discriminants) and to an array aggregate (the only specific types that can have unknown discriminants are private types, private extensions, and types derived from them). 4.b

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [aggregate]} For the evaluation of an aggregate, an anonymous object is created and values for the components or ancestor part are obtained (as described in the subsequent subclause for each kind of the aggregate) and assigned into the corresponding components or ancestor part of the anonymous object. {*assignment operation (during evaluation of an* aggregate*)*} Obtaining the values and the assignments occur in an arbitrary order. The value of the aggregate is the value of this object. 5

Discussion: The ancestor part is the set of components inherited from the ancestor type. The syntactic category ancestor_part is the expression or subtype_mark that specifies how the ancestor part of the anonymous object should be initialized. 5.a

Ramification: The assignment operations do the necessary value adjustment, as described in 7.6. Note that the value as a whole is not adjusted — just the subcomponents (and ancestor part, if any). 7.6 also describes when this anonymous object is finalized. 5.b

If the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark the Initialize procedure for the ancestor type is applied to the ancestor part after default-initializing it, unless the procedure is abstract, as described in 7.6. The Adjust procedure for the ancestor type is not called in this case, since there is no assignment to the ancestor part as a whole. 5.c

{*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} If an aggregate is of a tagged type, a check is made that its value belongs to the first subtype of the type. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. 6

Ramification: This check ensures that no values of a tagged type are ever outside the first subtype, as required for inherited dispatching operations to work properly (see 3.4). This check will always succeed if the first subtype is unconstrained. This check is not extended to untagged types to preserve upward compatibility. 6.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow extension_aggregates. 6.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have adopted new wording for expressing the rule that the type of an aggregate shall be determinable from the outside, though using the fact that it is nonlimited record (extension) or array. 6.c

An aggregate now creates an anonymous object. This is necessary so that controlled types will work (see 7.6). 6.d

4.3.1 Record Aggregates

[In a record_aggregate, a value is specified for each component of the record or record extension value, using either a named or a positional association.] 1

Syntax

record_aggregate ::= (record_component_association_list) 2

record_component_association_list ::= 3
  record_component_association {, record_component_association}
 | **null record**

record_component_association ::= 4
  [component_choice_list =>] expression

5 component_choice_list ::=
*component*_selector_name {| *component*_selector_name}
| **others**

6 {*named component association*} A record_component_association is a *named component association* if it has a component_choice_list; {*positional component association*} otherwise, it is a *positional component association*. Any positional component associations shall precede any named component associations. If there is a named association with a component_choice_list of **others**, it shall come last.

6.a **Discussion:** These rules were implied by the BNF in an early version of the RM9X, but it made the grammar harder to read, and was inconsistent with how we handle discriminant constraints. Note that for array aggregates we still express some of the rules in the grammar, but array aggregates are significantly different because an array aggregate is either all positional (with a possible **others** at the end), or all named.

7 In the record_component_association_list for a record_aggregate, if there is only one association, it shall be a named association.

7.a **Reason:** Otherwise the construct would be interpreted as a parenthesized expression. This is considered a syntax rule, since it is relevant to overload resolution. We choose not to express it with BNF so we can share the definition of record_component_association_list in both record_aggregate and extension_aggregate.

7.b **Ramification:** The record_component_association_list of an extension_aggregate does not have such a restriction.

Name Resolution Rules

8 {*expected type* [record_aggregate]} The expected type for a record_aggregate shall be a single nonlimited record type or record extension.

8.a **Ramification:** This rule is used to resolve whether an aggregate is an array_aggregate or a record_aggregate. The presence of a **with** is used to resolve between a record_aggregate and an extension_aggregate.

9 {*needed component (*record_aggregate record_component_association_list*)*} For the record_component_association_list of a record_aggregate, all components of the composite value defined by the aggregate are *needed*[; for the association list of an extension_aggregate, only those components not determined by the ancestor expression or subtype are needed (see 4.3.2).] Each selector_name in a record_component_association shall denote a needed component [(including possibly a discriminant)].

9.a **Ramification:** For the association list of a record_aggregate, ''needed components'' includes every component of the composite value, but does not include those in unchosen variants (see AI-309). If there are variants, then the value specified for the discriminant that governs them determines which variant is chosen, and hence which components are needed.

9.b If an extension defines a new known_discriminant_part, then all of its discriminants are needed in the component association list of an extension aggregate for that type, even if the discriminants have the same names and types as discriminants of the type of the ancestor expression. This is necessary to ensure that the positions in the record_component_association_list are well defined, and that discriminants that govern variant_parts can be given by static expressions.

10 {*expected type* [record_component_association expression]} The expected type for the expression of a record_component_association is the type of the *associated* component(s); {*associated components (of a* record_component_association*)*} the associated component(s) are as follows:

11 • For a positional association, the component [(including possibly a discriminant)] in the corresponding relative position (in the declarative region of the type), counting only the needed components;

11.a **Ramification:** This means that for an association list of an extension_aggregate, only noninherited components are counted to determine the position.

12 • For a named association with one or more *component*_selector_names, the named component(s);

- For a named association with the reserved word **others**, all needed components that are not associated with some previous association. 13

Legality Rules

If the type of a record_aggregate is a record extension, then it shall be a descendant of a record type, through one or more record extensions (and no private extensions). 14

If there are no components needed in a given record_component_association_list, then the reserved words **null record** shall appear rather than a list of record_component_associations. 15

Ramification: For example, "(**null record**)" is a record_aggregate for a null record type. Similarly, "(T'(A) **with null record**)" is an extension_aggregate for a type defined as a null record extension of T. 15.a

Each record_component_association shall have at least one associated component, and each needed component shall be associated with exactly one record_component_association. If a record_component_association has two or more associated components, all of them shall be of the same type. 16

Ramification: These rules apply to an association with an **others** choice. 16.a

Reason: Without these rules, there would be no way to know what was the expected type for the expression of the association. 16.b

Discussion: AI-00244 also requires that the expression shall be legal for each associated component. This is because even though two components have the same type, they might have different subtypes. Therefore, the legality of the expression, particularly if it is an array aggregate, might differ depending on the associated component's subtype. However, we have relaxed the rules on array aggregates slightly for Ada 9X, so the staticness of an applicable index constraint has no effect on the legality of the array aggregate to which it applies. See 4.3.3. This was the only case (that we know of) where a subtype provided by context affected the legality of an expression. 16.c

Ramification: The rule that requires at least one associated component for each record_component_association implies that there can be no extra associations for components that don't exist in the composite value, or that are already determined by the ancestor expression or subtype of an extension_aggregate. 16.d

The second part of the first sentence ensures that no needed components are left out, nor specified twice. 16.e

If the components of a variant_part are needed, then the value of a discriminant that governs the variant_part shall be given by a static expression. 17

Ramification: This expression might either be given within the aggregate itself, or in a constraint on the parent subtype in a derived_type_definition for some ancestor of the type of the aggregate. 17.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [record_aggregate]} The evaluation of a record_aggregate consists of the evaluation of the record_component_association_list. 18

{*evaluation* [record_component_association_list]} For the evaluation of a record_component_association_list, any per-object constraints (see 3.8) for components specified in the association list are elaborated and any expressions are evaluated and converted to the subtype of the associated component. {*implicit subtype conversion* [expressions in aggregate]} 19

Ramification: The conversion might raise Constraint_Error. 19.a

Discussion: This check presumably happened as part of the dependent compatibility check in Ada 83. 19.b

Any constraint elaborations and expression evaluations (and conversions) occur in an arbitrary order, except that the expression for a discriminant is evaluated (and converted) prior to the elaboration of any per-object constraint that depends on it, which in turn occurs prior to the evaluation and conversion of the expression for the component with the per-object constraint.

20 The expression of a record_component_association is evaluated (and converted) once for each associated component.

NOTES

21 7 For a record_aggregate with positional associations, expressions specifying discriminant values appear first since the known_discriminant_part is given first in the declaration of the type; they have to be in the same order as in the known_discriminant_part.

Examples

22 *Example of a record aggregate with positional associations:*

23
```
(4, July, 1776)                                          -- see 3.8
```

24 *Examples of record aggregates with named associations:*

25
```
(Day => 4, Month => July, Year => 1776)
(Month => July, Day => 4, Year => 1776)
```

26
```
(Disk, Closed, Track => 5, Cylinder => 12)               -- see 3.8.1
(Unit => Disk, Status => Closed, Cylinder => 9, Track => 1)
```

27 *Example of component association with several choices:*

28
```
(Value => 0, Succ|Pred => new Cell'(0, null, null))      -- see 3.10.1
```

29
```
 -- The allocator is evaluated twice:  Succ and Pred designate different cells
```

30 *Examples of record aggregates for tagged types (see 3.9 and 3.9.1):*

31
```
Expression'(null record)
Literal'(Value => 0.0)
Painted_Point'(0.0, Pi/2.0, Paint => Red)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

31.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Null record aggregates may now be specified, via "(**null record**)". However, this syntax is more useful for null record extensions in extension aggregates.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

31.b Various AIs have been incorporated (AI-189, AI-244, and AI-309). In particular, Ada 83 did not explicitly disallow extra values in a record aggregate. Now we do.

4.3.2 Extension Aggregates

1 [An extension_aggregate specifies a value for a type that is a record extension by specifying a value or subtype for an ancestor of the type, followed by associations for any components not determined by the ancestor_part.]

Language Design Principles

1.a The model underlying this syntax is that a record extension can also be viewed as a regular record type with an ancestor "prefix." The record_component_association_list corresponds to exactly what would be needed if there were no ancestor/prefix type. The ancestor_part determines the value of the ancestor/prefix.

Syntax

2
```
extension_aggregate ::=
   (ancestor_part with record_component_association_list)
```

3
```
ancestor_part ::= expression | subtype_mark
```

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*expected type* [extension_aggregate]} The expected type for an extension_aggregate shall be a single nonlimited type that is a record extension. {*expected type* [extension_aggregate ancestor expression]} If the ancestor_part is an expression, it is expected to be of any nonlimited tagged type.

Reason: We could have made the expected type *T*'Class where *T* is the ultimate ancestor of the type of the aggregate, or we could have made it even more specific than that. However, if the overload resolution rules get too complicated, the implementation gets more difficult and it becomes harder to produce good error messages. 4.a

Legality Rules

If the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark, it shall denote a specific tagged subtype. The type of the extension_aggregate shall be derived from the type of the ancestor_part, through one or more record extensions (and no private extensions). 5

Static Semantics

{*needed component (*extension_aggregate record_component_association_list*)*} For the record_component_association_list of an extension_aggregate, the only components *needed* are those of the composite value defined by the aggregate that are not inherited from the type of the ancestor_part, plus any inherited discriminants if the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark that denotes an unconstrained subtype. 6

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [extension_aggregate]} For the evaluation of an extension_aggregate, the record_component_association_list is evaluated. If the ancestor_part is an expression, it is also evaluated; if the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark, the components of the value of the aggregate not given by the record_component_association_list are initialized by default as for an object of the ancestor type. Any implicit initializations or evaluations are performed in an arbitrary order, except that the expression for a discriminant is evaluated prior to any other evaluation or initialization that depends on it. 7

{*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} If the type of the ancestor_part has discriminants that are not inherited by the type of the extension_aggregate, then, unless the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark that denotes an unconstrained subtype, a check is made that each discriminant of the ancestor has the value specified for a corresponding discriminant, either in the record_component_association_list, or in the derived_type_definition for some ancestor of the type of the extension_aggregate. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. 8

Ramification: Corresponding and specified discriminants are defined in 3.7. The rules requiring static compatibility between new discriminants of a derived type and the parent discriminant(s) they constrain ensure that at most one check is required per discriminant of the ancestor expression. 8.a

NOTES

8 If all components of the value of the extension_aggregate are determined by the ancestor_part, then the record_component_association_list is required to be simply **null record**. 9

9 If the ancestor_part is a subtype_mark, then its type can be abstract. If its type is controlled, then as the last step of evaluating the aggregate, the Initialize procedure of the ancestor type is called, unless the Initialize procedure is abstract (see 7.6). 10

Examples

Examples of extension aggregates (for types defined in 3.9.1): 11

```
Painted_Point'(Point with Red)                                    12
(Point'(P) with Paint => Black)

(Expression with Left => 1.2, Right => 3.4)                       13
Addition'(Binop with null record)
                -- presuming Binop is of type Binary_Operation
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The extension aggregate syntax is new. 13.a

4.3.3 Array Aggregates

1 [In an array_aggregate, a value is specified for each component of an array, either positionally or by its index.] For a positional_array_aggregate, the components are given in increasing-index order, with a final **others**, if any, representing any remaining components. For a named_array_aggregate, the components are identified by the values covered by the discrete_choices.

Language Design Principles

1.a The rules in this subclause are based on terms and rules for discrete_choice_lists defined in 3.8.1, ‘‘Variant Parts and Discrete Choices’’.

Syntax

2 array_aggregate ::=
positional_array_aggregate | named_array_aggregate

3 positional_array_aggregate ::=
(expression, expression {, expression})
| (expression {, expression}, **others** => expression)

4 named_array_aggregate ::=
(array_component_association {, array_component_association})

5 array_component_association ::=
discrete_choice_list => expression

6 {*n-dimensional* array_aggregate} An *n-dimensional* array_aggregate is one that is written as n levels of nested array_aggregates (or at the bottom level, equivalent string_literals). {*subaggregate (of an* array_aggregate*)*} For the multidimensional case (n >= 2) the array_aggregates (or equivalent string_literals) at the n–1 lower levels are called *subaggregate*s of the enclosing n-dimensional array_aggregate. {*array component expression*} The expressions of the bottom level subaggregates (or of the array_aggregate itself if one-dimensional) are called the *array component expressions* of the enclosing n-dimensional array_aggregate.

6.a **Ramification:** Subaggregates do not have a type. They correspond to part of an array. For example, with a matrix, a subaggregate would correspond to a single row of the matrix. The definition of "n-dimensional" array_aggregate applies to subaggregates as well as aggregates that have a type.

6.b **To be honest:** {*others choice*} An **others** *choice* is the reserved word **others** as it appears in a positional_array_aggregate or as the discrete_choice of the discrete_choice_list in an array_component_association.

Name Resolution Rules

7 {*expected type* [array_aggregate]} The expected type for an array_aggregate (that is not a subaggregate) shall be a single nonlimited array type. {*expected type* [array_aggregate component expression]} The component type of this array type is the expected type for each array component expression of the array_aggregate.

7.a **Ramification:** We already require a single array or record type or record extension for an aggregate. The above rule requiring a single nonlimited array type (and similar ones for record and extension aggregates) resolves which kind of aggregate you have.

8 {*expected type* [array_aggregate discrete_choice]} The expected type for each discrete_choice in any discrete_choice_list of a named_array_aggregate is the type of the *corresponding index*; {*corresponding index (for an* array_aggregate*)*} the corresponding index for an array_aggregate that is not a subaggregate is the first index of its type; for an (n–m)-dimensional subaggregate within an array_aggregate of an n-dimensional type, the corresponding index is the index in position m+1.

Legality Rules

9 An array_aggregate of an n-dimensional array type shall be written as an n-dimensional array_aggregate.

9.a **Ramification:** In an m-dimensional array_aggregate [(including a subaggregate)], where m >= 2, each of the expressions has to be an (m–1)-dimensional subaggregate.

An **others** choice is allowed for an array_aggregate only if an *applicable index constraint* applies to the array_aggregate. {*applicable index constraint*} [An applicable index constraint is a constraint provided by certain contexts where an array_aggregate is permitted that can be used to determine the bounds of the array value specified by the aggregate.] Each of the following contexts (and none other) defines an applicable index constraint: 10

- For an explicit_actual_parameter, an explicit_generic_actual_parameter, the expression of a return_statement, the initialization expression in an object_declaration, or a default_expression [(for a parameter or a component)], when the nominal subtype of the corresponding formal parameter, generic formal parameter, function result, object, or component is a constrained array subtype, the applicable index constraint is the constraint of the subtype; 11

- For the expression of an assignment_statement where the name denotes an array variable, the applicable index constraint is the constraint of the array variable; 12

  Reason: This case is broken out because the constraint comes from the actual subtype of the variable (which is always constrained) rather than its nominal subtype (which might be unconstrained). 12.a

- For the operand of a qualified_expression whose subtype_mark denotes a constrained array subtype, the applicable index constraint is the constraint of the subtype; 13

- For a component expression in an aggregate, if the component's nominal subtype is a constrained array subtype, the applicable index constraint is the constraint of the subtype; 14

  Discussion: Here, the array_aggregate with **others** is being used within a larger aggregate. 14.a

- For a parenthesized expression, the applicable index constraint is that, if any, defined for the expression. 15

  Discussion: RM83 omitted this case, presumably as an oversight. We want to minimize situations where an expression becomes illegal if parenthesized. 15.a

The applicable index constraint *applies* to an array_aggregate that appears in such a context, as well as to any subaggregates thereof. In the case of an explicit_actual_parameter (or default_expression) for a call on a generic formal subprogram, no applicable index constraint is defined. 16

Reason: This avoids generic contract model problems, because only mode conformance is required when matching actual subprograms with generic formal subprograms. 16.a

The discrete_choice_list of an array_component_association is allowed to have a discrete_choice that is a nonstatic expression or that is a discrete_range that defines a nonstatic or null range, only if it is the single discrete_choice of its discrete_choice_list, and there is only one array_component_association in the array_aggregate. 17

Discussion: We now allow a nonstatic **others** choice even if there are other array component expressions as well. 17.a

In a named_array_aggregate with more than one discrete_choice, no two discrete_choices are allowed to cover the same value (see 3.8.1); if there is no **others** choice, the discrete_choices taken together shall exactly cover a contiguous sequence of values of the corresponding index type. 18

Ramification: This implies that each component must be specified exactly once. See AI-309. 18.a

A bottom level subaggregate of a multidimensional array_aggregate of a given array type is allowed to be a string_literal only if the component type of the array type is a character type; each character of such a string_literal shall correspond to a defining_character_literal of the component type. 19

Static Semantics

A subaggregate that is a string_literal is equivalent to one that is a positional_array_aggregate of the same length, with each expression being the character_literal for the corresponding character of the string_literal. 20

21 {*evaluation* [array_aggregate]} The evaluation of an array_aggregate of a given array type proceeds in two steps:

22 1. Any discrete_choices of this aggregate and of its subaggregates are evaluated in an arbitrary order, and converted to the corresponding index type; {*implicit subtype conversion* [choices of aggregate]}

23 2. The array component expressions of the aggregate are evaluated in an arbitrary order and their values are converted to the component subtype of the array type; an array component expression is evaluated once for each associated component. {*implicit subtype conversion* [expressions of aggregate]}

23.a **Ramification:** Subaggregates are not separately evaluated. The conversion of the value of the component expressions to the component subtype might raise Constraint_Error.

24 {*bounds (of the index range of an* array_aggregate*)*} The bounds of the index range of an array_aggregate [(including a subaggregate)] are determined as follows:

25 • For an array_aggregate with an **others** choice, the bounds are those of the corresponding index range from the applicable index constraint;

26 • For a positional_array_aggregate [(or equivalent string_literal)] without an **others** choice, the lower bound is that of the corresponding index range in the applicable index constraint, if defined, or that of the corresponding index subtype, if not; in either case, the upper bound is determined from the lower bound and the number of expressions [(or the length of the string_literal)];

27 • For a named_array_aggregate without an **others** choice, the bounds are determined by the smallest and largest index values covered by any discrete_choice_list.

27.a **Reason:** We don't need to say that each index value has to be covered exactly once, since that is a ramification of the general rule on aggregates that each component's value has to be specified exactly once.

28 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} For an array_aggregate, a check is made that the index range defined by its bounds is compatible with the corresponding index subtype.

28.a **Discussion:** In RM83, this was phrased more explicitly, but once we define "compatibility" between a range and a subtype, it seems to make sense to take advantage of that definition.

28.b **Ramification:** The definition of compatibility handles the special case of a null range, which is always compatible with a subtype. See AI-00313.

29 {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} For an array_aggregate with an **others** choice, a check is made that no expression is specified for an index value outside the bounds determined by the applicable index constraint.

29.a **Discussion:** RM83 omitted this case, apparently through an oversight. AI-309 defines this as a dynamic check, even though other Ada 83 rules ensured that this check could be performed statically. We now allow an **others** choice to be dynamic, even if it is not the only choice, so this check now needs to be dynamic, in some cases. Also, within a generic unit, this would be a nonstatic check in some cases.

30 {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} For a multidimensional array_aggregate, a check is made that all subaggregates that correspond to the same index have the same bounds.

30.a **Ramification:** No array bounds ''sliding'' is performed on subaggregates.

30.b **Reason:** If sliding were performed, it would not be obvious which subaggregate would determine the bounds of the corresponding index.

31 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if any of the above checks fail.

NOTES

10 In an array_aggregate, positional notation may only be used with two or more expressions; a single expression in parentheses is interpreted as a parenthesized_expression. A named_array_aggregate, such as (1 => X), may be used to specify an array with a single component. 32

Examples

Examples of array aggregates with positional associations: 33

```
(7, 9, 5, 1, 3, 2, 4, 8, 6, 0)                    34
Table'(5, 8, 4, 1, others => 0)  -- see 3.6
```

Examples of array aggregates with named associations: 35

```
(1 .. 5 => (1 .. 8 => 0.0))       -- two-dimensional                    36
(1 .. N => new Cell)              -- N new cells, in particular for N = 0
```

```
Table'(2 | 4 | 10 => 1, others => 0)                                     37
Schedule'(Mon .. Fri => True,  others => False)  -- see 3.6
Schedule'(Wed | Sun  => False, others => True)
Vector'(1 => 2.5)                                -- single-component vector
```

Examples of two-dimensional array aggregates: 38

-- Three aggregates for the same value of subtype Matrix(1..2,1..3) (see 3.6): 39

```
((1.1, 1.2, 1.3), (2.1, 2.2, 2.3))                                       40
(1 => (1.1, 1.2, 1.3), 2 => (2.1, 2.2, 2.3))
(1 => (1 => 1.1, 2 => 1.2, 3 => 1.3), 2 => (1 => 2.1, 2 => 2.2, 3 => 2.3))
```

Examples of aggregates as initial values: 41

```
A : Table := (7, 9, 5, 1, 3, 2, 4, 8, 6, 0);          -- A(1)=7, A(10)=0   42
B : Table := (2 | 4 | 10 => 1, others => 0);          -- B(1)=0, B(10)=1
C : constant Matrix := (1 .. 5 => (1 .. 8 => 0.0)); -- C'Last(1)=5, C'Last(2)=8
```

```
D : Bit_Vector(M .. N) := (M .. N => True);          -- see 3.6           43
E : Bit_Vector(M .. N) := (others => True);
F : String(1 .. 1) := (1 => 'F');  -- a one component aggregate: same as "F"
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow "named with others" aggregates in all contexts where there is an applicable index constraint, effectively eliminating what was RM83-4.3.2(6). Sliding never occurs on an aggregate with others, because its bounds come from the applicable index constraint, and therefore already match the bounds of the target. 43.a

The legality of an **others** choice is no longer affected by the staticness of the applicable index constraint. This substantially simplifies several rules, while being slightly more flexible for the user. It obviates the rulings of AI-244 and AI-310, while taking advantage of the dynamic nature of the "extra values" check required by AI-309. 43.b

Named array aggregates are permitted even if the index type is descended from a formal scalar type. See 4.9 and AI-00190. 43.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We now separate named and positional array aggregate syntax, since, unlike other aggregates, named and positional associations cannot be mixed in array aggregates (except that an **others** choice is allowed in a positional array aggregate). 43.d

We have also reorganized the presentation to handle multidimensional and one-dimensional aggregates more uniformly, and to incorporate the rulings of AI-19, AI-309, etc. 43.e

4.4 Expressions

{*expression*} An *expression* is a formula that defines the computation or retrieval of a value. In this International Standard, the term ''expression'' refers to a construct of the syntactic category expression or of any of the other five syntactic categories defined below. {*and operator*} {*operator (and)*} {*or operator*} {*operator (or)*} {*xor operator*} {*operator (xor)*} {*and then (short-circuit control form)*} {*or else (short-circuit control form)*} {*= operator*} {*operator (=)*} {*equal operator*} {*operator (equal)*} {*/= operator*} {*operator (/=)*} {*not equal operator*} {*operator (not equal)*} 1

{< *operator*} {*operator (<)*} {*less than operator*} {*operator (less than)*} {<= *operator*} {*operator (<=)*} {*less than or equal operator*} {*operator (less than or equal)*} {> *operator*} {*operator (>)*} {*greater than operator*} {*operator (greater than)*} {>= *operator*} {*operator (>=)*} {*greater than or equal operator*} {*operator (greater than or equal)*} {*in (membership test)*} {*not in (membership test)*} {+ *operator*} {*operator (+)*} {*plus operator*} {*operator (plus)*} {- *operator*} {*operator (-)*} {*minus operator*} {*operator (minus)*} {*& operator*} {*operator (&)*} {*ampersand operator*} {*operator (ampersand)*} {*concatenation operator*} {*operator (concatenation)*} {*catenation operator: see concatenation operator*} {* *operator*} {*operator (*)*} {*multiply operator*} {*operator (multiply)*} {*times operator*} {*operator (times)*} {/ *operator*} {*operator (/)*} {*divide operator*} {*operator (divide)*} {*mod operator*} {*operator (mod)*} {*rem operator*} {*operator (rem)*} {** *operator*} {*operator (**)*} {*exponentiation operator*} {*operator (exponentiation)*} {*abs operator*} {*operator (abs)*} {*absolute value*} {*not operator*} {*operator (not)*}

Syntax

2 expression ::=
    relation {**and** relation} | relation {**and then** relation}
  | relation {**or** relation} | relation {**or else** relation}
  | relation {**xor** relation}

3 relation ::=
    simple_expression [relational_operator simple_expression]
  | simple_expression [**not**] **in** range
  | simple_expression [**not**] **in** subtype_mark

4 simple_expression ::= [unary_adding_operator] term {binary_adding_operator term}

5 term ::= factor {multiplying_operator factor}

6 factor ::= primary [** primary] | **abs** primary | **not** primary

7 primary ::=
  numeric_literal | **null** | string_literal | aggregate
 | name | qualified_expression | allocator | (expression)

Name Resolution Rules

8 A name used as a primary shall resolve to denote an object or a value.

8.a **Discussion:** This replaces RM83-4.4(3). We don't need to mention named numbers explicitly, because the name of a named number denotes a value. We don't need to mention attributes explicitly, because attributes now denote (rather than yield) values in general. Also, the new wording allows attributes that denote objects, which should always have been allowed (in case the implementation chose to have such a thing).

8.b **Reason:** It might seem odd that this is an overload resolution rule, but it is relevant during overload resolution. For example, it helps ensure that a primary that consists of only the identifier of a parameterless function is interpreted as a function_call rather than directly as a direct_name.

Static Semantics

9 Each expression has a type; it specifies the computation or retrieval of a value of that type.

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*evaluation* [primary that is a name]} The value of a primary that is a name denoting an object is the value of the object.

Implementation Permissions

11 {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For the evaluation of a primary that is a name denoting an object of an unconstrained numeric subtype, if the value of the object is outside the base range of its type, the implementation may either raise Constraint_Error or return the value of the object.

11.a **Ramification:** This means that if extra-range intermediates are used to hold the value of an object of an unconstrained numeric subtype, a Constraint_Error can be raised on a read of the object, rather than only on an assignment to it. Similarly, it means that computing the value of an object of such a subtype can be deferred until the first read of the object (presuming no side-effects other than failing an Overflow_Check are possible). This permission is over and above that provided by clause 11.6, since this allows the Constraint_Error to move to a different handler.

Reason: This permission is intended to allow extra-range registers to be used efficiently to hold parameters and local variables, even if they might need to be transferred into smaller registers for performing certain predefined operations. 11.b

Discussion: There is no need to mention other kinds of primarys, since any Constraint_Error to be raised can be ''charged'' to the evaluation of the particular kind of primary. 11.c

Examples

Examples of primaries: 12

```
4.0                 -- real literal                                    13
Pi                  -- named number
(1 .. 10 => 0)      -- array aggregate
Sum                 -- variable
Integer'Last        -- attribute
Sine(X)             -- function call
Color'(Blue)        -- qualified expression
Real(M*N)           -- conversion
(Line_Count + 10)   -- parenthesized expression
```

Examples of expressions: 14

```
Volume                        -- primary                              15
not Destroyed                 -- factor
2*Line_Count                  -- term
-4.0                          -- simple expression
-4.0 + A                      -- simple expression
B**2 - 4.0*A*C                -- simple expression
Password(1 .. 3) = "Bwv"      -- relation
Count in Small_Int            -- relation
Count not in Small_Int        -- relation
Index = 0 or Item_Hit         -- expression
(Cold and Sunny) or Warm      -- expression (parentheses are required)
A**(B**C)                     -- expression (parentheses are required)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 83, **out** parameters and their nondiscriminant subcomponents are not allowed as primaries. These restrictions are eliminated in Ada 9X. 15.a

In various contexts throughout the language where Ada 83 syntax rules had simple_expression, the corresponding Ada 9X syntax rule has expression instead. This reflects the inclusion of modular integer types, which makes the logical operators "**and**", "**or**", and "**xor**" more useful in expressions of an integer type. Requiring parentheses to use these operators in such contexts seemed unnecessary and potentially confusing. Note that the bounds of a range still have to be specified by simple_expressions, since otherwise expressions involving membership tests might be ambiguous. Essentially, the operation ".." is of higher precedence than the logical operators, and hence uses of logical operators still have to be parenthesized when used in a bound of a range. 15.b

4.5 Operators and Expression Evaluation

[{*precedence of operators*} {*operator precedence*} The language defines the following six categories of operators (given in order of increasing precedence). The corresponding operator_symbols, and only those, can be used as designators in declarations of functions for user-defined operators. See 6.6, ''Overloading of Operators''.] 1

Syntax

logical_operator ::= **and** | **or** | **xor** 2

relational_operator ::= = | /= | < | <= | > | >= 3

binary_adding_operator ::= + | – | & 4

unary_adding_operator ::= + | – 5

multiplying_operator ::= * | / | **mod** | **rem** 6

7 highest_precedence_operator ::= ** | **abs** | **not**

7.a **Discussion:** Some of the above syntactic categories are not used in other syntax rules. They are just used for classification. The others are used for both classification and parsing.

Static Semantics

8 For a sequence of operators of the same precedence level, the operators are associated with their operands in textual order from left to right. Parentheses can be used to impose specific associations.

8.a **Discussion:** The left-associativity is not directly inherent in the grammar of 4.4, though in 1.1.4 the definition of the metasymbols **{}** implies left associativity. So this could be seen as redundant, depending on how literally one interprets the definition of the **{}** metasymbols.

8.b See the Implementation Permissions below regarding flexibility in reassociating operators of the same precedence.

9 {*predefined operator*} {*operator (predefined)*} For each form of type definition, certain of the above operators are *predefined*; that is, they are implicitly declared immediately after the type definition. {*binary operator*} {*operator (binary)*} {*unary operator*} {*operator (unary)*} For each such implicit operator declaration, the parameters are called Left and Right for *binary* operators; the single parameter is called Right for *unary* operators.[An expression of the form X op Y, where op is a binary operator, is equivalent to a function_call of the form "op"(X, Y). An expression of the form op Y, where op is a unary operator, is equivalent to a function_call of the form "op"(Y). The predefined operators and their effects are described in subclauses 4.5.1 through 4.5.6.]

Dynamic Semantics

10 [{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The predefined operations on integer types either yield the mathematically correct result or raise the exception Constraint_Error. For implementations that support the Numerics Annex, the predefined operations on real types yield results whose accuracy is defined in Annex G, or raise the exception Constraint_Error.]

10.a **To be honest:** Predefined operations on real types can ‘‘silently’’ give wrong results when the Machine_Overflows attribute is false, and the computation overflows.

Implementation Requirements

11 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The implementation of a predefined operator that delivers a result of an integer or fixed point type may raise Constraint_Error only if the result is outside the base range of the result type.

12 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The implementation of a predefined operator that delivers a result of a floating point type may raise Constraint_Error only if the result is outside the safe range of the result type.

12.a **To be honest:** An exception is made for exponentiation by a negative exponent in 4.5.6.

Implementation Permissions

13 For a sequence of predefined operators of the same precedence level (and in the absence of parentheses imposing a specific association), an implementation may impose any association of the operators with operands so long as the result produced is an allowed result for the left-to-right association, but ignoring the potential for failure of language-defined checks in either the left-to-right or chosen order of association.

13.a **Discussion:** Note that the permission to reassociate the operands in any way subject to producing a result allowed for the left-to-right association is not much help for most floating point operators, since reassociation may introduce significantly different round-off errors, delivering a result that is outside the model interval for the left-to-right association. Similar problems arise for division with integer or fixed point operands.

Note that this permission does not apply to user-defined operators. 13.b

NOTES
11 The two operands of an expression of the form X op Y, where op is a binary operator, are evaluated in an arbitrary order, as for any function_call (see 6.4). 14

Examples

Examples of precedence: 15

```
not Sunny or Warm      -- same as (not Sunny) or Warm
X > 4.0 and Y > 0.0    -- same as (X > 4.0) and (Y > 0.0)
```
16

```
-4.0*A**2              -- same as –(4.0 * (A**2))
abs(1 + A) + B         -- same as (abs (1 + A)) + B
Y**(-3)                -- parentheses are necessary
A / B * C              -- same as (A/B)*C
A + (B + C)            -- evaluate B + C before adding it to A
```
17

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We don't give a detailed definition of precedence, since it is all implicit in the syntax rules anyway. 17.a

The permission to reassociate is moved here from RM83-11.6(5), so it is closer to the rules defining operator association. 17.b

4.5.1 Logical Operators and Short-circuit Control Forms

Name Resolution Rules

{*short-circuit control form*} {*and then (short-circuit control form)*} {*or else (short-circuit control form)*} An expression consisting of two relations connected by **and then** or **or else** (a *short-circuit control form*) shall resolve to be of some boolean type; {*expected type* [short-circuit control form relation]} the expected type for both relations is that same boolean type. 1

Reason: This rule is written this way so that overload resolution treats the two operands symmetrically; the resolution of overloading present in either one can benefit from the resolution of the other. Furthermore, the type expected by context can help. 1.a

Static Semantics

{*logical operator*} {*operator (logical)*} {*and operator*} {*operator (and)*} {*or operator*} {*operator (or)*} {*xor operator*} {*operator (xor)*} The following logical operators are predefined for every boolean type *T*, for every modular type *T*, and for every one-dimensional array type *T* whose component type is a boolean type: {*bit string: see logical operators on boolean arrays*} 2

3

```
function "and"(Left, Right : T) return T
function "or" (Left, Right : T) return T
function "xor"(Left, Right : T) return T
```

To be honest: For predefined operators, the parameter and result subtypes shown as *T* are actually the unconstrained subtype of the type. 3.a

For boolean types, the predefined logical operators **and**, **or**, and **xor** perform the conventional operations of conjunction, inclusive disjunction, and exclusive disjunction, respectively. 4

For modular types, the predefined logical operators are defined on a bit-by-bit basis, using the binary representation of the value of the operands to yield a binary representation for the result, where zero represents False and one represents True. If this result is outside the base range of the type, a final subtraction by the modulus is performed to bring the result into the base range of the type. 5

The logical operators on arrays are performed on a component-by-component basis on matching components (as for equality — see 4.5.2), using the predefined logical operator for the component type. The bounds of the resulting array are those of the left operand. 6

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*evaluation* [short-circuit control form]} The short-circuit control forms **and then** and **or else** deliver the same result as the corresponding predefined **and** and **or** operators for boolean types, except that the left operand is always evaluated first, and the right operand is not evaluated if the value of the left operand determines the result.

8 {*Length_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Length_Check)*} For the logical operators on arrays, a check is made that for each component of the left operand there is a matching component of the right operand, and vice versa. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Also, a check is made that each component of the result belongs to the component subtype. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if either of the above checks fails.

8.a **Discussion:** The check against the component subtype is per AI-00535.

NOTES

9 12 The conventional meaning of the logical operators is given by the following truth table:

10

A	B	(A **and** B)	(A **or** B)	(A **xor** B)
True	True	True	True	False
True	False	False	True	True
False	True	False	True	True
False	False	False	False	False

Examples

11 *Examples of logical operators:*

12
```
Sunny or Warm
Filter(1 .. 10) and Filter(15 .. 24)   -- see 3.6.1
```

13 *Examples of short-circuit control forms:*

14
```
Next_Car.Owner /= null and then Next_Car.Owner.Age > 25   -- see 3.10.1
N = 0 or else A(N) = Hit_Value
```

4.5.2 Relational Operators and Membership Tests

1 [{*relational operator*} {*operator (relational)*} {*comparison operator: see relational operator*} {*equality operator*} {*operator (equality)*} The *equality operators* = (equals) and /= (not equals) are predefined for nonlimited types. {*ordering operator*} {*operator (ordering)*} The other relational_operators are the *ordering operators* < (less than), <= (less than or equal), > (greater than), and >= (greater than or equal). {*= operator*} {*operator (=)*} {*equal operator*} {*operator (equal)*} {*/= operator*} {*operator (/=)*} {*not equal operator*} {*operator (not equal)*} {*< operator*} {*operator (<)*} {*less than operator*} {*operator (less than)*} {*<= operator*} {*operator (<=)*} {*less than or equal operator*} {*operator (less than or equal)*} {*> operator*} {*operator (>)*} {*greater than operator*} {*operator (greater than)*} {*>= operator*} {*operator (>=)*} {*greater than or equal operator*} {*operator (greater than or equal)*} {*discrete array type*} The ordering operators are predefined for scalar types, and for *discrete array types*, that is, one-dimensional array types whose components are of a discrete type.

1.a **Ramification:** The equality operators are not defined for *every* nonlimited type — see below for the exact rule.

2 {*membership test*} {*in (membership test)*} {*not in (membership test)*} A *membership test*, using **in** or **not in**, determines whether or not a value belongs to a given subtype or range, or has a tag that identifies a type that is covered by a given type. Membership tests are allowed for all types.]

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [membership test simple_expression]} {*tested type (of a membership test)*} The *tested type* of a membership test is the type of the range or the type determined by the subtype_mark. If the tested type is tagged, then the simple_expression shall resolve to be of a type that covers or is covered by the tested type; if untagged, the expected type for the simple_expression is the tested type. 3

Reason: The part of the rule for untagged types is stated in a way that ensures that operands like **null** are still legal as operands of a membership test. 3.a

The significance of ''covers or is covered by'' is that we allow the simple_expression to be of any class-wide type that covers the tested type, not just the one rooted at the tested type. 3.b

Legality Rules

For a membership test, if the simple_expression is of a tagged class-wide type, then the tested type shall be (visibly) tagged. 4

Ramification: Untagged types covered by the tagged class-wide type are not permitted. Such types can exist if they are descendants of a private type whose full type is tagged. This rule is intended to avoid confusion since such derivatives don't have their ''own'' tag, and hence are indistinguishable from one another at run time once converted to a covering class-wide type. 4.a

Static Semantics

The result type of a membership test is the predefined type Boolean. 5

The equality operators are predefined for every specific type *T* that is not limited, and not an anonymous access type, with the following specifications: 6

```
function "=" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean
function "/="(Left, Right : T) return Boolean
```
7

The ordering operators are predefined for every specific scalar type *T*, and for every discrete array type *T*, with the following specifications: 8

```
function "<" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean
function "<="(Left, Right : T) return Boolean
function ">" (Left, Right : T) return Boolean
function ">="(Left, Right : T) return Boolean
```
9

Dynamic Semantics

For discrete types, the predefined relational operators are defined in terms of corresponding mathematical operations on the position numbers of the values of the operands. 10

For real types, the predefined relational operators are defined in terms of the corresponding mathematical operations on the values of the operands, subject to the accuracy of the type. 11

Ramification: For floating point types, the results of comparing *nearly* equal values depends on the accuracy of the implementation (see G.2.1, ''Model of Floating Point Arithmetic'' for implementations that support the Numerics Annex). 11.a

Implementation Note: On a machine with signed zeros, if the generated code generates both plus zero and minus zero, plus and minus zero must be equal by the predefined equality operators. 11.b

Two access-to-object values are equal if they designate the same object, or if both are equal to the null value of the access type. 12

Two access-to-subprogram values are equal if they are the result of the same evaluation of an Access attribute_reference, or if both are equal to the null value of the access type. Two access-to-subprogram values are unequal if they designate different subprograms. {*unspecified* [partial]} [It is unspecified whether two access values that designate the same subprogram but are the result of distinct evaluations of Access attribute_references are equal or unequal.] 13

13.a **Reason:** This allows each Access attribute_reference for a subprogram to designate a distinct ''wrapper'' subprogram if necessary to support an indirect call.

14 {*equality operator (special inheritance rule for tagged types)*} For a type extension, predefined equality is defined in terms of the primitive [(possibly user-defined)] equals operator of the parent type and of any tagged components of the extension part, and predefined equality for any other components not inherited from the parent type.

14.a **Ramification:** Two values of a type extension are not equal if there is a variant_part in the extension part and the two values have different variants present. This is a ramification of the requirement that a discriminant governing such a variant_part has to be a ''new'' discriminant, and so has to be equal in the two values for the values to be equal. Note that variant_parts in the parent part need not match if the primitive equals operator for the parent type considers them equal.

15 For a private type, if its full type is tagged, predefined equality is defined in terms of the primitive equals operator of the full type; if the full type is untagged, predefined equality for the private type is that of its full type.

16 {*matching components*} For other composite types, the predefined equality operators [(and certain other predefined operations on composite types — see 4.5.1 and 4.6)] are defined in terms of the corresponding operation on *matching components*, defined as follows:

17 • For two composite objects or values of the same non-array type, matching components are those that correspond to the same component_declaration or discriminant_specification;

18 • For two one-dimensional arrays of the same type, matching components are those (if any) whose index values match in the following sense: the lower bounds of the index ranges are defined to match, and the successors of matching indices are defined to match;

19 • For two multidimensional arrays of the same type, matching components are those whose index values match in successive index positions.

20 The analogous definitions apply if the types of the two objects or values are convertible, rather than being the same.

20.a **Discussion:** Ada 83 seems to omit this part of the definition, though it is used in array type conversions. See 4.6.

21 Given the above definition of matching components, the result of the predefined equals operator for composite types (other than for those composite types covered earlier) is defined as follows:

22 • If there are no components, the result is defined to be True;

23 • If there are unmatched components, the result is defined to be False;

24 • Otherwise, the result is defined in terms of the primitive equals operator for any matching tagged components, and the predefined equals for any matching untagged components.

24.a **Reason:** This asymmetry between tagged and untagged components is necessary to preserve upward compatibility and corresponds with the corresponding situation with generics, where the predefined operations ''reemerge'' in a generic for untagged types, but do not for tagged types. Also, only tagged types support user-defined assignment (see 7.6), so only tagged types can fully handle levels of indirection in the implementation of the type. For untagged types, one reason for a user-defined equals operator might be to allow values with different bounds or discriminants to compare equal in certain cases. When such values are matching components, the bounds or discriminants will necessarily match anyway if the discriminants of the enclosing values match.

24.b **Ramification:** Two null arrays of the same type are always equal; two null records of the same type are always equal.

24.c Note that if a composite object has a component of a floating point type, and the floating point type has both a plus and minus zero, which are considered equal by the predefined equality, then a block compare cannot be used for the predefined composite equality. Of course, with user-defined equals operators for tagged components, a block compare breaks down anyway, so this is not the only special case that requires component-by-component comparisons. On a

one's complement machine, a similar situation might occur for integer types, since one's complement machines typically have both a plus and minus (integer) zero.

The predefined "/=" operator gives the complementary result to the predefined "=" operator.

Ramification: Furthermore, if the user defines an "=" operator that returns Boolean, then a "/=" operator is implicitly declared in terms of the user-defined "=" operator so as to give the complementary result. See 6.6.

{*lexicographic order*} For a discrete array type, the predefined ordering operators correspond to *lexicographic order* using the predefined order relation of the component type: A null array is lexicographically less than any array having at least one component. In the case of nonnull arrays, the left operand is lexicographically less than the right operand if the first component of the left operand is less than that of the right; otherwise the left operand is lexicographically less than the right operand only if their first components are equal and the tail of the left operand is lexicographically less than that of the right (the *tail* consists of the remaining components beyond the first and can be null).

{*evaluation* [membership test]} For the evaluation of a membership test, the simple_expression and the range (if any) are evaluated in an arbitrary order.

A membership test using **in** yields the result True if:

- The tested type is scalar, and the value of the simple_expression belongs to the given range, or the range of the named subtype; or

  Ramification: The scalar membership test only does a range check. It does not perform any other check, such as whether a value falls in a ''hole'' of a ''holey'' enumeration type. The Pos attribute function can be used for that purpose.

  Even though Standard.Float is an unconstrained subtype, the test ''X in Float'' will still return False (presuming the evaluation of X does not raise Constraint_Error) when X is outside Float'Range.

- The tested type is not scalar, and the value of the simple_expression satisfies any constraints of the named subtype, and, if the type of the simple_expression is class-wide, the value has a tag that identifies a type covered by the tested type.

  Ramification: Note that the tag is not checked if the simple_expression is of a specific type.

Otherwise the test yields the result False.

A membership test using **not in** gives the complementary result to the corresponding membership test using **in**.

NOTES

13 No exception is ever raised by a membership test, by a predefined ordering operator, or by a predefined equality operator for an elementary type, but an exception can be raised by the evaluation of the operands. A predefined equality operator for a composite type can only raise an exception if the type has a tagged part whose primitive equals operator propagates an exception.

14 If a composite type has components that depend on discriminants, two values of this type have matching components if and only if their discriminants are equal. Two nonnull arrays have matching components if and only if the length of each dimension is the same for both.

Examples

Examples of expressions involving relational operators and membership tests:

```
X /= Y

"" < "A" and "A" < "Aa"      -- True
"Aa" < "B" and "A" < "A  "   -- True

My_Car = null                -- true if My_Car has been set to null (see 3.10.1)
My_Car = Your_Car            -- true if we both share the same car
My_Car.all = Your_Car.all    -- true if the two cars are identical
```

39
```
N not in 1 .. 10             -- range membership test
Today in Mon .. Fri          -- range membership test
Today in Weekday             -- subtype membership test (see 3.5.1)
Archive in Disk_Unit         -- subtype membership test (see 3.8.1)
Tree.all in Addition'Class   -- class membership test (see 3.9.1)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

39.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Membership tests can be used to test the tag of a class-wide value.

39.b Predefined equality for a composite type is defined in terms of the primitive equals operator for tagged components or the parent part.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

39.c The term ''membership test'' refers to the relation "X in S" rather to simply the reserved word **in** or **not in**.

39.d We use the term ''equality operator'' to refer to both the = (equals) and /= (not equals) operators. Ada 83 referred to = as *the* equality operator, and /= as the inequality operator. The new wording is more consistent with the ISO 10646 name for "=" (equals sign) and provides a category similar to ''ordering operator'' to refer to both = and /=.

39.e We have changed the term ''catenate'' to ''concatenate''.

4.5.3 Binary Adding Operators

Static Semantics

1 {*binary adding operator*} {*operator (binary adding)*} {*+ operator*} {*operator (+)*} {*plus operator*} {*operator (plus)*} {*- operator*} {*operator (-)*} {*minus operator*} {*operator (minus)*} The binary adding operators + (addition) and – (subtraction) are predefined for every specific numeric type *T* with their conventional meaning. They have the following specifications:

2
```
function "+"(Left, Right : T) return T
function "-"(Left, Right : T) return T
```

3 {*& operator*} {*operator (&)*} {*ampersand operator*} {*operator (ampersand)*} {*concatenation operator*} {*operator (concatenation)*} {*catenation operator: see concatenation operator*} The concatenation operators & are predefined for every nonlimited, one-dimensional array type *T* with component type *C*. They have the following specifications:

4
```
function "&"(Left : T; Right : T) return T
function "&"(Left : T; Right : C) return T
function "&"(Left : C; Right : T) return T
function "&"(Left : C; Right : C) return T
```

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*evaluation* [concatenation]} For the evaluation of a concatenation with result type *T*, if both operands are of type *T*, the result of the concatenation is a one-dimensional array whose length is the sum of the lengths of its operands, and whose components comprise the components of the left operand followed by the components of the right operand. If the left operand is a null array, the result of the concatenation is the right operand. Otherwise, the lower bound of the result is determined as follows:

6 • If the ultimate ancestor of the array type was defined by a constrained_array_definition, then the lower bound of the result is that of the index subtype;

6.a **Reason:** This rule avoids Constraint_Error when using concatenation on an array type whose first subtype is constrained.

7 • If the ultimate ancestor of the array type was defined by an unconstrained_array_definition, then the lower bound of the result is that of the left operand.

8 [The upper bound is determined by the lower bound and the length.] {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} A check is made that the upper bound of the result of the concatenation

belongs to the range of the index subtype, unless the result is a null array. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

If either operand is of the component type *C*, the result of the concatenation is given by the above rules, using in place of such an operand an array having this operand as its only component (converted to the component subtype) and having the lower bound of the index subtype of the array type as its lower bound. {*implicit subtype conversion* [operand of concatenation]} 9

Ramification: The conversion might raise Constraint_Error. The conversion provides ''sliding'' for the component in the case of an array-of-arrays, consistent with the normal Ada 9X rules that allow sliding during parameter passing. 9.a

{*assignment operation (during evaluation of concatenation)*} The result of a concatenation is defined in terms of an assignment to an anonymous object, as for any function call (see 6.5). 10

Ramification: This implies that value adjustment is performed as appropriate — see 7.6. We don't bother saying this for other predefined operators, even though they are all function calls, because this is the only one where it matters. It is the only one that can return a value having controlled parts. 10.a

NOTES

15 As for all predefined operators on modular types, the binary adding operators + and – on modular types include a final reduction modulo the modulus if the result is outside the base range of the type. 11

Implementation Note: A full "modulus" operation need not be performed after addition or subtraction of modular types. For binary moduli, a simple mask is sufficient. For nonbinary moduli, a check after addition to see if the value is greater than the high bound of the base range can be followed by a conditional subtraction of the modulus. Conversely, a check after subtraction to see if a "borrow" was performed can be followed by a conditional addition of the modulus. 11.a

Examples

Examples of expressions involving binary adding operators: 12

```
Z + 0.1        -- Z has to be of a real type                          13

"A" & "BCD"    -- concatenation of two string literals                14
'A' & "BCD"    -- concatenation of a character literal and a string literal
'A' & 'A'      -- concatenation of two character literals
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} The lower bound of the result of concatenation, for a type whose first subtype is constrained, is now that of the index subtype. This is inconsistent with Ada 83, but generally only for Ada 83 programs that raise Constraint_Error. For example, the concatenation operator in 14.a

```
X : array(1..10) of Integer;                                          14.b
begin
X := X(6..10) & X(1..5);
```

would raise Constraint_Error in Ada 83 (because the bounds of the result of the concatenation would be 6..15, which is outside of 1..10), but would succeed and swap the halves of X (as expected) in Ada 9X. 14.c

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Concatenation is now useful for array types whose first subtype is constrained. When the result type of a concatenation is such an array type, Constraint_Error is avoided by effectively first sliding the left operand (if nonnull) so that its lower bound is that of the index subtype. 14.d

4.5.4 Unary Adding Operators

Static Semantics

{*unary adding operator*} {*operator (unary adding)*} {*+ operator*} {*operator (+)*} {*plus operator*} {*operator (plus)*} {*- operator*} {*operator (-)*} {*minus operator*} {*operator (minus)*} The unary adding operators + (identity) and – (negation) are predefined for every specific numeric type *T* with their conventional meaning. They have the following specifications: 1

```
function "+"(Right : T) return T                                      2
function "-"(Right : T) return T
```

NOTES

3 16 For modular integer types, the unary adding operator –, when given a nonzero operand, returns the result of subtracting the value of the operand from the modulus; for a zero operand, the result is zero.

4.5.5 Multiplying Operators

Static Semantics

1 {*multiplying operator*} {*operator (multiplying)*} {** operator*} {*operator (*)*} {*multiply operator*} {*operator (multiply)*} {*times operator*} {*operator (times)*} {*/ operator*} {*operator (/)*} {*divide operator*} {*operator (divide)*} {*mod operator*} {*operator (mod)*} {*rem operator*} {*operator (rem)*} The multiplying operators * (multiplication), / (division), **mod** (modulus), and **rem** (remainder) are predefined for every specific integer type *T*:

2
```
function "*"  (Left, Right : T) return T
function "/"  (Left, Right : T) return T
function "mod"(Left, Right : T) return T
function "rem"(Left, Right : T) return T
```

3 Signed integer multiplication has its conventional meaning.

4 Signed integer division and remainder are defined by the relation:

5
```
A = (A/B)*B + (A rem B)
```

6 where (A **rem** B) has the sign of A and an absolute value less than the absolute value of B. Signed integer division satisfies the identity:

7
```
(-A)/B = -(A/B) = A/(-B)
```

8 The signed integer modulus operator is defined such that the result of A **mod** B has the sign of B and an absolute value less than the absolute value of B; in addition, for some signed integer value N, this result satisfies the relation:

9
```
A = B*N + (A mod B)
```

10 [The multiplying operators on modular types are defined in terms of the corresponding signed integer operators, followed by a reduction modulo the modulus if the result is outside the base range of the type [(which is only possible for the "*" operator)].]

10.a **Ramification:** The above identity satisfied by signed integer division is not satisfied by modular division because of the difference in effect of negation.

11 Multiplication and division operators are predefined for every specific floating point type *T*:

12
```
function "*"(Left, Right : T) return T
function "/"(Left, Right : T) return T
```

13 The following multiplication and division operators, with an operand of the predefined type Integer, are predefined for every specific fixed point type *T*:

14
```
function "*"(Left : T; Right : Integer) return T
function "*"(Left : Integer; Right : T) return T
function "/"(Left : T; Right : Integer) return T
```

15 [All of the above multiplying operators are usable with an operand of an appropriate universal numeric type.] The following additional multiplying operators for *root_real* are predefined[, and are usable when both operands are of an appropriate universal or root numeric type, and the result is allowed to be of type *root_real*, as in a number_declaration]:

15.a **Ramification:** These operators are analogous to the multiplying operators involving fixed or floating point types where *root_real* substitutes for the fixed or floating point type, and *root_integer* substitutes for Integer. Only values of the corresponding universal numeric types are implicitly convertible to these root numeric types, so these operators are really restricted to use with operands of a universal type, or the specified root numeric types.

```
function "*"(Left, Right : root_real) return root_real
function "/"(Left, Right : root_real) return root_real
```

```
function "*"(Left : root_real; Right : root_integer) return root_real
function "*"(Left : root_integer; Right : root_real) return root_real
function "/"(Left : root_real; Right : root_integer) return root_real
```

Multiplication and division between any two fixed point types are provided by the following two predefined operators:

Ramification: *Universal_fixed* is the universal type for the class of fixed point types, meaning that these operators take operands of any fixed point types (not necessarily the same) and return a result that is implicitly (or explicitly) convertible to any fixed point type.

```
function "*"(Left, Right : universal_fixed) return universal_fixed
function "/"(Left, Right : universal_fixed) return universal_fixed
```

Legality Rules

The above two fixed-fixed multiplying operators shall not be used in a context where the expected type for the result is itself *universal_fixed* — [the context has to identify some other numeric type to which the result is to be converted, either explicitly or implicitly].

Discussion: The *small* of *universal_fixed* is infinitesimal; no loss of precision is permitted. However, fixed-fixed division is impractical to implement when an exact result is required, and multiplication will sometimes result in unanticipated overflows in such circumstances, so we require an explicit conversion to be inserted in expressions like A * B * C if A, B, and C are each of some fixed point type.

On the other hand, X := A * B; is permitted by this rule, even if X, A, and B are all of different fixed point types, since the expected type for the result of the multiplication is the type of X, which is necessarily not *universal_fixed*.

Dynamic Semantics

The multiplication and division operators for real types have their conventional meaning.[For floating point types, the accuracy of the result is determined by the precision of the result type. For decimal fixed point types, the result is truncated toward zero if the mathematical result is between two multiples of the *small* of the specific result type (possibly determined by context); for ordinary fixed point types, if the mathematical result is between two multiples of the *small*, it is unspecified which of the two is the result. {*unspecified* [partial]}]

{*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised by integer division, **rem**, and **mod** if the right operand is zero. [Similarly, for a real type *T* with *T*'Machine_Overflows True, division by zero raises Constraint_Error.]

NOTES

17 For positive A and B, A/B is the quotient and A **rem** B is the remainder when A is divided by B. The following relations are satisfied by the rem operator:

```
  A  rem (-B) =   A rem B
(-A) rem   B  = -(A rem B)
```

18 For any signed integer K, the following identity holds:

```
A mod B   =   (A + K*B) mod B
```

The relations between signed integer division, remainder, and modulus are illustrated by the following table:

```
A    B   A/B   A rem B   A mod B      A    B   A/B   A rem B   A mod B
10   5    2       0         0       -10   5   -2       0         0
11   5    2       1         1       -11   5   -2      -1         4
12   5    2       2         2       -12   5   -2      -2         3
13   5    2       3         3       -13   5   -2      -3         2
14   5    2       4         4       -14   5   -2      -4         1

A    B   A/B   A rem B   A mod B      A    B   A/B   A rem B   A mod B
10  -5   -2       0         0       -10  -5    2       0         0
11  -5   -2       1        -4       -11  -5    2      -1        -1
12  -5   -2       2        -3       -12  -5    2      -2        -2
13  -5   -2       3        -2       -13  -5    2      -3        -3
14  -5   -2       4        -1       -14  -5    2      -4        -4
```

Examples

Examples of expressions involving multiplying operators:

```
I : Integer := 1;
J : Integer := 2;
K : Integer := 3;

X : Real := 1.0;                    --  see 3.5.7
Y : Real := 2.0;

F : Fraction := 0.25;               --  see 3.5.9
G : Fraction := 0.5;
```

Expression	*Value*	*Result Type*
I*J	2	*same as I and J, that is, Integer*
K/J	1	*same as K and J, that is, Integer*
K **mod** J	1	*same as K and J, that is, Integer*
X/Y	0.5	*same as X and Y, that is, Real*
F/2	0.125	*same as F, that is, Fraction*
3*F	0.75	*same as F, that is, Fraction*
0.75*G	0.375	*universal_fixed, implicitly convertible to any fixed point type*
Fraction(F*G)	0.125	*Fraction, as stated by the conversion*
Real(J)*Y	4.0	*Real, the type of both operands after conversion of J*

Extensions to Ada 83

35.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Explicit conversion of the result of multiplying or dividing two fixed point numbers is no longer required, provided the context uniquely determines some specific fixed point result type. This is to improve support for decimal fixed point, where requiring explicit conversion on every fixed-fixed multiply or divide was felt to be inappropriate.

35.b The type *universal_fixed* is covered by *universal_real*, so real literals and fixed point operands may be multiplied or divided directly, without any explicit conversions required.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

35.c We have used the normal syntax for function definition rather than a tabular format.

4.5.6 Highest Precedence Operators

Static Semantics

1 {*highest precedence operator*} {*operator (highest precedence)*} {*abs operator*} {*operator (abs)*} {*absolute value*} The highest precedence unary operator **abs** (absolute value) is predefined for every specific numeric type *T*, with the following specification:

```
function "abs"(Right : T) return T
```

2

{*not operator*} {*operator (not)*} {*logical operator: see also not operator*} The highest precedence unary operator **not** (logical negation) is predefined for every boolean type *T*, every modular type *T*, and for every one-dimensional array type *T* whose components are of a boolean type, with the following specification:

3

```
function "not"(Right : T) return T
```

4

The result of the operator **not** for a modular type is defined as the difference between the high bound of the base range of the type and the value of the operand. [For a binary modulus, this corresponds to a bit-wise complement of the binary representation of the value of the operand.]

5

The operator **not** that applies to a one-dimensional array of boolean components yields a one-dimensional boolean array with the same bounds; each component of the result is obtained by logical negation of the corresponding component of the operand (that is, the component that has the same index value). {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} A check is made that each component of the result belongs to the component subtype; the exception Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

6

Discussion: The check against the component subtype is per AI-00535.

6.a

{*exponentiation operator*} {*operator (exponentiation)*} {** *operator*} {*operator (**)*} The highest precedence *exponentiation* operator ** is predefined for every specific integer type *T* with the following specification:

7

```
function "**"(Left : T; Right : Natural) return T
```

8

Exponentiation is also predefined for every specific floating point type as well as *root_real*, with the following specification (where *T* is *root_real* or the floating point type):

9

```
function "**"(Left : T; Right : Integer'Base) return T
```

10

{*exponent*} The right operand of an exponentiation is the *exponent*. The expression X**N with the value of the exponent N positive is equivalent to the expression X*X*...X (with N–1 multiplications) except that the multiplications are associated in an arbitrary order. With N equal to zero, the result is one. With the value of N negative [(only defined for a floating point operand)], the result is the reciprocal of the result using the absolute value of N as the exponent.

11

Ramification: The language does not specify the order of association of the multiplications inherent in an exponentiation. For a floating point type, the accuracy of the result might depend on the particular association order chosen.

11.a

Implementation Permissions

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The implementation of exponentiation for the case of a negative exponent is allowed to raise Constraint_Error if the intermediate result of the repeated multiplications is outside the safe range of the type, even though the final result (after taking the reciprocal) would not be. (The best machine approximation to the final result in this case would generally be 0.0.)

12

NOTES

19 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} As implied by the specification given above for exponentiation of an integer type, a check is made that the exponent is not negative. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

13

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We now show the specification for "**" for integer types with a parameter subtype of Natural rather than Integer for the exponent. This reflects the fact that Constraint_Error is raised if a negative value is provided for the exponent.

13.a

4.6 Type Conversions

1 [Explicit type conversions, both value conversions and view conversions, are allowed between closely related types as defined below. This clause also defines rules for value and view conversions to a particular subtype of a type, both explicit ones and those implicit in other constructs. {*subtype conversion: see type conversion*} {*type conversion*} {*conversion*} {*cast: see type conversion*}]{*subtype conversion: see also implicit subtype conversion*} {*type conversion, implicit: see implicit subtype conversion*}

Syntax

2
```
type_conversion ::=
   subtype_mark(expression)
  | subtype_mark(name)
```

3 {*target subtype (of a* type_conversion*)*} The *target subtype* of a type_conversion is the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark. {*operand (of a* type_conversion*)*} The *operand* of a type_conversion is the expression or name within the parentheses; {*operand type (of a* type_conversion*)*} its type is the *operand type*.

4 {*convertible*} One type is *convertible* to a second type if a type_conversion with the first type as operand type and the second type as target type is legal according to the rules of this clause. Two types are convertible if each is convertible to the other.

4.a **Ramification:** Note that ''convertible'' is defined in terms of legality of the conversion. Whether the conversion would raise an exception at run time is irrelevant to this definition.

5 {*view conversion*} {*conversion (view)*} A type_conversion whose operand is the name of an object is called a *view conversion* if its target type is tagged, or if it appears as an actual parameter of mode **out** or **in out**; {*value conversion*} {*conversion (value)*} other type_conversions are called *value conversions*. {*super: see view conversion*}

5.a **Ramification:** A view conversion to a tagged type can appear in any context that requires an object name, including in an object renaming, the prefix of a selected_component, and if the operand is a variable, on the left side of an assignment_statement. View conversions to other types only occur as actual parameters. Allowing view conversions of untagged types in all contexts seemed to incur an undue implementation burden.

Name Resolution Rules

6 {*expected type* [type_conversion operand]} The operand of a type_conversion is expected to be of any type.

6.a **Discussion:** This replaces the "must be determinable" wording of Ada 83. This is equivalent to (but hopefully more intuitive than) saying that the operand of a type_conversion is a ''complete context.''

7 The operand of a view conversion is interpreted only as a name; the operand of a value conversion is interpreted as an expression.

7.a **Reason:** This formally resolves the syntactic ambiguity between the two forms of type_conversion, not that it really matters.

Legality Rules

8 {*type conversion (numeric)*} {*conversion (numeric)*} If the target type is a numeric type, then the operand type shall be a numeric type.

9 {*type conversion (array)*} {*conversion (array)*} If the target type is an array type, then the operand type shall be an array type. Further:

10 • The types shall have the same dimensionality;

11 • Corresponding index types shall be convertible; and {*convertible* [required]}

- The component subtypes shall statically match. {*statically matching* [required]} 12

{*type conversion (access)*} {*conversion (access)*} If the target type is a general access type, then the operand type shall be an access-to-object type. Further: 13

Discussion: The Legality Rules and Dynamic Semantics are worded so that a type_conversion T(X) (where T is an access type) is (almost) equivalent to the attribute_reference X.**all**'Access, where the result is of type T. The type_conversion accepts a null value, whereas the attribute_reference would raise Constraint_Error. 13.a

- If the target type is an access-to-variable type, then the operand type shall be an access-to-variable type; 14

Ramification: If the target type is an access-to-constant type, then the operand type can be access-to-constant or access-to-variable. 14.a

- If the target designated type is tagged, then the operand designated type shall be convertible to the target designated type; {*convertible* [required]} 15

- If the target designated type is not tagged, then the designated types shall be the same, and either the designated subtypes shall statically match or the target designated subtype shall be discriminated and unconstrained; and {*statically matching* [required]} 16

Reason: These rules are designed to ensure that aliased array objects only *need* "dope" if their nominal subtype is unconstrained, but they can always *have* dope if required by the run-time model (since no sliding is permitted as part of access type conversion). By contrast, aliased discriminated objects will always *need* their discriminants stored with them, even if nominally constrained. (Here, we are assuming an implementation that represents an access value as a single pointer.) 16.a

- {*accessibility rule* [type conversion]} The accessibility level of the operand type shall not be statically deeper than that of the target type. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. 17

Ramification: The access parameter case is handled by a run-time check. Run-time checks are also done in instance bodies. 17.a

{*type conversion (access)*} {*conversion (access)*} If the target type is an access-to-subprogram type, then the operand type shall be an access-to-subprogram type. Further: 18

- The designated profiles shall be subtype-conformant. {*subtype conformance (required)*} 19

- {*accessibility rule* [type conversion]} The accessibility level of the operand type shall not be statically deeper than that of the target type. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. If the operand type is declared within a generic body, the target type shall be declared within the generic body. 20

Reason: The reason it is illegal to convert from an access-to-subprogram type declared in a generic body to one declared outside that body is that in an implementation that shares generic bodies, procedures declared inside the generic need to have a different calling convention — they need an extra parameter pointing to the data declared in the current instance. For procedures declared in the spec, that's OK, because the compiler can know about them at compile time of the instantiation. 20.a

{*type conversion (enumeration)*} {*conversion (enumeration)*} {*type conversion (composite (non-array))*} {*conversion (composite (non-array))*} If the target type is not included in any of the above four cases, there shall be a type that is an ancestor of both the target type and the operand type. Further, if the target type is tagged, then either: 21

- The operand type shall be covered by or descended from the target type; or 22

Ramification: This is a conversion toward the root, which is always safe. 22.a

- The operand type shall be a class-wide type that covers the target type. 23

23.a **Ramification:** This is a conversion of a class-wide type toward the leaves, which requires a tag check. See Dynamic Semantics.

23.b These two rules imply that a conversion from a parent type to a type extension is not permitted, as this would require specifying the values for additional components, in general, and changing the tag. An extension_aggregate has to be used instead, constructing a new value, rather than converting an existing value. However, a conversion from the class-wide type rooted at the parent type is permitted; such a conversion just verifies that the operand's tag is a descendant of the target.

24 In a view conversion for an untagged type, the target type shall be convertible (back) to the operand type.

24.a **Reason:** Untagged view conversions appear only as [in] out parameters. Hence, the reverse conversion must be legal as well. The forward conversion must be legal even if an out parameter, because actual parameters of an access type are always copied in anyway.

Static Semantics

25 A type_conversion that is a value conversion denotes the value that is the result of converting the value of the operand to the target subtype.

26 A type_conversion that is a view conversion denotes a view of the object denoted by the operand. This view is a variable of the target type if the operand denotes a variable; otherwise it is a constant of the target type.

27 {*nominal subtype* [associated with a type_conversion]} The nominal subtype of a type_conversion is its target subtype.

Dynamic Semantics

28 {*evaluation* [value conversion]} {*corresponding value (of the target type of a conversion)*} {*conversion*} For the evaluation of a type_conversion that is a value conversion, the operand is evaluated, and then the value of the operand is *converted* to a *corresponding* value of the target type, if any. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If there is no value of the target type that corresponds to the operand value, Constraint_Error is raised[; this can only happen on conversion to a modular type, and only when the operand value is outside the base range of the modular type.] Additional rules follow:

29 • {*type conversion (numeric)*} {*conversion (numeric)*} Numeric Type Conversion

30 • If the target and the operand types are both integer types, then the result is the value of the target type that corresponds to the same mathematical integer as the operand.

31 • If the target type is a decimal fixed point type, then the result is truncated (toward 0) if the value of the operand is not a multiple of the *small* of the target type.

32 • {*accuracy*} If the target type is some other real type, then the result is within the accuracy of the target type (see G.2, ''Numeric Performance Requirements'', for implementations that support the Numerics Annex).

32.a **Discussion:** An integer type might have more bits of precision than a real type, so on conversion (of a large integer), some precision might be lost.

33 • If the target type is an integer type and the operand type is real, the result is rounded to the nearest integer (away from zero if exactly halfway between two integers).

33.a **Discussion:** This was implementation defined in Ada 83. There seems no reason to preserve the nonportability in Ada 9X. Round-away-from-zero is the conventional definition of rounding, and standard Fortran and COBOL both specify rounding away from zero, so for interoperability, it seems important to pick this. This is also the most easily ''undone'' by hand. Round-to-nearest-even is an alternative, but that is quite complicated if not supported by the hardware. In any case, this operation is not expected to be part of an inner loop, so predictability and portability are judged most important. We anticipate that a floating point attribute function Unbiased_Rounding will be provided for those applications that require round-to-nearest-even. ''Deterministic'' rounding is required for static conversions to integer as well. See 4.9.

- {*type conversion (enumeration)*} {*conversion (enumeration)*} Enumeration Type Conversion

  - The result is the value of the target type with the same position number as that of the operand value.

- {*type conversion (array)*} {*conversion (array)*} Array Type Conversion

  - {*Length_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Length_Check)*} If the target subtype is a constrained array subtype, then a check is made that the length of each dimension of the value of the operand equals the length of the corresponding dimension of the target subtype. The bounds of the result are those of the target subtype.

  - {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} If the target subtype is an unconstrained array subtype, then the bounds of the result are obtained by converting each bound of the value of the operand to the corresponding index type of the target type. {*implicit subtype conversion* [array bounds]} For each nonnull index range, a check is made that the bounds of the range belong to the corresponding index subtype.

  Discussion: Only nonnull index ranges are checked, per AI-00313.

  - In either array case, the value of each component of the result is that of the matching component of the operand value (see 4.5.2).

  Ramification: This applies whether or not the component is initialized.

- {*type conversion (composite (non-array))*} {*conversion (composite (non-array))*} Composite (Non-Array) Type Conversion

  - The value of each nondiscriminant component of the result is that of the matching component of the operand value.

  Ramification: This applies whether or not the component is initialized.

  - [The tag of the result is that of the operand.] {*Tag_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Tag_Check)*} If the operand type is class-wide, a check is made that the tag of the operand identifies a (specific) type that is covered by or descended from the target type.

  Ramification: This check is certain to succeed if the operand type is itself covered by or descended from the target type.

  Proof: The fact that a type_conversion preserves the tag is stated officially in 3.9, ‘‘Tagged Types and Type Extensions’’

  - For each discriminant of the target type that corresponds to a discriminant of the operand type, its value is that of the corresponding discriminant of the operand value; {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} if it corresponds to more than one discriminant of the operand type, a check is made that all these discriminants are equal in the operand value.

  - For each discriminant of the target type that corresponds to a discriminant that is specified by the derived_type_definition for some ancestor of the operand type (or if class-wide, some ancestor of the specific type identified by the tag of the operand), its value in the result is that specified by the derived_type_definition.

  Ramification: It is a ramification of the rules for the discriminants of derived types that each discriminant of the result is covered either by this paragraph or the previous one. See 3.7.

  - {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} For each discriminant of the operand type that corresponds to a discriminant that is specified by the derived_type_definition for some ancestor of the target type, a check is made that in the operand value it equals the value specified for it.

  - {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} For each discriminant of the result, a check is made that its value belongs to its subtype.

47 • {*type conversion (access)*} {*conversion (access)*} Access Type Conversion

48 • {*Accessibility_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Accessibility_Check)*} For an access-to-object type, a check is made that the accessibility level of the operand type is not deeper than that of the target type.

48.a **Ramification:** This check is needed for operands that are access parameters and in instance bodies.

48.b Note that this check can never fail for the implicit conversion to the anonymous type of an access parameter that is done when calling a subprogram with an access parameter.

49 • {*Access_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Access_Check)*} If the target type is an anonymous access type, a check is made that the value of the operand is not null; if the target is not an anonymous access type, then the result is null if the operand value is null.

49.a **Ramification:** A conversion to an anonymous access type happens implicitly as part of initializing an access discriminant or access parameter.

49.b **Reason:** As explained in 3.10, ''Access Types'', it is important that a value of an anonymous access type can never be null.

50 • If the operand value is not null, then the result designates the same object (or subprogram) as is designated by the operand value, but viewed as being of the target designated subtype (or profile); any checks associated with evaluating a conversion to the target designated subtype are performed.

50.a **Ramification:** The checks are certain to succeed if the target and operand designated subtypes statically match.

51 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} After conversion of the value to the target type, if the target subtype is constrained, a check is performed that the value satisfies this constraint.

51.a **Ramification:** The above check is a Range_Check for scalar subtypes, a Discriminant_Check or Index_Check for access subtypes, and a Discriminant_Check for discriminated subtypes. The Length_Check for an array conversion is performed as part of the conversion to the target type.

52 {*evaluation* [view conversion]} For the evaluation of a view conversion, the operand name is evaluated, and a new view of the object denoted by the operand is created, whose type is the target type; {*Length_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Length_Check)*} {*Tag_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Tag_Check)*} {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} if the target type is composite, checks are performed as above for a value conversion.

53 The properties of this new view are as follows:

54 • If the target type is composite, the bounds or discriminants (if any) of the view are as defined above for a value conversion; each nondiscriminant component of the view denotes the matching component of the operand object; the subtype of the view is constrained if either the target subtype or the operand object is constrained, or if the operand type is a descendant of the target type, and has discriminants that were not inherited from the target type;

55 • If the target type is tagged, then an assignment to the view assigns to the corresponding part of the object denoted by the operand; otherwise, an assignment to the view assigns to the object, after converting the assigned value to the subtype of the object (which might raise Constraint_Error); {*implicit subtype conversion* [assignment to view conversion]}

56 • Reading the value of the view yields the result of converting the value of the operand object to the target subtype (which might raise Constraint_Error), except if the object is of an access type and the view conversion is passed as an **out** parameter; in this latter case, the value of the operand object is used to initialize the formal parameter without checking against any constraint of the target subtype (see 6.4.1). {*implicit subtype conversion* [reading a view conversion]}

Reason: This ensures that even an **out** parameter of an access type is initialized reasonably. 56.a

{*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If an Accessibility_Check fails, Program_Error is raised. Any other check associated with a conversion raises Constraint_Error if it fails. 57

Conversion to a type is the same as conversion to an unconstrained subtype of the type. 58

Reason: This definition is needed because the semantics of various constructs involves converting to a type, whereas an explicit type_conversion actually converts to a subtype. For example, the evaluation of a range is defined to convert the values of the expressions to the type of the range. 58.a

Ramification: A conversion to a scalar type, or, equivalently, to an unconstrained scalar subtype, can raise Constraint_Error if the value is outside the base range of the type. 58.b

NOTES

20 {*implicit subtype conversion* [distributed]} In addition to explicit type_conversions, type conversions are performed implicitly in situations where the expected type and the actual type of a construct differ, as is permitted by the type resolution rules (see 8.6). For example, an integer literal is of the type *universal_integer*, and is implicitly converted when assigned to a target of some specific integer type. Similarly, an actual parameter of a specific tagged type is implicitly converted when the corresponding formal parameter is of a class-wide type. 59

{*implicit subtype conversion* [distributed]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Even when the expected and actual types are the same, implicit subtype conversions are performed to adjust the array bounds (if any) of an operand to match the desired target subtype, or to raise Constraint_Error if the (possibly adjusted) value does not satisfy the constraints of the target subtype. 60

21 A ramification of the overload resolution rules is that the operand of an (explicit) type_conversion cannot be the literal **null**, an allocator, an aggregate, a string_literal, a character_literal, or an attribute_reference for an Access or Unchecked_Access attribute. Similarly, such an expression enclosed by parentheses is not allowed. A qualified_expression (see 4.7) can be used instead of such a type_conversion. 61

22 The constraint of the target subtype has no effect for a type_conversion of an elementary type passed as an **out** parameter. Hence, it is recommended that the first subtype be specified as the target to minimize confusion (a similar recommendation applies to renaming and generic formal **in out** objects). 62

Examples

Examples of numeric type conversion: 63

```
Real(2*J)       -- value is converted to floating point
Integer(1.6)    -- value is 2
Integer(-0.4)   -- value is 0
```
64

Example of conversion between derived types: 65

```
type A_Form is new B_Form;
```
66

```
X : A_Form;
Y : B_Form;
```
67

```
X := A_Form(Y);
Y := B_Form(X);   -- the reverse conversion
```
68

Examples of conversions between array types: 69

```
type Sequence is array (Integer range <>) of Integer;
subtype Dozen is Sequence(1 .. 12);
Ledger : array(1 .. 100) of Integer;
```
70

```
Sequence(Ledger)             -- bounds are those of Ledger
Sequence(Ledger(31 .. 42))   -- bounds are 31 and 42
Dozen(Ledger(31 .. 42))      -- bounds are those of Dozen
```
71

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} A character_literal is not allowed as the operand of a type_conversion, since there are now two character types in package Standard. 71.a

71.b The component subtypes have to statically match in an array conversion, rather than being checked for matching constraints at run time.

71.c Because sliding of array bounds is now provided for operations where it was not in Ada 83, programs that used to raise Constraint_Error might now continue executing and produce a reasonable result. This is likely to fix more bugs than it creates.

Extensions to Ada 83

71.d {*extensions to Ada 83*} A type_conversion is considered the name of an object in certain circumstances (such a type_conversion is called a view conversion). In particular, as in Ada 83, a type_conversion can appear as an **in out** or **out** actual parameter. In addition, if the target type is tagged and the operand is the name of an object, then so is the type_conversion, and it can be used as the prefix to a selected_component, in an object_renaming_declaration, etc.

71.e We no longer require type-mark conformance between a parameter of the form of a type conversion, and the corresponding formal parameter. This had caused some problems for inherited subprograms (since there isn't really a type-mark for converted formals), as well as for renamings, formal subprograms, etc. See AI-245, AI-318, AI-547.

71.f We now specify ''deterministic'' rounding from real to integer types when the value of the operand is exactly between two integers (rounding is away from zero in this case).

71.g ''Sliding'' of array bounds (which is part of conversion to an array subtype) is performed in more cases in Ada 9X than in Ada 83. Sliding is not performed on the operand of a membership test, nor on the operand of a qualified_expression. It wouldn't make sense on a membership test, and we wish to retain a connection between subtype membership and subtype qualification. In general, a subtype membership test returns True if and only if a corresponding subtype qualification succeeds without raising an exception. Other operations that take arrays perform sliding.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

71.h We no longer explicitly list the kinds of things that are not allowed as the operand of a type_conversion, except in a NOTE.

71.i The rules in this clause subsume the rules for "parameters of the form of a type conversion," and have been generalized to cover the use of a type conversion as a name.

4.7 Qualified Expressions

1 [A qualified_expression is used to state explicitly the type, and to verify the subtype, of an operand that is either an expression or an aggregate. {*type conversion: see also qualified_expression*}]

Syntax

2
```
qualified_expression ::=
  subtype_mark'(expression) | subtype_mark'aggregate
```

Name Resolution Rules

3 {*operand* [of a qualified_expression]} The *operand* (the expression or aggregate) shall resolve to be of the type determined by the subtype_mark, or a universal type that covers it.

Dynamic Semantics

4 {*evaluation* [qualified_expression]} {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} The evaluation of a qualified_expression evaluates the operand (and if of a universal type, converts it to the type determined by the subtype_mark) and checks that its value belongs to the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark. {*implicit subtype conversion* [qualified_expression]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

4.a **Ramification:** This is one of the few contexts in Ada 9X where implicit subtype conversion is not performed prior to a constraint check, and hence no ''sliding'' of array bounds is provided.

4.b **Reason:** Implicit subtype conversion is not provided because a qualified_expression with a constrained target subtype is essentially an assertion about the subtype of the operand, rather than a request for conversion. An explicit type_conversion can be used rather than a qualified_expression if subtype conversion is desired.

NOTES
23 When a given context does not uniquely identify an expected type, a qualified_expression can be used to do so. In particular, if an overloaded name or aggregate is passed to an overloaded subprogram, it might be necessary to qualify the operand to resolve its type.

Examples

Examples of disambiguating expressions using qualification:

```
type Mask is (Fix, Dec, Exp, Signif);
type Code is (Fix, Cla, Dec, Tnz, Sub);

Print (Mask'(Dec));  -- Dec is of type Mask
Print (Code'(Dec));  -- Dec is of type Code

for J in Code'(Fix) .. Code'(Dec) loop ... -- qualification needed for either Fix or Dec
for J in Code range Fix .. Dec loop ...    -- qualification unnecessary
for J in Code'(Fix) .. Dec loop ...        -- qualification unnecessary for Dec

Dozen'(1 | 3 | 5 | 7 => 2, others => 0) -- see 4.6
```

4.8 Allocators

[The evaluation of an allocator creates an object and yields an access value that designates the object. {*new: see allocator*} {*malloc: see allocator*} {*heap management: see also alligator*}]

Syntax

allocator ::=
  new subtype_indication | **new** qualified_expression

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [allocator]} The expected type for an allocator shall be a single access-to-object type whose designated type covers the type determined by the subtype_mark of the subtype_indication or qualified_expression.

Discussion: See 8.6, ''The Context of Overload Resolution'' for the meaning of ''shall be a single ... type whose ...''

Legality Rules

{*initialized allocator*} An *initialized* allocator is an allocator with a qualified_expression. {*uninitialized allocator*} An *uninitialized* allocator is one with a subtype_indication. In the subtype_indication of an uninitialized allocator, a constraint is permitted only if the subtype_mark denotes an [unconstrained] composite subtype; if there is no constraint, then the subtype_mark shall denote a definite subtype. {*constructor: see initialized alligator*}

Ramification: For example, ... **new** S'Class ... (with no initialization expression) is illegal, but ... **new** S'Class'(X) ... is legal, and takes its tag and constraints from the initial value X. (Note that the former case cannot have a constraint.)

If the type of the allocator is an access-to-constant type, the allocator shall be an initialized allocator. If the designated type is limited, the allocator shall be an uninitialized allocator.

Ramification: For an access-to-constant type whose designated type is limited, allocators are illegal. The Access attribute is legal for such a type, however.

Static Semantics

If the designated type of the type of the allocator is elementary, then the subtype of the created object is the designated subtype. If the designated type is composite, then the created object is always constrained; if the designated subtype is constrained, then it provides the constraint of the created object; otherwise, the object is constrained by its initial value [(even if the designated subtype is unconstrained with defaults)]. {*constrained by its initial value* [partial]}

Discussion: See AI-00331.

6.b **Reason:** All objects created by an allocator are aliased, and all aliased composite objects need to be constrained so that access subtypes work reasonably.

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*evaluation* [allocator]} For the evaluation of an allocator, the elaboration of the subtype_indication or the evaluation of the qualified_expression is performed first. {*evaluation* [initialized allocator]} {*assignment operation (during evaluation of an initialized allocator)*} For the evaluation of an initialized allocator, an object of the designated type is created and the value of the qualified_expression is converted to the designated subtype and assigned to the object. {*implicit subtype conversion* [initialization expression of allocator]}

7.a **Ramification:** The conversion might raise Constraint_Error.

8 {*evaluation* [uninitialized allocator]} For the evaluation of an uninitialized allocator:

9 • {*assignment operation (during evaluation of an uninitialized allocator)*} If the designated type is elementary, an object of the designated subtype is created and any implicit initial value is assigned;

10 • {*assignment operation (during evaluation of an uninitialized allocator)*} If the designated type is composite, an object of the designated type is created with tag, if any, determined by the subtype_mark of the subtype_indication; any per-object constraints on subcomponents are elaborated and any implicit initial values for the subcomponents of the object are obtained as determined by the subtype_indication and assigned to the corresponding subcomponents. {*Index_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Index_Check)*} {*Discriminant_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Discriminant_Check)*} A check is made that the value of the object belongs to the designated subtype. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. This check and the initialization of the object are performed in an arbitrary order.

10.a **Discussion:** AI-00150.

11 [If the created object contains any tasks, they are activated (see 9.2).] Finally, an access value that designates the created object is returned.

NOTES

12 24 Allocators cannot create objects of an abstract type. See 3.9.3.

13 25 If any part of the created object is controlled, the initialization includes calls on corresponding Initialize or Adjust procedures. See 7.6.

14 26 As explained in 13.11, ‘‘Storage Management’’, the storage for an object allocated by an allocator comes from a storage pool (possibly user defined). {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Storage_Error is raised by an allocator if there is not enough storage. Instances of Unchecked_Deallocation may be used to explicitly reclaim storage.

15 27 Implementations are permitted, but not required, to provide garbage collection (see 13.11.3).

15.a **Ramification:** Note that in an allocator, the exception Constraint_Error can be raised by the evaluation of the qualified_expression, by the elaboration of the subtype_indication, or by the initialization.

15.b **Discussion:** By default, the implementation provides the storage pool. The user may exercise more control over storage management by associating a user-defined pool with an access type.

Examples

16 *Examples of allocators:*

17
```
new Cell'(0, null, null)                          -- initialized explicitly, see 3.10.1
new Cell'(Value => 0, Succ => null, Pred => null) -- initialized explicitly
new Cell                                          -- not initialized
```

18
```
new Matrix(1 .. 10, 1 .. 20)                      -- the bounds only are given
new Matrix'(1 .. 10 => (1 .. 20 => 0.0))          -- initialized explicitly
```

19
```
new Buffer(100)                                   -- the discriminant only is given
new Buffer'(Size => 80, Pos => 0, Value => (1 .. 80 => 'A')) -- initialized explicitly
```

```
Expr_Ptr'(new Literal)                          -- allocator for access-to-class-wide type, see 3.9.1
Expr_Ptr'(new Literal'(Expression with 3.5))    -- initialized explicitly
```

20

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The subtype_indication of an uninitialized allocator may not have an explicit constraint if the designated type is an access type. In Ada 83, this was permitted even though the constraint had no affect on the subtype of the created object. 20.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Allocators creating objects of type *T* are now overloaded on access types designating *T*'Class and all class-wide types that cover *T*. 20.b

Implicit array subtype conversion (sliding) is now performed as part of an initialized allocator. 20.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have used a new organization, inspired by the ACID document, that makes it clearer what is the subtype of the created object, and what subtype conversions take place. 20.d

Discussion of storage management issues, such as garbage collection and the raising of Storage_Error, has been moved to 13.11, ''Storage Management''. 20.e

4.9 Static Expressions and Static Subtypes

Certain expressions of a scalar or string type are defined to be static. Similarly, certain discrete ranges are defined to be static, and certain scalar and string subtypes are defined to be static subtypes. [{*static*} *Static* means determinable at compile time, using the declared properties or values of the program entities.] {*constant: see also static*} 1

Discussion: As opposed to more elaborate data flow analysis, etc. 1.a

Language Design Principles

For an expression to be static, it has to be calculable at compile time. 1.b

Only scalar and string expressions are static. 1.c

To be static, an expression cannot have any nonscalar, nonstring subexpressions (though it can have nonscalar constituent names). A static scalar expression cannot have any nonscalar subexpressions. There is one exception — a membership test for a string subtype can be static, and the result is scalar, even though a subexpression is nonscalar. 1.d

The rules for evaluating static expressions are designed to maximize portability of static calculations. 1.e

{*static (expression)*} A static expression is [a scalar or string expression that is] one of the following: 2

- a numeric_literal; 3

  Ramification: A numeric_literal is always a static expression, even if its expected type is not that of a static subtype. However, if its value is explicitly converted to, or qualified by, a nonstatic subtype, the resulting expression is nonstatic. 3.a

- a string_literal of a static string subtype; 4

  Ramification: That is, the constrained subtype defined by the index range of the string is static. Note that elementary values don't generally have subtypes, while composite values do (since the bounds or discriminants are inherent in the value). 4.a

- a name that denotes the declaration of a named number or a static constant; 5

  Ramification: Note that enumeration literals are covered by the function_call case. 5.a

- a function_call whose *function*_name or *function*_prefix statically denotes a static function, and whose actual parameters, if any (whether given explicitly or by default), are all static expressions; 6

  Ramification: This includes uses of operators that are equivalent to function_calls. 6.a

- an attribute_reference that denotes a scalar value, and whose prefix denotes a static scalar subtype;

Ramification: Note that this does not include the case of an attribute that is a function; a reference to such an attribute is not even an expression. See above for function *calls*.

An implementation may define the staticness and other properties of implementation-defined attributes.

- an attribute_reference whose prefix statically denotes a statically constrained array object or array subtype, and whose attribute_designator is First, Last, or Length, with an optional dimension;
- a type_conversion whose subtype_mark denotes a static scalar subtype, and whose operand is a static expression;
- a qualified_expression whose subtype_mark denotes a static [(scalar or string)] subtype, and whose operand is a static expression;

Ramification: This rules out the subtype_mark'aggregate case.

Reason: Adding qualification to an expression shouldn't make it nonstatic, even for strings.

- a membership test whose simple_expression is a static expression, and whose range is a static range or whose subtype_mark denotes a static [(scalar or string)] subtype;

Reason: Clearly, we should allow membership tests in exactly the same cases where we allow qualified_ expressions.

- a short-circuit control form both of whose relations are static expressions;
- a static expression enclosed in parentheses.

Discussion: {*static (value)*} Informally, we talk about a *static value*. When we do, we mean a value specified by a static expression.

Ramification: The language requires a static expression in a number_declaration, a numeric type definition, a discrete_choice (sometimes), certain representation items, an attribute_designator, and when specifying the value of a discriminant governing a variant_part in a record_aggregate or extension_aggregate.

{*statically (denote)*} A name *statically denotes* an entity if it denotes the entity and:

- It is a direct_name, expanded name, or character_literal, and it denotes a declaration other than a renaming_declaration; or
- It is an attribute_reference whose prefix statically denotes some entity; or
- It denotes a renaming_declaration with a name that statically denotes the renamed entity.

Ramification: Selected_components that are not expanded names and indexed_components do not statically denote things.

{*static (function)*} A *static function* is one of the following:

Ramification: These are the functions whose calls can be static expressions.

- a predefined operator whose parameter and result types are all scalar types none of which are descendants of formal scalar types;
- a predefined concatenation operator whose result type is a string type;
- an enumeration literal;
- a language-defined attribute that is a function, if the prefix denotes a static scalar subtype, and if the parameter and result types are scalar.

In any case, a generic formal subprogram is not a static function. 23

{*static (constant)*} A *static constant* is a constant view declared by a full constant declaration or an object_renaming_declaration with a static nominal subtype, having a value defined by a static scalar expression or by a static string expression whose value has a length not exceeding the maximum length of a string_literal in the implementation. 24

Ramification: A deferred constant is not static; the view introduced by the corresponding full constant declaration can be static. 24.a

Reason: The reason for restricting the length of static string constants is so that compilers don't have to store giant strings in their symbol tables. Since most string constants will be initialized from string_literals, the length limit seems pretty natural. The reason for avoiding nonstring types is also to save symbol table space. We're trying to keep it cheap and simple (from the implementer's viewpoint), while still allowing, for example, the link name of a pragma Import to contain a concatenation. 24.b

The length we're talking about is the maximum number of characters in the value represented by a string_literal, not the number of characters in the source representation; the quotes don't count. 24.c

{*static (range)*} A *static range* is a range whose bounds are static expressions, [or a range_attribute_reference that is equivalent to such a range.] {*static (discrete_range)*} A *static* discrete_range is one that is a static range or is a subtype_indication that defines a static scalar subtype. The base range of a scalar type is a static range, unless the type is a descendant of a formal scalar type. 25

{*static (subtype)*} A *static subtype* is either a *static scalar subtype* or a *static string subtype*. {*static (scalar subtype)*} A static scalar subtype is an unconstrained scalar subtype whose type is not a descendant of a formal scalar type, or a constrained scalar subtype formed by imposing a compatible static constraint on a static scalar subtype. {*static (string subtype)*} A static string subtype is an unconstrained string subtype whose index subtype and component subtype are static (and whose type is not a descendant of a formal array type), or a constrained string subtype formed by imposing a compatible static constraint on a static string subtype. In any case, the subtype of a generic formal object of mode **in out**, and the result subtype of a generic formal function, are not static. 26

Ramification: String subtypes are the only composite subtypes that can be static. 26.a

Reason: The part about generic formal objects of mode **in out** is necessary because the subtype of the formal is not required to have anything to do with the subtype of the actual. For example: 26.b

```
subtype Int10 is Integer range 1..10;                                    26.c
generic                                                                  26.d
    F : in out Int10;
procedure G;
procedure G is                                                           26.e
begin
    case F is
        when 1..10 => null;
        -- Illegal!
    end case;
end G;
X : Integer range 1..20;                                                 26.f
procedure I is new G(F => X); -- OK.
```

The case_statement is illegal, because the subtype of F is not static, so the choices have to cover all values of Integer, not just those in the range 1..10. A similar issue arises for generic formal functions, now that function calls are object names. 26.g

{*static (constraint)*} The different kinds of *static constraint* are defined as follows: 27

- A null constraint is always static; 28

29 • {*static (range constraint)*} {*static (digits constraint)*} {*static (delta constraint)*} A scalar constraint is static if it has no range_constraint, or one with a static range;

30 • {*static (index constraint)*} An index constraint is static if each discrete_range is static, and each index subtype of the corresponding array type is static;

31 • {*static (discriminant constraint)*} A discriminant constraint is static if each expression of the constraint is static, and the subtype of each discriminant is static.

32 {*statically (constrained)*} A subtype is *statically constrained* if it is constrained, and its constraint is static. An object is *statically constrained* if its nominal subtype is statically constrained, or if it is a static string constant.

Legality Rules

33 A static expression is evaluated at compile time except when it is part of the right operand of a static short-circuit control form whose value is determined by its left operand. This evaluation is performed exactly, without performing Overflow_Checks. For a static expression that is evaluated:

34 • The expression is illegal if its evaluation fails a language-defined check other than Overflow_ Check.

35 • If the expression is not part of a larger static expression, then its value shall be within the base range of its expected type. Otherwise, the value may be arbitrarily large or small.

36 • If the expression is of type *universal_real* and its expected type is a decimal fixed point type, then its value shall be a multiple of the *small* of the decimal type.

36.a **Ramification:** This means that a numeric_literal for a decimal type cannot have ‘‘extra’’ significant digits.

37 The last two restrictions above do not apply if the expected type is a descendant of a formal scalar type (or a corresponding actual type in an instance).

37.a **Discussion:** Values outside the base range are not permitted when crossing from the ‘‘static’’ domain to the ‘‘dynamic’’ domain. This rule is designed to enhance portability of programs containing static expressions. Note that this rule applies to the exact value, not the value after any rounding or truncation. (See below for the rounding and truncation requirements.)

37.b Short-circuit control forms are a special case:

37.c
```
N: constant := 0.0;
X: constant Boolean := (N = 0.0) or else (1.0/N > 0.5); -- Static.
```

37.d The declaration of X is legal, since the divide-by-zero part of the expression is not evaluated. X is a static constant equal to True.

37.e **Reason:** There is no requirement to recheck these rules in an instance; the base range check will generally be performed at run time anyway.

Implementation Requirements

38 For a real static expression that is not part of a larger static expression, and whose expected type is not a descendant of a formal scalar type, the implementation shall round or truncate the value (according to the Machine_Rounds attribute of the expected type) to the nearest machine number of the expected type; if the value is exactly half-way between two machine numbers, any rounding shall be performed away from zero. If the expected type is a descendant of a formal scalar type, no special rounding or truncating is required — normal accuracy rules apply (see Annex G).

38.a **Reason:** Discarding extended precision enhances portability by ensuring that the value of a static constant of a real type is always a machine number of the type. Deterministic rounding of exact halves also enhances portability.

38.b When the expected type is a descendant of a formal floating point type, extended precision (beyond that of the machine numbers) can be retained when evaluating a static expression, to ease code sharing for generic instantiations. For

similar reasons, normal (nondeterministic) rounding or truncating rules apply for descendants of a formal fixed point type.

Implementation Note: Note that the implementation of static expressions has to keep track of plus and minus zero for a type whose Signed_Zeros attribute is True. 38.c

Note that the only values of a fixed point type are the multiples of the small, so a static conversion to a fixed-point type, or division by an integer, must do truncation to a multiple of small. It is not correct for the implementation to do all static calculations in infinite precision. 38.d

NOTES

28 An expression can be static even if it occurs in a context where staticness is not required. 39

Ramification: For example: 39.a

```
X : Float := Float'(1.0E+400) + 1.0 - Float'(1.0E+400);
```
39.b

The expression is static, which means that the value of X must be exactly 1.0, independent of the accuracy or range of the run-time floating point implementation. 39.c

The following kinds of expressions are never static: explicit_dereference, indexed_component, slice, **null**, aggregate, allocator. 39.d

29 A static (or run-time) type_conversion from a real type to an integer type performs rounding. If the operand value is exactly half-way between two integers, the rounding is performed away from zero. 40

Reason: We specify this for portability. The reason for not choosing round-to-nearest-even, for example, is that this method is easier to undo. 40.a

Ramification: The attribute Truncation (see A.5.3) can be used to perform a (static) truncation prior to conversion, to prevent rounding. 40.b

Implementation Note: The value of the literal 0E99999999999999999999999999999999999999999999999 is zero. The implementation must take care to evaluate such literals properly. 40.c

Examples

Examples of static expressions: 41

```
1 + 1       -- 2                                                    42
abs(-10)*3  -- 30

Kilo : constant := 1000;                                            43
Mega : constant := Kilo*Kilo;   -- 1_000_000
Long : constant := Float'Digits*2;

Half_Pi    : constant := Pi/2;            -- see 3.3.2              44
Deg_To_Rad : constant := Half_Pi/90;
Rad_To_Deg : constant := 1.0/Deg_To_Rad; -- equivalent to 1.0/((3.14159_26536/2)/90)
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The rules for static expressions and static subtypes are generalized to allow more kinds of compile-time-known expressions to be used where compile-time-known values are required, as follows: 44.a

- Membership tests and short-circuit control forms may appear in a static expression. 44.b
- The bounds and length of statically constrained array objects or subtypes are static. 44.c
- The Range attribute of a statically constrained array subtype or object gives a static range. 44.d
- A type_conversion is static if the subtype_mark denotes a static scalar subtype and the operand is a static expression. 44.e
- All numeric literals are now static, even if the expected type is a formal scalar type. This is useful in case_statements and variant_parts, which both now allow a value of a formal scalar type to control the selection, to ease conversion of a package into a generic package. Similarly, named array aggregates are also permitted for array types with an index type that is a formal scalar type. 44.f

The rules for the evaluation of static expressions are revised to require exact evaluation at compile time, and force a machine number result when crossing from the static realm to the dynamic realm, to enhance portability and predictability. Exact evaluation is not required for descendants of a formal scalar type, to simplify generic code sharing and to avoid generic contract model problems. 44.g

44.h Static expressions are legal even if an intermediate in the expression goes outside the base range of the type. Therefore, the following will succeed in Ada 9X, whereas it might raise an exception in Ada 83:

44.i
```
type Short_Int is range -32_768 .. 32_767;
I : Short_Int := -32_768;
```

44.j This might raise an exception in Ada 83 because "32_768" is out of range, even though "–32_768" is not. In Ada 9X, this will always succeed.

44.k Certain expressions involving string operations (in particular concatenation and membership tests) are considered static in Ada 9X.

44.l The reason for this change is to simplify the rule requiring compile-time-known string expressions as the link name in an interfacing pragma, and to simplify the preelaborability rules.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

44.m {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} An Ada 83 program that uses an out-of-range static value is illegal in Ada 9X, unless the expression is part of a larger static expression, or the expression is not evaluated due to being on the right-hand side of a short-circuit control form.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

44.n This clause (and 4.5.5, ‘‘Multiplying Operators’’) subsumes the RM83 section on Universal Expressions.

44.o The existence of static string expressions necessitated changing the definition of static subtype to include string subtypes. Most occurrences of "static subtype" have been changed to "static scalar subtype", in order to preserve the effect of the Ada 83 rules. This has the added benefit of clarifying the difference between "static subtype" and "statically constrained subtype", which has been a source of confusion. In cases where we allow static string subtypes, we explicitly use phrases like "static string subtype" or "static (scalar or string) subtype", in order to clarify the meaning for those who have gotten used to the Ada 83 terminology.

44.p In Ada 83, an expression was considered nonstatic if it raised an exception. Thus, for example:

44.q
```
Bad: constant := 1/0; -- Illegal!
```

44.r was illegal because 1/0 was not static. In Ada 9X, the above example is still illegal, but for a different reason: 1/0 is static, but there’s a separate rule forbidding the exception raising.

4.9.1 Statically Matching Constraints and Subtypes

Static Semantics

1 {*statically matching (for constraints)*} A constraint *statically matches* another constraint if both are null constraints, both are static and have equal corresponding bounds or discriminant values, or both are nonstatic and result from the same elaboration of a constraint of a subtype_indication or the same evaluation of a range of a discrete_subtype_definition.

2 {*statically matching (for subtypes)*} A subtype *statically matches* another subtype of the same type if they have statically matching constraints. Two anonymous access subtypes statically match if their designated subtypes statically match.

2.a **Ramification:** Statically matching constraints and subtypes are the basis for subtype conformance of profiles (see 6.3.1).

3 {*statically matching (for ranges)*} Two ranges of the same type *statically match* if both result from the same evaluation of a range, or if both are static and have equal corresponding bounds.

3.a **Ramification:** The notion of static matching of ranges is used in 12.5.3, ‘‘Formal Array Types’’; the index ranges of formal and actual constrained array subtypes have to statically match.

4 {*statically compatible (for a constraint and a scalar subtype)*} A constraint is *statically compatible* with a scalar subtype if it statically matches the constraint of the subtype, or if both are static and the constraint is compatible with the subtype. {*statically compatible (for a constraint and an access or composite subtype)*} A constraint is *statically compatible* with an access or composite subtype if it statically matches the constraint

of the subtype, or if the subtype is unconstrained. {*statically compatible (for two subtypes)*} One subtype is *statically compatible* with a second subtype if the constraint of the first is statically compatible with the second subtype.

Discussion: Static compatibility is required when constraining a parent subtype with a discriminant from a new discriminant_part. See 3.7. Static compatibility is also used in matching generic formal derived types. 4.a

Note that statically compatible with a subtype does not imply compatible with a type. It is OK since the terms are used in different contexts. 4.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This subclause is new to Ada 9X. 4.c

Section 5: Statements

[A statement defines an action to be performed upon its execution.] 1

[This section describes the general rules applicable to all statements. Some statements are discussed in later sections: Procedure_call_statements and return_statements are described in Section 6, ‘‘Subprograms’’. Entry_call_statements, requeue_statements, delay_statements, accept_statements, select_statements, and abort_statements are described in Section 9, ‘‘Tasks and Synchronization’’. Raise_statements are described in Section 11, ‘‘Exceptions’’, and code_statements in Section 13. The remaining forms of statements are presented in this section.] 2

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The description of return_statements has been moved to 6.5, ‘‘Return Statements’’, so that it is closer to the description of subprograms. 2.a

5.1 Simple and Compound Statements - Sequences of Statements

[A statement is either simple or compound. A simple_statement encloses no other statement. A compound_statement can enclose simple_statements and other compound_statements.] 1

Syntax

sequence_of_statements ::= statement {statement} 2

statement ::= 3
  {label} simple_statement | {label} compound_statement

simple_statement ::= null_statement 4
  | assignment_statement | exit_statement
  | goto_statement | procedure_call_statement
  | return_statement | entry_call_statement
  | requeue_statement | delay_statement
  | abort_statement | raise_statement
  | code_statement

compound_statement ::= 5
    if_statement | case_statement
  | loop_statement | block_statement
  | accept_statement | select_statement

null_statement ::= **null**; 6

label ::= <<*label*_statement_identifier>> 7

statement_identifier ::= direct_name 8

The direct_name of a statement_identifier shall be an identifier (not an operator_symbol). 9

Name Resolution Rules

The direct_name of a statement_identifier shall resolve to denote its corresponding implicit declaration (see below). 10

Legality Rules

Distinct identifiers shall be used for all statement_identifiers that appear in the same body, including inner block_statements but excluding inner program units. 11

Static Semantics

12 For each statement_identifier, there is an implicit declaration (with the specified identifier) at the end of the declarative_part of the innermost block_statement or body that encloses the statement_identifier. The implicit declarations occur in the same order as the statement_identifiers occur in the source text. If a usage name denotes such an implicit declaration, the entity it denotes is the label, loop_statement, or block_statement with the given statement_identifier.

12.a **Reason:** We talk in terms of individual statement_identifiers here rather than in terms of the corresponding statements, since a given statement may have multiple statement_identifiers.

12.b A block_statement that has no explicit declarative_part has an implicit empty declarative_part, so this rule can safely refer to the declarative_part of a block_statement.

12.c The scope of a declaration starts at the place of the declaration itself (see 8.2). In the case of a label, loop, or block name, it follows from this rule that the scope of the implicit declaration starts before the first explicit occurrence of the corresponding name, since this occurrence is either in a statement label, a loop_statement, a block_statement, or a goto_statement. An implicit declaration in a block_statement may hide a declaration given in an outer program unit or block_statement (according to the usual rules of hiding explained in 8.3).

12.d The syntax rule for label uses statement_identifier which is a direct_name (not a defining_identifier), because labels are implicitly declared. The same applies to loop and block names. In other words, the label itself is not the defining occurrence; the implicit declaration is.

12.e We cannot consider the label to be a defining occurrence. An example that can tell the difference is this:

12.f
```
declare
    -- Label Foo is implicitly declared here.
begin
    for Foo in ... loop
        ...
        <<Foo>> -- Illegal.
        ...
    end loop;
end;
```

12.g The label in this example is hidden from itself by the loop parameter with the same name; the example is illegal. We considered creating a new syntactic category name, separate from direct_name and selector_name, for use in the case of statement labels. However, that would confuse the rules in Section 8, so we didn't do it.

Dynamic Semantics

13 {*execution* [null_statement]} The execution of a null_statement has no effect.

14 {*transfer of control*} A *transfer of control* is the run-time action of an exit_statement, return_statement, goto_statement, or requeue_statement, selection of a terminate_alternative, raising of an exception, or an abort, which causes the next action performed to be one other than what would normally be expected from the other rules of the language. [As explained in 7.6.1, a transfer of control can cause the execution of constructs to be completed and then left, which may trigger finalization.]

15 {*execution* [sequence_of_statements]} The execution of a sequence_of_statements consists of the execution of the individual statements in succession until the sequence_ is completed.

15.a **Ramification:** It could be completed by reaching the end of it, or by a transfer of control.

NOTES

16 1 A statement_identifier that appears immediately within the declarative region of a named loop_statement or an accept_statement is nevertheless implicitly declared immediately within the declarative region of the innermost enclosing body or block_statement; in other words, the expanded name for a named statement is not affected by whether the statement occurs inside or outside a named loop or an accept_statement — only nesting within block_statements is relevant to the form of its expanded name.

16.a **Discussion:** Each comment in the following example gives the expanded name associated with an entity declared in the task body:

```
task body Compute is                                                    16.b
   Sum : Integer := 0;                          -- Compute.Sum
begin
 Outer:                                         -- Compute.Outer
   for I in 1..10 loop      -- Compute.Outer.I
    Blk:                                        -- Compute.Blk
      declare
         Sum : Integer := 0;                    -- Compute.Blk.Sum
      begin
         accept Ent(I : out Integer; J : in Integer) do
                                                -- Compute.Ent.I, Compute.Ent.J
            Compute.Ent.I := Compute.Outer.I;
          Inner:                                -- Compute.Blk.Inner
            for J in 1..10 loop
                                                -- Compute.Blk.Inner.J
               Sum := Sum + Compute.Blk.Inner.J * Compute.Ent.J;
            end loop Inner;
         end Ent;
         Compute.Sum := Compute.Sum + Compute.Blk.Sum;
      end Blk;
   end loop Outer;
   Record_Result(Sum);
end Compute;
```

Examples

Examples of labeled statements: 17

```
<<Here>> <<Ici>> <<Aqui>> <<Hier>> null;                               18
<<After>> X := 1;                                                       19
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The requeue_statement is new. 19.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We define the syntactic category statement_identifier to simplify the description. It is used for labels, loop names, and block names. We define the entity associated with the implicit declarations of statement names. 19.b

Completion includes completion caused by a transfer of control, although RM83-5.1(6) did not take this view. 19.c

5.2 Assignment Statements

[An assignment_statement replaces the current value of a variable with the result of evaluating an expression.] 1

Syntax

assignment_statement ::= 2
  *variable*_name := expression;

The execution of an assignment_statement includes the evaluation of the expression and the *assignment* of the value of the expression into the *target*. {*assignment operation* [distributed]} {*assign: see assignment operation*} [An assignment operation (as opposed to an assignment_statement) is performed in other contexts as well, including object initialization and by-copy parameter passing.] {*target (of an assignment operation)*} {*target (of an* assignment_statement*)*} The *target* of an assignment operation is the view of the object to which a value is being assigned; the target of an assignment_statement is the variable denoted by the *variable*_name. 3

Discussion: Don't confuse this notion of the ''target'' of an assignment with the notion of the ''target object'' of an entry call or requeue. 3.a

Don't confuse the term ''assignment operation'' with the assignment_statement. The assignment operation is just one part of the execution of an assignment_statement. The assignment operation is also a part of the execution of various other constructs; see 7.6.1, ''Completion and Finalization'' for a complete list. Note that when we say, ''such-and- 3.b

such is assigned to so-and-so'', we mean that the assignment operation is being applied, and that so-and-so is the target of the assignment operation.

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*expected type* [assignment_statement variable_name]} The *variable*_name of an assignment_statement is expected to be of any nonlimited type. {*expected type* [assignment_statement expression]} The expected type for the expression is the type of the target.

4.a **Implementation Note:** An assignment_statement as a whole is a "complete context," so if the *variable*_name of an assignment_statement is overloaded, the expression can be used to help disambiguate it. For example:

4.b
```
type P1 is access R1;
type P2 is access R2;
```

4.c
```
function F return P1;
function F return P2;
```

4.d
```
X : R1;
begin
  F.all := X;   -- Right hand side helps resolve left hand side
```

Legality Rules

5 The target [denoted by the *variable*_name] shall be a variable.

6 If the target is of a tagged class-wide type *T*'Class, then the expression shall either be dynamically tagged, or of type *T* and tag-indeterminate (see 3.9.2).

6.a **Reason:** This is consistent with the general rule that a single dispatching operation shall not have both dynamically tagged and statically tagged operands. Note that for an object initialization (as opposed to the assignment_statement), a statically tagged initialization expression is permitted, since there is no chance for confusion (or Tag_Check failure). Also, in an object initialization, tag-indeterminate expressions of any type covered by *T*'Class would be allowed, but with an assignment_statement, that might not work if the tag of the target was for a type that didn't have one of the dispatching operations in the tag-indeterminate expression.

Dynamic Semantics

7 {*execution* [assignment_statement]} For the execution of an assignment_statement, the *variable*_name and the expression are first evaluated in an arbitrary order.

7.a **Ramification:** Other rules of the language may require that the bounds of the variable be determined prior to evaluating the expression, but that does not necessarily require evaluation of the *variable*_name, as pointed out by the ACID.

8 When the type of the target is class-wide:

9 - {*controlling tag value* [for the expression in an assignment_statement]} If the expression is tag-indeterminate (see 3.9.2), then the controlling tag value for the expression is the tag of the target;

9.a **Ramification:** See 3.9.2, ''Dispatching Operations of Tagged Types''.

10 - {*Tag_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Tag_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Otherwise [(the expression is dynamically tagged)], a check is made that the tag of the value of the expression is the same as that of the target; if this check fails, Constraint_Error is raised.

11 The value of the expression is converted to the subtype of the target. [The conversion might raise an exception (see 4.6).] {*implicit subtype conversion* [assignment_statement]}

11.a **Ramification:** 4.6, ''Type Conversions'' defines what actions and checks are associated with subtype conversion. For non-array subtypes, it is just a constraint check presuming the types match. For array subtypes, it checks the lengths and slides if the target is constrained. ''Sliding'' means the array doesn't have to have the same bounds, so long as it is the same length.

In cases involving controlled types, the target is finalized, and an anonymous object might be used as an intermediate in the assignment, as described in 7.6.1, ‘‘Completion and Finalization’’. {*assignment operation*} {*assignment operation (during execution of an* assignment_statement*)*} In any case, the converted value of the expression is then *assigned* to the target, which consists of the following two steps: 12

To be honest: 7.6.1 actually says that finalization happens always, but unless controlled types are involved, this finalization during an assignment_statement does nothing. 12.a

- The value of the target becomes the converted value. 13
- If any part of the target is controlled, its value is adjusted as explained in clause 7.6. {*adjustment* [as part of assignment]} 14

Ramification: If any parts of the object are controlled, abort is deferred during the assignment operation itself, but not during the rest of the execution of an assignment_statement. 14.a

NOTES

2 The tag of an object never changes; in particular, an assignment_statement does not change the tag of the target. 15

3 The values of the discriminants of an object designated by an access value cannot be changed (not even by assigning a complete value to the object itself) since such objects are always constrained; however, subcomponents of such objects may be unconstrained. 16

Ramification: The implicit subtype conversion described above for assignment_statements is performed only for the value of the right-hand side expression as a whole; it is not performed for subcomponents of the value. 16.a

The determination of the type of the variable of an assignment_statement may require consideration of the expression if the variable name can be interpreted as the name of a variable designated by the access value returned by a function call, and similarly, as a component or slice of such a variable (see 8.6, ‘‘The Context of Overload Resolution’’). 16.b

Examples

Examples of assignment statements: 17

```
Value := Max_Value - 1;                                                    18
Shade := Blue;

Next_Frame(F)(M, N) := 2.5;          -- see 4.1.1                          19
U := Dot_Product(V, W);              -- see 6.3

Writer := (Status => Open, Unit => Printer, Line_Count => 60);  -- see 3.8.1 20
Next_Car.all := (72074, null);     -- see 3.10.1
```

Examples involving scalar subtype conversions: 21

```
I, J : Integer range 1 .. 10 := 5;                                         22
K    : Integer range 1 .. 20 := 15;
 ...

I := J;  -- identical ranges                                               23
K := J;  -- compatible ranges
J := K;  -- will raise Constraint_Error if K > 10
```

Examples involving array subtype conversions: 24

```
A : String(1 .. 31);                                                       25
B : String(3 .. 33);
 ...

A := B;  -- same number of components                                      26

A(1 .. 9)  := "tar sauce";                                                 27
A(4 .. 12) := A(1 .. 9);  -- A(1 .. 12) = "tartar sauce"
```

NOTES

4 *Notes on the examples:* Assignment_statements are allowed even in the case of overlapping slices of the same array, because the *variable*_name and expression are both evaluated before copying the value into the variable. In the above example, an implementation yielding A(1 .. 12) = "tartartartar" would be incorrect. 28

Extensions to Ada 83

28.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow user-defined finalization and value adjustment actions as part of assignment_statements (see 7.6, ''User-Defined Assignment and Finalization'').

Wording Changes From Ada 83

28.b The special case of array assignment is subsumed by the concept of a subtype conversion, which is applied for all kinds of types, not just arrays. For arrays it provides ''sliding.'' For numeric types it provides conversion of a value of a universal type to the specific type of the target. For other types, it generally has no run-time effect, other than a constraint check.

28.c We now cover in a general way in 3.7.2 the erroneous execution possible due to changing the value of a discriminant when the variable in an assignment_statement is a subcomponent that depends on discriminants.

5.3 If Statements

1 [An if_statement selects for execution at most one of the enclosed sequences_of_statements, depending on the (truth) value of one or more corresponding conditions.]

Syntax

2
```
if_statement ::=
   if condition then
     sequence_of_statements
   {elsif condition then
     sequence_of_statements}
   [else
     sequence_of_statements]
   end if;
```

3 condition ::= *boolean*_expression

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*expected type* [condition]} A condition is expected to be of any boolean type.

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*execution* [if_statement]} For the execution of an if_statement, the condition specified after **if**, and any conditions specified after **elsif**, are evaluated in succession (treating a final **else** as **elsif** True **then**), until one evaluates to True or all conditions are evaluated and yield False. If a condition evaluates to True, then the corresponding sequence_of_statements is executed; otherwise none of them is executed.

5.a **Ramification:** The part about all evaluating to False can't happen if there is an **else**, since that is herein considered equivalent to **elsif** True **then**.

Examples

6 *Examples of if statements:*

7
```
if Month = December and Day = 31 then
   Month := January;
   Day   := 1;
   Year  := Year + 1;
end if;
```

8
```
if Line_Too_Short then
   raise Layout_Error;
elsif Line_Full then
   New_Line;
   Put(Item);
else
   Put(Item);
end if;
```

```
if My_Car.Owner.Vehicle /= My_Car then          -- see 3.10.1
   Report ("Incorrect data");
end if;
```

5.4 Case Statements

[A case_statement selects for execution one of a number of alternative sequences_of_statements; the chosen alternative is defined by the value of an expression.]

Syntax

case_statement ::=
  case expression **is**
    case_statement_alternative
    {case_statement_alternative}
  end case;

case_statement_alternative ::=
  when discrete_choice_list =>
    sequence_of_statements

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [case expression]} The expression is expected to be of any discrete type. {*expected type* [case_statement_alternative discrete_choice]} The expected type for each discrete_choice is the type of the expression.

Legality Rules

The expressions and discrete_ranges given as discrete_choices of a case_statement shall be static. [A discrete_choice **others**, if present, shall appear alone and in the last discrete_choice_list.]

The possible values of the expression shall be covered as follows:

- If the expression is a name [(including a type_conversion or a function_call)] having a static and constrained nominal subtype, or is a qualified_expression whose subtype_mark denotes a static and constrained scalar subtype, then each non-**others** discrete_choice shall cover only values in that subtype, and each value of that subtype shall be covered by some discrete_choice [(either explicitly or by **others**)].

  Ramification: Although not official names of objects, a value conversion still has a defined nominal subtype, namely its target subtype. See 4.6.

- If the type of the expression is *root_integer*, *universal_integer*, or a descendant of a formal scalar type, then the case_statement shall have an **others** discrete_choice.

  Reason: This is because the base range is implementation defined for *root_integer* and *universal_integer*, and not known statically in the case of a formal scalar type.

- Otherwise, each value of the base range of the type of the expression shall be covered [(either explicitly or by **others**)].

Two distinct discrete_choices of a case_statement shall not cover the same value.

Ramification: The goal of these coverage rules is that any possible value of the expression of a case_statement should be covered by exactly one discrete_choice of the case_statement, and that this should be checked at compile time. The goal is achieved in most cases, but there are two minor loopholes:

- If the expression reads an object with an invalid representation (e.g. an uninitialized object), then the value can be outside the covered range. This can happen for static constrained subtypes, as well as nonstatic or unconstrained subtypes. It cannot, however, happen if the case_statement has the discrete_choice **others**, because **others** covers all values, even those outside the subtype.

- If the compiler chooses to represent the value of an expression of an unconstrained subtype in a way that includes values outside the bounds of the subtype, then those values can be outside the covered range. For

example, if X: Integer := Integer'Last;, and the case expression is X+1, then the implementation might choose to produce the correct value, which is outside the bounds of Integer. (It might raise Constraint_Error instead.) This case can only happen for non-generic subtypes that are either unconstrained or non-static (or both). It can only happen if there is no **others** discrete_choice.

10.d In the uninitialized variable case, the value might be anything; hence, any alternative can be chosen, or Constraint_Error can be raised. (We intend to prevent, however, jumping to random memory locations and the like.) In the out-of-range case, the behavior is more sensible: if there is an **others**, then the implementation may choose to raise Constraint_Error on the evaluation of the expression (as usual), or it may choose to correctly evaluate the expression and therefore choose the **others** alternative. Otherwise (no **others**), Constraint_Error is raised either way — on the expression evaluation, or for the case_statement itself.

10.e For an enumeration type with a discontiguous set of internal codes (see 13.4), the only way to get values in between the proper values is via an object with an invalid representation; there is no ''out-of-range'' situation that can produce them.

Dynamic Semantics

11 {*execution* [case_statement]} For the execution of a case_statement the expression is first evaluated.

12 If the value of the expression is covered by the discrete_choice_list of some case_statement_alternative, then the sequence_of_statements of the _alternative is executed.

13 {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Otherwise (the value is not covered by any discrete_choice_list, perhaps due to being outside the base range), Constraint_Error is raised.

13.a **Ramification:** In this case, the value is outside the base range of its type, or is an invalid representation.

NOTES

14 5 The execution of a case_statement chooses one and only one alternative. Qualification of the expression of a case_statement by a static subtype can often be used to limit the number of choices that need be given explicitly.

Examples

15 *Examples of case statements:*

16
```
case Sensor is
   when Elevation  => Record_Elevation(Sensor_Value);
   when Azimuth    => Record_Azimuth  (Sensor_Value);
   when Distance   => Record_Distance (Sensor_Value);
   when others     => null;
end case;
```

17
```
case Today is
   when Mon        => Compute_Initial_Balance;
   when Fri        => Compute_Closing_Balance;
   when Tue .. Thu => Generate_Report(Today);
   when Sat .. Sun => null;
end case;
```

18
```
case Bin_Number(Count) is
   when 1      => Update_Bin(1);
   when 2      => Update_Bin(2);
   when 3 | 4  =>
      Empty_Bin(1);
      Empty_Bin(2);
   when others => raise Error;
end case;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

18.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 83, the expression in a case_statement is not allowed to be of a generic formal type. This restriction is removed in Ada 9X; an **others** discrete_choice is required instead.

In Ada 9X, a function call is the name of an object; this was not true in Ada 83 (see 4.1, ‘‘Names’’). This change makes the following case_statement legal: 18.b

```
subtype S is Integer range 1..2;
function F return S;
case F is
   when 1 => ...;
   when 2 => ...;
   -- No others needed.
end case;
```
18.c

Note that the result subtype given in a function renaming_declaration is ignored; for a case_statement whose expression calls a such a function, the full coverage rules are checked using the result subtype of the original function. Note that predefined operators such as "+" have an unconstrained result subtype (see 4.5.1). Note that generic formal functions do not have static result subtypes. Note that the result subtype of an inherited subprogram need not correspond to any namable subtype; there is still a perfectly good result subtype, though. 18.d

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Ada 83 forgot to say what happens for ‘‘legally’’ out-of-bounds values. 18.e

We take advantage of rules and terms (e.g. *cover a value*) defined for discrete_choices and discrete_choice_lists in 3.8.1, ‘‘Variant Parts and Discrete Choices’’. 18.f

In the Name Resolution Rule for the case expression, we no longer need RM83-5.4(3)’s ‘‘which must be determinable independently of the context in which the expression occurs, but using the fact that the expression must be of a discrete type,’’ because the expression is now a complete context. See 8.6, ‘‘The Context of Overload Resolution’’. 18.g

Since type_conversions are now defined as names, their coverage rule is now covered under the general rule for names, rather than being separated out along with qualified_expressions. 18.h

5.5 Loop Statements

[A loop_statement includes a sequence_of_statements that is to be executed repeatedly, zero or more times.] 1

Syntax

loop_statement ::= 2
  [*loop*_statement_identifier:]
    [iteration_scheme] **loop**
      sequence_of_statements
    end loop [*loop*_identifier];

iteration_scheme ::= **while** condition 3
  | **for** loop_parameter_specification

loop_parameter_specification ::= 4
  defining_identifier **in** [**reverse**] discrete_subtype_definition

If a loop_statement has a *loop*_statement_identifier, then the identifier shall be repeated after the **end loop**; otherwise, there shall not be an identifier after the **end loop**. 5

Static Semantics

{*loop parameter*} A loop_parameter_specification declares a *loop parameter*, which is an object whose subtype is that defined by the discrete_subtype_definition. {*parameter: see also loop parameter*} 6

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [loop_statement]} For the execution of a loop_statement, the sequence_of_statements is executed repeatedly, zero or more times, until the loop_statement is complete. The loop_statement is complete when a transfer of control occurs that transfers control out of the loop, or, in the case of an iteration_scheme, as specified below. 7

8 {*execution* [loop_statement with a while iteration_scheme]} For the execution of a loop_statement with a **while** iteration_scheme, the condition is evaluated before each execution of the sequence_of_statements; if the value of the condition is True, the sequence_of_statements is executed; if False, the execution of the loop_statement is complete.

9 {*execution* [loop_statement with a for iteration_scheme]} {*elaboration* [loop_parameter_specification]} For the execution of a loop_statement with a **for** iteration_scheme, the loop_parameter_specification is first elaborated. This elaboration creates the loop parameter and elaborates the discrete_subtype_definition. If the discrete_subtype_definition defines a subtype with a null range, the execution of the loop_statement is complete. Otherwise, the sequence_of_statements is executed once for each value of the discrete subtype defined by the discrete_subtype_definition (or until the loop is left as a consequence of a transfer of control). {*assignment operation (during execution of a* **for** *loop)*} Prior to each such iteration, the corresponding value of the discrete subtype is assigned to the loop parameter. These values are assigned in increasing order unless the reserved word **reverse** is present, in which case the values are assigned in decreasing order.

9.a **Ramification:** The order of creating the loop parameter and evaluating the discrete_subtype_definition doesn't matter, since the creation of the loop parameter has no side effects (other than possibly raising Storage_Error, but anything can do that).

NOTES

10 6 A loop parameter is a constant; it cannot be updated within the sequence_of_statements of the loop (see 3.3).

11 7 An object_declaration should not be given for a loop parameter, since the loop parameter is automatically declared by the loop_parameter_specification. The scope of a loop parameter extends from the loop_parameter_specification to the end of the loop_statement, and the visibility rules are such that a loop parameter is only visible within the sequence_of_statements of the loop.

11.a **Implementation Note:** An implementation could give a warning if a variable is hidden by a loop_parameter_specification.

12 8 The discrete_subtype_definition of a for loop is elaborated just once. Use of the reserved word **reverse** does not alter the discrete subtype defined, so that the following iteration_schemes are not equivalent; the first has a null range.

13
```
for J in reverse 1 ..  0
for J in 0 .. 1
```

13.a **Ramification:** If a loop_parameter_specification has a static discrete range, the subtype of the loop parameter is static.

Examples

14 *Example of a loop statement without an iteration scheme:*

15
```
loop
   Get(Current_Character);
   exit when Current_Character = '*';
end loop;
```

16 *Example of a loop statement with a* **while** *iteration scheme:*

17
```
while Bid(N).Price < Cut_Off.Price loop
   Record_Bid(Bid(N).Price);
   N := N + 1;
end loop;
```

18 *Example of a loop statement with a* **for** *iteration scheme:*

19
```
for J in Buffer'Range loop      -- works even with a null range
   if Buffer(J) /= Space then
      Put(Buffer(J));
   end if;
end loop;
```

20 *Example of a loop statement with a name:*

```
Summation:                                                          21
   while Next /= Head loop        -- see 3.10.1
      Sum  := Sum + Next.Value;
      Next := Next.Succ;
   end loop Summation;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The constant-ness of loop parameters is specified in 3.3, ‘‘Objects and Named Numbers’’. 21.a

5.6 Block Statements

[A block_statement encloses a handled_sequence_of_statements optionally preceded by a declarative_part.] 1

Syntax

block_statement ::= 2
  [*block*_statement_identifier:]
    [**declare**
      declarative_part]
    begin
      handled_sequence_of_statements
    end [*block*_identifier];

If a block_statement has a *block*_statement_identifier, then the identifier shall be repeated after the **end**; otherwise, there shall not be an identifier after the **end**. 3

Static Semantics

A block_statement that has no explicit declarative_part has an implicit empty declarative_part. 4

Ramification: Thus, other rules can always refer to the declarative_part of a block_statement. 4.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [block_statement]} The execution of a block_statement consists of the elaboration of its declarative_part followed by the execution of its handled_sequence_of_statements. 5

Examples

Example of a block statement with a local variable: 6

```
Swap:                                                               7
   declare
      Temp : Integer;
   begin
      Temp := V; V := U; U := Temp;
   end Swap;
```

Ramification: If task objects are declared within a block_statement whose execution is completed, the block_statement is not left until all its dependent tasks are terminated (see 7.6). This rule applies to completion caused by a transfer of control. 7.a

Within a block_statement, the block name can be used in expanded names denoting local entities such as Swap.Temp in the above example (see 4.1.3). 7.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for block_statement now uses the syntactic category handled_sequence_of_statements. 7.c

5.7 Exit Statements

1 [An exit_statement is used to complete the execution of an enclosing loop_statement; the completion is conditional if the exit_statement includes a condition.]

Syntax

2 exit_statement ::=
exit [*loop*_name] [**when** condition];

Name Resolution Rules

3 The *loop*_name, if any, in an exit_statement shall resolve to denote a loop_statement.

Legality Rules

4 {*apply (to a* loop_statement *by an* exit_statement*)*} Each exit_statement *applies to* a loop_statement; this is the loop_statement being exited. An exit_statement with a name is only allowed within the loop_statement denoted by the name, and applies to that loop_statement. An exit_statement without a name is only allowed within a loop_statement, and applies to the innermost enclosing one. An exit_statement that applies to a given loop_statement shall not appear within a body or accept_statement, if this construct is itself enclosed by the given loop_statement.

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*execution* [exit_statement]} For the execution of an exit_statement, the condition, if present, is first evaluated. If the value of the condition is True, or if there is no condition, a transfer of control is done to complete the loop_statement. If the value of the condition is False, no transfer of control takes place.

NOTES

6 9 Several nested loops can be exited by an exit_statement that names the outer loop.

Examples

7 *Examples of loops with exit statements:*

8
```
for N in 1 .. Max_Num_Items loop
   Get_New_Item(New_Item);
   Merge_Item(New_Item, Storage_File);
   exit when New_Item = Terminal_Item;
end loop;
```

9
```
Main_Cycle:
   loop
      -- initial statements
      exit Main_Cycle when Found;
      -- final statements
   end loop Main_Cycle;
```

5.8 Goto Statements

1 [A goto_statement specifies an explicit transfer of control from this statement to a target statement with a given label.]

Syntax

2 goto_statement ::= **goto** *label*_name;

Name Resolution Rules

3 {*target statement (of a* goto_statement*)*} The *label*_name shall resolve to denote a label; the statement with that label is the *target statement*.

Legality Rules

The innermost sequence_of_statements that encloses the target statement shall also enclose the goto_statement. 4

Ramification: The goto_statement can be a statement of an inner sequence_. 4.a

Furthermore, if a goto_statement is enclosed by an accept_statement or a body, then the target statement shall not be outside this enclosing construct.

Ramification: It follows from the previous rule that if the target statement is enclosed by such a construct, then the goto_statement cannot be outside. 4.b

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [goto_statement]} The execution of a goto_statement transfers control to the target statement, completing the execution of any compound_statement that encloses the goto_statement but does not enclose the target. 5

NOTES

10 The above rules allow transfer of control to a statement of an enclosing sequence_of_statements but not the reverse. Similarly, they prohibit transfers of control such as between alternatives of a case_statement, if_statement, or select_statement; between exception_handlers; or from an exception_handler of a handled_sequence_of_statements back to its sequence_of_statements. 6

Examples

Example of a loop containing a goto statement: 7

```
<<Sort>>                                                    8
for I in 1 .. N-1 loop
   if A(I) > A(I+1) then
      Exchange(A(I), A(I+1));
      goto Sort;
   end if;
end loop;
```

Section 6: Subprograms

{*subprogram*} {*procedure*} {*function*} A subprogram is a program unit or intrinsic operation whose execution is invoked by a subprogram call. There are two forms of subprogram: procedures and functions. A procedure call is a statement; a function call is an expression and returns a value. The definition of a subprogram can be given in two parts: a subprogram declaration defining its interface, and a subprogram_body defining its execution. [Operators and enumeration literals are functions.] 1

To be honest: A function call is an expression, but more specifically it is a name. 1.a

{*callable entity*} A *callable entity* is a subprogram or entry (see Section 9). {*call*} A callable entity is invoked by a *call*; that is, a subprogram call or entry call. {*callable construct*} A *callable construct* is a construct that defines the action of a call upon a callable entity: a subprogram_body, entry_body, or accept_statement. 2

Ramification: Note that ''callable entity'' includes predefined operators, enumeration literals, and abstract subprograms. ''Call'' includes calls of these things. They do not have callable constructs, since they don't have completions. 2.a

6.1 Subprogram Declarations

[A subprogram_declaration declares a procedure or function.] 1

Syntax

subprogram_declaration ::= subprogram_specification; 2

abstract_subprogram_declaration ::= subprogram_specification **is abstract**; 3

subprogram_specification ::= 4
    procedure defining_program_unit_name parameter_profile
  | **function** defining_designator parameter_and_result_profile

designator ::= [parent_unit_name .]identifier | operator_symbol 5

defining_designator ::= defining_program_unit_name | defining_operator_symbol 6

defining_program_unit_name ::= [parent_unit_name .]defining_identifier 7

[The optional parent_unit_name is only allowed for library units (see 10.1.1).] 8

operator_symbol ::= string_literal 9

The sequence of characters in an operator_symbol shall correspond to an operator belonging to one of the six classes of operators defined in clause 4.5 (spaces are not allowed and the case of letters is not significant). 10

defining_operator_symbol ::= operator_symbol 11

parameter_profile ::= [formal_part] 12

parameter_and_result_profile ::= [formal_part] **return** subtype_mark 13

formal_part ::= 14
  (parameter_specification {; parameter_specification})

parameter_specification ::= 15
    defining_identifier_list : mode subtype_mark [:= default_expression]
  | defining_identifier_list : access_definition [:= default_expression]

mode ::= [**in**] | **in out** | **out** 16

Name Resolution Rules

17 {*formal parameter (of a subprogram)*} A *formal parameter* is an object [directly visible within a subprogram_body] that represents the actual parameter passed to the subprogram in a call; it is declared by a parameter_specification. {*expected type* [parameter default_expression]} For a formal parameter, the expected type for its default_expression, if any, is that of the formal parameter. {*parameter: see formal parameter*}

Legality Rules

18 {*parameter mode*} The *parameter mode* of a formal parameter conveys the direction of information transfer with the actual parameter: **in**, **in out**, or **out**. Mode **in** is the default, and is the mode of a parameter defined by an access_definition. The formal parameters of a function, if any, shall have the mode **in**.

18.a **Ramification:** Access parameters are permitted. This restriction to **in** parameters is primarily a methodological restriction, though it also simplifies implementation for some compiler technologies.

19 A default_expression is only allowed in a parameter_specification for a formal parameter of mode **in**.

20 {*requires a completion* [subprogram_declaration]} {*requires a completion* [generic_subprogram_declaration]} A subprogram_declaration or a generic_subprogram_declaration requires a completion: [a body, a renaming_declaration (see 8.5), or a **pragma** Import (see B.1)]. [A completion is not allowed for an abstract_subprogram_declaration.]

20.a **Ramification:** Abstract subprograms are not declared by subprogram_declarations, and so do not require completion. Protected subprograms are declared by subprogram_declarations, and so require completion. Note that an abstract subprogram is a subprogram, and a protected subprogram is a subprogram, but a generic subprogram is not a subprogram.

21 A name that denotes a formal parameter is not allowed within the formal_part in which it is declared, nor within the formal_part of a corresponding body or accept_statement.

21.a **Ramification:** By contrast, generic_formal_parameter_declarations are visible to subsequent declarations in the same generic_formal_part.

Static Semantics

22 {*profile*} The *profile* of (a view of) a callable entity is either a parameter_profile or parameter_and_result_profile[; it embodies information about the interface to that entity — for example, the profile includes information about parameters passed to the callable entity. All callable entities have a profile — enumeration literals, other subprograms, and entries. An access-to-subprogram type has a designated profile.] Associated with a profile is a calling convention. A subprogram_declaration declares a procedure or a function, as indicated by the initial reserved word, with name and profile as given by its specification.

23 {*nominal subtype* [of a formal parameter]} The nominal subtype of a formal parameter is the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark, or defined by the access_definition, in the parameter_specification.

24 {*access parameter*} An *access parameter* is a formal **in** parameter specified by an access_definition. An access parameter is of an anonymous general access-to-variable type (see 3.10). [Access parameters allow dispatching calls to be controlled by access values.]

25 {*subtypes (of a profile)*} The *subtypes of a profile* are:

26 • For any non-access parameters, the nominal subtype of the parameter.

27 • For any access parameters, the designated subtype of the parameter type.

28 • For any result, the result subtype.

[{*types (of a profile)*} The *types of a profile* are the types of those subtypes.] 29

[A subprogram declared by an abstract_subprogram_declaration is abstract; a subprogram declared by a subprogram_declaration is not. See 3.9.3, ‘‘Abstract Types and Subprograms’’.] 30

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [subprogram_declaration]} {*elaboration* [abstract_subprogram_declaration]} The elaboration of a subprogram_declaration or an abstract_subprogram_declaration has no effect. 31

NOTES

1 A parameter_specification with several identifiers is equivalent to a sequence of single parameter_specifications, as explained in 3.3. 32

2 Abstract subprograms do not have bodies, and cannot be used in a nondispatching call (see 3.9.3, ‘‘Abstract Types and Subprograms’’). 33

3 The evaluation of default_expressions is caused by certain calls, as described in 6.4.1. They are not evaluated during the elaboration of the subprogram declaration. 34

4 Subprograms can be called recursively and can be called concurrently from multiple tasks. 35

Examples

Examples of subprogram declarations: 36

```
procedure Traverse_Tree;                                                    37
procedure Increment(X : in out Integer);
procedure Right_Indent(Margin : out Line_Size);          -- see 3.5.4
procedure Switch(From, To : in out Link);                -- see 3.10.1
function Random return Probability;                      -- see 3.5.7       38
function Min_Cell(X : Link) return Cell;                 -- see 3.10.1      39
function Next_Frame(K : Positive) return Frame;          -- see 3.10
function Dot_Product(Left, Right : Vector) return Real;  -- see 3.6
function "*"(Left, Right : Matrix) return Matrix;        -- see 3.6         40
```

Examples of **in** *parameters with default expressions:* 41

```
procedure Print_Header(Pages  : in Natural;                                 42
            Header : in Line    :=  (1 .. Line'Last => ' ');  -- see 3.6
            Center : in Boolean := True);
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for abstract_subprogram_declaration is added. The syntax for parameter_specification is revised to allow for access parameters (see 3.10) 42.a

Program units that are library units may have a parent_unit_name to indicate the parent of a child (see Section 10). 42.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have incorporated the rules from RM83-6.5, ‘‘Function Subprograms’’ here and in 6.3, ‘‘Subprogram Bodies’’ 42.c

We have incorporated the definitions of RM83-6.6, ‘‘Parameter and Result Type Profile - Overloading of Subprograms’’ here. 42.d

The syntax rule for defining_operator_symbol is new. It is used for the defining occurrence of an operator_symbol, analogously to defining_identifier. Usage occurrences use the direct_name or selector_name syntactic categories. The syntax rules for defining_designator and defining_program_unit_name are new. 42.e

6.2 Formal Parameter Modes

1 [A parameter_specification declares a formal parameter of mode **in**, **in out**, or **out**.]

Static Semantics

2 {*pass by copy*} {*by copy parameter passing*} {*copy parameter passing*} {*pass by reference*} {*by reference parameter passing*} {*reference parameter passing*} A parameter is passed either *by copy* or *by reference*. [When a parameter is passed by copy, the formal parameter denotes a separate object from the actual parameter, and any information transfer between the two occurs only before and after executing the subprogram. When a parameter is passed by reference, the formal parameter denotes (a view of) the object denoted by the actual parameter; reads and updates of the formal parameter directly reference the actual parameter object.]

3 {*by-copy type*} A type is a *by-copy type* if it is an elementary type, or if it is a descendant of a private type whose full type is a by-copy type. A parameter of a by-copy type is passed by copy.

4 {*by-reference type*} A type is a *by-reference type* if it is a descendant of one of the following:

5 • a tagged type;

6 • a task or protected type;

7 • a nonprivate type with the reserved word **limited** in its declaration;

7.a **Ramification:** A limited private type is by-reference only if it falls under one of the other categories.

8 • a composite type with a subcomponent of a by-reference type;

9 • a private type whose full type is a by-reference type.

10 A parameter of a by-reference type is passed by reference. {*associated object (of a value of a by-reference type)*} Each value of a by-reference type has an associated object. For a parenthesized expression, qualified_expression, or type_conversion, this object is the one associated with the operand.

10.a **Ramification:** By-reference parameter passing makes sense only if there is an object to reference; hence, we define such an object for each case.

10.b Since tagged types are by-reference types, this implies that every value of a tagged type has an associated object. This simplifies things, because we can define the tag to be a property of the object, and not of the value of the object, which makes it clearer that object tags never change.

10.c We considered simplifying things even more by making every value (and therefore every expression) have an associated object. After all, there is little semantic difference between a constant object and a value. However, this would cause problems for untagged types. In particular, we would have to do a constraint check on every read of a type conversion (or a renaming thereof) in certain cases.

10.d We do not want this definition to depend on the view of the type; privateness is essentially ignored for this definition. Otherwise, things would be confusing (does the rule apply at the call site, at the site of the declaration of the subprogram, at the site of the return_statement?), and requiring different calls to use different mechanisms would be an implementation burden.

10.e C.6, ‘‘Shared Variable Control’’ says that a composite type with an atomic or volatile subcomponent is a by-reference type, among other things.

10.f {*associated object (of a value of a limited type)*} Every value of a limited by-reference type is the value of one and only one limited object. The *associated object* of a value of a limited by-reference type is the object whose value it represents. {*same value (for a limited type)*} Two values of a limited by-reference type are the *same* if and only if they represent the value of the same object.

10.g We say ‘‘by-reference’’ above because these statements are not always true for limited private types whose underlying type is nonlimited (unfortunately).

{*unspecified* [partial]} For parameters of other types, it is unspecified whether the parameter is passed by copy or by reference. 11

Discussion: There is no need to incorporate the discussion of AI-00178, which requires pass-by-copy for certain kinds of actual parameters, while allowing pass-by-reference for others. This is because we explicitly indicate that a function creates an anonymous constant object for its result, unless the type is a return-by-reference type (see 6.5). We also provide a special dispensation for instances of Unchecked_Conversion to return by reference, even if the result type is not a return-by-reference type (see 13.9). 11.a

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} {*distinct access paths*} {*access paths (distinct)*} {*aliasing: see distinct access paths*} If one name denotes a part of a formal parameter, and a second name denotes a part of a distinct formal parameter or an object that is not part of a formal parameter, then the two names are considered *distinct access paths*. If an object is of a type for which the parameter passing mechanism is not specified, then it is a bounded error to assign to the object via one access path, and then read the value of the object via a distinct access path, unless the first access path denotes a part of a formal parameter that no longer exists at the point of the second access [(due to leaving the corresponding callable construct).] {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The possible consequences are that Program_Error is raised, or the newly assigned value is read, or some old value of the object is read. 12

Discussion: For example, if we call ''P(X => Global_Variable, Y => Global_Variable)'', then within P, the names ''X'', ''Y'', and ''Global_Variable'' are all distinct access paths. If Global_Variable's type is neither pass-by-copy nor pass-by-reference, then it is a bounded error to assign to Global_Variable and then read X or Y, since the language does not specify whether the old or the new value would be read. On the other hand, if Global_Variable's type is pass-by-copy, then the old value would always be read, and there is no error. Similarly, if Global_Variable's type is defined by the language to be pass-by-reference, then the new value would always be read, and again there is no error. 12.a

Reason: We are saying *assign* here, not *update*, because updating any subcomponent is considered to update the enclosing object. 12.b

The ''still exists'' part is so that a read after the subprogram returns is OK. 12.c

If the parameter is of a by-copy type, then there is no issue here — the formal is not a view of the actual. If the parameter is of a by-reference type, then the programmer may depend on updates through one access path being visible through some other access path, just as if the parameter were of an access type. 12.d

Implementation Note: The implementation can keep a copy in a register of a parameter whose parameter-passing mechanism is not specified. If a different access path is used to update the object (creating a bounded error situation), then the implementation can still use the value of the register, even though the in-memory version of the object has been changed. However, to keep the error properly bounded, if the implementation chooses to read the in-memory version, it has to be consistent -- it cannot then assume that something it has proven about the register is true of the memory location. For example, suppose the formal parameter is L, the value of L(6) is now in a register, and L(6) is used in an indexed_component as in ''A(L(6)) := 99;'', where A has bounds 1..3. If the implementation can prove that the value for L(6) in the register is in the range 1..3, then it need not perform the constraint check if it uses the register value. However, if the memory value of L(6) has been changed to 4, and the implementation uses that memory value, then it had better not alter memory outside of A. 12.e

Note that the rule allows the implementation to pass a parameter by reference and then keep just part of it in a register, or, equivalently, to pass part of the parameter by reference and another part by copy. 12.f

Reason: We do not want to go so far as to say that the mere presence of aliasing is wrong. We wish to be able to write the following sorts of things in standard Ada: 12.g

```
procedure Move ( Source  : in  String;                          12.h
                 Target  : out String;
                 Drop    : in  Truncation := Error;
                 Justify : in  Alignment  := Left;
                 Pad     : in  Character  := Space);
-- Copies elements from Source to Target (safely if they overlap)
```

This is from the standard string handling package. It would be embarrassing if this couldn't be written in Ada! 12.i

The ''then'' before ''read'' in the rule implies that the implementation can move a read to an earlier place in the code, but not to a later place after a potentially aliased assignment. Thus, if the subprogram reads one of its parameters into a local variable, and then updates another potentially aliased one, the local copy is safe — it is known to have the old 12.j

value. For example, the above-mentioned Move subprogram can be implemented by copying Source into a local variable before assigning into Target.

12.k For an assignment_statement assigning one array parameter to another, the implementation has to check which direction to copy at run time, in general, in case the actual parameters are overlapping slices. For example:

12.l
```
procedure Copy(X : in out String; Y: String) is
begin
    X := Y;
end Copy;
```

12.m It would be wrong for the compiler to assume that X and Y do not overlap (unless, of course, it can prove otherwise).

NOTES

13 5 A formal parameter of mode **in** is a constant view (see 3.3); it cannot be updated within the subprogram_body.

Extensions to Ada 83

13.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} The value of an **out** parameter may be read. An **out** parameter is treated like a declared variable without an explicit initial expression.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

13.b Discussion of copy-in for parts of out parameters is now covered in 6.4.1, ‘‘Parameter Associations’’.

13.c The concept of a by-reference type is new to Ada 9X.

13.d We now cover in a general way in 3.7.2 the rule regarding erroneous execution when a discriminant is changed and one of the parameters depends on the discriminant.

6.3 Subprogram Bodies

1 [A subprogram_body specifies the execution of a subprogram.]

Syntax

2
```
subprogram_body ::=
   subprogram_specification is
     declarative_part
   begin
      handled_sequence_of_statements
   end [designator];
```

3 If a designator appears at the end of a subprogram_body, it shall repeat the defining_designator of the subprogram_specification.

Legality Rules

4 [In contrast to other bodies,] a subprogram_body need not be the completion of a previous declaration[, in which case the body declares the subprogram]. If the body is a completion, it shall be the completion of a subprogram_declaration or generic_subprogram_declaration. The profile of a subprogram_body that completes a declaration shall conform fully to that of the declaration. {*full conformance (required)*}

Static Semantics

5 A subprogram_body is considered a declaration. It can either complete a previous declaration, or itself be the initial declaration of the subprogram.

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*elaboration* [non-generic subprogram_body]} The elaboration of a non-generic subprogram_body has no other effect than to establish that the subprogram can from then on be called without failing the Elaboration_Check.

Ramification: See 12.2 for elaboration of a generic body. Note that protected subprogram_bodies never get elaborated; the elaboration of the containing protected_body allows them to be called without failing the Elaboration_Check. 6.a

{*execution* [subprogram_body]} [The execution of a subprogram_body is invoked by a subprogram call.] For this execution the declarative_part is elaborated, and the handled_sequence_of_statements is then executed. 7

Examples

Example of procedure body: 8

```
procedure Push(E : in Element_Type; S : in out Stack) is                    9
begin
   if S.Index = S.Size then
      raise Stack_Overflow;
   else
      S.Index := S.Index + 1;
      S.Space(S.Index) := E;
   end if;
end Push;
```

Example of a function body: 10

```
function Dot_Product(Left, Right : Vector) return Real is                   11
   Sum : Real := 0.0;
begin
   Check(Left'First = Right'First and Left'Last = Right'Last);
   for J in Left'Range loop
      Sum := Sum + Left(J)*Right(J);
   end loop;
   return Sum;
end Dot_Product;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} A renaming_declaration may be used instead of a subprogram_body. 11.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for subprogram_body now uses the syntactic category handled_sequence_of_statements. 11.b

The declarative_part of a subprogram_body is now required; that doesn't make any real difference, because a declarative_part can be empty. 11.c

We have incorporated some rules from RM83-6.5 here. 11.d

RM83 forgot to restrict the definition of elaboration of a subprogram_body to non-generics. 11.e

6.3.1 Conformance Rules

{*conformance*} [When subprogram profiles are given in more than one place, they are required to conform in one of four ways: type conformance, mode conformance, subtype conformance, or full conformance.] 1

Static Semantics

{*convention*} {*calling convention*} [As explained in B.1, ''Interfacing Pragmas'', a *convention* can be specified for an entity. For a callable entity or access-to-subprogram type, the convention is called the *calling convention*.] The following conventions are defined by the language: 2

- {*Ada calling convention*} {*calling convention (Ada)*} The default calling convention for any subprogram not listed below is *Ada*. [A pragma Convention, Import, or Export may be used to override the default calling convention (see B.1)]. 3

  Ramification: See also the rule about renamings-as-body in 8.5.4. 3.a

- {*Intrinsic calling convention*} {*calling convention (Intrinsic)*} The *Intrinsic* calling convention represents subprograms that are ‘‘built in’’ to the compiler. The default calling convention is Intrinsic for the following:
  - an enumeration literal;
  - a "/=" operator declared implicitly due to the declaration of "=" (see 6.6);
  - any other implicitly declared subprogram unless it is a dispatching operation of a tagged type;
  - an inherited subprogram of a generic formal tagged type with unknown discriminants;
  - an attribute that is a subprogram;
  - a subprogram declared immediately within a protected_body.

  [The Access attribute is not allowed for Intrinsic subprograms.]

Ramification: The Intrinsic calling convention really represents any number of calling conventions at the machine code level; the compiler might have a different instruction sequence for each intrinsic. That’s why the Access attribute is disallowed. We do not wish to require the implementation to generate an out of line body for an intrinsic.

Whenever we wish to disallow the Access attribute in order to ease implementation, we make the subprogram Intrinsic. Several language-defined subprograms have ‘‘**pragma** Convention(Intrinsic, ...);’’. An implementation might actually implement this as ‘‘**pragma** Import(Intrinsic, ...);’’, if there is really no body, and the implementation of the subprogram is built into the code generator.

Subprograms declared in protected_bodies will generally have a special calling convention so as to pass along the identification of the current instance of the protected type. The convention is not *protected* since such local subprograms need not contain any ‘‘locking’’ logic since they are not callable via ‘‘external’’ calls; this rule prevents an access value designating such a subprogram from being passed outside the protected unit.

The ‘‘implicitly declared subprogram’’ above refers to predefined operators (other than the "=" of a tagged type) and the inherited subprograms of untagged types.

- {*protected calling convention*} {*calling convention (protected)*} The default calling convention is *protected* for a protected subprogram, and for an access-to-subprogram type with the reserved word **protected** in its definition.
- {*entry calling convention*} {*calling convention (entry)*} The default calling convention is *entry* for an entry.

Of these four conventions, only Ada and Intrinsic are allowed as a *convention*_identifier in a pragma Convention, Import, or Export.

Discussion: The names of the *protected* and *entry* calling conventions cannot be used in the interfacing pragmas. Note that **protected** and **entry** are reserved words.

{*type conformance*} {*profile (type conformant)*} Two profiles are *type conformant* if they have the same number of parameters, and both have a result if either does, and corresponding parameter and result types are the same, or, for access parameters, corresponding designated types are the same. {*type profile: see profile, type conformant*}

Discussion: For access parameters, the designated types have to be the same for type conformance, not the access types, since in general each access parameter has its own anonymous access type, created when the subprogram is called. Of course, corresponding parameters have to be either both access parameters or both not access parameters.

{*mode conformance*} {*profile (mode conformant)*} Two profiles are *mode conformant* if they are type-conformant, and corresponding parameters have identical modes, and, for access parameters, the designated subtypes statically match. {*statically matching* [required]}

{*subtype conformance*} {*profile (subtype conformant)*} Two profiles are *subtype conformant* if they are mode-conformant, corresponding subtypes of the profile statically match, and the associated calling conventions are the same. The profile of a generic formal subprogram is not subtype-conformant with any other profile. {*statically matching* [required]} 17

Ramification: {*generic contract issue* [partial]} 17.a

{*full conformance (for profiles)*} {*profile (fully conformant)*} Two profiles are *fully conformant* if they are subtype-conformant, and corresponding parameters have the same names and have default_expressions that are fully conformant with one another. 18

Ramification: Full conformance requires subtype conformance, which requires the same calling conventions. However, the calling convention of the declaration and body of a subprogram or entry are always the same by definition. 18.a

{*full conformance (for expressions)*} Two expressions are *fully conformant* if, [after replacing each use of an operator with the equivalent function_call:] 19

- each constituent construct of one corresponds to an instance of the same syntactic category in the other, except that an expanded name may correspond to a direct_name (or character_literal) or to a different expanded name in the other; and 20
- each direct_name, character_literal, and selector_name that is not part of the prefix of an expanded name in one denotes the same declaration as the corresponding direct_name, character_literal, or selector_name in the other; and 21

Ramification: Note that it doesn't say ''respectively'' because a direct_name can correspond to a selector_name, and vice-versa, by the previous bullet. This rule allows the prefix of an expanded name to be removed, or replaced with a different prefix that denotes a renaming of the same entity. However, it does not allow a direct_name or selector_name to be replaced with one denoting a distinct renaming (except for direct_names and selector_names in prefixes of expanded names). Note that calls using operator notation are equivalent to calls using prefix notation. 21.a

Given the following declarations: 21.b

```
package A is                                                    21.c
    function F(X : Integer := 1) return Boolean;
end A;
with A;                                                         21.d
package B is
    package A_View renames A;
    function F_View(X : Integer := 9999) return Boolean renames F;
end B;
with A, B; use A, B;                                            21.e
procedure Main is ...
```

Within Main, the expressions ''F'', ''A.F'', ''B.A_View.F'', and ''A_View.F'' are all fully conformant with one another. However, ''F'' and ''F_View'' are not fully conformant. If they were, it would be bad news, since the two denoted views have different default_expressions. 21.f

- each primary that is a literal in one has the same value as the corresponding literal in the other. 22

Ramification: The literals may be written differently. 22.a

Ramification: Note that the above definition makes full conformance a transitive relation. 22.b

{*full conformance (for* known_discriminant_parts*)*} Two known_discriminant_parts are *fully conformant* if they have the same number of discriminants, and discriminants in the same positions have the same names, statically matching subtypes, and default_expressions that are fully conformant with one another. {*statically matching* [required]} 23

24 {*full conformance (for* discrete_subtype_definitions*)*} Two discrete_subtype_definitions are *fully conformant* if they are both subtype_indications or are both ranges, the subtype_marks (if any) denote the same subtype, and the corresponding simple_expressions of the ranges (if any) fully conform.

24.a **Ramification:** In the subtype_indication case, any ranges have to *be* corresponding; that is, two subtype_indications cannot conform unless both or neither has a range.

24.b **Discussion:** This definition is used in 9.5.2, ‘‘Entries and Accept Statements’’ for the conformance required between the discrete_subtype_definitions of an entry_declaration for a family of entries and the corresponding entry_index_specification of the entry_body.

Implementation Permissions

25 An implementation may declare an operator declared in a language-defined library unit to be intrinsic.

Extensions to Ada 83

25.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} The rules for full conformance are relaxed — they are now based on the structure of constructs, rather than the sequence of lexical elements. This implies, for example, that "(X, Y: T)" conforms fully with "(X: T; Y: T)", and "(X: T)" conforms fully with "(X: **in** T)".

6.3.2 Inline Expansion of Subprograms

1 [Subprograms may be expanded in line at the call site.]

Syntax

2 {*program unit pragma* [Inline]} {*pragma, program unit* [Inline]} The form of a pragma Inline, which is a program unit pragma (see 10.1.5), is as follows:

3 **pragma** Inline(name {, name});

Legality Rules

4 The pragma shall apply to one or more callable entities or generic subprograms.

Static Semantics

5 If a pragma Inline applies to a callable entity, this indicates that inline expansion is desired for all calls to that entity. If a pragma Inline applies to a generic subprogram, this indicates that inline expansion is desired for all calls to all instances of that generic subprogram.

5.a **Ramification:** Note that inline expansion is desired no matter what name is used in the call. This allows one to request inlining for only one of several overloaded subprograms as follows:

5.b
```
package IO is
   procedure Put(X : in Integer);
   procedure Put(X : in String);
   procedure Put(X : in Character);
private
   procedure Character_Put(X : in Character) renames Put;
   pragma Inline(Character_Put);
end IO;
```

5.c
```
with IO; use IO;
procedure Main is
   I : Integer;
   C : Character;
begin
   ...
   Put(C); -- Inline expansion is desired.
   Put(I); -- Inline expansion is NOT desired.
end Main;
```

5.d **Ramification:** The meaning of a subprogram can be changed by a pragma Inline only in the presence of failing checks (see 11.6).

Implementation Permissions

For each call, an implementation is free to follow or to ignore the recommendation expressed by the pragma. 6

Ramification: Note, in particular, that the recommendation cannot always be followed for a recursive call, and is often infeasible for entries. Note also that the implementation can inline calls even when no such desire was expressed by a pragma, so long as the semantics of the program remains unchanged. 6.a

NOTES

6 The name in a pragma Inline can denote more than one entity in the case of overloading. Such a pragma applies to all of the denoted entities. 7

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} A pragma Inline is allowed inside a subprogram_body if there is no corresponding subprogram_declaration. This is for uniformity with other program unit pragmas. 7.a

6.4 Subprogram Calls

{*subprogram call*} A *subprogram call* is either a procedure_call_statement or a function_call; [it invokes the execution of the subprogram_body. The call specifies the association of the actual parameters, if any, with formal parameters of the subprogram.] 1

Syntax

procedure_call_statement ::= 2
   *procedure*_name;
 | *procedure*_prefix actual_parameter_part;

function_call ::= 3
   *function*_name
 | *function*_prefix actual_parameter_part

actual_parameter_part ::= 4
   (parameter_association {, parameter_association})

parameter_association ::= 5
  [*formal_parameter*_selector_name =>] explicit_actual_parameter

explicit_actual_parameter ::= expression | *variable*_name 6

{*named association*} {*positional association*} A parameter_association is *named* or *positional* according to whether or not the *formal_parameter*_selector_name is specified. Any positional associations shall precede any named associations. Named associations are not allowed if the prefix in a subprogram call is an attribute_reference. 7

Ramification: This means that the formal parameter names used in describing predefined attributes are to aid presentation of their semantics, but are not intended for use in actual calls. 7.a

Name Resolution Rules

The name or prefix given in a procedure_call_statement shall resolve to denote a callable entity that is a procedure, or an entry renamed as (viewed as) a procedure. The name or prefix given in a function_call shall resolve to denote a callable entity that is a function. [When there is an actual_parameter_part, the prefix can be an implicit_dereference of an access-to-subprogram value.] 8

Ramification: The function can be an operator, enumeration literal, attribute that is a function, etc. 8.a

A subprogram call shall contain at most one association for each formal parameter. Each formal parameter without an association shall have a default_expression (in the profile of the view denoted by the name or prefix). This rule is an overloading rule (see 8.6). 9

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*execution* [subprogram call]} For the execution of a subprogram call, the name or prefix of the call is evaluated, and each parameter_association is evaluated (see 6.4.1). If a default_expression is used, an implicit parameter_association is assumed for this rule. These evaluations are done in an arbitrary order. The subprogram_body is then executed. Finally, if the subprogram completes normally, then after it is left, any necessary assigning back of formal to actual parameters occurs (see 6.4.1).

10.a **Discussion:** The implicit association for a default is only for this run-time rule. At compile time, the visibility rules are applied to the default at the place where it occurs, not at the place of a call.

10.b **To be honest:** If the subprogram is inherited, see 3.4, ''Derived Types and Classes''.

10.c If the subprogram is protected, see 9.5.1, ''Protected Subprograms and Protected Actions''.

10.d If the subprogram is really a renaming of an entry, see 9.5.3, ''Entry Calls''.

10.e Normally, the subprogram_body that is executed by the above rule is the one for the subprogram being called. For an enumeration literal, implicitly declared (but noninherited) subprogram, or an attribute that is a subprogram, an implicit body is assumed. For a dispatching call, 3.9.2, ''Dispatching Operations of Tagged Types'' defines which subprogram_body is executed.

11 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Program_Error is raised at the point of a function_call if the function completes normally without executing a return_statement.

11.a **Discussion:** We are committing to raising the exception at the point of call, for uniformity — see AI-00152. This happens after the function is left, of course.

11.b Note that there is no name for suppressing this check, since the check imposes no time overhead and minimal space overhead (since it can usually be statically eliminated as dead code).

12 A function_call denotes a constant, as defined in 6.5; the nominal subtype of the constant is given by the result subtype of the function. {*nominal subtype* [of the result of a function_call]} {*constant* [result of a function_call]}

Examples

13 *Examples of procedure calls:*

14
```
Traverse_Tree;                                          -- see 6.1
Print_Header(128, Title, True);                         -- see 6.1
```

15
```
Switch(From => X, To => Next);                          -- see 6.1
Print_Header(128, Header => Title, Center => True);     -- see 6.1
Print_Header(Header => Title, Center => True, Pages => 128); -- see 6.1
```

16 *Examples of function calls:*

17
```
Dot_Product(U, V)    -- see 6.1 and 6.3
Clock                -- see 9.6
F.all                -- presuming F is of an access-to-subprogram type — see 3.10
```

18 *Examples of procedures with default expressions:*

19
```
procedure Activate(Process : in Process_Name;
                   After   : in Process_Name := No_Process;
                   Wait    : in Duration := 0.0;
                   Prior   : in Boolean := False);
```

20
```
procedure Pair(Left, Right : in Person_Name := new Person);   -- see 3.10.1
```

21 *Examples of their calls:*

22
```
Activate(X);
Activate(X, After => Y);
Activate(X, Wait => 60.0, Prior => True);
Activate(X, Y, 10.0, False);
```

```
Pair;
Pair(Left => new Person, Right => new Person);
```

NOTES

7 If a default_expression is used for two or more parameters in a multiple parameter_specification, the default_expression is evaluated once for each omitted parameter. Hence in the above examples, the two calls of Pair are equivalent.

