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Lecture Notes in Computer Science

Edited by G. Goos and J. Hartmanis

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The Programming Language **Ada** Reference Manual



Proposed Standard Document
United States Department of Defense



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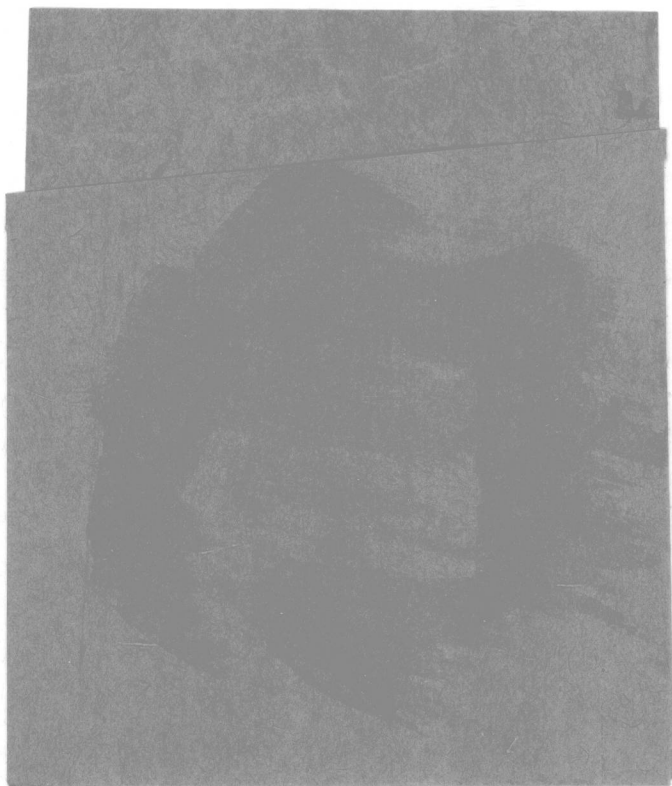


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Honeywell, Inc.
Systems and Research Center
2600 Ridgway Parkway
Minneapolis, MN 55413/USA
and
Cii Honeywell Bull
68 Route de Versailles
78430 Louveciennes, France



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EDITORS NOTE

This edition of the Ada Reference Manual is a photographic reproduction of the official November 1980 printing (Honeywell, Minneapolis). Because of the photo composition process, some errors were introduced in the November 1980 version which did not exist in the July 1980 version. These are listed below.

Section	Corrections
Table of contents	Change section numbers: "2-5" into "2.5" "2-6" into "2.6" "1-7" into "2.7"
03.05.05	In page 3-12, in T'SUCC(X), change ":item T'PRED(X) 11 The" into "T'PRED(X)" at the beginning of a new line and "The" tabulated as the previous lines.
03.07	Top of printed page 3-24 contains the following typos: - 1st line: "cvonents" should be "components" - 1st line of 1st paragraph: "of the le first" should be "of the list are first" - 5th line of 2nd paragraph: "ycorresponding" should be "corresponding" - 6th line of 2nd paragraph: "arrayype" should be "array type".
04.01.01	The header of page 4-2 should not be "Names and Expressions" but "Ada Reference Manual" justified at the right edge of the page.
10.04	The printed page 10-10 contains the following typos in the 3rd paragraph. - "prngram" should be "programm" - After "other program" in the 2nd line, the following words should be found: "libraries. Finally, there should be commands for interrogating the status of the units of a program library. The form of the commands" - suppress "nds" at the beginning of 3rd line.
14.01.02	In the first line of the 2nd paragraph after TRUNCATE, "phys" should be "physical".
C	In lower case letters, change 'A' into 'a' and 'Z' into 'z'.

Foreword

Ada is the result of a collective effort to design a common language for programming large scale and real-time systems.

The common high order language program began in 1974. The DoD requirements were formalized in a series of documents which were extensively reviewed by the Services, industrial organizations, universities, and foreign military departments. The culmination of that process was the Steelman Report to which the Ada language has been designed.

The Ada design team was led by Jean D. Ichbiah and has included Bernd Krieg-Brueckner, Brian A. Wichmann, Henry F. Ledgard, Jean-Claude Heliard, Jean-Raymond Abrial, John G.P. Barnes, Mike Woodger, Olivier Roubine, Paul N. Hilfinger, and Robert Firth.

At various stages of the project, several people closely associated with the design team made major contributions. They include J.B. Goodenough, M.W. Davis, G. Ferran, L. MacLaren, E. Morel, I.R. Nassi, I.C. Pyle, S.A. Schuman, and S.C. Vestal.

