

SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3
Reference Manual

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Contents

Preface.....	xxix
1. Lexical Elements.....	1
Character Set.....	1
Special Symbols.....	2
Reserved Words.....	3
Identifiers.....	4
Comments.....	6
2. Data Types.....	9
Summary of Data Format Differences.....	10
Default Data Alignments and Padding.....	10
Data Formats with <code>-calign</code>	11
Data Formats with <code>-xl</code>	12
Data Formats with <code>-calign</code> and <code>-xl</code>	12

real	13
real Variables	13
real Initialization	13
real Constants	14
Data Representation	15
Integer	16
Integer Variables	17
Integer Initialization	17
Integer Constants	18
Data Representation	19
boolean	20
boolean Variables	20
boolean Initialization	20
boolean Constants	21
Data Representation	21
Character	22
Character Variables	22
Character Initialization	22
Character Constants	23
Data Representation	23
Enumerated Types	23
Enumerated Variables	24
Data Representation	24

Subrange	25
Subrange Variables	25
Data Representation	25
Record	26
Record Variables	27
Record Initialization	27
Data Representation of Unpacked Records	30
Data Representation of Packed Records	30
Array	34
Array Variables	34
Array Initialization	36
Packed Arrays	37
Data Representation	37
Set	38
Set Variables	38
Set Initialization	38
Packed Sets	39
Data Representation	39
File	41
Pointer	41
Standard Pointer	41
Universal Pointer	42

Procedure and Function Pointers	43
Pointer Initialization	45
Data Representation	45
3. Statements	47
Standard Statements	47
Statements Specific to Pascal	47
assert Statement	48
case Statement	51
exit Statement	53
goto Statement	55
next Statement	57
otherwise Statement	59
return Statement	60
with Statement	62
4. Assignments and Operators	65
Data Type Assignments and Compatibility	65
String Assignments	66
Fixed- and Variable-Length Strings	66
Null Strings	67
String Constants	67
Operators	68
Arithmetic Operators	68
The mod Operator	68
Bit Operators	70

boolean Operators	70
The and then Operator	71
The or else Operator	72
Set Operators.	73
Relational Operators	74
Relational Operators on Sets.	74
The = and <> Operators on Records and Arrays	75
String Operators.	77
Precedence of Operators.	78
5. Program Heading and Declarations.	79
Program Heading	79
Declarations.	80
Label Declaration	80
Constant Declaration	82
Type Declaration.	83
Variable Declaration.	84
Define Declaration	88
Procedure and Function Declarations	89
Procedure and Function Headings.	89
Visibility.	89
Parameter List.	90
Type Identifier.	94
Functions Returning Strings and Varying Strings	94
Options	95

6. Built-In Procedures and Functions	99
Standard Procedures and Functions.....	99
Routines Specific to Pascal.....	100
addr.....	103
Syntax	103
Arguments.....	103
Return Value	104
Comments.....	104
Example.....	105
argc.....	106
Syntax	106
Arguments.....	106
Return Value	106
Comments.....	106
Example.....	106
argv.....	107
Syntax	107
Arguments.....	107
Return Value	107
Comments.....	107
Example.....	108
arshft.....	109
Syntax	109
Arguments.....	109

Return Value	109
Comments	109
Example	110
asl	111
Syntax	111
Arguments	111
Return Value	111
Comments	111
Example	112
asr	113
card	113
Syntax	113
Arguments	113
Return Value	113
Comments	113
Example	114
clock	115
Syntax	115
Arguments	115
Return Value	115
Comments	115
Example	116

close.....	117
Syntax	117
Arguments	117
Return Value	117
Comments	118
Example	118
date.....	118
Syntax	118
Arguments	118
Return Value	118
Comments	119
Example	119
discard	120
Syntax	120
Arguments	120
Return Value	120
Comments	120
Example	121
expo.....	122
Syntax	122
Arguments	122
Return Value	122
Comments	122
Example	123

firstof	124
Syntax	124
Arguments	124
Return Value	124
Comments	124
Example	125
flush.....	127
Syntax	127
Arguments	127
Return Value	127
Comments	127
Example	128
getenv.....	130
Syntax	130
Arguments	130
Return Value	130
Comments	130
Example	131
getfile	131
Syntax	131
Arguments	131
Return Value	132
Comments	132
Example	132

halt.....	133
Syntax	133
Arguments	133
Return Values	133
Comments	133
Example	134
in_range	135
Syntax	135
Arguments	135
Return Value	135
Comments	135
Example	136
index.....	137
Syntax	137
Arguments	137
Return Value	137
Comments	137
Example	137
land.....	139
Syntax	139
Arguments	139
Return Value	139
Comments	139
Example	140

lastof.....	141
Syntax	141
Arguments	141
Return Value	141
Comments	142
Example	142
length.....	142
Syntax	142
Arguments	143
Return Value	143
Comments	143
Example	143
linelimit.....	144
Syntax	144
Arguments	144
Return Value	144
Comments	144
Example	145
lnot.....	146
Syntax	146
Arguments	146
Return Value	146
Comments	147
Example	147

lor	147
Syntax	147
Argument	147
Return Value	147
Comments	148
Example	148
lshft	148
Syntax	148
Argument	148
Return Value	149
Comments	149
lsl	150
lsr	150
max	150
Syntax	150
Arguments	150
Return Value	150
Example	151
message	152
Syntax	152
Arguments	152
Return Value	152
Comments	152
Example	153

min	153
Syntax	153
Arguments	153
Return Value	154
Comments	154
Example	154
null	154
Syntax	154
Arguments	154
Return Value	154
Comments	154
open	155
Syntax	155
Arguments	155
Return Value	155
Comments	155
pcexit	158
Syntax	158
Arguments	158
Return Value	158
Comments	158
random	159
Syntax	159
Arguments	159