Examples

Examples of overloaded subprograms:

```
procedure Put(X : in Integer);
procedure Put(X : in String);

procedure Set(Tint   : in Color);
procedure Set(Signal : in Light);
```

Examples of their calls:

```
Put(28);
Put("no possible ambiguity here");

Set(Tint   => Red);
Set(Signal => Red);
Set(Color'(Red));

-- Set(Red) would be ambiguous since Red may
-- denote a value either of type Color or of type Light
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have gotten rid of parameters ''of the form of a type conversion'' (see RM83-6.4.1(3)). The new view semantics of type_conversions allows us to use normal type_conversions instead.

We have moved wording about run-time semantics of parameter associations to 6.4.1.

We have moved wording about raising Program_Error for a function that falls off the end to here from RM83-6.5.

6.4.1 Parameter Associations

[{*parameter passing*} A parameter association defines the association between an actual parameter and a formal parameter.]

Language Design Principles

The parameter passing rules for **out** parameters are designed to ensure that the parts of a type that have implicit initial values (see 3.3.1) don't become ''de-initialized'' by being passed as an **out** parameter.

Name Resolution Rules

The *formal_parameter*_selector_name of a parameter_association shall resolve to denote a parameter_specification of the view being called.

{*actual parameter (for a formal parameter)*} The *actual parameter* is either the explicit_actual_parameter given in a parameter_association for a given formal parameter, or the corresponding default_expression if no parameter_association is given for the formal parameter. {*expected type (actual parameter)*} The expected type for an actual parameter is the type of the corresponding formal parameter.

To be honest: The corresponding default_expression is the one of the corresponding formal parameter in the profile of the view denoted by the name or prefix of the call.

If the mode is **in**, the actual is interpreted as an expression; otherwise, the actual is interpreted only as a name, if possible.

Ramification: This formally resolves the ambiguity present in the syntax rule for explicit_actual_parameter. Note that we don't actually require that the actual be a name if the mode is not **in**; we do that below.

Legality Rules

If the mode is **in out** or **out**, the actual shall be a name that denotes a variable.

Discussion: We no longer need ''or a type_conversion whose argument is the name of a variable,'' because a type_conversion is now a name, and a type_conversion of a variable is a variable.

Reason: The requirement that the actual be a (variable) name is not an overload resolution rule, since we don't want the difference between expression and name to be used to resolve overloading. For example:

```
procedure Print(X : in Integer; Y : in Boolean := True);
procedure Print(Z : in out Integer);
. . .
Print(3); -- Ambiguous!
```

The above call to Print is ambiguous even though the call is not compatible with the second Print which requires an actual that is a (variable) name (''3'' is an expression, not a name). This requirement is a legality rule, so overload resolution fails before it is considered, meaning that the call is ambiguous.

The type of the actual parameter associated with an access parameter shall be convertible (see 4.6) to its anonymous access type. {*convertible* [required]}

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [parameter_association]} For the evaluation of a parameter_association:

- The actual parameter is first evaluated.
- For an access parameter, the access_definition is elaborated, which creates the anonymous access type.
- For a parameter [(of any mode)] that is passed by reference (see 6.2), a view conversion of the actual parameter to the nominal subtype of the formal parameter is evaluated, and the formal parameter denotes that conversion. {*implicit subtype conversion* [parameter passing]}

Discussion: We are always allowing sliding, even for **[in] out** by-reference parameters.

- {*assignment operation (during evaluation of a* parameter_association*)*} For an **in** or **in out** parameter that is passed by copy (see 6.2), the formal parameter object is created, and the value of the actual parameter is converted to the nominal subtype of the formal parameter and assigned to the formal. {*implicit subtype conversion* [parameter passing]}

Ramification: The conversion mentioned here is a value conversion.

- For an **out** parameter that is passed by copy, the formal parameter object is created, and:
  - For an access type, the formal parameter is initialized from the value of the actual, without a constraint check;

Reason: This preserves the Language Design Principle that an object of an access type is always initialized with a ''reasonable'' value.

  - For a composite type with discriminants or that has implicit initial values for any subcomponents (see 3.3.1), the behavior is as for an **in out** parameter passed by copy.

Reason: This ensures that no part of an object of such a type can become ''de-initialized'' by being part of an **out** parameter.

Ramification: This includes an array type whose component type is an access type, and a record type with a component that has a default_expression, among other things.

  - For any other type, the formal parameter is uninitialized. If composite, a view conversion of the actual parameter to the nominal subtype of the formal is evaluated [(which might raise Constraint_Error)], and the actual subtype of the formal is that of the view conversion. If elementary, the actual subtype of the formal is given by its nominal subtype.

Ramification: This case covers scalar types, and composite types whose subcomponent's subtypes do not have any implicit initial values. The view conversion for composite types ensures that if the lengths don't match between an actual and a formal array parameter, the Constraint_Error is raised before the call, rather than after.

{*constrained* [object]} {*unconstrained* [object]} A formal parameter of mode **in out** or **out** with discriminants is constrained if either its nominal subtype or the actual parameter is constrained. 16

{*parameter copy back*} {*copy back of parameters*} {*parameter assigning back*} {*assigning back of parameters*} {*assignment operation (during parameter copy back)*} After normal completion and leaving of a subprogram, for each **in out** or **out** parameter that is passed by copy, the value of the formal parameter is converted to the subtype of the variable given as the actual parameter and assigned to it. {*implicit subtype conversion* [parameter passing]} These conversions and assignments occur in an arbitrary order. 17

Ramification: The conversions mentioned above during parameter passing might raise Constraint_Error — (see 4.6). 17.a

Ramification: If any conversion or assignment as part of parameter passing propagates an exception, the exception is raised at the place of the subprogram call; that is, it cannot be handled inside the subprogram_body. 17.b

Proof: Since these checks happen before or after executing the subprogram_body, the execution of the subprogram_body does not dynamically enclose them, so it can't handle the exceptions. 17.c

Discussion: The variable we're talking about is the one denoted by the *variable*_name given as the explicit_actual_parameter. If this *variable*_name is a type_conversion, then the rules in 4.6 for assigning to a view conversion apply. That is, if X is of subtype S1, and the actual is S2(X), the above-mentioned conversion will convert to S2, and the one mentioned in 4.6 will convert to S1. 17.d

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 9X, a program can rely on the fact that passing an object as an **out** parameter does not ''de-initialize'' any parts of the object whose subtypes have implicit initial values. (This generalizes the RM83 rule that required copy-in for parts that were discriminants or of an access type.) 17.e

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have eliminated the subclause on Default Parameters, as it is subsumed by earlier clauses and subclauses. 17.f

6.5 Return Statements

A return_statement is used to complete the execution of the innermost enclosing subprogram_body, entry_body, or accept_statement. 1

Syntax

return_statement ::= **return** [expression]; 2

Name Resolution Rules

{*return expression*} The expression, if any, of a return_statement is called the *return expression*. {*result subtype (of a function)*} The *result subtype* of a function is the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark after the reserved word **return** in the profile of the function. {*expected type* [return expression]} The expected type for a return expression is the result type of the corresponding function. 3

To be honest: The same applies to generic functions. 3.a

Legality Rules

{*apply (to a callable construct by a* return_statement*)*} A return_statement shall be within a callable construct, and it *applies to* the innermost one. A return_statement shall not be within a body that is within the construct to which the return_statement applies. 4

A function body shall contain at least one return_statement that applies to the function body, unless the function contains code_statements. A return_statement shall include a return expression if and only if it applies to a function body. 5

Reason: The requirement that a function body has to have at least one return_statement is a ''helpful'' restriction. There was been some interest in lifting this restriction, or allowing a raise statement to substitute for the return_statement. However, there was enough interest in leaving it as is that we decided not to change it. 5.a

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*execution* [return_statement]} For the execution of a return_statement, the expression (if any) is first evaluated and converted to the result subtype. {*implicit subtype conversion* [function return]}

6.a **Ramification:** The conversion might raise Constraint_Error — (see 4.6).

7 If the result type is class-wide, then the tag of the result is the tag of the value of the expression.

8 If the result type is a specific tagged type:

9 • {*Tag_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Tag_Check)*} If it is limited, then a check is made that the tag of the value of the return expression identifies the result type. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails.

10 • If it is nonlimited, then the tag of the result is that of the result type.

10.a **Ramification:** This is true even if the tag of the return expression is different.

10.b **Reason:** These rules ensure that a function whose result type is a specific tagged type always returns an object whose tag is that of the result type. This is important for dispatching on controlling result, and, if nonlimited, allows the caller to allocate the appropriate amount of space to hold the value being returned (assuming there are no discriminants).

11 {*return-by-reference type*} A type is a *return-by-reference* type if it is a descendant of one of the following:

12 • a tagged limited type;

13 • a task or protected type;

14 • a nonprivate type with the reserved word **limited** in its declaration;

15 • a composite type with a subcomponent of a return-by-reference type;

16 • a private type whose full type is a return-by-reference type.

16.a **Ramification:** The above rules are such that there are no "Ada 83" types other than those containing tasks that are return-by-reference. This helps to minimize upward incompatibilities relating to return-by-reference.

17 {*Accessibility_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Accessibility_Check)*} If the result type is a return-by-reference type, then a check is made that the return expression is one of the following:

18 • a name that denotes an object view whose accessibility level is not deeper than that of the master that elaborated the function body; or

19 • a parenthesized expression or qualified_expression whose operand is one of these kinds of expressions.

20 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Program_Error is raised if this check fails.

20.a **Discussion:** Compare the definition of return-by-reference with that of by-reference.

20.b The return-by-reference types are all limited types except those that are limited only because of a limited private type with a nonlimited untagged full type.

20.c **Reason:** {*generic contract issue* [partial]}

20.d This check can often be performed at compile time. It is defined to be a run-time check to avoid generic contract model problems. In a future version of the standard, we anticipate that function return of a local variable will be illegal for all limited types, eliminating the need for the run-time check except for dereferences of an access parameter.

21 For a function with a return-by-reference result type the result is returned by reference; that is, the function call denotes a constant view of the object associated with the value of the return expression. {*assignment operation (during execution of a* return_statement*)*} For any other function, the result is returned by copy; that is, the converted value is assigned into an anonymous constant created at the point of the return_statement, and the function call denotes that object.

Ramification: The assignment operation does the necessary value adjustment, as described in 7.6, ‘‘User-Defined Assignment and Finalization’’. 7.6.1 describes when the anonymous constant is finalized. 21.a

Finally, a transfer of control is performed which completes the execution of the callable construct to which the return_statement applies, and returns to the caller. 22

Examples

Examples of return statements: 23

```
return;                          -- in a procedure body, entry_body, or accept_statement
return Key_Value(Last_Index);    -- in a function body
```
24

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} In Ada 9X, if the result type of a function has a part that is a task, then an attempt to return a local variable will raise Program_Error. In Ada 83, if a function returns a local variable containing a task, execution is erroneous according to AI-00867. However, there are other situations where functions that return tasks (or that return a variant record only one of whose variants includes a task) are correct in Ada 83 but will raise Program_Error according to the new rules. 24.a

The rule change was made because there will be more types (protected types, limited controlled types) in Ada 9X for which it will be meaningless to return a local variable, and making all of these erroneous is unacceptable. The current rule was felt to be the simplest that kept upward incompatibilities to situations involving returning tasks, which are quite rare. 24.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This clause has been moved here from chapter 5, since it has mainly to do with subprograms. 24.c

A function now creates an anonymous object. This is necessary so that controlled types will work. 24.d

We have clarified that a return_statement applies to a callable construct, not to a callable entity. 24.e

There is no need to mention generics in the rules about where a return_statement can appear and what it applies to; the phrase ‘‘body of a subprogram or generic subprogram’’ is syntactic, and refers exactly to ‘‘subprogram_body’’. 24.f

6.6 Overloading of Operators

{*operator*} {*user-defined operator*} {*operator (user-defined)*} An *operator* is a function whose designator is an operator_symbol. [Operators, like other functions, may be overloaded.] 1

Name Resolution Rules

Each use of a unary or binary operator is equivalent to a function_call with *function*_prefix being the corresponding operator_symbol, and with (respectively) one or two positional actual parameters being the operand(s) of the operator (in order). 2

To be honest: We also use the term operator (in Section 4 and in 6.1) to refer to one of the syntactic categories defined in 4.5, ‘‘Operators and Expression Evaluation’’ whose names end with ‘‘_operator:’’ logical_operator, relational_operator, binary_adding_operator, unary_adding_operator, multiplying_operator, and highest_precedence_operator. 2.a

Legality Rules

The subprogram_specification of a unary or binary operator shall have one or two parameters, respectively. A generic function instantiation whose designator is an operator_symbol is only allowed if the specification of the generic function has the corresponding number of parameters. 3

Default_expressions are not allowed for the parameters of an operator (whether the operator is declared with an explicit subprogram_specification or by a generic_instantiation). 4

An explicit declaration of "/=" shall not have a result type of the predefined type Boolean. 5

Static Semantics

6 A declaration of "=" whose result type is Boolean implicitly declares a declaration of "/=" that gives the complementary result.

NOTES

7 8 The operators "+" and "–" are both unary and binary operators, and hence may be overloaded with both one- and two-parameter functions.

Examples

8 *Examples of user-defined operators:*

9
```
function "+" (Left, Right : Matrix) return Matrix;
function "+" (Left, Right : Vector) return Vector;
```

```
-- assuming that A, B, and C are of the type Vector
-- the following two statements are equivalent:

A := B + C;
A := "+"(B, C);
```

Extensions to Ada 83

9.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Explicit declarations of "=" are now permitted for any combination of parameter and result types.

9.b Explicit declarations of "/=" are now permitted, so long as the result type is not Boolean.

Section 7: Packages

[{*Package*} [*glossary entry*]Packages are program units that allow the specification of groups of logically related entities. Typically, a package contains the declaration of a type (often a private type or private extension) along with the declarations of primitive subprograms of the type, which can be called from outside the package, while their inner workings remain hidden from outside users.{*information hiding: see package*} {*encapsulation: see package*} {*module: see package*} {*class: see also package*}] 1

7.1 Package Specifications and Declarations

[A package is generally provided in two parts: a package_specification and a package_body. Every package has a package_specification, but not all packages have a package_body.] 1

Syntax

package_declaration ::= package_specification; 2

package_specification ::= 3

```
   package defining_program_unit_name is
     {basic_declarative_item}
  [private
     {basic_declarative_item}]
   end [[parent_unit_name.]identifier]
```

If an identifier or parent_unit_name.identifier appears at the end of a package_specification, then this sequence of lexical elements shall repeat the defining_program_unit_name. 4

Legality Rules

{*requires a completion* [package_declaration]} {*requires a completion* [generic_package_declaration]} A package_declaration or generic_package_declaration requires a completion [(a body)] if it contains any declarative_item that requires a completion, but whose completion is not in its package_specification. 5

To be honest: If an implementation supports it, a pragma Import may substitute for the body of a package or generic package. 5.a

Static Semantics

{*visible part* [of a package (other than a generic formal package)]} The first list of declarative_items of a package_specification of a package other than a generic formal package is called the *visible part* of the package. [{*private part* [of a package]} The optional list of declarative_items after the reserved word **private** (of any package_specification) is called the *private part* of the package. If the reserved word **private** does not appear, the package has an implicit empty private part.] 6

Ramification: This definition of visible part does not apply to generic formal packages — 12.7 defines the visible part of a generic formal package. 6.a

The implicit empty private part is important because certain implicit declarations occur there if the package is a child package, and it defines types in its visible part that are derived from, or contain as components, private types declared within the parent package. These implicit declarations are visible in children of the child package. See 10.1.1. 6.b

[An entity declared in the private part of a package is visible only within the declarative region of the package itself (including any child units — see 10.1.1). In contrast, expanded names denoting entities declared in the visible part can be used even outside the package; furthermore, direct visibility of such entities can be achieved by means of use_clauses (see 4.1.3 and 8.4).] 7

Dynamic Semantics

8 {*elaboration* [package_declaration]} The elaboration of a package_declaration consists of the elaboration of its basic_declarative_items in the given order.

NOTES

9 1 The visible part of a package contains all the information that another program unit is able to know about the package.

10 2 If a declaration occurs immediately within the specification of a package, and the declaration has a corresponding completion that is a body, then that body has to occur immediately within the body of the package.

10.a **Proof:** This follows from the fact that the declaration and completion are required to occur immediately within the same declarative region, and the fact that bodies are disallowed (by the Syntax Rules) in package_specifications. This does not apply to instances of generic units, whose bodies can occur in package_specifications.

Examples

11 *Example of a package declaration:*

```
12    package Rational_Numbers is
13       type Rational is
            record
               Numerator   : Integer;
               Denominator : Positive;
            end record;
14       function "="(X,Y : Rational) return Boolean;
15       function "/"  (X,Y : Integer)  return Rational;  -- to construct a rational number
16       function "+"  (X,Y : Rational) return Rational;
         function "-"  (X,Y : Rational) return Rational;
         function "*"  (X,Y : Rational) return Rational;
         function "/"  (X,Y : Rational) return Rational;
    end Rational_Numbers;
```

17 There are also many examples of package declarations in the predefined language environment (see Annex A).

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

17.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} In Ada 83, a library package is allowed to have a body even if it doesn't need one. In Ada 9X, a library package body is either required or forbidden — never optional. The workaround is to add **pragma** Elaborate_Body, or something else requiring a body, to each library package that has a body that isn't otherwise required.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

17.b We have moved the syntax into this clause and the next clause from RM83-7.1, ''Package Structure'', which we have removed.

17.c RM83 was unclear on the rules about when a package requires a body. For example, RM83-7.1(4) and RM83-7.1(8) clearly forgot about the case of an incomplete type declared in a package_declaration but completed in the body. In addition, RM83 forgot to make this rule apply to a generic package. We have corrected these rules. Finally, since we now allow a pragma Import for any explicit declaration, the completion rules need to take this into account as well.

7.2 Package Bodies

1 [In contrast to the entities declared in the visible part of a package, the entities declared in the package_body are visible only within the package_body itself. As a consequence, a package with a package_body can be used for the construction of a group of related subprograms in which the logical operations available to clients are clearly isolated from the internal entities.]

Syntax

package_body ::= 2
package body defining_program_unit_name **is**
declarative_part
[**begin**
handled_sequence_of_statements]
end [[parent_unit_name.]identifier];

If an identifier or parent_unit_name.identifier appears at the end of a package_body, then this sequence of lexical elements shall repeat the defining_program_unit_name. 3

Legality Rules

A package_body shall be the completion of a previous package_declaration or generic_package_declaration. A library package_declaration or library generic_package_declaration shall not have a body unless it requires a body[; **pragma** Elaborate_Body can be used to require a library_unit_declaration to have a body (see 10.2.1) if it would not otherwise require one]. 4

Ramification: The first part of the rule forbids a package_body from standing alone — it has to belong to some previous package_declaration or generic_package_declaration. 4.a

A nonlibrary package_declaration or nonlibrary generic_package_declaration that does not require a completion may have a corresponding body anyway. 4.b

Static Semantics

In any package_body without statements there is an implicit null_statement. For any package_declaration without an explicit completion, there is an implicit package_body containing a single null_statement. For a noninstance, nonlibrary package, this body occurs at the end of the declarative_part of the innermost enclosing program unit or block_statement; if there are several such packages, the order of the implicit package_bodies is unspecified. {*unspecified* [partial]} [(For an instance, the implicit package_body occurs at the place of the instantiation (see 12.3). For a library package, the place is partially determined by the elaboration dependences (see Section 10).)] 5

Discussion: Thus, for example, we can refer to something happening just after the **begin** of a package_body, and we can refer to the handled_sequence_of_statements of a package_body, without worrying about all the optional pieces. The place of the implicit body makes a difference for tasks activated by the package. See also RM83-9.3(5). 5.a

The implicit body would be illegal if explicit in the case of a library package that does not require (and therefore does not allow) a body. This is a bit strange, but not harmful. 5.b

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [nongeneric package_body]} For the elaboration of a nongeneric package_body, its declarative_part is first elaborated, and its handled_sequence_of_statements is then executed. 6

NOTES

3 A variable declared in the body of a package is only visible within this body and, consequently, its value can only be changed within the package_body. In the absence of local tasks, the value of such a variable remains unchanged between calls issued from outside the package to subprograms declared in the visible part. The properties of such a variable are similar to those of a ‘‘static’’ variable of C. 7

4 The elaboration of the body of a subprogram explicitly declared in the visible part of a package is caused by the elaboration of the body of the package. Hence a call of such a subprogram by an outside program unit raises the exception Program_Error if the call takes place before the elaboration of the package_body (see 3.11). 8

Examples

Example of a package body (see 7.1): 9

```
package body Rational_Numbers is                                    10
```

11
```
      procedure Same_Denominator (X,Y : in out Rational) is
      begin
         -- reduces X and Y to the same denominator:
         ...
      end Same_Denominator;
```
12
```
      function "="(X,Y : Rational) return Boolean is
         U : Rational := X;
         V : Rational := Y;
      begin
         Same_Denominator (U,V);
         return U.Numerator = V.Numerator;
      end "=";
```
13
```
      function "/" (X,Y : Integer) return Rational is
      begin
         if Y > 0 then
            return (Numerator => X,  Denominator => Y);
         else
            return (Numerator => -X, Denominator => -Y);
         end if;
      end "/";
```
14
```
      function "+" (X,Y : Rational) return Rational is ...  end "+";
      function "-" (X,Y : Rational) return Rational is ...  end "-";
      function "*" (X,Y : Rational) return Rational is ...  end "*";
      function "/" (X,Y : Rational) return Rational is ...  end "/";
```
15
```
   end Rational_Numbers;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

15.a The syntax rule for package_body now uses the syntactic category handled_sequence_of_statements.

15.b The declarative_part of a package_body is now required; that doesn't make any real difference, since a declarative_part can be empty.

15.c RM83 seems to have forgotten to say that a package_body can't stand alone, without a previous declaration. We state that rule here.

15.d RM83 forgot to restrict the definition of elaboration of package_bodies to nongeneric ones. We have corrected that omission.

15.e The rule about implicit bodies (from RM83-9.3(5)) is moved here, since it is more generally applicable.

7.3 Private Types and Private Extensions

1 [The declaration (in the visible part of a package) of a type as a private type or private extension serves to separate the characteristics that can be used directly by outside program units (that is, the logical properties) from other characteristics whose direct use is confined to the package (the details of the definition of the type itself). See 3.9.1 for an overview of type extensions. {*private types and private extensions*} {*information hiding: see private types and private extensions*} {*opaque type: see private types and private extensions*} {*abstract data type (ADT): see private types and private extensions*} {*ADT (abstract data type): see private types and private extensions*}]

Language Design Principles

1.a A private (untagged) type can be thought of as a record type with the type of its single (hidden) component being the full view.

1.b A private tagged type can be thought of as a private extension of an anonymous parent with no components. The only dispatching operation of the parent is equality (although the Size attribute, and, if nonlimited, assignment are allowed, and those will presumably be implemented in terms of dispatching).

Syntax

private_type_declaration ::= 2
  type defining_identifier [discriminant_part] **is** [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] **private**;

private_extension_declaration ::= 3
  type defining_identifier [discriminant_part] **is**
    [**abstract**] **new** *ancestor*_subtype_indication **with private**;

Legality Rules

{*partial view (of a type)*} {*requires a completion* [declaration of a partial view]} A private_type_declaration or private_extension_declaration declares a *partial view* of the type; such a declaration is allowed only as a declarative_item of the visible part of a package, and it requires a completion, which shall be a full_type_declaration that occurs as a declarative_item of the private part of the package. {*full view (of a type)*} The view of the type declared by the full_type_declaration is called the *full view*. A generic formal private type or a generic formal private extension is also a partial view. 4

To be honest: A private type can also be completed by a pragma Import, if supported by an implementation. 4.a

Reason: We originally used the term ''private view,'' but this was easily confused with the view provided *from* the private part, namely the full view. 4.b

[A type shall be completely defined before it is frozen (see 3.11.1 and 13.14). Thus, neither the declaration of a variable of a partial view of a type, nor the creation by an allocator of an object of the partial view are allowed before the full declaration of the type. Similarly, before the full declaration, the name of the partial view cannot be used in a generic_instantiation or in a representation item.] 5

Proof: This rule is stated officially in 3.11.1, ''Completions of Declarations''. 5.a

[A private type is limited if its declaration includes the reserved word **limited**; a private extension is limited if its ancestor type is limited.] If the partial view is nonlimited, then the full view shall be nonlimited. If a tagged partial view is limited, then the full view shall be limited. [On the other hand, if an untagged partial view is limited, the full view may be limited or nonlimited.] 6

If the partial view is tagged, then the full view shall be tagged. [On the other hand, if the partial view is untagged, then the full view may be tagged or untagged.] In the case where the partial view is untagged and the full view is tagged, no derivatives of the partial view are allowed within the immediate scope of the partial view; [derivatives of the full view are allowed.] 7

Ramification: Note that deriving from a partial view within its immediate scope can only occur in a package that is a child of the one where the partial view is declared. The rule implies that in the visible part of a public child package, it is impossible to derive from an untagged private type declared in the visible part of the parent package in the case where the full view of the parent type turns out to be tagged. We considered a model in which the derived type was implicitly redeclared at the earliest place within its immediate scope where characteristics needed to be added. However, we rejected that model, because (1) it would imply that (for an untagged type) subprograms explicitly declared after the derived type could be inherited, and (2) to make this model work for composite types as well, several implicit redeclarations would be needed, since new characteristics can become visible one by one; that seemed like too much mechanism. 7.a

Discussion: The rule for tagged partial views is redundant for partial views that are private extensions, since all extensions of a given ancestor tagged type are tagged, and limited if the ancestor is limited. We phrase this rule partially redundantly to keep its structure parallel with the other rules. 7.b

To be honest: This rule is checked in a generic unit, rather than using the ''assume the best'' or ''assume the worst'' method. 7.c

Reason: Tagged limited private types have certain capabilities that are incompatible with having assignment for the full view of the type. In particular, tagged limited private types can be extended with access discriminants and components of a limited type, which works only because assignment is not allowed. Consider the following example: 7.d

7.e
```
package P1 is
    type T1 is tagged limited private;
    procedure Foo(X : in T1'Class);
private
    type T1 is tagged null record; -- Illegal!
        -- This should say ''tagged limited null record''.
end P1;
```

7.f
```
package body P1 is
    type A is access T1'Class;
    Global : A;
    procedure Foo(X : in T1'Class) is
    begin
        Global := new T1'Class'(X);
            -- This would be illegal if the full view of
            -- T1 were limited, like it's supposed to be.
    end A;
end P1;
```

7.g
```
with P1;
package P2 is
    type T2(D : access Integer) -- Trouble!
            is new P1.T1 with
        record
            My_Task : Some_Task_Type; -- More trouble!
        end record;
end P2;
```

7.h
```
with P1;
with P2;
procedure Main is
    Local : aliased Integer;
    Y : P2.T2(A => Local'Access);
begin
    P1.Foo(Y);
end Main;
```

7.i If the above example were legal, we would have succeeded in making an access value that points to Main.Local after Main has been left, and we would also have succeeded in doing an assignment of a task object, both of which are supposed to be no-no's.

7.j This rule is not needed for private extensions, because they inherit their limitedness from their ancestor, and there is a separate rule forbidding limited components of the corresponding record extension if the parent is nonlimited.

7.k **Ramification:** A type derived from an untagged private type is untagged, even if the full view of the parent is tagged, and even at places that can see the parent:

7.l
```
package P is
    type Parent is private;
private
    type Parent is tagged
        record
            X: Integer;
        end record;
end P;
```

7.m
```
package Q is
    type T is new Parent;
end Q;
```

7.n
```
with Q; use Q;
package body P is
    ... T'Class ... -- Illegal!
    Object: T;
    ... Object.X ... -- Illegal!
    ... Parent(Object).X ... -- OK.
end P;
```

7.o The declaration of T declares an untagged view. This view is always untagged, so T'Class is illegal, it would be illegal to extend T, and so forth. The component name X is never visible for this view, although the component is still there — one can get one's hands on it via a type_conversion.

{*ancestor subtype (of a* private_extension_declaration*)*} The *ancestor subtype* of a private_extension_declaration is the subtype defined by the *ancestor*_subtype_indication; the ancestor type shall be a specific tagged type. The full view of a private extension shall be derived (directly or indirectly) from the ancestor type. In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), the requirement that the ancestor be specific applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. 8

Reason: This rule allows the full view to be defined through several intermediate derivations, possibly from a series of types produced by generic_instantiations. 8.a

If the declaration of a partial view includes a known_discriminant_part, then the full_type_declaration shall have a fully conforming [(explicit)] known_discriminant_part [(see 6.3.1, ‘‘Conformance Rules’’)]. {*full conformance (required)*} [The ancestor subtype may be unconstrained; the parent subtype of the full view is required to be constrained (see 3.7).] 9

Discussion: If the ancestor subtype has discriminants, then it is usually best to make it unconstrained. 9.a

Ramification: If the partial view has a known_discriminant_part, then the full view has to be a composite, non-array type, since only such types may have known discriminants. Also, the full view cannot inherit the discriminants in this case; the known_discriminant_part has to be explicit. 9.b

That is, the following is illegal: 9.c

```
package P is                                                    9.d
    type T(D : Integer) is private;
private
    type T is new Some_Other_Type; -- Illegal!
end P;
```

even if Some_Other_Type has an integer discriminant called D. 9.e

It is a ramification of this and other rules that in order for a tagged type to privately inherit unconstrained discriminants, the private type declaration has to have an unknown_discriminant_part. 9.f

If a private extension inherits known discriminants from the ancestor subtype, then the full view shall also inherit its discriminants from the ancestor subtype, and the parent subtype of the full view shall be constrained if and only if the ancestor subtype is constrained. 10

Reason: The first part ensures that the full view has the same discriminants as the partial view. The second part ensures that if the partial view is unconstrained, then the full view is also unconstrained; otherwise, a client might constrain the partial view in a way that conflicts with the constraint on the full view. 10.a

[If a partial view has unknown discriminants, then the full_type_declaration may define a definite or an indefinite subtype, with or without discriminants.] 11

If a partial view has neither known nor unknown discriminants, then the full_type_declaration shall define a definite subtype. 12

If the ancestor subtype of a private extension has constrained discriminants, then the parent subtype of the full view shall impose a statically matching constraint on those discriminants. {*statically matching* [required]} 13

Ramification: If the parent type of the full view is not the ancestor type, but is rather some descendant thereof, the constraint on the discriminants of the parent type might come from the declaration of some intermediate type in the derivation chain between the ancestor type and the parent type. 13.a

Reason: This prevents the following: 13.b

```
package P is                                                    13.c
    type T2 is new T1(Discrim => 3) with private;
private
    type T2 is new T1(Discrim => 999) -- Illegal!
        with record ...;
end P;
```

13.d The constraints in this example do not statically match.

13.e If the constraint on the parent subtype of the full view depends on discriminants of the full view, then the ancestor subtype has to be unconstrained:

13.f
```
type One_Discrim(A: Integer) is tagged ...;
...
package P is
    type Two_Discrims(B: Boolean; C: Integer) is new One_Discrim with private;
private
    type Two_Discrims(B: Boolean; C: Integer) is new One_Discrim(A => C) with
        record
            ...
        end record;
end P;
```

13.g The above example would be illegal if the private extension said ''is new One_Discrim(A => C);'', because then the constraints would not statically match. (Constraints that depend on discriminants are not static.)

Static Semantics

14 {*private type* [partial]} A private_type_declaration declares a private type and its first subtype. {*private extension* [partial]} Similarly, a private_extension_declaration declares a private extension and its first subtype.

14.a **Discussion:** {*package-private type*} A *package-private type* is one declared by a private_type_declaration; that is, a private type other than a generic formal private type. {*package-private extension*} Similarly, a *package-private extension* is one declared by a private_extension_declaration. These terms are not used in the RM9X version of this document.

15 A declaration of a partial view and the corresponding full_type_declaration define two views of a single type. The declaration of a partial view together with the visible part define the operations that are available to outside program units; the declaration of the full view together with the private part define other operations whose direct use is possible only within the declarative region of the package itself. {*characteristics*} Moreover, within the scope of the declaration of the full view, the *characteristics* of the type are determined by the full view; in particular, within its scope, the full view determines the classes that include the type, which components, entries, and protected subprograms are visible, what attributes and other predefined operations are allowed, and whether the first subtype is static. See 7.3.1.

16 A private extension inherits components (including discriminants unless there is a new discriminant_part specified) and user-defined primitive subprograms from its ancestor type, in the same way that a record extension inherits components and user-defined primitive subprograms from its parent type (see 3.4).

16.a **To be honest:** If an operation of the parent type is abstract, then the abstractness of the inherited operation is different for nonabstract record extensions than for nonabstract private extensions (see 3.9.3).

Dynamic Semantics

17 {*elaboration* [private_type_declaration]} The elaboration of a private_type_declaration creates a partial view of a type. {*elaboration* [private_extension_declaration]} The elaboration of a private_extension_declaration elaborates the *ancestor*_subtype_indication, and creates a partial view of a type.

NOTES

18 5 The partial view of a type as declared by a private_type_declaration is defined to be a composite view (in 3.2). The full view of the type might or might not be composite. A private extension is also composite, as is its full view.

19 6 Declaring a private type with an unknown_discriminant_part is a way of preventing clients from creating uninitialized objects of the type; they are then forced to initialize each object by calling some operation declared in the visible part of the package. If such a type is also limited, then no objects of the type can be declared outside the scope of the full_type_declaration, restricting all object creation to the package defining the type. This allows complete control over all storage allocation for the type. Objects of such a type can still be passed as parameters, however.

Discussion: {*generic contract/private type contract analogy*} Packages with private types are analogous to generic packages with formal private types, as follows: The declaration of a package-private type is like the declaration of a formal private type. The visible part of the package is like the generic formal part; these both specify a contract (that is, a set of operations and other things available for the private type). The private part of the package is like an instantiation of the generic; they both give a full_type_declaration that specifies implementation details of the private type. The clients of the package are like the body of the generic; usage of the private type in these places is restricted to the operations defined by the contract. 19.a

In other words, being inside the package is like being outside the generic, and being outside the package is like being inside the generic; a generic is like an ''inside-out'' package. 19.b

This analogy also works for private extensions in the same inside-out way. 19.c

Many of the legality rules are defined with this analogy in mind. See, for example, the rules relating to operations of [formal] derived types. 19.d

The completion rules for a private type are intentionally quite similar to the matching rules for a generic formal private type. 19.e

This analogy breaks down in one respect: a generic actual subtype is a subtype, whereas the full view for a private type is always a new type. (We considered allowing the completion of a private_type_declaration to be a subtype_declaration, but the semantics just won't work.) This difference is behind the fact that a generic actual type can be class-wide, whereas the completion of a private type always declares a specific type. 19.f

7 The ancestor type specified in a private_extension_declaration and the parent type specified in the corresponding declaration of a record extension given in the private part need not be the same — the parent type of the full view can be any descendant of the ancestor type. In this case, for a primitive subprogram that is inherited from the ancestor type and not overridden, the formal parameter names and default expressions (if any) come from the corresponding primitive subprogram of the specified ancestor type, while the body comes from the corresponding primitive subprogram of the parent type of the full view. See 3.9.2. 20

Examples

Examples of private type declarations: 21

```
type Key is private;                                    22
type File_Name is limited private;
```

Example of a private extension declaration: 23

```
type List is new Ada.Finalization.Controlled with private;   24
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax for a private_type_declaration is augmented to allow the reserved word **tagged**. 24.a

In Ada 83, a private type without discriminants cannot be completed with a type with discriminants. Ada 9X allows the full view to have discriminants, so long as they have defaults (that is, so long as the first subtype is definite). This change is made for uniformity with generics, and because the rule as stated is simpler and easier to remember than the Ada 83 rule. In the original version of Ada 83, the same restriction applied to generic formal private types. However, the restriction was removed by the ARG for generics. In order to maintain the ''generic contract/private type contract analogy'' discussed above, we have to apply the same rule to package-private types. Note that a private untagged type without discriminants can be completed with a tagged type with discriminants only if the full view is constrained, because discriminants of tagged types cannot have defaults. 24.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

RM83-7.4.1(4), ''Within the specification of the package that declares a private type and before the end of the corresponding full type declaration, a restriction applies....'', is subsumed (and corrected) by the rule that a type shall be completely defined before it is frozen, and the rule that the parent type of a derived type declaration shall be completely defined, unless the derived type is a private extension. 24.c

7.3.1 Private Operations

[For a type declared in the visible part of a package or generic package, certain operations on the type do not become visible until later in the package — either in the private part or the body. {*private operations*} Such *private operations* are available only inside the declarative region of the package or generic package.] 1

2 The predefined operators that exist for a given type are determined by the classes to which the type belongs. For example, an integer type has a predefined "+" operator. In most cases, the predefined operators of a type are declared immediately after the definition of the type; the exceptions are explained below. Inherited subprograms are also implicitly declared immediately after the definition of the type, except as stated below.

3 For a composite type, the characteristics (see 7.3) of the type are determined in part by the characteristics of its component types. At the place where the composite type is declared, the only characteristics of component types used are those characteristics visible at that place. If later within the immediate scope of the composite type additional characteristics become visible for a component type, then any corresponding characteristics become visible for the composite type. Any additional predefined operators are implicitly declared at that place.

4 The corresponding rule applies to a type defined by a derived_type_definition, if there is a place within its immediate scope where additional characteristics of its parent type become visible.

5 {*become nonlimited*} {*nonlimited type (becoming nonlimited)*} {*limited type (becoming nonlimited)*} [For example, an array type whose component type is limited private becomes nonlimited if the full view of the component type is nonlimited and visible at some later place within the immediate scope of the array type. In such a case, the predefined "=" operator is implicitly declared at that place, and assignment is allowed after that place.]

6 Inherited primitive subprograms follow a different rule. For a derived_type_definition, each inherited primitive subprogram is implicitly declared at the earliest place, if any, within the immediate scope of the type_declaration, but after the type_declaration, where the corresponding declaration from the parent is visible. If there is no such place, then the inherited subprogram is not declared at all. [An inherited subprogram that is not declared at all cannot be named in a call and cannot be overridden, but for a tagged type, it is possible to dispatch to it.]

7 For a private_extension_declaration, each inherited subprogram is declared immediately after the private_extension_declaration if the corresponding declaration from the ancestor is visible at that place. Otherwise, the inherited subprogram is not declared for the private extension, [though it might be for the full type].

7.a **Reason:** There is no need for the ‘‘earliest place within the immediate scope’’ business here, because a private_extension_declaration will be completed with a full_type_declaration, so we can hang the necessary private implicit declarations on the full_type_declaration.

7.b **Discussion:** The above rules matter only when the component type (or parent type) is declared in the visible part of a package, and the composite type (or derived type) is declared within the declarative region of that package (possibly in a nested package or a child package).

7.c Consider:

7.d
```
package Parent is
    type Root is tagged null record;
    procedure Op1(X : Root);
```

7.e
```
    type My_Int is range 1..10;
private
    procedure Op2(X : Root);
```

7.f
```
    type Another_Int is new My_Int;
    procedure Int_Op(X : My_Int);
end Parent;
```

```
with Parent; use Parent;                                                    7.g
package Unrelated is
    type T2 is new Root with null record;
    procedure Op2(X : T2);
end Unrelated;

package Parent.Child is                                                     7.h
    type T3 is new Root with null record;
    -- Op1(T3) implicitly declared here.

    package Nested is                                                       7.i
        type T4 is new Root with null record;
    private
        ...
    end Nested;
private
    -- Op2(T3) implicitly declared here.
    ...
end Parent.Child;

with Unrelated; use Unrelated;                                              7.j
package body Parent.Child is
    package body Nested is
        -- Op2(T4) implicitly declared here.
    end Nested;

    type T5 is new T2 with null record;                                     7.k
end Parent.Child;
```

Another_Int does not inherit Int_Op, because Int_Op does not ‘‘exist’’ at the place where Another_Int is declared. 7.l

Type T2 inherits Op1 and Op2 from Root. However, the inherited Op2 is never declared, because Parent.Op2 is never visible within the immediate scope of T2. T2 explicitly declares its own Op2, but this is unrelated to the inherited one — it does not override the inherited one, and occupies a different slot in the type descriptor. 7.m

T3 inherits both Op1 and Op2. Op1 is implicitly declared immediately after the type declaration, whereas Op2 is declared at the beginning of the private part. Note that if Child were a private child of Parent, then Op1 and Op2 would both be implicitly declared immediately after the type declaration. 7.n

T4 is similar to T3, except that the earliest place within T4’s immediate scope where Root’s Op2 is visible is in the body of Nested. 7.o

If T3 or T4 were to declare a type-conformant Op2, this would override the one inherited from Root. This is different from the situation with T2. 7.p

T5 inherits Op1 and two Op2’s from T2. Op1 is implicitly declared immediately after the declaration of T5, as is the Op2 that came from Unrelated.Op2. However, the Op2 that originally came from Parent.Op2 is never implicitly declared for T5, since T2’s version of that Op2 is never visible (anywhere — it never got declared either). 7.q

For all of these rules, implicit private parts and bodies are assumed as needed. 7.r

It is possible for characteristics of a type to be revealed in more than one place: 7.s

```
package P is                                                                7.t
    type Comp1 is private;
private
    type Comp1 is new Boolean;
end P;
```

7.u
```
package P.Q is
    package R is
        type Comp2 is limited private;
        type A is array(Integer range <>) of Comp2;
    private
        type Comp2 is new Comp1;
        -- A becomes nonlimited here.
        -- "="(A, A) return Boolean is implicitly declared here.
        ...
    end R;
private
    -- Now we find out what Comp1 really is, which reveals
    -- more information about Comp2, but we're not within
    -- the immediate scope of Comp2, so we don't do anything
    -- about it yet.
end P.Q;
```

7.v
```
package body P.Q is
    package body R is
        -- Things like "xor"(A,A) return A are implicitly
        -- declared here.
    end R;
end P.Q;
```

8 [The Class attribute is defined for tagged subtypes in 3.9. In addition,] for every subtype S of an untagged private type whose full view is tagged, the following attribute is defined:

9 S'Class — Denotes the class-wide subtype corresponding to the full view of S. This attribute is allowed only from the beginning of the private part in which the full view is declared, until the declaration of the full view. [After the full view, the Class attribute of the full view can be used.]

NOTES

10 8 Because a partial view and a full view are two different views of one and the same type, outside of the defining package the characteristics of the type are those defined by the visible part. Within these outside program units the type is just a private type or private extension, and any language rule that applies only to another class of types does not apply. The fact that the full declaration might implement a private type with a type of a particular class (for example, as an array type) is relevant only within the declarative region of the package itself including any child units.

11 The consequences of this actual implementation are, however, valid everywhere. For example: any default initialization of components takes place; the attribute Size provides the size of the full view; finalization is still done for controlled components of the full view; task dependence rules still apply to components that are task objects.

12 9 Partial views provide assignment (unless the view is limited), membership tests, selected components for the selection of discriminants and inherited components, qualification, and explicit conversion.

13 10 For a subtype S of a partial view, S'Size is defined (see 13.3). For an object A of a partial view, the attributes A'Size and A'Address are defined (see 13.3). The Position, First_Bit, and Last_Bit attributes are also defined for discriminants and inherited components.

Examples

14 *Example of a type with private operations:*

15
```
package Key_Manager is
   type Key is private;
   Null_Key : constant Key; -- a deferred constant declaration (see 7.4)
   procedure Get_Key(K : out Key);
   function "<" (X, Y : Key) return Boolean;
private
   type Key is new Natural;
   Null_Key : constant Key := Key'First;
end Key_Manager;
```

```
package body Key_Manager is                                          16
   Last_Key : Key := Null_Key;
   procedure Get_Key(K : out Key) is
   begin
      Last_Key := Last_Key + 1;
      K := Last_Key;
   end Get_Key;
   function "<" (X, Y : Key) return Boolean is                       17
   begin
      return Natural(X) < Natural(Y);
   end "<";
end Key_Manager;
```

NOTES

11 *Notes on the example:* Outside of the package Key_Manager, the operations available for objects of type Key include assignment, the comparison for equality or inequality, the procedure Get_Key and the operator "<"; they do not include other relational operators such as ">=", or arithmetic operators. 18

The explicitly declared operator "<" hides the predefined operator "<" implicitly declared by the full_type_declaration. Within the body of the function, an explicit conversion of X and Y to the subtype Natural is necessary to invoke the "<" operator of the parent type. Alternatively, the result of the function could be written as not (X >= Y), since the operator ">=" is not redefined. 19

The value of the variable Last_Key, declared in the package body, remains unchanged between calls of the procedure Get_Key. (See also the NOTES of 7.2.) 20

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The phrase in RM83-7.4.2(7), ‘‘...after the full type declaration’’, doesn’t work in the presence of child units, so we define that rule in terms of visibility. 20.a

The definition of the Constrained attribute for private types has been moved to ‘‘Obsolescent Features.’’ (The Constrained attribute of an object has not been moved there.) 20.b

7.4 Deferred Constants

[Deferred constant declarations may be used to declare constants in the visible part of a package, but with the value of the constant given in the private part. They may also be used to declare constants imported from other languages (see Annex B).] 1

Legality Rules

[{*deferred constant declaration*} A *deferred constant declaration* is an object_declaration with the reserved word **constant** but no initialization expression.] 2

Proof: This is stated officially in Section 3. 2.a

{*deferred constant*} The constant declared by a deferred constant declaration is called a *deferred constant*. {*requires a completion* [deferred constant declaration]} A deferred constant declaration requires a completion, which shall be a full constant declaration (called the *full declaration* of the deferred constant), or a pragma Import (see Annex B). {*full declaration*}

A deferred constant declaration that is completed by a full constant declaration shall occur immediately within the visible part of a package_specification. For this case, the following additional rules apply to the corresponding full declaration: 3

- The full declaration shall occur immediately within the private part of the same package; 4
- The deferred and full constants shall have the same type; 5

Ramification: This implies that both the deferred declaration and the full declaration have to have a subtype_indication rather than an array_type_definition, because each array_type_definition would define a new type. 5.a

- If the subtype defined by the subtype_indication in the deferred declaration is constrained, then the subtype defined by the subtype_indication in the full declaration shall match it statically. [On the other hand, if the subtype of the deferred constant is unconstrained, then the full declaration is still allowed to impose a constraint. The constant itself will be constrained, like all constants;]

- If the deferred constant declaration includes the reserved word **aliased**, then the full declaration shall also.

Ramification: On the other hand, the full constant can be aliased even if the deferred constant is not.

[A deferred constant declaration that is completed by a pragma Import need not appear in the visible part of a package_specification, and has no full constant declaration.]

The completion of a deferred constant declaration shall occur before the constant is frozen (see 7.4).

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [deferred constant declaration]} The elaboration of a deferred constant declaration elaborates the subtype_indication or (only allowed in the case of an imported constant) the array_type_definition.

NOTES

12 The full constant declaration for a deferred constant that is of a given private type or private extension is not allowed before the corresponding full_type_declaration. This is a consequence of the freezing rules for types (see 13.14).

Ramification: Multiple or single declarations are allowed for the deferred and the full declarations, provided that the equivalent single declarations would be allowed.

Deferred constant declarations are useful for declaring constants of private views, and types with components of private views. They are also useful for declaring access-to-constant objects that designate variables declared in the private part of a package.

Examples

Examples of deferred constant declarations:

```
Null_Key : constant Key;        -- see 7.3.1
CPU_Identifier : constant String(1..8);
pragma Import(Assembler, CPU_Identifier, Link_Name => "CPU_ID");
                                -- see B.1
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 83, a deferred constant is required to be of a private type declared in the same visible part. This restriction is removed for Ada 9X; deferred constants can be of any type.

In Ada 83, a deferred constant declaration was not permitted to include a constraint, nor the reserved word **aliased**.

In Ada 83, the rules required conformance of type marks; here we require static matching of subtypes if the deferred constant is constrained.

A deferred constant declaration can be completed with a pragma Import. Such a deferred constant declaration need not be within a package_specification.

The rules for too-early uses of deferred constants are modified in Ada 9X to allow more cases, and catch all errors at compile time. This change is necessary in order to allow deferred constants of a tagged type without violating the principle that for a dispatching call, there is always an implementation to dispatch to. It has the beneficial side-effect of catching some Ada-83-erroneous programs at compile time. The new rule fits in well with the new freezing-point rules. Furthermore, we are trying to convert undefined-value problems into bounded errors, and we were having trouble for the case of deferred constants. Furthermore, uninitialized deferred constants cause trouble for the shared variable / tasking rules, since they are really variable, even though they purport to be constant. In Ada 9X, they cannot be touched until they become constant.

Note that we do not consider this change to be an upward incompatibility, because it merely changes an erroneous execution in Ada 83 into a compile-time error.

The Ada 83 semantics are unclear in the case where the full view turns out to be an access type. It is a goal of the language design to prevent uninitialized access objects. One wonders if the implementation is required to initialize the deferred constant to null, and then initialize it (again!) to its real value. In Ada 9X, the problem goes away. 14.g

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Since deferred constants can now be of a nonprivate type, we have made this a stand-alone clause, rather than a subclause of 7.3, ''Private Types and Private Extensions''. 14.h

Deferred constant declarations used to have their own syntax, but now they are simply a special case of object_declarations. 14.i

7.5 Limited Types

[{*Limited type*} [*glossary entry*]A limited type is (a view of) a type for which the assignment operation is not allowed. A nonlimited type is a (view of a) type for which the assignment operation is allowed.] 1

Discussion: The concept of the *value* of a limited type is difficult to define, since the abstract value of a limited type often extends beyond its physical representation. In some sense, values of a limited type cannot be divorced from their object. The value *is* the object. 1.a

In Ada 83, in the two places where limited types were defined by the language, namely tasks and files, an implicit level of indirection was implied by the semantics to avoid the separation of the value from an associated object. In Ada 9X, most limited types are passed by reference, and even return-ed by reference. 1.b

To be honest: For a limited partial view whose full view is nonlimited, assignment is possible on parameter passing and function return. To prevent any copying whatsoever, one should make both the partial *and* full views limited. 1.c

Legality Rules

If a tagged record type has any limited components, then the reserved word **limited** shall appear in its record_type_definition. 2

Reason: This prevents tagged limited types from becoming nonlimited. Otherwise, the following could happen: 2.a

```
package P is                                                    2.b
    type T is limited private;
    type R is tagged
        record -- Illegal!
               -- This should say ''limited record''.
            X : T;
        end record;
private
    type T is new Integer; -- R becomes nonlimited here.
end P;
package Q is                                                    2.c
    type R2(Access_Discrim : access ...) is new R with
        record
            Y : Some_Task_Type;
        end record;
end Q;
```

If the above were legal, then assignment would be defined for R'Class in the body of P, which is bad news, given the access discriminant and the task. 2.d

Static Semantics

{*limited type*} A type is *limited* if it is a descendant of one of the following: 3

- a type with the reserved word **limited** in its definition; 4

  Ramification: Note that there is always a ''definition,'' conceptually, even if there is no syntactic category called ''..._definition''. 4.a

- a task or protected type; 5

- a composite type with a limited component. 6

7 {*nonlimited type*} Otherwise, the type is nonlimited.

8 [There are no predefined equality operators for a limited type.]

NOTES

9 13 The following are consequences of the rules for limited types:

10 • An initialization expression is not allowed in an object_declaration if the type of the object is limited.

11 • A default expression is not allowed in a component_declaration if the type of the record component is limited.

12 • An initialized allocator is not allowed if the designated type is limited.

13 • A generic formal parameter of mode **in** must not be of a limited type.

14 14 Aggregates are not available for a limited composite type. Concatenation is not available for a limited array type.

15 15 The rules do not exclude a default_expression for a formal parameter of a limited type; they do not exclude a deferred constant of a limited type if the full declaration of the constant is of a nonlimited type.

16 16 {*become nonlimited*} {*nonlimited type (becoming nonlimited)*} {*limited type (becoming nonlimited)*} As illustrated in 7.3.1, an untagged limited type can become nonlimited under certain circumstances.

16.a **Ramification:** Limited private types do not become nonlimited; instead, their full view can be nonlimited, which has a similar effect.

16.b It is important to remember that a single nonprivate type can be both limited and nonlimited in different parts of its scope. In other words, ‘‘limited’’ is a property that depends on where you are in the scope of the type. We don’t call this a ‘‘view property’’ because there is no particular declaration to declare the nonlimited view.

16.c Tagged types never become nonlimited.

Examples

17 *Example of a package with a limited type:*

18
```
package IO_Package is
   type File_Name is limited private;
19 procedure Open (F : in out File_Name);
   procedure Close(F : in out File_Name);
   procedure Read (F : in File_Name; Item : out Integer);
   procedure Write(F : in File_Name; Item : in  Integer);
private
   type File_Name is
      limited record
         Internal_Name : Integer := 0;
      end record;
end IO_Package;
```

20
```
package body IO_Package is
   Limit : constant := 200;
   type File_Descriptor is record  ...  end record;
   Directory : array (1 .. Limit) of File_Descriptor;
   ...
   procedure Open (F : in out File_Name) is  ...  end;
   procedure Close(F : in out File_Name) is  ...  end;
   procedure Read (F : in File_Name; Item : out Integer) is ... end;
   procedure Write(F : in File_Name; Item : in  Integer) is ... end;
begin
   ...
end IO_Package;
```

NOTES

21 17 *Notes on the example:* In the example above, an outside subprogram making use of IO_Package may obtain a file name by calling Open and later use it in calls to Read and Write. Thus, outside the package, a file name obtained from Open acts as a kind of password; its internal properties (such as containing a numeric value) are not known and no other operations (such as addition or comparison of internal names) can be performed on a file name. Most importantly, clients of the package cannot make copies of objects of type File_Name.

This example is characteristic of any case where complete control over the operations of a type is desired. Such packages serve a dual purpose. They prevent a user from making use of the internal structure of the type. They also implement the notion of an encapsulated data type where the only operations on the type are those given in the package specification. 22

The fact that the full view of File_Name is explicitly declared **limited** means that parameter passing and function return will always be by reference (see 6.2 and 6.5). 23

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The restrictions in RM83-7.4.4(4), which disallowed **out** parameters of limited types in certain cases, are removed. 23.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Since limitedness and privateness are orthogonal in Ada 9X (and to some extent in Ada 83), this is now its own clause rather than being a subclause of 7.3, ''Private Types and Private Extensions''. 23.b

7.6 User-Defined Assignment and Finalization

[{*user-defined assignment*} {*assignment (user-defined)*} Three kinds of actions are fundamental to the manipulation of objects: initialization, finalization, and assignment. Every object is initialized, either explicitly or by default, after being created (for example, by an object_declaration or allocator). Every object is finalized before being destroyed (for example, by leaving a subprogram_body containing an object_declaration, or by a call to an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation). An assignment operation is used as part of assignment_statements, explicit initialization, parameter passing, and other operations. {*constructor: see initialization*} {*constructor: see Initialize*} {*destructor: see finalization*} 1

Default definitions for these three fundamental operations are provided by the language, but {*controlled type*} a *controlled* type gives the user additional control over parts of these operations. 2

Glossary entry: {*Controlled type*} A controlled type supports user-defined assignment and finalization. Objects are always finalized before being destroyed. 2.a

{*Initialize*} {*Finalize*} {*Adjust*} In particular, the user can define, for a controlled type, an Initialize procedure which is invoked immediately after the normal default initialization of a controlled object, a Finalize procedure which is invoked immediately before finalization of any of the components of a controlled object, and an Adjust procedure which is invoked as the last step of an assignment to a (nonlimited) controlled object.]

Ramification: Here's the basic idea of initialization, value adjustment, and finalization, whether or not user defined: When an object is created, if it is explicitly assigned an initial value, the assignment copies and adjusts the initial value. Otherwise, Initialize is applied to it (except in the case of an aggregate as a whole). An assignment_statement finalizes the target before copying in and adjusting the new value. Whenever an object goes away, it is finalized. Calls on Initialize and Adjust happen bottom-up; that is, components first, followed by the containing object. Calls on Finalize happens top-down; that is, first the containing object, and then its components. These ordering rules ensure that any components will be in a well-defined state when Initialize, Adjust, or Finalize is applied to the containing object. 2.b

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 3

4

```
package Ada.Finalization is
    pragma Preelaborate(Finalization);

    type Controlled is abstract tagged private;                                5

    procedure Initialize(Object : in out Controlled);                          6
    procedure Adjust    (Object : in out Controlled);
    procedure Finalize  (Object : in out Controlled);

    type Limited_Controlled is abstract tagged limited private;                7
```

8

```
    procedure Initialize(Object : in out Limited_Controlled);
    procedure Finalize  (Object : in out Limited_Controlled);
private
    ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Finalization;
```

9 {*controlled type*} A controlled type is a descendant of Controlled or Limited_Controlled.

9.a **Discussion:** We say ''nonlimited controlled types'' when we want to talk about descendants of Controlled only.

The (default) implementations of Initialize, Adjust, and Finalize have no effect. The predefined "=" operator of type Controlled always returns True, [since this operator is incorporated into the implementation of the predefined equality operator of types derived from Controlled, as explained in 4.5.2.] The type Limited_Controlled is like Controlled, except that it is limited and it lacks the primitive subprogram Adjust.

9.b **Reason:** We considered making Adjust and Finalize abstract. However, a reasonable coding convention is e.g. for Finalize to always call the parent's Finalize after doing whatever work is needed for the extension part. (Unlike CLOS, we have no way to do that automatically in Ada 9X.) For this to work, Finalize cannot be abstract. In a generic unit, for a generic formal abstract derived type whose ancestor is Controlled or Limited_Controlled, calling the ancestor's Finalize would be illegal if it were abstract, even though the actual type might have a concrete version.

9.c Types Controlled and Limited_Controlled are abstract, even though they have no abstract primitive subprograms. It is not clear that they need to be abstract, but there seems to be no harm in it, and it might make an implementation's life easier to know that there are no objects of these types — in case the implementation wishes to make them ''magic'' in some way.

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*elaboration* [object_declaration]} During the elaboration of an object_declaration, for every controlled subcomponent of the object that is not assigned an initial value (as defined in 3.3.1), Initialize is called on that subcomponent. Similarly, if the object as a whole is controlled and is not assigned an initial value, Initialize is called on the object. The same applies to the evaluation of an allocator, as explained in 4.8.

11 For an extension_aggregate whose ancestor_part is a subtype_mark, Initialize is called on all controlled subcomponents of the ancestor part; if the type of the ancestor part is itself controlled, the Initialize procedure of the ancestor type is called, unless that Initialize procedure is abstract.

11.a **Discussion:** Example:

11.b
```
type T1 is new Controlled with
    record
        ... -- some components might have defaults
    end record;
```

11.c
```
type T2 is new Controlled with
    record
        X : T1; -- no default
        Y : T1 := ...; -- default
    end record;
```

11.d
```
A : T2;
B : T2 := ...;
```

11.e As part of the elaboration of A's declaration, A.Y is assigned a value; therefore Initialize is not applied to A.Y. Instead, Adjust is applied to A.Y as part of the assignment operation. Initialize is applied to A.X and to A, since those objects are not assigned an initial value. The assignment to A.Y is not considered an assignment to A.

11.f For the elaboration of B's declaration, Initialize is not called at all. Instead the assignment adjusts B's value; that is, it applies Adjust to B.X, B.Y, and B.

12 Initialize and other initialization operations are done in an arbitrary order, except as follows. Initialize is applied to an object after initialization of its subcomponents, if any [(including both implicit initialization

and Initialize calls)]. If an object has a component with an access discriminant constrained by a per-object expression, Initialize is applied to this component after any components that do not have such discriminants. For an object with several components with such a discriminant, Initialize is applied to them in order of their component_declarations. For an allocator, any task activations follow all calls on Initialize.

Reason: The fact that Initialize is done for subcomponents first allows Initialize for a composite object to refer to its subcomponents knowing they have been properly initialized. 12.a

The fact that Initialize is done for components with access discriminants after other components allows the Initialize operation for a component with a self-referential access discriminant to assume that other components of the enclosing object have already been properly initialized. For multiple such components, it allows some predictability. 12.b

{*assignment operation*} When a target object with any controlled parts is assigned a value, [either when created or in a subsequent assignment_statement,] the *assignment operation* proceeds as follows: 13

- The value of the target becomes the assigned value. 14
- {*adjusting the value of an object*} {*adjustment*} The value of the target is *adjusted.* 15

Ramification: If any parts of the object are controlled, abort is deferred during the assignment operation. 15.a

{*adjusting the value of an object*} {*adjustment*} To adjust the value of a [(nonlimited)] composite object, the values of the components of the object are first adjusted in an arbitrary order, and then, if the object is controlled, Adjust is called. Adjusting the value of an elementary object has no effect[, nor does adjusting the value of a composite object with no controlled parts.] 16

Ramification: Adjustment is never performed for values of a by-reference limited type, since these types do not support copying. 16.a

Reason: The verbiage in the Initialize rule about access discriminants constrained by per-object expressions is not necessary here, since such types are limited, and therefore are never adjusted. 16.b

{*execution* [assignment_statement]} For an assignment_statement, [after the name and expression have been evaluated, and any conversion (including constraint checking) has been done,] an anonymous object is created, and the value is assigned into it; [that is, the assignment operation is applied]. [(Assignment includes value adjustment.)] The target of the assignment_statement is then finalized. The value of the anonymous object is then assigned into the target of the assignment_statement. Finally, the anonymous object is finalized. [As explained below, the implementation may eliminate the intermediate anonymous object, so this description subsumes the one given in 5.2, ‘‘Assignment Statements’’.] 17

Reason: An alternative design for user-defined assignment might involve an Assign operation instead of Adjust: 17.a

```
procedure Assign(Target : in out Controlled; Source : in out Controlled);
```
17.b

Or perhaps even a syntax like this: 17.c

```
procedure ":="(Target : in out Controlled; Source : in out Controlled);
```
17.d

Assign (or ":=") would have the responsibility of doing the copy, as well as whatever else is necessary. This would have the advantage that the Assign operation knows about both the target and the source at the same time — it would be possible to do things like reuse storage belonging to the target, for example, which Adjust cannot do. However, this sort of design would not work in the case of unconstrained discriminated variables, because there is no way to change the discriminants individually. For example: 17.e

```
type Mutable(D : Integer := 0) is
    record
        X : Array_Of_Controlled_Things(1..D);
        case D is
            when 17 => Y : Controlled_Thing;
            when others => null;
        end D;
    end record;
```
17.f

17.g An assignment to an unconstrained variable of type Mutable can cause some of the components of X, and the component Y, to appear and/or disappear. There is no way to write the Assign operation to handle this sort of case.

17.h Forbidding such cases is not an option — it would cause generic contract model violations.

Implementation Permissions

18 An implementation is allowed to relax the above rules [(for nonlimited controlled types)] in the following ways:

18.a **Proof:** The phrase ''for nonlimited controlled types'' follows from the fact that all of the following permissions apply to cases involving assignment. It is important because the programmer can count on a stricter semantics for limited controlled types.

19 • For an assignment_statement that assigns to an object the value of that same object, the implementation need not do anything.

19.a **Ramification:** In other words, even if an object is controlled and a combination of Finalize and Adjust on the object might have a net side effect, they need not be performed.

20 • For an assignment_statement for a noncontrolled type, the implementation may finalize and assign each component of the variable separately (rather than finalizing the entire variable and assigning the entire new value) unless a discriminant of the variable is changed by the assignment.

20.a **Reason:** For example, in a slice assignment, an anonymous object is not necessary if the slice is copied component-by-component in the right direction, since array types are not controlled (although their components may be). Note that the direction, and even the fact that it's a slice assignment, can in general be determined only at run time.

21 • For an aggregate or function call whose value is assigned into a target object, the implementation need not create a separate anonymous object if it can safely create the value of the aggregate or function call directly in the target object. Similarly, for an assignment_statement, the implementation need not create an anonymous object if the value being assigned is the result of evaluating a name denoting an object (the source object) whose storage cannot overlap with the target. If the source object might overlap with the target object, then the implementation can avoid the need for an intermediary anonymous object by exercising one of the above permissions and perform the assignment one component at a time (for an overlapping array assignment), or not at all (for an assignment where the target and the source of the assignment are the same object). Even if an anonymous object is created, the implementation may move its value to the target object as part of the assignment without re-adjusting so long as the anonymous object has no aliased subcomponents.

21.a **Ramification:** In the aggregate case, only one value adjustment is necessary, and there is no anonymous object to be finalized.

21.b In the assignment_statement case as well, no finalization of the anonymous object is needed. On the other hand, if the target has aliased subcomponents, then an adjustment takes place directly on the target object as the last step of the assignment, since some of the subcomponents may be self-referential or otherwise position-dependent.

Extensions to Ada 83

21.c {*extensions to Ada 83*} Controlled types and user-defined finalization are new to Ada 9X. (Ada 83 had finalization semantics only for masters of tasks.)

7.6.1 Completion and Finalization

1 [This subclause defines *completion* and *leaving* of the execution of constructs and entities. A *master* is the execution of a construct that includes finalization of local objects after it is complete (and after waiting for any local tasks — see 9.3), but before leaving. Other constructs and entities are left immediately upon completion. {*cleanup: see finalization*} {*destructor: see finalization*}]

Dynamic Semantics

{*completion and leaving (completed and left)*} {*completion (run-time concept)*} The execution of a construct or entity is *complete* when the end of that execution has been reached, or when a transfer of control (see 5.1) causes it to be abandoned. {*normal completion*} {*completion (normal)*} {*abnormal completion*} {*completion (abnormal)*} Completion due to reaching the end of execution, or due to the transfer of control of an exit_, return_, goto_, or requeue_statement or of the selection of a terminate_alternative is *normal completion*. Completion is *abnormal* otherwise [— when control is transferred out of a construct due to abort or the raising of an exception]. 2

Discussion: Don't confuse the run-time concept of completion with the compile-time concept of completion defined in 3.11.1. 2.a

{*leaving*} {*left*} After execution of a construct or entity is complete, it is *left*, meaning that execution continues with the next action, as defined for the execution that is taking place. {*master*} Leaving an execution happens immediately after its completion, except in the case of a *master*: the execution of a task_body, a block_statement, a subprogram_body, an entry_body, or an accept_statement. A master is finalized after it is complete, and before it is left. 3

Reason: Note that although an accept_statement has no declarative_part, it can call functions and evaluate aggregates, possibly causing anonymous controlled objects to be created, and we don't want those objects to escape outside the rendezvous. 3.a

{*finalization (of a master)*} For the *finalization* of a master, dependent tasks are first awaited, as explained in 9.3. Then each object whose accessibility level is the same as that of the master is finalized if the object was successfully initialized and still exists. [These actions are performed whether the master is left by reaching the last statement or via a transfer of control.] 4

Ramification: As explained in 3.10.2, the set of objects with the same accessibility level as that of the master includes objects declared immediately within the master, objects declared in nested packages, objects created by allocators (if the ultimate ancestor access type is declared in one of those places) and subcomponents of all of these things. If an object was already finalized by Unchecked_Deallocation, then it is not finalized again when the master is left. 4.a

Note that any object whose accessibility level is deeper than that of the master would no longer exist; those objects would have been finalized by some inner master. Thus, after leaving a master, the only objects yet to be finalized are those whose accessibility level is less deep than that of the master. 4.b

To be honest: Subcomponents of objects due to be finalized are not finalized by the finalization of the master; they are finalized by the finalization of the containing object. 4.c

Reason: We need to finalize subcomponents of objects even if the containing object is not going to get finalized because it was not fully initialized. But if the containing object is finalized, we don't want to require repeated finalization of the subcomponents, as might normally be implied by the recursion in finalization of a master and the recursion in finalization of an object. 4.d

When a transfer of control causes completion of an execution, each included master is finalized in order, from innermost outward.

To be honest: Formally, completion and leaving refer to executions of constructs or entities. However, the standard sometimes (informally) refers to the constructs or entities whose executions are being completed. Thus, for example, ''the subprogram_call or task is complete'' really means ''*the execution of* the subprogram_call or task is complete.'' 4.e

{*finalization (of an object)* [distributed]} For the *finalization* of an object: 5

- If the object is of an elementary type, finalization has no effect; 6
- If the object is of a controlled type, the Finalize procedure is called; 7
- If the object is of a protected type, the actions defined in 9.4 are performed; 8
- If the object is of a composite type, then after performing the above actions, if any, every component of the object is finalized in an arbitrary order, except as follows: if the object has a component with an access discriminant constrained by a per-object expression, this com- 9

ponent is finalized before any components that do not have such discriminants; for an object with several components with such a discriminant, they are finalized in the reverse of the order of their component_declarations.

9.a **Reason:** This allows the finalization of a component with an access discriminant to refer to other components of the enclosing object prior to their being finalized.

10 {*execution* [instance of Unchecked_Deallocation]} Immediately before an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation reclaims the storage of an object, the object is finalized. [If an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation is never applied to an object created by an allocator, the object will still exist when the corresponding master completes, and it will be finalized then.]

11 The order in which the finalization of a master performs finalization of objects is as follows: Objects created by declarations in the master are finalized in the reverse order of their creation. For objects that were created by allocators for an access type whose ultimate ancestor is declared in the master, this rule is applied as though each such object that still exists had been created in an arbitrary order at the first freezing point (see 13.14) of the ultimate ancestor type.

11.a **Reason:** Note that we talk about the type of the allocator here. There may be access values of a (general) access type pointing at objects created by allocators for some other type; these are not finalized at this point.

11.b The freezing point of the ultimate ancestor access type is chosen because before that point, pool elements cannot be created, and after that point, access values designating (parts of) the pool elements can be created. This is also the point after which the pool object cannot have been declared. We don't want to finalize the pool elements until after anything finalizing objects that contain access values designating them. Nor do we want to finalize pool elements after finalizing the pool object itself.

11.c **Ramification:** Finalization of allocated objects is done according to the (ultimate ancestor) allocator type, not according to the storage pool in which they are allocated. Pool finalization might reclaim storage (see 13.11, ''Storage Management''), but has nothing (directly) to do with finalization of the pool elements.

11.d Note that finalization is done only for objects that still exist; if an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation has already gotten rid of a given pool element, that pool element will not be finalized when the master is left.

11.e Note that a deferred constant declaration does not create the constant; the full constant declaration creates it. Therefore, the order of finalization depends on where the full constant declaration occurs, not the deferred constant declaration.

11.f An imported object is not created by its declaration. It is neither initialized nor finalized.

11.g **Implementation Note:** An implementation has to ensure that the storage for an object is not reclaimed when references to the object are still possible (unless, of course, the user explicitly requests reclamation via an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation). This implies, in general, that objects cannot be deallocated one by one as they are finalized; a subsequent finalization might reference an object that has been finalized, and that object had better be in its (well-defined) finalized state.

12 {*execution* [assignment_statement]} The target of an assignment statement is finalized before copying in the new value, as explained in 7.6.

13 The anonymous objects created by function calls and by aggregates are finalized no later than the end of the innermost enclosing declarative_item or statement; if that is a compound_statement, they are finalized before starting the execution of any statement within the compound_statement.

13.a **To be honest:** This is not to be construed as permission to call Finalize asynchronously with respect to normal user code. For example,

```
declare                                                          13.b
    X : Some_Controlled_Type := F(G(...));
    -- The anonymous objects created for F and G are finalized
    -- no later than this point.
    Y : ...
begin
    ...
end;
```

The anonymous object for G should not be finalized at some random point in the middle of the body of F, because F might manipulate the same data structures as the Finalize operation, resulting in erroneous access to shared variables. 13.c

Reason: It might be quite inconvenient for the implementation to defer finalization of the anonymous object for G until after copying the value of F into X, especially if the size of the result is not known at the call site. 13.d

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} It is a bounded error for a call on Finalize or Adjust to propagate an exception. The possible consequences depend on what action invoked the Finalize or Adjust operation: 14

Ramification: It is not a bounded error for Initialize to propagate an exception. If Initialize propagates an exception, then no further calls on Initialize are performed, and those components that have already been initialized (either explicitly or by default) are finalized in the usual way. 14.a

- {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For a Finalize invoked as part of an assignment_statement, Program_Error is raised at that point. 15
- {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For an Adjust invoked as part of an assignment operation, any other adjustments due to be performed are performed, and then Program_Error is raised. 16
- {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For a Finalize invoked as part of a call on an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation, any other finalizations due to be performed are performed, and then Program_Error is raised. 17
- {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For a Finalize invoked by the transfer of control of an exit_, return_, goto_, or requeue_statement, Program_Error is raised no earlier than after the finalization of the master being finalized when the exception occurred, and no later than the point where normal execution would have continued. Any other finalizations due to be performed up to that point are performed before raising Program_Error. 18

Ramification: For example, upon leaving a block_statement due to a goto_statement, the Program_Error would be raised at the point of the target statement denoted by the label, or else in some more dynamically nested place, but not so nested as to allow an exception_handler that has visibility upon the finalized object to handle it. For example, 18.a

```
procedure Main is                                                18.b
begin
    <<The_Label>>
    Outer_Block_Statement : declare
        X : Some_Controlled_Type;
    begin
        Inner_Block_Statement : declare
            Y : Some_Controlled_Type;
            Z : Some_Controlled_Type;
        begin
            goto The_Label;
        exception
            when Program_Error => ... -- Handler number 1.
        end;
    exception
        when Program_Error => ... -- Handler number 2.
    end;
exception
    when Program_Error => ... -- Handler number 3.
end Main;
```

18.c The goto_statement will first cause Finalize(Y) to be called. Suppose that Finalize(Y) propagates an exception. Program_Error will be raised after leaving Inner_Block_Statement, but before leaving Main. Thus, handler number 1 cannot handle this Program_Error; it will be handled either by handler number 2 or handler number 3. If it is handled by handler number 2, then Finalize(Z) will be done before executing the handler. If it is handled by handler number 3, then Finalize(Z) and Finalize(X) will both be done before executing the handler.

19 • For a Finalize invoked by a transfer of control that is due to raising an exception, any other finalizations due to be performed for the same master are performed; Program_Error is raised immediately after leaving the master.

19.a **Ramification:** If, in the above example, the goto_statement were replaced by a raise_statement, then the Program_Error would be handled by handler number 2, and Finalize(Z) would be done before executing the handler.

19.b **Reason:** We considered treating this case in the same way as the others, but that would render certain exception_handlers useless. For example, suppose the only exception_handler is one for **others** in the main subprogram. If some deeply nested call raises an exception, causing some Finalize operation to be called, which then raises an exception, then normal execution ''would have continued'' at the beginning of the exception_handler. Raising Program_Error at that point would cause that handler's code to be skipped. One would need two nested exception_handlers to be sure of catching such cases!

19.c On the other hand, the exception_handler for a given master should not be allowed to handle exceptions raised during finalization of that master.

20 • For a Finalize invoked by a transfer of control due to an abort or selection of a terminate alternative, the exception is ignored; any other finalizations due to be performed are performed.

20.a **Ramification:** This case includes an asynchronous transfer of control.

20.b **To be honest:** {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} This violates the general principle that it is always possible for a bounded error to raise Program_Error (see 1.1.5, ''Classification of Errors'').

NOTES

21 18 The rules of Section 10 imply that immediately prior to partition termination, Finalize operations are applied to library-level controlled objects (including those created by allocators of library-level access types, except those already finalized). This occurs after waiting for library-level tasks to terminate.

21.a **Discussion:** We considered defining a pragma that would apply to a controlled type that would suppress Finalize operations for library-level objects of the type upon partition termination. This would be useful for types whose finalization actions consist of simply reclaiming global heap storage, when this is already provided automatically by the environment upon program termination.

22 19 A constant is only constant between its initialization and finalization. Both initialization and finalization are allowed to change the value of a constant.

23 20 Abort is deferred during certain operations related to controlled types, as explained in 9.8. Those rules prevent an abort from causing a controlled object to be left in an ill-defined state.

24 21 The Finalize procedure is called upon finalization of a controlled object, even if Finalize was called earlier, either explicitly or as part of an assignment; hence, if a controlled type is visibly controlled (implying that its Finalize primitive is directly callable), or is nonlimited (implying that assignment is allowed), its Finalize procedure should be designed to have no ill effect if it is applied a second time to the same object.

24.a **Discussion:** Or equivalently, a Finalize procedure should be ''idempotent''; applying it twice to the same object should be equivalent to applying it once.

24.b **Reason:** A user-written Finalize procedure should be idempotent since it can be called explicitly by a client (at least if the type is "visibly" controlled). Also, Finalize is used implicitly as part of the assignment_statement if the type is nonlimited, and an abort is permitted to disrupt an assignment_statement between finalizing the left-hand side and assigning the new value to it (an abort is not permitted to disrupt an assignment operation between copying in the new value and adjusting it).

24.c **Discussion:** Either Initialize or Adjust, but not both, is applied to (almost) every controlled object when it is created: Initialize is done when no initial value is assigned to the object, whereas Adjust is done as part of assigning the initial value. The one exception is the anonymous object created by an aggregate; Initialize is not applied to the aggregate as a whole, nor is the value of the aggregate adjusted.

{*assignment operation (list of uses)*} All of the following use the assignment operation, and thus perform value adjustment: 24.d

- the assignment_statement (see 5.2); 24.e
- explicit initialization of a stand-alone object (see 3.3.1) or of a pool element (see 4.8); 24.f
- default initialization of a component of a stand-alone object or pool element (in this case, the value of each component is assigned, and therefore adjusted, but the value of the object as a whole is not adjusted); 24.g
- function return, when the result type is not a return-by-reference type (see 6.5); (adjustment of the result happens before finalization of the function; values of return-by-reference types are not adjusted); 24.h
- predefined operators (although the only one that matters is concatenation; see 4.5.3); 24.i
- generic formal objects of mode **in** (see 12.4); these are defined in terms of constant_declarations; and 24.j
- aggregates (see 4.3) (in this case, the value of each component, and the parent part, for an extension_aggregate, is assigned, and therefore adjusted, but the value of the aggregate as a whole is not adjusted; neither is Initialize called); 24.k

The following also use the assignment operation, but adjustment never does anything interesting in these cases: 24.l

- By-copy parameter passing uses the assignment operation (see 6.4.1), but controlled objects are always passed by reference, so the assignment operation never does anything interesting in this case. If we were to allow by-copy parameter passing for controlled objects, we would need to make sure that the actual is finalized before doing the copy back for [**in**] **out** parameters. The finalization of the parameter itself needs to happen after the copy back (if any), similar to the finalization of an anonymous function return object or aggregate object. 24.m
- **For** loops use the assignment operation (see 5.5), but since the type of the loop parameter is never controlled, nothing interesting happens there, either. 24.n

Because Controlled and Limited_Controlled are library-level tagged types, all controlled types will be library-level types, because of the accessibility rules (see 3.10.2 and 3.9.1). This ensures that the Finalize operations may be applied without providing any ‘‘display’’ or ‘‘static-link.’’ This simplifies finalization as a result of garbage collection, abort, and asynchronous transfer of control. 24.o

Finalization of the parts of a protected object are not done as protected actions. It is possible (in pathological cases) to create tasks during finalization that access these parts in parallel with the finalization itself. This is an erroneous use of shared variables. 24.p

Implementation Note: One implementation technique for finalization is to chain the controlled objects together on a per-task list. When leaving a master, the list can be walked up to a marked place. The links needed to implement the list can be declared (privately) in types Controlled and Limited_Controlled, so they will be inherited by all controlled types. 24.q

Another implementation technique, which we refer to as the ‘‘PC-map’’ approach essentially implies inserting exception handlers at various places, and finalizing objects based on where the exception was raised. 24.r

{*PC-map approach to finalization*} {*program-counter-map approach to finalization*} The PC-map approach is for the compiler/linker to create a map of code addresses; when an exception is raised, or abort occurs, the map can be consulted to see where the task was executing, and what finalization needs to be performed. This approach was given in the Ada 83 Rationale as a possible implementation strategy for exception handling — the map is consulted to determine which exception handler applies. 24.s

If the PC-map approach is used, the implementation must take care in the case of arrays. The generated code will generally contain a loop to initialize an array. If an exception is raised part way through the array, the components that have been initialized must be finalized, and the others must not be finalized. 24.t

It is our intention that both of these implementation methods should be possible. 24.u

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Finalization depends on the concepts of completion and leaving, and on the concept of a master. Therefore, we have moved the definitions of these concepts here, from where they used to be in Section 9. These concepts also needed to be generalized somewhat. Task waiting is closely related to user-defined finalization; the rules here refer to the task-waiting rules of Section 9. 24.v

Section 8: Visibility Rules

[The rules defining the scope of declarations and the rules defining which identifiers, character_literals, and operator_symbols are visible at (or from) various places in the text of the program are described in this section. The formulation of these rules uses the notion of a declarative region. 1

As explained in Section 3, a declaration declares a view of an entity and associates a defining name with that view. The view comprises an identification of the viewed entity, and possibly additional properties. A usage name denotes a declaration. It also denotes the view declared by that declaration, and denotes the entity of that view. Thus, two different usage names might denote two different views of the same entity; in this case they denote the same entity.] 2

To be honest: In some cases, a usage name that denotes a declaration does not denote the view declared by that declaration, nor the entity of that view, but instead denotes a view of the current instance of the entity, and denotes the current instance of the entity. This sometimes happens when the usage name occurs inside the declarative region of the declaration. 2.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We no longer define the term ''basic operation;'' thus we no longer have to worry about the visibility of them. Since they were essentially always visible in Ada 83, this change has no effect. The reason for this change is that the definition in Ada 83 was confusing, and not quite correct, and we found it difficult to fix. For example, one wonders why an if_statement was not a basic operation of type Boolean. For another example, one wonders what it meant for a basic operation to be ''inherent in'' something. Finally, this fixes the problem addressed by AI-00027/07. 2.b

8.1 Declarative Region

Static Semantics

{*declarative region (of a construct)*} For each of the following constructs, there is a portion of the program text called its *declarative region*, [within which nested declarations can occur]: 1

- any declaration, other than that of an enumeration type, that is not a completion [of a previous declaration]; 2
- a block_statement; 3
- a loop_statement; 4
- an accept_statement; 5
- an exception_handler. 6

The declarative region includes the text of the construct together with additional text determined [(recursively)], as follows: 7

- If a declaration is included, so is its completion, if any. 8
- If the declaration of a library unit [(including Standard — see 10.1.1)] is included, so are the declarations of any child units [(and their completions, by the previous rule)]. The child declarations occur after the declaration. 9
- If a body_stub is included, so is the corresponding subunit. 10
- If a type_declaration is included, then so is a corresponding record_representation_clause, if any. 11

  Reason: This is so that the component_declarations can be directly visible in the record_representation_clause. 11.a

The declarative region of a declaration is also called the *declarative region* of any view or entity declared by the declaration. 12

12.a **Reason:** The constructs that have declarative regions are the constructs that can have declarations nested inside them. Nested declarations are declared in that declarative region. The one exception is for enumeration literals; although they are nested inside an enumeration type declaration, they behave as if they were declared at the same level as the type.

12.b **To be honest:** A declarative region does not include parent_unit_names.

12.c **Ramification:** A declarative region does not include context_clauses.

13 {*occur immediately within*} {*immediately within*} {*within (immediately)*} {*immediately enclosing*} {*enclosing (immediately)*} A declaration occurs *immediately within* a declarative region if this region is the innermost declarative region that encloses the declaration (the *immediately enclosing* declarative region), not counting the declarative region (if any) associated with the declaration itself.

13.a **Discussion:** Don't confuse the declarative region of a declaration with the declarative region in which it immediately occurs.

14 [{*local to*} A declaration is *local* to a declarative region if the declaration occurs immediately within the declarative region.]

14.a **Ramification:** That is, "occurs immediately within" and "local to" are synonyms (when referring to declarations).

[An entity is *local* to a declarative region if the entity is declared by a declaration that is local to the declarative region.]

14.b **Ramification:** Thus, ''local to'' applies to both declarations and entities, whereas ''occurs immediately within'' only applies to declarations. We use this term only informally; for cases where precision is required, we use the term "occurs immediately within", since it is less likely to cause confusion.

15 {*global to*} A declaration is *global* to a declarative region if the declaration occurs immediately within another declarative region that encloses the declarative region. An entity is *global* to a declarative region if the entity is declared by a declaration that is global to the declarative region.

NOTES

16 1 The children of a parent library unit are inside the parent's declarative region, even though they do not occur inside the parent's declaration or body. This implies that one can use (for example) "P.Q" to refer to a child of P whose defining name is Q, and that after "**use** P;" Q can refer (directly) to that child.

17 2 As explained above and in 10.1.1, ''Compilation Units - Library Units'', all library units are descendants of Standard, and so are contained in the declarative region of Standard. They are *not* inside the declaration or body of Standard, but they *are* inside its declarative region.

18 3 For a declarative region that comes in multiple parts, the text of the declarative region does not contain any text that might appear between the parts. Thus, when a portion of a declarative region is said to extend from one place to another in the declarative region, the portion does not contain any text that might appear between the parts of the declarative region.

18.a **Discussion:** It is necessary for the things that have a declarative region to include anything that contains declarations (except for enumeration type declarations). This includes any declaration that has a profile (that is, subprogram_declaration, subprogram_body, entry_declaration, subprogram_renaming_declaration, formal_subprogram_declaration, access-to-subprogram type_declaration), anything that has a discriminant_part (that is, various kinds of type_declaration), anything that has a component_list (that is, record type_declaration and record extension type_declaration), and finally the declarations of task and protected units and packages.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

18.b It was necessary to extend Ada 83's definition of declarative region to take the following Ada 9X features into account:

18.c • Child library units.

18.d • Derived types/type extensions — we need a declarative region for inherited components and also for new components.

18.e • All the kinds of types that allow discriminants.

18.f • Protected units.

18.g • Entries that have bodies instead of accept statements.

- The choice_parameter_specification of an exception_handler. 18.h
- The formal parameters of access-to-subprogram types. 18.i
- Renamings-as-body. 18.j

Discriminated and access-to-subprogram type declarations need a declarative region. Enumeration type declarations cannot have one, because you don't have to say "Color.Red" to refer to the literal Red of Color. For other type declarations, it doesn't really matter whether or not there is an associated declarative region, so for simplicity, we give one to all types except enumeration types. 18.k

We now say that an accept_statement has its own declarative region, rather than being part of the declarative region of the entry_declaration, so that declarative regions are properly nested regions of text, so that it makes sense to talk about "inner declarative regions," and "...extends to the end of a declarative region." Inside an accept_statement, the name of one of the parameters denotes the parameter_specification of the accept_statement, not that of the entry_declaration. If the accept_statement is nested within a block_statement, these parameter_specifications can hide declarations of the block_statement. The semantics of such cases was unclear in RM83. 18.l

To be honest: Unfortunately, we have the same problem for the entry name itself — it should denote the accept_statement, but accept_statements are not declarations. They should be, and they should hide the entry from all visibility within themselves. 18.m

Note that we can't generalize this to entry_bodies, or other bodies, because the declarative_part of a body is not supposed to contain (explicit) homographs of things in the declaration. It works for accept_statements only because an accept_statement does not have a declarative_part. 18.n

To avoid confusion, we use the term ''local to'' only informally in Ada 9X. Even RM83 used the term incorrectly (see, for example, RM83-12.3(13)). 18.o

In Ada 83, (root) library units were inside Standard; it was not clear whether the declaration or body of Standard was meant. In Ada 9X, they are children of Standard, and so occur immediately within Standard's declarative region, but not within either the declaration or the body. (See RM83-8.6(2) and RM83-10.1.1(5).) 18.p

8.2 Scope of Declarations

[For each declaration, the language rules define a certain portion of the program text called the *scope* of the declaration. The scope of a declaration is also called the scope of any view or entity declared by the declaration. Within the scope of an entity, and only there, there are places where it is legal to refer to the declared entity. These places are defined by the rules of visibility and overloading.] 1

Static Semantics

{*immediate scope (of a declaration)*} The *immediate scope* of a declaration is a portion of the declarative region immediately enclosing the declaration. The immediate scope starts at the beginning of the declaration, except in the case of an overloadable declaration, in which case the immediate scope starts just after the place where the profile of the callable entity is determined (which is at the end of the _specification for the callable entity, or at the end of the generic_instantiation if an instance). 2

Reason: The reason for making overloadable declarations with profiles special is to simplify compilation: until the compiler has determined the profile, it doesn't know which other declarations are homographs of this one, so it doesn't know which ones this one should hide. Without this rule, two passes over the _specification or generic_instantiation would be required to resolve names that denote things with the same name as this one. 2.a

The immediate scope extends to the end of the declarative region, with the following exceptions:

- The immediate scope of a library_item includes only its semantic dependents. 3

Reason: Section 10 defines only a partial ordering of library_items. Therefore, it is a good idea to restrict the immediate scope (and the scope, defined below) to semantic dependents. 3.a

Consider also examples like this: 3.b

```
package P is end P;                                    3.c
package P.Q is                                         3.d
    I : Integer := 0;
end P.Q;
```

3.e
```
with P;
package R is
    package X renames P;
    X.Q.I := 17; -- Illegal!
end R;
```

3.f The scope of P.Q does not contain R. Hence, neither P.Q nor X.Q are visible within R. However, the name R.X.Q would be visible in some other library unit where both R and P.Q are visible (assuming R were made legal by removing the offending declaration).

4 • The immediate scope of a declaration in the private part of a library unit does not include the visible part of any public descendant of that library unit. {*descendant* [relationship with scope]}

4.a **Ramification:** In other words, a declaration in the private part can be visible within the visible part, private part and body of a private child unit. On the other hand, such a declaration can be visible within only the private part and body of a public child unit.

4.b **Reason:** The purpose of this rule is to prevent children from giving private information to clients.

4.c **Ramification:** For a public child subprogram, this means that the parent's private part is not visible in the formal_parts of the declaration and of the body. This is true even for subprogram_bodies that are not completions. For a public child generic unit, it means that the parent's private part is not visible in the generic_formal_part, as well as in the first list of basic_declarative_items (for a generic package), or the formal_part(s) (for a generic subprogram).

5 {*visible part*} [The *visible part* of (a view of) an entity is a portion of the text of its declaration containing declarations that are visible from outside.] {*private part* [distributed]} The *private part* of (a view of) an entity that has a visible part contains all declarations within the declaration of (the view of) the entity, except those in the visible part; [these are not visible from outside. Visible and private parts are defined only for these kinds of entities: callable entities, other program units, and composite types.]

6 • {*visible part* [of a view of a callable entity]} The visible part of a view of a callable entity is its profile.

7 • {*visible part* [of a view of a composite type]} The visible part of a composite type other than a task or protected type consists of the declarations of all components declared [(explicitly or implicitly)] within the type_declaration.

8 • {*visible part* [of a generic unit]} The visible part of a generic unit includes the generic_formal_part. For a generic package, it also includes the first list of basic_declarative_items of the package_specification. For a generic subprogram, it also includes the profile.

8.a **Reason:** Although there is no way to reference anything but the formals from outside a generic unit, they are still in the visible part in the sense that the corresponding declarations in an instance can be referenced (at least in some cases). In other words, these declarations have an effect on the outside world. The visible part of a generic unit needs to be defined this way in order to properly support the rule that makes a parent's private part invisible within a public child's visible part.

8.b **Ramification:** The visible part of an instance of a generic unit is as defined for packages and subprograms; it is not defined in terms of the visible part of a generic unit.

9 • [The visible part of a package, task unit, or protected unit consists of declarations in the program unit's declaration other than those following the reserved word **private**, if any; see 7.1 and 12.7 for packages, 9.1 for task units, and 9.4 for protected units.]

10 {*scope (of a declaration)*} The scope of a declaration always contains the immediate scope of the declaration. In addition, for a given declaration that occurs immediately within the visible part of an outer declaration, or is a public child of an outer declaration, the scope of the given declaration extends to the end of the scope of the outer declaration, except that the scope of a library_item includes only its semantic dependents.

10.a **Ramification:** Note the recursion. If a declaration appears in the visible part of a library unit, its scope extends to the end of the scope of the library unit, but since that only includes dependents of the declaration of the library unit, the

scope of the inner declaration also only includes those dependents. If X renames library package P, which has a child Q, a with_clause mentioning P.Q is necessary to be able to refer to X.Q, even if P.Q is visible at the place where X is declared.

{*immediate scope (of (a view of) an entity)*} The immediate scope of a declaration is also the immediate scope of the entity or view declared by the declaration. {*scope (of (a view of) an entity)*} Similarly, the scope of a declaration is also the scope of the entity or view declared by the declaration. 11

Ramification: The rule for immediate scope implies the following: 11.a

- If the declaration is that of a library unit, then the immediate scope includes the declarative region of the declaration itself, but not other places, unless they are within the scope of a with_clause that mentions the library unit. 11.b

  It is necessary to attach the semantics of with_clauses to [immediate] scopes (as opposed to visibility), in order for various rules to work properly. A library unit should hide a homographic implicit declaration that appears in its parent, but only within the scope of a with_clause that mentions the library unit. Otherwise, we would violate the "legality determinable via semantic dependences" rule of Section 10, ‘‘Program Structure and Compilation Issues’’. The declaration of a library unit should be allowed to be a homograph of an explicit declaration in its parent’s body, so long as that body does not mention the library unit in a with_clause. 11.c

  This means that one cannot denote the declaration of the library unit, but one might still be able to denote the library unit via another view. 11.d

  A with_clause does not make the declaration of a library unit visible; the lack of a with_clause prevents it from being visible. Even if a library unit is mentioned in a with_clause, its declaration can still be hidden. 11.e

- The completion of the declaration of a library unit (assuming that’s also a declaration) is not visible, neither directly nor by selection, outside that completion. 11.f

- The immediate scope of a declaration immediately within the body of a library unit does not include any child of that library unit. 11.g

  This is needed to prevent children from looking inside their parent’s body. The children are in the declarative region of the parent, and they might be after the parent’s body. Therefore, the scope of a declaration that occurs immediately within the body might include some children. 11.h

NOTES

4 There are notations for denoting visible declarations that are not directly visible. For example, parameter_specifications are in the visible part of a subprogram_declaration so that they can be used in named-notation calls appearing outside the called subprogram. For another example, declarations of the visible part of a package can be denoted by expanded names appearing outside the package, and can be made directly visible by a use_clause. 12

Ramification: There are some obscure involving generics cases in which there is no such notation. See Section 12. 12.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The fact that the immediate scope of an overloadable declaration does not include its profile is new to Ada 9X. It replaces RM83-8.3(16), which said that within a subprogram specification and within the formal part of an entry declaration or accept statement, all declarations with the same designator as the subprogram or entry were hidden from all visibility. The RM83-8.3(16) rule seemed to be overkill, and created both implementation difficulties and unnecessary semantic complexity. 12.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We no longer need to talk about the scope of notations, identifiers, character_literals, and operator_symbols. 12.c

The notion of "visible part" has been extended in Ada 9X. The syntax of task and protected units now allows private parts, thus requiring us to be able to talk about the visible part as well. It was necessary to extend the concept to subprograms and to generic units, in order for the visibility rules related to child library units to work properly. It was necessary to define the concept separately for generic formal packages, since their visible part is slightly different from that of a normal package. Extending the concept to composite types made the definition of scope slightly simpler. We define visible part for some things elsewhere, since it makes a big difference to the user for those things. For composite types and subprograms, however, the concept is used only in arcane visibility rules, so we localize it to this clause. 12.d

In Ada 83, the semantics of with_clauses was described in terms of visibility. It is now described in terms of [immediate] scope. 12.e

12.f We have clarified that the following is illegal (where Q and R are library units):

12.g
```
package Q is
    I : Integer := 0;
end Q;
```

12.h
```
package R is
    package X renames Standard;
    X.Q.I := 17; -- Illegal!
end R;
```

12.i even though Q is declared in the declarative region of Standard, because R does not mention Q in a with_clause.

8.3 Visibility

1 [{*visibility rules*} The *visibility rules*, given below, determine which declarations are visible and directly visible at each place within a program. The visibility rules apply to both explicit and implicit declarations.]

Static Semantics

2 {*visibility (direct)*} {*directly visible*} {*directly visible*} A declaration is defined to be *directly visible* at places where a name consisting of only an identifier or operator_symbol is sufficient to denote the declaration; that is, no selected_component notation or special context (such as preceding => in a named association) is necessary to denote the declaration. {*visible*} A declaration is defined to be *visible* wherever it is directly visible, as well as at other places where some name (such as a selected_component) can denote the declaration.

3 The syntactic category direct_name is used to indicate contexts where direct visibility is required. The syntactic category selector_name is used to indicate contexts where visibility, but not direct visibility, is required.

4 {*visibility (immediate)*} {*visibility (use clause)*} There are two kinds of direct visibility: *immediate visibility* and *use-visibility*. {*immediately visible*} A declaration is immediately visible at a place if it is directly visible because the place is within its immediate scope. {*use-visible*} A declaration is use-visible if it is directly visible because of a use_clause (see 8.4). Both conditions can apply.

5 {*hiding*} A declaration can be *hidden*, either from direct visibility, or from all visibility, within certain parts of its scope. {*hidden from all visibility*} Where *hidden from all visibility*, it is not visible at all (neither using a direct_name nor a selector_name). {*hidden from direct visibility*} Where *hidden from direct visibility*, only direct visibility is lost; visibility using a selector_name is still possible.

6 [{*overloaded*} Two or more declarations are *overloaded* if they all have the same defining name and there is a place where they are all directly visible.]

6.a **Ramification:** Note that a name can have more than one possible interpretation even if it denotes a non-overloadable entity. For example, if there are two functions F that return records, both containing a component called C, then the name F.C has two possible interpretations, even though component declarations are not overloadable.

7 {*overloadable*} The declarations of callable entities [(including enumeration literals)] are *overloadable*[, meaning that overloading is allowed for them].

7.a **Ramification:** A generic_declaration is not overloadable within its own generic_formal_part. This follows from the rules about when a name denotes a current instance. See AI-00286. This implies that within a generic_formal_part, outer declarations with the same defining name are hidden from direct visibility. It also implies that if a generic formal parameter has the same defining name as the generic itself, the formal parameter hides the generic from direct visibility.

{*homograph*} Two declarations are *homographs* if they have the same defining name, and, if both are overloadable, their profiles are type conformant. {*type conformance* [partial]} [An inner declaration hides any outer homograph from direct visibility.] 8

[Two homographs are not generally allowed immediately within the same declarative region unless one *overrides* the other (see Legality Rules below).] {*override*} A declaration overrides another homograph that occurs immediately within the same declarative region in the following cases: 9

- An explicit declaration overrides an implicit declaration of a primitive subprogram, [regardless of which declaration occurs first]; 10

  Ramification: And regardless of whether the explicit declaration is overloadable or not. 10.a

  The ''regardless of which declaration occurs first'' is there because the explicit declaration could be a primitive subprogram of a partial view, and then the full view might inherit a homograph. We are saying that the explicit one wins (within its scope), even though the implicit one comes later. 10.b

  If the overriding declaration is also a subprogram, then it is a primitive subprogram. 10.c

  As explained in 7.3.1, ''Private Operations'', some inherited primitive subprograms are never declared. Such subprograms cannot be overridden, although they can be reached by dispatching calls in the case of a tagged type. 10.d

- The implicit declaration of an inherited operator overrides that of a predefined operator; 11

  Ramification: In a previous version of Ada 9X, we tried to avoid the notion of predefined operators, and say that they were inherited from some magical root type. However, this seemed like too much mechanism. Therefore, a type can have a predefined "+" as well as an inherited "+". The above rule says the inherited one wins. 11.a

  The ''regardless of which declaration occurs first'' applies here as well, in the case where derived_type_declaration in the visible part of a public library unit derives from a private type declared in the parent unit, and the full view of the parent type has additional predefined operators, as explained in 7.3.1, ''Private Operations''. Those predefined operators can be overridden by inherited subprograms implicitly declared earlier. 11.b

- An implicit declaration of an inherited subprogram overrides a previous implicit declaration of an inherited subprogram. 12

- [For an implicit declaration of a primitive subprogram in a generic unit, there is a copy of this declaration in an instance.] However, a whole new set of primitive subprograms is implicitly declared for each type declared within the visible part of the instance. These new declarations occur immediately after the type declaration, and override the copied ones. [The copied ones can be called only from within the instance; the new ones can be called only from outside the instance, although for tagged types, the body of a new one can be executed by a call to an old one.] 13

  Discussion: In addition, this is also stated redundantly (again), and is repeated, in 12.3, ''Generic Instantiation''. The rationale for the rule is explained there. 13.a

{*visible*} {*hidden from all visibility* [distributed]} A declaration is visible within its scope, except where hidden from all visibility, as follows: 14

- {*hidden from all visibility* [for overridden declaration]} An overridden declaration is hidden from all visibility within the scope of the overriding declaration. 15

  Ramification: We have to talk about the scope of the overriding declaration, not its visibility, because it hides even when it is itself hidden. 15.a

  Note that the scope of an explicit subprogram_declaration does not start until after its profile. 15.b

- {*hidden from all visibility* [within the declaration itself]} A declaration is hidden from all visibility until the end of the declaration, except: 16

  - For a record type or record extension, the declaration is hidden from all visibility only until the reserved word **record**; 17

18 • For a package_declaration, task declaration, protected declaration, generic_package_declaration, or subprogram_body, the declaration is hidden from all visibility only until the reserved word **is** of the declaration.

18.a **Ramification:** We're talking about the **is** of the construct itself, here, not some random **is** that might appear in a generic_formal_part.

19 • {*hidden from all visibility* [for a declaration completed by a subsequent declaration]} If the completion of a declaration is a declaration, then within the scope of the completion, the first declaration is hidden from all visibility. Similarly, a discriminant_specification or parameter_specification is hidden within the scope of a corresponding discriminant_specification or parameter_specification of a corresponding completion, or of a corresponding accept_statement.

19.a **Ramification:** This rule means, for example, that within the scope of a full_type_declaration that completes a private_type_declaration, the name of the type will denote the full_type_declaration, and therefore the full view of the type. On the other hand, if the completion is not a declaration, then it doesn't hide anything, and you can't denote it.

20 • {*hidden from all visibility* [by lack of a with_clause]} The declaration of a library unit (including a library_unit_renaming_declaration) is hidden from all visibility except at places that are within its declarative region or within the scope of a with_clause that mentions it. [For each declaration or renaming of a generic unit as a child of some parent generic package, there is a corresponding declaration nested immediately within each instance of the parent.] Such a nested declaration is hidden from all visibility except at places that are within the scope of a with_clause that mentions the child.

20.a **Discussion:** This is the rule that prevents with_clauses from being transitive; the [immediate] scope includes indirect semantic dependents.

21 {*directly visible*} {*immediately visible*} {*visibility (direct)*} {*visibility (immediate)*} A declaration with a defining_identifier or defining_operator_symbol is immediately visible [(and hence directly visible)] within its immediate scope {*hidden from direct visibility* [distributed]} except where hidden from direct visibility, as follows:

22 • {*hidden from direct visibility* [by an inner homograph]} A declaration is hidden from direct visibility within the immediate scope of a homograph of the declaration, if the homograph occurs within an inner declarative region;

23 • {*hidden from direct visibility* [where hidden from all visibility]} A declaration is also hidden from direct visibility where hidden from all visibility.

Name Resolution Rules

24 {*possible interpretation* [for direct_names]} A direct_name shall resolve to denote a directly visible declaration whose defining name is the same as the direct_name. {*possible interpretation* [for selector_names]} A selector_name shall resolve to denote a visible declaration whose defining name is the same as the selector_name.

24.a **Discussion:** "The same as" has the obvious meaning here, so for +, the possible interpretations are declarations whose defining name is "+" (an operator_symbol).

25 These rules on visibility and direct visibility do not apply in a context_clause, a parent_unit_name, or a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation_unit. For those contexts, see the rules in 10.1.6, ''Environment-Level Visibility Rules''.

25.a **Ramification:** Direct visibility is irrelevant for character_literals. In terms of overload resolution character_literals are similar to other literals, like **null** — see 4.2. For character_literals, there is no need to worry about hiding, since there is no way to declare homographs.

Legality Rules

26 An explicit declaration is illegal if there is a homograph occurring immediately within the same declarative region that is visible at the place of the declaration, and is not hidden from all visibility by the explicit declaration. Similarly, the context_clause for a subunit is illegal if it mentions (in a with_clause) some

library unit, and there is a homograph of the library unit that is visible at the place of the corresponding stub, and the homograph and the mentioned library unit are both declared immediately within the same declarative region. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} These rules also apply to dispatching operations declared in the visible part of an instance of a generic unit. However, they do not apply to other overloadable declarations in an instance[; such declarations may have type conformant profiles in the instance, so long as the corresponding declarations in the generic were not type conformant]. {*type conformance* [partial]}

Discussion: Normally, these rules just mean you can't explicitly declare two homographs immediately within the same declarative region. The wording is designed to handle the following special cases: 26.a

- If the second declaration completes the first one, the second declaration is legal. 26.b
- If the body of a library unit contains an explicit homograph of a child of that same library unit, this is illegal only if the body mentions the child in its context_clause, or if some subunit mentions the child. Here's an example: 26.c

```
package P is                                                    26.d
end P;

package P.Q is                                                  26.e
end P.Q;

package body P is                                               26.f
    Q : Integer; -- OK; we cannot see package P.Q here.
    procedure Sub is separate;
end P;

with P.Q;                                                       26.g
separate(P)
procedure Sub is -- Illegal.
begin
    null;
end Sub;
```

If package body P said "**with** P.Q;", then it would be illegal to declare the homograph Q: Integer. But it does not, so the body of P is OK. However, the subunit would be able to see both P.Q's, and is therefore illegal. 26.h

A previous version of Ada 9X allowed the subunit, and said that references to P.Q would tend to be ambiguous. However, that was a bad idea, because it requires overload resolution to resolve references to directly visible non-overloadable homographs, which is something compilers have never before been required to do. 26.i

Note that we need to be careful which things we make "hidden from all visibility" versus which things we make simply illegal for names to denote. The distinction is subtle. The rules that disallow names denoting components within a type declaration (see 3.7) do not make the components invisible at those places, so that the above rule makes components with the same name illegal. The same is true for the rule that disallows names denoting formal parameters within a formal_part (see 6.1). 26.j

Discussion: The part about instances is from AI-00012. The reason it says ''overloadable declarations'' is because we don't want it to apply to type extensions that appear in an instance; components are not overloadable. 26.k

NOTES

5 Visibility for compilation units follows from the definition of the environment in 10.1.4, except that it is necessary to apply a with_clause to obtain visibility to a library_unit_declaration or library_unit_renaming_declaration. 27

6 In addition to the visibility rules given above, the meaning of the occurrence of a direct_name or selector_name at a given place in the text can depend on the overloading rules (see 8.6). 28

7 Not all contexts where an identifier, character_literal, or operator_symbol are allowed require visibility of a corresponding declaration. Contexts where visibility is not required are identified by using one of these three syntactic categories directly in a syntax rule, rather than using direct_name or selector_name. 29

Ramification: An identifier, character_literal or operator_symbol that occurs in one of the following contexts is not required to denote a visible or directly visible declaration: 29.a

1. A defining name. 29.b
2. The identifiers or operator_symbol that appear after the reserved word **end** in a proper_body. Similarly for ''**end loop**'', etc. 29.c

29.d 3. An attribute_designator.

29.e 4. A pragma identifier.

29.f 5. A *pragma_argument_*identifier.

29.g 6. An identifier specific to a pragma used in a pragma argument.

29.h The visibility rules have nothing to do with the above cases; the meanings of such things are defined elsewhere. Reserved words are not identifiers; the visibility rules don't apply to them either.

29.i Because of the way we have defined "declaration", it is possible for a usage name to denote a subprogram_body, either within that body, or (for a non-library unit) after it (since the body hides the corresponding declaration, if any). Other bodies do not work that way. Completions of type_ and deferred_constant_declarations do work that way. Accept_ statements are never denoted, although the parameter_specifications in their profiles can be.

29.j The scope of a subprogram does not start until after its profile. Thus, the following is legal:

29.k
```
X : constant Integer := 17;
...
package P is
    procedure X(Y : in Integer := X);
end P;
```

29.l The body of the subprogram will probably be illegal, however, since the constant X will be hidden by then.

29.m The rule is different for generic subprograms, since they are not overloadable; the following is illegal:

29.n
```
X : constant Integer := 17;
package P is
    generic
      Z : Integer := X; -- Illegal!
    procedure X(Y : in Integer := X); -- Illegal!
end P;
```

29.o The constant X is hidden from direct visibility by the generic declaration.

Extensions to Ada 83

29.p {*extensions to Ada 83*} Declarations with the same defining name as that of a subprogram or entry being defined are nevertheless visible within the subprogram specification or entry declaration.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

29.q The term ''visible by selection'' is no longer defined. We use the terms ''directly visible'' and ''visible'' (among other things). There are only two regions of text that are of interest, here: the region in which a declaration is visible, and the region in which it is directly visible.

29.r Visibility is defined only for declarations.

8.4 Use Clauses

1 [A use_package_clause achieves direct visibility of declarations that appear in the visible part of a package; a use_type_clause achieves direct visibility of the primitive operators of a type.]

Language Design Principles

1.a {*equivalence of* use_clause*s and* selected_components} If and only if the visibility rules allow P.A, "**use** P;" should make A directly visible (barring name conflicts). This means, for example, that child library units, and generic formals of a formal package whose formal_package_actual_part is (<>), should be made visible by a use_clause for the appropriate package.

1.b {*Beaujolais effect*} The rules for use_clauses were carefully constructed to avoid so-called *Beaujolais* effects, where the addition or removal of a single use_clause, or a single declaration in a "use"d package, would change the meaning of a program from one legal interpretation to another.

Syntax

use_clause ::= use_package_clause | use_type_clause 2

use_package_clause ::= **use** *package*_name {, *package*_name}; 3

use_type_clause ::= **use type** subtype_mark {, subtype_mark}; 4

Legality Rules

A *package*_name of a use_package_clause shall denote a package. 5

Ramification: This includes formal packages. 5.a

Static Semantics

{*scope (of a* use_clause*)*} For each use_clause, there is a certain region of text called the *scope* of the use_clause. For a use_clause within a context_clause of a library_unit_declaration or library_unit_renaming_declaration, the scope is the entire declarative region of the declaration. For a use_clause within a context_clause of a body, the scope is the entire body [and any subunits (including multiply nested subunits). The scope does not include context_clauses themselves.] 6

For a use_clause immediately within a declarative region, the scope is the portion of the declarative region starting just after the use_clause and extending to the end of the declarative region. However, the scope of a use_clause in the private part of a library unit does not include the visible part of any public descendant of that library unit. 7

Reason: The exception echoes the similar exception for ''immediate scope (of a declaration)'' (see 8.2). It makes use_clauses work like this: 7.a

```
package P is                                                    7.b
    type T is range 1..10;
end P;
with P;                                                         7.c
package Parent is
private
    use P;
    X : T;
end Parent;
package Parent.Child is                                         7.d
    Y : T; -- Illegal!
    Z : P.T;
private
    W : T;
end Parent.Child;
```

The declaration of Y is illegal because the scope of the ''**use** P'' does not include that place, so T is not directly visible there. The declarations of X, Z, and W are legal. 7.e

{*potentially use-visible*} For each package denoted by a *package*_name of a use_package_clause whose scope encloses a place, each declaration that occurs immediately within the declarative region of the package is *potentially use-visible* at this place if the declaration is visible at this place. For each type *T* or *T*'Class determined by a subtype_mark of a use_type_clause whose scope encloses a place, the declaration of each primitive operator of type *T* is potentially use-visible at this place if its declaration is visible at this place. 8

Ramification: Primitive subprograms whose defining name is an identifier are *not* made potentially visible by a use_type_clause. A use_type_clause is only for operators. 8.a

The semantics described here should be similar to the semantics for expanded names given in 4.1.3, ''Selected Components'' so as to achieve the effect requested by the ''principle of equivalence of use_clauses and selected_components.'' Thus, child library units and generic formal parameters of a formal package are potentially use-visible when their enclosing package is use'd. 8.b

8.c The "visible at that place" part implies that applying a use_clause to a parent unit does not make all of its children use-visible — only those that have been made visible by a with_clause. It also implies that we don't have to worry about hiding in the definition of "directly visible" — a declaration cannot be use-visible unless it is visible.

8.d Note that "**use type** T'Class;" is equivalent to "**use type** T;", which helps avoid breaking the generic contract model.

9 {*use-visible*} {*visibility (use clause)*} A declaration is *use-visible* if it is potentially use-visible, except in these naming-conflict cases:

10 • A potentially use-visible declaration is not use-visible if the place considered is within the immediate scope of a homograph of the declaration.

11 • Potentially use-visible declarations that have the same identifier are not use-visible unless each of them is an overloadable declaration.

11.a **Ramification:** Overloadable declarations don't cancel each other out, even if they are homographs, though if they are not distinguishable by formal parameter names or the presence or absence of default_expressions, any use will be ambiguous. We only mention identifiers here, because declarations named by operator_symbols are always overloadable, and hence never cancel each other. Direct visibility is irrelevant for character_literals.

Dynamic Semantics

12 {*elaboration* [use_clause]} The elaboration of a use_clause has no effect.

Examples

13 *Example of a use clause in a context clause:*

14
```
with Ada.Calendar; use Ada;
```

15 *Example of a use type clause:*

16
```
use type Rational_Numbers.Rational; -- see 7.1
Two_Thirds: Rational_Numbers.Rational := 2/3;
```

16.a **Ramification:** In ''**use** X, Y;'', Y cannot refer to something made visible by the ''**use**'' of X. Thus, it's not (quite) equivalent to ''**use** X; **use** Y;''.

16.b If a given declaration is already immediately visible, then a use_clause that makes it potentially use-visible has no effect. Therefore, a use_type_clause for a type whose declaration appears in a place other than the visible part of a package has no effect; it cannot make a declaration use-visible unless that declaration is already immediately visible.

16.c "**Use type** S1;" and "**use type** S2;" are equivalent if S1 and S2 are both subtypes of the same type. In particular, "**use type** S;" and "**use type** S'Base;" are equivalent.

16.d **Reason:** We considered adding a rule that prevented several declarations of views of the same entity that all have the same semantics from cancelling each other out. For example, if a (possibly implicit) subprogram_declaration for "+" is potentially use-visible, and a fully conformant renaming of it is also potentially use-visible, then they (annoyingly) cancel each other out; neither one is use-visible. The considered rule would have made just one of them use-visible. We gave up on this idea due to the complexity of the rule. It would have had to account for both overloadable and non-overloadable renaming_declarations, the case where the rule should apply only to some subset of the declarations with the same defining name, and the case of subtype_declarations (since they are claimed to be sufficient for renaming of subtypes).

Extensions to Ada 83

16.e {*extensions to Ada 83*} The use_type_clause is new to Ada 9X.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

16.f The phrase ''omitting from this set any packages that enclose this place'' is no longer necessary to avoid making something visible outside its scope, because we explicitly state that the declaration has to be visible in order to be potentially use-visible.

8.5 Renaming Declarations

[A renaming_declaration declares another name for an entity, such as an object, exception, package, subprogram, entry, or generic unit. Alternatively, a subprogram_renaming_declaration can be the completion of a previous subprogram_declaration.] 1

Syntax

renaming_declaration ::= 2
  object_renaming_declaration
| exception_renaming_declaration
| package_renaming_declaration
| subprogram_renaming_declaration
| generic_renaming_declaration

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [renaming_declaration]} The elaboration of a renaming_declaration evaluates the name that follows the reserved word **renames** and thereby determines the view and entity denoted by this name {*renamed view*} {*renamed entity*} (the *renamed view* and *renamed entity*). [A name that denotes the renaming_declaration denotes (a new view of) the renamed entity.] 3

NOTES

8 Renaming may be used to resolve name conflicts and to act as a shorthand. Renaming with a different identifier or operator_symbol does not hide the old name; the new name and the old name need not be visible at the same places. 4

9 A task or protected object that is declared by an explicit object_declaration can be renamed as an object. However, a single task or protected object cannot be renamed since the corresponding type is anonymous (meaning it has no nameable subtypes). For similar reasons, an object of an anonymous array or access type cannot be renamed. 5

10 A subtype defined without any additional constraint can be used to achieve the effect of renaming another subtype (including a task or protected subtype) as in 6

```
subtype Mode is Ada.Text_IO.File_Mode;
```
7

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The second sentence of RM83-8.5(3), ''At any point where a renaming declaration is visible, the identifier, or operator symbol of this declaration denotes the renamed entity.'' is incorrect. It doesn't say directly visible. Also, such an identifier might resolve to something else. 7.a

The verbiage about renamings being legal ''only if exactly one...'', which appears in RM83-8.5(4) (for objects) and RM83-8.5(7) (for subprograms) is removed, because it follows from the normal rules about overload resolution. For language lawyers, these facts are obvious; for programmers, they are irrelevant, since failing these tests is highly unlikely. 7.b

8.5.1 Object Renaming Declarations

[An object_renaming_declaration is used to rename an object.] 1

Syntax

object_renaming_declaration ::= defining_identifier : subtype_mark **renames** *object*_name; 2

Name Resolution Rules

The type of the *object*_name shall resolve to the type determined by the subtype_mark. 3

Reason: A previous version of Ada 9X used the usual ''expected type'' wording: ''The expected type for the *object*_name is that determined by the subtype_mark.'' We changed it so that this would be illegal: 3.a

```
X: T;
Y: T'Class renames X; -- Illegal!
```
3.b

3.c When the above was legal, it was unclear whether Y was of type T or T'Class. Note that we still allow this:

3.d
```
Z: T'Class := ...;
W: T renames F(Z);
```

3.e where F is a function with a controlling parameter and result. This is admittedly a bit odd.

3.f Note that the matching rule for generic formal parameters of mode **in out** was changed to keep it consistent with the rule for renaming. That makes the rule different for **in** vs. **in out**.

Legality Rules

4 The renamed entity shall be an object.

5 The renamed entity shall not be a subcomponent that depends on discriminants of a variable whose nominal subtype is unconstrained, unless this subtype is indefinite, or the variable is aliased. A slice of an array shall not be renamed if this restriction disallows renaming of the array.

5.a **Reason:** This prevents renaming of subcomponents that might disappear, which might leave dangling references. Similar restrictions exist for the Access attribute.

5.b **Implementation Note:** Note that if an implementation chooses to deallocate-then-reallocate on assignment_ statements assigning to unconstrained definite objects, then it cannot represent renamings and access values as simple addresses, because the above rule does not apply to all components of such an object.

5.c **Ramification:** If it is a generic formal object, then the assume-the-best or assume-the-worst rules are applied as appropriate.

Static Semantics

6 An object_renaming_declaration declares a new view [of the renamed object] whose properties are identical to those of the renamed view. [Thus, the properties of the renamed object are not affected by the renaming_declaration. In particular, its value and whether or not it is a constant are unaffected; similarly, the constraints that apply to an object are not affected by renaming (any constraint implied by the subtype_mark of the object_renaming_declaration is ignored).]

6.a **Discussion:** Because the constraints are ignored, it is a good idea to use the nominal subtype of the renamed object when writing an object_renaming_declaration.

Examples

7 *Example of renaming an object:*

8
```
declare
   L : Person renames Leftmost_Person; -- see 3.10.1
begin
   L.Age := L.Age + 1;
end;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

8.a The phrase ''subtype ... as defined in a corresponding object declaration, component declaration, or component subtype indication,'' from RM83-8.5(5), is incorrect in Ada 9X; therefore we removed it. It is incorrect in the case of an object with an indefinite unconstrained nominal subtype.

8.5.2 Exception Renaming Declarations

1 [An exception_renaming_declaration is used to rename an exception.]

Syntax

2 exception_renaming_declaration ::= defining_identifier : **exception renames** *exception*_name;

Legality Rules

The renamed entity shall be an exception. 3

Static Semantics

An exception_renaming_declaration declares a new view [of the renamed exception]. 4

Examples

Example of renaming an exception: 5

```
EOF : exception renames Ada.IO_Exceptions.End_Error;-- see A.13
```
6

8.5.3 Package Renaming Declarations

[A package_renaming_declaration is used to rename a package.] 1

Syntax

package_renaming_declaration ::= **package** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *package*_name; 2

Legality Rules

The renamed entity shall be a package. 3

Static Semantics

A package_renaming_declaration declares a new view [of the renamed package]. 4

Examples

Example of renaming a package: 5

```
package TM renames Table_Manager;
```
6

8.5.4 Subprogram Renaming Declarations

A subprogram_renaming_declaration can serve as the completion of a subprogram_declaration; {*renaming-as-body*} such a renaming_declaration is called a *renaming-as-body*. {*renaming-as-declaration*} A subprogram_renaming_declaration that is not a completion is called a *renaming-as-declaration*[, and is used to rename a subprogram (possibly an enumeration literal) or an entry]. 1

Ramification: A renaming-as-body is a declaration, as defined in Section 3. 1.a

Syntax

subprogram_renaming_declaration ::= subprogram_specification **renames** *callable_entity*_name; 2

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected profile* [subprogram_renaming_declaration]} The expected profile for the *callable_entity*_name is the profile given in the subprogram_specification. 3

Legality Rules

The profile of a renaming-as-declaration shall be mode-conformant with that of the renamed callable entity. {*mode conformance (required)*} 4

The profile of a renaming-as-body shall be subtype-conformant with that of the renamed callable entity, and shall conform fully to that of the declaration it completes. {*subtype conformance (required)*} {*full conformance (required)*} If the renaming-as-body completes that declaration before the subprogram it declares is frozen, the subprogram it declares takes its convention from the renamed subprogram; otherwise the convention of the renamed subprogram shall not be Intrinsic. 5

5.a **Reason:** The first part of the first sentence is to allow an implementation of a renaming-as-body as a single jump instruction to the target subprogram. Among other things, this prevents a subprogram from being completed with a renaming of an entry. (In most cases, the target of the jump can be filled in at link time. In some cases, such as a renaming of a name like "A(I).**all**", an indirect jump is needed. Note that the name is evaluated at renaming time, not at call time.)

5.b The second part of the first sentence is the normal rule for completions of subprogram_declarations.

5.c **Ramification:** An entry_declaration, unlike a subprogram_declaration, cannot be completed with a renaming_declaration. Nor can a generic_subprogram_declaration.

5.d The syntax rules prevent a protected subprogram declaration from being completed by a renaming. This is fortunate, because it allows us to avoid worrying about whether the implicit protected object parameter of a protected operation is involved in the conformance rules.

6 A name that denotes a formal parameter of the subprogram_specification is not allowed within the *callable_entity*_name.

6.a **Reason:** This is to prevent things like this:

6.b
```
function F(X : Integer) return Integer renames Table(X).all;
```

6.c A similar rule in 6.1 forbids things like this:

6.d
```
function F(X : Integer; Y : Integer := X) return Integer;
```

Static Semantics

7 A renaming-as-declaration declares a new view of the renamed entity. The profile of this new view takes its subtypes, parameter modes, and calling convention from the original profile of the callable entity, while taking the formal parameter names and default_expressions from the profile given in the subprogram_renaming_declaration. The new view is a function or procedure, never an entry.

7.a **To be honest:** When renaming an entry as a procedure, the compile-time rules apply as if the new view is a procedure, but the run-time semantics of a call are that of an entry call.

7.b **Ramification:** For example, it is illegal for the entry_call_statement of a timed_entry_call to call the new view. But what looks like a procedure call will do things like barrier waiting.

Dynamic Semantics

8 For a call on a renaming of a dispatching subprogram that is overridden, if the overriding occurred before the renaming, then the body executed is that of the overriding declaration, even if the overriding declaration is not visible at the place of the renaming; otherwise, the inherited or predefined subprogram is called.

8.a **Discussion:** Note that whether or not the renaming is itself primitive has nothing to do with the renamed subprogram.

8.b Note that the above rule is only for tagged types.

8.c Consider the following example:

8.d
```
package P is
    type T is tagged null record;
    function Predefined_Equal(X, Y : T) return Boolean renames "=";
private
    function "="(X, Y : T) return Boolean; -- Override predefined "=".
end P;
```

8.e
```
with P; use P;
package Q is
    function User_Defined_Equal(X, Y : T) return Boolean renames P."=";
end Q;
```

8.f A call on Predefined_Equal will execute the predefined equality operator of T, whereas a call on User_Defined_Equal will execute the body of the overriding declaration in the private part of P.

Thus a renaming allows one to squirrel away a copy of an inherited or predefined subprogram before later overriding it. 8.g
{*squirrel away (included in fairness to alligators)*}

NOTES
11 A procedure can only be renamed as a procedure. A function whose defining_designator is either an identifier or an operator_symbol can be renamed with either an identifier or an operator_symbol; for renaming as an operator, the subprogram specification given in the renaming_declaration is subject to the rules given in 6.6 for operator declarations. Enumeration literals can be renamed as functions; similarly, attribute_references that denote functions (such as references to Succ and Pred) can be renamed as functions. An entry can only be renamed as a procedure; the new name is only allowed to appear in contexts that allow a procedure name. An entry of a family can be renamed, but an entry family cannot be renamed as a whole. 9

12 The operators of the root numeric types cannot be renamed because the types in the profile are anonymous, so the corresponding specifications cannot be written; the same holds for certain attributes, such as Pos. 10

13 Calls with the new name of a renamed entry are procedure_call_statements and are not allowed at places where the syntax requires an entry_call_statement in conditional_ and timed_entry_calls, nor in an asynchronous_select; similarly, the Count attribute is not available for the new name. 11

14 The primitiveness of a renaming-as-declaration is determined by its profile, and by where it occurs, as for any declaration of (a view of) a subprogram; primitiveness is not determined by the renamed view. In order to perform a dispatching call, the subprogram name has to denote a primitive subprogram, not a non-primitive renaming of a primitive subprogram. 12

Reason: A subprogram_renaming_declaration could more properly be called renaming_as_subprogram_declaration, since you're renaming something as a subprogram, but you're not necessarily renaming a subprogram. But that's too much of a mouthful. Or, alternatively, we could call it a callable_entity_renaming_declaration, but that's even worse. Not only is it a mouthful, it emphasizes the entity being renamed, rather than the new view, which we think is a bad idea. We'll live with the oddity. 12.a

Examples

Examples of subprogram renaming declarations: 13

```
procedure My_Write(C : in Character) renames Pool(K).Write; -- see 4.1.3
```
14

```
function Real_Plus(Left, Right : Real   ) return Real    renames "+";
function Int_Plus (Left, Right : Integer) return Integer renames "+";
```
15

```
function Rouge return Color renames Red;  -- see 3.5.1
function Rot   return Color renames Red;
function Rosso return Color renames Rouge;
```
16

```
function Next(X : Color) return Color renames Color'Succ; -- see 3.5.1
```
17

Example of a subprogram renaming declaration with new parameter names: 18

```
function "*" (X,Y : Vector) return Real renames Dot_Product; -- see 6.1
```
19

Example of a subprogram renaming declaration with a new default expression: 20

```
function Minimum(L : Link := Head) return Cell renames Min_Cell; -- see 6.1
```
21

8.5.5 Generic Renaming Declarations

[A generic_renaming_declaration is used to rename a generic unit.] 1

Syntax

generic_renaming_declaration ::= 2
  generic package defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_package*_name;
| **generic procedure** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_procedure*_name;
| **generic function** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_function*_name;

Legality Rules

The renamed entity shall be a generic unit of the corresponding kind. 3

Static Semantics

4 A generic_renaming_declaration declares a new view [of the renamed generic unit].

NOTES

5 15 Although the properties of the new view are the same as those of the renamed view, the place where the generic_renaming_declaration occurs may affect the legality of subsequent renamings and instantiations that denote the generic_renaming_declaration, in particular if the renamed generic unit is a library unit (see 10.1.1).

Examples

6 *Example of renaming a generic unit:*

7
```
generic package Enum_IO renames Ada.Text_IO.Enumeration_IO;   -- see A.10.10
```

Extensions to Ada 83

7.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Renaming of generic units is new to Ada 9X. It is particularly important for renaming child library units that are generic units. For example, it might be used to rename Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions as simply Generic_Elementary_Functions, to match the name for the corresponding Ada-83-based package.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

7.b The information in RM83-8.6, ''The Package Standard,'' has been updated for the child unit feature, and moved to Annex A, except for the definition of ''predefined type,'' which has been moved to 3.2.1.

8.6 The Context of Overload Resolution

1 [{*overload resolution*} Because declarations can be overloaded, it is possible for an occurrence of a usage name to have more than one possible interpretation; in most cases, ambiguity is disallowed. This clause describes how the possible interpretations resolve to the actual interpretation.

2 {*overloading rules*} Certain rules of the language (the Name Resolution Rules) are considered ''overloading rules''. If a possible interpretation violates an overloading rule, it is assumed not to be the intended interpretation; some other possible interpretation is assumed to be the actual interpretation. On the other hand, violations of non-overloading rules do not affect which interpretation is chosen; instead, they cause the construct to be illegal. To be legal, there usually has to be exactly one acceptable interpretation of a construct that is a ''complete context'', not counting any nested complete contexts.

3 {*grammar (resolution of ambiguity)*} The syntax rules of the language and the visibility rules given in 8.3 determine the possible interpretations. Most type checking rules (rules that require a particular type, or a particular class of types, for example) are overloading rules. Various rules for the matching of formal and actual parameters are overloading rules.]

Language Design Principles

3.a The type resolution rules are intended to minimize the need for implicit declarations and preference rules associated with implicit conversion and dispatching operations.

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*complete context*} [Overload resolution is applied separately to each *complete context*, not counting inner complete contexts.] Each of the following constructs is a *complete context*:

5 • A context_item.

6 • A declarative_item or declaration.

6.a **Ramification:** A loop_parameter_specification is a declaration, and hence a complete context.

7 • A statement.

8 • A pragma_argument_association.

8.a **Reason:** We would make it the whole pragma, except that certain pragma arguments are allowed to be ambiguous, and ambiguity applies to a complete context.

- The expression of a case_statement. 9

  Ramification: This means that the expression is resolved without looking at the choices. 9.a

{*interpretation (of a complete context)*} {*overall interpretation (of a complete context)*} An (overall) *interpretation* of a complete context embodies its meaning, and includes the following information about the constituents of the complete context, not including constituents of inner complete contexts: 10

- for each constituent of the complete context, to which syntactic categories it belongs, and by which syntax rules; and 11

  Ramification: Syntactic categor*ies* is plural here, because there are lots of trivial productions — an expression might also be all of the following, in this order: identifier, name, primary, factor, term, simple_expression, and relation. Basically, we're trying to capture all the information in the parse tree here, without using compiler-writer's jargon like ''parse tree''. 11.a

- for each usage name, which declaration it denotes (and, therefore, which view and which entity it denotes); and 12

  Ramification: In most cases, a usage name denotes the view declared by the denoted declaration. However, in certain cases, a usage name that denotes a declaration and appears inside the declarative region of that same declaration, denotes the current instance of the declaration. For example, within a task_body, a usage name that denotes the task_type_declaration denotes the object containing the currently executing task, and not the task type declared by the declaration. 12.a

- for a complete context that is a declarative_item, whether or not it is a completion of a declaration, and (if so) which declaration it completes. 13

  Ramification: Unfortunately, we are not confident that the above list is complete. We'll have to live with that. 13.a

  To be honest: For ''possible'' interpretations, the above information is tentative. 13.b

  Discussion: A possible interpretation (an *input* to overload resolution) contains information about what a usage name *might* denote, but what it actually *does* denote requires overload resolution to determine. Hence the term ''tentative'' is needed for possible interpretations; otherwise, the definition would be circular. 13.c

{*possible interpretation*} A *possible interpretation* is one that obeys the syntax rules and the visibility rules. 14
{*acceptable interpretation*} {*resolve (overload resolution)*} {*interpretation (overload resolution)*} An *acceptable* interpretation is a possible interpretation that obeys the *overloading rules*[, that is, those rules that specify an expected type or expected profile, or specify how a construct shall *resolve* or be *interpreted*.]

To be honest: One rule that falls into this category, but does not use the above-mentioned magic words, is the rule about numbers of parameter associations in a call (see 6.4). 14.a

Ramification: The Name Resolution Rules are the ones that appear under the Name Resolution Rules heading. Some Syntax Rules are written in English, instead of BNF. No rule is a Syntax Rule or Name Resolution Rule unless it appears under the appropriate heading. 14.b

{*interpretation (of a constituent of a complete context)*} The *interpretation* of a constituent of a complete context is determined from the overall interpretation of the complete context as a whole. [Thus, for example, ''interpreted as a function_call,'' means that the construct's interpretation says that it belongs to the syntactic category function_call.] 15

{*denote*} [Each occurrence of] a usage name *denotes* the declaration determined by its interpretation. It also denotes the view declared by its denoted declaration, except in the following cases: 16

Ramification: As explained below, a pragma argument is allowed to be ambiguous, so it can denote several declarations, and all of the views declared by those declarations. 16.a

- {*current instance (of a type)*} If a usage name appears within the declarative region of a type_declaration and denotes that same type_declaration, then it denotes the *current instance* of the type (rather than the type itself). The current instance of a type is the object or value of the type that is associated with the execution that evaluates the usage name. 17

17.a **Reason:** This is needed, for example, for references to the Access attribute from within the type_declaration. Also, within a task_body or protected_body, we need to be able to denote the current task or protected object. (For a single_task_declaration or single_protected_declaration, the rule about current instances is not needed.)

18 • {*current instance (of a generic unit)*} If a usage name appears within the declarative region of a generic_declaration (but not within its generic_formal_part) and it denotes that same generic_declaration, then it denotes the *current instance* of the generic unit (rather than the generic unit itself). See also 12.3.

18.a **To be honest:** The current instance of a generic unit is the instance created by whichever generic_instantiation is of interest at any given time.

18.b **Ramification:** Within a generic_formal_part, a name that denotes the generic_declaration denotes the generic unit, which implies that it is not overloadable.

19 A usage name that denotes a view also denotes the entity of that view.

19.a **Ramification:** Usually, a usage name denotes only one declaration, and therefore one view and one entity.

20 {*expected type* [distributed]} The *expected type* for a given expression, name, or other construct determines, according to the *type resolution rules* given below, the types considered for the construct during overload resolution. {*type resolution rules*} [The type resolution rules provide support for class-wide programming, universal numeric literals, dispatching operations, and anonymous access types:]

20.a **Ramification:** Expected types are defined throughout the RM9X. The most important definition is that, for a subprogram, the expected type for the actual parameter is the type of the formal parameter.

20.b The type resolution rules are trivial unless either the actual or expected type is universal, class-wide, or of an anonymous access type.

21 • {*type resolution rules* [if any type in a specified class of types is expected]} {*type resolution rules* [if expected type is universal or class-wide]} If a construct is expected to be of any type in a class of types, or of the universal or class-wide type for a class, then the type of the construct shall resolve to a type in that class or to a universal type that covers the class.

21.a **Ramification:** This matching rule handles (among other things) cases like the Val attribute, which denotes a function that takes a parameter of type *universal_integer*.

21.b The last part of the rule, ‘‘or to a universal type that includes the class’’ implies that if the expected type for an expression is *universal_fixed*, then an expression whose type is *universal_real* (such as a real literal) is OK.

22 • {*type resolution rules* [if expected type is specific]} If the expected type for a construct is a specific type *T*, then the type of the construct shall resolve either to *T*, or:

22.a **Ramification:** {*Beaujolais effect* [partial]} This rule is *not* intended to create a preference for the specific type — such a preference would cause Beaujolais effects.

23 • to *T*’Class; or

23.a **Ramification:** This will only be legal as part of a call on a dispatching operation; see 3.9.2, ‘‘Dispatching Operations of Tagged Types’’. Note that that rule is not a Name Resolution Rule.

24 • to a universal type that covers *T*; or

25 • when *T* is an anonymous access type (see 3.10) with designated type *D*, to an access-to-variable type whose designated type is *D*’Class or is covered by *D*.

25.a **Ramification:** Because it says ‘‘access-to-variable’’ instead of ‘‘access-to-object,’’ two subprograms that differ only in that one has a parameter of an access-to-constant type, and the other has an access parameter, are distinguishable during overload resolution.

25.b The case where the actual is access-to-*D*’Class will only be legal as part of a call on a dispatching operation; see 3.9.2, ‘‘Dispatching Operations of Tagged Types’’. Note that that rule is not a Name Resolution Rule.

26 {*expected profile* [distributed]} In certain contexts, [such as in a subprogram_renaming_declaration,] the Name Resolution Rules define an *expected profile* for a given name; {*profile resolution rule (*name *with a given expected*

profile)} in such cases, the name shall resolve to the name of a callable entity whose profile is type conformant with the expected profile. {*type conformance (required)*}

Ramification: The parameter and result *sub*types are not used in overload resolution. Only type conformance of profiles is considered during overload resolution. Legality rules generally require at least mode-conformance in addition, but those rules are not used in overload resolution. 26.a

Legality Rules

{*single (class expected type)*} When the expected type for a construct is required to be a *single* type in a given class, the type expected for the construct shall be determinable solely from the context in which the construct appears, excluding the construct itself, but using the requirement that it be in the given class; the type of the construct is then this single expected type. Furthermore, the context shall not be one that expects any type in some class that contains types of the given class; in particular, the construct shall not be the operand of a type_conversion. 27

Ramification: For example, the expected type for the literal **null** is required to be a single access type. But the expected type for the operand of a type_conversion is any type. Therefore, the literal **null** is not allowed as the operand of a type_conversion. This is true even if there is only one access type in scope. The reason for these rules is so that the compiler will not have to search ''everywhere'' to see if there is exactly one type in a class in scope. 27.a

A complete context shall have at least one acceptable interpretation; if there is exactly one, then that one is chosen. 28

Ramification: This, and the rule below about ambiguity, are the ones that suck in all the Syntax Rules and Name Resolution Rules as compile-time rules. Note that this and the ambiguity rule have to be Legality Rules. 28.a

{*preference (for root numeric operators and* ranges*)*} There is a *preference* for the primitive operators (and ranges) of the root numeric types *root_integer* and *root_real*. In particular, if two acceptable interpretations of a constituent of a complete context differ only in that one is for a primitive operator (or range) of the type *root_integer* or *root_real*, and the other is not, the interpretation using the primitive operator (or range) of the root numeric type is *preferred*. 29

Reason: The reason for this preference is so that expressions involving literals and named numbers can be unambiguous. For example, without the preference rule, the following would be ambiguous: 29.a

```
N : constant := 123;                                                    29.b
if N > 100 then -- Preference for root_integer "<" operator.
    ...
end if;
```

For a complete context, if there is exactly one overall acceptable interpretation where each constituent's interpretation is the same as or preferred (in the above sense) over those in all other overall acceptable interpretations, then that one overall acceptable interpretation is chosen. {*ambiguous*} Otherwise, the complete context is *ambiguous*. 30

A complete context other than a pragma_argument_association shall not be ambiguous. 31

A complete context that is a pragma_argument_association is allowed to be ambiguous (unless otherwise specified for the particular pragma), but only if every acceptable interpretation of the pragma argument is as a name that statically denotes a callable entity. {*denote* [name used as a pragma argument]} Such a name denotes all of the declarations determined by its interpretations, and all of the views declared by these declarations. 32

Ramification: This applies to Inline, Suppress, Import, Export, and Convention pragmas. For example, it is OK to say ''**pragma** Suppress(Elaboration_Check, On => P.Q);'', even if there are two directly visible P's, and there are two Q's declared in the visible part of each P. In this case, P.Q denotes four different declarations. This rule also applies to certain pragmas defined in the Specialized Needs Annexes. It almost applies to Pure, Elaborate_Body, and Elaborate_All pragmas, but those can't have overloading for other reasons. 32.a

32.b Note that if a pragma argument denotes a *call* to a callable entity, rather than the entity itself, this exception does not apply, and ambiguity is disallowed.

32.c Note that we need to carefully define which pragma-related rules are Name Resolution Rules, so that, for example, a pragma Inline does not pick up subprograms declared in enclosing declarative regions, and therefore make itself illegal.

32.d We say ''statically denotes'' in the above rule in order to avoid having to worry about how many times the name is evaluated, in case it denotes more than one callable entity.

NOTES

33 16 If a usage name has only one acceptable interpretation, then it denotes the corresponding entity. However, this does not mean that the usage name is necessarily legal since other requirements exist which are not considered for overload resolution; for example, the fact that an expression is static, whether an object is constant, mode and subtype conformance rules, freezing rules, order of elaboration, and so on.

34 Similarly, subtypes are not considered for overload resolution (the violation of a constraint does not make a program illegal but raises an exception during program execution).

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

34.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} {*Beaujolais effect* [partial]} The new preference rule for operators of root numeric types is upward incompatible, but only in cases that involved *Beaujolais* effects in Ada 83. Such cases are ambiguous in Ada 9X.

Extensions to Ada 83

34.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} The rule that allows an expected type to match an actual expression of a universal type, in combination with the new preference rule for operators of root numeric types, subsumes the Ada 83 "implicit conversion" rules for universal types.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

34.c In Ada 83, it is not clear what the ''syntax rules'' are. AI-00157 states that a certain textual rule is a syntax rule, but it's still not clear how one tells in general which textual rules are syntax rules. We have solved the problem by stating exactly which rules are syntax rules — the ones that appear under the ''Syntax'' heading.

34.d RM83 has a long list of the ''forms'' of rules that are to be used in overload resolution (in addition to the syntax rules). It is not clear exactly which rules fall under each form. We have solved the problem by explicitly marking all rules that are used in overload resolution. Thus, the list of kinds of rules is unnecessary. It is replaced with some introductory (intentionally vague) text explaining the basic idea of what sorts of rules are overloading rules.

34.e It is not clear from RM83 what information is embodied in a ''meaning'' or an ''interpretation.'' ''Meaning'' and ''interpretation'' were intended to be synonymous; we now use the latter only in defining the rules about overload resolution. ''Meaning'' is used only informally. This clause attempts to clarify what is meant by ''interpretation.''

34.f For example, RM83 does not make it clear that overload resolution is required in order to match subprogram_bodies with their corresponding declarations (and even to tell whether a given subprogram_body is the completion of a previous declaration). Clearly, the information needed to do this is part of the ''interpretation'' of a subprogram_body. The resolution of such things is defined in terms of the ''expected profile'' concept. Ada 9X has some new cases where expected profiles are needed — the resolution of P'Access, where P might denote a subprogram, is an example.

34.g RM83-8.7(2) might seem to imply that an interpretation embodies information about what is denoted by each usage name, but not information about which syntactic category each construct belongs to. However, it seems necessary to include such information, since the Ada grammar is highly ambiguous. For example, X(Y) might be a function_call or an indexed_component, and no context-free/syntactic information can tell the difference. It seems like we should view X(Y) as being, for example, ''interpreted as a function_call'' (if that's what overload resolution decides it is). Note that there are examples where the denotation of each usage name does not imply the syntactic category. However, even if that were not true, it seems that intuitively, the interpretation includes that information. Here's an example:

34.h
```
type T;
type A is access T;
type T is array(Integer range 1..10) of A;
I : Integer := 3;
function F(X : Integer := 7) return A;
Y : A := F(I); -- Ambiguous? (We hope so.)
```

34.i Consider the declaration of Y (a complete context). In the above example, overload resolution can easily determine the declaration, and therefore the entity, denoted by Y, A, F, and I. However, given all of that information, we still don't know whether F(I) is a function_call or an indexed_component whose prefix is a function_call. (In the latter case, it is equivalent to F(7).**all**(I).)

It seems clear that the declaration of Y ought to be considered ambiguous. We describe that by saying that there are two interpretations, one as a function_call, and one as an indexed_component. These interpretations are both acceptable to the overloading rules. Therefore, the complete context is ambiguous, and therefore illegal. 34.j

{*Beaujolais effect* [partial]} It is the intent that the Ada 9X preference rule for root numeric operators is more locally enforceable than that of RM83-4.6(15). It should also eliminate interpretation shifts due to the addition or removal of a use_clause (the so called *Beaujolais* effect). 34.k

RM83-8.7 seems to be missing some complete contexts, such as pragma_argument_associations, declarative_items that are not declarations or representation_clauses, and context_items. We have added these, and also replaced the ‘‘must be determinable’’ wording of RM83-5.4(3) with the notion that the expression of a case_statement is a complete context. 34.l

Cases like the Val attribute are now handled using the normal type resolution rules, instead of having special cases that explicitly allow things like ‘‘any integer type.’’ 34.m

Section 9: Tasks and Synchronization

{*execution* [Ada program]} The execution of an Ada program consists of the execution of one or more *tasks*. {*task*} {*interaction (between tasks)*} Each task represents a separate thread of control that proceeds independently and concurrently between the points where it *interacts* with other tasks. The various forms of task interaction are described in this section, and include: {*parallel processing: see task*} {*synchronization*} {*concurrent processing: see task*} {*intertask communication: see also task*}

To be honest: The execution of an Ada program consists of the execution of one or more partitions (see 10.2), each of which in turn consists of the execution of an environment task and zero or more subtasks.

- the activation and termination of a task;
- {*protected object*} a call on a protected subprogram of a *protected object*, providing exclusive read-write access, or concurrent read-only access to shared data;
- a call on an entry, either of another task, allowing for synchronous communication with that task, or of a protected object, allowing for asynchronous communication with one or more other tasks using that same protected object;
- a timed operation, including a simple delay statement, a timed entry call or accept, or a timed asynchronous select statement (see next item);
- an asynchronous transfer of control as part of an asynchronous select statement, where a task stops what it is doing and begins execution at a different point in response to the completion of an entry call or the expiration of a delay;
- an abort statement, allowing one task to cause the termination of another task.

In addition, tasks can communicate indirectly by reading and updating (unprotected) shared variables, presuming the access is properly synchronized through some other kind of task interaction.

Static Semantics

{*task unit*} The properties of a task are defined by a corresponding task declaration and task_body, which together define a program unit called a *task unit*.

Dynamic Semantics

Over time, tasks proceed through various *states*. {*task state* [inactive]} {*inactive (a task state)*} {*task state* [blocked]} {*blocked (a task state)*} {*task state* [ready]} {*ready (a task state)*} {*task state* [terminated]} {*terminated (a task state)*} A task is initially *inactive*; upon activation, and prior to its *termination* it is either *blocked* (as part of some task interaction) or *ready* to run. {*execution resource (required for a task to run)*} While ready, a task competes for the available *execution resources* that it requires to run.

Discussion: {*task dispatching policy*} {*dispatching policy for tasks*} The means for selecting which of the ready tasks to run, given the currently available execution resources, is determined by the *task dispatching policy* in effect, which is generally implementation defined, but may be controlled by pragmas and operations defined in the Real-Time Annex (see D.2 and D.5).

NOTES

1 Concurrent task execution may be implemented on multicomputers, multiprocessors, or with interleaved execution on a single physical processor. On the other hand, whenever an implementation can determine that the required semantic effects can be achieved when parts of the execution of a given task are performed by different physical processors acting in parallel, it may choose to perform them in this way.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The introduction has been rewritten.

We use the term "concurrent" rather than "parallel" when talking about logically independent execution of threads of control. The term "parallel" is reserved for referring to the situation where multiple physical processors run simultaneously.

9.1 Task Units and Task Objects

1 {*task declaration*} A task unit is declared by a *task declaration*, which has a corresponding task_body. A task declaration may be a task_type_declaration, in which case it declares a named task type; alternatively, it may be a single_task_declaration, in which case it defines an anonymous task type, as well as declaring a named task object of that type.

Syntax

2 task_type_declaration ::=
  task type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] [**is** task_definition];

3 single_task_declaration ::=
  task defining_identifier [**is** task_definition];

4 task_definition ::=
    {task_item}
  [**private**
    {task_item}]
  end [*task*_identifier]

5 task_item ::= entry_declaration | representation_clause

6 task_body ::=
  task body defining_identifier **is**
    declarative_part
  begin
    handled_sequence_of_statements
  end [*task*_identifier];

7 If a *task*_identifier appears at the end of a task_definition or task_body, it shall repeat the defining_identifier.

Legality Rules

8 {*requires a completion* [task_declaration]} A task declaration requires a completion[, which shall be a task_body,] and every task_body shall be the completion of some task declaration.

8.a **To be honest:** The completion can be a pragma Import, if the implementation supports it.

Static Semantics

9 A task_definition defines a task type and its first subtype. {*visible part* [of a task unit]} The first list of task_items of a task_definition, together with the known_discriminant_part, if any, is called the visible part of the task unit. [{*private part* [of a task unit]} The optional list of task_items after the reserved word **private** is called the private part of the task unit.]

9.a **Proof:** Private part is defined in Section 8.

Dynamic Semantics

10 [{*elaboration* [task declaration]} The elaboration of a task declaration elaborates the task_definition. {*elaboration* [single_task_declaration]} The elaboration of a single_task_declaration also creates an object of an (anonymous) task type.]

10.a **Proof:** This is redundant with the general rules for the elaboration of a full_type_declaration and an object_declaration.

11 {*elaboration* [task_definition]} [The elaboration of a task_definition creates the task type and its first subtype;] it also includes the elaboration of the entry_declarations in the given order.

12 {*initialization* [of a task object]} As part of the initialization of a task object, any representation_clauses and any per-object constraints associated with entry_declarations of the corresponding task_definition are elaborated in the given order.

Reason: The only representation_clauses defined for task entries are ones that specify the Address of an entry, as part of defining an interrupt entry. These clearly need to be elaborated per-object, not per-type. Normally the address will be a function of a discriminant, if such an Address clause is in a task type rather than a single task declaration, though it could rely on a parameterless function that allocates sequential interrupt vectors. 12.a

We do not mention representation pragmas, since each pragma may have its own elaboration rules. 12.b

{*elaboration* [task_body]} The elaboration of a task_body has no effect other than to establish that tasks of the type can from then on be activated without failing the Elaboration_Check. 13

[The execution of a task_body is invoked by the activation of a task of the corresponding type (see 9.2).] 14

The content of a task object of a given task type includes: 15

- The values of the discriminants of the task object, if any; 16
- An entry queue for each entry of the task object; 17

  Ramification: "For each entry" implies one queue for each single entry, plus one for each entry of each entry family. 17.a

- A representation of the state of the associated task. 18

NOTES

2 Within the declaration or body of a task unit, the name of the task unit denotes the current instance of the unit (see 8.6), rather than the first subtype of the corresponding task type (and thus the name cannot be used as a subtype_mark). 19

Discussion: However, it is possible to refer to some other subtype of the task type within its body, presuming such a subtype has been declared between the task_type_declaration and the task_body. 19.a

3 The notation of a selected_component can be used to denote a discriminant of a task (see 4.1.3). Within a task unit, the name of a discriminant of the task type denotes the corresponding discriminant of the current instance of the unit. 20

4 A task type is a limited type (see 7.5), and hence has neither an assignment operation nor predefined equality operators. If an application needs to store and exchange task identities, it can do so by defining an access type designating the corresponding task objects and by using access values for identification purposes. Assignment is available for such an access type as for any access type. Alternatively, if the implementation supports the Systems Programming Annex, the Identity attribute can be used for task identification (see C.7). 21

Examples

Examples of declarations of task types: 22

```
task type Server is                                                    23
   entry Next_Work_Item(WI : in Work_Item);
   entry Shut_Down;
end Server;

task type Keyboard_Driver(ID : Keyboard_ID := New_ID) is               24
   entry Read (C : out Character);
   entry Write(C : in  Character);
end Keyboard_Driver;
```

Examples of declarations of single tasks: 25

```
task Controller is                                                     26
   entry Request(Level)(D : Item);  -- a family of entries
end Controller;

task Parser is                                                         27
   entry Next_Lexeme(L : in  Lexical_Element);
   entry Next_Action(A : out Parser_Action);
end;

task User;  -- has no entries                                          28
```

Examples of task objects: 29

```
Agent    : Server;
Teletype : Keyboard_Driver(TTY_ID);
Pool     : array(1 .. 10) of Keyboard_Driver;
```

Example of access type designating task objects:

```
type Keyboard is access Keyboard_Driver;
Terminal : Keyboard := new Keyboard_Driver(Term_ID);
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rules for task declarations are modified to allow a known_discriminant_part, and to allow a private part. They are also modified to allow entry_declarations and representation_clauses to be mixed.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rules for tasks have been split up according to task types and single tasks. In particular: The syntax rules for task_declaration and task_specification are removed. The syntax rules for task_type_declaration, single_task_declaration, task_definition and task_item are new.

The syntax rule for task_body now uses the nonterminal handled_sequence_of_statements.

The declarative_part of a task_body is now required; that doesn't make any real difference, because a declarative_part can be empty.

9.2 Task Execution - Task Activation

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [task]} The execution of a task of a given task type consists of the execution of the corresponding task_body. {*execution* [task_body]} {*task (execution)*} {*activation (of a task)*} {*task (activation)*} The initial part of this execution is called the *activation* of the task; it consists of the elaboration of the declarative_part of the task_body. {*activation failure*} Should an exception be propagated by the elaboration of its declarative_part, the activation of the task is defined to have *failed*, and it becomes a completed task.

A task object (which represents one task) can be created either as part of the elaboration of an object_declaration occurring immediately within some declarative region, or as part of the evaluation of an allocator. All tasks created by the elaboration of object_declarations of a single declarative region (including subcomponents of the declared objects) are activated together. Similarly, all tasks created by the evaluation of a single allocator are activated together. The activation of a task is associated with the innermost allocator or object_declaration that is responsible for its creation.

Discussion: The initialization of an object_declaration or allocator can indirectly include the creation of other objects that contain tasks. For example, the default expression for a subcomponent of an object created by an allocator might call a function that evaluates a completely different allocator. Tasks created by the two allocators are *not* activated together.

For tasks created by the elaboration of object_declarations of a given declarative region, the activations are initiated within the context of the handled_sequence_of_statements (and its associated exception_handlers if any — see 11.2), just prior to executing the statements of the _sequence. [For a package without an explicit body or an explicit handled_sequence_of_statements, an implicit body or an implicit null_statement is assumed, as defined in 7.2.]

Ramification: If Tasking_Error is raised, it can be handled by handlers of the handled_sequence_of_statements.

For tasks created by the evaluation of an allocator, the activations are initiated as the last step of evaluating the allocator, after completing any initialization for the object created by the allocator, and prior to returning the new access value.

{*activator (of a task)*} {*blocked* [waiting for activations to complete]} The task that created the new tasks and initiated their activations (the *activator*) is blocked until all of these activations complete (successfully or not). {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Once all of these activations are complete, if the activation of any of the tasks has failed [(due to the propagation of an exception)], Tasking_Error is raised in the activator, at the place at which it initiated the activations. Otherwise, the activator proceeds with its execution normally. Any tasks that are aborted prior to completing their activation are ignored when determining whether to raise Tasking_Error. 5

Ramification: Note that a task created by an allocator does not necessarily depend on its activator; in such a case the activator's termination can precede the termination of the newly created task. 5.a

Discussion: Tasking_Error is raised only once, even if two or more of the tasks being activated fail their activation. 5.b

Should the task that created the new tasks never reach the point where it would initiate the activations (due to an abort or the raising of an exception), the newly created tasks become terminated and are never activated. 6

NOTES

5 An entry of a task can be called before the task has been activated. 7

6 If several tasks are activated together, the execution of any of these tasks need not await the end of the activation of the other tasks. 8

7 A task can become completed during its activation either because of an exception or because it is aborted (see 9.8). 9

Examples

Example of task activation: 10

```
procedure P is                                                    11
   A, B : Server;     -- elaborate the task objects A, B
   C    : Server;     -- elaborate the task object C
begin
   -- the tasks A, B, C are activated together before the first statement
   ...
end;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have replaced the term *suspended* with *blocked*, since we didn't want to consider a task blocked when it was simply competing for execution resources. "Suspended" is sometimes used more generally to refer to tasks that are not actually running on some processor, due to the lack of resources. 11.a

This clause has been rewritten in an attempt to improve presentation. 11.b

9.3 Task Dependence - Termination of Tasks

Dynamic Semantics

{*dependence (of a task on a master)*} {*task (dependence)*} {*task (completion)*} {*task (termination)*} Each task (other than an environment task — see 10.2) *depends* on one or more masters (see 7.6.1), as follows: 1

- If the task is created by the evaluation of an allocator for a given access type, it depends on each master that includes the elaboration of the declaration of the ultimate ancestor of the given access type. 2
- If the task is created by the elaboration of an object_declaration, it depends on each master that includes this elaboration. 3

{*dependence (of a task on another task)*} Furthermore, if a task depends on a given master, it is defined to depend on the task that executes the master, and (recursively) on any master of that task. 4

4.a **Discussion:** Don't confuse these kinds of dependences with the dependences among compilation units defined in 10.1.1, ''Compilation Units - Library Units''.

5 A task is said to be *completed* when the execution of its corresponding task_body is completed. A task is said to be *terminated* when any finalization of the task_body has been performed (see 7.6.1). [The first step of finalizing a master (including a task_body) is to wait for the termination of any tasks dependent on the master.] {*blocked* [waiting for dependents to terminate]} The task executing the master is blocked until all the dependents have terminated. [Any remaining finalization is then performed and the master is left.]

6 Completion of a task (and the corresponding task_body) can occur when the task is blocked at a select_statement with an an open terminate_alternative (see 9.7.1); the open terminate_alternative is selected if and only if the following conditions are satisfied:

7 • The task depends on some completed master;

8 • Each task that depends on the master considered is either already terminated or similarly blocked at a select_statement with an open terminate_alternative.

9 When both conditions are satisfied, the task considered becomes completed, together with all tasks that depend on the master considered that are not yet completed.

9.a **Ramification:** Any required finalization is performed after the selection of terminate_alternatives. The tasks are not callable during the finalization. In some ways it is as though they were aborted.

NOTES

10 8 The full view of a limited private type can be a task type, or can have subcomponents of a task type. Creation of an object of such a type creates dependences according to the full type.

11 9 An object_renaming_declaration defines a new view of an existing entity and hence creates no further dependence.

12 10 The rules given for the collective completion of a group of tasks all blocked on select_statements with open terminate_alternatives ensure that the collective completion can occur only when there are no remaining active tasks that could call one of the tasks being collectively completed.

13 11 If two or more tasks are blocked on select_statements with open terminate_alternatives, and become completed collectively, their finalization actions proceed concurrently.

14 12 The completion of a task can occur due to any of the following:

15 • the raising of an exception during the elaboration of the declarative_part of the corresponding task_body;

16 • the completion of the handled_sequence_of_statements of the corresponding task_body;

17 • the selection of an open terminate_alternative of a select_statement in the corresponding task_body;

18 • the abort of the task.

Examples

19 *Example of task dependence:*

20
```
declare
   type Global is access Server;         -- see 9.1
   A, B : Server;
   G    : Global;
begin
   -- activation of A and B
   declare
      type Local is access Server;
      X : Global := new Server;  -- activation of X.all
      L : Local  := new Server;  -- activation of L.all
      C : Server;
```

```
    begin
        -- activation of C
        G := X;   -- both G and X designate the same task object
        ...
    end;   -- await termination of C and L.all (but not X.all)
    ...
end;   -- await termination of A, B, and G.all
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We have revised the wording to be consistent with the definition of master now given in 7.6.1, ‘‘Completion and Finalization’’. 20.a

Tasks that used to depend on library packages in Ada 83, now depend on the (implicit) task_body of the environment task (see 10.2). Therefore, the environment task has to wait for them before performing library level finalization and terminating the partition. In Ada 83 the requirement to wait for tasks that depended on library packages was not as clear. 20.b

What was "collective termination" is now "collective completion" resulting from selecting terminate_alternatives. This is because finalization still occurs for such tasks, and this happens after selecting the terminate_alternative, but before termination. 20.c

9.4 Protected Units and Protected Objects

{*protected object*} {*protected operation*} {*protected subprogram*} {*protected entry*} A *protected object* provides coordinated access to shared data, through calls on its visible *protected operations*, which can be *protected subprograms* or *protected entries*. {*protected declaration*} {*protected unit*} {*protected declaration*} A *protected unit* is declared by a *protected declaration*, which has a corresponding protected_body. A protected declaration may be a protected_type_declaration, in which case it declares a named protected type; alternatively, it may be a single_protected_declaration, in which case it defines an anonymous protected type, as well as declaring a named protected object of that type. {*broadcast signal: see protected object*} 1

Syntax

protected_type_declaration ::= 2
  protected type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] **is** protected_definition;

single_protected_declaration ::= 3
  protected defining_identifier **is** protected_definition;

protected_definition ::= 4
    { protected_operation_declaration }
[**private**
    { protected_element_declaration }]
  end [*protected*_identifier]

protected_operation_declaration ::= subprogram_declaration 5
    | entry_declaration
    | representation_clause

protected_element_declaration ::= protected_operation_declaration 6
    | component_declaration

Reason: We allow the operations and components to be mixed because that’s how other things work (for example, package declarations). We have relaxed the ordering rules for the items inside declarative_parts and task_definitions as well. 6.a

protected_body ::= 7
  protected body defining_identifier **is**
   { protected_operation_item }
  end [*protected*_identifier];

8 protected_operation_item ::= subprogram_declaration
| subprogram_body
| entry_body
| representation_clause

9 If a *protected*_identifier appears at the end of a protected_definition or protected_body, it shall repeat the defining_identifier.

Legality Rules

10 {*requires a completion* [protected_declaration]} A protected declaration requires a completion[, which shall be a protected_body,] and every protected_body shall be the completion of some protected declaration.

10.a **To be honest:** The completion can be a pragma Import, if the implementation supports it.

Static Semantics

11 A protected_definition defines a protected type and its first subtype. {*visible part* [of a protected unit]} The list of protected_operation_declarations of a protected_definition, together with the known_discriminant_part, if any, is called the visible part of the protected unit. [{*private part* [of a protected unit]} The optional list of protected_element_declarations after the reserved word **private** is called the private part of the protected unit.]

11.a **Proof:** Private part is defined in Section 8.

Dynamic Semantics

12 [{*elaboration* [protected declaration]} The elaboration of a protected declaration elaborates the protected_definition. {*elaboration* [single_protected_declaration]} The elaboration of a single_protected_declaration also creates an object of an (anonymous) protected type.]

12.a **Proof:** This is redundant with the general rules for the elaboration of a full_type_declaration and an object_declaration.

13 {*elaboration* [protected_definition]} [The elaboration of a protected_definition creates the protected type and its first subtype;] it also includes the elaboration of the component_declarations and protected_operation_declarations in the given order.

14 [{*initialization* [of a protected object]} As part of the initialization of a protected object, any per-object constraints (see 3.8) are elaborated.]

14.a **Discussion:** We do not mention pragmas since each pragma has its own elaboration rules.

15 {*elaboration* [protected_body]} The elaboration of a protected_body has no other effect than to establish that protected operations of the type can from then on be called without failing the Elaboration_Check.

16 The content of an object of a given protected type includes:

17 • The values of the components of the protected object, including (implicitly) an entry queue for each entry declared for the protected object;

17.a **Ramification:** "For each entry" implies one queue for each single entry, plus one for each entry of each entry family.

18 • {*execution resource* [associated with a protected object]} A representation of the state of the execution resource *associated* with the protected object (one such resource is associated with each protected object).

19 [The execution resource associated with a protected object has to be acquired to read or update any components of the protected object; it can be acquired (as part of a protected action — see 9.5.1) either for concurrent read-only access, or for exclusive read-write access.]

{*finalization* [of a protected object]} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} As the first step of the *finalization* of a protected object, each call remaining on any entry queue of the object is removed from its queue and Program_Error is raised at the place of the corresponding entry_call_statement. 20

Reason: This is analogous to the raising of Tasking_Error in callers of a task that completes before accepting the calls. This situation can only occur due to a requeue (ignoring premature unchecked_deallocation), since any task that has accessibility to a protected object is awaited before finalizing the protected object. For example: 20.a

```
procedure Main is                                                    20.b
    task T is
        entry E;
    end T;
    task body T is                                                   20.c
        protected PO is
            entry Ee;
        end PO;
        protected body PO is                                         20.d
            entry Ee when False is
            begin
                null;
            end Ee;
        end PO;
    begin
        accept E do
            requeue PO.Ee;
        end E;
    end T;
begin
    T.E;
end Main;
```

The environment task is queued on PO.EE when PO is finalized. 20.e

In a real example, a server task might park callers on a local protected object for some useful purpose, so we didn't want to disallow this case. 20.f

NOTES

13 Within the declaration or body of a protected unit, the name of the protected unit denotes the current instance of the unit (see 8.6), rather than the first subtype of the corresponding protected type (and thus the name cannot be used as a subtype_mark). 21

Discussion: However, it is possible to refer to some other subtype of the protected type within its body, presuming such a subtype has been declared between the protected_type_declaration and the protected_body. 21.a

14 A selected_component can be used to denote a discriminant of a protected object (see 4.1.3). Within a protected unit, the name of a discriminant of the protected type denotes the corresponding discriminant of the current instance of the unit. 22

15 A protected type is a limited type (see 7.5), and hence has neither an assignment operation nor predefined equality operators. 23

16 The bodies of the protected operations given in the protected_body define the actions that take place upon calls to the protected operations. 24

17 The declarations in the private part are only visible within the private part and the body of the protected unit. 25

Reason: Component_declarations are disallowed in a protected_body because, for efficiency, we wish to allow the compiler to determine the size of protected objects (when not dynamic); the compiler cannot necessarily see the body. Furthermore, the semantics of initialization of such objects would be problematic — we do not wish to give protected objects complex initialization semantics similar to task activation. 25.a

The same applies to entry_declarations, since an entry involves an implicit component — the entry queue. 25.b

Examples

Example of declaration of protected type and corresponding body: 26

27
```
protected type Resource is
   entry Seize;
   procedure Release;
private
   Busy : Boolean := False;
end Resource;
```

28
```
protected body Resource is
   entry Seize when not Busy is
   begin
      Busy := True;
   end Seize;
```

29
```
   procedure Release is
   begin
      Busy := False;
   end Release;
end Resource;
```

30 *Example of a single protected declaration and corresponding body:*

31
```
protected Shared_Array is
   -- Index, Item, and Item_Array are global types
   function  Component    (N : in Index) return Item;
   procedure Set_Component(N : in Index; E : in  Item);
private
   Table : Item_Array(Index) := (others => Null_Item);
end Shared_Array;
```

32
```
protected body Shared_Array is
   function Component(N : in Index) return Item is
   begin
      return Table(N);
   end Component;
```

33
```
   procedure Set_Component(N : in Index; E : in Item) is
   begin
      Table(N) := E;
   end Set_Component;
end Shared_Array;
```

34 *Examples of protected objects:*

35
```
Control  : Resource;
Flags    : array(1 .. 100) of Resource;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

35.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} This entire clause is new; protected units do not exist in Ada 83.

9.5 Intertask Communication

1 {*intertask communication*} {*critical section: see intertask communication*} The primary means for intertask communication is provided by calls on entries and protected subprograms. Calls on protected subprograms allow coordinated access to shared data objects. Entry calls allow for blocking the caller until a given condition is satisfied (namely, that the corresponding entry is open — see 9.5.3), and then communicating data or control information directly with another task or indirectly via a shared protected object.

Static Semantics

2 {*target object (of a call on an entry or a protected subprogram)*} Any call on an entry or on a protected subprogram identifies a *target object* for the operation, which is either a task (for an entry call) or a protected object (for an entry call or a protected subprogram call). The target object is considered an implicit parameter to the operation, and is determined by the operation name (or prefix) used in the call on the operation, as follows:

- If it is a direct_name or expanded name that denotes the declaration (or body) of the operation, then the target object is implicitly specified to be the current instance of the task or protected unit immediately enclosing the operation; {*internal call*} such a call is defined to be an *internal call*; 3

- If it is a selected_component that is not an expanded name, then the target object is explicitly specified to be the task or protected object denoted by the prefix of the name; {*external call*} such a call is defined to be an *external call*; 4

  Discussion: For example: 4.a

```
protected type Pt is                                                    4.b
  procedure Op1;
  procedure Op2;
end Pt;

PO : Pt;                                                                4.c
Other_Object : Some_Other_Protected_Type;

protected body Pt is                                                    4.d
  procedure Op1 is begin ... end Op1;

  procedure Op2 is                                                      4.e
  begin
    Op1; -- An internal call.
    Pt.Op1; -- Another internal call.
    PO.Op1; -- An external call.  It the current instance is PO, then
            -- this is a bounded error (see 9.5.1).
    Other_Object.Some_Op; -- An external call.
  end Op2;
end Pt;
```

- If the name or prefix is a dereference (implicit or explicit) of an access-to-protected-subprogram value, then the target object is determined by the prefix of the Access attribute_reference that produced the access value originally, and the call is defined to be an *external call*; 5

- If the name or prefix denotes a subprogram_renaming_declaration, then the target object is as determined by the name of the renamed entity. 6

{*target object (of a* requeue_statement*)*} {*internal requeue*} {*external requeue*} A corresponding definition of target object applies to a requeue_statement (see 9.5.4), with a corresponding distinction between an *internal requeue* and an *external requeue*. 7

Dynamic Semantics

Within the body of a protected operation, the current instance (see 8.6) of the immediately enclosing protected unit is determined by the target object specified (implicitly or explicitly) in the call (or requeue) on the protected operation. 8

To be honest: The current instance is defined in the same way within the body of a subprogram declared immediately within a protected_body. 8.a

Any call on a protected procedure or entry of a target protected object is defined to be an update to the object, as is a requeue on such an entry. 9

Reason: Read/write access to the components of a protected object is granted while inside the body of a protected procedure or entry. Also, any protected entry call can change the value of the Count attribute, which represents an update. Any protected procedure call can result in servicing the entries, which again might change the value of a Count attribute. 9.a

9.5.1 Protected Subprograms and Protected Actions

1 {*protected subprogram*} {*protected procedure*} {*protected function*} A *protected subprogram* is a subprogram declared immediately within a protected_definition. Protected procedures provide exclusive read-write access to the data of a protected object; protected functions provide concurrent read-only access to the data.

1.a **Ramification:** A subprogram declared immediately within a protected_body is not a protected subprogram; it is an intrinsic subprogram. See 6.3.1, ‘‘Conformance Rules’’.

Static Semantics

2 Within the body of a protected function (or a function declared immediately within a protected_body), the current instance of the enclosing protected unit is defined to be a constant [(that is, its subcomponents may be read but not updated)]. Within the body of a protected procedure (or a procedure declared immediately within a protected_body), and within an entry_body, the current instance is defined to be a variable [(updating is permitted)].

2.a **Ramification:** The current instance is like an implicit parameter, of mode **in** for a protected function, and of mode **in out** for a protected procedure (or protected entry).

Dynamic Semantics

3 {*execution* [protected subprogram call]} For the execution of a call on a protected subprogram, the evaluation of the name or prefix and of the parameter associations, and any assigning back of **in out** or **out** parameters, proceeds as for a normal subprogram call (see 6.4). If the call is an internal call (see 9.5), the body of the subprogram is executed as for a normal subprogram call. If the call is an external call, then the body of the subprogram is executed as part of a new *protected action* on the target protected object; the protected action completes after the body of the subprogram is executed. [A protected action can also be started by an entry call (see 9.5.3).]

4 {*protected action*} A new protected action is not started on a protected object while another protected action on the same protected object is underway, unless both actions are the result of a call on a protected function. This rule is expressible in terms of the execution resource associated with the protected object:

5 • {*protected action (start)*} {*acquire (execution resource associated with protected object)*} *Starting* a protected action on a protected object corresponds to *acquiring* the execution resource associated with the protected object, either for concurrent read-only access if the protected action is for a call on a protected function, or for exclusive read-write access otherwise;

6 • {*protected action (complete)*} {*release (execution resource associated with protected object)*} *Completing* the protected action corresponds to *releasing* the associated execution resource.

7 [After performing an operation on a protected object other than a call on a protected function, but prior to completing the associated protected action, the entry queues (if any) of the protected object are serviced (see 9.5.3).]

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

8 {*bounded error*} During a protected action, it is a bounded error to invoke an operation that is *potentially blocking*. {*potentially blocking operation*} {*blocking, potentially*} The following are defined to be potentially blocking operations:

8.a **Reason:** Some of these operations are not directly blocking. However, they are still treated as bounded errors during a protected action, because allowing them might impose an undesirable implementation burden.

9 • a select_statement;

- an accept_statement;
- an entry_call_statement;
- a delay_statement;
- an abort_statement;
- task creation or activation;
- an external call on a protected subprogram (or an external requeue) with the same target object as that of the protected action;

  Reason: This is really a deadlocking call, rather than a blocking call, but we include it in this list for simplicity.

- a call on a subprogram whose body contains a potentially blocking operation.

  Reason: This allows an implementation to check and raise Program_Error as soon as a subprogram is called, rather than waiting to find out whether it actually reaches the potentially blocking operation. This in turn allows the potentially blocking operation check to be performed prior to run time in some environments.

{*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the bounded error is detected, Program_Error is raised. If not detected, the bounded error might result in deadlock or a (nested) protected action on the same target object.

Certain language-defined subprograms are potentially blocking. In particular, the subprograms of the language-defined input-output packages that manipulate files (implicitly or explicitly) are potentially blocking. Other potentially blocking subprograms are identified where they are defined. When not specified as potentially blocking, a language-defined subprogram is nonblocking.

NOTES

18 If two tasks both try to start a protected action on a protected object, and at most one is calling a protected function, then only one of the tasks can proceed. Although the other task cannot proceed, it is not considered blocked, and it might be consuming processing resources while it awaits its turn. There is no language-defined ordering or queuing presumed for tasks competing to start a protected action — on a multiprocessor such tasks might use busy-waiting; for monoprocessor considerations, see D.3, ‘‘Priority Ceiling Locking’’.

Discussion: The intended implementation on a multi-processor is in terms of ‘‘spin locks’’ — the waiting task will spin.

19 The body of a protected unit may contain declarations and bodies for local subprograms. These are not visible outside the protected unit.

20 The body of a protected function can contain internal calls on other protected functions, but not protected procedures, because the current instance is a constant. On the other hand, the body of a protected procedure can contain internal calls on both protected functions and procedures.

21 From within a protected action, an internal call on a protected subprogram, or an external call on a protected subprogram with a different target object is not considered a potentially blocking operation.

Reason: This is because a task is not considered blocked while attempting to acquire the execution resource associated with a protected object. The acquisition of such a resource is rather considered part of the normal competition for execution resources between the various tasks that are ready. External calls that turn out to be on the same target object are considered potentially blocking, since they can deadlock the task indefinitely.

Examples

Examples of protected subprogram calls (see 9.4):

```
Shared_Array.Set_Component(N, E);
E := Shared_Array.Component(M);
Control.Release;
```

9.5.2 Entries and Accept Statements

1 Entry_declarations, with the corresponding entry_bodies or accept_statements, are used to define potentially queued operations on tasks and protected objects.

Syntax

2 entry_declaration ::=
entry defining_identifier [(discrete_subtype_definition)] parameter_profile;

3 accept_statement ::=
accept *entry*_direct_name [(entry_index)] parameter_profile [**do**
handled_sequence_of_statements
end [*entry*_identifier]];

3.a **Reason:** We cannot use defining_identifier for accept_statements. Although an accept_statement is sort of like a body, it can appear nested within a block_statement, and therefore be hidden from its own entry by an outer homograph.

4 entry_index ::= expression

5 entry_body ::=
entry defining_identifier entry_body_formal_part entry_barrier **is**
declarative_part
begin
handled_sequence_of_statements
end [*entry*_identifier];

6 entry_body_formal_part ::= [(entry_index_specification)] parameter_profile

7 entry_barrier ::= **when** condition

8 entry_index_specification ::= **for** defining_identifier **in** discrete_subtype_definition

9 If an *entry*_identifier appears at the end of an accept_statement, it shall repeat the *entry*_direct_name. If an *entry*_identifier appears at the end of an entry_body, it shall repeat the defining_identifier.

10 [An entry_declaration is allowed only in a protected or task declaration.]

10.a **Proof:** This follows from the BNF.

Name Resolution Rules

11 {*expected profile* [accept_statement *entry*_direct_name]} In an accept_statement, the expected profile for the *entry*_direct_name is that of the entry_declaration; {*expected type* [entry_index]} the expected type for an entry_index is that of the subtype defined by the discrete_subtype_definition of the corresponding entry_declaration.

12 Within the handled_sequence_of_statements of an accept_statement, if a selected_component has a prefix that denotes the corresponding entry_declaration, then the entity denoted by the prefix is the accept_statement, and the selected_component is interpreted as an expanded name (see 4.1.3)[; the selector_name of the selected_component has to be the identifier for some formal parameter of the accept_statement].

12.a **Proof:** The only declarations that occur immediately within the declarative region of an accept_statement are those for its formal parameters.

Legality Rules

13 An entry_declaration in a task declaration shall not contain a specification for an access parameter (see 3.10).

13.a **Reason:** Access parameters for task entries would require a complex implementation. For example:

```
task T is                                                          13.b
   entry E(Z : access Integer); -- Illegal!
end T;
task body T is                                                     13.c
begin
   declare
      type A is access all Integer;
      X : A;
      Int : aliased Integer;
      task Inner;
      task body Inner is
      begin
         T.E(Int'Access);
      end Inner;
   begin
      accept E(Z : access Integer) do
         X := A(Z); -- Accessibility_Check
      end E;
   end;
end T;
```

Implementing the Accessibility_Check inside the accept_statement for E is difficult, since one does not know whether the entry caller is calling from inside the immediately enclosing declare block or from outside it. This means that the lexical nesting level associated with the designated object is not sufficient to determine whether the Accessibility_Check should pass or fail. 13.d

Note that such problems do not arise with protected entries, because entry_bodies are always nested immediately within the protected_body; they cannot be further nested as can accept_statements, nor can they be called from within the protected_body (since no entry calls are permitted inside a protected_body). 13.e

For an accept_statement, the innermost enclosing body shall be a task_body, and the *entry*_direct_name shall denote an entry_declaration in the corresponding task declaration; the profile of the accept_statement shall conform fully to that of the corresponding entry_declaration. {*full conformance (required)*} An accept_statement shall have a parenthesized entry_index if and only if the corresponding entry_declaration has a discrete_subtype_definition. 14

An accept_statement shall not be within another accept_statement that corresponds to the same entry_declaration, nor within an asynchronous_select inner to the enclosing task_body. 15

Reason: Accept_statements are required to be immediately within the enclosing task_body (as opposed to being in a nested subprogram) to ensure that a nested task does not attempt to accept the entry of its enclosing task. We considered relaxing this restriction, either by making the check a run-time check, or by allowing a nested task to accept an entry of its enclosing task. However, neither change seemed to provide sufficient benefit to justify the additional implementation burden. 15.a

Nested accept_statements for the same entry (or entry family) are prohibited to ensure that there is no ambiguity in the resolution of an expanded name for a formal parameter of the entry. This could be relaxed by allowing the inner one to hide the outer one from all visibility, but again the small added benefit didn't seem to justify making the change for Ada 9X. 15.b

Accept_statements are not permitted within asynchronous_select statements to simplify the semantics and implementation: an accept_statement in an abortable_part could result in Tasking_Error being propagated from an entry call even though the target task was still callable; implementations that use multiple tasks implicitly to implement an asynchronous_select might have trouble supporting "up-level" accepts. Furthermore, if accept_statements were permitted in the abortable_part, a task could call its own entry and then accept it in the abortable_part, leading to rather unusual and possibly difficult-to-specify semantics. 15.c

{*requires a completion* [protected entry_declaration]} An entry_declaration of a protected unit requires a completion[, which shall be an entry_body,] {*only as a completion* [entry_body]} and every entry_body shall be the completion of an entry_declaration of a protected unit. {*completion legality* [entry_body]} The profile of the entry_body shall conform fully to that of the corresponding declaration. {*full conformance (required)*} 16

16.a **Ramification:** An entry_declaration, unlike a subprogram_declaration, cannot be completed with a renaming_declaration.

16.b **To be honest:** The completion can be a pragma Import, if the implementation supports it.

16.c **Discussion:** The above applies only to protected entries, which are the only ones completed with entry_bodies. Task entries have corresponding accept_statements instead of having entry_bodies, and we do not consider an accept_statement to be a ''completion,'' because a task entry_declaration is allowed to have zero, one, or more than one corresponding accept_statements.

17 An entry_body_formal_part shall have an entry_index_specification if and only if the corresponding entry_declaration has a discrete_subtype_definition. In this case, the discrete_subtype_definitions of the entry_declaration and the entry_index_specification shall fully conform to one another (see 6.3.1). {*full conformance (required)*}

18 A name that denotes a formal parameter of an entry_body is not allowed within the entry_barrier of the entry_body.

Static Semantics

19 The parameter modes defined for parameters in the parameter_profile of an entry_declaration are the same as for a subprogram_declaration and have the same meaning (see 6.2).

19.a **Discussion:** Note that access parameters are not allowed for task entries (see above).

20 {*family (entry)*} {*entry family*} {*entry index subtype*} An entry_declaration with a discrete_subtype_definition (see 3.6) declares a *family* of distinct entries having the same profile, with one such entry for each value of the *entry index subtype* defined by the discrete_subtype_definition. [A name for an entry of a family takes the form of an indexed_component, where the prefix denotes the entry_declaration for the family, and the index value identifies the entry within the family.] {*single entry*} {*entry (single)*} The term *single entry* is used to refer to any entry other than an entry of an entry family.

21 In the entry_body for an entry family, the entry_index_specification declares a named constant whose subtype is the entry index subtype defined by the corresponding entry_declaration; {*named entry index*} the value of the *named entry index* identifies which entry of the family was called.

21.a **Ramification:** The discrete_subtype_definition of the entry_index_specification is not elaborated; the subtype of the named constant declared is defined by the discrete_subtype_definition of the corresponding entry_declaration, which is elaborated, either when the type is declared, or when the object is created, if its constraint is per-object.

Dynamic Semantics

22 {*elaboration* [entry_declaration]} For the elaboration of an entry_declaration for an entry family, if the discrete_subtype_definition contains no per-object expressions (see 3.8), then the discrete_subtype_definition is elaborated. Otherwise, the elaboration of the entry_declaration consists of the evaluation of any expression of the discrete_subtype_definition that is not a per-object expression (or part of one). The elaboration of an entry_declaration for a single entry has no effect.

22.a **Discussion:** The elaboration of the declaration of a protected subprogram has no effect, as specified in clause 6.1. The default initialization of an object of a task or protected type is covered in 3.3.1.

23 [The actions to be performed when an entry is called are specified by the corresponding accept_statements (if any) for an entry of a task unit, and by the corresponding entry_body for an entry of a protected unit.]

24 {*execution* [accept_statement]} For the execution of an accept_statement, the entry_index, if any, is first evaluated and converted to the entry index subtype; this index value identifies which entry of the family is to be accepted. {*implicit subtype conversion* [entry index]} {*blocked* [on an accept_statement]} {*selection (of an entry*

caller)} Further execution of the accept_statement is then blocked until a caller of the corresponding entry is selected (see 9.5.3), whereupon the handled_sequence_of_statements, if any, of the accept_statement is executed, with the formal parameters associated with the corresponding actual parameters of the selected entry call. Upon completion of the handled_sequence_of_statements, the accept_statement completes and is left. When an exception is propagated from the handled_sequence_of_statements of an accept_statement, the same exception is also raised by the execution of the corresponding entry_call_statement.

Ramification: This is in addition to propagating it to the construct containing the accept_statement. In other words, for a rendezvous, the raising splits in two, and continues concurrently in both tasks. 24.a

The caller gets a new occurrence; this isn't considered propagation. 24.b

Note that we say ''propagated from the handled_sequence_of_statements of an accept_statement'', not ''propagated from an accept_statement.'' The latter would be wrong — we don't want exceptions propagated by the entry_index to be sent to the caller (there is none yet!). 24.c

{*rendezvous*} The above interaction between a calling task and an accepting task is called a *rendezvous*. [After a rendezvous, the two tasks continue their execution independently.] 25

[An entry_body is executed when the condition of the entry_barrier evaluates to True and a caller of the corresponding single entry, or entry of the corresponding entry family, has been selected (see 9.5.3).] {*execution* [entry_body]} For the execution of the entry_body, the declarative_part of the entry_body is elaborated, and the handled_sequence_of_statements of the body is executed, as for the execution of a subprogram_body. The value of the named entry index, if any, is determined by the value of the entry index specified in the *entry*_name of the selected entry call (or intermediate requeue_statement — see 9.5.4). 26

To be honest: If the entry had been renamed as a subprogram, and the call was a procedure_call_statement using the name declared by the renaming, the entry index (if any) comes from the entry name specified in the subprogram_renaming_declaration. 26.a

NOTES

22 A task entry has corresponding accept_statements (zero or more), whereas a protected entry has a corresponding entry_body (exactly one). 27

23 A consequence of the rule regarding the allowed placements of accept_statements is that a task can execute accept_statements only for its own entries. 28

24 A return_statement (see 6.5) or a requeue_statement (see 9.5.4) may be used to complete the execution of an accept_statement or an entry_body. 29

Ramification: An accept_statement need not have a handled_sequence_of_statements even if the corresponding entry has parameters. Equally, it can have a handled_sequence_of_statements even if the corresponding entry has no parameters. 29.a

Ramification: A single entry overloads a subprogram, an enumeration literal, or another single entry if they have the same defining_identifier. Overloading is not allowed for entry family names. A single entry or an entry of an entry family can be renamed as a procedure as explained in 8.5.4. 29.b

25 The condition in the entry_barrier may reference anything visible except the formal parameters of the entry. This includes the entry index (if any), the components (including discriminants) of the protected object, the Count attribute of an entry of that protected object, and data global to the protected unit. 30

The restriction against referencing the formal parameters within an entry_barrier ensures that all calls of the same entry see the same barrier value. If it is necessary to look at the parameters of an entry call before deciding whether to handle it, the entry_barrier can be ''**when** True'' and the caller can be requeued (on some private entry) when its parameters indicate that it cannot be handled immediately. 31

Examples

Examples of entry declarations:

```
entry Read(V : out Item);
entry Seize;
entry Request(Level)(D : Item);  -- a family of entries
```

Examples of accept statements:

```
accept Shut_Down;
accept Read(V : out Item) do
   V := Local_Item;
end Read;
accept Request(Low)(D : Item) do
   ...
end Request;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for entry_body is new.