Two parallel efforts that were started in the second phase of this design had a deep influence on the language. One is the development of a formal definition using denotational semantics, with the participation of V. Donzeau-Gouge, G. Kahn and B. Lang. The other is the design of a test translator with the participation of K. Ripken, P. Boullier, P. Cadiou, J. Holden, J.F. Hueras, R.G. Lange, and D.T. Cornhill. The entire effort benefitted from the dedicated assistance of Lyn Churchill and Marion Myers, and the effective technical support of B. Gravem and W.L. Heimerdinger. H.G. Schmitz served as program manager.

Over the three years spent on this project, five intense one-week design reviews were conducted with the participation of H. Harte, A.L. Hisgen, P. Knueven, M. Kronental, G. Seegmueller, V. Stenning, and also F. Belz, P. Cohen, R. Converse, K. Correll, R. Dewar, A. Evans, A.N. Habermann, J. Sammet, S. Squires, J. Teller, P. Wegner, and P.R. Wetherall.

Several persons had a constructive influence with their comments, criticisms and suggestions. They include P. Brinch Hansen, G. Goos, C.A.R. Hoare, Mark Rain, W.A. Wulf, and also P. Belmont, E. Boebert, P. Bonnard, R. Brender, B. Brosgol, H. Clausen, M. Cox, T. Froggatt, H. Ganzinger, C. Hewitt, S. Kamin, J.L. Mansion, F. Minel, T. Phinney, J. Roehrich, V. Schneider, A. Singer, D. Slosberg, I.C. Wand, the reviewers of the group Ada-Europe, and the reviewers of the Tokyo study group assembled by N. Yoneda, E. Wada, and K. Kakehi.

These reviews and comments, the numerous evaluation reports received at the end of the first and second phase, the more than nine hundred language issue reports, comments, and test and evaluation reports received from fifteen different countries during the third phase of the project, and the on-going work of the IFIP Working Group 2.4 on system implementation languages and that of LTPL-E of Purdue Europe, all had a substantial influence on the final definition of Ada.

The Military Departments and Agencies have provided a broad base of support including funding, extensive reviews, and countless individual contributions by the members of the High Order Language Working Group and other interested personnel. In particular, William A. Whitaker provided leadership for the program during the formative stages. David A. Fisher was responsible for the successful development and iteration of language requirements documents, leading to the Steelman specification.

This language definition was developed by Cii Honeywell Bull and Honeywell Systems and Research Center under contract to the United States Department of Defense. William E. Carlson served as the technical representative of the Government and effectively coordinated the efforts of all participants in the Ada program.

This reference manual was prepared with a formatter specialized for Ada texts. It was developed by Jon F. Hueras for Multics, using the Cii Honeywell Bull photocomposition system.

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1. Introduction

This report describes the programming language Ada, designed in accordance with the Steelman requirements of the United States Department of Defense. Overall, the Steelman requirements call for a language with considerable expressive power covering a wide application domain. As a result the language includes facilities offered by classical languages such as Pascal as well as facilities often found only in specialized languages. Thus the language is a modern algorithmic language with the usual control structures, and the ability to define types and subprograms. It also serves the need for modularity, whereby data, types, and subprograms can be packaged. It treats modularity in the physical sense as well, with a facility to support separate compilation.

In addition to these aspects, the language covers real time programming, with facilities to model parallel tasks and to handle exceptions. It also covers systems program applications. This requires access to system dependent parameters and precise control over the representation of data. Finally, both application level and machine level input-output are defined.

1.1 Design Goals

Ada was designed with three overriding concerns: a recognition of the importance of program reliability and maintenance, a concern for programming as a human activity, and efficiency.

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 as within a unit.

Concern for the human programmer was also stressed during the design. Above all, an attempt was made to keep the language as small as possible, given the ambitious nature of the application domain. We have attempted to cover this domain with a small number of underlying concepts integrated in a consistent and systematic way. Nevertheless we have tried to avoid the pitfalls of excessive involution, and in the constant search for simpler designs we have tried to provide language constructs with an intuitive mapping on what the user will normally expect.

Like many other human activities, the development of programs is becoming more and more decentralized and distributed. Consequently the ability to assemble a program from independently produced software components has been a central idea in this design. The concepts of packages, of private types, and of generic program units are directly related to this idea, which has ramifications in many other aspects of the language.

No language can avoid the problem of efficiency. Languages that require overly 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 required excessive machine resources was rejected.

Perhaps most importantly, none of the above goals was considered something that could be achieved after the fact. The design goals drove the entire design process from the beginning.

1.2 Language Summary

An Ada program is composed of one or more program units, which can be compiled separately. Program units may be subprograms (which define executable algorithms), packages (which define collections of entities), or tasks (which define concurrent computations). Each 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.

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

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. To allow accurate control of program maintenance, the text of a separately compiled program unit must name the library units it requires.

Program units.