Return Value	159
Comments	159
Example	160
read and readln	160
Syntax	160
Arguments	161
Return Value	161
Comments	161
Example	162
remove	163
Syntax	163
Arguments	163
Return Value	163
Comments	163
Example	164
reset	164
Syntax	164
Arguments	165
Return Value	165
Comments	165
Example	165
rewrite	165
Syntax	166
Arguments	166

Return Value	166
Comments	166
Example	167
rshft	168
Syntax	168
Arguments	168
Return Value	168
Comments	168
seed	170
Syntax	170
Arguments	170
Return Value	170
Comments	170
Example	170
sizeof	171
Syntax	171
Arguments	171
Return Value	172
Comments	172
Example	173
stlimit	175
Syntax	175
Arguments	175
Return Value	175

Comments	176
Example	176
substr.....	177
Syntax	177
Arguments	177
Return Value	177
Comments	177
Example	178
sysclock	178
Syntax	178
Arguments	178
Return Value	179
Comments	179
Example	179
time.....	179
Syntax	179
Arguments	179
Return Value	179
Comments	179
Example	180
trim.....	180
Syntax	180
Arguments	181
Return Value	181

Comments	181
Example	182
Type Transfer	183
Syntax	183
Arguments	183
Return Value	183
Comments	183
Example	184
wallclock	185
Syntax	185
Arguments	186
Return Value	186
Comments	186
Example	186
write and writeln	188
Syntax	188
Arguments	188
Return Value	188
Comments	188
Example	190
xor	190
Syntax	190
Arguments	190
Return Value	191

Comments	191
Example	191
7. Input and Output	193
Input and Output Routines	193
eof and eoln Functions	194
More About eoln	198
External Files and Pascal File Variables	199
Permanent Files	200
Temporary Files	200
input, output, and errout Variables	201
Properties of input, output, and errout Variables...	201
Associating input with a File Other Than stdin	201
Associating output with a File Other Than stdout ...	202
Associating errout with a File Other Than stderr ...	202
Pascal I/O Library	202
Buffering of File Output	203
I/O Error Recovery	204
A. Overview of Pascal Extensions	209
Lexical Elements	209
Data Types	210
Statements	211
Assignments and Operators	211
Headings and Declarations	212
Procedures and Functions	212

Built-In Routines	212
Input and Output	215
Program Compilation	215
B. Pascal and DOMAIN Pascal	217
The -x1 Option	217
DOMAIN Pascal Features Accepted but Ignored	218
DOMAIN Pascal Features Not Supported	219
C. Implementation Restrictions	221
Identifiers	221
Data Types	221
real	222
Integer	222
Character	222
Record	222
Array	222
Set	223
Alignment	223
Nested Routines	225
Default Field Widths	226
D. Pascal Validation Summary Report	227
Test Conditions	227
Manufacturer's Statement of Compliance	227
Implementation-Defined Features	228
Reporting of Errors	229

Implementation-Dependent Features	230
Extensions	230
Glossary	231
Index.....	245

Figures

Figure 2-1	32-Bit Floating-Point Number	15
Figure 2-2	64-Bit Floating-Point Number	15
Figure 2-3	16-Bit Integer	20
Figure 2-4	32-Bit Integer	20
Figure 2-5	true boolean Variable	21
Figure 2-6	false boolean Variable	22
Figure 2-7	16-Bit Enumerated Variable.....	24
Figure 2-8	Sample Enumerated Representation	25
Figure 2-9	16-Bit Subrange	26
Figure 2-10	32-Bit Subrange	26
Figure 2-11	Sample Packed Record (Without -x1).....	33
Figure 2-12	Small Set	40
Figure 2-13	Large Set	41
Figure 2-14	Pointer.....	45

Tables

Table 1-1	Nonstandard Special Symbols	2
Table 1-2	Standard Reserved Words	3
Table 1-3	Nonstandard Reserved Words	4
Table 1-4	Predeclared Standard Identifiers	4
Table 1-5	Predeclared Nonstandard Identifiers	5
Table 2-1	<code>real</code> Data Types	13
Table 2-2	Representation of Extreme Exponents	15
Table 2-3	Hexadecimal Representation of Selected Numbers	16
Table 2-4	Integer Data Types	17
Table 2-5	Values for <code>maxint</code> and <code>minint</code>	19
Table 2-6	Nonstandard Predeclared Character Constants	23
Table 2-7	Subrange Data Representation	26
Table 2-8	Packed Record Storage Without <code>-x1</code>	31
Table 2-9	Packed Record Storage with <code>-x1</code>	32
Table 2-10	Packed Record Storage with <code>-calign</code>	32
Table 2-11	Sample Sizes and Alignment of Packed Record	33

Table 2-12	Array Data Types	34
Table 2-13	Data Representation of Sets	40
Table 3-1	Nonstandard Pascal Statements	48
Table 4-1	Data Type Assignment	66
Table 4-2	Fixed- and Variable-Length String Assignments	67
Table 4-3	Null String Assignments	67
Table 4-4	Arithmetic Operators	68
Table 4-5	Bit Operators	70
Table 4-6	<code>boolean</code> Operators	71
Table 4-7	Set Operators	73
Table 4-8	Relational Operators	74
Table 4-9	Precedence of Operators	78
Table 6-1	Standard Procedures	99
Table 6-2	Standard Functions	100
Table 6-3	Nonstandard Arithmetic Routines	100
Table 6-4	Nonstandard Bit Shift Routines	101
Table 6-5	Nonstandard Character String Routines	101
Table 6-6	Nonstandard Input and Output Routines	102
Table 6-7	Extensions to Standard Input and Output Routines	102
Table 6-8	Miscellaneous Nonstandard Routines	103
Table 6-9	<code>firstof</code> Return Values	125
Table 6-10	<code>land</code> Truth	139
Table 6-11	<code>lastof</code> Return Values	142
Table 6-12	<code>lnot</code> Truth	147
Table 6-13	<code>lor</code> Truth	148