Accept_statements can now have exception_handlers.

9.5.3 Entry Calls

{*entry call*} [An entry_call_statement (an *entry call*) can appear in various contexts.] {*simple entry call*} {*entry call (simple)*} A *simple* entry call is a stand-alone statement that represents an unconditional call on an entry of a target task or a protected object. [Entry calls can also appear as part of select_statements (see 9.7).]

Syntax

entry_call_statement ::= *entry*_name [actual_parameter_part];

Name Resolution Rules

The *entry*_name given in an entry_call_statement shall resolve to denote an entry. The rules for parameter associations are the same as for subprogram calls (see 6.4 and 6.4.1).

Static Semantics

[The *entry*_name of an entry_call_statement specifies (explicitly or implicitly) the target object of the call, the entry or entry family, and the entry index, if any (see 9.5).]

Dynamic Semantics

{*open entry*} {*entry (open)*} {*closed entry*} {*entry (closed)*} Under certain circumstances (detailed below), an entry of a task or protected object is checked to see whether it is *open* or *closed*:

- {*open entry (of a task)*} {*closed entry (of a task)*} An entry of a task is open if the task is blocked on an accept_statement that corresponds to the entry (see 9.5.2), or on a selective_accept (see 9.7.1) with an open accept_alternative that corresponds to the entry; otherwise it is closed.

- {*open entry (of a protected object)*} {*closed entry (of a protected object)*} An entry of a protected object is open if the condition of the entry_barrier of the corresponding entry_body evaluates to True; otherwise it is closed. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the evaluation of the condition propagates an exception, the exception Program_Error is propagated to all current callers of all entries of the protected object.

Reason: An exception during barrier evaluation is considered essentially a fatal error. All current entry callers are notified with a Program_Error. In a fault-tolerant system, a protected object might provide a Reset protected procedure, or equivalent, to support attempts to restore such a "broken" protected object to a reasonable state.

Discussion: Note that the definition of when a task entry is open is based on the state of the (accepting) task, whereas the "openness" of a protected entry is defined only when it is explicitly checked, since the barrier expression needs to be evaluated. Implementation permissions are given (below) to allow implementations to evaluate the barrier expression more or less often than it is checked, but the basic semantic model presumes it is evaluated at the times when it is checked. 7.b

{*execution* [entry_call_statement]} For the execution of an entry_call_statement, evaluation of the name and of the parameter associations is as for a subprogram call (see 6.4). {*issue (an entry call)*} The entry call is then *issued*: For a call on an entry of a protected object, a new protected action is started on the object (see 9.5.1). The named entry is checked to see if it is open; {*select an entry call (immediately)*} if open, the entry call is said to be *selected immediately*, and the execution of the call proceeds as follows: 8

- For a call on an open entry of a task, the accepting task becomes ready and continues the execution of the corresponding accept_statement (see 9.5.2). 9
- For a call on an open entry of a protected object, the corresponding entry_body is executed (see 9.5.2) as part of the protected action. 10

If the accept_statement or entry_body completes other than by a requeue (see 9.5.4), return is made to the caller (after servicing the entry queues — see below); any necessary assigning back of formal to actual parameters occurs, as for a subprogram call (see 6.4.1); such assignments take place outside of any protected action. 11

Ramification: The return to the caller will generally not occur until the protected action completes, unless some other thread of control is given the job of completing the protected action and releasing the associated execution resource. 11.a

If the named entry is closed, the entry call is added to an *entry queue* (as part of the protected action, for a call on a protected entry), and the call remains queued until it is selected or cancelled; {*entry queue*} there is a separate (logical) entry queue for each entry of a given task or protected object [(including each entry of an entry family)]. 12

{*service (an entry queue)*} {*select an entry call (from an entry queue)*} When a queued call is *selected*, it is removed from its entry queue. Selecting a queued call from a particular entry queue is called *servicing* the entry queue. An entry with queued calls can be serviced under the following circumstances: 13

- When the associated task reaches a corresponding accept_statement, or a selective_accept with a corresponding open accept_alternative; 14
- If after performing, as part of a protected action on the associated protected object, an operation on the object other than a call on a protected function, the entry is checked and found to be open. 15

{*select an entry call (from an entry queue)*} If there is at least one call on a queue corresponding to an open entry, then one such call is selected according to the *entry queuing policy* in effect (see below), and the corresponding accept_statement or entry_body is executed as above for an entry call that is selected immediately. 16

{*entry queuing policy*} The entry queuing policy controls selection among queued calls both for task and protected entry queues. {*default entry queuing policy*} {*entry queuing policy (default policy)*} The default entry queuing policy is to select calls on a given entry queue in order of arrival. If calls from two or more queues are simultaneously eligible for selection, the default entry queuing policy does not specify which queue is serviced first. Other entry queuing policies can be specified by pragmas (see D.4). 17

For a protected object, the above servicing of entry queues continues until there are no open entries with queued calls, at which point the protected action completes. 18

18.a **Discussion:** While servicing the entry queues of a protected object, no new calls can be added to any entry queue of the object, except due to an internal requeue (see 9.5.4). This is because the first step of a call on a protected entry is to start a new protected action, which implies acquiring (for exclusive read-write access) the execution resource associated with the protected object, which cannot be done while another protected action is already in progress.

19 {*blocked* [during an entry call]} For an entry call that is added to a queue, and that is not the triggering_statement of an asynchronous_select (see 9.7.4), the calling task is blocked until the call is cancelled, or the call is selected and a corresponding accept_statement or entry_body completes without requeuing. In addition, the calling task is blocked during a rendezvous.

19.a **Ramification:** For a call on a protected entry, the caller is not blocked if the call is selected immediately, unless a requeue causes the call to be queued.

20 {*cancellation (of an entry call)*} An attempt can be made to cancel an entry call upon an abort (see 9.8) and as part of certain forms of select_statement (see 9.7.2, 9.7.3, and 9.7.4). The cancellation does not take place until a point (if any) when the call is on some entry queue, and not protected from cancellation as part of a requeue (see 9.5.4); at such a point, the call is removed from the entry queue and the call completes due to the cancellation. The cancellation of a call on an entry of a protected object is a protected action[, and as such cannot take place while any other protected action is occurring on the protected object. Like any protected action, it includes servicing of the entry queues (in case some entry barrier depends on a Count attribute).]

20.a **Implementation Note:** In the case of an attempted cancellation due to abort, this removal might have to be performed by the calling task itself if the ceiling priority of the protected object is lower than the task initiating the abort.

21 {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} A call on an entry of a task that has already completed its execution raises the exception Tasking_Error at the point of the call; similarly, this exception is raised at the point of the call if the called task completes its execution or becomes abnormal before accepting the call or completing the rendezvous (see 9.8). This applies equally to a simple entry call and to an entry call as part of a select_statement.

Implementation Permissions

22 An implementation may perform the sequence of steps of a protected action using any thread of control; it need not be that of the task that started the protected action. If an entry_body completes without requeuing, then the corresponding calling task may be made ready without waiting for the entire protected action to complete.

22.a **Reason:** These permissions are intended to allow flexibility for implementations on multiprocessors. On a monoprocessor, which thread of control executes the protected action is essentially invisible, since the thread is not abortable in any case, and the "current_task" function is not guaranteed to work during a protected action (see C.7).

23 When the entry of a protected object is checked to see whether it is open, the implementation need not reevaluate the condition of the corresponding entry_barrier if no variable or attribute referenced by the condition (directly or indirectly) has been altered by the execution (or cancellation) of a protected procedure or entry call on the object since the condition was last evaluated.

23.a **Ramification:** Changes to variables referenced by an entry barrier that result from actions outside of a protected procedure or entry call on the protected object need not be "noticed." For example, if a global variable is referenced by an entry barrier, it should not be altered (except as part of a protected action on the object) any time after the barrier is first evaluated. In other words, globals can be used to "parameterize" a protected object, but they cannot reliably be used to control it after the first use of the protected object.

23.b **Implementation Note:** Note that even if a global variable is volatile, the implementation need only reevaluate a barrier if the global is updated during a protected action on the protected object. This ensures that an entry-open bit-vector implementation approach is possible, where the bit-vector is computed at the end of a protected action, rather than upon each entry call.

An implementation may evaluate the conditions of all entry_barriers of a given protected object any time any entry of the object is checked to see if it is open. 24

Ramification: In other words, any side-effects of evaluating an entry barrier should be innocuous, since an entry barrier might be evaluated more or less often than is implied by the "official" dynamic semantics. 24.a

Implementation Note: It is anticipated that when the number of entries is known to be small, all barriers will be evaluated any time one of them needs to be, to produce an "entry-open bit-vector." The appropriate bit will be tested when the entry is called, and only if the bit is false will a check be made to see whether the bit-vector might need to be recomputed. This should allow an implementation to maximize the performance of a call on an open entry, which seems like the most important case. 24.b

In addition to the entry-open bit-vector, an "is-valid" bit is needed per object, which indicates whether the current bit-vector setting is valid. A "depends-on-Count-attribute" bit is needed per type. The "is-valid" bit is set to false (as are all the bits of the bit-vector) when the protected object is first created, as well as any time an exception is propagated from computing the bit-vector. Is-valid would also be set false any time the Count is changed and "depends-on-Count-attribute" is true for the type, or a protected procedure or entry returns indicating it might have updated a variable referenced in some barrier. 24.c

A single procedure can be compiled to evaluate all of the barriers, set the entry-open bit-vector accordingly, and set the is-valid bit to true. It could have a "when others" handler to set them all false, and call a routine to propagate Program_Error to all queued callers. 24.d

For protected types where the number of entries is not known to be small, it makes more sense to evaluate a barrier only when the corresponding entry is checked to see if it is open. It isn't worth saving the state of the entry between checks, because of the space that would be required. Furthermore, the entry queues probably want to take up space only when there is actually a caller on them, so rather than an array of all entry queues, a linked list of nonempty entry queues make the most sense in this case, with the first caller on each entry queue acting as the queue header. 24.e

When an attempt is made to cancel an entry call, the implementation need not make the attempt using the thread of control of the task (or interrupt) that initiated the cancellation; in particular, it may use the thread of control of the caller itself to attempt the cancellation, even if this might allow the entry call to be selected in the interim. 25

Reason: Because cancellation of a protected entry call is a protected action (which helps make the Count attribute of a protected entry meaningful), it might not be practical to attempt the cancellation from the thread of control that initiated the cancellation. For example, if the cancellation is due to the expiration of a delay, it is unlikely that the handler of the timer interrupt could perform the necessary protected action itself (due to being on the interrupt level). Similarly, if the cancellation is due to an abort, it is possible that the task initiating the abort has a priority higher than the ceiling priority of the protected object (for implementations that support ceiling priorities). Similar considerations could apply in a multiprocessor situation. 25.a

NOTES

26 If an exception is raised during the execution of an entry_body, it is propagated to the corresponding caller (see 11.4). 26

27 For a call on a protected entry, the entry is checked to see if it is open prior to queuing the call, and again thereafter if its Count attribute (see 9.9) is referenced in some entry barrier. 27

Ramification: Given this, extra care is required if a reference to the Count attribute of an entry appears in the entry's own barrier. 27.a

Reason: An entry is checked to see if it is open prior to queuing to maximize the performance of a call on an open entry. 27.b

28 In addition to simple entry calls, the language permits timed, conditional, and asynchronous entry calls (see 9.7.2, 9.7.3, and see 9.7.4). 28

Ramification: A task can call its own entries, but the task will deadlock if the call is a simple entry call. 28.a

29 The condition of an entry_barrier is allowed to be evaluated by an implementation more often than strictly necessary, even if the evaluation might have side effects. On the other hand, an implementation need not reevaluate the condition if nothing it references was updated by an intervening protected action on the protected object, even if the condition references some global variable that might have been updated by an action performed from outside of a protected action. 29

Examples

30 *Examples of entry calls:*

31
```
Agent.Shut_Down;                          -- see 9.1
Parser.Next_Lexeme(E);                    -- see 9.1
Pool(5).Read(Next_Char);                  -- see 9.1
Controller.Request(Low)(Some_Item);       -- see 9.1
Flags(3).Seize;                           -- see 9.4
```

9.5.4 Requeue Statements

1 [A requeue_statement can be used to complete an accept_statement or entry_body, while redirecting the corresponding entry call to a new (or the same) entry queue. {*requeue*} Such a *requeue* can be performed with or without allowing an intermediate cancellation of the call, due to an abort or the expiration of a delay. {*preference control: see requeue*} {*broadcast signal: see requeue*}]

Syntax

2 requeue_statement ::= **requeue** *entry*_name [**with abort**];

Name Resolution Rules

3 {*target entry (of a* requeue_statement*)*} The *entry*_name of a requeue_statement shall resolve to denote an entry (the *target entry*) that either has no parameters, or that has a profile that is type conformant (see 6.3.1) with the profile of the innermost enclosing entry_body or accept_statement. {*type conformance (required)*}

Legality Rules

4 A requeue_statement shall be within a callable construct that is either an entry_body or an accept_statement, and this construct shall be the innermost enclosing body or callable construct.

5 If the target entry has parameters, then its profile shall be subtype conformant with the profile of the innermost enclosing callable construct. {*subtype conformance (required)*}

6 {*accessibility rule* [requeue statement]} In a requeue_statement of an accept_statement of some task unit, either the target object shall be a part of a formal parameter of the accept_statement, or the accessibility level of the target object shall not be equal to or statically deeper than any enclosing accept_statement of the task unit. In a requeue_statement of an entry_body of some protected unit, either the target object shall be a part of a formal parameter of the entry_body, or the accessibility level of the target object shall not be statically deeper than that of the entry_declaration.

6.a **Ramification:** In the entry_body case, the intent is that the target object can be global, or can be a component of the protected unit, but cannot be a local variable of the entry_body.

6.b **Reason:** These restrictions ensure that the target object of the requeue outlives the completion and finalization of the enclosing callable construct. They also prevent requeuing from a nested accept_statement on a parameter of an outer accept_statement, which could create some strange "long-distance" connections between an entry caller and its server.

6.c Note that in the strange case where a task_body is nested inside an accept_statement, it is permissible to requeue from an accept_statement of the inner task_body on parameters of the outer accept_statement. This is not a problem because all calls on the inner task have to complete before returning from the outer accept_statement, meaning no "dangling calls" will be created.

6.d **Implementation Note:** By disallowing certain requeues, we ensure that the normal terminate_alternative rules remain sensible, and that explicit clearing of the entry queues of a protected object during finalization is rarely necessary. In particular, such clearing of the entry queues is necessary only (ignoring premature Unchecked_Deallocation) for protected objects declared in a task_body (or created by an allocator for an access type declared in such a body) containing one or more requeue_statements. Protected objects declared in subprograms, or at the library level, will never need to have their entry queues explicitly cleared during finalization.

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [requeue_statement]} The execution of a requeue_statement proceeds by first evaluating the *entry*_name[, including the prefix identifying the target task or protected object and the expression identifying the entry within an entry family, if any]. The entry_body or accept_statement enclosing the requeue_statement is then completed[, finalized, and left (see 7.6.1)]. 7

{*execution* [requeue task entry]} For the execution of a requeue on an entry of a target task, after leaving the enclosing callable construct, the named entry is checked to see if it is open and the requeued call is either selected immediately or queued, as for a normal entry call (see 9.5.3). 8

{*execution* [requeue protected entry]} For the execution of a requeue on an entry of a target protected object, after leaving the enclosing callable construct: 9

- if the requeue is an internal requeue (that is, the requeue is back on an entry of the same protected object — see 9.5), the call is added to the queue of the named entry and the ongoing protected action continues (see 9.5.1); 10

  Ramification: Note that for an internal requeue, the call is queued without checking whether the target entry is open. This is because the entry queues will be serviced before the current protected action completes anyway, and considering the requeued call immediately might allow it to "jump" ahead of existing callers on the same queue. 10.a

- if the requeue is an external requeue (that is, the target protected object is not implicitly the same as the current object — see 9.5), a protected action is started on the target object and proceeds as for a normal entry call (see 9.5.3). 11

If the new entry named in the requeue_statement has formal parameters, then during the execution of the accept_statement or entry_body corresponding to the new entry, the formal parameters denote the same objects as did the corresponding formal parameters of the callable construct completed by the requeue. [In any case, no parameters are specified in a requeue_statement; any parameter passing is implicit.] 12

{*requeue-with-abort*} If the requeue_statement includes the reserved words **with abort** (it is a *requeue-with-abort*), then: 13

- if the original entry call has been aborted (see 9.8), then the requeue acts as an abort completion point for the call, and the call is cancelled and no requeue is performed; 14

- if the original entry call was timed (or conditional), then the original expiration time is the expiration time for the requeued call. 15

If the reserved words **with abort** do not appear, then the call remains protected against cancellation while queued as the result of the requeue_statement. 16

Ramification: This protection against cancellation lasts only until the call completes or a subsequent requeue-with-abort is performed on the call. 16.a

Reason: We chose to protect a requeue, by default, against abort or cancellation. This seemed safer, since it is likely that extra steps need to be taken to allow for possible cancellation once the servicing of an entry call has begun. This also means that in the absence of **with abort** the usual Ada 83 behavior is preserved, namely that once an entry call is accepted, it cannot be cancelled until it completes. 16.b

NOTES

30 A requeue is permitted from a single entry to an entry of an entry family, or vice-versa. The entry index, if any, plays no part in the subtype conformance check between the profiles of the two entries; an entry index is part of the *entry*_name for an entry of a family. {*subtype conformance* [partial]} 17

Examples

Examples of requeue statements:

```
requeue Request(Medium) with abort;
                        -- requeue on a member of an entry family of the current task, see 9.1
requeue Flags(I).Seize;
                        -- requeue on an entry of an array component, see 9.4
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The requeue_statement is new.

9.6 Delay Statements, Duration, and Time

[{*expiration time* [partial]} A delay_statement is used to block further execution until a specified *expiration time* is reached. The expiration time can be specified either as a particular point in time (in a delay_until_statement), or in seconds from the current time (in a delay_relative_statement). The language-defined package Calendar provides definitions for a type Time and associated operations, including a function Clock that returns the current time. {*timing: see delay_statement*}]

Syntax

delay_statement ::= delay_until_statement | delay_relative_statement

delay_until_statement ::= **delay until** *delay*_expression;

delay_relative_statement ::= **delay** *delay*_expression;

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [delay_relative_statement expression]} The expected type for the *delay*_expression in a delay_relative_statement is the predefined type Duration. {*expected type* [delay_until_statement expression]} The *delay*_expression in a delay_until_statement is expected to be of any nonlimited type.

Legality Rules

{*time type*} {*time base*} {*clock*} There can be multiple time bases, each with a corresponding clock, and a corresponding *time type*. The type of the *delay*_expression in a delay_until_statement shall be a time type — either the type Time defined in the language-defined package Calendar (see below), or some other implementation-defined time type (see D.8).

Implementation defined: Any implementation-defined time types.

Static Semantics

[There is a predefined fixed point type named Duration, declared in the visible part of package Standard;] a value of type Duration is used to represent the length of an interval of time, expressed in seconds. [The type Duration is not specific to a particular time base, but can be used with any time base.]

A value of the type Time in package Calendar, or of some other implementation-defined time type, represents a time as reported by a corresponding clock.

The following language-defined library package exists:

```
package Ada.Calendar is
  type Time is private;

  subtype Year_Number  is Integer range 1901 ..  2099;
  subtype Month_Number is Integer range 1 ..  12;
  subtype Day_Number   is Integer range 1 ..  31;
  subtype Day_Duration is Duration range 0.0 ..  86_400.0;

  function Clock return Time;
```

```
   function Year   (Date : Time) return Year_Number;                                  13
   function Month  (Date : Time) return Month_Number;
   function Day    (Date : Time) return Day_Number;
   function Seconds(Date : Time) return Day_Duration;
   procedure Split (Date  : in Time;                                                  14
                    Year    : out Year_Number;
                    Month   : out Month_Number;
                    Day     : out Day_Number;
                    Seconds : out Day_Duration);
   function Time_Of(Year  : Year_Number;                                              15
                    Month   : Month_Number;
                    Day     : Day_Number;
                    Seconds : Day_Duration := 0.0)
    return Time;
   function "+" (Left : Time;   Right : Duration) return Time;                        16
   function "+" (Left : Duration; Right : Time) return Time;
   function "-" (Left : Time;   Right : Duration) return Time;
   function "-" (Left : Time;   Right : Time) return Duration;
   function "<" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;                                  17
   function "<="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
   function ">" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
   function ">="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
   Time_Error : exception;                                                            18
private                                                                               19
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Calendar;
```

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [delay_statement]} For the execution of a delay_statement, the *delay*_expression is first evaluated. 20
{*expiration time (for a* delay_until_statement*)*} For a delay_until_statement, the expiration time for the delay is the value of the *delay*_expression, in the time base associated with the type of the expression. {*expiration time (for a* delay_relative_statement*)*} For a delay_relative_statement, the expiration time is defined as the current time, in the time base associated with relative delays, plus the value of the *delay*_expression converted to the type Duration, and then rounded up to the next clock tick. {*implicit subtype conversion* [delay expression]} The time base associated with relative delays is as defined in D.9, ‘‘Delay Accuracy’’ or is implementation defined.

Implementation defined: The time base associated with relative delays. 20.a

Ramification: Rounding up to the next clock tick means that the reading of the delay-relative clock when the delay expires should be no less than the current reading of the delay-relative clock plus the specified duration. 20.b

{*blocked* [on a delay_statement]} The task executing a delay_statement is blocked until the expiration time is reached, at which point it becomes ready again. If the expiration time has already passed, the task is not blocked. 21

Discussion: For a delay_relative_statement, this case corresponds to when the value of the *delay*_expression is zero or negative. 21.a

Even though the task is not blocked, it might be put back on the end of its ready queue. See D.2, ‘‘Priority Scheduling’’. 21.b

{*cancellation (of a* delay_statement*)*} If an attempt is made to *cancel* the delay_statement [(as part of an asynchronous_select or abort — see 9.7.4 and 9.8)], the _statement is cancelled if the expiration time has not yet passed, thereby completing the delay_statement. 22

Reason: This is worded this way so that in an asynchronous_select where the triggering_statement is a delay_statement, an attempt to cancel the delay when the abortable_part completes is ignored if the expiration time has already passed, in which case the optional statements of the triggering_alternative are executed. 22.a

23 The time base associated with the type Time of package Calendar is implementation defined.

23.a **Implementation defined:** The time base of the type Calendar.Time.

The function Clock of package Calendar returns a value representing the current time for this time base. [The implementation-defined value of the named number System.Tick (see 13.7) is an approximation of the length of the real-time interval during which the value of Calendar.Clock remains constant.]

24 The functions Year, Month, Day, and Seconds return the corresponding values for a given value of the type Time, as appropriate to an implementation-defined timezone; the procedure Split returns all four corresponding values. Conversely, the function Time_Of combines a year number, a month number, a day number, and a duration, into a value of type Time. The operators "+" and "–" for addition and subtraction of times and durations, and the relational operators for times, have the conventional meaning.

24.a **Implementation defined:** The timezone used for package Calendar operations.

25 If Time_Of is called with a seconds value of 86_400.0, the value returned is equal to the value of Time_Of for the next day with a seconds value of 0.0. The value returned by the function Seconds or through the Seconds parameter of the procedure Split is always less than 86_400.0.

26 The exception Time_Error is raised by the function Time_Of if the actual parameters do not form a proper date. This exception is also raised by the operators "+" and "–" if the result is not representable in the type Time or Duration, as appropriate. This exception is also raised by the function Year or the procedure Split if the year number of the given date is outside of the range of the subtype Year_Number.

26.a **To be honest:** By "proper date" above we mean that the given year has a month with the given day. For example, February 29th is a proper date only for a leap year.

26.b **Reason:** We allow Year and Split to raise Time_Error because the arithmetic operators are allowed (but not required) to produce times that are outside the range of years from 1901 to 2099. This is similar to the way integer operators may return values outside the base range of their type so long as the value is mathematically correct.

Implementation Requirements

27 The implementation of the type Duration shall allow representation of time intervals (both positive and negative) up to at least 86400 seconds (one day); Duration'Small shall not be greater than twenty milliseconds. The implementation of the type Time shall allow representation of all dates with year numbers in the range of Year_Number[; it may allow representation of other dates as well (both earlier and later).]

Implementation Permissions

28 An implementation may define additional time types (see D.8).

29 An implementation may raise Time_Error if the value of a *delay*_expression in a delay_until_statement of a select_statement represents a time more than 90 days past the current time. The actual limit, if any, is implementation-defined.

29.a **Implementation defined:** Any limit on delay_until_statements of select_statements.

29.b **Implementation Note:** This allows an implementation to implement select_statement timeouts using a representation that does not support the full range of a time type. In particular 90 days of seconds can be represented in 23 bits, allowing a signed 24-bit representation for the seconds part of a timeout. There is no similar restriction allowed for stand-alone delay_until_statements, as these can be implemented internally using a loop if necessary to accommodate a long delay.

Implementation Advice

30 Whenever possible in an implementation, the value of Duration'Small should be no greater than 100 microseconds.

Implementation Note: This can be satisfied using a 32-bit 2's complement representation with a *small* of 2.0**(–14) — that is, 61 microseconds — and a range of ± 2.0**17 — that is, 131_072.0. 30.a

The time base for delay_relative_statements should be monotonic; it need not be the same time base as used for Calendar.Clock. 31

NOTES

31 A delay_relative_statement with a negative value of the *delay*_expression is equivalent to one with a zero value. 32

32 A delay_statement may be executed by the environment task; consequently delay_statements may be executed as part of the elaboration of a library_item or the execution of the main subprogram. Such statements delay the environment task (see 10.2). 33

33 {*potentially blocking operation* [delay_statement]} {*blocking, potentially* [delay_statement]} A delay_statement is an abort completion point and a potentially blocking operation, even if the task is not actually blocked. 34

34 There is no necessary relationship between System.Tick (the resolution of the clock of package Calendar) and Duration'Small (the *small* of type Duration). 35

Ramification: The inaccuracy of the delay_statement has no relation to System.Tick. In particular, it is possible that the clock used for the delay_statement is less accurate than Calendar.Clock. 35.a

We considered making Tick a run-time-determined quantity, to allow for easier configurability. However, this would not be upward compatible, and the desired configurability can be achieved using functionality defined in Annex D, ''Real-Time Systems''. 35.b

35 Additional requirements associated with delay_statements are given in D.9, ''Delay Accuracy''. 36

Examples

Example of a relative delay statement: 37

```
delay 3.0;   -- delay 3.0 seconds
```
38

{*periodic task (example)*} {*periodic task: see delay_until_statement*} *Example of a periodic task:* 39

```
declare                                                              40
   use Ada.Calendar;
   Next_Time : Time := Clock + Period;
                        -- Period is a global constant of type Duration
begin
   loop                 -- repeated every Period seconds
      delay until Next_Time;
      ... -- perform some actions
      Next_Time := Next_Time + Period;
   end loop;
end;
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} For programs that raise Time_Error on "+" or "–" in Ada 83,the exception might be deferred until a call on Split or Year_Number, or might not be raised at all (if the offending time is never Split after being calculated). This should not affect typical programs, since they deal only with times corresponding to the relatively recent past or near future. 40.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for delay_statement is modified to allow delay_until_statements. 40.b

The type Time may represent dates with year numbers outside of Year_Number. Therefore, the operations "+" and "–" need only raise Time_Error if the result is not representable in Time (or Duration); also, Split or Year will now raise Time_Error if the year number is outside of Year_Number. This change is intended to simplify the implementation of "+" and "–" (allowing them to depend on overflow for detecting when to raise Time_Error) and to allow local timezone information to be considered at the time of Split rather than Clock (depending on the implementation approach). For example, in a POSIX environment, it is natural for the type Time to be based on GMT, and the results of procedure Split (and the functions Year, Month, Day, and Seconds) to depend on local time zone information. In other environments, it is more natural for the type Time to be based on the local time zone, with the results of Year, Month, Day, and Seconds being pure functions of their input. 40.c

40.d We anticipate that implementations will provide child packages of Calendar to provide more explicit control over time zones and other environment-dependent time-related issues. These would be appropriate for standardization in a given environment (such as POSIX).

9.7 Select Statements

1 [There are four forms of the select_statement. One form provides a selective wait for one or more select_alternatives. Two provide timed and conditional entry calls. The fourth provides asynchronous transfer of control.]

Syntax

2 select_statement ::=
  selective_accept
 | timed_entry_call
 | conditional_entry_call
 | asynchronous_select

Examples

3 *Example of a select statement:*

4
```
select
   accept Driver_Awake_Signal;
or
   delay 30.0*Seconds;
   Stop_The_Train;
end select;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

4.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Asynchronous_select is new.

9.7.1 Selective Accept

1 [This form of the select_statement allows a combination of waiting for, and selecting from, one or more alternatives. The selection may depend on conditions associated with each alternative of the selective_accept. {*time-out: see selective_accept*}]

Syntax

2 selective_accept ::=
  select
   [guard]
    select_alternative
{ **or**
   [guard]
    select_alternative }
[**else**
   sequence_of_statements]
  end select;

3 guard ::= **when** condition =>

4 select_alternative ::=
   accept_alternative
  | delay_alternative
  | terminate_alternative

5 accept_alternative ::=
  accept_statement [sequence_of_statements]

delay_alternative ::= 6
  delay_statement [sequence_of_statements]

terminate_alternative ::= **terminate**; 7

A selective_accept shall contain at least one accept_alternative. In addition, it can contain: 8

- a terminate_alternative (only one); or 9
- one or more delay_alternatives; or 10
- {*else part (of a* selective_accept*)*} an *else part* (the reserved word **else** followed by a sequence_of_statements). 11

These three possibilities are mutually exclusive. 12

Legality Rules

If a selective_accept contains more than one delay_alternative, then all shall be delay_relative_statements, or all shall be delay_until_statements for the same time type. 13

Reason: This simplifies the implementation and the description of the semantics. 13.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*open alternative*} A select_alternative is said to be *open* if it is not immediately preceded by a guard, or if the condition of its guard evaluates to True. It is said to be *closed* otherwise. 14

{*execution* [selective_accept]} For the execution of a selective_accept, any guard conditions are evaluated; open alternatives are thus determined. For an open delay_alternative, the *delay*_expression is also evaluated. Similarly, for an open accept_alternative for an entry of a family, the entry_index is also evaluated. These evaluations are performed in an arbitrary order, except that a *delay*_expression or entry_index is not evaluated until after evaluating the corresponding condition, if any. Selection and execution of one open alternative, or of the else part, then completes the execution of the selective_accept; the rules for this selection are described below. 15

Open accept_alternatives are first considered. Selection of one such alternative takes place immediately if the corresponding entry already has queued calls. If several alternatives can thus be selected, one of them is selected according to the entry queuing policy in effect (see 9.5.3 and D.4). When such an alternative is selected, the selected call is removed from its entry queue and the handled_sequence_of_statements (if any) of the corresponding accept_statement is executed; after the rendezvous completes any subsequent sequence_of_statements of the alternative is executed. {*blocked* [execution of a selective_accept]} If no selection is immediately possible (in the above sense) and there is no else part, the task blocks until an open alternative can be selected. 16

Selection of the other forms of alternative or of an else part is performed as follows: 17

- An open delay_alternative is selected when its expiration time is reached if no accept_alternative or other delay_alternative can be selected prior to the expiration time. If several delay_alternatives have this same expiration time, one of them is selected according to the queuing policy in effect (see D.4); the default queuing policy chooses arbitrarily among the delay_alternatives whose expiration time has passed. 18
- The else part is selected and its sequence_of_statements is executed if no accept_alternative can immediately be selected; in particular, if all alternatives are closed. 19
- An open terminate_alternative is selected if the conditions stated at the end of clause 9.3 are satisfied. 20

20.a **Ramification:** In the absence of a requeue_statement, the conditions stated are such that a terminate_alternative cannot be selected while there is a queued entry call for any entry of the task. In the presence of requeues from a task to one of its subtasks, it is possible that when a terminate_alternative of the subtask is selected, requeued calls (for closed entries only) might still be queued on some entry of the subtask. Tasking_Error will be propagated to such callers, as is usual when a task completes while queued callers remain.

21 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Program_Error is raised if all alternatives are closed and there is no else part.

NOTES

22 36 A selective_accept is allowed to have several open delay_alternatives. A selective_accept is allowed to have several open accept_alternatives for the same entry.

Examples

23 *Example of a task body with a selective accept:*

24
```
task body Server is
   Current_Work_Item : Work_Item;
begin
   loop
      select
         accept Next_Work_Item(WI : in Work_Item) do
            Current_Work_Item := WI;
          end;
          Process_Work_Item(Current_Work_Item);
      or
         accept Shut_Down;
         exit;        -- Premature shut down requested
      or
         terminate;   -- Normal shutdown at end of scope
      end select;
   end loop;
end Server;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

24.a The name of selective_wait was changed to selective_accept to better describe what is being waited for. We kept select_alternative as is, because selective_accept_alternative was too easily confused with accept_alternative.

9.7.2 Timed Entry Calls

1 [A timed_entry_call issues an entry call that is cancelled if the call (or a requeue-with-abort of the call) is not selected before the expiration time is reached. {*time-out: see timed_entry_call*}]

Syntax

2
```
timed_entry_call ::=
 select
  entry_call_alternative
 or
  delay_alternative
 end select;
```

3
```
entry_call_alternative ::=
 entry_call_statement [sequence_of_statements]
```

Dynamic Semantics

4 {*execution* [timed_entry_call]} For the execution of a timed_entry_call, the *entry*_name and the actual parameters are evaluated, as for a simple entry call (see 9.5.3). The expiration time (see 9.6) for the call is determined by evaluating the *delay*_expression of the delay_alternative; the entry call is then issued.

If the call is queued (including due to a requeue-with-abort), and not selected before the expiration time is reached, an attempt to cancel the call is made. If the call completes due to the cancellation, the optional sequence_of_statements of the delay_alternative is executed; if the entry call completes normally, the optional sequence_of_statements of the entry_call_alternative is executed. 5

Ramification: The fact that the syntax calls for an entry_call_statement means that this fact is used in overload resolution. For example, if there is a procedure X and an entry X (both with no parameters), then "select X; ..." is legal, because overload resolution knows that the entry is the one that was meant. 5.a

Examples

Example of a timed entry call: 6

```
select                                                                  7
   Controller.Request(Medium)(Some_Item);
or
   delay 45.0;
   -- controller too busy, try something else
end select;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This clause comes before the one for Conditional Entry Calls, so we can define conditional entry calls in terms of timed entry calls. 7.a

9.7.3 Conditional Entry Calls

[A conditional_entry_call issues an entry call that is then cancelled if it is not selected immediately (or if a requeue-with-abort of the call is not selected immediately).] 1

To be honest: In the case of an entry call on a protected object, it is OK if the entry is closed at the start of the corresponding protected action, so long as it opens and the call is selected before the end of that protected action (due to changes in the Count attribute). 1.a

Syntax

conditional_entry_call ::= 2
select
entry_call_alternative
else
sequence_of_statements
end select;

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [conditional_entry_call]} The execution of a conditional_entry_call is defined to be equivalent to the execution of a timed_entry_call with a delay_alternative specifying an immediate expiration time and the same sequence_of_statements as given after the reserved word **else**. 3

NOTES
37 A conditional_entry_call may briefly increase the Count attribute of the entry, even if the conditional call is not selected. 4

Examples

Example of a conditional entry call: 5

6
```
procedure Spin(R : in Resource) is
begin
   loop
      select
         R.Seize;
         return;
      else
         null;  -- busy waiting
      end select;
   end loop;
end;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

6.a This clause comes after the one for Timed Entry Calls, so we can define conditional entry calls in terms of timed entry calls. We do that so that an "expiration time" is defined for both, thereby simplifying the definition of what happens on a requeue-with-abort.

9.7.4 Asynchronous Transfer of Control

1 [An asynchronous select_statement provides asynchronous transfer of control upon completion of an entry call or the expiration of a delay.]

Syntax

2 asynchronous_select ::=
select
triggering_alternative
then abort
abortable_part
end select;

3 triggering_alternative ::= triggering_statement [sequence_of_statements]

4 triggering_statement ::= entry_call_statement | delay_statement

5 abortable_part ::= sequence_of_statements

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*execution* [asynchronous_select with an entry call trigger]} For the execution of an asynchronous_select whose triggering_statement is an entry_call_statement, the *entry*_name and actual parameters are evaluated as for a simple entry call (see 9.5.3), and the entry call is issued. If the entry call is queued (or requeued-with-abort), then the abortable_part is executed. [If the entry call is selected immediately, and never requeued-with-abort, then the abortable_part is never started.]

7 {*execution* [asynchronous_select with a delay_statement trigger]} For the execution of an asynchronous_select whose triggering_statement is a delay_statement, the *delay*_expression is evaluated and the expiration time is determined, as for a normal delay_statement. If the expiration time has not already passed, the abortable_part is executed.

8 If the abortable_part completes and is left prior to completion of the triggering_statement, an attempt to cancel the triggering_statement is made. If the attempt to cancel succeeds (see 9.5.3 and 9.6), the asynchronous_select is complete.

9 If the triggering_statement completes other than due to cancellation, the abortable_part is aborted (if started but not yet completed — see 9.8). If the triggering_statement completes normally, the optional sequence_of_statements of the triggering_alternative is executed after the abortable_part is left.

Discussion: We currently don't specify when the by-copy [**in**] **out** parameters are assigned back into the actuals. We considered requiring that to happen after the abortable_part is left. However, that doesn't seem useful enough to justify possibly overspecifying the implementation approach, since some of the parameters are passed by reference anyway. 9.a

In an earlier description, we required that the sequence_of_statements of the triggering_alternative execute after aborting the abortable_part, but before waiting for it to complete and finalize, to provide more rapid response to the triggering event in case the finalization was unbounded. However, various reviewers felt that this created unnecessary complexity in the description, and a potential for undesirable concurrency (and nondeterminism) within a single task. We have now reverted to simpler, more deterministic semantics, but anticipate that further discussion of this issue might be appropriate during subsequent reviews. One possibility is to leave this area implementation defined, so as to encourage experimentation. The user would then have to assume the worst about what kinds of actions are appropriate for the sequence_of_statements of the triggering_alternative to achieve portability. 9.b

Examples

{*signal handling (example)*} {*interrupt (example using* asynchronous_select*)*} {*terminal interrupt (example)*} *Example of a main command loop for a command interpreter:* 10

```
loop                                                                    11
    select
        Terminal.Wait_For_Interrupt;
        Put_Line("Interrupted");
    then abort
        -- This will be abandoned upon terminal interrupt
        Put_Line("-> ");
        Get_Line(Command, Last);
        Process_Command(Command(1..Last));
    end select;
end loop;
```

Example of a time-limited calculation: {*time-out: see asynchronous_select*} {*time-out (example)*} {*time limit (example)*} {*interrupt (example using* asynchronous_select*)*} {*timer interrupt (example)*} 12

```
select                                                                  13
   delay 5.0;
   Put_Line("Calculation does not converge");
then abort
   -- This calculation should finish in 5.0 seconds;
   -- if not, it is assumed to diverge.
   Horribly_Complicated_Recursive_Function(X, Y);
end select;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Asynchronous_select is new. 13.a

9.8 Abort of a Task - Abort of a Sequence of Statements

[An abort_statement causes one or more tasks to become abnormal, thus preventing any further interaction with such tasks. The completion of the triggering_statement of an asynchronous_select causes a sequence_of_statements to be aborted.] 1

Syntax

abort_statement ::= **abort** *task*_name {, *task*_name}; 2

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [abort_statement task_name]} Each *task*_name is expected to be of any task type[; they need not all be of the same task type.] 3

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [abort_statement]} For the execution of an abort_statement, the given *task*_names are evaluated in an arbitrary order. {*abort (of a task)*} {*abnormal task*} {*task state* [abnormal]} Each named task is then *aborted*, 4

which consists of making the task *abnormal* and aborting the execution of the corresponding task_body, unless it is already completed.

4.a **Ramification:** Note that aborting those tasks is not defined to be an abort-deferred operation. Therefore, if one of the named tasks is the task executing the abort_statement, or if the task executing the abort_statement depends on one of the named tasks, then it is possible for the execution of the abort_statement to be aborted, thus leaving some of the tasks unaborted. This allows the implementation to use either a sequence of calls to an ''abort task'' RTS primitive, or a single call to an ''abort list of tasks'' RTS primitive.

5 {*execution* [aborting the execution of a construct]} {*abort (of the execution of a construct)*} When the execution of a construct is *aborted* (including that of a task_body or of a sequence_of_statements), the execution of every construct included within the aborted execution is also aborted, except for executions included within the execution of an *abort-deferred* operation; the execution of an abort-deferred operation continues to completion without being affected by the abort; {*abort-deferred operation*} the following are the abort-deferred operations:

6 • a protected action;

7 • waiting for an entry call to complete (after having initiated the attempt to cancel it — see below);

8 • waiting for the termination of dependent tasks;

9 • the execution of an Initialize procedure as the last step of the default initialization of a controlled object;

10 • the execution of a Finalize procedure as part of the finalization of a controlled object;

11 • an assignment operation to an object with a controlled part.

12 [The last three of these are discussed further in 7.6.]

12.a **Reason:** Deferring abort during Initialize and finalization allows, for example, the result of an allocator performed in an Initialize operation to be assigned into an access object without being interrupted in the middle, which would cause storage leaks. For an object with several controlled parts, each individual Initialize is abort-deferred. Note that there is generally no semantic difference between making each Finalize abort-deferred, versus making a group of them abort-deferred, because if the task gets aborted, the first thing it will do is complete any remaining finalizations. Individual objects are finalized prior to an assignment operation (if nonlimited controlled) and as part of Unchecked_Deallocation.

12.b **Ramification:** Abort is deferred during the entire assignment operation to an object with a controlled part, even if only some subcomponents are controlled. Note that this says "assignment operation," not "assignment_statement." Explicit calls to Initialize, Finalize, or Adjust are not abort-deferred.

13 When a master is aborted, all tasks that depend on that master are aborted.

14 {*unspecified* [partial]} The order in which tasks become abnormal as the result of an abort_statement or the abort of a sequence_of_statements is not specified by the language.

15 If the execution of an entry call is aborted, an immediate attempt is made to cancel the entry call (see 9.5.3). If the execution of a construct is aborted at a time when the execution is blocked, other than for an entry call, at a point that is outside the execution of an abort-deferred operation, then the execution of the construct completes immediately. For an abort due to an abort_statement, these immediate effects occur before the execution of the abort_statement completes. Other than for these immediate cases, the execution of a construct that is aborted does not necessarily complete before the abort_statement completes. However, the execution of the aborted construct completes no later than its next *abort completion point* (if any) that occurs outside of an abort-deferred operation; {*abort completion point*} the following are abort completion points for an execution:

- the point where the execution initiates the activation of another task; 16
- the end of the activation of a task; 17
- the start or end of the execution of an entry call, accept_statement, delay_statement, or abort_statement; 18

  Ramification: Although the abort completion point doesn't occur until the end of the entry call or delay_statement, these operations might be cut short because an abort attempts to cancel them. 18.a

- the start of the execution of a select_statement, or of the sequence_of_statements of an exception_handler. 19

  Reason: The start of an exception_handler is considered an abort completion point simply because it is easy for an implementation to check at such points. 19.a

  Implementation Note: Implementations may of course check for abort more often than at each abort completion point; ideally, a fully preemptive implementation of abort will be provided. If preemptive abort is not supported in a given environment, then supporting the checking for abort as part of subprogram calls and loop iterations might be a useful option. 19.b

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} An attempt to execute an asynchronous_select as part of the execution of an abort-deferred operation is a bounded error. Similarly, an attempt to create a task that depends on a master that is included entirely within the execution of an abort-deferred operation is a bounded error. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} In both cases, Program_Error is raised if the error is detected by the implementation; otherwise the operations proceed as they would outside an abort-deferred operation, except that an abort of the abortable_part or the created task might or might not have an effect. 20

Reason: An asynchronous_select relies on an abort of the abortable_part to effect the asynchronous transfer of control. For an asynchronous_select within an abort-deferred operation, the abort might have no effect. 20.a

Creating a task dependent on a master included within an abort-deferred operation is considered an error, because such tasks could be aborted while the abort-deferred operation was still progressing, undermining the purpose of abort-deferral. Alternatively, we could say that such tasks are abort-deferred for their entire execution, but that seems too easy to abuse. Note that task creation is already a bounded error in protected actions, so this additional rule only applies to local task creation as part of Initialize, Finalize, or Adjust. 20.b

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} {*normal state of an object* [partial]} {*abnormal state of an object* [partial]} {*disruption of an assignment*} If an assignment operation completes prematurely due to an abort, the assignment is said to be *disrupted*; the target of the assignment or its parts can become abnormal, and certain subsequent uses of the object can be erroneous, as explained in 13.9.1. 21

NOTES

38 An abort_statement should be used only in situations requiring unconditional termination. 22

39 A task is allowed to abort any task it can name, including itself. 23

40 Additional requirements associated with abort are given in D.6, ''Preemptive Abort''. 24

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This clause has been rewritten to accommodate the concept of aborting the execution of a construct, rather than just of a task. 24.a

9.9 Task and Entry Attributes

Dynamic Semantics

For a prefix T that is of a task type [(after any implicit dereference)], the following attributes are defined: 1

2 T'Callable — Yields the value True when the task denoted by T is *callable*, and False otherwise; {*task state* [callable]} {*callable*} a task is callable unless it is completed or abnormal. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

3 T'Terminated — Yields the value True if the task denoted by T is terminated, and False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

4 For a prefix E that denotes an entry of a task or protected unit, the following attribute is defined. This attribute is only allowed within the body of the task or protected unit, but excluding, in the case of an entry of a task unit, within any program unit that is, itself, inner to the body of the task unit.

5 E'Count — Yields the number of calls presently queued on the entry E of the current instance of the unit. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*.

NOTES

6 41 For the Count attribute, the entry can be either a single entry or an entry of a family. The name of the entry or entry family can be either a direct_name or an expanded name.

7 42 Within task units, algorithms interrogating the attribute E'Count should take precautions to allow for the increase of the value of this attribute for incoming entry calls, and its decrease, for example with timed_entry_calls. Also, a conditional_entry_call may briefly increase this value, even if the conditional call is not accepted.

8 43 Within protected units, algorithms interrogating the attribute E'Count in the entry_barrier for the entry E should take precautions to allow for the evaluation of the condition of the barrier both before and after queuing a given caller.

9.10 Shared Variables

Static Semantics

1 {*shared variable (protection of)*} {*independently addressable*} If two different objects, including nonoverlapping parts of the same object, are *independently addressable*, they can be manipulated concurrently by two different tasks without synchronization. Normally, any two nonoverlapping objects are independently addressable. However, if packing, record layout, or Component_Size is specified for a given composite object, then it is implementation defined whether or not two nonoverlapping parts of that composite object are independently addressable.

1.a **Implementation defined:** Whether or not two nonoverlapping parts of a composite object are independently addressable, in the case where packing, record layout, or Component_Size is specified for the object.

1.b **Implementation Note:** Independent addressability is the only high level semantic effect of a pragma Pack. If two objects are independently addressable, the implementation should allocate them in such a way that each can be written by the hardware without writing the other. For example, unless the user asks for it, it is generally not feasible to choose a bit-packed representation on a machine without an atomic bit field insertion instruction, because there might be tasks that update neighboring subcomponents concurrently, and locking operations on all subcomponents is generally not a good idea.

1.c Even if packing or one of the other above-mentioned aspects is specified, subcomponents should still be updated independently if the hardware efficiently supports it.

Dynamic Semantics

2 [Separate tasks normally proceed independently and concurrently with one another. However, task interactions can be used to synchronize the actions of two or more tasks to allow, for example, meaningful communication by the direct updating and reading of variables shared between the tasks.] The actions of two different tasks are synchronized in this sense when an action of one task *signals* an action of the other task; {*signal (as defined between actions)*} an action A1 is defined to signal an action A2 under the following circumstances:

3 • If A1 and A2 are part of the execution of the same task, and the language rules require A1 to be performed before A2;

- If A1 is the action of an activator that initiates the activation of a task, and A2 is part of the execution of the task that is activated; 4

- If A1 is part of the activation of a task, and A2 is the action of waiting for completion of the activation; 5

- If A1 is part of the execution of a task, and A2 is the action of waiting for the termination of the task; 6

- If A1 is the action of issuing an entry call, and A2 is part of the corresponding execution of the appropriate entry_body or accept_statement. 7

  Ramification: Evaluating the entry_index of an accept_statement is not synchronized with a corresponding entry call, nor is evaluating the entry barrier of an entry_body. 7.a

- If A1 is part of the execution of an accept_statement or entry_body, and A2 is the action of returning from the corresponding entry call; 8

- If A1 is part of the execution of a protected procedure body or entry_body for a given protected object, and A2 is part of a later execution of an entry_body for the same protected object; 9

  Reason: The underlying principle here is that for one action to ''signal'' a second, the second action has to follow a potentially blocking operation, whose blocking is dependent on the first action in some way. Protected procedures are not potentially blocking, so they can only be "signalers," they cannot be signaled. 9.a

  Ramification: Protected subprogram calls are not defined to signal one another, which means that such calls alone cannot be used to synchronize access to shared data outside of a protected object. 9.b

  Reason: The point of this distinction is so that on multiprocessors with inconsistent caches, the caches only need to be refreshed at the beginning of an entry body, and forced out at the end of an entry body or protected procedure that leaves an entry open. Protected function calls, and protected subprogram calls for entryless protected objects do not require full cache consistency. Entryless protected objects are intended to be treated roughly like atomic objects — each operation is indivisible with respect to other operations (unless both are reads), but such operations cannot be used to synchronize access to other nonvolatile shared variables. 9.c

- If A1 signals some action that in turn signals A2. 10

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} Given an action of assigning to an object, and an action of reading or updating a part of the same object (or of a neighboring object if the two are not independently addressable), then the execution of the actions is erroneous unless the actions are *sequential*. {*sequential (actions)*} Two actions are sequential if one of the following is true: 11

- One action signals the other; 12

- Both actions occur as part of the execution of the same task; 13

  Reason: Any two actions of the same task are sequential, even if one does not signal the other because they can be executed in an ''arbitrary'' (but necessarily equivalent to some ''sequential'') order. 13.a

- Both actions occur as part of protected actions on the same protected object, and at most one of the actions is part of a call on a protected function of the protected object. 14

  Reason: Because actions within protected actions do not always imply signaling, we have to mention them here explicitly to make sure that actions occurring within different protected actions of the same protected object are sequential with respect to one another (unless both are part of calls on protected functions). 14.a

  Ramification: It doesn't matter whether or not the variable being assigned is actually a subcomponent of the protected object; globals can be safely updated from within the bodies of protected procedures or entries. 14.b

A pragma Atomic or Atomic_Components may also be used to ensure that certain reads and updates are sequential — see C.6. 15

15.a **Ramification:** If two actions are ‘‘sequential’’ it is known that their executions don’t overlap in time, but it is not necessarily specified which occurs first. For example, all actions of a single task are sequential, even though the exact order of execution is not fully specified for all constructs.

15.b **Discussion:** Note that if two assignments to the same variable are sequential, but neither signals the other, then the program is not erroneous, but it is not specified which assignment ultimately prevails. Such a situation usually corresponds to a programming mistake, but in some (rare) cases, the order makes no difference, and for this reason this situation is not considered erroneous nor even a bounded error. In Ada 83, this was considered an ‘‘incorrect order dependence’’ if the ‘‘effect’’ of the program was affected, but ‘‘effect’’ was never fully defined. In Ada 9X, this situation represents a potential nonportability, and a friendly compiler might want to warn the programmer about the situation, but it is not considered an error. An example where this would come up would be in gathering statistics as part of referencing some information, where the assignments associated with statistics gathering don’t need to be ordered since they are just accumulating aggregate counts, sums, products, etc.

9.11 Example of Tasking and Synchronization

Examples

1 The following example defines a buffer protected object to smooth variations between the speed of output of a producing task and the speed of input of some consuming task. For instance, the producing task might have the following structure:

2
```
task Producer;
```

3
```
task body Producer is
   Char : Character;
begin
   loop
      ... -- produce the next character Char
      Buffer.Write(Char);
      exit when Char = ASCII.EOT;
   end loop;
end Producer;
```

4 and the consuming task might have the following structure:

5
```
task Consumer;
```

6
```
task body Consumer is
   Char : Character;
begin
   loop
      Buffer.Read(Char);
      exit when Char = ASCII.EOT;
      ... -- consume the character Char
   end loop;
end Consumer;
```

7 The buffer object contains an internal pool of characters managed in a round-robin fashion. The pool has two indices, an In_Index denoting the space for the next input character and an Out_Index denoting the space for the next output character.

8
```
protected Buffer is
   entry Read (C : out Character);
   entry Write(C : in  Character);
private
   Pool      : String(1 .. 100);
   Count     : Natural := 0;
   In_Index, Out_Index : Positive := 1;
end Buffer;
```

```
protected body Buffer is                                                    9
   entry Write(C : in Character)
      when Count < Pool'Length is
   begin
      Pool(In_Index) := C;
      In_Index := (In_Index mod Pool'Length) + 1;
      Count    := Count + 1;
   end Write;
   entry Read(C : out Character)                                            10
      when Count > 0 is
   begin
      C := Pool(Out_Index);
      Out_Index := (Out_Index mod Pool'Length) + 1;
      Count     := Count - 1;
   end Read;
end Buffer;
```

Section 10: Program Structure and Compilation Issues

[The overall structure of programs and the facilities for separate compilation are described in this section. A *program* is a set of *partitions*, each of which may execute in a separate address space, possibly on a separate computer. 1

Glossary entry: {*Program*} A *program* is a set of *partitions*, each of which may execute in a separate address space, possibly on a separate computer. A partition consists of a set of library units. 1.a

Glossary entry: {*Partition*} A *partition* is a part of a program. Each partition consists of a set of library units. Each partition may run in a separate address space, possibly on a separate computer. A program may contain just one partition. A distributed program typically contains multiple partitions, which can execute concurrently. 1.b

{*library unit (informal introduction)*} {*library_item (informal introduction)*} {*library (informal introduction)*} As explained below, a partition is constructed from *library units*. Syntactically, the declaration of a library unit is a library_item, as is the body of a library unit. An implementation may support a concept of a *program library* (or simply, a ''library''), which contains library_items and their subunits. {*program library: see library*} Library units may be organized into a hierarchy of children, grandchildren, and so on.] 2

This section has two clauses: 10.1, ''Separate Compilation'' discusses compile-time issues related to separate compilation. 10.2, ''Program Execution'' discusses issues related to what is traditionally known as ''link time'' and ''run time'' — building and executing partitions. 3

Language Design Principles

{*avoid overspecifying environmental issues*} We should avoid specifying details that are outside the domain of the language itself. The standard is intended (at least in part) to promote portability of Ada programs at the source level. It is not intended to standardize extra-language issues such as how one invokes the compiler (or other tools), how one's source is represented and organized, version management, the format of error messages, etc. 3.a

{*safe separate compilation*} {*separate compilation (safe)*} The rules of the language should be enforced even in the presence of separate compilation. Using separate compilation should not make a program less safe. 3.b

{*legality determinable via semantic dependences*} It should be possible to determine the legality of a compilation unit by looking only at the compilation unit itself and the compilation units upon which it depends semantically. As an example, it should be possible to analyze the legality of two compilation units in parallel if they do not depend semantically upon each other. 3.c

On the other hand, it may be necessary to look outside that set in order to generate code — this is generally true for generic instantiation and inlining, for example. Also on the other hand, it is generally necessary to look outside that set in order to check Post-Compilation Rules. 3.d

See also the ''generic contract model'' Language Design Principle of 12.3, ''Generic Instantiation''. 3.e

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The section organization mentioned above is different from that of RM83. 3.f

10.1 Separate Compilation

[{*separate compilation*} {*compilation (separate)*} {*Program unit*} [*glossary entry*]A *program unit* is either a package, a task unit, a protected unit, a protected entry, a generic unit, or an explicitly declared subprogram other than an enumeration literal. Certain kinds of program units can be separately compiled. Alternatively, they can appear physically nested within other program units. 1

{*Compilation unit*} [*glossary entry*]The text of a program can be submitted to the compiler in one or more compilations. Each compilation is a succession of compilation_units. A compilation_unit contains either the declaration, the body, or a renaming of a program unit.] The representation for a compilation is implementation-defined. 2

2.a **Implementation defined:** The representation for a compilation.

2.b **Ramification:** Some implementations might choose to make a compilation be a source (text) file. Others might allow multiple source files to be automatically concatenated to form a single compilation. Others still may represent the source in a nontextual form such as a parse tree. Note that the RM9X does not even define the concept of a source file.

2.c Note that a protected subprogram is a subprogram, and therefore a program unit. An instance of a generic unit is a program unit.

2.d A protected entry is a program unit, but protected entries cannot be separately compiled.

3 {*Library unit*} [*glossary entry*]A library unit is a separately compiled program unit, and is always a package, subprogram, or generic unit. Library units may have other (logically nested) library units as children, and may have other program units physically nested within them. {*subsystem*} A root library unit, together with its children and grandchildren and so on, form a *subsystem*.

Implementation Permissions

4 An implementation may impose implementation-defined restrictions on compilations that contain multiple compilation_units.

4.a **Implementation defined:** Any restrictions on compilations that contain multiple compilation_units.

4.b **Discussion:** For example, an implementation might disallow a compilation that contains two versions of the same compilation unit, or that contains the declarations for library packages P1 and P2, where P1 precedes P2 in the compilation but P1 has a with_clause that mentions P2.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

4.c The interactions between language issues and environmental issues are left open in Ada 9X. The environment concept is new. In Ada 83, the concept of the program library, for example, appeared to be quite concrete, although the rules had no force, since implementations could get around them simply by defining various mappings from the concept of an Ada program library to whatever data structures were actually stored in support of separate compilation. Indeed, implementations were encouraged to do so.

4.d In RM83, it was unclear which was the official definition of ‘‘program unit.’’ Definitions appeared in RM83-5, 6, 7, and 9, but not 12. Placing it here seems logical, since a program unit is sort of a potential compilation unit.

10.1.1 Compilation Units - Library Units

1 [A library_item is a compilation unit that is the declaration, body, or renaming of a library unit. Each library unit (except Standard) has a *parent unit*, which is a library package or generic library package.] {*child (of a library unit)*} A library unit is a *child* of its parent unit. The *root* library units are the children of the predefined library package Standard.

1.a **Ramification:** Standard is a library unit.

Syntax

2 compilation ::= {compilation_unit}

3
```
compilation_unit ::=
   context_clause library_item
 | context_clause subunit
```

4
```
library_item ::= [private] library_unit_declaration
  | library_unit_body
  | [private] library_unit_renaming_declaration
```

5
```
library_unit_declaration ::=
    subprogram_declaration | package_declaration
  | generic_declaration    | generic_instantiation
```

library_unit_renaming_declaration ::= 6
  package_renaming_declaration
| generic_renaming_declaration
| subprogram_renaming_declaration

library_unit_body ::= subprogram_body | package_body 7

parent_unit_name ::= name 8

{*library unit*} A *library unit* is a program unit that is declared by a library_item. When a program unit is a library unit, the prefix ''library'' is used to refer to it (or ''generic library'' if generic), as well as to its declaration and body, as in ''library procedure'', ''library package_body'', or ''generic library package''. {*compilation unit*} The term *compilation unit* is used to refer to a compilation_unit. When the meaning is clear from context, the term is also used to refer to the library_item of a compilation_unit or to the proper_body of a subunit [(that is, the compilation_unit without the context_clause and the **separate** (parent_unit_name))]. 9

Discussion: In this example: 9.a

```
with Ada.Text_IO;
package P is
   ...
end P;
```
9.b

the term ''compilation unit'' can refer to this text: ''**with** Ada.Text_IO; **package** P **is** ... **end** P;'' or to this text: ''**package** P **is** ... **end** P;''. We use this shorthand because it corresponds to common usage. 9.c

We like to use the word ''unit'' for declaration-plus-body things, and ''item'' for declaration or body separately (as in declarative_item). The terms ''compilation_unit,'' ''compilation unit,'' and ''subunit'' are exceptions to this rule. We considered changing ''compilation_unit,'' ''compilation unit'' to ''compilation_item,'' ''compilation item,'' respectively, but we decided not to. 9.d

{*parent declaration (of a* library_item*)*} {*parent declaration (of a library unit)*} The *parent declaration* of a library_item (and of the library unit) is the declaration denoted by the parent_unit_name, if any, of the defining_program_unit_name of the library_item. {*root library unit*} If there is no parent_unit_name, the parent declaration is the declaration of Standard, the library_item is a *root* library_item, and the library unit (renaming) is a *root* library unit (renaming). The declaration and body of Standard itself have no parent declaration. {*parent unit (of a library unit)*} The *parent unit* of a library_item or library unit is the library unit declared by its parent declaration. 10

Discussion: The declaration and body of Standard are presumed to exist from the beginning of time, as it were. There is no way to actually write them, since there is no syntactic way to indicate lack of a parent. An attempt to compile a package Standard would result in Standard.Standard. 10.a

Reason: Library units (other than Standard) have ''parent declarations'' and ''parent units''. Subunits have ''parent bodies''. We didn't bother to define the other possibilities: parent body of a library unit, parent declaration of a subunit, parent unit of a subunit. These are not needed, and might get in the way of a correct definition of ''child.'' 10.b

[The children of a library unit occur immediately within the declarative region of the declaration of the library unit.] {*ancestor (of a library unit)*} The *ancestors* of a library unit are itself, its parent, its parent's parent, and so on. [(Standard is an ancestor of every library unit.)] {*descendant*} The *descendant* relation is the inverse of the ancestor relation. 11

Reason: These definitions are worded carefully to avoid defining subunits as children. Only library units can be children. 11.a

We use the unadorned term ''ancestors'' here to concisely define both ''ancestor unit'' and ''ancestor declaration.'' 11.b

{*public library unit*} {*public declaration of a library unit*} {*private library unit*} {*private declaration of a library unit*} A library_unit_declaration or a library_unit_renaming_declaration is *private* if the declaration is immediately 12

preceded by the reserved word **private**; it is otherwise *public*. A library unit is private or public according to its declaration. {*public descendant (of a library unit)*} The *public descendants* of a library unit are the library unit itself, and the public descendants of its public children. {*private descendant (of a library unit)*} Its other descendants are *private descendants*.

12.a **Discussion:** The first concept defined here is that a library_item is either public or private (not in relation to anything else — it's just a property of the library unit). The second concept is that a library_item is a public descendant or private descendant *of a given ancestor*. A given library_item can be a public descendant of one of its ancestors, but a private descendant of some other ancestor.

12.b A subprogram declared by a subprogram_body (as opposed to a subprogram_declaration) is always public, since the syntax rules disallow the reserved word **private** on a body.

12.c Note that a private library unit is a *public* descendant of itself, but a *private* descendant of its parent. This is because it is visible outside itself — its privateness means that it is not visible outside its parent.

12.d Private children of Standard are legal, and follow the normal rules. It is intended that implementations might have some method for taking an existing environment, and treating it as a package to be ''imported'' into another environment, treating children of Standard in the imported environment as children of the imported package.

12.e **Ramification:** Suppose we have a public library unit A, a private library unit A.B, and a public library unit A.B.C. A.B.C is a public descendant of itself and of A.B, but a private descendant of A; since A.B is private to A, we don't allow A.B.C to escape outside A either. This is similar to the situation that would occur with physical nesting, like this:

12.f
```
package A is
private
    package B is
        package C is
        end C;
    private
    end B;
end A;
```

12.g Here, A.B.C is visible outside itself and outside A.B, but not outside A. (Note that this example is intended to illustrate the visibility of program units from the outside; the visibility within child units is not quite identical to that of physically nested units, since child units are nested after their parent's declaration.)

Legality Rules

13 The parent unit of a library_item shall be a [library] package or generic [library] package.

14 If a defining_program_unit_name of a given declaration or body has a parent_unit_name, then the given declaration or body shall be a library_item. The body of a program unit shall be a library_item if and only if the declaration of the program unit is a library_item. In a library_unit_renaming_declaration, the [(old)] name shall denote a library_item.

14.a **Discussion:** We could have allowed nested program units to be children of other program units; their semantics would make sense. We disallow them to keep things simpler and because they wouldn't be particularly useful.

15 A parent_unit_name [(which can be used within a defining_program_unit_name of a library_item and in the **separate** clause of a subunit)], and each of its prefixes, shall not denote a renaming_declaration. [On the other hand, a name that denotes a library_unit_renaming_declaration is allowed in a with_clause and other places where the name of a library unit is allowed.]

16 If a library package is an instance of a generic package, then every child of the library package shall either be itself an instance or be a renaming of a library unit.

16.a **Discussion:** A child of an instance of a given generic unit will often be an instance of a (generic) child of the given generic unit. This is not required, however.

16.b **Reason:** Instances are forbidden from having noninstance children for two reasons:

16.c 1. We want all source code that can depend on information from the private part of a library unit to be inside the "subsystem" rooted at the library unit. If an instance of a generic unit were allowed to have a

noninstance as a child, the source code of that child might depend on information from the private part of the generic unit, even though it is outside the subsystem rooted at the generic unit.

2. Disallowing noninstance children simplifies the description of the semantics of children of generic packages. 16.d

A child of a generic library package shall either be itself a generic unit or be a renaming of some other child of the same generic unit. The renaming of a child of a generic package shall occur only within the declarative region of the generic package. 17

A child of a parent generic package shall be instantiated or renamed only within the declarative region of the parent generic. 18

For each declaration or renaming of a generic unit as a child of some parent generic package, there is a corresponding declaration nested immediately within each instance of the parent. [This declaration is visible only within the scope of a with_clause that mentions the child generic unit.] 19

Implementation Note: Within the child, like anything nested in a generic unit, one can make up-level references to the current instance of its parent, and thereby gain access to the formal parameters of the parent, to the types declared in the parent, etc. This ‘‘nesting’’ model applies even within the generic_formal_part of the child, as it does for a generic child of a nongeneric unit. 19.a

Ramification: Suppose P is a generic library package, and P.C is a generic child of P. P.C can be instantiated inside the declarative region of P. Outside P, P.C can be mentioned only in a with_clause. Conceptually, an instance I of P is a package that has a nested generic unit called I.C. Mentioning P.C in a with_clause allows I.C to be instantiated. I need not be a library unit, and the instantiation of I.C need not be a library unit. If I is a library unit, and an instance of I.C is a child of I, then this instance has to be called something other than C. 19.b

A library subprogram shall not override a primitive subprogram. 20

Reason: This prevents certain obscure anomalies. For example, if a library subprogram were to override a subprogram declared in its parent package, then in a compilation unit that depends *in*directly on the library subprogram, the library subprogram could hide the overridden operation from all visibility, but the library subprogram itself would not be visible. 20.a

Note that even without this rule, such subprograms would be illegal for tagged types, because of the freezing rules. 20.b

The defining name of a function that is a compilation unit shall not be an operator_symbol. 21

Reason: Since overloading is not permitted among compilation units, it seems unlikely that it would be useful to define one as an operator. Note that a subunit could be renamed within its parent to be an operator. 21.a

Static Semantics

A subprogram_renaming_declaration that is a library_unit_renaming_declaration is a renaming-as-declaration, not a renaming-as-body. 22

[There are two kinds of dependences among compilation units: 23

- The *semantic dependences* (see below) are the ones needed to check the compile-time rules across compilation unit boundaries; a compilation unit depends semantically on the other compilation units needed to determine its legality. The visibility rules are based on the semantic dependences. 24
- The *elaboration dependences* (see 10.2) determine the order of elaboration of library_items. 25

]

Discussion: Don’t confuse these kinds of dependences with the run-time dependences among tasks and masters defined in 9.3, ‘‘Task Dependence - Termination of Tasks’’. 25.a

{*semantic dependence (of one compilation unit upon another)*} {*dependence (semantic)*} A library_item depends semantically upon its parent declaration. A subunit depends semantically upon its parent body. A library_unit_body depends semantically upon the corresponding library_unit_declaration, if any. 26

26.a **Discussion:** The ‘‘if any’’ is necessary because library subprograms are not required to have a subprogram_declaration.

A compilation unit depends semantically upon each library_item mentioned in a with_clause of the compilation unit. In addition, if a given compilation unit contains an attribute_reference of a type defined in another compilation unit, then the given compilation unit depends semantically upon the other compilation unit. The semantic dependence relationship is transitive.

26.b **To be honest:** If a given compilation unit contains a choice_parameter_specification, then the given compilation unit depends semantically upon the declaration of Ada.Exceptions.

26.c If a given compilation unit contains a pragma with an argument of a type defined in another compilation unit, then the given compilation unit depends semantically upon the other compilation unit.

26.d **Discussion:** For example, a compilation unit containing X’Address depends semantically upon the declaration of package System.

26.e For the Address attribute, this fixes a hole in Ada 83. Note that in almost all cases, the dependence will need to exist due to with_clauses, even without this rule. Hence, the rule has very little effect on programmers.

26.f Note that the semantic dependence does not have the same effect as a with_clause; in order to denote a declaration in one of those packages, a with_clause will generally be needed.

26.g Note that no special rule is needed for an attribute_definition_clause, since an expression after **use** will require semantic dependence upon the compilation unit containing the type_declaration of interest.

NOTES

27 1 A simple program may consist of a single compilation unit. A compilation need not have any compilation units; for example, its text can consist of pragmas.

27.a **Ramification:** Such pragmas cannot have any arguments that are names, by a previous rule of this subclause. A compilation can even be entirely empty, which is probably not useful.

27.b Some interesting properties of the three kinds of dependence: The elaboration dependences also include the semantic dependences, except that subunits are taken together with their parents. The semantic dependences partly determine the order in which the compilation units appear in the environment at compile time. At run time, the order is partly determined by the elaboration dependences.

27.c The model whereby a child is inside its parent’s declarative region, after the parent’s declaration, as explained in 8.1, has the following ramifications:

27.d • The restrictions on ‘‘early’’ use of a private type (RM83-7.4.1(4)) or a deferred constant (RM83-7.4.3(2)) do not apply to uses in child units, because they follow the full declaration.

27.e • A library subprogram is never primitive, even if its profile includes a type declared immediately within the parent’s package_specification, because the child is not declared immediately within the same package_specification as the type (so it doesn’t declare a new primitive subprogram), and because the child is forbidden from overriding an old primitive subprogram. It is immediately within the same declarative region, but not the same package_specification. Thus, for a tagged type, it is not possible to call a child subprogram in a dispatching manner. (This is also forbidden by the freezing rules.) Similarly, it is not possible for the user to declare primitive subprograms of the types declared in the declaration of Standard, such as Integer (even if the rules were changed to allow a library unit whose name is an operator symbol).

27.f • When the parent unit is ‘‘used’’ the simple names of the with’d child units are directly visible (see 8.4, ‘‘Use Clauses’’).

27.g • When a parent body with’s its own child, the defining name of the child is directly visible, and the parent body is not allowed to include a declaration of a homograph of the child unit immediately within the declarative_part of the body (RM83-8.3(17)).

27.h Note that ‘‘declaration of a library unit’’ is different from ‘‘library_unit_declaration’’ — the former includes subprogram_body. Also, we sometimes really mean ‘‘declaration of a view of a library unit’’, which includes library_unit_renaming_declarations.

27.i The visibility rules generally imply that the renamed view of a library_unit_renaming_declaration has to be mentioned in a with_clause of the library_unit_renaming_declaration.

To be honest: The real rule is that the renamed library unit has to be visible in the library_unit_renaming_declaration. 27.j

Reason: In most cases, ''has to be visible'' means there has to be a with_clause. However, it is possible in obscure cases to avoid the need for a with_clause; in particular, a compilation unit such as ''**package** P.Q **renames** P;'' is legal with no with_clauses (though not particularly interesting). ASCII is physically nested in Standard, and so is not a library unit, and cannot be renamed as a library unit. 27.k

2 The designator of a library function cannot be an operator_symbol, but a nonlibrary renaming_declaration is allowed to rename a library function as an operator. Within a partition, two library subprograms are required to have distinct names and hence cannot overload each other. However, renaming_declarations are allowed to define overloaded names for such subprograms, and a locally declared subprogram is allowed to overload a library subprogram. The expanded name Standard.L can be used to denote a root library unit L (unless the declaration of Standard is hidden) since root library unit declarations occur immediately within the declarative region of package Standard. 28

Examples

Examples of library units: 29

```
package Rational_Numbers.IO is   -- public child of Rational_Numbers, see 7.1
   procedure Put(R : in  Rational);
   procedure Get(R : out Rational);
end Rational_Numbers.IO;
```
30

```
private procedure Rational_Numbers.Reduce(R : in out Rational);
                                 -- private child of Rational_Numbers
```
31

```
with Rational_Numbers.Reduce;    -- refer to a private child
package body Rational_Numbers is
   ...
end Rational_Numbers;
```
32

```
with Rational_Numbers.IO; use Rational_Numbers;
with Ada.Text_io;                -- see A.10
procedure Main is                -- a root library procedure
   R : Rational;
begin
   R := 5/3;                     -- construct a rational number, see 7.1
   Ada.Text_IO.Put("The answer is: ");
   IO.Put(R);
   Ada.Text_IO.New_Line;
end Main;
```
33

```
with Rational_Numbers.IO;
package Rational_IO renames Rational_Numbers.IO;
                                 -- a library unit renaming declaration
```
34

Each of the above library_items can be submitted to the compiler separately. 35

Discussion: *Example of a generic package with children:* 35.a

```
generic
   type Element is private;
   with function Image(E : Element) return String;
package Generic_Bags is
   type Bag is limited private; -- A bag of Elements.
   procedure Add(B : in out Bag; E : Element);
   function Bag_Image(B : Bag) return String;
private
   type Bag is ...;
end Generic_Bags;
```
35.b

```
generic
package Generic_Bags.Generic_Iterators is
   ... -- various additional operations on Bags.

   generic
      with procedure Use_Element(E : in Element);
          -- Called once per bag element.
   procedure Iterate(B : in Bag);
end Generic_Bags.Generic_Iterators;
```
35.c 35.d

A package that instantiates the above generic units: 35.e

35.f
```
with Generic_Bags;
with Generic_Bags.Generic_Iterators;
package My_Abstraction is
    type My_Type is ...;
    function Image(X : My_Type) return String;
    package Bags_Of_My_Type is new Generic_Bags(My_Type, Image);
    package Iterators_Of_Bags_Of_My_Type is new Bags_Of_My_Type.Generic_Iterators;
end My_Abstraction;
```

35.g In the above example, Bags_Of_My_Type has a nested generic unit called Generic_Iterators. The second with_clause makes that nested unit visible.

35.h Here we show how the generic body could depend on one of its own children:

35.i
```
with Generic_Bags.Generic_Iterators;
package body Generic_Bags is
   procedure Add(B : in out Bag; E : Element) is ... end Add;
```

35.j
```
   package Iters is new Generic_Iterators;
```

35.k
```
   function Bag_Image(B : Bag) return String is
      Buffer : String(1..10_000);
      Last : Integer := 0;
```

35.l
```
      procedure Append_Image(E : in Element) is
         Im : constant String := Image(E);
      begin
         if Last /= 0 then -- Insert a comma.
            Last := Last + 1;
            Buffer(Last) := ',';
         end if;
         Buffer(Last+1 .. Last+Im'Length) := Im;
         Last := Last + Im'Length;
      end Append_Image;
```

35.m
```
      procedure Append_All is new Iters.Iterate(Append_Image);
   begin
      Append_All(B);
      return Buffer(1..Last);
   end Bag_Image;
end Generic_Bags;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

35.n {*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for library_item is modified to allow the reserved word **private** before a library_unit_declaration.

35.o Children (other than children of Standard) are new in Ada 9X.

35.p Library unit renaming is new in Ada 9X.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

35.q Standard is considered a library unit in Ada 9X. This simplifies the descriptions, since it implies that the parent of each library unit is a library unit. (Standard itself has no parent, of course.) As in Ada 83, the language does not define any way to recompile Standard, since the name given in the declaration of a library unit is always interpreted in relation to Standard. That is, an attempt to compile a package Standard would result in Standard.Standard.

10.1.2 Context Clauses - With Clauses

1 [A context_clause is used to specify the library_items whose names are needed within a compilation unit.]

Language Design Principles

1.a {*one-pass* context_clauses} The reader should be able to understand a context_clause without looking ahead. Similarly, when compiling a context_clause, the compiler should not have to look ahead at subsequent context_items, nor at the compilation unit to which the context_clause is attached. (We have not completely achieved this.)

Syntax

context_clause ::= {context_item} 2

context_item ::= with_clause | use_clause 3

with_clause ::= **with** *library_unit*_name {, *library_unit*_name}; 4

Name Resolution Rules

{*scope (of a* with_clause*)*} The *scope* of a with_clause that appears on a library_unit_declaration or library_unit_renaming_declaration consists of the entire declarative region of the declaration[, which includes all children and subunits]. The scope of a with_clause that appears on a body consists of the body[, which includes all subunits]. 5

Discussion: Suppose a with_clause of a public library unit mentions one of its private siblings. (This is only allowed on the body of the public library unit.) We considered making the scope of that with_clause not include the visible part of the public library unit. (This would only matter for a subprogram_body, since those are the only kinds of body that have a visible part, and only if the subprogram_body completes a subprogram_declaration, since otherwise the with_clause would be illegal.) We did not put in such a rule for two reasons: (1) It would complicate the wording of the rules, because we would have to split each with_clause into pieces, in order to correctly handle ''**with** P, Q;'' where P is public and Q is private. (2) The conformance rules prevent any problems. It doesn't matter if a type name in the spec of the body denotes the completion of a private_type_declaration. 5.a

A with_clause also affects visibility within subsequent use_clauses and pragmas of the same context_clause, even though those are not in the scope of the with_clause. 5.b

{*mentioned in a* with_clause} {*with_clause (mentioned in)*} A library_item is *mentioned* in a with_clause if it is denoted by a *library_unit*_name or a prefix in the with_clause. 6

Discussion: With_clauses control the visibility of declarations or renamings of library units. Mentioning a root library unit in a with_clause makes its declaration directly visible. Mentioning a non-root library unit makes its declaration visible. See Section 8 for details. 6.a

Note that this rule implies that ''**with** A.B.C;'' is equivalent to ''**with** A, A.B, A.B.C;'' The reason for making a with_clause apply to all the ancestor units is to avoid ''visibility holes'' — situations in which an inner program unit is visible while an outer one is not. Visibility holes would cause semantic complexity and implementation difficulty. 6.b

[Outside its own declarative region, the declaration or renaming of a library unit can be visible only within the scope of a with_clause that mentions it. The visibility of the declaration or renaming of a library unit otherwise follows from its placement in the environment.] 7

Legality Rules

If a with_clause of a given compilation_unit mentions a private child of some library unit, then the given compilation_unit shall be either the declaration of a private descendant of that library unit or the body or subunit of a [(public or private)] descendant of that library unit. 8

Reason: The purpose of this rule is to prevent a private child from being visible (or even semantically depended-on) from outside the subsystem rooted at its parent. 8.a

Discussion: This rule violates the one-pass context_clauses Language Design Principle. We rationalize this by saying that at least that Language Design Principle works for legal compilation units. 8.b

Example: 8.c

```
package A is                                    8.d
end A;

package A.B is                                  8.e
end A.B;

private package A.B.C is                        8.f
end A.B.C;

package A.B.C.D is                              8.g
end A.B.C.D;
```

8.h
```
with A.B.C; -- (1)
private package A.B.X is
end A.B.X;
```

8.i
```
package A.B.Y is
end A.B.Y;
```

8.j
```
with A.B.C; -- (2)
package body A.B.Y is
end A.B.Y;
```

8.k (1) is OK because it's a private child of A.B — it would be illegal if we made A.B.X a public child of A.B. (2) is OK because it's the body of a child of A.B. It would be illegal to say ''**with** A.B.C;'' on any library_item whose name does not start with ''A.B''. Note that mentioning A.B.C.D in a with_clause automatically mentions A.B.C as well, so ''**with** A.B.C.D;'' is illegal in the same places as ''**with** A.B.C;''.

8.l **To be honest:** For the purposes of this rule, if a subprogram_body has no preceding subprogram_declaration, the subprogram_body should be considered a declaration and not a body. Thus, it is illegal for such a subprogram_body to mention one of its siblings in a with_clause if the sibling is a private library unit.

NOTES

9 3 A library_item mentioned in a with_clause of a compilation unit is visible within the compilation unit and hence acts just like an ordinary declaration. Thus, within a compilation unit that mentions its declaration, the name of a library package can be given in use_clauses and can be used to form expanded names, a library subprogram can be called, and instances of a generic library unit can be declared. If a child of a parent generic package is mentioned in a with_clause, then the corresponding declaration nested within each visible instance is visible within the compilation unit.

9.a **Ramification:** The rules given for with_clauses are such that the same effect is obtained whether the name of a library unit is mentioned once or more than once by the applicable with_clauses, or even within a given with_clause.

9.b If a with_clause mentions a library_unit_renaming_declaration, it only ''mentions'' the prefixes appearing explicitly in the with_clause (and the renamed view itself); the with_clause is not defined to mention the ancestors of the renamed entity. Thus, if X renames Y.Z, then ''with X;'' does not make the declarations of Y or Z visible. Note that this does not cause the dreaded visibility holes mentioned above.

Extensions to Ada 83

9.c {*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for with_clause is modified to allow expanded name notation.

9.d A use_clause in a context_clause may be for a package (or type) nested in a library package.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

9.e The syntax rule for context_clause is modified to more closely reflect the semantics. The Ada 83 syntax rule implies that the use_clauses that appear immediately after a particular with_clause are somehow attached to that with_clause, which is not true. The new syntax allows a use_clause to appear first, but that is prevented by a textual rule that already exists in Ada 83.

9.f The concept of ''scope of a with_clause'' (which is a region of text) replaces RM83's notion of ''apply to'' (a with_clause applies to a library_item) The visibility rules are interested in a region of text, not in a set of compilation units.

9.g No need to define ''apply to'' for use_clauses. Their semantics are fully covered by the ''scope (of a use_clause)'' definition in 8.4.

10.1.3 Subunits of Compilation Units

1 [Subunits are like child units, with these (important) differences: subunits support the separate compilation of bodies only (not declarations); the parent contains a body_stub to indicate the existence and place of each of its subunits; declarations appearing in the parent's body can be visible within the subunits.]

Syntax

2 body_stub ::= subprogram_body_stub | package_body_stub | task_body_stub | protected_body_stub

3 subprogram_body_stub ::= subprogram_specification **is separate**;

3.a **Discussion:** Although this syntax allows a parent_unit_name, that is disallowed by 10.1.1, ''Compilation Units - Library Units''.

package_body_stub ::= **package body** defining_identifier **is separate**; 4

task_body_stub ::= **task body** defining_identifier **is separate**; 5

protected_body_stub ::= **protected body** defining_identifier **is separate**; 6

subunit ::= **separate** (parent_unit_name) proper_body 7

Legality Rules

{*parent body (of a subunit)*} The *parent body* of a subunit is the body of the program unit denoted by its parent_unit_name. {*subunit*} The term *subunit* is used to refer to a subunit and also to the proper_body of a subunit. 8

The parent body of a subunit shall be present in the current environment, and shall contain a corresponding body_stub with the same defining_identifier as the subunit. 9

Discussion: This can't be a Name Resolution Rule, because a subunit is not a complete context. 9.a

A package_body_stub shall be the completion of a package_declaration or generic_package_declaration; a task_body_stub shall be the completion of a task_declaration; a protected_body_stub shall be the completion of a protected_declaration. 10

In contrast, a subprogram_body_stub need not be the completion of a previous declaration, [in which case the _stub declares the subprogram]. If the _stub is a completion, it shall be the completion of a subprogram_declaration or generic_subprogram_declaration. The profile of a subprogram_body_stub that completes a declaration shall conform fully to that of the declaration. {*full conformance (required)*} 11

Discussion: The part about subprogram_body_stubs echoes the corresponding rule for subprogram_bodies in 6.3, ''Subprogram Bodies''. 11.a

A subunit that corresponds to a body_stub shall be of the same kind (package_, subprogram_, task_, or protected_) as the body_stub. The profile of a subprogram_body subunit shall be fully conformant to that of the corresponding body_stub. {*full conformance (required)*} 12

A body_stub shall appear immediately within the declarative_part of a compilation unit body. This rule does not apply within an instance of a generic unit. 13

Discussion: {*methodological restriction*} This is a methodological restriction; that is, it is not necessary for the semantics of the language to make sense. 13.a

The defining_identifiers of all body_stubs that appear immediately within a particular declarative_part shall be distinct. 14

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} For each body_stub, there shall be a subunit containing the corresponding proper_body. 15

NOTES

4 The rules in 10.1.4, ''The Compilation Process'' say that a body_stub is equivalent to the corresponding proper_body. This implies: 16

- Visibility within a subunit is the visibility that would be obtained at the place of the corresponding body_stub (within the parent body) if the context_clause of the subunit were appended to that of the parent body. 17

Ramification: Recursively. Note that this transformation might make the parent illegal; hence it is not a true equivalence, but applies only to visibility within the subunit. 17.a

- The effect of the elaboration of a body_stub is to elaborate the subunit. 18

18.a **Ramification:** The elaboration of a subunit is part of its parent body's elaboration, whereas the elaboration of a child unit is not part of its parent declaration's elaboration.

18.b **Ramification:** A library_item that is mentioned in a with_clause of a subunit can be hidden (from direct visiblity) by a declaration (with the same identifier) given in the subunit. Moreover, such a library_item can even be hidden by a declaration given within the parent body since a library unit is declared in its parent's declarative region; this however does not affect the interpretation of the with_clauses themselves, since only library_items are visible or directly visible in with_clauses.

18.c The body of a protected operation cannot be a subunit. This follows from the syntax rules. The body of a protected unit can be a subunit.

Examples

19 The package Parent is first written without subunits:

20
```
package Parent is
    procedure Inner;
end Parent;
```

21
```
with Ada.Text_IO;
package body Parent is
    Variable : String := "Hello, there.";
    procedure Inner is
    begin
        Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Variable);
    end Inner;
end Parent;
```

22 The body of procedure Inner may be turned into a subunit by rewriting the package body as follows (with the declaration of Parent remaining the same):

23
```
package body Parent is
    Variable : String := "Hello, there.";
    procedure Inner is separate;
end Parent;
```

24
```
with Ada.Text_IO;
separate(Parent)
procedure Inner is
begin
    Ada.Text_IO.Put_Line(Variable);
end Inner;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

24.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Subunits of the same ancestor library unit are no longer restricted to have distinct identifiers. Instead, we require only that the full expanded names be distinct.

10.1.4 The Compilation Process

1 {*environment*} {*environment* declarative_part} Each compilation unit submitted to the compiler is compiled in the context of an *environment* declarative_part (or simply, an *environment*), which is a conceptual declarative_part that forms the outermost declarative region of the context of any compilation. At run time, an environment forms the declarative_part of the body of the environment task of a partition (see 10.2, ''Program Execution'').

1.a **Ramification:** At compile time, there is no particular construct that the declarative region is considered to be nested within — the environment is the universe.

1.b **To be honest:** The environment is really just a portion of a declarative_part, since there might, for example, be bodies that do not yet exist.

2 The declarative_items of the environment are library_items appearing in an order such that there are no forward semantic dependences. Each included subunit occurs in place of the corresponding stub. The visibility rules apply as if the environment were the outermost declarative region, except that with_clauses are needed to make declarations of library units visible (see 10.1.2).

The mechanisms for creating an environment and for adding and replacing compilation units within an environment are implementation defined. 3

Implementation defined: The mechanisms for creating an environment and for adding and replacing compilation units. 3.a

Ramification: The traditional model, used by most Ada 83 implementations, is that one places a compilation unit in the environment by compiling it. Other models are possible. For example, an implementation might define the environment to be a directory; that is, the compilation units in the environment are all the compilation units in the source files contained in the directory. In this model, the mechanism for replacing a compilation unit with a new one is simply to edit the source file containing that compilation unit. 3.b

Name Resolution Rules

If a library_unit_body that is a subprogram_body is submitted to the compiler, it is interpreted only as a completion if a library_unit_declaration for a subprogram or a generic subprogram with the same defining_program_unit_name already exists in the environment (even if the profile of the body is not type conformant with that of the declaration); otherwise the subprogram_body is interpreted as both the declaration and body of a library subprogram. {*type conformance* [partial]} 4

Ramification: The principle here is that a subprogram_body should be interpreted as only a completion if and only if it ''might'' be legal as the completion of some preexisting declaration, where ''might'' is defined in a way that does not require overload resolution to determine. 4.a

Hence, if the preexisting declaration is a subprogram_declaration or generic_subprogram_declaration, we treat the new subprogram_body as its completion, because it ''might'' be legal. If it turns out that the profiles don't fully conform, it's an error. In all other cases (the preexisting declaration is a package or a generic package, or an instance of a generic subprogram, or a renaming, or a ''spec-less'' subprogram, or in the case where there is no preexisting thing), the subprogram_body declares a new subprogram. 4.b

See also AI-00266/09. 4.c

Legality Rules

When a compilation unit is compiled, all compilation units upon which it depends semantically shall already exist in the environment; {*consistency (among compilation units)*} the set of these compilation units shall be *consistent* in the sense that the new compilation unit shall not semantically depend (directly or indirectly) on two different versions of the same compilation unit, nor on an earlier version of itself. 5

Discussion: For example, if package declarations A and B both say ''**with** X;'', and the user compiles a compilation unit that says ''**with** A, B;'', then the A and B have to be talking about the same version of X. 5.a

Ramification: What it means to be a ''different version'' is not specified by the language. In some implementations, it means that the compilation unit has been recompiled. In others, it means that the source of the compilation unit has been edited in some significant way. 5.b

Note that an implementation cannot require the existence of compilation units upon which the given one does not semantically depend. For example, an implementation is required to be able to compile a compilation unit that says "**with** A;" when A's body does not exist. It has to be able to detect errors without looking at A's body. 5.c

Similarly, the implementation has to be able to compile a call to a subprogram for which a pragma Inline has been specified without seeing the body of that subprogram — inlining would not be achieved in this case, but the call is still legal. 5.d

Implementation Permissions

The implementation may require that a compilation unit be legal before inserting it into the environment. 6

When a compilation unit that declares or renames a library unit is added to the environment, the implementation may remove from the environment any preexisting library_item with the same defining_program_unit_name. When a compilation unit that is a subunit or the body of a library unit is added to the environment, the implementation may remove from the environment any preexisting version of the same compilation unit. When a given compilation unit is removed from the environment, the implemen- 7

tation may also remove any compilation unit that depends semantically upon the given one. If the given compilation unit contains the body of a subprogram to which a pragma Inline applies, the implementation may also remove any compilation unit containing a call to that subprogram.

7.a **Ramification:** The permissions given in this paragraph correspond to the traditional model, where compilation units enter the environment by being compiled into it, and the compiler checks their legality at that time. A implementation model in which the environment consists of all source files in a given directory might not want to take advantage of these permissions. Compilation units would not be checked for legality as soon as they enter the environment; legality checking would happen later, when compilation units are compiled. In this model, compilation units might never be automatically removed from the environment; they would be removed when the user explicitly deletes a source file.

7.b Note that the rule is recursive: if the above permission is used to remove a compilation unit containing an inlined subprogram call, then compilation units that depend semantically upon the removed one may also be removed, and so on.

7.c Note that here we are talking about dependences among existing compilation units in the environment; it doesn't matter what with_clauses are attached to the new compilation unit that triggered all this.

7.d An implementation may have other modes in which compilation units in addition to the ones mentioned above are removed. For example, an implementation might inline subprogram calls without an explicit pragma Inline. If so, it either has to have a mode in which that optimization is turned off, or it has to automatically regenerate code for the inlined calls without requiring the user to resubmit them to the compiler.

NOTES

8 5 The rules of the language are enforced across compilation and compilation unit boundaries, just as they are enforced within a single compilation unit.

8.a **Ramification:** Note that Section 1 requires an implementation to detect illegal compilation units at compile time.

9 6 {*library*} An implementation may support a concept of a *library*, which contains library_items. If multiple libraries are supported, the implementation has to define how a single environment is constructed when a compilation unit is submitted to the compiler. Naming conflicts between different libraries might be resolved by treating each library as the root of a hierarchy of child library units. {*program library: see library*}

9.a **Implementation Note:** Alternatively, naming conflicts could be resolved via some sort of hiding rule.

9.b **Discussion:** For example, the implementation might support a command to import library Y into library X. If a root library unit called LU (that is, Standard.LU) exists in Y, then from the point of view of library X, it could be called Y.LU. X might contain library units that say, ''**with** Y.LU;''.

10 7 A compilation unit containing an instantiation of a separately compiled generic unit does not semantically depend on the body of the generic unit. Therefore, replacing the generic body in the environment does not result in the removal of the compilation unit containing the instantiation.

10.a **Implementation Note:** Therefore, implementations have to be prepared to automatically instantiate generic bodies at link-time, as needed. This might imply a complete automatic recompilation, but it is the intent of the language that generic bodies can be (re)instantiated without forcing all of the compilation units that semantically depend on the compilation unit containing the instantiation to be recompiled.

10.1.5 Pragmas and Program Units

1 [This subclause discusses pragmas related to program units, library units, and compilations.]

Name Resolution Rules

2 {*program unit pragma* [distributed]} {*pragma, program unit* [distributed]} Certain pragmas are defined to be *program unit pragmas*. {*apply* [to a program unit by a program unit pragma]} A name given as the argument of a program unit pragma shall resolve to denote the declarations or renamings of one or more program units that occur immediately within the declarative region or compilation in which the pragma immediately occurs, or it shall resolve to denote the declaration of the immediately enclosing program unit (if any); the pragma applies to the denoted program unit(s). If there are no names given as arguments, the pragma applies to the immediately enclosing program unit.

2.a **Ramification:** The fact that this is a Name Resolution Rule means that the pragma will not apply to declarations from outer declarative regions.

Legality Rules

A program unit pragma shall appear in one of these places: 3

- At the place of a compilation_unit, in which case the pragma shall immediately follow in the same compilation (except for other pragmas) a library_unit_declaration that is a subprogram_declaration, generic_subprogram_declaration, or generic_instantiation, and the pragma shall have an argument that is a name denoting that declaration. 4

  Ramification: The name has to denote the immediately preceding library_unit_declaration. 4.a

- Immediately within the declaration of a program unit and before any nested declaration, in which case the argument, if any, shall be a direct_name that denotes the immediately enclosing program unit declaration. 5

  Ramification: The argument is optional in this case. 5.a

- At the place of a declaration other than the first, of a declarative_part or program unit declaration, in which case the pragma shall have an argument, which shall be a direct_name that denotes one or more of the following (and nothing else): a subprogram_declaration, a generic_subprogram_declaration, or a generic_instantiation, of the same declarative_part or program unit declaration. 6

  Ramification: If you want to denote a subprogram_body that is not a completion, or a package_declaration, for example, you have to put the pragma inside. 6.a

{*library unit pragma* [distributed]} {*pragma, library unit* [distributed]} {*program unit pragma* [library unit pragmas]} {*pragma, program unit* [library unit pragmas]} Certain program unit pragmas are defined to be *library unit pragmas*. The name, if any, in a library unit pragma shall denote the declaration of a library unit. 7

Ramification: This, together with the rules for program unit pragmas above, implies that if a library unit pragma applies to a subprogram_declaration (and similar things), it has to appear immediately after the compilation_unit, whereas if the pragma applies to a package_declaration, a subprogram_body that is not a completion (and similar things), it has to appear inside, as the first declarative_item. 7.a

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [distributed]} {*pragma, configuration* [distributed]} Certain pragmas are defined to be *configuration pragmas*; they shall appear before the first compilation_unit of a compilation. [They are generally used to select a partition-wide or system-wide option.] The pragma applies to all compilation_units appearing in the compilation, unless there are none, in which case it applies to all future compilation_units compiled into the same environment. 8

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may place restrictions on configuration pragmas, so long as it allows them when the environment contains no library_items other than those of the predefined environment. 9

10.1.6 Environment-Level Visibility Rules

[The normal visibility rules do not apply within a parent_unit_name or a context_clause, nor within a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation unit. The special visibility rules for those contexts are given here.] 1

Static Semantics

{*directly visible* [within the parent_unit_name of a library unit]} {*visible* [within the parent_unit_name of a library unit]} {*directly visible* [within a with_clause]} {*visible* [within a with_clause]} Within the parent_unit_name at the beginning of a library_item, and within a with_clause, the only declarations that are visible are those that are library_items of the environment, and the only declarations that are directly visible are those that are root library_items of the environment. {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding the rules of 4.1.3, an expanded name in a 2

with_clause may consist of a prefix that denotes a generic package and a selector_name that denotes a child of that generic package. [(The child is necessarily a generic unit; see 10.1.1.)]

2.a **Ramification:** In ‘‘**package** P.Q.R **is** ... **end** P.Q.R;’’, this rule requires P to be a root library unit, and Q to be a library unit (because those are the things that are directly visible and visible). Note that visibility does not apply between the ‘‘**end**’’ and the ‘‘;’’.

2.b Physically nested declarations are not visible at these places.

2.c **Reason:** Although Standard is visible at these places, it is impossible to name it, since it is not directly visible, and it has no parent.

2.d **Reason:** The ‘‘notwithstanding’’ part allows ‘‘**with** A.B;’’ where A is a generic library package and B is one of its (generic) children. This is necessary because it is not normally legal to use an expanded name to reach inside a generic package.

3 {*directly visible* [within a use_clause in a context_clause]} {*visible* [within a use_clause in a context_clause]} {*directly visible* [within a pragma in a context_clause]} {*visible* [within a pragma in a context_clause]} Within a use_clause or pragma that is within a context_clause, each library_item mentioned in a previous with_clause of the same context_clause is visible, and each root library_item so mentioned is directly visible. In addition, within such a use_clause, if a given declaration is visible or directly visible, each declaration that occurs immediately within the given declaration’s visible part is also visible. No other declarations are visible or directly visible.

3.a **Discussion:** Note the word ‘‘same’’. For example, if a with_clause on a declaration mentions X, this does not make X visible in use_clauses and pragmas that are on the body. The reason for this rule is the one-pass context_clauses Language Design Principle.

3.b Note that the second part of the rule does not mention pragmas.

4 {*directly visible* [within the parent_unit_name of a subunit]} {*visible* [within the parent_unit_name of a subunit]} Within the parent_unit_name of a subunit, library_items are visible as they are in the parent_unit_name of a library_item; in addition, the declaration corresponding to each body_stub in the environment is also visible.

4.a **Ramification:** For a subprogram without a separate subprogram_declaration, the body_stub itself is the declaration.

5 {*directly visible* [within a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation unit]} {*visible* [within a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation unit]} Within a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation unit, the immediately preceding library_item and each of its ancestors is visible. The ancestor root library_item is directly visible.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

5.a The special visibility rules that apply within a parent_unit_name or a context_clause, and within a pragma that appears at the place of a compilation_unit are clarified.

5.b Note that a context_clause is not part of any declarative region.

5.c We considered making the visibility rules within parent_unit_names and context_clauses follow from the context of compilation. However, this attempt failed for various reasons. For example, it would require use_clauses in context_clauses to be within the declarative region of Standard, which sounds suspiciously like a kludge. And we would still need a special rule to prevent seeing things (in our own context_clause) that were with-ed by our parent, etc.

10.2 Program Execution

{*program*} {*program execution*} {*running a program: see program execution*} An Ada *program* consists of a set of *partitions*[, which can execute in parallel with one another, possibly in a separate address space, and possibly on a separate computer.] 1

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*partition* [distributed]} {*partition building*} A partition is a program or part of a program that can be invoked from outside the Ada implementation. [For example, on many systems, a partition might be an executable file generated by the system linker.] {*explicitly assign*} The user can *explicitly assign* library units to a partition. The assignment is done in an implementation-defined manner. The compilation units included in a partition are those of the explicitly assigned library units, as well as other compilation units *needed by* those library units. The compilation units needed by a given compilation unit are determined as follows (unless specified otherwise via an implementation-defined pragma, or by some other implementation-defined means): {*linking: see partition building*} {*compilation units needed (by a compilation unit)* [distributed]} {*needed (of a compilation unit by another)* [distributed]} 2

Discussion: From a run-time point of view, an Ada 9X partition is identical to an Ada 83 program — implementations were always allowed to provide inter-program communication mechanisms. The additional semantics of partitions is that interfaces between them can be defined to obey normal language rules (as is done in Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’), whereas interfaces between separate programs had no particular semantics. 2.a

Implementation defined: The manner of explicitly assigning library units to a partition. 2.b

Implementation defined: The implementation-defined means, if any, of specifying which compilation units are needed by a given compilation unit. 2.c

Discussion: There are no pragmas that ‘‘specify otherwise’’ defined by the core language. However, an implementation is allowed to provide such pragmas, and in fact Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’ defines some pragmas whose semantics includes reducing the set of compilation units described here. 2.d

- A compilation unit needs itself; 3
- If a compilation unit is needed, then so are any compilation units upon which it depends semantically; 4
- If a library_unit_declaration is needed, then so is any corresponding library_unit_body; 5
- If a compilation unit with stubs is needed, then so are any corresponding subunits. 6

Discussion: Note that in the environment, the stubs are replaced with the corresponding proper_bodies. 6.a

Discussion: Note that a child unit is not included just because its parent is included — to include a child, mention it in a with_clause. 6.b

{*main subprogram (for a partition)*} The user can optionally designate (in an implementation-defined manner) one subprogram as the *main subprogram* for the partition. A main subprogram, if specified, shall be a subprogram. 7

Discussion: This may seem superfluous, since it follows from the definition. But we would like to have every error message that might be generated (before run time) by an implementation correspond to some explicitly stated ‘‘shall’’ rule. 7.a

Of course, this does not mean that the ‘‘shall’’ rules correspond one-to-one with an implementation’s error messages. For example, the rule that says overload resolution ‘‘shall’’ succeed in producing a single interpretation would correspond to many error messages in a good implementation — the implementation would want to explain to the user exactly why overload resolution failed. This is especially true for the syntax rules — they are considered part of overload resolution, but in most cases, one would expect an error message based on the particular syntax rule that was violated. 7.b

Implementation defined: The manner of designating the main subprogram of a partition. 7.c

7.d **Ramification:** An implementation cannot require the user to specify, say, all of the library units to be included. It has to support, for example, perhaps the most typical case, where the user specifies just one library unit, the main program. The implementation has to do the work of tracking down all the other ones.

8 {*environment task*} Each partition has an anonymous *environment task*[, which is an implicit outermost task whose execution elaborates the library_items of the environment declarative_part, and then calls the main subprogram, if there is one. A partition's execution is that of its tasks.]

8.a **Ramification:** An environment task has no master; all nonenvironment tasks have masters.

8.b An implementation is allowed to support multiple concurrent executions of the same partition.

9 [The order of elaboration of library units is determined primarily by the *elaboration dependences*.] {*elaboration dependence (library_item on another)*} {*dependence (elaboration)*} There is an elaboration dependence of a given library_item upon another if the given library_item or any of its subunits depends semantically on the other library_item. In addition, if a given library_item or any of its subunits has a pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All that mentions another library unit, then there is an elaboration dependence of the given library_item upon the body of the other library unit, and, for Elaborate_All only, upon each library_item needed by the declaration of the other library unit.

9.a **Discussion:** See above for a definition of which library_items are ''needed by'' a given declaration.

9.b Note that elaboration dependences are among library_items, whereas the other two forms of dependence are among compilation units. Note that elaboration dependence includes semantic dependence. It's a little bit sad that pragma Elaborate_Body can't be folded into this mechanism. It follows from the definition that the elaboration dependence relationship is transitive. Note that the wording of the rule does not need to take into account a semantic dependence of a library_item or one of its subunits upon a subunit of a different library unit, because that can never happen.

10 The environment task for a partition has the following structure:

11
```
task Environment_Task;
```

12
```
task body Environment_Task is
    ... (1) -- The environment declarative_part
            -- (that is, the sequence of library_items) goes here.
begin
    ... (2) -- Call the main subprogram, if there is one.
end Environment_Task;
```

12.a **Ramification:** The name of the environment task is written in italics here to indicate that this task is anonymous.

12.b **Discussion:** The model is different for a ''passive partition'' (see E.1). Either there is no environment task, or its sequence_of_statements is an infinite loop rather than a call on a main subprogram.

13 {*environment* declarative_part [for the environment task of a partition]} The environment declarative_part at (1) is a sequence of declarative_items consisting of copies of the library_items included in the partition. [The order of elaboration of library_items is the order in which they appear in the environment declarative_part]:

14 • The order of all included library_items is such that there are no forward elaboration dependences.

14.a **Ramification:** This rule is written so that if a library_item depends on itself, we don't require it to be elaborated before itself. See AI-00113/12. This can happen only in pathological circumstances. For example, if a library subprogram_body has no corresponding subprogram_declaration, and one of the subunits of the subprogram_body mentions the subprogram_body in a with_clause, the subprogram_body will depend on itself. For another example, if a library_unit_body applies a pragma Elaborate_All to its own declaration, then the library_unit_body will depend on itself.

15 • Any included library_unit_declaration to which a pragma Elaborate_Body applies is immediately followed by its library_unit_body, if included.

15.a **Discussion:** This implies that the body of such a library unit shall not ''with'' any of its own children, or anything else that depends semantically upon the declaration of the library unit.

- All library_items declared pure occur before any that are not declared pure. 16
- All preelaborated library_items occur before any that are not preelaborated. 17

Discussion: Normally, if two partitions contain the same compilation unit, they each contain a separate *copy* of that compilation unit. See Annex E, ''Distributed Systems'' for cases where two partitions share the same copy of something. 17.a

There is no requirement that the main subprogram be elaborated last. In fact, it is possible to write a partition in which the main subprogram cannot be elaborated last. 17.b

Ramification: This declarative_part has the properties required of all environments (see 10.1.4). However, the environment declarative_part of a partition will typically contain fewer compilation units than the environment declarative_part used at compile time — only the ''needed'' ones are included in the partition. 17.c

There shall be a total order of the library_items that obeys the above rules. The order is otherwise implementation defined. 18

Discussion: The only way to violate this rule is to have Elaborate, Elaborate_All, or Elaborate_Body pragmas that cause circular ordering requirements, thus preventing an order that has no forward elaboration dependences. 18.a

Implementation defined: The order of elaboration of library_items. 18.b

To be honest: {*requires a completion* [library_unit_declaration]} {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding what the RM9X says elsewhere, each rule that requires a declaration to have a corresponding completion is considered to be a Post-Compilation Rule when the declaration is that of a library unit. 18.c

Discussion: Such rules may be checked at ''link time,'' for example. Rules requiring the completion to have certain properties, on the other hand, are checked at compile time of the completion. 18.d

The full expanded names of the library units and subunits included in a given partition shall be distinct. 19

Reason: This is a Post-Compilation Rule because making it a Legality Rule would violate the Language Design Principle labeled ''legality determinable via semantic dependences.'' 19.a

The sequence_of_statements of the environment task (see (2) above) consists of either: 20

- A call to the main subprogram, if the partition has one. If the main subprogram has parameters, they are passed; where the actuals come from is implementation defined. What happens to the result of a main function is also implementation defined. 21

Implementation defined: Parameter passing and function return for the main subprogram. 21.a

or: 22

- A null_statement, if there is no main subprogram. 23

Discussion: For a passive partition, either there is no environment task, or its sequence_of_statements is an infinite loop. See E.1. 23.a

The mechanisms for building and running partitions are implementation defined. [These might be combined into one operation, as, for example, in dynamic linking, or ''load-and-go'' systems.] 24

Implementation defined: The mechanisms for building and running partitions. 24.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [program]} The execution of a program consists of the execution of a set of partitions. Further details are implementation defined. {*execution* [partition]} The execution of a partition starts with the execution of its environment task, ends when the environment task terminates, and includes the executions of all tasks of the partition. [The execution of the (implicit) task_body of the environment task acts as a master for all other tasks created as part of the execution of the partition. When the environment task completes (normally or abnormally), it waits for the termination of all such tasks, and then finalizes any remaining objects of the partition.] 25

25.a **Ramification:** The ‘‘further details’’ mentioned above include, for example, program termination — it is implementation defined. There is no need to define it here; it’s entirely up to the implementation whether it wants to consider the program as a whole to exist beyond the existence of individual partitions.

25.b **Implementation defined:** The details of program execution, including program termination.

25.c **To be honest:** {*termination* [of a partition]} {*normal termination* [of a partition]} {*termination* [normal]} {*abnormal termination* [of a partition]} {*termination* [abnormal]} The execution of the partition terminates (normally or abnormally) when the environment task terminates (normally or abnormally, respectively).

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

26 {*bounded error*} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Once the environment task has awaited the termination of all other tasks of the partition, any further attempt to create a task (during finalization) is a bounded error, and may result in the raising of Program_Error either upon creation or activation of the task. {*unspecified* [partial]} If such a task is activated, it is not specified whether the task is awaited prior to termination of the environment task.

Implementation Requirements

27 The implementation shall ensure that all compilation units included in a partition are consistent with one another, and are legal according to the rules of the language.

27.a **Discussion:** The consistency requirement implies that a partition cannot contain two versions of the same compilation unit. That is, a partition cannot contain two different library units with the same full expanded name, nor two different bodies for the same program unit. For example, suppose we compile the following:

27.b
```
package A is -- Version 1.
   ...
end A;
```

27.c
```
with A;
package B is
end B;
```

27.d
```
package A is -- Version 2.
   ...
end A;
```

27.e
```
with A;
package C is
end C;
```

27.f It would be wrong for a partition containing B and C to contain both versions of A. Typically, the implementation would require the use of Version 2 of A, which might require the recompilation of B. Alternatively, the implementation might automatically recompile B when the partition is built. A third alternative would be an incremental compiler that, when Version 2 of A is compiled, automatically patches the object code for B to reflect the changes to A (if there are any relevant changes — there might not be any).

27.g An implementation that supported fancy version management might allow the use of Version 1 in some circumstances. In no case can the implementation allow the use of both versions in the same partition (unless, of course, it can prove that the two versions are semantically identical).

27.h The core language says nothing about inter-partition consistency; see also Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’.

Implementation Permissions

28 {*active partition*} The kind of partition described in this clause is known as an *active* partition. An implementation is allowed to support other kinds of partitions, with implementation-defined semantics.

28.a **Implementation defined:** The semantics of any nonactive partitions supported by the implementation.

28.b **Discussion:** Annex E, ‘‘Distributed Systems’’ defines the concept of passive partitions; they may be thought of as a partition without an environment task, or as one with a particularly simple form of environment task, having an infinite loop rather than a call on a main subprogram as its sequence_of_statements.

29 An implementation may restrict the kinds of subprograms it supports as main subprograms. However, an implementation is required to support all main subprograms that are public parameterless library procedures.

Ramification: The implementation is required to support main subprograms that are procedures declared by generic_ instantiations, as well as those that are children of library units other than Standard. Generic units are, of course, not allowed to be main subprograms, since they are not subprograms. 29.a

Note that renamings are irrelevant to this rule. This rules says which subprograms (not views) have to be supported. The implementation can choose any way it wants for the user to indicate which subprogram should be the main subprogram. An implementation might allow any name of any view, including those declared by renamings. Another implementation might require it to be the original name. Another implementation still might use the name of the source file or some such thing. 29.b

If the environment task completes abnormally, the implementation may abort any dependent tasks. 30

Reason: If the implementation does not take advantage of this permission, the normal action takes place — the environment task awaits those tasks. 30.a

The possibility of aborting them is not shown in the *Environment_Task* code above, because there is nowhere to put an exception_handler that can handle exceptions raised in both the environment declarative_part and the main subprogram, such that the dependent tasks can be aborted. If we put an exception_handler in the body of the environment task, then it won't handle exceptions that occur during elaboration of the environment declarative_part. If we were to move those things into a nested block_statement, with the exception_handler outside that, then the block_statement would await the library tasks we are trying to abort. 30.b

Furthermore, this is merely a permission, and is not fundamental to the model, so it is probably better to state it separately anyway. 30.c

Note that implementations (and tools like debuggers) can have modes that provide other behaviors in addition. 30.d

NOTES

8 An implementation may provide inter-partition communication mechanism(s) via special packages and pragmas. Standard pragmas for distribution and methods for specifying inter-partition communication are defined in Annex E, ''Distributed Systems''. If no such mechanisms are provided, then each partition is isolated from all others, and behaves as a program in and of itself. 31

Ramification: Not providing such mechanisms is equivalent to disallowing multi-partition programs. 31.a

An implementation may provide mechanisms to facilitate checking the consistency of library units elaborated in different partitions; Annex E, ''Distributed Systems'' does so. 31.b

9 Partitions are not required to run in separate address spaces. For example, an implementation might support dynamic linking via the partition concept. 32

10 An order of elaboration of library_items that is consistent with the partial ordering defined above does not always ensure that each library_unit_body is elaborated before any other compilation unit whose elaboration necessitates that the library_unit_body be already elaborated. (In particular, there is no requirement that the body of a library unit be elaborated as soon as possible after the library_unit_declaration is elaborated, unless the pragmas in subclause 10.2.1 are used.) 33

11 A partition (active or otherwise) need not have a main subprogram. In such a case, all the work done by the partition would be done by elaboration of various library_items, and by tasks created by that elaboration. Passive partitions, which cannot have main subprograms, are defined in Annex E, ''Distributed Systems''. 34

Ramification: The environment task is the outermost semantic level defined by the language. 34.a

Standard has no private part. This prevents strange implementation-dependences involving private children of Standard having visibility upon Standard's private part. It doesn't matter where the body of Standard appears in the environment, since it doesn't do anything. See Annex A, ''Predefined Language Environment''. 34.b

Note that elaboration dependence is carefully defined in such a way that if (say) the body of something doesn't exist yet, then there is no elaboration dependence upon the nonexistent body. (This follows from the fact that ''needed by'' is defined that way, and the elaboration dependences caused by a pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All are defined in terms of ''needed by''.) This property allows us to use the environment concept both at compile time and at partition-construction time/run time. 34.c

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The concept of partitions is new to Ada 9X. 34.d

A main subprogram is now optional. The language-defined restrictions on main subprograms are relaxed. 34.e

Wording Changes From Ada 83

34.f Ada 9X uses the term ‘‘main subprogram’’ instead of Ada 83’s ‘‘main program’’ (which was inherited from Pascal). This is done to avoid confusion — a main subprogram is a subprogram, not a program. The program as a whole is an entirely different thing.

10.2.1 Elaboration Control

1 [{*elaboration control*} This subclause defines pragmas that help control the elaboration order of library_items.]

Language Design Principles

1.a The rules governing preelaboration are designed to allow it to be done largely by bulk initialization of statically allocated storage from information in a ‘‘load module’’ created by a linker. Some implementations may require run-time code to be executed in some cases, but we consider these cases rare enough that we need not further complicate the rules.

1.b It is important that programs be able to declare data structures that are link-time initialized with aggregates, string_literals, and concatenations thereof. It is important to be able to write link-time evaluated expressions involving the First, Last, and Length attributes of such data structures (including variables), because they might be initialized with positional aggregates or string_literals, and we don’t want the user to have to count the elements. There is no corresponding need for accessing discriminants, since they can be initialized with a static constant, and then the constant can be referred to elsewhere. It is important to allow link-time initialized data structures involving discriminant-dependent components. It is important to be able to write link-time evaluated expressions involving pointers (both access values and addresses) to the above-mentioned data structures.

1.c The rules also ensure that no Elaboration_Check need be performed for calls on library-level subprograms declared within a preelaborated package. This is true also of the Elaboration_Check on task activation for library level task types declared in a preelaborated package. However, it is not true of the Elaboration_Check on instantiations.

1.d A static expression should never prevent a library unit from being preelaborable.

Syntax

2 The form of a pragma Preelaborate is as follows:

3 **pragma** Preelaborate[(*library_unit*_name)];

4 {*library unit pragma* [Preelaborate]} {*pragma, library unit* [Preelaborate]} A pragma Preelaborate is a library unit pragma.

Legality Rules

5 {*preelaborable (of an elaborable construct)* [distributed]} An elaborable construct is preelaborable unless its elaboration performs any of the following actions:

5.a **Ramification:** A *preelaborable* construct can be elaborated without using any information that is available only at run time. Note that we don’t try to prevent exceptions in preelaborable constructs; if the implementation wishes to generate code to raise an exception, that’s OK.

5.b Because there is no flow of control and there are no calls (other than to predefined subprograms), these run-time properties can actually be detected at compile time. This is necessary in order to require compile-time enforcement of the rules.

6 • The execution of a statement other than a null_statement.

6.a **Ramification:** A preelaborable construct can contain labels and null_statements.

7 • A call to a subprogram other than a static function.

8 • The evaluation of a primary that is a name of an object, unless the name is a static expression, or statically denotes a discriminant of an enclosing type.

8.a **Ramification:** One can evaluate such a name, but not as a primary. For example, one can evaluate an attribute of the object. One can evaluate an attribute_reference, so long as it does not denote an object, and its prefix does not disobey any of these rules. For example, Obj’Access, Obj’Unchecked_Access, and Obj’Address are generally legal in preelaborated library units.

- The creation of a default-initialized object [(including a component)] of a descendant of a private type, private extension, controlled type, task type, or protected type with entry_ declarations; similarly the evaluation of an extension_aggregate with an ancestor subtype_ mark denoting a subtype of such a type. 9

Ramification: One can declare these kinds of types, but one cannot create objects of those types. 9.a

It is also non-preelaborable to create an object if that will cause the evaluation of a default expression that will call a user-defined function. This follows from the rule above forbidding non-null statements. 9.b

Reason: Controlled objects are disallowed because most implementations will have to take some run-time action during initialization, even if the Initialize procedure is null. 9.c

A generic body is preelaborable only if elaboration of a corresponding instance body would not perform any such actions, presuming that the actual for each formal private type (or extension) is a private type (or extension), and the actual for each formal subprogram is a user-defined subprogram. {*generic contract issue*} 10

Reason: Without this rule about generics, we would have to forbid instantiations in preelaborated library units, which would significantly reduce their usefulness. 10.a

{*preelaborated* [partial]} If a pragma Preelaborate (or pragma Pure — see below) applies to a library unit, then it is *preelaborated*. [{*preelaborated* [distributed]} If a library unit is preelaborated, then its declaration, if any, and body, if any, are elaborated prior to all non-preelaborated library_items of the partition.] All compilation units of a preelaborated library unit shall be preelaborable. {*generic contract issue* [partial]} In addition to the places where Legality Rules normally apply (see 12.3), this rule applies also in the private part of an instance of a generic unit. In addition, all compilation units of a preelaborated library unit shall depend semantically only on compilation units of other preelaborated library units. 11

Ramification: In a generic body, we assume the worst about formal private types and extensions. 11.a

Implementation Advice

In an implementation, a type declared in a preelaborated package should have the same representation in every elaboration of a given version of the package, whether the elaborations occur in distinct executions of the same program, or in executions of distinct programs or partitions that include the given version. 12

Syntax

The form of a pragma Pure is as follows: 13

pragma Pure[(*library_unit*_name)]; 14

{*library unit pragma* [Pure]} {*pragma, library unit* [Pure]} A pragma Pure is a library unit pragma. 15

Legality Rules

{*pure*} A *pure* library_item is a preelaborable library_item that does not contain the declaration of any variable or named access type, except within a subprogram, generic subprogram, task unit, or protected unit. 16

{*declared pure*} A pragma Pure is used to declare that a library unit is pure. If a pragma Pure applies to a library unit, then its compilation units shall be pure, and they shall depend semantically only on compilation units of other library units that are declared pure. 17

To be honest: A *declared-pure* library unit is one to which a pragma Pure applies. Its declaration and body are also said to be declared pure. 17.a

Discussion: A declared-pure package is useful for defining types to be shared between partitions with no common address space. 17.b

Reason: Note that generic packages are not mentioned in the list of things that can contain variable declarations. Note that the Ada 9X rules for deferred constants make them allowable in library units that are declared pure; that isn't true of Ada 83's deferred constants. 17.c

17.d **Ramification:** Anonymous access types (that is, access discriminants and access parameters) are allowed.

17.e **Reason:** The primary reason for disallowing named access types is that an allocator has a side effect; the pool constitutes variable data. We considered somehow allowing allocator-less access types. However, these (including access-to-subprogram types) would cause trouble for Annex E, ''Distributed Systems'', because such types would allow access values in a shared passive partition to designate objects in an active partition, thus allowing inter-address space references. Furthermore, a named access-to-object type without a pool would be a new concept, adding complexity from the user's point of view. Finally, the prevention of allocators would have to be a run-time check, in order to avoid violations of the generic contract model.

Implementation Permissions

18 If a library unit is declared pure, then the implementation is permitted to omit a call on a library-level subprogram of the library unit if the results are not needed after the call. Similarly, it may omit such a call and simply reuse the results produced by an earlier call on the same subprogram, provided that none of the parameters are of a limited type, and the addresses and values of all by-reference actual parameters, and the values of all by-copy-in actual parameters, are the same as they were at the earlier call. [This permission applies even if the subprogram produces other side effects when called.]

18.a **Discussion:** A declared-pure library_item has no variable state. Hence, a call on one of its (nonnested) subprograms cannot ''normally'' have side effects. The only possible side effects from such a call would be through machine code insertions, unchecked conversion to an access type declared within the subprogram, and similar features. The compiler may omit a call to such a subprogram even if such side effects exist, so the writer of such a subprogram has to keep this in mind.

Syntax

19 The form of a pragma Elaborate, Elaborate_All, or Elaborate_Body is as follows:

20 **pragma** Elaborate(*library_unit*_name{, *library_unit*_name});

21 **pragma** Elaborate_All(*library_unit*_name{, *library_unit*_name});

22 **pragma** Elaborate_Body[(*library_unit*_name)];

23 A pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All is only allowed within a context_clause.

23.a **Ramification:** ''Within a context_clause'' allows it to be the last item in the context_clause. It can't be first, because the name has to denote something mentioned earlier.

24 {*library unit pragma* [Elaborate_Body]} {*pragma, library unit* [Elaborate_Body]} A pragma Elaborate_Body is a library unit pragma.

24.a **Discussion:** Hence, a pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All is not elaborated, not that it makes any practical difference.

24.b Note that a pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All is neither a program unit pragma, nor a library unit pragma.

Legality Rules

25 {*requires a completion* [declaration to which a pragma Elaborate_Body applies]} If a pragma Elaborate_Body applies to a declaration, then the declaration requires a completion [(a body)].

Static Semantics

26 [A pragma Elaborate specifies that the body of the named library unit is elaborated before the current library_item. A pragma Elaborate_All specifies that each library_item that is needed by the named library unit declaration is elaborated before the current library_item. A pragma Elaborate_Body specifies that the body of the library unit is elaborated immediately after its declaration.]

26.a **Proof:** The official statement of the semantics of these pragmas is given in 10.2.

26.b **Implementation Note:** The presence of a pragma Elaborate_Body simplifies the removal of unnecessary Elaboration_Checks. For a subprogram declared immediately within a library unit to which a pragma Elaborate_Body applies, the only calls that can fail the Elaboration_Check are those that occur in the library unit itself, between the declaration and body of the called subprogram; if there are no such calls (which can easily be detected at compile time if there are no

stubs), then no Elaboration_Checks are needed for that subprogram. The same is true for Elaboration_Checks on task activations and instantiations, and for library subprograms and generic units.

Ramification: The fact that the unit of elaboration is the library_item means that if a subprogram_body is not a completion, it is impossible for any library_item to be elaborated between the declaration and the body of such a subprogram. Therefore, it is impossible for a call to such a subprogram to fail its Elaboration_Check. 26.c

Discussion: The visibility rules imply that each *library_unit*_name of a pragma Elaborate or Elaborate_All has to denote a library unit mentioned by a previous with_clause of the same context_clause. 26.d

NOTES

12 A preelaborated library unit is allowed to have non-preelaborable children. 27

Ramification: But not non-preelaborated subunits. 27.a

13 A library unit that is declared pure is allowed to have impure children. 28

Ramification: But not impure subunits. 28.a

Ramification: Pragma Elaborate is mainly for closely related library units, such as when two package bodies 'with' each other's declarations. In such cases, Elaborate_All sometimes won't work. 28.b

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The concepts of preelaborability and purity are new to Ada 9X. The Elaborate_All, Elaborate_Body, Preelaborate, and Pure pragmas are new to Ada 9X. 28.c

Pragmas Elaborate are allowed to be mixed in with the other things in the context_clause — in Ada 83, they were required to appear last. 28.d

Section 11: Exceptions

[This section defines the facilities for dealing with errors or other exceptional situations that arise during program execution.] {*exception occurrence*} {*condition: see also exception*} {*signal (an exception): see raise*} {*throw (an exception): see raise*} {*catch (an exception): see handle*} {*Exception*} [*glossary entry*]An *exception* represents a kind of exceptional situation; an occurrence of such a situation (at run time) is called an *exception occurrence*. [{*raise* [an exception]} To *raise* an exception is to abandon normal program execution so as to draw attention to the fact that the corresponding situation has arisen. {*handle* [an exception]} Performing some actions in response to the arising of an exception is called *handling* the exception.] 1

To be honest: {*handle* [an exception occurrence]} ...or handling the exception occurrence. 1.a

Ramification: For example, an exception End_Error might represent error situations in which an attempt is made to read beyond end-of-file. During the execution of a partition, there might be numerous occurrences of this exception. 1.b

To be honest: {*occurrence (of an exception)*} When the meaning is clear from the context, we sometimes use ''*occurrence*'' as a short-hand for ''exception occurrence.'' 1.c

[An exception_declaration declares a name for an exception. An exception is raised initially either by a raise_statement or by the failure of a language-defined check. When an exception arises, control can be transferred to a user-provided exception_handler at the end of a handled_sequence_of_statements, or it can be propagated to a dynamically enclosing execution.] 2

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We are more explicit about the difference between an exception and an occurrence of an exception. This is necessary because we now have a type (Exception_Occurrence) that represents exception occurrences, so the program can manipulate them. Furthermore, we say that when an exception is propagated, it is the same occurrence that is being propagated (as opposed to a new occurrence of the same exception). The same issue applies to a re-raise statement. In order to understand these semantics, we have to make this distinction. 2.a

11.1 Exception Declarations

{*exception*} An exception_declaration declares a name for an exception. 1

Syntax

exception_declaration ::= defining_identifier_list : **exception**; 2

Static Semantics

Each single exception_declaration declares a name for a different exception. If a generic unit includes an exception_declaration, the exception_declarations implicitly generated by different instantiations of the generic unit refer to distinct exceptions (but all have the same defining_identifier). 3

Reason: We considered removing this requirement inside generic bodies, because it is an implementation burden for implementations that wish to share code among several instances. In the end, it was decided that it would introduce too much implementation dependence. 3.a

The particular exception denoted by an exception name is determined at compilation time and is the same regardless of how many times the exception_declaration is elaborated.

Ramification: Hence, if an exception_declaration occurs in a recursive subprogram, the exception name denotes the same exception for all invocations of the recursive subprogram. The reason for this rule is that we allow an exception occurrence to propagate out of its declaration's innermost containing master; if exceptions were created by their declarations like other entities, they would presumably be destroyed upon leaving the master; we would have to do something special to prevent them from propagating to places where they no longer exist. 3.b

Ramification: Exception identities are unique across all partitions of a program. 3.c

4 {*predefined exception*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The *predefined* exceptions are the ones declared in the declaration of package Standard: Constraint_Error, Program_Error, Storage_Error, and Tasking_Error[; one of them is raised when a language-defined check fails.]

4.a **Ramification:** The exceptions declared in the language-defined package IO_Exceptions, for example, are not predefined.

Dynamic Semantics

5 {*elaboration* [exception_declaration]} The elaboration of an exception_declaration has no effect.

6 {*Storage_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Storage_Check)*} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The execution of any construct raises Storage_Error if there is insufficient storage for that execution. {*unspecified* [partial]} The amount of storage needed for the execution of constructs is unspecified.

6.a **Ramification:** Note that any execution whatsoever can raise Storage_Error. This allows much implementation freedom in storage management.

Examples

7 *Examples of user-defined exception declarations:*

8
```
Singular : exception;
Error    : exception;
Overflow, Underflow : exception;
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

8.a {*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} The exception Numeric_Error is now defined in the Obsolescent features Annex, as a rename of Constraint_Error. All checks that raise Numeric_Error in Ada 83 instead raise Constraint_Error in Ada 9X. To increase upward compatibility, we also changed the rules to allow the same exception to be named more than once by a given handler. Thus, ''**when** Constraint_Error | Numeric_Error =>'' will remain legal in Ada 9X, even though Constraint_Error and Numeric_Error now denote the same exception. However, it will not be legal to have separate handlers for Constraint_Error and Numeric_Error. This change is inconsistent in the rare case that an existing program explicitly raises Numeric_Error at a point where there is a handler for Constraint_Error; the exception will now be caught by that handler.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

8.b We explicitly define elaboration for exception_declarations.

11.2 Exception Handlers

1 [The response to one or more exceptions is specified by an exception_handler.]

Syntax

2
```
handled_sequence_of_statements ::=
    sequence_of_statements
  [exception
    exception_handler
   {exception_handler}]
```

3
```
exception_handler ::=
  when [choice_parameter_specification:] exception_choice {| exception_choice} =>
    sequence_of_statements
```

4 choice_parameter_specification ::= defining_identifier

5 exception_choice ::= *exception*_name | **others**

5.a **To be honest:** {*handler*} ''*Handler*'' is an abbreviation for ''exception_handler.''

5.b {*choice (of an* exception_handler*)*} Within this section, we sometimes abbreviate ''exception_choice'' to ''*choice*.''

Legality Rules

{*cover (of a choice and an exception)*} A choice with an *exception*_name *covers* the named exception. A choice with **others** covers all exceptions not named by previous choices of the same handled_sequence_of_statements. Two choices in different exception_handlers of the same handled_sequence_of_statements shall not cover the same exception. 6

Ramification: Two choices of the same exception_handler may cover the same exception. For example, given two renaming declarations in separate packages for the same exception, one may nevertheless write, for example, ''**when** Ada.Text_IO.Data_Error | My_Seq_IO.Data_Error =>''. 6.a

An **others** choice even covers exceptions that are not visible at the place of the handler. Since exception raising is a dynamic activity, it is entirely possible for an **others** handler to handle an exception that it could not have named. 6.b

A choice with **others** is allowed only for the last handler of a handled_sequence_of_statements and as the only choice of that handler. 7

An *exception*_name of a choice shall not denote an exception declared in a generic formal package. 8

Reason: This is because the compiler doesn't know the identity of such an exception, and thus can't enforce the coverage rules. 8.a

Static Semantics

{*choice parameter*} A choice_parameter_specification declares a *choice parameter*, which is a constant object of type Exception_Occurrence (see 11.4.1). During the handling of an exception occurrence, the choice parameter, if any, of the handler represents the exception occurrence that is being handled. 9

Dynamic Semantics

{*execution* [handled_sequence_of_statements]} The execution of a handled_sequence_of_statements consists of the execution of the sequence_of_statements. [The optional handlers are used to handle any exceptions that are propagated by the sequence_of_statements.] 10

Examples

Example of an exception handler: 11

12
```
begin
   Open(File, In_File, "input.txt");    -- see A.8.2
exception
   when E : Name_Error =>
      Put("Cannot open input file : ");
      Put_Line(Exception_Message(E));  -- see 11.4.1
      raise;
end;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for exception_handler is modified to allow a choice_parameter_specification. 12.a

Different choices of the same exception_handler may cover the same exception. This allows for ''when Numeric_Error | Constraint_Error =>'' even though Numeric_Error is a rename of Constraint_Error. This also allows one to ''with'' two different I/O packages, and then write, for example, ''when Ada.Text_IO.Data_Error | My_Seq_IO.Data_Error =>'' even though these might both be renames of the same exception. 12.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for handled_sequence_of_statements is new. These are now used in all the places where handlers are allowed. This obviates the need to explain (in Sections 5, 6, 7, and 9) what portions of the program are handled by the handlers. Note that there are more such cases in Ada 9X. 12.c

The syntax rule for choice_parameter_specification is new. 12.d

11.3 Raise Statements

1 [A raise_statement raises an exception.]

Syntax

2 raise_statement ::= **raise** [*exception*_name];

Legality Rules

3 The name, if any, in a raise_statement shall denote an exception. {*re-raise statement*} A raise_statement with no *exception*_name (that is, a *re-raise statement*) shall be within a handler, but not within a body enclosed by that handler.

Dynamic Semantics

4 {*raise (an exception)*} To *raise an exception* is to raise a new occurrence of that exception[, as explained in 11.4]. {*execution* [raise_statement with an exception_name]} For the execution of a raise_statement with an *exception*_name, the named exception is raised. {*execution* [re-raise statement]} For the execution of a re-raise statement, the exception occurrence that caused transfer of control to the innermost enclosing handler is raised [again].

4.a **Implementation Note:** For a re-raise statement, the implementation does not create a new Exception_Occurrence, but instead propagates the same Exception_Occurrence value. This allows the original cause of the exception to be determined.

Examples

5 *Examples of raise statements:*

6 `raise Ada.IO_Exceptions.Name_Error;` -- *see A.13*

7 `raise;` -- *re-raise the current exception*

Wording Changes From Ada 83

7.a The fact that the name in a raise_statement has to denote an exception is not clear from RM83. Clearly that was the intent, since the italicized part of the syntax rules so indicate, but there was no explicit rule. RM83-1.5(11) doesn't seem to give the italicized parts of the syntax any force.

11.4 Exception Handling

1 [When an exception occurrence is raised, normal program execution is abandoned and control is transferred to an applicable exception_handler, if any. {*handle (an exception occurrence)*} To *handle* an exception occurrence is to respond to the exceptional event. {*propagate*} To *propagate* an exception occurrence is to raise it again in another context; that is, to fail to respond to the exceptional event in the present context.]

1.a **Ramification:** In other words, if the execution of a given construct raises an exception, but does not handle it, the exception is propagated to an enclosing execution (except in the case of a task_body).

1.b Propagation involves re-raising the same exception occurrence (assuming the implementation has not taken advantage of the Implementation Permission of 11.3). For example, calling an entry of an uncallable task raises Tasking_Error; this is not propagation.

Dynamic Semantics

2 {*dynamically enclosing (of one execution by another)*} {*execution (dynamically enclosing)*} Within a given task, if the execution of construct *a* is defined by this International Standard to consist (in part) of the execution of construct *b*, then while *b* is executing, the execution of *a* is said to *dynamically enclose* the execution of *b*. {*innermost dynamically enclosing*} The *innermost dynamically enclosing* execution of a given execution is the dynamically enclosing execution that started most recently.

2.a **To be honest:** {*included (one execution by another)*} {*execution (included by another execution)*} If the execution of *a* dynamically encloses that of *b*, then we also say that the execution of *b* is *included in* the execution of *a*.

Ramification: Examples: The execution of an if_statement dynamically encloses the evaluation of the condition after the **if** (during that evaluation). (Recall that ''execution'' includes both ''elaboration'' and ''evaluation'', as well as other executions.) The evaluation of a function call dynamically encloses the execution of the sequence_of_statements of the function_body (during that execution). Note that, due to recursion, several simultaneous executions of the same construct can be occurring at once during the execution of a particular task. 2.b

Dynamically enclosing is not defined across task boundaries; a task's execution does not include the execution of any other tasks. 2.c

Dynamically enclosing is only defined for executions that are occurring at a given moment in time; if an if_statement is currently executing the sequence_of_statements after **then**, then the evaluation of the condition is no longer dynamically enclosed by the execution of the if_statement (or anything else). 2.d

{*raise (an exception occurrence)*} When an exception occurrence is raised by the execution of a given construct, the rest of the execution of that construct is *abandoned*; that is, any portions of the execution that have not yet taken place are not performed. The construct is first completed, and then left, as explained in 7.6.1. Then: 3

- If the construct is a task_body, the exception does not propagate further; 4

  Ramification: When an exception is raised by the execution of a task_body, there is no dynamically enclosing execution, so the exception does not propagate any further. If the exception occurred during the activation of the task, then the activator raises Tasking_Error, as explained in 9.2, ''Task Execution - Task Activation'', but we don't define that as propagation; it's a special rule. Otherwise (the exception occurred during the execution of the handled_sequence_of_statements of the task), the task silently disappears. Thus, abnormal termination of tasks is not always considered to be an error. 4.a

- If the construct is the sequence_of_statements of a handled_sequence_of_statements that has a handler with a choice covering the exception, the occurrence is handled by that handler; 5

- {*propagate (an exception occurrence by an execution, to a dynamically enclosing execution)*} Otherwise, the occurrence is *propagated* to the innermost dynamically enclosing execution, which means that the occurrence is raised again in that context. 6

  To be honest: {*propagate (an exception by an execution)*} {*propagate (an exception by a construct)*} As shorthands, we refer to the *propagation of an exception*, and the *propagation by a construct*, if the execution of the construct propagates an exception occurrence. 6.a

{*handle (an exception occurrence)*} {*execution* [handler]} {*elaboration* [choice_parameter_specification]} When an occurrence is *handled* by a given handler, the choice_parameter_specification, if any, is first elaborated, which creates the choice parameter and initializes it to the occurrence. Then, the sequence_of_statements of the handler is executed; this execution replaces the abandoned portion of the execution of the sequence_of_statements. 7

Ramification: This ''replacement'' semantics implies that the handler can do pretty much anything the abandoned sequence could do; for example, in a function, the handler can execute a return_statement that applies to the function. 7.a

Ramification: The rules for exceptions raised in library units, main subprograms and partitions follow from the normal rules, plus the semantics of the environment task described in Section 10 (for example, the environment task of a partition elaborates library units and calls the main subprogram). If an exception is propagated by the main subprogram, it is propagated to the environment task, which then terminates abnormally, causing the partition to terminate abnormally. Although abnormal termination of tasks is not necessarily an error, abnormal termination of a partition due to an exception *is* an error. 7.b

NOTES

1 Note that exceptions raised in a declarative_part of a body are not handled by the handlers of the handled_sequence_of_statements of that body. 8

11.4.1 The Package Exceptions

Static Semantics

1 The following language-defined library package exists:

2
```
package Ada.Exceptions is
    type Exception_Id is private;
    Null_Id : constant Exception_Id;
    function Exception_Name(Id : Exception_Id) return String;

3   type Exception_Occurrence is limited private;
    type Exception_Occurrence_Access is access all Exception_Occurrence;
    Null_Occurrence : constant Exception_Occurrence;

4   procedure Raise_Exception(E : in Exception_Id; Message : in String := "");
    function Exception_Message(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String;
    procedure Reraise_Occurrence(X : in Exception_Occurrence);

5   function Exception_Identity(X : Exception_Occurrence) return Exception_Id;
    function Exception_Name(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String;
        -- Same as Exception_Name(Exception_Identity(X)).
    function Exception_Information(X : Exception_Occurrence) return String;

6   procedure Save_Occurrence(Target : out Exception_Occurrence;
                              Source : in Exception_Occurrence);
    function Save_Occurrence(Source : Exception_Occurrence)
                            return Exception_Occurrence_Access;
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Exceptions;
```

7 Each distinct exception is represented by a distinct value of type Exception_Id. Null_Id does not represent any exception, and is the default initial value of type Exception_Id. Each occurrence of an exception is represented by a value of type Exception_Occurrence. Null_Occurrence does not represent any exception occurrence, and is the default initial value of type Exception_Occurrence.

8 For a prefix E that denotes an exception, the following attribute is defined:

9 E'Identity — E'Identity returns the unique identity of the exception. The type of this attribute is Exception_Id.

9.a **Ramification:** In a distributed program, the identity is unique across an entire program, not just across a single partition. Exception propagation works properly across RPC's. An exception can be propagated from one partition to another, and then back to the first, where its identity is known.

10 Raise_Exception raises a new occurrence of the identified exception. In this case, Exception_Message returns the Message parameter of Raise_Exception. For a raise_statement with an *exception*_name, Exception_Message returns implementation-defined information about the exception occurrence. Reraise_Occurrence reraises the specified exception occurrence.

10.a **Implementation defined:** The information returned by Exception_Message.

10.b **Ramification:** Given an exception E, the raise_statement:

10.c
```
raise E;
```

10.d is equivalent to this call to Raise_Exception:

10.e
```
Raise_Exception(E'Identity, Message => implementation-defined-string);
```

10.f The following handler:

10.g
```
when others =>
    Cleanup;
    raise;
```

10.h is equivalent to this one:

```
when X : others =>                                                    10.i
    Cleanup;
    Reraise_Occurrence(X);
```

Exception_Identity returns the identity of the exception of the occurrence. 11

The Exception_Name functions return the full expanded name of the exception, in upper case, starting with a root library unit. For an exception declared immediately within package Standard, the defining_identifier is returned. The result is implementation defined if the exception is declared within an unnamed block_statement. 12

Ramification: See the Implementation Permission below. 12.a

To be honest: This name, as well as each prefix of it, does not denote a renaming_declaration. 12.b

Implementation defined: The result of Exceptions.Exception_Name for types declared within an unnamed block_statement. 12.c

Ramification: Note that we're talking about the name of the exception, not the name of the occurrence. 12.d

Exception_Information returns implementation-defined information about the exception occurrence. 13

Implementation defined: The information returned by Exception_Information. 13.a

Raise_Exception and Reraise_Occurrence have no effect in the case of Null_Id or Null_Occurrence. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Exception_Message, Exception_Identity, Exception_Name, and Exception_Information raise Constraint_Error for a Null_Id or Null_Occurrence. 14

The Save_Occurrence procedure copies the Source to the Target. The Save_Occurrence function uses an allocator of type Exception_Occurrence_Access to create a new object, copies the Source to this new object, and returns an access value designating this new object; [the result may be deallocated using an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation.] 15

Ramification: It's OK to pass Null_Occurrence to the Save_Occurrence subprograms; they don't raise an exception, but simply save the Null_Occurrence. 15.a

Implementation Requirements

The implementation of the Write attribute (see 13.13.2) of Exception_Occurrence shall support writing a representation of an exception occurrence to a stream; the implementation of the Read attribute of Exception_Occurrence shall support reconstructing an exception occurrence from a stream (including one written in a different partition). 16

Ramification: The identity of the exception, as well as the Exception_Name and Exception_Message, have to be preserved across partitions. 16.a

The string returned by Exception_Name or Exception_Message on the result of calling the Read attribute on a given stream has to be the same as the value returned by calling the corresponding function on the exception occurrence that was written into the stream with the Write attribute. The string returned by Exception_Information need not be the same, since it is implementation defined anyway. 16.b

Reason: This is important for supporting writing exception occurrences to external files for post-mortem analysis, as well as propagating exceptions across remote subprogram calls in a distributed system (see E.4). 16.c

Implementation Permissions

An implementation of Exception_Name in a space-constrained environment may return the defining_identifier instead of the full expanded name. 17

The string returned by Exception_Message may be truncated (to no less than 200 characters) by the Save_Occurrence procedure [(not the function)], the Reraise_Occurrence procedure, and the re-raise statement. 18

18.a **Reason:** The reason for allowing truncation is to ease implementations. The reason for choosing the number 200 is that this is the minimum source line length that implementations have to support, and this feature seems vaguely related since it's usually a ''one-liner''. Note that an implementation is allowed to do this truncation even if it supports arbitrarily long lines.

Implementation Advice

19 Exception_Message (by default) and Exception_Information should produce information useful for debugging. Exception_Message should be short (about one line), whereas Exception_Information can be long. Exception_Message should not include the Exception_Name. Exception_Information should include both the Exception_Name and the Exception_Message.

19.a **Reason:** It may seem strange to define two subprograms whose semantics is implementation defined. The idea is that a program can print out debugging/error-logging information in a portable way. The program is portable in the sense that it will work in any implementation; it might print out different information, but the presumption is that the information printed out is appropriate for debugging/error analysis on that system.

19.b **Implementation Note:** As an example, Exception_Information might include information identifying the location where the exception occurred, and, for predefined exceptions, the specific kind of language-defined check that failed. There is an implementation trade-off here, between how much information is represented in an Exception_Occurrence, and how much can be passed through a re-raise.

19.c The string returned should be in a form suitable for printing to an error log file. This means that it might need to contain line-termination control characters with implementation-defined I/O semantics. The string should neither start nor end with a newline.

19.d If an implementation chooses to provide additional functionality related to exceptions and their occurrences, it should do so by providing one or more children of Ada.Exceptions.

19.e Note that exceptions behave as if declared at library level; there is no ''natural scope'' for an exception; an exception always exists. Hence, there is no harm in saving an exception occurrence in a data structure, and reraising it later. The reraise has to occur as part of the same program execution, so saving an exception occurrence in a file, reading it back in from a different program execution, and then reraising it is not required to work. This is similar to I/O of access types. Note that it is possible to use RPC to propagate exceptions across partitions.

19.f Here's one way to implement Exception_Occurrence in the private part of the package. Using this method, an implementation need store only the actual number of characters in exception messages. If the user always uses small messages, then exception occurrences can be small. If the user never uses messages, then exception occurrences can be smaller still:

19.g
```
type Exception_Occurrence(Message_Length : Natural := 200) is
    limited record
        Id : Exception_Id;
        Message : String(1..Message_Length);
    end record;
```

19.h At the point where an exception is raised, an Exception_Occurrence can be allocated on the stack with exactly the right amount of space for the message — none for an empty message. This is just like declaring a constrained object of the type:

19.i
```
Temp : Exception_Occurrence(10); -- for a 10-character message
```

19.j After finding the appropriate handler, the stack can be cut back, and the Temp copied to the right place. This is similar to returning an unknown-sized object from a function. It is not necessary to allocate the maximum possible size for every Exception_Occurrence. If, however, the user declares an Exception_Occurrence object, the discriminant will be permanently set to 200. The Save_Occurrence procedure would then truncate the Exception_Message. Thus, nothing is lost until the user tries to save the occurrence. If the user is willing to pay the cost of heap allocation, the Save_Occurrence function can be used instead.

19.k Note that any arbitrary-sized implementation-defined Exception_Information can be handled in a similar way. For example, if the Exception_Occurrence includes a stack traceback, a discriminant can control the number of stack frames stored. The traceback would be truncated or entirely deleted by the Save_Occurrence procedure — as the implementation sees fit.

19.l If the internal representation involves pointers to data structures that might disappear, it would behoove the implementation to implement it as a controlled type, so that assignment can either copy the data structures or else null out the pointers. Alternatively, if the data structures being pointed at are in a task control block, the implementation could keep a unique sequence number for each task, so it could tell when a task's data structures no longer exist.

Using the above method, heap space is never allocated unless the user calls the Save_Occurrence function. 19.m

An alternative implementation would be to store the message strings on the heap when the exception is raised. (It could be the global heap, or it could be a special heap just for this purpose — it doesn't matter.) This representation would be used only for choice parameters. For normal user-defined exception occurrences, the Save_Occurrence procedure would copy the message string into the occurrence itself, truncating as necessary. Thus, in this implementation, Exception_Occurrence would be implemented as a variant record: 19.n

```
type Exception_Occurrence_Kind is (Normal, As_Choice_Param);
```
19.o

```
type Exception_Occurrence(Kind : Exception_Occurrence_Kind := Normal) is
    limited record
        case Kind is
            when Normal =>
                ... -- space for 200 characters
            when As_Choice_Param =>
                ... -- pointer to heap string
        end case;
    end record;
```
19.p

Exception_Occurrences created by the run-time system during exception raising would be As_Choice_Param. User-declared ones would be Normal — the user cannot see the discriminant, and so cannot set it to As_Choice_Param. The strings in the heap would be freed upon completion of the handler. 19.q

This alternative implementation corresponds to a heap-based implementation of functions returning unknown-sized results. 19.r

One possible implementation of Reraise_Occurrence is as follows: 19.s

```
procedure Reraise_Occurrence(X : in Exception_Occurrence) is
begin
    Raise_Exception(Identity(X), Exception_Message(X));
end Reraise_Occurrence;
```
19.t

However, some implementations may wish to retain more information across a re-raise — a stack traceback, for example. 19.u

Ramification: Note that Exception_Occurrence is a definite subtype. Hence, values of type Exception_Occurrence may be written to an error log for later analysis, or may be passed to subprograms for immediate error analysis. 19.v

Implementation Note: If an implementation chooses to have a mode in which it supports non-Latin-1 characters in identifiers, then it needs to define what the above functions return in the case where the name of an exception contains such a character. 19.w

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The Identity attribute of exceptions is new, as is the package Exceptions. 19.x

11.4.2 Example of Exception Handling

Examples

Exception handling may be used to separate the detection of an error from the response to that error: 1

```
with Ada.Exceptions;
use Ada;
package File_System is
    type File_Handle is limited private;

    File_Not_Found : exception;
    procedure Open(F : in out File_Handle; Name : String);
        -- raises File_Not_Found if named file does not exist

    End_Of_File : exception;
    procedure Read(F : in out File_Handle; Data : out Data_Type);
        -- raises End_Of_File if the file is not open

    ...
end File_System;
```
2 3 4 5

```
6       package body File_System is
            procedure Open(F : in out File_Handle; Name : String) is
            begin
                if File_Exists(Name) then
                    ...
                else
                    Exceptions.Raise_Exception(File_Not_Found'Identity,
                                               "File not found: " & Name & ".");
                end if;
            end Open;
7           procedure Read(F : in out File_Handle; Data : out Data_Type) is
            begin
                if F.Current_Position <= F.Last_Position then
                    ...
                else
                    raise End_Of_File;
                end if;
            end Read;
8           ...
9       end File_System;
10      with Ada.Text_IO;
        with Ada.Exceptions;
        with File_System; use File_System;
        use Ada;
        procedure Main is
        begin
            ... -- call operations in File_System
        exception
            when End_Of_File =>
                Close(Some_File);
            when Not_Found_Error : File_Not_Found =>
                Text_IO.Put_Line(Exceptions.Exception_Message(Not_Found_Error));
            when The_Error : others =>
                Text_IO.Put_Line("Unknown error:");
                if Verbosity_Desired then
                    Text_IO.Put_Line(Exceptions.Exception_Information(The_Error));
                else
                    Text_IO.Put_Line(Exceptions.Exception_Name(The_Error));
                    Text_IO.Put_Line(Exceptions.Exception_Message(The_Error));
                end if;
                raise;
        end Main;
```

11 In the above example, the File_System package contains information about detecting certain exceptional situations, but it does not specify how to handle those situations. Procedure Main specifies how to handle them; other clients of File_System might have different handlers, even though the exceptional situations arise from the same basic causes.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

11.a The sections labeled ''Exceptions Raised During ...'' are subsumed by this clause, and by parts of Section 9.

11.5 Suppressing Checks

1 A pragma Suppress gives permission to an implementation to omit certain language-defined checks.

2 {*language-defined check*} {*check (language-defined)*} {*run-time check: see language-defined check*} {*run-time error*} {*error (run-time)*} A *language-defined check* (or simply, a ''check'') is one of the situations defined by this International Standard that requires a check to be made at run time to determine whether some condition is true. {*failure (of a language-defined check)*} A check *fails* when the condition being checked is false, causing an exception to be raised.

Discussion: All such checks are defined under ''Dynamic Semantics'' in clauses and subclauses throughout the standard. 2.a

Syntax

The form of a pragma Suppress is as follows: 3

pragma Suppress(identifier [, [On =>] name]); 4

{*configuration pragma* [Suppress]} {*pragma, configuration* [Suppress]} A pragma Suppress is allowed only immediately within a declarative_part, immediately within a package_specification, or as a configuration pragma. 5

Legality Rules

The identifier shall be the name of a check. The name (if present) shall statically denote some entity. 6

For a pragma Suppress that is immediately within a package_specification and includes a name, the name shall denote an entity (or several overloaded subprograms) declared immediately within the package_specification. 7

Static Semantics

A pragma Suppress gives permission to an implementation to omit the named check from the place of the pragma to the end of the innermost enclosing declarative region, or, if the pragma is given in a package_specification and includes a name, to the end of the scope of the named entity. If the pragma includes a name, the permission applies only to checks performed on the named entity, or, for a subtype, on objects and values of its type. Otherwise, the permission applies to all entities. {*suppressed check*} If permission has been given to suppress a given check, the check is said to be *suppressed*. 8

Ramification: A check is suppressed even if the implementation chooses not to actually generate better code. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} This allows the implementation to raise Program_Error, for example, if the erroneousness is detected. 8.a

The following are the language-defined checks: 9

- {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} [The following checks correspond to situations in which the exception Constraint_Error is raised upon failure.] 10

  {*Access_Check* [distributed]} Access_Check 11

  [When evaluating a dereference (explicit or implicit), check that the value of the name is not **null**. When passing an actual parameter to a formal access parameter, check that the value of the actual parameter is not **null**.]

  {*Discriminant_Check* [distributed]} Discriminant_Check 12

  [Check that the discriminants of a composite value have the values imposed by a discriminant constraint. Also, when accessing a record component, check that it exists for the current discriminant values.]

  {*Division_Check* [distributed]} Division_Check 13

  [Check that the second operand is not zero for the operations /, rem and mod.]

  {*Index_Check* [distributed]} Index_Check 14

  [Check that the bounds of an array value are equal to the corresponding bounds of an index constraint. Also, when accessing a component of an array object, check for each dimension that the given index value belongs to the range defined by the bounds of the array object. Also, when accessing a slice of an array object, check that the given discrete range is compatible with the range defined by the bounds of the array object.]

15 {*Length_Check* [distributed]} Length_Check
[Check that two arrays have matching components, in the case of array subtype conversions, and logical operators for arrays of boolean components.]

16 {*Overflow_Check* [distributed]} Overflow_Check
[Check that a scalar value is within the base range of its type, in cases where the implementation chooses to raise an exception instead of returning the correct mathematical result.]

17 {*Range_Check* [distributed]} Range_Check
[Check that a scalar value satisfies a range constraint. Also, for the elaboration of a subtype_indication, check that the constraint (if present) is compatible with the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark. Also, for an aggregate, check that an index or discriminant value belongs to the corresponding subtype. Also, check that when the result of an operation yields an array, the value of each component belongs to the component subtype.]

18 {*Tag_Check* [distributed]} Tag_Check
[Check that operand tags in a dispatching call are all equal. Check for the correct tag on tagged type conversions, for an assignment_statement, and when returning a tagged limited object from a function.]

19 • {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} [The following checks correspond to situations in which the exception Program_Error is raised upon failure.]

20 {*Elaboration_Check* [distributed]} Elaboration_Check
[When a subprogram or protected entry is called, a task activation is accomplished, or a generic instantiation is elaborated, check that the body of the corresponding unit has already been elaborated.]

21 {*Accessibility_Check* [distributed]} Accessibility_Check
[Check the accessibility level of an entity or view.]

22 • [The following check corresponds to situations in which the exception Storage_Error is raised upon failure.]

23 {*Storage_Check* [distributed]} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Storage_Check
[Check that evaluation of an allocator does not require more space than is available for a storage pool. Check that the space available for a task or subprogram has not been exceeded.]

23.a **Reason:** We considered splitting this out into three categories: Pool_Check (for allocators), Stack_Check (for stack usage), and Heap_Check (for implicit use of the heap — use of the heap other than through an allocator). Storage_Check would then represent the union of these three. However, there seems to be no compelling reason to do this, given that it is not feasible to split Storage_Error.

24 • [The following check corresponds to all situations in which any predefined exception is raised.]

25 {*All_Checks* [distributed]} All_Checks
Represents the union of all checks; [suppressing All_Checks suppresses all checks.]

25.a **Ramification:** All_Checks includes both language-defined and implementation-defined checks.

Erroneous Execution

26 {*erroneous execution*} If a given check has been suppressed, and the corresponding error situation occurs, the execution of the program is erroneous.

Implementation Permissions

An implementation is allowed to place restrictions on Suppress pragmas. An implementation is allowed to add additional check names, with implementation-defined semantics. {*unspecified* [partial]} When Overflow_Check has been suppressed, an implementation may also suppress an unspecified subset of the Range_Checks. 27

Reason: The permission to restrict is given so the implementation can give an error message when the requested suppression is nonsense, such as suppressing a Range_Check on a task type. It would be verbose and pointless to list all the cases of nonsensical language-defined checks in the standard, and since the list of checks is open-ended, we can't list the restrictions for implementation-defined checks anyway. 27.a

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined check names. 27.b

Discussion: For Overflow_Check, the intention is that the implementation will suppress any Range_Checks that are implemented in the same manner as Overflow_Checks (unless they are free). 27.c

Implementation Advice

The implementation should minimize the code executed for checks that have been suppressed. 28

Implementation Note: However, if a given check comes for free (for example, the hardware automatically performs the check in parallel with doing useful work) or nearly free (for example, the check is a tiny portion of an expensive run-time system call), the implementation should not bother to suppress the check. Similarly, if the implementation detects the failure at compile time and provides a warning message, there is no need to actually suppress the check. 28.a

NOTES
2 {*optimization*} {*efficiency*} There is no guarantee that a suppressed check is actually removed; hence a pragma Suppress should be used only for efficiency reasons. 29

Examples

Examples of suppressing checks: 30

```
pragma Suppress(Range_Check);                                    31
pragma Suppress(Index_Check, On => Table);
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} A pragma Suppress is allowed as a configuration pragma. A pragma Suppress without a name is allowed in a package_specification. 31.a

Additional check names are added. We allow implementations to define their own checks. 31.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

We define the checks in a distributed manner. Therefore, the long list of what checks apply to what is merely a NOTE. 31.c

We have removed the detailed rules about what is allowed in a pragma Suppress, and allow implementations to invent their own. The RM83 rules weren't quite right, and such a change is necessary anyway in the presence of implementation-defined checks. 31.d

We make it clear that the difference between a Range_Check and an Overflow_Check is fuzzy. This was true in Ada 83, given RM83-11.6, but it was not clear. We considered removing Overflow_Check from the language or making it obsolescent, just as we did for Numeric_Error. However, we kept it for upward compatibility, and because it may be useful on machines where range checking costs more than overflow checking, but overflow checking still costs something. Different compilers will suppress different checks when asked to suppress Overflow_Check — the non-uniformity in this case is not harmful, and removing it would have a serious impact on optimizers. 31.e

Under Access_Check, dereferences cover the cases of selected_component, indexed_component, slice, and attribute that are listed in RM83, as well as the new explicit_dereference, which was included in selected_component in RM83. 31.f

11.6 Exceptions and Optimization

[{*language-defined check*} {*check (language-defined)*} {*run-time error*} {*error (run-time)*} {*optimization*} {*efficiency*} This clause gives permission to the implementation to perform certain ''optimizations'' that do not necessarily preserve the canonical semantics.] 1

Dynamic Semantics

2 {*canonical semantics*} The rest of this International Standard (outside this clause) defines the *canonical semantics* of the language. [The canonical semantics of a given (legal) program determines a set of possible external effects that can result from the execution of the program with given inputs.]

2.a **Ramification:** Note that the canonical semantics is a set of possible behaviors, since some reordering, parallelism, and non-determinism is allowed by the canonical semantics.

2.b **Discussion:** The following parts of the canonical semantics are of particular interest to the reader of this clause:

2.c • Behavior in the presence of abnormal objects and objects with invalid representations (see 13.9.1).

2.d • Various actions that are defined to occur in an arbitrary order.

2.e • Behavior in the presence of a misuse of Unchecked_Deallocation, Unchecked_Access, or imported or exported entity (see Section 13).

3 [As explained in 1.1.3, ‘‘Conformity of an Implementation With the Standard’’, the external effect of a program is defined in terms of its interactions with its external environment. Hence, the implementation can perform any internal actions whatsoever, in any order or in parallel, so long as the external effect of the execution of the program is one that is allowed by the canonical semantics, or by the rules of this clause.]

3.a **Ramification:** Note that an optimization can change the external effect of the program, so long as the changed external effect is an external effect that is allowed by the semantics. Note that the canonical semantics of an erroneous execution allows any external effect whatsoever. Hence, if the implementation can prove that program execution will be erroneous in certain circumstances, there need not be any constraints on the machine code executed in those circumstances.

Implementation Permissions

4 The following additional permissions are granted to the implementation:

5 • {*extra permission to avoid raising exceptions*} {*undefined result*} An implementation need not always raise an exception when a language-defined check fails. Instead, the operation that failed the check can simply yield an *undefined result*. The exception need be raised by the implementation only if, in the absence of raising it, the value of this undefined result would have some effect on the external interactions of the program. In determining this, the implementation shall not presume that an undefined result has a value that belongs to its subtype, nor even to the base range of its type, if scalar. [Having removed the raise of the exception, the canonical semantics will in general allow the implementation to omit the code for the check, and some or all of the operation itself.]

5.a **Ramification:** Even without this permission, an implementation can always remove a check if it cannot possibly fail.

5.b **Reason:** We express the permission in terms of removing the raise, rather than the operation or the check, as it minimizes the disturbance to the canonical semantics (thereby simplifying reasoning). By allowing the implementation to omit the raise, it thereby does not need to "look" at what happens in the exception handler to decide whether the optimization is allowed.

5.c **Discussion:** The implementation can also omit checks if they cannot possibly fail, or if they could only fail in erroneous executions. This follows from the canonical semantics.

5.d **Implementation Note:** This permission is intended to allow normal "dead code removal" optimizations, even if some of the removed code might have failed some language-defined check. However, one may not eliminate the raise of an exception if subsequent code presumes in some way that the check succeeded. For example:

5.e
```
    if X * Y > Integer'Last then
        Put_Line("X * Y overflowed");
    end if;
exception
    when others =>
        Put_Line("X * Y overflowed");
```

If X*Y does overflow, you may not remove the raise of the exception if the code that does the comparison against Integer'Last presumes that it is comparing it with an in-range Integer value, and hence always yields False.

As another example where a raise may not be eliminated: 5.f

```
subtype Str10 is String(1..10);                                    5.g
type P10 is access Str10;
X : P10 := null;
begin
  if X.all'Last = 10 then
      Put_Line("Oops");
  end if;
```

In the above code, it would be wrong to eliminate the raise of Constraint_Error on the "X.all" (since X is null), if the code to evaluate 'Last always yields 10 by presuming that X.all belongs to the subtype Str10, without even "looking."

- {*extra permission to reorder actions*} If an exception is raised due to the failure of a language-defined check, then upon reaching the corresponding exception_handler (or the termination of the task, if none), the external interactions that have occurred need reflect only that the exception was raised somewhere within the execution of the sequence_of_statements with the handler (or the task_body), possibly earlier (or later if the interactions are independent of the result of the checked operation) than that defined by the canonical semantics, but not within the execution of some abort-deferred operation or *independent* subprogram that does not dynamically enclose the execution of the construct whose check failed. {*independent subprogram*} An independent subprogram is one that is defined outside the library unit containing the construct whose check failed, and has no Inline pragma applied to it. {*normal state of an object*} {*abnormal state of an object* [partial]} {*disruption of an assignment* [partial]} Any assignment that occurred outside of such abort-deferred operations or independent subprograms can be disrupted by the raising of the exception, causing the object or its parts to become abnormal, and certain subsequent uses of the object to be erroneous, as explained in 13.9.1. 6

  Reason: We allow such variables to become abnormal so that assignments (other than to atomic variables) can be disrupted due to ''imprecise'' exceptions or instruction scheduling, and so that assignments can be reordered so long as the correct results are produced in the end if no language-defined checks fail. 6.a

  Ramification: If a check fails, no result dependent on the check may be incorporated in an external interaction. In other words, there is no permission to output meaningless results due to postponing a check. 6.b

  Discussion: We believe it is important to state the extra permission to reorder actions in terms of what the programmer can expect at run time, rather than in terms of what the implementation can assume, or what transformations the implementation can perform. Otherwise, how can the programmer write reliable programs? 6.c

  This clause has two conflicting goals: to allow as much optimization as possible, and to make program execution as predictable as possible (to ease the writing of reliable programs). The rules given above represent a compromise. 6.d

  Consider the two extremes: 6.e

  The extreme conservative rule would be to delete this clause entirely. The semantics of Ada would be the canonical semantics. This achieves the best predictability. It sounds like a disaster from the efficiency point of view, but in practice, implementations would provide modes in which less predictability but more efficiency would be achieved. Such a mode could even be the out-of-the-box mode. In practice, implementers would provide a compromise based on their customer's needs. Therefore, we view this as one viable alternative. 6.f

  The extreme liberal rule would be ''the language does not specify the execution of a program once a language-defined check has failed; such execution can be unpredictable.'' This achieves the best efficiency. It sounds like a disaster from the predictability point of view, but in practice it might not be so bad. A user would have to assume that exception handlers for exceptions raised by language-defined checks are not portable. They would have to isolate such code (like all nonportable code), and would have to find out, for each implementation of interest, what behaviors can be expected. In practice, implementations would tend to avoid going so far as to punish their customers too much in terms of predictability. 6.g

  The most important thing about this clause is that users understand what they can expect at run time, and implementers understand what optimizations are allowed. Any solution that makes this clause contain rules that can interpreted in more than one way is unacceptable. 6.h

  We have chosen a compromise between the extreme conservative and extreme liberal rules. The current rule essentially allows arbitrary optimizations within a library unit and inlined subprograms reachable from it, but disallow semantics-disrupting optimizations across library units in the absence of inlined subprograms. This allows a library 6.i

unit to be debugged, and then reused with some confidence that the abstraction it manages cannot be broken by bugs outside the library unit.

NOTES

7 3 The permissions granted by this clause can have an effect on the semantics of a program only if the program fails a language-defined check.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

7.a RM83-11.6 was unclear. It has been completely rewritten here; we hope this version is clearer. Here's what happened to each paragraph of RM83-11.6:

7.b • Paragraphs 1 and 2 contain no semantics; they are merely pointing out that anything goes if the canonical semantics is preserved. We have similar introductory paragraphs, but we have tried to clarify that these are not granting any ''extra'' permission beyond what the rest of the document allows.

7.c • Paragraphs 3 and 4 are reflected in the ''extra permission to reorder actions''. Note that this permission now allows the reordering of assignments in many cases.

7.d • Paragraph 5 is moved to 4.5, ''Operators and Expression Evaluation'', where operator association is discussed. Hence, this is no longer an ''extra permission'' but is part of the canonical semantics.

7.e • Paragraph 6 now follows from the general permission to store out-of-range values for unconstrained subtypes. Note that the parameters and results of all the predefined operators of a type are of the unconstrained subtype of the type.

7.f • Paragraph 7 is reflected in the ''extra permission to avoid raising exceptions''.

7.g We moved clause 11.5, ''Suppressing Checks'' from after 11.6 to before 11.6, in order to preserve the famous number ''11.6'' (given the changes to earlier clauses in Section 11).

Section 12: Generic Units

{*generic unit*} A *generic unit* is a program unit that is either a generic subprogram or a generic package. {*template*} A generic unit is a *template*[, which can be parameterized, and from which corresponding (nongeneric) subprograms or packages can be obtained]. The resulting program units are said to be *instances* of the original generic unit. {*template: see generic unit*} {*macro: see generic unit*} {*parameter: see generic formal parameter*} 1

Glossary entry: {*Generic unit*} A generic unit is a template for a (nongeneric) program unit; the template can be parameterized by objects, types, subprograms, and packages. An instance of a generic unit is created by a generic_instantiation. The rules of the language are enforced when a generic unit is compiled, using a generic contract model; additional checks are performed upon instantiation to verify the contract is met. That is, the declaration of a generic unit represents a contract between the body of the generic and instances of the generic. Generic units can be used to perform the role that macros sometimed play in other languages. 1.a

[A generic unit is declared by a generic_declaration. This form of declaration has a generic_formal_part declaring any generic formal parameters. An instance of a generic unit is obtained as the result of a generic_instantiation with appropriate generic actual parameters for the generic formal parameters. An instance of a generic subprogram is a subprogram. An instance of a generic package is a package. 2

Generic units are templates. As templates they do not have the properties that are specific to their nongeneric counterparts. For example, a generic subprogram can be instantiated but it cannot be called. In contrast, an instance of a generic subprogram is a (nongeneric) subprogram; hence, this instance can be called but it cannot be used to produce further instances.] 3

12.1 Generic Declarations

[A generic_declaration declares a generic unit, which is either a generic subprogram or a generic package. A generic_declaration includes a generic_formal_part declaring any generic formal parameters. A generic formal parameter can be an object; alternatively (unlike a parameter of a subprogram), it can be a type, a subprogram, or a package.] 1

Syntax

generic_declaration ::= generic_subprogram_declaration | generic_package_declaration 2

generic_subprogram_declaration ::= 3
    generic_formal_part subprogram_specification;

generic_package_declaration ::= 4
    generic_formal_part package_specification;

generic_formal_part ::= **generic** {generic_formal_parameter_declaration | use_clause} 5

generic_formal_parameter_declaration ::= 6
     formal_object_declaration
   | formal_type_declaration
   | formal_subprogram_declaration
   | formal_package_declaration

The only form of subtype_indication allowed within a generic_formal_part is a subtype_mark [(that is, the subtype_indication shall not include an explicit constraint)]. The defining name of a generic subprogram shall be an identifier [(not an operator_symbol)]. 7

Reason: The reason for forbidding constraints in subtype_indications is that it simplifies the elaboration of generic_declarations (since there is nothing to evaluate), and that it simplifies the matching rules, and makes them more checkable at compile time. 7.a

Static Semantics

8 {*generic package*} {*generic subprogram*} {*generic procedure*} {*generic function*} A generic_declaration declares a generic unit — a generic package, generic procedure or generic function, as appropriate.