A subprogram is the basic unit for expressing an algorithm. There are two kinds of subprograms: procedures and functions. A procedure is the logical counterpart to a series of actions. For example, it may read in 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 logical counterpart to the computation of a value. It is similar to a procedure, but in addition will return a result.

A package is the basic unit for defining a collection of logically related entities. For example, a package can be used to define a common pool of data and types, a collection of related subprograms, or 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.

A task is the basic unit for defining a sequence of actions that may be executed in parallel with other similar units. Parallel 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 object or a task type defining similar task objects.

Declarations and Statements

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, and tasks to be used in the program unit.

The sequence of statements describes a sequence of actions that are to be performed. The statements are executed in succession (unless an exit, return, or goto statement, or the raising of an exception causes execution to continue from another place).

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

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.

The basic iterative mechanism in the language is the loop statement. A loop statement specifies that a sequence of statements is to be executed repeatedly until an iteration clause is completed or an exit statement is encountered.

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

Certain statements are only applicable to tasks. A delay statement delays the execution of a task for a specified duration. An entry call is written as a procedure call; it specifies that the task issuing the call is ready for a rendezvous with another task that has this entry. The called task is ready to accept the entry call when its execution reaches a corresponding accept statement, which specifies the actions then to be performed. After completion of the rendezvous, both the calling task and the task having the entry may continue their execution in parallel. A select statement allows a selective wait for one of several alternative rendezvous. Other forms of the select statement allow conditional or timed entry calls.

Execution of a program unit may lead to exceptional 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 these situations, the statements of a program unit can be textually followed by exception handlers describing the actions to be taken when the exceptional situation arises. Exceptions can be raised explicitly by a raise statement.

Data Types

Every object in the language has a type which characterizes a set of values and a set of applicable operations. There are four classes of types: scalar types (comprising enumeration and numeric types), composite types, access types, and private types.

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 and CHARACTER are predefined.

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

Composite types allow definitions of structured objects with related components. The composite types in the language provide for 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.

A record may have distinguished components called discriminants. Alternative record structures that depend on the values of discriminants can be defined within a record type.

Access types allow the construction of linked data structures created by the execution of allocators. They allow several variables of an access type to designate the same object, and components of one object to designate the same or other objects. Both the elements in such a linked data structure and their relation to other elements can be altered during program execution.

Private types can be defined in a package that conceals irrelevant structural details. Only the logically necessary properties (including any discriminants) are made visible to the users of such types.

The concept of a type is refined by the concept of a subtype, whereby a user can constrain the set of allowed values in 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.

Other Facilities

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

Input-output is defined in the language by means of predefined library packages. Facilities are provided for input-output of values of user-defined as well as of predefined types. Standard means of representing values in display form are also provided.

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 so allow general algorithms to be applied to all types of a given class.

1.3 Sources

A continual difficulty in language design is that one must both identify the capabilities required by the application domain and design language features that provide these capabilities.

The difficulty existed in this design, although to a much lesser degree than usual because of the Steelman requirements. These requirements often simplified the design process by permitting us to concentrate on the design of a given system satisfying a well defined set of capabilities, rather than on the definition of the capabilities themselves.

Another significant simplification of our design work resulted from earlier experience acquired by several successful Pascal derivatives developed with similar goals. These are the languages Euclid, Lis, Mesa, Modula, and Sue. Many of the key ideas and syntactic forms developed in these languages have a counterpart in Ada. We may say that whereas these previous designs could be considered as genuine research efforts, the language Ada is the result of a project in language design engineering, in an attempt to develop a product that represents the current state of the art.

Several existing languages such as Algol 68 and Simula and also recent research languages such as Alphard and Clu, influenced this language in several respects, although to a lesser degree than the Pascal family.

Finally, the evaluation reports received on the initial formulation of the Green language, the Red, Blue and Yellow language proposals, the language reviews that took place at different stages of this project, and the more than nine hundred reports received from fifteen different countries on the preliminary definition of Ada, all had a significant impact on the final definition of the language.

1.4 Syntax Notation

The context-free syntax of the language is described using a simple variant of Backus-Naur Form. In particular,

- (a) Lower case words, some containing embedded underscores, denote syntactic categories, for example

`adding_operator`

- (b) Boldface words denote reserved words, for example

array

- (c) Square brackets enclose optional items, for example

end [*identifier*];

- (d) Braces enclose a repeated item. The item may appear zero or more times. Thus an identifier list is defined by

`identifier_list ::= identifier { , identifier }`

- (e) A vertical bar separates alternative items, unless it occurs immediately after an opening brace, in which case it stands for itself:

`letter_or_digit ::= letter | digit`
`component_association ::= [choice || choice } =>] expression`

- (f) Any syntactic category prefixed by an italicized word and an underscore is equivalent to the unprefixing corresponding category name. The prefix is intended to convey some semantic information. For example *type_name* and *task_name* are both equivalent to the category name.