Table 6-14	<code>open</code> Error Codes	156
Table 6-15	Default Field Widths.....	189
Table 6-16	<code>xor</code> Truth	191
Table 7-1	Extensions to Input/Output Routines	194
Table 7-2	Pascal File Variable with a Permanent File	200
Table 7-3	Pascal File Variable with a Temporary File.....	200
Table A-1	Nonstandard Identifiers.....	210
Table B-1	Differences Between Programs Compiled With and Without <code>-x1</code>	217
Table C-1	Values for <code>single</code> and <code>double</code>	222
Table C-2	<code>maxint</code> and <code>minint</code>	222
Table C-3	Internal Representation of Data Types Without <code>-x1</code>	224
Table C-4	Internal Representation of Data Types with <code>-x1</code>	225
Table C-5	Default Field Widths.....	226

Preface



Pascal¹ is an implementation of the Pascal language that includes all the standard language elements and many extensions. These extensions allow greater flexibility in writing programs. Among them are:

- Separate compilation of programs and modules
- dbx (symbolic debugger) support, which is part of SPARCworks™
- Optimizer support
- Multiple `label`, `const`, `type`, and `var` declarations
- Variable-length character strings
- Compile-time initializations
- `static` and `extern` declarations
- Additional sizes of integer and real data types
- Integers in any base from 2 to 16
- Extended input/output facilities
- Extended library of built-in functions and procedures
- Universal and function and procedure pointer types

1. All references to Pascal in this manual refers to SPARCCompiler™ Pascal unless otherwise indicated.



- Specification of the direction of parameter passing as one of the following:
 - Into a routine
 - Out of a routine
 - Both of the above

In addition, Pascal contains a compiler switch to provide compatibility with Apollo[®] DOMAIN[®] Pascal to ease the task of porting your Apollo Pascal applications to workstations.

Audience

This manual describes the SPARCompiler Pascal product that runs on the Solaris[™] 1.x and 2.x environments. To use this manual, you should be familiar with ISO standard Pascal and Solaris commands and concepts.

Operating Environments

Solaris 1.x implies:

- SunOS[™] 4.1.1, 4.1.2, 4.1.3, or 4.1.3_U1 operating system
- The OpenWindows[™] 3.x application development platform

Solaris 2.x implies:

- SunOS 5.2 operating system or above
- The OpenWindows 3.x application development platform

Solaris 2.x is based on the System V Release 4 (SVR4) UNIX[®] operating system, and the ONC[™] family of published networking protocols and distributed services. Solaris 1.x is based on the UCB BSD 4.3 operating system.

Note – For other operating system release-specific information, refer to the README file and Product Notes that accompany the product.

Installation

For instructions on how to install Pascal, and if you are new to the operating system, refer to the documentation on the operating system and on installing the software, *Installing SunSoft Developer Products Software on Solaris*.



How This Manual Is Organized

This manual is a reference manual for Pascal extensions to Standard Pascal. Chapters 1 through 7 describe extensions to the elements of a Pascal program:

- Chapter 1, “Lexical Elements”
- Chapter 2, “Data Types”
- Chapter 3, “Statements”
- Chapter 4, “Assignments and Operators”
- Chapter 5, “Program Heading and Declarations”
- Chapter 6, “Built-In Procedures and Functions”
- Chapter 7, “Input and Output”

As each extension is presented, a complete example is provided to illustrate that extension.

This manual also has four appendixes:

- **Appendix A, “Overview of Pascal Extensions,”** summarizes the Pascal extensions to standard Pascal, and serves as a quick reference guide to the differences between Pascal and standard Pascal.
- **Appendix B, “Pascal and DOMAIN Pascal,”** lists the differences between Pascal and Apollo DOMAIN Pascal.
- **Appendix C, “Implementation Restrictions,”** describes Pascal features that are implementation-defined.
- **Appendix D, “Pascal Validation Summary Report,”** summarizes the features, errors, and extensions in the manufacturer’s statement of compliance for the validation of the Pascal Version 3.0.2 compiler.

A glossary and an index are included at the end of the manual.



Conventions Used in This Manual

This manual contains syntax diagrams of the Pascal language in extended Backus-Naur Formalism (BNF) notation. It uses the following meta symbols:

Table P-1 BNF Meta Symbols

Meta Symbol	Description
::=	Defined as
	Can be used as an alternative
(<i>a</i> <i>b</i>)	Either <i>a</i> or <i>b</i>
[<i>a</i>]	Zero or one instance of <i>a</i>
{ <i>a</i> }	Zero or more instances of <i>a</i>
'abc'	The characters abc

The following table describes the type styles and symbols used in this manual:

Table P-2 Typographic Conventions

Typeface or Symbol	Meaning	Example
AaBbCc123	The names of commands, files, and directories; on-screen computer output	Edit your <code>.login</code> file. Use <code>ls -a</code> to list all files. hostname% You have mail.
AaBbCc123	What you type, contrasted with on-screen computer output	hostname% su Password:
<i>AaBbCc123</i>	Command-line placeholder: replace with a real name or value	To delete a file, type <code>rm filename</code> .
<i>AaBbCc123</i>	Book titles, new words or terms, or words to be emphasized	Read the <i>User's Guide</i> . These are called <i>class</i> options. You <i>must</i> be root to do this.