9 {*generic formal*} An entity is a *generic formal* entity if it is declared by a generic_formal_parameter_declaration. ''Generic formal,'' or simply ''formal,'' is used as a prefix in referring to objects, subtypes (and types), functions, procedures and packages, that are generic formal entities, as well as to their respective declarations. [Examples: ''generic formal procedure'' or a ''formal integer type declaration.'']

Dynamic Semantics

10 {*elaboration* [generic_declaration]} The elaboration of a generic_declaration has no effect.

NOTES

11 1 Outside a generic unit a name that denotes the generic_declaration denotes the generic unit. In contrast, within the declarative region of the generic unit, a name that denotes the generic_declaration denotes the current instance.

11.a **Proof:** This is stated officially as part of the ''current instance'' rule in 8.6, ''The Context of Overload Resolution''. See also 12.3, ''Generic Instantiation''.

12 2 Within a generic subprogram_body, the name of this program unit acts as the name of a subprogram. Hence this name can be overloaded, and it can appear in a recursive call of the current instance. For the same reason, this name cannot appear after the reserved word **new** in a (recursive) generic_instantiation.

13 3 A default_expression or default_name appearing in a generic_formal_part is not evaluated during elaboration of the generic_formal_part; instead, it is evaluated when used. (The usual visibility rules apply to any name used in a default: the denoted declaration therefore has to be visible at the place of the expression.)

Examples

14 *Examples of generic formal parts:*

15
```
generic      -- parameterless
```

16
```
generic
   Size : Natural;  -- formal object
```

17
```
generic
   Length : Integer := 200;          -- formal object with a default expression
```

18
```
   Area   : Integer := Length*Length; -- formal object with a default expression
```

19
```
generic
   type Item  is private;                          -- formal type
   type Index is (<>);                             -- formal type
   type Row   is array(Index range <>) of Item;    -- formal type
   with function "<"(X, Y : Item) return Boolean;     -- formal subprogram
```

20 *Examples of generic declarations declaring generic subprograms Exchange and Squaring:*

21
```
generic
   type Elem is private;
procedure Exchange(U, V : in out Elem);
```

22
```
generic
   type Item is private;
   with function "*"(U, V : Item) return Item is <>;
function Squaring(X : Item) return Item;
```

23 *Example of a generic declaration declaring a generic package:*

```
generic                                                                    24
   type Item   is private;
   type Vector is array (Positive range <>) of Item;
   with function Sum(X, Y : Item) return Item;
package On_Vectors is
   function Sum  (A, B : Vector) return Vector;
   function Sigma(A    : Vector) return Item;
   Length_Error : exception;
end On_Vectors;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for generic_formal_parameter_declaration is modified to allow the reserved words **tagged** and **abstract**, to allow formal derived types, and to allow formal packages. 24.a

Use_clauses are allowed in generic_formal_parts. This is necessary in order to allow a use_clause within a formal part to provide direct visibility of declarations within a generic formal package. 24.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax for generic_formal_parameter_declaration and formal_type_definition is split up into more named categories. The rules for these categories are moved to the appropriate clauses and subclauses. The names of the categories are changed to be more intuitive and uniform. For example, we changed generic_parameter_declaration to generic_formal_parameter_declaration, because the thing it declares is a generic formal, not a generic. In the others, we abbreviate ''generic_formal'' to just ''formal''. We can't do that for generic_formal_parameter_declaration, because of confusion with normal formal parameters of subprograms. 24.c

12.2 Generic Bodies

{*generic body*} The body of a generic unit (a *generic body*) [is a template for the instance bodies. The syntax of a generic body is identical to that of a nongeneric body]. 1

Ramification: We also use terms like ''generic function body'' and ''nongeneric package body.'' 1.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [generic body]} The elaboration of a generic body has no other effect than to establish that the generic unit can from then on be instantiated without failing the Elaboration_Check. If the generic body is a child of a generic package, then its elaboration establishes that each corresponding declaration nested in an instance of the parent (see 10.1.1) can from then on be instantiated without failing the Elaboration_Check. 2

NOTES
4 The syntax of generic subprograms implies that a generic subprogram body is always the completion of a declaration. 3

Examples

Example of a generic procedure body: 4

```
procedure Exchange(U, V : in out Elem) is  -- see 12.1                     5
   T : Elem;  -- the generic formal type
begin
   T := U;
   U := V;
   V := T;
end Exchange;
```

Example of a generic function body: 6

```
function Squaring(X : Item) return Item is  -- see 12.1                    7
begin
   return X*X;  -- the formal operator "*"
end Squaring;
```

Example of a generic package body: 8

```
package body On_Vectors is  -- see 12.1                                    9
```

```
10          function Sum(A, B : Vector) return Vector is
               Result : Vector(A'Range); -- the formal type Vector
               Bias   : constant Integer := B'First - A'First;
            begin
               if A'Length /= B'Length then
                  raise Length_Error;
               end if;
11             for N in A'Range loop
                  Result(N) := Sum(A(N), B(N + Bias)); -- the formal function Sum
               end loop;
               return Result;
            end Sum;
12          function Sigma(A : Vector) return Item is
               Total : Item := A(A'First); -- the formal type Item
            begin
               for N in A'First + 1 .. A'Last loop
                  Total := Sum(Total, A(N)); -- the formal function Sum
               end loop;
               return Total;
            end Sigma;
         end On_Vectors;
```

12.3 Generic Instantiation

1 [{*instance (of a generic unit)*} An instance of a generic unit is declared by a generic_instantiation.]

Language Design Principles

1.a {*generic contract model*} {*contract model of generics*} The legality of an instance should be determinable without looking at the generic body. Likewise, the legality of a generic body should be determinable without looking at any instances. Thus, the generic_declaration forms a contract between the body and the instances; if each obeys the rules with respect to the generic_declaration, then no legality problems will arise. This is really a special case of the ''legality determinable via semantic dependences'' Language Design Principle (see Section 10), given that a generic_instantiation does not depend semantically upon the generic body, nor vice-versa.

1.b Run-time issues are another story. For example, whether parameter passing is by copy or by reference is determined in part by the properties of the generic actuals, and thus cannot be determined at compile time of the generic body. Similarly, the contract model does not apply to Post-Compilation Rules.

Syntax

2 generic_instantiation ::=
  package defining_program_unit_name **is**
    new *generic_package*_name [generic_actual_part];
  | **procedure** defining_program_unit_name **is**
    new *generic_procedure*_name [generic_actual_part];
  | **function** defining_designator **is**
    new *generic_function*_name [generic_actual_part];

3 generic_actual_part ::=
  (generic_association {, generic_association})

4 generic_association ::=
  [*generic_formal_parameter*_selector_name =>] explicit_generic_actual_parameter

5 explicit_generic_actual_parameter ::= expression | *variable*_name
  | *subprogram*_name | *entry*_name | subtype_mark
  | *package_instance*_name

6 {*named association*} {*positional association*} A generic_association is *named* or *positional* according to whether or not the *generic_formal_parameter*_selector_name is specified. Any positional associations shall precede any named associations.

{*generic actual parameter*} {*generic actual*} {*actual*} The *generic actual parameter* is either the explicit_generic_actual_parameter given in a generic_parameter_association for each formal, or the corresponding default_expression or default_name if no generic_parameter_association is given for the formal. When the meaning is clear from context, the term ‘‘generic actual,’’ or simply ‘‘actual,’’ is used as a synonym for ‘‘generic actual parameter’’ and also for the view denoted by one, or the value of one. 7

Legality Rules

In a generic_instantiation for a particular kind of program unit [(package, procedure, or function)], the name shall denote a generic unit of the corresponding kind [(generic package, generic procedure, or generic function, respectively)]. 8

The *generic_formal_parameter*_selector_name of a generic_association shall denote a generic_formal_parameter_declaration of the generic unit being instantiated. If two or more formal subprograms have the same defining name, then named associations are not allowed for the corresponding actuals. 9

A generic_instantiation shall contain at most one generic_association for each formal. Each formal without an association shall have a default_expression or subprogram_default. 10

In a generic unit Legality Rules are enforced at compile time of the generic_declaration and generic body, given the properties of the formals. In the visible part and formal part of an instance, Legality Rules are enforced at compile time of the generic_instantiation, given the properties of the actuals. In other parts of an instance, Legality Rules are not enforced; this rule does not apply when a given rule explicitly specifies otherwise. 11

Reason: Since rules are checked using the properties of the formals, and since these properties do not always carry over to the actuals, we need to check the rules again in the visible part of the instance. For example, only if a tagged type is limited may an extension of it have limited components in the extension_part. A formal tagged limited type is limited, but the actual might be nonlimited. Hence any rule that requires a tagged type to be limited runs into this problem. Such rules are rare; in most cases, the rules for matching of formals and actuals guarantee that if the rule is obeyed in the generic unit, then it has to be obeyed in the instance. 11.a

Ramification: The ‘‘properties’’ of the formals are determined without knowing anything about the actuals: 11.b

- A formal derived subtype is constrained if and only if the ancestor subtype is constrained. A formal array type is constrained if and only if the declarations says so. Other formal subtypes are unconstrained, even though they might be constrained in an instance. 11.c
- A formal subtype can be indefinite, even though the copy might be definite in an instance. 11.d
- A formal object of mode **in** is not a static constant; in an instance, the copy is static if the actual is. 11.e
- A formal subtype is not static, even though the actual might be. 11.f
- Formal types are specific, even though the actual can be class-wide. 11.g
- The subtype of a formal object of mode **in out** is not static. (This covers the case of AI-00878.) 11.h
- The subtype of a formal parameter of a formal subprogram does not provide an applicable index constraint. 11.i
- The profile of a formal subprogram is not subtype-conformant with any other profile. {*subtype conformance*} 11.j
- A generic formal function is not static. 11.k

Ramification: The exceptions to the above rule about when legality rules are enforced fall into these categories: 11.l

- Some rules are checked in the generic declaration, and then again in both the visible and private parts of the instance: 11.m
  - The parent type of a record extension has to be specific (see 3.9.1). This rule is not checked in the instance body. 11.n
  - The parent type of a private extension has to be specific (see 7.3). This rule is not checked in the instance body. 11.o

11.p • A type with an access discriminant has to be a descendant of a type declared with **limited**, or be a task or protected type. This rule is irrelevant in the instance body.

11.q • In the declaration of a record extension, if the parent type is nonlimited, then each of the components of the record_extension_part have to be nonlimited (see 3.9.1). In the generic body, this rule is checked in an assume-the-worst manner.

11.r • A preelaborated library unit has to be preelaborable (see 10.2.1). In the generic body, this rule is checked in an assume-the-worst manner.

11.s • {*accessibility rule* [checking in generic units]} For the accessibility rules, the formals have nothing to say about the property in question. Like the above rules, these rules are checked in the generic declaration, and then again in both the visible and private parts of the instance. In the generic body, we have explicit rules that essentially assume the worst (in the cases of type extensions and access-to-subprogram types), and we have run-time checks (in the case of access-to-object types). See 3.9.1, 3.10.2, and 4.6.

11.t We considered run-time checks for access-to-subprogram types as well. However, this would present difficulties for implementations that share generic bodies.

11.u • The rules requiring ‘‘reasonable’’ values for static expressions are ignored when the expected type for the expression is a descendant of a generic formal type other than a generic formal derived type, and do not apply in an instance.

11.v • The rule forbidding two explicit homographs in the same declarative region does not apply in an instance of a generic unit, except that it *does* apply in the declaration of a record extension that appears in the visible part of an instance.

11.w • Some rules do not apply at all in an instance, not even in the visible part:

11.x • Body_stubs are not normally allowed to be multiply nested, but the can be in instances.

11.y {*generic contract issue* [distributed]} Each rule that is an exception is marked with ‘‘generic contract issue;’’ look that up in the index to find them all.

11.z **Ramification:** The Legality Rules are the ones labeled Legality Rules. We are talking about all Legality Rules in the entire language here. Note that, with some exceptions, the legality of a generic unit is checked even if there are no instantiations of the generic unit.

11.aa **Ramification:** The Legality Rules are described here, and the overloading rules were described earlier in this clause. Presumably, every Static Semantic Item is sucked in by one of those. Thus, we have covered all the compile-time rules of the language. There is no need to say anything special about the Post-Compilation Rules or the Dynamic Semantic Items.

11.bb **Discussion:** Here is an example illustrating how this rule is checked: ‘‘In the declaration of a record extension, if the parent type is nonlimited, then each of the components of the record_extension_part shall be nonlimited.’’

11.cc
```
generic
    type Parent is tagged private;
    type Comp is limited private;
package G1 is
    type Extension is new Parent with
        record
            C : Comp; -- Illegal!
        end record;
end G1;
```

11.dd The parent type is nonlimited, and the component type is limited, which is illegal. It doesn’t matter that an one could imagine writing an instantiation with the actual for Comp being nonlimited — we never get to the instance, because the generic itself is illegal.

11.ee On the other hand:

11.ff
```
generic
    type Parent is tagged limited private; -- Parent is limited.
    type Comp is limited private;
package G2 is
    type Extension is new Parent with
        record
            C : Comp; -- OK.
        end record;
end G2;
```

```
type Limited_Tagged is tagged limited null record;                    11.gg
type Non_Limited_Tagged is tagged null record;
type Limited_Untagged is limited null record;                         11.hh
type Non_Limited_Untagged is null record;
package Good_1 is new G2(Parent => Limited_Tagged,                    11.ii
                         Comp => Limited_Untagged);
package Good_2 is new G2(Parent => Non_Limited_Tagged,
                         Comp => Non_Limited_Untagged);
package Bad  is new G2(Parent => Non_Limited_Tagged,
                         Comp => Limited_Untagged); -- Illegal!
```

The first instantiation is legal, because in the instance the parent is limited, so the rule is not violated. Likewise, in the second instantiation, the rule is not violated in the instance. However, in the Bad instance, the parent type is nonlimited, and the component type is limited, so this instantiation is illegal. 11.jj

Static Semantics

A generic_instantiation declares an instance; it is equivalent to the instance declaration (a package_declaration or subprogram_declaration) immediately followed by the instance body, both at the place of the instantiation. 12

Ramification: The declaration and the body of the instance are not ''implicit'' in the technical sense, even though you can't see them in the program text. Nor are declarations within an instance ''implicit'' (unless they are implicit by other rules). This is necessary because implicit declarations have special semantics that should not be attached to instances. For a generic subprogram, the profile of a generic_instantiation is that of the instance declaration, by the stated equivalence. 12.a

Ramification: {*visible part* [of an instance]} {*private part* [of a package]} The visible and private parts of a package instance are defined in 7.1, ''Package Specifications and Declarations'' and 12.7, ''Formal Packages''. The visible and private parts of a subprogram instance are defined in 8.2, ''Scope of Declarations''. 12.b

The instance is a copy of the text of the template. [Each use of a formal parameter becomes (in the copy) a use of the actual, as explained below.] {*package instance*} {*subprogram instance*} {*procedure instance*} {*function instance*} {*instance (of a generic package)*} {*instance (of a generic subprogram)*} {*instance (of a generic procedure)*} {*instance (of a generic function)*} An instance of a generic package is a package, that of a generic procedure is a procedure, and that of a generic function is a function. 13

Ramification: An instance is a package or subprogram (because we say so), even though it contains a copy of the generic_formal_part, and therefore doesn't look like one. This is strange, but it's OK, since the syntax rules are overloading rules, and therefore do not apply in an instance. 13.a

Discussion: We use a macro-expansion model, with some explicitly-stated exceptions (see below). The main exception is that the interpretation of each construct in a generic unit (especially including the denotation of each name) is determined when the declaration and body of the generic unit (as opposed to the instance) are compiled, and in each instance this interpretation is (a copy of) the template interpretation. In other words, if a construct is interpreted as a name denoting a declaration D, then in an instance, the copy of the construct will still be a name, and will still denote D (or a copy of D). From an implementation point of view, overload resolution is performed on the template, and not on each copy. 13.b

We describe the substitution of generic actual parameters by saying (in most cases) that the copy of each generic formal parameter declares a view of the actual. Suppose a name in a generic unit denotes a generic_formal_parameter_declaration. The copy of that name in an instance will denote the copy of that generic_formal_parameter_declaration in the instance. Since the generic_formal_parameter_declaration in the instance declares a view of the actual, the name will denote a view of the actual. 13.c

Other properties of the copy (for example, staticness, classes to which types belong) are recalculated for each instance; this is implied by the fact that it's a copy. 13.d

Although the generic_formal_part is included in an instance, the declarations in the generic_formal_part are only visible outside the instance in the case of a generic formal package whose formal_package_actual_part is (<>) — see 12.7. 13.e

The interpretation of each construct within a generic declaration or body is determined using the overloading rules when that generic declaration or body is compiled. In an instance, the interpretation of each (copied) construct is the same, except in the case of a name that denotes the generic_declaration or some 14

declaration within the generic unit; the corresponding name in the instance then denotes the corresponding copy of the denoted declaration. The overloading rules do not apply in the instance.

14.a **Ramification:** See 8.6, ‘‘The Context of Overload Resolution’’ for definitions of ‘‘interpretation’’ and ‘‘overloading rule.’’

14.b Even the generic_formal_parameter_declarations have corresponding declarations in the instance, which declare views of the actuals.

14.c Although the declarations in the instance are copies of those in the generic unit, they often have quite different properties, as explained below. For example a constant declaration in the generic unit might declare a nonstatic constant, whereas the copy of that declaration might declare a static constant. This can happen when the staticness depends on some generic formal.

14.d This rule is partly a ramification of the ‘‘current instance’’ rule in 8.6, ‘‘The Context of Overload Resolution’’. Note that that rule doesn’t cover the generic_formal_part.

14.e Although the overloading rules are not observed in the instance, they are, of course, observed in the _instantiation in order to determine the interpretation of the constituents of the _instantiation.

14.f Since children are considered to occur within their parent’s declarative region, the above rule applies to a name that denotes a child of a generic unit, or a declaration inside such a child.

14.g Since the Syntax Rules are overloading rules, it is possible (legal) to violate them in an instance. For example, it is possible for an instance body to occur in a package_specification, even though the Syntax Rules forbid bodies in package_specifications.

15 In an instance, a generic_formal_parameter_declaration declares a view whose properties are identical to those of the actual, except as specified in 12.4, ‘‘Formal Objects’’ and 12.6, ‘‘Formal Subprograms’’. Similarly, for a declaration within a generic_formal_parameter_declaration, the corresponding declaration in an instance declares a view whose properties are identical to the corresponding declaration within the declaration of the actual.

15.a **Ramification:** In an instance, there are no ‘‘properties’’ of types and subtypes that come from the formal. The primitive operations of the type come from the formal, but these are declarations in their own right, and are therefore handled separately.

15.b Note that certain properties that come from the actuals are irrelevant in the instance. For example, if an actual type is of a class deeper in the derived-type hierarchy than the formal, it is impossible to call the additional operations of the deeper class in the instance, because any such call would have to be a copy of some corresponding call in the generic unit, which would have been illegal. However, it is sometimes possible to reach into the specification of the instance from outside, and notice such properties. For example, one could pass an object declared in the instance specification to one of the additional operations of the deeper type.

15.c A formal_type_declaration can contain discriminant_specifications, a formal_subprogram_declaration can contain formal_parameter_specifications, and a formal_package_declaration can contain many kinds of declarations. These are all inside the generic unit, and have corresponding declarations in the instance.

15.d This rule implies, for example, that if a subtype in a generic unit is a subtype of a generic formal subtype, then the corresponding subtype in the instance is a subtype of the corresponding actual subtype.

15.e For a generic_instantiation, if a generic actual is a static [(scalar or string)] subtype, then each use of the corresponding formal parameter within the specification of the instance is considered to be static. (See AI-00409.)

15.f Similarly, if a generic actual is a static expression and the corresponding formal parameter has a static [(scalar or string)] subtype, then each use of the formal parameter in the specification of the instance is considered to be static. (See AI-00505.)

15.g If a primitive subprogram of a type derived from a generic formal derived tagged type is not overriding (that is, it is a new subprogram), it is possible for the copy of that subprogram in an instance to override a subprogram inherited from the actual. For example:

15.h
```
type T1 is tagged record ... end record;
```

```
generic                                                                    15.i
    type Formal is new T1;
package G is
    type Derived_From_Formal is new Formal with record ... end record;
    procedure Foo(X : in Derived_From_Formal); -- Does not override anything.
end G;
type T2 is new T1 with record ... end record;                              15.j
procedure Foo(X : in T2);
package Inst is new G(Formal => T2);                                       15.k
```

In the instance Inst, the declaration of Foo for Derived_From_Formal overrides the Foo inherited from T2. 15.l

Implementation Note: For formal types, an implementation that shares the code among multiple instances of the same generic unit needs to beware that things like parameter passing mechanisms (by-copy vs. by-reference) and representation_clauses are determined by the actual. 15.m

[Implicit declarations are also copied, and a name that denotes an implicit declaration in the generic denotes the corresponding copy in the instance. However, for a type declared within the visible part of the generic, a whole new set of primitive subprograms is implicitly declared for use outside the instance, and may differ from the copied set if the properties of the type in some way depend on the properties of some actual type specified in the instantiation. For example, if the type in the generic is derived from a formal private type, then in the instance the type will inherit subprograms from the corresponding actual type. 16

{*override*} These new implicit declarations occur immediately after the type declaration in the instance, and override the copied ones. The copied ones can be called only from within the instance; the new ones can be called only from outside the instance, although for tagged types, the body of a new one can be executed by a call to an old one.] 17

Proof: This rule is stated officially in 8.3, ‘‘Visibility’’. 17.a

Ramification: The new ones follow from the class(es) of the formal types. For example, for a type T derived from a generic formal private type, if the actual is Integer, then the copy of T in the instance has a "+" primitive operator, which can be called from outside the instance (assuming T is declared in the visible part of the instance). 17.b

AI-00398. 17.c

Since an actual type is always in the class determined for the formal, the new subprograms hide all of the copied ones, except for a declaration of "/=" that corresponds to an explicit declaration of "=". Such "/=" operators are special, because unlike other implicit declarations of primitive subprograms, they do not appear by virtue of the class, but because of an explicit declaration of "=". If the declaration of "=" is implicit (and therefore overridden in the instance), then a corresponding implicitly declared "/=" is also overridden. But if the declaration of "=" is explicit (and therefore not overridden in the instance), then a corresponding implicitly declared "/=" is not overridden either, even though it’s implicit. 17.d

Note that the copied ones can be called from inside the instance, even though they are hidden from all visibility, because the names are resolved in the generic unit — visibility is irrelevant for calls in the instance. 17.e

[In the visible part of an instance, an explicit declaration overrides an implicit declaration if they are homographs, as described in 8.3.] On the other hand, an explicit declaration in the private part of an instance overrides an implicit declaration in the instance, only if the corresponding explicit declaration in the generic overrides a corresponding implicit declaration in the generic. Corresponding rules apply to the other kinds of overriding described in 8.3. 18

Ramification: For example: 18.a

```
type Ancestor is tagged null record;                                       18.b
```

18.c
```
generic
    type Formal is new Ancestor with private;
package G is
    type T is new Formal with null record;
    procedure P(X : in T); -- (1)
private
    procedure Q(X : in T); -- (2)
end G;
```

18.d
```
type Actual is new Ancestor with null record;
procedure P(X : in Actual);
procedure Q(X : in Actual);
```

18.e
```
package Instance is new G(Formal => Actual);
```

18.f In the instance, the copy of P at (1) overrides Actual's P, whereas the copy of Q at (2) does not override anything; in implementation terms, it occupies a separate slot in the type descriptor.

18.g **Reason:** The reason for this rule is so a programmer writing an _instantiation need not look at the private part of the generic in order to determine which subprograms will be overridden.

Post-Compilation Rules

19 {*post-compilation rules*} Recursive generic instantiation is not allowed in the following sense: if a given generic unit includes an instantiation of a second generic unit, then the instance generated by this instantiation shall not include an instance of the first generic unit [(whether this instance is generated directly, or indirectly by intermediate instantiations)].

19.a **Discussion:** Note that this rule is not a violation of the generic contract model, because it is not a Legality Rule. Some implementations may be able to check this rule at compile time, but that requires access to all the bodies, so we allow implementations to check the rule at link time.

Dynamic Semantics

20 {*elaboration* [generic_instantiation]} For the elaboration of a generic_instantiation, each generic_association is first evaluated. If a default is used, an implicit generic_association is assumed for this rule. These evaluations are done in an arbitrary order, except that the evaluation for a default actual takes place after the evaluation for another actual if the default includes a name that denotes the other one. Finally, the instance declaration and body are elaborated.

20.a **Ramification:** Note that if the evaluation of a default depends on some side-effect of some other evaluation, the order is still arbitrary.

21 {*evaluation* [generic_association]} For the evaluation of a generic_association the generic actual parameter is evaluated. Additional actions are performed in the case of a formal object of mode **in** (see 12.4).

21.a **To be honest:** Actually, the actual is evaluated only if evaluation is defined for that kind of construct — we don't actually ''evaluate'' subtype_marks.

NOTES

22 5 If a formal type is not tagged, then the type is treated as an untagged type within the generic body. Deriving from such a type in a generic body is permitted; the new type does not get a new tag value, even if the actual is tagged. Overriding operations for such a derived type cannot be dispatched to from outside the instance.

22.a **Ramification:** If two overloaded subprograms declared in a generic package specification differ only by the (formal) type of their parameters and results, then there exist legal instantiations for which all calls of these subprograms from outside the instance are ambiguous. For example:

22.b
```
generic
   type A is (<>);
   type B is private;
package G is
   function Next(X : A) return A;
   function Next(X : B) return B;
end G;
```

22.c
```
package P is new G(A => Boolean, B => Boolean);
-- All calls of P.Next are ambiguous.
```

Ramification: The following example illustrates some of the subtleties of the substitution of formals and actuals: 22.d

```
generic                                                                    22.e
    type T1 is private;
    -- A predefined "=" operator is implicitly declared here:
    -- function "="(Left, Right : T1) return Boolean;
    -- Call this "="1.
package G is
    subtype S1 is T1;  -- So we can get our hands on the type from
                       -- outside an instance.
    type T2 is new T1;
    -- An inherited "=" operator is implicitly declared here:
    -- function "="(Left, Right : T2) return Boolean;
    -- Call this "="2.
    T1_Obj : T1 := ...;                                                    22.f
    Bool_1 : Boolean := T1_Obj = T1_Obj;
    T2_Obj : T2 := ...;                                                    22.g
    Bool_2 : Boolean := T2_Obj = T2_Obj;
end G;
...
package P is                                                               22.h
    type My_Int is new Integer;
    -- A predefined "=" operator is implicitly declared here:
    -- function "="(Left, Right : My_Int) return Boolean;
    -- Call this "="3.
    function "="(X, Y : My_Int) return Boolean;
    -- Call this "="4.
    -- "=3 is hidden from all visibility by "=4.
    -- Nonetheless, "=3 can ‘‘reemerge’’ in certain circumstances.
end P;
use P;
...
package I is new G(T1 => My_Int); -- "=5 is declared in I (see below).
use I;
Another_T1_Obj : S1 := 13; -- Can’t denote T1, but S1 will do.             22.i
Bool_3 : Boolean := Another_T1_Obj = Another_T1_Obj;
Another_T2_Obj : T2 := 45;                                                 22.j
Bool_4 : Boolean := Another_T2_Obj = Another_T2_Obj;
Double : T2 := T2_Obj + Another_T2_Obj;                                    22.k
```

In the instance I, there is a copy of "=$_1$ (call it "=$_{1i}$) and "=$_2$ (call it "=$_{2i}$). The "=$_{1i}$ and "=$_{2i}$ declare views of the predefined "=" of My_Int (that is, "=$_3$). In the initialization of Bool_1 and Bool_2 in the generic unit G, the names "=" denote "=$_1$ and "=$_2$, respectively. Therefore, the copies of these names in the instances denote "=$_{1i}$ and "=$_{2i}$, respectively. Thus, the initialization of I.Bool_1 and I.Bool_2 call the predefined equality operator of My_Int; they will not call "=$_4$. 22.l

The declarations "=$_{1i}$ and "=$_{2i}$ are hidden from all visibility. This prevents them from being called from outside the instance. 22.m

The declaration of Bool_3 calls "=$_4$. 22.n

The instance I also contains implicit declarations of the primitive operators of T2, such as "=" (call it "=$_5$) and "+". These operations cannot be called from within the instance, but the declaration of Bool_4 calls "=$_5$. 22.o

Examples

Examples of generic instantiations (see 12.1): 23

24

```
procedure Swap is new Exchange(Elem => Integer);
procedure Swap is new Exchange(Character);  -- Swap is overloaded
function Square is new Squaring(Integer);   -- "*" of Integer used by default
function Square is new Squaring(Item => Matrix, "*" => Matrix_Product);
function Square is new Squaring(Matrix, Matrix_Product); -- same as previous
package Int_Vectors is new On_Vectors(Integer, Table, "+");                25
```

Examples of uses of instantiated units:

```
Swap(A, B);
A := Square(A);
```

```
T : Table(1 .. 5) := (10, 20, 30, 40, 50);
N : Integer := Int_Vectors.Sigma(T);  -- 150 (see 12.2, ''Generic Bodies'' for the body of Sigma)
```

```
use Int_Vectors;
M : Integer := Sigma(T);  -- 150
```

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} In Ada 83, all explicit actuals are evaluated before all defaults, and the defaults are evaluated in the order of the formal declarations. This ordering requirement is relaxed in Ada 9X.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} We have attempted to remove every violation of the contract model. Any remaining contract model violations should be considered bugs in the RM9X. The unfortunate property of reverting to the predefined operators of the actual types is retained for upward compatibility. (Note that fixing this would require subtype conformance rules.) However, tagged types do not revert in this sense.

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for explicit_generic_actual_parameter is modified to allow a *package_instance_*name.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The fact that named associations cannot be used for two formal subprograms with the same defining name is moved to AARM-only material, because it is a ramification of other rules, and because it is not of interest to the average user.

The rule that ''An explicit explicit_generic_actual_parameter shall not be supplied more than once for a given generic_formal_parameter'' seems to be missing from RM83, although it was clearly the intent.

In the explanation that the instance is a copy of the template, we have left out RM83-12.3(5)'s ''apart from the generic formal part'', because it seems that things in the formal part still need to exist in instances. This is particularly true for generic formal packages, where you're sometimes allowed to reach in and denote the formals of the formal package from outside it. This simplifies the explanation of what each name in an instance denotes: there are just two cases: the declaration can be inside or outside (where inside needs to include the generic unit itself). Note that the RM83 approach of listing many cases (see RM83-12.5(5-14)) would have become even more unwieldy with the addition of generic formal packages, and the declarations that occur therein.

We have corrected the definition of the elaboration of a generic_instantiation (RM83-12.3(17)); we don't elaborate entities, and the instance is not ''implicit.''

In RM83, there is a rule saying the formal and actual shall match, and then there is much text defining what it means to match. Here, we simply state all the latter text as rules. For example, ''A formal foo is matched by an actual greenish bar'' becomes ''For a formal foo, the actual shall be a greenish bar.'' This is necessary to split the Name Resolution Rules from the Legality Rules. Besides, there's really no need to define the concept of matching for generic parameters.

12.4 Formal Objects

[{*generic formal object*} {*formal object, generic*} A generic formal object can be used to pass a value or variable to a generic unit.]

Language Design Principles

A generic formal object of mode **in** is like a constant initialized to the value of the explicit_generic_actual_parameter.

A generic formal object of mode **in out** is like a renaming of the explicit_generic_actual_parameter.

Syntax

```
formal_object_declaration ::=
   defining_identifier_list : mode subtype_mark [:= default_expression];
```

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [generic formal object default_expression]} The expected type for the default_expression, if any, of a formal object is the type of the formal object. 3

{*expected type* [generic formal in object actual]} For a generic formal object of mode **in**, the expected type for the actual is the type of the formal. 4

For a generic formal object of mode **in out**, the type of the actual shall resolve to the type of the formal. 5

Reason: See the corresponding rule for object_renaming_declarations for a discussion of the reason for this rule. 5.a

Legality Rules

If a generic formal object has a default_expression, then the mode shall be **in** [(either explicitly or by default)]; otherwise, its mode shall be either **in** or **in out**. 6

Ramification: Mode **out** is not allowed for generic formal objects. 6.a

For a generic formal object of mode **in**, the actual shall be an expression. For a generic formal object of mode **in out**, the actual shall be a name that denotes a variable for which renaming is allowed (see 8.5.1). 7

To be honest: The part of this that requires an expression or name is a Name Resolution Rule, but that's too pedantic to worry about. (The part about denoting a variable, and renaming being allowed, is most certainly *not* a Name Resolution Rule.) 7.a

The type of a generic formal object of mode **in** shall be nonlimited. 8

Reason: Since a generic formal object is like a constant of mode **in** initialized to the value of the actual, a limited type would not make sense, since initializing a constant is not allowed for a limited type. That is, generic formal objects of mode **in** are passed by copy, and limited types are not supposed to be copied. 8.a

Static Semantics

A formal_object_declaration declares a generic formal object. The default mode is **in**. {*nominal subtype* [of a generic formal object]} For a formal object of mode **in**, the nominal subtype is the one denoted by the subtype_mark in the declaration of the formal. {*static* [subtype]} For a formal object of mode **in out**, its type is determined by the subtype_mark in the declaration; its nominal subtype is nonstatic, even if the subtype_mark denotes a static subtype. 9

{*stand-alone constant (corresponding to a formal object of mode* **in***)*} In an instance, a formal_object_declaration of mode **in** declares a new stand-alone constant object whose initialization expression is the actual, whereas a formal_object_declaration of mode **in out** declares a view whose properties are identical to those of the actual. 10

Ramification: These rules imply that generic formal objects of mode **in** are passed by copy, whereas generic formal objects of mode **in out** are passed by reference. 10.a

Initialization and finalization happen for the constant declared by a formal_object_declaration of mode **in** as for any constant; see 3.3.1, ''Object Declarations'' and 7.6, ''User-Defined Assignment and Finalization''. 10.b

{*subtype* [of a generic formal object]} In an instance, the subtype of a generic formal object of mode **in** is as for the equivalent constant. In an instance, the subtype of a generic formal object of mode **in out** is the subtype of the corresponding generic actual. 10.c

Dynamic Semantics

{*evaluation* [generic_association for a formal object of mode **in**]} {*assignment operation (during evaluation of a* generic_association *for a formal object of mode* **in***)*} For the evaluation of a generic_association for a formal object of mode **in**, a constant object is created, the value of the actual parameter is converted to the nominal subtype of the formal object, and assigned to the object[, including any value adjustment — see 7.6]. {*implicit subtype conversion* [generic formal object of mode **in**]} 11

11.a **Ramification:** This includes evaluating the actual and doing a subtype conversion, which might raise an exception.

11.b **Discussion:** The rule for evaluating a generic_association for a formal object of mode **in out** is covered by the general Dynamic Semantics rule in 12.3.

NOTES

12 6 The constraints that apply to a generic formal object of mode **in out** are those of the corresponding generic actual parameter (not those implied by the subtype_mark that appears in the formal_object_declaration). Therefore, to avoid confusion, it is recommended that the name of a first subtype be used for the declaration of such a formal object.

12.a **Ramification:** Constraint checks are done at instantiation time for formal objects of mode **in**, but not for formal objects of mode **in out**.

Extensions to Ada 83

12.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 83, it is forbidden to pass a (nongeneric) formal parameter of mode **out**, or a subcomponent thereof, to a generic formal object of mode **in out**. This restriction is removed in Ada 9X.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

12.c We make ''mode'' explicit in the syntax. RM83 refers to the mode without saying what it is. This is also more uniform with the way (nongeneric) formal parameters are defined.

12.d We considered allowing mode **out** in Ada 9X, for uniformity with (nongeneric) formal parameters. The semantics would be identical for modes **in out** and **out**. (Note that generic formal objects of mode **in out** are passed by reference. Note that for (nongeneric) formal parameters that are allowed to be passed by reference, the semantics of **in out** and **out** is the same. The difference might serve as documentation. The same would be true for generic formal objects, if **out** were allowed, so it would be consistent.) We decided not to make this change, because it does not produce any important benefit, and any change has some cost.

12.5 Formal Types

1 [A generic formal subtype can be used to pass to a generic unit a subtype whose type is in a certain class of types.]

1.a **Reason:** We considered having intermediate syntactic categories formal_integer_type_definition, formal_real_type_definition, and formal_fixed_point_definition, to be more uniform with the syntax rules for non-generic-formal types. However, that would make the rules for formal types slightly more complicated, and it would cause confusion, since formal_discrete_type_definition would not fit into the scheme very well.

Syntax

2 formal_type_declaration ::=
type defining_identifier[discriminant_part] **is** formal_type_definition;

3 formal_type_definition ::=
formal_private_type_definition
| formal_derived_type_definition
| formal_discrete_type_definition
| formal_signed_integer_type_definition
| formal_modular_type_definition
| formal_floating_point_definition
| formal_ordinary_fixed_point_definition
| formal_decimal_fixed_point_definition
| formal_array_type_definition
| formal_access_type_definition

Legality Rules

4 {*generic actual subtype*} {*actual subtype*} {*generic actual type*} {*actual type*} For a generic formal subtype, the actual shall be a subtype_mark; it denotes the *(generic) actual subtype*.

4.a **Ramification:** When we say simply ''formal'' or ''actual'' (for a generic formal that denotes a subtype) we're talking about the subtype, not the type, since a name that denotes a formal_type_declaration denotes a subtype, and the corresponding actual also denotes a subtype.

Static Semantics

{*generic formal type*} {*formal type*} {*generic formal subtype*} {*formal subtype*} A formal_type_declaration declares a *(generic) formal type,* and its first subtype, the *(generic) formal subtype*. 5

Ramification: A subtype (other than the first subtype) of a generic formal type is not a generic formal subtype. 5.a

{*determined class for a formal type*} {*class determined for a formal type*} The form of a formal_type_definition *determines a class* to which the formal type belongs. For a formal_private_type_definition the reserved words **tagged** and **limited** indicate the class (see 12.5.1). For a formal_derived_type_definition the class is the derivation class rooted at the ancestor type. For other formal types, the name of the syntactic category indicates the class; a formal_discrete_type_definition defines a discrete type, and so on. 6

Reason: This rule is clearer with the flat syntax rule for formal_type_definition given above. Adding formal_integer_type_definition and others would make this rule harder to state clearly. 6.a

Legality Rules

The actual type shall be in the class determined for the formal. 7

Ramification: For example, if the class determined for the formal is the class of all discrete types, then the actual has to be discrete. 7.a

Note that this rule does not require the actual to belong to every class to which the formal belongs. For example, formal private types are in the class of composite types, but the actual need not be composite. Furthermore, one can imagine an infinite number of classes that are just arbitrary sets of types that obey the closed-under-derivation rule, and are therefore technically classes (even though we don't give them names, since they are uninteresting). We don't want this rule to apply to *those* classes. 7.b

''Limited'' is not a ''interesting'' class, but ''nonlimited'' is; it is legal to pass a nonlimited type to a limited formal type, but not the other way around. The reserved word limited really represents a class containing both limited and nonlimited types. ''Private'' is not a class; a generic formal private type accepts both private and nonprivate actual types. 7.c

It is legal to pass a class-wide subtype as the actual if it is in the right class, so long as the formal has unknown discriminants. 7.d

Static Semantics

[The formal type also belongs to each class that contains the determined class.] The primitive subprograms of the type are as for any type in the determined class. For a formal type other than a formal derived type, these are the predefined operators of the type; they are implicitly declared immediately after the declaration of the formal type. In an instance, the copy of such an implicit declaration declares a view of the predefined operator of the actual type, even if this operator has been overridden for the actual type. [The rules specific to formal derived types are given in 12.5.1.] 8

Ramification: All properties of the type are as for any type in the class. Some examples: The primitive operations available are as defined by the language for each class. The form of constraint applicable to a formal type in a subtype_indication depends on the class of the type as for a nonformal type. The formal type is tagged if and only if it is declared as a tagged private type, or as a type derived from a (visibly) tagged type. (Note that the actual type might be tagged even if the formal type is not.) 8.a

NOTES

7 Generic formal types, like all types, are not named. Instead, a name can denote a generic formal subtype. Within a generic unit, a generic formal type is considered as being distinct from all other (formal or nonformal) types. 9

Proof: This follows from the fact that each formal_type_declaration declares a type. 9.a

8 A discriminant_part is allowed only for certain kinds of types, and therefore only for certain kinds of generic formal types. See 3.7. 10

Ramification: The term ''formal floating point type'' refers to a type defined by a formal_floating_point_definition. It does not include a formal derived type whose ancestor is floating point. Similar terminology applies to the other kinds of formal_type_definition. 10.a

Examples

11 *Examples of generic formal types:*

12
```
type Item is private;
type Buffer(Length : Natural) is limited private;
```

13
```
type Enum  is (<>);
type Int   is range <>;
type Angle is delta <>;
type Mass  is digits <>;
```

14
```
type Table is array (Enum) of Item;
```

15 *Example of a generic formal part declaring a formal integer type:*

16
```
generic
   type Rank is range <>;
   First  : Rank := Rank'First;
   Second : Rank := First + 1;  -- the operator "+" of the type Rank
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

16.a RM83 has separate sections ''Generic Formal Xs'' and ''Matching Rules for Formal Xs'' (for various X's) with most of the text redundant between the two. We have combined the two in order to reduce the redundancy. In RM83, there is no ''Matching Rules for Formal Types'' section; nor is there a ''Generic Formal Y Types'' section (for Y = Private, Scalar, Array, and Access). This causes, for example, the duplication across all the ''Matching Rules for Y Types'' sections of the rule that the actual passed to a formal type shall be a subtype; the new organization avoids that problem.

16.b The matching rules are stated more concisely.

16.c We no longer consider the multiplying operators that deliver a result of type *universal_fixed* to be predefined for the various types; there is only one of each in package Standard. Therefore, we need not mention them here as RM83 had to.

12.5.1 Formal Private and Derived Types

1 [The class determined for a formal private type can be either limited or nonlimited, and either tagged or untagged; no more specific class is known for such a type. The class determined for a formal derived type is the derivation class rooted at the ancestor type.]

Syntax

2 formal_private_type_definition ::= [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] **private**

3 formal_derived_type_definition ::= [**abstract**] **new** subtype_mark [**with private**]

Legality Rules

4 If a generic formal type declaration has a known_discriminant_part, then it shall not include a default_expression for a discriminant.

4.a **Ramification:** Consequently, a generic formal subtype with a known_discriminant_part is an indefinite subtype, so the declaration of a stand-alone variable has to provide a constraint on such a subtype, either explicitly, or by its initial value.

5 {*ancestor subtype (of a formal derived type)*} The *ancestor subtype* of a formal derived type is the subtype denoted by the subtype_mark of the formal_derived_type_definition. For a formal derived type declaration, the reserved words **with private** shall appear if and only if the ancestor type is a tagged type; in this case the formal derived type is a private extension of the ancestor type and the ancestor shall not be a class-wide type. [Similarly, the optional reserved word **abstract** shall appear only if the ancestor type is a tagged type].

5.a **Reason:** We use the term ''ancestor'' here instead of ''parent'' because the actual can be any descendant of the ancestor, not necessarily a direct descendant.

If the formal subtype is definite, then the actual subtype shall also be definite. 6

Ramification: On the other hand, for an indefinite formal subtype, the actual can be either definite or indefinite. 6.a

For a generic formal derived type with no discriminant_part: 7

- If the ancestor subtype is constrained, the actual subtype shall be constrained, and shall be statically compatible with the ancestor; 8

  Ramification: In other words, any constraint on the ancestor subtype is considered part of the ''contract.'' 8.a

- If the ancestor subtype is an unconstrained access or composite subtype, the actual subtype shall be unconstrained. 9

  Reason: This rule ensures that if a composite constraint is allowed on the formal, one is also allowed on the actual. If the ancestor subtype is an unconstrained scalar subtype, the actual is allowed to be constrained, since a scalar constraint does not cause further constraints to be illegal. 9.a

- If the ancestor subtype is an unconstrained discriminated subtype, then the actual shall have the same number of discriminants, and each discriminant of the actual shall correspond to a discriminant of the ancestor, in the sense of 3.7. 10

  Reason: This ensures that if a discriminant constraint is given on the formal subtype, the corresponding constraint in the instance will make sense, without additional run-time checks. This is not necessary for arrays, since the bounds cannot be overridden in a type extension. An unknown_discriminant_part may be used to relax these matching requirements. 10.a

The declaration of a formal derived type shall not have a known_discriminant_part. For a generic formal private type with a known_discriminant_part: 11

- The actual type shall be a type with the same number of discriminants. 12
- The actual subtype shall be unconstrained. 13
- The subtype of each discriminant of the actual type shall statically match the subtype of the corresponding discriminant of the formal type. {*statically matching* [required]} 14

  Reason: We considered defining the first and third rule to be called ''subtype conformance'' for discriminant_parts. We rejected that idea, because it would require implicit (inherited) discriminant_parts, which seemed like too much mechanism. 14.a

[For a generic formal type with an unknown_discriminant_part, the actual may, but need not, have discriminants, and may be definite or indefinite.] 15

Static Semantics

The class determined for a formal private type is as follows: 16

Type Definition	*Determined Class*
limited private	the class of all types
private	the class of all nonlimited types
tagged limited private	the class of all tagged types
tagged private	the class of all nonlimited tagged types

17

[The presence of the reserved word **abstract** determines whether the actual type may be abstract.] 18

A formal private or derived type is a private or derived type, respectively. A formal derived tagged type is a private extension. [A formal private or derived type is abstract if the reserved word **abstract** appears in its declaration.] 19

If the ancestor type is a composite type that is not an array type, the formal type inherits components from the ancestor type (including discriminants if a new discriminant_part is not specified), as for a derived type defined by a derived_type_definition (see 3.4). 20

21 For a formal derived type, the predefined operators and inherited user-defined subprograms are determined by the ancestor type, and are implicitly declared at the earliest place, if any, within the immediate scope of the formal type, where the corresponding primitive subprogram of the ancestor is visible (see 7.3.1). In an instance, the copy of such an implicit declaration declares a view of the corresponding primitive subprogram of the ancestor, even if this primitive has been overridden for the actual type. [In the case of a formal private extension, however, the tag of the formal type is that of the actual type, so if the tag in a call is statically determined to be that of the formal type, the body executed will be that corresponding to the actual type.]

21.a **Ramification:** The above rule defining the properties of primitive subprograms in an instance applies even if the subprogram has been overridden or hidden for the actual type. This rule is necessary for untagged types, because their primitive subprograms might have been overridden by operations that are not subtype-conformant with the operations defined for the class. For tagged types, the rule still applies, but the primitive subprograms will dispatch to the appropriate implementation based on the type and tag of the operands. Even for tagged types, the formal parameter names and default_expressions are determined by those of the primitive subprograms of the specified ancestor type.

22 For a prefix S that denotes a formal indefinite subtype, the following attribute is defined:

23 S'Definite S'Definite yields True if the actual subtype corresponding to S is definite; otherwise it yields False. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

23.a **Discussion:** Whether an actual subtype is definite or indefinite may have a major effect on the algorithm used in a generic. For example, in a generic I/O package, whether to use fixed-length or variable-length records could depend on whether the actual is definite or indefinite. This attribute is essentially a replacement for the Constrained attribute which is now considered obsolete.

NOTES

24 9 In accordance with the general rule that the actual type shall belong to the class determined for the formal (see 12.5, ''Formal Types''):

25 • If the formal type is nonlimited, then so shall be the actual;

26 • For a formal derived type, the actual shall be in the class rooted at the ancestor subtype.

27 10 [The actual type can be abstract only if the formal type is abstract (see 3.9.3).]

27.a **Reason:** This is necessary to avoid contract model problems, since one or more of its primitive subprograms are abstract; it is forbidden to create objects of the type, or to declare functions returning the type.

27.b **Ramification:** On the other hand, it is OK to pass a non-abstract actual to an abstract formal — **abstract** on the formal indicates that the actual might be abstract.

28 11 If the formal has a discriminant_part, the actual can be either definite or indefinite. Otherwise, the actual has to be definite.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

28.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} Ada 83 does not have unknown_discriminant_parts, so it allows indefinite subtypes to be passed to definite formals, and applies a legality rule to the instance body. This is a contract model violation. Ada 9X disallows such cases at the point of the instantiation. The workaround is to add (<>) as the discriminant_part of any formal subtype if it is intended to be used with indefinite actuals. If that's the intent, then there can't be anything in the generic body that would require a definite subtype.

28.b The check for discriminant subtype matching is changed from a run-time check to a compile-time check.

12.5.2 Formal Scalar Types

1 A *formal scalar type* is one defined by any of the formal_type_definitions in this subclause. [The class determined for a formal scalar type is discrete, signed integer, modular, floating point, ordinary fixed point, or decimal.]

Syntax

formal_discrete_type_definition ::= (<>) 2

formal_signed_integer_type_definition ::= **range** <> 3

formal_modular_type_definition ::= **mod** <> 4

formal_floating_point_definition ::= **digits** <> 5

formal_ordinary_fixed_point_definition ::= **delta** <> 6

formal_decimal_fixed_point_definition ::= **delta** <> **digits** <> 7

Legality Rules

The actual type for a formal scalar type shall not be a nonstandard numeric type. 8

Reason: This restriction is necessary because nonstandard numeric types have some number of restrictions on their use, which could cause contract model problems in a generic body. Note that nonstandard numeric types can be passed to formal derived and formal private subtypes, assuming they obey all the other rules, and assuming the implementation allows it (being nonstandard means the implementation might disallow anything). 8.a

NOTES
12 The actual type shall be in the class of types implied by the syntactic category of the formal type definition (see 12.5, ''Formal Types''). For example, the actual for a formal_modular_type_definition shall be a modular type. 9

12.5.3 Formal Array Types

[The class determined for a formal array type is the class of all array types.] 1

Syntax

formal_array_type_definition ::= array_type_definition 2

Legality Rules

The only form of discrete_subtype_definition that is allowed within the declaration of a generic formal (constrained) array subtype is a subtype_mark. 3

Reason: The reason is the same as for forbidding constraints in subtype_indications (see 12.1). 3.a

For a formal array subtype, the actual subtype shall satisfy the following conditions: 4

- The formal array type and the actual array type shall have the same dimensionality; the formal subtype and the actual subtype shall be either both constrained or both unconstrained. 5
- For each index position, the index types shall be the same, and the index subtypes (if unconstrained), or the index ranges (if constrained), shall statically match (see 4.9.1). {*statically matching* [required]} 6
- The component subtypes of the formal and actual array types shall statically match. {*statically matching* [required]} 7
- If the formal type has aliased components, then so shall the actual. 8

Ramification: On the other hand, if the formal's components are not aliased, then the actual's components can be either aliased or not. 8.a

Examples

Example of formal array types: 9

-- *given the generic package* 10

11
```
generic
   type Item   is private;
   type Index  is (<>);
   type Vector is array (Index range <>) of Item;
   type Table  is array (Index) of Item;
package P is
   ...
end P;
```

12 *-- and the types*

13
```
type Mix    is array (Color range <>) of Boolean;
type Option is array (Color) of Boolean;
```

14 *-- then Mix can match Vector and Option can match Table*

15
```
package R is new P(Item   => Boolean, Index => Color,
                   Vector => Mix,     Table => Option);
```

16 *-- Note that Mix cannot match Table and Option cannot match Vector*

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

16.a {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The check for matching of component subtypes and index subtypes or index ranges is changed from a run-time check to a compile-time check. The Ada 83 rule that ''If the component type is not a scalar type, then the component subtypes shall be either both constrained or both unconstrained'' is removed, since it is subsumed by static matching. Likewise, the rules requiring that component types be the same is subsumed.

12.5.4 Formal Access Types

1 [The class determined for a formal access type is the class of all access types.]

Syntax

2 formal_access_type_definition ::= access_type_definition

Legality Rules

3 For a formal access-to-object type, the designated subtypes of the formal and actual types shall statically match. {*statically matching* [required]}

4 If and only if the general_access_modifier **constant** applies to the formal, the actual shall be an access-to-constant type. If the general_access_modifier **all** applies to the formal, then the actual shall be a general access-to-variable type (see 3.10).

4.a **Ramification:** If no _modifier applies to the formal, then the actual type may be either a pool-specific or a general access-to-variable type.

5 For a formal access-to-subprogram subtype, the designated profiles of the formal and the actual shall be mode-conformant, and the calling convention of the actual shall be *protected* if and only if that of the formal is *protected*. {*mode conformance (required)*}

5.a **Reason:** We considered requiring subtype conformance here, but mode conformance is more flexible, given that there is no way in general to specify the convention of the formal.

Examples

6 *Example of formal access types:*

7 *-- the formal types of the generic package*

8
```
generic
   type Node is private;
   type Link is access Node;
package P is
   ...
end P;
```

9 *-- can be matched by the actual types*

```
type Car;
type Car_Name is access Car;
```
10

```
type Car is
   record
      Pred, Succ : Car_Name;
      Number     : License_Number;
      Owner      : Person;
   end record;
-- in the following generic instantiation
```
11 12

```
package R is new P(Node => Car, Link => Car_Name);
```
13

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The check for matching of designated subtypes is changed from a run-time check to a compile-time check. The Ada 83 rule that ''If the designated type is other than a scalar type, then the designated subtypes shall be either both constrained or both unconstrained'' is removed, since it is subsumed by static matching. 13.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Formal access-to-subprogram subtypes and formal general access types are new concepts. 13.b

12.6 Formal Subprograms

[{*generic formal subprogram*} {*formal subprogram, generic*} Formal subprograms can be used to pass callable entities to a generic unit.] 1

Language Design Principles

Generic formal subprograms are like renames of the explicit_generic_actual_parameter. 1.a

Syntax

formal_subprogram_declaration ::= **with** subprogram_specification [**is** subprogram_default]; 2

subprogram_default ::= default_name | <> 3

default_name ::= name 4

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected profile* [formal subprogram default_name]} The expected profile for the default_name, if any, is that of the formal subprogram. 5

Ramification: This rule, unlike others in this clause, is observed at compile time of the generic_declaration. 5.a

The evaluation of the default_name takes place during the elaboration of each instantiation that uses the default, as defined in 12.3, ''Generic Instantiation''. 5.b

{*expected profile* [formal subprogram actual]} For a generic formal subprogram, the expected profile for the actual is that of the formal subprogram. 6

Legality Rules

The profiles of the formal and any named default shall be mode-conformant. {*mode conformance (required)*} 7

Ramification: This rule, unlike others in this clause, is checked at compile time of the generic_declaration. 7.a

The profiles of the formal and actual shall be mode-conformant. {*mode conformance (required)*} 8

Static Semantics

A formal_subprogram_declaration declares a generic formal subprogram. The types of the formal parameters and result, if any, of the formal subprogram are those determined by the subtype_marks given in the formal_subprogram_declaration; however, independent of the particular subtypes that are denoted by the subtype_marks, the nominal subtypes of the formal parameters and result, if any, are defined to be nonstatic, and unconstrained if of an array type [(no applicable index constraint is provided in a call on a 9

formal subprogram)]. In an instance, a formal_subprogram_declaration declares a view of the actual. The profile of this view takes its subtypes and calling convention from the original profile of the actual entity, while taking the formal parameter names and default_expressions from the profile given in the formal_subprogram_declaration. The view is a function or procedure, never an entry.

9.a **Discussion:** This rule is intended to be the same as the one for renamings-as-declarations, where the formal_subprogram_declaration is analogous to a renaming-as-declaration, and the actual is analogous to the renamed view.

10 If a generic unit has a subprogram_default specified by a box, and the corresponding actual parameter is omitted, then it is equivalent to an explicit actual parameter that is a usage name identical to the defining name of the formal.

NOTES

11 13 The matching rules for formal subprograms state requirements that are similar to those applying to subprogram_renaming_declarations (see 8.5.4). In particular, the name of a parameter of the formal subprogram need not be the same as that of the corresponding parameter of the actual subprogram; similarly, for these parameters, default_expressions need not correspond.

12 14 The constraints that apply to a parameter of a formal subprogram are those of the corresponding formal parameter of the matching actual subprogram (not those implied by the corresponding subtype_mark in the _specification of the formal subprogram). A similar remark applies to the result of a function. Therefore, to avoid confusion, it is recommended that the name of a first subtype be used in any declaration of a formal subprogram.

13 15 The subtype specified for a formal parameter of a generic formal subprogram can be any visible subtype, including a generic formal subtype of the same generic_formal_part.

14 16 A formal subprogram is matched by an attribute of a type if the attribute is a function with a matching specification. An enumeration literal of a given type matches a parameterless formal function whose result type is the given type.

15 17 A default_name denotes an entity that is visible or directly visible at the place of the generic_declaration; a box used as a default is equivalent to a name that denotes an entity that is directly visible at the place of the _instantiation.

15.a **Proof:** Visibility and name resolution are applied to the equivalent explicit actual parameter.

16 18 The actual subprogram cannot be abstract (see 3.9.3).

Examples

17 *Examples of generic formal subprograms:*

18
```
with function "+"(X, Y : Item) return Item is <>;
with function Image(X : Enum) return String is Enum'Image;
with procedure Update is Default_Update;
```

19
```
-- given the generic procedure declaration
```

20
```
generic
   with procedure Action (X : in Item);
procedure Iterate(Seq : in Item_Sequence);
```

21
```
-- and the procedure
```

22
```
procedure Put_Item(X : in Item);
```

23
```
-- the following instantiation is possible
```

24
```
procedure Put_List is new Iterate(Action => Put_Item);
```

12.7 Formal Packages

1 [{*generic formal package*} {*formal package, generic*} Formal packages can be used to pass packages to a generic unit. The formal_package_declaration declares that the formal package is an instance of a given generic package. Upon instantiation, the actual package has to be an instance of that generic package.]

Syntax

formal_package_declaration ::= 2
with package defining_identifier **is new** *generic_package*_name formal_package_actual_part;

formal_package_actual_part ::= 3
(<>) | [generic_actual_part]

Legality Rules

{*template (for a formal package)*} The *generic_package*_name shall denote a generic package (the *template* for the formal package); the formal package is an instance of the template. 4

The actual shall be an instance of the template. If the formal_package_actual_part is (<>), [then the actual may be any instance of the template]; otherwise, each actual parameter of the actual instance shall match the corresponding actual parameter of the formal package [(whether the actual parameter is given explicitly or by default)], as follows: 5

- For a formal object of mode **in** the actuals match if they are static expressions with the same value, or if they statically denote the same constant, or if they are both the literal **null**. 6

  Reason: We can't simply require full conformance between the two actual parameter expressions, because the two expressions are being evaluated at different times. 6.a

- For a formal subtype, the actuals match if they denote statically matching subtypes. {*statically matching* [required]} 7

- For other kinds of formals, the actuals match if they statically denote the same entity. 8

Static Semantics

A formal_package_declaration declares a generic formal package. 9

{*visible part* [of a formal package]} The visible part of a formal package includes the first list of basic_declarative_items of the package_specification. In addition, if the formal_package_actual_part is (<>), it also includes the generic_formal_part of the template for the formal package. 10

Ramification: If the formal_package_actual_part is (<>), then the declarations that occur immediately within the generic_formal_part of the template for the formal package are visible outside the formal package, and can be denoted by expanded names outside the formal package. 10.a

Reason: We always want either the actuals or the formals of an instance to be namable from outside, but never both. If both were namable, one would get some funny anomalies since they denote the same entity, but, in the case of types at least, they might have different and inconsistent sets of primitive operators due to predefined operator ''reemergence.'' Formal derived types exacerbate the difference. We want the implicit declarations of the generic_formal_part as well as the explicit declarations, so we get operations on the formal types. 10.b

Ramification: A generic formal package is a package, and is an instance. Hence, it is possible to pass a generic formal package as an actual to another generic formal package. 10.c

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Formal packages are new to Ada 9X. 10.d

12.8 Example of a Generic Package

The following example provides a possible formulation of stacks by means of a generic package. The size of each stack and the type of the stack elements are provided as generic formal parameters. 1

Examples

2

```
generic
   Size : Positive;
   type Item is private;
package Stack is
   procedure Push(E : in  Item);
   procedure Pop (E : out Item);
   Overflow, Underflow : exception;
end Stack;
```

```
package body Stack is
```

```
   type Table is array (Positive range <>) of Item;
   Space : Table(1 .. Size);
   Index : Natural := 0;
```

```
   procedure Push(E : in Item) is
   begin
      if Index >= Size then
         raise Overflow;
      end if;
      Index := Index + 1;
      Space(Index) := E;
   end Push;
```

```
   procedure Pop(E : out Item) is
   begin
      if Index = 0 then
         raise Underflow;
      end if;
      E := Space(Index);
      Index := Index - 1;
   end Pop;
```

```
end Stack;
```

Instances of this generic package can be obtained as follows:

```
package Stack_Int  is new Stack(Size => 200, Item => Integer);
package Stack_Bool is new Stack(100, Boolean);
```

Thereafter, the procedures of the instantiated packages can be called as follows:

```
Stack_Int.Push(N);
Stack_Bool.Push(True);
```

Alternatively, a generic formulation of the type Stack can be given as follows (package body omitted):

```
generic
   type Item is private;
package On_Stacks is
   type Stack(Size : Positive) is limited private;
   procedure Push(S : in out Stack; E : in  Item);
   procedure Pop (S : in out Stack; E : out Item);
   Overflow, Underflow : exception;
private
   type Table is array (Positive range <>) of Item;
   type Stack(Size : Positive) is
      record
         Space : Table(1 .. Size);
         Index : Natural := 0;
      end record;
end On_Stacks;
```

In order to use such a package, an instance has to be created and thereafter stacks of the corresponding type can be declared:

```
declare                                                                    16
   package Stack_Real is new On_Stacks(Real); use Stack_Real;
   S : Stack(100);
begin
   ...
   Push(S, 2.54);
   ...
end;
```

Section 13: Representation Issues

[This section describes features for querying and controlling aspects of representation and for interfacing to hardware.] 1

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The clauses of this section have been reorganized. This was necessary to preserve a logical order, given the new Ada 9X semantics given in this section. 1.a

13.1 Representation Items

{*representation item*} {*representation pragma* [distributed]} {*pragma, representation* [distributed]} There are three kinds of *representation items*: representation_clauses, component_clauses, and *representation pragmas*. [Representation items specify how the types and other entities of the language are to be mapped onto the underlying machine. They can be provided to give more efficient representation or to interface with features that are outside the domain of the language (for example, peripheral hardware). Representation items also specify other specifiable properties of entities. A representation item applies to an entity identified by a local_name, which denotes an entity declared local to the current declarative region, or a library unit declared immediately preceding a representation pragma in a compilation.] 1

Syntax

representation_clause ::= attribute_definition_clause 2
| enumeration_representation_clause
| record_representation_clause
| at_clause

local_name ::= direct_name 3
| direct_name'attribute_designator
| *library_unit*_name

A representation pragma is allowed only at places where a representation_clause or compilation_unit is allowed. 4

Name Resolution Rules

In a representation item, if the local_name is a direct_name, then it shall resolve to denote a declaration (or, in the case of a pragma, one or more declarations) that occurs immediately within the same declarative_region as the representation item. If the local_name has an attribute_designator, then it shall resolve to denote an implementation-defined component (see 13.5.1) or a class-wide type implicitly declared immediately within the same declarative_region as the representation item. A local_name that is a *library_unit*_name (only permitted in a representation pragma) shall resolve to denote the library_item that immediately precedes (except for other pragmas) the representation pragma. 5

Reason: This is a Name Resolution Rule, because we don't want a representation item for X to be ambiguous just because there's another X declared in an outer declarative region. It doesn't make much difference, since most representation items are for types or subtypes, and type and subtype names can't be overloaded. 5.a

Ramification: The visibility rules imply that the declaration has to occur before the representation item. 5.b

For objects, this implies that representation items can be applied only to stand-alone objects. 5.c

Legality Rules

The local_name of a representation_clause or representation pragma shall statically denote an entity (or, in the case of a pragma, one or more entities) declared immediately preceding it in a compilation, or within the same declarative_part, package_specification, task_definition, protected_definition, or record_ 6

definition as the representation item. If a local_name denotes a [local] callable entity, it may do so through a [local] subprogram_renaming_declaration [(as a way to resolve ambiguity in the presence of overloading)]; otherwise, the local_name shall not denote a renaming_declaration.

6.a **Ramification:** The ''statically denote'' part implies that it is impossible to specify the representation of an object that is not a stand-alone object, except in the case of a representation item like pragma Atomic that is allowed inside a component_list (in which case the representation item specifies the representation of components of all objects of the type). It also prevents the problem of renamings of things like ''P.**all**'' (where P is an access-to-subprogram value) or ''E(I)'' (where E is an entry family).

6.b The part about where the denoted entity has to have been declared appears twice — once as a Name Resolution Rule, and once as a Legality Rule. Suppose P renames Q, and we have a representation item in a declarative_part whose local_name is P. The fact that the representation item has to appear in the same declarative_part as P is a Name Resolution Rule, whereas the fact that the representation item has to appear in the same declarative_part as Q is a Legality Rule. This is subtle, but it seems like the least confusing set of rules.

6.c **Discussion:** A separate Legality Rule applies for component_clauses. See 13.5.1, ''Record Representation Clauses''.

7 {*representation of an object*} {*size (of an object)*} The *representation* of an object consists of a certain number of bits (the *size* of the object). These are the bits that are normally read or updated by the machine code when loading, storing, or operating-on the value of the object. This includes some padding bits, when the size of the object is greater than the size of its subtype. {*gaps*} {*padding bits*} Such padding bits are considered to be part of the representation of the object, rather than being gaps between objects, if these bits are normally read and updated.

7.a **To be honest:** {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} Discontiguous representations are allowed, but the ones we're interested in here are generally contiguous sequences of bits.

7.b **Ramification:** Two objects with the same value do not necessarily have the same representation. For example, an implementation might represent False as zero and True as any odd value. Similarly, two objects (of the same type) with the same sequence of bits do not necessarily have the same value. For example, an implementation might use a biased representation in some cases but not others:

7.c
```
subtype S is Integer range 1..256;
type A is array(Natural range 1..4) of S;
pragma Pack(A);
X : S := 3;
Y : A := (1, 2, 3, 4);
```

7.d The implementation might use a biased-by-1 representation for the array elements, but not for X. X and Y(3) have the same value, but different representation: the representation of X is a sequence of (say) 32 bits: 0...011, whereas the representation of Y(3) is a sequence of 8 bits: 00000010 (assuming a two's complement representation).

7.e Such tricks are not required, but are allowed.

7.f **Discussion:** The value of any padding bits is not specified by the language, though for a numeric type, it will be much harder to properly implement the predefined operations if the padding bits are not either all zero, or a sign extension.

7.g **Ramification:** For example, suppose S'Size = 2, and an object X is of subtype S. If the machine code typically uses a 32-bit load instruction to load the value of X, then X'Size should be 32, even though 30 bits of the value are just zeros or sign-extension bits. On the other hand, if the machine code typically masks out those 30 bits, then X'Size should be 2. Usually, such masking only happens for components of a composite type for which packing, Component_Size, or record layout is specified.

7.h Note, however, that the formal parameter of an instance of Unchecked_Conversion is a special case. Its Size is required to be the same as that of its subtype.

7.i Note that we don't generally talk about the representation of a value. A value is considered to be an amorphous blob without any particular representation. An object is considered to be more concrete.

8 {*aspect of representation* [distributed]} {*representation aspect*} {*directly specified (of an aspect of representation of an entity)*} A representation item *directly specifies* an *aspect of representation* of the entity denoted by the local_name, except in the case of a type-related representation item, whose local_name shall denote a first subtype, and which directly specifies an aspect of the subtype's type. {*type-related (representation item)*

[distributed]} {*subtype-specific (of a representation item)* [distributed]} {*type-related (aspect)* [distributed]} {*subtype-specific (of an aspect)* [distributed]} A representation item that names a subtype is either *subtype-specific* (Size and Alignment clauses) or *type-related* (all others). [Subtype-specific aspects may differ for different subtypes of the same type.]

To be honest: *Type-related* and *subtype-specific* are defined likewise for the corresponding aspects of representation. 8.a

To be honest: Some representation items directly specify more than one aspect. 8.b

Discussion: For example, a pragma Export specifies the convention of an entity, and also specifies that it is exported. 8.c

Ramification: Each specifiable attribute constitutes a separate aspect. An enumeration_representation_clause specifies the coding aspect. A record_representation_clause (without the mod_clause) specifies the record layout aspect. Each representation pragma specifies a separate aspect. 8.d

Reason: We don't need to say that an at_clause or a mod_clause specify separate aspects, because these are equivalent to attribute_definition_clauses. See J.7, ''At Clauses'', and J.8, ''Mod Clauses''. 8.e

Ramification: The following representation items are type-related: 8.f

- enumeration_representation_clause 8.g
- record_representation_clause 8.h
- Component_Size clause 8.i
- External_Tag clause 8.j
- Small clause 8.k
- Bit_Order clause 8.l
- Storage_Pool clause 8.m
- Storage_Size clause 8.n
- Read clause 8.o
- Write clause 8.p
- Input clause 8.q
- Output clause 8.r
- Machine_Radix clause 8.s
- pragma Pack 8.t
- pragmas Import, Export, and Convention (when applied to a type) 8.u
- pragmas Atomic and Volatile (when applied to a type) 8.v
- pragmas Atomic_Components and Volatile_Components (when applied to an array type) 8.w
- pragma Discard_Names (when applied to an enumeration or tagged type) 8.x

The following representation items are subtype-specific: 8.y

- Alignment clause (when applied to a first subtype) 8.z
- Size clause (when applied to a first subtype) 8.aa

The following representation items do not apply to subtypes, so they are neither type-related nor subtype-specific: 8.bb

- Address clause (applies to objects and program units) 8.cc
- Alignment clause (when applied to an object) 8.dd
- Size clause (when applied to an object) 8.ee
- pragmas Import, Export, and Convention (when applied to anything other than a type) 8.ff
- pragmas Atomic and Volatile (when applied to an object or a component) 8.gg
- pragmas Atomic_Components and Volatile_Components (when applied to an array object) 8.hh

8.ii • pragma Discard_Names (when applied to an exception)

8.jj • pragma Asynchronous (applies to procedures)

9 A representation item that directly specifies an aspect of a subtype or type shall appear after the type is completely defined (see 3.11.1), and before the subtype or type is frozen (see 13.14). If a representation item is given that directly specifies an aspect of an entity, then it is illegal to give another representation item that directly specifies the same aspect of the entity.

9.a **Ramification:** The fact that a representation item that directly specifies an aspect of an entity is required to appear before the entity is frozen prevents changing the representation of an entity after using the entity in ways that require the representation to be known.

10 For an untagged derived type, no type-related representation items are allowed if the parent type is a by-reference type, or has any user-defined primitive subprograms.

10.a **Ramification:** On the other hand, subtype-specific representation items may be given for the first subtype of such a type.

10.b **Reason:** The reason for forbidding type-related representation items on untagged by-reference types is because a change of representation is impossible when passing by reference (to an inherited subprogram). The reason for forbidding type-related representation items on untagged types with user-defined primitive subprograms was to prevent implicit change of representation for type-related aspects of representation upon calling inherited subprograms, because such changes of representation are likely to be expensive at run time. Changes of subtype-specific representation attributes, however, are likely to be cheap. This rule is not needed for tagged types, because other rules prevent a type-related representation item from changing the representation of the parent part; we want to allow a type-related representation item on a type extension to specify aspects of the extension part. For example, a pragma Pack will cause packing of the extension part, but not of the parent part.

11 Representation aspects of a generic formal parameter are the same as those of the actual. A type-related representation item is not allowed for a descendant of a generic formal untagged type.

11.a **Ramification:** Representation items are allowed for types whose subcomponent types or index subtypes are generic formal types.

11.b **Reason:** Since it is not known whether a formal type has user-defined primitive subprograms, specifying type-related representation items for them is not allowed, unless they are tagged (in which case only the extension part is affected in any case).

12 A representation item that specifies the Size for a given subtype, or the size or storage place for an object (including a component) of a given subtype, shall allow for enough storage space to accommodate any value of the subtype.

13 A representation item that is not supported by the implementation is illegal, or raises an exception at run time.

Static Semantics

14 If two subtypes statically match, then their subtype-specific aspects (Size and Alignment) are the same. {*statically matching* [effect on subtype-specific aspects]}

14.a **Reason:** This is necessary because we allow (for example) conversion between access types whose designated subtypes statically match. Note that it is illegal to specify an aspect (including a subtype-specific one) for a nonfirst subtype.

14.b Consider, for example:

14.c
```
package P1 is
    subtype S1 is Integer range 0..2**16-1;
    for S1'Size use 16; -- Illegal!
        -- S1'Size would be 16 by default.
    type A1 is access S1;
    X1: A1;
end P1;
```

```
package P2 is                                                          14.d
    subtype S2 is Integer range 0..2**16-1;
    for S2'Size use 32; -- Illegal!
    type A2 is access S2;
    X2: A2;
end P2;
procedure Q is                                                         14.e
    use P1, P2;
    type Array1 is array(Integer range <>) of aliased S1;
    pragma Pack(Array1);
    Obj1: Array1(1..100);
    type Array2 is array(Integer range <>) of aliased S2;
    pragma Pack(Array2);
    Obj2: Array2(1..100);
begin
    X1 := Obj2(17)'Access;
    X2 := Obj1(17)'Access;
end Q;
```

Loads and stores through X1 would read and write 16 bits, but X1 points to a 32-bit location. Depending on the endianness of the machine, loads might load the wrong 16 bits. Stores would fail to zero the other half in any case. 14.f

Loads and stores through X2 would read and write 32 bits, but X2 points to a 16-bit location. Thus, adjacent memory locations would be trashed. 14.g

Hence, the above is illegal. Furthermore, the compiler is forbidden from choosing different Sizes by default, for the same reason. 14.h

The same issues apply to Alignment. 14.i

A derived type inherits each type-related aspect of its parent type that was directly specified before the declaration of the derived type, or (in the case where the parent is derived) that was inherited by the parent type from the grandparent type. A derived subtype inherits each subtype-specific aspect of its parent subtype that was directly specified before the declaration of the derived type, or (in the case where the parent is derived) that was inherited by the parent subtype from the grandparent subtype, but only if the parent subtype statically matches the first subtype of the parent type. An inherited aspect of representation is overridden by a subsequent representation item that specifies the same aspect of the type or subtype. 15

To be honest: A record_representation_clause for a record extension does not override the layout of the parent part; if the layout was specified for the parent type, it is inherited by the record extension. 15.a

Ramification: If a representation item for the parent appears after the derived_type_declaration, then inheritance does not happen for that representation item. 15.b

Each aspect of representation of an entity is as follows: 16

- {*specified (of an aspect of representation of an entity)*} If the aspect is *specified* for the entity, meaning that it is either directly specified or inherited, then that aspect of the entity is as specified, except in the case of Storage_Size, which specifies a minimum. 17

  Ramification: This rule implies that queries of the aspect return the specified value. For example, if the user writes ''**for** X'Size **use** 32;'', then a query of X'Size will return 32. 17.a

- {*unspecified* [partial]} If an aspect of representation of an entity is not specified, it is chosen by default in an unspecified manner. 18

  Ramification: Note that representation_clauses can affect the semantics of the entity. 18.a

  The rules forbid things like ''**for** S'Base'Alignment **use** ...'' and ''**for** S'Base **use** record ...''. 18.b

  Discussion: The intent is that implementations will represent the components of a composite value in the same way for all subtypes of a given composite type. Hence, Component_Size and record layout are type-related aspects. 18.c

Dynamic Semantics

19 {*elaboration* [representation_clause]} For the elaboration of a representation_clause, any evaluable constructs within it are evaluated.

19.a **Ramification:** Elaboration of representation pragmas is covered by the general rules for pragmas in Section 2.

Implementation Permissions

20 An implementation may interpret aspects of representation in an implementation-defined manner. An implementation may place implementation-defined restrictions on representation items. {*recommended level of support* [distributed]} A *recommended level of support* is specified for representation items and related features in each subclause. These recommendations are changed to requirements for implementations that support the Systems Programming Annex (see C.2, ‘‘Required Representation Support’’).

20.a **Implementation defined:** The interpretation of each aspect of representation.

20.b **Implementation defined:** Any restrictions placed upon representation items.

20.c **Ramification:** Implementation-defined restrictions may be enforced either at compile time or at run time. There is no requirement that an implementation justify any such restrictions. They can be based on avoiding implementation complexity, or on avoiding excessive inefficiency, for example.

Implementation Advice

21 {*recommended level of support* [with respect to nonstatic expressions]} The recommended level of support for all representation items is qualified as follows:

22 • An implementation need not support representation items containing nonstatic expressions, except that an implementation should support a representation item for a given entity if each nonstatic expression in the representation item is a name that statically denotes a constant declared before the entity.

22.a **Reason:** This is to avoid the following sort of thing:

22.b
```
X : Integer := F(...);
Y : Address := G(...);
for X'Address use Y;
```

22.c In the above, we have to evaluate the initialization expression for X before we know where to put the result. This seems like an unreasonable implementation burden.

22.d The above code should instead be written like this:

22.e
```
Y : constant Address := G(...);
X : Integer := F(...);
for X'Address use Y;
```

22.f This allows the expression ‘‘Y’’ to be safely evaluated before X is created.

22.g The constant could be a formal parameter of mode **in**.

22.h An implementation can support other nonstatic expressions if it wants to. Expressions of type Address are hardly ever static, but their value might be known at compile time anyway in many cases.

23 • An implementation need not support a specification for the Size for a given composite subtype, nor the size or storage place for an object (including a component) of a given composite subtype, unless the constraints on the subtype and its composite subcomponents (if any) are all static constraints.

24 • An aliased component, or a component whose type is by-reference, should always be allocated at an addressable location.

24.a **Reason:** The intent is that access types, type System.Address, and the pointer used for a by-reference parameter should be implementable as a single machine address — bit-field pointers should not be required. (There is no requirement that this implementation be used — we just want to make sure its feasible.)

24.b **Implementation Note:** Note that the above rule does not apply to types that merely allow by-reference parameter passing; for such types, a copy typically needs to be made at the call site when a bit-aligned component is passed as a parameter.

Ramification: A pragma Pack will typically not pack so tightly as to disobey the above rule. A Component_Size clause or record_representation_clause will typically by illegal if it disobeys the above rule. Atomic components have similar restrictions (see C.6, ''Shared Variable Control''). 24.c

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} It is now illegal for a representation item to cause a derived by-reference type to have a different record layout from its parent. This is necessary for by-reference parameter passing to be feasible. This only affects programs that specify the representation of types derived from types containing tasks; most by-reference types are new to Ada 9X. For example, if A1 is an array of tasks, and A2 is derived from A1, it is illegal to apply a pragma Pack to A2. 24.d

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Ada 9X allows additional representation_clauses for objects. 24.e

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for type_representation_clause is removed; the right-hand side of that rule is moved up to where it was used, in representation_clause. There are two references to ''type representation clause'' in RM83, both in Section 13; these have been reworded. 24.f

We have defined a new term ''representation item,'' which includes both representation_clauses and representation pragmas, as well as component_clauses. This is convenient because the rules are almost identical for all three. 24.g

All of the forcing occurrence stuff has been moved into its own subclause (see 13.14), and rewritten to use the term ''freezing''. 24.h

RM83-13.1(10) requires implementation-defined restrictions on representation items to be enforced at compile time. However, that is impossible in some cases. If the user specifies a junk (nonstatic) address in an address clause, and the implementation chooses to detect the error (for example, using hardware memory management with protected pages), then it's clearly going to be a run-time error. It seems silly to call that ''semantics'' rather than ''a restriction.'' 24.i

RM83-13.1(10) tries to pretend that representation_clauses don't affect the semantics of the program. One counter-example is the Small clause. Ada 9X has more counter-examples. We have noted the opposite above. 24.j

Some of the more stringent requirements are moved to C.2, ''Required Representation Support''. 24.k

13.2 Pragma Pack

[A pragma Pack specifies that storage minimization should be the main criterion when selecting the representation of a composite type.] 1

Syntax

The form of a pragma Pack is as follows: 2

pragma Pack(*first_subtype*_local_name); 3

Legality Rules

The *first_subtype*_local_name of a pragma Pack shall denote a composite subtype. 4

Static Semantics

{*representation pragma* [Pack]} {*pragma, representation* [Pack]} {*aspect of representation* [packing]} {*packing (aspect of representation)*} {*packed*} A pragma Pack specifies the *packing* aspect of representation; the type (or the extension part) is said to be *packed*. For a type extension, the parent part is packed as for the parent type, and a pragma Pack causes packing only of the extension part. 5

Ramification: The only high level semantic effect of a pragma Pack is independent addressability (see 9.10, ''Shared Variables''). 5.a

Implementation Advice

If a type is packed, then the implementation should try to minimize storage allocated to objects of the type, possibly at the expense of speed of accessing components, subject to reasonable complexity in addressing calculations. 6

6.a **Ramification:** A pragma Pack is for gaining space efficiency, possibly at the expense of time. If more explicit control over representation is desired, then a record_representation_clause, a Component_Size clause, or a Size clause should be used instead of, or in addition to, a pragma Pack.

7 {*recommended level of support* [pragma Pack]} The recommended level of support for pragma Pack is:

8 • For a packed record type, the components should be packed as tightly as possible subject to the Sizes of the component subtypes, and subject to any record_representation_clause that applies to the type; the implementation may, but need not, reorder components or cross aligned word boundaries to improve the packing. A component whose Size is greater than the word size may be allocated an integral number of words.

8.a **Ramification:** The implementation can always allocate an integral number of words for a component that will not fit in a word. The rule also allows small component sizes to be rounded up if such rounding does not waste space. For example, if Storage_Unit = 8, then a component of size 8 is probably more efficient than a component of size 7 plus a 1-bit gap (assuming the gap is needed anyway).

9 • For a packed array type, if the component subtype's Size is less than or equal to the word size, and Component_Size is not specified for the type, Component_Size should be less than or equal to the Size of the component subtype, rounded up to the nearest factor of the word size.

9.a **Ramification:** If a component subtype is aliased, its Size will generally be a multiple of Storage_Unit, so it probably won't get packed very tightly.

13.3 Representation Attributes

1 [{*representation attribute*} {*attribute (representation)*} The values of certain implementation-dependent characteristics can be obtained by interrogating appropriate representation attributes. {*attribute (specifying)* [distributed]} Some of these attributes are specifiable via an attribute_definition_clause.]

Language Design Principles

1.a In general, the meaning of a given attribute should not depend on whether the attribute was specified via an attribute_definition_clause, or chosen by default by the implementation.

Syntax

2
```
attribute_definition_clause ::=
    for local_name'attribute_designator use expression;
  | for local_name'attribute_designator use name;
```

Name Resolution Rules

3 For an attribute_definition_clause that specifies an attribute that denotes a value, the form with an expression shall be used. Otherwise, the form with a name shall be used.

4 {*expected type* [attribute_definition_clause expression or name]} For an attribute_definition_clause that specifies an attribute that denotes a value or an object, the expected type for the expression or name is that of the attribute.

4.a **Ramification:** For example, the Size attribute is of type *universal_integer*. Therefore, the expected type for Y in ''**for** X'Size **use** Y;'' is *universal_integer*, which means that Y can be of any integer type.

{*expected profile* [attribute_definition_clause name]} For an attribute_definition_clause that specifies an attribute that denotes a subprogram, the expected profile for the name is the profile required for the attribute.

4.b **Discussion:** The required profile is indicated separately for the individual attributes.

For an attribute_definition_clause that specifies an attribute that denotes some other kind of entity, the name shall resolve to denote an entity of the appropriate kind.

4.c **Ramification:** For an attribute_definition_clause with a name, the name need not statically denote the entity it denotes. For example, the following kinds of things are allowed:

```
for Some_Access_Type'Storage_Pool use Storage_Pool_Array(I);
for Some_Type'Read use Subprogram_Pointer.all;
```

4.d

Legality Rules

{*specifiable (of an attribute and for an entity)* [distributed]} {*attribute (specifiable)* [distributed]} An attribute_designator is allowed in an attribute_definition_clause only if this International Standard explicitly allows it, or for an implementation-defined attribute if the implementation allows it. {*aspect of representation* [specifiable attributes]} Each specifiable attribute constitutes an aspect of representation. 5

Discussion: For each specifiable attribute, we generally say something like, ''The ... attribute may be specified for ... via an attribute_definition_clause.'' 5.a

The above wording allows for T'Class'Alignment, T'Class'Size, T'Class'Input, and T'Class'Output to be specifiable. 5.b

A specifiable attribute is not necessarily specifiable for all entities for which it is defined. For example, one is allowed to ask T'Component_Size for an array subtype T, but ''**for** T'Component_Size **use** ...'' is only allowed if T is a first subtype, because Component_Size is a type-related aspect. 5.c

For an attribute_definition_clause that specifies an attribute that denotes a subprogram, the profile shall be mode conformant with the one required for the attribute, and the convention shall be Ada. Additional requirements are defined for particular attributes. {*subtype conformance (required)*} 6

Ramification: This implies, for example, that if one writes: 6.a

```
for T'Read use R;
```

6.b

R has to be a procedure with two parameters with the appropriate subtypes and modes as shown in 13.13.2. 6.c

Static Semantics

{*Address clause*} {*Alignment clause*} {*Size clause*} {*Component_Size clause*} {*External_Tag clause*} {*Small clause*} {*Bit_Order clause*} {*Storage_Pool clause*} {*Storage_Size clause*} {*Read clause*} {*Write clause*} {*Input clause*} {*Output clause*} {*Machine_Radix clause*} A *Size clause* is an attribute_definition_clause whose attribute_designator is Size. Similar definitions apply to the other specifiable attributes. 7

To be honest: {*type-related* [attribute_definition_clause]} {*subtype-specific* [attribute_definition_clause]} An attribute_definition_clause is type-related or subtype-specific if the attribute_designator denotes a type-related or subtype-specific attribute, respectively. 7.a

{*storage element*} {*byte: see storage element*} A *storage element* is an addressable element of storage in the machine. {*word*} A *word* is the largest amount of storage that can be conveniently and efficiently manipulated by the hardware, given the implementation's run-time model. A word consists of an integral number of storage elements. 8

Discussion: A storage element is not intended to be a single bit, unless the machine can efficiently address individual bits. 8.a

Ramification: For example, on a machine with 8-bit storage elements, if there exist 32-bit integer registers, with a full set of arithmetic and logical instructions to manipulate those registers, a word ought to be 4 storage elements — that is, 32 bits. 8.b

Discussion: The ''given the implementation's run-time model'' part is intended to imply that, for example, on an 80386 running MS-DOS, the word might be 16 bits, even though the hardware can support 32 bits. 8.c

A word is what ACID refers to as a ''natural hardware boundary''. 8.d

Storage elements may, but need not be, independently addressable (see 9.10, ''Shared Variables''). Words are expected to be independently addressable. 8.e

The following attributes are defined: 9

10 For a prefix X that denotes an object, program unit, or label:

11 X'Address Denotes the address of the first of the storage elements allocated to X. For a program unit or label, this value refers to the machine code associated with the corresponding body or statement. The value of this attribute is of type System.Address.

11.a **Ramification:** Here, the ''first of the storage elements'' is intended to mean the one with the lowest address; the endianness of the machine doesn't matter.

12 {*specifiable* [of Address for stand-alone objects and for program units]} {*Address clause*} Address may be specified for [stand-alone] objects and for program units via an attribute_definition_clause.

12.a **Ramification:** Address is not allowed for enumeration literals, predefined operators, derived task types, or derived protected types, since they are not program units.

12.b The validity of a given address depends on the run-time model; thus, in order to use Address clauses correctly, one needs intimate knowledge of the run-time model.

12.c If the Address of an object is specified, any explicit or implicit initialization takes place as usual, unless a pragma Import is also specified for the object (in which case any necessary initialization is presumably done in the foreign language).

12.d Any compilation unit containing an attribute_reference of a given type depends semantically on the declaration of the package in which the type is declared, even if not mentioned in an applicable with_clause — see 10.1.1. In this case, it means that if a compilation unit contains X'Address, then it depends on the declaration of System. Otherwise, the fact that the value of Address is of a type in System wouldn't make sense; it would violate the ''legality determinable via semantic dependences'' Language Design Principle.

12.e AI-00305 — If X is a task type, then within the body of X, X denotes the current task object; thus, X'Address denotes the object's address.

12.f Interrupt entries and their addresses are described in J.7.1, ''Interrupt Entries''.

12.g If X is not allocated on a storage element boundary, X'Address points at the first of the storage elements that contains any part of X. This is important for the definition of the Position attribute to be sensible.

Erroneous Execution

13 {*erroneous execution*} If an Address is specified, it is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that the address is valid; otherwise, program execution is erroneous.

Implementation Advice

14 For an array X, X'Address should point at the first component of the array, and not at the array bounds.

14.a **Ramification:** On the other hand, we have no advice to offer about discriminants and tag fields; whether or not the address points at them is not specified by the language. If discriminants are stored separately, then the Position of a discriminant might be negative, or might raise an exception.

15 {*recommended level of support* [Address attribute]} The recommended level of support for the Address attribute is:

16 • X'Address should produce a useful result if X is an object that is aliased or of a by-reference type, or is an entity whose Address has been specified.

16.a **Reason:** Aliased objects are the ones for which the Unchecked_Access attribute is allowed; hence, these have to be allocated on an addressable boundary anyway. Similar considerations apply to objects of a by-reference type.

16.b An implementation need not go to any trouble to make Address work in other cases. For example, if an object X is not aliased and not of a by-reference type, and the implementation chooses to store it in a register, X'Address might return System.Null_Address (assuming registers are not addressable). For a subprogram whose calling convention is Intrinsic, or for a package, the implementation need not generate an out-of-line piece of code for it.

17 • An implementation should support Address clauses for imported subprograms.

18 • Objects (including subcomponents) that are aliased or of a by-reference type should be allocated on storage element boundaries.

18.a **Reason:** This is necessary for the Address attribute to be useful (since First_Bit and Last_Bit apply only to components). Implementations generally need to do this anyway, for tasking to work properly.

- If the Address of an object is specified, or it is imported or exported, then the implementation should not perform optimizations based on assumptions of no aliases. 19

NOTES

1 The specification of a link name in a pragma Export (see B.1) for a subprogram or object is an alternative to explicit specification of its link-time address, allowing a link-time directive to place the subprogram or object within memory. 20

2 The rules for the Size attribute imply, for an aliased object X, that if X'Size = Storage_Unit, then X'Address points at a storage element containing all of the bits of X, and only the bits of X. 21

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The intended meaning of the various attributes, and their attribute_definition_clauses, is more explicit. 21.a

The address_clause has been renamed to at_clause and moved to Annex J, ''Obsolescent Features''. One can use an Address clause (''for T'Address **use** ...;'') instead. 21.b

The attributes defined in RM83-13.7.3 are moved to Annex G, A.5.3, and A.5.4. 21.c

Language Design Principles

By default, the Alignment of a subtype should reflect the ''natural'' alignment for objects of the subtype on the machine. The Alignment, whether specified or default, should be known at compile time, even though Addresses are generally not known at compile time. (The generated code should never need to check at run time the number of zero bits at the end of an address to determine an alignment). 21.d

There are two symmetric purposes of Alignment clauses, depending on whether or not the implementation has control over object allocation. If the implementation allocates an object, the implementation should ensure that the Address and Alignment are consistent with each other. If something outside the implementation allocates an object, the implementation should be allowed to assume that the Address and Alignment are consistent, but should not assume stricter alignments than that. 21.e

Static Semantics

For a prefix X that denotes a subtype or object: 22

X'Alignment — The Address of an object that is allocated under control of the implementation is an integral multiple of the Alignment of the object (that is, the Address modulo the Alignment is zero). The offset of a record component is a multiple of the Alignment of the component. For an object that is not allocated under control of the implementation (that is, one that is imported, that is allocated by a user-defined allocator, whose Address has been specified, or is designated by an access value returned by an instance of Unchecked_Conversion), the implementation may assume that the Address is an integral multiple of its Alignment. The implementation shall not assume a stricter alignment. 23

The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*, and nonnegative; zero means that the object is not necessarily aligned on a storage element boundary. 24

Ramification: The Alignment is passed by an allocator to the Allocate operation; the implementation has to choose a value such that if the address returned by Allocate is aligned as requested, the generated code can correctly access the object. 24.a

The above mention of ''modulo'' is referring to the "**mod**" operator declared in System.Storage_Elements; if X **mod** N = 0, then X is by definition aligned on an N-storage-element boundary. 24.b

{*specifiable* [of Alignment for first subtypes and objects]} {*Alignment clause*} Alignment may be specified for first subtypes and [stand-alone] objects via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static, and its value nonnegative. If the Alignment of a subtype is specified, then the Alignment of an object of the subtype is at least as strict, unless the object's Alignment is also specified. The Alignment of an object created by an allocator is that of the designated subtype. 25

If an Alignment is specified for a composite subtype or object, this Alignment shall be equal to the least common multiple of any specified Alignments of the subcomponent subtypes, or an integer multiple thereof. 26

Erroneous Execution

27 {*erroneous execution*} Program execution is erroneous if an Address clause is given that conflicts with the Alignment.

27.a **Ramification:** The user has to either give an Alignment clause also, or else know what Alignment the implementation will choose by default.

28 If the Alignment is specified for an object that is not allocated under control of the implementation, execution is erroneous if the object is not aligned according to the Alignment.

Implementation Advice

29 {*recommended level of support* [Alignment attribute for subtypes]} The recommended level of support for the Alignment attribute for subtypes is:

30 • An implementation should support specified Alignments that are factors and multiples of the number of storage elements per word, subject to the following:

31 • An implementation need not support specified Alignments for combinations of Sizes and Alignments that cannot be easily loaded and stored by available machine instructions.

32 • An implementation need not support specified Alignments that are greater than the maximum Alignment the implementation ever returns by default.

33 {*recommended level of support* [Alignment attribute for objects]} The recommended level of support for the Alignment attribute for objects is:

34 • Same as above, for subtypes, but in addition:

35 • For stand-alone library-level objects of statically constrained subtypes, the implementation should support all Alignments supported by the target linker. For example, page alignment is likely to be supported for such objects, but not for subtypes.

NOTES

36 3 Alignment is a subtype-specific attribute.

37 4 The Alignment of a composite object is always equal to the least common multiple of the Alignments of its components, or a multiple thereof.

37.a **Discussion:** For default Alignments, this follows from the semantics of Alignment. For specified Alignments, it follows from a Legality Rule stated above.

38 5 A component_clause, Component_Size clause, or a pragma Pack can override a specified Alignment.

38.a **Discussion:** Most objects are allocated by the implementation; for these, the implementation obeys the Alignment. The implementation is of course allowed to make an object *more* aligned than its Alignment requires — an object whose Alignment is 4 might just happen to land at an address that's a multiple of 4096. For formal parameters, the implementation might want to force an Alignment stricter than the parameter's subtype. For example, on some systems, it is customary to always align parameters to 4 storage elements.

38.b Hence, one might initially assume that the implementation could evilly make all Alignments 1 by default, even though integers, say, are normally aligned on a 4-storage-element boundary. However, the implementation cannot get away with that — if the Alignment is 1, the generated code cannot assume an Alignment of 4, at least not for objects allocated outside the control of the implementation.

38.c Of course implementations can assume anything they can prove, but typically an implementation will be unable to prove much about the alignment of, say, an imported object. Furthermore, the information about where an address ''came from'' can be lost to the compiler due to separate compilation.

38.d The Alignment of an object that is a component of a packed composite object will usually be 0, to indicate that the component is not necessarily aligned on a storage element boundary. For a subtype, an Alignment of 0 means that objects of the subtype are not normally aligned on a storage element boundary at all. For example, an implementation might choose to make Component_Size be 0 for an array of Booleans, even when pragma Pack has not been specified for the array. In this case, Boolean'Alignment would be 0. (In the presence of tasking, this would in general be feasible only on a machine that had atomic test-bit and set-bit instructions.)

If the machine has no particular natural alignments, then all subtype Alignments will probably be 1 by default. 38.e

Specifying an Alignment of 0 in an attribute_definition_clause does not require the implementation to do anything (except return 0 when the Alignment is queried). However, it might be taken as advice on some implementations. 38.f

It is an error for an Address clause to disobey the object's Alignment. The error cannot be detected at compile time, in general, because the Address is not necessarily known at compile time (and is almost certainly not static). We do not require a run-time check, since efficiency seems paramount here, and Address clauses are treading on thin ice anyway. Hence, this misuse of Address clauses is just like any other misuse of Address clauses — it's erroneous. 38.g

A type extension can have a stricter Alignment than its parent. This can happen, for example, if the Alignment of the parent is 4, but the extension contains a component with Alignment 8. The Alignment of a class-wide type or object will have to be the maximum possible Alignment of any extension. 38.h

The recommended level of support for the Alignment attribute is intended to reflect a minimum useful set of capabilities. An implementation can assume that all Alignments are multiples of each other — 1, 2, 4, and 8 might be the only supported Alignments for subtypes. An Alignment of 3 or 6 is unlikely to be useful. For objects that can be allocated statically, we recommend that the implementation support larger alignments, such as 4096. We do not recommend such large alignments for subtypes, because the maximum subtype alignment will also have to be used as the alignment of stack frames, heap objects, and class-wide objects. Similarly, we do not recommend such large alignments for stack-allocated objects. 38.i

If the maximum default Alignment is 8 (say, Long_Float'Alignment = 8), then the implementation can refuse to accept stricter alignments for subtypes. This simplifies the generated code, since the compiler can align the stack and class-wide types to this maximum without a substantial waste of space (or time). 38.j

Note that the recommended level of support takes into account interactions between Size and Alignment. For example, on a 32-bit machine with 8-bit storage elements, where load and store instructions have to be aligned according to the size of the thing being loaded or stored, the implementation might accept an Alignment of 1 if the Size is 8, but might reject an Alignment of 1 if the Size is 32. On a machine where unaligned loads and stores are merely inefficient (as opposed to causing hardware traps), we would expect an Alignment of 1 to be supported for any Size. 38.k

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The nonnegative part is missing from RM83 (for mod_clauses, nee alignment_clauses, which are an obsolete version of Alignment clauses). 38.l

Static Semantics

For a prefix X that denotes an object: 39

X'Size — Denotes the size in bits of the representation of the object. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 40

Ramification: Note that Size is in bits even if Machine_Radix is 10. Each decimal digit (and the sign) is presumably represented as some number of bits. 40.a

{*specifiable* [of Size for stand-alone objects]} {*Size clause*} Size may be specified for [stand-alone] objects via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static and its value nonnegative. 41

Implementation Advice

{*recommended level of support* [Size attribute]} The recommended level of support for the Size attribute of objects is: 42

- A Size clause should be supported for an object if the specified Size is at least as large as its subtype's Size, and corresponds to a size in storage elements that is a multiple of the object's Alignment (if the Alignment is nonzero). 43

Static Semantics

For every subtype S: 44

S'Size — If S is definite, denotes the size [(in bits)] that the implementation would choose for the following objects of subtype S: 45

- A record component of subtype S when the record type is packed. 46

47 • The formal parameter of an instance of Unchecked_Conversion that converts from subtype S to some other subtype.

48 If S is indefinite, the meaning is implementation defined. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. {*specifiable* [of Size for first subtypes]} {*Size clause*} The Size of an object is at least as large as that of its subtype, unless the object's Size is determined by a Size clause, a component_clause, or a Component_Size clause. Size may be specified for first subtypes via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static and its value nonnegative.

48.a **Implementation defined:** The meaning of Size for indefinite subtypes.

48.b **Reason:** The effects of specifying the Size of a subtype are:

48.c • Unchecked_Conversion works in a predictable manner.

48.d • A composite type cannot be packed so tightly as to override the specified Size of a component's subtype.

48.e • Assuming the Implementation Advice is obeyed, if the specified Size allows independent addressability, then the Size of certain objects of the subtype should be equal to the subtype's Size. This applies to stand-alone objects and to components (unless a component_clause or a Component_Size clause applies).

48.f A component_clause or a Component_Size clause can cause an object to be smaller than its subtype's specified size. A pragma Pack cannot; if a component subtype's size is specified, this limits how tightly the composite object can be packed.

48.g The Size of a class-wide (tagged) subtype is unspecified, because it's not clear what it should mean; it should certainly not depend on all of the descendants that happen to exist in a given program. Note that this cannot be detected at compile time, because in a generic unit, it is not necessarily known whether a given subtype is class-wide. It might raise an exception on some implementations.

48.h **Ramification:** A Size clause for a numeric subtype need not affect the underlying numeric type. For example, if I say:

48.i
```
type S is range 1..2;
for S'Size use 64;
```

48.j I am not guaranteed that S'Base'Last >= 2**63–1, nor that intermediate results will be represented in 64 bits.

48.k **Reason:** There is no need to complicate implementations for this sort of thing, because the right way to affect the base range of a type is to use the normal way of declaring the base range:

48.l
```
type Big is range -2**63 .. 2**63 - 1;
subtype Small is Big range 1..1000;
```

48.m **Ramification:** The Size of a large unconstrained subtype (e.g. String'Size) is likely to raise Constraint_Error, since it is a nonstatic expression of type *universal_integer* that might overflow the largest signed integer type. There is no requirement that the largest integer type be able to represent the size in bits of the largest possible object.

Implementation Requirements

49 In an implementation, Boolean'Size shall be 1.

Implementation Advice

50 If the Size of a subtype is specified, and allows for efficient independent addressability (see 9.10) on the target architecture, then the Size of the following objects of the subtype should equal the Size of the subtype:

51 • Aliased objects (including components).

52 • Unaliased components, unless the Size of the component is determined by a component_clause or Component_Size clause.

52.a **Ramification:** Thus, on a typical 32-bit machine, ''**for** S'Size **use** 32;'' will guarantee that aliased objects of subtype S, and components whose subtype is S, will have Size = 32 (assuming the implementation chooses to obey this Implementation Advice). On the other hand, if one writes, ''**for** S2'Size **use** 5;'' then stand-alone objects of subtype S2 will typically have their Size rounded up to ensure independent addressability.

52.b Note that ''**for** S'Size **use** 32;'' does not cause things like formal parameters to have Size = 32 — the implementation is allowed to make all parameters be at least 64 bits, for example.

Note that ‘‘**for** S2’Size **use** 5;’’ requires record components whose subtype is S2 to be exactly 5 bits if the record type is packed. The same is not true of array components; their Size may be rounded up to the nearest factor of the word size. 52.c

Implementation Note: {*gaps*} On most machines, arrays don’t contain gaps between components; if the Component_Size is greater than the Size of the component subtype, the extra bits are generally considered part of each component, rather than gaps between components. On the other hand, a record might contain gaps between components, depending on what sorts of loads, stores, and masking operations are generally done by the generated code. 52.d

For an array, any extra bits stored for each component will generally be part of the component — the whole point of storing extra bits is to make loads and stores more efficient by avoiding the need to mask out extra bits. The PDP-10 is one counter-example; since the hardware supports byte strings with a gap at the end of each word, one would want to pack in that manner. 52.e

A Size clause on a composite subtype should not affect the internal layout of components. 53

Reason: That’s what Pack pragmas, record_representation_clauses, and Component_Size clauses are for. 53.a

{*recommended level of support* [Size attribute]} The recommended level of support for the Size attribute of subtypes is: 54

- The Size (if not specified) of a static discrete or fixed point subtype should be the number of bits needed to represent each value belonging to the subtype using an unbiased representation, leaving space for a sign bit only if the subtype contains negative values. If such a subtype is a first subtype, then an implementation should support a specified Size for it that reflects this representation. 55

  Implementation Note: This applies to static enumeration subtypes, using the internal codes used to represent the values. 55.a

  For a two’s-complement machine, this implies that for a static signed integer subtype S, if all values of S are in the range 0 .. 2^n–1, or all values of S are in the range $–2^{n–1}$ .. $2^{n–1}$–1, for some *n* less than or equal to the word size, then S’Size should be <= the smallest such *n*. For a one’s-complement machine, it is the same except that in the second range, the lower bound ‘‘$–2^{n–1}$’’ is replaced by ‘‘$–2^{n–1}$+1’’. 55.b

  If an integer subtype (whether signed or unsigned) contains no negative values, the Size should not include space for a sign bit. 55.c

  Typically, the implementation will choose to make the Size of a subtype be exactly the smallest such *n*. However, it might, for example, choose a biased representation, in which case it could choose a smaller value. 55.d

  On most machines, it is in general not a good idea to pack (parts of) multiple stand-alone objects into the same storage element, because (1) it usually doesn’t save much space, and (2) it requires locking to prevent tasks from interfering with each other, since separate stand-alone objects are independently addressable. Therefore, if S’Size = 2 on a machine with 8-bit storage elements, the size of a stand-alone object of subtype S will probably not be 2. It might, for example, be 8, 16 or 32, depending on the availability and efficiency of various machine instructions. The same applies to components of composite types, unless packing, Component_Size, or record layout is specified. 55.e

  For an unconstrained discriminated object, if the implementation allocates the maximum possible size, then the Size attribute should return that maximum possible size. 55.f

  Ramification: The Size of an object X is not usually the same as that of its subtype S. If X is a stand-alone object or a parameter, for example, most implementations will round X’Size up to a storage element boundary, or more, so X’Size might be greater than S’Size. On the other hand, X’Size cannot be less than S’Size, even if the implementation can prove, for example, that the range of values actually taken on by X during execution is smaller than the range of S. 55.g

  For example, if S is a first integer subtype whose range is 0..3, S’Size will be probably be 2 bits, and components of packed composite types of this subtype will be 2 bits (assuming Storage_Unit is a multiple of 2), but stand-alone objects and parameters will probably not have a size of 2 bits; they might be rounded up to 32 bits, for example. On the other hand, Unchecked_Conversion will use the 2-bit size, even when converting a stand-alone object, as one would expect. 55.h

  Another reason for making the Size of an object bigger than its subtype’s Size is to support the run-time detection of uninitialized variables. {*uninitialized variables* [partial]} The implementation might add an extra value to a discrete subtype that represents the uninitialized state, and check for this value on use. In some cases, the extra value will require an extra bit in the representation of the object. Such detection is not required by the language. If it is provided, the implementation has to be able to turn it off. For example, if the programmer 55.i

gives a record_representation_clause or Component_Size clause that makes a component too small to allow the extra bit, then the implementation will not be able to perform the checking (not using this method, anyway).

55.j The fact that the size of an object is not necessarily the same as its subtype can be confusing:

55.k
```
type Device_Register is range 0..2**8 - 1;
for Device_Register'Size use 8; -- Confusing!
My_Device : Device_Register;
for My_Device'Address use To_Address(16#FF00#);
```

55.l The programmer might think that My_Device'Size is 8, and that My_Device'Address points at an 8-bit location. However, this is not true. In Ada 83 (and in Ada 9X), My_Device'Size might well be 32, and My_Device'Address might well point at the high-order 8 bits of the 32-bit object, which are always all zero bits. If My_Device'Address is passed to an assembly language subprogram, based on the programmer's assumption, the program will not work properly.

55.m **Reason:** It is not reasonable to require that an implementation allocate exactly 8 bits to all objects of subtype Device_Register. For example, in many run-time models, stand-alone objects and parameters are always aligned to a word boundary. Such run-time models are generally based on hardware considerations that are beyond the control of the implementer. (It is reasonable to require that an implementation allocate exactly 8 bits to all components of subtype Device_Register, if packed.)

55.n **Ramification:** The correct way to write the above code is like this:

55.o
```
type Device_Register is range 0..2**8 - 1;
My_Device : Device_Register;
for My_Device'Size use 8;
for My_Device'Address use To_Address(16#FF00#);
```

55.p If the implementation cannot accept 8-bit stand-alone objects, then this will be illegal. However, on a machine where an 8-bit device register exists, the implementation will probably be able to accept 8-bit stand-alone objects. Therefore, My_Device'Size will be 8, and My_Device'Address will point at those 8 bits, as desired.

55.q If an object of subtype Device_Register is passed to a foreign language subprogram, it will be passed according to that subprogram's conventions. Most foreign language implementations have similar run-time model restrictions. For example, when passing to a C function, where the argument is of the C type char* (that is, pointer to char), the C compiler will generally expect a full word value, either on the stack, or in a register. It will *not* expect a single byte. Thus, Size clauses for subtypes really have nothing to do with passing parameters to foreign language subprograms.

56 • For a subtype implemented with levels of indirection, the Size should include the size of the pointers, but not the size of what they point at.

56.a **Ramification:** For example, if a task object is represented as a pointer to some information (including a task stack), then the size of the object should be the size of the pointer. The Storage_Size, on the other hand, should include the size of the stack.

NOTES

57 6 Size is a subtype-specific attribute.

58 7 A component_clause or Component_Size clause can override a specified Size. A pragma Pack cannot.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

58.a The requirement for a nonnegative value in a Size clause was not in RM83, but it's hard to see how it would make sense. For uniformity, we forbid negative sizes, rather than letting implementations define their meaning.

Static Semantics

59 For a prefix T that denotes a task object [(after any implicit dereference)]:

60 T'Storage_Size — Denotes the number of storage elements reserved for the task. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. The Storage_Size includes the size of the task's stack, if any. The language does not specify whether or not it includes other storage associated with the task (such as the ''task control block'' used by some implementations.) If a pragma Storage_Size is given, the value of the Storage_Size attribute is at least the value specified in the pragma.

60.a **Ramification:** The value of this attribute is never negative, since it is impossible to ''reserve'' a negative number of storage elements.

If the implementation chooses to allocate an initial amount of storage, and then increase this as needed, the Storage_Size cannot include the additional amounts (assuming the allocation of the additional amounts can raise Storage_Error); this is inherent in the meaning of ''reserved.'' 60.b

The implementation is allowed to allocate different amounts of storage for different tasks of the same subtype. 60.c

Storage_Size is also defined for access subtypes — see 13.11. 60.d

[{*Storage_Size clause: see also pragma Storage_Size*} A pragma Storage_Size specifies the amount of storage to be reserved for the execution of a task.] 61

Syntax

The form of a pragma Storage_Size is as follows: 62

pragma Storage_Size(expression); 63

A pragma Storage_Size is allowed only immediately within a task_definition. 64

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [Storage_Size pragma argument]} The expression of a pragma Storage_Size is expected to be of any integer type. 65

Dynamic Semantics

A pragma Storage_Size is elaborated when an object of the type defined by the immediately enclosing task_definition is created. {*elaboration* [Storage_Size pragma]} For the elaboration of a pragma Storage_Size, the expression is evaluated; the Storage_Size attribute of the newly created task object is at least the value of the expression. 66

Ramification: The implementation is allowed to round up a specified Storage_Size amount. For example, if the implementation always allocates in chunks of 4096 bytes, the number 200 might be rounded up to 4096. Also, if the user specifies a negative number, the implementation has to normalize this to 0, or perhaps to a positive number. 66.a

{*Storage_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Storage_Check)*} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} At the point of task object creation, or upon task activation, Storage_Error is raised if there is insufficient free storage to accommodate the requested Storage_Size. 67

Static Semantics

For a prefix X that denotes an array subtype or array object [(after any implicit dereference)]: 68

X'Component_Size 69

Denotes the size in bits of components of the type of X. The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*.

{*specifiable* [of Component_Size for array types]} {*Component_Size clause*} Component_Size may be specified for array types via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static, and its value nonnegative. 70

Implementation Note: The intent is that the value of X'Component_Size is always nonnegative. If the array is stored ''backwards'' in memory (which might be caused by an implementation-defined pragma), X'Component_Size is still positive. 70.a

Ramification: For an array object A, A'Component_Size = A(I)'Size for any index I. 70.b

Implementation Advice

{*recommended level of support* [Component_Size attribute]} The recommended level of support for the Component_Size attribute is: 71

- An implementation need not support specified Component_Sizes that are less than the Size of the component subtype. 72

73 • An implementation should support specified Component_Sizes that are factors and multiples of the word size. For such Component_Sizes, the array should contain no gaps between components. For other Component_Sizes (if supported), the array should contain no gaps between components when packing is also specified; the implementation should forbid this combination in cases where it cannot support a no-gaps representation.

73.a **Ramification:** For example, if Storage_Unit = 8, and Word_Size = 32, then the user is allowed to specify a Component_Size of 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and 32, with no gaps. In addition, *n**32 is allowed for positive integers *n*, again with no gaps. If the implementation accepts Component_Size = 3, then it might allocate 10 components per word, with a 2-bit gap at the end of each word (unless packing is also specified), or it might not have any internal gaps at all. (There can be gaps at either end of the array.)

Static Semantics

74 For every subtype S of a tagged type *T* (specific or class-wide), the following attribute is defined:

75 S'External_Tag {*External_Tag clause*} {*specifiable* [of External_Tag for a tagged type]} S'External_Tag denotes an external string representation for S'Tag; it is of the predefined type String. External_Tag may be specified for a specific tagged type via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static. The default external tag representation is implementation defined. See 3.9.2 and 13.13.2.

75.a **Implementation defined:** The default external representation for a type tag.

Implementation Requirements

76 In an implementation, the default external tag for each specific tagged type declared in a partition shall be distinct, so long as the type is declared outside an instance of a generic body. If the compilation unit in which a given tagged type is declared, and all compilation units on which it semantically depends, are the same in two different partitions, then the external tag for the type shall be the same in the two partitions. What it means for a compilation unit to be the same in two different partitions is implementation defined. At a minimum, if the compilation unit is not recompiled between building the two different partitions that include it, the compilation unit is considered the same in the two partitions.

76.a **Implementation defined:** What determines whether a compilation unit is the same in two different partitions.

76.b **Reason:** These requirements are important because external tags are used for input/output of class-wide types. These requirements ensure that what is written by one program can be read back by some other program so long as they share the same declaration for the type (and everything it depends on).

76.c The user may specify the external tag if (s)he wishes its value to be stable even across changes to the compilation unit in which the type is declared (or changes in some unit on which it depends).

76.d We use a String rather than a Storage_Array to represent an external tag for portability.

76.e **Ramification:** Note that the characters of an external tag need not all be graphic characters. In other words, the external tag can be a sequence of arbitrary 8-bit bytes.

NOTES

77 8 The following language-defined attributes are specifiable, at least for some of the kinds of entities to which they apply: Address, Size, Component_Size, Alignment, External_Tag, Small, Bit_Order, Storage_Pool, Storage_Size, Write, Output, Read, Input, and Machine_Radix.

78 9 It follows from the general rules in 13.1 that if one writes ''**for** X'Size **use** Y;'' then the X'Size attribute_reference will return Y (assuming the implementation allows the Size clause). The same is true for all of the specifiable attributes except Storage_Size.

78.a **Ramification:** An implementation may specify that an implementation-defined attribute is specifiable for certain entities. This follows from the fact that the semantics of implementation-defined attributes is implementation defined. An implementation is not allowed to make a language-defined attribute specifiable if it isn't.

Examples

Examples of attribute definition clauses: 79

```
Byte : constant := 8;                                                                    80
Page : constant := 2**12;

type Medium is range 0 .. 65_000;                                                        81
for Medium'Size use 2*Byte;
for Medium'Alignment use 2;
Device_Register : Medium;
for Device_Register'Size use Medium'Size;
for Device_Register'Address use System.Storage_Elements.To_Address(16#FFFF_0020#);

type Short is delta 0.01 range -100.0 .. 100.0;                                          82
for Short'Size use 15;

for Car_Name'Storage_Size use -- specify access type's storage pool size                 83
        2000*((Car'Size/System.Storage_Unit) +1); -- approximately 2000 cars

function My_Read(Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class)                     84
  return T;
for T'Read use My_Read; -- see 13.13.2
```

NOTES

10 *Notes on the examples:* In the Size clause for Short, fifteen bits is the minimum necessary, since the type definition requires Short'Small <= 2**(–7). 85

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The syntax rule for length_clause is replaced with the new syntax rule for attribute_definition_clause, and it is modified to allow a name (as well as an expression). 85.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax rule for attribute_definition_clause now requires that the prefix of the attribute be a local_name; in Ada 83 this rule was stated in the text. 85.b

In Ada 83, the relationship between a representation_clause specifying a certain aspect and an attribute that queried that aspect was unclear. In Ada 9X, they are the same, except for certain explicit exceptions. 85.c

13.4 Enumeration Representation Clauses

[An enumeration_representation_clause specifies the internal codes for enumeration literals.] 1

Syntax

enumeration_representation_clause ::= 2
  for *first_subtype*_local_name **use** enumeration_aggregate;

enumeration_aggregate ::= array_aggregate 3

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [enumeration_representation_clause expressions]} The enumeration_aggregate shall be written as a one-dimensional array_aggregate, for which the index subtype is the unconstrained subtype of the enumeration type, and each component expression is expected to be of any integer type. 4

Ramification: The ''full coverage rules'' for aggregates applies. An **others** is not allowed — there is no applicable index constraint in this context. 4.a

Legality Rules

The *first_subtype*_local_name of an enumeration_representation_clause shall denote an enumeration subtype. 5

Ramification: As for all type-related representation items, the local_name is required to denote a first subtype. 5.a

The expressions given in the array_aggregate shall be static, and shall specify distinct integer codes for each value of the enumeration type; the associated integer codes shall satisfy the predefined ordering relation of the type. 6

6.a **Reason:** Each value of the enumeration type has to be given an internal code, even if the first subtype of the enumeration type is constrained to only a subrange (this is only possible if the enumeration type is a derived type). This ‘‘full coverage’’ requirement is important because one may refer to Enum’Base’First and Enum’Base’Last, which need to have defined representations.

Static Semantics

7 {*aspect of representation* [coding]} {*coding (aspect of representation)*} An enumeration_representation_clause specifies the *coding* aspect of representation. {*internal code*} The coding consists of the *internal code* for each enumeration literal, that is, the integral value used internally to represent each literal.

Implementation Requirements

8 For nonboolean enumeration types, if the coding is not specified for the type, then for each value of the type, the internal code shall be equal to its position number.

8.a **Reason:** This default representation is already used by all known Ada compilers for nonboolean enumeration types. Therefore, we make it a requirement so users can depend on it, rather than feeling obliged to supply for every enumeration type an enumeration representation clause that is equivalent to this default rule.

8.b **Discussion:** For boolean types, it is relatively common to use all ones for True, and all zeros for False, since some hardware supports that directly. Of course, for a one-bit Boolean object (like in a packed array), False is presumably zero and True is presumably one (choosing the reverse would be extremely unfriendly!).

Implementation Advice

9 {*recommended level of support* [enumeration_representation_clause]} The recommended level of support for enumeration_representation_clauses is:

10 • An implementation should support at least the internal codes in the range System.Min_Int..System.Max_Int. An implementation need not support enumeration_representation_clauses for boolean types.

10.a **Ramification:** The implementation may support numbers outside the above range, such as numbers greater than System.Max_Int. See AI-00564.

10.b **Reason:** The benefits of specifying the internal coding of a boolean type do not outweigh the implementation costs. Consider, for example, the implementation of the logical operators on a packed array of booleans with strange internal codes. It’s implementable, but not worth it.

NOTES

11 11 Unchecked_Conversion may be used to query the internal codes used for an enumeration type. The attributes of the type, such as Succ, Pred, and Pos, are unaffected by the representation_clause. For example, Pos always returns the position number, *not* the internal integer code that might have been specified in a representation_clause.

11.a **Discussion:** Suppose the enumeration type in question is derived:

11.b
```
type T1 is (Red, Green, Blue);
subtype S1 is T1 range Red .. Green;
type S2 is new S1;
for S2 use (Red => 10, Green => 20, Blue => 30);
```

11.c The representation_clause has to specify values for all enumerals, even ones that are not in S2 (such as Blue). The Base attribute can be used to get at these values. For example:

11.d
```
for I in S2'Base loop
    ... -- When I equals Blue, the internal code is 30.
end loop;
```

11.e We considered allowing or requiring ‘‘**for** S2’Base **use** ...’’ in cases like this, but it didn’t seem worth the trouble.

Examples

12 *Example of an enumeration representation clause:*

13
```
type Mix_Code is (ADD, SUB, MUL, LDA, STA, STZ);
```

14
```
for Mix_Code use
   (ADD => 1, SUB => 2, MUL => 3, LDA => 8, STA => 24, STZ =>33);
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} As in other similar contexts, Ada 9X allows expressions of any integer type, not just expressions of type *universal_integer*, for the component expressions in the enumeration_aggregate. The preference rules for the predefined operators of *root_integer* eliminate any ambiguity. 14.a

For portability, we now require that the default coding for an enumeration type be the ''obvious'' coding using position numbers. This is satisfied by all known implementations. 14.b

13.5 Record Layout

{*aspect of representation* [layout]} {*layout (aspect of representation)*} {*aspect of representation* [record layout]} {*record layout (aspect of representation)*} {*aspect of representation* [storage place]} {*storage place (of a component)*} The *(record) layout* aspect of representation consists of the *storage places* for some or all components, that is, storage place attributes of the components. The layout can be specified with a record_representation_clause. 1

13.5.1 Record Representation Clauses

[A record_representation_clause specifies the storage representation of records and record extensions, that is, the order, position, and size of components (including discriminants, if any). {*bit field: see record_representation_clause*}] 1

Language Design Principles

It should be feasible for an implementation to use negative offsets in the representation of composite types. However, no implementation should be forced to support negative offsets. Therefore, negative offsets should be disallowed in record_representation_clauses. 1.a

Syntax

record_representation_clause ::= 2
   for *first_subtype*_local_name **use**
    record [mod_clause]
      {component_clause}
    end record;

component_clause ::= 3
   *component*_local_name **at** position **range** first_bit .. last_bit;

position ::= *static*_expression 4

first_bit ::= *static*_simple_expression 5

last_bit ::= *static*_simple_expression 6

Reason: First_bit and last_bit need to be simple_expression instead of expression for the same reason as in range (see 3.5, ''Scalar Types''). 6.a

Name Resolution Rules

{*expected type* [component_clause expressions]} {*expected type* [position]} {*expected type* [first_bit]} {*expected type* [last_bit]} 7
Each position, first_bit, and last_bit is expected to be of any integer type.

Ramification: These need not have the same integer type. 7.a

Legality Rules

The *first_subtype*_local_name of a record_representation_clause shall denote a specific nonlimited record or record extension subtype. 8

Ramification: As for all type-related representation items, the local_name is required to denote a first subtype. 8.a

If the *component*_local_name is a direct_name, the local_name shall denote a component of the type. For a record extension, the component shall not be inherited, and shall not be a discriminant that corresponds 9

to a discriminant of the parent type. If the *component*_local_name has an attribute_designator, the direct_name of the local_name shall denote either the declaration of the type or a component of the type, and the attribute_designator shall denote an implementation-defined implicit component of the type.

10 The position, first_bit, and last_bit shall be static expressions. The value of position and first_bit shall be nonnegative. The value of last_bit shall be no less than first_bit – 1.

10.a **Ramification:** A component_clause such as ''X **at** 4 **range** 0..–1;'' is allowed if X can fit in zero bits.

11 At most one component_clause is allowed for each component of the type, including for each discriminant (component_clauses may be given for some, all, or none of the components). Storage places within a component_list shall not overlap, unless they are for components in distinct variants of the same variant_part.

12 A name that denotes a component of a type is not allowed within a record_representation_clause for the type, except as the *component*_local_name of a component_clause.

12.a **Reason:** It might seem strange to make the record_representation_clause part of the declarative region, and then disallow mentions of the components within almost all of the record_representation_clause. The alternative would be to treat the *component*_local_name like a formal parameter name in a subprogram call (in terms of visibility). However, this rule would imply slightly different semantics, because (given the actual rule) the components can hide other declarations. This was the rule in Ada 83, and we see no reason to change it. The following, for example, was and is illegal:

12.b
```
type T is
    record
        X : Integer;
    end record;
X : constant := 31; -- Same defining name as the component.
for T use
    record
        X at 0 range 0..X; -- Illegal!
    end record;
```

12.c The component X hides the named number X throughout the record_representation_clause.

Static Semantics

13 A record_representation_clause (without the mod_clause) specifies the layout. The storage place attributes (see 13.5.2) are taken from the values of the position, first_bit, and last_bit expressions after normalizing those values so that first_bit is less than Storage_Unit.

13.a **Ramification:** For example, if Storage_Unit is 8, then ''C **at** 0 **range** 24..31;'' defines C'Position = 3, C'First_Bit = 0, and C'Last_Bit = 7. This is true of machines with either bit ordering.

13.b A component_clause also determines the value of the Size attribute of the component, since this attribute is related to First_Bit and Last_Bit.

14 [A record_representation_clause for a record extension does not override the layout of the parent part;] if the layout was specified for the parent type, it is inherited by the record extension.

Implementation Permissions

15 An implementation may generate implementation-defined components (for example, one containing the offset of another component). An implementation may generate names that denote such implementation-defined components; such names shall be implementation-defined attribute_references. An implementation may allow such implementation-defined names to be used in record_representation_clauses. An implementation can restrict such component_clauses in any manner it sees fit.

15.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined components.

Ramification: Of course, since the semantics of implementation-defined attributes is implementation defined, the implementation need not support these names in all situations. They might be purely for the purpose of component_clauses, for example. The visibility rules for such names are up to the implementation. 15.b

We do not allow such component names to be normal identifiers — that would constitute blanket permission to do all kinds of evil things. 15.c

Discussion: {*dope*} Such implementation-defined components are known in the vernacular as ''dope.'' Their main purpose is for storing offsets of components that depend on discriminants. 15.d

If a record_representation_clause is given for an untagged derived type, the storage place attributes for all of the components of the derived type may differ from those of the corresponding components of the parent type, even for components whose storage place is not specified explicitly in the record_representation_clause. 16

Reason: This is clearly necessary, since the whole record may need to be laid out differently. 16.a

Implementation Advice

{*recommended level of support* [record_representation_clause]} The recommended level of support for record_representation_clauses is: 17

- An implementation should support storage places that can be extracted with a load, mask, shift sequence of machine code, and set with a load, shift, mask, store sequence, given the available machine instructions and run-time model. 18
- A storage place should be supported if its size is equal to the Size of the component subtype, and it starts and ends on a boundary that obeys the Alignment of the component subtype. 19
- If the default bit ordering applies to the declaration of a given type, then for a component whose subtype's Size is less than the word size, any storage place that does not cross an aligned word boundary should be supported. 20

  Reason: The above recommendations are sufficient to define interfaces to most interesting hardware. This causes less implementation burden than the definition in ACID, which requires arbitrary bit alignments of arbitrarily large components. Since the ACID definition is neither enforced by the ACVC, nor supported by all implementations, it seems OK for us to weaken it. 20.a

- An implementation may reserve a storage place for the tag field of a tagged type, and disallow other components from overlapping that place. 21

  Ramification: Similar permission for other dope is not granted. 21.a

- An implementation need not support a component_clause for a component of an extension part if the storage place is not after the storage places of all components of the parent type, whether or not those storage places had been specified. 22

  Reason: These restrictions are probably necessary if block equality operations are to be feasible for class-wide types. For block comparison to work, the implementation typically has to fill in any gaps with zero (or one) bits. If a ''gap'' in the parent type is filled in with a component in a type extension, then this won't work when a class-wide object is passed by reference, as is required. 22.a

NOTES

12 If no component_clause is given for a component, then the choice of the storage place for the component is left to the implementation. If component_clauses are given for all components, the record_representation_clause completely specifies the representation of the type and will be obeyed exactly by the implementation. 23

Ramification: The visibility rules prevent the name of a component of the type from appearing in a record_representation_clause at any place *except* for the *component*_local_name of a component_clause. However, since the record_representation_clause is part of the declarative region of the type declaration, the component names hide outer homographs throughout. 23.a

A record_representation_clause cannot be given for a protected type, even though protected types, like record types, have components. The primary reason for this rule is that there is likely to be too much dope in a protected type — entry queues, bit maps for barrier values, etc. In order to control the representation of the user-defined components, simply declare a record type, give it a representation_clause, and give the protected type one component whose type is 23.b

the record type. Alternatively, if the protected object is protecting something like a device register, it makes more sense to keep the thing being protected outside the protected object (possibly with a pointer to it in the protected object), in order to keep implementation-defined components out of the way.

Examples

Example of specifying the layout of a record type:

```
Word : constant := 4;  -- storage element is byte, 4 bytes per word

type State         is (A,M,W,P);
type Mode          is (Fix, Dec, Exp, Signif);

type Byte_Mask     is array (0..7)  of Boolean;
type State_Mask    is array (State) of Boolean;
type Mode_Mask     is array (Mode)  of Boolean;

type Program_Status_Word is
  record
      System_Mask        : Byte_Mask;
      Protection_Key     : Integer range 0 .. 3;
      Machine_State      : State_Mask;
      Interrupt_Cause    : Interruption_Code;
      Ilc                : Integer range 0 .. 3;
      Cc                 : Integer range 0 .. 3;
      Program_Mask       : Mode_Mask;
      Inst_Address       : Address;
end record;

for Program_Status_Word use
  record
      System_Mask      at 0*Word range 0  .. 7;
      Protection_Key   at 0*Word range 10 .. 11; -- bits 8,9 unused
      Machine_State    at 0*Word range 12 .. 15;
      Interrupt_Cause  at 0*Word range 16 .. 31;
      Ilc              at 1*Word range 0  .. 1;  -- second word
      Cc               at 1*Word range 2  .. 3;
      Program_Mask     at 1*Word range 4  .. 7;
      Inst_Address     at 1*Word range 8  .. 31;
  end record;

for Program_Status_Word'Size use 8*System.Storage_Unit;
for Program_Status_Word'Alignment use 8;
```

NOTES

13 *Note on the example:* The record_representation_clause defines the record layout. The Size clause guarantees that (at least) eight storage elements are used for objects of the type. The Alignment clause guarantees that aliased, imported, or exported objects of the type will have addresses divisible by eight.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The alignment_clause has been renamed to mod_clause and moved to Annex J, ''Obsolescent Features''.

We have clarified that implementation-defined component names have to be in the form of an attribute_reference of a component or of the first subtype itself; surely Ada 83 did not intend to allow arbitrary identifiers.

The RM83-13.4(7) wording incorrectly allows components in non-variant records to overlap. We have corrected that oversight.

13.5.2 Storage Place Attributes

Static Semantics

{*storage place attributes (of a component)*} For a component C of a composite, non-array object R, the *storage place attributes* are defined:

Ramification: The storage place attributes are not (individually) specifiable, but the user may control their values by giving a record_representation_clause.

R.C'Position — Denotes the same value as R.C'Address – R'Address. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*.

Ramification: Thus, R.C'Position is the offset of C in storage elements from the beginning of the object, where the first storage element of an object is numbered zero. R'Address + R.C'Position = R.C'Address. For record extensions, the offset is not measured from the beginning of the extension part, but from the beginning of the whole object, as usual. 2.a

In ''R.C'Address – R'Address'', the "–" operator is the one in System.Storage_Elements that takes two Addresses and returns a Storage_Offset. 2.b

R.C'First_Bit Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by C, of the first bit occupied by C. This offset is measured in bits. The first bit of a storage element is numbered zero. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 3

R.C'Last_Bit Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by C, of the last bit occupied by C. This offset is measured in bits. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 4

Ramification: The ordering of bits in a storage element is is defined in 13.5.3, ''Bit Ordering''. 4.a

R.C'Size = R.C'Last_Bit – R.C'First_Bit + 1. (Unless the implementation chooses an indirection representation.) 4.b

If a component_clause applies to a component, then that component will be at the same relative storage place in all objects of the type. Otherwise, there is no such requirement. 4.c

Implementation Advice

{*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} If a component is represented using some form of pointer (such as an offset) to the actual data of the component, and this data is contiguous with the rest of the object, then the storage place attributes should reflect the place of the actual data, not the pointer. If a component is allocated discontiguously from the rest of the object, then a warning should be generated upon reference to one of its storage place attributes. 5

Reason: For discontiguous components, these attributes make no sense. For example, an implementation might allocate dynamic-sized components on the heap. For another example, an implementation might allocate the discriminants separately from the other components, so that multiple objects of the same subtype can share discriminants. Such representations cannot happen if there is a component_clause for that component. 5.a

13.5.3 Bit Ordering

[The Bit_Order attribute specifies the interpretation of the storage place attributes.] 1

Reason: The intention is to provide uniformity in the interpretation of storage places across implementations on a particular machine by allowing the user to specify the Bit_Order. It is not intended to fully support data interoperability across different machines, although it can be used for that purpose in some situations. 1.a

We can't require all implementations on a given machine to use the same bit ordering by default; if the user cares, a pragma Bit_Order can be used to force all implementations to use the same bit ordering. 1.b

Static Semantics

{*bit ordering*} A bit ordering is a method of interpreting the meaning of the storage place attributes. {*High_Order_First*} {*big endian*} {*endian (big)*} High_Order_First [(known in the vernacular as ''big endian'')] means that the first bit of a storage element (bit 0) is the most significant bit (interpreting the sequence of bits that represent a component as an unsigned integer value). {*Low_Order_First*} {*little endian*} {*endian (little)*} Low_Order_First [(known in the vernacular as ''little endian'')] means the opposite: the first bit is the least significant. 2

For every specific record subtype S, the following attribute is defined: 3

S'Bit_Order Denotes the bit ordering for the type of S. The value of this attribute is of type System.Bit_Order. {*specifiable* [of Bit_Order for record types and record extensions]} {*Bit_Order clause*} Bit_Order may be specified for specific record types via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static. 4

5 If Word_Size = Storage_Unit, the default bit ordering is implementation defined. If Word_Size > Storage_Unit, the default bit ordering is the same as the ordering of storage elements in a word, when interpreted as an integer. {*byte sex: see ordering of storage elements in a word*}

5.a **Implementation defined:** If Word_Size = Storage_Unit, the default bit ordering.

5.b **Ramification:** Consider machines whose Word_Size = 32, and whose Storage_Unit = 8. Assume the default bit ordering applies. On a machine with big-endian addresses, the most significant storage element of an integer is at the address of the integer. Therefore, bit zero of a storage element is the most significant bit. On a machine with little-endian addresses, the least significant storage element of an integer is at the address of the integer. Therefore, bit zero of a storage element is the least significant bit.

6 The storage place attributes of a component of a type are interpreted according to the bit ordering of the type.

6.a **Ramification:** This implies that the interpretation of the position, first_bit, and last_bit of a component_clause of a record_representation_clause obey the bit ordering given in a representation item.

Implementation Advice

7 {*recommended level of support* [bit ordering]} The recommended level of support for the nondefault bit ordering is:

8 • If Word_Size = Storage_Unit, then the implementation should support the nondefault bit ordering in addition to the default bit ordering.

8.a **Ramification:** If Word_Size = Storage_Unit, the implementation should support both bit orderings. We don't push for support of the nondefault bit ordering when Word_Size > Storage_Unit (except of course for upward compatibility with a preexisting implementation whose Ada 83 bit order did not correspond to the required Ada 9X default bit order), because implementations are required to support storage positions that cross storage element boundaries when Word_Size > Storage_Unit. Such storage positions will be split into two or three pieces if the nondefault bit ordering is used, which could be onerous to support. However, if Word_Size = Storage_Unit, there might not be a natural bit ordering, but the splitting problem need not occur.

Extensions to Ada 83

8.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} The Bit_Order attribute is new to Ada 9X.

13.6 Change of Representation

1 [{*change of representation*} {*representation (change of)*} A type_conversion (see 4.6) can be used to convert between two different representations of the same array or record. To convert an array from one representation to another, two array types need to be declared with matching component subtypes, and convertible index types. If one type has packing specified and the other does not, then explicit conversion can be used to pack or unpack an array.

2 To convert a record from one representation to another, two record types with a common ancestor type need to be declared, with no inherited subprograms. Distinct representations can then be specified for the record types, and explicit conversion between the types can be used to effect a change in representation.]

2.a **Ramification:** This technique does not work if the first type is an untagged type with user-defined primitive subprograms. It does not work at all for tagged types.

Examples

3 *Example of change of representation:*

4
```
-- Packed_Descriptor and Descriptor are two different types
-- with identical characteristics, apart from their
-- representation
```

5
```
type Descriptor is
    record
      -- components of a descriptor
    end record;
```

```
type Packed_Descriptor is new Descriptor;
```
6

```
for Packed_Descriptor use
    record
      -- component clauses for some or for all components
    end record;
```
7

-- Change of representation can now be accomplished by explicit type conversions:
8

```
D : Descriptor;
P : Packed_Descriptor;
```
9

```
P := Packed_Descriptor(D);  -- pack D
D := Descriptor(P);         -- unpack P
```
10

13.7 The Package System

[For each implementation there is a library package called System which includes the definitions of certain configuration-dependent characteristics.] 1

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 2

Implementation defined: The contents of the visible part of package System and its language-defined children. 2.a

```
package System is
   pragma Preelaborate(System);
```
3

```
   type Name is implementation-defined-enumeration-type;
   System_Name : constant Name := implementation-defined;
```
4

```
   -- System-Dependent Named Numbers:
```
5

```
   Min_Int              : constant := root_integer'First;
   Max_Int              : constant := root_integer'Last;
```
6

{*Min_Int (named number in package System)*} {*Max_Int (named number in package System)*}

```
   Max_Binary_Modulus    : constant := implementation-defined;
   Max_Nonbinary_Modulus : constant := implementation-defined;
```
7

{*Max_Binary_Modulus (named number in package System)*} {*Max_Nonbinary_Modulus (named number in package System)*}

```
   Max_Base_Digits       : constant := root_real'Digits;
   Max_Digits            : constant := implementation-defined;
```
8

{*Max_Base_Digits (named number in package System)*} {*Max_Digits (named number in package System)*}

```
   Max_Mantissa          : constant := implementation-defined;
   Fine_Delta            : constant := implementation-defined;
```
9

{*Max_Mantissa (named number in package System)*} {*Fine_Delta (named number in package System)*}

```
   Tick                  : constant := implementation-defined;
```
10

{*Tick (named number in package System)*}

```
   -- Storage-related Declarations:
```
11

```
   type Address is implementation-defined;
   Null_Address : constant Address;
```
12

{*address (null)*} {*Null_Address (constant in System)*}

```
   Storage_Unit : constant := implementation-defined;
   Word_Size    : constant := implementation-defined * Storage_Unit;
   Memory_Size  : constant := implementation-defined;
```
13

{*Storage_Unit (named number in package System)*} {*Word_Size (named number in package System)*}

```
   -- {address (comparison)} Address Comparison:
   function "<" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
   function "<="(Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
   function ">" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
   function ">="(Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
   function "=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
-- function "/=" (Left, Right : Address) return Boolean;
   -- "/=" is implicitly defined
   pragma Convention(Intrinsic, "<");
   ... -- and so on for all language-defined subprograms in this package
```
14

15
```
   -- Other System-Dependent Declarations:
   type Bit_Order is (High_Order_First, Low_Order_First);
   Default_Bit_Order : constant Bit_Order;
```
16
```
   -- Priority-related declarations (see D.1):
   subtype Any_Priority is Integer range implementation-defined;
   subtype Priority is Any_Priority range Any_Priority'First .. implementation-defined;
   subtype Interrupt_Priority is Any_Priority range Priority'Last+1 .. Any_Priority'Last;
```
17
```
   Default_Priority : constant Priority := (Priority'First + Priority'Last)/2;
```
18
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end System;
```

19 Name is an enumeration subtype. Values of type Name are the names of alternative machine configurations handled by the implementation. System_Name represents the current machine configuration.

20 The named numbers Fine_Delta and Tick are of the type *universal_real*; the others are of the type *universal_integer*.

21 The meanings of the named numbers are:

22 [Min_Int — The smallest (most negative) value allowed for the expressions of a signed_integer_type_definition.

23 Max_Int — The largest (most positive) value allowed for the expressions of a signed_integer_type_definition.

24 Max_Binary_Modulus — A power of two such that it, and all lesser positive powers of two, are allowed as the modulus of a modular_type_definition.

25 Max_Nonbinary_Modulus — A value such that it, and all lesser positive integers, are allowed as the modulus of a modular_type_definition.

25.a **Ramification:** There is no requirement that Max_Nonbinary_Modulus be less than or equal to Max_Binary_Modulus, although that's what makes most sense. On a typical 32-bit machine, for example, Max_Binary_Modulus will be 2**32 and Max_Nonbinary_Modulus will be 2**31, because supporting nonbinary moduli in above 2**31 causes implementation difficulties.

26 Max_Base_Digits — The largest value allowed for the requested decimal precision in a floating_point_definition.

27 Max_Digits — The largest value allowed for the requested decimal precision in a floating_point_definition that has no real_range_specification. Max_Digits is less than or equal to Max_Base_Digits.

28 Max_Mantissa — The largest possible number of binary digits in the mantissa of machine numbers of a user-defined ordinary fixed point type. (The mantissa is defined in Annex G.)

29 Fine_Delta — The smallest delta allowed in an ordinary_fixed_point_definition that has the real_range_specification **range** –1.0 .. 1.0.]

30 Tick — A period in seconds approximating the real time interval during which the value of Calendar.Clock remains constant.

30.a **Ramification:** There is no required relationship between System.Tick and Duration'Small, other than the one described here.

30.b The inaccuracy of the delay_statement has no relation to Tick. In particular, it is possible that the clock used for the delay_statement is less accurate than Calendar.Clock.

30.c We considered making Tick a run-time-determined quantity, to allow for easier configurability. However, this would not be upward compatible, and the desired configurability can be achieved using functionality defined in Annex D, ''Real-Time Systems''.

Storage_Unit The number of bits per storage element. 31

Word_Size The number of bits per word. 32

Memory_Size An implementation-defined value [that is intended to reflect the memory size of the configuration in storage elements.] 33

Discussion: It is unspecified whether this refers to the size of the address space, the amount of physical memory on the machine, or perhaps some other interpretation of ‘‘memory size.’’ In any case, the value has to be given by a static expression, even though the amount of memory on many modern machines is a dynamic quantity in several ways. Thus, Memory_Size is not very useful. 33.a

Address is of a definite, nonlimited type. Address represents machine addresses capable of addressing individual storage elements. Null_Address is an address that is distinct from the address of any object or program unit. {*pointer: see type System.Address*} 34

Ramification: The implementation has to ensure that there is at least one address that nothing will be allocated to; Null_Address will be one such address. 34.a

Ramification: Address is the type of the result of the attribute Address. 34.b

Reason: Address is required to be nonlimited and definite because it is important to be able to assign addresses, and to declare uninitialized address variables. 34.c

See 13.5.3 for an explanation of Bit_Order and Default_Bit_Order. 35

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may add additional implementation-defined declarations to package System and its children. [However, it is usually better for the implementation to provide additional functionality via implementation-defined children of System.] Package System may be declared pure. 36

Ramification: The declarations in package System and its children can be implicit. For example, since Address is not limited, the predefined "=" and "/=" operations are probably sufficient. However, the implementation is not *required* to use the predefined "=". 36.a

Implementation Advice

Address should be of a private type. 37

Reason: This promotes uniformity by avoiding having implementation-defined predefined operations for the type. We don’t require it, because implementations may want to stick with what they have. 37.a

Implementation Note: It is not necessary for Address to be able to point at individual bits within a storage element. Nor is it necessary for it to be able to point at machine registers. It is intended as a memory address that matches the hardware’s notion of an address. 37.b

The representation of the **null** value of a general access type should be the same as that of Null_Address; instantiations of Unchecked_Conversion should work accordingly. If the implementation supports interfaces to other languages, the representation of the **null** value of a general access type should be the same as in those other languages, if appropriate. 37.c

Note that the children of the Interfaces package will generally provide foreign-language-specific null values where appropriate. See UI-0065 regarding Null_Address. 37.d

NOTES

14 There are also some language-defined child packages of System defined elsewhere. 38

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Much of the content of System is standardized, to provide more uniformity across implementations. Implementations can still add their own declarations to System, but are encouraged to do so via children of System. 38.a

Some of the named numbers are defined more explicitly in terms of the standard numeric types. 38.b

The pragmas System_Name, Storage_Unit, and Memory_Size are no longer defined by the language. However, the corresponding declarations in package System still exist. Existing implementations may continue to support the three pragmas as implementation-defined pragmas, if they so desire. 38.c

38.d Priority semantics, including subtype Priority, have been moved to the Real Time Annex.

13.7.1 The Package System.Storage_Elements

Static Semantics

1 The following language-defined library package exists:

2
```
package System.Storage_Elements is
   pragma Preelaborate(System.Storage_Elements);
```

3
```
   type Storage_Offset is range implementation-defined;
```
{*Storage_Count (subtype in package System.Storage_Elements)*}

4
```
   subtype Storage_Count is Storage_Offset range 0..Storage_Offset'Last;
```

5
```
   type Storage_Element is mod implementation-defined;
   for Storage_Element'Size use Storage_Unit;
   type Storage_Array is array
     (Storage_Offset range <>) of aliased Storage_Element;
   for Storage_Array'Component_Size use Storage_Unit;
```

6
```
   -- {address (arithmetic)} Address Arithmetic:
```

7
```
   function "+"(Left : Address; Right : Storage_Offset)
     return Address;
   function "+"(Left : Storage_Offset; Right : Address)
     return Address;
   function "-"(Left : Address; Right : Storage_Offset)
     return Address;
   function "-"(Left, Right : Address)
     return Storage_Offset;
```

8
```
   function "mod"(Left : Address; Right : Storage_Offset)
     return Storage_Offset;
```

9
```
   -- Conversion to/from integers:
```

10
```
   type Integer_Address is implementation-defined;
   function To_Address(Value : Integer_Address) return Address;
   function To_Integer(Value : Address) return Integer_Address;
```

11
```
   pragma Convention(Intrinsic, "+");
      -- ...and so on for all language-defined subprograms declared in this package.
end System.Storage_Elements;
```

11.a **Reason:** The Convention pragmas imply that the attribute Access is not allowed for those operations.

11.b The **mod** function is needed so that the definition of Alignment makes sense.

12 Storage_Element represents a storage element. Storage_Offset represents an offset in storage elements. Storage_Count represents a number of storage elements. {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} Storage_Array represents a contiguous sequence of storage elements.

12.a **Reason:** The index subtype of Storage_Array is Storage_Offset because we wish to allow maximum flexibility. Most Storage_Arrays will probably have a lower bound of 0 or 1, but other lower bounds, including negative ones, make sense in some situations.

12.b Note that there are some language-defined subprograms that fill part of a Storage_Array, and return the index of the last element filled as a Storage_Offset. The Read procedures in Streams (see 13.13.1), Streams.Stream_IO (see A.12.1), and System.RPC (see E.5) behave in this manner. These will raise Constraint_Error if the resulting Last value is not in Storage_Offset. This implies that the Storage_Array passed to these subprograms should not have a lower bound of Storage_Offset'First, because then a read of 0 elements would always raise Constraint_Error. A better choice of lower bound is 1.

13 Integer_Address is a [(signed or modular)] integer subtype. To_Address and To_Integer convert back and forth between this type and Address.

Implementation Requirements

Storage_Offset'Last shall be greater than or equal to Integer'Last or the largest possible storage offset, whichever is smaller. Storage_Offset'First shall be <= (–Storage_Offset'Last). 14

Implementation Permissions

Package System.Storage_Elements may be declared pure. 15

Implementation Advice

Operations in System and its children should reflect the target environment semantics as closely as is reasonable. For example, on most machines, it makes sense for address arithmetic to ''wrap around.'' {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Operations that do not make sense should raise Program_Error. 16

Discussion: For example, on a segmented architecture, X < Y might raise Program_Error if X and Y do not point at the same segment (assuming segments are unordered). Similarly, on a segmented architecture, the conversions between Integer_Address and Address might not make sense for some values, and so might raise Program_Error. 16.a

Reason: We considered making Storage_Element a private type. However, it is better to declare it as a modular type in the visible part, since code that uses it is already low level, and might as well have access to the underlying representation. We also considered allowing Storage_Element to be any integer type, signed integer or modular, but it is better to have uniformity across implementations in this regard, and viewing storage elements as unsigned seemed to make the most sense. 16.b

Implementation Note: To_Address is intended for use in Address clauses. Implementations should overload To_Address if appropriate. For example, on a segmented architecture, it might make sense to have a record type representing a segment/offset pair, and have a To_Address conversion that converts from that record type to type Address. 16.c

13.7.2 The Package System.Address_To_Access_Conversions

Static Semantics

The following language-defined generic library package exists: 1

```
generic                                                                    2
    type Object(<>) is limited private;
package System.Address_To_Access_Conversions is
   pragma Preelaborate(Address_To_Access_Conversions);
   type Object_Pointer is access all Object;                               3
   function To_Pointer(Value : Address) return Object_Pointer;
   function To_Address(Value : Object_Pointer) return Address;
   pragma Convention(Intrinsic, To_Pointer);                               4
   pragma Convention(Intrinsic, To_Address);
end System.Address_To_Access_Conversions;
```

The To_Pointer and To_Address subprograms convert back and forth between values of types Object_Pointer and Address. To_Pointer(X'Address) is equal to X'Unchecked_Access for any X that allows Unchecked_Access. To_Pointer(Null_Address) returns **null**. {*unspecified* [partial]} For other addresses, the behavior is unspecified. To_Address(**null**) returns Null_Address (for **null** of the appropriate type). To_Address(Y), where Y /= **null**, returns Y.**all**'Address. 5

Discussion: The programmer should ensure that the address passed to To_Pointer is either Null_Address, or the address of an object of type Object. Otherwise, the behavior of the program is unspecified; it might raise an exception or crash, for example. 5.a

Reason: Unspecified is almost the same thing as erroneous; they both allow arbitrarily bad behavior. We don't say erroneous here, because the implementation might allow the address passed to To_Pointer to point at some memory that just happens to ''look like'' an object of type Object. That's not necessarily an error; it's just not portable. However, if the actual type passed to Object is (for example) an array type, the programmer would need to be aware of any dope that the implementation expects to exist, when passing an address that did not come from the Address attribute of an object of type Object. 5.b

5.c One might wonder why To_Pointer and To_Address are any better than unchecked conversions. The answer is that Address does not necessarily have the same representation as an access type. For example, an access value might point at the bounds of an array when an address would point at the first element. Or an access value might be an offset in words from someplace, whereas an address might be an offset in bytes from the beginning of memory.

Implementation Permissions

6 An implementation may place restrictions on instantiations of Address_To_Access_Conversions.

6.a **Ramification:** For example, if the hardware requires aligned loads and stores, then dereferencing an access value that is not properly aligned might raise an exception.

6.b For another example, if the implementation has chosen to use negative component offsets (from an access value), it might not be possible to preserve the semantics, since negative offsets from the Address are not allowed. (The Address attribute always points at ''the first of the storage elements....'') Note that while the implementation knows how to convert an access value into an address, it might not be able to do the reverse. To avoid generic contract model violations, the restriction might have to be detected at run time in some cases.

13.8 Machine Code Insertions

1 [{*machine code insertion*} A machine code insertion can be achieved by a call to a subprogram whose sequence_of_statements contains code_statements.]

Syntax

2 code_statement ::= qualified_expression;

3 A code_statement is only allowed in the handled_sequence_of_statements of a subprogram_body. If a subprogram_body contains any code_statements, then within this subprogram_body the only allowed form of statement is a code_statement (labeled or not), the only allowed declarative_items are use_clauses, and no exception_handler is allowed (comments and pragmas are allowed as usual).

Name Resolution Rules

4 {*expected type* [code_statement]} The qualified_expression is expected to be of any type.

Legality Rules

5 The qualified_expression shall be of a type declared in package System.Machine_Code.

5.a **Ramification:** This includes types declared in children of System.Machine_Code.

6 A code_statement shall appear only within the scope of a with_clause that mentions package System.-Machine_Code.

6.a **Ramification:** Note that this is not a note; without this rule, it would be possible to write machine code in compilation units which depend on System.Machine_Code only indirectly.

Static Semantics

7 {*System.Machine_Code*} The contents of the library package System.Machine_Code (if provided) are implementation defined. The meaning of code_statements is implementation defined. [Typically, each qualified_expression represents a machine instruction or assembly directive.]

7.a **Discussion:** For example, an instruction might be a record with an Op_Code component and other components for the operands.

7.b **Implementation defined:** The contents of the visible part of package System.Machine_Code, and the meaning of code_statements.

Implementation Permissions

8 An implementation may place restrictions on code_statements. An implementation is not required to provide package System.Machine_Code.

NOTES

15 An implementation may provide implementation-defined pragmas specifying register conventions and calling conventions. 9

16 Machine code functions are exempt from the rule that a return_statement is required. In fact, return_statements are forbidden, since only code_statements are allowed. 10

Discussion: The idea is that the author of a machine code subprogram knows the calling conventions, and refers to parameters and results accordingly. The implementation should document where to put the result of a machine code function, for example, ''Scalar results are returned in register 0.'' 10.a

17 Intrinsic subprograms (see 6.3.1, ''Conformance Rules'') can also be used to achieve machine code insertions. Interface to assembly language can be achieved using the features in Annex B, ''Interface to Other Languages''. 11

Examples

Example of a code statement: 12

```
M : Mask;                                                                    13
procedure Set_Mask; pragma Inline(Set_Mask);
procedure Set_Mask is                                                        14
  use System.Machine_Code; -- assume ''with System.Machine_Code;'' appears somewhere above
begin
  SI_Format'(Code => SSM, B => M'Base_Reg, D => M'Disp);
  -- Base_Reg and Disp are implementation-defined attributes
end Set_Mask;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Machine code functions are allowed in Ada 9X; in Ada 83, only procedures were allowed. 14.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The syntax for code_statement is changed to say ''qualified_expression'' instead of ''subtype_mark'record_aggregate''. Requiring the type of each instruction to be a record type is overspecification. 14.b

13.9 Unchecked Type Conversions

[{*unchecked type conversion*} {*type conversion (unchecked)*} {*conversion (unchecked)*} {*type_conversion: see also unchecked type conversion*} {*cast: see unchecked type conversion*} An unchecked type conversion can be achieved by a call to an instance of the generic function Unchecked_Conversion.] 1

Static Semantics

The following language-defined generic library function exists: 2

```
generic                                                                      3
   type Source(<>) is limited private;
   type Target(<>) is limited private;
function Ada.Unchecked_Conversion(S : Source) return Target;
pragma Convention(Intrinsic, Ada.Unchecked_Conversion);
pragma Pure(Ada.Unchecked_Conversion);
```

Reason: The pragma Convention implies that the attribute Access is not allowed for instances of Unchecked_Conversion. 3.a

Dynamic Semantics

The size of the formal parameter S in an instance of Unchecked_Conversion is that of its subtype. [This is the actual subtype passed to Source, except when the actual is an unconstrained composite subtype, in which case the subtype is constrained by the bounds or discriminants of the value of the actual expression passed to S.] 4

If all of the following are true, the effect of an unchecked conversion is to return the value of an object of the target subtype whose representation is the same as that of the source object S: 5

- S'Size = Target'Size. 6

6.a **Ramification:** Note that there is no requirement that the Sizes be known at compile time.

7 • S'Alignment = Target'Alignment.

8 • The target subtype is not an unconstrained composite subtype.

9 • {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} S and the target subtype both have a contiguous representation.

10 • The representation of S is a representation of an object of the target subtype.

11 Otherwise, the effect is implementation defined; in particular, the result can be abnormal (see 13.9.1).

11.a **Implementation defined:** The effect of unchecked conversion.

11.b **Ramification:** Whenever unchecked conversions are used, it is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that these conversions maintain the properties that are guaranteed by the language for objects of the target type. This requires the user to understand the underlying run-time model of the implementation. The execution of a program that violates these properties by means of unchecked conversions is erroneous.

11.c An instance of Unchecked_Conversion can be applied to an object of a private type, assuming the implementation allows it.

Implementation Permissions

12 An implementation may return the result of an unchecked conversion by reference, if the Source type is not a by-copy type. [In this case, the result of the unchecked conversion represents simply a different (read-only) view of the operand of the conversion.]

12.a **Ramification:** In other words, the result object of a call on an instance of Unchecked_Conversion can occupy the same storage as the formal parameter S.

13 An implementation may place restrictions on Unchecked_Conversion.

13.a **Ramification:** For example, an instantiation of Unchecked_Conversion for types for which unchecked conversion doesn't make sense may be disallowed.

Implementation Advice

14 The Size of an array object should not include its bounds; hence, the bounds should not be part of the converted data.

14.a **Ramification:** On the other hand, we have no advice to offer about discriminants and tag fields.

15 The implementation should not generate unnecessary run-time checks to ensure that the representation of S is a representation of the target type. It should take advantage of the permission to return by reference when possible. Restrictions on unchecked conversions should be avoided unless required by the target environment.

15.a **Implementation Note:** As an example of an unnecessary run-time check, consider a record type with gaps between components. The compiler might assume that such gaps are always zero bits. If a value is produced that does not obey that assumption, then the program might misbehave. The implementation should not generate extra code to check for zero bits (except, perhaps, in a special error-checking mode).

16 {*recommended level of support* [unchecked conversion]} The recommended level of support for unchecked conversions is:

17 • Unchecked conversions should be supported and should be reversible in the cases where this clause defines the result. {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} To enable meaningful use of unchecked conversion, a contiguous representation should be used for elementary subtypes, for statically constrained array subtypes whose component subtype is one of the subtypes described in this paragraph, and for record subtypes without discriminants whose component subtypes are described in this paragraph.

13.9.1 Data Validity

Certain actions that can potentially lead to erroneous execution are not directly erroneous, but instead can cause objects to become *abnormal*. Subsequent uses of abnormal objects can be erroneous. 1

A scalar object can have an *invalid representation*, which means that the object's representation does not represent any value of the object's subtype. {*uninitialized variables* [distributed]} The primary cause of invalid representations is uninitialized variables. 2

Abnormal objects and invalid representations are explained in this subclause. 3

Dynamic Semantics

{*normal state of an object* [distributed]} {*abnormal state of an object* [distributed]} When an object is first created, and any explicit or default initializations have been performed, the object and all of its parts are in the *normal* state. Subsequent operations generally leave them normal. However, an object or part of an object can become *abnormal* in the following ways: 4

- {*disruption of an assignment*} An assignment to the object is disrupted due to an abort (see 9.8) or due to the failure of a language-defined check (see 11.6). 5
- The object is not scalar, and is passed to an **in out** or **out** parameter of an imported procedure or language-defined input procedure, if after return from the procedure the representation of the parameter does not represent a value of the parameter's subtype. 6

{*unspecified* [partial]} Whether or not an object actually becomes abnormal in these cases is not specified. An abnormal object becomes normal again upon successful completion of an assignment to the object as a whole. 7

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} It is erroneous to evaluate a primary that is a name denoting an abnormal object, or to evaluate a prefix that denotes an abnormal object. 8

Ramification: Although a composite object with no subcomponents of an access type, and with static constraints all the way down cannot become abnormal, a scalar subcomponent of such an object can become abnormal. 8.a

The **in out** or **out** parameter case does not apply to scalars; bad scalars are merely invalid representations, rather than abnormal, in this case. 8.b

Reason: The reason we allow access objects, and objects containing subcomponents of an access type, to become abnormal is because the correctness of an access value cannot necessarily be determined merely by looking at the bits of the object. The reason we allow scalar objects to become abnormal is that we wish to allow the compiler to optimize assuming that the value of a scalar object belongs to the object's subtype, if the compiler can prove that the object is initialized with a value that belongs to the subtype. The reason we allow composite objects to become abnormal if some constraints are nonstatic is that such object might be represented with implicit levels of indirection; if those are corrupted, then even assigning into a component of the object, or simply asking for its Address, might have an unpredictable effect. The same is true if the discriminants have been destroyed. 8.c

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} {*invalid representation*} If the representation of a scalar object does not represent a value of the object's subtype (perhaps because the object was not initialized), the object is said to have an *invalid representation*. It is a bounded error to evaluate the value of such an object. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the error is detected, either Constraint_Error or Program_Error is raised. Otherwise, execution continues using the invalid representation. The rules of the language outside this subclause assume that all objects have valid representations. The semantics of operations on invalid representations are as follows: 9

Discussion: The AARM is more explicit about what happens when the value of the case expression is an invalid representation. 9.a

10 • If the representation of the object represents a value of the object's type, the value of the type is used.

11 • If the representation of the object does not represent a value of the object's type, the semantics of operations on such representations is implementation-defined, but does not by itself lead to erroneous or unpredictable execution, or to other objects becoming abnormal.

Erroneous Execution

12 {*erroneous execution*} A call to an imported function or an instance of Unchecked_Conversion is erroneous if the result is scalar, and the result object has an invalid representation.

12.a **Ramification:** In a typical implementation, every bit pattern that fits in an object of an integer subtype will represent a value of the type, if not of the subtype. However, for an enumeration or floating point type, there are typically bit patterns that do not represent any value of the type. In such cases, the implementation ought to define the semantics of operations on the invalid representations in the obvious manner (assuming the bounded error is not detected): a given representation should be equal to itself, a representation that is in between the internal codes of two enumeration literals should behave accordingly when passed to comparison operators and membership tests, etc. We considered *requiring* such sensible behavior, but it resulted in too much arcane verbiage, and since implementations have little incentive to behave irrationally, such verbiage is not important to have.

12.b If a stand-alone scalar object is initialized to a an in-range value, then the implementation can take advantage of the fact that any out-of-range value has to be abnormal. Such an out-of-range value can be produced only by things like unchecked conversion, input, and disruption of an assignment due to abort or to failure of a language-defined check. This depends on out-of-range values being checked before assignment (that is, checks are not optimized away unless they are proven redundant).

12.c Consider the following example:

12.d
```
type My_Int is range 0..99;
function Safe_Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion(My_Int, Integer);
function Unsafe_Convert is new Unchecked_Conversion(My_Int, Positive);
X : Positive := Safe_Convert(0); -- Raises Constraint_Error.
Y : Positive := Unsafe_Convert(0); -- Erroneous.
```

12.e The call to Unsafe_Convert causes erroneous execution. The call to Safe_Convert is not erroneous. The result object is an object of subtype Integer containing the value 0. The assignment to X is required to do a constraint check; the fact that the conversion is unchecked does not obviate the need for subsequent checks required by the language rules.

12.f **Implementation Note:** If an implementation wants to have a ''friendly'' mode, it might always assign an uninitialized scalar a default initial value that is outside the object's subtype (if there is one), and check for this value on some or all reads of the object, so as to help detect references to uninitialized scalars. Alternatively, an implementation might want to provide an ''unsafe'' mode where it presumed even uninitialized scalars were always within their subtype.

12.g **Ramification:** The above rules imply that it is a bounded error to apply a predefined operator to an object with a scalar subcomponent having an invalid representation, since this implies reading the value of each subcomponent. Either Program_Error or Constraint_Error is raised, or some result is produced, which if composite, might have a corresponding scalar subcomponent still with an invalid representation.

12.h Note that it is not an error to assign, convert, or pass as a parameter a composite object with an uninitialized scalar subcomponent. In the other hand, it is a (bounded) error to apply a predefined operator such as =, <, and **xor** to a composite operand with an invalid scalar subcomponent.

13 The dereference of an access value is erroneous if it does not designate an object of an appropriate type or a subprogram with an appropriate profile, if it designates a nonexistent object, or if it is an access-to-variable value that designates a constant object. [Such an access value can exist, for example, because of Unchecked_Deallocation, Unchecked_Access, or Unchecked_Conversion.]

13.a **Ramification:** The above mentioned Unchecked_... features are not the only causes of such access values. For example, interfacing to other languages can also cause the problem.

13.b One obscure example is if the Adjust subprogram of a controlled type uses Unchecked_Access to create an access-to-variable value designating a subcomponent of its controlled parameter, and saves this access value in a global object. When Adjust is called during the initialization of a constant object of the type, the end result will be an access-to-variable value that designates a constant object.

NOTES
18 Objects can become abnormal due to other kinds of actions that directly update the object's representation; such actions are generally considered directly erroneous, however. 14

Wording Changes From Ada 83

In order to reduce the amount of erroneousness, we separate the concept of an undefined value into objects with invalid representation (scalars only) and abnormal objects. 14.a

Reading an object with an invalid representation is a bounded error rather than erroneous; reading an abnormal object is still erroneous. In fact, the only safe thing to do to an abnormal object is to assign to the object as a whole. 14.b

13.9.2 The Valid Attribute

The Valid attribute can be used to check the validity of data produced by unchecked conversion, input, interface to foreign languages, and the like. 1

Static Semantics

For a prefix X that denotes a scalar object [(after any implicit dereference)], the following attribute is defined: 2

X'Valid — Yields True if and only if the object denoted by X is normal and has a valid representation. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. 3

Ramification: Having checked that X'Valid is True, it is safe to read the value of X without fear of erroneous execution caused by abnormality, or a bounded error caused by an invalid representation. Such a read will produce a value in the subtype of X. 3.a

NOTES
19 Invalid data can be created in the following cases (not counting erroneous or unpredictable execution): 4

- an uninitialized scalar object, 5
- the result of an unchecked conversion, 6
- input, 7
- interface to another language (including machine code), 8
- aborting an assignment, 9
- disrupting an assignment due to the failure of a language-defined check (see 11.6), and 10
- use of an object whose Address has been specified. 11

20 X'Valid is not considered to be a read of X; hence, it is not an error to check the validity of invalid data. 12

Ramification: If X is of an enumeration type with a representation clause, then X'Valid checks that the value of X when viewed as an integer is one of the specified internal codes. 12.a

Reason: Valid is defined only for scalar objects because the implementation and description burden would be too high for other types. For example, given a typical run-time model, it is impossible to check the validity of an access value. The same applies to composite types implemented with internal pointers. One can check the validity of a composite object by checking the validity of each of its scalar subcomponents. The user should ensure that any composite types that need to be checked for validity are represented in a way that does not involve implementation-defined components, or gaps between components. Furthermore, such types should not contain access subcomponents. 12.b

Note that one can safely check the validity of a composite object with an abnormal value only if the constraints on the object and all of its subcomponents are static. Otherwise, evaluation of the prefix of the attribute_reference causes erroneous execution (see 4.1). 12.c

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} X'Valid is new in Ada 9X. 12.d

13.10 Unchecked Access Value Creation

1 [The attribute Unchecked_Access is used to create access values in an unsafe manner — the programmer is responsible for preventing ‘‘dangling references.’’]

Static Semantics

2 The following attribute is defined for a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object:

3 X’Unchecked_Access

> All rules and semantics that apply to X’Access (see 3.10.2) apply also to X’Unchecked_Access, except that, for the purposes of accessibility rules and checks, it is as if X were declared immediately within a library package. {*Access attribute: see also Unchecked_Access attribute*}

NOTES

4 21 This attribute is provided to support the situation where a local object is to be inserted into a global linked data structure, when the programmer knows that it will always be removed from the data structure prior to exiting the object’s scope. The Access attribute would be illegal in this case (see 3.10.2, ‘‘Operations of Access Types’’).

4.a **Ramification:** {*expected type* [Unchecked_Access attribute]} The expected type for X’Unchecked_Access is as for X’Access.

4.b If an attribute_reference with Unchecked_Access is used as the actual parameter for an access parameter, an Accessibility_Check can never fail on that access parameter.

5 22 There is no Unchecked_Access attribute for subprograms.

5.a **Reason:** Such an attribute would allow ‘‘downward closures,’’ where an access value designating a more nested subprogram is passed to a less nested subprogram. This requires some means of reconstructing the global environment for the more nested subprogram, so that it can do up-level references to objects. The two methods of implementing up-level references are displays and static links. If downward closures were supported, each access-to-subprogram value would have to carry the static link or display with it. In the case of displays, this was judged to be infeasible, and we don’t want to disrupt implementations by forcing them to use static links if they already use displays.

5.b If desired, an instance of Unchecked_Conversion can be used to create an access value of a global access-to-subprogram type that designates a local subprogram. The semantics of using such a value are not specified by the language. In particular, it is not specified what happens if such subprograms make up-level references; even if the frame being referenced still exists, the up-level reference might go awry if the representation of a value of a global access-to-subprogram type doesn’t include a static link.

13.11 Storage Management

1 [{*user-defined storage management*} {*storage management (user-defined)*} {*user-defined heap management*} {*heap management (user-defined)*} Each access-to-object type has an associated storage pool. The storage allocated by an allocator comes from the pool; instances of Unchecked_Deallocation return storage to the pool. Several access types can share the same pool.]

2 [A storage pool is a variable of a type in the class rooted at Root_Storage_Pool, which is an abstract limited controlled type. By default, the implementation chooses a *standard storage pool* for each access type. The user may define new pool types, and may override the choice of pool for an access type by specifying Storage_Pool for the type.]

2.a **Ramification:** By default, the implementation might choose to have a single global storage pool, which is used (by default) by all access types, which might mean that storage is reclaimed automatically only upon partition completion. Alternatively, it might choose to create a new pool at each accessibility level, which might mean that storage is reclaimed for an access type when leaving the appropriate scope. Other schemes are possible.

Legality Rules

3 If Storage_Pool is specified for a given access type, Storage_Size shall not be specified for it.

3.a **Reason:** The Storage_Pool determines the Storage_Size; hence it would not make sense to specify both. Note that this rule is simplified by the fact that the aspects in question cannot be specified for derived types, nor for non-first

subtypes, so we don't have to worry about whether, say, Storage_Pool on a derived type overrides Storage_Size on the parent type. For the same reason, ''specified'' means the same thing as ''directly specified'' here.

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 4

```
with Ada.Finalization;                                                          5
with System.Storage_Elements;
package System.Storage_Pools is
    pragma Preelaborate(System.Storage_Pools);
    type Root_Storage_Pool is                                                   6
        abstract new Ada.Finalization.Limited_Controlled with private;
    procedure Allocate(                                                         7
      Pool : in out Root_Storage_Pool;
      Storage_Address : out Address;
      Size_In_Storage_Elements : in Storage_Elements.Storage_Count;
      Alignment : in Storage_Elements.Storage_Count) is abstract;
    procedure Deallocate(                                                       8
      Pool : in out Root_Storage_Pool;
      Storage_Address : in Address;
      Size_In_Storage_Elements : in Storage_Elements.Storage_Count;
      Alignment : in Storage_Elements.Storage_Count) is abstract;
    function Storage_Size(Pool : Root_Storage_Pool)                             9
        return Storage_Elements.Storage_Count is abstract;
private                                                                         10
   ... -- not specified by the language
end System.Storage_Pools;
```

Reason: The Alignment parameter is provided to Deallocate because some allocation strategies require it. If it is not needed, it can be ignored. 10.a

{*storage pool type*} {*pool type*} A *storage pool type* (or *pool type*) is a descendant of Root_Storage_Pool. 11
{*storage pool element*} {*pool element*} {*element (of a storage pool)*} The *elements* of a storage pool are the objects allocated in the pool by allocators.

Discussion: In most cases, an element corresponds to a single memory block allocated by Allocate. However, in some cases the implementation may choose to associate more than one memory block with a given pool element. 11.a

For every access subtype S, the following attributes are defined: 12

S'Storage_Pool — Denotes the storage pool of the type of S. The type of this attribute is Root_Storage_Pool'Class. 13

S'Storage_Size — Yields the result of calling Storage_Size(S'Storage_Pool)[, which is intended to be a measure of the number of storage elements reserved for the pool.] The type of this attribute is *universal_integer*. 14

Ramification: Storage_Size is also defined for task subtypes and objects — see 13.3. 14.a

Storage_Size is not a measure of how much un-allocated space is left in the pool. That is, it includes both allocated and unallocated space. Implementations and users may provide a Storage_Available function for their pools, if so desired. 14.b

{*specifiable* [of Storage_Size for a non-derived access-to-object type]} {*specifiable* [of Storage_Pool for a non-derived access-to-object type]} {*Storage_Pool clause*} {*Storage_Size clause*} Storage_Size or Storage_Pool may be specified for a non-derived access-to-object type via an attribute_definition_clause; the name in a Storage_Pool clause shall denote a variable. 15

An allocator of type T allocates storage from T's storage pool. If the storage pool is a user-defined object, then the storage is allocated by calling Allocate, passing T'Storage_Pool as the Pool parameter. The Size_In_Storage_Elements parameter indicates the number of storage elements to be allocated, and is no more than D'Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements, where D is the designated subtype. The Alignment 16

parameter is D'Alignment. {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} The result returned in the Storage_Address parameter is used by the allocator as the address of the allocated storage, which is a contiguous block of memory of Size_In_Storage_Elements storage elements. [Any exception propagated by Allocate is propagated by the allocator.]

16.a **Ramification:** If the implementation chooses to represent the designated subtype in multiple pieces, one allocator evaluation might result in more than one call upon Allocate. In any case, allocators for the access type obtain all the required storage for an object of the designated type by calling the specified Allocate procedure.

16.b Note that the implementation does not turn other exceptions into Storage_Error.

17 {*standard storage pool*} If Storage_Pool is not specified for a type defined by an access_to_object_definition, then the implementation chooses a standard storage pool for it in an implementation-defined manner. {*Storage_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Storage_Check)*} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} In this case, the exception Storage_Error is raised by an allocator if there is not enough storage. It is implementation defined whether or not the implementation provides user-accessible names for the standard pool type(s).

17.a **Implementation defined:** The manner of choosing a storage pool for an access type when Storage_Pool is not specified for the type.

17.b **Implementation defined:** Whether or not the implementation provides user-accessible names for the standard pool type(s).

17.c **Ramification:** An anonymous access type has no pool. An access-to-object type defined by a derived_type_definition inherits its pool from its parent type, so all access-to-object types in the same derivation class share the same pool. Hence the ''defined by an access_to_object_definition'' wording above.

17.d {*contiguous representation* [partial]} {*discontiguous representation* [partial]} There is no requirement that all storage pools be implemented using a contiguous block of memory (although each allocation returns a pointer to a contiguous block of memory).

18 If Storage_Size is specified for an access type, then the Storage_Size of this pool is at least that requested, and the storage for the pool is reclaimed when the master containing the declaration of the access type is left. {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the implementation cannot satisfy the request, Storage_Error is raised at the point of the attribute_definition_clause. If neither Storage_Pool nor Storage_Size are specified, then the meaning of Storage_Size is implementation defined.

18.a **Implementation defined:** The meaning of Storage_Size.

18.b **Ramification:** The Storage_Size function and attribute will return the actual size, rather than the requested size. Comments about rounding up, zero, and negative on task Storage_Size apply here, as well. See also AI-00557, AI-00558, and AI-00608.

18.c The expression in a Storage_Size clause need not be static.

18.d The reclamation happens after the master is finalized.

18.e **Implementation Note:** For a pool allocated on the stack, normal stack cut-back can accomplish the reclamation. For a library-level pool, normal partition termination actions can accomplish the reclamation.

19 If Storage_Pool is specified for an access type, then the specified pool is used.

20 {*unspecified* [partial]} The effect of calling Allocate and Deallocate for a standard storage pool directly (rather than implicitly via an allocator or an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation) is unspecified.

20.a **Ramification:** For example, an allocator might put the pool element on a finalization list. If the user directly Deallocates it, instead of calling an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation, then the implementation would probably try to finalize the object upon master completion, which would be bad news. Therefore, the implementation should define such situations as erroneous.

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} If Storage_Pool is specified for an access type, then if Allocate can satisfy the request, it should allocate a contiguous block of memory, and return the address of the first storage element in Storage_Address. The block should contain Size_In_Storage_Elements storage elements, and should be aligned according to Alignment. The allocated storage should not be used for any other purpose while the pool element remains in existence. If the request cannot be satisfied, then Allocate should propagate an exception [(such as Storage_Error)]. If Allocate behaves in any other manner, then the program execution is erroneous. 21

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} An implementation shall document the set of values that a user-defined Allocate procedure needs to accept for the Alignment parameter. An implementation shall document how the standard storage pool is chosen, and how storage is allocated by standard storage pools. 22

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of storage pools. 22.a

Implementation Advice

An implementation should document any cases in which it dynamically allocates heap storage for a purpose other than the evaluation of an allocator. 23

Reason: This is ''Implementation Advice'' because the term ''heap storage'' is not formally definable; therefore, it is not testable whether the implementation obeys this advice. 23.a

A default (implementation-provided) storage pool for an access-to-constant type should not have overhead to support deallocation of individual objects. 24

Ramification: Unchecked_Deallocation is not defined for such types. If the access-to-constant type is library-level, then no deallocation (other than at partition completion) will ever be necessary, so if the size needed by an allocator of the type is known at link-time, then the allocation should be performed statically. If, in addition, the initial value of the designated object is known at compile time, the object can be allocated to read-only memory. 24.a

Implementation Note: If the Storage_Size for an access type is specified, the storage pool should consist of a contiguous block of memory, possibly allocated on the stack. The pool should contain approximately this number of storage elements. These storage elements should be reserved at the place of the Storage_Size clause, so that allocators cannot raise Storage_Error due to running out of pool space until the appropriate number of storage elements has been used up. This approximate (possibly rounded-up) value should be used as a maximum; the implementation should not increase the size of the pool on the fly. If the Storage_Size for an access type is specified as zero, then the pool should not take up any storage space, and any allocator for the type should raise Storage_Error. 24.b

Ramification: Note that most of this is approximate, and so cannot be (portably) tested. That's why we make it an Implementation Note. There is no particular number of allocations that is guaranteed to succeed, and there is no particular number of allocations that is guaranteed to fail. 24.c

A storage pool for an anonymous access type should be created at the point of an allocator for the type, and be reclaimed when the designated object becomes inaccessible. 25

Implementation Note: Normally the "storage pool" for an anonymous access type would not exist as a separate entity. Instead, the designated object of the allocator would be allocated, in the case of an access parameter, as a local aliased variable at the call site, and in the case of an access discriminant, contiguous with the object containing the discriminant. This is similar to the way storage for aggregates is typically managed. 25.a

NOTES

23 A user-defined storage pool type can be obtained by extending the Root_Storage_Pool type, and overriding the primitive subprograms Allocate, Deallocate, and Storage_Size. A user-defined storage pool can then be obtained by declaring an object of the type extension. The user can override Initialize and Finalize if there is any need for non-trivial initialization and finalization for a user-defined pool type. For example, Finalize might reclaim blocks of storage that are allocated separately from the pool object itself. 26

24 The writer of the user-defined allocation and deallocation procedures, and users of allocators for the associated access type, are responsible for dealing with any interactions with tasking. In particular: 27

- If the allocators are used in different tasks, they require mutual exclusion.
- If they are used inside protected objects, they cannot block.
- If they are used by interrupt handlers (see C.3, ‘‘Interrupt Support’’), the mutual exclusion mechanism has to work properly in that context.

25 The primitives Allocate, Deallocate, and Storage_Size are declared as abstract (see 3.9.3), and therefore they have to be overridden when a new (non-abstract) storage pool type is declared.

Ramification: Note that the Storage_Pool attribute denotes an object, rather than a value, which is somewhat unusual for attributes.

The calls to Allocate, Deallocate, and Storage_Size are dispatching calls — this follows from the fact that the actual parameter for Pool is T’Storage_Pool, which is of type Root_Storage_Pool’Class. In many cases (including all cases in which Storage_Pool is not specified), the compiler can determine the tag statically. However, it is possible to construct cases where it cannot.

All access types in the same derivation class share the same pool, whether implementation defined or user defined. This is necessary because we allow type conversions among them (even if they are pool-specific), and we want pool-specific access values to always designate an element of the right pool.

Implementation Note: If an access type has a standard storage pool, then the implementation doesn’t actually have to follow the pool interface described here, since this would be semantically invisible. For example, the allocator could conceivably be implemented with inline code.

Examples

To associate an access type with a storage pool object, the user first declares a pool object of some type derived from Root_Storage_Pool. Then, the user defines its Storage_Pool attribute, as follows:

```
Pool_Object : Some_Storage_Pool_Type;
type T is access Designated;
for T'Storage_Pool use Pool_Object;
```

Another access type may be added to an existing storage pool, via:

```
for T2'Storage_Pool use T'Storage_Pool;
```

The semantics of this is implementation defined for a standard storage pool.

Reason: For example, the implementation is allowed to choose a storage pool for T that takes advantage of the fact that T is of a certain size. If T2 is not of that size, then the above will probably not work.

As usual, a derivative of Root_Storage_Pool may define additional operations. For example, presuming that Mark_Release_Pool_Type has two additional operations, Mark and Release, the following is a possible use:

```
type Mark_Release_Pool_Type
   (Pool_Size : Storage_Elements.Storage_Count;
    Block_Size : Storage_Elements.Storage_Count)
        is new Root_Storage_Pool with limited private;
...

MR_Pool : Mark_Release_Pool_Type (Pool_Size => 2000,
                                  Block_Size => 100);
type Acc is access ...;
for Acc'Storage_Pool use MR_Pool;
...
Mark(MR_Pool);
... -- Allocate objects using ‘‘new Designated(...)’’.
Release(MR_Pool); -- Reclaim the storage.
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} User-defined storage pools are new to Ada 9X. 43.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Ada 83 had a concept called a ‘‘collection,’’ which is similar to what we call a storage pool. All access types in the same derivation class shared the same collection. In Ada 9X, all access types in the same derivation class share the same storage pool, but other (unrelated) access types can also share the same storage pool, either by default, or as specified by the user. A collection was an amorphous collection of objects; a storage pool is a more concrete concept — hence the different name. 43.b

RM83 states the erroneousness of reading or updating deallocated objects incorrectly by missing various cases. 43.c

13.11.1 The Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements Attribute

[The Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements attribute is useful in writing user-defined pool types.] 1

Static Semantics

For every subtype S, the following attribute is defined: 2

S’Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements 3

Denotes the maximum value for Size_In_Storage_Elements that will be requested via Allocate for an access type whose designated subtype is S. The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*.

Ramification: If S is an unconstrained array subtype, or an unconstrained subtype with discriminants, S’Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements might be very large. 3.a

13.11.2 Unchecked Storage Deallocation

[{*unchecked storage deallocation*} {*storage deallocation (unchecked)*} {*deallocation of storage*} {*reclamation of storage*} {*freeing storage*} Unchecked storage deallocation of an object designated by a value of an access type is achieved by a call to an instance of the generic procedure Unchecked_Deallocation.] 1

Static Semantics

The following language-defined generic library procedure exists: 2

```
generic                                                                    3
   type Object(<>) is limited private;
   type Name   is access  Object;
procedure Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation(X : in out Name);
pragma Convention(Intrinsic, Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation);
pragma Preelaborate(Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation);
```

Reason: The pragma Convention implies that the attribute Access is not allowed for instances of Unchecked_Deallocation. 3.a

Dynamic Semantics

Given an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation declared as follows: 4

```
procedure Free is                                                          5
    new Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation(
        object_subtype_name, access_to_variable_subtype_name);
```

Procedure Free has the following effect: 6

1. After executing Free(X), the value of X is **null**. 7

2. Free(X), when X is already equal to **null**, has no effect. 8

3. Free(X), when X is not equal to **null** first performs finalization, as described in 7.6. It then deallocates the storage occupied by the object designated by X. If the storage pool is a user-defined object, then the storage is deallocated by calling Deallocate, passing *access_to_variable_subtype_name*’Storage_Pool as the Pool parameter. Storage_Address is 9

the value returned in the Storage_Address parameter of the corresponding Allocate call. Size_In_Storage_Elements and Alignment are the same values passed to the corresponding Allocate call. There is one exception: if the object being freed contains tasks, the object might not be deallocated.

9.a **Ramification:** Free calls only the specified Deallocate procedure to do deallocation. For any given object deallocation, the number of calls to Free (usually one) will be equal to the number of Allocate calls it took to allocate the object. We do not define the relative order of multiple calls used to deallocate the same object — that is, if the allocator allocated two pieces *x* and *y*, then Free might deallocate *x* and then *y*, or it might deallocate *y* and then *x*.

10 {*freed: see nonexistent*} {*nonexistent*} After Free(X), the object designated by X, and any subcomponents thereof, no longer exist; their storage can be reused for other purposes.

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

11 {*bounded error*} It is a bounded error to free a discriminated, unterminated task object. The possible consequences are:

11.a **Reason:** This is an error because the task might refer to its discriminants, and the discriminants might be deallocated by freeing the task object.

12 • No exception is raised.

13 • {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error or Tasking_Error is raised at the point of the deallocation.

14 • {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error or Tasking_Error is raised in the task the next time it references any of the discriminants.

14.a **Implementation Note:** This last case presumes an implementation where the task references its discriminants indirectly, and the pointer is nulled out when the task object is deallocated.

15 In the first two cases, the storage for the discriminants (and for any enclosing object if it is designated by an access discriminant of the task) is not reclaimed prior to task termination.

15.a **Ramification:** The storage might never be reclaimed.

Erroneous Execution

16 {*erroneous execution*} {*nonexistent*} Evaluating a name that denotes a nonexistent object is erroneous. The execution of a call to an instance of Unchecked_Deallocation is erroneous if the object was created other than by an allocator for an access type whose pool is Name'Storage_Pool.

Implementation Advice

17 For a standard storage pool, Free should actually reclaim the storage.

17.a **Ramification:** This is not a testable property, since we do not how much storage is used by a given pool element, nor whether fragmentation can occur.

NOTES

18 26 The rules here that refer to Free apply to any instance of Unchecked_Deallocation.

19 27 Unchecked_Deallocation cannot be instantiated for an access-to-constant type. This is implied by the rules of 12.5.4.

13.11.3 Pragma Controlled

1 [Pragma Controlled is used to prevent any automatic reclamation of storage (garbage collection) for the objects created by allocators of a given access type.]

Syntax

The form of a pragma Controlled is as follows: 2

pragma Controlled(*first_subtype*_local_name); 3

Discussion: Not to be confused with type Finalization.Controlled. 3.a

Legality Rules

The *first_subtype*_local_name of a pragma Controlled shall denote a non-derived access subtype. 4

Static Semantics

{*representation pragma* [Controlled]} {*pragma, representation* [Controlled]} A pragma Controlled is a representation pragma {*aspect of representation* [controlled]} {*controlled (aspect of representation)*} that specifies the *controlled* aspect of representation. 5

{*garbage collection*} *Garbage collection* is a process that automatically reclaims storage, or moves objects to a different address, while the objects still exist. 6

Ramification: Storage reclamation upon leaving a master is not considered garbage collection. 6.a

Note that garbage collection includes compaction of a pool (‘‘moved to a different Address’’), even if storage reclamation is not done. 6.b

Reason: Programs that will be damaged by automatic storage reclamation are just as likely to be damaged by having objects moved to different locations in memory. A pragma Controlled should turn off both flavors of garbage collection. 6.c

Implementation Note: If garbage collection reclaims the storage of a controlled object, it should first finalize it. Finalization is not done when moving an object; any self-relative pointers will have to be updated by the garbage collector. If an implementation provides garbage collection for a storage pool containing controlled objects (see 7.6), then it should provide a means for deferring garbage collection of those controlled objects. 6.d

Reason: This allows the manager of a resource released by a Finalize operation to defer garbage collection during its critical regions; it is up to the author of the Finalize operation to do so. Garbage collection, at least in some systems, can happen asynchronously with respect to normal user code. Note that it is not enough to defer garbage collection during Initialize, Adjust, and Finalize, because the resource in question might be used in other situations as well. For example: 6.e

```
with Ada.Finalization;                                                  6.f
package P is

    type My_Controlled is                                               6.g
        new Ada.Finalization.Limited_Controlled with private;
    procedure Finalize(Object : in out My_Controlled);
    type My_Controlled_Access is access My_Controlled;

    procedure Non_Reentrant;                                            6.h

private                                                                 6.i
    ...
end P;

package body P is                                                       6.j
    X : Integer := 0;
    A : array(Integer range 1..10) of Integer;

    procedure Non_Reentrant is                                          6.k
    begin
        X := X + 1;
        -- If the system decides to do a garbage collection here,
        -- then we're in trouble, because it will call Finalize on
        -- the collected objects; we essentially have two threads
        -- of control erroneously accessing shared variables.
        -- The garbage collector behaves like a separate thread
        -- of control, even though the user hasn't declared
        -- any tasks.
        A(X) := ...;
    end Non_Reentrant;
```

6.l
```
        procedure Finalize(Object : in out My_Controlled) is
        begin
            Non_Reentrant;
        end Finalize;
    end P;
```

6.m
```
    with P; use P;
    procedure Main is
    begin
        ... new My_Controlled ... -- allocate some objects
        ...  forget the pointers to some of them, so they become garbage
        Non_Reentrant;
    end Main;
```

6.n It is the user's responsibility to protect against this sort of thing, and the implementation's responsibility to provide the necessary operations.

6.o We do not give these operations names, nor explain their exact semantics, because different implementations of garbage collection might have different needs, and because garbage collection is not supported by most Ada implementations, so portability is not important here. Another reason not to turn off garbage collection during each entire Finalize operation is that it would create a serial bottleneck; it might be only part of the Finalize operation that conflicts with some other resource. It is the intention that the mechanisms provided be finer-grained than pragma Controlled.

7 If a pragma Controlled is specified for an access type with a standard storage pool, then garbage collection is not performed for objects in that pool.

7.a **Ramification:** If Controlled is not specified, the implementation may, but need not, perform garbage collection. If Storage_Pool is specified, then a pragma Controlled for that type is ignored.

7.b **Reason:** Controlled means that implementation-provided garbage collection is turned off; if the Storage_Pool is specified, the pool controls whether garbage collection is done.

Implementation Permissions

8 An implementation need not support garbage collection, in which case, a pragma Controlled has no effect.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

8.a Ada 83 used the term ''automatic storage reclamation'' to refer to what is known traditionally as ''garbage collection''. Because of the existence of storage pools (see 13.11), we need to distinguish this from the storage reclamation that might happen upon leaving a master. Therefore, we now use the term ''garbage collection'' in its normal computer-science sense. This has the additional advantage of making our terminology more accessible to people outside the Ada world.

13.12 Pragma Restrictions

1 [A pragma Restrictions expresses the user's intent to abide by certain restrictions. This may facilitate the construction of simpler run-time environments.]

Syntax

2 The form of a pragma Restrictions is as follows:

3 **pragma** Restrictions(restriction{, restriction});

4 restriction ::= *restriction*_identifier
| *restriction_parameter*_identifier => expression

Name Resolution Rules

5 {*expected type* [restriction parameter expression]} Unless otherwise specified for a particular restriction, the expression is expected to be of any integer type.

Legality Rules

Unless otherwise specified for a particular restriction, the expression shall be static, and its value shall be nonnegative. 6

Static Semantics

The set of restrictions is implementation defined. 7

Implementation defined: The set of restrictions allowed in a pragma Restrictions. 7.a

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Restrictions]} {*pragma, configuration* [Restrictions]} A pragma Restrictions is a configuration pragma; unless otherwise specified for a particular restriction, a partition shall obey the restriction if a pragma Restrictions applies to any compilation unit included in the partition. 8

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may place limitations on the values of the expression that are supported, and limitations on the supported combinations of restrictions. The consequences of violating such limitations are implementation defined. 9

Implementation defined: The consequences of violating limitations on Restrictions pragmas. 9.a

Ramification: Such limitations may be enforced at compile time or at run time. Alternatively, the implementation is allowed to declare violations of the restrictions to be erroneous, and not enforce them at all. 9.b

NOTES

28 Restrictions intended to facilitate the construction of efficient tasking run-time systems are defined in D.7. Safety- and security-related restrictions are defined in H.4. 10

29 An implementation has to enforce the restrictions in cases where enforcement is required, even if it chooses not to take advantage of the restrictions in terms of efficiency. 11

Discussion: It is not the intent that an implementation will support a different run-time system for every possible combination of restrictions. An implementation might support only two run-time systems, and document a set of restrictions that is sufficient to allow use of the more efficient and safe one. 11.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Pragma Restrictions is new to Ada 9X. 11.b

13.13 Streams

{*stream*} {*stream type*} A *stream* is a sequence of elements comprising values from possibly different types and allowing sequential access to these values. A *stream type* is a type in the class whose root type is Streams.Root_Stream_Type. A stream type may be implemented in various ways, such as an external sequential file, an internal buffer, or a network channel. 1

Discussion: A stream element will often be the same size as a storage element, but that is not required. 1.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Streams are new in Ada 9X. 1.b

13.13.1 The Package Streams

Static Semantics

The abstract type Root_Stream_Type is the root type of the class of stream types. The types in this class represent different kinds of streams. A new stream type is defined by extending the root type (or some other stream type), overriding the Read and Write operations, and optionally defining additional primitive subprograms, according to the requirements of the particular kind of stream. The predefined stream- 1

oriented attributes like T'Read and T'Write make dispatching calls on the Read and Write procedures of the Root_Stream_Type. (User-defined T'Read and T'Write attributes can also make such calls, or can call the Read and Write attributes of other types.)

```
package Ada.Streams is
    pragma Pure(Streams){unpolluted} ;
    type Root_Stream_Type is abstract tagged limited private;
    type Stream_Element is mod implementation-defined;
    type Stream_Element_Offset is range implementation-defined;
    subtype Stream_Element_Count is
        Stream_Element_Offset range 0..Stream_Element_Offset'Last;
    type Stream_Element_Array is
        array(Stream_Element_Offset range <>) of Stream_Element;
    procedure Read(
      Stream : in out Root_Stream_Type;
      Item   : out Stream_Element_Array;
      Last   : out Stream_Element_Offset) is abstract;
    procedure Write(
      Stream : in out Root_Stream_Type;
      Item   : in Stream_Element_Array) is abstract;
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Streams;
```

The Read operation transfers Item'Length stream elements from the specified stream to fill the array Item. The index of the last stream element transferred is returned in Last. Last is less than Item'Last only if the end of the stream is reached.

The Write operation appends Item to the specified stream.

NOTES

30 See A.12.1, ''The Package Streams.Stream_IO'' for an example of extending type Root_Stream_Type.

13.13.2 Stream-Oriented Attributes

The Write, Read, Output, and Input attributes convert values to a stream of elements and reconstruct values from a stream.

Static Semantics

For every subtype S of a specific type *T*, the following attributes are defined.

S'Write — S'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Write(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : in T)
```

S'Write writes the value of *Item* to *Stream*.

S'Read — S'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Read(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : out T)
```

S'Read reads the value of *Item* from *Stream*.

For elementary types, the representation in terms of stream elements is implementation defined. For composite types, the Write or Read attribute for each component is called in a canonical order. The canonical order of components is last dimension varying fastest for an array, and positional aggregate

order for a record. Bounds are not included in the stream if *T* is an array type. If *T* is a discriminated type, discriminants are included only if they have defaults. If *T* is a tagged type, the tag is not included.

Implementation defined: The representation used by the Read and Write attributes of elementary types in terms of stream elements. 9.a

Reason: A discriminant with a default value is treated simply as a component of the object. On the other hand, an array bound or a discriminant without a default value, is treated as ''descriptor'' or ''dope'' that must be provided in order to create the object and thus is logically separate from the regular components. Such ''descriptor'' data are written by 'Output and produced as part of the delivered result by the 'Input function, but they are not written by 'Write nor read by 'Read. A tag is like a discriminant without a default. 9.b

Ramification: For a composite object, the subprogram denoted by the Write or Read attribute of each component is called, whether it is the default or is user-specified. 9.c

For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class: 10

S'Class'Write S'Class'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification: 11

```
procedure S'Class'Write(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : in T'Class)
```
12

Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Write attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item. 13

S'Class'Read S'Class'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification: 14

```
procedure S'Class'Read(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : out T'Class)
```
15

Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Read attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item. 16

Reason: It is necessary to have class-wide versions of Read and Write in order to avoid generic contract model violations; in a generic, we don't necessarily know at compile time whether a given type is specific or class-wide. 16.a

Implementation Advice

If a stream element is the same size as a storage element, then the normal in-memory representation should be used by Read and Write for scalar objects. Otherwise, Read and Write should use the smallest number of stream elements needed to represent all values in the base range of the scalar type. 17

Static Semantics

For every subtype S of a specific type *T*, the following attributes are defined. 18

S'Output S'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification: 19

```
procedure S'Output(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : in T)
```
20

S'Output writes the value of *Item* to *Stream*, including any bounds or discriminants. 21

Ramification: Note that the bounds are included even for an array type whose first subtype is constrained. 21.a

S'Input S'Input denotes a function with the following specification: 22

```
function S'Input(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class)
   return T
```
23

S'Input reads and returns one value from *Stream*, using any bounds or discriminants written by a corresponding S'Output to determine how much to read. 24

Unless overridden by an attribute_definition_clause, these subprograms execute as follows: 25

- If *T* is an array type, S'Output first writes the bounds, and S'Input first reads the bounds. If *T* has discriminants without defaults, S'Output first writes the discriminants (using S'Write for each), and S'Input first reads the discriminants (using S'Read for each).
- S'Output then calls S'Write to write the value of *Item* to the stream. S'Input then creates an object (with the bounds or discriminants, if any, taken from the stream), initializes it with S'Read, and returns the value of the object.

For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class:

S'Class'Output — S'Class'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Class'Output(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : in T'Class)
```

First writes the external tag of *Item* to *Stream* (by calling String'Output(Tags.External_Tag(*Item*'Tag) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Output attribute of the specific type identified by the tag.

S'Class'Input — S'Class'Input denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Class'Input(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class)
   return T'Class
```

First reads the external tag from *Stream* and determines the corresponding internal tag (by calling Tags.Internal_Tag(String'Input(*Stream*)) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Input attribute of the specific type identified by the internal tag; returns that result.

{*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} In the default implementation of Read and Input for a composite type, for each scalar component that is a discriminant or whose component_declaration includes a default_expression, a check is made that the value returned by Read for the component belongs to its subtype. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. For other scalar components, no check is made. For each component that is of an access type, if the implementation can detect that the value returned by Read for the component is not a value of its subtype, Constraint_Error is raised. If the value is not a value of its subtype and this error is not detected, the component has an abnormal value, and erroneous execution can result (see 13.9.1).

{*specifiable* [of Read for a type]} {*specifiable* [of Write for a type]} {*specifiable* [of Input for a type]} {*specifiable* [of Output for a type]} {*Read clause*} {*Write clause*} {*Input clause*} {*Output clause*} The stream-oriented attributes may be specified for any type via an attribute_definition_clause. All nonlimited types have default implementations for these operations. An attribute_reference for one of these attributes is illegal if the type is limited, unless the attribute has been specified by an attribute_definition_clause. For an attribute_definition_clause specifying one of these attributes, the subtype of the Item parameter shall be the base subtype if scalar, and the first subtype otherwise. The same rule applies to the result of the Input function.

Reason: This is to simplify implementation.

NOTES

31 For a definite subtype S of a type *T*, only *T*'Write and *T*'Read are needed to pass an arbitrary value of the subtype through a stream. For an indefinite subtype S of a type *T*, *T*'Output and *T*'Input will normally be needed, since *T*'Write and *T*'Read do not pass bounds, discriminants, or tags.

32 User-specified attributes of S'Class are not inherited by other class-wide types descended from S.

Examples

Example of user-defined Write attribute: 39

```
procedure My_Write(                                                          40
  Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class; Item : My_Integer'Base);
for My_Integer'Write use My_Write;
```

Discussion: *Example of network input/output using input output attributes:* 40.a

```
with Ada.Streams; use Ada.Streams;                                           40.b
generic
    type Msg_Type(<>) is private;
package Network_IO is
    -- Connect/Disconnect are used to establish the stream
    procedure Connect(...);
    procedure Disconnect(...);

    -- Send/Receive transfer messages across the network                     40.c
    procedure Send(X : in Msg_Type);
    function Receive return Msg_Type;
private
    type Network_Stream is new Root_Stream_Type with ...
    procedure Read(...);   -- define Read/Write for Network_Stream
    procedure Write(...);
end Network_IO;

with Ada.Streams; use Ada.Streams;                                           40.d
package body Network_IO is
    Current_Stream : aliased Network_Stream;
    . . .
    procedure Connect(...) is ...;
    procedure Disconnect(...) is ...;

    procedure Send(X : in Msg_Type) is                                       40.e
    begin
        Msg_Type'Output(Current_Stream'Access, X);
    end Send;

    function Receive return Msg_Type is                                      40.f
    begin
        return Msg_Type'Input(Current_Stream'Access);
    end Receive;
end Network_IO;
```

13.14 Freezing Rules

[This clause defines a place in the program text where each declared entity becomes ''frozen.'' A use of an entity, such as a reference to it by name, or (for a type) an expression of the type, causes freezing of the entity in some contexts, as described below. The Legality Rules forbid certain kinds of uses of an entity in the region of text where it is frozen.] 1

Reason: This concept has two purposes: a compile-time one and a run-time one. 1.a

The compile-time purpose of the freezing rules comes from the fact that the evaluation of static expressions depends on overload resolution, and overload resolution sometimes depends on the value of a static expression. (The dependence of static evaluation upon overload resolution is obvious. The dependence in the other direction is more subtle. There are three rules that require static expressions in contexts that can appear in declarative places: The expression in an attribute_designator shall be static. In a record aggregate, variant-controlling discriminants shall be static. In an array aggregate with more than one named association, the choices shall be static. The compiler needs to know the value of these expressions in order to perform overload resolution and legality checking.) We wish to allow a compiler to evaluate static expressions when it sees them in a single pass over the compilation_unit. The freezing rules ensure that. 1.b

The run-time purpose of the freezing rules is called the ''linear elaboration model.'' This means that declarations are elaborated in the order in which they appear in the program text, and later elaborations can depend on the results of earlier ones. The elaboration of the declarations of certain entities requires run-time information about the implementation details of other entities. The freezing rules ensure that this information has been calculated by the time it is used. For example, suppose the initial value of a constant is the result of a function call that takes a parameter of type *T*. In order to pass that parameter, the size of type *T* has to be known. If *T* is composite, that size might be known only at run time. 1.c

1.d (Note that in these discussions, words like ‘‘before’’ and ‘‘after’’ generally refer to places in the program text, as opposed to times at run time.)

1.e **Discussion:** The ‘‘implementation details’’ we’re talking about above are:

1.f
- For a tagged type, the implementations of all the primitive subprograms of the type — that is (in the canonical implementation model), the contents of the type descriptor, which contains pointers to the code for each primitive subprogram.

1.g
- For a type, the full type declaration of any parts (including the type itself) that are private.

1.h
- For a deferred constant, the full constant declaration, which gives the constant’s value. (Since this information necessarily comes after the constant’s type and subtype are fully known, there’s no need to worry about its type or subtype.)

1.i
- For any entity, representation information specified by the user via representation items. Most representation items are for types or subtypes; however, various other kinds of entities, such as objects and subprograms, are possible.

1.j Similar issues arise for incomplete types. However, we do not use freezing there; incomplete types have different, more severe, restrictions. Similar issues also arise for subprograms, protected operations, tasks and generic units. However, we do not use freezing there either; 3.11 prevents problems with run-time Elaboration_Checks.

Language Design Principles

1.k An evaluable construct should freeze anything that’s needed to evaluate it.

1.l However, if the construct is not evaluated where it appears, let it cause freezing later, when it is evaluated. This is the case for default_expressions and default_names. (Formal parameters, generic formal parameters, and components can have default_expressions or default_names.)

1.m The compiler should be allowed to evaluate static expressions without knowledge of their context. (I.e. there should not be any special rules for static expressions that happen to occur in a context that requires a static expression.)

1.n Compilers should be allowed to evaluate static expressions (and record the results) using the run-time representation of the type. For example, suppose Color’Pos(Red) = 1, but the internal code for Red is 37. If the value of a static expression is Red, some compilers might store 1 in their symbol table, and other compilers might store 37. Either compiler design should be feasible.

1.o Compilers should never be required to detect erroneousness or exceptions at compile time (although it’s very nice if they do). This implies that we should not require code-generation for a nonstatic expression of type *T* too early, even if we can prove that that expression will be erroneous, or will raise an exception.

1.p Here’s an example (modified from AI-00039, Example 3):

1.q
```
type T is
    record
        ...
    end record;
function F return T;
function G(X : T) return Boolean;
Y : Boolean := G(F); -- doesn't force T in Ada 83
for T use
    record
        ...
    end record;
```

1.r AI-00039 says this is legal. Of course, it raises Program_Error because the function bodies aren’t elaborated yet. A one-pass compiler has to generate code for an expression of type T before it knows the representation of T. Here’s a similar example, which AI-00039 also says is legal:

```
package P is                                                    1.s
    type T is private;
    function F return T;
    function G(X : T) return Boolean;
    Y : Boolean := G(F); -- doesn't force T in Ada 83
private
    type T is
        record
            ...
        end record;
end P;
```

If T's size were dynamic, that size would be stored in some compiler-generated dope; this dope would be initialized at the place of the full type declaration. However, the generated code for the function calls would most likely allocate a temp of the size specified by the dope *before* checking for Program_Error. That dope would contain uninitialized junk, resulting in disaster. To avoid doing that, the compiler would have to determine, at compile time, that the expression will raise Program_Error. 1.t

This is silly. If we're going to require compilers to detect the exception at compile time, we might as well formulate the rule as a legality rule. 1.u

Compilers should not be required to generate code to load the value of a variable before the address of the variable has been determined. 1.v

After an entity has been frozen, no further requirements may be placed on its representation (such as by a representation item or a full_type_declaration). 1.w

{*freezing (entity)* [distributed]} {*freezing points (entity)*} The *freezing* of an entity occurs at one or more places (*freezing points*) in the program text where the representation for the entity has to be fully determined. Each entity is frozen from its first freezing point to the end of the program text (given the ordering of compilation units defined in 10.1.4). 2

Ramification: The ''representation'' for a subprogram includes its calling convention and means for referencing the subprogram body, either a ''link-name'' or specified address. It does not include the code for the subprogram body itself, nor its address if a link-name is used to reference the body. 2.a

{*freezing (entity caused by the end of an enclosing construct)*} The end of a declarative_part, protected_body, or a declaration of a library package or generic library package, causes *freezing* of each entity declared within it, except for incomplete types. {*freezing (entity caused by a body)*} A noninstance body causes freezing of each entity declared before it within the same declarative_part. 3

Discussion: This is worded carefully to handle nested packages and private types. Entities declared in a nested package_specification will be frozen by some containing construct. 3.a

An incomplete type declared in the private part of a library package_specification can be completed in the body. 3.b

Ramification: The part about bodies does not say *immediately* within. A renaming-as-body does not have this property. Nor does a pragma Import. 3.c

Reason: The reason bodies cause freezing is because we want proper_bodies and body_stubs to be interchangeable — one should be able to move a proper_body to a subunit, and vice-versa, without changing the semantics. Clearly, anything that should cause freezing should do so even if it's inside a proper_body. However, if we make it a body_stub, then the compiler can't see that thing that should cause freezing. So we make body_stubs cause freezing, just in case they contain something that should cause freezing. But that means we need to do the same for proper_bodies. 3.d

Another reason for bodies to cause freezing, there could be an added implementation burden if an entity declared in an enclosing declarative_part is frozen within a nested body, since some compilers look at bodies after looking at the containing declarative_part. 3.e

{*freezing (entity caused by a construct)* [distributed]} A construct that (explicitly or implicitly) references an entity can cause the *freezing* of the entity, as defined by subsequent paragraphs. {*freezing* [by a constituent of a construct]} At the place where a construct causes freezing, each name, expression[, or range] within the construct causes freezing: 4

4.a **Ramification:** Note that in the sense of this paragraph, a subtype_mark ‘‘references’’ the denoted subtype, but not the type.

5 - {*freezing* [generic_instantiation]} The occurrence of a generic_instantiation causes freezing; also, if a parameter of the instantiation is defaulted, the default_expression or default_name for that parameter causes freezing.

6 - {*freezing* [object_declaration]} The occurrence of an object_declaration that has no corresponding completion causes freezing.

6.a **Ramification:** Note that this does not include a formal_object_declaration.

7 - {*freezing* [subtype caused by a record extension]} The declaration of a record extension causes freezing of the parent subtype.

7.a **Ramification:** This combined with another rule specifying that primitive subprogram declarations shall precede freezing ensures that all descendants of a tagged type implement all of its dispatching operations.

7.b The declaration of a private extension does not cause freezing. The freezing is deferred until the full type declaration, which will necessarily be for a record extension.

8 {*freezing* [by an expression]} A static expression causes freezing where it occurs. A nonstatic expression causes freezing where it occurs, unless the expression is part of a default_expression, a default_name, or a per-object expression of a component’s constraint, in which case, the freezing occurs later as part of another construct.

9 The following rules define which entities are frozen at the place where a construct causes freezing:

10 - {*freezing* [type caused by an expression]} At the place where an expression causes freezing, the type of the expression is frozen, unless the expression is an enumeration literal used as a discrete_choice of the array_aggregate of an enumeration_representation_clause.

10.a **Reason:** We considered making enumeration literals never cause freezing, which would be more upward compatible, but examples like the variant record aggregate (Discrim => Red, ...) caused us to change our mind. Furthermore, an enumeration literal is a static expression, so the implementation should be allowed to represent it using its representation.

10.b **Ramification:** The following pathological example was legal in Ada 83, but is illegal in Ada 9X:

10.c
```
package P1 is
    type T is private;
    package P2 is
        type Composite(D : Boolean) is
            record
                case D is
                    when False => Cf : Integer;
                    when True  => Ct : T;
                end case;
            end record;
    end P2;
    X : Boolean := P2."="( (False,1), (False,1) );
private
    type T is array(1..Func_Call) of Integer;
end;
```

10.d In Ada 9X, the declaration of X freezes Composite (because it contains an expression of that type), which in turn freezes T (even though Ct does not exist in this particular case). But type T is not completely defined at that point, violating the rule that a type shall be completely defined before it is frozen. In Ada 83, on the other hand, there is no occurrence of the name T, hence no forcing occurrence of T.

11 - {*freezing* [entity caused by a name]} At the place where a name causes freezing, the entity denoted by the name is frozen, unless the name is a prefix of an expanded name; {*freezing* [nominal subtype caused by a name]} at the place where an object name causes freezing, the nominal subtype associated with the name is frozen.

Ramification: This only matters in the presence of deferred constants or access types; an object_declaration other than a deferred_constant_declaration causes freezing of the nominal subtype, plus all component junk. 11.a

Implicit_dereferences are covered by expression. 11.b

- [{*freezing* [type caused by a range]} At the place where a range causes freezing, the type of the range is frozen.] 12

Proof: This is consequence of the facts that expressions freeze their type, and the Range attribute is defined to be equivalent to a pair of expressions separated by ''..''.} 12.a

- {*freezing* [designated subtype caused by an allocator]} At the place where an allocator causes freezing, the designated subtype of its type is frozen. If the type of the allocator is a derived type, then all ancestor types are also frozen. 13

Ramification: Allocators also freeze the named subtype, as a consequence of other rules. 13.a

The ancestor types are frozen to prevent things like this: 13.b

```
type Pool_Ptr is access System.Storage_Pools.Root_Storage_Pool'Class;
function F return Pool_Ptr;
```
13.c

```
package P is
    type A1 is access Boolean;
    type A2 is new A1;
    type A3 is new A2;
    X : A3 := new Boolean; -- Don't know what pool yet!
    for A1'Storage_Pool use F.all;
end P;
```
13.d

This is necessary because derived access types share their parent's pool. 13.e

- {*freezing* [subtypes of the profile of a callable entity]} At the place where a callable entity is frozen, each subtype of its profile is frozen. If the callable entity is a member of an entry family, the index subtype of the family is frozen. {*freezing* [function call]} At the place where a function call causes freezing, if a parameter of the call is defaulted, the default_expression for that parameter causes freezing. 14

Discussion: We don't worry about freezing for procedure calls or entry calls, since a body freezes everything that precedes it, and the end of a declarative part freezes everything in the declarative part. 14.a

- {*freezing* [type caused by the freezing of a subtype]} At the place where a subtype is frozen, its type is frozen. {*freezing* [constituents of a full type definition]} {*freezing* [first subtype caused by the freezing of the type]} At the place where a type is frozen, any expressions or names within the full type definition cause freezing; the first subtype, and any component subtypes, index subtypes, and parent subtype of the type are frozen as well. {*freezing* [class-wide type caused by the freezing of the specific type]} {*freezing* [specific type caused by the freezing of the class-wide type]} For a specific tagged type, the corresponding class-wide type is frozen as well. For a class-wide type, the corresponding specific type is frozen as well. 15

Ramification: Freezing a type needs to freeze its first subtype in order to preserve the property that the subtype-specific aspects of statically matching subtypes are the same. 15.a

Freezing an access type does not freeze its designated subtype. 15.b

Legality Rules

[The explicit declaration of a primitive subprogram of a tagged type shall occur before the type is frozen (see 3.9.2).] 16

Reason: This rule is needed because (1) we don't want people dispatching to things that haven't been declared yet, and (2) we want to allow tagged type descriptors to be static (allocated statically, and initialized to link-time-known symbols). Suppose T2 inherits primitive P from T1, and then overrides P. Suppose P is called *before* the declaration of the overriding P. What should it dispatch to? If the answer is the new P, we've violated the first principle above. If the answer is the old P, we've violated the second principle. (A call to the new one necessarily raises Program_Error, but that's beside the point.) 16.a

16.b Note that a call upon a dispatching operation of type *T* will freeze *T*.

16.c We considered applying this rule to all derived types, for uniformity. However, that would be upward incompatible, so we rejected the idea. As in Ada 83, for an untagged type, the above call upon P will call the old P (which is arguably confusing).

17 [A type shall be completely defined before it is frozen (see 3.11.1 and 7.3).]

18 [The completion of a deferred constant declaration shall occur before the constant is frozen (see 7.4).]

19 [A representation item that directly specifies an aspect of an entity shall appear before the entity is frozen (see 13.1).]

19.a **Discussion:** From RM83-13.1(7). The wording here forbids freezing within the representation_clause itself, which was not true of the Ada 83 wording. The wording of this rule is carefully written to work properly for type-related representation items. For example, an enumeration_representation_clause is illegal after the type is frozen, even though the _clause refers to the first subtype.

19.b **Proof:** The above Legality Rules are stated ''officially'' in the referenced clauses.

19.c **Discussion:** Here's an example that illustrates when freezing occurs in the presence of defaults:

19.d
```
type T is ...;
function F return T;
type R is
    record
        C : T := F;
        D : Boolean := F = F;
    end record;
X : R;
```

19.e Since the elaboration of R's declaration does not allocate component C, there is no need to freeze C's subtype at that place. Similarly, since the elaboration of R does not evaluate the default_expression ''F = F'', there is no need to freeze the types involved at that point. However, the declaration of X *does* need to freeze these things. Note that even if component C did not exist, the elaboration of the declaration of X would still need information about T — even though D is not of type T, its default_expression requires that information.

19.f **Ramification:** Although we define freezing in terms of the program text as a whole (i.e. after applying the rules of Section 10), the freezing rules actually have no effect beyond compilation unit boundaries.

19.g **Reason:** That is important, because Section 10 allows some implementation definedness in the order of things, and we don't want the freezing rules to be implementation defined.

19.h **Ramification:** These rules also have no effect in statements — they only apply within a single declarative_part, package_specification, task_definition, protected_definition, or protected_body.

19.i **Implementation Note:** An implementation may choose to generate code for default_expressions and default_names in line at the place of use. {*thunk*} Alternatively, an implementation may choose to generate thunks (subprograms implicitly generated by the compiler) for evaluation of defaults. Thunk generation cannot, in general, be done at the place of the declaration that includes the default. Instead, they can be generated at the first freezing point of the type(s) involved. (It is impossible to write a purely one-pass Ada compiler, for various reasons. This is one of them — the compiler needs to store a representation of defaults in its symbol table, and then walk that representation later, no earlier than the first freezing point.)

19.j In implementation terms, the linear elaboration model can be thought of as preventing uninitialized dope. For example, the implementation might generate dope to contain the size of a private type. This dope is initialized at the place where the type becomes completely defined. It cannot be initialized earlier, because of the order-of-elaboration rules. The freezing rules prevent elaboration of earlier declarations from accessing the size dope for a private type before it is initialized.

19.k 2.8 overrides the freezing rules in the case of unrecognized pragmas.

19.l A representation_clause for an entity should most certainly *not* be a freezing point for the entity.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} RM83 defines a forcing occurrence of a type as follows: ‘‘A forcing occurrence is any occurrence [of the name of the type, subtypes of the type, or types or subtypes with subcomponents of the type] other than in a type or subtype declaration, a subprogram specification, an entry declaration, a deferred constant declaration, a pragma, or a representation_clause for the type itself. In any case, an occurrence within an expression is always forcing.’’ 19.m

It seems like the wording allows things like this: 19.n

```
type A is array(Integer range 1..10) of Boolean;                    19.o
subtype S is Integer range A'Range;
    -- not forcing for A
```

Occurrences within pragmas can cause freezing in Ada 9X. (Since such pragmas are ignored in Ada 83, this will probably fix more bugs than it causes.) 19.p

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} In Ada 9X, generic_formal_parameter_declarations do not normally freeze the entities from which they are defined. For example: 19.q

```
package Outer is                                                    19.r
    type T is tagged limited private;
    generic
        type T2 is
            new T with private; -- Does not freeze T
                                -- in Ada 9X.
    package Inner is
        ...
    end Inner;
private
    type T is ...;
end Outer;
```

This is important for the usability of generics. The above example uses the Ada 9X feature of formal derived types. Examples using the kinds of formal parameters already allowed in Ada 83 are well known. See, for example, comments 83-00627 and 83-00688. The extensive use expected for formal derived types makes this issue even more compelling than described by those comments. Unfortunately, we are unable to solve the problem that explicit_generic_actual_parameters cause freezing, even though a package equivalent to the instance would not cause freezing. This is primarily because such an equivalent package would have its body in the body of the containing program unit, whereas an instance has its body right there. 19.s

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The concept of freezing is based on Ada 83’s concept of ‘‘forcing occurrences.’’ The first freezing point of an entity corresponds roughly to the place of the first forcing occurrence, in Ada 83 terms. The reason for changing the terminology is that the new rules do not refer to any particular ‘‘occurrence’’ of a name of an entity. Instead, we refer to ‘‘uses’’ of an entity, which are sometimes implicit. 19.t

In Ada 83, forcing occurrences were used only in rules about representation_clauses. We have expanded the concept to cover private types, because the rules stated in RM83-7.4.1(4) are almost identical to the forcing occurrence rules. 19.u

The Ada 83 rules are changed in Ada 9X for the following reasons: 19.v

- The Ada 83 rules do not work right for subtype-specific aspects. In an earlier version of Ada 9X, we considered allowing representation items to apply to subtypes other than the first subtype. This was part of the reason for changing the Ada 83 rules. However, now that we have dropped that functionality, we still need the rules to be different from the Ada 83 rules. 19.w
- The Ada 83 rules do not achieve the intended effect. In Ada 83, either with or without the AIs, it is possible to force the compiler to generate code that references uninitialized dope, or force it to detect erroneousness and exception raising at compile time. 19.x
- It was a goal of Ada 83 to avoid uninitialized access values. However, in the case of deferred constants, this goal was not achieved. 19.y
- The Ada 83 rules are not only too weak — they are also too strong. They allow loopholes (as described above), but they also prevent certain kinds of default_expressions that are harmless, and certain kinds of generic_declarations that are both harmless and very useful. 19.z
- Ada 83 had a case where a representation_clause had a strong effect on the semantics of the program — ’Small. This caused certain semantic anomalies. There are more cases in Ada 9X, because the attribute_representation_clause has been generalized. 19.aa

The Standard Libraries

Annex A
(normative)

Predefined Language Environment

[{*Language-Defined Library Units*} {*predefined environment*} This Annex contains the specifications of library units that shall be provided by every implementation. There are three root library units: Ada, Interfaces, and System; other library units are children of these: 1

Standard — A.1
- Ada — A.2
  - Asynchronous_Task_Control — D.11
  - Calendar — 9.6
  - Characters — A.3.1
    - Handling — A.3.2
    - Latin_1 — A.3.3
  - Command_Line — A.15
  - Decimal — F.2
  - Direct_IO — A.8.4
  - Dynamic_Priorities — D.5
  - Exceptions — 11.4.1
  - Finalization — 7.6
  - Interrupts — C.3.2
    - Names — C.3.2
  - IO_Exceptions — A.13
  - Numerics — A.5
    - Complex_Elementary_Functions — G.1.2
    - Complex_Types — G.1.1
    - Discrete_Random — A.5.2
    - Elementary_Functions — A.5.1
    - Float_Random — A.5.2
    - Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions — G.1.2
    - Generic_Complex_Types — G.1.1
    - Generic_Elementary_Functions — A.5.1
  - Real_Time — D.8
  - Sequential_IO — A.8.1
  - Storage_IO — A.9
  - Streams — 13.13.1
    - Stream_IO — A.12.1
  - Strings — A.4.1
    - Bounded — A.4.4
    - Fixed — A.4.3
    - Maps — A.4.2
      - Constants — A.4.6
    - Unbounded — A.4.5
    - Wide_Bounded — A.4.7
    - Wide_Fixed — A.4.7
    - Wide_Maps — A.4.7
      - Wide_Constants — A.4.7
    - Wide_Unbounded — A.4.7

Standard (*...continued*) 2
- Ada (*...continued*)
  - Synchronous_Task_Control — D.10
  - Tags — 3.9
  - Task_Attributes — C.7.2
  - Task_Identification — C.7.1
  - Text_IO — A.10.1
    - Complex_IO — G.1.3
    - Editing — F.3.3
    - Text_Streams — A.12.2
  - Unchecked_Conversion — 13.9
  - Unchecked_Deallocation — 13.11.2
  - Wide_Text_IO — A.11
    - Complex_IO — G.1.3
    - Editing — F.3.4
    - Text_Streams — A.12.3

Interfaces — B.2
- C — B.3
  - Pointers — B.3.2
  - Strings — B.3.1
- COBOL — B.4
- Fortran — B.5

System — 13.7
- Address_To_Access_Conversions — 13.7.2
- Machine_Code — 13.8
- RPC — E.5
- Storage_Elements — 13.7.1
- Storage_Pools — 13.11

]

Discussion: In running text, we generally leave out the ‘‘Ada.’’ when referring to a child of Ada. 2.a

Reason: We had no strict rule for which of Ada, Interfaces, or System should be the parent of a given library unit. However, we have tried to place as many things as possible under Ada, except that interfacing is a separate category, and we have tried to place library units whose use is highly non-portable under System. 2.b

Implementation Requirements

3 The implementation shall ensure that each language defined subprogram is reentrant in the sense that concurrent calls on the same subprogram perform as specified, so long as all parameters that could be passed by reference denote nonoverlapping objects.

3.a **Ramification:** For example, simultaneous calls to Text_IO.Put will work properly, so long as they are going to two different files. On the other hand, simultaneous output to the same file constitutes erroneous use of shared variables.

3.b **To be honest:** Here, ‘‘language defined subprogram’’ means a language defined library subprogram, a subprogram declared in the visible part of a language defined library package, an instance of a language defined generic library subprogram, or a subprogram declared in the visible part of an instance of a language defined generic library package.

3.c **Ramification:** The rule implies that any data local to the private part or body of the package has to be somehow protected against simultaneous access.

Implementation Permissions

4 The implementation may restrict the replacement of language-defined compilation units. The implementation may restrict children of language-defined library units (other than Standard).

4.a **Ramification:** For example, the implementation may say, ‘‘you cannot compile a library unit called System’’ or ‘‘you cannot compile a child of package System’’ or ‘‘if you compile a library unit called System, it has to be a package, and it has to contain at least the following declarations: ...’’.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

4.b Many of Ada 83’s language-defined library units are now children of Ada or System. For upward compatibility, these are renamed as root library units (see J.1).

4.c The order and lettering of the annexes has been changed.

A.1 The Package Standard

1 This clause outlines the specification of the package Standard containing all predefined identifiers in the language. {*unspecified* [partial]} The corresponding package body is not specified by the language.

2 The operators that are predefined for the types declared in the package Standard are given in comments since they are implicitly declared. {*italics (pseudo-names of anonymous types)*} Italics are used for pseudo-names of anonymous types (such as *root_real*) and for undefined information (such as *implementation-defined*).

2.a **Ramification:** All of the predefined operators are of convention Intrinsic.

Static Semantics

3 The library package Standard has the following declaration:

3.a **Implementation defined:** The names and characteristics of the numeric subtypes declared in the visible part of package Standard.

4
```
package Standard is
   pragma Pure(Standard);
```
5
```
   type Boolean is (False, True);
```
6
```
   -- The predefined relational operators for this type are as follows:
```
7
```
   -- function "="   (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function "/="  (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function "<"   (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function "<="  (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function ">"   (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function ">="  (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
```
8
```
   -- The predefined logical operators and the predefined logical
   -- negation operator are as follows:
```
9
```
   -- function "and" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function "or"  (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
   -- function "xor" (Left, Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
```

```
-- function "not" (Right : Boolean) return Boolean;
```

-- The integer type root_integer is predefined.
-- The corresponding universal type is universal_integer.

```
type Integer is range implementation-defined;
```

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

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

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

```
-- function "+"   (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
-- function "-"   (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
-- function "abs" (Right : Integer'Base) return Integer'Base;
```

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

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

-- The specification of each operator for the type
-- root_integer, or for any additional predefined integer
-- type, is obtained by replacing Integer by the name of the type
-- in the specification of the corresponding operator of the type
-- Integer. The right operand of the exponentiation operator
-- remains as subtype Natural.

-- The floating point type root_real is predefined.
-- The corresponding universal type is universal_real.

```
type Float is digits implementation-defined;
```

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

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

```
-- function "+"   (Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "-"   (Right : Float) return Float;
-- function "abs" (Right : Float) return Float;
```

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

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

-- The specification of each operator for the type root_real, or for
-- any additional predefined floating point type, is obtained by
-- replacing Float by the name of the type in the specification of the
-- corresponding operator of the type Float.

-- In addition, the following operators are predefined for the root
-- numeric types:

```
function "*" (Left : root_integer; Right : root_real)
  return root_real;
```

```
function "*" (Left : root_real;    Right : root_integer)
  return root_real;
```

```
function "/" (Left : root_real;    Right : root_integer)
  return root_real;
```

```
-- The type universal_fixed is predefined.
-- The only multiplying operators defined between
-- fixed point types are
function "*" (Left : universal_fixed; Right : universal_fixed)
  return universal_fixed;
function "/" (Left : universal_fixed; Right : universal_fixed)
  return universal_fixed;

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

  (nul,    soh,    stx,    etx,      eot,    enq,    ack,    bel,      --0 (16#00#) .. 7 (16#07#)
   bs,     ht,     lf,     vt,       ff,     cr,     so,     si,       --8 (16#08#) .. 15 (16#0F#)

   dle,    dc1,    dc2,    dc3,      dc4,    nak,    syn,    etb,      --16 (16#10#) .. 23 (16#17#)
   can,    em,     sub,    esc,      fs,     gs,     rs,     us,       --24 (16#18#) .. 31 (16#1F#)

   ' ',    '!',    '"',    '#',      '$',    '%',    '&',    ''',      --32 (16#20#) .. 39 (16#27#)
   '(',    ')',    '*',    '+',      ',',    '-',    '.',    '/',      --40 (16#28#) .. 47 (16#2F#)

   '0',    '1',    '2',    '3',      '4',    '5',    '6',    '7',      --48 (16#30#) .. 55 (16#37#)
   '8',    '9',    ':',    ';',      '<',    '=',    '>',    '?',      --56 (16#38#) .. 63 (16#3F#)

   '@',    'A',    'B',    'C',      'D',    'E',    'F',    'G',      --64 (16#40#) .. 71 (16#47#)
   'H',    'I',    'J',    'K',      'L',    'M',    'N',    'O',      --72 (16#48#) .. 79 (16#4F#)

   'P',    'Q',    'R',    'S',      'T',    'U',    'V',    'W',      --80 (16#50#) .. 87 (16#57#)
   'X',    'Y',    'Z',    '[',      '\',    ']',    '^',    '_',      --88 (16#58#) .. 95 (16#5F#)

   '`',    'a',    'b',    'c',      'd',    'e',    'f',    'g',      --96 (16#60#) .. 103 (16#67#)
   'h',    'i',    'j',    'k',      'l',    'm',    'n',    'o',      --104 (16#68#) .. 111 (16#6F#)

   'p',    'q',    'r',    's',      't',    'u',    'v',    'w',      --112 (16#70#) .. 119 (16#77#)
   'x',    'y',    'z',    '{',      '|',    '}',    '~',    del,      --120 (16#78#) .. 127 (16#7F#)

   reserved_128,   reserved_129,     bph,    nbh,                      --128 (16#80#) .. 131 (16#83#)
   reserved_132,   nel,    ssa,      esa,                              --132 (16#84#) .. 135 (16#87#)

   hts,    htj,    vts,    pld,      plu,    ri,     ss2,    ss3,      --136 (16#88#) .. 143 (16#8F#)

   dcs,    pu1,    pu2,    sts,      cch,    mw,     spa,    epa,      --144 (16#90#) .. 151 (16#97#)

   sos,    reserved_153,   sci,      csi,                              --152 (16#98#) .. 155 (16#9B#)
   st,     osc,    pm,     apc,                                        --156 (16#9C#) .. 159 (16#9F#)

   ' ',    '¡',    '¢',    '£',      '¤',    '¥',    '¦',    '§',      --160 (16#A0#) .. 167 (16#A7#)
   '¨',    '©',    'ª',    '«',      '¬',    '-',    '®',    '¯',      --168 (16#A8#) .. 175 (16#AF#)

   '°',    '±',    '²',    '³',      '´',    'µ',    '¶',    '·',      --176 (16#B0#) .. 183 (16#B7#)
   '¸',    '¹',    'º',    '»',      '¼',    '½',    '¾',    '¿',      --184 (16#B8#) .. 191 (16#BF#)

   'À',    'Á',    'Â',    'Ã',      'Ä',    'Å',    'Æ',    'Ç',      --192 (16#C0#) .. 199 (16#C7#)
   'È',    'É',    'Ê',    'Ë',      'Ì',    'Í',    'Î',    'Ï',      --200 (16#C8#) .. 207 (16#CF#)

   'Ð',    'Ñ',    'Ò',    'Ó',      'Ô',    'Õ',    'Ö',    '×',      --208 (16#D0#) .. 215 (16#D7#)
   'Ø',    'Ù',    'Ú',    'Û',      'Ü',    'Ý',    'Þ',    'ß',      --216 (16#D8#) .. 223 (16#DF#)

   'à',    'á',    'â',    'ã',      'ä',    'å',    'æ',    'ç',      --224 (16#E0#) .. 231 (16#E7#)
   'è',    'é',    'ê',    'ë',      'ì',    'í',    'î',    'ï',      --232 (16#E8#) .. 239 (16#EF#)

   'ð',    'ñ',    'ò',    'ó',      'ô',    'õ',    'ö',    '÷',      --240 (16#F0#) .. 247 (16#F7#)
   'ø',    'ù',    'ú',    'û',      'ü',    'ý',    'þ',    'ÿ');     --248 (16#F8#) .. 255 (16#FF#)

-- The predefined operators for the type Character are the  same  as  for
-- any enumeration type.

-- The declaration of type Wide_Character is based on the standard ISO 10646 BMP character set.
-- The first 256 positions have the same contents as type Character.  See 3.5.2.

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

```
   package ASCII is ... end ASCII;  --Obsolescent; see J.5
```
{*ASCII (package physically nested within the declaration of Standard)*}

```
   -- Predefined string types:
   type String is array(Positive range <>) of Character;                    37
   pragma Pack(String);
   -- The predefined operators for this type are as follows:                38
   --     function "="  (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;              39
   --     function "/=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
   --     function "<"  (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
   --     function "<=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
   --     function ">"  (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
   --     function ">=" (Left, Right: String) return Boolean;
   --     function "&" (Left: String;    Right: String)    return String;  40
   --     function "&" (Left: Character; Right: String)    return String;
   --     function "&" (Left: String;    Right: Character) return String;
   --     function "&" (Left: Character; Right: Character) return String;
   type Wide_String is array(Positive range <>) of Wide_Character;          41
   pragma Pack(Wide_String);
   -- The predefined operators for this type correspond to those for String 42
   type Duration is delta implementation-defined range implementation-defined; 43
      -- The  predefined  operators for the type Duration are the same as for  44
      -- any fixed point type.
   -- The predefined exceptions:                                            45
   Constraint_Error: exception;                                             46
   Program_Error   : exception;
   Storage_Error   : exception;
   Tasking_Error   : exception;
end Standard;                                                               47
```

Standard has no private part. 48

Reason: This is important for portability. All library packages are children of Standard, and if Standard had a private part then it would be visible to all of them. 48.a

In each of the types Character and Wide_Character, the character literals for the space character (position 32) and the non-breaking space character (position 160) correspond to different values. Unless indicated otherwise, each occurrence of the character literal ' ' in this International Standard refers to the space character. Similarly, the character literals for hyphen (position 45) and soft hyphen (position 173) correspond to different values. Unless indicated otherwise, each occurrence of the character literal '-' in this International Standard refers to the hyphen character. 49

Dynamic Semantics

{*elaboration* [package_body of Standard]} Elaboration of the body of Standard has no effect. 50

Discussion: Note that the language does not define where this body appears in the environment declarative_part — see Section 10, ''Program Structure and Compilation Issues''. 50.a

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may provide additional predefined integer types and additional predefined floating point types. Not all of these types need have names. 51

To be honest: An implementation may add representation items to package Standard, for example to specify the internal codes of type Boolean, or the Small of type Duration. 51.a

Implementation Advice

If an implementation provides additional named predefined integer types, then the names should end with ''Integer'' as in ''Long_Integer''. If an implementation provides additional named predefined floating point types, then the names should end with ''Float'' as in ''Long_Float''. 52

NOTES

53 1 Certain aspects of the predefined entities cannot be completely described in the language itself. For example, although the enumeration type Boolean can be written showing the two enumeration literals False and True, the short-circuit control forms cannot be expressed in the language.

54 2 As explained in 8.1, ‘‘Declarative Region’’ and 10.1.4, ‘‘The Compilation Process’’, the declarative region of the package Standard encloses every library unit and consequently the main subprogram; the declaration of every library unit is assumed to occur within this declarative region. Library_items are assumed to be ordered in such a way that there are no forward semantic dependences. However, as explained in 8.3, ‘‘Visibility’’, the only library units that are visible within a given compilation unit are the library units named by all with_clauses that apply to the given unit, and moreover, within the declarative region of a given library unit, that library unit itself.

55 3 If all block_statements of a program are named, then the name of each program unit can always be written as an expanded name starting with Standard (unless Standard is itself hidden). The name of a library unit cannot be a homograph of a name (such as Integer) that is already declared in Standard.

56 4 The exception Standard.Numeric_Error is defined in J.6.

56.a **Discussion:** The declaration of Natural needs to appear between the declaration of Integer and the (implicit) declaration of the "**" operator for Integer, because a formal parameter of "**" is of subtype Natural. This would be impossible in normal code, because the implicit declarations for a type occur immediately after the type declaration, with no possibility of intervening explicit declarations. But we’re in Standard, and Standard is somewhat magic anyway.

56.b Using Natural as the subtype of the formal of "**" seems natural; it would be silly to have a textual rule about Constraint_Error being raised when there is a perfectly good subtype that means just that. Furthermore, by not using Integer for that formal, it helps remind the reader that the exponent remains Natural even when the left operand is replaced with the derivative of Integer. It doesn’t logically imply that, but it’s still useful as a reminder.

56.c In any case, declaring these general-purpose subtypes of Integer close to Integer seems more readable than declaring them much later.

Extensions to Ada 83

56.d {*extensions to Ada 83*} Package Standard is declared to be pure.

56.e **Discussion:** The introduction of the types Wide_Character and Wide_String is not an Ada 9X extension to Ada 83, since ISO WG9 has approved these as an authorized extension of the original Ada 83 standard that is part of that standard.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

56.f Numeric_Error is made obsolescent.

56.g The declarations of Natural and Positive are moved to just after the declaration of Integer, so that "**" can refer to Natural without a forward reference. There’s no real need to move Positive, too — it just came along for the ride.

A.2 The Package Ada

Static Semantics

1 The following language-defined library package exists:

2
```
package Ada is
    pragma Pure(Ada);
end Ada;
```

3 Ada serves as the parent of most of the other language-defined library units; its declaration is empty (except for the pragma Pure).

Legality Rules

4 In the standard mode, it is illegal to compile a child of package Ada.

4.a **Reason:** The intention is that mentioning, say, Ada.Text_IO in a with_clause is guaranteed (at least in the standard mode) to refer to the standard version of Ada.Text_IO. The user can compile a root library unit Text_IO that has no relation to the standard version of Text_IO.

Ramification: Note that Ada can have non-language-defined grandchildren, assuming the implementation allows it. Also, packages System and Interfaces can have children, assuming the implementation allows it. 4.b

Implementation Note: An implementation will typically support a nonstandard mode in which compiling the language defined library units is allowed. Whether or not this mode is made available to users is up to the implementer. 4.c

An implementation could theoretically have private children of Ada, since that would be semantically neutral. However, a programmer cannot compile such a library unit. 4.d

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This clause is new to Ada 9X. 4.e

A.3 Character Handling

This clause presents the packages related to character processing: an empty pure package Characters and child packages Characters.Handling and Characters.Latin_1. The package Characters.Handling provides classification and conversion functions for Character data, and some simple functions for dealing with Wide_Character data. The child package Characters.Latin_1 declares a set of constants initialized to values of type Character. 1

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This clause is new to Ada 9X. 1.a

A.3.1 The Package Characters

Static Semantics

The library package Characters has the following declaration: 1

```
package Ada.Characters is                                                    2
  pragma Pure(Characters);
end Ada.Characters;
```

A.3.2 The Package Characters.Handling

Static Semantics

The library package Characters.Handling has the following declaration: 1

```
package Ada.Characters.Handling is                                           2
  pragma Preelaborate(Handling);
  --Character classification functions                                       3
  function Is_Control           (Item : in Character) return Boolean;        4
  function Is_Graphic           (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Letter            (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Lower             (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Upper             (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Basic             (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Digit             (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Decimal_Digit     (Item : in Character) return Boolean renames Is_Digit;
  function Is_Hexadecimal_Digit (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Alphanumeric      (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  function Is_Special           (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
  --Conversion functions for Character and String                            5
  function To_Lower (Item : in Character) return Character;                  6
  function To_Upper (Item : in Character) return Character;
  function To_Basic (Item : in Character) return Character;
  function To_Lower (Item : in String) return String;                        7
  function To_Upper (Item : in String) return String;
  function To_Basic (Item : in String) return String;
```

```
   --Classifications of and conversions between Character and ISO 646
     subtype ISO_646 is
       Character range Character'Val(0) .. Character'Val(127);
     function Is_ISO_646 (Item : in Character) return Boolean;
     function Is_ISO_646 (Item : in String)    return Boolean;
     function To_ISO_646 (Item       : in Character;
                          Substitute : in ISO_646 := ' ')
       return ISO_646;
     function To_ISO_646 (Item       : in String;
                          Substitute : in ISO_646 := ' ')
       return String;
   --Classifications of and conversions between Wide_Character and Character.
     function Is_Character (Item : in Wide_Character) return Boolean;
     function Is_String    (Item : in Wide_String)    return Boolean;
     function To_Character (Item       : in Wide_Character;
                            Substitute : in Character := ' ')
       return Character;
     function To_String    (Item       : in Wide_String;
                            Substitute : in Character := ' ')
       return String;
     function To_Wide_Character (Item : in Character) return Wide_Character;
     function To_Wide_String    (Item : in String)    return Wide_String;
   end Ada.Characters.Handling;
```

In the description below for each function that returns a Boolean result, the effect is described in terms of the conditions under which the value True is returned. If these conditions are not met, then the function returns False.

Each of the following classification functions has a formal Character parameter, Item, and returns a Boolean result.

{*control character (a category of Character)*} Is_Control

True if Item is a control character. A *control character* is a character whose position is in one of the ranges 0..31 or 127..159.

{*graphic character (a category of Character)*} Is_Graphic

True if Item is a graphic character. A *graphic character* is a character whose position is in one of the ranges 32..126 or 160..255.

{*letter (a category of Character)*} Is_Letter

True if Item is a letter. A *letter* is a character that is in one of the ranges 'A'..'Z' or 'a'..'z', or whose position is in one of the ranges 192..214, 216..246, or 248..255.

{*lower-case letter (a category of Character)*} Is_Lower

True if Item is a lower-case letter. A *lower-case letter* is a character that is in the range 'a'..'z', or whose position is in one of the ranges 223..246 or 248..255.

{*upper-case letter (a category of Character)*} Is_Upper

True if Item is an upper-case letter. An *upper-case letter* is a character that is in the range 'A'..'Z' or whose position is in one of the ranges 192..214 or 216.. 222.

{*basic letter (a category of Character)*} Is_Basic

True if Item is a basic letter. A *basic letter* is a character that is in one of the ranges 'A'..'Z' and 'a'..'z', or that is one of the following: 'Æ', 'æ', 'Ð', 'ð', 'Þ', 'þ', or 'ß'.

{*decimal digit (a category of Character)*} Is_Digit

True if Item is a decimal digit. A *decimal digit* is a character in the range '0'..'9'.

Is_Decimal_Digit A renaming of Is_Digit. 29

{*hexadecimal digit (a category of Character)*} Is_Hexadecimal_Digit 30
True if Item is a hexadecimal digit. A *hexadecimal digit* is a character that is either a decimal digit or that is in one of the ranges 'A' .. 'F' or 'a' .. 'f'.

{*alphanumeric character (a category of Character)*} Is_Alphanumeric 31
True if Item is an alphanumeric character. An *alphanumeric character* is a character that is either a letter or a decimal digit.

{*special graphic character (a category of Character)*} Is_Special 32
True if Item is a special graphic character. A *special graphic character* is a graphic character that is not alphanumeric.

Each of the names To_Lower, To_Upper, and To_Basic refers to two functions: one that converts from Character to Character, and the other that converts from String to String. The result of each Character-to-Character function is described below, in terms of the conversion applied to Item, its formal Character parameter. The result of each String-to-String conversion is obtained by applying to each element of the function's String parameter the corresponding Character-to-Character conversion; the result is the null String if the value of the formal parameter is the null String. The lower bound of the result String is 1. 33

To_Lower Returns the corresponding lower-case value for Item if Is_Upper(Item), and returns Item otherwise. 34

To_Upper Returns the corresponding upper-case value for Item if Is_Lower(Item) and Item has an upper-case form, and returns Item otherwise. The lower case letters 'ß' and 'ÿ' do not have upper case forms. 35

To_Basic Returns the letter corresponding to Item but with no diacritical mark, if Item is a letter but not a basic letter; returns Item otherwise. 36

The following set of functions test for membership in the ISO 646 character range, or convert between ISO 646 and Character. 37

Is_ISO_646 The function whose formal parameter, Item, is of type Character returns True if Item is in the subtype ISO_646. 38

Is_ISO_646 The function whose formal parameter, Item, is of type String returns True if Is_ISO_646(Item(I)) is True for each I in Item'Range. 39

To_ISO_646 The function whose first formal parameter, Item, is of type Character returns Item if Is_ISO_646(Item), and returns the Substitute ISO_646 character otherwise. 40

To_ISO_646 The function whose first formal parameter, Item, is of type String returns the String whose Range is 1..Item'Length and each of whose elements is given by To_ISO_646 of the corresponding element in Item. 41

The following set of functions test Wide_Character values for membership in Character, or convert between corresponding characters of Wide_Character and Character. 42

Is_Character Returns True if Wide_Character'Pos(Item) <= Character'Pos(Character'Last). 43

Is_String Returns True if Is_Character(Item(I)) is True for each I in Item'Range. 44

To_Character Returns the Character corresponding to Item if Is_Character(Item), and returns the Substitute Character otherwise. 45

To_String Returns the String whose range is 1..Item'Length and each of whose elements is given by To_Character of the corresponding element in Item. 46

47 To_Wide_Character
Returns the Wide_Character X such that Character'Pos(Item) = Wide_Character'Pos(X).

48 To_Wide_String Returns the Wide_String whose range is 1..Item'Length and each of whose elements is given by To_Wide_Character of the corresponding element in Item.

Implementation Advice

49 If an implementation provides a localized definition of Character or Wide_Character, then the effects of the subprograms in Characters.Handling should reflect the localizations. See also 3.5.2.

NOTES

50 5 A basic letter is a letter without a diacritical mark.

51 6 Except for the hexadecimal digits, basic letters, and ISO_646 characters, the categories identified in the classification functions form a strict hierarchy:

52 • Control characters

53 • Graphic characters

54 • Alphanumeric characters

55 • Letters

56 • Upper-case letters

57 • Lower-case letters

58 • Decimal digits

59 • Special graphic characters

59.a **Ramification:** Thus each Character value is either a control character or a graphic character but not both; each graphic character is either an alphanumeric or special graphic but not both; each alphanumeric is either a letter or decimal digit but not both; each letter is either upper case or lower case but not both.

A.3.3 The Package Characters.Latin_1

1 The package Characters.Latin_1 declares constants for characters in ISO 8859-1.

1.a **Reason:** The constants for the ISO 646 characters could have been declared as renamings of objects declared in package ASCII, as opposed to explicit constants. The main reason for explicit constants was for consistency of style with the upper-half constants, and to avoid emphasizing the package ASCII.

Static Semantics

2 The library package Characters.Latin_1 has the following declaration:

3
```
package Ada.Characters.Latin_1 is
    pragma Pure(Latin_1);
```

4 -- *Control characters:*{*control character* [a category of Character]}

5
```
    NUL                 : constant Character := Character'Val(0);
    SOH                 : constant Character := Character'Val(1);
    STX                 : constant Character := Character'Val(2);
    ETX                 : constant Character := Character'Val(3);
    EOT                 : constant Character := Character'Val(4);
    ENQ                 : constant Character := Character'Val(5);
    ACK                 : constant Character := Character'Val(6);
    BEL                 : constant Character := Character'Val(7);
    BS                  : constant Character := Character'Val(8);
    HT                  : constant Character := Character'Val(9);
    LF                  : constant Character := Character'Val(10);
    VT                  : constant Character := Character'Val(11);
    FF                  : constant Character := Character'Val(12);
    CR                  : constant Character := Character'Val(13);
    SO                  : constant Character := Character'Val(14);
    SI                  : constant Character := Character'Val(15);
```

```
   DLE                 : constant Character := Character'Val(16);
   DC1                 : constant Character := Character'Val(17);
   DC2                 : constant Character := Character'Val(18);
   DC3                 : constant Character := Character'Val(19);
   DC4                 : constant Character := Character'Val(20);
   NAK                 : constant Character := Character'Val(21);
   SYN                 : constant Character := Character'Val(22);
   ETB                 : constant Character := Character'Val(23);
   CAN                 : constant Character := Character'Val(24);
   EM                  : constant Character := Character'Val(25);
   SUB                 : constant Character := Character'Val(26);
   ESC                 : constant Character := Character'Val(27);
   FS                  : constant Character := Character'Val(28);
   GS                  : constant Character := Character'Val(29);
   RS                  : constant Character := Character'Val(30);
   US                  : constant Character := Character'Val(31);

-- ISO 646 graphic characters:

   Space               : constant Character := ' ';  -- Character'Val(32)
   Exclamation         : constant Character := '!';  -- Character'Val(33)
   Quotation           : constant Character := '"';  -- Character'Val(34)
   Number_Sign         : constant Character := '#';  -- Character'Val(35)
   Dollar_Sign         : constant Character := '$';  -- Character'Val(36)
   Percent_Sign        : constant Character := '%';  -- Character'Val(37)
   Ampersand           : constant Character := '&';  -- Character'Val(38)
   Apostrophe          : constant Character := ''';  -- Character'Val(39)
   Left_Parenthesis    : constant Character := '(';  -- Character'Val(40)
   Right_Parenthesis   : constant Character := ')';  -- Character'Val(41)
   Asterisk            : constant Character := '*';  -- Character'Val(42)
   Plus_Sign           : constant Character := '+';  -- Character'Val(43)
   Comma               : constant Character := ',';  -- Character'Val(44)
   Hyphen              : constant Character := '-';  -- Character'Val(45)
   Minus_Sign          : Character renames Hyphen;
   Full_Stop           : constant Character := '.';  -- Character'Val(46)
   Solidus             : constant Character := '/';  -- Character'Val(47)

   -- Decimal digits '0' though '9' are at positions 48 through 57

   Colon               : constant Character := ':';  -- Character'Val(58)
   Semicolon           : constant Character := ';';  -- Character'Val(59)
   Less_Than_Sign      : constant Character := '<';  -- Character'Val(60)
   Equals_Sign         : constant Character := '=';  -- Character'Val(61)
   Greater_Than_Sign   : constant Character := '>';  -- Character'Val(62)
   Question            : constant Character := '?';  -- Character'Val(63)
   Commercial_At       : constant Character := '@';  -- Character'Val(64)

   -- Letters 'A' through 'Z' are at positions 65 through 90

   Left_Square_Bracket : constant Character := '[';  -- Character'Val(91)
   Reverse_Solidus     : constant Character := '\';  -- Character'Val(92)
   Right_Square_Bracket: constant Character := ']';  -- Character'Val(93)
   Circumflex          : constant Character := '^';  -- Character'Val(94)
   Low_Line            : constant Character := '_';  -- Character'Val(95)

   Grave               : constant Character := '`';  -- Character'Val(96)
   LC_A                : constant Character := 'a';  -- Character'Val(97)
   LC_B                : constant Character := 'b';  -- Character'Val(98)
   LC_C                : constant Character := 'c';  -- Character'Val(99)
   LC_D                : constant Character := 'd';  -- Character'Val(100)
   LC_E                : constant Character := 'e';  -- Character'Val(101)
   LC_F                : constant Character := 'f';  -- Character'Val(102)
   LC_G                : constant Character := 'g';  -- Character'Val(103)
   LC_H                : constant Character := 'h';  -- Character'Val(104)
   LC_I                : constant Character := 'i';  -- Character'Val(105)
   LC_J                : constant Character := 'j';  -- Character'Val(106)
   LC_K                : constant Character := 'k';  -- Character'Val(107)
   LC_L                : constant Character := 'l';  -- Character'Val(108)
   LC_M                : constant Character := 'm';  -- Character'Val(109)
   LC_N                : constant Character := 'n';  -- Character'Val(110)
   LC_O                : constant Character := 'o';  -- Character'Val(111)
```

```
14        LC_P                : constant Character := 'p';  -- Character'Val(112)
          LC_Q                : constant Character := 'q';  -- Character'Val(113)
          LC_R                : constant Character := 'r';  -- Character'Val(114)
          LC_S                : constant Character := 's';  -- Character'Val(115)
          LC_T                : constant Character := 't';  -- Character'Val(116)
          LC_U                : constant Character := 'u';  -- Character'Val(117)
          LC_V                : constant Character := 'v';  -- Character'Val(118)
          LC_W                : constant Character := 'w';  -- Character'Val(119)
          LC_X                : constant Character := 'x';  -- Character'Val(120)
          LC_Y                : constant Character := 'y';  -- Character'Val(121)
          LC_Z                : constant Character := 'z';  -- Character'Val(122)
          Left_Curly_Bracket  : constant Character := '{';  -- Character'Val(123)
          Vertical_Line       : constant Character := '|';  -- Character'Val(124)
          Right_Curly_Bracket : constant Character := '}';  -- Character'Val(125)
          Tilde               : constant Character := '~';  -- Character'Val(126)
          DEL                 : constant Character := Character'Val(127);
15        -- ISO 6429 control characters:{control character [a category of Character]}
16        IS4                 : Character renames FS;
          IS3                 : Character renames GS;
          IS2                 : Character renames RS;
          IS1                 : Character renames US;
17        Reserved_128        : constant Character := Character'Val(128);
          Reserved_129        : constant Character := Character'Val(129);
          BPH                 : constant Character := Character'Val(130);
          NBH                 : constant Character := Character'Val(131);
          Reserved_132        : constant Character := Character'Val(132);
          NEL                 : constant Character := Character'Val(133);
          SSA                 : constant Character := Character'Val(134);
          ESA                 : constant Character := Character'Val(135);
          HTS                 : constant Character := Character'Val(136);
          HTJ                 : constant Character := Character'Val(137);
          VTS                 : constant Character := Character'Val(138);
          PLD                 : constant Character := Character'Val(139);
          PLU                 : constant Character := Character'Val(140);
          RI                  : constant Character := Character'Val(141);
          SS2                 : constant Character := Character'Val(142);
          SS3                 : constant Character := Character'Val(143);
18        DCS                 : constant Character := Character'Val(144);
          PU1                 : constant Character := Character'Val(145);
          PU2                 : constant Character := Character'Val(146);
          STS                 : constant Character := Character'Val(147);
          CCH                 : constant Character := Character'Val(148);
          MW                  : constant Character := Character'Val(149);
          SPA                 : constant Character := Character'Val(150);
          EPA                 : constant Character := Character'Val(151);
19        SOS                 : constant Character := Character'Val(152);
          Reserved_153        : constant Character := Character'Val(153);
          SCI                 : constant Character := Character'Val(154);
          CSI                 : constant Character := Character'Val(155);
          ST                  : constant Character := Character'Val(156);
          OSC                 : constant Character := Character'Val(157);
          PM                  : constant Character := Character'Val(158);
          APC                 : constant Character := Character'Val(159);
20        -- Other graphic characters:
```

```
-- Character positions 160 (16#A0#) .. 175 (16#AF#):                                    21
   No_Break_Space               : constant Character := ' ';  --Character'Val(160)
   NBSP                         : Character renames No_Break_Space;
   Inverted_Exclamation         : constant Character := '¡';  --Character'Val(161)
   Cent_Sign                    : constant Character := '¢';  --Character'Val(162)
   Pound_Sign                   : constant Character := '£';  --Character'Val(163)
   Currency_Sign                : constant Character := '¤';  --Character'Val(164)
   Yen_Sign                     : constant Character := '¥';  --Character'Val(165)
   Broken_Bar                   : constant Character := '¦';  --Character'Val(166)
   Section_Sign                 : constant Character := '§';  --Character'Val(167)
   Diaeresis                    : constant Character := '¨';  --Character'Val(168)
   Copyright_Sign               : constant Character := '©';  --Character'Val(169)
   Feminine_Ordinal_Indicator   : constant Character := 'ª';  --Character'Val(170)
   Left_Angle_Quotation         : constant Character := '«';  --Character'Val(171)
   Not_Sign                     : constant Character := '¬';  --Character'Val(172)
   Soft_Hyphen                  : constant Character := '-';  --Character'Val(173)
   Registered_Trade_Mark_Sign   : constant Character := '®';  --Character'Val(174)
   Macron                       : constant Character := '¯';  --Character'Val(175)
-- Character positions 176 (16#B0#) .. 191 (16#BF#):                                    22
   Degree_Sign                  : constant Character := '°';  --Character'Val(176)
   Ring_Above                   : Character renames Degree_Sign;
   Plus_Minus_Sign              : constant Character := '±';  --Character'Val(177)
   Superscript_Two              : constant Character := '²';  --Character'Val(178)
   Superscript_Three            : constant Character := '³';  --Character'Val(179)
   Acute                        : constant Character := '´';  --Character'Val(180)
   Micro_Sign                   : constant Character := 'µ';  --Character'Val(181)
   Pilcrow_Sign                 : constant Character := '¶';  --Character'Val(182)
   Paragraph_Sign               : Character renames Pilcrow_Sign;
   Middle_Dot                   : constant Character := '·';  --Character'Val(183)
   Cedilla                      : constant Character := '¸';  --Character'Val(184)
   Superscript_One              : constant Character := '¹';  --Character'Val(185)
   Masculine_Ordinal_Indicator  : constant Character := 'º';  --Character'Val(186)
   Right_Angle_Quotation        : constant Character := '»';  --Character'Val(187)
   Fraction_One_Quarter         : constant Character := '¼';  --Character'Val(188)
   Fraction_One_Half            : constant Character := '½';  --Character'Val(189)
   Fraction_Three_Quarters      : constant Character := '¾';  --Character'Val(190)
   Inverted_Question            : constant Character := '¿';  --Character'Val(191)
-- Character positions 192 (16#C0#) .. 207 (16#CF#):                                    23
   UC_A_Grave                   : constant Character := 'À';  --Character'Val(192)
   UC_A_Acute                   : constant Character := 'Á';  --Character'Val(193)
   UC_A_Circumflex              : constant Character := 'Â';  --Character'Val(194)
   UC_A_Tilde                   : constant Character := 'Ã';  --Character'Val(195)
   UC_A_Diaeresis               : constant Character := 'Ä';  --Character'Val(196)
   UC_A_Ring                    : constant Character := 'Å';  --Character'Val(197)
   UC_AE_Diphthong              : constant Character := 'Æ';  --Character'Val(198)
   UC_C_Cedilla                 : constant Character := 'Ç';  --Character'Val(199)
   UC_E_Grave                   : constant Character := 'È';  --Character'Val(200)
   UC_E_Acute                   : constant Character := 'É';  --Character'Val(201)
   UC_E_Circumflex              : constant Character := 'Ê';  --Character'Val(202)
   UC_E_Diaeresis               : constant Character := 'Ë';  --Character'Val(203)
   UC_I_Grave                   : constant Character := 'Ì';  --Character'Val(204)
   UC_I_Acute                   : constant Character := 'Í';  --Character'Val(205)
   UC_I_Circumflex              : constant Character := 'Î';  --Character'Val(206)
   UC_I_Diaeresis               : constant Character := 'Ï';  --Character'Val(207)
```

```
24      -- Character positions 208 (16#D0#) .. 223 (16#DF#):
            UC_Icelandic_Eth            : constant Character := 'Ð';  --Character'Val(208)
            UC_N_Tilde                  : constant Character := 'Ñ';  --Character'Val(209)
            UC_O_Grave                  : constant Character := 'Ò';  --Character'Val(210)
            UC_O_Acute                  : constant Character := 'Ó';  --Character'Val(211)
            UC_O_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'Ô';  --Character'Val(212)
            UC_O_Tilde                  : constant Character := 'Õ';  --Character'Val(213)
            UC_O_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'Ö';  --Character'Val(214)
            Multiplication_Sign         : constant Character := '×';  --Character'Val(215)
            UC_O_Oblique_Stroke         : constant Character := 'Ø';  --Character'Val(216)
            UC_U_Grave                  : constant Character := 'Ù';  --Character'Val(217)
            UC_U_Acute                  : constant Character := 'Ú';  --Character'Val(218)
            UC_U_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'Û';  --Character'Val(219)
            UC_U_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'Ü';  --Character'Val(220)
            UC_Y_Acute                  : constant Character := 'Ý';  --Character'Val(221)
            UC_Icelandic_Thorn          : constant Character := 'Þ';  --Character'Val(222)
            LC_German_Sharp_S           : constant Character := 'ß';  --Character'Val(223)
25      -- Character positions 224 (16#E0#) .. 239 (16#EF#):
            LC_A_Grave                  : constant Character := 'à';  --Character'Val(224)
            LC_A_Acute                  : constant Character := 'á';  --Character'Val(225)
            LC_A_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'â';  --Character'Val(226)
            LC_A_Tilde                  : constant Character := 'ã';  --Character'Val(227)
            LC_A_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ä';  --Character'Val(228)
            LC_A_Ring                   : constant Character := 'å';  --Character'Val(229)
            LC_AE_Diphthong             : constant Character := 'æ';  --Character'Val(230)
            LC_C_Cedilla                : constant Character := 'ç';  --Character'Val(231)
            LC_E_Grave                  : constant Character := 'è';  --Character'Val(232)
            LC_E_Acute                  : constant Character := 'é';  --Character'Val(233)
            LC_E_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'ê';  --Character'Val(234)
            LC_E_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ë';  --Character'Val(235)
            LC_I_Grave                  : constant Character := 'ì';  --Character'Val(236)
            LC_I_Acute                  : constant Character := 'í';  --Character'Val(237)
            LC_I_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'î';  --Character'Val(238)
            LC_I_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ï';  --Character'Val(239)
26      -- Character positions 240 (16#F0#) .. 255 (16#FF#):
            LC_Icelandic_Eth            : constant Character := 'ð';  --Character'Val(240)
            LC_N_Tilde                  : constant Character := 'ñ';  --Character'Val(241)
            LC_O_Grave                  : constant Character := 'ò';  --Character'Val(242)
            LC_O_Acute                  : constant Character := 'ó';  --Character'Val(243)
            LC_O_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'ô';  --Character'Val(244)
            LC_O_Tilde                  : constant Character := 'õ';  --Character'Val(245)
            LC_O_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ö';  --Character'Val(246)
            Division_Sign               : constant Character := '÷';  --Character'Val(247)
            LC_O_Oblique_Stroke         : constant Character := 'ø';  --Character'Val(248)
            LC_U_Grave                  : constant Character := 'ù';  --Character'Val(249)
            LC_U_Acute                  : constant Character := 'ú';  --Character'Val(250)
            LC_U_Circumflex             : constant Character := 'û';  --Character'Val(251)
            LC_U_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ü';  --Character'Val(252)
            LC_Y_Acute                  : constant Character := 'ý';  --Character'Val(253)
            LC_Icelandic_Thorn          : constant Character := 'þ';  --Character'Val(254)
            LC_Y_Diaeresis              : constant Character := 'ÿ';  --Character'Val(255)
        end Ada.Characters.Latin_1;
```

Implementation Permissions

27 An implementation may provide additional packages as children of Ada.Characters, to declare names for the symbols of the local character set or other character sets.

A.4 String Handling

1 This clause presents the specifications of the package Strings and several child packages, which provide facilities for dealing with string data. Fixed-length, bounded-length, and unbounded-length strings are supported, for both String and Wide_String. The string-handling subprograms include searches for pattern strings and for characters in program-specified sets, translation (via a character-to-character mapping), and transformation (replacing, inserting, overwriting, and deleting of substrings).

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This clause is new to Ada 9X. 1.a

A.4.1 The Package Strings

The package Strings provides declarations common to the string handling packages. 1

Static Semantics

The library package Strings has the following declaration: 2

```
package Ada.Strings is                                                          3
   pragma Pure(Strings);
   Space      : constant Character      := ' ';                                 4
   Wide_Space : constant Wide_Character := ' ';
   Length_Error, Pattern_Error, Index_Error, Translation_Error : exception;    5
   type Alignment  is (Left, Right, Center);                                    6
   type Truncation is (Left, Right, Error);
   type Membership is (Inside, Outside);
   type Direction  is (Forward, Backward);
   type Trim_End   is (Left, Right, Both);
end Ada.Strings;
```

A.4.2 The Package Strings.Maps

The package Strings.Maps defines the types, operations, and other entities needed for character sets and character-to-character mappings. 1

Static Semantics

The library package Strings.Maps has the following declaration: 2

```
package Ada.Strings.Maps is                                                     3
   pragma Preelaborate(Maps);
   -- Representation for a set of character values:                            4
   type Character_Set is private;
   Null_Set : constant Character_Set;                                           5
   type Character_Range is                                                      6
     record
        Low  : Character;
        High : Character;
     end record;
   -- Represents Character range Low..High
   type Character_Ranges is array (Positive range <>) of Character_Range;       7
   function To_Set    (Ranges : in Character_Ranges) return Character_Set;      8
   function To_Set    (Span   : in Character_Range)  return Character_Set;      9
   function To_Ranges (Set    : in Character_Set)    return Character_Ranges;   10
   function "="   (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Boolean;              11
   function "not" (Right : in Character_Set)       return Character_Set;        12
   function "and" (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Character_Set;
   function "or"  (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Character_Set;
   function "xor" (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Character_Set;
   function "-"   (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Character_Set;
   function Is_In (Element : in Character;                                      13
                   Set     : in Character_Set)
      return Boolean;
   function Is_Subset (Elements : in Character_Set;                             14
                       Set      : in Character_Set)
      return Boolean;
```

```
      function "<=" (Left  : in Character_Set;
                     Right : in Character_Set)
         return Boolean renames Is_Subset;
      -- Alternative representation for a set of character values:
      subtype Character_Sequence is String;
      function To_Set (Sequence  : in Character_Sequence) return Character_Set;
      function To_Set (Singleton : in Character)          return Character_Set;
      function To_Sequence (Set  : in Character_Set)      return Character_Sequence;
      -- Representation for a character to character mapping:
      type Character_Mapping is private;
      function Value (Map     : in Character_Mapping;
                      Element : in Character)
         return Character;
      Identity : constant Character_Mapping;
      function To_Mapping (From, To : in Character_Sequence) return Character_Mapping;
      function To_Domain (Map : in Character_Mapping) return Character_Sequence;
      function To_Range  (Map : in Character_Mapping) return Character_Sequence;
      type Character_Mapping_Function is
         access function (From : in Character) return Character;
   private
      ... -- not specified by the language
   end Ada.Strings.Maps;
```

An object of type Character_Set represents a set of characters.

Null_Set represents the set containing no characters.

An object Obj of type Character_Range represents the set of characters in the range Obj.Low .. Obj.High.

An object Obj of type Character_Ranges represents the union of the sets corresponding to Obj(I) for I in Obj'Range.

```
function To_Set (Ranges : in Character_Ranges) return Character_Set;
```

If Ranges'Length=0 then Null_Set is returned; otherwise the returned value represents the set corresponding to Ranges.

```
function To_Set (Span : in Character_Range) return Character_Set;
```

The returned value represents the set containing each character in Span.

```
function To_Ranges (Set : in Character_Set) return Character_Ranges;
```

If Set = Null_Set then an empty Character_Ranges array is returned; otherwise the shortest array of contiguous ranges of Character values in Set, in increasing order of Low, is returned.

```
function "=" (Left, Right : in Character_Set) return Boolean;
```

The function "=" returns True if Left and Right represent identical sets, and False otherwise.

Each of the logical operators "**not**", "**and**", "**or**", and "**xor**" returns a Character_Set value that represents the set obtained by applying the corresponding operation to the set(s) represented by the parameter(s) of the operator. "–"(Left, Right) is equivalent to "and"(Left, "not"(Right)).

Reason: The set minus operator is provided for efficiency.

```
function Is_In (Element : in Character;                                    40
                Set     : in Character_Set);
   return Boolean;
```

Is_In returns True if Element is in Set, and False otherwise. 41

```
function Is_Subset (Elements : in Character_Set;                           42
                    Set      : in Character_Set)
   return Boolean;
```

Is_Subset returns True if Elements is a subset of Set, and False otherwise. 43

```
subtype Character_Sequence is String;                                      44
```

The Character_Sequence subtype is used to portray a set of character values and also to identify the domain and range of a character mapping. 45

Reason: Although a named subtype is redundant — the predefined type String could have been used for the parameter to To_Set and To_Mapping below — the use of a differently named subtype identifies the intended purpose of the parameter. 45.a

```
function To_Set (Sequence  : in Character_Sequence) return Character_Set;  46
function To_Set (Singleton : in Character)          return Character_Set;
```

Sequence portrays the set of character values that it explicitly contains (ignoring duplicates). Singleton portrays the set comprising a single Character. Each of the To_Set functions returns a Character_Set value that represents the set portrayed by Sequence or Singleton. 47

```
function To_Sequence (Set : in Character_Set) return Character_Sequence;   48
```

The function To_Sequence returns a Character_Sequence value containing each of the characters in the set represented by Set, in ascending order with no duplicates. 49

```
type Character_Mapping is private;                                         50
```

An object of type Character_Mapping represents a Character-to-Character mapping. 51

```
function Value (Map     : in Character_Mapping;                            52
                Element : in Character)
   return Character;
```

The function Value returns the Character value to which Element maps with respect to the mapping represented by Map. 53

{*match (a character to a pattern character)*} A character C *matches* a pattern character P with respect to a given Character_Mapping value Map if Value(Map, C) = P. {*match (a string to a pattern string)*} A string S *matches* a pattern string P with respect to a given Character_Mapping if their lengths are the same and if each character in S matches its corresponding character in the pattern string P. 54

Discussion: In an earlier version of the string handling packages, the definition of matching was symmetrical, namely C matches P if Value(Map,C) = Value(Map,P). However, applying the mapping to the pattern was confusing according to some reviewers. Furthermore, if the symmetrical version is needed, it can be achieved by applying the mapping to the pattern (via translation) prior to passing it as a parameter. 54.a

String handling subprograms that deal with character mappings have parameters whose type is Character_Mapping. 55

```
Identity : constant Character_Mapping;                                     56
```

57 Identity maps each Character to itself.

58 `function To_Mapping (From, To : in Character_Sequence) return Character_Mapping;`

59 To_Mapping produces a Character_Mapping such that each element of From maps to the corresponding element of To, and each other character maps to itself. If From'Length /= To'Length, or if some character is repeated in From, then Translation_Error is propagated.

60 `function To_Domain (Map : in Character_Mapping) return Character_Sequence;`

61 To_Domain returns the shortest Character_Sequence value D such that each character not in D maps to itself, and such that the characters in D are in ascending order. The lower bound of D is 1.

62 `function To_Range  (Map : in Character_Mapping) return Character_Sequence;`

63 To_Range returns the Character_Sequence value R, with lower bound 1 and upper bound Map'Length, such that if D = To_Domain(Map) then D(I) maps to R(I) for each I in D'Range.

64 An object F of type Character_Mapping_Function maps a Character value C to the Character value F.**all**(C), which is said to *match* C with respect to mapping function F. {*match (a character to a pattern character, with respect to a character mapping function)*}

NOTES

65 7 Character_Mapping and Character_Mapping_Function are used both for character equivalence mappings in the search subprograms (such as for case insensitivity) and as transformational mappings in the Translate subprograms.

66 8 To_Domain(Identity) and To_Range(Identity) each returns the null string.

66.a **Reason:** Package Strings.Maps is not pure, since it declares an access-to-subprogram type.

Examples

67 To_Mapping("ABCD", "ZZAB") returns a Character_Mapping that maps 'A' and 'B' to 'Z', 'C' to 'A', 'D' to 'B', and each other Character to itself.

A.4.3 Fixed-Length String Handling

1 The language-defined package Strings.Fixed provides string-handling subprograms for fixed-length strings; that is, for values of type Standard.String. Several of these subprograms are procedures that modify the contents of a String that is passed as an **out** or an **in out** parameter; each has additional parameters to control the effect when the logical length of the result differs from the parameter's length.

2 For each function that returns a String, the lower bound of the returned value is 1.

2.a **Discussion:** Most operations that yields a String are provided both as a function and as a procedure. The functional form is possibly a more aesthetic style but may introduce overhead due to extra copying or dynamic memory usage in some implementations. Thus a procedural form, with an **in out** parameter so that all copying is done 'in place', is also supplied.

3 The basic model embodied in the package is that a fixed-length string comprises significant characters and possibly padding (with space characters) on either or both ends. When a shorter string is copied to a longer string, padding is inserted, and when a longer string is copied to a shorter one, padding is stripped. The Move procedure in Strings.Fixed, which takes a String as an **out** parameter, allows the programmer to control these effects. Similar control is provided by the string transformation procedures.

Static Semantics

The library package Strings.Fixed has the following declaration: 4

```
with Ada.Strings.Maps;                                                    5
package Ada.Strings.Fixed is
   pragma Preelaborate(Fixed);
   -- "Copy" procedure for strings of possibly different lengths         6
   procedure Move (Source  : in  String;                                  7
                   Target  : out String;
                   Drop    : in  Truncation := Error;
                   Justify : in  Alignment  := Left;
                   Pad     : in  Character  := Space);
   -- Search subprograms                                                 8
   function Index (Source   : in String;                                  9
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                 := Maps.Identity)
      return Natural;
   function Index (Source   : in String;                                  10
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
      return Natural;
   function Index (Source : in String;                                    11
                   Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                   Test   : in Membership := Inside;
                   Going  : in Direction  := Forward)
      return Natural;
   function Index_Non_Blank (Source : in String;                          12
                             Going  : in Direction := Forward)
      return Natural;
   function Count (Source   : in String;                                  13
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                 := Maps.Identity)
      return Natural;
   function Count (Source   : in String;                                  14
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
      return Natural;
   function Count (Source   : in String;                                  15
                   Set      : in Maps.Character_Set)
      return Natural;
   procedure Find_Token (Source : in String;                              16
                         Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                         Test   : in Membership;
                         First  : out Positive;
                         Last   : out Natural);
   -- String translation subprograms                                     17
   function Translate (Source  : in String;                               18
                       Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping)
      return String;
   procedure Translate (Source  : in out String;                          19
                        Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping);
   function Translate (Source  : in String;                               20
                       Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
      return String;
   procedure Translate (Source  : in out String;                          21
                        Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function);
   -- String transformation subprograms                                  22
```

```
23        function Replace_Slice (Source   : in String;
                                  Low      : in Positive;
                                  High     : in Natural;
                                  By       : in String)
             return String;
24        procedure Replace_Slice (Source   : in out String;
                                   Low      : in Positive;
                                   High     : in Natural;
                                   By       : in String;
                                   Drop     : in Truncation := Error;
                                   Justify  : in Alignment  := Left;
                                   Pad      : in Character  := Space);
25        function Insert (Source   : in String;
                           Before   : in Positive;
                           New_Item : in String)
             return String;
26        procedure Insert (Source   : in out String;
                            Before   : in Positive;
                            New_Item : in String;
                            Drop     : in Truncation := Error);
27        function Overwrite (Source   : in String;
                              Position : in Positive;
                              New_Item : in String)
             return String;
28        procedure Overwrite (Source   : in out String;
                               Position : in Positive;
                               New_Item : in String;
                               Drop     : in Truncation := Right);
29        function Delete (Source  : in String;
                           From    : in Positive;
                           Through : in Natural)
             return String;
30        procedure Delete (Source  : in out String;
                            From    : in Positive;
                            Through : in Natural;
                            Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                            Pad     : in Character := Space);
31      --String selector subprograms
          function Trim (Source : in String;
                         Side   : in Trim_End)
             return String;
32        procedure Trim (Source  : in out String;
                          Side    : in Trim_End;
                          Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                          Pad     : in Character := Space);
33        function Trim (Source : in String;
                         Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                         Right  : in Maps.Character_Set)
             return String;
34        procedure Trim (Source  : in out String;
                          Left    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                          Right   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                          Justify : in Alignment := Strings.Left;
                          Pad     : in Character := Space);
35        function Head (Source : in String;
                         Count  : in Natural;
                         Pad    : in Character := Space)
             return String;
36        procedure Head (Source  : in out String;
                          Count   : in Natural;
                          Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                          Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

```
   function Tail (Source : in String;                                    37
                  Count  : in Natural;
                  Pad    : in Character := Space)
      return String;
   procedure Tail (Source  : in out String;                              38
                   Count   : in Natural;
                   Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                   Pad     : in Character := Space);
--String constructor functions                                           39
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                     40
                 Right : in Character) return String;
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                     41
                 Right : in String) return String;
end Ada.Strings.Fixed;                                                   42
```

The effects of the above subprograms are as follows. 43

```
procedure Move (Source  : in  String;                                    44
                Target  : out String;
                Drop    : in  Truncation := Error;
                Justify : in  Alignment  := Left;
                Pad     : in  Character  := Space);
```

The Move procedure copies characters from Source to Target. If Source has the same length as Target, then the effect is to assign Source to Target. If Source is shorter than Target then: 45

- If Justify=Left, then Source is copied into the first Source'Length characters of Target. 46
- If Justify=Right, then Source is copied into the last Source'Length characters of Target. 47
- If Justify=Center, then Source is copied into the middle Source'Length characters of Target. In this case, if the difference in length between Target and Source is odd, then the extra Pad character is on the right. 48
- Pad is copied to each Target character not otherwise assigned. 49

If Source is longer than Target, then the effect is based on Drop. 50

- If Drop=Left, then the rightmost Target'Length characters of Source are copied into Target. 51
- If Drop=Right, then the leftmost Target'Length characters of Source are copied into Target. 52
- If Drop=Error, then the effect depends on the value of the Justify parameter and also on whether any characters in Source other than Pad would fail to be copied: 53
  - If Justify=Left, and if each of the rightmost Source'Length-Target'Length characters in Source is Pad, then the leftmost Target'Length characters of Source are copied to Target. 54
  - If Justify=Right, and if each of the leftmost Source'Length-Target'Length characters in Source is Pad, then the rightmost Target'Length characters of Source are copied to Target. 55
  - Otherwise, Length_Error is propagated. 56

Ramification: The Move procedure will work even if Source and Target overlap. 56.a

Reason: The order of parameters (Source before Target) corresponds to the order in COBOL's MOVE verb. 56.b

57
```
function Index (Source   : in String;
                Pattern  : in String;
                Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                              := Maps.Identity)
   return Natural;

function Index (Source   : in String;
                Pattern  : in String;
                Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
   return Natural;
```

58 Each Index function searches for a slice of Source, with length Pattern'Length, that matches Pattern with respect to Mapping; the parameter Going indicates the direction of the lookup. If Going = Forward, then Index returns the smallest index I such that the slice of Source starting at I matches Pattern. If Going = Backward, then Index returns the largest index I such that the slice of Source starting at I matches Pattern. If there is no such slice, then 0 is returned. If Pattern is the null string then Pattern_Error is propagated.

58.a **Discussion:** There is no default value for the Mapping parameter that is a Character_Mapping_Function; if there were, a call would be ambiguous since there is also a default for the Mapping parameter that is a Character_Mapping.

59
```
function Index (Source : in String;
                Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                Test   : in Membership := Inside;
                Going  : in Direction  := Forward)
   return Natural;
```

60 Index searches for the first or last occurrence of any of a set of characters (when Test=Inside), or any of the complement of a set of characters (when Test=Outside). It returns the smallest index I (if Going=Forward) or the largest index I (if Going=Backward) such that Source(I) satisfies the Test condition with respect to Set; it returns 0 if there is no such Character in Source.

61
```
function Index_Non_Blank (Source : in String;
                          Going  : in Direction := Forward)
   return Natural;
```

62 Returns Index(Source, Maps.To_Set(Space), Outside, Going)

63
```
function Count (Source   : in String;
                Pattern  : in String;
                Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                             := Maps.Identity)
   return Natural;

function Count (Source   : in String;
                Pattern  : in String;
                Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
   return Natural;
```

64 Returns the maximum number of nonoverlapping slices of Source that match Pattern with respect to Mapping. If Pattern is the null string then Pattern_Error is propagated.

64.a **Reason:** We say 'maximum number' because it is possible to slice a source string in different ways yielding different numbers of matches. For example if Source is "ABABABA" and Pattern is "ABA", then Count yields 2, although there is a partitioning of Source that yields just 1 match, for the middle slice. Saying 'maximum number' is equivalent to saying that the pattern match starts either at the low index or the high index position.

65
```
function Count (Source   : in String;
                Set      : in Maps.Character_Set)
   return Natural;
```

Returns the number of occurrences in Source of characters that are in Set. 66

```
procedure Find_Token (Source : in String;                                    67
                      Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                      Test   : in Membership;
                      First  : out Positive;
                      Last   : out Natural);
```

Find_Token returns in First and Last the indices of the beginning and end of the first slice of Source all of whose elements satisfy the Test condition, and such that the elements (if any) immediately before and after the slice do not satisfy the Test condition. If no such slice exists, then the value returned for Last is zero, and the value returned for First is Source'First. 68

```
function Translate (Source  : in String;                                     69
                    Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping)
   return String;
function Translate (Source  : in String;
                    Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
   return String;
```

Returns the string S whose length is Source'Length and such that S(I) is the character to which Mapping maps the corresponding element of Source, for I in 1..Source'Length. 70

```
procedure Translate (Source  : in out String;                                71
                     Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping);
procedure Translate (Source  : in out String;
                     Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function);
```

Equivalent to Source := Translate(Source, Mapping). 72

```
function Replace_Slice (Source   : in String;                                73
                        Low      : in Positive;
                        High     : in Natural;
                        By       : in String)
   return String;
```

If Low > Source'Last+1, or High < Source'First–1, then Index_Error is propagated. Otherwise, if High >= Low then the returned string comprises Source(Source'First..Low–1) & By & Source(High+1..Source'Last), and if High < Low then the returned string is Insert(Source, Before=>Low, New_Item=>By). 74

```
procedure Replace_Slice (Source   : in out String;                           75
                         Low      : in Positive;
                         High     : in Natural;
                         By       : in String;
                         Drop     : in Truncation := Error;
                         Justify  : in Alignment  := Left;
                         Pad      : in Character  := Space);
```

Equivalent to Move(Replace_Slice(Source, Low, High, By), Source, Drop, Justify, Pad). 76

```
function Insert (Source   : in String;                                       77
                 Before   : in Positive;
                 New_Item : in String)
   return String;
```

Propagates Index_Error if Before is not in Source'First .. Source'Last+1; otherwise returns Source(Source'First..Before–1) & New_Item & Source(Before..Source'Last), but with lower bound 1. 78

79
```
procedure Insert (Source   : in out String;
                  Before   : in Positive;
                  New_Item : in String;
                  Drop     : in Truncation := Error);
```

80 Equivalent to Move(Insert(Source, Before, New_Item), Source, Drop).

81
```
function Overwrite (Source   : in String;
                    Position : in Positive;
                    New_Item : in String)
   return String;
```

82 Propagates Index_Error if Position is not in Source'First .. Source'Last+1; otherwise returns the string obtained from Source by consecutively replacing characters starting at Position with corresponding characters from New_Item. If the end of Source is reached before the characters in New_Item are exhausted, the remaining characters from New_Item are appended to the string.

83
```
procedure Overwrite (Source   : in out String;
                     Position : in Positive;
                     New_Item : in String;
                     Drop     : in Truncation := Right);
```

84 Equivalent to Move(Overwrite(Source, Position, New_Item), Source, Drop).

85
```
function Delete (Source  : in String;
                 From    : in Positive;
                 Through : in Natural)
   return String;
```

86 If From <= Through, the returned string is Replace_Slice(Source, From, Through, ""), otherwise it is Source.

87
```
procedure Delete (Source  : in out String;
                  From    : in Positive;
                  Through : in Natural;
                  Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                  Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

88 Equivalent to Move(Delete(Source, From, Through), Source, Justify => Justify, Pad => Pad).

89
```
function Trim (Source : in String;
               Side   : in Trim_End)
  return String;
```

90 Returns the string obtained by removing from Source all leading Space characters (if Side = Left), all trailing Space characters (if Side = Right), or all leading and trailing Space characters (if Side = Both).

91
```
procedure Trim (Source  : in out String;
                Side    : in Trim_End;
                Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

92 Equivalent to Move(Trim(Source, Side), Source, Justify=>Justify, Pad=>Pad).

93
```
function Trim (Source : in String;
               Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
               Right  : in Maps.Character_Set)
   return String;
```

94 Returns the string obtained by removing from Source all leading characters in Left and all trailing characters in Right.

```
procedure Trim (Source  : in out String;                                    95
                Left    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                Right   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                Justify : in Alignment := Strings.Left;
                Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

Equivalent to Move(Trim(Source, Left, Right), Source, Justify => Justify, Pad=>Pad). 96

```
function Head (Source : in String;                                          97
               Count  : in Natural;
               Pad    : in Character := Space)
   return String;
```

Returns a string of length Count. If Count <= Source'Length, the string comprises the first Count characters of Source. Otherwise its contents are Source concatenated with Count–Source'Length Pad characters. 98

```
procedure Head (Source  : in out String;                                    99
                Count   : in Natural;
                Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

Equivalent to Move(Head(Source, Count, Pad), Source, Drop=>Error, Justify=>Justify, Pad=>Pad). 100

```
function Tail (Source : in String;                                          101
               Count  : in Natural;
               Pad    : in Character := Space)
   return String;
```

Returns a string of length Count. If Count <= Source'Length, the string comprises the last Count characters of Source. Otherwise its contents are Count-Source'Length Pad characters concatenated with Source. 102

```
procedure Tail (Source  : in out String;                                    103
                Count   : in Natural;
                Justify : in Alignment := Left;
                Pad     : in Character := Space);
```

Equivalent to Move(Tail(Source, Count, Pad), Source, Drop=>Error, Justify=>Justify, Pad=>Pad). 104

```
function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                           105
              Right : in Character) return String;
function "*" (Left  : in Natural;
              Right : in String) return String;
```

These functions replicate a character or string a specified number of times. The first function returns a string whose length is Left and each of whose elements is Right. The second function returns a string whose length is Left*Right'Length and whose value is the null string if Left = 0 and is (Left–1)*Right & Right otherwise. 106

NOTES

9 In the Index and Count functions taking Pattern and Mapping parameters, the actual String parameter passed to Pattern should comprise characters occurring as target characters of the mapping. Otherwise the pattern will not match. 107

10 In the Insert subprograms, inserting at the end of a string is obtained by passing Source'Last+1 as the Before parameter. 108

109 11 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If a null Character_Mapping_Function is passed to any of the string handling subprograms, Constraint_Error is propagated.

A.4.4 Bounded-Length String Handling

1 The language-defined package Strings.Bounded provides a generic package each of whose instances yields a private type Bounded_String and a set of operations. An object of a particular Bounded_String type represents a String whose low bound is 1 and whose length can vary conceptually between 0 and a maximum size established at the generic instantiation. The subprograms for fixed-length string handling are either overloaded directly for Bounded_String, or are modified as needed to reflect the variability in length. Additionally, since the Bounded_String type is private, appropriate constructor and selector operations are provided.

1.a **Reason:** Strings.Bounded declares an inner generic package, versus itself being directly a generic child of Strings, in order to retain compatibility with a version of the string-handling packages that is generic with respect to the character and string types.

1.b **Reason:** The bound of a bounded-length string is specified as a parameter to a generic, versus as the value for a discriminant, because of the inappropriateness of assignment and equality of discriminated types for the copying and comparison of bounded strings.

Static Semantics

2 The library package Strings.Bounded has the following declaration:

3
```
with Ada.Strings.Maps;
package Ada.Strings.Bounded is
   pragma Preelaborate(Bounded);
```
4
```
   generic
      Max   : Positive;    -- Maximum length of a Bounded_String
   package Generic_Bounded_Length is
```
5
```
      Max_Length : constant Positive := Max;
```
6
```
      type Bounded_String is private;
```
7
```
      Null_Bounded_String : constant Bounded_String;
```
8
```
      subtype Length_Range is Natural range 0 .. Max_Length;
```
9
```
      function Length (Source : in Bounded_String) return Length_Range;
```
10
```
   -- Conversion, Concatenation, and Selection functions
```
11
```
      function To_Bounded_String (Source : in String;
                                  Drop   : in Truncation := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```
12
```
      function To_String (Source : in Bounded_String) return String;
```
13
```
      function Append (Left, Right : in Bounded_String;
                       Drop        : in Truncation  := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```
14
```
      function Append (Left  : in Bounded_String;
                       Right : in String;
                       Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```
15
```
      function Append (Left  : in String;
                       Right : in Bounded_String;
                       Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```
16
```
      function Append (Left  : in Bounded_String;
                       Right : in Character;
                       Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```
17
```
      function Append (Left  : in Character;
                       Right : in Bounded_String;
                       Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
         return Bounded_String;
```

```
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Bounded_String;                    18
                     New_Item : in Bounded_String;
                     Drop     : in Truncation  := Error);
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Bounded_String;                    19
                     New_Item : in String;
                     Drop     : in Truncation  := Error);
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Bounded_String;                    20
                     New_Item : in Character;
                     Drop     : in Truncation  := Error);
   function "&" (Left, Right : in Bounded_String)                         21
      return Bounded_String;
   function "&" (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)             22
      return Bounded_String;
   function "&" (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)             23
      return Bounded_String;
   function "&" (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in Character)          24
      return Bounded_String;
   function "&" (Left : in Character; Right : in Bounded_String)          25
      return Bounded_String;
   function Element (Source : in Bounded_String;                          26
                     Index  : in Positive)
      return Character;
   procedure Replace_Element (Source : in out Bounded_String;             27
                              Index  : in Positive;
                              By     : in Character);
   function Slice (Source : in Bounded_String;                            28
                   Low    : in Positive;
                   High   : in Natural)
      return String;
   function "="  (Left, Right : in Bounded_String) return Boolean;        29
   function "="  (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)
     return Boolean;
   function "="  (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)            30
     return Boolean;
   function "<"  (Left, Right : in Bounded_String) return Boolean;        31
   function "<"  (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)            32
     return Boolean;
   function "<"  (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)            33
     return Boolean;
   function "<=" (Left, Right : in Bounded_String) return Boolean;        34
   function "<="  (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)           35
     return Boolean;
   function "<="  (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)           36
     return Boolean;
   function ">"  (Left, Right : in Bounded_String) return Boolean;        37
   function ">"  (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)            38
     return Boolean;
   function ">"  (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)            39
     return Boolean;
   function ">=" (Left, Right : in Bounded_String) return Boolean;        40
   function ">="  (Left : in Bounded_String; Right : in String)           41
     return Boolean;
   function ">="  (Left : in String; Right : in Bounded_String)           42
     return Boolean;
-- Search functions                                                       43
```

```
44          function Index (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                       := Maps.Identity)
               return Natural;
45          function Index (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
               return Natural;
46          function Index (Source : in Bounded_String;
                            Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                            Test   : in Membership := Inside;
                            Going  : in Direction  := Forward)
               return Natural;
47          function Index_Non_Blank (Source : in Bounded_String;
                                      Going  : in Direction := Forward)
               return Natural;
48          function Count (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                       := Maps.Identity)
               return Natural;
49          function Count (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
               return Natural;
50          function Count (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                            Set      : in Maps.Character_Set)
               return Natural;
51          procedure Find_Token (Source : in Bounded_String;
                                  Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                                  Test   : in Membership;
                                  First  : out Positive;
                                  Last   : out Natural);
52       -- String translation subprograms
53          function Translate (Source  : in Bounded_String;
                                Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping)
               return Bounded_String;
54          procedure Translate (Source  : in out Bounded_String;
                                 Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping);
55          function Translate (Source  : in Bounded_String;
                                Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
               return Bounded_String;
56          procedure Translate (Source  : in out Bounded_String;
                                 Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function);
57       -- String transformation subprograms
58          function Replace_Slice (Source   : in Bounded_String;
                                    Low      : in Positive;
                                    High     : in Natural;
                                    By       : in String;
                                    Drop     : in Truncation := Error)
               return Bounded_String;
59          procedure Replace_Slice (Source   : in out Bounded_String;
                                     Low      : in Positive;
                                     High     : in Natural;
                                     By       : in String;
                                     Drop     : in Truncation := Error);
```

```
   function Insert (Source   : in Bounded_String;                                  60
                    Before   : in Positive;
                    New_Item : in String;
                    Drop     : in Truncation := Error)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Insert (Source   : in out Bounded_String;                             61
                     Before   : in Positive;
                     New_Item : in String;
                     Drop     : in Truncation := Error);
   function Overwrite (Source    : in Bounded_String;                              62
                       Position  : in Positive;
                       New_Item  : in String;
                       Drop      : in Truncation := Error)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Overwrite (Source    : in out Bounded_String;                         63
                        Position  : in Positive;
                        New_Item  : in String;
                        Drop      : in Truncation := Error);
   function Delete (Source  : in Bounded_String;                                   64
                    From    : in Positive;
                    Through : in Natural)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Delete (Source  : in out Bounded_String;                              65
                     From    : in Positive;
                     Through : in Natural);
--String selector subprograms                                                      66
   function Trim (Source : in Bounded_String;                                      67
                  Side   : in Trim_End)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Trim (Source : in out Bounded_String;
                   Side   : in Trim_End);
   function Trim (Source : in Bounded_String;                                      68
                  Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                  Right  : in Maps.Character_Set)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Trim (Source : in out Bounded_String;                                 69
                   Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                   Right  : in Maps.Character_Set);
   function Head (Source : in Bounded_String;                                      70
                  Count  : in Natural;
                  Pad    : in Character  := Space;
                  Drop   : in Truncation := Error)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Head (Source : in out Bounded_String;                                 71
                   Count  : in Natural;
                   Pad    : in Character  := Space;
                   Drop   : in Truncation := Error);
   function Tail (Source : in Bounded_String;                                      72
                  Count  : in Natural;
                  Pad    : in Character  := Space;
                  Drop   : in Truncation := Error)
      return Bounded_String;
   procedure Tail (Source : in out Bounded_String;                                 73
                   Count  : in Natural;
                   Pad    : in Character  := Space;
                   Drop   : in Truncation := Error);
--String constructor subprograms                                                   74
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                               75
                 Right : in Character)
      return Bounded_String;
```

```
76            function "*" (Left  : in Natural;
                            Right : in String)
                  return Bounded_String;
77            function "*" (Left  : in Natural;
                            Right : in Bounded_String)
                  return Bounded_String;
78            function Replicate (Count : in Natural;
                                  Item  : in Character;
                                  Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
                  return Bounded_String;
79            function Replicate (Count : in Natural;
                                  Item  : in String;
                                  Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
                  return Bounded_String;
80            function Replicate (Count : in Natural;
                                  Item  : in Bounded_String;
                                  Drop  : in Truncation := Error)
                  return Bounded_String;
81         private
              ... -- not specified by the language
         end Generic_Bounded_Length;
82    end Ada.Strings.Bounded;
```

83 Null_Bounded_String represents the null string. If an object of type Bounded_String is not otherwise initialized, it will be initialized to the same value as Null_Bounded_String.

```
84    function Length (Source : in Bounded_String) return Length_Range;
```

85 The Length function returns the length of the string represented by Source.

```
86    function To_Bounded_String (Source : in String;
                                  Drop   : in Truncation := Error)
       return Bounded_String;
```

87 If Source'Length <= Max_Length then this function returns a Bounded_String that represents Source. Otherwise the effect depends on the value of Drop:

88 • If Drop=Left, then the result is a Bounded_String that represents the string comprising the rightmost Max_Length characters of Source.

89 • If Drop=Right, then the result is a Bounded_String that represents the string comprising the leftmost Max_Length characters of Source.

90 • If Drop=Error, then Strings.Length_Error is propagated.

```
91    function To_String (Source : in Bounded_String) return String;
```

92 To_String returns the String value with lower bound 1 represented by Source. If B is a Bounded_String, then B = To_Bounded_String(To_String(B)).

93 Each of the Append functions returns a Bounded_String obtained by concatenating the string or character given or represented by one of the parameters, with the string or character given or represented by the other parameter, and applying To_Bounded_String to the concatenation result string, with Drop as provided to the Append function.

94 Each of the procedures Append(Source, New_Item, Drop) has the same effect as the corresponding assignment Source := Append(Source, New_Item, Drop).

Each of the "&" functions has the same effect as the corresponding Append function, with Error as the Drop parameter. 95

```
function Element (Source : in Bounded_String;                                    96
                  Index  : in Positive)
   return Character;
```

Returns the character at position Index in the string represented by Source; propagates Index_Error if Index > Length(Source). 97

```
procedure Replace_Element (Source : in out Bounded_String;                       98
                           Index  : in Positive;
                           By     : in Character);
```

Updates Source such that the character at position Index in the string represented by Source is By; propagates Index_Error if Index > Length(Source). 99

```
function Slice (Source : in Bounded_String;                                      100
                Low    : in Positive;
                High   : in Natural)
   return String;
```

Returns the slice at positions Low through High in the string represented by Source; propagates Index_Error if Low > Length(Source)+1. 101

Each of the functions "=", "<", ">","<=", and ">=" returns the same result as the corresponding String operation applied to the String values given or represented by the two parameters. 102

Each of the search subprograms (Index, Index_Non_Blank, Count, Find_Token) has the same effect as the corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed applied to the string represented by the Bounded_String parameter. 103

Each of the Translate subprograms, when applied to a Bounded_String, has an analogous effect to the corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed. For the Translate function, the translation is applied to the string represented by the Bounded_String parameter, and the result is converted (via To_Bounded_String) to a Bounded_String. For the Translate procedure, the string represented by the Bounded_String parameter after the translation is given by the Translate function for fixed-length strings applied to the string represented by the original value of the parameter. 104

Each of the transformation subprograms (Replace_Slice, Insert, Overwrite, Delete), selector subprograms (Trim, Head, Tail), and constructor functions ("*") has an effect based on its corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed, and Replicate is based on Fixed."*". For each of these subprograms, the corresponding fixed-length string subprogram is applied to the string represented by the Bounded_String parameter. To_Bounded_String is applied the result string, with Drop (or Error in the case of Generic_Bounded_Length."*") determining the effect when the string length exceeds Max_Length. 105

Ramification: The "/=" operations between Bounded_String and String, and between String and Bounded_String, are automatically defined based on the corrsponding "=" operations. 105.a

Implementation Advice

Bounded string objects should not be implemented by implicit pointers and dynamic allocation. 106

Implementation Note: The following is a possible implementation of the private part of the package: 106.a

106.b
```
type Bounded_String_Internals (Length : Length_Range := 0) is
   record
      Data : String(1..Length);
   end record;
```

106.c
```
type Bounded_String is
   record
      Data : Bounded_String_Internals;  -- Unconstrained
   end record;
```

106.d
```
Null_Bounded_String : constant Bounded_String :=
   (Data => (Length => 0,
             Data   => (1..0 => ' ')));
```

A.4.5 Unbounded-Length String Handling

1 The language-defined package Strings.Unbounded provides a private type Unbounded_String and a set of operations. An object of type Unbounded_String represents a String whose low bound is 1 and whose length can vary conceptually between 0 and Natural'Last. The subprograms for fixed-length string handling are either overloaded directly for Unbounded_String, or are modified as needed to reflect the flexibility in length. Since the Unbounded_String type is private, relevant constructor and selector operations are provided.

1.a **Reason:** The transformation operations for fixed- and bounded-length strings that are not necessarily length preserving are supplied for Unbounded_String as procedures as well as functions. This allows an implementation to do an initial allocation for an unbounded string and to avoid further allocations as long as the length does not exceed the allocated length.

Static Semantics

2 The library package Strings.Unbounded has the following declaration:

3
```
with Ada.Strings.Maps;
package Ada.Strings.Unbounded is
   pragma Preelaborate(Unbounded);
```

4
```
   type Unbounded_String is private;
```

5
```
   Null_Unbounded_String : constant Unbounded_String;
```

6
```
   function Length (Source : in Unbounded_String) return Natural;
```

7
```
   type String_Access is access all String;
   procedure Free (X : in out String_Access);
```

8
```
-- Conversion, Concatenation, and Selection functions
```

9
```
   function To_Unbounded_String (Source : in String)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

10
```
   function To_Unbounded_String (Length : in Natural)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

11
```
   function To_String (Source : in Unbounded_String) return String;
```

12
```
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Unbounded_String;
                     New_Item : in Unbounded_String);
```

13
```
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Unbounded_String;
                     New_Item : in String);
```

14
```
   procedure Append (Source   : in out Unbounded_String;
                     New_Item : in Character);
```

15
```
   function "&" (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

16
```
   function "&" (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

17
```
   function "&" (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

18
```
   function "&" (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in Character)
      return Unbounded_String;
```

```
   function "&" (Left : in Character; Right : in Unbounded_String)                    19
      return Unbounded_String;
   function Element (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                    20
                     Index  : in Positive)
      return Character;
   procedure Replace_Element (Source : in out Unbounded_String;                       21
                              Index  : in Positive;
                              By     : in Character);
   function Slice (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                      22
                   Low    : in Positive;
                   High   : in Natural)
      return String;
   function "="  (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String) return Boolean;                  23
   function "="  (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)                      24
     return Boolean;
   function "="  (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)                      25
     return Boolean;
   function "<"  (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String) return Boolean;                  26
   function "<"  (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)                      27
     return Boolean;
   function "<"  (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)                      28
     return Boolean;
   function "<=" (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String) return Boolean;                  29
   function "<="  (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)                     30
     return Boolean;
   function "<="  (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)                     31
     return Boolean;
   function ">"  (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String) return Boolean;                  32
   function ">"  (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)                      33
     return Boolean;
   function ">"  (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)                      34
     return Boolean;
   function ">=" (Left, Right : in Unbounded_String) return Boolean;                  35
   function ">="  (Left : in Unbounded_String; Right : in String)                     36
     return Boolean;
   function ">="  (Left : in String; Right : in Unbounded_String)                     37
     return Boolean;
-- Search subprograms                                                                38
   function Index (Source   : in Unbounded_String;                                    39
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                 := Maps.Identity)
      return Natural;
   function Index (Source   : in Unbounded_String;                                    40
                   Pattern  : in String;
                   Going    : in Direction := Forward;
                   Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
      return Natural;
   function Index (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                      41
                   Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                   Test   : in Membership := Inside;
                   Going  : in Direction  := Forward) return Natural;
   function Index_Non_Blank (Source : in Unbounded_String;                            42
                             Going  : in Direction := Forward)
      return Natural;
```

```
43          function Count (Source   : in Unbounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping
                                         := Maps.Identity)
               return Natural;
44          function Count (Source   : in Unbounded_String;
                            Pattern  : in String;
                            Mapping  : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
               return Natural;
45          function Count (Source   : in Unbounded_String;
                            Set      : in Maps.Character_Set)
               return Natural;
46          procedure Find_Token (Source : in Unbounded_String;
                                  Set    : in Maps.Character_Set;
                                  Test   : in Membership;
                                  First  : out Positive;
                                  Last   : out Natural);
47       -- String translation subprograms
48          function Translate (Source  : in Unbounded_String;
                                Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping)
               return Unbounded_String;
49          procedure Translate (Source  : in out Unbounded_String;
                                 Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping);
50          function Translate (Source  : in Unbounded_String;
                                Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function)
               return Unbounded_String;
51          procedure Translate (Source  : in out Unbounded_String;
                                 Mapping : in Maps.Character_Mapping_Function);
52       -- String transformation subprograms
53          function Replace_Slice (Source   : in Unbounded_String;
                                    Low      : in Positive;
                                    High     : in Natural;
                                    By       : in String)
               return Unbounded_String;
54          procedure Replace_Slice (Source   : in out Unbounded_String;
                                     Low      : in Positive;
                                     High     : in Natural;
                                     By       : in String);
55          function Insert (Source   : in Unbounded_String;
                             Before   : in Positive;
                             New_Item : in String)
               return Unbounded_String;
56          procedure Insert (Source   : in out Unbounded_String;
                              Before   : in Positive;
                              New_Item : in String);
57          function Overwrite (Source    : in Unbounded_String;
                                Position  : in Positive;
                                New_Item  : in String)
               return Unbounded_String;
58          procedure Overwrite (Source    : in out Unbounded_String;
                                 Position  : in Positive;
                                 New_Item  : in String);
59          function Delete (Source  : in Unbounded_String;
                             From    : in Positive;
                             Through : in Natural)
               return Unbounded_String;
60          procedure Delete (Source  : in out Unbounded_String;
                              From    : in Positive;
                              Through : in Natural);
```

```
   function Trim (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                    61
                  Side   : in Trim_End)
      return Unbounded_String;
   procedure Trim (Source : in out Unbounded_String;                               62
                   Side   : in Trim_End);
   function Trim (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                    63
                  Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                  Right  : in Maps.Character_Set)
      return Unbounded_String;
   procedure Trim (Source : in out Unbounded_String;                               64
                   Left   : in Maps.Character_Set;
                   Right  : in Maps.Character_Set);
   function Head (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                    65
                  Count  : in Natural;
                  Pad    : in Character := Space)
      return Unbounded_String;
   procedure Head (Source : in out Unbounded_String;                               66
                   Count  : in Natural;
                   Pad    : in Character := Space);
   function Tail (Source : in Unbounded_String;                                    67
                  Count  : in Natural;
                  Pad    : in Character := Space)
      return Unbounded_String;
   procedure Tail (Source : in out Unbounded_String;                               68
                   Count  : in Natural;
                   Pad    : in Character := Space);
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                               69
                 Right : in Character)
      return Unbounded_String;
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                               70
                 Right : in String)
      return Unbounded_String;
   function "*" (Left  : in Natural;                                               71
                 Right : in Unbounded_String)
      return Unbounded_String;
private                                                                            72
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Strings.Unbounded;
```

Null_Unbounded_String represents the null String. If an object of type Unbounded_String is not otherwise initialized, it will be initialized to the same value as Null_Unbounded_String. 73

The function Length returns the length of the String represented by Source. 74

The type String_Access provides a (non-private) access type for explicit processing of unbounded-length strings. The procedure Free performs an unchecked deallocation of an object of type String_Access. 75

The function To_Unbounded_String(Source : in String) returns an Unbounded_String that represents Source. The function To_Unbounded_String(Length : in Natural) returns an Unbounded_String that represents an uninitialized String whose length is Length. 76

The function To_String returns the String with lower bound 1 represented by Source. To_String and To_Unbounded_String are related as follows: 77

- If S is a String, then To_String(To_Unbounded_String(S)) = S. 78
- If U is an Unbounded_String, then To_Unbounded_String(To_String(U)) = U. 79

80 For each of the Append procedures, the resulting string represented by the Source parameter is given by the concatenation of the original value of Source and the value of New_Item.

81 Each of the "&" functions returns an Unbounded_String obtained by concatenating the string or character given or represented by one of the parameters, with the string or character given or represented by the other parameter, and applying To_Unbounded_String to the concatenation result string.

82 The Element, Replace_Element, and Slice subprograms have the same effect as the corresponding bounded-length string subprograms.

83 Each of the functions "=", "<", ">","<=", and ">=" returns the same result as the corresponding String operation applied to the String values given or represented by Left and Right.

84 Each of the search subprograms (Index, Index_Non_Blank, Count, Find_Token) has the same effect as the corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed applied to the string represented by the Unbounded_String parameter.

85 The Translate function has an analogous effect to the corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed. The translation is applied to the string represented by the Unbounded_String parameter, and the result is converted (via To_Unbounded_String) to an Unbounded_String.

86 Each of the transformation functions (Replace_Slice, Insert, Overwrite, Delete), selector functions (Trim, Head, Tail), and constructor functions ("*") is likewise analogous to its corresponding subprogram in Strings.Fixed. For each of the subprograms, the corresponding fixed-length string subprogram is applied to the string represented by the Unbounded_String parameter, and To_Unbounded_String is applied the result string.

87 For each of the procedures Translate, Replace_Slice, Insert, Overwrite, Delete, Trim, Head, and Tail, the resulting string represented by the Source parameter is given by the corresponding function for fixed-length strings applied to the string represented by Source's original value.

Implementation Requirements

88 No storage associated with an Unbounded_String object shall be lost upon assignment or scope exit.

88.a **Implementation Note:** A sample implementation of the private part of the package and several of the subprograms appears in the Rationale.

A.4.6 String-Handling Sets and Mappings

1 The language-defined package Strings.Maps.Constants declares Character_Set and Character_Mapping constants corresponding to classification and conversion functions in package Characters.Handling.

1.a **Discussion:** The Constants package is a child of Strings.Maps since it needs visibility of the private part of Strings.Maps in order to initialize the constants in a preelaborable way (i.e. via aggregates versus function calls).

Static Semantics

2 The library package Strings.Maps.Constants has the following declaration:

3
```
package Ada.Strings.Maps.Constants is
   pragma Preelaborate(Constants);
```

```
   Control_Set           : constant Character_Set;                                4
   Graphic_Set           : constant Character_Set;
   Letter_Set            : constant Character_Set;
   Lower_Set             : constant Character_Set;
   Upper_Set             : constant Character_Set;
   Basic_Set             : constant Character_Set;
   Decimal_Digit_Set     : constant Character_Set;
   Hexadecimal_Digit_Set : constant Character_Set;
   Alphanumeric_Set      : constant Character_Set;
   Special_Set           : constant Character_Set;
   ISO_646_Set           : constant Character_Set;

   Lower_Case_Map        : constant Character_Mapping;                            5
     --Maps to lower case for letters, else identity
   Upper_Case_Map        : constant Character_Mapping;
     --Maps to upper case for letters, else identity
   Basic_Map             : constant Character_Mapping;
     --Maps to basic letter for letters, else identity

private                                                                           6
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Strings.Maps.Constants;
```

Each of these constants represents a correspondingly named set of characters or character mapping in Characters.Handling (see A.3.2). 7

A.4.7 Wide_String Handling

Facilities for handling strings of Wide_Character elements are found in the packages Strings.Wide_Maps, Strings.Wide_Fixed, Strings.Wide_Bounded, Strings.Wide_Unbounded, and Strings.Wide_Maps.Wide_Constants. They provide the same string-handling operations as the corresponding packages for strings of Character elements. {*Ada.Strings.Wide_Fixed*} {*Ada.Strings.Wide_Bounded*} {*Ada.Strings.Wide_Unbounded*} {*Ada.Strings.Wide_Maps.Wide_Constants*} 1

Static Semantics

The package Strings.Wide_Maps has the following declaration. 2

```
package Ada.Strings.Wide_Maps is                                                  3
   pragma Preelaborate(Wide_Maps);

   -- Representation for a set of Wide_Character values:                          4
   type Wide_Character_Set is private;

   Null_Set : constant Wide_Character_Set;                                        5

   type Wide_Character_Range is                                                   6
     record
         Low  : Wide_Character;
         High : Wide_Character;
     end record;
   -- Represents Wide_Character range Low..High

   type Wide_Character_Ranges is array (Positive range <>) of Wide_Character_Range;  7

   function To_Set    (Ranges : in Wide_Character_Ranges) return Wide_Character_Set;  8

   function To_Set    (Span   : in Wide_Character_Range)  return Wide_Character_Set;  9

   function To_Ranges (Set    : in Wide_Character_Set)    return Wide_Character_Ranges;10

   function "="   (Left, Right : in Wide_Character_Set) return Boolean;           11

   function "not" (Right : in Wide_Character_Set)       return Wide_Character_Set;12
   function "and" (Left, Right : in Wide_Character_Set) return Wide_Character_Set;
   function "or"  (Left, Right : in Wide_Character_Set) return Wide_Character_Set;
   function "xor" (Left, Right : in Wide_Character_Set) return Wide_Character_Set;
   function "-"   (Left, Right : in Wide_Character_Set) return Wide_Character_Set;

   function Is_In (Element : in Wide_Character;                                   13
                   Set     : in Wide_Character_Set)
      return Boolean;
```

```
      function Is_Subset (Elements : in Wide_Character_Set;
                          Set      : in Wide_Character_Set)
         return Boolean;
      function "<=" (Left  : in Wide_Character_Set;
                     Right : in Wide_Character_Set)
         return Boolean renames Is_Subset;
      -- Alternative representation for a set of Wide_Character values:
      subtype Wide_Character_Sequence is Wide_String;
      function To_Set (Sequence  : in Wide_Character_Sequence) return Wide_Character_Set;
      function To_Set (Singleton : in Wide_Character) return Wide_Character_Set;
      function To_Sequence (Set  : in Wide_Character_Set) return Wide_Character_Sequence;
      -- Representation for a Wide_Character to Wide_Character mapping:
      type Wide_Character_Mapping is private;
      function Value (Map     : in Wide_Character_Mapping;
                      Element : in Wide_Character)
         return Wide_Character;
      Identity : constant Wide_Character_Mapping;
      function To_Mapping (From, To : in Wide_Character_Sequence)
         return Wide_Character_Mapping;
      function To_Domain (Map : in Wide_Character_Mapping)
         return Wide_Character_Sequence;
      function To_Range  (Map : in Wide_Character_Mapping)
         return Wide_Character_Sequence;
      type Wide_Character_Mapping_Function is
         access function (From : in Wide_Character) return Wide_Character;
   private
      ... -- not specified by the language
   end Ada.Strings.Wide_Maps;
```

The context clause for each of the packages Strings.Wide_Fixed, Strings.Wide_Bounded, and Strings.-Wide_Unbounded identifies Strings.Wide_Maps instead of Strings.Maps.

For each of the packages Strings.Fixed, Strings.Bounded, Strings.Unbounded, and Strings.Maps.-Constants the corresponding wide string package has the same contents except that

- Wide_Space replaces Space
- Wide_Character replaces Character
- Wide_String replaces String
- Wide_Character_Set replaces Character_Set
- Wide_Character_Mapping replaces Character_Mapping
- Wide_Character_Mapping_Function replaces Character_Mapping_Function
- Wide_Maps replaces Maps
- Bounded_Wide_String replaces Bounded_String
- Null_Bounded_Wide_String replaces Null_Bounded_String
- To_Bounded_Wide_String replaces To_Bounded_String
- To_Wide_String replaces To_String
- Unbounded_Wide_String replaces Unbounded_String
- Null_Unbounded_Wide_String replaces Null_Unbounded_String

- Wide_String_Access replaces String_Access 43
- To_Unbounded_Wide_String replaces To_Unbounded_String 44

The following additional declaration is present in Strings.Wide_Maps.Wide_Constants: 45

```
Character_Set : constant Wide_Maps.Wide_Character_Set;
--Contains each Wide_Character value WC such that Characters.Is_Character(WC) is True
```
46

NOTES

12 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If a null Wide_Character_Mapping_Function is passed to any of the Wide_String handling subprograms, Constraint_Error is propagated. 47

13 Each Wide_Character_Set constant in the package Strings.Wide_Maps.Wide_Constants contains no values outside the Character portion of Wide_Character. Similarly, each Wide_Character_Mapping constant in this package is the identity mapping when applied to any element outside the Character portion of Wide_Character. 48

A.5 The Numerics Packages

The library package Numerics is the parent of several child units that provide facilities for mathematical computation. One child, the generic package Generic_Elementary_Functions, is defined in A.5.1, together with nongeneric equivalents; two others, the package Float_Random and the generic package Discrete_Random, are defined in A.5.2. Additional (optional) children are defined in Annex G, ‘‘Numerics’’. 1

Static Semantics

2

```
package Ada.Numerics is
   pragma Pure(Numerics);
   Argument_Error : exception;
   Pi : constant :=
          3.14159_26535_89793_23846_26433_83279_50288_41971_69399_37511;
   e  : constant :=
          2.71828_18284_59045_23536_02874_71352_66249_77572_47093_69996;
end Ada.Numerics;
```
3

The Argument_Error exception is raised by a subprogram in a child unit of Numerics to signal that one or more of the actual subprogram parameters are outside the domain of the corresponding mathematical function. 4

Implementation Permissions

The implementation may specify the values of Pi and e to a larger number of significant digits. 5

Reason: 51 digits seem more than adequate for all present computers; converted to binary, the values given above are accurate to more than 160 bits. Nevertheless, the permission allows implementations to accommodate unforeseen hardware advances. 5.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Numerics and its children were not predefined in Ada 83. 5.b

A.5.1 Elementary Functions

Implementation-defined approximations to the mathematical functions known as the ‘‘elementary functions’’ are provided by the subprograms in Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions. Nongeneric equivalents of this generic package for each of the predefined floating point types are also provided as children of Numerics. 1

1.a **Implementation defined:** The accuracy actually achieved by the elementary functions.

Static Semantics

2 The generic library package Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions has the following declaration:

3
```
generic
   type Float_Type is digits <>;
package Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions is
   pragma Pure(Generic_Elementary_Functions);
```

4
```
   function Sqrt    (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Log     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Log     (X, Base     : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Exp     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function "**"    (Left, Right : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
```

5
```
   function Sin     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Sin     (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Cos     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Cos     (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Tan     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Tan     (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Cot     (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Cot     (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
```

6
```
   function Arcsin  (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arcsin  (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccos  (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccos  (X, Cycle    : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arctan  (Y           : Float_Type'Base;
                     X           : Float_Type'Base := 1.0) return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arctan  (Y           : Float_Type'Base;
                     X           : Float_Type'Base := 1.0;
                     Cycle       : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccot  (X           : Float_Type'Base;
                     Y           : Float_Type'Base := 1.0) return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccot  (X           : Float_Type'Base;
                     Y           : Float_Type'Base := 1.0;
                     Cycle       : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
```

7
```
   function Sinh    (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Cosh    (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Tanh    (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Coth    (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arcsinh (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccosh (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arctanh (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
   function Arccoth (X           : Float_Type'Base)        return Float_Type'Base;
```

8
```
end Ada.Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions;
```

9 {*Ada.Numerics.Elementary_Functions*} The library package Numerics.Elementary_Functions defines the same subprograms as Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, except that the predefined type Float is systematically substituted for Float_Type'Base throughout. Nongeneric equivalents of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions for each of the other predefined floating point types are defined similarly, with the names Numerics.Short_Elementary_Functions, Numerics.Long_Elementary_Functions, etc.

9.a **Reason:** The nongeneric equivalents are provided to allow the programmer to construct simple mathematical applications without being required to understand and use generics.

10 The functions have their usual mathematical meanings. When the Base parameter is specified, the Log function computes the logarithm to the given base; otherwise, it computes the natural logarithm. When the Cycle parameter is specified, the parameter X of the forward trigonometric functions (Sin, Cos, Tan, and Cot) and the results of the inverse trigonometric functions (Arcsin, Arccos, Arctan, and Arccot) are measured in units such that a full cycle of revolution has the given value; otherwise, they are measured in radians.

The computed results of the mathematically multivalued functions are rendered single-valued by the following conventions, which are meant to imply the principal branch: 11

- The results of the Sqrt and Arccosh functions and that of the exponentiation operator are nonnegative. 12
- The result of the Arcsin function is in the quadrant containing the point (1.0, *x*), where *x* is the value of the parameter X. This quadrant is I or IV; thus, the range of the Arcsin function is approximately $-\pi/2.0$ to $\pi/2.0$ (–Cycle/4.0 to Cycle/4.0, if the parameter Cycle is specified). 13
- The result of the Arccos function is in the quadrant containing the point (*x*, 1.0), where *x* is the value of the parameter X. This quadrant is I or II; thus, the Arccos function ranges from 0.0 to approximately π (Cycle/2.0, if the parameter Cycle is specified). 14
- The results of the Arctan and Arccot functions are in the quadrant containing the point (*x*, *y*), where *x* and *y* are the values of the parameters X and Y, respectively. This may be any quadrant (I through IV) when the parameter X (resp., Y) of Arctan (resp., Arccot) is specified, but it is restricted to quadrants I and IV (resp., I and II) when that parameter is omitted. Thus, the range when that parameter is specified is approximately $-\pi$ to π (–Cycle/2.0 to Cycle/2.0, if the parameter Cycle is specified); when omitted, the range of Arctan (resp., Arccot) is that of Arcsin (resp., Arccos), as given above. When the point (*x*, *y*) lies on the negative x-axis, the result approximates 15
  - π (resp., $-\pi$) when the sign of the parameter Y is positive (resp., negative), if Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True; 16
  - π, if Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is False. 17

(In the case of the inverse trigonometric functions, in which a result lying on or near one of the axes may not be exactly representable, the approximation inherent in computing the result may place it in an adjacent quadrant, close to but on the wrong side of the axis.) 18

Dynamic Semantics

The exception Numerics.Argument_Error is raised, signaling a parameter value outside the domain of the corresponding mathematical function, in the following cases: 19

- by any forward or inverse trigonometric function with specified cycle, when the value of the parameter Cycle is zero or negative; 20
- by the Log function with specified base, when the value of the parameter Base is zero, one, or negative; 21
- by the Sqrt and Log functions, when the value of the parameter X is negative; 22
- by the exponentiation operator, when the value of the left operand is negative or when both operands have the value zero; 23
- by the Arcsin, Arccos, and Arctanh functions, when the absolute value of the parameter X exceeds one; 24
- by the Arctan and Arccot functions, when the parameters X and Y both have the value zero; 25
- by the Arccosh function, when the value of the parameter X is less than one; and 26
- by the Arccoth function, when the absolute value of the parameter X is less than one. 27

{*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised, signaling a pole of the mathematical function (analogous to dividing by zero), in the following cases, provided that Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is True: 28

- by the Log, Cot, and Coth functions, when the value of the parameter X is zero;
- by the exponentiation operator, when the value of the left operand is zero and the value of the exponent is negative;
- by the Tan function with specified cycle, when the value of the parameter X is an odd multiple of the quarter cycle;
- by the Cot function with specified cycle, when the value of the parameter X is zero or a multiple of the half cycle; and
- by the Arctanh and Arccoth functions, when the absolute value of the parameter X is one.

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} [Constraint_Error can also be raised when a finite result overflows (see G.2.4); this may occur for parameter values sufficiently *near* poles, and, in the case of some of the functions, for parameter values with sufficiently large magnitudes.]

Reason: The purpose of raising Constraint_Error (rather than Numerics.Argument_Error) at the poles of a function, when Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is True, is to provide continuous behavior as the actual parameters of the function approach the pole and finally reach it.

{*unspecified* [partial]} When Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is False, the result at poles is unspecified.

Discussion: It is anticipated that an Ada binding to IEC 559:1989 will be developed in the future. As part of such a binding, the Machine_Overflows attribute of a conformant floating point type will be specified to yield False, which will permit both the predefined arithmetic operations and implementations of the elementary functions to deliver signed infinities (and set the overflow flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error in overflow situations, when traps are disabled. Similarly, it is appropriate for the elementary functions to deliver signed infinities (and set the zero-divide flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error at poles, when traps are disabled. Finally, such a binding should also specify the behavior of the elementary functions, when sensible, given parameters with infinite values.

When one parameter of a function with multiple parameters represents a pole and another is outside the function's domain, the latter takes precedence (i.e., Numerics.Argument_Error is raised).

Implementation Requirements

In the implementation of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, the range of intermediate values allowed during the calculation of a final result shall not be affected by any range constraint of the subtype Float_Type.

Implementation Note: Implementations of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions written in Ada should therefore avoid declaring local variables of subtype Float_Type; the subtype Float_Type'Base should be used instead.

{*prescribed result (for the evaluation of an elementary function)*} In the following cases, evaluation of an elementary function shall yield the *prescribed result*, provided that the preceding rules do not call for an exception to be raised:

- When the parameter X has the value zero, the Sqrt, Sin, Arcsin, Tan, Sinh, Arcsinh, Tanh, and Arctanh functions yield a result of zero, and the Exp, Cos, and Cosh functions yield a result of one.
- When the parameter X has the value one, the Sqrt function yields a result of one, and the Log, Arccos, and Arccosh functions yield a result of zero.
- When the parameter Y has the value zero and the parameter X has a positive value, the Arctan and Arccot functions yield a result of zero.
- The results of the Sin, Cos, Tan, and Cot functions with specified cycle are exact when the mathematical result is zero; those of the first two are also exact when the mathematical result is ± 1.0.

- Exponentiation by a zero exponent yields the value one. Exponentiation by a unit exponent yields the value of the left operand. Exponentiation of the value one yields the value one. Exponentiation of the value zero yields the value zero. 42

Other accuracy requirements for the elementary functions, which apply only in implementations conforming to the Numerics Annex, and then only in the ''strict'' mode defined there (see G.2), are given in G.2.4. 43

When Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True, the sign of a zero result shall be as follows: 44

- A prescribed zero result delivered *at the origin* by one of the odd functions (Sin, Arcsin, Sinh, Arcsinh, Tan, Arctan or Arccot as a function of Y when X is fixed and positive, Tanh, and Arctanh) has the sign of the parameter X (Y, in the case of Arctan or Arccot). 45

- A prescribed zero result delivered by one of the odd functions *away from the origin*, or by some other elementary function, has an implementation-defined sign. 46

  Implementation defined: The sign of a zero result from some of the operators or functions in Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, when Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True. 46.a

- [A zero result that is not a prescribed result (i.e., one that results from rounding or underflow) has the correct mathematical sign. 47

  Reason: This is a consequence of the rules specified in IEC 559:1989 as they apply to underflow situations with traps disabled. 47.a

  ]

Implementation Permissions

The nongeneric equivalent packages may, but need not, be actual instantiations of the generic package for the appropriate predefined type. 48

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The semantics of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions differs from Generic_Elementary_Functions as defined in ISO/IEC DIS 11430 (for Ada 83) in the following ways: 48.a

- The generic package is a child unit of the package defining the Argument_Error exception. 48.b
- DIS 11430 specified names for the nongeneric equivalents, if provided. Here, those nongeneric equivalents are required. 48.c
- Implementations are not allowed to impose an optional restriction that the generic actual parameter associated with Float_Type be unconstrained. (In view of the ability to declare variables of subtype Float_Type'Base in implementations of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, this flexibility is no longer needed.) 48.d
- The sign of a prescribed zero result at the origin of the odd functions is specified, when Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True. This conforms with recommendations of Kahan and other numerical analysts. 48.e
- The dependence of Arctan and Arccot on the sign of a parameter value of zero is tied to the value of Float_Type'Signed_Zeros. 48.f
- Sqrt is prescribed to yield a result of one when its parameter has the value one. This guarantee makes it easier to achieve certain prescribed results of the complex elementary functions (see G.1.2, ''Complex Elementary Functions''). 48.g
- Conformance to accuracy requirements is conditional. 48.h

A.5.2 Random Number Generation

1 [Facilities for the generation of pseudo-random floating point numbers are provided in the package Numerics.Float_Random; the generic package Numerics.Discrete_Random provides similar facilities for the generation of pseudo-random integers and pseudo-random values of enumeration types. {*random number*} For brevity, pseudo-random values of any of these types are called *random numbers*.

2 Some of the facilities provided are basic to all applications of random numbers. These include a limited private type each of whose objects serves as the generator of a (possibly distinct) sequence of random numbers; a function to obtain the ‘‘next’’ random number from a given sequence of random numbers (that is, from its generator); and subprograms to initialize or reinitialize a given generator to a time-dependent state or a state denoted by a single integer.

3 Other facilities are provided specifically for advanced applications. These include subprograms to save and restore the state of a given generator; a private type whose objects can be used to hold the saved state of a generator; and subprograms to obtain a string representation of a given generator state, or, given such a string representation, the corresponding state.]

3.a **Discussion:** These facilities support a variety of requirements ranging from repeatable sequences (for debugging) to unique sequences in each execution of a program.

Static Semantics

4 The library package Numerics.Float_Random has the following declaration:

5
```
package Ada.Numerics.Float_Random is
```

6
```
   -- Basic facilities
```

7
```
   type Generator is limited private;
```

8
```
   subtype Uniformly_Distributed is Float range 0.0 .. 1.0;
   function Random (Gen : Generator) return Uniformly_Distributed;
```

9
```
   procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator;
                    Initiator : in Integer);
   procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator);
```

10
```
   -- Advanced facilities
```

11
```
   type State is private;
```

12
```
   procedure Save  (Gen        : in  Generator;
                    To_State   : out State);
   procedure Reset (Gen        : in  Generator;
                    From_State : in  State);
```

13
```
   Max_Image_Width : constant := implementation-defined integer value;
```

14
```
   function Image (Of_State    : State)  return String;
   function Value (Coded_State : String) return State;
```

15
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Numerics.Float_Random;
```

16 The generic library package Numerics.Discrete_Random has the following declaration:

17
```
generic
   type Result_Subtype is (<>);
package Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random is
```

18
```
   -- Basic facilities
```

19
```
   type Generator is limited private;
```

20
```
   function Random (Gen : Generator) return Result_Subtype;
```

21
```
   procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator;
                    Initiator : in Integer);
   procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator);
```

22
```
   -- Advanced facilities
```

```
   type State is private;                                                    23
   procedure Save  (Gen        : in  Generator;                              24
                    To_State   : out State);
   procedure Reset (Gen        : in  Generator;
                    From_State : in  State);
   Max_Image_Width : constant := implementation-defined integer value;       25
   function Image (Of_State    : State)  return String;                      26
   function Value (Coded_State : String) return State;
private                                                                      27
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random;
```

Implementation defined: The value of Numerics.Float_Random.Max_Image_Width. 27.a

Implementation defined: The value of Numerics.Discrete_Random.Max_Image_Width. 27.b

Implementation Note: The following is a possible implementation of the private part of each package (assuming the presence of ‘‘**with** Ada.Finalization;’’ as a context clause): 27.c

```
type State is ...;                                                           27.d
type Access_State is access State;
type Generator is new Finalization.Limited_Controlled with
   record
      S : Access_State := new State'(...);
   end record;
procedure Finalize (G : in out Generator);
```

Clearly some level of indirection is required in the implementation of a Generator, since the parameter mode is **in** for all operations on a Generator. For this reason, Numerics.Float_Random and Numerics.Discrete_Random cannot be declared pure. 27.e

An object of the limited private type Generator is associated with a sequence of random numbers. Each generator has a hidden (internal) state, which the operations on generators use to determine the position in the associated sequence. {*unspecified* [partial]} All generators are implicitly initialized to an unspecified state that does not vary from one program execution to another; they may also be explicitly initialized, or reinitialized, to a time-dependent state, to a previously saved state, or to a state uniquely denoted by an integer value. 28

Discussion: The repeatability provided by the implicit initialization may be exploited for testing or debugging purposes. 28.a

An object of the private type State can be used to hold the internal state of a generator. Such objects are only needed if the application is designed to save and restore generator states or to examine or manufacture them. 29

The operations on generators affect the state and therefore the future values of the associated sequence. The semantics of the operations on generators and states are defined below. 30

```
function Random (Gen : Generator) return Uniformly_Distributed;              31
function Random (Gen : Generator) return Result_Subtype;
```

Obtains the ‘‘next’’ random number from the given generator, relative to its current state, according to an implementation-defined algorithm. The result of the function in Numerics.Float_Random is delivered as a value of the subtype Uniformly_Distributed, which is a subtype of the predefined type Float having a range of 0.0 .. 1.0. The result of the function in an instantiation of Numerics.Discrete_Random is delivered as a value of the generic formal subtype Result_Subtype. 32

Implementation defined: The algorithms for random number generation. 32.a

32.b **Reason:** The requirement for a level of indirection in accessing the internal state of a generator arises from the desire to make Random a function, rather than a procedure.

33
```
procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator;
                 Initiator : in Integer);
procedure Reset (Gen       : in Generator);
```

34 {*unspecified* [partial]} Sets the state of the specified generator to one that is an unspecified function of the value of the parameter Initiator (or to a time-dependent state, if only a generator parameter is specified). {*Time-dependent Reset procedure (of the random number generator)*} The latter form of the procedure is known as the *time-dependent Reset procedure*.

34.a **Implementation Note:** The time-dependent Reset procedure can be implemented by mapping the current time and date as determined by the system clock into a state, but other implementations are possible. For example, a white-noise generator or a radioactive source can be used to generate time-dependent states.

35
```
procedure Save  (Gen        : in  Generator;
                 To_State   : out State);
procedure Reset (Gen        : in  Generator;
                 From_State : in  State);
```

36 Save obtains the current state of a generator. Reset gives a generator the specified state. A generator that is reset to a state previously obtained by invoking Save is restored to the state it had when Save was invoked.

37
```
function Image (Of_State    : State)  return String;
function Value (Coded_State : String) return State;
```

38 Image provides a representation of a state coded (in an implementation-defined way) as a string whose length is bounded by the value of Max_Image_Width. Value is the inverse of Image: Value(Image(S)) = S for each state S that can be obtained from a generator by invoking Save.

38.a **Implementation defined:** The string representation of a random number generator's state.

Dynamic Semantics

39 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Instantiation of Numerics.Discrete_Random with a subtype having a null range raises Constraint_Error.

40 {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Invoking Value with a string that is not the image of any generator state raises Constraint_Error.

Implementation Requirements

41 A sufficiently long sequence of random numbers obtained by successive calls to Random is approximately uniformly distributed over the range of the result subtype.

42 The Random function in an instantiation of Numerics.Discrete_Random is guaranteed to yield each value in its result subtype in a finite number of calls, provided that the number of such values does not exceed 2^{15}.

43 Other performance requirements for the random number generator, which apply only in implementations conforming to the Numerics Annex, and then only in the ''strict'' mode defined there (see G.2), are given in G.2.5.

Documentation Requirements

44 {*documentation requirements*} No one algorithm for random number generation is best for all applications. To enable the user to determine the suitability of the random number generators for the intended application,

the implementation shall describe the algorithm used and shall give its period, if known exactly, or a lower bound on the period, if the exact period is unknown. Periods that are so long that the periodicity is unobservable in practice can be described in such terms, without giving a numerical bound.

The implementation also shall document the minimum time interval between calls to the time-dependent Reset procedure that are guaranteed to initiate different sequences, and it shall document the nature of the strings that Value will accept without raising Constraint_Error. 45

Implementation defined: The minimum time interval between calls to the time-dependent Reset procedure that are guaranteed to initiate different random number sequences. 45.a

Implementation Advice

Any storage associated with an object of type Generator should be reclaimed on exit from the scope of the object. 46

Ramification: A level of indirection is implicit in the semantics of the operations, given that they all take parameters of mode **in**. This implies that the full type of Generator probably should be a controlled type, with appropriate finalization to reclaim any heap-allocated storage. 46.a

If the generator period is sufficiently long in relation to the number of distinct initiator values, then each possible value of Initiator passed to Reset should initiate a sequence of random numbers that does not, in a practical sense, overlap the sequence initiated by any other value. If this is not possible, then the mapping between initiator values and generator states should be a rapidly varying function of the initiator value. 47

NOTES

14 If two or more tasks are to share the same generator, then the tasks have to synchronize their access to the generator as for any shared variable (see 9.10). 48

15 Within a given implementation, a repeatable random number sequence can be obtained by relying on the implicit initialization of generators or by explicitly initializing a generator with a repeatable initiator value. Different sequences of random numbers can be obtained from a given generator in different program executions by explicitly initializing the generator to a time-dependent state. 49

16 A given implementation of the Random function in Numerics.Float_Random may or may not be capable of delivering the values 0.0 or 1.0. Portable applications should assume that these values, or values sufficiently close to them to behave indistinguishably from them, can occur. If a sequence of random integers from some fixed range is needed, the application should use the Random function in an appropriate instantiation of Numerics.Discrete_Random, rather than transforming the result of the Random function in Numerics.Float_Random. However, some applications with unusual requirements, such as for a sequence of random integers each drawn from a different range, will find it more convenient to transform the result of the floating point Random function. For $M \geq 1$, the expression 50

```
Integer(Float(M) * Random(G)) mod M
```
51

transforms the result of Random(G) to an integer uniformly distributed over the range 0 .. M–1; it is valid even if Random delivers 0.0 or 1.0. Each value of the result range is possible, provided that M is not too large. Exponentially distributed (floating point) random numbers with mean and standard deviation 1.0 can be obtained by the transformation 52

```
-Log(Random(G) + Float'Model_Small))
```
53

where Log comes from Numerics.Elementary_Functions (see A.5.1); in this expression, the addition of Float'Model_Small avoids the exception that would be raised were Log to be given the value zero, without affecting the result (in most implementations) when Random returns a nonzero value. 54

Examples

Example of a program that plays a simulated dice game: 55

```
with Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random;
procedure Dice_Game is
```
56

```
      subtype Die is Integer range 1 .. 6;
      subtype Dice is Integer range 2*Die'First .. 2*Die'Last;
      package Random_Die is new Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random (Die);
      use Random_Die;
      G : Generator;
      D : Dice;
   begin
      Reset (G);  -- Start the generator in a unique state in each run
      loop
         -- Roll a pair of dice; sum and process the results
         D := Random(G) + Random(G);
         ...
      end loop;
   end Dice_Game;
```

57 *Example of a program that simulates coin tosses:*

58
```
   with Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random;
   procedure Flip_A_Coin is
      type Coin is (Heads, Tails);
      package Random_Coin is new Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random (Coin);
      use Random_Coin;
      G : Generator;
   begin
      Reset (G);  -- Start the generator in a unique state in each run
      loop
         -- Toss a coin and process the result
         case Random(G) is
             when Heads =>
                ...
             when Tails =>
                ...
         end case;
      ...
      end loop;
   end Flip_A_Coin;
```

59 *Example of a parallel simulation of a physical system, with a separate generator of event probabilities in each task:*

60
```
   with Ada.Numerics.Float_Random;
   procedure Parallel_Simulation is
      use Ada.Numerics.Float_Random;
      task type Worker is
         entry Initialize_Generator (Initiator : in Integer);
         ...
      end Worker;
      W : array (1 .. 10) of Worker;
      task body Worker is
         G : Generator;
         Probability_Of_Event : Uniformly_Distributed;
      begin
         accept Initialize_Generator (Initiator : in Integer) do
            Reset (G, Initiator);
         end Initialize_Generator;
         loop
            ...
            Probability_Of_Event := Random(G);
            ...
         end loop;
      end Worker;
   begin
      -- Initialize the generators in the Worker tasks to different states
      for I in W'Range loop
         W(I).Initialize_Generator (I);
      end loop;
      ... -- Wait for the Worker tasks to terminate
   end Parallel_Simulation;
```

NOTES
17 *Notes on the last example:* Although each Worker task initializes its generator to a different state, those states will be the same in every execution of the program. The generator states can be initialized uniquely in each program execution by instantiating Ada.Numerics.Discrete_Random for the type Integer in the main procedure, resetting the generator obtained from that instance to a time-dependent state, and then using random integers obtained from that generator to initialize the generators in each Worker task. 61

A.5.3 Attributes of Floating Point Types

Static Semantics

{*representation-oriented attributes (of a floating point subtype)*} The following *representation-oriented attributes* are defined for every subtype S of a floating point type *T*. 1

S'Machine_Radix Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type *T*. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 2

{*canonical form*} The values of other representation-oriented attributes of a floating point subtype, and of the ''primitive function'' attributes of a floating point subtype described later, are defined in terms of a particular representation of nonzero values called the *canonical form*. The canonical form (for the type *T*) is the form 3

$$\pm mantissa \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{exponent}$$

where

- *mantissa* is a fraction in the number base *T*'Machine_Radix, the first digit of which is non-zero, and 4
- *exponent* is an integer. 5

S'Machine_Mantissa 6

Yields the largest value of *p* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *p*-digit *mantissa* and an *exponent* between *T*'Machine_Emin and *T*'Machine_Emax, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*.

Ramification: Values of a type held in an extended register are, in general, not machine numbers of the type, since they cannot be expressed in the canonical form with a sufficiently short *mantissa*. 6.a

S'Machine_Emin Yields the smallest (most negative) value of *exponent* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *mantissa* of *T*'Machine_Mantissa digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*. 7

S'Machine_Emax Yields the largest (most positive) value of *exponent* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *mantissa* of *T*'Machine_Mantissa digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*. 8

Ramification: Note that the above definitions do not determine unique values for the representation-oriented attributes of floating point types. The implementation may choose any set of values that collectively satisfies the definitions. 8.a

S'Denorm Yields the value True if every value expressible in the form 9

$$\pm mantissa \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{T\text{'Machine_Emin}}$$

where *mantissa* is a nonzero *T*'Machine_Mantissa-digit fraction in the number base *T*'Machine_Radix, the first digit of which is zero, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

10 {*denormalized number*} The values described by the formula in the definition of S'Denorm are called *denormalized numbers*. {*normalized number*} A nonzero machine number that is not a denormalized number is a *normalized number*.

10.a **Discussion:** The intent is that S'Denorm be True when such denormalized numbers exist and are generated in the circumstances defined by IEC 559:1989, though the latter requirement is not formalized here.

{*represented in canonical form*} {*canonical-form representation*} A normalized number *x* of a given type *T* is said to be *represented in canonical form* when it is expressed in the canonical form (for the type *T*) with a *mantissa* having *T*'Machine_Mantissa digits; the resulting form is the *canonical-form representation* of *x*.

11 S'Machine_Rounds
Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

11.a **Discussion:** It is difficult to be more precise about what it means to round the result of a predefined operation. If the implementation does not use extended registers, so that every arithmetic result is necessarily a machine number, then rounding seems to imply two things:

11.b • S'Model_Mantissa = S'Machine_Mantissa, so that operand preperturbation never occurs;

11.c • when the exact mathematical result is not a machine number, the result of a predefined operation must be the nearer of the two adjacent machine numbers.

11.d Technically, this attribute should yield False when extended registers are used, since a few computed results will cross over the half-way point as a result of double rounding, if and when a value held in an extended register has to be reduced in precision to that of the machine numbers. It does not seem desirable to preclude the use of extended registers when S'Machine_Rounds could otherwise be True.

12 S'Machine_Overflows
Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

13 S'Signed_Zeros Yields the value True if the hardware representation for the type *T* has the capability of representing both positively and negatively signed zeros, these being generated and used by the predefined operations of the type *T* as specified in IEC 559:1989; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

14 {*normalized exponent*} For every value *x* of a floating point type *T*, the *normalized exponent* of *x* is defined as follows:

15 • the normalized exponent of zero is (by convention) zero;

16 • for nonzero *x*, the normalized exponent of *x* is the unique integer *k* such that *T*'Machine_Radix$^{k-1} \le |x| < T$'Machine_Radix^{k}.

16.a **Ramification:** The normalized exponent of a normalized number *x* is the value of *exponent* in the canonical-form representation of *x*.

16.b The normalized exponent of a denormalized number is less than the value of *T*'Machine_Emin.

17 {*primitive function*} The following *primitive function attributes* are defined for any subtype S of a floating point type *T*.

18 S'Exponent S'Exponent denotes a function with the following specification:

19
```
function S'Exponent (X : T)
  return universal_integer
```

The function yields the normalized exponent of *X*. 20

S'Fraction S'Fraction denotes a function with the following specification: 21

```
function S'Fraction (X : T)
  return T
```
22

The function yields the value $X \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{-k}$, where *k* is the normalized exponent of *X*. A zero result[, which can only occur when *X* is zero,] has the sign of *X*. 23

Discussion: Informally, when *X* is a normalized number, the result is the value obtained by replacing the *exponent* by zero in the canonical-form representation of *X*. 23.a

Ramification: Except when *X* is zero, the magnitude of the result is greater than or equal to the reciprocal of *T*'Machine_Radix and less than one; consequently, the result is always a normalized number, even when *X* is a denormalized number. 23.b

Implementation Note: When *X* is a denormalized number, the result is the value obtained by replacing the *exponent* by zero in the canonical-form representation of the result of scaling *X* up sufficiently to normalize it. 23.c

S'Compose S'Compose denotes a function with the following specification: 24

```
function S'Compose (Fraction : T;
                    Exponent : universal_integer)
  return T
```
25

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Let *v* be the value $Fraction \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{Exponent-k}$, where *k* is the normalized exponent of *Fraction*. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, or if $|v| \geq T\text{'Model_Small}$, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type *T* adjacent to *v*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if *v* is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *Fraction* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. 26

Discussion: Informally, when *Fraction* and *v* are both normalized numbers, the result is the value obtained by replacing the *exponent* by *Exponent* in the canonical-form representation of *Fraction*. 26.a

Ramification: If *Exponent* is less than *T*'Machine_Emin and *Fraction* is nonzero, the result is either zero, *T*'Model_Small, or (if *T*'Denorm is True) a denormalized number. 26.b

S'Scaling S'Scaling denotes a function with the following specification: 27

```
function S'Scaling (X : T;
                    Adjustment : universal_integer)
  return T
```
28

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Let *v* be the value $X \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{Adjustment}$. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, or if $|v| \geq T\text{'Model_Small}$, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type *T* adjacent to *v*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if *v* is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. 29

Discussion: Informally, when *X* and *v* are both normalized numbers, the result is the value obtained by increasing the *exponent* by *Adjustment* in the canonical-form representation of *X*. 29.a

Ramification: If *Adjustment* is sufficiently small (i.e., sufficiently negative), the result is either zero, *T*'Model_Small, or (if *T*'Denorm is True) a denormalized number. 29.b

S'Floor S'Floor denotes a function with the following specification: 30

```
function S'Floor (X : T)
  return T
```
31

The function yields the value $\lfloor X \rfloor$, i.e., the largest (most positive) integral value less than or equal to *X*. When *X* is zero, the result has the sign of *X*; a zero result otherwise has a positive sign. 32

S'Ceiling S'Ceiling denotes a function with the following specification: 33

34 ```
function S'Ceiling (X : T)
  return T
```

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

36 S'Rounding S'Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:

37 ```
function S'Rounding (X : T)
  return T
```

38 The function yields the integral value nearest to *X*, rounding away from zero if *X* lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True.

39 S'Unbiased_Rounding

S'Unbiased_Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:

40 ```
function S'Unbiased_Rounding (X : T)
  return T
```

41 The function yields the integral value nearest to *X*, rounding toward the even integer if *X* lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True.

42 S'Truncation S'Truncation denotes a function with the following specification:

43 ```
function S'Truncation (X : T)
  return T
```

44 The function yields the value $\lceil X \rceil$ when *X* is negative, and $\lfloor X \rfloor$ otherwise. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True.

45 S'Remainder S'Remainder denotes a function with the following specification:

46 ```
function S'Remainder (X, Y : T)
  return T
```

47 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For nonzero *Y*, let *v* be the value $X - n \cdot Y$, where *n* is the integer nearest to the exact value of $X/Y$; if $|n - X/Y| = 1/2$, then *n* is chosen to be even. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields zero. {*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if *Y* is zero. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True.

47.a **Ramification:** The magnitude of the result is less than or equal to one-half the magnitude of *Y*.

47.b **Discussion:** Given machine numbers *X* and *Y* of the type *T*, *v* is necessarily a machine number of the type *T*, except when *Y* is in the neighborhood of zero, *X* is sufficiently close to a multiple of *Y*, and *T*'Denorm is False.