Code samples are included in boxes and may display the following:

%	C shell prompt	hostname%
\$	Bourne and Korn shell prompt	hostname\$
#	Superuser prompt, all shells	hostname#



Related Documentation

This manual is designed to accompany the following documents:

- The *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide*, which describes how to write, compile, run, and debug a Pascal program
- The *Pascal 3.0.3 Quick Reference*, which summarizes the compiler options

Manual Pages

SPARCompiler Pascal provides on-line manual pages, commonly known as man pages, on Pascal commands. For example, `pc(1)` describes the Pascal compiler. The man pages are included in the SPARCompiler Pascal package and must be installed with the rest of the software. Once you install the documentation, you can read about `pc` by entering the `man` command followed by the command name, as in:

```
hostname% man pc
```

README Files

The README default directory differs between the Solaris 1.x and 2.x operating systems:

```
Solaris 1.x  /usr/lang/READMEs
Solaris 2.x  /opt/SUNWspro/READMEs
```

Each of these directories contains two identical files:

- A SPARCompiler Pascal README that describes the new features, changes to features, software bugs, and so on
- A floating-point white paper, “*What Every Scientist Should Know About Floating-Point Arithmetic*,” by David Goldberg, in PostScript™ format. The file is called `floating-point.ps`, and can be printed on any PostScript-compatible printer that has Palatino font. It can be viewed on-line by using the `imagetool` command:

```
hostname% imagetool floating-point.ps
```



This paper is also available in the AnswerBook[®] system, an on-line documentation viewing tool that takes advantage of dynamically linked headings and cross-references. The *Installing SunSoft Developer Products Software on Solaris* manual shows you how to install AnswerBook.

Product Notes

The Product Notes contain information that was not available when we shipped the product, and are included in the package.

Other Related Documentation

Other reference material includes:

Profiling Tools
Numerical Computation Guide

The following SPARCworks[™] manuals contain information on the debuggers, source code browser, and other development tools that are in the SPARCworks package:

Managing the Toolset
Browsing Source Code
Building Programs with MakeTool
Debugging a Program
Merging Source Files
Performance Tuning an Application
SPARCworks/ProWorks Tutorial

The following manual contains information useful for developing Pascal programs under XView:

XView Programming Manual by Dan Heller, O'Reilly & Associates, Inc., 1990



Documents in Hard Copy and in AnswerBook

The following table shows what documents are on-line, in hard copy form, or both:

Title	Hard Copy	On-Line
<i>SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide</i>	X	X (AnswerBook)
<i>SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 Reference Manual</i>	X	X (AnswerBook)
<i>SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 Quick Reference</i>	X	
<i>Installing SunSoft Developer Products Software on Solaris</i>	X	X (AnswerBook)
<i>Profiling Tools</i>		X (AnswerBook)
<i>Numerical Computation Guide</i>		X (AnswerBook)
README		X (CD-ROM)
<i>What Every Scientist Should Know About Floating-Point Arithmetic</i>		X (AnswerBook and CD-ROM)
Product Notes	X	



Lexical Elements

This chapter describes the symbols and words of a Pascal program. It contains the following sections:

<i>Character Set</i>	<i>page 1</i>
<i>Special Symbols</i>	<i>page 2</i>
<i>Reserved Words</i>	<i>page 3</i>
<i>Identifiers</i>	<i>page 4</i>
<i>Comments</i>	<i>page 6</i>

Character Set

Pascal uses the standard seven-bit ASCII character set, and the compiler distinguishes between uppercase and lowercase characters. For example, the following seven words are distinct from the predefined type `integer`:

Integer	INTEGer
INteger	INTEGER
INTeger	INTEGER
INTEger	

If you change the case of characters used in a word, the compiler does not recognize the word and gives an error.

The Pascal keywords and built-in procedure and function names are all in lowercase.

To map all keywords and identifiers to lowercase when you compile your program, use the following `pc` options:

<code>-L</code>	Maps all uppercase letters in keywords and identifiers to lowercase.
<code>-s</code>	Performs the same action as <code>-L</code> and also produces warning diagnostics for nonstandard constructs and extensions.

See the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide* for a complete description of `pc` and its options.

Special Symbols

Pascal recognizes the following standard Pascal symbols and the nonstandard special symbols listed in Table 1-1.

<code>+ - * / = < > [] . , := : ; () <> <= >= .. ^</code>

Table 1-1 Nonstandard Special Symbols

Symbol	Description	Example
<code>~</code>	Bitwise not operator	<code>~ 4</code>
<code>&</code>	Bitwise and operator	<code>4 & 3</code>
<code> </code>	Bitwise or operator	<code>4 3</code>
<code>!</code>	Bitwise or operator	<code>4 ! 3</code>
<code>#</code>	Specifies an integer value in a base other than base 10.	<code>p := 2#10111; { base 2 }</code> <code>f := 8#76543; { base 8 }</code>

Table 1-1 Nonstandard Special Symbols (Continued)

Symbol	Description	Example
	Includes a file in the program.	<code>#include globals.h</code> <code>#include scanner.h</code>
	Indicates a preprocessor command	<code>#ifdef DEBUGGING</code> <code>writeln('Total :',i,sum);</code> <code>#endif</code>
<code>%</code>	Indicates a <code>cppas</code> compiler directive	<code>%var one, two</code> <code>%enable two</code>

Reserved Words

Pascal reserves the standard words in Table 1-2. You cannot redefine a reserved word to represent another item.

Table 1-2 Standard Reserved Words

Pascal Standard Reserved Words			
<code>and</code>	<code>file</code>	<code>mod</code>	<code>repeat</code>
<code>array</code>	<code>for</code>	<code>nil</code>	<code>set</code>
<code>begin</code>	<code>forward</code>	<code>not</code>	<code>then</code>
<code>case</code>	<code>function</code>	<code>of</code>	<code>to</code>
<code>const</code>	<code>goto</code>	<code>or</code>	<code>type</code>
<code>div</code>	<code>if</code>	<code>packed</code>	<code>until</code>
<code>do</code>	<code>in</code>	<code>procedure</code>	<code>var</code>
<code>downto</code>	<code>label</code>	<code>program</code>	<code>while</code>
<code>else</code>	<code>main</code>	<code>record</code>	<code>with</code>

Pascal also reserves the nonstandard words in Table 1-3. These words are not treated as reserved words when you compile your program with any of the `-s`, `-s0`, `-s1`, `-V0` or `-V1` options.

Table 1-3 Nonstandard Reserved Words

Pascal Nonstandard Reserved Words	
define	private
extern	public
external	static
module	univ
otherwise	

Identifiers

In Pascal, you can include a dollar sign (\$) and underscore () in an identifier name. The \$ and _ can occur in any position of the identifier name. However, you should avoid using these characters in the first position because they may conflict with system names.

Pascal predeclares the standard identifiers in Table 1-4 and the nonstandard identifiers in Table 1-5.

Table 1-4 Predeclared Standard Identifiers

Pascal Predeclared Standard Identifiers			
abs	false	page	sin
arctan	get	pred	sqr
boolean	input	put	sqrt
char	integer	read	succ
chr	ln	readln	text
cos	maxint	real	true
dispose	new	reset	trunc
eof	odd	rewrite	write
eoln	ord	round	writeln
exp	output		

Table 1-5 Predeclared Nonstandard Identifiers

Pascal Predeclared Nonstandard Identifiers

FALSE	expo	lor	rshft
TRUE	firstof	lshft	seed
addr	flush	lsl	shortreal
alfa	getenv	lsr	single
argc	getfile	max	sizeof
argv	halt	maxchar	stlimit
arshft	in_range	message	string
asl	index	min	substr
asr	integer16	minchar	sysclock
assert	integer32	minint	tab
bell	intset	next	time
card	land	null	trim
clock	lastof	open	univ_ptr
close	length	pack	unpack
date	linelimit	random	varying
discard	lnot	remove	wallclock
double	longreal	return	xor
exit			

You can redefine a predeclared identifier to represent another item. For example, you could redefine the predefined identifier `next`, a statement that causes the program to skip to the next iteration of the current loop, as a variable.

Once you redefine an identifier, you cannot use it as originally defined in the program, as shown in the following example:

≡ 1

The Pascal program, `pred_iden.p`, redefines the predeclared identifier `next` as an integer variable.

```
program predefined_identifier;
var
  i: integer;
  next: integer;

begin
  for i := 1 to 10 do begin
    if i > 5 then begin
      next
    end
  end
end. { predefined_identifier }
```

This program does not compile because `next` is declared as a variable, but used in its original definition as a statement.

```
hostname% pc pred_iden.p
Mon Jul 18 15:13:17 1994 pred_iden.p:
      10          next
E 18470-----^---- Replaced variable id with a
procedure id
In program predefined_identifier:
E 18250 next improperly used on line 10
```

Comments

In Pascal, you can specify a comment in either braces, quotation marks, a parenthesis/asterisk pair, or a slash/asterisk pair:

```
{ This is a comment. }
(* This is a comment. *)
" This is a comment. "
/* This is a comment. */
```

The symbols used to delimit a comment must match. For example, a comment that starts with `{` must end with `}`, and a comment that starts with `(*` must end with `*)`.

You can nest comments in Pascal, that is, include one type of comment delimiter inside another:

```
{ This is a valid (* comment within a comment. *) }
(* This is a valid " comment within a comment. " *)
```

You cannot nest the same kind of comments. The following comments result in a compile-time error:

```
{ This is not a valid { comment within a comment. } }
(* This is not a valid (* comment within a comment. *) *)
" This is not a valid " comment within a comment. " "
/* This is not a valid /* comment within a comment. */ */
```


Data Types



This chapter describes the Pascal data types. Some data types represent different values when you compile your program with or without the `-x1` option, and with or without the `-calign` option. The intent of the `-x1` option is to guarantee binary data compatibility between the operating system and Apollo MC680x0-based workstations. The intent of the `-calign` option is to improve compatibility with C language data structures.

This chapter contains the following sections:

<i>Summary of Data Format Differences</i>	<i>page 10</i>
<i>real</i>	<i>page 13</i>
<i>Integer</i>	<i>page 16</i>
<i>boolean</i>	<i>page 20</i>
<i>Character</i>	<i>page 22</i>
<i>Enumerated Types</i>	<i>page 23</i>
<i>Subrange</i>	<i>page 25</i>
<i>Record</i>	<i>page 26</i>
<i>Array</i>	<i>page 34</i>
<i>Set</i>	<i>page 38</i>
<i>File</i>	<i>page 41</i>
<i>Pointer</i>	<i>page 41</i>

Summary of Data Format Differences

A few data formats, particularly of structured types, change when you use the Pascal compiler `-calign` option, when you use the `-x1` option, and when you use the `-calign` with the `-x1` option. This section describes the data alignments and sizes that change with these options. See the remainder of the chapter for information on types that do not change when you use these options.

All simple data types take their natural alignments. For example, real numbers, being four-byte values, have four-byte alignment. Naturally, no padding is needed for simple types.

Default Data Alignments and Padding

Here is a summary of the default data alignments and padding.

Records

The alignment of a record is always four bytes. Elements take their natural alignment, but the total size of a record is always a multiple of four bytes.

Packed Records

Elements of types `enumerated`, `subrange`, `integer16`, and sets with a cardinal number less than 32 are bit-aligned in packed records.

Variant Records

The alignment of each variant in a record is the maximum alignment of all variants.

Arrays

The alignment of a array is equal to the alignment of the elements, and the size of most arrays is simply the size of each element times the number of elements. The one exception to this rule is that the arrays of aggregates always have a size that is a multiple of four bytes.

Sets

Sets have an alignment of four bytes when they are longer than 16 bits; otherwise, their alignment is two bytes. The size of a set is always a multiple of two bytes.

Enumerated Types

The size and alignment of enumerated types can be one byte or two, depending on the number of elements defined for the type.

Subranges

The size and alignment of subrange types varies from one to four bytes, depending on the number of bits requires for its minimum and maximum values. See Table 2-7 on page 26 for examples.

Data Formats with -calign

With the `-calign` option, the data formats are:

Records

The alignment of a record is equal to the alignment of the largest element.

Packed Records

Packed records are the same as the default, except integer elements are not bit-aligned.

Arrays

The size of all arrays is the size of each element times the number of elements.

Sets

Sets have an alignment of two bytes. The size is the same as the default.