48 S'Adjacent S'Adjacent denotes a function with the following specification:

49 ```
function S'Adjacent (X, Towards : T)
  return T
```

50 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If *Towards* = *X*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the machine number of the type *T* adjacent to *X* in the direction of *Towards*, if that machine number exists. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} If the result would be outside the base range of S, Constraint_Error is raised. When *T*'Signed_Zeros is True, a zero result has the sign of *X*. When *Towards* is zero, its sign has no bearing on the result.

50.a **Ramification:** The value of S'Adjacent(0.0, 1.0) is the smallest normalized positive number of the type *T* when *T*'Denorm is False and the smallest denormalized positive number of the type *T* when *T*'Denorm is True.

51 S'Copy_Sign S'Copy_Sign denotes a function with the following specification:

52 ```
function S'Copy_Sign (Value, Sign : T)
  return T
```
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the value of *Value* is nonzero, the function yields a result whose magnitude is that of *Value* and whose sign is that of *Sign*; otherwise, it yields the value zero. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if the result is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *Sign* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. 53

Discussion: S'Copy_Sign is provided for convenience in restoring the sign to a quantity from which it has been temporarily removed, or to a related quantity. When S'Signed_Zeros is True, it is also instrumental in determining the sign of a zero quantity, when required. (Because negative and positive zeros compare equal in systems conforming to IEC 559:1989, a negative zero does *not* appear to be negative when compared to zero.) The sign determination is accomplished by transferring the sign of the zero quantity to a nonzero quantity and then testing for a negative result. 53.a

S'Leading_Part S'Leading_Part denotes a function with the following specification: 54

```
function S'Leading_Part (X : T;                                    55
                         Radix_Digits : universal_integer)
  return T
```

Let *v* be the value *T*'Machine_Radix$^{k-Radix_Digits}$, where *k* is the normalized exponent of *X*. The function yields the value 56

- $\lfloor X/v \rfloor \cdot v$, when *X* is nonnegative and *Radix_Digits* is positive; 57
- $\lceil X/v \rceil \cdot v$, when *X* is negative and *Radix_Digits* is positive. 58

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised when *Radix_Digits* is zero or negative. A zero result[, which can only occur when *X* is zero,] has the sign of *X*. 59

Discussion: Informally, if *X* is nonzero, the result is the value obtained by retaining only the specified number of (leading) significant digits of *X* (in the machine radix), setting all other digits to zero. 59.a

Implementation Note: The result can be obtained by first scaling *X* up, if necessary to normalize it, then masking the mantissa so as to retain only the specified number of leading digits, then scaling the result back down if *X* was scaled up. 59.b

S'Machine S'Machine denotes a function with the following specification: 60

```
function S'Machine (X : T)                                         61
  return T
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If *X* is a machine number of the type *T*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the value obtained by rounding or truncating *X* to either one of the adjacent machine numbers of the type *T*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if rounding or truncating *X* to the precision of the machine numbers results in a value outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. 62

Discussion: All of the primitive function attributes except Rounding and Machine correspond to subprograms in the Generic_Primitive_Functions generic package proposed as a separate ISO standard (ISO/IEC DIS 11729) for Ada 83. The Scaling, Unbiased_Rounding, and Truncation attributes correspond to the Scale, Round, and Truncate functions, respectively, in Generic_Primitive_Functions. The Rounding attribute rounds away from zero; this functionality was not provided in Generic_Primitive_Functions. The name Round was not available for either of the primitive function attributes that perform rounding, since an attribute of that name is used for a different purpose for decimal fixed point types. Likewise, the name Scale was not available, since an attribute of that name is also used for a different purpose for decimal fixed point types. The functionality of the Machine attribute was also not provided in Generic_Primitive_Functions. The functionality of the Decompose procedure of Generic_Primitive_Functions is only provided in the form of the separate attributes Exponent and Fraction. The functionality of the Successor and Predecessor functions of Generic_Primitive_Functions is provided by the extension of the existing Succ and Pred attributes. 62.a

Implementation Note: The primitive function attributes may be implemented either with appropriate floating point arithmetic operations or with integer and logical operations that act on parts of the representation directly. The latter is strongly encouraged when it is more efficient than the former; it is mandatory when the former cannot deliver the required accuracy due to limitations of the implementation's arithmetic operations. 62.b

{*model-oriented attributes (of a floating point subtype)*} The following *model-oriented attributes* are defined for any subtype S of a floating point type *T*. 63

64 S'Model_Mantissa If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to $\lceil d \cdot \log(10)/\log(T\text{'Machine_Radix}) \rceil + 1$, where *d* is the requested decimal precision of *T*, and less than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Mantissa. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*.

65 S'Model_Emin If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Emin. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*.

66 S'Model_Epsilon Yields the value $T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{1-T\text{'Model_Mantissa}}$. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*.

66.a **Discussion:** In most implementations, this attribute yields the absolute value of the difference between one and the smallest machine number of the type *T* above one which, when added to one, yields a machine number different from one. Further discussion can be found in G.2.2.

67 S'Model_Small Yields the value $T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{T\text{'Model_Emin}-1}$. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*.

67.a **Discussion:** In most implementations, this attribute yields the smallest positive normalized number of the type *T*, i.e. the number corresponding to the positive underflow threshold. In some implementations employing a radix-complement representation for the type *T*, the positive underflow threshold is closer to zero than is the negative underflow threshold, with the consequence that the smallest positive normalized number does not coincide with the positive underflow threshold (i.e., it exceeds the latter). Further discussion can be found in G.2.2.

68 S'Model S'Model denotes a function with the following specification:

69
```
function S'Model (X : T)
  return T
```

70 If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the meaning of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex.

71 S'Safe_First Yields the lower bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*.

72 S'Safe_Last Yields the upper bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*.

72.a **Discussion:** A predefined floating point arithmetic operation that yields a value in the safe range of its result type is guaranteed not to overflow.

72.b **To be honest:** An exception is made for exponentiation by a negative exponent in 4.5.6.

72.c **Implementation defined:** The values of the Model_Mantissa, Model_Emin, Model_Epsilon, Model, Safe_First, and Safe_Last attributes, if the Numerics Annex is not supported.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

72.d {*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The Epsilon and Mantissa attributes of floating point types are removed from the language and replaced by Model_Epsilon and Model_Mantissa, which may have different values (as a result of changes in the definition of model numbers); the replacement of one set of attributes by another is intended to convert what would be an inconsistent change into an incompatible change.

72.e The Emax, Small, Large, Safe_Emax, Safe_Small, and Safe_Large attributes of floating point types are removed from the language. Small and Safe_Small are collectively replaced by Model_Small, which is functionally equivalent to Safe_Small, though it may have a slightly different value. The others are collectively replaced by Safe_First and Safe_Last. Safe_Last is functionally equivalent to Safe_Large, though it may have a different value; Safe_First is comparable to the negation of Safe_Large but may differ slightly from it as well as from the negation of Safe_Last.

Emax and Safe_Emax had relatively few uses in Ada 83; T'Safe_Emax can be computed in the revised language as Integer'Min(T'Exponent(T'Safe_First), T'Exponent(T'Safe_Last)).

Implementations are encouraged to eliminate the incompatibilities discussed here by retaining the old attributes, during a transition period, in the form of implementation-defined attributes with their former values. 72.f

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The Model_Emin attribute is new. It is conceptually similar to the negation of Safe_Emax attribute of Ada 83, adjusted for the fact that the model numbers now have the hardware radix. It is a fundamental determinant, along with Model_Mantissa, of the set of model numbers of a type (see G.2.1). 72.g

The Denorm and Signed_Zeros attributes are new, as are all of the primitive function attributes. 72.h

A.5.4 Attributes of Fixed Point Types

Static Semantics

{*representation-oriented attributes (of a fixed point subtype)*} The following *representation-oriented* attributes are defined for every subtype S of a fixed point type *T*. 1

S'Machine_Radix Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type *T*. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. 2

S'Machine_Rounds 3

Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

S'Machine_Overflows 4

Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean.

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The Mantissa, Large, Safe_Small, and Safe_Large attributes of fixed point types are removed from the language. 4.a

Implementations are encouraged to eliminate the resulting incompatibility by retaining these attributes, during a transition period, in the form of implementation-defined attributes with their former values. 4.b

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The Machine_Radix attribute is now allowed for fixed point types. It is also specifiable in an attribute definition clause (see F.1). 4.c

A.6 Input-Output

[{*input*} {*output*} Input-output is provided through language-defined packages, each of which is a child of the root package Ada. The generic packages Sequential_IO and Direct_IO define input-output operations applicable to files containing elements of a given type. The generic package Storage_IO supports reading from and writing to an in-memory buffer. Additional operations for text input-output are supplied in the packages Text_IO and Wide_Text_IO. Heterogeneous input-output is provided through the child packages Streams.Stream_IO and Text_IO.Text_Streams (see also 13.13). The package IO_Exceptions defines the exceptions needed by the predefined input-output packages.] 1

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} The introduction of Append_File as a new element of the enumeration type File_Mode in Sequential_IO and Text_IO, and the introduction of several new declarations in Text_IO, may result in name clashes in the presence of **use** clauses. 1.a

Extensions to Ada 83

1.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} Text_IO enhancements (Get_Immediate, Look_Ahead, Standard_Error, Modular_IO, Decimal_IO), Wide_Text_IO, and the stream input-output facilities are new in Ada 9X.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

1.c RM83-14.6, "Low Level Input-Output," is removed. This has no semantic effect, since the package was entirely implementation defined, nobody actually implemented it, and if they did, they can always provide it as a vendor-supplied package.

A.7 External Files and File Objects

Static Semantics

1 {*external file*} {*name (of an external file)*} {*form (of an external file)*} Values input from the external environment of the program, or output to the external environment, are considered to occupy *external files*. An external file can be anything external to the program that can produce a value to be read or receive a value to be written. An external file is identified by a string (the *name*). A second string (the *form*) gives further system-dependent characteristics that may be associated with the file, such as the physical organization or access rights. The conventions governing the interpretation of such strings shall be documented.

2 {*file (as file object)*} Input and output operations are expressed as operations on objects of some *file type*, rather than directly in terms of the external files. In the remainder of this section, the term *file* is always used to refer to a file object; the term *external file* is used otherwise.

3 Input-output for sequential files of values of a single element type is defined by means of the generic package Sequential_IO. In order to define sequential input-output for a given element type, an instantiation of this generic unit, with the given type as actual parameter, has to be declared. The resulting package contains the declaration of a file type (called File_Type) for files of such elements, as well as the operations applicable to these files, such as the Open, Read, and Write procedures.

4 Input-output for direct access files is likewise defined by a generic package called Direct_IO. Input-output in human-readable form is defined by the (nongeneric) packages Text_IO for Character and String data, and Wide_Text_IO for Wide_Character and Wide_String data. Input-output for files containing streams of elements representing values of possibly different types is defined by means of the (nongeneric) package Streams.Stream_IO.

5 Before input or output operations can be performed on a file, the file first has to be associated with an external file. While such an association is in effect, the file is said to be *open*, and otherwise the file is said to be *closed*.

6 The language does not define what happens to external files after the completion of the main program and all the library tasks (in particular, if corresponding files have not been closed). {*access types (input-output unspecified)*} {*input-output (unspecified for access types)*} {*unspecified* [partial]} The effect of input-output for access types is unspecified.

7 {*current mode (of an open file)*} An open file has a *current mode*, which is a value of one of the following enumeration types:

8
```
type File_Mode is (In_File, Inout_File, Out_File);  -- for Direct_IO
```

9 These values correspond respectively to the cases where only reading, both reading and writing, or only writing are to be performed.

```
type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File);
-- for Sequential_IO, Text_IO, Wide_Text_IO, and Stream_IO
```

10

These values correspond respectively to the cases where only reading, only writing, or only appending are to be performed. 11

The mode of a file can be changed. 12

Several file management operations are common to Sequential_IO, Direct_IO, Text_IO, and Wide_Text_IO. These operations are described in subclause A.8.2 for sequential and direct files. Any additional effects concerning text input-output are described in subclause A.10.2. 13

The exceptions that can be propagated by the execution of an input-output subprogram are defined in the package IO_Exceptions; the situations in which they can be propagated are described following the description of the subprogram (and in clause A.13). {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exceptions Storage_Error and Program_Error may be propagated. (Program_Error can only be propagated due to errors made by the caller of the subprogram.) Finally, exceptions can be propagated in certain implementation-defined situations. 14

Implementation defined: Any implementation-defined characteristics of the input-output packages. 14.a

NOTES

18 Each instantiation of the generic packages Sequential_IO and Direct_IO declares a different type File_Type. In the case of Text_IO, Wide_Text_IO, and Streams.Stream_IO, the corresponding type File_Type is unique. 15

19 A bidirectional device can often be modeled as two sequential files associated with the device, one of mode In_File, and one of mode Out_File. An implementation may restrict the number of files that may be associated with a given external file. 16

A.8 Sequential and Direct Files

Static Semantics

{*sequential file*} {*direct file*} Two kinds of access to external files are defined in this subclause: *sequential access* and *direct access*. The corresponding file types and the associated operations are provided by the generic packages Sequential_IO and Direct_IO. A file object to be used for sequential access is called a *sequential file*, and one to be used for direct access is called a *direct file*. Access to stream files is described in A.12.1. 1

{*sequential access*} For sequential access, the file is viewed as a sequence of values that are transferred in the order of their appearance (as produced by the program or by the external environment). When the file is opened with mode In_File or Out_File, transfer starts respectively from or to the beginning of the file. When the file is opened with mode Append_File, transfer to the file starts after the last element of the file. 2

Discussion: Adding stream I/O necessitates a review of the terminology. In Ada 83, 'sequential' implies both the access method (purely sequential — that is, no indexing or positional access) and homogeneity. Direct access includes purely sequential access and indexed access, as well as homogeneity. In Ada 9X, streams allow purely sequential access but also positional access to an individual element, and are heterogeneous. We considered generalizing the notion of 'sequential file' to include both Sequential_IO and Stream_IO files, but since streams allow positional access it seems misleading to call them sequential files. Or, looked at differently, if the criterion for calling something a sequential file is whether it permits (versus requires) purely sequential access, then one could just as soon regard a Direct_IO file as a sequential file. 2.a

It seems better to regard 'sequential file' as meaning 'only permitting purely sequential access'; hence we have decided to supplement 'sequential access' and 'direct access' with a third category, informally called 'access to streams'. (We decided against the term 'stream access' because of possible confusion with the Stream_Access type declared in one of the stream packages.) 2.b

3 {*direct access*} {*index (of an element of an open direct file)*} {*current size (of an external file)*} For direct access, the file is viewed as a set of elements occupying consecutive positions in linear order; a value can be transferred to or from an element of the file at any selected position. The position of an element is specified by its *index*, which is a number, greater than zero, of the implementation-defined integer type Count. The first element, if any, has index one; the index of the last element, if any, is called the *current size*; the current size is zero if there are no elements. The current size is a property of the external file.

4 {*current index (of an open direct file)*} An open direct file has a *current index*, which is the index that will be used by the next read or write operation. When a direct file is opened, the current index is set to one. The current index of a direct file is a property of a file object, not of an external file.

A.8.1 The Generic Package Sequential_IO

Static Semantics

1 The generic library package Sequential_IO has the following declaration:

2
```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
generic
   type Element_Type(<>) is private;
package Ada.Sequential_IO is
```

3
```
   type File_Type is limited private;
```

4
```
   type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File);
```

5
```
   -- File management
```

6
```
   procedure Create(File : in out File_Type;
                    Mode : in File_Mode := Out_File;
                    Name : in String := "";
                    Form : in String := "");
```

7
```
   procedure Open  (File : in out File_Type;
                    Mode : in File_Mode;
                    Name : in String;
                    Form : in String := "");
```

8
```
   procedure Close (File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Delete(File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
   procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type);
```

9
```
   function Mode   (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
   function Name   (File : in File_Type) return String;
   function Form   (File : in File_Type) return String;
```

10
```
   function Is_Open(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```

11
```
   -- Input and output operations
```

12
```
   procedure Read  (File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type);
   procedure Write (File : in File_Type; Item : in Element_Type);
```

13
```
   function End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```

14
```
   -- Exceptions
```

15
```
   Status_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Status_Error;
   Mode_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Mode_Error;
   Name_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Name_Error;
   Use_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Use_Error;
   Device_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Device_Error;
   End_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.End_Error;
   Data_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
```

16
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Sequential_IO;
```

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} The new enumeration element Append_File may introduce upward incompatibilities. It is possible that a program based on the assumption that File_Mode'Last = Out_File will be illegal (e.g., case statement choice coverage) or execute with a different effect in Ada 9X. 16.a

A.8.2 File Management

Static Semantics

The procedures and functions described in this subclause provide for the control of external files; their declarations are repeated in each of the packages for sequential, direct, text, and stream input-output. For text input-output, the procedures Create, Open, and Reset have additional effects described in subclause A.10.2. 1

```
procedure Create(File : in out File_Type;                                    2
                 Mode : in File_Mode := default_mode;
                 Name : in String := "";
                 Form : in String := "");
```

Establishes a new external file, with the given name and form, and associates this external file with the given file. The given file is left open. The current mode of the given file is set to the given access mode. The default access mode is the mode Out_File for sequential and text input-output; it is the mode Inout_File for direct input-output. For direct access, the size of the created file is implementation defined. 3

A null string for Name specifies an external file that is not accessible after the completion of the main program (a temporary file). A null string for Form specifies the use of the default options of the implementation for the external file. 4

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is already open. The exception Name_Error is propagated if the string given as Name does not allow the identification of an external file. The exception Use_Error is propagated if, for the specified mode, the external environment does not support creation of an external file with the given name (in the absence of Name_Error) and form. 5

```
procedure Open(File : in out File_Type;                                      6
               Mode : in File_Mode;
               Name : in String;
               Form : in String := "");
```

Associates the given file with an existing external file having the given name and form, and sets the current mode of the given file to the given mode. The given file is left open. 7

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is already open. The exception Name_Error is propagated if the string given as Name does not allow the identification of an external file; in particular, this exception is propagated if no external file with the given name exists. The exception Use_Error is propagated if, for the specified mode, the external environment does not support opening for an external file with the given name (in the absence of Name_Error) and form. 8

```
procedure Close(File : in out File_Type);                                    9
```

Severs the association between the given file and its associated external file. The given file is left closed. In addition, for sequential files, if the file being closed has mode Out_File or Append_File, then the last element written since the most recent open or reset is the last element that can be read from the file. If no elements have been written and the file mode is Out_ 10

File, then the closed file is empty. If no elements have been written and the file mode is Append_File, then the closed file is unchanged.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open.

```
procedure Delete(File : in out File_Type);
```

Deletes the external file associated with the given file. The given file is closed, and the external file ceases to exist.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open. The exception Use_Error is propagated if deletion of the external file is not supported by the external environment.

```
procedure Reset(File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
procedure Reset(File : in out File_Type);
```

Resets the given file so that reading from its elements can be restarted from the beginning of the file (for modes In_File and Inout_File), and so that writing to its elements can be restarted at the beginning of the file (for modes Out_File and Inout_File) or after the last element of the file (for mode Append_File). In particular, for direct access this means that the current index is set to one. If a Mode parameter is supplied, the current mode of the given file is set to the given mode. In addition, for sequential files, if the given file has mode Out_File or Append_File when Reset is called, the last element written since the most recent open or reset is the last element that can be read from the file. If no elements have been written and the file mode is Out_File, the reset file is empty. If no elements have been written and the file mode is Append_File, then the reset file is unchanged.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the file is not open. The exception Use_Error is propagated if the external environment does not support resetting for the external file and, also, if the external environment does not support resetting to the specified mode for the external file.

```
function Mode(File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
```

Returns the current mode of the given file.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the file is not open.

```
function Name(File : in File_Type) return String;
```

Returns a string which uniquely identifies the external file currently associated with the given file (and may thus be used in an Open operation). If an external environment allows alternative specifications of the name (for example, abbreviations), the string returned by the function should correspond to a full specification of the name.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open. The exception Use_Error is propagated if the associated external file is a temporary file that cannot be opened by any name.

```
function Form(File : in File_Type) return String;
```

Returns the form string for the external file currently associated with the given file. If an external environment allows alternative specifications of the form (for example, abbreviations using default options), the string returned by the function should correspond to a full specification (that is, it should indicate explicitly all options selected, including default options).

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open. 26

```
function Is_Open(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```
27

Returns True if the file is open (that is, if it is associated with an external file), otherwise returns False. 28

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may propagate Name_Error or Use_Error if an attempt is made to use an I/O feature that cannot be supported by the implementation due to limitations in the external environment. Any such restriction should be documented. 29

A.8.3 Sequential Input-Output Operations

Static Semantics

The operations available for sequential input and output are described in this subclause. The exception Status_Error is propagated if any of these operations is attempted for a file that is not open. 1

```
procedure Read(File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type);
```
2

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Reads an element from the given file, and returns the value of this element in the Item parameter. 3

Discussion: We considered basing Sequential_IO.Read on Element_Type'Read from an implicit stream associated with the sequential file. However, Element_Type'Read is a type-related attribute, whereas Sequential_IO should take advantage of the particular constraints of the actual subtype corresponding to Element_Type to minimize the size of the external file. Furthermore, forcing the implementation of Sequential_IO to be based on Element_Type'Read would create an upward incompatibility since existing data files written by an Ada 83 program using Sequential_IO might not be readable by the identical program built with an Ada 9X implementation of Sequential_IO. 3.a

An Ada 9X implementation might still use an implementation-defined attribute analogous to 'Read to implement the procedure Read, but that attribute will likely have to be subtype-specific rather than type-related, and it need not be user-specifiable. Such an attribute will presumably be needed to implement the generic package Storage_IO (see A.9). 3.b

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File. The exception End_Error is propagated if no more elements can be read from the given file. The exception Data_Error can be propagated if the element read cannot be interpreted as a value of the subtype Element_Type (see A.13, ''Exceptions in Input-Output''). 4

Discussion: Data_Error need not be propagated if the check is too complex. See A.13, ''Exceptions in Input-Output''. 4.a

```
procedure Write(File : in File_Type; Item : in Element_Type);
```
5

Operates on a file of mode Out_File or Append_File. Writes the value of Item to the given file. 6

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not Out_File or Append_File. The exception Use_Error is propagated if the capacity of the external file is exceeded. 7

```
function End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```
8

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Returns True if no more elements can be read from the given file; otherwise returns False. 9

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File. 10

A.8.4 The Generic Package Direct_IO

Static Semantics

1 The generic library package Direct_IO has the following declaration:

2
```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
generic
   type Element_Type is private;
package Ada.Direct_IO is
```

3
```
   type File_Type is limited private;
```

4
```
   type File_Mode is (In_File, Inout_File, Out_File);
   type Count     is range 0 .. implementation-defined;
   subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last;
```

5
```
   -- File management
```

6
```
   procedure Create(File : in out File_Type;
                    Mode : in File_Mode := Inout_File;
                    Name : in String := "";
                    Form : in String := "");
```

7
```
   procedure Open  (File : in out File_Type;
                    Mode : in File_Mode;
                    Name : in String;
                    Form : in String := "");
```

8
```
   procedure Close (File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Delete(File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
   procedure Reset (File : in out File_Type);
```

9
```
   function Mode   (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
   function Name   (File : in File_Type) return String;
   function Form   (File : in File_Type) return String;
```

10
```
   function Is_Open(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```

11
```
   -- Input and output operations
```

12
```
   procedure Read (File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type;
                                        From : in Positive_Count);
   procedure Read (File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type);
```

13
```
   procedure Write(File : in File_Type; Item : in  Element_Type;
                                        To   : in Positive_Count);
   procedure Write(File : in File_Type; Item : in Element_Type);
```

14
```
   procedure Set_Index(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);
```

15
```
   function Index(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;
   function Size (File : in File_Type) return Count;
```

16
```
   function End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```

17
```
   -- Exceptions
```

18
```
   Status_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Status_Error;
   Mode_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Mode_Error;
   Name_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Name_Error;
   Use_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Use_Error;
   Device_Error : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Device_Error;
   End_Error    : exception renames IO_Exceptions.End_Error;
   Data_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
```

19
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Direct_IO;
```

19.a **Reason:** The Element_Type formal of Direct_IO does not have an unknown_discriminant_part (unlike Sequential_IO) so that the implementation can make use of the ability to declare uninitialized variables of the type.

A.8.5 Direct Input-Output Operations

Static Semantics

The operations available for direct input and output are described in this subclause. The exception Status_Error is propagated if any of these operations is attempted for a file that is not open. 1

```
procedure Read(File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type;                    2
                                    From : in  Positive_Count);
procedure Read(File : in File_Type; Item : out Element_Type);
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File or Inout_File. In the case of the first form, sets the current index of the given file to the index value given by the parameter From. Then (for both forms) returns, in the parameter Item, the value of the element whose position in the given file is specified by the current index of the file; finally, increases the current index by one. 3

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the given file is Out_File. The exception End_Error is propagated if the index to be used exceeds the size of the external file. The exception Data_Error can be propagated if the element read cannot be interpreted as a value of the subtype Element_Type (see A.13). 4

```
procedure Write(File : in File_Type; Item : in Element_Type;                    5
                                     To   : in Positive_Count);
procedure Write(File : in File_Type; Item : in Element_Type);
```

Operates on a file of mode Inout_File or Out_File. In the case of the first form, sets the index of the given file to the index value given by the parameter To. Then (for both forms) gives the value of the parameter Item to the element whose position in the given file is specified by the current index of the file; finally, increases the current index by one. 6

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the given file is In_File. The exception Use_Error is propagated if the capacity of the external file is exceeded. 7

```
procedure Set_Index(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);               8
```

Operates on a file of any mode. Sets the current index of the given file to the given index value (which may exceed the current size of the file). 9

```
function Index(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;                      10
```

Operates on a file of any mode. Returns the current index of the given file. 11

```
function Size(File : in File_Type) return Count;                                12
```

Operates on a file of any mode. Returns the current size of the external file that is associated with the given file. 13

```
function End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;                       14
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File or Inout_File. Returns True if the current index exceeds the size of the external file; otherwise returns False. 15

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the given file is Out_File. 16

NOTES

20 Append_File mode is not supported for the generic package Direct_IO. 17

A.9 The Generic Package Storage_IO

1 The generic package Storage_IO provides for reading from and writing to an in-memory buffer. This generic package supports the construction of user-defined input-output packages.

1.a **Reason:** This package exists to allow the portable construction of user-defined direct-access-oriented input-output packages. The Write procedure writes a value of type Element_Type into a Storage_Array of size Buffer_Size, flattening out any implicit levels of indirection used in the representation of the type. The Read procedure reads a value of type Element_Type from the buffer, reconstructing any implicit levels of indirection used in the representation of the type. It also properly initializes any type tags that appear within the value, presuming that the buffer was written by a different program and that tag values for the‘‘same’’ type might vary from one executable to another.

Static Semantics

2 The generic library package Storage_IO has the following declaration:

3
```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
with System.Storage_Elements;
generic
   type Element_Type is private;
package Ada.Storage_IO is
   pragma Preelaborate(Storage_IO);
```

4
```
   Buffer_Size : constant System.Storage_Elements.Storage_Count := implementation-defined;
   subtype Buffer_Type is System.Storage_Elements.Storage_Array(1..Buffer_Size);
```

5
```
   -- Input and output operations
```

6
```
   procedure Read (Buffer : in  Buffer_Type; Item : out Element_Type);
```

7
```
   procedure Write(Buffer : out Buffer_Type; Item : in  Element_Type);
```

8
```
   -- Exceptions
```

9
```
   Data_Error   : exception renames IO_Exceptions.Data_Error;
end Ada.Storage_IO;
```

10 In each instance, the constant Buffer_Size has a value that is the size (in storage elements) of the buffer required to represent the content of an object of subtype Element_Type, including any implicit levels of indirection used by the implementation.

10.a **Reason:** As with Direct_IO, the Element_Type formal of Storage_IO does not have an unknown_discriminant_part so that there is a well-defined upper bound on the size of the buffer needed to hold the content of an object of the formal subtype (i.e. Buffer_Size). If there are no implicit levels of indirection, Buffer_Size will typically equal:

10.b
```
(Element_Type'Size + System.Storage_Unit - 1) / System.Storage_Unit
```

10.c **Implementation defined:** The value of Buffer_Size in Storage_IO.

The Read and Write procedures of Storage_IO correspond to the Read and Write procedures of Direct_IO (see A.8.4), but with the content of the Item parameter being read from or written into the specified Buffer, rather than an external file.

NOTES

11 21 A buffer used for Storage_IO holds only one element at a time; an external file used for Direct_IO holds a sequence of elements.

A.10 Text Input-Output

Static Semantics

1 This clause describes the package Text_IO, which provides facilities for input and output in human-readable form. Each file is read or written sequentially, as a sequence of characters grouped into lines, and as a sequence of lines grouped into pages. The specification of the package is given below in subclause A.10.1.

2 The facilities for file management given above, in subclauses A.8.2 and A.8.3, are available for text input-output. In place of Read and Write, however, there are procedures Get and Put that input values of

suitable types from text files, and output values to them. These values are provided to the Put procedures, and returned by the Get procedures, in a parameter Item. Several overloaded procedures of these names exist, for different types of Item. These Get procedures analyze the input sequences of characters based on lexical elements (see Section 2) and return the corresponding values; the Put procedures output the given values as appropriate lexical elements. Procedures Get and Put are also available that input and output individual characters treated as character values rather than as lexical elements. Related to character input are procedures to look ahead at the next character without reading it, and to read a character ''immediately'' without waiting for an end-of-line to signal availability.

In addition to the procedures Get and Put for numeric and enumeration types of Item that operate on text files, analogous procedures are provided that read from and write to a parameter of type String. These procedures perform the same analysis and composition of character sequences as their counterparts which have a file parameter. 3

For all Get and Put procedures that operate on text files, and for many other subprograms, there are forms with and without a file parameter. Each such Get procedure operates on an input file, and each such Put procedure operates on an output file. If no file is specified, a default input file or a default output file is used. 4

{*standard input file*} {*standard output file*} At the beginning of program execution the default input and output files are the so-called standard input file and standard output file. These files are open, have respectively the current modes In_File and Out_File, and are associated with two implementation-defined external files. Procedures are provided to change the current default input file and the current default output file. 5

Implementation defined: external files for standard input, standard output, and standard error 5.a

{*standard error file*} At the beginning of program execution a default file for program-dependent error-related text output is the so-called standard error file. This file is open, has the current mode Out_File, and is associated with an implementation-defined external file. A procedure is provided to change the current default error file. 6

{*line terminator*} {*page terminator*} {*file terminator*} From a logical point of view, a text file is a sequence of pages, a page is a sequence of lines, and a line is a sequence of characters; the end of a line is marked by a *line terminator*; the end of a page is marked by the combination of a line terminator immediately followed by a *page terminator*; and the end of a file is marked by the combination of a line terminator immediately followed by a page terminator and then a *file terminator*. Terminators are generated during output; either by calls of procedures provided expressly for that purpose; or implicitly as part of other operations, for example, when a bounded line length, a bounded page length, or both, have been specified for a file. 7

The actual nature of terminators is not defined by the language and hence depends on the implementation. Although terminators are recognized or generated by certain of the procedures that follow, they are not necessarily implemented as characters or as sequences of characters. Whether they are characters (and if so which ones) in any particular implementation need not concern a user who neither explicitly outputs nor explicitly inputs control characters. The effect of input (Get) or output (Put) of control characters (other than horizontal tabulation) is not specified by the language. {*unspecified* [partial]} 8

{*column number*} {*current column number*} {*current line number*} {*current page number*} The characters of a line are numbered, starting from one; the number of a character is called its *column number*. For a line terminator, a column number is also defined: it is one more than the number of characters in the line. The 9

lines of a page, and the pages of a file, are similarly numbered. The current column number is the column number of the next character or line terminator to be transferred. The current line number is the number of the current line. The current page number is the number of the current page. These numbers are values of the subtype Positive_Count of the type Count (by convention, the value zero of the type Count is used to indicate special conditions).

10
```
type Count is range 0 .. implementation-defined;
subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last;
```

11 {*maximum line length*} {*maximum page length*} For an output file or an append file, a *maximum line length* can be specified and a *maximum page length* can be specified. If a value to be output cannot fit on the current line, for a specified maximum line length, then a new line is automatically started before the value is output; if, further, this new line cannot fit on the current page, for a specified maximum page length, then a new page is automatically started before the value is output. Functions are provided to determine the maximum line length and the maximum page length. When a file is opened with mode Out_File or Append_File, both values are zero: by convention, this means that the line lengths and page lengths are unbounded. (Consequently, output consists of a single line if the subprograms for explicit control of line and page structure are not used.) The constant Unbounded is provided for this purpose.

Extensions to Ada 83

11.a {*extensions to Ada 83*} Append_File is new in Ada 9X.

A.10.1 The Package Text_IO

Static Semantics

1 The library package Text_IO has the following declaration:

2
```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;
package Ada.Text_IO is
```

3
```
   type File_Type is limited private;
```

4
```
   type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File);
```

5
```
   type Count is range 0 .. implementation-defined;
   subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last;
   Unbounded : constant Count := 0; -- line and page length
```

6
```
   subtype Field       is Integer range 0 .. implementation-defined;
   subtype Number_Base is Integer range 2 .. 16;
```

7
```
   type Type_Set is (Lower_Case, Upper_Case);
```

8
```
   -- File Management
```

9
```
   procedure Create (File : in out File_Type;
                     Mode : in File_Mode := Out_File;
                     Name : in String    := "";
                     Form : in String    := "");
```

10
```
   procedure Open   (File : in out File_Type;
                     Mode : in File_Mode;
                     Name : in String;
                     Form : in String := "");
```

11
```
   procedure Close  (File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Delete (File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Reset  (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
   procedure Reset  (File : in out File_Type);
```

12
```
   function  Mode   (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;
   function  Name   (File : in File_Type) return String;
   function  Form   (File : in File_Type) return String;
```

13
```
   function  Is_Open(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
```

14
```
   -- Control of default input and output files
```

```
   procedure Set_Input (File : in File_Type);                                    15
   procedure Set_Output(File : in File_Type);
   procedure Set_Error (File : in File_Type);

   function Standard_Input  return File_Type;                                    16
   function Standard_Output return File_Type;
   function Standard_Error  return File_Type;

   function Current_Input   return File_Type;                                    17
   function Current_Output  return File_Type;
   function Current_Error   return File_Type;

   type File_Access is access constant File_Type;                                18

   function Standard_Input  return File_Access;                                  19
   function Standard_Output return File_Access;
   function Standard_Error  return File_Access;

   function Current_Input   return File_Access;                                  20
   function Current_Output  return File_Access;
   function Current_Error   return File_Access;

--Buffer control                                                                  21
   procedure Flush (File : in out File_Type);
   procedure Flush;

   -- Specification of line and page lengths                                     22

   procedure Set_Line_Length(File : in File_Type; To : in Count);                23
   procedure Set_Line_Length(To   : in Count);

   procedure Set_Page_Length(File : in File_Type; To : in Count);                24
   procedure Set_Page_Length(To   : in Count);

   function  Line_Length(File : in File_Type) return Count;                      25
   function  Line_Length return Count;

   function  Page_Length(File : in File_Type) return Count;                      26
   function  Page_Length return Count;

   -- Column, Line, and Page Control                                             27

   procedure New_Line   (File    : in File_Type;                                 28
                         Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
   procedure New_Line   (Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);

   procedure Skip_Line  (File    : in File_Type;                                 29
                         Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
   procedure Skip_Line  (Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);

   function  End_Of_Line(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;                    30
   function  End_Of_Line return Boolean;

   procedure New_Page   (File : in File_Type);                                   31
   procedure New_Page;

   procedure Skip_Page  (File : in File_Type);                                   32
   procedure Skip_Page;

   function  End_Of_Page(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;                    33
   function  End_Of_Page return Boolean;

   function  End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;                    34
   function  End_Of_File return Boolean;

   procedure Set_Col (File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);              35
   procedure Set_Col (To   : in Positive_Count);

   procedure Set_Line(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);              36
   procedure Set_Line(To   : in Positive_Count);

   function Col (File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;                     37
   function Col  return Positive_Count;

   function Line(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;                     38
   function Line return Positive_Count;

   function Page(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;                     39
   function Page return Positive_Count;

   -- Character Input-Output                                                     40

   procedure Get(File : in  File_Type; Item : out Character);                    41
   procedure Get(Item : out Character);
```

```
42          procedure Put(File : in  File_Type; Item : in Character);
            procedure Put(Item : in  Character);
43          procedure Look_Ahead (File        : in  File_Type;
                                  Item        : out Character;
                                  End_Of_Line : out Boolean);
            procedure Look_Ahead (Item        : out Character;
                                  End_Of_Line : out Boolean);
44          procedure Get_Immediate(File      : in  File_Type;
                                    Item      : out Character);
            procedure Get_Immediate(Item      : out Character);
45          procedure Get_Immediate(File      : in  File_Type;
                                    Item      : out Character;
                                    Available : out Boolean);
            procedure Get_Immediate(Item      : out Character;
                                    Available : out Boolean);
46          -- String Input-Output
47          procedure Get(File : in  File_Type; Item : out String);
            procedure Get(Item : out String);
48          procedure Put(File : in  File_Type; Item : in String);
            procedure Put(Item : in  String);
49          procedure Get_Line(File : in  File_Type;
                               Item : out String;
                               Last : out Natural);
            procedure Get_Line(Item : out String; Last : out Natural);
50          procedure Put_Line(File : in  File_Type; Item : in String);
            procedure Put_Line(Item : in  String);
51        -- Generic packages for Input-Output of Integer Types
52          generic
               type Num is range <>;
            package Integer_IO is
53             Default_Width : Field := Num'Width;
               Default_Base  : Number_Base := 10;
54             procedure Get(File  : in  File_Type;
                             Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in Field := 0);
               procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in  Field := 0);
55             procedure Put(File  : in File_Type;
                             Item  : in Num;
                             Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                             Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
               procedure Put(Item  : in Num;
                             Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                             Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
               procedure Get(From : in  String;
                             Item : out Num;
                             Last : out Positive);
               procedure Put(To   : out String;
                             Item : in Num;
                             Base : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
56          end Integer_IO;
57          generic
               type Num is mod <>;
            package Modular_IO is
58             Default_Width : Field := Num'Width;
               Default_Base  : Number_Base := 10;
59             procedure Get(File  : in  File_Type;
                             Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in Field := 0);
               procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in  Field := 0);
```

```
   procedure Put(File  : in File_Type;                                    60
                 Item  : in Num;
                 Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                 Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
   procedure Put(Item  : in Num;
                 Width : in Field := Default_Width;
                 Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
   procedure Get(From : in  String;
                 Item : out Num;
                 Last : out Positive);
   procedure Put(To   : out String;
                 Item : in Num;
                 Base : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
end Modular_IO;                                                           61
-- Generic packages for Input-Output of Real Types                        62
generic                                                                   63
   type Num is digits <>;
package Float_IO is
   Default_Fore : Field := 2;                                             64
   Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Digits-1;
   Default_Exp  : Field := 3;
   procedure Get(File  : in  File_Type;                                   65
                 Item  : out Num;
                 Width : in  Field := 0);
   procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                 Width : in  Field := 0);
   procedure Put(File : in File_Type;                                     66
                 Item : in Num;
                 Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                 Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                 Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
   procedure Put(Item : in Num;
                 Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                 Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                 Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
   procedure Get(From : in String;                                        67
                 Item : out Num;
                 Last : out Positive);
   procedure Put(To   : out String;
                 Item : in Num;
                 Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                 Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
end Float_IO;
generic                                                                   68
   type Num is delta <>;
package Fixed_IO is
   Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;                                      69
   Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Aft;
   Default_Exp  : Field := 0;
   procedure Get(File  : in  File_Type;                                   70
                 Item  : out Num;
                 Width : in  Field := 0);
   procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                 Width : in  Field := 0);
   procedure Put(File : in File_Type;                                     71
                 Item : in Num;
                 Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                 Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                 Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
   procedure Put(Item : in Num;
                 Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                 Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                 Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
```

```
72             procedure Get(From : in  String;
                             Item : out Num;
                             Last : out Positive);
               procedure Put(To   : out String;
                             Item : in Num;
                             Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                             Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
            end Fixed_IO;
73          generic
               type Num is delta <> digits <>;
            package Decimal_IO is
74             Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
               Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Aft;
               Default_Exp  : Field := 0;
75             procedure Get(File  : in  File_Type;
                             Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in  Field := 0);
               procedure Get(Item  : out Num;
                             Width : in  Field := 0);
76             procedure Put(File : in File_Type;
                             Item : in Num;
                             Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                             Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                             Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
               procedure Put(Item : in Num;
                             Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                             Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                             Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
77             procedure Get(From : in  String;
                             Item : out Num;
                             Last : out Positive);
               procedure Put(To   : out String;
                             Item : in Num;
                             Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                             Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
            end Decimal_IO;
78          -- Generic package for Input-Output of Enumeration Types
79          generic
               type Enum is (<>);
            package Enumeration_IO is
80             Default_Width   : Field := 0;
               Default_Setting : Type_Set := Upper_Case;
81             procedure Get(File : in  File_Type;
                             Item : out Enum);
               procedure Get(Item : out Enum);
82             procedure Put(File  : in File_Type;
                             Item  : in Enum;
                             Width : in Field    := Default_Width;
                             Set   : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
               procedure Put(Item  : in Enum;
                             Width : in Field    := Default_Width;
                             Set   : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
83             procedure Get(From : in  String;
                             Item : out Enum;
                             Last : out Positive);
               procedure Put(To   : out String;
                             Item : in  Enum;
                             Set  : in  Type_Set := Default_Setting);
            end Enumeration_IO;
84          -- Exceptions
```

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

85

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} Append_File is a new element of enumeration type File_Mode. 85.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Get_Immediate, Look_Ahead, the subprograms for dealing with standard error, the type File_Access and its associated subprograms, and the generic packages Modular_IO and Decimal_IO are new in Ada 9X. 85.b

A.10.2 Text File Management

Static Semantics

The only allowed file modes for text files are the modes In_File, Out_File, and Append_File. The subprograms given in subclause A.8.2 for the control of external files, and the function End_Of_File given in subclause A.8.3 for sequential input-output, are also available for text files. There is also a version of End_Of_File that refers to the current default input file. For text files, the procedures have the following additional effects: 1

- For the procedures Create and Open: After a file with mode Out_File or Append_File is opened, the page length and line length are unbounded (both have the conventional value zero). After a file (of any mode) is opened, the current column, current line, and current page numbers are set to one. If the mode is Append_File, it is implementation defined whether a page terminator will separate preexisting text in the file from the new text to be written. 2

  Reason: For a file with mode Append_File, although it may seem more sensible for Open to set the current column, line, and page number based on the number of pages in the file, the number of lines on the last page, and the number of columns in the last line, we rejected this approach because of implementation costs; it would require the implementation to scan the file before doing the append, or to do processing that would be equivalent in effect. 2.a

  For similar reasons, there is no requirement to erase the last page terminator of the file, nor to insert an explicit page terminator in the case when the final page terminator of a file is represented implicitly by the implementation. 2.b

- For the procedure Close: If the file has the current mode Out_File or Append_File, has the effect of calling New_Page, unless the current page is already terminated; then outputs a file terminator. 3

- For the procedure Reset: If the file has the current mode Out_File or Append_File, has the effect of calling New_Page, unless the current page is already terminated; then outputs a file terminator. The current column, line, and page numbers are set to one, and the line and page lengths to Unbounded. If the new mode is Append_File, it is implementation defined whether a page terminator will separate preexisting text in the file from the new text to be written. 4

  Reason: The behavior of Reset should be similar to closing a file and reopening it with the given mode 4.a

The exception Mode_Error is propagated by the procedure Reset upon an attempt to change the mode of a file that is the current default input file, the current default output file, or the current default error file. 5

NOTES

22 An implementation can define the Form parameter of Create and Open to control effects including the following:

- the interpretation of line and column numbers for an interactive file, and
- the interpretation of text formats in a file created by a foreign program.

A.10.3 Default Input, Output, and Error Files

Static Semantics

The following subprograms provide for the control of the particular default files that are used when a file parameter is omitted from a Get, Put, or other operation of text input-output described below, or when application-dependent error-related text is to be output.

```
procedure Set_Input(File : in File_Type);
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Sets the current default input file to File.

The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open. The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the given file is not In_File.

```
procedure Set_Output(File : in File_Type);
procedure Set_Error (File : in File_Type);
```

Each operates on a file of mode Out_File or Append_File. Set_Output sets the current default output file to File. Set_Error sets the current default error file to File. The exception Status_Error is propagated if the given file is not open. The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the given file is not Out_File or Append_File.

```
function Standard_Input return File_Type;
function Standard_Input return File_Access;
```

Returns the standard input file (see A.10), or an access value designating the standard input file, respectively.

```
function Standard_Output return File_Type;
function Standard_Output return File_Access;
```

Returns the standard output file (see A.10) or an access value designating the standard output file, respectively.

```
function Standard_Error return File_Type;
function Standard_Error return File_Access;
```

Returns the standard error file (see A.10), or an access value designating the standard output file, respectively.

The Form strings implicitly associated with the opening of Standard_Input, Standard_Output, and Standard_Error at the start of program execution are implementation defined.

```
function Current_Input return File_Type;
function Current_Input return File_Access;
```

Returns the current default input file, or an access value designating the current default input file, respectively.

```
function Current_Output return File_Type;
function Current_Output return File_Access;
```

Returns the current default output file, or an access value designating the current default output file, respectively. 17

```
function Current_Error return File_Type;
function Current_Error return File_Access;
```
18

Returns the current default error file, or an access value designating the current default error file, respectively. 19

```
procedure Flush (File : in out File_Type);
procedure Flush;
```
20

The effect of Flush is the same as the corresponding subprogram in Streams.Stream_IO (see A.12.1). If File is not explicitly specified, Current_Output is used. 21

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} The execution of a program is erroneous if it attempts to use a current default input, default output, or default error file that no longer exists. 22

If the Close operation is applied to a file object that is also serving as the default input, default output, or default error file, then subsequent operations on such a default file are erroneous. 23

NOTES

23 The standard input, standard output, and standard error files cannot be opened, closed, reset, or deleted, because the parameter File of the corresponding procedures has the mode **in out**. 24

24 The standard input, standard output, and standard error files are different file objects, but not necessarily different external files. 25

A.10.4 Specification of Line and Page Lengths

Static Semantics

The subprograms described in this subclause are concerned with the line and page structure of a file of mode Out_File or Append_File. They operate either on the file given as the first parameter, or, in the absence of such a file parameter, on the current default output file. They provide for output of text with a specified maximum line length or page length. In these cases, line and page terminators are output implicitly and automatically when needed. When line and page lengths are unbounded (that is, when they have the conventional value zero), as in the case of a newly opened file, new lines and new pages are only started when explicitly called for. 1

In all cases, the exception Status_Error is propagated if the file to be used is not open; the exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the file is not Out_File or Append_File. 2

```
procedure Set_Line_Length(File : in File_Type; To : in Count);
procedure Set_Line_Length(To   : in Count);
```
3

Sets the maximum line length of the specified output or append file to the number of characters specified by To. The value zero for To specifies an unbounded line length. 4

Ramification: The setting does not affect the lengths of lines in the existing file, rather it only influences subsequent output operations. 4.a

The exception Use_Error is propagated if the specified line length is inappropriate for the associated external file. 5

```
procedure Set_Page_Length(File : in File_Type; To : in Count);
procedure Set_Page_Length(To   : in Count);
```

Sets the maximum page length of the specified output or append file to the number of lines specified by To. The value zero for To specifies an unbounded page length.

The exception Use_Error is propagated if the specified page length is inappropriate for the associated external file.

```
function Line_Length(File : in File_Type) return Count;
function Line_Length return Count;
```

Returns the maximum line length currently set for the specified output or append file, or zero if the line length is unbounded.

```
function Page_Length(File : in File_Type) return Count;
function Page_Length return Count;
```

Returns the maximum page length currently set for the specified output or append file, or zero if the page length is unbounded.

A.10.5 Operations on Columns, Lines, and Pages

Static Semantics

The subprograms described in this subclause provide for explicit control of line and page structure; they operate either on the file given as the first parameter, or, in the absence of such a file parameter, on the appropriate (input or output) current default file. The exception Status_Error is propagated by any of these subprograms if the file to be used is not open.

```
procedure New_Line(File : in File_Type; Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
procedure New_Line(Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
```

Operates on a file of mode Out_File or Append_File.

For a Spacing of one: Outputs a line terminator and sets the current column number to one. Then increments the current line number by one, except in the case that the current line number is already greater than or equal to the maximum page length, for a bounded page length; in that case a page terminator is output, the current page number is incremented by one, and the current line number is set to one.

For a Spacing greater than one, the above actions are performed Spacing times.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not Out_File or Append_File.

```
procedure Skip_Line(File  : in File_Type; Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
procedure Skip_Line(Spacing : in Positive_Count := 1);
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File.

For a Spacing of one: Reads and discards all characters until a line terminator has been read, and then sets the current column number to one. If the line terminator is not immediately followed by a page terminator, the current line number is incremented by one. Otherwise, if the line terminator is immediately followed by a page terminator, then the page terminator is skipped, the current page number is incremented by one, and the current line number is set to one.

For a Spacing greater than one, the above actions are performed Spacing times.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File. The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to read a file terminator.

```
function End_Of_Line(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
function End_Of_Line return Boolean;
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Returns True if a line terminator or a file terminator is next; otherwise returns False.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File.

```
procedure New_Page(File : in File_Type);
procedure New_Page;
```

Operates on a file of mode Out_File or Append_File. Outputs a line terminator if the current line is not terminated, or if the current page is empty (that is, if the current column and line numbers are both equal to one). Then outputs a page terminator, which terminates the current page. Adds one to the current page number and sets the current column and line numbers to one.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not Out_File or Append_File.

```
procedure Skip_Page(File : in File_Type);
procedure Skip_Page;
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Reads and discards all characters and line terminators until a page terminator has been read. Then adds one to the current page number, and sets the current column and line numbers to one.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File. The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to read a file terminator.

```
function End_Of_Page(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
function End_Of_Page return Boolean;
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Returns True if the combination of a line terminator and a page terminator is next, or if a file terminator is next; otherwise returns False.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File.

```
function End_Of_File(File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
function End_Of_File return Boolean;
```

Operates on a file of mode In_File. Returns True if a file terminator is next, or if the combination of a line, a page, and a file terminator is next; otherwise returns False.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated if the mode is not In_File.

The following subprograms provide for the control of the current position of reading or writing in a file. In all cases, the default file is the current output file.

```
procedure Set_Col(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);
procedure Set_Col(To   : in Positive_Count);
```

If the file mode is Out_File or Append_File:

- If the value specified by To is greater than the current column number, outputs spaces, adding one to the current column number after each space, until the current column number equals the specified value. If the value specified by To is equal to the current column number, there is no effect. If the value specified by To is less

than the current column number, has the effect of calling New_Line (with a spacing of one), then outputs (To – 1) spaces, and sets the current column number to the specified value.

- The exception Layout_Error is propagated if the value specified by To exceeds Line_Length when the line length is bounded (that is, when it does not have the conventional value zero).

If the file mode is In_File:

- Reads (and discards) individual characters, line terminators, and page terminators, until the next character to be read has a column number that equals the value specified by To; there is no effect if the current column number already equals this value. Each transfer of a character or terminator maintains the current column, line, and page numbers in the same way as a Get procedure (see A.10.6). (Short lines will be skipped until a line is reached that has a character at the specified column position.)

- The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to read a file terminator.

```
procedure Set_Line(File : in File_Type; To : in Positive_Count);
procedure Set_Line(To   : in Positive_Count);
```

If the file mode is Out_File or Append_File:

- If the value specified by To is greater than the current line number, has the effect of repeatedly calling New_Line (with a spacing of one), until the current line number equals the specified value. If the value specified by To is equal to the current line number, there is no effect. If the value specified by To is less than the current line number, has the effect of calling New_Page followed by a call of New_Line with a spacing equal to (To – 1).

- The exception Layout_Error is propagated if the value specified by To exceeds Page_Length when the page length is bounded (that is, when it does not have the conventional value zero).

If the mode is In_File:

- Has the effect of repeatedly calling Skip_Line (with a spacing of one), until the current line number equals the value specified by To; there is no effect if the current line number already equals this value. (Short pages will be skipped until a page is reached that has a line at the specified line position.)

- The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to read a file terminator.

```
function Col(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;
function Col return Positive_Count;
```

Returns the current column number.

The exception Layout_Error is propagated if this number exceeds Count'Last.

```
function Line(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;
function Line return Positive_Count;
```

Returns the current line number.

The exception Layout_Error is propagated if this number exceeds Count'Last.

```
function Page(File : in File_Type) return Positive_Count;
function Page return Positive_Count;
```

Returns the current page number.

The exception Layout_Error is propagated if this number exceeds Count'Last.

The column number, line number, or page number are allowed to exceed Count'Last (as a consequence of the input or output of sufficiently many characters, lines, or pages). These events do not cause any exception to be propagated. However, a call of Col, Line, or Page propagates the exception Layout_Error if the corresponding number exceeds Count'Last.

NOTES
25 A page terminator is always skipped whenever the preceding line terminator is skipped. An implementation may represent the combination of these terminators by a single character, provided that it is properly recognized on input.

A.10.6 Get and Put Procedures

Static Semantics

The procedures Get and Put for items of the type Character, String, numeric types, and enumeration types are described in subsequent subclauses. Features of these procedures that are common to most of these types are described in this subclause. The Get and Put procedures for items of type Character and String deal with individual character values; the Get and Put procedures for numeric and enumeration types treat the items as lexical elements.

All procedures Get and Put have forms with a file parameter, written first. Where this parameter is omitted, the appropriate (input or output) current default file is understood to be specified. Each procedure Get operates on a file of mode In_File. Each procedure Put operates on a file of mode Out_File or Append_File.

All procedures Get and Put maintain the current column, line, and page numbers of the specified file: the effect of each of these procedures upon these numbers is the result of the effects of individual transfers of characters and of individual output or skipping of terminators. Each transfer of a character adds one to the current column number. Each output of a line terminator sets the current column number to one and adds one to the current line number. Each output of a page terminator sets the current column and line numbers to one and adds one to the current page number. For input, each skipping of a line terminator sets the current column number to one and adds one to the current line number; each skipping of a page terminator sets the current column and line numbers to one and adds one to the current page number. Similar considerations apply to the procedures Get_Line, Put_Line, and Set_Col.

Several Get and Put procedures, for numeric and enumeration types, have *format* parameters which specify field lengths; these parameters are of the nonnegative subtype Field of the type Integer.

{*blank (in text input for enumeration and numeric types)*} Input-output of enumeration values uses the syntax of the corresponding lexical elements. Any Get procedure for an enumeration type begins by skipping any leading blanks, or line or page terminators. Get procedures for numeric or enumeration types start by skipping leading blanks, where a *blank* is defined as a space or a horizontal tabulation character. Next, characters are input only so long as the sequence input is an initial sequence of an identifier or of a character literal (in particular, input ceases when a line terminator is encountered). The character or line terminator that causes input to cease remains available for subsequent input.

6 For a numeric type, the Get procedures have a format parameter called Width. If the value given for this parameter is zero, the Get procedure proceeds in the same manner as for enumeration types, but using the syntax of numeric literals instead of that of enumeration literals. If a nonzero value is given, then exactly Width characters are input, or the characters up to a line terminator, whichever comes first; any skipped leading blanks are included in the count. The syntax used for numeric literals is an extended syntax that allows a leading sign (but no intervening blanks, or line or page terminators) and that also allows (for real types) an integer literal as well as forms that have digits only before the point or only after the point.

7 Any Put procedure, for an item of a numeric or an enumeration type, outputs the value of the item as a numeric literal, identifier, or character literal, as appropriate. This is preceded by leading spaces if required by the format parameters Width or Fore (as described in later subclauses), and then a minus sign for a negative value; for an enumeration type, the spaces follow instead of leading. The format given for a Put procedure is overridden if it is insufficiently wide, by using the minimum needed width.

8 Two further cases arise for Put procedures for numeric and enumeration types, if the line length of the specified output file is bounded (that is, if it does not have the conventional value zero). If the number of characters to be output does not exceed the maximum line length, but is such that they cannot fit on the current line, starting from the current column, then (in effect) New_Line is called (with a spacing of one) before output of the item. Otherwise, if the number of characters exceeds the maximum line length, then the exception Layout_Error is propagated and nothing is output.

9 The exception Status_Error is propagated by any of the procedures Get, Get_Line, Put, and Put_Line if the file to be used is not open. The exception Mode_Error is propagated by the procedures Get and Get_Line if the mode of the file to be used is not In_File; and by the procedures Put and Put_Line, if the mode is not Out_File or Append_File.

10 The exception End_Error is propagated by a Get procedure if an attempt is made to skip a file terminator. The exception Data_Error is propagated by a Get procedure if the sequence finally input is not a lexical element corresponding to the type, in particular if no characters were input; for this test, leading blanks are ignored; for an item of a numeric type, when a sign is input, this rule applies to the succeeding numeric literal. The exception Layout_Error is propagated by a Put procedure that outputs to a parameter of type String, if the length of the actual string is insufficient for the output of the item.

Examples

11 In the examples, here and in subclauses A.10.8 and A.10.9, the string quotes and the lower case letter b are not transferred: they are shown only to reveal the layout and spaces.

12
```
N : Integer;
   ...
Get(N);
```

13
```
--  Characters at input   Sequence input   Value of N

--  bb–12535b             –12535           –12535
--  bb12_535e1b           12_535e1         125350
--  bb12_535e;            12_535e          (none) Data_Error raised
```

14 Example of overridden width parameter:

15
```
Put(Item => -23, Width => 2);  -- "–23"
```

A.10.7 Input-Output of Characters and Strings

Static Semantics

For an item of type Character the following procedures are provided: 1

```
procedure Get(File : in File_Type; Item : out Character);
procedure Get(Item : out Character);
```
2

After skipping any line terminators and any page terminators, reads the next character from the specified input file and returns the value of this character in the out parameter Item. 3

The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to skip a file terminator. 4

```
procedure Put(File : in File_Type; Item : in Character);
procedure Put(Item : in Character);
```
5

If the line length of the specified output file is bounded (that is, does not have the conventional value zero), and the current column number exceeds it, has the effect of calling New_Line with a spacing of one. Then, or otherwise, outputs the given character to the file. 6

```
procedure Look_Ahead (File        : in  File_Type;
                      Item        : out Character;
                      End_Of_Line : out Boolean);
procedure Look_Ahead (Item        : out Character;
                      End_Of_Line : out Boolean);
```
7

Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the file is not In_File. Sets End_Of_Line to True if at end of line, including if at end of page or at end of file; in each of these cases the value of Item is not specified. {*unspecified* [partial]} Otherwise End_Of_Line is set to False and Item is set to the the next character (without consuming it) from the file. 8

```
procedure Get_Immediate(File : in  File_Type;
                        Item : out Character);
procedure Get_Immediate(Item : out Character);
```
9

Reads the next character, either control or graphic, from the specified File or the default input file. Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the file is not In_File. End_Error is propagated if at the end of the file. The current column, line and page numbers for the file are not affected. 10

```
procedure Get_Immediate(File      : in  File_Type;
                        Item      : out Character;
                        Available : out Boolean);
procedure Get_Immediate(Item      : out Character;
                        Available : out Boolean);
```
11

If a character, either control or graphic, is available from the specified File or the default input file, then the character is read; Available is True and Item contains the value of this character. If a character is not available, then Available is False and the value of Item is not specified. {*unspecified* [partial]} Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the file is not In_File. End_Error is propagated if at the end of the file. The current column, line and page numbers for the file are not affected. 12

For an item of type String the following procedures are provided: 13

```
procedure Get(File : in File_Type; Item : out String);
procedure Get(Item : out String);
```
14

Determines the length of the given string and attempts that number of Get operations for successive characters of the string (in particular, no operation is performed if the string is null). 15

16
```
procedure Put(File : in File_Type; Item : in String);
procedure Put(Item : in String);
```

17 Determines the length of the given string and attempts that number of Put operations for successive characters of the string (in particular, no operation is performed if the string is null).

18
```
procedure Get_Line(File : in File_Type; Item : out String; Last : out Natural);
procedure Get_Line(Item : out String;   Last : out Natural);
```

19 Reads successive characters from the specified input file and assigns them to successive characters of the specified string. Reading stops if the end of the string is met. Reading also stops if the end of the line is met before meeting the end of the string; in this case Skip_Line is (in effect) called with a spacing of 1. {*unspecified* [partial]} The values of characters not assigned are not specified.

20 If characters are read, returns in Last the index value such that Item(Last) is the last character assigned (the index of the first character assigned is Item'First). If no characters are read, returns in Last an index value that is one less than Item'First. The exception End_Error is propagated if an attempt is made to skip a file terminator.

21
```
procedure Put_Line(File : in File_Type; Item : in String);
procedure Put_Line(Item : in String);
```

22 Calls the procedure Put for the given string, and then the procedure New_Line with a spacing of one.

Implementation Advice

23 The Get_Immediate procedures should be implemented with unbuffered input. For a device such as a keyboard, input should be ''available'' if a key has already been typed, whereas for a disk file, input should always be available except at end of file. For a file associated with a keyboard-like device, any line-editing features of the underlying operating system should be disabled during the execution of Get_Immediate.

NOTES

24 26 Get_Immediate can be used to read a single key from the keyboard ''immediately''; that is, without waiting for an end of line. In a call of Get_Immediate without the parameter Available, the caller will wait until a character is available.

25 27 In a literal string parameter of Put, the enclosing string bracket characters are not output. Each doubled string bracket character in the enclosed string is output as a single string bracket character, as a consequence of the rule for string literals (see 2.6).

26 28 A string read by Get or written by Put can extend over several lines. An implementation is allowed to assume that certain external files do not contain page terminators, in which case Get_Line and Skip_Line can return as soon as a line terminator is read.

A.10.8 Input-Output for Integer Types

Static Semantics

1 The following procedures are defined in the generic packages Integer_IO and Modular_IO, which have to be instantiated for the appropriate signed integer or modular type respectively (indicated by Num in the specifications).

2 Values are output as decimal or based literals, without low line characters or exponent, and, for Integer_IO, preceded by a minus sign if negative. The format (which includes any leading spaces and minus sign) can be specified by an optional field width parameter. Values of widths of fields in output

formats are of the nonnegative integer subtype Field. Values of bases are of the integer subtype Number_Base.

```
subtype Number_Base is Integer range 2 .. 16;
```

The default field width and base to be used by output procedures are defined by the following variables that are declared in the generic packages Integer_IO and Modular_IO:

```
Default_Width : Field := Num'Width;
Default_Base  : Number_Base := 10;
```

The following procedures are provided:

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

If the value of the parameter Width is zero, skips any leading blanks, line terminators, or page terminators, then reads a plus sign if present or (for a signed type only) a minus sign if present, then reads the longest possible sequence of characters matching the syntax of a numeric literal without a point. If a nonzero value of Width is supplied, then exactly Width characters are input, or the characters (possibly none) up to a line terminator, whichever comes first; any skipped leading blanks are included in the count.

Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Num that corresponds to the sequence input.

The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence of characters read does not form a legal integer literal or if the value obtained is not of the subtype Num (for Integer_IO) or is not in the base range of Num (for Modular_IO).

```
procedure Put(File  : in File_Type;
              Item  : in Num;
              Width : in Field := Default_Width;
              Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);

procedure Put(Item  : in Num;
              Width : in Field := Default_Width;
              Base  : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
```

Outputs the value of the parameter Item as an integer literal, with no low lines, no exponent, and no leading zeros (but a single zero for the value zero), and a preceding minus sign for a negative value.

If the resulting sequence of characters to be output has fewer than Width characters, then leading spaces are first output to make up the difference.

Uses the syntax for decimal literal if the parameter Base has the value ten (either explicitly or through Default_Base); otherwise, uses the syntax for based literal, with any letters in upper case.

```
procedure Get(From : in String; Item : out Num; Last : out Positive);
```

Reads an integer value from the beginning of the given string, following the same rules as the Get procedure that reads an integer value from a file, but treating the end of the string as a file terminator. Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Num that corresponds to the sequence input. Returns in Last the index value such that From(Last) is the last character read.

The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence input does not have the required syntax or if the value obtained is not of the subtype Num.

```
procedure Put(To   : out String;
              Item : in Num;
              Base : in Number_Base := Default_Base);
```

Outputs the value of the parameter Item to the given string, following the same rule as for output to a file, using the length of the given string as the value for Width.

Integer_Text_IO is a library package that is a nongeneric equivalent to Text_IO.Integer_IO for the predefined type Integer:

```
with Ada.Text_IO;
package Ada.Integer_Text_IO is new Ada.Text_IO.Integer_IO(Integer);
```

For each predefined signed integer type, a nongeneric equivalent to Text_IO.Integer_IO is provided, with names such as Ada.Long_Integer_Text_IO.

Implementation Permissions

The nongeneric equivalent packages may, but need not, be actual instantiations of the generic package for the appropriate predefined type.

NOTES

29 For Modular_IO, execution of Get propagates Data_Error if the sequence of characters read forms an integer literal outside the range 0..Num'Last.

Examples

```
package Int_IO is new Integer_IO(Small_Int); use Int_IO;
-- default format used at instantiation,
-- Default_Width = 4, Default_Base = 10
Put(126);                              -- "b126"
Put(-126, 7);                          -- "bbb–126"
Put(126, Width => 13, Base => 2);      -- "bbb2#1111110#"
```

A.10.9 Input-Output for Real Types

Static Semantics

The following procedures are defined in the generic packages Float_IO, Fixed_IO, and Decimal_IO, which have to be instantiated for the appropriate floating point, ordinary fixed point, or decimal fixed point type respectively (indicated by Num in the specifications).

Values are output as decimal literals without low line characters. The format of each value output consists of a Fore field, a decimal point, an Aft field, and (if a nonzero Exp parameter is supplied) the letter E and an Exp field. The two possible formats thus correspond to:

```
Fore  .  Aft
```

and to:

```
Fore  .  Aft  E  Exp
```

without any spaces between these fields. The Fore field may include leading spaces, and a minus sign for negative values. The Aft field includes only decimal digits (possibly with trailing zeros). The Exp field includes the sign (plus or minus) and the exponent (possibly with leading zeros).

For floating point types, the default lengths of these fields are defined by the following variables that are declared in the generic package Float_IO:

```
Default_Fore : Field := 2;
Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Digits-1;
Default_Exp  : Field := 3;
```

For ordinary or decimal fixed point types, the default lengths of these fields are defined by the following variables that are declared in the generic packages Fixed_IO and Decimal_IO, respectively:

```
Default_Fore : Field := Num'Fore;
Default_Aft  : Field := Num'Aft;
Default_Exp  : Field := 0;
```

The following procedures are provided:

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

If the value of the parameter Width is zero, skips any leading blanks, line terminators, or page terminators, then reads the longest possible sequence of characters matching the syntax of any of the following (see 2.4):

- [+|–]numeric_literal
- [+|–]numeral.[exponent]
- [+|–].numeral[exponent]
- [+|–]base#based_numeral.#[exponent]
- [+|–]base#.based_numeral#[exponent]

If a nonzero value of Width is supplied, then exactly Width characters are input, or the characters (possibly none) up to a line terminator, whichever comes first; any skipped leading blanks are included in the count.

Returns in the parameter Item the value of type Num that corresponds to the sequence input, preserving the sign (positive if none has been specified) of a zero value if Num is a floating point type and Num'Signed_Zeros is True.

The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence input does not have the required syntax or if the value obtained is not of the subtype Num.

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

Outputs the value of the parameter Item as a decimal literal with the format defined by Fore, Aft and Exp. If the value is negative, or if Num is a floating point type where Num'Signed_Zeros is True and the value is a negatively signed zero, then a minus sign is included in the integer part. If Exp has the value zero, then the integer part to be output has as many digits as are needed to represent the integer part of the value of Item, overriding Fore if necessary, or consists of the digit zero if the value of Item has no integer part.

If Exp has a value greater than zero, then the integer part to be output has a single digit, which is nonzero except for the value 0.0 of Item.

25 In both cases, however, if the integer part to be output has fewer than Fore characters, including any minus sign, then leading spaces are first output to make up the difference. The number of digits of the fractional part is given by Aft, or is one if Aft equals zero. The value is rounded; a value of exactly one half in the last place is rounded away from zero.

26 If Exp has the value zero, there is no exponent part. If Exp has a value greater than zero, then the exponent part to be output has as many digits as are needed to represent the exponent part of the value of Item (for which a single digit integer part is used), and includes an initial sign (plus or minus). If the exponent part to be output has fewer than Exp characters, including the sign, then leading zeros precede the digits, to make up the difference. For the value 0.0 of Item, the exponent has the value zero.

27
```
procedure Get(From : in String; Item : out Num; Last : out Positive);
```

28 Reads a real value from the beginning of the given string, following the same rule as the Get procedure that reads a real value from a file, but treating the end of the string as a file terminator. Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Num that corresponds to the sequence input. Returns in Last the index value such that From(Last) is the last character read.

29 The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence input does not have the required syntax, or if the value obtained is not of the subtype Num.

30
```
procedure Put(To   : out String;
              Item : in Num;
              Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
              Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
```

31 Outputs the value of the parameter Item to the given string, following the same rule as for output to a file, using a value for Fore such that the sequence of characters output exactly fills the string, including any leading spaces.

32 Float_Text_IO is a library package that is a nongeneric equivalent to Text_IO.Float_IO for the predefined type Float:

33
```
with Ada.Text_IO;
package Ada.Float_Text_IO is new Ada.Text_IO.Float_IO(Float);
```

34 For each predefined floating point type, a nongeneric equivalent to Text_IO.Float_IO is provided, with names such as Ada.Long_Float_Text_IO.

Implementation Permissions

35 An implementation may extend Get [and Put] for floating point types to support special values such as infinities and NaNs.

35.a **Discussion:** See also the similar permission for the Wide_Value attribute in 3.5.

36 The implementation of Put need not produce an output value with greater accuracy than is supported for the base subtype. The additional accuracy, if any, of the value produced by Put when the number of requested digits in the integer and fractional parts exceeds the required accuracy is implementation defined.

36.a **Discussion:** The required accuracy is thus Num'Base'Digits digits if Num is a floating point subtype. For a fixed point subtype the required accuracy is a function of the subtype's Fore, Aft, and Delta attributes.

36.b **Implementation defined:** The accuracy of the value produced by Put.

The nongeneric equivalent packages may, but need not, be actual instantiations of the generic package for the appropriate predefined type.

NOTES

30 For an item with a positive value, if output to a string exactly fills the string without leading spaces, then output of the corresponding negative value will propagate Layout_Error.

31 The rules for the Value attribute (see 3.5) and the rules for Get are based on the same set of formats.

Examples

```
package Real_IO is new Float_IO(Real); use Real_IO;
-- default format used at instantiation, Default_Exp = 3
X : Real := -123.4567;  -- digits 8    (see 3.5.7)

Put(X);   -- default format                          "–1.2345670E+02"
Put(X, Fore => 5, Aft => 3, Exp => 2);               -- "bbb–1.235E+2"
Put(X, 5, 3, 0);                                     -- "b–123.457"
```

A.10.10 Input-Output for Enumeration Types

Static Semantics

The following procedures are defined in the generic package Enumeration_IO, which has to be instantiated for the appropriate enumeration type (indicated by Enum in the specification).

Values are output using either upper or lower case letters for identifiers. This is specified by the parameter Set, which is of the enumeration type Type_Set.

```
type Type_Set is (Lower_Case, Upper_Case);
```

The format (which includes any trailing spaces) can be specified by an optional field width parameter. The default field width and letter case are defined by the following variables that are declared in the generic package Enumeration_IO:

```
Default_Width   : Field := 0;
Default_Setting : Type_Set := Upper_Case;
```

The following procedures are provided:

```
procedure Get(File : in File_Type; Item : out Enum);
procedure Get(Item : out Enum);
```

After skipping any leading blanks, line terminators, or page terminators, reads an identifier according to the syntax of this lexical element (lower and upper case being considered equivalent), or a character literal according to the syntax of this lexical element (including the apostrophes). Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Enum that corresponds to the sequence input.

The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence input does not have the required syntax, or if the identifier or character literal does not correspond to a value of the subtype Enum.

```
procedure Put(File  : in File_Type;
              Item  : in Enum;
              Width : in Field := Default_Width;
              Set   : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
```

```
procedure Put(Item  : in Enum;
              Width : in Field := Default_Width;
              Set   : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
```

11 Outputs the value of the parameter Item as an enumeration literal (either an identifier or a character literal). The optional parameter Set indicates whether lower case or upper case is used for identifiers; it has no effect for character literals. If the sequence of characters produced has fewer than Width characters, then trailing spaces are finally output to make up the difference. If Enum is a character type, the sequence of characters produced is as for Enum'Image(Item), as modified by the Width and Set parameters.

11.a **Discussion:** For a character type, the literal might be a Wide_Character or a control character. Whatever Image does for these things is appropriate here, too.

12 `procedure Get(From : in String; Item : out Enum; Last : out Positive);`

13 Reads an enumeration value from the beginning of the given string, following the same rule as the Get procedure that reads an enumeration value from a file, but treating the end of the string as a file terminator. Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Enum that corresponds to the sequence input. Returns in Last the index value such that From(Last) is the last character read.

14 The exception Data_Error is propagated if the sequence input does not have the required syntax, or if the identifier or character literal does not correspond to a value of the subtype Enum.

14.a **To be honest:** For a character type, it is permissible for the implementation to make Get do the inverse of what Put does, in the case of wide character_literals and control characters.

```
15 procedure Put(To   : out String;
                 Item : in Enum;
                 Set  : in Type_Set := Default_Setting);
```

16 Outputs the value of the parameter Item to the given string, following the same rule as for output to a file, using the length of the given string as the value for Width.

17 Although the specification of the generic package Enumeration_IO would allow instantiation for an float type, this is not the intended purpose of this generic package, and the effect of such instantiations is not defined by the language.

NOTES

18 32 There is a difference between Put defined for characters, and for enumeration values. Thus

19 `Ada.Text_IO.Put('A');  -- outputs the character A`

20
```
package Char_IO is new Ada.Text_IO.Enumeration_IO(Character);
Char_IO.Put('A');  -- outputs the character 'A', between apostrophes
```

21 33 The type Boolean is an enumeration type, hence Enumeration_IO can be instantiated for this type.

A.11 Wide Text Input-Output

1 The package Wide_Text_IO provides facilities for input and output in human-readable form. Each file is read or written sequentially, as a sequence of wide characters grouped into lines, and as a sequence of lines grouped into pages.

Static Semantics

2 {*Ada.Wide_Text_IO*} The specification of package Wide_Text_IO is the same as that for Text_IO, except that in each Get, Look_Ahead, Get_Immediate, Get_Line, Put, and Put_Line procedure, any occurrence of Character is replaced by Wide_Character, and any occurrence of String is replaced by Wide_String.

{*Ada.Integer_Wide_Text_IO*} {*Ada.Float_Wide_Text_IO*} Nongeneric equivalents of Wide_Text_IO.Integer_IO and Wide_Text_IO.Float_IO are provided (as for Text_IO) for each predefined numeric type, with names such as Ada.Integer_Wide_Text_IO, Ada.Long_Integer_Wide_Text_IO, Ada.Float_Wide_Text_IO, Ada.Long_Float_Wide_Text_IO. 3

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Support for Wide_Character and Wide_String I/O is new in Ada 9X. 3.a

A.12 Stream Input-Output

The packages Streams.Stream_IO, Text_IO.Text_Streams, and Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams provide stream-oriented operations on files. 1

A.12.1 The Package Streams.Stream_IO

{*heterogeneous input-output*} [The subprograms in the child package Streams.Stream_IO provide control over stream files. Access to a stream file is either sequential, via a call on Read or Write to transfer an array of stream elements, or positional (if supported by the implementation for the given file), by specifying a relative index for an element. Since a stream file can be converted to a Stream_Access value, calling stream-oriented attribute subprograms of different element types with the same Stream_Access value provides heterogeneous input-output.] See 13.13 for a general discussion of streams. 1

Static Semantics

The library package Streams.Stream_IO has the following declaration: 2

```
with Ada.IO_Exceptions;                                                    3
package Ada.Streams.Stream_IO is
    type Stream_Access is access all Root_Stream_Type'Class;               4
    type File_Type is limited private;                                     5
    type File_Mode is (In_File, Out_File, Append_File);                    6
    type    Count          is range 0 .. implementation-defined;           7
    subtype Positive_Count is Count range 1 .. Count'Last;
      -- Index into file, in stream elements.
    procedure Create (File : in out File_Type;                             8
                      Mode : in File_Mode := Out_File;
                      Name : in String    := "";
                      Form : in String    := "");
    procedure Open (File : in out File_Type;                               9
                    Mode : in File_Mode;
                    Name : in String;
                    Form : in String := "");
    procedure Close  (File : in out File_Type);                            10
    procedure Delete (File : in out File_Type);
    procedure Reset  (File : in out File_Type; Mode : in File_Mode);
    procedure Reset  (File : in out File_Type);
    function Mode (File : in File_Type) return File_Mode;                  11
    function Name (File : in File_Type) return String;
    function Form (File : in File_Type) return String;
    function Is_Open     (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;             12
    function End_Of_File (File : in File_Type) return Boolean;
    function Stream (File : in File_Type) return Stream_Access;            13
        -- Return stream access for use with T'Input and T'Output
                                                                           14
```

```
        -- Read array of stream elements from file
        procedure Read (File : in  File_Type;
                        Item : out Stream_Element_Array;
                        Last : out Stream_Element_Offset;
                        From : in  Positive_Count);
        procedure Read (File : in  File_Type;
                        Item : out Stream_Element_Array;
                        Last : out Stream_Element_Offset);

        -- Write array of stream elements into file
        procedure Write (File : in File_Type;
                         Item : in Stream_Element_Array;
                         To   : in Positive_Count);
        procedure Write (File : in File_Type;
                               Item : in Stream_Element_Array);

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

The subprograms Create, Open, Close, Delete, Reset, Mode, Name, Form, Is_Open, and End_of_File have the same effect as the corresponding subprograms in Sequential_IO (see A.8.2).

The Stream function returns a Stream_Access result from a File_Type object, thus allowing the stream-oriented attributes Read, Write, Input, and Output to be used on the same file for multiple types.

The procedures Read and Write are equivalent to the corresponding operations in the package Streams. Read propagates Mode_Error if the mode of File is not In_File. Write propagates Mode_Error if the mode of File is not Out_File or Append_File. The Read procedure with a Positive_Count parameter starts reading at the specified index. The Write procedure with a Positive_Count parameter starts writing at the specified index.

The Index function returns the current file index, as a count (in stream elements) from the beginning of the file. The position of the first element in the file is 1.

Ramification: The notion of Index for Stream_IO is analogous to that of Index in Direct_IO, except that the former is measured in Stream_Element units, whereas the latter is in terms of Element_Type values.

The Set_Index procedure sets the current index to the specified value.

If positioning is not supported for the given file, then a call of Index or Set_Index propagates Use_Error. Similarly, a call of Read or Write with a Positive_Count parameter propagates Use_Error.

The Size function returns the current size of the file, in stream elements. 34

The Set_Mode procedure changes the mode of the file. If the new mode is Append_File, the file is positioned to its end; otherwise, the position in the file is unchanged. 35

The Flush procedure synchronizes the external file with the internal file (by flushing any internal buffers) without closing the file or changing the position. Mode_Error is propagated if the mode of the file is In_File. 36

A.12.2 The Package Text_IO.Text_Streams

The package Text_IO.Text_Streams provides a function for treating a text file as a stream. 1

Static Semantics

The library package Text_IO.Text_Streams has the following declaration: 2

```
with Ada.Streams;                                                    3
package Ada.Text_IO.Text_Streams is
   type Stream_Access is access all Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   function Stream (File : in File_Type) return Stream_Access;       4
end Ada.Text_IO.Text_Streams;
```

The Stream function has the same effect as the corresponding function in Streams.Stream_IO. 5

NOTES

34 The ability to obtain a stream for a text file allows Current_Input, Current_Output, and Current_Error to be processed with the functionality of streams, including the mixing of text and binary input-output, and the mixing of binary input-output for different types. 6

35 Performing operations on the stream associated with a text file does not affect the column, line, or page counts. 7

A.12.3 The Package Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams

The package Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams provides a function for treating a wide text file as a stream. 1

Static Semantics

The library package Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams has the following declaration: 2

```
with Ada.Streams;                                                    3
package Ada.Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams is
   type Stream_Access is access all Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   function Stream (File : in File_Type) return Stream_Access;       4
end Ada.Wide_Text_IO.Text_Streams;
```

The Stream function has the same effect as the corresponding function in Streams.Stream_IO. 5

A.13 Exceptions in Input-Output

The package IO_Exceptions defines the exceptions needed by the predefined input-output packages. 1

Static Semantics

The library package IO_Exceptions has the following declaration: 2

```
package Ada.IO_Exceptions is                                         3
   pragma Pure(IO_Exceptions);
```

```
        Status_Error : exception;
        Mode_Error   : exception;
        Name_Error   : exception;
        Use_Error    : exception;
        Device_Error : exception;
        End_Error    : exception;
        Data_Error   : exception;
        Layout_Error : exception;
    end Ada.IO_Exceptions;
```

If more than one error condition exists, the corresponding exception that appears earliest in the following list is the one that is propagated.

The exception Status_Error is propagated by an attempt to operate upon a file that is not open, and by an attempt to open a file that is already open.

The exception Mode_Error is propagated by an attempt to read from, or test for the end of, a file whose current mode is Out_File or Append_File, and also by an attempt to write to a file whose current mode is In_File. In the case of Text_IO, the exception Mode_Error is also propagated by specifying a file whose current mode is Out_File or Append_File in a call of Set_Input, Skip_Line, End_Of_Line, Skip_Page, or End_Of_Page; and by specifying a file whose current mode is In_File in a call of Set_Output, Set_Line_Length, Set_Page_Length, Line_Length, Page_Length, New_Line, or New_Page.

The exception Name_Error is propagated by a call of Create or Open if the string given for the parameter Name does not allow the identification of an external file. For example, this exception is propagated if the string is improper, or, alternatively, if either none or more than one external file corresponds to the string.

The exception Use_Error is propagated if an operation is attempted that is not possible for reasons that depend on characteristics of the external file. For example, this exception is propagated by the procedure Create, among other circumstances, if the given mode is Out_File but the form specifies an input only device, if the parameter Form specifies invalid access rights, or if an external file with the given name already exists and overwriting is not allowed.

The exception Device_Error is propagated if an input-output operation cannot be completed because of a malfunction of the underlying system.

The exception End_Error is propagated by an attempt to skip (read past) the end of a file.

The exception Data_Error can be propagated by the procedure Read (or by the Read attribute) if the element read cannot be interpreted as a value of the required subtype. This exception is also propagated by a procedure Get (defined in the package Text_IO) if the input character sequence fails to satisfy the required syntax, or if the value input does not belong to the range of the required subtype.

The exception Layout_Error is propagated (in text input-output) by Col, Line, or Page if the value returned exceeds Count'Last. The exception Layout_Error is also propagated on output by an attempt to set column or line numbers in excess of specified maximum line or page lengths, respectively (excluding the unbounded cases). It is also propagated by an attempt to Put too many characters to a string.

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the conditions under which Name_Error, Use_Error and Device_Error are propagated. 15

Implementation Permissions

If the associated check is too complex, an implementation need not propagate Data_Error as part of a procedure Read (or the Read attribute) if the value read cannot be interpreted as a value of the required subtype. 16

Ramification: An example where the implementation may choose not to perform the check is an enumeration type with a representation clause with ''holes'' in the range of internal codes. 16.a

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} [If the element read by the procedure Read (or by the Read attribute) cannot be interpreted as a value of the required subtype, but this is not detected and Data_Error is not propagated, then the resulting value can be abnormal, and subsequent references to the value can lead to erroneous execution, as explained in 13.9.1. {*normal state of an object* [partial]} {*abnormal state of an object* [partial]}] 17

A.14 File Sharing

Dynamic Semantics

{*unspecified* [partial]} It is not specified by the language whether the same external file can be associated with more than one file object. If such sharing is supported by the implementation, the following effects are defined: 1

- Operations on one text file object do not affect the column, line, and page numbers of any other file object. 2
- Standard_Input and Standard_Output are associated with distinct external files, so operations on one of these files cannot affect operations on the other file. In particular, reading from Standard_Input does not affect the current page, line, and column numbers for Standard_Output, nor does writing to Standard_Output affect the current page, line, and column numbers for Standard_Input. 3
- For direct and stream files, the current index is a property of each file object; an operation on one file object does not affect the current index of any other file object. 4
- For direct and stream files, the current size of the file is a property of the external file. 5

All other effects are identical. 6

A.15 The Package Command_Line

The package Command_Line allows a program to obtain the values of its arguments and to set the exit status code to be returned on normal termination. 1

Implementation defined: The meaning of Argument_Count, Argument, and Command_Name. 1.a

Static Semantics

The library package Ada.Command_Line has the following declaration: 2

```
package Ada.Command_Line is                                                    3
  pragma Preelaborate(Command_Line);
  function Argument_Count return Natural;                                      4
  function Argument (Number : in Positive) return String;                      5
  function Command_Name return String;                                         6
```

```
   type Exit_Status is implementation-defined integer type;
   Success : constant Exit_Status;
   Failure : constant Exit_Status;
   procedure Set_Exit_Status (Code : in Exit_Status);
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Command_Line;
```

```
function Argument_Count return Natural;
```

If the external execution environment supports passing arguments to a program, then Argument_Count returns the number of arguments passed to the program invoking the function. Otherwise it returns 0. The meaning of ‘‘number of arguments’’ is implementation defined.

```
function Argument (Number : in Positive) return String;
```

If the external execution environment supports passing arguments to a program, then Argument returns an implementation-defined value corresponding to the argument at relative position Number. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If Number is outside the range 1..Argument_Count, then Constraint_Error is propagated.

Ramification: If the external execution environment does not support passing arguments to a program, then Argument(N) for any N will raise Constraint_Error, since Argument_Count is 0.

```
function Command_Name return String;
```

If the external execution environment supports passing arguments to a program, then Command_Name returns an implementation-defined value corresponding to the name of the command invoking the program; otherwise Command_Name returns the null string.

The type Exit_Status represents the range of exit status values supported by the external execution environment. The constants Success and Failure correspond to success and failure, respectively.

```
procedure Set_Exit_Status (Code : in Exit_Status);
```

If the external execution environment supports returning an exit status from a program, then Set_Exit_Status sets Code as the status. Normal termination of a program returns as the exit status the value most recently set by Set_Exit_Status, or, if no such value has been set, then the value Success. If a program terminates abnormally, the status set by Set_Exit_Status is ignored, and an implementation-defined exit status value is set.

{*unspecified* [partial]} If the external execution environment does not support returning an exit value from a program, then Set_Exit_Status does nothing.

Implementation Permissions

An alternative declaration is allowed for package Command_Line if different functionality is appropriate for the external execution environment.

NOTES

36 Argument_Count, Argument, and Command_Name correspond to the C language’s argc, argv[n] (for n>0) and argv[0], respectively.

Ramification: The correspondence of Argument_Count to argc is not direct — argc would be one more than Argument_Count, since the argc count includes the command name, whereas Argument_Count does not.

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This clause is new in Ada 9X. 22.b

Annex B
(normative)

Interface to Other Languages

{*interface to other languages*} {*language (interface to non-Ada)*} {*mixed-language programs*} This Annex describes features for writing mixed-language programs. General interface support is presented first; then specific support for C, COBOL, and Fortran is defined, in terms of language interface packages for each of these languages. 1

Ramification: This Annex is not a ''Specialized Needs'' annex. Every implementation must support all non-optional features defined here (mainly the package Interfaces). 1.a

Language Design Principles

Ada should have strong support for mixed-language programming. 1.b

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Much of the functionality in this Annex is new to Ada 9X. 1.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

This Annex contains what used to be RM83-13.8. 1.d

B.1 Interfacing Pragmas

A pragma Import is used to import an entity defined in a foreign language into an Ada program, thus allowing a foreign-language subprogram to be called from Ada, or a foreign-language variable to be accessed from Ada. In contrast, a pragma Export is used to export an Ada entity to a foreign language, thus allowing an Ada subprogram to be called from a foreign language, or an Ada object to be accessed from a foreign language. The pragmas Import and Export are intended primarily for objects and subprograms, although implementations are allowed to support other entities. 1

A pragma Convention is used to specify that an Ada entity should use the conventions of another language. It is intended primarily for types and ''callback'' subprograms. For example, ''**pragma** Convention(Fortran, Matrix);'' implies that Matrix should be represented according to the conventions of the supported Fortran implementation, namely column-major order. 2

A pragma Linker_Options is used to specify the system linker parameters needed when a given compilation unit is included in a partition. 3

Syntax

{*interfacing pragma* [distributed]} {*interfacing pragma* [Import]} {*pragma, interfacing* [Import]} {*interfacing pragma* [Export]} {*pragma, interfacing* [Export]} {*interfacing pragma* [Convention]} {*pragma, interfacing* [Convention]} {*pragma, interfacing* [Linker_Options]} An *interfacing pragma* is a representation pragma that is one of the pragmas Import, Export, or Convention. Their forms, together with that of the related pragma Linker_Options, are as follows: 4

pragma Import(5
[Convention =>] *convention*_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name
[, [External_Name =>] *string*_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] *string*_expression]);

6 **pragma** Export(
[Convention =>] *convention*_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name
[, [External_Name =>] *string*_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] *string*_expression]);

7 **pragma** Convention([Convention =>] *convention*_identifier,[Entity =>] local_name);

8 **pragma** Linker_Options(*string*_expression);

9 A pragma Linker_Options is allowed only at the place of a declarative_item.

Name Resolution Rules

10 {*expected type* [link name]} The expected type for a *string*_expression in an interfacing pragma or in pragma Linker_Options is String.

10.a **Ramification:** There is no language-defined support for external or link names of type Wide_String, or of other string types. Implementations may, of course, have additional pragmas for that purpose. Note that allowing both String and Wide_String in the same pragma would cause ambiguities.

Legality Rules

11 {*convention*} The *convention*_identifier of an interfacing pragma shall be the name of a *convention*. The convention names are implementation defined, except for certain language-defined ones, such as Ada and Intrinsic, as explained in 6.3.1, ‘‘Conformance Rules’’. [Additional convention names generally represent the calling conventions of foreign languages, language implementations, or specific run-time models.] {*calling convention*} The convention of a callable entity is its *calling convention.*

11.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined convention names.

11.b **Discussion:** We considered representing the convention names using an enumeration type declared in System. Then, *convention*_identifier would be changed to *convention*_name, and we would make its expected type be the enumeration type. We didn’t do this because it seems to introduce extra complexity, and because the list of available languages is better represented as the list of children of package Interfaces — a more open-ended sort of list.

12 {*compatible (a type, with a convention)*} If *L* is a *convention*_identifier for a language, then a type T is said to be *compatible with convention L*, (alternatively, is said to be an *L-compatible type*) if any of the following conditions are met:

13 • T is declared in a language interface package corresponding to *L* and is defined to be *L*-compatible (see B.3, B.3.1, B.3.2, B.4, B.5),

14 • {*eligible (a type, for a convention)*} Convention *L* has been specified for T in a pragma Convention, and T is *eligible for convention L*; that is:

15 – T is an array type with either an unconstrained or statically-constrained first subtype, and its component type is *L*-compatible,

16 – T is a record type that has no discriminants and that only has components with statically-constrained subtypes, and each component type is *L*-compatible,

17 – T is an access-to-object type, and its designated type is *L*-compatible,

18 – T is an access-to-subprogram type, and its designated profile’s parameter and result types are all *L*-compatible.

19 • T is derived from an *L*-compatible type,

20 • The implementation permits T as an *L*-compatible type.

20.a **Discussion:** For example, an implementation might permit Integer as a C-compatible type, though the C type to which it corresponds might be different in different environments.

21 If pragma Convention applies to a type, then the type shall either be compatible with or eligible for the convention specified in the pragma.

Ramification: If a type is derived from an *L*-compatible type, the derived type is by default *L*-compatible, but it is also permitted to specify pragma Convention for the derived type. 21.a

It is permitted to specify pragma Convention for an incomplete type, but in the complete declaration each component must be *L*-compatible. 21.b

If each component of a record type is *L*-compatible, then the record type itself is only *L*-compatible if it has a pragma Convention. 21.c

A pragma Import shall be the completion of a declaration. {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding any rule to the contrary, a pragma Import may serve as the completion of any kind of (explicit) declaration if supported by an implementation for that kind of declaration. If a completion is a pragma Import, then it shall appear in the same declarative_part, package_specification, task_definition or protected_definition as the declaration. For a library unit, it shall appear in the same compilation, before any subsequent compilation_units other than pragmas. If the local_name denotes more than one entity, then the pragma Import is the completion of all of them. 22

Discussion: For declarations of deferred constants and subprograms, we mention pragma Import explicitly as a possible completion. For other declarations that require completions, we ignore the possibility of pragma Import. Nevertheless, if an implementation chooses to allow a pragma Import to complete the declaration of a task, protected type, incomplete type, private type, etc., it may do so, and the normal completion is then not allowed for that declaration. 22.a

{*imported entity*} {*exported entity*} An entity specified as the Entity argument to a pragma Import (or pragma Export) is said to be *imported* (respectively, *exported*). 23

The declaration of an imported object shall not include an explicit initialization expression. [Default initializations are not performed.] 24

Proof: This follows from the ‘‘Notwithstanding ...’’ wording in the Dynamics Semantics paragraphs below. 24.a

The type of an imported or exported object shall be compatible with the convention specified in the corresponding pragma. 25

Ramification: This implies, for example, that importing an Integer object might be illegal, whereas importing an object of type Interfaces.C.int would be permitted. 25.a

For an imported or exported subprogram, the result and parameter types shall each be compatible with the convention specified in the corresponding pragma. 26

The external name and link name *string*_expressions of a pragma Import or Export, and the *string*_expression of a pragma Linker_Options, shall be static. 27

Static Semantics

{*representation pragma* [Import]} {*pragma, representation* [Import]} {*representation pragma* [Export]} {*pragma, representation* [Export]} {*representation pragma* [Convention]} {*pragma, representation* [Convention]} {*aspect of representation* [convention, calling convention]} {*convention (aspect of representation)*} Import, Export, and Convention pragmas are representation pragmas that specify the *convention* aspect of representation. {*aspect of representation* [imported]} {*imported (aspect of representation)*} {*aspect of representation* [exported]} {*exported (aspect of representation)*} In addition, Import and Export pragmas specify the *imported* and *exported* aspects of representation, respectively. 28

{*program unit pragma* [Import]} {*pragma, program unit* [Import]} {*program unit pragma* [Export]} {*pragma, program unit* [Export]} {*program unit pragma* [Convention]} {*pragma, program unit* [Convention]} An interfacing pragma is a program unit pragma when applied to a program unit (see 10.1.5). 29

30 An interfacing pragma defines the convention of the entity denoted by the local_name. The convention represents the calling convention or representation convention of the entity. For an access-to-subprogram type, it represents the calling convention of designated subprograms. In addition:

31 • A pragma Import specifies that the entity is defined externally (that is, outside the Ada program).

32 • A pragma Export specifies that the entity is used externally.

33 • A pragma Import or Export optionally specifies an entity's external name, link name, or both.

34 {*external name*} An *external name* is a string value for the name used by a foreign language program either for an entity that an Ada program imports, or for referring to an entity that an Ada program exports.

35 {*link name*} A *link name* is a string value for the name of an exported or imported entity, based on the conventions of the foreign language's compiler in interfacing with the system's linker tool.

36 The meaning of link names is implementation defined.

36.a **Implementation defined:** The meaning of link names.

36.b **Ramification:** For example, an implementation might always prepend "_", and then pass it to the system linker.

If neither a link name nor the Address attribute of an imported or exported entity is specified, then a link name is chosen in an implementation-defined manner, based on the external name if one is specified.

36.c **Implementation defined:** The manner of choosing link names when neither the link name nor the address of an imported or exported entity is specified.

36.d **Ramification:** Normally, this will be the entity's defining name, or some simple transformation thereof.

37 Pragma Linker_Options has the effect of passing its string argument as a parameter to the system linker (if one exists), if the immediately enclosing compilation unit is included in the partition being linked. The interpretation of the string argument, and the way in which the string arguments from multiple Linker_Options pragmas are combined, is implementation defined.

37.a **Implementation defined:** The effect of pragma Linker_Options.

Dynamic Semantics

38 {*elaboration* [declaration named by a pragma Import]} {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding what this International Standard says elsewhere, the elaboration of a declaration denoted by the local_name of a pragma Import does not create the entity. Such an elaboration has no other effect than to allow the defining name to denote the external entity.

38.a **Ramification:** This implies that default initializations are skipped. (Explicit initializations are illegal.) For example, an imported access object is *not* initialized to **null**.

38.b Note that the local_name in a pragma Import might denote more than one declaration; in that case, the entity of all of those declarations will be the external entity.

38.c **Discussion:** This ''notwithstanding'' wording is better than saying ''unless named by a pragma Import'' on every definition of elaboration. It says we recognize the contradiction, and this rule takes precedence.

Implementation Advice

39 If an implementation supports pragma Export to a given language, then it should also allow the main subprogram to be written in that language. It should support some mechanism for invoking the elaboration of the Ada library units included in the system, and for invoking the finalization of the environment task. On typical systems, the recommended mechanism is to provide two subprograms whose link names

are "adainit" and "adafinal". Adainit should contain the elaboration code for library units. Adafinal should contain the finalization code. These subprograms should have no effect the second and subsequent time they are called.

Ramification: For example, if the main subprogram is written in C, it can call adainit before the first call to an Ada subprogram, and adafinal after the last. 39.a

Automatic elaboration of preelaborated packages should be provided when pragma Export is supported. 40

For each supported convention *L* other than Intrinsic, an implementation should support Import and Export pragmas for objects of *L*-compatible types and for subprograms, and pragma Convention for *L*-eligible types and for subprograms, presuming the other language has corresponding features. Pragma Convention need not be supported for scalar types. 41

Reason: Pragma Convention is not necessary for scalar types, since the language interface packages declare scalar types corresponding to those provided by the respective foreign languages. 41.a

Implementation Note: If an implementation supports interfacing to C++, it should do so via the convention identifier C_Plus_Plus (in additional to any C++-implementation-specific ones). 41.b

Reason: The reason for giving the advice about C++ is to encourage uniformity among implementations, given that the name of the language is not syntactically legal as an identifier. We place this advice in the AARM, rather than the RM9X proper, because (as of this writing) C++ is not an international standard, and we don't want to refer to a such a language from an international standard. 41.c

NOTES

1 Implementations may place restrictions on interfacing pragmas; for example, requiring each exported entity to be declared at the library level. 42

Proof: Arbitrary restrictions are allowed by 13.1. 42.a

Ramification: Such a restriction might be to disallow them altogether. Alternatively, the implementation might allow them only for certain kinds of entities, or only for certain conventions. 42.b

2 A pragma Import specifies the conventions for accessing external entities. It is possible that the actual entity is written in assembly language, but reflects the conventions of a particular language. For example, **pragma** Import(Ada, ...) can be used to interface to an assembly language routine that obeys the Ada compiler's calling conventions. 43

3 To obtain ''call-back'' to an Ada subprogram from a foreign language environment, **pragma** Convention should be specified both for the access-to-subprogram type and the specific subprogram(s) to which 'Access is applied. 44

4 It is illegal to specify more than one of Import, Export, or Convention for a given entity. 45

5 The local_name in an interfacing pragma can denote more than one entity in the case of overloading. Such a pragma applies to all of the denoted entities. 46

6 See also 13.8, ''Machine Code Insertions''. 47

Ramification: The Intrinsic convention (see 6.3.1) implies that the entity is somehow ''built in'' to the implementation. Thus, it generally does not make sense for users to specify Intrinsic in a pragma Import. The intention is that only implementations will specify Intrinsic in a pragma Import. The language also defines certain subprograms to be Intrinsic. 47.a

Discussion: There are many imaginable interfacing pragmas that don't make any sense. For example, setting the Convention of a protected procedure to Ada is probably wrong. Rather than enumerating all such cases, however, we leave it up to implementations to decide what is sensible. 47.b

7 If both External_Name and Link_Name are specified for an Import or Export pragma, then the External_Name is ignored. 48

8 An interfacing pragma might result in an effect that violates Ada semantics. 49

Examples

Example of interfacing pragmas:

```
package Fortran_Library is
  function Sqrt (X : Float) return Float;
  function Exp  (X : Float) return Float;
private
  pragma Import(Fortran, Sqrt);
  pragma Import(Fortran, Exp);
end Fortran_Library;
```

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Interfacing pragmas are new to Ada 9X. Pragma Import replaces Ada 83's pragma Interface. Existing implementations can continue to support pragma Interface for upward compatibility.

B.2 The Package Interfaces

Package Interfaces is the parent of several library packages that declare types and other entities useful for interfacing to foreign languages. It also contains some implementation-defined types that are useful across more than one language (in particular for interfacing to assembly language).

Implementation defined: The contents of the visible part of package Interfaces and its language-defined descendants.

Static Semantics

The library package Interfaces has the following skeletal declaration:

```
package Interfaces is
   pragma Pure(Interfaces);

   type Integer_n is range -2**(n-1) .. 2**(n-1) - 1;  --2's complement

   type Unsigned_n is mod 2**n;

   function Shift_Left  (Value : Unsigned_n; Amount : Natural) return Unsigned_n;
   function Shift_Right (Value : Unsigned_n; Amount : Natural) return Unsigned_n;
   function Shift_Right_Arithmetic (Value : Unsigned_n; Amount : Natural)
      return Unsigned_n;
   function Rotate_Left  (Value : Unsigned_n; Amount : Natural) return Unsigned_n;
   function Rotate_Right (Value : Unsigned_n; Amount : Natural) return Unsigned_n;
   ...
end Interfaces;
```

Implementation Requirements

An implementation shall provide the following declarations in the visible part of package Interfaces:

- Signed and modular integer types of *n* bits, if supported by the target architecture, for each *n* that is at least the size of a storage element and that is a factor of the word size. The names of these types are of the form Integer_*n* for the signed types, and Unsigned_*n* for the modular types;

  Ramification: For example, for a typical 32-bit machine the corresponding types might be Integer_8, Unsigned_8, Integer_16, Unsigned_16, Integer_32, and Unsigned_32.

  The wording above implies, for example, that Integer_16'Size = Unsigned_16'Size = 16. Unchecked conversions between same-Sized types will work as expected.

- {*shift*} {*rotate*} For each such modular type in Interfaces, shifting and rotating subprograms as specified in the declaration of Interfaces above. These subprograms are Intrinsic. They operate on a bit-by-bit basis, using the binary representation of the value of the operands to yield a binary representation for the result. The Amount parameter gives the number of bits by which to shift or rotate. For shifting, zero bits are shifted in, except in the case of Shift_Right_Arithmetic, where one bits are shifted in if Value is at least half the modulus.

  Reason: We considered making shifting and rotating be primitive operations of all modular types. However, it is a design principle of Ada that all predefined operations should be operators (not functions named by identifiers). (Note that an early version of Ada had "**abs**" as an identifier, but it was changed to a reserved word

operator before standardization of Ada 83.) This is important because the implicit declarations would hide non-overloadable declarations with the same name, whereas operators are always overloadable. Therefore, we would have had to make shift and rotate into reserved words, which would have been upward incompatible, or else invent new operator symbols, which seemed like too much mechanism.

- Floating point types corresponding to each floating point format fully supported by the hardware. 10

Implementation Note: The names for these floating point types are not specified. {*IEEE floating point arithmetic*} However, if IEEE arithmetic is supported, then the names should be IEEE_Float_32 and IEEE_Float_64 for single and double precision, respectively. 10.a

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may provide implementation-defined library units that are children of Interfaces, and may add declarations to the visible part of Interfaces in addition to the ones defined above. 11

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined children of package Interfaces. The contents of the visible part of package Interfaces. 11.a

Implementation Advice

For each implementation-defined convention identifier, there should be a child package of package Interfaces with the corresponding name. This package should contain any declarations that would be useful for interfacing to the language (implementation) represented by the convention. Any declarations useful for interfacing to any language on the given hardware architecture should be provided directly in Interfaces. 12

Ramification: For example, package Interfaces.XYZ_Pascal might contain declarations of types that match the data types provided by the XYZ implementation of Pascal, so that it will be more convenient to pass parameters to a subprogram whose convention is XYZ_Pascal. 12.a

An implementation supporting an interface to C, COBOL, or Fortran should provide the corresponding package or packages described in the following clauses. 13

Implementation Note: The intention is that an implementation might support several implementations of the foreign language: Interfaces.This_Fortran and Interfaces.That_Fortran might both exist. The ''default'' implementation, overridable by the user, should be declared as a renaming: 13.a

```
package Interfaces.Fortran renames Interfaces.This_Fortran;
```
13.b

B.3 Interfacing with C

{*interface to C*} {*C interface*} The facilities relevant to interfacing with the C language are the package Interfaces.C and its children; and support for the Import, Export, and Convention pragmas with *convention*_identifier C. 1

The package Interfaces.C contains the basic types, constants and subprograms that allow an Ada program to pass scalars and strings to C functions. 2

Static Semantics

The library package Interfaces.C has the following declaration: 3

```
package Interfaces.C is                                                    4
   pragma Pure(C);
   -- Declarations based on C's <limits.h>                                 5
   CHAR_BIT  : constant := implementation-defined;   -- typically 8        6
   SCHAR_MIN : constant := implementation-defined;   -- typically -128
   SCHAR_MAX : constant := implementation-defined;   -- typically 127
   UCHAR_MAX : constant := implementation-defined;   -- typically 255
```

```
-- Signed and Unsigned Integers
type int   is range implementation-defined;
type short is range implementation-defined;
type long  is range implementation-defined;
type signed_char is range SCHAR_MIN .. SCHAR_MAX;
for signed_char'Size use CHAR_BIT;
type unsigned       is mod implementation-defined;
type unsigned_short is mod implementation-defined;
type unsigned_long  is mod implementation-defined;
type unsigned_char is mod (UCHAR_MAX+1);
for unsigned_char'Size use CHAR_BIT;
subtype plain_char is implementation-defined;
type ptrdiff_t is range implementation-defined;
type size_t is mod implementation-defined;
-- Floating Point
type C_float     is digits implementation-defined;
type double      is digits implementation-defined;
type long_double is digits implementation-defined;
-- Characters and Strings
type char is <implementation-defined character type>;
nul : constant char := char'First;
function To_C   (Item : in Character) return char;
function To_Ada (Item : in char) return Character;
type char_array is array (size_t range <>) of aliased char;
pragma Pack(char_array);
for char_array'Component_Size use CHAR_BIT;
function Is_Nul_Terminated (Item : in char_array) return Boolean;
function To_C   (Item       : in String;
                 Append_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return char_array;
function To_Ada (Item     : in char_array;
                 Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return String;
procedure To_C (Item       : in String;
                Target     : out char_array;
                Count      : out size_t;
                Append_Nul : in Boolean := True);
procedure To_Ada (Item     : in char_array;
                  Target   : out String;
                  Count    : out Natural;
                  Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True);
-- Wide Character and Wide String
type wchar_t is implementation-defined;
wide_nul : constant wchar_t := wchar_t'First;
function To_C   (Item : in Wide_Character) return wchar_t;
function To_Ada (Item : in wchar_t       ) return Wide_Character;
type wchar_array is array (size_t range <>) of aliased wchar_t;
pragma Pack(wchar_array);
function Is_Nul_Terminated (Item : in wchar_array) return Boolean;
function To_C   (Item       : in Wide_String;
                 Append_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return wchar_array;
function To_Ada (Item     : in wchar_array;
                 Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return Wide_String;
```

```
   procedure To_C (Item       : in  Wide_String;                    38
                   Target     : out wchar_array;
                   Count      : out size_t;
                   Append_Nul : in  Boolean := True);
   procedure To_Ada (Item     : in  wchar_array;                    39
                     Target   : out Wide_String;
                     Count    : out Natural;
                     Trim_Nul : in  Boolean := True);
   Terminator_Error : exception;                                    40
end Interfaces.C;                                                   41
```

Each of the types declared in Interfaces.C is C-compatible. 42

The types int, short, long, unsigned, ptrdiff_t, size_t, double, char, and wchar_t correspond respectively to the C types having the same names. The types signed_char, unsigned_short, unsigned_long, unsigned_char, C_float, and long_double correspond respectively to the C types signed char, unsigned short, unsigned long, unsigned char, float, and long double. 43

The type of the subtype plain_char is either signed_char or unsigned_char, depending on the C implementation. 44

```
function To_C   (Item : in Character) return char;                  45
function To_Ada (Item : in char     ) return Character;
```

The functions To_C and To_Ada map between the Ada type Character and the C type char. 46

```
function Is_Nul_Terminated (Item : in char_array) return Boolean;   47
```

The result of Is_Nul_Terminated is True if Item contains nul, and is False otherwise. 48

```
function To_C   (Item : in String;     Append_Nul : in Boolean := True)   49
   return char_array;
function To_Ada (Item : in char_array; Trim_Nul   : in Boolean := True)
   return String;
```

The result of To_C is a char_array value of length Item'Length (if Append_Nul is False) or Item'Length+1 (if Append_Nul is True). The lower bound is 0. For each component Item(I), the corresponding component in the result is To_C applied to Item(I). The value nul is appended if Append_Nul is True. 50

The result of To_Ada is a String whose length is Item'Length (if Trim_Nul is False) or the length of the slice of Item preceding the first nul (if Trim_Nul is True). The lower bound of the result is 1. If Trim_Nul is False, then for each component Item(I) the corresponding component in the result is To_Ada applied to Item(I). If Trim_Nul is True, then for each component Item(I) before the first nul the corresponding component in the result is To_Ada applied to Item(I). The function propagates Terminator_Error if Trim_Nul is True and Item does not contain nul. 51

```
procedure To_C (Item       : in String;                             52
                Target     : out char_array;
                Count      : out size_t;
                Append_Nul : in Boolean := True);
procedure To_Ada (Item     : in char_array;
                  Target   : out String;
                  Count    : out Natural;
                  Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True);
```

53 For procedure To_C, each element of Item is converted (via the To_C function) to a char, which is assigned to the corresponding element of Target. If Append_Nul is True, nul is then assigned to the next element of Target. In either case, Count is set to the number of Target elements assigned. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If Target is not long enough, Constraint_Error is propagated.

54 For procedure To_Ada, each element of Item (if Trim_Nul is False) or each element of Item preceding the first nul (if Trim_Nul is True) is converted (via the To_Ada function) to a Character, which is assigned to the corresponding element of Target. Count is set to the number of Target elements assigned. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If Target is not long enough, Constraint_Error is propagated. If Trim_Nul is True and Item does not contain nul, then Terminator_Error is propagated.

55
```
function Is_Nul_Terminated (Item : in wchar_array) return Boolean;
```

56 The result of Is_Nul_Terminated is True if Item contains wide_nul, and is False otherwise.

57
```
function To_C   (Item : in Wide_Character) return wchar_t;
function To_Ada (Item : in wchar_t       ) return Wide_Character;
```

58 To_C and To_Ada provide the mappings between the Ada and C wide character types.

59
```
function To_C   (Item       : in Wide_String;
                 Append_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return wchar_array;

function To_Ada (Item     : in wchar_array;
                 Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True)
   return Wide_String;

procedure To_C (Item       : in Wide_String;
                Target     : out wchar_array;
                Count      : out size_t;
                Append_Nul : in Boolean := True);

procedure To_Ada (Item     : in wchar_array;
                  Target   : out Wide_String;
                  Count    : out Natural;
                  Trim_Nul : in Boolean := True);
```

60 The To_C and To_Ada subprograms that convert between Wide_String and wchar_array have analogous effects to the To_C and To_Ada subprograms that convert between String and char_array, except that wide_nul is used instead of nul.

60.a **Discussion:** The Interfaces.C package provides an implementation-defined character type, char, designed to model the C run-time character set, and mappings between the types char and Character.

60.b One application of the C interface package is to compose a C string and pass it to a C function. One way to do this is for the programmer to declare an object that will hold the C array, and then pass this array to the C function. This is realized via the type char_array:

60.c
```
type char_array is array (size_t range <>) of Char;
```

60.d The programmer can declare an Ada String, convert it to a char_array, and pass the char_array as actual parameter to the C function that is expecting a char *.

60.e An alternative approach is for the programmer to obtain a C char pointer from an Ada String (or from a char_array) by invoking an allocation function. The package Interfaces.C.Strings (see below) supplies the needed facilities, including a private type chars_ptr that corresponds to C's char *, and two allocation functions. To avoid storage leakage, a Free procedure releases the storage that was allocated by one of these allocate functions.

60.f It is typical for a C function that deals with strings to adopt the convention that the string is delimited by a nul char. The C interface packages support this convention. A constant nul of type Char is declared, and the function Value(Chars_Ptr) in Interfaces.C.Strings returns a char_array up to and including the first nul in the array that the chars_ptr points to. The Allocate_Chars function allocates an array that is nul terminated.

Some C functions that deal with strings take an explicit length as a parameter, thus allowing strings to be passed that contain nul as a data element. Other C functions take an explicit length that is an upper bound: the prefix of the string up to the char before nul, or the prefix of the given length, is used by the function, whichever is shorter. The C Interface packages support calling such functions. 60.g

Implementation Requirements

An implementation shall support pragma Convention with a C *convention_*identifier for a C-eligible type (see B.1) 61

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may provide additional declarations in the C interface packages. 62

Implementation Advice

An implementation should support the following interface correspondences between Ada and C. 63

- An Ada procedure corresponds to a void-returning C function. 64

  Discussion: The programmer can also choose an Ada procedure when the C function returns an int that is to be discarded. 64.a

- An Ada function corresponds to a non-void C function. 65
- An Ada **in** scalar parameter is passed as a scalar argument to a C function. 66
- An Ada **in** parameter of an access-to-object type with designated type T is passed as a t* argument to a C function, where t is the C type corresponding to the Ada type T. 67
- An Ada **access** T parameter, or an Ada **out** or **in out** parameter of an elementary type T, is passed as a t* argument to a C function, where t is the C type corresponding to the Ada type T. In the case of an elementary **out** or **in out** parameter, a pointer to a temporary copy is used to preserve by-copy semantics. 68
- An Ada parameter of a record type T, of any mode, is passed as a t* argument to a C function, where t is the C struct corresponding to the Ada type T. 69
- An Ada parameter of an array type with component type T, of any mode, is passed as a t* argument to a C function, where t is the C type corresponding to the Ada type T. 70
- An Ada parameter of an access-to-subprogram type is passed as a pointer to a C function whose prototype corresponds to the designated subprogram's specification. 71

NOTES

9 Values of type char_array are not implicitly terminated with nul. If a char_array is to be passed as a parameter to an imported C function requiring nul termination, it is the programmer's responsibility to obtain this effect. 72

10 To obtain the effect of C's sizeof(item_type), where Item_Type is the corresponding Ada type, evaluate the expression: size_t(Item_Type'Size/CHAR_BIT). 73

11 There is no explicit support for C's union types. Unchecked conversions can be used to obtain the effect of C unions. 74

12 A C function that takes a variable number of arguments can correspond to several Ada subprograms, taking various specific numbers and types of parameters. 75

Examples

Example of using the Interfaces.C package: 76

```
77      --Calling the C Library Function strcpy
        with Interfaces.C;
        procedure Test is
           package C renames Interfaces.C;
           use type C.char_array;
           -- Call <string.h>strcpy:
           -- C definition of strcpy:  char *strcpy(char *s1, const char *s2);
           --    This function copies the string pointed to by s2 (including the terminating null character)
           --     into the array pointed to by s1.  If copying takes place between objects that overlap,
           --     the behavior is undefined.  The strcpy function returns the value of s1.
78         -- Note: since the C function's return value is of no interest, the Ada interface is a procedure
           procedure Strcpy (Target : out C.char_array;
                             Source : in  C.char_array);
79         pragma Import(C, Strcpy, "strcpy");
80         Chars1 :  C.char_array(1..20);
           Chars2 :  C.char_array(1..20);
81      begin
           Chars2(1..6) := "qwert" & C.nul;
82         Strcpy(Chars1, Chars2);
83      -- Now Chars1(1..6) = "qwert" & C.Nul
84      end Test;
```

B.3.1 The Package Interfaces.C.Strings

1 The package Interfaces.C.Strings declares types and subprograms allowing an Ada program to allocate, reference, update, and free C-style strings. In particular, the private type chars_ptr corresponds to a common use of ‘‘char *’’ in C programs, and an object of this type can be passed to a subprogram to which pragma Import(C,...) has been applied, and for which ‘‘char *’’ is the type of the argument of the C function.

Static Semantics

2 The library package Interfaces.C.Strings has the following declaration:

```
3       package Interfaces.C.Strings is
           pragma Preelaborate(Strings);
4          type char_array_access is access all char_array;
5          type chars_ptr is private;
6          type chars_ptr_array is array (size_t range <>) of chars_ptr;
7          Null_Ptr : constant chars_ptr;
8          function To_Chars_Ptr (Item      : in char_array_access;
                                  Nul_Check : in Boolean := False)
              return chars_ptr;
9          function New_Char_Array (Chars   : in char_array) return chars_ptr;
10         function New_String (Str : in String) return chars_ptr;
11         procedure Free (Item : in out chars_ptr);
12         Dereference_Error : exception;
13         function Value (Item : in chars_ptr) return char_array;
14         function Value (Item : in chars_ptr; Length : in size_t)
              return char_array;
15         function Value (Item : in chars_ptr) return String;
16         function Value (Item : in chars_ptr; Length : in size_t)
              return String;
17         function Strlen (Item : in chars_ptr) return size_t;
```

```
   procedure Update (Item   : in chars_ptr;                                    18
                     Offset : in size_t;
                     Chars  : in char_array;
                     Check  : in Boolean := True);
   procedure Update (Item   : in chars_ptr;                                    19
                     Offset : in size_t;
                     Str    : in String;
                     Check  : in Boolean := True);
   Update_Error : exception;                                                   20
private                                                                        21
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Interfaces.C.Strings;
```

Discussion: The string manipulation types and subprograms appear in a child of Interfaces.C versus being there directly, since it is useful to have Interfaces.C specified as pragma Pure. 21.a

Differently named functions New_String and New_Char_Array are declared, since if there were a single overloaded function a call with a string literal as actual parameter would be ambiguous. 21.b

The type chars_ptr is C-compatible and corresponds to the use of C's ''char *'' for a pointer to the first char in a char array terminated by nul. When an object of type chars_ptr is declared, its value is by default set to Null_Ptr, unless the object is imported (see B.1). 22

Discussion: The type char_array_access is not necessarily C-compatible, since an object of this type may carry ''dope'' information. The programmer should convert from char_array_access to chars_ptr for objects imported from, exported to, or passed to C. 22.a

```
function To_Chars_Ptr (Item      : in char_array_access;                        23
                       Nul_Check : in Boolean := False)
   return chars_ptr;
```

If Item is **null**, then To_Chars_Ptr returns Null_Ptr. Otherwise, if Nul_Check is True and Item.**all** does not contain nul, then the function propagates Terminator_Error; if Nul_Check is True and Item.**all** does contain nul, To_Chars_Ptr performs a pointer conversion with no allocation of memory. 24

```
function New_Char_Array (Chars   : in char_array) return chars_ptr;            25
```

This function returns a pointer to an allocated object initialized to Chars(Chars'First .. Index) & nul, where 26

- Index = Chars'Last if Chars does not contain nul, or 27
- Index is the smallest size_t value I such that Chars(I+1) = nul. 28

Storage_Error is propagated if the allocation fails.

```
function New_String (Str : in String) return chars_ptr;                        29
```

This function is equivalent to New_Char_Array(To_C(Str)). 30

```
procedure Free (Item : in out chars_ptr);                                      31
```

If Item is Null_Ptr, then Free has no effect. Otherwise, Free releases the storage occupied by Value(Item), and resets Item to Null_Ptr. 32

```
function Value (Item : in chars_ptr) return char_array;                        33
```

If Item = Null_Ptr then Value propagates Dereference_Error. Otherwise Value returns the prefix of the array of chars pointed to by Item, up to and including the first nul. The lower bound of the result is 0. If Item does not point to a nul-terminated string, then execution of Value is erroneous. 34

```
function Value (Item : in chars_ptr; Length : in size_t)
   return char_array;
```

If Item = Null_Ptr then Value(Item) propagates Dereference_Error. Otherwise Value returns the shorter of two arrays: the first Length chars pointed to by Item, and Value(Item). The lower bound of the result is 0.

Ramification: Value(New_Char_Array(Chars)) = Chars if Chars does not contain nul; else Value(New_Char_Array(Chars)) is the prefix of Chars up to and including the first nul.

```
function Value (Item : in chars_ptr) return String;
```

Equivalent to To_Ada(Value(Item), Trim_Nul=>True).

```
function Value (Item : in chars_ptr; Length : in size_t)
   return String;
```

Equivalent to To_Ada(Value(Item, Length), Trim_Nul=>True).

```
function Strlen (Item : in chars_ptr) return size_t;
```

Returns *Val*'Length–1 where *Val* = Value(Item); propagates Dereference_Error if Item = Null_Ptr.

Ramification: Strlen returns the number of chars in the array pointed to by Item, up to and including the char immediately before the first nul.

Strlen has the same possibility for erroneous execution as Value, in cases where the string has not been nul-terminated.

Strlen has the effect of C's strlen function.

```
procedure Update (Item   : in chars_ptr;
                  Offset : in size_t;
                  Chars  : in char_array;
                  Check  : Boolean := True);
```

This procedure updates the value pointed to by Item, starting at position Offset, using Chars as the data to be copied into the array. Overwriting the nul terminator, and skipping with the Offset past the nul terminator, are both prevented if Check is True, as follows:

- Let N = Strlen(Item). If Check is True, then:
  - If Offset+Chars'Length>N, propagate Update_Error.
  - Otherwise, overwrite the data in the array pointed to by Item, starting at the char at position Offset, with the data in Chars.
- If Check is False, then processing is as above, but with no check that Offset+Chars'Length>N.

Ramification: If Chars contains nul, Update's effect may be to ''shorten'' the pointed-to char array.

```
procedure Update (Item   : in chars_ptr;
                  Offset : in size_t;
                  Str    : in String;
                  Check  : in Boolean := True);
```

Equivalent to Update(Item, Offset, To_C(Str), Check).

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} Execution of any of the following is erroneous if the Item parameter is not null_ptr and Item does not point to a nul-terminated array of chars.

- a Value function not taking a Length parameter,

- the Free procedure,
- the Strlen function.

Execution of Free(X) is also erroneous if the chars_ptr X was not returned by New_Char_Array or New_String.

Reading or updating a freed char_array is erroneous.

Execution of Update is erroneous if Check is False and a call with Check equal to True would have propagated Update_Error.

NOTES

13 New_Char_Array and New_String might be implemented either through the allocation function from the C environment (‘‘malloc’’) or through Ada dynamic memory allocation (‘‘new’’). The key points are

- the returned value (a chars_ptr) is represented as a C ‘‘char *’’ so that it may be passed to C functions;
- the allocated object should be freed by the programmer via a call of Free, not by a called C function.

B.3.2 The Generic Package Interfaces.C.Pointers

The generic package Interfaces.C.Pointers allows the Ada programmer to perform C-style operations on pointers. It includes an access type Pointer, Value functions that dereference a Pointer and deliver the designated array, several pointer arithmetic operations, and ‘‘copy’’ procedures that copy the contents of a source pointer into the array designated by a destination pointer. As in C, it treats an object Ptr of type Pointer as a pointer to the first element of an array, so that for example, adding 1 to Ptr yields a pointer to the second element of the array.

The generic allows two styles of usage: one in which the array is terminated by a special terminator element; and another in which the programmer needs to keep track of the length.

Static Semantics

The generic library package Interfaces.C.Pointers has the following declaration:

```
generic
   type Index is (<>);
   type Element is private;
   type Element_Array is array (Index range <>) of aliased Element;
   Default_Terminator : Element;
package Interfaces.C.Pointers is
   pragma Preelaborate(Pointers);

   type Pointer is access all Element;

   function Value(Ref        : in Pointer;
                  Terminator : in Element := Default_Terminator)
      return Element_Array;

   function Value(Ref    : in Pointer;
                  Length : in ptrdiff_t)
      return Element_Array;

   Pointer_Error : exception;

   -- C-style Pointer arithmetic

   function "+" (Left : in Pointer;   Right : in ptrdiff_t) return Pointer;
   function "+" (Left : in ptrdiff_t; Right : in Pointer)   return Pointer;
   function "-" (Left : in Pointer;   Right : in ptrdiff_t) return Pointer;
   function "-" (Left : in Pointer;   Right : in Pointer)   return ptrdiff_t;

   procedure Increment (Ref : in out Pointer);
   procedure Decrement (Ref : in out Pointer);
```

```
12          pragma Convention (Intrinsic, "+");
            pragma Convention (Intrinsic, "-");
            pragma Convention (Intrinsic, Increment);
            pragma Convention (Intrinsic, Decrement);
13          function Virtual_Length (Ref        : in Pointer;
                                     Terminator : in Element := Default_Terminator)
               return ptrdiff_t;
14          procedure Copy_Terminated_Array (Source     : in Pointer;
                                             Target     : in Pointer;
                                             Limit      : in ptrdiff_t := ptrdiff_t'Last;
                                             Terminator : in Element :=  Default_Terminator);
15          procedure Copy_Array (Source  : in Pointer;
                                  Target  : in Pointer;
                                  Length  : in ptrdiff_t);
16       end Interfaces.C.Pointers;
```

17 The type Pointer is C-compatible and corresponds to one use of C's ''Element *''. An object of type Pointer is interpreted as a pointer to the initial Element in an Element_Array. Two styles are supported:

18 • Explicit termination of an array value with Default_Terminator (a special terminator value);

19 • Programmer-managed length, with Default_Terminator treated simply as a data element.

```
20       function Value(Ref        : in Pointer;
                        Terminator : in Element := Default_Terminator)
          return Element_Array;
```

21 This function returns an Element_Array whose value is the array pointed to by Ref, up to and including the first Terminator; the lower bound of the array is Index'First. Interfaces.C.-Strings.Dereference_Error is propagated if Ref is **null**.

```
22       function Value(Ref    : in Pointer;
                        Length : in ptrdiff_t)
          return Element_Array;
```

23 This function returns an Element_Array comprising the first Length elements pointed to by Ref. The exception Interfaces.C.Strings.Dereference_Error is propagated if Ref is **null**.

24 The "+" and "–" functions perform arithmetic on Pointer values, based on the Size of the array elements. In each of these functions, Pointer_Error is propagated if a Pointer parameter is **null**.

```
25       procedure Increment (Ref : in out Pointer);
```

26 Equivalent to Ref := Ref+1.

```
27       procedure Decrement (Ref : in out Pointer);
```

28 Equivalent to Ref := Ref–1.

```
29       function Virtual_Length (Ref        : in Pointer;
                                  Terminator : in Element := Default_Terminator)
          return ptrdiff_t;
```

30 Returns the number of Elements, up to the one just before the first Terminator, in Value(Ref, Terminator).

```
31       procedure Copy_Terminated_Array (Source     : in Pointer;
                                          Target     : in Pointer;
                                          Limit      : in ptrdiff_t := ptrdiff_t'Last;
                                          Terminator : in Element := Default_Terminator);
```

This procedure copies Value(Source, Terminator) into the array pointed to by Target; it stops either after Terminator has been copied, or the number of elements copied is Limit, whichever occurs first. Dereference_Error is propagated if either Source or Target is **null**. 32

Ramification: It is the programmer's responsibility to ensure that elements are not copied beyond the logical length of the target array. 32.a

Implementation Note: The implementation has to take care to check the Limit first. 32.b

```
procedure Copy_Array (Source  : in Pointer;
                      Target  : in Pointer;
                      Length  : in ptrdiff_t);
```
33

This procedure copies the first Length elements from the array pointed to by Source, into the array pointed to by Target. Dereference_Error is propagated if either Source or Target is **null**. 34

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} It is erroneous to dereference a Pointer that does not designate an aliased Element. 35

Discussion: Such a Pointer could arise via "+", "-", Increment, or Decrement. 35.a

Execution of Value(Ref, Terminator) is erroneous if Ref does not designate an aliased Element in an Element_Array terminated by Terminator. 36

Execution of Value(Ref, Length) is erroneous if Ref does not designate an aliased Element in an Element_Array containing at least Length Elements between the designated Element and the end of the array, inclusive. 37

Execution of Virtual_Length(Ref, Terminator) is erroneous if Ref does not designate an aliased Element in an Element_Array terminated by Terminator. 38

Execution of Copy_Terminated_Array(Source, Target, Limit, Terminator) is erroneous in either of the following situations: 39

- Execution of both Value(Source,Terminator) and Value(Source,Limit) are erroneous, or 40
- Copying writes past the end of the array containing the Element designated by Target. 41

Execution of Copy_Array(Source, Target, Length) is erroneous if either Value(Source, Length) is erroneous, or copying writes past the end of the array containing the Element designated by Target. 42

NOTES

14 To compose a Pointer from an Element_Array, use 'Access on the first element. For example (assuming appropriate instantiations): 43

```
Some_Array   : Element_Array(0..5) ;
Some_Pointer : Pointer := Some_Array(0)'Access;
```
44

Examples

Example of Interfaces.C.Pointers: 45

```
with Interfaces.C.Pointers;
with Interfaces.C.Strings;
procedure Test_Pointers is
   package C renames Interfaces.C;
   package Char_Ptrs is
      new C.Pointers (Index              => C.size_t,
                      Element            => C.char,
                      Element_Array      => C.char_array,
                      Default_Terminator => C.nul);
```
46

```
47          use type Char_Ptrs.Pointer;
            subtype Char_Star is Char_Ptrs.Pointer;
48          procedure Strcpy (Target_Ptr, Source_Ptr : Char_Star) is
               Target_Temp_Ptr : Char_Star := Target_Ptr;
               Source_Temp_Ptr : Char_Star := Source_Ptr;
               Element : C.char;
            begin
               if Target_Temp_Ptr = null or Source_Temp_Ptr = null then
                  raise C.Strings.Dereference_Error;
               end if;
49             loop
                  Element             := Source_Temp_Ptr.all;
                  Target_Temp_Ptr.all := Element;
                  exit when Element = C.nul;
                  Char_Ptrs.Increment(Target_Temp_Ptr);
                  Char_Ptrs.Increment(Source_Temp_Ptr);
               end loop;
            end Strcpy;
         begin
            ...
         end Test_Pointers;
```

B.4 Interfacing with COBOL

1 {*interface to COBOL*} {*COBOL interface*} The facilities relevant to interfacing with the COBOL language are the package Interfaces.COBOL and support for the Import, Export and Convention pragmas with *convention_*identifier COBOL.

2 The COBOL interface package supplies several sets of facilities:

3 • A set of types corresponding to the native COBOL types of the supported COBOL implementation (so-called ‘‘internal COBOL representations’’), allowing Ada data to be passed as parameters to COBOL programs

4 • A set of types and constants reflecting external data representations such as might be found in files or databases, allowing COBOL-generated data to be read by an Ada program, and Ada-generated data to be read by COBOL programs

5 • A generic package for converting between an Ada decimal type value and either an internal or external COBOL representation

Static Semantics

6 The library package Interfaces.COBOL has the following declaration:

```
7       package Interfaces.COBOL is
           pragma Preelaborate(COBOL);
8       -- Types and operations for internal data representations
9          type Floating      is digits implementation-defined;
           type Long_Floating is digits implementation-defined;
10         type Binary      is range implementation-defined;
           type Long_Binary is range implementation-defined;
11         Max_Digits_Binary      : constant := implementation-defined;
           Max_Digits_Long_Binary : constant := implementation-defined;
12         type Decimal_Element  is mod implementation-defined;
           type Packed_Decimal is array (Positive range <>) of Decimal_Element;
           pragma Pack(Packed_Decimal);
13         type COBOL_Character is implementation-defined character type;
14         Ada_To_COBOL : array (Character) of COBOL_Character := implementation-defined;
15         COBOL_To_Ada : array (COBOL_Character) of Character := implementation-defined;
```

```
   type Alphanumeric is array (Positive range <>) of COBOL_Character;                16
   pragma Pack(Alphanumeric);
   function To_COBOL (Item : in String) return Alphanumeric;                         17
   function To_Ada   (Item : in Alphanumeric) return String;
   procedure To_COBOL (Item       : in String;                                       18
                       Target     : out Alphanumeric;
                       Last       : out Natural);
   procedure To_Ada (Item     : in Alphanumeric;                                     19
                     Target   : out String;
                     Last     : out Natural);
   type Numeric is array (Positive range <>) of COBOL_Character;                     20
   pragma Pack(Numeric);
-- Formats for COBOL data representations                                           21
   type Display_Format is private;                                                   22
   Unsigned            : constant Display_Format;                                    23
   Leading_Separate    : constant Display_Format;
   Trailing_Separate   : constant Display_Format;
   Leading_Nonseparate : constant Display_Format;
   Trailing_Nonseparate : constant Display_Format;
   type Binary_Format is private;                                                    24
   High_Order_First  : constant Binary_Format;                                       25
   Low_Order_First   : constant Binary_Format;
   Native_Binary     : constant Binary_Format;
   type Packed_Format is private;                                                    26
   Packed_Unsigned   : constant Packed_Format;                                       27
   Packed_Signed     : constant Packed_Format;
-- Types for external representation of COBOL binary data                           28
   type Byte is mod 2**COBOL_Character'Size;                                         29
   type Byte_Array is array (Positive range <>) of Byte;
   pragma Pack (Byte_Array);
   Conversion_Error : exception;                                                     30
   generic                                                                           31
      type Num is delta <> digits <>;
   package Decimal_Conversions is
      -- Display Formats: data values are represented as Numeric                    32
      function Valid (Item   : in Numeric;                                           33
                      Format : in Display_Format) return Boolean;
      function Length (Format : in Display_Format) return Natural;                   34
      function To_Decimal (Item   : in Numeric;                                      35
                           Format : in Display_Format) return Num;
      function To_Display (Item   : in Num;                                          36
                           Format : in Display_Format) return Numeric;
      -- Packed Formats: data values are represented as Packed_Decimal              37
      function Valid (Item   : in Packed_Decimal;                                    38
                      Format : in Packed_Format) return Boolean;
      function Length (Format : in Packed_Format) return Natural;                    39
      function To_Decimal (Item   : in Packed_Decimal;                               40
                           Format : in Packed_Format) return Num;
      function To_Packed (Item   : in Num;                                           41
                          Format : in Packed_Format) return Packed_Decimal;
      -- Binary Formats: external data values are represented as Byte_Array         42
      function Valid (Item   : in Byte_Array;                                        43
                      Format : in Binary_Format) return Boolean;
      function Length (Format : in Binary_Format) return Natural;                    44
      function To_Decimal (Item   : in Byte_Array;
                           Format : in Binary_Format) return Num;
```

```
45          function To_Binary (Item   : in Num;
                                Format : in Binary_Format) return Byte_Array;
46          -- Internal Binary formats: data values are of type Binary or Long_Binary
47          function To_Decimal (Item : in Binary)      return Num;
            function To_Decimal (Item : in Long_Binary) return Num;
48          function To_Binary      (Item : in Num)  return Binary;
            function To_Long_Binary (Item : in Num)  return Long_Binary;
49       end Decimal_Conversions;
50    private
         ... -- not specified by the language
      end Interfaces.COBOL;
```

50.a **Implementation defined:** The types Floating, Long_Floating, Binary, Long_Binary, Decimal_Element, and COBOL_Character; and the initializations of the variables Ada_To_COBOL and COBOL_To_Ada, in Interfaces.COBOL

51 Each of the types in Interfaces.COBOL is COBOL-compatible.

52 The types Floating and Long_Floating correspond to the native types in COBOL for data items with computational usage implemented by floating point. The types Binary and Long_Binary correspond to the native types in COBOL for data items with binary usage, or with computational usage implemented by binary.

53 Max_Digits_Binary is the largest number of decimal digits in a numeric value that is represented as Binary. Max_Digits_Long_Binary is the largest number of decimal digits in a numeric value that is represented as Long_Binary.

54 The type Packed_Decimal corresponds to COBOL's packed-decimal usage.

55 The type COBOL_Character defines the run-time character set used in the COBOL implementation. Ada_To_COBOL and COBOL_To_Ada are the mappings between the Ada and COBOL run-time character sets.

55.a **Reason:** The character mappings are visible variables, since the user needs the ability to modify them at run time.

56 Type Alphanumeric corresponds to COBOL's alphanumeric data category.

57 Each of the functions To_COBOL and To_Ada converts its parameter based on the mappings Ada_To_COBOL and COBOL_To_Ada, respectively. The length of the result for each is the length of the parameter, and the lower bound of the result is 1. Each component of the result is obtained by applying the relevant mapping to the corresponding component of the parameter.

58 Each of the procedures To_COBOL and To_Ada copies converted elements from Item to Target, using the appropriate mapping (Ada_To_COBOL or COBOL_To_Ada, respectively). The index in Target of the last element assigned is returned in Last (0 if Item is a null array). {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If Item'Length exceeds Target'Length, Constraint_Error is propagated.

59 Type Numeric corresponds to COBOL's numeric data category with display usage.

60 The types Display_Format, Binary_Format, and Packed_Format are used in conversions between Ada decimal type values and COBOL internal or external data representations. The value of the constant Native_Binary is either High_Order_First or Low_Order_First, depending on the implementation.

```
61       function Valid (Item   : in Numeric;
                         Format : in Display_Format) return Boolean;
```

The function Valid checks that the Item parameter has a value consistent with the value of Format. If the value of Format is other than Unsigned, Leading_Separate, and Trailing_Separate, the effect is implementation defined. If Format does have one of these values, the following rules apply: 62

- Format=Unsigned: if Item comprises zero or more leading space characters followed by one or more decimal digit characters then Valid returns True, else it returns False. 63
- Format=Leading_Separate: if Item comprises zero or more leading space characters, followed by a single occurrence of the plus or minus sign character, and then one or more decimal digit characters, then Valid returns True, else it returns False. 64
- Format=Trailing_Separate: if Item comprises zero or more leading space characters, followed by one or more decimal digit characters and finally a plus or minus sign character, then Valid returns True, else it returns False. 65

```
function Length (Format : in Display_Format) return Natural;
```
66

The Length function returns the minimal length of a Numeric value sufficient to hold any value of type Num when represented as Format. 67

```
function To_Decimal (Item   : in Numeric;
                     Format : in Display_Format) return Num;
```
68

Produces a value of type Num corresponding to Item as represented by Format. The number of digits after the assumed radix point in Item is Num'Scale. Conversion_Error is propagated if the value represented by Item is outside the range of Num. 69

Discussion: There is no issue of truncation versus rounding, since the number of decimal places is established by Num'Scale. 69.a

```
function To_Display (Item   : in Num;
                     Format : in Display_Format) return Numeric;
```
70

This function returns the Numeric value for Item, represented in accordance with Format. Conversion_Error is propagated if Num is negative and Format is Unsigned. 71

```
function Valid (Item   : in Packed_Decimal;
                Format : in Packed_Format) return Boolean;
```
72

This function returns True if Item has a value consistent with Format, and False otherwise. The rules for the formation of Packed_Decimal values are implementation defined. 73

```
function Length (Format : in Packed_Format) return Natural;
```
74

This function returns the minimal length of a Packed_Decimal value sufficient to hold any value of type Num when represented as Format. 75

```
function To_Decimal (Item   : in Packed_Decimal;
                     Format : in Packed_Format) return Num;
```
76

Produces a value of type Num corresponding to Item as represented by Format. Num'Scale is the number of digits after the assumed radix point in Item. Conversion_Error is propagated if the value represented by Item is outside the range of Num. 77

```
function To_Packed (Item   : in Num;
                    Format : in Packed_Format) return Packed_Decimal;
```
78

79 This function returns the Packed_Decimal value for Item, represented in accordance with Format. Conversion_Error is propagated if Num is negative and Format is Packed_Unsigned.

80
```
function Valid (Item   : in Byte_Array;
                Format : in Binary_Format) return Boolean;
```

81 This function returns True if Item has a value consistent with Format, and False otherwise.

81.a **Ramification:** This function returns False only when the represented value is outside the range of Num.

82
```
function Length (Format : in Binary_Format) return Natural;
```

83 This function returns the minimal length of a Byte_Array value sufficient to hold any value of type Num when represented as Format.

84
```
function To_Decimal (Item   : in Byte_Array;
                     Format : in Binary_Format) return Num;
```

85 Produces a value of type Num corresponding to Item as represented by Format. Num'Scale is the number of digits after the assumed radix point in Item. Conversion_Error is propagated if the value represented by Item is outside the range of Num.

86
```
function To_Binary (Item   : in Num;
                    Format : in Binary_Format) return Byte_Array;
```

87 This function returns the Byte_Array value for Item, represented in accordance with Format.

88
```
function To_Decimal (Item : in Binary)      return Num;
function To_Decimal (Item : in Long_Binary) return Num;
```

89 These functions convert from COBOL binary format to a corresponding value of the decimal type Num. Conversion_Error is propagated if Item is too large for Num.

89.a **Ramification:** There is no rescaling performed on the conversion. That is, the returned value in each case is a ''bit copy'' if Num has a binary radix. The programmer is responsible for maintaining the correct scale.

90
```
function To_Binary      (Item : in Num)  return Binary;
function To_Long_Binary (Item : in Num)  return Long_Binary;
```

91 These functions convert from Ada decimal to COBOL binary format. Conversion_Error is propagated if the value of Item is too large to be represented in the result type.

91.a **Discussion:** One style of interface supported for COBOL, similar to what is provided for C, is the ability to call and pass parameters to an existing COBOL program. Thus the interface package supplies types that can be used in an Ada program as parameters to subprograms whose bodies will be in COBOL. These types map to COBOL's alphanumeric and numeric data categories.

91.b Several types are provided for support of alphanumeric data. Since COBOL's run-time character set is not necessarily the same as Ada's, Interfaces.COBOL declares an implementation-defined character type COBOL_Character, and mappings between Character and COBOL_Character. These mappings are visible variables (rather than, say, functions or constant arrays), since in the situation where COBOL_Character is EBCDIC, the flexibility of dynamically modifying the mappings is needed. Corresponding to COBOL's alphanumeric data is the string type Alphanumeric.

91.c Numeric data may have either a ''display'' or ''computational'' representation in COBOL. On the Ada side, the data is of a decimal fixed point type. Passing an Ada decimal data item to a COBOL program requires conversion from the Ada decimal type to some type that reflects the representation expected on the COBOL side.

91.d • Computational Representation

91.e Floating point representation is modeled by Ada floating point types, Floating and Long_Floating. Conversion between these types and Ada decimal types is obtained directly, since the type name serves as a conversion function.

91.f Binary representation is modeled by an Ada integer type, Binary, and possibly other types such as Long_Binary. Conversion between, say, Binary and a decimal type is through functions from an instantiation of the generic package Decimal_Conversions.

Packed decimal representation is modeled by the Ada array type Packed_Decimal. Conversion between packed decimal and a decimal type is through functions from an instantiation of the generic package Decimal_Conversions. 91.g

- Display Representation 91.h

Display representation for numeric data is modeled by the array type Numeric. Conversion between display representation and a decimal type is through functions from an instantiation of the generic package Decimal_Conversions. A parameter to the conversion function indicates the desired interpretation of the data (e.g., signed leading separate, etc.) 91.i

Pragma Convention(COBOL, T) may be applied to a record type T to direct the compiler to choose a COBOL-compatible representation for objects of the type. 91.j

The package Interfaces.COBOL allows the Ada programmer to deal with data from files (or databases) created by a COBOL program. For data that is alphanumeric, or in display or packed decimal format, the approach is the same as for passing parameters (instantiate Decimal_Conversions to obtain the needed conversion functions). For binary data, the external representation is treated as a Byte array, and an instantiation of Decimal_IO produces a package that declares the needed conversion functions. A parameter to the conversion function indicates the desired interpretation of the data (e.g., high- versus low-order byte first). 91.k

Implementation Requirements

An implementation shall support pragma Convention with a COBOL *convention_*identifier for a COBOL-eligible type (see B.1). 92

Ramification: An implementation supporting this package shall ensure that if the bounds of a Packed_Decimal, Alphanumeric, or Numeric variable are static, then the representation of the object comprises solely the array components (that is, there is no implicit run-time ‘‘descriptor’’ that is part of the object). 92.a

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may provide additional constants of the private types Display_Format, Binary_Format, or Packed_Format. 93

Reason: This is to allow exploitation of other external formats that may be available in the COBOL implementation. 93.a

An implementation may provide further floating point and integer types in Interfaces.COBOL to match additional native COBOL types, and may also supply corresponding conversion functions in the generic package Decimal_Conversions. 94

Implementation Advice

An Ada implementation should support the following interface correspondences between Ada and COBOL. 95

- An Ada **access** T parameter is passed as a ‘‘BY REFERENCE’’ data item of the COBOL type corresponding to T. 96
- An Ada **in** scalar parameter is passed as a ‘‘BY CONTENT’’ data item of the corresponding COBOL type. 97
- Any other Ada parameter is passed as a ‘‘BY REFERENCE’’ data item of the COBOL type corresponding to the Ada parameter type; for scalars, a local copy is used if necessary to ensure by-copy semantics. 98

NOTES

15 An implementation is not required to support pragma Convention for access types, nor is it required to support pragma Import, Export or Convention for functions. 99

Reason: COBOL does not have a pointer facility, and a COBOL program does not return a value. 99.a

16 If an Ada subprogram is exported to COBOL, then a call from COBOL call may specify either ‘‘BY CONTENT’’ or ‘‘BY REFERENCE’’. 100

Examples of Interfaces.COBOL:

```
with Interfaces.COBOL;
procedure Test_Call is

   -- Calling a foreign COBOL program
   -- Assume that a COBOL program PROG has the following declaration
   --  in its LINKAGE section:
   --  01 Parameter-Area
   --     05 NAME   PIC X(20).
   --     05 SSN    PIC X(9).
   --     05 SALARY PIC 99999V99 USAGE COMP.
   -- The effect of PROG is to update SALARY based on some algorithm

   package COBOL renames Interfaces.COBOL;

   type Salary_Type is delta 0.01 digits 7;

   type COBOL_Record is
      record
         Name   : COBOL.Numeric(1..20);
         SSN    : COBOL.Numeric(1..9);
         Salary : COBOL.Binary;   -- Assume Binary = 32 bits
      end record;
   pragma Convention (COBOL, COBOL_Record);

   procedure Prog (Item : in out COBOL_Record);
   pragma Import (COBOL, Prog, "PROG");

   package Salary_Conversions is
      new COBOL.Decimal_Conversions(Salary_Type);

   Some_Salary : Salary_Type := 12_345.67;
   Some_Record : COBOL_Record :=
      (Name   => "Johnson, John       ",
       SSN    => "111223333",
       Salary => Salary_Conversions.To_Binary(Some_Salary));

begin
   Prog (Some_Record);
   ...
end Test_Call;
```

```
with Interfaces.COBOL;
with COBOL_Sequential_IO; -- Assumed to be supplied by implementation
procedure Test_External_Formats is

   -- Using data created by a COBOL program
   -- Assume that a COBOL program has created a sequential file with
   --  the following record structure, and that we need to
   --  process the records in an Ada program
   --  01 EMPLOYEE-RECORD
   --     05 NAME    PIC X(20).
   --     05 SSN     PIC X(9).
   --     05 SALARY  PIC 99999V99 USAGE COMP.
   --     05 ADJUST  PIC S999V999 SIGN LEADING SEPARATE.
   -- The COMP data is binary (32 bits), high-order byte first

   package COBOL renames Interfaces.COBOL;

   type Salary_Type      is delta 0.01  digits 7;
   type Adjustments_Type is delta 0.001 digits 6;

   type COBOL_Employee_Record_Type is   -- External representation
      record
         Name    : COBOL.Alphanumeric(1..20);
         SSN     : COBOL.Alphanumeric(1..9);
         Salary  : COBOL.Byte_Array(1..4);
         Adjust  : COBOL.Numeric(1..7);   -- Sign and 6 digits
      end record;
   pragma Convention (COBOL, COBOL_Employee_Record_Type);

   package COBOL_Employee_IO is
      new COBOL_Sequential_IO(COBOL_Employee_Record_Type);
   use COBOL_Employee_IO;
```

```
   COBOL_File : File_Type;                                                    117
   type Ada_Employee_Record_Type is  -- Internal representation              118
      record
         Name    : String(1..20);
         SSN     : String(1..9);
         Salary  : Salary_Type;
         Adjust  : Adjustments_Type;
      end record;
   COBOL_Record : COBOL_Employee_Record_Type;                                 119
   Ada_Record   : Ada_Employee_Record_Type;
   package Salary_Conversions is                                              120
      new COBOL.Decimal_Conversions(Salary_Type);
   use Salary_Conversions;
   package Adjustments_Conversions is                                         121
      new COBOL.Decimal_Conversions(Adjustments_Type);
   use Adjustments_Conversions;
begin                                                                         122
   Open (COBOL_File, Name => "Some_File");
   loop                                                                       123
     Read (COBOL_File, COBOL_Record);
     Ada_Record.Name := To_Ada(COBOL_Record.Name);                            124
     Ada_Record.SSN  := To_Ada(COBOL_Record.SSN);
     Ada_Record.Salary :=
        To_Decimal(COBOL_Record.Salary, COBOL.High_Order_First);
     Ada_Record.Adjust :=
        To_Decimal(COBOL_Record.Adjust, COBOL.Leading_Separate);
     ... -- Process Ada_Record
   end loop;
exception
   when End_Error => ...
end Test_External_Formats;
```

B.5 Interfacing with Fortran

{*interface to Fortran*} {*Fortran interface*} The facilities relevant to interfacing with the Fortran language are the package Interfaces.Fortran and support for the Import, Export and Convention pragmas with *convention*_identifier Fortran. 1

The package Interfaces.Fortran defines Ada types whose representations are identical to the default representations of the Fortran intrinsic types Integer, Real, Double Precision, Complex, Logical, and Character in a supported Fortran implementation. These Ada types can therefore be used to pass objects between Ada and Fortran programs. 2

Static Semantics

The library package Interfaces.Fortran has the following declaration: 3

```
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types;  -- see G.1.1                        4
pragma Elaborate_All(Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types);
package Interfaces.Fortran is
   pragma Pure(Fortran);
   type Fortran_Integer is range implementation-defined;                      5
   type Real             is digits implementation-defined;                    6
   type Double_Precision is digits implementation-defined;
   type Logical is new Boolean;                                               7
   package Single_Precision_Complex_Types is                                  8
      new Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types (Real);
   type Complex is new Single_Precision_Complex_Types.Complex;                9
```

```
10        subtype Imaginary is Single_Precision_Complex_Types.Imaginary;
             i : Imaginary renames Single_Precision_Complex_Types.i;
             j : Imaginary renames Single_Precision_Complex_Types.j;
11
             type Character_Set is implementation-defined character type;
12           type Fortran_Character is array (Positive range <>) of Character_Set;
             pragma Pack (Fortran_Character);
13        function To_Fortran (Item : in Character) return Character_Set;
             function To_Ada (Item : in Character_Set) return Character;
14           function To_Fortran (Item : in String) return Fortran_Character;
             function To_Ada     (Item : in Fortran_Character) return String;
15           procedure To_Fortran (Item       : in String;
                                   Target     : out Fortran_Character;
                                   Last       : out Natural);
16           procedure To_Ada (Item     : in Fortran_Character;
                               Target   : out String;
                               Last     : out Natural);
17        end Interfaces.Fortran;
```

17.a **Ramification:** The means by which the Complex type is provided in Interfaces.Fortran creates a dependence of Interfaces.Fortran on Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types (see G.1.1). This dependence is intentional and unavoidable, if the Fortran-compatible Complex type is to be useful in Ada code without duplicating facilities defined elsewhere.

18 The types Fortran_Integer, Real, Double_Precision, Logical, Complex, and Fortran_Character are Fortran-compatible.

19 The To_Fortran and To_Ada functions map between the Ada type Character and the Fortran type Character_Set, and also between the Ada type String and the Fortran type Fortran_Character. The To_Fortran and To_Ada procedures have analogous effects to the string conversion subprograms found in Interfaces.COBOL.

Implementation Requirements

20 An implementation shall support pragma Convention with a Fortran *convention_*identifier for a Fortran-eligible type (see B.1).

Implementation Permissions

21 An implementation may add additional declarations to the Fortran interface packages. For example, the Fortran interface package for an implementation of Fortran 77 (ANSI X3.9-1978) that defines types like Integer*_n_, Real*_n_, Logical*_n_, and Complex*_n_ may contain the declarations of types named Integer_Star_*n*, Real_Star_*n*, Logical_Star_*n*, and Complex_Star_*n*. (This convention should not apply to Character*_n_, for which the Ada analog is the constrained array subtype Fortran_Character (1..*n*).) Similarly, the Fortran interface package for an implementation of Fortran 90 that provides multiple *kinds* of intrinsic types, e.g. Integer (Kind=*n*), Real (Kind=*n*), Logical (Kind=*n*), Complex (Kind=*n*), and Character (Kind=*n*), may contain the declarations of types with the recommended names Integer_Kind_*n*, Real_Kind_*n*, Logical_Kind_*n*, Complex_Kind_*n*, and Character_Kind_*n*.

21.a **Discussion:** Implementations may add auxiliary declarations as needed to assist in the declarations of additional Fortran-compatible types. For example, if a double precision complex type is defined, then Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types may be instantiated for the double precision type. Similarly, if a wide character type is defined to match a Fortran 90 wide character type (accessible in Fortran 90 with the Kind modifier), then an auxiliary character set may be declared to serve as its component type.

Implementation Advice

22 An Ada implementation should support the following interface correspondences between Ada and Fortran:

- An Ada procedure corresponds to a Fortran subroutine.
- An Ada function corresponds to a Fortran function.
- An Ada parameter of an elementary, array, or record type T is passed as a T_F argument to a Fortran procedure, where T_F is the Fortran type corresponding to the Ada type T, and where the INTENT attribute of the corresponding dummy argument matches the Ada formal parameter mode; the Fortran implementation's parameter passing conventions are used. For elementary types, a local copy is used if necessary to ensure by-copy semantics.
- An Ada parameter of an access-to-subprogram type is passed as a reference to a Fortran procedure whose interface corresponds to the designated subprogram's specification.

NOTES

17 An object of a Fortran-compatible record type, declared in a library package or subprogram, can correspond to a Fortran common block; the type also corresponds to a Fortran ''derived type''.

Examples

Example of Interfaces.Fortran:

```
with Interfaces.Fortran;
use Interfaces.Fortran;
procedure Ada_Application is
   type Fortran_Matrix is array (Integer range <>,
                                 Integer range <>) of Double_Precision;
   pragma Convention (Fortran, Fortran_Matrix);    -- stored in Fortran's
                                                   -- column-major order
   procedure Invert (Rank : in Fortran_Integer; X : in out Fortran_Matrix);
   pragma Import (Fortran, Invert);                -- a Fortran subroutine
   Rank      : constant Fortran_Integer := 100;
   My_Matrix : Fortran_Matrix (1 .. Rank, 1 .. Rank);
begin
   ...
   My_Matrix := ...;
   ...
   Invert (Rank, My_Matrix);
   ...
end Ada_Application;
```

Annex C
(normative)

Systems Programming

[{*systems programming*} {*low-level programming*} {*real-time systems*} {*embedded systems*} {*distributed systems*} {*information systems*} The Systems Programming Annex specifies additional capabilities provided for low-level programming. These capabilities are also required in many real-time, embedded, distributed, and information systems.] 1

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 1.a

C.1 Access to Machine Operations

[This clause specifies rules regarding access to machine instructions from within an Ada program.] 1

Implementation defined: Support for access to machine instructions. 1.a

Implementation Requirements

{*machine code insertion*} The implementation shall support machine code insertions (see 13.8) or intrinsic subprograms (see 6.3.1) (or both). Implementation-defined attributes shall be provided to allow the use of Ada entities as operands. 2

Implementation Advice

The machine code or intrinsics support should allow access to all operations normally available to assembly language programmers for the target environment, including privileged instructions, if any. 3

Ramification: Of course, on a machine with protection, an attempt to execute a privileged instruction in user mode will probably trap. Nonetheless, we want implementations to provide access to them so that Ada can be used to write systems programs that run in privileged mode. 3.a

{*interface to assembly language*} {*language (interface to assembly)*} {*mixed-language programs*} {*assembly language*} The interfacing pragmas (see Annex B) should support interface to assembler; the default assembler should be associated with the convention identifier Assembler. 4

If an entity is exported to assembly language, then the implementation should allocate it at an addressable location, and should ensure that it is retained by the linking process, even if not otherwise referenced from the Ada code. The implementation should assume that any call to a machine code or assembler subprogram is allowed to read or update every object that is specified as exported. 5

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the overhead associated with calling machine-code or intrinsic subprograms, as compared to a fully-inlined call, and to a regular out-of-line call. 6

The implementation shall document the types of the package System.Machine_Code usable for machine code insertions, and the attributes to be used in machine code insertions for references to Ada entities. 7

8 The implementation shall document the subprogram calling conventions associated with the convention identifiers available for use with the interfacing pragmas (Ada and Assembler, at a minimum), including register saving, exception propagation, parameter passing, and function value returning.

9 For exported and imported subprograms, the implementation shall document the mapping between the Link_Name string, if specified, or the Ada designator, if not, and the external link name used for such a subprogram.

9.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined aspects of access to machine operations.

Implementation Advice

10 The implementation should ensure that little or no overhead is associated with calling intrinsic and machine-code subprograms.

11 It is recommended that intrinsic subprograms be provided for convenient access to any machine operations that provide special capabilities or efficiency and that are not otherwise available through the language constructs. Examples of such instructions include:

12 • Atomic read-modify-write operations — e.g., test and set, compare and swap, decrement and test, enqueue/dequeue.

13 • Standard numeric functions — e.g., *sin*, *log*.

14 • String manipulation operations — e.g., translate and test.

15 • Vector operations — e.g., compare vector against thresholds.

16 • Direct operations on I/O ports.

C.2 Required Representation Support

1 This clause specifies minimal requirements on the implementation's support for representation items and related features.

Implementation Requirements

2 {*recommended level of support* [required in Systems Programming Annex]} The implementation shall support at least the functionality defined by the recommended levels of support in Section 13.

C.3 Interrupt Support

1 [This clause specifies the language-defined model for hardware interrupts in addition to mechanisms for handling interrupts.] {*signal: see interrupt*}

Dynamic Semantics

2 {*interrupt*} [An *interrupt* represents a class of events that are detected by the hardware or the system software.] {*occurrence (of an interrupt)*} Interrupts are said to occur. An *occurrence* of an interrupt is separable into generation and delivery. {*generation (of an interrupt)*} *Generation* of an interrupt is the event in the underlying hardware or system that makes the interrupt available to the program. {*delivery (of an interrupt)*} *Delivery* is the action that invokes part of the program as response to the interrupt occurrence. {*pending interrupt occurrence*} Between generation and delivery, the interrupt occurrence [(or interrupt)] is *pending*. {*blocked interrupt*} Some or all interrupts may be *blocked*. When an interrupt is blocked, all occurrences of that interrupt are prevented from being delivered. {*attaching (to an interrupt)*} {*reserved interrupt*} Certain interrupts are *reserved*. The set of reserved interrupts is implementation defined. A reserved interrupt is either an interrupt for which user-defined handlers are not supported, or one which

already has an attached handler by some other implementation-defined means. {*interrupt handler*} Program units can be connected to non-reserved interrupts. While connected, the program unit is said to be *attached* to that interrupt. The execution of that program unit, the *interrupt handler*, is invoked upon delivery of the interrupt occurrence.

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of interrupts. 2.a

To be honest: As an obsolescent feature, interrupts may be attached to task entries by an address clause. See J.7.1. 2.b

While a handler is attached to an interrupt, it is called once for each delivered occurrence of that interrupt. While the handler executes, the corresponding interrupt is blocked. 3

While an interrupt is blocked, all occurrences of that interrupt are prevented from being delivered. Whether such occurrences remain pending or are lost is implementation defined. 4

{*default treatment*} Each interrupt has a *default treatment* which determines the system's response to an occurrence of that interrupt when no user-defined handler is attached. The set of possible default treatments is implementation defined, as is the method (if one exists) for configuring the default treatments for interrupts. 5

An interrupt is delivered to the handler (or default treatment) that is in effect for that interrupt at the time of delivery. 6

An exception propagated from a handler that is invoked by an interrupt has no effect. 7

[If the Ceiling_Locking policy (see D.3) is in effect, the interrupt handler executes with the active priority that is the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object.] 8

Implementation Requirements

The implementation shall provide a mechanism to determine the minimum stack space that is needed for each interrupt handler and to reserve that space for the execution of the handler. [This space should accommodate nested invocations of the handler where the system permits this.] 9

If the hardware or the underlying system holds pending interrupt occurrences, the implementation shall provide for later delivery of these occurrences to the program. 10

If the Ceiling_Locking policy is not in effect, the implementation shall provide means for the application to specify whether interrupts are to be blocked during protected actions. 11

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the following items: 12

Discussion: This information may be different for different forms of interrupt handlers. 12.a

1. For each interrupt, which interrupts are blocked from delivery when a handler attached to that interrupt executes (either as a result of an interrupt delivery or of an ordinary call on a procedure of the corresponding protected object). 13
2. Any interrupts that cannot be blocked, and the effect of attaching handlers to such interrupts, if this is permitted. 14
3. Which run-time stack an interrupt handler uses when it executes as a result of an interrupt delivery; if this is configurable, what is the mechanism to do so; how to specify how much space to reserve on that stack. 15

4. Any implementation- or hardware-specific activity that happens before a user-defined interrupt handler gets control (e.g., reading device registers, acknowledging devices).
5. Any timing or other limitations imposed on the execution of interrupt handlers.
6. The state (blocked/unblocked) of the non-reserved interrupts when the program starts; if some interrupts are unblocked, what is the mechanism a program can use to protect itself before it can attach the corresponding handlers.
7. Whether the interrupted task is allowed to resume execution before the interrupt handler returns.
8. The treatment of interrupt occurrences that are generated while the interrupt is blocked; i.e., whether one or more occurrences are held for later delivery, or all are lost.
9. Whether predefined or implementation-defined exceptions are raised as a result of the occurrence of any interrupt, and the mapping between the machine interrupts (or traps) and the predefined exceptions.
10. On a multi-processor, the rules governing the delivery of an interrupt to a particular processor.

Implementation Permissions

If the underlying system or hardware does not allow interrupts to be blocked, then no blocking is required [as part of the execution of subprograms of a protected object whose one of its subprograms is an interrupt handler].

In a multi-processor with more than one interrupt subsystem, it is implementation defined whether (and how) interrupt sources from separate subsystems share the same Interrupt_ID type (see C.3.2).

Discussion: This issue is tightly related to the issue of scheduling on a multi-processor. In a sense, if a particular interrupt source is not available to all processors, the system is not truly homogeneous.

One way to approach this problem is to assign sub-ranges within Interrupt_ID to each interrupt subsystem, such that ‘‘similar’’ interrupt sources (e.g. a timer) in different subsystems get a distinct id.

In particular, the meaning of a blocked or pending interrupt may then be applicable to one processor only.

Implementations are allowed to impose timing or other limitations on the execution of interrupt handlers.

Reason: These limitations are often necessary to ensure proper behavior of the implementation.

Other forms of handlers are allowed to be supported, in which case, the rules of this subclause should be adhered to.

The active priority of the execution of an interrupt handler is allowed to vary from one occurrence of the same interrupt to another.

Implementation Advice

If the Ceiling_Locking policy is not in effect, the implementation should provide means for the application to specify which interrupts are to be blocked during protected actions, if the underlying system allows for a finer-grain control of interrupt blocking.

NOTES

1 The default treatment for an interrupt can be to keep the interrupt pending or to deliver it to an implementation-defined handler. Examples of actions that an implementation-defined handler is allowed to perform include aborting the partition, ignoring (i.e., discarding occurrences of) the interrupt, or queuing one or more occurrences of the interrupt for possible later delivery when a user-defined handler is attached to that interrupt.

2 It is a bounded error to call Task_Identification.Current_Task (see C.7.1) from an interrupt handler. 30

3 The rule that an exception propagated from an interrupt handler has no effect is modeled after the rule about exceptions propagated out of task bodies. 31

C.3.1 Protected Procedure Handlers

Syntax

The form of a pragma Interrupt_Handler is as follows: 1

pragma Interrupt_Handler(*handler*_name); 2

The form of a pragma Attach_Handler is as follows: 3

pragma Attach_Handler(*handler*_name, expression); 4

Name Resolution Rules

For the Interrupt_Handler and Attach_Handler pragmas, the *handler*_name shall resolve to denote a protected procedure with a parameterless profile. 5

For the Attach_Handler pragma, the expected type for the expression is Interrupts.Interrupt_ID (see C.3.2). 6

Legality Rules

The Attach_Handler pragma is only allowed immediately within the protected_definition where the corresponding subprogram is declared. The corresponding protected_type_declaration or single_protected_declaration shall be a library level declaration. 7

Discussion: In the case of a protected_type_declaration, an object_declaration of an object of that type need not be at library level. 7.a

The Interrupt_Handler pragma is only allowed immediately within a protected_definition. The corresponding protected_type_declaration shall be a library level declaration. In addition, any object_declaration of such a type shall be a library level declaration. 8

Dynamic Semantics

If the pragma Interrupt_Handler appears in a protected_definition, then the corresponding procedure can be attached dynamically, as a handler, to interrupts (see C.3.2). [Such procedures are allowed to be attached to multiple interrupts.] 9

{*creation (of a protected object)*} {*initialization (of a protected object)*} The expression in the Attach_Handler pragma [as evaluated at object creation time] specifies an interrupt. As part of the initialization of that object, if the Attach_Handler pragma is specified, the *handler* procedure is attached to the specified interrupt. {*Reserved_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Reserved_Check)*} A check is made that the corresponding interrupt is not reserved. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if the check fails, and the existing treatment for the interrupt is not affected. 10

{*initialization (of a protected object)*} {*Ceiling_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Ceiling_Check)*} If the Ceiling_Locking policy (see D.3) is in effect then upon the initialization of a protected object that either an Attach_Handler or Interrupt_Handler pragma applies to one of its procedures, a check is made that the ceiling priority defined in the protected_definition is in the range of System.Interrupt_Priority. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the check fails, Program_Error is raised. 11

12 {*finalization (of a protected object)*} When a protected object is finalized, for any of its procedures that are attached to interrupts, the handler is detached. If the handler was attached by a procedure in the Interrupts package or if no user handler was previously attached to the interrupt, the default treatment is restored. Otherwise, [that is, if an Attach_Handler pragma was used,] the previous handler is restored.

12.a **Discussion:** Since only library-level protected procedures can be attached as handlers using the Interrupts package, the finalization discussed above occurs only as part of the finalization of all library-level packages in a partition.

13 When a handler is attached to an interrupt, the interrupt is blocked [(subject to the Implementation Permission in C.3)] during the execution of every protected action on the protected object containing the handler.

Erroneous Execution

14 {*erroneous execution*} If the Ceiling_Locking policy (see D.3) is in effect and an interrupt is delivered to a handler, and the interrupt hardware priority is higher than the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object, the execution of the program is erroneous.

Metrics

15 {*metrics*} The following metric shall be documented by the implementation:

16 1. The worst case overhead for an interrupt handler that is a parameterless protected procedure, in clock cycles. This is the execution time not directly attributable to the handler procedure or the interrupted execution. It is estimated as C – (A+B), where A is how long it takes to complete a given sequence of instructions without any interrupt, B is how long it takes to complete a normal call to a given protected procedure, and C is how long it takes to complete the same sequence of instructions when it is interrupted by one execution of the same procedure called via an interrupt.

16.a **Implementation Note:** The instruction sequence and interrupt handler used to measure interrupt handling overhead should be chosen so as to maximize the execution time cost due to cache misses. For example, if the processor has cache memory and the activity of an interrupt handler could invalidate the contents of cache memory, the handler should be written such that it invalidates all of the cache memory.

Implementation Permissions

17 When the pragmas Attach_Handler or Interrupt_Handler apply to a protected procedure, the implementation is allowed to impose implementation-defined restrictions on the corresponding protected_type_declaration and protected_body.

17.a **Ramification:** The restrictions may be on the constructs that are allowed within them, and on ordinary calls (i.e. not via interrupts) on protected operations in these protected objects.

18 An implementation may use a different mechanism for invoking a protected procedure in response to a hardware interrupt than is used for a call to that protected procedure from a task.

18.a **Discussion:** This is despite the fact that the priority of an interrupt handler (see D.1) is modeled after a hardware task calling the handler.

19 {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding what this subclause says elsewhere, the Attach_Handler and Interrupt_Handler pragmas are allowed to be used for other, implementation defined, forms of interrupt handlers.

19.a **Ramification:** For example, if an implementation wishes to allow interrupt handlers to have parameters, it is allowed to do so via these pragmas; it need not invent implementation-defined pragmas for the purpose.

Implementation Advice

20 Whenever possible, the implementation should allow interrupt handlers to be called directly by the hardware.

Whenever practical, the implementation should detect violations of any implementation-defined restrictions before run time. 21

NOTES

4 The Attach_Handler pragma can provide static attachment of handlers to interrupts if the implementation supports preelaboration of protected objects. (See C.4.) 22

5 The ceiling priority of a protected object that one of its procedures is attached to an interrupt should be at least as high as the highest processor priority at which that interrupt will ever be delivered. 23

6 Protected procedures can also be attached dynamically to interrupts via operations declared in the predefined package Interrupts. 24

7 An example of a possible implementation-defined restriction is disallowing the use of the standard storage pools within the body of a protected procedure that is an interrupt handler. 25

C.3.2 The Package Interrupts

Static Semantics

The following language-defined packages exist: 1

2
```
with System;
package Ada.Interrupts is
   type Interrupt_ID is implementation-defined;
   type Parameterless_Handler is
      access protected procedure;
```

3
```

   function Is_Reserved (Interrupt : Interrupt_ID)
      return Boolean;
```

4
```
   function Is_Attached (Interrupt : Interrupt_ID)
      return Boolean;
```

5
```
   function Current_Handler (Interrupt : Interrupt_ID)
      return Parameterless_Handler;
```

6
```
   procedure Attach_Handler
      (New_Handler : in Parameterless_Handler;
       Interrupt   : in Interrupt_ID);
```

7
```
   procedure Exchange_Handler
      (Old_Handler : out Parameterless_Handler;
       New_Handler : in Parameterless_Handler;
       Interrupt   : in Interrupt_ID);
```

8
```
   procedure Detach_Handler
      (Interrupt : in Interrupt_ID);
```

9
```
   function Reference(Interrupt : Interrupt_ID)
      return System.Address;
```

10
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Interrupts;
```

11
```

package Ada.Interrupts.Names is
   implementation-defined : constant Interrupt_ID :=
      implementation-defined;
      . . .
   implementation-defined : constant Interrupt_ID :=
      implementation-defined;
end Ada.Interrupts.Names;
```

12

Dynamic Semantics

The Interrupt_ID type is an implementation-defined discrete type used to identify interrupts. 13

14 The Is_Reserved function returns True if and only if the specified interrupt is reserved.

15 The Is_Attached function returns True if and only if a user-specified interrupt handler is attached to the interrupt.

16 The Current_Handler function returns a value that represents the attached handler of the interrupt. If no user-defined handler is attached to the interrupt, Current_Handler returns a value that designates the default treatment; calling Attach_Handler or Exchange_Handler with this value restores the default treatment.

17 The Attach_Handler procedure attaches the specified handler to the interrupt, overriding any existing treatment (including a user handler) in effect for that interrupt. If New_Handler is **null**, the default treatment is restored. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If New_Handler designates a protected procedure to which the pragma Interrupt_Handler does not apply, Program_Error is raised. In this case, the operation does not modify the existing interrupt treatment.

18 The Exchange_Handler procedure operates in the same manner as Attach_Handler with the addition that the value returned in Old_Handler designates the previous treatment for the specified interrupt.

18.a **Ramification:** Calling Attach_Handler or Exchange_Handler with this value for New_Handler restores the previous handler.

19 The Detach_Handler procedure restores the default treatment for the specified interrupt.

20 For all operations defined in this package that take a parameter of type Interrupt_ID, with the exception of Is_Reserved and Reference, a check is made that the specified interrupt is not reserved. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if this check fails.

21 If, by using the Attach_Handler, Detach_Handler, or Exchange_Handler procedures, an attempt is made to detach a handler that was attached statically (using the pragma Attach_Handler), the handler is not detached and Program_Error is raised. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*}

22 The Reference function returns a value of type System.Address that can be used to attach a task entry, via an address clause (see J.7.1) to the interrupt specified by Interrupt. This function raises Program_Error if attaching task entries to interrupts (or to this particular interrupt) is not supported. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*}

Implementation Requirements

23 At no time during attachment or exchange of handlers shall the current handler of the corresponding interrupt be undefined.