Data Formats with -x1

In addition to the structured types discussed below, two simple data types change their sizes with the `-x1` option:

- Type `real` is eight bytes by default; with `-x1`, it is four bytes.
- Type `integer` is four bytes by default; with `-x1`, it is two bytes.

Packed Records

Values of type `real` have four-byte sizes and alignment. Values of type `integer` have a size of two bytes and are bit-aligned.

Enumerated Types

The size and alignment of enumerated types is always two bytes.

Subranges

The size and alignment of subrange types varies from two to four bytes, depending on the number of bits requires for its minimum and maximum values. See Table 2-7 for examples.

Data Formats with -calign and -x1

When you use `-x1` with `-calign`, alignments and padding are the same as with `-x1` alone, with the following differences:

Arrays

Arrays are the same as with `-calign` alone, except the size of an array of `booleans` is always a multiple of two.

Varying Arrays

Varying arrays have an alignment of four bytes. The size is a multiple of four.

real

Pascal supports the standard predeclared `real` data type. As extensions to the standard, Pascal also supports:

- `single`, `shortreal`, `double`, and `longreal` data types
- `real` initialization in the variable declaration
- `real` constants without a digit after the decimal point

`real` Variables

The minimum and maximum values of the `real` data types are shown in Table 2-1.

Table 2-1 `real` Data Types

Type	Bits	Maximum Value	Minimum Value
<code>real</code> (with <code>-xl</code> option)	32 bits	3.402823e+38	1.401298e-45
<code>real</code> (without <code>-xl</code> option)	64 bits	1.79769313486231470e+308	4.94065645841246544e-324
<code>single</code>	32 bits	3.402823e+38	1.401298e-45
<code>shortreal</code>	32 bits	3.402823e+38	1.401298e-45
<code>double</code>	64 bits	1.79769313486231470e+308	4.94065645841246544e-324
<code>longreal</code>	64 bits	1.79769313486231470e+308	4.94065645841246544e-324

This example declares five `real` variables:

```

var x: real;
    y: shortreal;
    z: longreal;
    weight: single;
    volume: double;

```

`real` Initialization

To initialize a `real` variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, create an assignment statement as follows:

This example initializes the variable `ph` to 4.5 and `y` to 2.71828182845905e+00.

```
var
  ph: single := 4.5;
  y: longreal := 2.71828182845905e+00;
```

You can also initialize `real` variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`:

This example initializes the variable `sum` to 5.0, which has been declared as `static single`.

```
procedure foo (in x : single;
  out y: single);

var
  sum: static single := 5.0;
```

The example in the following section defines six valid `real` constants, two of which do not have a digit after the decimal point.

`real` *Constants*

Here is an example that of a `real` constant:

```
const
  n = 42.57;
  n2 = 4E12;
  n3 = 567.;
  n4 = 83.;
  n5 = cos(567.)/2;
  n6 = succ(sqrt(5+4));
```

Data Representation

Pascal represents `real`, `single`, `shortreal`, `double`, and `longreal` data types according to the IEEE standard, *A Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic*. Figure 2-1 shows the representation of a 32-bit floating point number; Figure 2-2 shows the representation of a 64-bit floating point number.

Figure 2-1 32-Bit Floating-Point Number

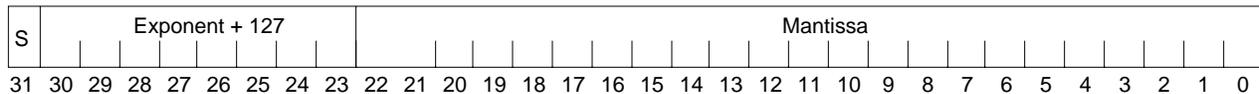
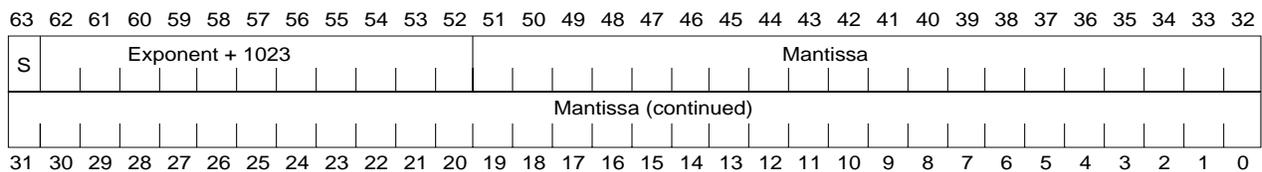


Figure 2-2 64-Bit Floating-Point Number



A real number is represented by this form:

$$(-1)^{sign} * 2^{exponent-bias} * 1.f$$

f is the bits in the fraction. Extreme exponents are represented as shown in Table 2-2.

Table 2-2 Representation of Extreme Exponents

Exponent	Description
zero (signed)	Represented by an exponent of zero and a fraction of zero.
Subnormal number	Represented by $(-1)^{sign} * 2^{1-bias} * 0.f$, where f is the bits in the significand.
Not a Number (NaN)	Represented by the largest value that the exponent can assume (all ones), and a nonzero fraction.

Normalized real numbers have an implicit leading bit that provides one more bit of precision than usual.

Table 2-3 shows the hexadecimal representation of several numbers.

Table 2-3 Hexadecimal Representation of Selected Numbers

Value	32-bit Floating-Point Number	64-bit Floating-Point Number
+0	00000000	0000000000000000
-0	80000000	8000000000000000
+1.0	3F800000	3FF0000000000000
-1.0	BF800000	BFF0000000000000
+2.0	40000000	4000000000000000
+3.0	40400000	4008000000000000
+Infinity	7F800000	7FF0000000000000
-Infinity	FF800000	FFF0000000000000
NaN	7Fxxxxxx	7FFxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

Integer

Pascal supports the standard predeclared `integer` data type. As extensions to the standard, Pascal also supports the `integer16` and `integer32` data types, integer initialization in the variable declaration, and integer constants in a base other than base 10.

Integer Variables

Table 2-4 lists the minimum and maximum values of the integer data types.