Documentation Requirements

24 {*documentation requirements*} If the Ceiling_Locking policy (see D.3) is in effect the implementation shall document the default ceiling priority assigned to a protected object that contains either the Attach_Handler or Interrupt_Handler pragmas, but not the Interrupt_Priority pragma. [This default need not be the same for all interrupts.]

Implementation Advice

25 If implementation-defined forms of interrupt handler procedures are supported, such as protected procedures with parameters, then for each such form of a handler, a type analogous to Parameterless_Handler should be specified in a child package of Interrupts, with the same operations as in the predefined package Interrupts.

NOTES
8 The package Interrupts.Names contains implementation-defined names (and constant values) for the interrupts that are supported by the implementation. 26

Examples

Example of interrupt handlers: 27

```
Device_Priority : constant                                                    28
  array (1..5) of System.Interrupt_Priority := ( ... );
protected type Device_Interface
  (Int_ID : Ada.Interrupts.Interrupt_ID) is
  procedure Handler;
  pragma Attach_Handler(Handler, Int_ID);
  ...
  pragma Interrupt_Priority(Device_Priority(Int_ID));
end Device_Interface;
  ...
Device_1_Driver : Device_Interface(1);
  ...
Device_5_Driver : Device_Interface(5);
  ...
```

C.4 Preelaboration Requirements

[This clause specifies additional implementation and documentation requirements for the Preelaborate pragma (see 10.2.1).] 1

Implementation Requirements

The implementation shall not incur any run-time overhead for the elaboration checks of subprograms and protected_bodies declared in preelaborated library units. 2

The implementation shall not execute any memory write operations after load time for the elaboration of constant objects declared immediately within the declarative region of a preelaborated library package, so long as the subtype and initial expression (or default initial expressions if initialized by default) of the object_declaration satisfy the following restrictions. {*load time*} The meaning of *load time* is implementation defined. 3

Discussion: On systems where the image of the partition is initially copied from disk to RAM, or from ROM to RAM, prior to starting execution of the partition, the intention is that ‘‘load time’’ consist of this initial copying step. On other systems, load time and run time might actually be interspersed. 3.a

- Any subtype_mark denotes a statically constrained subtype, with statically constrained subcomponents, if any; 4
- any constraint is a static constraint; 5
- any allocator is for an access-to-constant type; 6
- any uses of predefined operators appear only within static expressions; 7
- any primaries that are names, other than attribute_references for the Access or Address attributes, appear only within static expressions; 8

  Ramification: This cuts out attribute_references that are not static, except for Access and Address. 8.a

- any name that is not part of a static expression is an expanded name or direct_name that statically denotes some entity; 9

  Ramification: This cuts out function_calls and type_conversions that are not static, including calls on attribute functions like ’Image and ’Value. 9.a

- any discrete_choice of an array_aggregate is static;
- no language-defined check associated with the elaboration of the object_declaration can fail.

Reason: The intent is that aggregates all of whose scalar subcomponents are static, and all of whose access subcomponents are **null**, allocators for access-to-constant types, or X'Access, will be supported with no run-time code generated.

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document any circumstances under which the elaboration of a preelaborated package causes code to be executed at run time.

The implementation shall document whether the method used for initialization of preelaborated variables allows a partition to be restarted without reloading.

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of preelaboration.

Discussion: This covers the issue of the RTS itself being restartable, so that need not be a separate Documentation Requirement.

Implementation Advice

It is recommended that preelaborated packages be implemented in such a way that there should be little or no code executed at run time for the elaboration of entities not already covered by the Implementation Requirements.

C.5 Pragma Discard_Names

[A pragma Discard_Names may be used to request a reduction in storage used for the names of certain entities.]

Syntax

The form of a pragma Discard_Names is as follows:

pragma Discard_Names[([On =>] local_name)];

A pragma Discard_Names is allowed only immediately within a declarative_part, immediately within a package_specification, or as a configuration pragma.

Legality Rules

The local_name (if present) shall denote a non-derived enumeration [first] subtype, a tagged [first] subtype, or an exception. The pragma applies to the type or exception. Without a local_name, the pragma applies to all such entities declared after the pragma, within the same declarative region. Alternatively, the pragma can be used as a configuration pragma. If the pragma applies to a type, then it applies also to all descendants of the type.

Static Semantics

{*representation pragma* [Discard_Names]} {*pragma, representation* [Discard_Names]} If a local_name is given, then a pragma Discard_Names is a representation pragma.

If the pragma applies to an enumeration type, then the semantics of the Wide_Image and Wide_Value attributes are implementation defined for that type; [the semantics of Image and Value are still defined in terms of Wide_Image and Wide_Value.] In addition, the semantics of Text_IO.Enumeration_IO are implementation defined. If the pragma applies to a tagged type, then the semantics of the Tags.-Expanded_Name function are implementation defined for that type. If the pragma applies to an excep-

tion, then the semantics of the Exceptions.Exception_Name function are implementation defined for that exception.

Implementation defined: The semantics of pragma Discard_Names. 7.a

Ramification: The Width attribute is still defined in terms of Image. 7.b

The semantics of S'Wide_Image and S'Wide_Value are implementation defined for any subtype of an enumeration type to which the pragma applies. (The pragma actually names the first subtype, of course.) 7.c

Implementation Advice

If the pragma applies to an entity, then the implementation should reduce the amount of storage used for storing names associated with that entity. 8

Reason: A typical implementation of the Image attribute for enumeration types is to store a table containing the names of all the enumeration literals. Pragma Discard_Names allows the implementation to avoid storing such a table without having to prove that the Image attribute is never used (which can be difficult in the presence of separate compilation). 8.a

We did not specify the semantics of the Image attribute in the presence of this pragma because different semantics might be desirable in different situations. In some cases, it might make sense to use the Image attribute to print out a useful value that can be used to identify the entity given information in compiler-generated listings. In other cases, it might make sense to get an error at compile time or at run time. In cases where memory is plentiful, the simplest implementation makes sense: ignore the pragma. Implementations that are capable of avoiding the extra storage in cases where the Image attribute is never used might also wish to ignore the pragma. 8.b

The same applies to the Tags.Expanded_Name and Exceptions.Exception_Name functions. 8.c

C.6 Shared Variable Control

[This clause specifies representation pragmas that control the use of shared variables.] 1

Syntax

The form for pragmas Atomic, Volatile, Atomic_Components, and Volatile_Components is as follows: 2

pragma Atomic(local_name); 3

pragma Volatile(local_name); 4

pragma Atomic_Components(*array*_local_name); 5

pragma Volatile_Components(*array*_local_name); 6

{*atomic*} An *atomic* type is one to which a pragma Atomic applies. An *atomic* object (including a component) is one to which a pragma Atomic applies, or a component of an array to which a pragma Atomic_Components applies, or any object of an atomic type. 7

{*volatile*} A *volatile* type is one to which a pragma Volatile applies. A *volatile* object (including a component) is one to which a pragma Volatile applies, or a component of an array to which a pragma Volatile_Components applies, or any object of a volatile type. In addition, every atomic type or object is also defined to be volatile. Finally, if an object is volatile, then so are all of its subcomponents [(the same does not apply to atomic)]. 8

Name Resolution Rules

The local_name in an Atomic or Volatile pragma shall resolve to denote either an object_declaration, a non-inherited component_declaration, or a full_type_declaration. The *array*_local_name in an Atomic_Components or Volatile_Components pragma shall resolve to denote the declaration of an array type or an array object of an anonymous type. 9

Legality Rules

10 {*indivisible*} It is illegal to apply either an Atomic or Atomic_Components pragma to an object or type if the implementation cannot support the indivisible reads and updates required by the pragma (see below).

11 It is illegal to specify the Size attribute of an atomic object, the Component_Size attribute for an array type with atomic components, or the layout attributes of an atomic component, in a way that prevents the implementation from performing the required indivisible reads and updates.

12 If an atomic object is passed as a parameter, then the type of the formal parameter shall either be atomic or allow pass by copy [(that is, not be a nonatomic by-reference type)]. If an atomic object is used as an actual for a generic formal object of mode **in out**, then the type of the generic formal object shall be atomic. If the prefix of an attribute_reference for an Access attribute denotes an atomic object [(including a component)], then the designated type of the resulting access type shall be atomic. If an atomic type is used as an actual for a generic formal derived type, then the ancestor of the formal type shall be atomic or allow pass by copy. Corresponding rules apply to volatile objects and types.

13 If a pragma Volatile, Volatile_Components, Atomic, or Atomic_Components applies to a stand-alone constant object, then a pragma Import shall also apply to it.

13.a **Ramification:** Hence, no initialization expression is allowed for such a constant. Note that a constant that is atomic or volatile because of its type is allowed.

13.b **Reason:** Stand-alone constants that are explicitly specified as Atomic or Volatile only make sense if they are being manipulated outside the Ada program. From the Ada perspective the object is read-only. Nevertheless, if imported and atomic or volatile, the implementation should presume it might be altered externally. For an imported stand-alone constant that is not atomic or volatile, the implementation can assume that it will not be altered.

Static Semantics

14 {*representation pragma* [Atomic]} {*pragma, representation* [Atomic]} {*representation pragma* [Volatile]} {*pragma, representation* [Volatile]} {*representation pragma* [Atomic_Components]} {*pragma, representation* [Atomic_Components]} {*representation pragma* [Volatile_Components]} {*pragma, representation* [Volatile_Components]} These pragmas are representation pragmas (see 13.1).

Dynamic Semantics

15 For an atomic object (including an atomic component) all reads and updates of the object as a whole are indivisible.

16 For a volatile object all reads and updates of the object as a whole are performed directly to memory.

16.a **Implementation Note:** This precludes any use of register temporaries, caches, and other similar optimizations for that object.

17 {*sequential (actions)*} Two actions are sequential (see 9.10) if each is the read or update of the same atomic object.

18 {*by-reference type* [atomic or volatile]} If a type is atomic or volatile and it is not a by-copy type, then the type is defined to be a by-reference type. If any subcomponent of a type is atomic or volatile, then the type is defined to be a by-reference type.

19 If an actual parameter is atomic or volatile, and the corresponding formal parameter is not, then the parameter is passed by copy.

19.a **Implementation Note:** Note that in the case where such a parameter is normally passed by reference, a copy of the actual will have to be produced at the call-site, and a pointer to the copy passed to the formal parameter. If the actual is atomic, any copying has to use indivisible read on the way in, and indivisible write on the way out.

Reason: It has to be known at compile time whether an atomic or a volatile parameter is to be passed by copy or by reference. For some types, it is unspecified whether parameters are passed by copy or by reference. The above rules further specify the parameter passing rules involving atomic and volatile types and objects. 19.b

Implementation Requirements

{*external effect* [volatile/atomic objects]} The external effect of a program (see 1.1.3) is defined to include each read and update of a volatile or atomic object. The implementation shall not generate any memory reads or updates of atomic or volatile objects other than those specified by the program. 20

Discussion: The presumption is that volatile or atomic objects might reside in an ''active'' part of the address space where each read has a potential side-effect, and at the very least might deliver a different value. 20.a

The rule above and the definition of external effect are intended to prevent (at least) the following incorrect optimizations, where V is a volatile variable: 20.b

- X:= V; Y:=V; cannot be allowed to be translated as Y:=V; X:=V; 20.c
- Deleting redundant loads: X:= V; X:= V; shall read the value of V from memory twice. 20.d
- Deleting redundant stores: V:= X; V:= X; shall write into V twice. 20.e
- Extra stores: V:= X+Y; should not translate to something like V:= X; V:= V+Y; 20.f
- Extra loads: X:= V; Y:= X+Z; X:=X+B; should not translate to something like Y:= V+Z; X:= V+B; 20.g
- Reordering of loads from volatile variables: X:= V1; Y:= V2; (whether or not V1 = V2) should not translate to Y:= V2; X:= V1; 20.h
- Reordering of stores to volatile variables: V1:= X; V2:= X; should not translate to V2:=X; V1:= X; 20.i

If a pragma Pack applies to a type any of whose subcomponents are atomic, the implementation shall not pack the atomic subcomponents more tightly than that for which it can support indivisible reads and updates. 21

Implementation Note: A warning might be appropriate if no packing whatsoever can be achieved. 21.a

NOTES
9 An imported volatile or atomic constant behaves as a constant (i.e. read-only) with respect to other parts of the Ada program, but can still be modified by an ''external source.'' 22

Incompatibilities With Ada 83

{*incompatibilities with Ada 83*} Pragma Atomic replaces Ada 83's pragma Shared. The name ''Shared'' was confusing, because the pragma was not used to mark variables as shared. 22.a

C.7 Task Identification and Attributes

[This clause describes operations and attributes that can be used to obtain the identity of a task. In addition, a package that associates user-defined information with a task is defined.] 1

C.7.1 The Package Task_Identification

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 1

```
package Ada.Task_Identification is                                    2
   type Task_ID is private;
   Null_Task_ID : constant Task_ID;
   function  "=" (Left, Right : Task_ID) return Boolean;

   function  Image        (T : Task_ID) return String;                3
   function  Current_Task return Task_ID;
   procedure Abort_Task   (T : in out Task_ID);
```

```
      function  Is_Terminated(T : Task_ID) return Boolean;
      function  Is_Callable  (T : Task_ID) return Boolean;
   private
      ... -- not specified by the language
   end Ada.Task_Identification;
```

Dynamic Semantics

A value of the type Task_ID identifies an existent task. The constant Null_Task_ID does not identify any task. Each object of the type Task_ID is default initialized to the value of Null_Task_ID.

The function "=" returns True if and only if Left and Right identify the same task or both have the value Null_Task_ID.

The function Image returns an implementation-defined string that identifies T. If T equals Null_Task_ID, Image returns an empty string.

Implementation defined: The result of the Task_Identification.Image attribute.

The function Current_Task returns a value that identifies the calling task.

The effect of Abort_Task is the same as the abort_statement for the task identified by T. [In addition, if T identifies the environment task, the entire partition is aborted, See E.1.]

The functions Is_Terminated and Is_Callable return the value of the corresponding attribute of the task identified by T.

For a prefix T that is of a task type [(after any implicit dereference)], the following attribute is defined:

T'Identity — Yields a value of the type Task_ID that identifies the task denoted by T.

For a prefix E that denotes an entry_declaration, the following attribute is defined:

E'Caller — Yields a value of the type Task_ID that identifies the task whose call is now being serviced. Use of this attribute is allowed only inside an entry_body or accept_statement corresponding to the entry_declaration denoted by E.

{*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if a value of Null_Task_ID is passed as a parameter to Abort_Task, Is_Terminated, and Is_Callable.

{*potentially blocking operation* [Abort_Task]} {*blocking, potentially* [Abort_Task]} Abort_Task is a potentially blocking operation (see 9.5.1).

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} It is a bounded error to call the Current_Task function from an entry body or an interrupt handler. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised, or an implementation-defined value of the type Task_ID is returned.

Implementation defined: The value of Current_Task when in a protected entry or interrupt handler.

Implementation Note: This value could be Null_Task_ID, or the ID of some user task, or that of an internal task created by the implementation.

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} If a value of Task_ID is passed as a parameter to any of the operations declared in this package (or any language-defined child of this package), and the corresponding task object no longer exists, the execution of the program is erroneous.

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the effect of calling Current_Task from an entry body or interrupt handler. 19

Implementation defined: The effect of calling Current_Task from an entry body or interrupt handler. 19.a

NOTES

10 This package is intended for use in writing user-defined task scheduling packages and constructing server tasks. Current_Task can be used in conjunction with other operations requiring a task as an argument such as Set_Priority (see D.5). 20

11 The function Current_Task and the attribute Caller can return a Task_ID value that identifies the environment task. 21

C.7.2 The Package Task_Attributes

Static Semantics

The following language-defined generic library package exists: 1

```
with Ada.Task_Identification; use Ada.Task_Identification;                    2
generic
   type Attribute is private;
   Initial_Value : in Attribute;
package Ada.Task_Attributes is
   type Attribute_Handle is access all Attribute;                            3
   function Value(T : Task_ID := Current_Task)                               4
     return Attribute;
   function Reference(T : Task_ID := Current_Task)                           5
     return Attribute_Handle;
   procedure Set_Value(Val : in Attribute;                                   6
                       T : in Task_ID := Current_Task);
   procedure Reinitialize(T : in Task_ID := Current_Task);
end Ada.Task_Attributes;                                                     7
```

Dynamic Semantics

When an instance of Task_Attributes is elaborated in a given active partition, an object of the actual type corresponding to the formal type Attribute is implicitly created for each task (of that partition) that exists and is not yet terminated. This object acts as a user-defined attribute of the task. A task created previously in the partition and not yet terminated has this attribute from that point on. Each task subsequently created in the partition will have this attribute when created. In all these cases, the initial value of the given attribute is Initial_Value. 8

The Value operation returns the value of the corresponding attribute of T. 9

The Reference operation returns an access value that designates the corresponding attribute of T. 10

The Set_Value operation performs any finalization on the old value of the attribute of T and assigns Val to that attribute (see 5.2 and 7.6). 11

The effect of the Reinitialize operation is the same as Set_Value where the Val parameter is replaced with Initial_Value. 12

Implementation Note: In most cases, the attribute memory can be reclaimed at this point. 12.a

{*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For all the operations declared in this package, Tasking_Error is raised if the task identified by T is terminated. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if the value of T is Null_Task_ID. 13

Erroneous Execution

14 {*erroneous execution*} It is erroneous to dereference the access value returned by a given call on Reference after a subsequent call on Reinitialize for the same task attribute, or after the associated task terminates.

14.a **Reason:** This allows the storage to be reclaimed for the object associated with an attribute upon Reinitialize or task termination.

15 If a value of Task_ID is passed as a parameter to any of the operations declared in this package and the corresponding task object no longer exists, the execution of the program is erroneous.

Implementation Requirements

16 The implementation shall perform each of the above operations for a given attribute of a given task atomically with respect to any other of the above operations for the same attribute of the same task.

16.a **Ramification:** Hence, other than by dereferencing an access value returned by Reference, an attribute of a given task can be safely read and updated concurrently by multiple tasks.

17 When a task terminates, the implementation shall finalize all attributes of the task, and reclaim any other storage associated with the attributes.

Documentation Requirements

18 {*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the limit on the number of attributes per task, if any, and the limit on the total storage for attribute values per task, if such a limit exists.

19 In addition, if these limits can be configured, the implementation shall document how to configure them.

19.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined aspects of Task_Attributes.

Metrics

20 {*metrics*} The implementation shall document the following metrics: A task calling the following subprograms shall execute in a sufficiently high priority as to not be preempted during the measurement period. This period shall start just before issuing the call and end just after the call completes. If the attributes of task T are accessed by the measurement tests, no other task shall access attributes of that task during the measurement period. For all measurements described here, the Attribute type shall be a scalar whose size is equal to the size of the predefined integer size. For each measurement, two cases shall be documented: one where the accessed attributes are of the calling task [(that is, the default value for the T parameter is used)], and the other, where T identifies another, non-terminated, task.

21 The following calls (to subprograms in the Task_Attributes package) shall be measured:

22 • a call to Value, where the return value is Initial_Value;

23 • a call to Value, where the return value is not equal to Initial_Value;

24 • a call to Reference, where the return value designates a value equal to Initial_Value;

25 • a call to Reference, where the return value designates a value not equal to Initial_Value;

26 • a call to Set_Value where the Val parameter is not equal to Initial_Value and the old attribute value is equal to Initial_Value.

27 • a call to Set_Value where the Val parameter is not equal to Initial_Value and the old attribute value is not equal to Initial_Value.

Implementation Permissions

28 An implementation need not actually create the object corresponding to a task attribute until its value is set to something other than that of Initial_Value, or until Reference is called for the task attribute.

Similarly, when the value of the attribute is to be reinitialized to that of Initial_Value, the object may instead be finalized and its storage reclaimed, to be recreated when needed later. While the object does not exist, the function Value may simply return Initial_Value, rather than implicitly creating the object.

Discussion: The effect of this permission can only be observed if the assignment operation for the corresponding type has side-effects. 28.a

Implementation Note: This permission means that even though every task has every attribute, storage need only be allocated for those attributes that have been Reference'd or set to a value other than that of Initial_Value. 28.b

An implementation is allowed to place restrictions on the maximum number of attributes a task may have, the maximum size of each attribute, and the total storage size allocated for all the attributes of a task. 29

Implementation Advice

Some implementations are targeted to domains in which memory use at run time must be completely deterministic. For such implementations, it is recommended that the storage for task attributes will be pre-allocated statically and not from the heap. This can be accomplished by either placing restrictions on the number and the size of the task's attributes, or by using the pre-allocated storage for the first N attribute objects, and the heap for the others. In the latter case, N should be documented. 30

NOTES

12 An attribute always exists (after instantiation), and has the initial value. It need not occupy memory until the first operation that potentially changes the attribute value. The same holds true after Reinitialize. 31

13 The result of the Reference function should be used with care; it is always safe to use that result in the task body whose attribute is being accessed. However, when the result is being used by another task, the programmer must make sure that the task whose attribute is being accessed is not yet terminated. Failing to do so could make the program execution erroneous. 32

14 As specified in C.7.1, if the parameter T (in a call on a subprogram of an instance of this package) identifies a nonexistent task, the execution of the program is erroneous. 33

Annex D
(normative)

Real-Time Systems

{*real-time systems*} {*embedded systems*} This Annex specifies additional characteristics of Ada implementations intended for real-time systems software. To conform to this Annex, an implementation shall also conform to the Systems Programming Annex. 1

Metrics

{*metrics*} The metrics are documentation requirements; an implementation shall document the values of the language-defined metrics for at least one configuration [of hardware or an underlying system] supported by the implementation, and shall document the details of that configuration. 2

Implementation defined: Values of all Metrics. 2.a

Reason: The actual values of the metrics are likely to depend on hardware configuration details that are variable and generally outside the control of a compiler vendor. 2.b

The metrics do not necessarily yield a simple number. [For some, a range is more suitable, for others a formula dependent on some parameter is appropriate, and for others, it may be more suitable to break the metric into several cases.] Unless specified otherwise, the metrics in this annex are expressed in processor clock cycles. For metrics that require documentation of an upper bound, if there is no upper bound, the implementation shall report that the metric is unbounded. 3

Discussion: There are several good reasons to specify metrics in seconds; there are however equally good reasons to specify them in processor clock cycles. In defining the metrics, we have tried to strike a balance on a case-by-case basis. 3.a

It has been suggested that all metrics should be given names, so that ''data-sheets'' could be formulated and published by vendors. However the paragraph number can serve that purpose. 3.b

NOTES

1 The specification of the metrics makes a distinction between upper bounds and simple execution times. Where something is just specified as ''the execution time of'' a piece of code, this leaves one the freedom to choose a nonpathological case. This kind of metric is of the form ''there exists a program such that the value of the metric is V''. Conversely, the meaning of upper bounds is ''there is no program such that the value of the metric is greater than V''. This kind of metric can only be partially tested, by finding the value of V for one or more test programs. 4

2 The metrics do not cover the whole language; they are limited to features that are specified in Annex C, ''Systems Programming'' and in this Annex. The metrics are intended to provide guidance to potential users as to whether a particular implementation of such a feature is going to be adequate for a particular real-time application. As such, the metrics are aimed at known implementation choices that can result in significant performance differences. 5

3 The purpose of the metrics is not necessarily to provide fine-grained quantitative results or to serve as a comparison between different implementations on the same or different platforms. Instead, their goal is rather qualitative; to define a standard set of approximate values that can be measured and used to estimate the general suitability of an implementation, or to evaluate the comparative utility of certain features of an implementation for a particular real-time application. 6

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 6.a

D.1 Task Priorities

1 [This clause specifies the priority model for real-time systems. In addition, the methods for specifying priorities are defined.]

Syntax

2 The form of a pragma Priority is as follows:

3 **pragma** Priority(expression);

4 The form of a pragma Interrupt_Priority is as follows:

5 **pragma** Interrupt_Priority[(expression)];

Name Resolution Rules

6 {*expected type* [Priority pragma argument]} {*expected type* [Interrupt_Priority pragma argument]} The expected type for the expression in a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma is Integer.

Legality Rules

7 A Priority pragma is allowed only immediately within a task_definition, a protected_definition, or the declarative_part of a subprogram_body. An Interrupt_Priority pragma is allowed only immediately within a task_definition or a protected_definition. At most one such pragma shall appear within a given construct.

8 For a Priority pragma that appears in the declarative_part of a subprogram_body, the expression shall be static, and its value shall be in the range of System.Priority.

8.a **Reason:** This value is needed before it gets elaborated, when the environment task starts executing.

Static Semantics

9 The following declarations exist in package System:

10
```
subtype Any_Priority is Integer range implementation-defined;
subtype Priority is Any_Priority range Any_Priority'First .. implementation-defined;
subtype Interrupt_Priority is Any_Priority range Priority'Last+1 .. Any_Priority'Last;
```

11
```
Default_Priority : constant Priority := (Priority'First + Priority'Last)/2;
```

11.a **Implementation defined:** The declarations of Any_Priority and Priority.

12 The full range of priority values supported by an implementation is specified by the subtype Any_Priority. The subrange of priority values that are high enough to require the blocking of one or more interrupts is specified by the subtype Interrupt_Priority. [The subrange of priority values below System.Interrupt_Priority'First is specified by the subtype System.Priority.]

13 The priority specified by a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma is the value of the expression in the pragma, if any. If there is no expression in an Interrupt_Priority pragma, the priority value is Interrupt_Priority'Last.

Dynamic Semantics

14 A Priority pragma has no effect if it occurs in the declarative_part of the subprogram_body of a subprogram other than the main subprogram.

15 {*task priority*} {*priority*} {*priority inheritance*} {*base priority*} {*active priority*} A *task priority* is an integer value that indicates a degree of urgency and is the basis for resolving competing demands of tasks for resources. Unless otherwise specified, whenever tasks compete for processors or other implementation-defined

resources, the resources are allocated to the task with the highest priority value. The *base priority* of a task is the priority with which it was created, or to which it was later set by Dynamic_Priorities.Set_Priority (see D.5). At all times, a task also has an *active priority*, which generally reflects its base priority as well as any priority it inherits from other sources. *Priority inheritance* is the process by which the priority of a task or other entity (e.g. a protected object; see D.3) is used in the evaluation of another task's active priority.

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined execution resources. 15.a

The effect of specifying such a pragma in a protected_definition is discussed in D.3. 16

{*creation (of a task object)*} The expression in a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma that appears in a task_definition is evaluated for each task object (see 9.1). For a Priority pragma, the value of the expression is converted to the subtype Priority; for an Interrupt_Priority pragma, this value is converted to the subtype Any_Priority. The priority value is then associated with the task object whose task_definition contains the pragma. {*implicit subtype conversion* [pragma Priority]} {*implicit subtype conversion* [pragma Interrupt_Priority]} 17

Likewise, the priority value is associated with the environment task if the pragma appears in the declarative_part of the main subprogram. 18

The initial value of a task's base priority is specified by default or by means of a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma. [After a task is created, its base priority can be changed only by a call to Dynamic_Priorities.Set_Priority (see D.5).] The initial base priority of a task in the absence of a pragma is the base priority of the task that creates it at the time of creation (see 9.1). If a pragma Priority does not apply to the main subprogram, the initial base priority of the environment task is System.Default_Priority. [The task's active priority is used when the task competes for processors. Similarly, the task's active priority is used to determine the task's position in any queue when Priority_Queuing is specified (see D.4).] 19

At any time, the active priority of a task is the maximum of all the priorities the task is inheriting at that instant. For a task that is not held (see D.11), its base priority is always a source of priority inheritance. Other sources of priority inheritance are specified under the following conditions: 20

Discussion: Other parts of the annex, e.g. D.11, define other sources of priority inheritance. 20.a

- During activation, a task being activated inherits the active priority of the its activator (see 9.2). 21
- During rendezvous, the task accepting the entry call inherits the active priority of the caller (see 9.5.3). 22
- During a protected action on a protected object, a task inherits the ceiling priority of the protected object (see 9.5 and D.3). 23

In all of these cases, the priority ceases to be inherited as soon as the condition calling for the inheritance no longer exists. 24

Implementation Requirements

The range of System.Interrupt_Priority shall include at least one value. 25

The range of System.Priority shall include at least 30 values. 26

NOTES

27 4 The priority expression can include references to discriminants of the enclosing type.

28 5 It is a consequence of the active priority rules that at the point when a task stops inheriting a priority from another source, its active priority is re-evaluated. This is in addition to other instances described in this Annex for such re-evaluation.

29 6 An implementation may provide a non-standard mode in which tasks inherit priorities under conditions other than those specified above.

29.a **Ramification:** The use of a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma does not require the package System to be named in a with_clause for the enclosing compilation_unit.

Extensions to Ada 83

29.b {*extensions to Ada 83*} The priority of a task is per-object and not per-type.

29.c Priorities need not be static anymore (except for the main subprogram).

Wording Changes From Ada 83

29.d The description of the Priority pragma has been moved to this annex.

D.2 Priority Scheduling

1 [This clause describes the rules that determine which task is selected for execution when more than one task is ready (see 9.2). The rules have two parts: the task dispatching model (see D.2.1), and a specific task dispatching policy (see D.2.2).]

D.2.1 The Task Dispatching Model

1 [The task dispatching model specifies preemptive scheduling, based on conceptual priority-ordered ready queues.]

Dynamic Semantics

2 A task runs (that is, it becomes a *running task*) only when it is ready (see 9.2) and the execution resources required by that task are available. Processors are allocated to tasks based on each task's active priority.

3 It is implementation defined whether, on a multiprocessor, a task that is waiting for access to a protected object keeps its processor busy.

3.a **Implementation defined:** Whether, on a multiprocessor, a task that is waiting for access to a protected object keeps its processor busy.

4 {*task dispatching*} {*dispatching, task*} {*task dispatching point* [distributed]} {*dispatching point* [distributed]} *Task* dispatching is the process by which one ready task is selected for execution on a processor. This selection is done at certain points during the execution of a task called *task dispatching points*. A task reaches a task dispatching point whenever it becomes blocked, and whenever it becomes ready. In addition, the completion of an accept_statement (see 9.5.2), and task termination are task dispatching points for the executing task. [Other task dispatching points are defined throughout this Annex.]

4.a **Ramification:** On multiprocessor systems, more than one task can be chosen, at the same time, for execution on more than one processor, as explained below.

5 {*ready queue*} {*head (of a queue)*} {*tail (of a queue)*} {*ready task*} {*task dispatching policy* [partial]} {*dispatching policy for tasks* [partial]} *Task dispatching policies* are specified in terms of conceptual *ready queues*, task states, and task preemption. A ready queue is an ordered list of ready tasks. The first position in a queue is called the *head of the queue*, and the last position is called the *tail of the queue*. A task is *ready* if it is in a ready queue, or if it is running. Each processor has one ready queue for each priority value. At any instant,

each ready queue of a processor contains exactly the set of tasks of that priority that are ready for execution on that processor, but are not running on any processor; that is, those tasks that are ready, are not running on any processor, and can be executed using that processor and other available resources. A task can be on the ready queues of more than one processor.

Discussion: The core language defines a ready task as one that is not blocked. Here we refine this definition and talk about ready queues. 5.a

{*running task*} Each processor also has one *running task*, which is the task currently being executed by that processor. Whenever a task running on a processor reaches a task dispatching point, one task is selected to run on that processor. The task selected is the one at the head of the highest priority nonempty ready queue; this task is then removed from all ready queues to which it belongs. 6

Discussion: There is always at least one task to run, if we count the idle task. 6.a

{*preemptible resource*} A preemptible resource is a resource that while allocated to one task can be allocated (temporarily) to another instead. Processors are preemptible resources. Access to a protected object (see 9.5.1) is a nonpreemptible resource. 7

Reason: A processor that is executing a task is available to execute tasks of higher priority, within the set of tasks that that processor is able to execute. Write access to a protected object, on the other hand, cannot be granted to a new task before the old task has released it. 7.a

{*preempted task*} When a higher-priority task is dispatched to the processor, and the previously running task is placed on the appropriate ready queue, the latter task is said to be *preempted*.

{*task dispatching point* [partial]} {*dispatching point* [partial]} A new running task is also selected whenever there is a nonempty ready queue with a higher priority than the priority of the running task, or when the task dispatching policy requires a running task to go back to a ready queue. [These are also task dispatching points.] 8

Ramification: Thus, when a task becomes ready, this is a task dispatching point for all running tasks of lower priority. 8.a

Implementation Permissions

An implementation is allowed to define additional resources as execution resources, and to define the corresponding allocation policies for them. Such resources may have an implementation defined effect on task dispatching (see D.2.2). 9

Implementation defined: The affect of implementation defined execution resources on task dispatching. 9.a

An implementation may place implementation-defined restrictions on tasks whose active priority is in the Interrupt_Priority range. 10

Ramification: For example, on some operating systems, it might be necessary to disallow them altogether. This permission applies to tasks whose priority is set to interrupt level for any reason: via a pragma, via a call to Dynamic_Priorities.Set_Priority, or via priority inheritance. 10.a

NOTES

7 Section 9 specifies under which circumstances a task becomes ready. The ready state is affected by the rules for task activation and termination, delay statements, and entry calls. {*blocked* [partial]} When a task is not ready, it is said to be blocked. 11

8 An example of a possible implementation-defined execution resource is a page of physical memory, which needs to be loaded with a particular page of virtual memory before a task can continue execution. 12

9 The ready queues are purely conceptual; there is no requirement that such lists physically exist in an implementation. 13

10 While a task is running, it is not on any ready queue. Any time the task that is running on a processor is added to a ready queue, a new running task is selected for that processor. 14

11 In a multiprocessor system, a task can be on the ready queues of more than one processor. At the extreme, if several processors share the same set of ready tasks, the contents of their ready queues is identical, and so they can be viewed as sharing one ready queue, and can be implemented that way. [Thus, the dispatching model covers multiprocessors where dispatching is implemented using a single ready queue, as well as those with separate dispatching domains.]

12 The priority of a task is determined by rules specified in this subclause, and under D.1, ‘‘Task Priorities’’, D.3, ‘‘Priority Ceiling Locking’’, and D.5, ‘‘Dynamic Priorities’’.

D.2.2 The Standard Task Dispatching Policy

Syntax

The form of a pragma Task_Dispatching_Policy is as follows:

pragma Task_Dispatching_Policy(*policy*_identifier);

Legality Rules

The *policy*_identifier shall either be FIFO_Within_Priorities or an implementation-defined identifier.

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined *policy*_identifiers allowed in a pragma Task_Dispatching_Policy.

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Task_Dispatching_Policy]} {*pragma, configuration* [Task_Dispatching_Policy]} A Task_Dispatching_Policy pragma is a configuration pragma.

If the FIFO_Within_Priorities policy is specified for a partition, then the Ceiling_Locking policy (see D.3) shall also be specified for the partition.

Dynamic Semantics

{*task dispatching policy*} [A *task dispatching policy* specifies the details of task dispatching that are not covered by the basic task dispatching model. These rules govern when tasks are inserted into and deleted from the ready queues, and whether a task is inserted at the head or the tail of the queue for its active priority.] The task dispatching policy is specified by a Task_Dispatching_Policy configuration pragma. {*unspecified* [partial]} If no such pragma appears in any of the program units comprising a partition, the task dispatching policy for that partition is unspecified.

The language defines only one task dispatching policy, FIFO_Within_Priorities; when this policy is in effect, modifications to the ready queues occur only as follows:

- When a blocked task becomes ready, it is added at the tail of the ready queue for its active priority.
- When the active priority of a ready task that is not running changes, or the setting of its base priority takes effect, the task is removed from the ready queue for its old active priority and is added at the tail of the ready queue for its new active priority, except in the case where the active priority is lowered due to the loss of inherited priority, in which case the task is added at the head of the ready queue for its new active priority.
- When the setting of the base priority of a running task takes effect, the task is added to the tail of the ready queue for its active priority.
- When a task executes a delay_statement that does not result in blocking, it is added to the tail of the ready queue for its active priority.

Ramification: If the delay does result in blocking, the task moves to the ‘‘delay queue’’, not to the ready queue.

{*task dispatching point* [partial]} {*dispatching point* [partial]} Each of the events specified above is a task dispatching point (see D.2.1). 12

In addition, when a task is preempted, it is added at the head of the ready queue for its active priority. 13

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} {*priority inversion*} *Priority inversion* is the duration for which a task remains at the head of the highest priority ready queue while the processor executes a lower priority task. The implementation shall document: 14

- The maximum priority inversion a user task can experience due to activity of the implementation (on behalf of lower priority tasks), and 15
- whether execution of a task can be preempted by the implementation processing of delay expirations for lower priority tasks, and if so, for how long. 16

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of priority inversion. 16.a

Implementation Permissions

Implementations are allowed to define other task dispatching policies, but need not support more than one such policy per partition. 17

[For optimization purposes,] an implementation may alter the points at which task dispatching occurs, in an implementation defined manner. However, a delay_statement always corresponds to at least one task dispatching point. 18

Implementation defined: Implementation defined task dispatching. 18.a

NOTES

13 If the active priority of a running task is lowered due to loss of inherited priority (as it is on completion of a protected operation) and there is a ready task of the same active priority that is not running, the running task continues to run (provided that there is no higher priority task). 19

14 The setting of a task's base priority as a result of a call to Set_Priority does not always take effect immediately when Set_Priority is called. The effect of setting the task's base priority is deferred while the affected task performs a protected action. 20

15 Setting the base priority of a ready task causes the task to move to the end of the queue for its active priority, regardless of whether the active priority of the task actually changes. 21

D.3 Priority Ceiling Locking

[This clause specifies the interactions between priority task scheduling and protected object ceilings. This interaction is based on the concept of the *ceiling priority* of a protected object.] 1

Syntax

The form of a pragma Locking_Policy is as follows: 2

pragma Locking_Policy(*policy*_identifier); 3

Legality Rules

The *policy*_identifier shall either be Ceiling_Locking or an implementation-defined identifier. 4

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined *policy*_identifiers allowed in a pragma Locking_Policy. 4.a

Post-Compilation Rules

5 {*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Locking_Policy]} {*pragma, configuration* [Locking_Policy]} A Locking_Policy pragma is a configuration pragma.

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*locking policy*} [A locking policy specifies the details of protected object locking. These rules specify whether or not protected objects have priorities, and the relationships between these priorities and task priorities. In addition, the policy specifies the state of a task when it executes a protected action, and how its active priority is affected by the locking.] The *locking policy* is specified by a Locking_Policy pragma. For implementation-defined locking policies, the effect of a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma on a protected object is implementation defined. If no Locking_Policy pragma appears in any of the program units comprising a partition, the locking policy for that partition, as well as the effect of specifying either a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma for a protected object, are implementation defined.

7 There is one predefined locking policy, Ceiling_Locking; this policy is defined as follows:

8 • {*ceiling priority (of a protected object)*} Every protected object has a *ceiling priority*, which is determined by either a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma as defined in D.1. The ceiling priority of a protected object (or ceiling, for short) is an upper bound on the active priority a task can have when it calls protected operations of that protected object.

9 • The expression of a Priority or Interrupt_Priority pragma is evaluated as part of the creation of the corresponding protected object and converted to the subtype System.Any_Priority or System.Interrupt_Priority, respectively. The value of the expression is the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object. {*implicit subtype conversion* [pragma Priority]} {*implicit subtype conversion* [pragma Interrupt_Priority]}

10 • If an Interrupt_Handler or Attach_Handler pragma (see C.3.1) appears in a protected_definition without an Interrupt_Priority pragma, the ceiling priority of protected objects of that type is implementation defined, but in the range of the subtype System.Interrupt_Priority.

10.a **Implementation defined:** Default ceiling priorities.

11 • If no pragma Priority, Interrupt_Priority, Interrupt_Handler, or Attach_Handler is specified in the protected_definition, then the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object is System.Priority'Last.

12 • While a task executes a protected action, it inherits the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object.

13 • {*Ceiling_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Ceiling_Check)*} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} When a task calls a protected operation, a check is made that its active priority is not higher than the ceiling of the corresponding protected object; Program_Error is raised if this check fails.

Implementation Permissions

14 The implementation is allowed to round all ceilings in a certain subrange of System.Priority or System.-Interrupt_Priority up to the top of that subrange, uniformly.

14.a **Discussion:** For example, an implementation might use Priority'Last for all ceilings in Priority, and Interrupt_Priority'Last for all ceilings in Interrupt_Priority. This would be equivalent to having two ceiling priorities for protected objects, ''nonpreemptible'' and ''noninterruptible'', and is an allowed behavior.

14.b Note that the implementation cannot choose a subrange that crosses the boundary between normal and interrupt priorities.

Implementations are allowed to define other locking policies, but need not support more than one such policy per partition. 15

[Since implementations are allowed to place restrictions on code that runs at an interrupt-level active priority (see C.3.1 and D.2.1), the implementation may implement a language feature in terms of a protected object with an implementation-defined ceiling, but the ceiling shall be no less than Priority'Last.] 16

Implementation defined: The ceiling of any protected object used internally by the implementation. 16.a

Proof: This permission follows from the fact that the implementation can place restrictions on interrupt handlers and on any other code that runs at an interrupt-level active priority. 16.b

The implementation might protect a storage pool with a protected object whose ceiling is Priority'Last, which would cause allocators to fail when evaluated at interrupt priority. Note that the ceiling of such an object has to be at least Priority'Last, since there is no permission for allocators to fail when evaluated at a non-interrupt priority. 16.c

Implementation Advice

The implementation should use names that end with ''_Locking'' for implementation-defined locking policies. 17

NOTES

16 While a task executes in a protected action, it can be preempted only by tasks whose active priorities are higher than the ceiling priority of the protected object. 18

17 If a protected object has a ceiling priority in the range of Interrupt_Priority, certain interrupts are blocked while protected actions of that object execute. In the extreme, if the ceiling is Interrupt_Priority'Last, all blockable interrupts are blocked during that time. 19

18 The ceiling priority of a protected object has to be in the Interrupt_Priority range if one of its procedures is to be used as an interrupt handler (see C.3). 20

19 When specifying the ceiling of a protected object, one should choose a value that is at least as high as the highest active priority at which tasks can be executing when they call protected operations of that object. In determining this value the following factors, which can affect active priority, should be considered: the effect of Set_Priority, nested protected operations, entry calls, task activation, and other implementation-defined factors. 21

20 Attaching a protected procedure whose ceiling is below the interrupt hardware priority to an interrupt causes the execution of the program to be erroneous (see C.3.1). 22

21 On a single processor implementation, the ceiling priority rules guarantee that there is no possibility of deadlock involving only protected subprograms (excluding the case where a protected operation calls another protected operation on the same protected object). 23

D.4 Entry Queuing Policies

[{*queuing policy*} This clause specifies a mechanism for a user to choose an entry *queuing policy*. It also defines one such policy. Other policies are implementation defined.] 1

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined queuing policies. 1.a

Syntax

The form of a pragma Queuing_Policy is as follows: 2

pragma Queuing_Policy(*policy*_identifier); 3

Legality Rules

The *policy*_identifier shall be either FIFO_Queuing, Priority_Queuing or an implementation-defined identifier. 4

Post-Compilation Rules

5 {*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Queuing_Policy]} {*pragma, configuration* [Queuing_Policy]} A Queuing_Policy pragma is a configuration pragma.

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*queuing policy*} [A *queuing policy* governs the order in which tasks are queued for entry service, and the order in which different entry queues are considered for service.] The queuing policy is specified by a Queuing_Policy pragma.

6.a **Ramification:** The queuing policy includes entry queuing order, the choice among open alternatives of a selective_accept, and the choice among queued entry calls of a protected object when more than one entry_barrier condition is True.

7 Two queuing policies, FIFO_Queuing and Priority_Queuing, are language defined. If no Queuing_Policy pragma appears in any of the program units comprising the partition, the queuing policy for that partition is FIFO_Queuing. The rules for this policy are specified in 9.5.3 and 9.7.1.

8 The Priority_Queuing policy is defined as follows:

9 • {*priority of an entry call*} The calls to an entry [(including a member of an entry family)] are queued in an order consistent with the priorities of the calls. The *priority of an entry call* is initialized from the active priority of the calling task at the time the call is made, but can change later. Within the same priority, the order is consistent with the calling (or requeuing, or priority setting) time (that is, a FIFO order).

10 • After a call is first queued, changes to the active priority of a task do not affect the priority of the call, unless the base priority of the task is set.

11 • When the base priority of a task is set (see D.5), if the task is blocked on an entry call, and the call is queued, the priority of the call is updated to the new active priority of the calling task. This causes the call to be removed from and then reinserted in the queue at the new active priority.

11.a **Reason:** A task is blocked on an entry call if the entry call is simple, conditional, or timed. If the call came from the triggering_statement of an asynchronous_select, or a requeue thereof, then the task is not blocked on that call; such calls do not have their priority updated. Thus, there can exist many queued calls from a given task (caused by many nested ATC's), but a task can be blocked on only one call at a time.

11.b A previous version of Ada 9X required queue reordering in the asynchronous_select case as well. If the call corresponds to a ''synchronous'' entry call, then the task is blocked while queued, and it makes good sense to move it up in the queue if its priority is raised.

11.c However, if the entry call is ''asynchronous,'' that is, it is due to an asynchronous_select whose triggering_statement is an entry call, then the task is not waiting for this entry call, so the placement of the entry call on the queue is irrelevant to the rate at which the task proceeds.

11.d Furthermore, when an entry is used for asynchronous_selects, it is almost certain to be a ''broadcast'' entry or have only one caller at a time. For example, if the entry is used to notify tasks of a mode switch, then all tasks on the entry queue would be signaled when the mode changes. Similarly, if it is indicating some interrupting event such as a control-C, all tasks sensitive to the interrupt will want to be informed that the event occurred. Hence, the order on such a queue is essentially irrelevant.

11.e Given the above, it seems an unnecessary semantic and implementation complexity to specify that asynchronous queued calls are moved in response to dynamic priority changes. Furthermore, it is somewhat inconsistent, since the call was originally queued based on the active priority of the task, but dynamic priority changes are changing the base priority of the task, and only indirectly the active priority. We say explicitly that asynchronous queued calls are not affected by normal changes in active priority during the execution of an abortable_part. Saying that, if a change in the base priority affects the active priority, then we do want the calls reordered, would be inconsistent. It would also require the implementation to maintain a readily accessible list of all queued calls which would not otherwise be necessary.

11.f Several rules were removed or simplified when we changed the rules so that calls due to asynchronous_selects are never moved due to intervening changes in active priority, be they due to protected actions, some other priority inheritance, or changes in the base priority.

- When more than one condition of an entry_barrier of a protected object becomes True, and more than one of the respective queues is nonempty, the call with the highest priority is selected. If more than one such call has the same priority, the call that is queued on the entry whose declaration is first in textual order in the protected_definition is selected. For members of the same entry family, the one with the lower family index is selected. 12

- If the expiration time of two or more open delay_alternatives is the same and no other accept_alternatives are open, the sequence_of_statements of the delay_alternative that is first in textual order in the selective_accept is executed. 13

- When more than one alternative of a selective_accept is open and has queued calls, an alternative whose queue has the highest-priority call at its head is selected. If two or more open alternatives have equal-priority queued calls, then a call on the entry in the accept_alternative that is first in textual order in the selective_accept is selected. 14

Implementation Permissions

Implementations are allowed to define other queuing policies, but need not support more than one such policy per partition. 15

Implementation Advice

The implementation should use names that end with ‘‘_Queuing’’ for implementation-defined queuing policies. 16

D.5 Dynamic Priorities

[This clause specifies how the base priority of a task can be modified or queried at run time.] 1

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 2

```
with System;                                                              3
with Ada.Task_Identification; -- See C.7.1
package Ada.Dynamic_Priorities is
    procedure Set_Priority(Priority : in System.Any_Priority;             4
                           T : in Ada.Task_Identification.Task_ID :=
                           Ada.Task_Identification.Current_Task);
    function Get_Priority (T : Ada.Task_Identification.Task_ID :=         5
                           Ada.Task_Identification.Current_Task)
                           return System.Any_Priority;
end Ada.Dynamic_Priorities;                                               6
```

Dynamic Semantics

The procedure Set_Priority sets the base priority of the specified task to the specified Priority value. Set_Priority has no effect if the task is terminated. 7

The function Get_Priority returns T’s current base priority. {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Tasking_Error is raised if the task is terminated. 8

Reason: There is no harm in setting the priority of a terminated task. A previous version of Ada 9X made this a run-time error. However, there is little difference between setting the priority of a terminated task, and setting the priority of a task that is about to terminate very soon; neither case should be an error. Furthermore, the run-time check is not necessarily feasible to implement on all systems, since priority changes might be deferred due to inter-processor communication overhead, so the error might not be detected until after Set_Priority has returned. 8.a

However, we wish to allow implementations to avoid storing ‘‘extra’’ information about terminated tasks. Therefore, we make Get_Priority of a terminated task raise an exception; the implementation need not continue to store the priority of a task that has terminated. 8.b

9 {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised by Set_Priority and Get_Priority if T is equal to Null_Task_ID.

10 Setting the task's base priority to the new value takes place as soon as is practical but not while the task is performing a protected action. This setting occurs no later then the next abort completion point of the task T (see 9.8).

10.a **Implementation Note:** When Set_Priority is called by a task T1 to set the priority of T2, if T2 is blocked, waiting on an entry call queued on a protected object, the entry queue needs to be reordered. Since T1 might have a priority that is higher than the ceiling of the protected object, T1 cannot, in general, do the reordering. One way to implement this is to wake T2 up and have T2 do the work. This is similar to the disentangling of queues that needs to happen when a high-priority task aborts a lower-priority task, which might have a call queued on a protected object with a low ceiling.

10.b **Reason:** A previous version of Ada 9X made it a run-time error for a high-priority task to set the priority of a lower-priority task that has a queued call on a protected object with a low ceiling. This was changed because:

10.c • The check was not feasible to implement on all systems, since priority changes might be deferred due to inter-processor communication overhead. The calling task would continue to execute without finding out whether the operation succeeded or not.

10.d • The run-time check would tend to cause intermittent system failures — how is the caller supposed to know whether the other task happens to have a queued call at any given time? Consider for example an interrupt that needs to trigger a priority change in some task. The interrupt handler could not safely call Set_Priority without knowing exactly what the other task is doing, or without severely restricting the ceilings used in the system. If the interrupt handler wants to hand the job off to a third task whose job is to call Set_Priority, this won't help, because one would normally want the third task to have high priority.

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

11 {*bounded error*} If a task is blocked on a protected entry call, and the call is queued, it is a bounded error to raise its base priority above the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object. When an entry call is cancelled, it is a bounded error if the priority of the calling task is higher than the ceiling priority of the corresponding protected object. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} In either of these cases, either Program_Error is raised in the task that called the entry, or its priority is temporarily lowered, or both, or neither.

11.a **Ramification:** Note that the error is ''blamed'' on the task that did the entry call, not the task that called Set_Priority. This seems to make sense for the case of a task blocked on a call, since if the Set_Priority had happened a little bit sooner, before the task queued a call, the entry-calling task would get the error. In the other case, there is no reason not to raise the priority of a task that is executing in an abortable_part, so long as its priority is lowered before it gets to the end and needs to cancel the call. The priority might need to be lowered to allow it to remove the call from the entry queue, in order to avoid violating the ceiling. This seems relatively harmless, since there is an error, and the task is about to start raising an exception anyway.

Erroneous Execution

12 {*erroneous execution*} If any subprogram in this package is called with a parameter T that specifies a task object that no longer exists, the execution of the program is erroneous.

12.a **Ramification:** Note that this rule overrides the above rule saying that Program_Error is raised on Get_Priority of a terminated task. If the task object still exists, and the task is terminated, Get_Priority raises Program_Error. However, if the task object no longer exists, calling Get_Priority causes erroneous execution.

Metrics

13 {*metrics*} The implementation shall document the following metric:

14 • The execution time of a call to Set_Priority, for the nonpreempting case, in processor clock cycles. This is measured for a call that modifies the priority of a ready task that is not running (which cannot be the calling one), where the new base priority of the affected task is lower than the active priority of the calling task, and the affected task is not on any entry queue and is not executing a protected operation.

NOTES

22 Setting a task's base priority affects task dispatching. First, it can change the task's active priority. Second, under the standard task dispatching policy it always causes the task to move to the tail of the ready queue corresponding to its active priority, even if the new base priority is unchanged. 15

23 Under the priority queuing policy, setting a task's base priority has an effect on a queued entry call if the task is blocked waiting for the call. That is, setting the base priority of a task causes the priority of a queued entry call from that task to be updated and the call to be removed and then reinserted in the entry queue at the new priority (see D.4), unless the call originated from the triggering_statement of an asynchronous_select. 16

24 The effect of two or more Set_Priority calls executed in parallel on the same task is defined as executing these calls in some serial order. 17

Proof: This follows from the general reentrancy requirements stated near the beginning of Annex A, ''Predefined Language Environment''. 17.a

25 The rule for when Tasking_Error is raised for Set_Priority or Get_Priority is different from the rule for when Tasking_Error is raised on an entry call (see 9.5.3). In particular, setting or querying the priority of a completed or an abnormal task is allowed, so long as the task is not yet terminated. 18

26 Changing the priorities of a set of tasks can be performed by a series of calls to Set_Priority for each task separately. For this to work reliably, it should be done within a protected operation that has high enough ceiling priority to guarantee that the operation completes without being preempted by any of the affected tasks. 19

D.6 Preemptive Abort

[This clause specifies requirements on the immediacy with which an aborted construct is completed.] 1

Dynamic Semantics

On a system with a single processor, an aborted construct is completed immediately at the first point that is outside the execution of an abort-deferred operation. 2

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} On a multiprocessor, the implementation shall document any conditions that cause the completion of an aborted construct to be delayed later than what is specified for a single processor. 3

Implementation defined: On a multiprocessor, any conditions that cause the completion of an aborted construct to be delayed later than what is specified for a single processor. 3.a

Metrics

{*metrics*} The implementation shall document the following metrics: 4

- The execution time, in processor clock cycles, that it takes for an abort_statement to cause the completion of the aborted task. This is measured in a situation where a task T2 preempts task T1 and aborts T1. T1 does not have any finalization code. T2 shall verify that T1 has terminated, by means of the Terminated attribute. 5
- On a multiprocessor, an upper bound in seconds, on the time that the completion of an aborted task can be delayed beyond the point that it is required for a single processor. 6
- An upper bound on the execution time of an asynchronous_select, in processor clock cycles. This is measured between a point immediately before a task T1 executes a protected operation Pr.Set that makes the condition of an entry_barrier Pr.Wait true, and the point where task T2 resumes execution immediately after an entry call to Pr.Wait in an asynchronous_select. T1 preempts T2 while T2 is executing the abortable part, and then blocks itself so that T2 can execute. The execution time of T1 is measured separately, and subtracted. 7
- An upper bound on the execution time of an asynchronous_select, in the case that no asynchronous transfer of control takes place. This is measured between a point immediately before a task executes the asynchronous_select with a nonnull abortable part, and the point 8

where the task continues execution immediately after it. The execution time of the abortable part is subtracted.

Implementation Advice

Even though the abort_statement is included in the list of potentially blocking operations (see 9.5.1), it is recommended that this statement be implemented in a way that never requires the task executing the abort_statement to block.

On a multi-processor, the delay associated with aborting a task on another processor should be bounded; the implementation should use periodic polling, if necessary, to achieve this.

NOTES

27 Abortion does not change the active or base priority of the aborted task.

28 Abortion cannot be more immediate than is allowed by the rules for deferral of abortion during finalization and in protected actions.

D.7 Tasking Restrictions

[This clause defines restrictions that can be used with a pragma Restrictions (see 13.12) to facilitate the construction of highly efficient tasking run-time systems.]

Static Semantics

The following *restriction*_identifiers are language defined:

{*Restrictions (No_Task_Hierarchy)*} No_Task_Hierarchy
All (nonenvironment) tasks depend directly on the environment task of the partition.

{*Restrictions (No_Nested_Finalization)*} No_Nested_Finalization
Objects with controlled parts and access types that designate such objects shall be declared only at library level.

Ramification: Note that protected types with entries and interrupt-handling protected types have nontrivial finalization actions. However, this restriction does not restrict those things.

{*Restrictions (No_Abort_Statements)*} No_Abort_Statements
There are no abort_statements, and there are no calls on Task_Identification.Abort_Task.

{*Restrictions (No_Terminate_Alternatives)*} No_Terminate_Alternatives
There are no selective_accepts with terminate_alternatives.

{*Restrictions (No_Task_Allocators)*} No_Task_Allocators
There are no allocators for task types or types containing task subcomponents.

{*Restrictions (No_Implicit_Heap_Allocations)*} No_Implicit_Heap_Allocations
There are no operations that implicitly require heap storage allocation to be performed by the implementation. The operations that implicitly require heap storage allocation are implementation defined.

Implementation defined: Any operations that implicitly require heap storage allocation.

No_Dynamic_Priorities
There are no semantic dependences on the package Dynamic_Priorities. {*Restrictions (No_Dynamic_Priorities)*}

{*Restrictions (No_Asynchronous_Control)*} No_Asynchronous_Control
There are no semantic dependences on the package Asynchronous_Task_Control.

The following *restriction_parameter*_identifiers are language defined: 11

{*Restrictions (Max_Select_Alternatives)*} Max_Select_Alternatives 12
Specifies the maximum number of alternatives in a selective_accept.

{*Restrictions (Max_Task_Entries)*} Max_Task_Entries 13
Specifies the maximum number of entries per task. The bounds of every entry family of a task unit shall be static, or shall be defined by a discriminant of a subtype whose corresponding bound is static. [A value of zero indicates that no rendezvous are possible.]

Max_Protected_Entries 14
Specifies the maximum number of entries per protected type. The bounds of every entry family of a protected unit shall be static, or shall be defined by a discriminant of a subtype whose corresponding bound is static. {*Restrictions (Max_Protected_Entries)*}

Dynamic Semantics

If the following restrictions are violated, the behavior is implementation defined. {*Storage_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Storage_Check)*} {*Storage_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If an implementation chooses to detect such a violation, Storage_Error should be raised. 15

The following *restriction_parameter*_identifiers are language defined: 16

{*Restrictions (Max_Storage_At_Blocking)*} Max_Storage_At_Blocking 17
Specifies the maximum portion [(in storage elements)] of a task's Storage_Size that can be retained by a blocked task.

{*Restrictions (Max_Asynchronous_Select_Nesting)*} Max_Asynchronous_Select_Nesting 18
Specifies the maximum dynamic nesting level of asynchronous_selects. [A value of zero prevents the use of any asynchronous_select.]

{*Restrictions (Max_Tasks)*} Max_Tasks 19
Specifies the maximum number of task creations that may be executed over the lifetime of a partition, not counting the creation of the environment task.

Ramification: Note that this is not a limit on the number of tasks active at a given time; it is a limit on the total number of task creations that occur. 19.a

Implementation Note: We envision an implementation approach that places TCBs or pointers to them in a fixed-size table, and never reuses table elements. 19.b

It is implementation defined whether the use of pragma Restrictions results in a reduction in executable program size, storage requirements, or execution time. If possible, the implementation should provide quantitative descriptions of such effects for each restriction. 20

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Restrictions. 20.a

Implementation Advice

When feasible, the implementation should take advantage of the specified restrictions to produce a more efficient implementation. 21

NOTES
29 The above Storage_Checks can be suppressed with pragma Suppress. 22

D.8 Monotonic Time

1 [This clause specifies a high-resolution, monotonic clock package.]

Static Semantics

2 The following language-defined library package exists:

3
```
package Ada.Real_Time is
```

4
```
  type Time is private;
  Time_First : constant Time;
  Time_Last : constant Time;
  Time_Unit : constant := implementation-defined-real-number;
```

5

6
```
  type Time_Span is private;
  Time_Span_First : constant Time_Span;
  Time_Span_Last : constant Time_Span;
  Time_Span_Zero : constant Time_Span;
  Time_Span_Unit : constant Time_Span;
```

7

```
  Tick : constant Time_Span;
  function Clock return Time;
```

8

```
  function "+" (Left : Time; Right : Time_Span) return Time;
  function "+" (Left : Time_Span; Right : Time) return Time;
  function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Time_Span) return Time;
  function "-" (Left : Time; Right : Time) return Time_Span;
```

9

```
  function "<" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
  function "<="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
  function ">" (Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
  function ">="(Left, Right : Time) return Boolean;
```

10

```
  function "+" (Left, Right : Time_Span) return Time_Span;
  function "-" (Left, Right : Time_Span) return Time_Span;
  function "-" (Right : Time_Span) return Time_Span;
  function "*" (Left : Time_Span; Right : Integer) return Time_Span;
  function "*" (Left : Integer; Right : Time_Span) return Time_Span;
  function "/" (Left, Right : Time_Span) return Integer;
  function "/" (Left : Time_Span; Right : Integer) return Time_Span;
```

11
```
  function "abs"(Right : Time_Span) return Time_Span;
```

12

```
  function "<" (Left, Right : Time_Span) return Boolean;
  function "<="(Left, Right : Time_Span) return Boolean;
  function ">" (Left, Right : Time_Span) return Boolean;
  function ">="(Left, Right : Time_Span) return Boolean;
```

13

```
  function To_Duration (TS : Time_Span) return Duration;
  function To_Time_Span (D : Duration) return Time_Span;
```

14

```
  function Nanoseconds  (NS : Integer) return Time_Span;
  function Microseconds (US : Integer) return Time_Span;
  function Milliseconds (MS : Integer) return Time_Span;
```

15
```
  type Seconds_Count is range implementation-defined;
```

16
```
  procedure Split(T : in Time; SC : out Seconds_Count; TS : out Time_Span);
  function Time_Of(SC : Seconds_Count; TS : Time_Span) return Time;
```

17
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Real_Time;
```

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of package Real_Time. 17.a

{*real time*} In this Annex, *real time* is defined to be the physical time as observed in the external environment. The type Time is a *time type* as defined by 9.6; [values of this type may be used in a delay_until_statement.] Values of this type represent segments of an ideal time line. The set of values of the type Time corresponds one-to-one with an implementation-defined range of mathematical integers. 18

Discussion: Informally, real time is defined to be the International Atomic Time (TAI) which is monotonic and nondecreasing. We use it here for the purpose of discussing rate of change and monotonic behavior only. It does not imply anything about the absolute value of Real_Time.Clock, or about Real_Time.Time being synchronized with TAI. It is also used for real time in the metrics, for comparison purposes. 18.a

Implementation Note: The specification of TAI as ''real time'' does not preclude the use of a simulated TAI clock for simulated execution environments. 18.b

{*epoch*} {*unspecified* [partial]} The Time value I represents the half-open real time interval that starts with E+I*Time_Unit and is limited by E+(I+1)*Time_Unit, where Time_Unit is an implementation-defined real number and E is an unspecified origin point, the *epoch*, that is the same for all values of the type Time. It is not specified by the language whether the time values are synchronized with any standard time reference. [For example, E can correspond to the time of system initialization or it can correspond to the epoch of some time standard.] 19

Discussion: E itself does not have to be a proper time value. 19.a

This half-open interval I consists of all real numbers R such that E+I*Time_Unit <= R < E+(I+1)*Time_Unit. 19.b

Values of the type Time_Span represent length of real time duration. The set of values of this type corresponds one-to-one with an implementation-defined range of mathematical integers. The Time_Span value corresponding to the integer I represents the real-time duration I*Time_Unit. 20

Reason: The purpose of this type is similar to Standard.Duration; the idea is to have a type with a higher resolution. 20.a

Discussion: We looked at many possible names for this type: Real_Time.Duration, Fine_Duration, Interval, Time_Interval_Length, Time_Measure, and more. Each of these names had some problems, and we've finally settled for Time_Span. 20.b

Time_First and Time_Last are the smallest and largest values of the Time type, respectively. Similarly, Time_Span_First and Time_Span_Last are the smallest and largest values of the Time_Span type, respectively. 21

A value of type Seconds_Count represents an elapsed time, measured in seconds, since the epoch. 22

Dynamic Semantics

Time_Unit is the smallest amount of real time representable by the Time type; it is expressed in seconds. Time_Span_Unit is the difference between two successive values of the Time type. It is also the smallest positive value of type Time_Span. Time_Unit and Time_Span_Unit represent the same real time duration. {*clock tick*} A *clock tick* is a real time interval during which the clock value (as observed by calling the Clock function) remains constant. Tick is the average length of such intervals. 23

The function To_Duration converts the value TS to a value of type Duration. Similarly, the function To_Time_Span converts the value D to a value of type Time_Span. For both operations, the result is rounded to the nearest exactly representable value (away from zero if exactly halfway between two exactly representable values). 24

To_Duration(Time_Span_Zero) returns 0.0, and To_Time_Span(0.0) returns Time_Span_Zero. 25

26 The functions Nanoseconds, Microseconds, and Milliseconds convert the input parameter to a value of the type Time_Span. NS, US, and MS are interpreted as a number of nanoseconds, microseconds, and milliseconds respectively. The result is rounded to the nearest exactly representable value (away from zero if exactly halfway between two exactly representable values).

26.a **Discussion:** The above does not imply that the Time_Span type will have to accommodate Integer'Last of milliseconds; Constraint_Error is allowed to be raised.

27 The effects of the operators on Time and Time_Span are as for the operators defined for integer types.

27.a **Implementation Note:** Though time values are modeled by integers, the types Time and Time_Span need not be implemented as integers.

28 The function Clock returns the amount of time since the epoch.

29 The effects of the Split and Time_Of operations are defined as follows, treating values of type Time, Time_Span, and Seconds_Count as mathematical integers. The effect of Split(T,SC,TS) is to set SC and TS to values such that T*Time_Unit = SC*1.0 + TS*Time_Unit, and 0.0 <= TS*Time_Unit < 1.0. The value returned by Time_Of(SC,TS) is the value T such that T*Time_Unit = SC*1.0 + TS*Time_Unit.

Implementation Requirements

30 The range of Time values shall be sufficient to uniquely represent the range of real times from program start-up to 50 years later. Tick shall be no greater than 1 millisecond. Time_Unit shall be less than or equal to 20 microseconds.

30.a **Implementation Note:** The required range and accuracy of Time are such that 32-bits worth of seconds and 32-bits worth of ticks in a second could be used as the representation.

31 Time_Span_First shall be no greater than –3600 seconds, and Time_Span_Last shall be no less than 3600 seconds.

31.a **Reason:** This is equivalent to ± one hour and there is still room for a two-microsecond resolution.

32 {*clock jump*} A *clock jump* is the difference between two successive distinct values of the clock (as observed by calling the Clock function). There shall be no backward clock jumps.

Documentation Requirements

33 {*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the values of Time_First, Time_Last, Time_Span_First, Time_Span_Last, Time_Span_Unit, and Tick.

34 The implementation shall document the properties of the underlying time base used for the clock and for type Time, such as the range of values supported and any relevant aspects of the underlying hardware or operating system facilities used.

34.a **Discussion:** If there is an underlying operating system, this might include information about which system call is used to implement the clock. Otherwise, it might include information about which hardware clock is used.

35 The implementation shall document whether or not there is any synchronization with external time references, and if such synchronization exists, the sources of synchronization information, the frequency of synchronization, and the synchronization method applied.

36 The implementation shall document any aspects of the the external environment that could interfere with the clock behavior as defined in this clause.

36.a **Discussion:** For example, the implementation is allowed to rely on the time services of an underlying operating system, and this operating system clock can implement time zones or allow the clock to be reset by an operator. This dependence has to be documented.

Metrics

{*metrics*} For the purpose of the metrics defined in this clause, real time is defined to be the International Atomic Time (TAI). 37

The implementation shall document the following metrics: 38

- An upper bound on the real-time duration of a clock tick. This is a value D such that if t1 and t2 are any real times such that t1 < t2 and $Clock_{t1} = Clock_{t2}$ then t2 – t1 <= D. 39
- An upper bound on the size of a clock jump. 40
- {*drift rate*} An upper bound on the *drift rate* of Clock with respect to real time. This is a real number D such that 41

  $E*(1-D) <= (Clock_{t+E} - Clock_t) <= E*(1+D)$ 42

  provided that: $Clock_t + E*(1+D) <= Time_Last$.
- where $Clock_t$ is the value of Clock at time t, and E is a real time duration not less than 24 hours. The value of E used for this metric shall be reported. 43

  Reason: This metric is intended to provide a measurement of the long term (cumulative) deviation; therefore, 24 hours is the lower bound on the measurement period. On some implementations, this is also the maximum period, since the language does not require that the range of the type Duration be more than 24 hours. On those implementations that support longer-range Duration, longer measurements should be performed. 43.a
- An upper bound on the execution time of a call to the Clock function, in processor clock cycles. 44
- Upper bounds on the execution times of the operators of the types Time and Time_Span, in processor clock cycles. 45

  Implementation Note: A fast implementation of the Clock function involves repeated reading until you get the same value twice. It is highly improbable that more than three reads will be necessary. Arithmetic on time values should not be significantly slower than 64-bit arithmetic in the underlying machine instruction set. 45.a

Implementation Permissions

Implementations targeted to machines with word size smaller than 32 bits need not support the full range and granularity of the Time and Time_Span types. 46

Discussion: These requirements are based on machines with a word size of 32 bits. 46.a

Since the range and granularity are implementation defined, the supported values need to be documented. 46.b

Implementation Advice

When appropriate, implementations should provide configuration mechanisms to change the value of Tick. 47

Reason: This is often needed when the compilation system was originally targeted to a particular processor with a particular interval timer, but the customer uses the same processor with a different interval timer. 47.a

Discussion: Tick is a deferred constant and not a named number specifically for this purpose. 47.b

Implementation Note: This can be achieved either by pre-run-time configuration tools, or by having Tick be initialized (in the package private part) by a function call residing in a board specific module. 47.c

It is recommended that Calendar.Clock and Real_Time.Clock be implemented as transformations of the same time base. 48

It is recommended that the ‘‘best’’ time base which exists in the underlying system be available to the application through Clock. ‘‘Best’’ may mean highest accuracy or largest range. 49

NOTES

50 30 The rules in this clause do not imply that the implementation can protect the user from operator or installation errors which could result in the clock being set incorrectly.

51 31 Time_Unit is the granularity of the Time type. In contrast, Tick represents the granularity of Real_Time.Clock. There is no requirement that these be the same.

D.9 Delay Accuracy

1 [This clause specifies performance requirements for the delay_statement. The rules apply both to delay_relative_statement and to delay_until_statement. Similarly, they apply equally to a simple delay_statement and to one which appears in a delay_alternative.]

Dynamic Semantics

2 The effect of the delay_statement for Real_Time.Time is defined in terms of Real_Time.Clock:

3 • If C_1 is a value of Clock read before a task executes a delay_relative_statement with duration D, and C_2 is a value of Clock read after the task resumes execution following that delay_statement, then $C_2 - C_1 >= D$.

4 • If C is a value of Clock read after a task resumes execution following a delay_until_statement with Real_Time.Time value T, then C >= T.

5 {*potentially blocking operation* [delay_statement]} {*blocking, potentially* [delay_statement]} A simple delay_statement with a negative or zero value for the expiration time does not cause the calling task to be blocked; it is nevertheless a potentially blocking operation (see 9.5.1).

6 When a delay_statement appears in a delay_alternative of a timed_entry_call the selection of the entry call is attempted, regardless of the specified expiration time.

6.a **Ramification:** The effect of these requirements is that one has to always attempt a rendezvous, regardless of the value of the delay expression. This can be tested by issuing a timed_entry_call with an expiration time of zero, to an open entry.

When a delay_statement appears in a selective_accept_alternative, and a call is queued on one of the open entries, the selection of that entry call proceeds, regardless of the value of the delay expression.

Documentation Requirements

7 {*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the minimum value of the delay expression of a delay_relative_statement that causes the task to actually be blocked.

8 The implementation shall document the minimum difference between the value of the delay expression of a delay_until_statement and the value of Real_Time.Clock, that causes the task to actually be blocked.

8.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined aspects of delay_statements.

Metrics

9 {*metrics*} The implementation shall document the following metrics:

10 • An upper bound on the execution time, in processor clock cycles, of a delay_relative_statement whose requested value of the delay expression is less than or equal to zero.

11 • An upper bound on the execution time, in processor clock cycles, of a delay_until_statement whose requested value of the delay expression is less than or equal to the value of Real_Time.Clock at the time of executing the statement. Similarly, for Calendar.Clock.

12 • {*lateness*} {*actual duration*} An upper bound on the *lateness* of a delay_relative_statement, for a positive value of the delay expression, in a situation where the task has sufficient priority to

preempt the processor as soon as it becomes ready, and does not need to wait for any other execution resources. The upper bound is expressed as a function of the value of the delay expression. The lateness is obtained by subtracting the value of the delay expression from the *actual duration*. The actual duration is measured from a point immediately before a task executes the delay_statement to a point immediately after the task resumes execution following this statement.

- An upper bound on the lateness of a delay_until_statement, in a situation where the value of the requested expiration time is after the time the task begins executing the statement, the task has sufficient priority to preempt the processor as soon as it becomes ready, and it does not need to wait for any other execution resources. The upper bound is expressed as a function of the difference between the requested expiration time and the clock value at the time the statement begins execution. The lateness of a delay_until_statement is obtained by subtracting the requested expiration time from the real time that the task resumes execution following this statement. 13

NOTES

32 The execution time of a delay_statement that does not cause the task to be blocked (e.g. ‘‘**delay** 0.0;’’) is of interest in situations where delays are used to achieve voluntary round-robin task dispatching among equal-priority tasks. 14

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The rules regarding a timed_entry_call with a very small positive Duration value, have been tightened to always require the check whether the rendezvous is immediately possible. 14.a

D.10 Synchronous Task Control

[This clause describes a language-defined private semaphore (suspension object), which can be used for *two-stage suspend* operations and as a simple building block for implementing higher-level queues.] 1

Static Semantics

The following language-defined package exists: 2

```
package Ada.Synchronous_Task_Control is                                    3
  type Suspension_Object is limited private;                               4
  procedure Set_True(S : in out Suspension_Object);
  procedure Set_False(S : in out Suspension_Object);
  function Current_State(S : Suspension_Object) return Boolean;
  procedure Suspend_Until_True(S : in out Suspension_Object);
private
     ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Synchronous_Task_Control;
```

The type Suspension_Object is a by-reference type. 5

Implementation Note: The implementation can ensure this by, for example, making the full view a limited record type. 5.a

Dynamic Semantics

An object of the type Suspension_Object has two visible states: true and false. Upon initialization, its value is set to false. 6

Discussion: This object is assumed to be private to the declaring task, i.e. only that task will call Suspend_Until_True on this object, and the count of callers is at most one. Other tasks can, of course, change and query the state of this object. 6.a

The operations Set_True and Set_False are atomic with respect to each other and with respect to Suspend_Until_True; they set the state to true and false respectively. 7

8 Current_State returns the current state of the object.

8.a **Discussion:** This state can change immediately after the operation returns.

9 The procedure Suspend_Until_True blocks the calling task until the state of the object S is true; at that point the task becomes ready and the state of the object becomes false.

10 {*potentially blocking operation* [Suspend_Until_True]} {*blocking, potentially* [Suspend_Until_True]} {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised upon calling Suspend_Until_True if another task is already waiting on that suspension object. Suspend_Until_True is a potentially blocking operation (see 9.5.1).

Implementation Requirements

11 The implementation is required to allow the calling of Set_False and Set_True during any protected action, even one that has its ceiling priority in the Interrupt_Priority range.

D.11 Asynchronous Task Control

1 [This clause introduces a language-defined package to do asynchronous suspend/resume on tasks. It uses a conceptual *held priority* value to represent the task's *held* state.]

Static Semantics

2 The following language-defined library package exists:

3
```
with Ada.Task_Identification;
package Ada.Asynchronous_Task_Control is
  procedure Hold(T : in Ada.Task_Identification.Task_ID);
  procedure Continue(T : in Ada.Task_Identification.Task_ID);
  function Is_Held(T : Ada.Task_Identification.Task_ID)
   return Boolean;
end Ada.Asynchronous_Task_Control;
```

Dynamic Semantics

4 {*task state* [held]} {*held priority*} {*idle task*} After the Hold operation has been applied to a task, the task becomes *held*.

4.a **Discussion:** This state should not be confused with the blocked state as defined in 9.2; the task is still ready.

For each processor there is a conceptual *idle task*, which is always ready. The base priority of the idle task is below System.Any_Priority'First. The *held priority* is a constant of the type integer whose value is below the base priority of the idle task.

5 The Hold operation sets the state of T to held. For a held task: the task's own base priority does not constitute an inheritance source (see D.1), and the value of the held priority is defined to be such a source instead.

5.a **Ramification:** For example, if T is currently inheriting priorities from other sources (e.g. it is executing in a protected action), its active priority does not change, and it continues to execute until it leaves the protected action.

6 The Continue operation resets the state of T to not-held; T's active priority is then reevaluated as described in D.1. [This time, T's base priority is taken into account.]

7 The Is_Held function returns True if and only if T is in the held state.

7.a **Discussion:** Note that the state of T can be changed immediately after Is_Held returns.

As part of these operations, a check is made that the task identified by T is not terminated. {*Tasking_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Tasking_Error is raised if the check fails. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if the value of T is Null_Task_ID. 8

Erroneous Execution

{*erroneous execution*} If any operation in this package is called with a parameter T that specifies a task object that no longer exists, the execution of the program is erroneous. 9

Implementation Permissions

An implementation need not support Asynchronous_Task_Control if it is infeasible to support it in the target environment. 10

Reason: A direct implementation of the Asynchronous_Task_Control semantics using priorities is not necessarily efficient enough. Thus, we envision implementations that use some other mechanism to set the ''held'' state. If there is no other such mechanism, support for Asynchronous_Task_Control might be infeasible, because an implementation in terms of priority would require one idle task per processor. On some systems, programs are not supposed to know how many processors are available, so creating enough idle tasks would be problematic. 10.a

NOTES

33 It is a consequence of the priority rules that held tasks cannot be dispatched on any processor in a partition (unless they are inheriting priorities) since their priorities are defined to be below the priority of any idle task. 11

34 The effect of calling Get_Priority and Set_Priority on a Held task is the same as on any other task. 12

35 Calling Hold on a held task or Continue on a non-held task has no effect. 13

36 The rules affecting queuing are derived from the above rules, in addition to the normal priority rules: 14

- When a held task is on the ready queue, its priority is so low as to never reach the top of the queue as long as there are other tasks on that queue. 15
- If a task is executing in a protected action, inside a rendezvous, or is inheriting priorities from other sources (e.g. when activated), it continues to execute until it is no longer executing the corresponding construct. 16
- If a task becomes held while waiting (as a caller) for a rendezvous to complete, the active priority of the accepting task is not affected. 17
- If a task becomes held while waiting in a selective_accept, and a entry call is issued to one of the open entries, the corresponding accept body executes. When the rendezvous completes, the active priority of the accepting task is lowered to the held priority (unless it is still inheriting from other sources), and the task does not execute until another Continue. 18
- The same holds if the held task is the only task on a protected entry queue whose barrier becomes open. The corresponding entry body executes. 19

D.12 Other Optimizations and Determinism Rules

[This clause describes various requirements for improving the response and determinism in a real-time system.] 1

Implementation Requirements

If the implementation blocks interrupts (see C.3) not as a result of direct user action (e.g. an execution of a protected action) there shall be an upper bound on the duration of this blocking. 2

Ramification: The implementation shall not allow itself to be interrupted when it is in a state where it is unable to support all the language-defined operations permitted in the execution of interrupt handlers. (see 9.5.1). 2.a

The implementation shall recognize entry-less protected types. The overhead of acquiring the execution resource of an object of such a type (see 9.5.1) shall be minimized. 3

Implementation Note: Ideally just a spin-lock. 3.a

In particular, there should not be any overhead due to evaluating entry_barrier conditions.

4 Unchecked_Deallocation shall be supported for terminated tasks that are designated by access types, and shall have the effect of releasing all the storage associated with the task. This includes any run-time system or heap storage that has been implicitly allocated for the task by the implementation.

Documentation Requirements

5 {*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document the upper bound on the duration of interrupt blocking caused by the implementation. If this is different for different interrupts or interrupt priority levels, it should be documented for each case.

5.a **Implementation defined:** The upper bound on the duration of interrupt blocking caused by the implementation.

Metrics

6 {*metrics*} The implementation shall document the following metric:

7 • The overhead associated with obtaining a mutual-exclusive access to an entry-less protected object. This shall be measured in the following way:

8 For a protected object of the form:

9
```
protected Lock is
   procedure Set;
   function Read return Boolean;
private
   Flag : Boolean := False;
end Lock;
```

10
```
protected body Lock is
   procedure Set is
   begin
      Flag := True;
   end Set;
   function Read return Boolean
   Begin
      return Flag;
   end Read;
end Lock;
```

11 The execution time, in processor clock cycles, of a call to Set. This shall be measured between the point just before issuing the call, and the point just after the call completes. The function Read shall be called later to verify that Set was indeed called (and not optimized away). The calling task shall have sufficiently high priority as to not be preempted during the measurement period. The protected object shall have sufficiently high ceiling priority to allow the task to call Set.

12 For a multiprocessor, if supported, the metric shall be reported for the case where no contention (on the execution resource) exists [from tasks executing on other processors].

Annex E
(normative)

Distributed Systems

[This Annex defines facilities for supporting the implementation of distributed systems using multiple partitions working cooperatively as part of a single Ada program.] 1

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 1.a

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*processing node*} {*storage node*} {*distributed system*} A *distributed system* is an interconnection of one or more *processing nodes* (a system resource that has both computational and storage capabilities), and zero or more *storage nodes* (a system resource that has only storage capabilities, with the storage addressable by one or more processing nodes). 2

{*distributed program*} A *distributed program* comprises one or more partitions that execute independently (except when they communicate) in a distributed system. 3

{*configuration (of the partitions of a program)*} The process of mapping the partitions of a program to the nodes in a distributed system is called *configuring the partitions of the program*. 4

Implementation Requirements

The implementation shall provide means for explicitly assigning library units to a partition and for the configuring and execution of a program consisting of multiple partitions on a distributed system; the means are implementation defined. 5

Implementation defined: The means for creating and executing distributed programs. 5.a

Implementation Permissions

An implementation may require that the set of processing nodes of a distributed system be homogeneous. 6

NOTES

1 The partitions comprising a program may be executed on differently configured distributed systems or on a non-distributed system without requiring recompilation. A distributed program may be partitioned differently from the same set of library units without recompilation. The resulting execution is semantically equivalent. 7

2 A distributed program retains the same type safety as the equivalent single partition program. 8

E.1 Partitions

[The partitions of a distributed program are classified as either active or passive.] 1

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*active partition*} {*passive partition*} An *active partition* is a partition as defined in 10.2. A *passive partition* is a partition that has no thread of control of its own, whose library units are all preelaborated, and whose data and subprograms are accessible to one or more active partitions. 2

Discussion: In most situations, a passive partition does not execute, and does not have a ''real'' environment task. Any execution involved in its elaboration and initialization occurs before it comes into existence in a distributed program (like most preelaborated entities). Likewise, there is no concrete meaning to passive partition termination. 2.a

3 A passive partition shall include only library_items that either are declared pure or are shared passive (see 10.2.1 and E.2.1).

4 An active partition shall be configured on a processing node. A passive partition shall be configured either on a storage node or on a processing node.

5 The configuration of the partitions of a program onto a distributed system shall be consistent with the possibility for data references or calls between the partitions implied by their semantic dependences. {*remote access*} Any reference to data or call of a subprogram across partitions is called a *remote access*.

5.a **Discussion:** For example, an active partition that includes a unit with a semantic dependence on the declaration of another RCI package of some other active partition has to be connected to that other partition by some sort of a message passing mechanism.

5.b A passive partition that is accessible to an active partition should have its storage addressable to the processor(s) of the active partition. The processor(s) should be able to read and write from/to that storage, as well as to perform ‘‘read-modify-write’’ operations (in order to support entry-less protected objects).

Dynamic Semantics

6 {*elaboration (partition)*} A library_item is elaborated as part of the elaboration of each partition that includes it. If a normal library unit (see E.2) has state, then a separate copy of the state exists in each active partition that elaborates it. [The state evolves independently in each such partition.]

6.a **Ramification:** Normal library units cannot be included in passive partitions.

7 {*termination (of a partition)*} {*abort (of a partition)*} {*inaccessible partition*} {*accessible partition*} [An active partition *terminates* when its environment task terminates.] A partition becomes *inaccessible* if it terminates or if it is *aborted*. An active partition is aborted when its environment task is aborted. In addition, if a partition fails during its elaboration, it becomes inaccessible to other partitions. Other implementation-defined events can also result in a partition becoming inaccessible.

7.a **Implementation defined:** Any events that can result in a partition becoming inaccessible.

8 For a prefix D that denotes a library-level declaration, excepting a declaration of or within a declared-pure library unit, the following attribute is defined:

9 D’Partition_ID Denotes a value of the type *universal_integer* that identifies the partition in which D was elaborated. If D denotes the declaration of a remote call interface library unit (see E.2.3) the given partition is the one where the body of D was elaborated.

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

10 {*bounded error*} It is a bounded error for there to be cyclic elaboration dependences between the active partitions of a single distributed program. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The possible effects are deadlock during elaboration, or the raising of Program_Error in one or all of the active partitions involved.

Implementation Permissions

11 An implementation may allow multiple active or passive partitions to be configured on a single processing node, and multiple passive partitions to be configured on a single storage node. In these cases, the scheduling policies, treatment of priorities, and management of shared resources between these partitions are implementation defined.

11.a **Implementation defined:** The scheduling policies, treatment of priorities, and management of shared resources between partitions in certain cases.

An implementation may allow separate copies of an active partition to be configured on different processing nodes, and to provide appropriate interactions between the copies to present a consistent state of the partition to other active partitions. 12

Ramification: The language does not specify the nature of these interactions, nor the actual level of consistency preserved. 12.a

In an implementation, the partitions of a distributed program need not be loaded and elaborated all at the same time; they may be loaded and elaborated one at a time over an extended period of time. An implementation may provide facilities to abort and reload a partition during the execution of a distributed program. 13

An implementation may allow the state of some of the partitions of a distributed program to persist while other partitions of the program terminate and are later reinvoked. 14

NOTES

3 Library units are grouped into partitions after compile time, but before run time. At compile time, only the relevant library unit properties are identified using categorization pragmas. 15

4 The value returned by the Partition_ID attribute can be used as a parameter to implementation-provided subprograms in order to query information about the partition. 16

E.2 Categorization of Library Units

[Library units can be categorized according to the role they play in a distributed program. Certain restrictions are associated with each category to ensure that the semantics of a distributed program remain close to the semantics for a nondistributed program.] 1

{*categorization pragma* [distributed]} {*pragma, categorization* [distributed]} {*library unit pragma* [categorization pragmas]} {*pragma, library unit* [categorization pragmas]} {*categorized library unit*} A *categorization pragma* is a library unit pragma (see 10.1.5) that restricts the declarations, child units, or semantic dependences of the library unit to which it applies. A *categorized library unit* is a library unit to which a categorization pragma applies. 2

The pragmas Shared_Passive, Remote_Types, and Remote_Call_Interface are categorization pragmas. In addition, for the purposes of this Annex, the pragma Pure (see 10.2.1) is considered a categorization pragma. 3

{*shared passive library unit*} A library package or generic library package is called a *shared passive* library unit if a Shared_Passive pragma applies to it. {*remote types library unit*} A library package or generic library package is called a *remote types* library unit if a Remote_Types pragma applies to it. {*remote call interface*} A library package or generic library package is called a *remote call interface* if a Remote_Call_Interface pragma applies to it. {*normal library unit*} A *normal library unit* is one to which no categorization pragma applies. 4

[The various categories of library units and the associated restrictions are described in this clause and its subclauses. The categories are related hierarchically in that the library units of one category can depend semantically only on library units of that category or an earlier one, except that the body of a remote types or remote call interface library unit is unrestricted. 5

The overall hierarchy (including declared pure) is as follows: 6

7 Declared Pure — Can depend only on other declared pure library units;

8 Shared Passive — Can depend only on other shared passive or declared pure library units;

9 Remote Types — The declaration of the library unit can depend only on other remote types library units, or one of the above; the body of the library unit is unrestricted;

10 Remote Call Interface — The declaration of the library unit can depend only on other remote call interfaces, or one of the above; the body of the library unit is unrestricted;

11 Normal — Unrestricted.

12 Declared pure and shared passive library units are preelaborated. The declaration of a remote types or remote call interface library unit is required to be preelaborable.]

Implementation Requirements

13 For a given library-level type declared in a preelaborated library unit or in the declaration of a remote types or remote call interface library unit, the implementation shall choose the same representation for the type upon each elaboration of the type's declaration for different partitions of the same program.

Implementation Permissions

14 Implementations are allowed to define other categorization pragmas.

E.2.1 Shared Passive Library Units

1 [A shared passive library unit is used for managing global data shared between active partitions. The restrictions on shared passive library units prevent the data or tasks of one active partition from being accessible to another active partition through references implicit in objects declared in the shared passive library unit.]

Language Design Principles

1.a The restrictions governing a shared passive library unit are designed to ensure that objects and subprograms declared in the package can be used safely from multiple active partitions, even though the active partitions live in different address spaces, and have separate run-time systems.

Syntax

2 {*categorization pragma* [Shared_Passive]} {*pragma*, *categorization* [Shared_Passive]} The form of a pragma Shared_Passive is as follows:

3 **pragma** Shared_Passive[(*library_unit*_name)];

Legality Rules

4 {*shared passive library unit*} A *shared passive library unit* is a library unit to which a Shared_Passive pragma applies. The following restrictions apply to such a library unit:

5 • [it shall be preelaborable (see 10.2.1);]

5.a **Ramification:** It cannot contain library-level declarations of protected objects with entries, nor of task objects. Task objects are disallowed because passive partitions don't have any threads of control of their own, nor any run-time system of their own. Protected objects with entries are disallowed because an entry queue contains references to calling tasks, and that would require in effect a pointer from a passive partition back to a task in some active partition.

6 • it shall depend semantically only upon declared pure or shared passive library units;

6.a **Reason:** Shared passive packages cannot depend semantically upon remote types packages because the values of an access type declared in a remote types package refer to the local heap of the active partition including the remote types package.

- it shall not contain a library-level declaration of an access type that designates a class-wide type, task type, or protected type with entry_declarations; if the shared passive library unit is generic, it shall not contain a declaration for such an access type unless the declaration is nested within a body other than a package_body. 7

  Reason: These kinds of access types are disallowed because the object designated by an access value of such a type could contain an implicit reference back to the active partition on whose behalf the designated object was created. 7.a

{*accessibility* [from shared passive library units]} {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding the definition of accessibility given in 3.10.2, the declaration of a library unit P1 is not accessible from within the declarative region of a shared passive library unit P2, unless the shared passive library unit P2 depends semantically on P1. 8

Discussion: We considered a more complex rule, but dropped it. This is the simplest rule that recognizes that a shared passive package may outlive some other library package, unless it depends semantically on that package. In a nondistributed program, all library packages are presumed to have the same lifetime. 8.a

Implementations may define additional pragmas that force two library packages to be in the same partition, or to have the same lifetime, which would allow this rule to be relaxed in the presence of such pragmas. 8.b

Static Semantics

{*preelaborated* [partial]} A shared passive library unit is preelaborated. 9

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} A shared passive library unit shall be assigned to at most one partition within a given program. 10

{*compilation units needed* [shared passive library unit]} {*needed* [shared passive library unit]} {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding the rule given in 10.2, a compilation unit in a given partition does not *need* (in the sense of 10.2) the shared passive library units on which it depends semantically to be included in that same partition; they will typically reside in separate passive partitions. 11

E.2.2 Remote Types Library Units

[A remote types library unit supports the definition of types intended for use in communication between active partitions.] 1

Language Design Principles

The restrictions governing a remote types package are similar to those for a declared pure package. However, the restrictions are relaxed deliberately to allow such a package to contain declarations that violate the stateless property of pure packages, though it is presumed that any state-dependent properties are essentially invisible outside the package. 1.a

Syntax

{*categorization pragma* [Remote_Types]} {*pragma, categorization* [Remote_Types]} The form of a pragma Remote_Types is as follows: 2

pragma Remote_Types[(*library_unit*_name)]; 3

Legality Rules

{*remote types library unit*} A *remote types library unit* is a library unit to which the pragma Remote_Types applies. The following restrictions apply to the declaration of such a library unit: 4

- [it shall be preelaborable;] 5
- it shall depend semantically only on declared pure, shared passive, or other remote types library units; 6

- it shall not contain the declaration of any variable within the visible part of the library unit;

Reason: This is essentially a ‘‘methodological’’ restriction. A separate copy of a remote types package is included in each partition that references it, just like a normal package. Nevertheless, a remote types package is thought of as an ‘‘essentially pure’’ package for defining types to be used for interpartition communication, and it could be misleading to declare visible objects when no remote data access is actually being provided.

- if the full view of a type declared in the visible part of the library unit has a part that is of a non-remote access type, then that access type, or the type of some part that includes the access type subcomponent, shall have user-specified Read and Write attributes.

Reason: This is to prevent the use of the predefined Read and Write attributes of an access type as part of the Read and Write attributes of a visible type.

{*remote access type*} An access type declared in the visible part of a remote types or remote call interface library unit is called a *remote access type*. {*remote access-to-subprogram type*} {*remote access-to-class-wide type*} Such a type shall be either an access-to-subprogram type or a general access type that designates a class-wide limited private type.

The following restrictions apply to the use of a remote access-to-subprogram type:

- A value of a remote access-to-subprogram type shall be converted only to another (subtype-conformant) remote access-to-subprogram type;
- The prefix of an Access attribute_reference that yields a value of a remote access-to-subprogram type shall statically denote a (subtype-conformant) remote subprogram.

The following restrictions apply to the use of a remote access-to-class-wide type:

- The primitive subprograms of the corresponding specific limited private type shall only have access parameters if they are controlling formal parameters; the types of all the non-controlling formal parameters shall have Read and Write attributes.
- A value of a remote access-to-class-wide type shall be explicitly converted only to another remote access-to-class-wide type;
- A value of a remote access-to-class-wide type shall be dereferenced (or implicitly converted to an anonymous access type) only as part of a dispatching call where the value designates a controlling operand of the call (see E.4, ‘‘Remote Subprogram Calls’’);
- The Storage_Pool and Storage_Size attributes are not defined for remote access-to-class-wide types; the expected type for an allocator shall not be a remote access-to-class-wide type; a remote access-to-class-wide type shall not be an actual parameter for a generic formal access type;

Reason: All three of these restrictions are because there is no storage pool associated with a remote access-to-class-wide type.

NOTES

5 A remote types library unit need not be pure, and the types it defines may include levels of indirection implemented by using access types. User-specified Read and Write attributes (see 13.13.2) provide for sending values of such a type between active partitions, with Write marshalling the representation, and Read unmarshalling any levels of indirection.

E.2.3 Remote Call Interface Library Units

[A remote call interface library unit can be used as an interface for remote procedure calls (RPCs) (or remote function calls) between active partitions.]

Language Design Principles

The restrictions governing a remote call interface library unit are intended to ensure that the values of the actual parameters in a remote call can be meaningfully sent between two active partitions. 1.a

Syntax

{*categorization pragma* [Remote_Call_Interface]} {*pragma, categorization* [Remote_Call_Interface]} The form of a pragma Remote_Call_Interface is as follows: 2

pragma Remote_Call_Interface[(*library_unit*_name)]; 3

The form of a pragma All_Calls_Remote is as follows: 4

pragma All_Calls_Remote[(*library_unit*_name)]; 5

{*library unit pragma* [All_Calls_Remote]} {*pragma, library unit* [All_Calls_Remote]} A pragma All_Calls_Remote is a library unit pragma. 6

Legality Rules

{*remote call interface*} {*RCI (library unit)*} {*RCI (package)*} {*RCI (generic)*} {*remote subprogram*} A *remote call interface (RCI)* is a library unit to which the pragma Remote_Call_Interface applies. A subprogram declared in the visible part of such a library unit is called a *remote subprogram*. 7

The declaration of an RCI library unit shall be preelaborable (see 10.2.1), and shall depend semantically only upon declared pure, shared passive, remote types, or other remote call interface library units. 8

In addition, the following restrictions apply to the visible part of an RCI library unit: 9

- it shall not contain the declaration of a variable; 10

  Reason: Remote call interface packages do not provide remote data access. A shared passive package has to be used for that. 10.a

- it shall not contain the declaration of a limited type; 11

  Reason: We disallow the declaration of task and protected types, since calling an entry or a protected subprogram implicitly passes an object of a limited type (the target task or protected object). We disallow other limited types since we require that such types have user-defined Read and Write attributes, but we certainly don't want the Read and Write attributes themselves to involve remote calls (thereby defeating their purpose of marshalling the value for remote calls). 11.a

- it shall not contain a nested generic_declaration; 12

  Reason: This is disallowed because the body of the nested generic would presumably have access to data inside the body of the RCI package, and if instantiated in a different partition, remote data access might result, which is not supported. 12.a

- it shall not contain the declaration of a subprogram to which a pragma Inline applies; 13

- it shall not contain a subprogram (or access-to-subprogram) declaration whose profile has an access parameter, or a formal parameter of a limited type unless that limited type has user-specified Read and Write attributes; 14

- any public child of the library unit shall be a remote call interface library unit. 15

  Reason: No restrictions apply to the private part of an RCI package, and since a public child can ''see'' the private part of its parent, such a child must itself have a Remote_Call_Interface pragma, and be assigned to the same partition (see below). 15.a

  Discussion: We considered making the public child of an RCI package implicitly RCI, but it seemed better to require an explicit pragma to avoid any confusion. 15.b

  Note that there is no need for a private child to be an RCI package, since it can only be seen from the body of its parent or its siblings, all of which are required to be in the same active partition. 15.c

16 If a pragma All_Calls_Remote applies to a library unit, the library unit shall be a remote call interface.

Post-Compilation Rules

17 {*post-compilation rules*} A remote call interface library unit shall be assigned to at most one partition of a given program. A remote call interface library unit whose parent is also an RCI library unit shall be assigned only to the same partition as its parent.

17.a **Implementation Note:** The declaration of an RCI package, with a calling-stub body, is automatically included in all active partitions with compilation units that depend on it. However the whole RCI library unit, including its (non-stub) body, will only be in one of the active partitions.

18 {*compilation units needed* [remote call interface]} {*needed* [remote call interface]} {*notwithstanding*} Notwithstanding the rule given in 10.2, a compilation unit in a given partition that semantically depends on the declaration of an RCI library unit, *needs* (in the sense of 10.2) only the declaration of the RCI library unit, not the body, to be included in that same partition. [Therefore, the body of an RCI library unit is included only in the partition to which the RCI library unit is explicitly assigned.]

Implementation Requirements

19 If a pragma All_Calls_Remote applies to a given RCI library package, then the implementation shall route any call to a subprogram of the RCI package from outside the declarative region of the package through the Partition Communication Subsystem (PCS); see E.5. Calls to such subprograms from within the declarative region of the package are defined to be local and shall not go through the PCS.

19.a **Discussion:** Without this pragma, it is presumed that most implementations will make direct calls if the call originates in the same partition as that of the RCI package. With this pragma, all calls from outside the subsystem rooted at the RCI package are treated like calls from outside the partition, ensuring that the PCS is involved in all such calls (for debugging, redundancy, etc.).

19.b **Reason:** There is no point to force local calls (or calls from children) to go through the PCS, since on the target system, these calls are always local, and all the units are in the same active partition.

Implementation Permissions

20 An implementation need not support the Remote_Call_Interface pragma nor the All_Calls_Remote pragma. [Explicit message-based communication between active partitions can be supported as an alternative to RPC.]

20.a **Ramification:** Of course, it is pointless to support the All_Calls_Remote pragma if the Remote_Call_Interface pragma (or some approximate equivalent) is not supported.

E.3 Consistency of a Distributed System

1 [This clause defines attributes and rules associated with verifying the consistency of a distributed program.]

Language Design Principles

1.a The rules guarantee that remote call interface and shared passive packages are consistent among all partitions prior to the execution of a distributed program, so that the semantics of the distributed program are well defined.

Static Semantics

2 For a prefix P that statically denotes a program unit, the following attributes are defined:

3 P’Version Yields a value of the predefined type String that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the declaration of the program unit.

4 P’Body_Version Yields a value of the predefined type String that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the body (but not any subunits) of the program unit.

{*version (of a compilation unit)*} The *version* of a compilation unit changes whenever the version changes for any compilation unit on which it depends semantically. The version also changes whenever the compilation unit itself changes in a semantically significant way. It is implementation defined whether there are other events (such as recompilation) that result in the version of a compilation unit changing. 5

Implementation defined: Events that cause the version of a compilation unit to change. 5.a

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

{*bounded error*} {*unit consistency*} In a distributed program, a library unit is *consistent* if the same version of its declaration is used throughout. It is a bounded error to elaborate a partition of a distributed program that contains a compilation unit that depends on a different version of the declaration of a shared passive or RCI library unit than that included in the partition to which the shared passive or RCI library unit was assigned. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} As a result of this error, Program_Error can be raised in one or both partitions during elaboration; in any case, the partitions become inaccessible to one another. 6

Ramification: Because a version changes if anything on which it depends undergoes a version change, requiring consistency for shared passive and remote call interface library units is sufficient to ensure consistency for the declared pure and remote types library units that define the types used for the objects and parameters through which interpartition communication takes place. 6.a

Note that we do not require matching Body_Versions; it is irrelevant for shared passive and remote call interface packages, since only one copy of their body exists in a distributed program (in the absence of implicit replication), and we allow the bodies to differ for declared pure and remote types packages from partition to partition, presuming that the differences are due to required error corrections that took place during the execution of a long-running distributed program. The Body_Version attribute provides a means for performing stricter consistency checks. 6.b

E.4 Remote Subprogram Calls

{*remote subprogram call*} {*asynchronous remote procedure call* [distributed]} {*calling partition*} {*called partition*} {*remote subprogram binding*} A *remote subprogram call* is a subprogram call that invokes the execution of a subprogram in another partition. The partition that originates the remote subprogram call is the *calling partition*, and the partition that executes the corresponding subprogram body is the *called partition*. Some remote procedure calls are allowed to return prior to the completion of subprogram execution. These are called *asynchronous remote procedure calls*. 1

There are three different ways of performing a remote subprogram call: 2

- As a direct call on a (remote) subprogram explicitly declared in a remote call interface; 3
- As an indirect call through a value of a remote access-to-subprogram type; 4
- As a dispatching call with a controlling operand designated by a value of a remote access-to-class-wide type. 5

The first way of calling corresponds to a *static* binding between the calling and the called partition. The latter two ways correspond to a *dynamic* binding between the calling and the called partition. 6

A remote call interface library unit (see E.2.3) defines the remote subprograms or remote access types used for remote subprogram calls. 7

Language Design Principles

Remote subprogram calls are standardized since the RPC paradigm is widely-used, and establishing an interface to it in the annex will increase the portability and reusability of distributed programs. 7.a

Legality Rules

8 In a dispatching call with two or more controlling operands, if one controlling operand is designated by a value of a remote access-to-class-wide type, then all shall be.

Dynamic Semantics

9 {*marshalling*} {*unmarshalling*} {*execution* [remote subprogram call]} For the execution of a remote subprogram call, subprogram parameters (and later the results, if any) are passed using a stream-oriented representation (see 13.13.1) [which is suitable for transmission between partitions]. This action is called *marshalling*. *Unmarshalling* is the reverse action of reconstructing the parameters or results from the stream-oriented representation.[Marshalling is performed initially as part of the remote subprogram call in the calling partition; unmarshalling is done in the called partition. After the remote subprogram completes, marshalling is performed in the called partition, and finally unmarshalling is done in the calling partition.]

10 {*calling stub*} {*receiving stub*} A *calling stub* is the sequence of code that replaces the subprogram body of a remotely called subprogram in the calling partition. A *receiving stub* is the sequence of code (the ‘‘wrapper’’) that receives a remote subprogram call on the called partition and invokes the appropriate subprogram body.

10.a **Discussion:** The use of the term *stub* in this annex should not be confused with body_stub as defined in 10.1.3. The term *stub* is used here because it is a commonly understood term when talking about the RPC paradigm.

11 {*at-most-once execution*} Remote subprogram calls are executed at most once, that is, if the subprogram call returns normally, then the called subprogram’s body was executed exactly once.

12 The task executing a remote subprogram call blocks until the subprogram in the called partition returns, unless the call is asynchronous. For an asynchronous remote procedure call, the calling task can become ready before the procedure in the called partition returns.

13 {*cancellation of a remote subprogram call*} If a construct containing a remote call is aborted, the remote subprogram call is *cancelled*. Whether the execution of the remote subprogram is immediately aborted as a result of the cancellation is implementation defined.

13.a **Implementation defined:** Whether the execution of the remote subprogram is immediately aborted as a result of cancellation.

14 If a remote subprogram call is received by a called partition before the partition has completed its elaboration, the call is kept pending until the called partition completes its elaboration (unless the call is cancelled by the calling partition prior to that).

15 If an exception is propagated by a remotely called subprogram, and the call is not an asynchronous call, the corresponding exception is reraised at the point of the remote subprogram call. For an asynchronous call, if the remote procedure call returns prior to the completion of the remotely called subprogram, any exception is lost.

16 The exception Communication_Error (see E.5) is raised if a remote call cannot be completed due to difficulties in communicating with the called partition.

17 {*potentially blocking operation* [remote subprogram call]} {*blocking, potentially* [remote subprogram call]} All forms of remote subprogram calls are potentially blocking operations (see 9.5.1).

17.a **Reason:** Asynchronous remote procedure calls are potentially blocking since the implementation may require waiting for the availability of shared resources to initiate the remote call.

{*Accessibility_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Accessibility_Check)*} In a remote subprogram call with a formal parameter of a class-wide type, a check is made that the tag of the actual parameter identifies a tagged type declared in a declared-pure or shared passive library unit, or in the visible part of a remote types or remote call interface library unit. {*Program_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Program_Error is raised if this check fails. 18

Discussion: This check makes certain that the specific type passed in an RPC satisfies the rules for a "communicable" type. Normally this is guaranteed by the compile-time restrictions on remote call interfaces. However, with class-wide types, it is possible to pass an object whose tag identifies a type declared outside the "safe" packages. 18.a

This is considered an accessibility_check since only the types declared in "safe" packages are considered truly "global" (cross-partition). Other types are local to a single partition. This is analogous to the "accessibility" of global vs. local declarations in a single-partition program. 18.b

This rule replaces a rule from an earlier version of Ada 9X which was given in the subclause on Remote Types Library Units (now E.2.2, ‘‘Remote Types Library Units’’). That rule tried to prevent "bad" types from being sent by arranging for their tags to mismatch between partitions. However, that interfered with other uses of tags. The new rule allows tags to agree in all partitions, even for those types which are not "safe" to pass in an RPC. 18.c

{*Partition_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Partition_Check)*} In a dispatching call with two or more controlling operands that are designated by values of a remote access-to-class-wide type, a check is made [(in addition to the normal Tag_Check — see 11.5)] that all the remote access-to-class-wide values originated from Access attribute_references that were evaluated by tasks of the same active partition. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails. 19

Implementation Note: When a remote access-to-class-wide value is created by an Access attribute_reference, the identity of the active partition that evaluated the attribute_reference should be recorded in the representation of the remote access value. 19.a

Implementation Requirements

The implementation of remote subprogram calls shall conform to the PCS interface as defined by the specification of the language-defined package System.RPC (see E.5). The calling stub shall use the Do_RPC procedure unless the remote procedure call is asynchronous in which case Do_APC shall be used. On the receiving side, the corresponding receiving stub shall be invoked by the RPC-receiver. 20

Implementation Note: One possible implementation model is as follows: 20.a

The code for calls to subprograms declared in an RCI package is generated normally, that is, the call-site is the same as for a local subprogram call. The code for the remotely callable subprogram bodies is also generated normally. Subprogram’s prologue and epilogue are the same as for a local call. 20.b

When compiling the specification of an RCI package, the compiler generates calling stubs for each visible subprogram. Similarly, when compiling the body of an RCI package, the compiler generates receiving stubs for each visible subprogram together with the appropriate tables to allow the RPC-receiver to locate the correct receiving stub. 20.c

For the statically bound remote calls, the identity of the remote partition is statically determined (it is resolved at configuration/link time). 20.d

The calling stub operates as follows: 20.e

- It allocates (or reuses) a stream of Params_Stream_Type of Initial_Size, and initializes it by repeatedly calling Write operations, first to identify which remote subprogram in the receiving partition is being called, and then to pass the incoming value of each of the **in** and **in out** parameters of the call. 20.f
- It allocates (or reuses) a stream for the Result, unless a pragma Asynchronous is applied to the procedure. 20.g
- It calls Do_RPC unless a pragma Asynchronous is applied to the procedure in which case it calls Do_APC. An access value designating the message stream allocated and initialized above is passed as the Params parameter. An access value designating the Result stream is passed as the Result parameter. 20.h
- If the pragma Asynchronous is not specified for the procedure, Do_RPC blocks until a reply message arrives, and then returns to the calling stub. The stub returns after extracting from the Result stream, using Read operations, the **in out** and **out** parameters or the function result. If the reply message indicates that 20.i

the execution of the remote subprogram propagated an exception, the exception is propagated from Do_RPC to the calling stub, and thence to the point of the original remote subprogram call. If Do_RPC detects that communication with the remote partition has failed, it propagates Communication_Error.

20.j On the receiving side, the RPC-receiver procedure operates as follows:

20.k • It is called from the PCS when a remote-subprogram-call message is received. The call originates in some remote call receiver task executed and managed in the context of the PCS.

20.l • It extracts information from the stream to identify the appropriate receiving stub.

20.m • The receiving stub extracts the **in** and **in out** parameters using Read from the stream designated by the Params parameter.

20.n • The receiving stub calls the actual subprogram body and, upon completion of the subprogram, uses Write to insert the results into the stream pointed to by the Result parameter. The receiving stub returns to the RPC-receiver procedure which in turn returns to the PCS. If the actual subprogram body propagates an exception, it is propagated by the RPC-receiver to the PCS, which handles the exception, and indicates in the reply message that the execution of the subprogram body propagated an exception. The exception occurrence can be represented in the reply message using the Write attribute of Ada.Exceptions.-Exception_Occurrence.

20.o For remote access-to-subprogram types:

20.p A value of a remote access-to-subprogram type can be represented by the following components: a reference to the remote partition, an index to the package containing the remote subprogram, and an index to the subprogram within the package. The values of these components are determined at run time when the remote access value is created. These three components serve the same purpose when calling Do_APC/RPC, as in the statically bound remote calls; the only difference is that they are evaluated dynamically.

20.q For remote access-to-class-wide types:

20.r For each remote access-to-class-wide type, a calling stub is generated for each dispatching operation of the designated type. In addition, receiving stubs are generated to perform the remote dispatching operations in the called partition. The appropriate subprogram_body is determined as for a local dispatching call once the receiving stub has been reached.

20.s A value of a remote access-to-class-wide type can be represented with the following components: a reference to the remote partition, an index to a table (created one per each such access type) containing addresses of all the dispatching operations of the designated type, and an access value designating the actual remote object.

20.t Alternatively, a remote access-to-class-wide value can be represented as a normal access value, pointing to a "stub" object which in turn contains the information mentioned above. A call on any dispatching operation of such a stub object does the remote call, if necessary, using the information in the stub object to locate the target partition, etc. This approach has the advantage that less special-casing is required in the compiler. All access values can remain just a simple address.

20.u {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For a call to Do_RPC or Do_APC: The partition ID of all controlling operands are checked for equality (a Constraint_Error is raised if this check fails). The partition ID value is used for the Partition parameter. An index into the *tagged-type-descriptor* is created. This index points to the receiving stub of the class-wide operation. This index and the index to the table (described above) are written to the stream. Then, the actual parameters are marshalled into the message stream. For a controlling operand, only the access value designating the remote object is required (the other two components are already present in the other parameters).

20.v On the called partition (after the RPC-receiver has transferred control to the appropriate receiving stub) the parameters are first unmarshalled. Then, the tags of the controlling operands (obtained by dereferencing the pointer to the object) are checked for equality. {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the check fails Constraint_Error is raised and propagated back to the calling partition, unless it is a result of an asynchronous call. Finally, a dispatching call to the specific subprogram (based on the controlling object's tag) is made. Note that since this subprogram is not in an RCI package, no specific stub is generated for it, it is called normally from the *dispatching stub*.

NOTES

21 6 A given active partition can both make and receive remote subprogram calls. Thus, an active partition can act as both a client and a server.

22 7 If a given exception is propagated by a remote subprogram call, but the exception does not exist in the calling partition, the exception can be handled by an **others** choice or be propagated to and handled by a third partition.

Discussion: This situation can happen in a case of dynamically nested remote subprogram calls, where an intermediate call executes in a partition that does not include the library unit that defines the exception. 22.a

E.4.1 Pragma Asynchronous

[This subclause introduces the pragma Asynchronous which allows a remote subprogram call to return prior to completion of the execution of the corresponding remote subprogram body.] 1

Syntax

The form of a pragma Asynchronous is as follows: 2

pragma Asynchronous(local_name); 3

Legality Rules

The local_name of a pragma Asynchronous shall denote either: 4

- One or more remote procedures; the formal parameters of the procedure(s) shall all be of mode **in**; 5
- The first subtype of a remote access-to-procedure type; the formal parameters of the designated profile of the type shall all be of mode **in**; 6
- The first subtype of a remote access-to-class-wide type. 7

Static Semantics

{*representation pragma* [Asynchronous]} {*pragma, representation* [Asynchronous]} A pragma Asynchronous is a representation pragma. When applied to a type, it specifies the type-related *asynchronous* aspect of the type. 8

Dynamic Semantics

{*remote procedure call (asynchronous)*} {*asynchronous (remote procedure call)*} A remote call is *asynchronous* if it is a call to a procedure, or a call through a value of an access-to-procedure type, to which a pragma Asynchronous applies. In addition, if a pragma Asynchronous applies to a remote access-to-class-wide type, then a dispatching call on a procedure with a controlling operand designated by a value of the type is asynchronous if the formal parameters of the procedure are all of mode **in**. 9

Implementation Requirements

Asynchronous remote procedure calls shall be implemented such that the corresponding body executes at most once as a result of the call. 10

To be honest: It is not clear that this rule can be tested or even defined formally. 10.a

E.4.2 Example of Use of a Remote Access-to-Class-Wide Type

Examples

Example of using a remote access-to-class-wide type to achieve dynamic binding across active partitions: 1

```
package Tapes is                                                                    2
   pragma Pure(Tapes);
   type Tape is abstract tagged limited private;
   -- Primitive dispatching operations where
   -- Tape is controlling operand
   procedure Copy (From, To : access Tape; Num_Recs : in Natural) is abstract;
   procedure Rewind (T : access Tape) is abstract;
   -- More operations
private
   type Tape is ...
end Tapes;
```

3
```
with Tapes;
package Name_Server is
   pragma Remote_Call_Interface;
   -- Dynamic binding to remote operations is achieved
   -- using the access-to-limited-class-wide type Tape_Ptr
   type Tape_Ptr is access all Tapes.Tape'Class;
   -- The following statically bound remote operations
   -- allow for a name-server capability in this example
   function  Find     (Name : String) return Tape_Ptr;
   procedure Register (Name : in String; T : in Tape_Ptr);
   procedure Remove   (T : in Tape_Ptr);
   -- More operations
end Name_Server;
```

4
```
package Tape_Driver is
   -- Declarations are not shown, they are irrelevant here
end Tape_Driver;
```

5
```
with Tapes, Name_Server;
package body Tape_Driver is
   type New_Tape is new Tapes.Tape with ...
   procedure Copy
    (From, To : access New_Tape; Num_Recs: in Natural) is
   begin
     . . .
   end Copy;
   procedure Rewind (T : access New_Tape) is
   begin
     . . .
   end Rewind;
   -- Objects remotely accessible through use
   -- of Name_Server operations
   Tape1, Tape2 : aliased New_Tape;
begin
   Name_Server.Register ("NINE-TRACK",  Tape1'Access);
   Name_Server.Register ("SEVEN-TRACK", Tape2'Access);
end Tape_Driver;
```

6
```
with Tapes, Name_Server;
-- Tape_Driver is not needed and thus not mentioned in the with_clause
procedure Tape_Client is
   T1, T2 : Name_Server.Tape_Ptr;
begin
   T1 := Name_Server.Find ("NINE-TRACK");
   T2 := Name_Server.Find ("SEVEN-TRACK");
   Tapes.Rewind (T1);
   Tapes.Rewind (T2);
   Tapes.Copy (T1, T2, 3);
end Tape_Client;
```

7 *Notes on the example*:

7.a **Discussion:** The example does not show the case where tapes are removed from or added to the system. In the former case, an appropriate exception needs to be defined to instruct the client to use another tape. In the latter, the Name_Server should have a query function visible to the clients to inform them about the availability of the tapes in the system.

8

9 • The package Tapes provides the necessary declarations of the type and its primitive operations.

10 • Name_Server is a remote call interface package and is elaborated in a separate active partition to provide the necessary naming services (such as Register and Find) to the entire distributed program through remote subprogram calls.

11 • Tape_Driver is a normal package that is elaborated in a partition configured on the processing node that is connected to the tape device(s). The abstract operations are overridden to

support the locally declared tape devices (Tape1, Tape2). The package is not visible to its clients, but it exports the tape devices (as remote objects) through the services of the Name_Server. This allows for tape devices to be dynamically added, removed or replaced without requiring the modification of the clients' code.

- The Tape_Client procedure references only declarations in the Tapes and Name_Server packages. Before using a tape for the first time, it needs to query the Name_Server for a system-wide identity for that tape. From then on, it can use that identity to access the tape device. 12

- Values of remote access type Tape_Ptr include the necessary information to complete the remote dispatching operations that result from dereferencing the controlling operands T1 and T2. 13

E.5 Partition Communication Subsystem

{*partition communication subsystem (PCS)*} {*PCS (partition communication subsystem)*} [The *Partition Communication Subsystem* (PCS) provides facilities for supporting communication between the active partitions of a distributed program. The package System.RPC is a language-defined interface to the PCS.] 1

Reason: The prefix RPC is used rather than RSC because the term remote procedure call and its acronym are more familiar. 1.a

An implementation conforming to this Annex shall use the RPC interface to implement remote subprogram calls.

Static Semantics

The following language-defined library package exists: 2

```
with Ada.Streams; -- see 13.13.1                                          3
package System.RPC is

   type Partition_ID is range 0 .. implementation-defined;                4

   Communication_Error : exception;                                       5

   type Params_Stream_Type(                                               6
      Initial_Size : Ada.Streams.Stream_Element_Count) is new
      Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type with private;

   procedure Read(                                                        7
      Stream : in out Params_Stream_Type;
      Item : out Ada.Streams.Stream_Element_Array;
      Last : out Ada.Streams.Stream_Element_Offset);

   procedure Write(                                                       8
      Stream : in out Params_Stream_Type;
      Item : in Ada.Streams.Stream_Element_Array);

   -- Synchronous call                                                    9
   procedure Do_RPC(
      Partition  : in Partition_ID;
      Params     : access Params_Stream_Type;
      Result     : access Params_Stream_Type);

   -- Asynchronous call                                                   10
   procedure Do_APC(
      Partition  : in Partition_ID;
      Params     : access Params_Stream_Type);

   -- The handler for incoming RPCs                                       11
   type RPC_Receiver is access procedure(
      Params     : access Params_Stream_Type;
      Result     : access Params_Stream_Type);

   procedure Establish_RPC_Receiver(                                      12
      Partition : in Partition_ID;
      Receiver  : in RPC_Receiver);
```

13
```
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end System.RPC;
```

14 A value of the type Partition_ID is used to identify a partition.

15 An object of the type Params_Stream_Type is used for identifying the particular remote subprogram that is being called, as well as marshalling and unmarshalling the parameters or result of a remote subprogram call, as part of sending them between partitions.

16 [The Read and Write procedures override the corresponding abstract operations for the type Params_Stream_Type.]

Dynamic Semantics

17 The Do_RPC and Do_APC procedures send a message to the active partition identified by the Partition parameter.

17.a **Implementation Note:** It is assumed that the RPC interface is above the message-passing layer of the network protocol stack and is implemented in terms of it.

18 After sending the message, Do_RPC blocks the calling task until a reply message comes back from the called partition or some error is detected by the underlying communication system in which case Communication_Error is raised at the point of the call to Do_RPC.

18.a **Reason:** Only one exception is defined in System.RPC, although many sources of errors might exist. This is so because it is not always possible to distinguish among these errors. In particular, it is often impossible to tell the difference between a failing communication link and a failing processing node. Additional information might be associated with a particular Exception_Occurrence for a Communication_Error.

19 Do_APC operates in the same way as Do_RPC except that it is allowed to return immediately after sending the message.

20 Upon normal return, the stream designated by the Result parameter of Do_RPC contains the reply message.

21 {*elaboration* [partition]} The procedure System.RPC.Establish_RPC_Receiver is called once, immediately after elaborating the library units of an active partition (that is, right after the *elaboration of the partition*) if the partition includes an RCI library unit, but prior to invoking the main subprogram, if any. The Partition parameter is the Partition_ID of the active partition being elaborated. {*RPC-receiver*} The Receiver parameter designates an implementation-provided procedure called the *RPC-receiver* which will handle all RPCs received by the partition from the PCS. Establish_RPC_Receiver saves a reference to the RPC-receiver; when a message is received at the called partition, the RPC-receiver is called with the Params stream containing the message. When the RPC-receiver returns, the contents of the stream designated by Result is placed in a message and sent back to the calling partition.

21.a **Implementation Note:** It is defined by the PCS implementation whether one or more threads of control should be available to process incoming messages and to wait for their completion.

21.b **Implementation Note:** At link-time, the linker provides the RPC-receiver and the necessary tables to support it. A call on Establish_RPC_Receiver is inserted just before the call on the main subprogram.

21.c **Reason:** The interface between the PCS (the System.RPC package) and the RPC-receiver is defined to be dynamic in order to allow the elaboration sequence to notify the PCS that all packages have been elaborated and that it is safe to call the receiving stubs. It is not guaranteed that the PCS units will be the last to be elaborated, so some other indication that elaboration is complete is needed.

If a call on Do_RPC is aborted, a cancellation message is sent to the called partition, to request that the execution of the remotely called subprogram be aborted. 22

To be honest: The full effects of this message are dependent on the implementation of the PCS. 22.a

{*potentially blocking operation* [RPC operations]} {*blocking, potentially* [RPC operations]} The subprograms declared in System.RPC are potentially blocking operations. 23

Implementation Requirements

The implementation of the RPC-receiver shall be reentrant[, thereby allowing concurrent calls on it from the PCS to service concurrent remote subprogram calls into the partition]. 24

Reason: There seems no reason to allow the implementation of RPC-receiver to be nonreentrant, even though we don't require that every implementation of the PCS actually perform concurrent calls on the RPC-receiver. 24.a

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} The implementation of the PCS shall document whether the RPC-receiver is invoked from concurrent tasks. If there is an upper limit on the number of such tasks, this limit shall be documented as well, together with the mechanisms to configure it (if this is supported). 25

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined aspects of the PCS. 25.a

Implementation Permissions

The PCS is allowed to contain implementation-defined interfaces for explicit message passing, broadcasting, etc. Similarly, it is allowed to provide additional interfaces to query the state of some remote partition (given its partition ID) or of the PCS itself, to set timeouts and retry parameters, to get more detailed error status, etc. These additional interfaces should be provided in child packages of System.RPC. 26

Implementation defined: Implementation-defined interfaces in the PCS. 26.a

A body for the package System.RPC need not be supplied by the implementation. 27

Reason: It is presumed that a body for the package System.RPC might be extremely environment specific. Therefore, we do not require that a body be provided by the (compiler) implementation. The user will have to write a body, or acquire one, appropriate for the target environment. 27.a

Implementation Advice

Whenever possible, the PCS on the called partition should allow for multiple tasks to call the RPC-receiver with different messages and should allow them to block until the corresponding subprogram body returns. 28

The Write operation on a stream of type Params_Stream_Type should raise Storage_Error if it runs out of space trying to write the Item into the stream. 29

Implementation Note: An implementation could also dynamically allocate more space as needed, only propagating Storage_Error if the allocator it calls raises Storage_Error. This storage could be managed through a controlled component of the stream object, to ensure that it is reclaimed when the stream object is finalized. 29.a

NOTES

8 The package System.RPC is not designed for direct calls by user programs. It is instead designed for use in the implementation of remote subprograms calls, being called by the calling stubs generated for a remote call interface library unit to initiate a remote call, and in turn calling back to an RPC-receiver that dispatches to the receiving stubs generated for the body of a remote call interface, to handle a remote call received from elsewhere. 30

Annex F
(normative)

Information Systems

{*information systems*} This Annex provides a set of facilities relevant to Information Systems programming. These fall into several categories: 1

- an attribute definition clause specifying Machine_Radix for a decimal subtype; 2
- the package Decimal, which declares a set of constants defining the implementation's capacity for decimal types, and a generic procedure for decimal division; and 3
- the child packages Text_IO.Editing and Wide_Text_IO.Editing, which support formatted and localized output of decimal data, based on ''picture String'' values. 4

See also: 3.5.9, ''Fixed Point Types''; 3.5.10, ''Operations of Fixed Point Types''; 4.6, ''Type Conversions''; 13.3, ''Representation Attributes''; A.10.9, ''Input-Output for Real Types''; B.4, ''Interfacing with COBOL''; B.3, ''Interfacing with C''; Annex G, ''Numerics''. 5

The character and string handling packages in Annex A, ''Predefined Language Environment'' are also relevant for Information Systems. 6

Implementation Advice

If COBOL (respectively, C) is widely supported in the target environment, implementations supporting the Information Systems Annex should provide the child package Interfaces.COBOL (respectively, Interfaces.C) specified in Annex B and should support a *convention*_identifier of COBOL (respectively, C) in the interfacing pragmas (see Annex B), thus allowing Ada programs to interface with programs written in that language. 7

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 7.a

F.1 Machine_Radix Attribute Definition Clause

Static Semantics

{*specifiable* [of Machine_Radix for decimal first subtypes]} {*Machine_Radix clause*} Machine_Radix may be specified for a decimal first subtype (see 3.5.9) via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static, and its value shall be 2 or 10. A value of 2 implies a binary base range; a value of 10 implies a decimal base range. 1

Ramification: In the absence of a Machine_Radix clause, the choice of 2 versus 10 for S'Machine_Radix is not specified. 1.a

Implementation Advice

Packed decimal should be used as the internal representation for objects of subtype S when S'Machine_Radix = 10. 2

Discussion: The intent of a decimal Machine_Radix attribute definition clause is to allow the programmer to declare an Ada decimal data object whose representation matches a particular COBOL implementation's representation of packed decimal items. The Ada object may then be passed to an interfaced COBOL program that takes a packed 2.a

decimal data item as a parameter, assuming that convention COBOL has been specified for the Ada object's type in a pragma Convention.

2.b Additionally, the Ada compiler may choose to generate arithmetic instructions that exploit the packed decimal representation.

Examples

3 *Example of Machine_Radix attribute definition clause:*

4
```
type Money is delta 0.01 digits 15;
for Money'Machine_Radix use 10;
```

F.2 The Package Decimal

Static Semantics

1 The library package Decimal has the following declaration:

2
```
package Ada.Decimal is
   pragma Pure(Decimal);

3     Max_Scale : constant := implementation-defined;
      Min_Scale : constant := implementation-defined;

4     Min_Delta : constant := 10.0**(-Max_Scale);
      Max_Delta : constant := 10.0**(-Min_Scale);

5     Max_Decimal_Digits : constant := implementation-defined;

6     generic
         type Dividend_Type  is delta <> digits <>;
         type Divisor_Type   is delta <> digits <>;
         type Quotient_Type  is delta <> digits <>;
         type Remainder_Type is delta <> digits <>;
      procedure Divide (Dividend  : in Dividend_Type;
                        Divisor   : in Divisor_Type;
                        Quotient  : out Quotient_Type;
                        Remainder : out Remainder_Type);
      pragma Convention(Intrinsic, Divide);

7  end Ada.Decimal;
```

7.a **Implementation defined:** The values of named numbers in the package Decimal.

8 Max_Scale is the largest N such that 10.0**(-N) is allowed as a decimal type's delta. Its type is *universal_integer*.

9 Min_Scale is the smallest N such that 10.0**(-N) is allowed as a decimal type's delta. Its type is *universal_integer*.

10 Min_Delta is the smallest value allowed for *delta* in a decimal_fixed_point_definition. Its type is *universal_real*.

11 Max_Delta is the largest value allowed for *delta* in a decimal_fixed_point_definition. Its type is *universal_real*.

12 Max_Decimal_Digits is the largest value allowed for *digits* in a decimal_fixed_point_definition. Its type is *universal_integer*.

12.a **Reason:** The name is Max_Decimal_Digits versus Max_Digits, in order to avoid confusion with the named number System.Max_Digits relevant to floating point.

Static Semantics

13 The effect of Divide is as follows. The value of Quotient is Quotient_Type(Dividend/Divisor). The value of Remainder is Remainder_Type(Intermediate), where Intermediate is the difference between Dividend and the product of Divisor and Quotient; this result is computed exactly.

Implementation Requirements

Decimal.Max_Decimal_Digits shall be at least 18. 14

Decimal.Max_Scale shall be at least 18. 15

Decimal.Min_Scale shall be at most 0. 16

NOTES
1 The effect of division yielding a quotient with control over rounding versus truncation is obtained by applying either the function attribute Quotient_Type'Round or the conversion Quotient_Type to the expression Dividend/Divisor. 17

F.3 Edited Output for Decimal Types

The child packages Text_IO.Editing and Wide_Text_IO.Editing provide localizable formatted text output, known as *edited output* {*edited output*} , for decimal types. An edited output string is a function of a numeric value, program-specifiable locale elements, and a format control value. The numeric value is of some decimal type. The locale elements are: 1

- the currency string; 2
- the digits group separator character; 3
- the radix mark character; and 4
- the fill character that replaces leading zeros of the numeric value. 5

For Text_IO.Editing the edited output and currency strings are of type String, and the locale characters are of type Character. For Wide_Text_IO.Editing their types are Wide_String and Wide_Character, respectively. 6

Each of the locale elements has a default value that can be replaced or explicitly overridden. 7

A format-control value is of the private type Picture; it determines the composition of the edited output string and controls the form and placement of the sign, the position of the locale elements and the decimal digits, the presence or absence of a radix mark, suppression of leading zeros, and insertion of particular character values. 8

A Picture object is composed from a String value, known as a *picture String*, that serves as a template for the edited output string, and a Boolean value that controls whether a string of all space characters is produced when the number's value is zero. A picture String comprises a sequence of one- or two-Character symbols, each serving as a placeholder for a character or string at a corresponding position in the edited output string. The picture String symbols fall into several categories based on their effect on the edited output string: 9

10

Decimal Digit:	'9'					
Radix Control:	'.'	'V'				
Sign Control:	'+'	'-'	'<'	'>'	"CR"	"DB"
Currency Control:	'$'	'#'				
Zero Suppression:	'Z'	'*'				
Simple Insertion:	'_'	'B'	'0'	'/'		

The entries are not case-sensitive. Mixed- or lower-case forms for "CR" and "DB", and lower-case forms for 'V', 'Z', and 'B', have the same effect as the upper-case symbols shown. 11

12 An occurrence of a ’9’ Character in the picture String represents a decimal digit position in the edited output string.

13 A radix control Character in the picture String indicates the position of the radix mark in the edited output string: an actual character position for ’.’, or an assumed position for ’V’.

14 A sign control Character in the picture String affects the form of the sign in the edited output string. The ’<’ and ’>’ Character values indicate parentheses for negative values. A Character ’+’, ’-’, or ’<’ appears either singly, signifying a fixed-position sign in the edited output, or repeated, signifying a floating-position sign that is preceded by zero or more space characters and that replaces a leading 0.

15 A currency control Character in the picture String indicates an occurrence of the currency string in the edited output string. The ’$’ Character represents the complete currency string; the ’#’ Character represents one character of the currency string. A ’$’ Character appears either singly, indicating a fixed-position currency string in the edited output, or repeated, indicating a floating-position currency string that occurs in place of a leading 0. A sequence of ’#’ Character values indicates either a fixed- or floating-position currency string, depending on context.

16 A zero suppression Character in the picture String allows a leading zero to be replaced by either the space character (for ’Z’) or the fill character (for ’*’).

17 A simple insertion Character in the picture String represents, in general, either itself (if ’/’ or ’0’), the space character (if ’B’), or the digits group separator character (if ’_’). In some contexts it is treated as part of a floating sign, floating currency, or zero suppression string.

18 An example of a picture String is "<###Z_ZZ9.99>". If the currency string is "FF", the separator character is ’,’, and the radix mark is ’.’ then the edited output string values for the decimal values 32.10 and –5432.10 are "bbFFbbb32.10b" and "(bFF5,432.10)", respectively, where ’b’ indicates the space character.

19 The generic packages Text_IO.Decimal_IO and Wide_Text_IO.Decimal_IO (see A.10.9, ‘‘Input-Output for Real Types’’) provide text input and non-edited text output for decimal types.

NOTES

20 2 A picture String is of type Standard.String, both for Text_IO.Editing and Wide_Text_IO.Editing.

F.3.1 Picture String Formation

1 {*picture String (for edited output)*} {*well-formed picture String (for edited output)*} A *well-formed picture String*, or simply *picture String*, is a String value that conforms to the syntactic rules, composition constraints, and character replication conventions specified in this clause.

Dynamic Semantics

2

3

```
picture_string ::=
   fixed_$_picture_string
 | fixed_#_picture_string
 | floating_currency_picture_string
 | non_currency_picture_string
```

fixed_$_picture_string ::= 4
  [fixed_LHS_sign] fixed_$_char {direct_insertion} [zero_suppression]
    number [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] [zero_suppression]
    number fixed_$_char {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | floating_LHS_sign number fixed_$_char {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign] fixed_$_char {direct_insertion}
    all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion}
    fixed_$_char {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | all_sign_number {direct_insertion} fixed_$_char {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

fixed_#_picture_string ::= 5
  [fixed_LHS_sign] single_#_currency {direct_insertion}
    [zero_suppression] number [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign] multiple_#_currency {direct_insertion}
    zero_suppression number [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] [zero_suppression]
    number fixed_#_currency {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | floating_LHS_sign number fixed_#_currency {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign] single_#_currency {direct_insertion}
    all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign] multiple_#_currency {direct_insertion}
    all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion}
    fixed_#_currency {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

 | all_sign_number {direct_insertion} fixed_#_currency {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

floating_currency_picture_string ::= 6
  [fixed_LHS_sign] {direct_insertion} floating_$_currency number [RHS_sign]
 | [fixed_LHS_sign] {direct_insertion} floating_#_currency number [RHS_sign]
 | [fixed_LHS_sign] {direct_insertion} all_currency_number {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]

non_currency_picture_string ::= 7
  [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] zero_suppression number [RHS_sign]
 | [floating_LHS_sign] number [RHS_sign]
 | [fixed_LHS_sign {direct_insertion}] all_zero_suppression_number {direct_insertion} [RHS_sign]
 | all_sign_number {direct_insertion}
 | fixed_LHS_sign direct_insertion {direct_insertion} number [RHS_sign]

fixed_LHS_sign ::= LHS_Sign 8

```
LHS_Sign ::=  + | – | <

fixed_$_char ::= $

direct_insertion ::=  simple_insertion
simple_insertion ::=  _ | B | 0 | /

zero_suppression ::=  Z {Z | context_sensitive_insertion} | fill_string
context_sensitive_insertion ::=  simple_insertion

fill_string ::=  * {* | context_sensitive_insertion}

number ::=
  fore_digits [radix [aft_digits] {direct_insertion}]
 | radix aft_digits {direct_insertion}
fore_digits ::= 9 {9 | direct_insertion}
aft_digits ::=  {9 | direct_insertion} 9
radix ::= . | V

RHS_sign ::= + | – | > | CR | DB

floating_LHS_sign ::=
  LHS_Sign {context_sensitive_insertion} LHS_Sign {LHS_Sign | context_sensitive_insertion}

single_#_currency ::= #
multiple_#_currency ::= ## {#}

fixed_#_currency ::= single_#_currency | multiple_#_currency

floating_$_currency ::=
  $ {context_sensitive_insertion} $ {$ | context_sensitive_insertion}

floating_#_currency ::=
  # {context_sensitive_insertion} # {# | context_sensitive_insertion}

all_sign_number ::=  all_sign_fore [radix [all_sign_aft]] [>]
all_sign_fore ::=
  sign_char {context_sensitive_insertion} sign_char {sign_char | context_sensitive_insertion}
all_sign_aft ::= {all_sign_aft_char} sign_char

all_sign_aft_char ::=  sign_char | context_sensitive_insertion
sign_char ::= + | - | <

all_currency_number ::=  all_currency_fore [radix [all_currency_aft]]
```

all_currency_fore ::=
  currency_char {context_sensitive_insertion}
    currency_char {currency_char | context_sensitive_insertion}

all_currency_aft ::= {all_currency_aft_char} currency_char

all_currency_aft_char ::= currency_char | context_sensitive_insertion

currency_char ::= $ | #

all_zero_suppression_number ::= all_zero_suppression_fore [radix [all_zero_suppression_aft]]

all_zero_suppression_fore ::=
  zero_suppression_char {zero_suppression_char | context_sensitive_insertion}

all_zero_suppression_aft ::= {all_zero_suppression_aft_char} zero_suppression_char

all_zero_suppression_aft_char ::= zero_suppression_char | context_sensitive_insertion

zero_suppression_char ::= Z | *

The following composition constraints apply to a picture String:

- A floating_LHS_sign does not have occurrences of different LHS_Sign Character values.
- If a picture String has '<' as fixed_LHS_sign, then it has '>' as RHS_sign.
- If a picture String has '<' in a floating_LHS_sign or in an all_sign_number, then it has an occurrence of '>'.
- If a picture String has '+' or '-' as fixed_LHS_sign, in a floating_LHS_sign, or in an all_sign_number, then it has no RHS_sign.
- An instance of all_sign_number does not have occurrences of different sign_char Character values.
- An instance of all_currency_number does not have occurrences of different currency_char Character values.
- An instance of all_zero_suppression_number does not have occurrences of different zero_suppression_char Character values, except for possible case differences between 'Z' and 'z'.

A *replicable Character* is a Character that, by the above rules, can occur in two consecutive positions in a picture String.

A *Character replication* is a String

char & '(' & *spaces* & *count_string* & ')'

where *char* is a replicable Character, *spaces* is a String (possibly empty) comprising only space Character values, and *count_string* is a String of one or more decimal digit Character values. A Character replication in a picture String has the same effect as (and is said to be *equivalent to*) a String comprising *n* consecutive occurrences of *char*, where *n*=Integer'Value(*count_string*).

An *expanded picture String* is a picture String containing no Character replications.

Discussion: Since 'B' is not allowed after a RHS sign, there is no need for a special rule to disallow "9.99DB(2)" as an abbreviation for "9.99DBB"

NOTES
52 3 Although a sign to the left of the number can float, a sign to the right of the number is in a fixed position.

F.3.2 Edited Output Generation

Dynamic Semantics

1 The contents of an edited output string are based on:

2 • A value, Item, of some decimal type Num,

3 • An expanded picture String Pic_String,

4 • A Boolean value, Blank_When_Zero,

5 • A Currency string,

6 • A Fill character,

7 • A Separator character, and

8 • A Radix_Mark character.

9 The combination of a True value for Blank_When_Zero and a '*' character in Pic_String is inconsistent; no edited output string is defined.

10 A layout error is identified in the rules below if leading non-zero digits of Item, character values of the Currency string, or a negative sign would be truncated; in such cases no edited output string is defined.

11 The edited output string has lower bound 1 and upper bound N where N = Pic_String'Length + Currency_Length_Adjustment - Radix_Adjustment, and

12 • Currency_Length_Adjustment = Currency'Length – 1 if there is some occurrence of '$' in Pic_String, and 0 otherwise.

13 • Radix_Adjustment = 1 if there is an occurrence of 'V' or 'v' in Pic_Str, and 0 otherwise.

14 {*displayed magnitude (of a decimal value)*} Let the magnitude of Item be expressed as a base-10 number $I_p \cdots I_1.F_1 \cdots F_q$, called the *displayed magnitude* of Item, where:

15 • q = Min(Max(Num'Scale, 0), n) where n is 0 if Pic_String has no radix and is otherwise the number of digit positions following radix in Pic_String, where a digit position corresponds to an occurrence of '9', a zero_suppression_char (for an all_zero_suppression_number), a currency_char (for an all_currency_number), or a sign_char (for an all_sign_number).

16 • I_p /= 0 if p>0.

17 If n < Num'Scale, then the above number is the result of rounding (away from 0 if exactly midway between values).

18 If Blank_When_Zero = True and the displayed magnitude of Item is zero, then the edited output string comprises all space character values. Otherwise, the picture String is treated as a sequence of instances of syntactic categories based on the rules in F.3.1, and the edited output string is the concatenation of string values derived from these categories according to the following mapping rules.

19 Table F-1 shows the mapping from a sign control symbol to a corresponding character or string in the edited output. In the columns showing the edited output, a lower-case 'b' represents the space character. If there is no sign control symbol but the value of Item is negative, a layout error occurs and no edited output string is produced.

Table F-1: Edited Output for Sign Control Symbols		
Sign Control Symbol	**Edited Output for Non-Negative Number**	**Edited Output for Negative Number**
’+’	’+’	’-’
’-’	’b’	’-’
’<’	’b’	’(’
’>’	’b’	’)’
"CR"	"bb"	"CR"
"DB"	"bb"	"DB"

An instance of fixed_LHS_sign maps to a character as shown in Table F-1.

An instance of fixed_$_char maps to Currency.

An instance of direct_insertion maps to Separator if direct_insertion = ’_’, and to the direct_insertion Character otherwise.

An instance of number maps to a string *integer_part* & *radix_part* & *fraction_part* where:

- The string for *integer_part* is obtained as follows:
  1. Occurrences of ’9’ in fore_digits of number are replaced from right to left with the decimal digit character values for I_1, ..., I_p, respectively.
  2. Each occurrence of ’9’ in fore_digits to the left of the leftmost ’9’ replaced according to rule 1 is replaced with ’0’.
  3. If p exceeds the number of occurrences of ’9’ in fore_digits of number, then the excess leftmost digits are eligible for use in the mapping of an instance of zero_suppression, floating_LHS_sign, floating_$_currency, or floating_#_currency to the left of number; if there is no such instance, then a layout error occurs and no edited output string is produced.
- The *radix_part* is:
  - "" if number does not include a radix, if radix = ’V’, or if radix = ’v’
  - Radix_Mark if number includes ’.’ as radix
- The string for *fraction_part* is obtained as follows:
  1. Occurrences of ’9’ in aft_digits of number are replaced from left to right with the decimal digit character values for F_1, ... F_q.
  2. Each occurrence of ’9’ in aft_digits to the right of the rightmost ’9’ replaced according to rule 1 is replaced by ’0’.

An instance of zero_suppression maps to the string obtained as follows:

1. The rightmost ’Z’, ’z’, or ’*’ Character values are replaced with the excess digits (if any) from the *integer_part* of the mapping of the number to the right of the zero_suppression instance,
2. A context_sensitive_insertion Character is replaced as though it were a direct_insertion Character, if it occurs to the right of some ’Z’, ’z’, or ’*’ in zero_suppression that has been mapped to an excess digit,

3. Each Character to the left of the leftmost Character replaced according to rule 1 above is replaced by:
   - the space character if the zero suppression Character is 'Z' or 'z', or
   - the Fill character if the zero suppression Character is '*'.
4. A layout error occurs if some excess digits remain after all 'Z', 'z', and '*' Character values in zero_suppression have been replaced via rule 1; no edited output string is produced.

An instance of RHS_sign maps to a character or string as shown in Table F-1.

An instance of floating_LHS_sign maps to the string obtained as follows.

1. Up to all but one of the rightmost LHS_Sign Character values are replaced by the excess digits (if any) from the *integer_part* of the mapping of the number to the right of the floating_LHS_sign instance.
2. The next Character to the left is replaced with the character given by the entry in Table F-1 corresponding to the LHS_Sign Character.
3. A context_sensitive_insertion Character is replaced as though it were a direct_insertion Character, if it occurs to the right of the leftmost LHS_Sign character replaced according to rule 1.
4. Any other Character is replaced by the space character..
5. A layout error occurs if some excess digits remain after replacement via rule 1; no edited output string is produced.

An instance of fixed_#_currency maps to the Currency string with n space character values concatenated on the left (if the instance does not follow a radix) or on the right (if the instance does follow a radix), where n is the difference between the length of the fixed_#_currency instance and Currency'Length. A layout error occurs if Currency'Length exceeds the length of the fixed_#_currency instance; no edited output string is produced.

An instance of floating_$_currency maps to the string obtained as follows:

1. Up to all but one of the rightmost '$' Character values are replaced with the excess digits (if any) from the *integer_part* of the mapping of the number to the right of the floating_$_currency instance.
2. The next Character to the left is replaced by the Currency string.
3. A context_sensitive_insertion Character is replaced as though it were a direct_insertion Character, if it occurs to the right of the leftmost '$' Character replaced via rule 1.
4. Each other Character is replaced by the space character.
5. A layout error occurs if some excess digits remain after replacement by rule 1; no edited output string is produced.

An instance of floating_#_currency maps to the string obtained as follows:

1. Up to all but one of the rightmost '#' Character values are replaced with the excess digits (if any) from the *integer_part* of the mapping of the number to the right of the floating_#_currency instance.
2. The substring whose last Character occurs at the position immediately preceding the leftmost Character replaced via rule 1, and whose length is Currency'Length, is replaced by the Currency string.

3. A context_sensitive_insertion Character is replaced as though it were a direct_insertion Character, if it occurs to the right of the leftmost '#' replaced via rule 1.

4. Any other Character is replaced by the space character.

5. A layout error occurs if some excess digits remain after replacement rule 1, or if there is no substring with the required length for replacement rule 2; no edited output string is produced.

An instance of all_zero_suppression_number maps to:

- a string of all spaces if the displayed magnitude of Item is zero, the zero_suppression_char is 'Z' or 'z', and the instance of all_zero_suppression_number does not have a radix at its last character position;
- a string containing the Fill character in each position except for the character (if any) corresponding to radix, if zero_suppression_char = '*' and the displayed magnitude of Item is zero;
- otherwise, the same result as if each zero_suppression_char in all_zero_suppression_aft were '9', interpreting the instance of all_zero_suppression_number as either zero_suppression number (if a radix and all_zero_suppression_aft are present), or as zero_suppression otherwise.

An instance of all_sign_number maps to:

- a string of all spaces if the displayed magnitude of Item is zero and the instance of all_sign_number does not have a radix at its last character position;
- otherwise, the same result as if each sign_char in all_sign_number_aft were '9', interpreting the instance of all_sign_number as either floating_LHS_sign number (if a radix and all_sign_number_aft are present), or as floating_LHS_sign otherwise.

An instance of all_currency_number maps to:

- a string of all spaces if the displayed magnitude of Item is zero and the instance of all_currency_number does not have a radix at its last character position;
- otherwise, the same result as if each currency_char in all_currency_number_aft were '9', interpreting the instance of all_currency_number as floating_$_currency number or floating_#_currency number (if a radix and all_currency_number_aft are present), or as floating_$_currency or floating_#_currency otherwise.

Examples

In the result string values shown below, 'b' represents the space character.

```
Item:          Picture and Result Strings:
123456.78      Picture:  "-###**_***_**9.99"
                         "bbb$***123,456.78"
                         "bbFF***123.456,78" (currency = "FF",
                                              separator = '.',
                                              radix mark = ',')
123456.78      Picture:  "-$$$**_***_**9.99"
               Result:   "bbb$***123,456.78"
                        "bbbFF***123.456,78" (currency = "FF",
                                              separator = '.',
                                              radix mark = ',')
0.0           Picture: "-$$$$$$.$$"
              Result:  "bbbbbbbbbb"
0.20          Picture: "-$$$$$$.$$"
              Result:  "bbbbbb$.20"
```

```
77        -1234.565    Picture: "<<<<_<<<.<<###>"
                        Result:  "bb(1,234.57DMb)"  (currency = "DM")
78        12345.67     Picture: "###_###_##9.99"
                        Result:  "bbCHF12,345.67"   (currency = "CHF")
```

F.3.3 The Package Text_IO.Editing

1 The package Text_IO.Editing provides a private type Picture with associated operations, and a generic package Decimal_Output. An object of type Picture is composed from a well-formed picture String (see F.3.1) and a Boolean item indicating whether a zero numeric value will result in an edited output string of all space characters. The package Decimal_Output contains edited output subprograms implementing the effects defined in F.3.2.

Static Semantics

2 The library package Text_IO.Editing has the following declaration:

```
3     package Ada.Text_IO.Editing is
4        type Picture is private;

5        function Valid (Pic_String      : in String;
                         Blank_When_Zero : in Boolean := False) return Boolean;
6        function To_Picture (Pic_String      : in String;
                              Blank_When_Zero : in Boolean := False)
           return Picture;
7        function Pic_String      (Pic : in Picture) return String;
         function Blank_When_Zero (Pic : in Picture) return Boolean;
8        Max_Picture_Length  : constant := implementation_defined;
9        Picture_Error       : exception;
10       Default_Currency    : constant String    := "$";
         Default_Fill        : constant Character := '*';
         Default_Separator   : constant Character := ',';
         Default_Radix_Mark  : constant Character := '.';
11       generic
            type Num is delta <> digits <>;
            Default_Currency   : in String    :=  Text_IO.Editing.Default_Currency;
            Default_Fill       : in Character :=  Text_IO.Editing.Default_Fill;
            Default_Separator  : in Character :=  Text_IO.Editing.Default_Separator;
            Default_Radix_Mark : in Character :=  Text_IO.Editing.Default_Radix_Mark;
         package Decimal_Output is
            function Length (Pic      : in Picture;
                             Currency : in String := Default_Currency)
               return Natural;
12          function Valid (Item     : in Num;
                            Pic      : in Picture;
                            Currency : in String := Default_Currency)
               return Boolean;
13          function Image (Item       : in Num;
                            Pic        : in Picture;
                            Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
                            Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
                            Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
                            Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark)
               return String;
14          procedure Put (File       : in File_Type;
                           Item       : in Num;
                           Pic        : in Picture;
                           Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
                           Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
                           Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
                           Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
```

```
      procedure Put (Item       : in Num;                                    15
                     Pic        : in Picture;
                     Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
                     Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
                     Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
                     Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
      procedure Put (To         : out String;                                16
                     Item       : in Num;
                     Pic        : in Picture;
                     Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
                     Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
                     Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
                     Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
   end Decimal_Output;
private
   ... -- not specified by the language
end Ada.Text_IO.Editing;
```

Implementation defined: The value of Max_Picture_Length in the package Text_IO.Editing 16.a

The exception Constraint_Error is raised if the Image function or any of the Put procedures is invoked with a null string for Currency. 17

```
function Valid (Pic_String      : in String;                                 18
                Blank_When_Zero : in Boolean := False) return Boolean;
```

Valid returns True if Pic_String is a well-formed picture String (see F.3.1) the length of whose expansion does not exceed Max_Picture_Length, and if either Blank_When_Zero is False or Pic_String contains no '*'. 19

```
function To_Picture (Pic_String      : in String;                            20
                     Blank_When_Zero : in Boolean := False)
   return Picture;
```

To_Picture returns a result Picture such that the application of the function Pic_String to this result yields an expanded picture String equivalent to Pic_String, and such that Blank_When_Zero applied to the result Picture is the same value as the parameter Blank_When_Zero. Picture_Error is raised if not Valid(Pic_String, Blank_When_Zero). 21

```
function Pic_String      (Pic : in Picture) return String;                   22
function Blank_When_Zero (Pic : in Picture) return Boolean;
```

If Pic is To_Picture(String_Item, Boolean_Item) for some String_Item and Boolean_Item, then: 23

- Pic_String(Pic) returns an expanded picture String equivalent to String_Item and with any lower-case letter replaced with its corresponding upper-case form, and 24
- Blank_When_Zero(Pic) returns Boolean_Item. 25

If Pic_1 and Pic_2 are objects of type Picture, then "="(Pic_1, Pic_2) is True when 26

- Pic_String(Pic_1) = Pic_String(Pic_2), and 27
- Blank_When_Zero(Pic_1) = Blank_When_Zero(Pic_2). 28

```
function Length (Pic      : in Picture;                                      29
                 Currency : in String := Default_Currency)
   return Natural;
```

Length returns Pic_String(Pic)'Length + Currency_Length_Adjustment - Radix_Adjustment where 30

- Currency_Length_Adjustment =
  - Currency'Length – 1 if there is some occurrence of '$' in Pic_String(Pic), and
  - 0 otherwise.
- Radix_Adjustment =
  - 1 if there is an occurrence of 'V' or 'v' in Pic_Str(Pic), and
  - 0 otherwise.

```
function Valid (Item     : in Num;
                Pic      : in Picture;
                Currency : in String := Default_Currency)
   return Boolean;
```

Valid returns True if Image(Item, Pic, Currency) does not raise Layout_Error, and returns False otherwise.

```
function Image (Item       : in Num;
                Pic        : in Picture;
                Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
                Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
                Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
                Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark)
   return String;
```

Image returns the edited output String as defined in F.3.2 for Item, Pic_String(Pic), Blank_When_Zero(Pic), Currency, Fill, Separator, and Radix_Mark. If these rules identify a layout error, then Image raises the exception Layout_Error.

```
procedure Put (File       : in File_Type;
               Item       : in Num;
               Pic        : in Picture;
               Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
               Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
               Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
               Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
procedure Put (Item       : in Num;
               Pic        : in Picture;
               Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
               Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
               Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
               Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
```

Each of these Put procedures outputs Image(Item, Pic, Currency, Fill, Separator, Radix_Mark) consistent with the conventions for Put for other real types in case of bounded line length (see A.10.6, ''Get and Put Procedures'').

```
procedure Put (To         : out String;
               Item       : in Num;
               Pic        : in Picture;
               Currency   : in String    := Default_Currency;
               Fill       : in Character := Default_Fill;
               Separator  : in Character := Default_Separator;
               Radix_Mark : in Character := Default_Radix_Mark);
```

Put copies Image(Item, Pic, Currency, Fill, Separator, Radix_Mark) to the given string, right justified. Otherwise unassigned Character values in To are assigned the space character. If To'Length is less than the length of the string resulting from Image, then Layout_Error is raised.

Implementation Requirements

Max_Picture_Length shall be at least 30. The implementation shall support currency strings of length up to at least 10, both for Default_Currency in an instantiation of Decimal_Output, and for Currency in an invocation of Image or any of the Put procedures. 45

Discussion: This implies that a picture string with character replications need not be supported (i.e., To_Picture will raise Picture_Error) if its expanded form exceeds 30 characters. 45.a

NOTES
4 The rules for edited output are based on COBOL (ANSI X3.23:1985, endorsed by ISO as ISO 1989-1985), with the following differences: 46

- The COBOL provisions for picture string localization and for 'P' format are absent from Ada. 47
- The following Ada facilities are not in COBOL: 48
  - currency symbol placement after the number, 49
  - localization of edited output string for multi-character currency string values, including support for both length-preserving and length-expanding currency symbols in picture strings 50
  - localization of the radix mark, digits separator, and fill character, and 51
  - parenthesization of negative values. 52

The value of 30 for Max_Picture_Length is the same limit as in COBOL.

Reason: There are several reasons we have not adopted the COBOL-style permission to provide a single-character replacement in the picture string for the '$' as currency symbol, or to interchange the roles of '.' and ',' in picture strings 52.a

- It would have introduced considerable complexity into Ada, as well as confusion between run-time and compile-time character interpretation, since picture Strings are dynamically computable in Ada, in contrast with COBOL 52.b
- Ada's rules for real literals provide a natural interpretation of '_' as digits separator and '.' for radix mark; it is not essential to allow these to be localized in picture strings, since Ada does not allow them to be localized in real literals. 52.c
- The COBOL restriction for the currency symbol in a picture string to be replaced by a single character currency symbol is a compromise solution. For general international usage a mechanism is needed to localize the edited output to be a multi-character currency string. Allowing a single-Character localization for the picture Character, and a multiple-character localization for the currency string, would be an unnecessary complication. 52.d

F.3.4 The Package Wide_Text_IO.Editing

Static Semantics

{*Ada.Wide_Text_IO.Editing*} The child package Wide_Text_IO.Editing has the same contents as Text_IO.-Editing, except that: 1

- each occurrence of Character is replaced by Wide_Character, 2
- each occurrence of Text_IO is replaced by Wide_Text_IO, 3
- the subtype of Default_Currency is Wide_String rather than String, and 4
- each occurrence of String in the generic package Decimal_Output is replaced by Wide_String. 5

Implementation defined: The value of Max_Picture_Length in the package Wide_Text_IO.Editing 5.a

NOTES
5 Each of the functions Wide_Text_IO.Editing.Valid, To_Picture, and Pic_String has String (versus Wide_String) as its parameter or result subtype, since a picture String is not localizable. 6

Annex G
(normative)

Numerics

{*numerics*} The Numerics Annex specifies 1

- features for complex arithmetic, including complex I/O; 2
- a mode (‘‘strict mode’’), in which the predefined arithmetic operations of floating point and fixed point types and the functions and operations of various predefined packages have to provide guaranteed accuracy or conform to other numeric performance requirements, which the Numerics Annex also specifies; 3
- a mode (‘‘relaxed mode’’), in which no accuracy or other numeric performance requirements need be satisfied, as for implementations not conforming to the Numerics Annex; 4
- models of floating point and fixed point arithmetic on which the accuracy requirements of strict mode are based; and 5
- the definitions of the model-oriented attributes of floating point types that apply in the strict mode. 6

Implementation Advice

If Fortran (respectively, C) is widely supported in the target environment, implementations supporting the Numerics Annex should provide the child package Interfaces.Fortran (respectively, Interfaces.C) specified in Annex B and should support a *convention*_identifier of Fortran (respectively, C) in the interfacing pragmas (see Annex B), thus allowing Ada programs to interface with programs written in that language. 7

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 7.a

G.1 Complex Arithmetic

Types and arithmetic operations for complex arithmetic are provided in Generic_Complex_Types, which is defined in G.1.1. Implementation-defined approximations to the complex analogs of the mathematical functions known as the ‘‘elementary functions’’ are provided by the subprograms in Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions, which is defined in G.1.2. Both of these library units are generic children of the predefined package Numerics (see A.5). Nongeneric equivalents of these generic packages for each of the predefined floating point types are also provided as children of Numerics. 1

Implementation defined: The accuracy actually achieved by the complex elementary functions and by other complex arithmetic operations. 1.a

Discussion: Complex arithmetic is defined in the Numerics Annex, rather than in the core, because it is considered to be a specialized need of (some) numeric applications. 1.b

G.1.1 Complex Types

Static Semantics

1 The generic library package Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types has the following declaration:

2
```
generic
   type Real is digits <>;
package Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types is
   pragma Pure(Generic_Complex_Types);
```

3
```
   type Complex is
      record
         Re, Im : Real'Base;
      end record;
```

4
```
   type Imaginary is private;
```

5
```
   i : constant Imaginary;
   j : constant Imaginary;
```

6
```
   function Re (X : Complex)   return Real'Base;
   function Im (X : Complex)   return Real'Base;
   function Im (X : Imaginary) return Real'Base;
```

7
```
   procedure Set_Re (X  : in out Complex;
                     Re : in     Real'Base);
   procedure Set_Im (X  : in out Complex;
                     Im : in     Real'Base);
   procedure Set_Im (X  :    out Imaginary;
                     Im : in     Real'Base);
```

8
```
   function Compose_From_Cartesian (Re, Im : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function Compose_From_Cartesian (Re     : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function Compose_From_Cartesian (Im     : Imaginary) return Complex;
```

9
```
   function Modulus (X     : Complex) return Real'Base;
   function "abs"   (Right : Complex) return Real'Base renames Modulus;
```

10
```
   function Argument (X     : Complex)   return Real'Base;
   function Argument (X     : Complex;
                      Cycle : Real'Base) return Real'Base;
```

11
```
   function Compose_From_Polar (Modulus, Argument        : Real'Base)
      return Complex;
   function Compose_From_Polar (Modulus, Argument, Cycle : Real'Base)
      return Complex;
```

12
```
   function "+"       (Right : Complex) return Complex;
   function "-"       (Right : Complex) return Complex;
   function Conjugate (X     : Complex) return Complex;
```

13
```
   function "+" (Left, Right : Complex) return Complex;
   function "-" (Left, Right : Complex) return Complex;
   function "*" (Left, Right : Complex) return Complex;
   function "/" (Left, Right : Complex) return Complex;
```

14
```
   function "**" (Left : Complex; Right : Integer) return Complex;
```

15
```
   function "+"       (Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
   function "-"       (Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
   function Conjugate (X     : Imaginary) return Imaginary renames "-";
   function "abs"     (Right : Imaginary) return Real'Base;
```

16
```
   function "+" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
   function "-" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
   function "*" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Real'Base;
   function "/" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Real'Base;
```

17
```
   function "**" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Integer) return Complex;
```

18
```
   function "<"  (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Boolean;
   function "<=" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Boolean;
   function ">"  (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Boolean;
   function ">=" (Left, Right : Imaginary) return Boolean;
```

```
   function "+" (Left : Complex;   Right : Real'Base) return Complex;                    19
   function "+" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Complex;   Right : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "*" (Left : Complex;   Right : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function "*" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "/" (Left : Complex;   Right : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function "/" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Complex)   return Complex;

   function "+" (Left : Complex;   Right : Imaginary) return Complex;                    20
   function "+" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Complex;   Right : Imaginary) return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "*" (Left : Complex;   Right : Imaginary) return Complex;
   function "*" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
   function "/" (Left : Complex;   Right : Imaginary) return Complex;
   function "/" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Complex)   return Complex;

   function "+" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Real'Base) return Complex;                    21
   function "+" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Imaginary) return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Real'Base) return Complex;
   function "-" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Imaginary) return Complex;
   function "*" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Real'Base) return Imaginary;
   function "*" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
   function "/" (Left : Imaginary; Right : Real'Base) return Imaginary;
   function "/" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Imaginary) return Imaginary;
private                                                                                  22
   type Imaginary is new Real'Base;                                                      23
   i : constant Imaginary := 1.0;
   j : constant Imaginary := 1.0;
end Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types;                                                  24
```

{*Ada.Numerics.Complex_Types*} The library package Numerics.Complex_Types defines the same types, constants, and subprograms as Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types, except that the predefined type Float is systematically substituted for Real'Base throughout. Nongeneric equivalents of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types for each of the other predefined floating point types are defined similarly, with the names Numerics.Short_Complex_Types, Numerics.Long_Complex_Types, etc. 25

Reason: The nongeneric equivalents are provided to allow the programmer to construct simple mathematical applications without being required to understand and use generics. 25.a

Reason: The nongeneric equivalents all export the types Complex and Imaginary and the constants i and j (rather than uniquely named types and constants, such as Short_Complex, Long_Complex, etc.) to preserve their equivalence to actual instantiations of the generic package and to allow the programmer to change the precision of an application globally by changing a single context clause. 25.b

[Complex is a visible type with cartesian components.] 26

Reason: The cartesian representation is far more common than the polar representation, in practice. The accuracy of the results of the complex arithmetic operations and of the complex elementary functions is dependent on the representation; thus, implementers need to know that representation. The type is visible so that complex ''literals'' can be written in aggregate notation, if desired. 26.a

[Imaginary is a private type; its full type is derived from Real'Base.] 27

Reason: The Imaginary type and the constants i and j are provided for two reasons: 27.a

- They allow complex ''literals'' to be written in the alternate form of $a + b$*i (or $a + b$*j), if desired. Of course, in some contexts the sum will need to be parenthesized. 27.b
- When an Ada binding to IEC 559:1989 that provides (signed) infinities as the result of operations that overflow becomes available, it will be important to allow arithmetic between pure-imaginary and complex operands without requiring the former to be represented as (or promoted to) complex values with a real component of zero. For example, the multiplication of $a + b$*i by d*i should yield $-b \cdot d + a \cdot d$*i, but if one cannot avoid representing the pure-imaginary value d*i as the complex value $0.0 + d$*i, then a NaN ("Not-a-Number") could be produced as the result of multiplying a by 0.0 (e.g., when a is infinite); the NaN could later trigger an exception. Providing the Imaginary type and overloadings of the arithmetic 27.c

operators for mixtures of Imaginary and Complex operands gives the programmer the same control over avoiding premature coercion of pure-imaginary values to complex as is already provided for pure-real values.

27.d **Reason:** The Imaginary type is private, rather than being visibly derived from Real'Base, for two reasons:

27.e • to preclude implicit conversions of real literals to the Imaginary type (such implicit conversions would make many common arithmetic expressions ambiguous); and

27.f • to suppress the implicit derivation of the multiplication, division, and absolute value operators with Imaginary operands and an Imaginary result (the result type would be incorrect).

27.g **Reason:** The base subtype Real'Base is used for the component type of Complex, the parent type of Imaginary, and the parameter and result types of some of the subprograms to maximize the chances of being able to pass meaningful values into the subprograms and receive meaningful results back. The generic formal parameter Real therefore plays only one role, that of providing the precision to be maintained in complex arithmetic calculations. Thus, the subprograms in Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types share with those in Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, and indeed even with the predefined arithmetic operations (see 4.5), the property of being free of range checks on input and output, i.e., of being able to exploit the base range of the relevant floating point type fully. As a result, the user loses the ability to impose application-oriented bounds on the range of values that the components of a complex variable can acquire; however, it can be argued that few, if any, applications have a naturally square domain (as opposed to a circular domain) anyway.

28 The arithmetic operations and the Re, Im, Modulus, Argument, and Conjugate functions have their usual mathematical meanings. When applied to a parameter of pure-imaginary type, the ''imaginary-part'' function Im yields the value of its parameter, as the corresponding real value.

28.a **Reason:** The latter case can be understood by considering the parameter of pure-imaginary type to represent a complex value with a zero real part.

The remaining subprograms have the following meanings:

29 • The Set_Re and Set_Im procedures replace the designated component of a complex parameter with the given real value; applied to a parameter of pure-imaginary type, the Set_Im procedure replaces the value of that parameter with the imaginary value corresponding to the given real value.

30 • The Compose_From_Cartesian function constructs a complex value from the given real and imaginary components. If only one component is given, the other component is implicitly zero.

31 • The Compose_From_Polar function constructs a complex value from the given modulus (radius) and argument (angle). When the value of the parameter Modulus is positive (resp., negative), the result is the complex value represented by the point in the complex plane lying at a distance from the origin given by the absolute value of Modulus and forming an angle measured counterclockwise from the positive (resp., negative) real axis given by the value of the parameter Argument.

32 When the Cycle parameter is specified, the result of the Argument function and the parameter Argument of the Compose_From_Polar function are measured in units such that a full cycle of revolution has the given value; otherwise, they are measured in radians.

33 The computed results of the mathematically multivalued functions are rendered single-valued by the following conventions, which are meant to imply the principal branch:

34 • The result of the Modulus function is nonnegative.

35 • The result of the Argument function is in the quadrant containing the point in the complex plane represented by the parameter X. This may be any quadrant (I through IV); thus, the range of the Argument function is approximately $-\pi$ to π ($-$Cycle/2.0 to Cycle/2.0, if the parameter Cycle is specified). When the point represented by the parameter X lies on the negative real axis, the result approximates

- π (resp., $-\pi$) when the sign of the imaginary component of X is positive (resp., negative), if Real'Signed_Zeros is True; 36
- π, if Real'Signed_Zeros is False. 37

- Because a result lying on or near one of the axes may not be exactly representable, the approximation inherent in computing the result may place it in an adjacent quadrant, close to but on the wrong side of the axis. 38

Dynamic Semantics

The exception Numerics.Argument_Error is raised by the Argument and Compose_From_Polar functions with specified cycle, signaling a parameter value outside the domain of the corresponding mathematical function, when the value of the parameter Cycle is zero or negative. 39

{*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised by the division operator when the value of the right operand is zero, and by the exponentiation operator when the value of the left operand is zero and the value of the exponent is negative, provided that Real'Machine_Overflows is True; when Real'Machine_Overflows is False, the result is unspecified. {*unspecified* [partial]} [Constraint_Error can also be raised when a finite result overflows (see G.2.6).] 40

Discussion: It is anticipated that an Ada binding to IEC 559:1989 will be developed in the future. As part of such a binding, the Machine_Overflows attribute of a conformant floating point type will be specified to yield False, which will permit implementations of the complex arithmetic operations to deliver results with an infinite component (and set the overflow flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error in overflow situations, when traps are disabled. Similarly, it is appropriate for the complex arithmetic operations to deliver results with infinite components (and set the zero-divide flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error in the situations defined above, when traps are disabled. Finally, such a binding should also specify the behavior of the complex arithmetic operations, when sensible, given operands with infinite components. 40.a

Implementation Requirements

In the implementation of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types, the range of intermediate values allowed during the calculation of a final result shall not be affected by any range constraint of the subtype Real. 41

Implementation Note: Implementations of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types written in Ada should therefore avoid declaring local variables of subtype Real; the subtype Real'Base should be used instead. 41.a

{*prescribed result (for the evaluation of a complex arithmetic operation)*} In the following cases, evaluation of a complex arithmetic operation shall yield the *prescribed result*, provided that the preceding rules do not call for an exception to be raised: 42

- The results of the Re, Im, and Compose_From_Cartesian functions are exact. 43
- The real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of a binary addition operator that yields a result of complex type is exact when either of its operands is of pure-imaginary (resp., real) type. 44

  Ramification: The result of the addition operator is exact when one of its operands is of real type and the other is of pure-imaginary type. In this particular case, the operator is analogous to the Compose_From_Cartesian function; it performs no arithmetic. 44.a

- The real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of a binary subtraction operator that yields a result of complex type is exact when its right operand is of pure-imaginary (resp., real) type. 45
- The real component of the result of the Conjugate function for the complex type is exact. 46
- When the point in the complex plane represented by the parameter X lies on the nonnegative real axis, the Argument function yields a result of zero. 47

47.a **Discussion:** Argument(X + i*Y) is analogous to *EF*.Arctan(Y, X), where *EF* is an appropriate instance of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, except when X and Y are both zero, in which case the former yields the value zero while the latter raises Numerics.Argument_Error.

48 • When the value of the parameter Modulus is zero, the Compose_From_Polar function yields a result of zero.

49 • When the value of the parameter Argument is equal to a multiple of the quarter cycle, the result of the Compose_From_Polar function with specified cycle lies on one of the axes. In this case, one of its components is zero, and the other has the magnitude of the parameter Modulus.

50 • Exponentiation by a zero exponent yields the value one. Exponentiation by a unit exponent yields the value of the left operand. Exponentiation of the value one yields the value one. Exponentiation of the value zero yields the value zero, provided that the exponent is nonzero. When the left operand is of pure-imaginary type, one component of the result of the exponentiation operator is zero.

51 When the result, or a result component, of any operator of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types has a mathematical definition in terms of a single arithmetic or relational operation, that result or result component exhibits the accuracy of the corresponding operation of the type Real.

52 Other accuracy requirements for the Modulus, Argument, and Compose_From_Polar functions, and accuracy requirements for the multiplication of a pair of complex operands or for division by a complex operand, all of which apply only in the strict mode, are given in G.2.6.

53 The sign of a zero result or zero result component yielded by a complex arithmetic operation or function is implementation defined when Real'Signed_Zeros is True.

53.a **Implementation defined:** The sign of a zero result (or a component thereof) from any operator or function in Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types, when Real'Signed_Zeros is True.

Implementation Permissions

54 The nongeneric equivalent packages may, but need not, be actual instantiations of the generic package for the appropriate predefined type.

55 Implementations may obtain the result of exponentiation of a complex or pure-imaginary operand by repeated complex multiplication, with arbitrary association of the factors and with a possible final complex reciprocation (when the exponent is negative). Implementations are also permitted to obtain the result of exponentiation of a complex operand, but not of a pure-imaginary operand, by converting the left operand to a polar representation; exponentiating the modulus by the given exponent; multiplying the argument by the given exponent, when the exponent is positive, or dividing the argument by the absolute value of the given exponent, when the exponent is negative; and reconverting to a cartesian representation. Because of this implementation freedom, no accuracy requirement is imposed on complex exponentiation (except for the prescribed results given above, which apply regardless of the implementation method chosen).

Implementation Advice

56 Because the usual mathematical meaning of multiplication of a complex operand and a real operand is that of the scaling of both components of the former by the latter, an implementation should not perform this operation by first promoting the real operand to complex type and then performing a full complex multiplication. In systems that, in the future, support an Ada binding to IEC 559:1989, the latter technique will not generate the required result when one of the components of the complex operand is infinite.

(Explicit multiplication of the infinite component by the zero component obtained during promotion yields a NaN that propagates into the final result.) Analogous advice applies in the case of multiplication of a complex operand and a pure-imaginary operand, and in the case of division of a complex operand by a real or pure-imaginary operand.

Likewise, because the usual mathematical meaning of addition of a complex operand and a real operand is that the imaginary operand remains unchanged, an implementation should not perform this operation by first promoting the real operand to complex type and then performing a full complex addition. In implementations in which the Signed_Zeros attribute of the component type is True (and which therefore conform to IEC 559:1989 in regard to the handling of the sign of zero in predefined arithmetic operations), the latter technique will not generate the required result when the imaginary component of the complex operand is a negatively signed zero. (Explicit addition of the negative zero to the zero obtained during promotion yields a positive zero.) Analogous advice applies in the case of addition of a complex operand and a pure-imaginary operand, and in the case of subtraction of a complex operand and a real or pure-imaginary operand. 57

Implementations in which Real'Signed_Zeros is True should attempt to provide a rational treatment of the signs of zero results and result components. As one example, the result of the Argument function should have the sign of the imaginary component of the parameter X when the point represented by that parameter lies on the positive real axis; as another, the sign of the imaginary component of the Compose_From_Polar function should be the same as (resp., the opposite of) that of the Argument parameter when that parameter has a value of zero and the Modulus parameter has a nonnegative (resp., negative) value. 58

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The semantics of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types differs from Generic_Complex_Types as defined in ISO/IEC CD 13813 (for Ada 83) in the following ways: 58.a

- The generic package is a child of the package defining the Argument_Error exception. 58.b
- The nongeneric equivalents export types and constants with the same names as those exported by the generic package, rather than with names unique to the package. 58.c
- Implementations are not allowed to impose an optional restriction that the generic actual parameter associated with Real be unconstrained. (In view of the ability to declare variables of subtype Real'Base in implementations of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types, this flexibility is no longer needed.) 58.d
- The dependence of the Argument function on the sign of a zero parameter component is tied to the value of Real'Signed_Zeros. 58.e
- Conformance to accuracy requirements is conditional. 58.f

G.1.2 Complex Elementary Functions

Static Semantics

The generic library package Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions has the following declaration: 1

```
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types;                                    2
generic
   with package Complex_Types is new Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types (<>);
   use Complex_Types;
package Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions is
   pragma Pure(Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions);
```

```
3           function Sqrt (X : Complex)   return Complex;
            function Log  (X : Complex)   return Complex;
            function Exp  (X : Complex)   return Complex;
            function Exp  (X : Imaginary) return Complex;
            function "**" (Left : Complex;   Right : Complex)   return Complex;
            function "**" (Left : Complex;   Right : Real'Base) return Complex;
            function "**" (Left : Real'Base; Right : Complex)   return Complex;
4           function Sin (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Cos (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Tan (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Cot (X : Complex) return Complex;
5           function Arcsin (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arccos (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arctan (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arccot (X : Complex) return Complex;
6           function Sinh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Cosh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Tanh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Coth (X : Complex) return Complex;
7           function Arcsinh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arccosh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arctanh (X : Complex) return Complex;
            function Arccoth (X : Complex) return Complex;
8       end Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions;
```

9 {*Ada.Numerics.Complex_Elementary_Functions*} The library package Numerics.Complex_Elementary_Functions defines the same subprograms as Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions, except that the predefined type Float is systematically substituted for Real'Base, and the Complex and Imaginary types exported by Numerics.Complex_Types are systematically substituted for Complex and Imaginary, throughout. Nongeneric equivalents of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions corresponding to each of the other predefined floating point types are defined similarly, with the names Numerics.-Short_Complex_Elementary_Functions, Numerics.Long_Complex_Elementary_Functions, etc.

9.a **Reason:** The nongeneric equivalents are provided to allow the programmer to construct simple mathematical applications without being required to understand and use generics.

10 The overloading of the Exp function for the pure-imaginary type is provided to give the user an alternate way to compose a complex value from a given modulus and argument. In addition to Compose_From_Polar(Rho, Theta) (see G.1.1), the programmer may write Rho * Exp(i * Theta).

11 The imaginary (resp., real) component of the parameter X of the forward hyperbolic (resp., trigonometric) functions and of the Exp function (and the parameter X, itself, in the case of the overloading of the Exp function for the pure-imaginary type) represents an angle measured in radians, as does the imaginary (resp., real) component of the result of the Log and inverse hyperbolic (resp., trigonometric) functions.

12 The functions have their usual mathematical meanings. However, the arbitrariness inherent in the placement of branch cuts, across which some of the complex elementary functions exhibit discontinuities, is eliminated by the following conventions:

13 • The imaginary component of the result of the Sqrt and Log functions is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the negative real axis.

14 • The result of the exponentiation operator when the left operand is of complex type is discontinuous as that operand crosses the negative real axis.

15 • The real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of the Arcsin and Arccos (resp., Arctanh) functions is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the real axis to the left of –1.0 or the right of 1.0.

- The real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of the Arctan (resp., Arcsinh) function is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the imaginary axis below $-i$ or above i. 16
- The real component of the result of the Arccot function is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the imaginary axis between $-i$ and i. 17
- The imaginary component of the Arccosh function is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the real axis to the left of 1.0. 18
- The imaginary component of the result of the Arccoth function is discontinuous as the parameter X crosses the real axis between −1.0 and 1.0. 19

The computed results of the mathematically multivalued functions are rendered single-valued by the following conventions, which are meant to imply the principal branch: 20

- The real component of the result of the Sqrt and Arccosh functions is nonnegative. 21
- The same convention applies to the imaginary component of the result of the Log function as applies to the result of the natural-cycle version of the Argument function of Numerics.-Generic_Complex_Types (see G.1.1). 22
- The range of the real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of the Arcsin and Arctan (resp., Arcsinh and Arctanh) functions is approximately $-\pi/2.0$ to $\pi/2.0$. 23
- The real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of the Arccos and Arccot (resp., Arccoth) functions ranges from 0.0 to approximately π. 24
- The range of the imaginary component of the result of the Arccosh function is approximately $-\pi$ to π. 25

In addition, the exponentiation operator inherits the single-valuedness of the Log function. 26

Dynamic Semantics

The exception Numerics.Argument_Error is raised by the exponentiation operator, signaling a parameter value outside the domain of the corresponding mathematical function, when the value of the left operand is zero and the real component of the exponent (or the exponent itself, when it is of real type) is zero. 27

{*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} The exception Constraint_Error is raised, signaling a pole of the mathematical function (analogous to dividing by zero), in the following cases, provided that Complex_Types.Real'Machine_Overflows is True: 28

- by the Log, Cot, and Coth functions, when the value of the parameter X is zero; 29
- by the exponentiation operator, when the value of the left operand is zero and the real component of the exponent (or the exponent itself, when it is of real type) is negative; 30
- by the Arctan and Arccot functions, when the value of the parameter X is $\pm i$; 31
- by the Arctanh and Arccoth functions, when the value of the parameter X is ± 1.0. 32

[Constraint_Error can also be raised when a finite result overflows (see G.2.6); this may occur for parameter values sufficiently *near* poles, and, in the case of some of the functions, for parameter values having components of sufficiently large magnitude.] 33

Reason: The purpose of raising Constraint_Error (rather than Numerics.Argument_Error) at the poles of a function, when Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is True, is to provide continuous behavior as the actual parameters of the function approach the pole and finally reach it. 33.a

{*unspecified* [partial]} When Complex_Types.Real'Machine_Overflows is False, the result at poles is unspecified.

33.b **Discussion:** It is anticipated that an Ada binding to IEC 559:1989 will be developed in the future. As part of such a binding, the Machine_Overflows attribute of a conformant floating point type will be specified to yield False, which will permit implementations of the complex elementary functions to deliver results with an infinite component (and set the overflow flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error in overflow situations, when traps are disabled. Similarly, it is appropriate for the complex elementary functions to deliver results with an infinite component (and set the zero-divide flag defined by the binding) instead of raising Constraint_Error at poles, when traps are disabled. Finally, such a binding should also specify the behavior of the complex elementary functions, when sensible, given parameters with infinite components.

Implementation Requirements

34 In the implementation of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions, the range of intermediate values allowed during the calculation of a final result shall not be affected by any range constraint of the subtype Complex_Types.Real.

34.a **Implementation Note:** Implementations of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions written in Ada should therefore avoid declaring local variables of subtype Complex_Types.Real; the subtype Complex_Types.Real'Base should be used instead.

35 {*prescribed result (for the evaluation of a complex elementary function)*} In the following cases, evaluation of a complex elementary function shall yield the *prescribed result* (or a result having the prescribed component), provided that the preceding rules do not call for an exception to be raised:

36 • When the parameter X has the value zero, the Sqrt, Sin, Arcsin, Tan, Arctan, Sinh, Arcsinh, Tanh, and Arctanh functions yield a result of zero; the Exp, Cos, and Cosh functions yield a result of one; the Arccos and Arccot functions yield a real result; and the Arccoth function yields an imaginary result.

37 • When the parameter X has the value one, the Sqrt function yields a result of one; the Log, Arccos, and Arccosh functions yield a result of zero; and the Arcsin function yields a real result.

38 • When the parameter X has the value −1.0, the Sqrt function yields the result

39 — i (resp., $-i$), when the sign of the imaginary component of X is positive (resp., negative), if Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is True;

40 — i, if Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is False;

41 • the Log function yields an imaginary result; and the Arcsin and Arccos functions yield a real result.

42 • When the parameter X has the value $\pm i$, the Log function yields an imaginary result.

43 • Exponentiation by a zero exponent yields the value one. Exponentiation by a unit exponent yields the value of the left operand (as a complex value). Exponentiation of the value one yields the value one. Exponentiation of the value zero yields the value zero.

43.a **Discussion:** It is possible to give many other prescribed results restricting the result to the real or imaginary axis when the parameter X is appropriately restricted to easily testable portions of the domain. We follow the proposed ISO/IEC standard for Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions (for Ada 83), CD 13813, in not doing so, however.

44 Other accuracy requirements for the complex elementary functions, which apply only in the strict mode, are given in G.2.6.

45 The sign of a zero result or zero result component yielded by a complex elementary function is implementation defined when Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is True.

45.a **Implementation defined:** The sign of a zero result (or a component thereof) from any operator or function in Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions, when Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is True.

Implementation Permissions

The nongeneric equivalent packages may, but need not, be actual instantiations of the generic package with the appropriate predefined nongeneric equivalent of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types; if they are, then the latter shall have been obtained by actual instantiation of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types. 46

The exponentiation operator may be implemented in terms of the Exp and Log functions. Because this implementation yields poor accuracy in some parts of the domain, no accuracy requirement is imposed on complex exponentiation. 47

{*unspecified* [partial]} The implementation of the Exp function of a complex parameter X is allowed to raise the exception Constraint_Error, signaling overflow, when the real component of X exceeds an unspecified threshold that is approximately log(Complex_Types.Real'Safe_Last). This permission recognizes the impracticality of avoiding overflow in the marginal case that the exponential of the real component of X exceeds the safe range of Complex_Types.Real but both components of the final result do not. Similarly, the Sin and Cos (resp., Sinh and Cosh) functions are allowed to raise the exception Constraint_Error, signaling overflow, when the absolute value of the imaginary (resp., real) component of the parameter X exceeds an unspecified threshold that is approximately log(Complex_Types.Real'Safe_Last)+log(2.0). {*unspecified* [partial]} This permission recognizes the impracticality of avoiding overflow in the marginal case that the hyperbolic sine or cosine of the imaginary (resp., real) component of X exceeds the safe range of Complex_Types.Real but both components of the final result do not. 48

Implementation Advice

Implementations in which Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is True should attempt to provide a rational treatment of the signs of zero results and result components. For example, many of the complex elementary functions have components that are odd functions of one of the parameter components; in these cases, the result component should have the sign of the parameter component at the origin. Other complex elementary functions have zero components whose sign is opposite that of a parameter component at the origin, or is always positive or always negative. 49

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The semantics of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions differs from Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions as defined in ISO/IEC CD 13814 (for Ada 83) in the following ways: 49.a

- The generic package is a child unit of the package defining the Argument_Error exception. 49.b
- The proposed Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions standard (for Ada 83) specified names for the nongeneric equivalents, if provided. Here, those nongeneric equivalents are required. 49.c
- The generic package imports an instance of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types rather than a long list of individual types and operations exported by such an instance. 49.d
- The dependence of the imaginary component of the Sqrt and Log functions on the sign of a zero parameter component is tied to the value of Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros. 49.e
- Conformance to accuracy requirements is conditional. 49.f

G.1.3 Complex Input-Output

The generic package Text_IO.Complex_IO defines procedures for the formatted input and output of complex values. The generic actual parameter in an instantiation of Text_IO.Complex_IO is an instance of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types for some floating point subtype. Exceptional conditions are reported by raising the appropriate exception defined in Text_IO. 1

Implementation Note: An implementation of Text_IO.Complex_IO can be built around an instance of Text_IO.Float_IO for the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real, where Complex_Types is the generic formal package parameter of Text_IO.Complex_IO. There is no need for an implementation of Text_IO.Complex_IO to parse real values. 1.a

Static Semantics

2 The generic library package Text_IO.Complex_IO has the following declaration:

2.a **Ramification:** Because this is a child of Text_IO, the declarations of the visible part of Text_IO are directly visible within it.

3
```
with Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types;
generic
   with package Complex_Types is new Ada.Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types (<>);
package Ada.Text_IO.Complex_IO is
```

4
```
   use Complex_Types;
```

5
```
   Default_Fore : Field := 2;
   Default_Aft  : Field := Real'Digits - 1;
   Default_Exp  : Field := 3;
```

6
```
   procedure Get (File  : in  File_Type;
                  Item  : out Complex;
                  Width : in  Field := 0);
   procedure Get (Item  : out Complex;
                  Width : in  Field := 0);
```

7
```
   procedure Put (File : in File_Type;
                  Item : in Complex;
                  Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                  Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                  Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
   procedure Put (Item : in Complex;
                  Fore : in Field := Default_Fore;
                  Aft  : in Field := Default_Aft;
                  Exp  : in Field := Default_Exp);
```

8
```
   procedure Get (From : in  String;
                  Item : out Complex;
                  Last : out Positive);
   procedure Put (To   : out String;
                  Item : in  Complex;
                  Aft  : in  Field := Default_Aft;
                  Exp  : in  Field := Default_Exp);
```

9
```
end Ada.Text_IO.Complex_IO;
```

10 The semantics of the Get and Put procedures are as follows:

11
```
procedure Get (File  : in  File_Type;
               Item  : out Complex;
               Width : in  Field := 0);
procedure Get (Item  : out Complex;
               Width : in  Field := 0);
```

12 The input sequence is a pair of optionally signed real literals representing the real and imaginary components of a complex value; optionally, the pair of components may be separated by a comma and/or surrounded by a pair of parentheses. Blanks are freely allowed before each of the components and before the parentheses and comma, if either is used. If the value of the parameter Width is zero, then

13 • line and page terminators are also allowed in these places;

14 • the components shall be separated by at least one blank or line terminator if the comma is omitted; and

15 • reading stops when the right parenthesis has been read, if the input sequence includes a left parenthesis, or when the imaginary component has been read, otherwise.

If a nonzero value of Width is supplied, then

- the components shall be separated by at least one blank if the comma is omitted; and

- exactly Width characters are read, or the characters (possibly none) up to a line terminator, whichever comes first (blanks are included in the count).

Reason: The parenthesized and comma-separated form is the form produced by Put on output (see below), and also by list-directed output in Fortran. The other allowed forms match several common styles of edit-directed output in Fortran, allowing most preexisting Fortran data files containing complex data to be read easily. When such files contain complex values with no separation between the real and imaginary components, the user will have to read those components separately, using an instance of Text_IO.Float_IO.

Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Complex that corresponds to the input sequence.

The exception Text_IO.Data_Error is raised if the input sequence does not have the required syntax or if the components of the complex value obtained are not of the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real.

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

Outputs the value of the parameter Item as a pair of decimal literals representing the real and imaginary components of the complex value, using the syntax of an aggregate. More specifically,

- outputs a left parenthesis;

- outputs the value of the real component of the parameter Item with the format defined by the corresponding Put procedure of an instance of Text_IO.Float_IO for the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real, using the given values of Fore, Aft, and Exp;

- outputs a comma;

- outputs the value of the imaginary component of the parameter Item with the format defined by the corresponding Put procedure of an instance of Text_IO.-Float_IO for the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real, using the given values of Fore, Aft, and Exp;

- outputs a right parenthesis.

Discussion: If the file has a bounded line length, a line terminator may be output implicitly before any element of the sequence itemized above.

Discussion: The option of outputting the complex value as a pair of reals without additional punctuation is not provided, since it can be accomplished by outputting the real and imaginary components of the complex value separately.