Table 2-4 Integer Data Types

Type	Number of Bits	Maximum Value	Minimum Value
integer (without <code>-xl</code> option)	32 bits	2,147,483,647	-2,147,483,648
integer (with <code>-xl</code> option)	16 bits	32,767	-32,768
integer16	16 bits	32,767	-32,768
integer32	32 bits	2,147,483,647	-2,147,483,648

This example declares three integer variables:

```
var
  i: integer;
  score: integer16;
  number: integer32;
```

To define an unsigned integer in Pascal, use a subrange declaration. The subrange syntax indicates the lower and upper limits of the data type, as follows:

This code limits the legal values for the variable `unsigned_int` to 0 through 65536.

```
type
  unsigned_int = 0..65536;
var
  u: unsigned_int;
```

Integer Initialization

To initialize integer variables when you declare them in the `var` declaration part of your program, put an assignment statement in the declaration, as follows:

This example initializes the variables `a` and `b` to 50 and `c` to 10000.

```
var   a, b: integer32 := 50;
      c: integer16 := 10000;
```

You can also initialize integer variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`:

This code initializes the variable `sum` to 50, which has been declared as `static integer16`.

```
procedure show (in x : integer16;
                out y: integer16);
var
  sum: static integer16 := 50;
```

Integer Constants

You define integer constants in Pascal the same as you do as in standard Pascal.

Here is an example:

```
const
  x = 10;
  y = 15;
  n1 = sqr(x);
  n2 = trunc((x+y)/2);
  n3 = arshft(8, 1);
```

maxint *and* minint

The value Pascal assigns to the integer constants maxint and minint is shown in Table 2-5.

Table 2-5 Values for maxint and minint

Constant	Without -x1		With -x1	
	Bits	Value	Bits	Value
maxint	32 bits	2,147,483,647	16 bits	32,767
minint	32 bits	-2,147,483,648	16 bits	-32,768

In Another Base

To specify an integer constant in another base, use the following format:

base#number

base is an integer from 2 to 36. *number* is a value in that base. To express *number*, use the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and then use the letters a to z. Case is insignificant; a is equivalent to A.

You can optionally put a positive sign (+) or negative sign (-) before *base*. The sign applies to the entire number, not the base.

This code specifies integers in binary, octal, and hexadecimal notation.

```
power := 2#10111;           (* binary (base 2) *)
fraction_of_c := -8#76543; (* octal (base 8) *)
percentage := +16#fd9c;    (* hexadecimal (base 16) *)
```

Data Representation

Pascal represents integer, integer16, and integer32 data types in twos complement format. Figure 2-3 shows the representation of a 16-bit integer. Similarly, Figure 2-4 shows the representation of a 32-bit integer.

Figure 2-3 16-Bit Integer

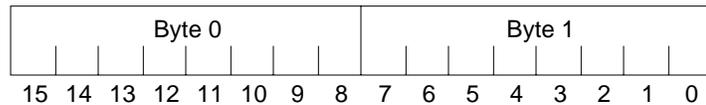
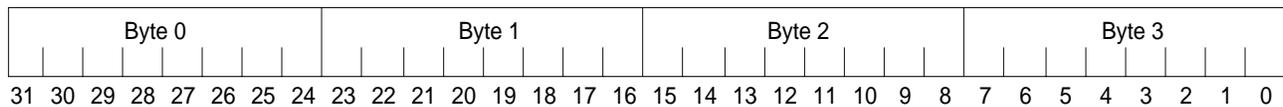


Figure 2-4 32-Bit Integer



boolean

Pascal supports the standard predeclared data type `boolean`. As an extension to the standard, Pascal permits you to initialize `boolean` variables in the variable declaration.

boolean *Variables*

In Pascal, you declare `boolean` variables the same as in standard Pascal. Both of the following are valid `boolean` variables:

This example declares the variables `cloudy` and `sunny` as `boolean`.

```
var
  cloudy: boolean;
  sunny: boolean;
```

boolean *Initialization*

To initialize a `boolean` variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, use an assignment statement, as follows:

This example initializes `cloudy` to `true` and `sunny` to `false`.

```
var
  cloudy: boolean := true;
  sunny: boolean := false;
```

You can also initialize boolean variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`:

This code initializes the variable `rainy` to `false`, which has been declared as `static boolean`.

```
function weather (x: integer): boolean;  
  
var  
    rainy: static boolean := false;
```

boolean *Constants*

You declare boolean constants in Pascal the same as in standard Pascal. Three valid boolean constants follow:

This example declares the constants `a` as `true` and `b` as `false`. It also declares `n` as the value `odd(y)`.

```
const  
    a = true;  
    b = false;  
    y = 15;  
    n = odd(y);
```

Data Representation

Pascal allocates one byte for each boolean variable. Figure 2-5 shows how Pascal internally represents a true boolean variable; Figure 2-6 shows how Pascal represents a false boolean variable.

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	

Figure 2-5 true boolean Variable

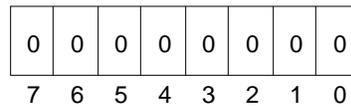


Figure 2-6 false boolean Variable

Character

Pascal supports the standard predeclared data type `char`. As extensions to the standard, Pascal supports character initialization in the variable declaration and four nonstandard character constants.

Character Variables

You declare character variables in Pascal the same as you do in standard Pascal. Each of the following is a valid character variable:

```
var
  current_character: char;
  largest: char;
  smallest: char;
```

Character Initialization

To initialize a character variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, create an assignment statement, as follows:

This example initializes the variable `pass` to A and `fail` to F.

```
var
  pass: char := 'A';
  fail: char := 'F';
```

You can also initialize character variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`:

This example initializes the variable `grade1` to A, `grade2` to B, and `grade3` to C. All three variables are declared as `static char`.

```
procedure grades;
var
  grade1: static char := 'A';
  grade2: static char := 'B';
  grade3: static char := 'C';
```

Character Constants

Pascal extends the standard definition of character constants by predeclaring the four character constants in Table 2-6.