```
procedure Get (From : in  String;
               Item : out Complex;
               Last : out Positive);
```

Reads a complex value from the beginning of the given string, following the same rule as the Get procedure that reads a complex value from a file, but treating the end of the string as a line terminator. Returns, in the parameter Item, the value of type Complex that corresponds to the input sequence. Returns in Last the index value such that From(Last) is the last character read.

29 The exception Text_IO.Data_Error is raised if the input sequence does not have the required syntax or if the components of the complex value obtained are not of the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real.

30
```
procedure Put (To   : out String;
               Item : in  Complex;
               Aft  : in  Field := Default_Aft;
               Exp  : in  Field := Default_Exp);
```

31 Outputs the value of the parameter Item to the given string as a pair of decimal literals representing the real and imaginary components of the complex value, using the syntax of an aggregate. More specifically,

32 • a left parenthesis, the real component, and a comma are left justified in the given string, with the real component having the format defined by the Put procedure (for output to a file) of an instance of Text_IO.Float_IO for the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real, using a value of zero for Fore and the given values of Aft and Exp;

33 • the imaginary component and a right parenthesis are right justified in the given string, with the imaginary component having the format defined by the Put procedure (for output to a file) of an instance of Text_IO.Float_IO for the base subtype of Complex_Types.Real, using a value for Fore that completely fills the remainder of the string, together with the given values of Aft and Exp.

33.a **Reason:** This rule is the one proposed in LSN-1051. Other rules were considered, including one that would have read ‘‘Outputs the value of the parameter Item to the given string, following the same rule as for output to a file, using a value for Fore such that the sequence of characters output exactly fills, or comes closest to filling, the string; in the latter case, the string is filled by inserting one extra blank immediately after the comma.’’ While this latter rule might be considered the closest analogue to the rule for output to a string in Text_IO.Float_IO, it requires a more difficult and inefficient implementation involving special cases when the integer part of one component is substantially longer than that of the other and the string is too short to allow both to be preceded by blanks. Unless such a special case applies, the latter rule might produce better columnar output if several such strings are ultimately output to a file, but very nearly the same output can be produced by outputting to the file directly, with the appropriate value of Fore; in any case, it might validly be assumed that output to a string is intended for further computation rather than for display, so that the precise formatting of the string to achieve a particular appearance is not the major concern.

34 The exception Text_IO.Layout_Error is raised if the given string is too short to hold the formatted output.

Implementation Permissions

35 Other exceptions declared (by renaming) in Text_IO may be raised by the preceding procedures in the appropriate circumstances, as for the corresponding procedures of Text_IO.Float_IO.

G.1.4 The Package Wide_Text_IO.Complex_IO

Static Semantics

1 {*Ada.Wide_Text_IO.Complex_IO*} Implementations shall also provide the generic library package Wide_Text_IO.Complex_IO. Its declaration is obtained from that of Text_IO.Complex_IO by systematically replacing Text_IO by Wide_Text_IO and String by Wide_String; the description of its behavior is obtained by additionally replacing references to particular characters (commas, parentheses, etc.) by those for the corresponding wide characters.

G.2 Numeric Performance Requirements

Implementation Requirements

{*accuracy*} {*strict mode*} Implementations shall provide a user-selectable mode in which the accuracy and other numeric performance requirements detailed in the following subclauses are observed. This mode, referred to as the *strict mode*, may or may not be the default mode; it directly affects the results of the predefined arithmetic operations of real types and the results of the subprograms in children of the Numerics package, and indirectly affects the operations in other language defined packages. {*relaxed mode*} Implementations shall also provide the opposing mode, which is known as the *relaxed mode*. 1

Reason: On the assumption that the users of an implementation that does not support the Numerics Annex have no particular need for numerical performance, such an implementation has no obligation to meet any particular requirements in this area. On the other hand, users of an implementation that does support the Numerics Annex are provided with a way of ensuring that their programs achieve a known level of numerical performance and that the performance is portable to other such implementations. The relaxed mode is provided to allow implementers to offer an efficient but not fully accurate alternative in the case that the strict mode entails a time overhead that some users may find excessive. In some of its areas of impact, the relaxed mode may be fully equivalent to the strict mode. 1.a

Implementation Note: The relaxed mode may, for example, be used to exploit the implementation of (some of) the elementary functions in hardware, when available. Such implementations often do not meet the accuracy requirements of the strict mode, or do not meet them over the specified range of parameter values, but compensate in other ways that may be important to the user, such as their extreme speed. 1.b

Ramification: For implementations supporting the Numerics Annex, the choice of mode has no effect on the selection of a representation for a real type or on the values of attributes of a real type. 1.c

Implementation Permissions

Either mode may be the default mode. 2

Implementation defined: Whether the strict mode or the relaxed mode is the default. 2.a

The two modes need not actually be different. 3

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} The choice between strict and relaxed numeric performance was not available in Ada 83. 3.a

G.2.1 Model of Floating Point Arithmetic

In the strict mode, the predefined operations of a floating point type shall satisfy the accuracy requirements specified here and shall avoid or signal overflow in the situations described. This behavior is presented in terms of a model of floating point arithmetic that builds on the concept of the canonical form (see A.5.3). 1

Static Semantics

Associated with each floating point type is an infinite set of model numbers. The model numbers of a type are used to define the accuracy requirements that have to be satisfied by certain predefined operations of the type; through certain attributes of the model numbers, they are also used to explain the meaning of a user-declared floating point type declaration. The model numbers of a derived type are those of the parent type; the model numbers of a subtype are those of its type. 2

{*model number*} The *model numbers* of a floating point type T are zero and all the values expressible in the canonical form (for the type T), in which *mantissa* has T'Model_Mantissa digits and *exponent* has a value greater than or equal to T'Model_Emin. (These attributes are defined in G.2.2.) 3

Discussion: The model is capable of describing the behavior of most existing hardware that has a mantissa-exponent representation. As applied to a type T, it is parameterized by the values of T'Machine_Radix, T'Model_Mantissa, T'Model_Emin, T'Safe_First, and T'Safe_Last. The values of these attributes are determined by how, and how well, the hardware behaves. They in turn determine the set of model numbers and the safe range of the type, which figure in the accuracy and range (overflow avoidance) requirements. 3.a

3.b In hardware that is free of arithmetic anomalies, T'Model_Mantissa, T'Model_Emin, T'Safe_First, and T'Safe_Last will yield the same values as T'Machine_Mantissa, T'Machine_Emin, T'Base'First, and T'Base'Last, respectively, and the model numbers in the safe range of the type T will coincide with the machine numbers of the type T. In less perfect hardware, it is not possible for the model-oriented attributes to have these optimal values, since the hardware, by definition, and therefore the implementation, cannot conform to the stringencies of the resulting model; in this case, the values yielded by the model-oriented parameters have to be made more conservative (i.e., have to be penalized), with the result that the model numbers are more widely separated than the machine numbers, and the safe range is a subrange of the base range. The implementation will then be able to conform to the requirements of the weaker model defined by the sparser set of model numbers and the smaller safe range.

4 {*model interval*} A *model interval* of a floating point type is any interval whose bounds are model numbers of the type. {*model interval (associated with a value)*} The *model interval* of a type T *associated with a value v* is the smallest model interval of T that includes *v*. (The model interval associated with a model number of a type consists of that number only.)

Implementation Requirements

5 The accuracy requirements for the evaluation of certain predefined operations of floating point types are as follows.

5.a **Discussion:** This subclause does not cover the accuracy of an operation of a static expression; such operations have to be evaluated exactly (see 4.9). It also does not cover the accuracy of the predefined attributes of a floating point subtype that yield a value of the type; such operations also yield exact results (see 3.5.8 and A.5.3).

6 {*operand interval*} An *operand interval* is the model interval, of the type specified for the operand of an operation, associated with the value of the operand.

7 For any predefined arithmetic operation that yields a result of a floating point type T, the required bounds on the result are given by a model interval of T (called the *result interval*) defined in terms of the operand values as follows:

8 • {*result interval (for the evaluation of a predefined arithmetic operation)*} The result interval is the smallest model interval of T that includes the minimum and the maximum of all the values obtained by applying the (exact) mathematical operation to values arbitrarily selected from the respective operand intervals.

9 The result interval of an exponentiation is obtained by applying the above rule to the sequence of multiplications defined by the exponent, assuming arbitrary association of the factors, and to the final division in the case of a negative exponent.

10 The result interval of a conversion of a numeric value to a floating point type T is the model interval of T associated with the operand value, except when the source expression is of a fixed point type with a *small* that is not a power of T'Machine_Radix or is a fixed point multiplication or division either of whose operands has a *small* that is not a power of T'Machine_Radix; in these cases, the result interval is implementation defined.

10.a **Implementation defined:** The result interval in certain cases of fixed-to-float conversion.

11 {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} For any of the foregoing operations, the implementation shall deliver a value that belongs to the result interval when both bounds of the result interval are in the safe range of the result type T, as determined by the values of T'Safe_First and T'Safe_Last; otherwise,

12 • {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} if T'Machine_Overflows is True, the implementation shall either deliver a value that belongs to the result interval or raise Constraint_Error;

- if T'Machine_Overflows is False, the result is implementation defined. 13

Implementation defined: The result of a floating point arithmetic operation in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False. 13.a

For any predefined relation on operands of a floating point type T, the implementation may deliver any value (i.e., either True or False) obtained by applying the (exact) mathematical comparison to values arbitrarily chosen from the respective operand intervals. 14

The result of a membership test is defined in terms of comparisons of the operand value with the lower and upper bounds of the given range or type mark (the usual rules apply to these comparisons). 15

Implementation Permissions

If the underlying floating point hardware implements division as multiplication by a reciprocal, the result interval for division (and exponentiation by a negative exponent) is implementation defined. 16

Implementation defined: The result interval for division (or exponentiation by a negative exponent), when the floating point hardware implements division as multiplication by a reciprocal. 16.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The Ada 9X model numbers of a floating point type that are in the safe range of the type are comparable to the Ada 83 safe numbers of the type. There is no analog of the Ada 83 model numbers. The Ada 9X model numbers, when not restricted to the safe range, are an infinite set. 16.b

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} Giving the model numbers the hardware radix, instead of always a radix of two, allows (in conjunction with other changes) some borderline declared types to be represented with less precision than in Ada 83 (i.e., with single precision, whereas Ada 83 would have used double precision). Because the lower precision satisfies the requirements of the model (and did so in Ada 83 as well), this change is viewed as a desirable correction of an anomaly, rather than a worrisome inconsistency. (Of course, the wider representation chosen in Ada 83 also remains eligible for selection in Ada 9X.) 16.c

As an example of this phenomenon, assume that Float is represented in single precision and that a double precision type is also available. Also assume hexadecimal hardware with clean properties, for example certain IBM hardware. Then, 16.d

```
type T is digits Float'Digits range -Float'Last .. Float'Last;
```
16.e

results in T being represented in double precision in Ada 83 and in single precision in Ada 9X. The latter is intuitively correct; the former is counterintuitive. The reason why the double precision type is used in Ada 83 is that Float has model and safe numbers (in Ada 83) with 21 binary digits in their mantissas, as is required to model the hypothesized hexadecimal hardware using a binary radix; thus Float'Last, which is not a model number, is slightly outside the range of safe numbers of the single precision type, making that type ineligible for selection as the representation of T even though it provides adequate precision. In Ada 9X, Float'Last (the same value as before) is a model number and is in the safe range of Float on the hypothesized hardware, making Float eligible for the representation of T. 16.f

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} Giving the model numbers the hardware radix allows for practical implementations on decimal hardware. 16.g

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The wording of the model of floating point arithmetic has been simplified to a large extent. 16.h

G.2.2 Model-Oriented Attributes of Floating Point Types

In implementations that support the Numerics Annex, the model-oriented attributes of floating point types shall yield the values defined here, in both the strict and the relaxed modes. These definitions add conditions to those in A.5.3. 1

Static Semantics

For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 2

3 S'Model_Mantissa Yields the number of digits in the mantissa of the canonical form of the model numbers of *T* (see A.5.3). The value of this attribute shall be greater than or equal to $\lceil d \cdot \log(10)/\log(T\text{'Machine_Radix}) \rceil + 1$, where *d* is the requested decimal precision of *T*. In addition, it shall be less than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Mantissa. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*.

3.a **Ramification:** S'Model_Epsilon, which is defined in terms of S'Model_Mantissa (see A.5.3), yields the absolute value of the difference between one and the next model number of the type *T* above one. It is equal to or larger than the absolute value of the difference between one and the next machine number of the type *T* above one.

4 S'Model_Emin Yields the minimum exponent of the canonical form of the model numbers of *T* (see A.5.3). The value of this attribute shall be greater than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Emin. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*.

4.a **Ramification:** S'Model_Small, which is defined in terms of S'Model_Emin (see A.5.3), yields the smallest positive (nonzero) model number of the type *T*.

5 S'Safe_First Yields the lower bound of the safe range of *T*. The value of this attribute shall be a model number of *T* and greater than or equal to the lower bound of the base range of *T*. In addition, if *T* is declared by a floating_point_definition or is derived from such a type, and the floating_point_definition includes a real_range_specification specifying a lower bound of *lb*, then the value of this attribute shall be less than or equal to *lb*; otherwise, it shall be less than or equal to $-10.0^{4 \cdot d}$, where *d* is the requested decimal precision of *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_real*.

6 S'Safe_Last Yields the upper bound of the safe range of *T*. The value of this attribute shall be a model number of *T* and less than or equal to the upper bound of the base range of *T*. In addition, if *T* is declared by a floating_point_definition or is derived from such a type, and the floating_point_definition includes a real_range_specification specifying an upper bound of *ub*, then the value of this attribute shall be greater than or equal to *ub*; otherwise, it shall be greater than or equal to $10.0^{4 \cdot d}$, where d is the requested decimal precision of *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_real*.

7 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} S'Model
Denotes a function (of a parameter *X*) whose specification is given in A.5.3. If *X* is a model number of *T*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the value obtained by rounding or truncating *X* to either one of the adjacent model numbers of *T*. {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if the resulting model number is outside the safe range of S. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True.

8 Subject to the constraints given above, the values of S'Model_Mantissa and S'Safe_Last are to be maximized, and the values of S'Model_Emin and S'Safe_First minimized, by the implementation as follows:

9 • First, S'Model_Mantissa is set to the largest value for which values of S'Model_Emin, S'Safe_First, and S'Safe_Last can be chosen so that the implementation satisfies the strict-mode requirements of G.2.1 in terms of the model numbers and safe range induced by these attributes.

10 • Next, S'Model_Emin is set to the smallest value for which values of S'Safe_First and S'Safe_Last can be chosen so that the implementation satisfies the strict-mode requirements of G.2.1 in terms of the model numbers and safe range induced by these attributes and the previously determined value of S'Model_Mantissa.

11 • Finally, S'Safe_First and S'Safe_last are set (in either order) to the smallest and largest values, respectively, for which the implementation satisfies the strict-mode requirements of G.2.1 in terms of the model numbers and safe range induced by these attributes and the previously determined values of S'Model_Mantissa and S'Model_Emin.

Ramification: {*IEEE floating point arithmetic*} {*IEC 559:1989*} The following table shows appropriate attribute values for IEEE basic single and double precision types (ANSI/IEEE Std 754-1985, IEC 559:1989). Here, we use the names IEEE_Float_32 and IEEE_Float_64, the names that would typically be declared in package Interfaces, in an implementation that supports IEEE arithmetic. In such an implementation, the attributes would typically be the same for Standard.Float and Long_Float, respectively. 11.a

Attribute	IEEE_Float_32	IEEE_Float_64	11.b
'Machine_Radix	2	2	11.c
'Machine_Mantissa	24	53	
'Machine_Emin	-125	-1021	
'Machine_Emax	128	1024	
'Denorm	True	True	
'Machine_Rounds	True	True	
'Machine_Overflows	True/False	True/False	
'Signed_Zeros	should be True	should be True	
'Model_Mantissa	(same as 'Machine_Mantissa)	(same as 'Machine_Mantissa)	11.d
'Model_Emin	(same as 'Machine_Emin)	(same as 'Machine_Emin)	
'Model_Epsilon	2.0**(-23)	2.0**(-52)	
'Model_Small	2.0**(-126)	2.0**(-1022)	
'Safe_First	-2.0**128*(1.0-2.0**(-24))	-2.0**1024*(1.0-2.0**(-53))	
'Safe_Last	2.0**128*(1.0-2.0**(-24))	2.0**1024*(1.0-2.0**(-53))	
'Digits	6	15	11.e
'Base'Digits	(same as 'Digits)	(same as 'Digits)	
'First	(same as 'Safe_First)	(same as 'Safe_First)	11.f
'Last	(same as 'Safe_Last)	(same as 'Safe_Last)	
'Size	32	64	

Note: 'Machine_Overflows can be True or False, depending on whether the Ada implementation raises Constraint_Error or delivers a signed infinity in overflow and zerodivide situations (and at poles of the elementary functions). 11.g

G.2.3 Model of Fixed Point Arithmetic

In the strict mode, the predefined arithmetic operations of a fixed point type shall satisfy the accuracy requirements specified here and shall avoid or signal overflow in the situations described. 1

Implementation Requirements

The accuracy requirements for the predefined fixed point arithmetic operations and conversions, and the results of relations on fixed point operands, are given below. 2

Discussion: This subclause does not cover the accuracy of an operation of a static expression; such operations have to be evaluated exactly (see 4.9). 2.a

The operands of the fixed point adding operators, absolute value, and comparisons have the same type. These operations are required to yield exact results, unless they overflow. 3

Multiplications and divisions are allowed between operands of any two fixed point types; the result has to be (implicitly or explicitly) converted to some other numeric type. For purposes of defining the accuracy rules, the multiplication or division and the conversion are treated as a single operation whose accuracy depends on three types (those of the operands and the result). For decimal fixed point types, the attribute T'Round may be used to imply explicit conversion with rounding (see 3.5.10). 4

When the result type is a floating point type, the accuracy is as given in G.2.1. {*perfect result set*} For some combinations of the operand and result types in the remaining cases, the result is required to belong to a small set of values called the *perfect result set*; {*close result set*} for other combinations, it is required merely to belong to a generally larger and implementation-defined set of values called the *close result set*. When the result type is a decimal fixed point type, the perfect result set contains a single value; thus, operations on decimal types are always fully specified. 5

5.a **Implementation defined:** The definition of *close result set*, which determines the accuracy of certain fixed point multiplications and divisions.

6 When one operand of a fixed-fixed multiplication or division is of type *universal_real*, that operand is not implicitly converted in the usual sense, since the context does not determine a unique target type, but the accuracy of the result of the multiplication or division (i.e., whether the result has to belong to the perfect result set or merely the close result set) depends on the value of the operand of type *universal_real* and on the types of the other operand and of the result.

6.a **Discussion:** We need not consider here the multiplication or division of two such operands, since in that case either the operation is evaluated exactly (i.e., it is an operation of a static expression all of whose operators are of a root numeric type) or it is considered to be an operation of a floating point type.

7 For a fixed point multiplication or division whose (exact) mathematical result is *v*, and for the conversion of a value *v* to a fixed point type, the perfect result set and close result set are defined as follows:

8 • If the result type is an ordinary fixed point type with a *small* of *s*,

9 • if *v* is an integer multiple of *s*, then the perfect result set contains only the value *v*;

10 • otherwise, it contains the integer multiple of *s* just below *v* and the integer multiple of *s* just above *v*.

11 The close result set is an implementation-defined set of consecutive integer multiples of *s* containing the perfect result set as a subset.

12 • If the result type is a decimal type with a *small* of *s*,

13 • if *v* is an integer multiple of *s*, then the perfect result set contains only the value *v*;

14 • otherwise, if truncation applies then it contains only the integer multiple of *s* in the direction toward zero, whereas if rounding applies then it contains only the nearest integer multiple of *s* (with ties broken by rounding away from zero).

15 The close result set is an implementation-defined set of consecutive integer multiples of *s* containing the perfect result set as a subset.

15.a **Ramification:** As a consequence of subsequent rules, this case does not arise when the operand types are also decimal types.

16 • If the result type is an integer type,

17 • if *v* is an integer, then the perfect result set contains only the value *v*;

18 • otherwise, it contains the integer nearest to the value *v* (if *v* lies equally distant from two consecutive integers, the perfect result set contains the one that is further from zero).

19 The close result set is an implementation-defined set of consecutive integers containing the perfect result set as a subset.

20 The result of a fixed point multiplication or division shall belong either to the perfect result set or to the close result set, as described below, if overflow does not occur. In the following cases, if the result type is a fixed point type, let *s* be its *small*; otherwise, i.e. when the result type is an integer type, let *s* be 1.0.

21 • For a multiplication or division neither of whose operands is of type *universal_real*, let *l* and *r* be the *smalls* of the left and right operands. For a multiplication, if $(l \cdot r)/s$ is an integer or the reciprocal of an integer (the *smalls* are said to be ‘‘compatible’’ in this case), the result shall belong to the perfect result set; otherwise, it belongs to the close result set. For a division, if $l/(r \cdot s)$ is an integer or the reciprocal of an integer (i.e., the *smalls* are compatible), the result shall belong to the perfect result set; otherwise, it belongs to the close result set.

Ramification: When the operand and result types are all decimal types, their *smalls* are necessarily compatible; the same is true when they are all ordinary fixed point types with binary *smalls*. 21.a

- For a multiplication or division having one *universal_real* operand with a value of *v*, note that it is always possible to factor *v* as an integer multiple of a ''compatible'' *small*, but the integer multiple may be ''too big.'' If there exists a factorization in which that multiple is less than some implementation-defined limit, the result shall belong to the perfect result set; otherwise, it belongs to the close result set. 22

Implementation defined: Conditions on a *universal_real* operand of a fixed point multiplication or division for which the result shall be in the *perfect result set*. 22.a

A multiplication P * Q of an operand of a fixed point type F by an operand of an integer type I, or vice-versa, and a division P / Q of an operand of a fixed point type F by an operand of an integer type I, are also allowed. In these cases, the result has a type of F; explicit conversion of the result is never required. The accuracy required in these cases is the same as that required for a multiplication F(P * Q) or a division F(P / Q) obtained by interpreting the operand of the integer type to have a fixed point type with a *small* of 1.0. 23

The accuracy of the result of a conversion from an integer or fixed point type to a fixed point type, or from a fixed point type to an integer type, is the same as that of a fixed point multiplication of the source value by a fixed point operand having a *small* of 1.0 and a value of 1.0, as given by the foregoing rules. The result of a conversion from a floating point type to a fixed point type shall belong to the close result set. The result of a conversion of a *universal_real* operand to a fixed point type shall belong to the perfect result set. 24

The possibility of overflow in the result of a predefined arithmetic operation or conversion yielding a result of a fixed point type T is analogous to that for floating point types, except for being related to the base range instead of the safe range. {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} If all of the permitted results belong to the base range of T, then the implementation shall deliver one of the permitted results; otherwise, 25

- {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} if T'Machine_Overflows is True, the implementation shall either deliver one of the permitted results or raise Constraint_Error; 26
- if T'Machine_Overflows is False, the result is implementation defined. 27

Implementation defined: The result of a fixed point arithmetic operation in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False. 27.a

Inconsistencies With Ada 83

{*inconsistencies with Ada 83*} Since the values of a fixed point type are now just the integer multiples of its *small*, the possibility of using extra bits available in the chosen representation for extra accuracy rather than for increasing the base range would appear to be removed, raising the possibility that some fixed point expressions will yield less accurate results than in Ada 83. However, this is partially offset by the ability of an implementation to choose a smaller default *small* than before. Of course, if it does so for a type T then T'Small will have a different value than it previously had. 27.b

The accuracy requirements in the case of incompatible *smalls* are relaxed to foster wider support for non-binary *smalls*. If this relaxation is exploited for a type that was previously supported, lower accuracy could result; however, there is no particular incentive to exploit the relaxation in such a case. 27.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The fixed point accuracy requirements are now expressed without reference to model or safe numbers, largely because the full generality of the former model was never exploited in the case of fixed point types (particularly in regard to operand perturbation). Although the new formulation in terms of perfect result sets and close result sets is still verbose, it can be seen to distill down to two cases: 27.d

- a case where the result must be the exact result, if the exact result is representable, or, if not, then either one of the adjacent values of the type (in some subcases only one of those adjacent values is allowed); 27.e

27.f • a case where the accuracy is not specified by the language.

G.2.4 Accuracy Requirements for the Elementary Functions

1 In the strict mode, the performance of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions shall be as specified here.

Implementation Requirements

2 {*result interval (for the evaluation of an elementary function)*} {*maximum relative error (for the evaluation of an elementary function)*} When an exception is not raised, the result of evaluating a function in an instance *EF* of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions belongs to a *result interval*, defined as the smallest model interval of *EF*.Float_Type that contains all the values of the form $f \cdot (1.0+d)$, where f is the exact value of the corresponding mathematical function at the given parameter values, d is a real number, and $|d|$ is less than or equal to the function's *maximum relative error*. {*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} The function delivers a value that belongs to the result interval when both of its bounds belong to the safe range of *EF*.Float_Type; otherwise,

3 • {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} if *EF*.Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is True, the function either delivers a value that belongs to the result interval or raises Constraint_Error, signaling overflow;

4 • if *EF*.Float_Type'Machine_Overflows is False, the result is implementation defined.

4.a **Implementation defined:** The result of an elementary function reference in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False.

5 The maximum relative error exhibited by each function is as follows:

6 • $2.0 \cdot$*EF*.Float_Type'Model_Epsilon, in the case of the Sqrt, Sin, and Cos functions;

7 • $4.0 \cdot$*EF*.Float_Type'Model_Epsilon, in the case of the Log, Exp, Tan, Cot, and inverse trigonometric functions; and

8 • $8.0 \cdot$*EF*.Float_Type'Model_Epsilon, in the case of the forward and inverse hyperbolic functions.

9 The maximum relative error exhibited by the exponentiation operator, which depends on the values of the operands, is $(4.0 + |\text{Right} \cdot \log(\text{Left})| / 32.0) \cdot$*EF*.Float_Type'Model_Epsilon.

10 The maximum relative error given above applies throughout the domain of the forward trigonometric functions when the Cycle parameter is specified. {*angle threshold*} When the Cycle parameter is omitted, the maximum relative error given above applies only when the absolute value of the angle parameter X is less than or equal to some implementation-defined *angle threshold*, which shall be at least *EF*.Float_Type'Machine_Radix$^{\lfloor EF\text{.Float_Type'Machine_Mantissa}/2 \rfloor}$. Beyond the angle threshold, the accuracy of the forward trigonometric functions is implementation defined.

10.a **Implementation defined:** The value of the *angle threshold*, within which certain elementary functions, complex arithmetic operations, and complex elementary functions yield results conforming to a maximum relative error bound.

10.b **Implementation defined:** The accuracy of certain elementary functions for parameters beyond the angle threshold.

10.c **Implementation Note:** The angle threshold indirectly determines the amount of precision that the implementation has to maintain during argument reduction.

11 The prescribed results specified in A.5.1 for certain functions at particular parameter values take precedence over the maximum relative error bounds; effectively, they narrow to a single value the result interval allowed by the maximum relative error bounds. Additional rules with a similar effect are given

by the table below for the inverse trigonometric functions, at particular parameter values for which the mathematical result is possibly not a model number of *EF*.Float_Type (or is, indeed, even transcendental). In each table entry, the values of the parameters are such that the result lies on the axis between two quadrants; the corresponding accuracy rule, which takes precedence over the maximum relative error bounds, is that the result interval is the model interval of *EF*.Float_Type associated with the exact mathematical result given in the table.

12

Tightly Approximated Elementary Function Results				
Function	**Value of X**	**Value of Y**	**Exact Result when Cycle Specified**	**Exact Result when Cycle Omitted**
Arcsin	1.0	n.a.	Cycle/4.0	π/2.0
Arcsin	–1.0	n.a.	–Cycle/4.0	–π/2.0
Arccos	0.0	n.a.	Cycle/4.0	π/2.0
Arccos	–1.0	n.a.	Cycle/2.0	π
Arctan and Arccot	0.0	positive	Cycle/4.0	π/2.0
Arctan and Arccot	0.0	negative	–Cycle/4.0	–π/2.0
Arctan and Arccot	negative	+0.0	Cycle/2.0	π
Arctan and Arccot	negative	–0.0	–Cycle/2.0	–π
Arctan and Arccot	negative	0.0	Cycle/2.0	π

The last line of the table is meant to apply when *EF*.Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is False; the two lines just above it, when *EF*.Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True and the parameter Y has a zero value with the indicated sign. 13

The amount by which the result of an inverse trigonometric function is allowed to spill over into a quadrant adjacent to the one corresponding to the principal branch, as given in A.5.1, is limited. The rule is that the result belongs to the smallest model interval of *EF*.Float_Type that contains both boundaries of the quadrant corresponding to the principal branch. This rule also takes precedence over the maximum relative error bounds, effectively narrowing the result interval allowed by them. 14

Finally, the following specifications also take precedence over the maximum relative error bounds: 15

- The absolute value of the result of the Sin, Cos, and Tanh functions never exceeds one. 16
- The absolute value of the result of the Coth function is never less than one. 17
- The result of the Cosh function is never less than one. 18

Implementation Advice

The versions of the forward trigonometric functions without a Cycle parameter should not be implemented by calling the corresponding version with a Cycle parameter of 2.0*Numerics.Pi, since this will not provide the required accuracy in some portions of the domain. For the same reason, the version of Log without a Base parameter should not be implemented by calling the corresponding version with a Base parameter of Numerics.e. 19

Wording Changes From Ada 83

19.a The semantics of Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions differs from Generic_Elementary_Functions as defined in ISO/IEC DIS 11430 (for Ada 83) in the following ways related to the accuracy specified for strict mode:

19.b • The maximum relative error bounds use the Model_Epsilon attribute instead of the Base'Epsilon attribute.

19.c • The accuracy requirements are expressed in terms of result intervals that are model intervals. On the one hand, this facilitates the description of the required results in the presence of underflow; on the other hand, it slightly relaxes the requirements expressed in ISO/IEC DIS 11430.

G.2.5 Performance Requirements for Random Number Generation

1 In the strict mode, the performance of Numerics.Float_Random and Numerics.Discrete_Random shall be as specified here.

Implementation Requirements

2 Two different calls to the time-dependent Reset procedure shall reset the generator to different states, provided that the calls are separated in time by at least one second and not more than fifty years.

3 The implementation's representations of generator states and its algorithms for generating random numbers shall yield a period of at least $2^{31}-2$; much longer periods are desirable but not required.

4 The implementations of Numerics.Float_Random.Random and Numerics.Discrete_Random.Random shall pass at least 85% of the individual trials in a suite of statistical tests. For Numerics.Float_Random, the tests are applied directly to the floating point values generated (i.e., they are not converted to integers first), while for Numerics.Discrete_Random they are applied to the generated values of various discrete types. Each test suite performs 6 different tests, with each test repeated 10 times, yielding a total of 60 individual trials. An individual trial is deemed to pass if the chi-square value (or other statistic) calculated for the observed counts or distribution falls within the range of values corresponding to the 2.5 and 97.5 percentage points for the relevant degrees of freedom (i.e., it shall be neither too high nor too low). For the purpose of determining the degrees of freedom, measurement categories are combined whenever the expected counts are fewer than 5.

4.a **Implementation Note:** In the floating point random number test suite, the generator is reset to a time-dependent state at the beginning of the run. The test suite incorporates the following tests, adapted from D. E. Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming, vol. 2: Seminumerical Algorithms.* In the descriptions below, the given number of degrees of freedom is the number before reduction due to any necessary combination of measurement categories with small expected counts; it is one less than the number of measurement categories.

4.b • Proportional Distribution Test (a variant of the Equidistribution Test). The interval 0.0 .. 1.0 is partitioned into K subintervals. K is chosen randomly between 4 and 25 for each repetition of the test, along with the boundaries of the subintervals (subject to the constraint that at least 2 of the subintervals have a width of 0.001 or more). 5000 random floating point numbers are generated. The counts of random numbers falling into each subinterval are tallied and compared with the expected counts, which are proportional to the widths of the subintervals. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is $K-1$.

4.c • Gap Test. The bounds of a range A .. B, with $0.0 \le A < B \le 1.0$, are chosen randomly for each repetition of the test, subject to the constraint that $0.2 \le B-A \le 0.6$. Random floating point numbers are generated until 5000 falling into the range A .. B have been encountered. Each of these 5000 is preceded by a ''gap'' (of length greater than or equal to 0) of consecutive random numbers not falling into the range A .. B. The counts of gaps of each length from 0 to 15, and of all lengths greater than 15 lumped together, are tallied and compared with the expected counts. Let $P = B-A$. The probability that a gap has a length of L is $(1-P)^L \cdot P$ for $L \le 15$, while the probability that a gap has a length of 16 or more is $(1-P)^{16}$. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 16.

4.d • Permutation Test. 5000 tuples of 4 different random floating point numbers are generated. (An entire 4-tuple is discarded in the unlikely event that it contains any two exactly equal components.) The counts of each of the $4! = 24$ possible relative orderings of the components of the 4-tuples are tallied and compared with the expected counts. Each of the possible relative orderings has an equal probability. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 23.

- Increasing-Runs Test. Random floating point numbers are generated until 5000 increasing runs have been observed. An ''increasing run'' is a sequence of random numbers in strictly increasing order; it is followed by a random number that is strictly smaller than the preceding random number. (A run under construction is entirely discarded in the unlikely event that one random number is followed immediately by an exactly equal random number.) The decreasing random number that follows an increasing run is discarded and not included with the next increasing run. The counts of increasing runs of each length from 1 to 4, and of all lengths greater than 4 lumped together, are tallied and compared with the expected counts. The probability that an increasing run has a length of L is $1/L! - 1/(L+1)!$ for $L \le 4$, while the probability that an increasing run has a length of 5 or more is 1/5!. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 4. 4.e

- Decreasing-Runs Test. The test is similar to the Increasing Runs Test, but with decreasing runs. 4.f

- Maximum-of-t Test (with $t = 5$). 5000 tuples of 5 random floating point numbers are generated. The maximum of the components of each 5-tuple is determined and raised to the 5th power. The uniformity of the resulting values over the range 0.0 .. 1.0 is tested as in the Proportional Distribution Test. 4.g

Implementation Note: In the discrete random number test suite, Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated as described below. The generator is reset to a time-dependent state after each instantiation. The test suite incorporates the following tests, adapted from D. E. Knuth (*op. cit.*) and other sources. The given number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is reduced by any necessary combination of measurement categories with small expected counts, as described above. 4.h

- Equidistribution Test. In each repetition of the test, a number R between 2 and 30 is chosen randomly, and Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated with an integer subtype whose range is 1 .. R. 5000 integers are generated randomly from this range. The counts of occurrences of each integer in the range are tallied and compared with the expected counts, which have equal probabilities. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is R–1. 4.i

- Simplified Poker Test. Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated once with an enumeration subtype representing the 13 denominations (Two through Ten, Jack, Queen, King, and Ace) of an infinite deck of playing cards. 2000 ''poker'' hands (5-tuples of values of this subtype) are generated randomly. The counts of hands containing exactly K different denominations ($1 \le K \le 5$) are tallied and compared with the expected counts. The probability that a hand contains exactly K different denominations is given by a formula in Knuth. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 4. 4.j

- Coupon Collector's Test. Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated in each repetition of the test with an integer subtype whose range is 1 .. R, where R varies systematically from 2 to 11. Integers are generated randomly from this range until each value in the range has occurred, and the number K of integers generated is recorded. This constitutes a ''coupon collector's segment'' of length K. 2000 such segments are generated. The counts of segments of each length from R to R+29, and of all lengths greater than R+29 lumped together, are tallied and compared with the expected counts. The probability that a segment has any given length is given by formulas in Knuth. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 30. 4.k

- Craps Test (Lengths of Games). Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated once with an integer subtype whose range is 1 .. 6 (representing the six numbers on a die). 5000 craps games are played, and their lengths are recorded. (The length of a craps game is the number of rolls of the pair of dice required to produce a win or a loss. A game is won on the first roll if the dice show 7 or 11; it is lost if they show 2, 3, or 12. If the dice show some other sum on the first roll, it is called the *point*, and the game is won if and only if the point is rolled again before a 7 is rolled.) The counts of games of each length from 1 to 18, and of all lengths greater than 18 lumped together, are tallied and compared with the expected counts. For $2 \le S \le 12$, let D_S be the probability that a roll of a pair of dice shows the sum S, and let $Q_S(L) = D_S \cdot (1 - (D_S + D_7))^{L-2} \cdot (D_S + D_7)$. Then, the probability that a game has a length of 1 is $D_7 + D_{11} + D_2 + D_3 + D_{12}$ and, for $L > 1$, the probability that a game has a length of L is $Q_4(L) + Q_5(L) + Q_6(L) + Q_8(L) + Q_9(L) + Q_{10}(L)$. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 18. 4.l

- Craps Test (Lengths of Passes). This test is similar to the last, but enough craps games are played for 3000 losses to occur. A string of wins followed by a loss is called a *pass*, and its length is the number of wins preceding the loss. The counts of passes of each length from 0 to 7, and of all lengths greater than 7 lumped together, are tallied and compared with the expected counts. For $L \ge 0$, the probability that a pass has a length of L is $W^L \cdot (1-W)$, where W, the probability that a game ends in a win, is 244.0/495.0. The number of degrees of freedom for the chi-square test is 8. 4.m

- Collision Test. Numerics.Discrete_Random is instantiated once with an integer or enumeration type representing binary bits. 15 successive calls on the Random function are used to obtain the bits of a 15-bit 4.n

binary integer between 0 and 32767. 3000 such integers are generated, and the number of collisions (integers previously generated) is counted and compared with the expected count. A chi-square test is not used to assess the number of collisions; rather, the limits on the number of collisions, corresponding to the 2.5 and 97.5 percentage points, are (from formulas in Knuth) 112 and 154. The test passes if and only if the number of collisions is in this range.

G.2.6 Accuracy Requirements for Complex Arithmetic

1 In the strict mode, the performance of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types and Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions shall be as specified here.

Implementation Requirements

2 When an exception is not raised, the result of evaluating a real function of an instance *CT* of Numerics.-Generic_Complex_Types (i.e., a function that yields a value of subtype *CT*.Real'Base or *CT*.Imaginary) belongs to a result interval defined as for a real elementary function (see G.2.4).

3 {*result interval (for a component of the result of evaluating a complex function)*} When an exception is not raised, each component of the result of evaluating a complex function of such an instance, or of an instance of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions obtained by instantiating the latter with *CT* (i.e., a function that yields a value of subtype *CT*.Complex), also belongs to a *result interval*. The result intervals for the components of the result are either defined by a *maximum relative error* bound or by a *maximum box error* bound. {*maximum relative error (for a component of the result of evaluating a complex function)*} When the result interval for the real (resp., imaginary) component is defined by maximum relative error, it is defined as for that of a real function, relative to the exact value of the real (resp., imaginary) part of the result of the corresponding mathematical function.

3.a **Discussion:** The maximum relative error could be specified separately for each component, but we do not take advantage of that freedom here.

{*maximum box error (for a component of the result of evaluating a complex function)*} When defined by maximum box error, the result interval for a component of the result is the smallest model interval of *CT*.Real that contains all the values of the corresponding part of $f \cdot (1.0+d)$, where f is the exact complex value of the corresponding mathematical function at the given parameter values, d is complex, and $|d|$ is less than or equal to the given maximum box error.

3.b **Discussion:** Note that $f \cdot (1.0+d)$ defines a small circular region of the complex plane centered at f, and the result intervals for the real and imaginary components of the result define a small rectangular box containing that circle.

3.c **Reason:** Box error is used when the computation of the result risks loss of significance in a component due to cancellation.

3.d **Ramification:** The components of a complex function that exhibits bounded relative error in each component have to have the correct sign. In contrast, one of the components of a complex function that exhibits bounded box error may have the wrong sign, since the dimensions of the box containing the result are proportional to the modulus of the mathematical result and not to either component of the mathematical result individually. Thus, for example, the box containing the computed result of a complex function whose mathematical result has a large modulus but lies very close to the imaginary axis might well straddle that axis, allowing the real component of the computed result to have the wrong sign. In this case, the distance between the computed result and the mathematical result is, nevertheless, a small fraction of the modulus of the mathematical result.

{*Overflow_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Overflow_Check)*} The function delivers a value that belongs to the result interval (or a value both of whose components belong to their respective result intervals) when both bounds of the result interval(s) belong to the safe range of *CT*.Real; otherwise,

4 - {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} if *CT*.Real'Machine_Overflows is True, the function either delivers a value that belongs to the result interval (or a value both of whose components belong to their respective result intervals) or raises Constraint_Error, signaling overflow;

- if *CT*.Real'Machine_Overflows is False, the result is implementation defined. 5

Implementation defined: The result of a complex arithmetic operation or complex elementary function reference in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the corresponding real type is False. 5.a

The error bounds for particular complex functions are tabulated below. In the table, the error bound is given as the coefficient of *CT*.Real'Model_Epsilon. 6

7

Error Bounds for Particular Complex Functions			
Function or Operator	**Nature of Result**	**Nature of Bound**	**Error Bound**
Modulus	real	max. rel. error	3.0
Argument	real	max. rel. error	4.0
Compose_From_Polar	complex	max. rel. error	3.0
"*" (both operands complex)	complex	max. box error	5.0
"/" (right operand complex)	complex	max. box error	13.0
Sqrt	complex	max. rel. error	6.0
Log	complex	max. box error	13.0
Exp (complex parameter)	complex	max. rel. error	7.0
Exp (imaginary parameter)	complex	max. rel. error	2.0
Sin, Cos, Sinh, and Cosh	complex	max. rel. error	11.0
Tan, Cot, Tanh, and Coth	complex	max. rel. error	35.0
inverse trigonometric	complex	max. rel. error	14.0
inverse hyperbolic	complex	max. rel. error	14.0

The maximum relative error given above applies throughout the domain of the Compose_From_Polar function when the Cycle parameter is specified. When the Cycle parameter is omitted, the maximum relative error applies only when the absolute value of the parameter Argument is less than or equal to the angle threshold (see G.2.4). For the Exp function, and for the forward hyperbolic (resp., trigonometric) functions, the maximum relative error given above likewise applies only when the absolute value of the imaginary (resp., real) component of the parameter X (or the absolute value of the parameter itself, in the case of the Exp function with a parameter of pure-imaginary type) is less than or equal to the angle threshold. For larger angles, the accuracy is implementation defined. 8

Implementation defined: The accuracy of certain complex arithmetic operations and certain complex elementary functions for parameters (or components thereof) beyond the angle threshold. 8.a

The prescribed results specified in G.1.2 for certain functions at particular parameter values take precedence over the error bounds; effectively, they narrow to a single value the result interval allowed by the error bounds for a component of the result. Additional rules with a similar effect are given below for certain inverse trigonometric and inverse hyperbolic functions, at particular parameter values for which a component of the mathematical result is transcendental. In each case, the accuracy rule, which takes precedence over the error bounds, is that the result interval for the stated result component is the model interval of *CT*.Real associated with the component's exact mathematical value. The cases in question are as follows: 9

- When the parameter X has the value zero, the real (resp., imaginary) component of the result of the Arccot (resp., Arccoth) function is in the model interval of *CT*.Real associated with the value $\pi/2.0$.
- When the parameter X has the value one, the real component of the result of the Arcsin function is in the model interval of *CT*.Real associated with the value $\pi/2.0$.
- When the parameter X has the value -1.0, the real component of the result of the Arcsin (resp., Arccos) function is in the model interval of *CT*.Real associated with the value $-\pi/2.0$ (resp., π).

Discussion: It is possible to give many other prescribed results in which a component of the parameter is restricted to a similar model interval when the parameter X is appropriately restricted to an easily testable portion of the domain. We follow the proposed ISO/IEC standard for Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions (for Ada 83) in not doing so, however.

The amount by which a component of the result of an inverse trigonometric or inverse hyperbolic function is allowed to spill over into a quadrant adjacent to the one corresponding to the principal branch, as given in G.1.2, is limited. The rule is that the result belongs to the smallest model interval of *CT*.Real that contains both boundaries of the quadrant corresponding to the principal branch. This rule also takes precedence to the maximum error bounds, effectively narrowing the result interval allowed by them.

Finally, the results allowed by the error bounds are narrowed by one further rule: The absolute value of each component of the result of the Exp function, for a pure-imaginary parameter, never exceeds one.

Implementation Advice

The version of the Compose_From_Polar function without a Cycle parameter should not be implemented by calling the corresponding version with a Cycle parameter of 2.0*Numerics.Pi, since this will not provide the required accuracy in some portions of the domain.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The semantics of Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types and Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions differs from Generic_Complex_Types and Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions as defined in ISO/IEC CDs 13813 and 13814 (for Ada 83) in ways analogous to those identified for the elementary functions in G.2.4. In addition, we do not generally specify the signs of zero results (or result components), although those proposed standards do.

Annex H
(normative)

Safety and Security

{*safety-critical systems*} {*secure systems*} This Annex addresses requirements for systems that are safety critical or have security constraints. It provides facilities and specifies documentation requirements that relate to several needs: 1

- Understanding program execution; 2
- Reviewing object code; 3
- Restricting language constructs whose usage might complicate the demonstration of program correctness 4

Execution understandability is supported by pragma Normalize_Scalars, and also by requirements for the implementation to document the effect of a program in the presence of a bounded error or where the language rules leave the effect unspecified. {*unspecified* [partial]}

The pragmas Reviewable and Restrictions relate to the other requirements addressed by this Annex. 5

NOTES
1 The Valid attribute (see 13.9.2) is also useful in addressing these needs, to avoid problems that could otherwise arise from scalars that have values outside their declared range constraints. 6

Discussion: The Annex tries to provide high assurance rather than language features. However, it is not possible, in general, to test for high assurance. For any specific language feature, it is possible to demonstrate its presence by a functional test, as in the ACVC. One can also check for the presence of some documentation requirements, but it is not easy to determine objectively that the documentation is ‘‘adequate’’. 6.a

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} This Annex is new to Ada 9X. 6.b

H.1 Pragma Normalize_Scalars

This pragma ensures that an otherwise uninitialized scalar object is set to a predictable value, but out of range if possible. 1

Discussion: The goal of the pragma is to reduce the impact of a bounded error that results from a reference to an uninitialized scalar object, by having such a reference violate a range check and thus raise Constraint_Error. 1.a

Syntax

The form of a pragma Normalize_Scalars is as follows: 2

pragma Normalize_Scalars; 3

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Normalize_Scalars]} {*pragma, configuration* [Normalize_Scalars]} Pragma Normalize_Scalars is a configuration pragma. It applies to all compilation_units included in a partition. 4

Documentation Requirements

{*documentation requirements*} If a pragma Normalize_Scalars applies, the implementation shall document the implicit initial value for scalar subtypes, and shall identify each case in which such a value is used and is not an invalid representation. 5

5.a **To be honest:** It's slightly inaccurate to say that the value is a representation, but the point should be clear anyway.

5.b **Discussion:** By providing a type with a size specification so that spare bits are present, it is possible to force an implementation of Normalize_Scalars to use an out of range value. This can be tested for by ensuring that Constraint_Error is raised. Similarly, for an unconstrained integer type, in which no spare bit is surely present, one can check that the initialization takes place to the value specified in the documentation of the implementation. For a floating point type, spare bits might not be available, but a range constraint can provide the ability to use an out of range value.

5.c If it is difficult to document the general rule for the implicit initial value, the implementation might choose instead to record the value on the object code listing or similar output produced during compilation.

Implementation Advice

6 Whenever possible, the implicit initial value for a scalar subtype should be an invalid representation (see 13.9.1).

6.a **Discussion:** When an out of range value is used for the initialization, it is likely that constraint checks will detect it. In addition, it can be detected by the Valid attribute.

NOTES

7 2 The initialization requirement applies to uninitialized scalar objects that are subcomponents of composite objects, to allocated objects, and to stand-alone objects. It also applies to scalar **out** parameters. Scalar subcomponents of composite **out** parameters are initialized to the corresponding part of the actual, by virtue of 6.4.1.

8 3 The initialization requirement does not apply to a scalar for which pragma Import has been specified, since initialization of an imported object is performed solely by the foreign language environment (see B.1).

9 4 The use of pragma Normalize_Scalars in conjunction with Pragma Restrictions(No_Exceptions) may result in erroneous execution (see H.4).

9.a **Discussion:** Since the effect of an access to an out of range value will often be to raise Constraint_Error, it is clear that suppressing the exception mechanism could result in erroneous execution. In particular, the assignment to an array, with the array index out of range, will result in a write to an arbitrary store location, having unpredictable effects.

H.2 Documentation of Implementation Decisions

Documentation Requirements

1 {*documentation requirements*} {*unspecified* [partial]} The implementation shall document the range of effects for each situation that the language rules identify as either a bounded error or as having an unspecified effect. If the implementation can constrain the effects of erroneous execution for a given construct, then it shall document such constraints. [The documentation might be provided either independently of any compilation unit or partition, or as part of an annotated listing for a given unit or partition. See also 1.1.3, and 1.1.2.]

1.a **Implementation defined:** Information regarding bounded errors and erroneous execution.

NOTES

2 5 Among the situations to be documented are the conventions chosen for parameter passing, the methods used for the management of run-time storage, and the method used to evaluate numeric expressions if this involves extended range or extra precision.

2.a **Discussion:** Look up ''unspecified'' and ''erroneous execution'' in the index for a list of the cases.

2.b The management of run-time storage is particularly important. For safety applications, it is often necessary to show that a program cannot raise Storage_Error, and for security applications that information cannot leak via the run-time system. Users are likely to prefer a simple storage model that can be easily validated.

2.c The documentation could helpfully take into account that users may well adopt a subset to avoid some forms of erroneous execution, for instance, not using the abort statement, so that the effects of a partly completed assignment_statement do not have to be considered in the validation of a program (see 9.8). For this reason documentation linked to an actual compilation may be most useful. Similarly, an implementation may be able to take into account use of the Restrictions pragma.

H.3 Reviewable Object Code

Object code review and validation are supported by pragmas Reviewable and Inspection_Point. 1

H.3.1 Pragma Reviewable

This pragma directs the implementation to provide information to facilitate analysis and review of a program's object code, in particular to allow determination of execution time and storage usage and to identify the correspondence between the source and object programs. 1

Discussion: Since the purpose of this pragma is to provide information to the user, it is hard to objectively test for conformity. In practice, users want the information in an easily understood and convenient form, but neither of these properties can be easily measured. 1.a

Syntax

The form of a pragma Reviewable is as follows: 2

pragma Reviewable; 3

Post-Compilation Rules

{*post-compilation rules*} {*configuration pragma* [Reviewable]} {*pragma, configuration* [Reviewable]} Pragma Reviewable is a configuration pragma. It applies to all compilation_units included in a partition. 4

Implementation Requirements

The implementation shall provide the following information for any compilation unit to which such a pragma applies: 5

Discussion: The list of requirements can be checked for, even if issues like intelligibility are not addressed. 5.a

- Where compiler-generated run-time checks remain; 6

  Discussion: A constraint check which is implemented via a check on the upper and lower bound should clearly be indicated. If a check is implicit in the form of machine instructions used (such an overflow checking), this should also be covered by the documentation. It is particularly important to cover those checks which are not obvious from the source code, such as that for stack overflow. 6.a

- An identification of any construct with a language-defined check that is recognized prior to run time as certain to fail if executed (even if the generation of run-time checks has been suppressed); 7

  Discussion: In this case, if the compiler determines that a check must fail, the user should be informed of this. However, since it is not in general possible to know what the compiler will detect, it is not easy to test for this. In practice, it is thought that compilers claiming conformity to this Annex will perform significant optimizations and therefore *will* detect such situations. Of course, such events could well indicate a programmer error. 7.a

- For each reference to a scalar object, an identification of the reference as either ''known to be initialized,'' or ''possibly uninitialized,'' independent of whether pragma Normalize_Scalars applies; 8

  Discussion: This issue again raises the question as to what the compiler has determined. A lazy implementation could clearly mark all scalars as ''possibly uninitialized'', but this would be very unhelpful to the user. It should be possible to analyze a range of scalar uses and note the percentage in each class. Note that an access marked ''known to be initialized'' does not imply that the value is in range, since the initialization could be from an (erroneous) call of unchecked conversion, or by means external to the Ada program. 8.a

- Where run-time support routines are implicitly invoked; 9

  Discussion: Validators will need to know the calls invoked in order to check for the correct functionality. For instance, for some safety applications, it may be necessary to ensure that certain sections of code can execute in a particular time. 9.a

- An object code listing, including: 10

11 • Machine instructions, with relative offsets;

11.a **Discussion:** The machine instructions should be in a format that is easily understood, such as the symbolic format of the assembler. The relative offsets are needed in numeric format, to check any alignment restrictions that the architecture might impose.

12 • Where each data object is stored during its lifetime;

12.a **Discussion:** This requirement implies that if the optimizer assigns a variable to a register, this needs to be evident.

13 • Correspondence with the source program, including an identification of the code produced per declaration and per statement.

13.a **Discussion:** This correspondence will be quite complex when extensive optimization is performed. In particular, address calculation to access some data structures could be moved from the actual access. However, when all the machine code arising from a statement or declaration is in one basic block, this must be indicated by the implementation.

14 • An identification of each construct for which the implementation detects the possibility of erroneous execution;

14.a **Discussion:** This requirement is quite vague. In general, it is hard for compilers to detect erroneous execution and therefore the requirement will be rarely invoked. However, if the pragma Suppress is used and the compiler can show that a predefined exception will be raised, then such an identification would be useful.

15 • For each subprogram, block, task, or other construct implemented by reserving and subsequently freeing an area on a run-time stack, an identification of the length of the fixed-size portion of the area and an indication of whether the non-fixed size portion is reserved on the stack or in a dynamically-managed storage region.

15.a **Discussion:** This requirement is vital for those requiring to show that the storage available to a program is sufficient. This is crucial in those cases in which the internal checks for stack overflow are suppressed (perhaps by **pragma** Restrictions(No_Exceptions)).

16 The implementation shall provide the following information for any partition to which the pragma applies:

17 • An object code listing of the entire partition, including initialization and finalization code as well as run-time system components, and with an identification of those instructions and data that will be relocated at load time;

17.a **Discussion:** The object code listing should enable a validator to estimate upper bounds for the time taken by critical parts of a program. Similarly, by an analysis of the entire partition, it should be possible to ensure that the storage requirements are suitably bounded, assuming that the partition was written in an appropriate manner.

18 • A description of the run-time model relevant to the partition.

18.a **Discussion:** For example, a description of the storage model is vital, since the Ada language does not explicitly define such a model.

The implementation shall provide control- and data-flow information, both within each compilation unit and across the compilation units of the partition.

18.b **Discussion:** This requirement is quite vague, since it is unclear what control and data flow information the compiler has produced. It is really a plea not to throw away information that could be useful to the validator. Note that the data flow information is relevant to the detection of ‘‘possibly uninitialized’’ objects referred to above.

Implementation Advice

19 The implementation should provide the above information in both a human-readable and machine-readable form, and should document the latter so as to ease further processing by automated tools.

20 Object code listings should be provided both in a symbolic format and also in an appropriate numeric format (such as hexadecimal or octal).

Reason: This is to enable other tools to perform any analysis that the user needed to aid validation. The format should be in some agreed form. 20.a

NOTES
6 The order of elaboration of library units will be documented even in the absence of pragma Reviewable (see 10.2). 21

Discussion: There might be some interactions between pragma Reviewable and compiler optimizations. For example, an implementation may disable some optimizations when pragma Reviewable is in force if it would be overly complicated to provide the detailed information to allow review of the optimized object code. See also pragma Optimize (2.8). 21.a

H.3.2 Pragma Inspection_Point

An occurrence of a pragma Inspection_Point identifies a set of objects each of whose values is to be available at the point(s) during program execution corresponding to the position of the pragma in the compilation unit. The purpose of such a pragma is to facilitate code validation. 1

Discussion: Inspection points are a high level equivalent of break points used by debuggers. 1.a

Syntax

The form of a pragma Inspection_Point is as follows: 2

pragma Inspection_Point[(*object*_name {, *object*_name})]; 3

Legality Rules

A pragma Inspection_Point is allowed wherever a declarative_item or statement is allowed. Each *object*_name shall statically denote the declaration of an object. 4

Discussion: The static denotation is required, since no dynamic evaluation of a name is involved in this pragma. 4.a

Static Semantics

{*inspection point*} An *inspection point* is a point in the object code corresponding to the occurrence of a pragma Inspection_Point in the compilation unit. 5

Ramification: If a pragma Inspection_Point is in an in-lined subprogram, there might be numerous inspection points in the object code corresponding to the single occurrence of the pragma in the source; similar considerations apply if such a pragma is in a generic, or in a loop that has been ‘‘unrolled’’ by an optimizer. 5.a

{*inspectable object*} An object is *inspectable* at an inspection point if the corresponding pragma Inspection_Point either has an argument denoting that object, or has no arguments.

Discussion: If the short form of the pragma is used, then all objects are inspectable. This implies that objects out of scope at the point of the pragma are inspectable. A good interactive debugging system could provide information similar to a post-mortem dump at such inspection points. The annex does not require that any inspection facility is provided, merely that the information is available to understand the state of the machine at those points. 5.b

Dynamic Semantics

Execution of a pragma Inspection_Point has no effect. 6

Discussion: Although an inspection point has no (semantic) effect, the removal or adding a new point could change the machine code generated by the compiler. 6.a

Implementation Requirements

Reaching an inspection point is an external interaction with respect to the values of the inspectable objects at that point (see 1.1.3). 7

Ramification: The compiler is inhibited from moving an assignment to an inspectable variable past an inspection point for that variable. On the other hand, the evaluation of an expression that might raise an exception may be moved past an inspection point (see 11.6). 7.a

Documentation Requirements

8 {*documentation requirements*} For each inspection point, the implementation shall identify a mapping between each inspectable object and the machine resources (such as memory locations or registers) from which the object's value can be obtained.

8.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Inspection_Point.

NOTES

9 7 The implementation is not allowed to perform ''dead store elimination'' on the last assignment to a variable prior to a point where the variable is inspectable. Thus an inspection point has the effect of an implicit reference to each of its inspectable objects.

10 8 Inspection points are useful in maintaining a correspondence between the state of the program in source code terms, and the machine state during the program's execution. Assertions about the values of program objects can be tested in machine terms at inspection points. Object code between inspection points can be processed by automated tools to verify programs mechanically.

10.a **Discussion:** Although it is not a requirement of the annex, it would be useful if the state of the stack and heap could be interrogated. This would allow users to check that a program did not have a 'storage leak'.

11 9 The identification of the mapping from source program objects to machine resources is allowed to be in the form of an annotated object listing, in human-readable or tool-processable form.

11.a **Discussion:** In principle, it is easy to check an implementation for this pragma, since one merely needs to check the content of objects against those values known from the source listing. In practice, one needs a tool similar to an interactive debugger to perform the check.

H.4 Safety and Security Restrictions

1 This clause defines restrictions that can be used with pragma Restrictions (see 13.12); these facilitate the demonstration of program correctness by allowing tailored versions of the run-time system.

1.a **Discussion:** Note that the restrictions are absolute. If a partition has 100 library units and just one needs Unchecked_Conversion, then the pragma cannot be used to ensure the other 99 units do not use Unchecked_Conversion. Note also that these are restrictions on all Ada code within a partition, and therefore it may not be evident from the specification of a package whether a restriction can be imposed.

Static Semantics

2 The following restrictions, the same as in D.7, apply in this Annex: No_Task_Hierarchy, No_Abort_Statement, No_Implicit_Heap_Allocation, Max_Task_Entries is 0, Max_Asynchronous_Select_Nesting is 0, and Max_Tasks is 0. [The last three restrictions are checked prior to program execution.]

3 The following additional restrictions apply in this Annex.

4 **Tasking-related restriction:**

5 {*Restrictions (No_Protected_Types)*} No_Protected_Types
There are no declarations of protected types or protected objects.

6 **Memory-management related restrictions:**

7 {*Restrictions (No_Allocators)*} No_Allocators
There are no occurrences of an allocator.

8 {*Restrictions (No_Local_Allocators)*} No_Local_Allocators
Allocators are prohibited in subprograms, generic subprograms, tasks, and entry bodies; instantiations of generic packages are also prohibited in these contexts.

8.a **Ramification:** Thus allocators are permitted only in expressions whose evaluation can only be performed before the main subprogram is invoked.

8.b **Reason:** The reason for the prohibition against instantiations of generic packages is to avoid contract model violations. An alternative would be to prohibit allocators from generic packages, but it seems preferable to allow generality on the

defining side and then place the restrictions on the usage (instantiation), rather than inhibiting what can be in the generic while liberalizing where they can be instantiated.

{*Restrictions (No_Unchecked_Deallocation)*} No_Unchecked_Deallocation 9

Semantic dependence on Unchecked_Deallocation is not allowed.

Discussion: This restriction would be useful in those contexts in which heap storage is needed on program start-up, but need not be increased subsequently. The danger of a dangling pointer can therefore be avoided. 9.a

Immediate_Reclamation 10

Except for storage occupied by objects created by allocators and not deallocated via unchecked deallocation, any storage reserved at run time for an object is immediately reclaimed when the object no longer exists. {*Restrictions (Immediate_Reclamation)*}

Discussion: Immediate reclamation would apply to storage created by the compiler, such as for a return value from a function whose size is not known at the call site. 10.a

Exception-related restriction: 11

{*Restrictions (No_Exceptions)*} No_Exceptions 12

Raise_statements and exception_handlers are not allowed. No language-defined run-time checks are generated; however, a run-time check performed automatically by the hardware is permitted.

Discussion: This restriction mirrors a method of working that is quite common in the safety area. The programmer is required to show that exceptions cannot be raised. Then a simplified run-time system is used without exception handling. However, some hardware checks may still be enforced. If the software check would have failed, or if the hardware check actually fails, then the execution of the program is unpredictable. There are obvious dangers in this approach, but it is similar to programming at the assembler level. 12.a

Other restrictions: 13

{*Restrictions (No_Floating_Point)*} No_Floating_Point 14

Uses of predefined floating point types and operations, and declarations of new floating point types, are not allowed.

Discussion: The intention is to avoid the use of floating point hardware at run time, but this is expressed in language terms. It is conceivable that floating point is used implicitly in some contexts, say fixed point type conversions of high accuracy. However, the Implementation Requirements below make it clear that the restriction would apply to the ''run-time system'' and hence not be allowed. This parameter could be used to inform a compiler that a variant of the architecture is being used which does not have floating point instructions. 14.a

{*Restrictions (No_Fixed_Point)*} No_Fixed_Point 15

Uses of predefined fixed point types and operations, and declarations of new fixed point types, are not allowed.

Discussion: This restriction would have the side-effect of prohibiting the delay_relative_statement. As with the No_Floating_Point restriction, this might be used to avoid any question of rounding errors. Unless an Ada run-time is written in Ada, it seems hard to rule out implicit use of fixed point, since at the machine level, fixed point is virtually the same as integer arithmetic. 15.a

{*Restrictions (No_Unchecked_Conversion)*} No_Unchecked_Conversion 16

Semantic dependence on the predefined generic Unchecked_Conversion is not allowed.

Discussion: Most critical applications would require some restrictions or additional validation checks on uses of unchecked conversion. If the application does not require the functionality, then this restriction provides a means of ensuring the design requirement has been satisfied. The same applies to several of the following restrictions. 16.a

No_Access_Subprograms 17

The declaration of access-to-subprogram types is not allowed. {*Restrictions (No_Access_Subprograms)*}

{*Restrictions (No_Unchecked_Access)*} No_Unchecked_Access 18

The Unchecked_Access attribute is not allowed.

19 {*Restrictions (No_Dispatch)*} No_Dispatch
Occurrences of T'Class are not allowed, for any (tagged) subtype T.

20 {*Restrictions (No_IO)*} No_IO
Semantic dependence on any of the library units Sequential_IO, Direct_IO, Text_IO, Wide_Text_IO, or Stream_IO is not allowed.

20.a **Discussion:** Excluding the input-output facilities of an implementation may be needed in those environments which cannot support the supplied functionality. A program in such an environment is likely to require some low level facilities or a call on a non-Ada feature.

21 {*Restrictions (No_Delay)*} No_Delay
Delay_Statements and semantic dependence on package Calendar are not allowed.

21.a **Ramification:** This implies that delay_alternatives in a select_statement are prohibited. The purpose of this restriction is to avoid the need for timing facilities within the run-time system.

22 {*Restrictions (No_Recursion)*} No_Recursion
As part of the execution of a subprogram, the same subprogram is not invoked.

23 {*Restrictions (No_Reentrancy)*} No_Reentrancy
During the execution of a subprogram by a task, no other task invokes the same subprogram.

Implementation Requirements

24 If an implementation supports pragma Restrictions for a particular argument, then except for the restrictions No_Unchecked_Deallocation, No_Unchecked_Conversion, No_Access_Subprograms, and No_Unchecked_Access, the associated restriction applies to the run-time system.

24.a **Reason:** Permission is granted for the run-time system to use the specified otherwise-restricted features, since the use of these features may simplify the run-time system by allowing more of it to be written in Ada.

24.b **Discussion:** The restrictions that are applied to the partition are also applied to the run-time system. For example, if No_Floating_Point is specified, then an implementation that uses floating point for implementing the delay statement (say) would require that No_Floating_Point is only used in conjunction with No_Delay. It is clearly important that restrictions are effective so that Max_Tasks=0 does imply that tasking is not used, even implicitly (for input-output, say).

24.c An implementation of tasking could be produced based upon a run-time system written in Ada in which the rendezvous was controlled by protected types. In this case, No_Protected_Types could only be used in conjunction with Max_Task_Entries=0. Other implementation dependencies could be envisaged.

24.d If the run-time system is not written in Ada, then the wording needs to be applied in an appropriate fashion.

Documentation Requirements

25 {*documentation requirements*} If a pragma Restrictions(No_Exceptions) is specified, the implementation shall document the effects of all constructs where language-defined checks are still performed automatically (for example, an overflow check performed by the processor).

25.a **Implementation defined:** Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Restrictions.

25.b **Discussion:** The documentation requirements here are quite difficult to satisfy. One method is to review the object code generated and determine the checks that are still present, either explicitly, or implicitly within the architecture. As another example from that of overflow, consider the question of deferencing a null pointer. This could be undertaken by a memory access trap when checks are performed. When checks are suppressed via the argument No_Exceptions, it would not be necessary to have the memory access trap mechanism enabled.

Erroneous Execution

26 {*erroneous execution*} Program execution is erroneous if pragma Restrictions(No_Exceptions) has been specified and the conditions arise under which a generated language-defined run-time check would fail.

26.a **Discussion:** The situation here is very similar to the application of pragma Suppress. Since users are removing some of the protection the language provides, they had better be careful!

Program execution is erroneous if pragma Restrictions(No_Recursion) has been specified and a subprogram is invoked as part of its own execution, or if pragma Restrictions(No_Reentrancy) has been specified and during the execution of a subprogram by a task, another task invokes the same subprogram. 27

Discussion: In practice, many implementations may not exploit the absence of recursion or need for reentrancy, in which case the program execution would be unaffected by the use of recursion or reentrancy, even though the program is still formally erroneous. 27.a

Implementation defined: Any restrictions on pragma Restrictions. 27.b

Annex J
(normative)

Obsolescent Features

[{*obsolescent feature*} This Annex contains descriptions of features of the language whose functionality is largely redundant with other features defined by this International Standard. Use of these features is not recommended in newly written programs.] 1

Ramification: These features are still part of the language, and have to be implemented by conforming implementations. The primary reason for putting these descriptions here is to get redundant features out of the way of most readers. The designers of the next version of Ada after Ada 9X will have to assess whether or not it makes sense to drop these features from the language. 1.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

The following features have been removed from the language, rather than declared to be obsolescent: 1.b

- The package Low_Level_IO (see A.6). 1.c
- The Epsilon, Mantissa, Emax, Small, Large, Safe_Emax, Safe_Small, and Safe_Large attributes of floating point types (see A.5.3). 1.d
- The pragma Interface (see B.1). 1.e
- The pragmas System_Name, Storage_Unit, and Memory_Size (see 13.7). 1.f
- The pragma Shared (see C.6). 1.g

Implementations can continue to support the above features for upward compatibility. 1.h

J.1 Renamings of Ada 83 Library Units

Static Semantics

The following library_unit_renaming_declarations exist: 1

```
with Ada.Unchecked_Conversion;                                                    2
generic function Unchecked_Conversion renames Ada.Unchecked_Conversion;

with Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation;                                                  3
generic procedure Unchecked_Deallocation renames Ada.Unchecked_Deallocation;

with Ada.Sequential_IO;                                                           4
generic package Sequential_IO renames Ada.Sequential_IO;

with Ada.Direct_IO;                                                               5
generic package Direct_IO renames Ada.Direct_IO;

with Ada.Text_IO;                                                                 6
package Text_IO renames Ada.Text_IO;

with Ada.IO_Exceptions;                                                           7
package IO_Exceptions renames Ada.IO_Exceptions;

with Ada.Calendar;                                                                8
package Calendar renames Ada.Calendar;

with System.Machine_Code;                                                         9
package Machine_Code renames System.Machine_Code; -- If supported.
```

Implementation Requirements

The implementation shall allow the user to replace these renamings. 10

J.2 Allowed Replacements of Characters

Syntax

1 The following replacements are allowed for the vertical line, number sign, and quotation mark characters:

2 • A vertical line character (|) can be replaced by an exclamation mark (!) where used as a delimiter.

3 • The number sign characters (#) of a based_literal can be replaced by colons (:) provided that the replacement is done for both occurrences.

3.a **To be honest:** The intent is that such a replacement works in the Value and Wide_Value attributes, and in the Get procedures of Text_IO, so that things like ''16:.123:'' is acceptable.

4 • The quotation marks (") used as string brackets at both ends of a string literal can be replaced by percent signs (%) provided that the enclosed sequence of characters contains no quotation mark, and provided that both string brackets are replaced. Any percent sign within the sequence of characters shall then be doubled and each such doubled percent sign is interpreted as a single percent sign character value.

5 These replacements do not change the meaning of the program.

5.a **Reason:** The original purpose of this feature was to support hardware (for example, teletype machines) that has long been obsolete. The feature is no longer necessary for that reason. Another use of the feature has been to replace the vertical line character (|) when using certain hardware that treats that character as a (non-English) letter. The feature is no longer necessary for that reason, either, since Ada 9X has full support for international character sets. Therefore, we believe this feature is no longer necessary.

5.b Users of equipment that still uses | to represent a letter will continue to do so. Perhaps by next the time Ada is revised, such equipment will no longer be in use.

5.c Note that it was never legal to use this feature as a convenient method of including double quotes in a string without doubling them — the string literal:

5.d
```
%"This is quoted."%
```

5.e is not legal in Ada 83, nor will it be in Ada 9X. One has to write:

5.f
```
"""This is quoted."""
```

J.3 Reduced Accuracy Subtypes

1 A digits_constraint may be used to define a floating point subtype with a new value for its requested decimal precision, as reflected by its Digits attribute. Similarly, a delta_constraint may be used to define an ordinary fixed point subtype with a new value for its *delta*, as reflected by its Delta attribute.

1.a **Discussion:** It might be more direct to make these attributes specifiable via an attribute_definition_clause, and eliminate the syntax for these _constraints.

Syntax

2 delta_constraint ::= **delta** *static*_expression [range_constraint]

Name Resolution Rules

3 {*expected type* [delta_constraint expression]} The expression of a delta_constraint is expected to be of any real type.

Legality Rules

4 The expression of a delta_constraint shall be static.

For a subtype_indication with a delta_constraint, the subtype_mark shall denote an ordinary fixed point subtype. 5

{*notwithstanding*} For a subtype_indication with a digits_constraint, the subtype_mark shall denote either a decimal fixed point subtype or a floating point subtype (notwithstanding the rule given in 3.5.9 that only allows a decimal fixed point subtype). 6

Discussion: We may need a better way to deal with obsolescent features with rules that contradict those of the non-obsolescent parts of the standard. 6.a

Static Semantics

A subtype_indication with a subtype_mark that denotes an ordinary fixed point subtype and a delta_constraint defines an ordinary fixed point subtype with a *delta* given by the value of the expression of the delta_constraint. If the delta_constraint includes a range_constraint, then the ordinary fixed point subtype is constrained by the range_constraint. 7

A subtype_indication with a subtype_mark that denotes a floating point subtype and a digits_constraint defines a floating point subtype with a requested decimal precision (as reflected by its Digits attribute) given by the value of the expression of the digits_constraint. If the digits_constraint includes a range_constraint, then the floating point subtype is constrained by the range_constraint. 8

Dynamic Semantics

{*compatibility* [delta_constraint with an ordinary fixed point subtype]} A delta_constraint is *compatible* with an ordinary fixed point subtype if the value of the expression is no less than the *delta* of the subtype, and the range_constraint, if any, is compatible with the subtype. 9

{*compatibility* [digits_constraint with a floating point subtype]} A digits_constraint is *compatible* with a floating point subtype if the value of the expression is no greater than the requested decimal precision of the subtype, and the range_constraint, if any, is compatible with the subtype. 10

{*elaboration* [delta_constraint]} The elaboration of a delta_constraint consists of the elaboration of the range_constraint, if any. 11

Reason: A numeric subtype is considered ‘‘constrained’’ only if a range constraint applies to it. The only effect of a digits_constraint or a delta_constraint without a range_constraint is to specify the value of the corresponding Digits or Delta attribute in the new subtype. The set of values of the subtype is not ‘‘constrained’’ in any way by such _constraints. 11.a

Wording Changes From Ada 83

In Ada 83, a delta_constraint is called a fixed_point_constraint, and a digits_constraint is called a floating_point_constraint. We have adopted other terms because digits_constraints apply primarily to decimal fixed point types now (they apply to floating point types only as an obsolescent feature). 11.b

J.4 The Constrained Attribute

Static Semantics

For every private subtype S, 1

Discussion: including a generic formal private subtype 1.a

the following attribute is defined:

S’Constrained — Yields the value False if S denotes an unconstrained nonformal private subtype with discriminants; also yields the value False if S denotes a generic formal private subtype, and the associated actual subtype is either an unconstrained subtype with discriminants or an unconstrained array subtype; yields the value True otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined subtype Boolean. 2

2.a **Reason:** Because Ada 9X has unknown_discriminant_parts, the Constrained attribute of private subtypes is obsolete. This is fortunate, since its Ada 83 definition was confusing, as explained below. Because this attribute is obsolete, we do not bother to extend its definition to private extensions.

2.b The Constrained attribute of an object is *not* obsolete.

2.c Note well: S'Constrained matches the Ada 9X definition of ''constrained'' only for composite subtypes. For elementary subtypes, S'Constrained is always true, whether or not S is constrained. (The Constrained attribute of an object does not have this problem, as it is only defined for objects of a discriminated type.) So one should think of its designator as being 'Constrained_Or_Elementary.

J.5 ASCII

Static Semantics

1 The following declaration exists in the declaration of package Standard:

2
```
package ASCII is
```

3
```
   -- Control characters:
```

4
```
   NUL    : constant Character := nul;      SOH    : constant Character := soh;
   STX    : constant Character := stx;      ETX    : constant Character := etx;
   EOT    : constant Character := eot;      ENQ    : constant Character := enq;
   ACK    : constant Character := ack;      BEL    : constant Character := bel;
   BS     : constant Character := bs;       HT     : constant Character := ht;
   LF     : constant Character := lf;       VT     : constant Character := vt;
   FF     : constant Character := ff;       CR     : constant Character := cr;
   SO     : constant Character := so;       SI     : constant Character := si;
   DLE    : constant Character := dle;      DC1    : constant Character := dc1;
   DC2    : constant Character := dc2;      DC3    : constant Character := dc3;
   DC4    : constant Character := dc4;      NAK    : constant Character := nak;
   SYN    : constant Character := syn;      ETB    : constant Character := etb;
   CAN    : constant Character := can;      EM     : constant Character := em;
   SUB    : constant Character := sub;      ESC    : constant Character := esc;
   FS     : constant Character := fs;       GS     : constant Character := gs;
   RS     : constant Character := rs;       US     : constant Character := us;
   DEL    : constant Character := del;
```

5
```
   -- Other characters:
```

6
```
   Exclam    : constant Character:= '!';  Quotation : constant Character:= '"';
   Sharp     : constant Character:= '#';  Dollar    : constant Character:= '$';
   Percent   : constant Character:= '%';  Ampersand : constant Character:= '&';
   Colon     : constant Character:= ':';  Semicolon : constant Character:= ';';
   Query     : constant Character:= '?';  At_Sign   : constant Character:= '@';
   L_Bracket : constant Character:= '[';  Back_Slash: constant Character:= '\';
   R_Bracket : constant Character:= ']';  Circumflex: constant Character:= '^';
   Underline : constant Character:= '_';  Grave     : constant Character:= '`';
   L_Brace   : constant Character:= '{';  Bar       : constant Character:= '|';
   R_Brace   : constant Character:= '}';  Tilde     : constant Character:= '~';
```

7
```
   -- Lower case letters:
```

8
```
   LC_A: constant Character:= 'a';
   ...
   LC_Z: constant Character:= 'z';
```

9
```
end ASCII;
```

J.6 Numeric_Error

Static Semantics

1 The following declaration exists in the declaration of package Standard:

2
```
Numeric_Error : exception renames Constraint_Error;
```

2.a **Discussion:** This is true even though it is not shown in A.1.

2.b **Reason:** In Ada 83, it was unclear which situations should raise Numeric_Error, and which should raise Constraint_Error. The permissions of RM83-11.6 could often be used to allow the implementation to raise Constraint_Error in a

situation where one would normally expect Numeric_Error. To avoid this confusion, all situations that raise Numeric_Error in Ada 83 are changed to raise Constraint_Error in Ada 9X. Numeric_Error is changed to be a renaming of Constraint_Error to avoid most of the upward compatibilities associated with this change.

In new code, Constraint_Error should be used instead of Numeric_Error. 2.c

J.7 At Clauses

Syntax

at_clause ::= **for** direct_name **use at** expression; 1

Static Semantics

An at_clause of the form ''for *x* use at *y*;'' is equivalent to an attribute_definition_clause of the form ''for *x*'Address use *y*;''. 2

Reason: The preferred syntax for specifying the address of an entity is an attribute_definition_clause specifying the Address attribute. Therefore, the special-purpose at_clause syntax is now obsolete. 2.a

The above equivalence implies, for example, that only one at_clause is allowed for a given entity. Similarly, it is illegal to give both an at_clause and an attribute_definition_clause specifying the Address attribute. 2.b

Extensions to Ada 83

{*extensions to Ada 83*} We now allow to define the address of an entity using an attribute_definition_clause. This is because Ada 83's at_clause is so hard to remember: programmers often tend to write ''for X'Address use...;''. 2.c

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Ada 83's address_clause is now called an at_clause to avoid confusion with the new term ''Address clause'' (that is, an attribute_definition_clause for the Address attribute). 2.d

J.7.1 Interrupt Entries

[Implementations are permitted to allow the attachment of task entries to interrupts via the address clause. Such an entry is referred to as an *interrupt entry*. 1

The address of the task entry corresponds to a hardware interrupt in an implementation-defined manner. (See Ada.Interrupts.Reference in C.3.2.)] 2

Static Semantics

The following attribute is defined: 3

For any task entry X: 4

{*interrupt entry*} X'Address 5

For a task entry whose address is specified (an *interrupt entry*), the value refers to the corresponding hardware interrupt. For such an entry, as for any other task entry, the meaning of this value is implementation defined. The value of this attribute is of the type of the subtype System.Address.

{*specifiable* [of Address for entries]} Address may be specified for single entries via an attribute_definition_clause. 6

Reason: Because of the equivalence of at_clauses and attribute_definition_clauses, an interrupt entry may be specified via either notation. 6.a

Dynamic Semantics

{*initialization* [of a task object]} As part of the initialization of a task object, the address clause for an interrupt entry is elaborated[, which evaluates the expression of the address clause]. A check is made that the address specified is associated with some interrupt to which a task entry may be attached. {*Program_Error*

(raised by failure of run-time check)} If this check fails, Program_Error is raised. Otherwise, the interrupt entry is attached to the interrupt associated with the specified address.

8 {*finalization* [of a task object]} Upon finalization of the task object, the interrupt entry, if any, is detached from the corresponding interrupt and the default treatment is restored.

9 While an interrupt entry is attached to an interrupt, the interrupt is reserved (see C.3).

10 An interrupt delivered to a task entry acts as a call to the entry issued by a hardware task whose priority is in the System.Interrupt_Priority range. It is implementation defined whether the call is performed as an ordinary entry call, a timed entry call, or a conditional entry call; which kind of call is performed can depend on the specific interrupt.

Bounded (Run-Time) Errors

11 {*bounded error*} It is a bounded error to evaluate E'Caller (see C.7.1) in an accept_statement for an interrupt entry. The possible effects are the same as for calling Current_Task from an entry body.

Documentation Requirements

12 {*documentation requirements*} The implementation shall document to which interrupts a task entry may be attached.

13 The implementation shall document whether the invocation of an interrupt entry has the effect of an ordinary entry call, conditional call, or a timed call, and whether the effect varies in the presence of pending interrupts.

Implementation Permissions

14 The support for this subclause is optional.

15 Interrupts to which the implementation allows a task entry to be attached may be designated as reserved for the entire duration of program execution[; that is, not just when they have an interrupt entry attached to them].

16 Interrupt entry calls may be implemented by having the hardware execute directly the appropriate accept body. Alternatively, the implementation is allowed to provide an internal interrupt handler to simulate the effect of a normal task calling the entry.

17 The implementation is allowed to impose restrictions on the specifications and bodies of tasks that have interrupt entries.

18 It is implementation defined whether direct calls (from the program) to interrupt entries are allowed.

19 If a select_statement contains both a terminate_alternative and an accept_alternative for an interrupt entry, then an implementation is allowed to impose further requirements for the selection of the terminate_alternative in addition to those given in 9.3.

NOTES

20 1 Queued interrupts correspond to ordinary entry calls. Interrupts that are lost if not immediately processed correspond to conditional entry calls. It is a consequence of the priority rules that an accept body executed in response to an interrupt can be executed with the active priority at which the hardware generates the interrupt, taking precedence over lower priority tasks, without a scheduling action.

2 Control information that is supplied upon an interrupt can be passed to an associated interrupt entry as one or more parameters of mode **in**. 21

Examples

Example of an interrupt entry: 22

```
task Interrupt_Handler is                                                    23
  entry Done;
  for Done'Address use Ada.Interrupts.Reference(Ada.Interrupts.Names.Device_Done);
end Interrupt_Handler;
```

Wording Changes From Ada 83

RM83-13.5.1 did not adequately address the problems associate with interrupts. This feature is now obsolescent and is replaced by the Ada 9X interrupt model as specified in the Systems Programming Annex. 23.a

J.8 Mod Clauses

Syntax

mod_clause ::= **at mod** *static*_expression; 1

Static Semantics

A record_representation_clause of the form: 2

```
for r use                                                                    3
    record at mod a
        ...
    end record;
```

is equivalent to: 4

```
for r'Alignment use a;                                                       5
for r use
    record
        ...
    end record;
```

Reason: The preferred syntax for specifying the alignment of an entity is an attribute_definition_clause specifying the Alignment attribute. Therefore, the special-purpose mod_clause syntax is now obsolete. 5.a

The above equivalence implies, for example, that it is illegal to give both a mod_clause and an attribute_definition_clause specifying the Alignment attribute for the same type. 5.b

Wording Changes From Ada 83

Ada 83's alignment_clause is now called a mod_clause to avoid confusion with the new term ''Alignment clause'' (that is, an attribute_definition_clause for the Alignment attribute). 5.c

J.9 The Storage_Size Attribute

Static Semantics

For any task subtype T, the following attribute is defined: 1

T'Storage_Size Denotes an implementation-defined value of type *universal_integer* representing the number of storage elements reserved for a task of the subtype T. 2

To be honest: T'Storage_Size cannot be particularly meaningful in the presence of a pragma Storage_Size, especially when the expression is dynamic, or depends on a discriminant of the task, because the Storage_Size will be different for different objects of the type. Even without such a pragma, the Storage_Size can be different for different objects of the type, and in any case, the value is implementation defined. Hence, it is always implementation defined. 2.a

{*specifiable* [of Storage_Size for a task first subtype]} Storage_Size may be specified for a task first subtype via an attribute_definition_clause. 3

Annex K
(informative)

Language-Defined Attributes

{*attribute*} This annex summarizes the definitions given elsewhere of the language-defined attributes. 1

P'Access — For a prefix P that denotes a subprogram: 2

P'Access yields an access value that designates the subprogram denoted by P. The type of P'Access is an access-to-subprogram type (*S*), as determined by the expected type. See 3.10.2. 3

X'Access — For a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object: 4

X'Access yields an access value that designates the object denoted by X. The type of X'Access is an access-to-object type, as determined by the expected type. The expected type shall be a general access type. See 3.10.2. 5

X'Address — For a prefix X that denotes an object, program unit, or label: 6

Denotes the address of the first of the storage elements allocated to X. For a program unit or label, this value refers to the machine code associated with the corresponding body or statement. The value of this attribute is of type System.Address. See 13.3. 7

S'Adjacent — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 8

S'Adjacent denotes a function with the following specification: 9

```
function S'Adjacent (X, Towards : T)
  return T
```
10

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If *Towards* = *X*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the machine number of the type *T* adjacent to *X* in the direction of *Towards*, if that machine number exists. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} If the result would be outside the base range of S, Constraint_Error is raised. When *T*'Signed_Zeros is True, a zero result has the sign of *X*. When *Towards* is zero, its sign has no bearing on the result. See A.5.3. 11

S'Aft — For every fixed point subtype S: 12

S'Aft yields the number of decimal digits needed after the decimal point to accommodate the *delta* of the subtype S, unless the *delta* of the subtype S is greater than 0.1, in which case the attribute yields the value one. [(S'Aft is the smallest positive integer N for which (10**N)*S'Delta is greater than or equal to one.)] The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.10. 13

X'Alignment — For a prefix X that denotes a subtype or object: 14

The Address of an object that is allocated under control of the implementation is an integral multiple of the Alignment of the object (that is, the Address modulo the Alignment is zero). The offset of a record component is a multiple of the Alignment of the component. For an object that is not allocated under control of the implementation (that is, one that is imported, that is allocated by a user-defined allocator, whose Address has been specified, or is designated by an access value returned by an instance of Unchecked_Conversion), the implementation may assume that the Address is an integral multiple of its Alignment. The implementation shall not assume a stricter alignment. 15

The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*, and nonnegative; zero means that the object is not necessarily aligned on a storage element boundary. See 13.3.

S'Base — For every scalar subtype S:

S'Base denotes an unconstrained subtype of the type of S. This unconstrained subtype is called the *base subtype* of the type. See 3.5.

S'Bit_Order — For every specific record subtype S:

Denotes the bit ordering for the type of S. The value of this attribute is of type System.Bit_Order. See 13.5.3.

P'Body_Version — For a prefix P that statically denotes a program unit:

Yields a value of the predefined type String that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the body (but not any subunits) of the program unit. See E.3.

T'Callable — For a prefix T that is of a task type [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Yields the value True when the task denoted by T is *callable*, and False otherwise; See 9.9.

E'Caller — For a prefix E that denotes an entry_declaration:

Yields a value of the type Task_ID that identifies the task whose call is now being serviced. Use of this attribute is allowed only inside an entry_body or accept_statement corresponding to the entry_declaration denoted by E. See C.7.1.

S'Ceiling — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Ceiling denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Ceiling (X : T)
  return T
```

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

S'Class — For every subtype S of a tagged type *T* (specific or class-wide):

S'Class denotes a subtype of the class-wide type (called *T*'Class in this International Standard) for the class rooted at *T* (or if S already denotes a class-wide subtype, then S'Class is the same as S).

{*unconstrained (subtype)*} {*constrained (subtype)*} S'Class is unconstrained. However, if S is constrained, then the values of S'Class are only those that when converted to the type *T* belong to S. See 3.9.

S'Class — For every subtype S of an untagged private type whose full view is tagged:

Denotes the class-wide subtype corresponding to the full view of S. This attribute is allowed only from the beginning of the private part in which the full view is declared, until the declaration of the full view. [After the full view, the Class attribute of the full view can be used.] See 7.3.1.

X'Component_Size — For a prefix X that denotes an array subtype or array object [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Denotes the size in bits of components of the type of X. The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*. See 13.3.

S'Compose — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Compose denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Compose (Fraction : T;                                    40
                    Exponent : universal_integer)
  return T
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Let *v* be the value *Fraction*·*T*'Machine_Radix$^{Exponent-k}$, where *k* is the normalized exponent of *Fraction*. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, or if $|v| \geq T$'Model_Small, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type *T* adjacent to *v*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if *v* is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *Fraction* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3. 41

A'Constrained — For a prefix A that is of a discriminated type [(after any implicit dereference)]: 42

Yields the value True if A denotes a constant, a value, or a constrained variable, and False otherwise. See 3.7.2. 43

S'Copy_Sign — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 44

S'Copy_Sign denotes a function with the following specification: 45

```
function S'Copy_Sign (Value, Sign : T)                               46
  return T
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If the value of *Value* is nonzero, the function yields a result whose magnitude is that of *Value* and whose sign is that of *Sign*; otherwise, it yields the value zero. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if the result is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *Sign* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3. 47

E'Count — For a prefix E that denotes an entry of a task or protected unit: 48

Yields the number of calls presently queued on the entry E of the current instance of the unit. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 9.9. 49

S'Definite — For a prefix S that denotes a formal indefinite subtype: 50

S'Definite yields True if the actual subtype corresponding to S is definite; otherwise it yields False. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See 12.5.1. 51

S'Delta — For every fixed point subtype S: 52

S'Delta denotes the *delta* of the fixed point subtype S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See 3.5.10. 53

S'Denorm — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 54

Yields the value True if every value expressible in the form 55

$$\pm mantissa \cdot T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{T\text{'Machine_Emin}}$$

where *mantissa* is a nonzero *T*'Machine_Mantissa-digit fraction in the number base *T*'Machine_Radix, the first digit of which is zero, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.

S'Digits — For every decimal fixed point subtype S: 56

S'Digits denotes the *digits* of the decimal fixed point subtype S, which corresponds to the number of decimal digits that are representable in objects of the subtype. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.10. 57

S'Digits — For every floating point subtype S: 58

S'Digits denotes the requested decimal precision for the subtype S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.8.

S'Exponent — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Exponent denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Exponent (X : T)
  return universal_integer
```

The function yields the normalized exponent of *X*. See A.5.3.

S'External_Tag — For every subtype S of a tagged type *T* (specific or class-wide):

{*External_Tag clause*} {*specifiable* [of External_Tag for a tagged type]} S'External_Tag denotes an external string representation for S'Tag; it is of the predefined type String. External_Tag may be specified for a specific tagged type via an attribute_definition_clause; the expression of such a clause shall be static. The default external tag representation is implementation defined. See 3.9.2 and 13.13.2. See 13.3.

A'First(N) — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'First(N) denotes the lower bound of the N-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.

A'First — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'First denotes the lower bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.

S'First — For every scalar subtype S:

S'First denotes the lower bound of the range of S. The value of this attribute is of the type of S. See 3.5.

R.C'First_Bit — For a component C of a composite, non-array object R:

Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by C, of the first bit occupied by C. This offset is measured in bits. The first bit of a storage element is numbered zero. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 13.5.2.

S'Floor — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Floor denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Floor (X : T)
  return T
```

The function yields the value $\lfloor X \rfloor$, i.e., the largest (most positive) integral value less than or equal to *X*. When *X* is zero, the result has the sign of *X*; a zero result otherwise has a positive sign. See A.5.3.

S'Fore — For every fixed point subtype S:

S'Fore yields the minimum number of characters needed before the decimal point for the decimal representation of any value of the subtype S, assuming that the representation does not include an exponent, but includes a one-character prefix that is either a minus sign or a space. (This minimum number does not include superfluous zeros or underlines, and is at least 2.) The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.10.

S'Fraction — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Fraction denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Fraction (X : T)
  return T
```

The function yields the value $X \cdot T$'Machine_Radix^{-k}, where k is the normalized exponent of X. A zero result[, which can only occur when X is zero,] has the sign of X. See A.5.3.

E'Identity — For a prefix E that denotes an exception:

E'Identity returns the unique identity of the exception. The type of this attribute is Exception_Id. See 11.4.1.

T'Identity — For a prefix T that is of a task type [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Yields a value of the type Task_ID that identifies the task denoted by T. See C.7.1.

S'Image — For every scalar subtype S:

S'Image denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Image(Arg : S'Base)
  return String
```

The function returns an image of the value of *Arg* as a String. See 3.5.

S'Class'Input — For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class:

S'Class'Input denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Class'Input(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class)
   return T'Class
```

First reads the external tag from *Stream* and determines the corresponding internal tag (by calling Tags.Internal_Tag(String'Input(*Stream*)) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Input attribute of the specific type identified by the internal tag; returns that result. See 13.13.2.

S'Input — For every subtype S of a specific type *T*:

S'Input denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Input(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class)
   return T
```

S'Input reads and returns one value from *Stream*, using any bounds or discriminants written by a corresponding S'Output to determine how much to read. See 13.13.2.

A'Last(N) — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Last(N) denotes the upper bound of the N-th index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.

A'Last — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Last denotes the upper bound of the first index range; its type is the corresponding index type. See 3.6.2.

S'Last — For every scalar subtype S:

S'Last denotes the upper bound of the range of S. The value of this attribute is of the type of S. See 3.5.

R.C'Last_Bit — For a component C of a composite, non-array object R:

Denotes the offset, from the start of the first of the storage elements occupied by C, of the last bit occupied by C. This offset is measured in bits. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 13.5.2.

S'Leading_Part — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Leading_Part denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Leading_Part (X : T;
                         Radix_Digits : universal_integer)
  return T
```

Let *v* be the value *T*'Machine_Radix$^{k-Radix_Digits}$, where *k* is the normalized exponent of *X*. The function yields the value

- $\lfloor X/v \rfloor \cdot v$, when *X* is nonnegative and *Radix_Digits* is positive;
- $\lceil X/v \rceil \cdot v$, when *X* is negative and *Radix_Digits* is positive.

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised when *Radix_Digits* is zero or negative. A zero result[, which can only occur when *X* is zero,] has the sign of *X*. See A.5.3.

A'Length(N) — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Length(N) denotes the number of values of the N-th index range (zero for a null range); its type is *universal_integer*. See 3.6.2.

A'Length — For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Length denotes the number of values of the first index range (zero for a null range); its type is *universal_integer*. See 3.6.2.

S'Machine — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Machine denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Machine (X : T)
  return T
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} If *X* is a machine number of the type *T*, the function yields *X*; otherwise, it yields the value obtained by rounding or truncating *X* to either one of the adjacent machine numbers of the type *T*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if rounding or truncating *X* to the precision of the machine numbers results in a value outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

S'Machine_Emax — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the largest (most positive) value of *exponent* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *mantissa* of *T*'Machine_Mantissa digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3.

S'Machine_Emin — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the smallest (most negative) value of *exponent* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *mantissa* of *T*'Machine_Mantissa digits, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3.

S'Machine_Mantissa

For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the largest value of *p* such that every value expressible in the canonical form (for the type *T*), having a *p*-digit *mantissa* and an *exponent* between *T*'Machine_Emin and *T*'Machine_Emax, is a machine number (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. This attribute yields a value of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3.

S'Machine_Overflows 129

For every subtype S of a fixed point type *T*:

Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.4. 130

S'Machine_Overflows 131

For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the value True if overflow and divide-by-zero are detected and reported by raising Constraint_Error for every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3. 132

S'Machine_Radix For every subtype S of a fixed point type *T*: 133

Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type *T*. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.4. 134

S'Machine_Radix For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 135

Yields the radix of the hardware representation of the type *T*. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3. 136

S'Machine_Rounds 137

For every subtype S of a fixed point type *T*:

Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.4. 138

S'Machine_Rounds 139

For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the value True if rounding is performed on inexact results of every predefined operation that yields a result of the type *T*; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3. 140

S'Max For every scalar subtype S: 141

S'Max denotes a function with the following specification: 142

```
function S'Max(Left, Right : S'Base)                    143
  return S'Base
```

The function returns the greater of the values of the two parameters. See 3.5. 144

S'Max_Size_In_Storage_Elements 145

For every subtype S:

Denotes the maximum value for Size_In_Storage_Elements that will be requested via Allocate for an access type whose designated subtype is S. The value of this attribute is of type *universal_integer*. See 13.11.1. 146

S'Min For every scalar subtype S: 147

S'Min denotes a function with the following specification: 148

```
function S'Min(Left, Right : S'Base)                    149
  return S'Base
```

The function returns the lesser of the values of the two parameters. See 3.5. 150

S'Model For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*: 151

S'Model denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Model (X : T)
  return T
```

If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the meaning of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. See A.5.3.

S'Model_Emin — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Emin. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3.

S'Model_Epsilon — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the value $T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{1-T\text{'Model_Mantissa}}$. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See A.5.3.

S'Model_Mantissa — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

If the Numerics Annex is not supported, this attribute yields an implementation defined value that is greater than or equal to $\lceil d \cdot \log(10)/\log(T\text{'Machine_Radix}) \rceil + 1$, where *d* is the requested decimal precision of *T*, and less than or equal to the value of *T*'Machine_Mantissa. See G.2.2 for further requirements that apply to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See A.5.3.

S'Model_Small — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the value $T\text{'Machine_Radix}^{T\text{'Model_Emin}-1}$. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See A.5.3.

S'Modulus — For every modular subtype S:

S'Modulus yields the modulus of the type of S, as a value of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.4.

S'Class'Output — For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class:

S'Class'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Class'Output(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : in T'Class)
```

First writes the external tag of *Item* to *Stream* (by calling String'Output(Tags.External_Tag(*Item*'Tag) — see 3.9) and then dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Output attribute of the specific type identified by the tag. See 13.13.2.

S'Output — For every subtype S of a specific type *T*:

S'Output denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Output(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : in T)
```

S'Output writes the value of *Item* to *Stream*, including any bounds or discriminants. See 13.13.2.

D'Partition_ID — For a prefix D that denotes a library-level declaration, excepting a declaration of or within a declared-pure library unit:

Denotes a value of the type *universal_integer* that identifies the partition in which D was elaborated. If D denotes the declaration of a remote call interface library unit (see E.2.3) the given partition is the one where the body of D was elaborated. See E.1.

S'Pos

For every discrete subtype S:

S'Pos denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Pos(Arg : S'Base)
  return universal_integer
```

This function returns the position number of the value of *Arg*, as a value of type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.5.

R.C'Position

For a component C of a composite, non-array object R:

Denotes the same value as R.C'Address – R'Address. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 13.5.2.

S'Pred

For every scalar subtype S:

S'Pred denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Pred(Arg : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one less than that of the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of subtracting one from the value of *Arg*. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of subtracting *small* from the value of *Arg*. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately below the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such machine number. See 3.5.

A'Range(N)

For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Range(N) is equivalent to the range A'First(N) .. A'Last(N), except that the prefix A is only evaluated once. See 3.6.2.

A'Range

For a prefix A that is of an array type [(after any implicit dereference)], or denotes a constrained array subtype:

A'Range is equivalent to the range A'First .. A'Last, except that the prefix A is only evaluated once. See 3.6.2.

S'Range

For every scalar subtype S:

S'Range is equivalent to the range S'First .. S'Last. See 3.5.

S'Class'Read

For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class:

S'Class'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Class'Read(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : out T'Class)
```

Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Read attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item. See 13.13.2.

S'Read

For every subtype S of a specific type *T*:

S'Read denotes a procedure with the following specification:

```
procedure S'Read(
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : out T)
```

S'Read reads the value of *Item* from *Stream*. See 13.13.2.

199 S'Remainder — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

200 S'Remainder denotes a function with the following specification:

201
```
function S'Remainder (X, Y : T)
  return T
```

202 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For nonzero *Y*, let *v* be the value $X-n\cdot Y$, where *n* is the integer nearest to the exact value of X/Y; if $|n-X/Y| = 1/2$, then *n* is chosen to be even. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields zero. {*Division_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Division_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if *Y* is zero. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

203 S'Round — For every decimal fixed point subtype S:

204 S'Round denotes a function with the following specification:

205
```
function S'Round(X : universal_real)
  return S'Base
```

206 The function returns the value obtained by rounding X (away from 0, if X is midway between two values of the type of S). See 3.5.10.

207 S'Rounding — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

208 S'Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:

209
```
function S'Rounding (X : T)
  return T
```

210 The function yields the integral value nearest to *X*, rounding away from zero if *X* lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

211 S'Safe_First — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

212 Yields the lower bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See A.5.3.

213 S'Safe_Last — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

214 Yields the upper bound of the safe range (see 3.5.7) of the type *T*. If the Numerics Annex is not supported, the value of this attribute is implementation defined; see G.2.2 for the definition that applies to implementations supporting the Numerics Annex. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See A.5.3.

215 S'Scale — For every decimal fixed point subtype S:

216 S'Scale denotes the *scale* of the subtype S, defined as the value N such that S'Delta = 10.0**(–N). {*scale (of a decimal fixed point subtype)*} [The scale indicates the position of the point relative to the rightmost significant digits of values of subtype S.] The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 3.5.10.

217 S'Scaling — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

218 S'Scaling denotes a function with the following specification:

219
```
function S'Scaling (X : T;
                    Adjustment : universal_integer)
  return T
```

220 {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} Let *v* be the value $X\cdot T$'Machine_Radix^{Adjustment}. If *v* is a machine number of the type *T*, or if $|v| \geq T$'Model_Small, the function yields *v*; otherwise, it yields either one of the machine numbers of the type *T* adjacent to *v*. {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is optionally raised if *v* is outside the base range of S. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

S'Signed_Zeros — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

Yields the value True if the hardware representation for the type *T* has the capability of representing both positively and negatively signed zeros, these being generated and used by the predefined operations of the type *T* as specified in IEC 559:1989; yields the value False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See A.5.3.

S'Size — For every subtype S:

If S is definite, denotes the size [(in bits)] that the implementation would choose for the following objects of subtype S:

- A record component of subtype S when the record type is packed.
- The formal parameter of an instance of Unchecked_Conversion that converts from subtype S to some other subtype.

If S is indefinite, the meaning is implementation defined. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 13.3.

X'Size — For a prefix X that denotes an object:

Denotes the size in bits of the representation of the object. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. See 13.3.

S'Small — For every fixed point subtype S:

S'Small denotes the *small* of the type of S. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_real*. See 3.5.10.

S'Storage_Pool — For every access subtype S:

Denotes the storage pool of the type of S. The type of this attribute is Root_Storage_Pool'Class. See 13.11.

S'Storage_Size — For every access subtype S:

Yields the result of calling Storage_Size(S'Storage_Pool)[, which is intended to be a measure of the number of storage elements reserved for the pool.] The type of this attribute is *universal_integer*. See 13.11.

T'Storage_Size — For a prefix T that denotes a task object [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Denotes the number of storage elements reserved for the task. The value of this attribute is of the type *universal_integer*. The Storage_Size includes the size of the task's stack, if any. The language does not specify whether or not it includes other storage associated with the task (such as the ''task control block'' used by some implementations.) See 13.3.

S'Succ — For every scalar subtype S:

S'Succ denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Succ(Arg : S'Base)
  return S'Base
```

{*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} For an enumeration type, the function returns the value whose position number is one more than that of the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such value of the type. For an integer type, the function returns the result of adding one to the value of *Arg*. For a fixed point type, the function returns the result of adding *small* to the value of *Arg*. For a floating point type, the function returns the machine number (as defined in 3.5.7) immediately above the value of *Arg*; {*Range_Check* [partial]} {*check, language-defined (Range_Check)*} Constraint_Error is raised if there is no such machine number. See 3.5.

S'Tag — For every subtype S of a tagged type *T* (specific or class-wide):

S'Tag denotes the tag of the type *T* (or if *T* is class-wide, the tag of the root type of the corresponding class). The value of this attribute is of type Tag. See 3.9.

X'Tag — For a prefix X that is of a class-wide tagged type [(after any implicit dereference)]:

X'Tag denotes the tag of X. The value of this attribute is of type Tag. See 3.9.

T'Terminated — For a prefix T that is of a task type [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Yields the value True if the task denoted by T is terminated, and False otherwise. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See 9.9.

S'Truncation — For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Truncation denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Truncation (X : T)
  return T
```

The function yields the value $\lceil X \rceil$ when *X* is negative, and $\lfloor X \rfloor$ otherwise. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

S'Unbiased_Rounding

For every subtype S of a floating point type *T*:

S'Unbiased_Rounding denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Unbiased_Rounding (X : T)
  return T
```

The function yields the integral value nearest to *X*, rounding toward the even integer if *X* lies exactly halfway between two integers. A zero result has the sign of *X* when S'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.3.

X'Unchecked_Access

For a prefix X that denotes an aliased view of an object:

All rules and semantics that apply to X'Access (see 3.10.2) apply also to X'Unchecked_Access, except that, for the purposes of accessibility rules and checks, it is as if X were declared immediately within a library package. See 13.10.

S'Val — For every discrete subtype S:

S'Val denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Val(Arg : universal_integer)
  return S'Base
```

{*evaluation* [Val]} {*Constraint_Error (raised by failure of run-time check)*} This function returns a value of the type of S whose position number equals the value of *Arg*. See 3.5.5.

X'Valid — For a prefix X that denotes a scalar object [(after any implicit dereference)]:

Yields True if and only if the object denoted by X is normal and has a valid representation. The value of this attribute is of the predefined type Boolean. See 13.9.2.

S'Value — For every scalar subtype S:

S'Value denotes a function with the following specification:

```
function S'Value(Arg : String)
  return S'Base
```

This function returns a value given an image of the value as a String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces. See 3.5.

P'Version — For a prefix P that statically denotes a program unit:

Yields a value of the predefined type String that identifies the version of the compilation unit that contains the declaration of the program unit. See E.3.

S'Wide_Image

For every scalar subtype S: 270

S'Wide_Image denotes a function with the following specification: 271

```
function S'Wide_Image(Arg : S'Base)                                    272
  return Wide_String
```

{*image (of a value)*} The function returns an *image* of the value of *Arg*, that is, a sequence of characters representing the value in display form. See 3.5. 273

S'Wide_Value

For every scalar subtype S: 274

S'Wide_Value denotes a function with the following specification: 275

```
function S'Wide_Value(Arg : Wide_String)                               276
  return S'Base
```

This function returns a value given an image of the value as a Wide_String, ignoring any leading or trailing spaces. See 3.5. 277

S'Wide_Width

For every scalar subtype S: 278

S'Wide_Width denotes the maximum length of a Wide_String returned by S'Wide_Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is *universal_integer*. See 3.5. 279

S'Width

For every scalar subtype S: 280

S'Width denotes the maximum length of a String returned by S'Image over all values of the subtype S. It denotes zero for a subtype that has a null range. Its type is *universal_integer*. See 3.5. 281

S'Class'Write

For every subtype S'Class of a class-wide type *T*'Class: 282

S'Class'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification: 283

```
procedure S'Class'Write(                                               284
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item   : in T'Class)
```

Dispatches to the subprogram denoted by the Write attribute of the specific type identified by the tag of Item. See 13.13.2. 285

S'Write

For every subtype S of a specific type *T*: 286

S'Write denotes a procedure with the following specification: 287

```
procedure S'Write(                                                     288
   Stream : access Ada.Streams.Root_Stream_Type'Class;
   Item : in T)
```

S'Write writes the value of *Item* to *Stream*. See 13.13.2. 289

Annex L
(informative)

Language-Defined Pragmas

{*pragma*} This Annex summarizes the definitions given elsewhere of the language-defined pragmas.

pragma All_Calls_Remote[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See E.2.3.

pragma Asynchronous(local_name); — See E.4.1.

pragma Atomic(local_name); — See C.6.

pragma Atomic_Components(*array*_local_name); — See C.6.

pragma Attach_Handler(*handler*_name, expression); — See C.3.1.

pragma Controlled(*first_subtype*_local_name); — See 13.11.3.

pragma Convention([Convention =>] *convention*_identifier,[Entity =>] local_name); — See B.1.

pragma Discard_Names[([On =>] local_name)]; — See C.5.

pragma Elaborate(*library_unit*_name{, *library_unit*_name}); — See 10.2.1.

pragma Elaborate_All(*library_unit*_name{, *library_unit*_name}); — See 10.2.1.

pragma Elaborate_Body[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See 10.2.1.

pragma Export([Convention =>] *convention*_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name [, [External_Name =>] *string*_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] *string*_expression]); — See B.1.

pragma Import([Convention =>] *convention*_identifier, [Entity =>] local_name [, [External_Name =>] *string*_expression] [, [Link_Name =>] *string*_expression]); — See B.1.

pragma Inline(name {, name}); — See 6.3.2.

pragma Inspection_Point[(*object*_name {, *object*_name})]; — See H.3.2.

pragma Interrupt_Handler(*handler*_name); — See C.3.1.

pragma Interrupt_Priority[(expression)]; — See D.1.

pragma Linker_Options(*string*_expression); — See B.1.

pragma List(identifier); — See 2.8.

pragma Locking_Policy(*policy*_identifier); — See D.3.

22 **pragma** Normalize_Scalars; — See H.1.

23 **pragma** Optimize(identifier); — See 2.8.

24 **pragma** Pack(*first_subtype*_local_name); — See 13.2.

25 **pragma** Page; — See 2.8.

26 **pragma** Preelaborate[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See 10.2.1.

27 **pragma** Priority(expression); — See D.1.

28 **pragma** Pure[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See 10.2.1.

29 **pragma** Queuing_Policy(*policy*_identifier); — See D.4.

30 **pragma** Remote_Call_Interface[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See E.2.3.

31 **pragma** Remote_Types[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See E.2.2.

32 **pragma** Restrictions(restriction{, restriction}); — See 13.12.

33 **pragma** Reviewable; — See H.3.1.

34 **pragma** Shared_Passive[(*library_unit*_name)]; — See E.2.1.

35 **pragma** Storage_Size(expression); — See 13.3.

36 **pragma** Suppress(identifier [, [On =>] name]); — See 11.5.

37 **pragma** Task_Dispatching_Policy(*policy*_identifier); — See D.2.2.

38 **pragma** Volatile(local_name); — See C.6.

39 **pragma** Volatile_Components(*array*_local_name); — See C.6.

Wording Changes From Ada 83

39.a Pragmas List, Page, and Optimize are now officially defined in 2.8, ‘‘Pragmas’’.

Annex M
(informative)

Implementation-Defined Characteristics

{*implementation defined (summary of characteristics)*} The Ada language allows for certain machine dependences in a controlled manner. {*documentation (required of an implementation)*} Each Ada implementation must document all implementation-defined characteristics: 1

Ramification: {*unspecified*} {*specified (not!)*} It need not document unspecified characteristics. 1.a

Some of the items in this list require documentation only for implementations that conform to Specialized Needs Annexes. 1.b

- Whether or not each recommendation given in Implementation Advice is followed. See 1.1.2(37). 2
- Capacity limitations of the implementation. See 1.1.3(3). 3
- Variations from the standard that are impractical to avoid given the implementation's execution environment. See 1.1.3(6). 4
- Which code_statements cause external interactions. See 1.1.3(10). 5
- The coded representation for the text of an Ada program. See 2.1(4). 6
- The control functions allowed in comments. See 2.1(14). 7
- The representation for an end of line. See 2.2(2). 8
- Maximum supported line length and lexical element length. See 2.2(15). 9
- Implementation-defined pragmas. See 2.8(14). 10
- Effect of pragma Optimize. See 2.8(27). 11
- The sequence of characters of the value returned by S'Image when some of the graphic characters of S'Wide_Image are not defined in Character. See 3.5(37). 12
- The predefined integer types declared in Standard. See 3.5.4(25). 13
- Any nonstandard integer types and the operators defined for them. See 3.5.4(26). 14
- Any nonstandard real types and the operators defined for them. See 3.5.6(8). 15
- What combinations of requested decimal precision and range are supported for floating point types. See 3.5.7(7). 16
- The predefined floating point types declared in Standard. See 3.5.7(16). 17
- The *small* of an ordinary fixed point type. See 3.5.9(8). 18
- What combinations of *small*, range, and *digits* are supported for fixed point types. See 3.5.9(10). 19
- The result of Tags.Expanded_Name for types declared within an unnamed block_statement. See 3.9(10). 20
- Implementation-defined attributes. See 4.1.4(12). 21

- Any implementation-defined time types. See 9.6(6).
- The time base associated with relative delays. See 9.6(20).
- The time base of the type Calendar.Time. See 9.6(23).
- The timezone used for package Calendar operations. See 9.6(24).
- Any limit on delay_until_statements of select_statements. See 9.6(29).
- Whether or not two nonoverlapping parts of a composite object are independently addressable, in the case where packing, record layout, or Component_Size is specified for the object. See 9.10(1).
- The representation for a compilation. See 10.1(2).
- Any restrictions on compilations that contain multiple compilation_units. See 10.1(4).
- The mechanisms for creating an environment and for adding and replacing compilation units. See 10.1.4(3).
- The manner of explicitly assigning library units to a partition. See 10.2(2).
- The implementation-defined means, if any, of specifying which compilation units are needed by a given compilation unit. See 10.2(2).
- The manner of designating the main subprogram of a partition. See 10.2(7).
- The order of elaboration of library_items. See 10.2(18).
- Parameter passing and function return for the main subprogram. See 10.2(21).
- The mechanisms for building and running partitions. See 10.2(24).
- The details of program execution, including program termination. See 10.2(25).
- The semantics of any nonactive partitions supported by the implementation. See 10.2(28).
- The information returned by Exception_Message. See 11.4.1(10).
- The result of Exceptions.Exception_Name for types declared within an unnamed block_statement. See 11.4.1(12).
- The information returned by Exception_Information. See 11.4.1(13).
- Implementation-defined check names. See 11.5(27).
- The interpretation of each aspect of representation. See 13.1(20).
- Any restrictions placed upon representation items. See 13.1(20).
- The meaning of Size for indefinite subtypes. See 13.3(48).
- The default external representation for a type tag. See 13.3(75).
- What determines whether a compilation unit is the same in two different partitions. See 13.3(76).
- Implementation-defined components. See 13.5.1(15).
- If Word_Size = Storage_Unit, the default bit ordering. See 13.5.3(5).
- The contents of the visible part of package System and its language-defined children. See 13.7(2).

- The contents of the visible part of package System.Machine_Code, and the meaning of code_statements. See 13.8(7). 51
- The effect of unchecked conversion. See 13.9(11). 52
- The manner of choosing a storage pool for an access type when Storage_Pool is not specified for the type. See 13.11(17). 53
- Whether or not the implementation provides user-accessible names for the standard pool type(s). See 13.11(17). 54
- The meaning of Storage_Size. See 13.11(18). 55
- Implementation-defined aspects of storage pools. See 13.11(22). 56
- The set of restrictions allowed in a pragma Restrictions. See 13.12(7). 57
- The consequences of violating limitations on Restrictions pragmas. See 13.12(9). 58
- The representation used by the Read and Write attributes of elementary types in terms of stream elements. See 13.13.2(9). 59
- The names and characteristics of the numeric subtypes declared in the visible part of package Standard. See A.1(3). 60
- The accuracy actually achieved by the elementary functions. See A.5.1(1). 61
- The sign of a zero result from some of the operators or functions in Numerics.Generic_Elementary_Functions, when Float_Type'Signed_Zeros is True. See A.5.1(46). 62
- The value of Numerics.Float_Random.Max_Image_Width. See A.5.2(27). 63
- The value of Numerics.Discrete_Random.Max_Image_Width. See A.5.2(27). 64
- The algorithms for random number generation. See A.5.2(32). 65
- The string representation of a random number generator's state. See A.5.2(38). 66
- The minimum time interval between calls to the time-dependent Reset procedure that are guaranteed to initiate different random number sequences. See A.5.2(45). 67
- The values of the Model_Mantissa, Model_Emin, Model_Epsilon, Model, Safe_First, and Safe_Last attributes, if the Numerics Annex is not supported. See A.5.3(72). 68
- Any implementation-defined characteristics of the input-output packages. See A.7(14). 69
- The value of Buffer_Size in Storage_IO. See A.9(10). 70
- external files for standard input, standard output, and standard error See A.10(5). 71
- The accuracy of the value produced by Put. See A.10.9(36). 72
- The meaning of Argument_Count, Argument, and Command_Name. See A.15(1). 73
- Implementation-defined convention names. See B.1(11). 74
- The meaning of link names. See B.1(36). 75
- The manner of choosing link names when neither the link name nor the address of an imported or exported entity is specified. See B.1(36). 76
- The effect of pragma Linker_Options. See B.1(37). 77
- The contents of the visible part of package Interfaces and its language-defined descendants. See B.2(1). 78

- Implementation-defined children of package Interfaces. The contents of the visible part of package Interfaces. See B.2(11).
- The types Floating, Long_Floating, Binary, Long_Binary, Decimal_Element, and COBOL_Character; and the initializations of the variables Ada_To_COBOL and COBOL_To_Ada, in Interfaces.COBOL See B.4(50).
- Support for access to machine instructions. See C.1(1).
- Implementation-defined aspects of access to machine operations. See C.1(9).
- Implementation-defined aspects of interrupts. See C.3(2).
- Implementation-defined aspects of preelaboration. See C.4(13).
- The semantics of pragma Discard_Names. See C.5(7).
- The result of the Task_Identification.Image attribute. See C.7.1(7).
- The value of Current_Task when in a protected entry or interrupt handler. See C.7.1(17).
- The effect of calling Current_Task from an entry body or interrupt handler. See C.7.1(19).
- Implementation-defined aspects of Task_Attributes. See C.7.2(19).
- Values of all Metrics. See D(2).
- The declarations of Any_Priority and Priority. See D.1(11).
- Implementation-defined execution resources. See D.1(15).
- Whether, on a multiprocessor, a task that is waiting for access to a protected object keeps its processor busy. See D.2.1(3).
- The affect of implementation defined execution resources on task dispatching. See D.2.1(9).
- Implementation-defined *policy*_identifiers allowed in a pragma Task_Dispatching_Policy. See D.2.2(3).
- Implementation-defined aspects of priority inversion. See D.2.2(16).
- Implementation defined task dispatching. See D.2.2(18).
- Implementation-defined *policy*_identifiers allowed in a pragma Locking_Policy. See D.3(4).
- Default ceiling priorities. See D.3(10).
- The ceiling of any protected object used internally by the implementation. See D.3(16).
- Implementation-defined queuing policies. See D.4(1).
- On a multiprocessor, any conditions that cause the completion of an aborted construct to be delayed later than what is specified for a single processor. See D.6(3).
- Any operations that implicitly require heap storage allocation. See D.7(8).
- Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Restrictions. See D.7(20).
- Implementation-defined aspects of package Real_Time. See D.8(17).
- Implementation-defined aspects of delay_statements. See D.9(8).
- The upper bound on the duration of interrupt blocking caused by the implementation. See D.12(5).

- The means for creating and executing distributed programs. See E(5). 108
- Any events that can result in a partition becoming inaccessible. See E.1(7). 109
- The scheduling policies, treatment of priorities, and management of shared resources between partitions in certain cases. See E.1(11). 110
- Events that cause the version of a compilation unit to change. See E.3(5). 111
- Whether the execution of the remote subprogram is immediately aborted as a result of cancellation. See E.4(13). 112
- Implementation-defined aspects of the PCS. See E.5(25). 113
- Implementation-defined interfaces in the PCS. See E.5(26). 114
- The values of named numbers in the package Decimal. See F.2(7). 115
- The value of Max_Picture_Length in the package Text_IO.Editing See F.3.3(16). 116
- The value of Max_Picture_Length in the package Wide_Text_IO.Editing See F.3.4(5). 117
- The accuracy actually achieved by the complex elementary functions and by other complex arithmetic operations. See G.1(1). 118
- The sign of a zero result (or a component thereof) from any operator or function in Numerics.Generic_Complex_Types, when Real'Signed_Zeros is True. See G.1.1(53). 119
- The sign of a zero result (or a component thereof) from any operator or function in Numerics.Generic_Complex_Elementary_Functions, when Complex_Types.Real'Signed_Zeros is True. See G.1.2(45). 120
- Whether the strict mode or the relaxed mode is the default. See G.2(2). 121
- The result interval in certain cases of fixed-to-float conversion. See G.2.1(10). 122
- The result of a floating point arithmetic operation in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False. See G.2.1(13). 123
- The result interval for division (or exponentiation by a negative exponent), when the floating point hardware implements division as multiplication by a reciprocal. See G.2.1(16). 124
- The definition of *close result set*, which determines the accuracy of certain fixed point multiplications and divisions. See G.2.3(5). 125
- Conditions on a *universal_real* operand of a fixed point multiplication or division for which the result shall be in the *perfect result set*. See G.2.3(22). 126
- The result of a fixed point arithmetic operation in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False. See G.2.3(27). 127
- The result of an elementary function reference in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the result type is False. See G.2.4(4). 128
- The value of the *angle threshold*, within which certain elementary functions, complex arithmetic operations, and complex elementary functions yield results conforming to a maximum relative error bound. See G.2.4(10). 129
- The accuracy of certain elementary functions for parameters beyond the angle threshold. See G.2.4(10). 130
- The result of a complex arithmetic operation or complex elementary function reference in overflow situations, when the Machine_Overflows attribute of the corresponding real type is False. See G.2.6(5). 131

- The accuracy of certain complex arithmetic operations and certain complex elementary functions for parameters (or components thereof) beyond the angle threshold. See G.2.6(8).
- Information regarding bounded errors and erroneous execution. See H.2(1).
- Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Inspection_Point. See H.3.2(8).
- Implementation-defined aspects of pragma Restrictions. See H.4(25).
- Any restrictions on pragma Restrictions. See H.4(27).

Annex N
(informative)

Glossary

{*Glossary*} This Annex contains informal descriptions of some terms used in this International Standard. To find more formal definitions, look the term up in the index. 1

Access type. {*Access type*} An access type has values that designate aliased objects. Access types correspond to ''pointer types'' or ''reference types'' in some other languages. 2

Aliased. {*Aliased*} An aliased view of an object is one that can be designated by an access value. Objects allocated by allocators are aliased. Objects can also be explicitly declared as aliased with the reserved word **aliased**. The Access attribute can be used to create an access value designating an aliased object. 3

Array type. {*Array type*} An array type is a composite type whose components are all of the same type. Components are selected by indexing. 4

Character type. {*Character type*} A character type is an enumeration type whose values include characters. 5

Class. {*Class*} {*closed under derivation*} A class is a set of types that is closed under derivation, which means that if a given type is in the class, then all types derived from that type are also in the class. The set of types of a class share common properties, such as their primitive operations. 6

Compilation unit. {*Compilation unit*} The text of a program can be submitted to the compiler in one or more compilations. Each compilation is a succession of compilation_units. A compilation_unit contains either the declaration, the body, or a renaming of a program unit. 7

Composite type. {*Composite type*} A composite type has components. 8

Construct. {*Construct*} A *construct* is a piece of text (explicit or implicit) that is an instance of a syntactic category defined under ''Syntax.'' 9

Controlled type. {*Controlled type*} A controlled type supports user-defined assignment and finalization. Objects are always finalized before being destroyed. 10

Declaration. {*Declaration*} A *declaration* is a language construct that associates a name with (a view of) an entity. {*explicit declaration*} {*implicit declaration*} A declaration may appear explicitly in the program text (an *explicit* declaration), or may be supposed to occur at a given place in the text as a consequence of the semantics of another construct (an *implicit* declaration). 11

Definition. {*Definition*} {*view*} All declarations contain a *definition* for a *view* of an entity. A view consists of an identification of the entity (the entity *of* the view), plus view-specific characteristics that affect the use of the entity through that view (such as mode of access to an object, formal parameter names and defaults for a subprogram, or visibility to components of a type). In most cases, a declaration also contains the definition for the entity itself (a renaming_declaration is an example of a declaration that does not define a new entity, but instead defines a view of an existing entity (see 8.5)). 12

13 **Derived type**. {*Derived type*} A derived type is a type defined in terms of another type, which is the parent type of the derived type. Each class containing the parent type also contains the derived type. The derived type inherits properties such as components and primitive operations from the parent. A type together with the types derived from it (directly or indirectly) form a derivation class.

14 **Discrete type**. {*Discrete type*} A discrete type is either an integer type or an enumeration type. Discrete types may be used, for example, in case_statements and as array indices.

15 **Discriminant**. {*Discriminant*} A discriminant is a parameter of a composite type. It can control, for example, the bounds of a component of the type if that type is an array type. A discriminant of a task type can be used to pass data to a task of the type upon creation.

16 **Elementary type**. {*Elementary type*} An elementary type does not have components.

17 **Enumeration type**. {*Enumeration type*} An enumeration type is defined by an enumeration of its values, which may be named by identifiers or character literals.

18 **Exception**. {*Exception*} An *exception* represents a kind of exceptional situation; an occurrence of such a situation (at run time) is called an *exception occurrence*.[{*raise* [an exception]} To *raise* an exception is to abandon normal program execution so as to draw attention to the fact that the corresponding situation has arisen. {*handle* [an exception]} Performing some actions in response to the arising of an exception is called *handling* the exception.]

19 **Execution**. {*Execution*} The process by which a construct achieves its run-time effect is called *execution*. {*elaboration*} {*evaluation*} Execution of a declaration is also called *elaboration*. Execution of an expression is also called *evaluation*.

20 **Generic unit**. {*Generic unit*} A generic unit is a template for a (nongeneric) program unit; the template can be parameterized by objects, types, subprograms, and packages. An instance of a generic unit is created by a generic_instantiation. The rules of the language are enforced when a generic unit is compiled, using a generic contract model; additional checks are performed upon instantiation to verify the contract is met. That is, the declaration of a generic unit represents a contract between the body of the generic and instances of the generic. Generic units can be used to perform the role that macros sometimed play in other languages.

21 **Integer type**. {*Integer type*} Integer types comprise the signed integer types and the modular types. A signed integer type has a base range that includes both positive and negative numbers, and has operations that may raise an exception when the result is outside the base range. A modular type has a base range whose lower bound is zero, and has operations with ‘‘wraparound’’ semantics. Modular types subsume what are called ‘‘unsigned types’’ in some other languages.

22 **Library unit**. {*Library unit*} A library unit is a separately compiled program unit, and is always a package, subprogram, or generic unit. Library units may have other (logically nested) library units as children, and may have other program units physically nested within them. {*subsystem*} A root library unit, together with its children and grandchildren and so on, form a *subsystem*.

23 **Limited type**. {*Limited type*} A limited type is (a view of) a type for which the assignment operation is not allowed. A nonlimited type is a (view of a) type for which the assignment operation is allowed.

Object. {*Object*} An object is either a constant or a variable. An object contains a value. An object is created by an object_declaration or by an allocator. A formal parameter is (a view of) an object. A subcomponent of an object is an object. 24

Package. {*Package*} Packages are program units that allow the specification of groups of logically related entities. Typically, a package contains the declaration of a type (often a private type or private extension) along with the declarations of primitive subprograms of the type, which can be called from outside the package, while their inner workings remain hidden from outside users. 25

Partition. {*Partition*} A *partition* is a part of a program. Each partition consists of a set of library units. Each partition may run in a separate address space, possibly on a separate computer. A program may contain just one partition. A distributed program typically contains multiple partitions, which can execute concurrently. 26

Pragma. {*Pragma*} A pragma is a compiler directive. There are language-defined pragmas that give instructions for optimization, listing control, etc. An implementation may support additional (implementation-defined) pragmas. 27

Primitive operations. {*Primitive operations*} The primitive operations of a type are the operations (such as subprograms) declared together with the type declaration. They are inherited by other types in the same class of types. For a tagged type, the primitive subprograms are dispatching subprograms, providing run-time polymorphism. A dispatching subprogram may be called with statically tagged operands, in which case the subprogram body invoked is determined at compile time. Alternatively, a dispatching subprogram may be called using a dispatching call, in which case the subprogram body invoked is determined at run time. 28

Private extension. {*Private extension*} A private extension is like a record extension, except that the components of the extension part are hidden from its clients. 29

Private type. {*Private type*} A private type is a partial view of a type whose full view is hidden from its clients. 30

Program unit. {*Program unit*} A *program unit* is either a package, a task unit, a protected unit, a protected entry, a generic unit, or an explicitly declared subprogram other than an enumeration literal. Certain kinds of program units can be separately compiled. Alternatively, they can appear physically nested within other program units. 31

Program. {*Program*} A *program* is a set of *partitions*, each of which may execute in a separate address space, possibly on a separate computer. A partition consists of a set of library units. 32

Protected type. {*Protected type*} A protected type is a composite type whose components are protected from concurrent access by multiple tasks. 33

Real type. {*Real type*} A real type has values that are approximations of the real numbers. Floating point and fixed point types are real types. 34

Record extension. {*Record extension*} A record extension is a type that extends another type by adding additional components. 35

36 **Record type**. {*Record type*} A record type is a composite type consisting of zero or more named components, possibly of different types.

37 **Scalar type**. {*Scalar type*} A scalar type is either a discrete type or a real type.

38 **Subtype**. {*Subtype*} A subtype is a type together with a constraint, which constrains the values of the subtype to satisfy a certain condition. The values of a subtype are a subset of the values of its type.

39 **Tagged type**. {*Tagged type*} The objects of a tagged type have a run-time type tag, which indicates the specific type with which the object was originally created. An operand of a class-wide tagged type can be used in a dispatching call; the tag indicates which subprogram body to invoke. Nondispatching calls, in which the subprogram body to invoke is determined at compile time, are also allowed. Tagged types may be extended with additional components.

40 **Task type**. {*Task type*} A task type is a composite type whose values are tasks, which are active entities that may execute concurrently with other tasks. The top-level task of a partition is called the environment task.

41 **Type**. {*Type*} Each object has a type. A *type* has an associated set of values, and a set of *primitive operations* which implement the fundamental aspects of its semantics. Types are grouped into *classes*. The types of a given class share a set of primitive operations. {*closed under derivation*} Classes are closed under derivation; that is, if a type is in a class, then all of its derivatives are in that class.

42 **View**. {*View*} (See Definition.)

Annex P
(informative)

Syntax Summary

{*syntax (complete listing)*} {*grammar (complete listing)*} {*context free grammar (complete listing)*} {*BNF (Backus-Naur Form) (complete listing)*} {*Backus-Naur Form (BNF) (complete listing)*} This Annex summarizes the complete syntax of the language. See 1.1.4 for a description of the notation used. 1

2.1:
character ::= graphic_character | format_effector | other_control_function

2.1:
graphic_character ::= identifier_letter | digit | space_character | special_character

2.3:
identifier ::=
  identifier_letter {[underline] letter_or_digit}

2.3:
letter_or_digit ::= identifier_letter | digit

2.4:
numeric_literal ::= decimal_literal | based_literal

2.4.1:
decimal_literal ::= numeral [.numeral] [exponent]

2.4.1:
numeral ::= digit {[underline] digit}

2.4.1:
exponent ::= E [+] numeral | E – numeral

2.4.2:
based_literal ::=
  base # based_numeral [.based_numeral] # [exponent]

2.4.2:
base ::= numeral

2.4.2:
based_numeral ::=
  extended_digit {[underline] extended_digit}

2.4.2:
extended_digit ::= digit | A | B | C | D | E | F

2.5:
character_literal ::= 'graphic_character'

2.6:
string_literal ::= "{string_element}"

2.6:
string_element ::= "" | *non_quotation_mark*_graphic_character

A string_element is either a pair of quotation marks (""),
or a single graphic_character other than a quotation mark.

2.7:
comment ::= --{*non_end_of_line*_character}

2.8:
pragma ::=
  pragma identifier [(pragma_argument_association {, pragma_argument_association})];

2.8:
pragma_argument_association ::=
    [*pragma_argument*_identifier =>] name
  | [*pragma_argument*_identifier =>] expression

3.1:
basic_declaration ::=
    type_declaration | subtype_declaration
  | object_declaration | number_declaration
  | subprogram_declaration | abstract_subprogram_declaration
  | package_declaration | renaming_declaration
  | exception_declaration | generic_declaration
  | generic_instantiation

3.1:
defining_identifier ::= identifier

3.2.1:
type_declaration ::= full_type_declaration
  | incomplete_type_declaration
  | private_type_declaration
  | private_extension_declaration

3.2.1:
full_type_declaration ::=
    type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] **is** type_definition;
  | task_type_declaration
  | protected_type_declaration

3.2.1:
type_definition ::=
    enumeration_type_definition | integer_type_definition
  | real_type_definition | array_type_definition
  | record_type_definition | access_type_definition
  | derived_type_definition

3.2.2:
subtype_declaration ::=
  subtype defining_identifier **is** subtype_indication;

3.2.2:
subtype_indication ::= subtype_mark [constraint]

3.2.2:
subtype_mark ::= *subtype*_name

3.2.2:
constraint ::= scalar_constraint | composite_constraint

3.2.2:
scalar_constraint ::=
    range_constraint | digits_constraint | delta_constraint

3.2.2:
composite_constraint ::=
    index_constraint | discriminant_constraint

3.3.1:
object_declaration ::=
    defining_identifier_list : [**aliased**] [**constant**] subtype_indication [:= expression];
  | defining_identifier_list : [**aliased**] [**constant**] array_type_definition [:= expression];
  | single_task_declaration
  | single_protected_declaration

3.3.1:
defining_identifier_list ::=
  defining_identifier {, defining_identifier}

3.3.2:
number_declaration ::=
    defining_identifier_list : **constant** := *static*_expression;

3.4:
derived_type_definition ::= [**abstract**] **new** *parent*_subtype_indication [record_extension_part]

3.5:
range_constraint ::= **range** range

3.5:
range ::= range_attribute_reference
| simple_expression .. simple_expression

3.5.1:
enumeration_type_definition ::=
(enumeration_literal_specification {, enumeration_literal_specification})

3.5.1:
enumeration_literal_specification ::= defining_identifier | defining_character_literal

3.5.1:
defining_character_literal ::= character_literal

3.5.4:
integer_type_definition ::= signed_integer_type_definition | modular_type_definition

3.5.4:
signed_integer_type_definition ::= **range** *static*_simple_expression .. *static*_simple_expression

3.5.4:
modular_type_definition ::= **mod** *static*_expression

3.5.6:
real_type_definition ::=
floating_point_definition | fixed_point_definition

3.5.7:
floating_point_definition ::=
digits *static*_expression [real_range_specification]

3.5.7:
real_range_specification ::=
range *static*_simple_expression .. *static*_simple_expression

3.5.9:
fixed_point_definition ::= ordinary_fixed_point_definition | decimal_fixed_point_definition

3.5.9:
ordinary_fixed_point_definition ::=
delta *static*_expression real_range_specification

3.5.9:
decimal_fixed_point_definition ::=
delta *static*_expression **digits** *static*_expression [real_range_specification]

3.5.9:
digits_constraint ::=
digits *static*_expression [range_constraint]

3.6:
array_type_definition ::=
unconstrained_array_definition | constrained_array_definition

3.6:
unconstrained_array_definition ::=
array(index_subtype_definition {, index_subtype_definition}) **of** component_definition

3.6:
index_subtype_definition ::= subtype_mark **range** <>

3.6:
constrained_array_definition ::=
array (discrete_subtype_definition {, discrete_subtype_definition}) **of** component_definition

3.6:
discrete_subtype_definition ::= *discrete*_subtype_indication | range

3.6:
component_definition ::= [**aliased**] subtype_indication

3.6.1:
index_constraint ::= (discrete_range {, discrete_range})

3.6.1:
discrete_range ::= *discrete*_subtype_indication | range

3.7:
discriminant_part ::= unknown_discriminant_part | known_discriminant_part

3.7:
unknown_discriminant_part ::= (<>)

3.7:
known_discriminant_part ::=
  (discriminant_specification {; discriminant_specification})

3.7:
discriminant_specification ::=
  defining_identifier_list : subtype_mark [:= default_expression]
| defining_identifier_list : access_definition [:= default_expression]

3.7:
default_expression ::= expression

3.7.1:
discriminant_constraint ::=
  (discriminant_association {, discriminant_association})

3.7.1:
discriminant_association ::=
  [*discriminant*_selector_name {| *discriminant*_selector_name} =>] expression

3.8:
record_type_definition ::= [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] record_definition

3.8:
record_definition ::=
   record
     component_list
   end record
 | **null record**

3.8:
component_list ::=
    component_item {component_item}
  | {component_item} variant_part
  | **null**;

3.8:
component_item ::= component_declaration | representation_clause

3.8:
component_declaration ::=
  defining_identifier_list : component_definition [:= default_expression];

3.8.1:
variant_part ::=
  case *discriminant*_direct_name **is**
     variant
    {variant}
  end case;

3.8.1:
variant ::=
  when discrete_choice_list =>
    component_list

3.8.1:
discrete_choice_list ::= discrete_choice {| discrete_choice}

3.8.1:
discrete_choice ::= expression | discrete_range | **others**

3.9.1:
record_extension_part ::= **with** record_definition

3.10:
access_type_definition ::=
    access_to_object_definition
  | access_to_subprogram_definition

3.10:
access_to_object_definition ::=
    access [general_access_modifier] subtype_indication

3.10:
general_access_modifier ::= **all** | **constant**

3.10:
access_to_subprogram_definition ::=
    access [**protected**] **procedure** parameter_profile
  | **access** [**protected**] **function** parameter_and_result_profile

3.10:
access_definition ::= **access** subtype_mark

3.10.1:
incomplete_type_declaration ::= **type** defining_identifier [discriminant_part];

3.11:
declarative_part ::= {declarative_item}

3.11:
declarative_item ::=
    basic_declarative_item | body

3.11:
basic_declarative_item ::=
    basic_declaration | representation_clause | use_clause

3.11:
body ::= proper_body | body_stub

3.11:
proper_body ::=
    subprogram_body | package_body | task_body | protected_body

4.1:
name ::=
     direct_name | explicit_dereference
   | indexed_component | slice
   | selected_component | attribute_reference
   | type_conversion | function_call
   | character_literal

4.1:
direct_name ::= identifier | operator_symbol

4.1:
prefix ::= name | implicit_dereference

4.1:
explicit_dereference ::= name.**all**

4.1:
implicit_dereference ::= name

4.1.1:
indexed_component ::= prefix(expression {, expression})

4.1.2:
slice ::= prefix(discrete_range)

4.1.3:
selected_component ::= prefix . selector_name

4.1.3:
selector_name ::= identifier | character_literal | operator_symbol

4.1.4:
attribute_reference ::= prefix’attribute_designator

4.1.4:
attribute_designator ::=
identifier[(*static*_expression)]
| Access | Delta | Digits

4.1.4:
range_attribute_reference ::= prefix'range_attribute_designator

4.1.4:
range_attribute_designator ::= Range[(*static*_expression)]

4.3:
aggregate ::= record_aggregate | extension_aggregate | array_aggregate

4.3.1:
record_aggregate ::= (record_component_association_list)

4.3.1:
record_component_association_list ::=
record_component_association {, record_component_association}
| **null record**

4.3.1:
record_component_association ::=
[component_choice_list =>] expression

4.3.1:
component_choice_list ::=
*component*_selector_name {| *component*_selector_name}
| **others**

4.3.2:
extension_aggregate ::=
(ancestor_part **with** record_component_association_list)

4.3.2:
ancestor_part ::= expression | subtype_mark

4.3.3:
array_aggregate ::=
positional_array_aggregate | named_array_aggregate

4.3.3:
positional_array_aggregate ::=
(expression, expression {, expression})
| (expression {, expression}, **others** => expression)

4.3.3:
named_array_aggregate ::=
(array_component_association {, array_component_association})

4.3.3:
array_component_association ::=
discrete_choice_list => expression

4.4:
expression ::=
relation {**and** relation} | relation {**and then** relation}
| relation {**or** relation} | relation {**or else** relation}
| relation {**xor** relation}

4.4:
relation ::=
simple_expression [relational_operator simple_expression]
| simple_expression [**not**] **in** range
| simple_expression [**not**] **in** subtype_mark

4.4:
simple_expression ::= [unary_adding_operator] term {binary_adding_operator term}

4.4:
term ::= factor {multiplying_operator factor}

4.4:
factor ::= primary [** primary] | **abs** primary | **not** primary

4.4:
primary ::=
  numeric_literal | **null** | string_literal | aggregate
 | name | qualified_expression | allocator | (expression)

4.5:
logical_operator ::= **and** | **or** | **xor**

4.5:
relational_operator ::= = | /= | < | <= | > | >=

4.5:
binary_adding_operator ::= + | – | &

4.5:
unary_adding_operator ::= + | –

4.5:
multiplying_operator ::= * | / | **mod** | **rem**

4.5:
highest_precedence_operator ::= ** | **abs** | **not**

4.6:
type_conversion ::=
   subtype_mark(expression)
 | subtype_mark(name)

4.7:
qualified_expression ::=
  subtype_mark'(expression) | subtype_mark'aggregate

4.8:
allocator ::=
  new subtype_indication | **new** qualified_expression

5.1:
sequence_of_statements ::= statement {statement}

5.1:
statement ::=
  {label} simple_statement | {label} compound_statement

5.1:
simple_statement ::= null_statement
  | assignment_statement | exit_statement
  | goto_statement | procedure_call_statement
  | return_statement | entry_call_statement
  | requeue_statement | delay_statement
  | abort_statement | raise_statement
  | code_statement

5.1:
compound_statement ::=
    if_statement | case_statement
  | loop_statement | block_statement
  | accept_statement | select_statement

5.1:
null_statement ::= **null**;

5.1:
label ::= <<*label*_statement_identifier>>

5.1:
statement_identifier ::= direct_name

5.2:
assignment_statement ::=
  *variable*_name := expression;

5.3:
if_statement ::=
  if condition **then**
    sequence_of_statements
  {**elsif** condition **then**
    sequence_of_statements}
  [**else**
    sequence_of_statements]
  end if;

5.3:
condition ::= *boolean*_expression

5.4:
case_statement ::=
  case expression **is**
    case_statement_alternative
    {case_statement_alternative}
  end case;

5.4:
case_statement_alternative ::=
  when discrete_choice_list =>
    sequence_of_statements

5.5:
loop_statement ::=
  [*loop*_statement_identifier:]
    [iteration_scheme] **loop**
      sequence_of_statements
    end loop [*loop*_identifier];

5.5:
iteration_scheme ::= **while** condition
  | **for** loop_parameter_specification

5.5:
loop_parameter_specification ::=
  defining_identifier **in** [**reverse**] discrete_subtype_definition

5.6:
block_statement ::=
  [*block*_statement_identifier:]
    [**declare**
      declarative_part]
    begin
      handled_sequence_of_statements
    end [*block*_identifier];

5.7:
exit_statement ::=
  exit [*loop*_name] [**when** condition];

5.8:
goto_statement ::= **goto** *label*_name;

6.1:
subprogram_declaration ::= subprogram_specification;

6.1:
abstract_subprogram_declaration ::= subprogram_specification **is abstract**;

6.1:
subprogram_specification ::=
    procedure defining_program_unit_name parameter_profile
  | **function** defining_designator parameter_and_result_profile

6.1:
designator ::= [parent_unit_name .]identifier | operator_symbol

6.1:
defining_designator ::= defining_program_unit_name | defining_operator_symbol

6.1:
defining_program_unit_name ::= [parent_unit_name .]defining_identifier

6.1:
operator_symbol ::= string_literal

6.1:
defining_operator_symbol ::= operator_symbol

6.1:
parameter_profile ::= [formal_part]

6.1:
parameter_and_result_profile ::= [formal_part] **return** subtype_mark

6.1:
formal_part ::=
  (parameter_specification {; parameter_specification})

6.1:
parameter_specification ::=
    defining_identifier_list : mode subtype_mark [:= default_expression]
  | defining_identifier_list : access_definition [:= default_expression]

6.1:
mode ::= [**in**] | **in out** | **out**

6.3:
subprogram_body ::=
    subprogram_specification **is**
      declarative_part
    begin
      handled_sequence_of_statements
    end [designator];

6.4:
procedure_call_statement ::=
    *procedure*_name;
  | *procedure*_prefix actual_parameter_part;

6.4:
function_call ::=
    *function*_name
  | *function*_prefix actual_parameter_part

6.4:
actual_parameter_part ::=
    (parameter_association {, parameter_association})

6.4:
parameter_association ::=
  [*formal_parameter*_selector_name =>] explicit_actual_parameter

6.4:
explicit_actual_parameter ::= expression | *variable*_name

6.5:
return_statement ::= **return** [expression];

7.1:
package_declaration ::= package_specification;

7.1:
package_specification ::=
    package defining_program_unit_name **is**
      {basic_declarative_item}
  [**private**
      {basic_declarative_item}]
    end [[parent_unit_name.]identifier]

7.2:
package_body ::=
  package body defining_program_unit_name **is**
    declarative_part
  [**begin**
    handled_sequence_of_statements]
  end [[parent_unit_name.]identifier];

7.3:
private_type_declaration ::=
  type defining_identifier [discriminant_part] **is** [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] **private**;

7.3:
private_extension_declaration ::=
  type defining_identifier [discriminant_part] **is**
   [**abstract**] **new** *ancestor*_subtype_indication **with private**;

8.4:
use_clause ::= use_package_clause | use_type_clause

8.4:
use_package_clause ::= **use** *package*_name {, *package*_name};

8.4:
use_type_clause ::= **use type** subtype_mark {, subtype_mark};

8.5:
renaming_declaration ::=
    object_renaming_declaration
  | exception_renaming_declaration
  | package_renaming_declaration
  | subprogram_renaming_declaration
  | generic_renaming_declaration

8.5.1:
object_renaming_declaration ::= defining_identifier : subtype_mark **renames** *object*_name;

8.5.2:
exception_renaming_declaration ::= defining_identifier : **exception renames** *exception*_name;

8.5.3:
package_renaming_declaration ::= **package** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *package*_name;

8.5.4:
subprogram_renaming_declaration ::= subprogram_specification **renames** *callable_entity*_name;

8.5.5:
generic_renaming_declaration ::=
    generic package defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_package*_name;
  | **generic procedure** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_procedure*_name;
  | **generic function** defining_program_unit_name **renames** *generic_function*_name;

9.1:
task_type_declaration ::=
  task type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] [**is** task_definition];

9.1:
single_task_declaration ::=
  task defining_identifier [**is** task_definition];

9.1:
task_definition ::=
    {task_item}
  [**private**
    {task_item}]
  end [*task*_identifier]

9.1:
task_item ::= entry_declaration | representation_clause

9.1:
task_body ::=
  task body defining_identifier **is**
    declarative_part
  begin
    handled_sequence_of_statements
  end [*task*_identifier];

9.4:
protected_type_declaration ::=
  protected type defining_identifier [known_discriminant_part] **is** protected_definition;

9.4:
single_protected_declaration ::=
  protected defining_identifier **is** protected_definition;

9.4:
protected_definition ::=
    { protected_operation_declaration }
[**private**
    { protected_element_declaration }]
  end [*protected*_identifier]

9.4:
protected_operation_declaration ::= subprogram_declaration
    | entry_declaration
    | representation_clause

9.4:
protected_element_declaration ::= protected_operation_declaration
    | component_declaration

9.4:
protected_body ::=
  protected body defining_identifier **is**
   { protected_operation_item }
  end [*protected*_identifier];

9.4:
protected_operation_item ::= subprogram_declaration
    | subprogram_body
    | entry_body
    | representation_clause

9.5.2:
entry_declaration ::=
   entry defining_identifier [(discrete_subtype_definition)] parameter_profile;

9.5.2:
accept_statement ::=
   accept *entry*_direct_name [(entry_index)] parameter_profile [**do**
     handled_sequence_of_statements
   end [*entry*_identifier]];

9.5.2:
entry_index ::= expression

9.5.2:
entry_body ::=
  entry defining_identifier entry_body_formal_part entry_barrier **is**
    declarative_part
  begin
    handled_sequence_of_statements
  end [*entry*_identifier];

9.5.2:
entry_body_formal_part ::= [(entry_index_specification)] parameter_profile

9.5.2:
entry_barrier ::= **when** condition

9.5.2:
entry_index_specification ::= **for** defining_identifier **in** discrete_subtype_definition

9.5.3:
entry_call_statement ::= *entry*_name [actual_parameter_part];

9.5.4:
requeue_statement ::= **requeue** *entry*_name [**with abort**];

9.6:
delay_statement ::= delay_until_statement | delay_relative_statement

9.6:
delay_until_statement ::= **delay until** *delay*_expression;

9.6:
delay_relative_statement ::= **delay** *delay*_expression;

9.7:
```
select_statement ::=
   selective_accept
  | timed_entry_call
  | conditional_entry_call
  | asynchronous_select
```

9.7.1:
```
selective_accept ::=
  select
    [guard]
     select_alternative
{ or
    [guard]
     select_alternative }
[ else
   sequence_of_statements ]
  end select;
```

9.7.1:
guard ::= **when** condition =>

9.7.1:
```
select_alternative ::=
   accept_alternative
  | delay_alternative
  | terminate_alternative
```

9.7.1:
```
accept_alternative ::=
  accept_statement [sequence_of_statements]
```

9.7.1:
```
delay_alternative ::=
  delay_statement [sequence_of_statements]
```

9.7.1:
terminate_alternative ::= **terminate**;

9.7.2:
```
timed_entry_call ::=
  select
    entry_call_alternative
  or
    delay_alternative
  end select;
```

9.7.2:
```
entry_call_alternative ::=
  entry_call_statement [sequence_of_statements]
```

9.7.3:
```
conditional_entry_call ::=
  select
    entry_call_alternative
  else
    sequence_of_statements
  end select;
```

9.7.4:
asynchronous_select ::=
select
triggering_alternative
then abort
abortable_part
end select;

9.7.4:
triggering_alternative ::= triggering_statement [sequence_of_statements]

9.7.4:
triggering_statement ::= entry_call_statement | delay_statement

9.7.4:
abortable_part ::= sequence_of_statements

9.8:
abort_statement ::= **abort** *task*_name {, *task*_name};

10.1.1:
compilation ::= {compilation_unit}

10.1.1:
compilation_unit ::=
context_clause library_item
| context_clause subunit

10.1.1:
library_item ::= [**private**] library_unit_declaration
| library_unit_body
| [**private**] library_unit_renaming_declaration

10.1.1:
library_unit_declaration ::=
subprogram_declaration | package_declaration
| generic_declaration | generic_instantiation

10.1.1:
library_unit_renaming_declaration ::=
package_renaming_declaration
| generic_renaming_declaration
| subprogram_renaming_declaration

10.1.1:
library_unit_body ::= subprogram_body | package_body

10.1.1:
parent_unit_name ::= name

10.1.2:
context_clause ::= {context_item}

10.1.2:
context_item ::= with_clause | use_clause

10.1.2:
with_clause ::= **with** *library_unit*_name {, *library_unit*_name};

10.1.3:
body_stub ::= subprogram_body_stub | package_body_stub | task_body_stub | protected_body_stub

10.1.3:
subprogram_body_stub ::= subprogram_specification **is separate**;

10.1.3:
package_body_stub ::= **package body** defining_identifier **is separate**;

10.1.3:
task_body_stub ::= **task body** defining_identifier **is separate**;

10.1.3:
protected_body_stub ::= **protected body** defining_identifier **is separate**;

10.1.3:
subunit ::= **separate** (parent_unit_name) proper_body

11.1:
exception_declaration ::= defining_identifier_list : **exception**;

11.2:
handled_sequence_of_statements ::=
    sequence_of_statements
  [**exception**
    exception_handler
   {exception_handler}]

11.2:
exception_handler ::=
  when [choice_parameter_specification:] exception_choice {| exception_choice} =>
    sequence_of_statements

11.2:
choice_parameter_specification ::= defining_identifier

11.2:
exception_choice ::= *exception*_name | **others**

11.3:
raise_statement ::= **raise** [*exception*_name];

12.1:
generic_declaration ::= generic_subprogram_declaration | generic_package_declaration

12.1:
generic_subprogram_declaration ::=
    generic_formal_part subprogram_specification;

12.1:
generic_package_declaration ::=
    generic_formal_part package_specification;

12.1:
generic_formal_part ::= **generic** {generic_formal_parameter_declaration | use_clause}

12.1:
generic_formal_parameter_declaration ::=
     formal_object_declaration
   | formal_type_declaration
   | formal_subprogram_declaration
   | formal_package_declaration

12.3:
generic_instantiation ::=
    package defining_program_unit_name **is**
       new *generic_package*_name [generic_actual_part];
  | **procedure** defining_program_unit_name **is**
       new *generic_procedure*_name [generic_actual_part];
  | **function** defining_designator **is**
       new *generic_function*_name [generic_actual_part];

12.3:
generic_actual_part ::=
  (generic_association {, generic_association})

12.3:
generic_association ::=
  [*generic_formal_parameter*_selector_name =>] explicit_generic_actual_parameter

12.3:
explicit_generic_actual_parameter ::= expression | *variable*_name
  | *subprogram*_name | *entry*_name | subtype_mark
  | *package_instance*_name

12.4:
formal_object_declaration ::=
   defining_identifier_list : mode subtype_mark [:= default_expression];

12.5:
formal_type_declaration ::=
   type defining_identifier[discriminant_part] **is** formal_type_definition;

12.5:
formal_type_definition ::=
    formal_private_type_definition
  | formal_derived_type_definition
  | formal_discrete_type_definition
  | formal_signed_integer_type_definition
  | formal_modular_type_definition
  | formal_floating_point_definition
  | formal_ordinary_fixed_point_definition
  | formal_decimal_fixed_point_definition
  | formal_array_type_definition
  | formal_access_type_definition

12.5.1:
formal_private_type_definition ::= [[**abstract**] **tagged**] [**limited**] **private**

12.5.1:
formal_derived_type_definition ::= [**abstract**] **new** subtype_mark [**with private**]

12.5.2:
formal_discrete_type_definition ::= (<>)

12.5.2:
formal_signed_integer_type_definition ::= **range** <>

12.5.2:
formal_modular_type_definition ::= **mod** <>

12.5.2:
formal_floating_point_definition ::= **digits** <>

12.5.2:
formal_ordinary_fixed_point_definition ::= **delta** <>

12.5.2:
formal_decimal_fixed_point_definition ::= **delta** <> **digits** <>

12.5.3:
formal_array_type_definition ::= array_type_definition

12.5.4:
formal_access_type_definition ::= access_type_definition

12.6:
formal_subprogram_declaration ::= **with** subprogram_specification [**is** subprogram_default];

12.6:
subprogram_default ::= default_name | <>

12.6:
default_name ::= name

12.7:
formal_package_declaration ::=
  with package defining_identifier **is new** *generic_package*_name formal_package_actual_part;

12.7:
formal_package_actual_part ::=
  (<>) | [generic_actual_part]

13.1:
representation_clause ::= attribute_definition_clause
    | enumeration_representation_clause
    | record_representation_clause
    | at_clause

13.1:
local_name ::= direct_name
    | direct_name'attribute_designator
    | *library_unit*_name

13.3:
attribute_definition_clause ::=
    for local_name'attribute_designator **use** expression;
  | **for** local_name'attribute_designator **use** name;

13.4:
enumeration_representation_clause ::=
   for *first_subtype*_local_name **use** enumeration_aggregate;

13.4:
enumeration_aggregate ::= array_aggregate

13.5.1:
record_representation_clause ::=
   for *first_subtype*_local_name **use**
     record [mod_clause]
       {component_clause}
     end record;

13.5.1:
component_clause ::=
   *component*_local_name **at** position **range** first_bit .. last_bit;

13.5.1:
position ::= *static*_expression

13.5.1:
first_bit ::= *static*_simple_expression

13.5.1:
last_bit ::= *static*_simple_expression

13.8:
code_statement ::= qualified_expression;

13.12:
restriction ::= *restriction*_identifier
   | *restriction_parameter*_identifier => expression

J.3:
delta_constraint ::= **delta** *static*_expression [range_constraint]

J.7:
at_clause ::= **for** direct_name **use at** expression;

J.8:
mod_clause ::= **at mod** *static*_expression;

Syntax Cross Reference

{*syntax (cross reference)*} {*grammar (cross reference)*} {*context free grammar (cross reference)*} {*BNF (Backus-Naur Form) (cross reference)*} {*Backus-Naur Form (BNF) (cross reference)*}

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