Table 2-6 Nonstandard Predeclared Character Constants

Constant	Description
<code>minchar</code>	Equal to <code>char(0)</code>
<code>maxchar</code>	Equal to <code>char(255)</code>
<code>bell</code>	Equal to <code>char(7)</code> (which makes your terminal beep)
<code>tab</code>	Equal to <code>char(9)</code> (which makes a tab character)

Data Representation

Pascal allocates one byte for each character variable.

Enumerated Types

Pascal supports enumerated data types with extensions that allow you to input enumerated types with the `read` and `readln` procedures and output them with the `write` and `writeln` procedures. See the listings on `read` and `write` in Chapter 7, “Input and Output,” for details.

Enumerated Variables

You declare enumerated data types in Pascal the same as in standard Pascal.

```

type
  continents = (North_America, South_America,
               Asia, Europe, Africa, Australia,
               Antartica);
  gem_cuts = (marquis, emerald, round, pear_shaped);

var
  x: gem_cuts;
  index: continents;

```

Data Representation

When you compile your program without the `-x1` option, Pascal represents enumerated types as either 8 or 16 bits, depending on the number of elements defined for that type. With `-x1`, Pascal represents variables of enumerated type as 16 bits. Pascal stores enumerated types as integers corresponding to their ordinal value.

Figure 2-7 shows the representation of a 16-bit enumerated variable.

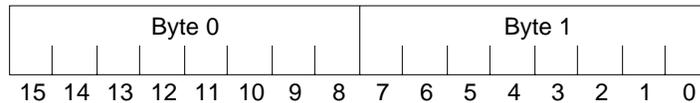


Figure 2-7 16-Bit Enumerated Variable

As an example, suppose you defined a group of colors, as follows:

```
colors = (red, green, blue, orange);
```

Pascal represents each value as shown in Figure 2-8.

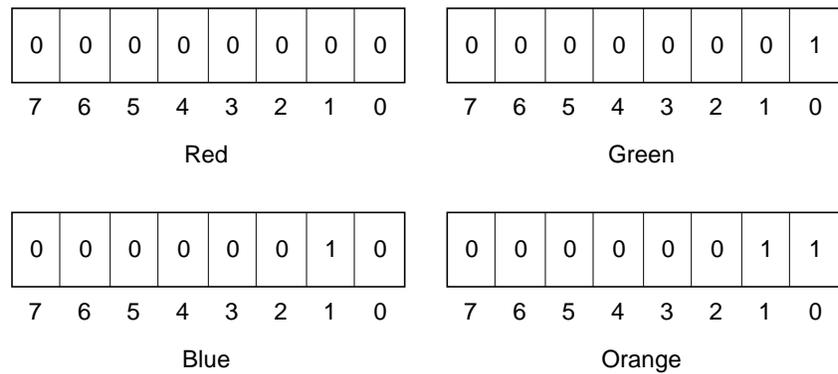


Figure 2-8 Sample Enumerated Representation

Subrange

Pascal supports a subrange of integer, `boolean`, character, and enumerated data types.

The Pascal subrange type is extended to allow constant expressions in both the lower and upper bound of the subrange. The lower bound expression is restricted by requiring that the expression *not* begin with a left parenthesis.

Subrange Variables

See “Integer Variables” on page 17 for an example of a subrange declaration.

Data Representation

The Pascal subrange takes up the number of bits required for its minimum and maximum values. Table 2-7 shows the space allocation of six subranges.

Table 2-7 Subrange Data Representation

Minimum/Maximum Range	Without <code>-x1</code>	With <code>-x1</code>
0..127	8 bits	16 bits
-128..127	8 bits	16 bits
0..255	16 bits	16 bits
-32768..32767	16 bits	16 bits
0..65536	32 bits	32 bits
-2,147,483,648..2,147,483,647	32 bits	32 bits

Figure 2-9 shows how Pascal represents a 16-bit subrange. Similarly, Figure 2-10 shows how Pascal represents a 32-bit subrange.

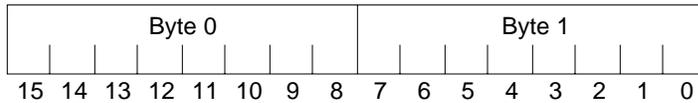


Figure 2-9 16-Bit Subrange

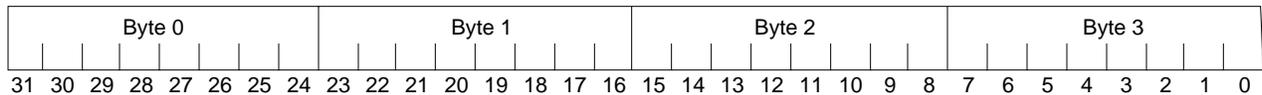


Figure 2-10 32-Bit Subrange

Record

Pascal supports the standard `record` and `packed record` data types. As an extension, Pascal permits you to initialize a record variable when you declare it in the variable declaration.

Record Variables

You declare records in Pascal the same as in standard Pascal, as shown in the following example:

```
type
  MonthType = (Jan, Feb, Mar, Apr, May, Jun, Jul,
  Aug, Sep, Oct, Nov, Dec);
  DateType = record
    Month : MonthType;
    Day : 1..31;
    Year : 1900..2000;
  end;

  Appointment = record
    Date : DateType;
    Hour : 0..2400;
  end;
```

Record Initialization

To initialize a field in a record when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, use either of the following two formats:

- Specify the record field name followed by an assignment operator and initial value.

```
[ a := FALSE ,
  b := TRUE ]
```

- List the initial value without the field name. In this case, Pascal assigns the initial value to the next field name in the record definition.

```
[ FALSE ,
  TRUE ]
```

You can also initialize record variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`.

The Pascal program, `init_rec.p`. This example shows a record initialization by name, by position, and by name and position.

```
program init_rec(output);
{ This program initializes a record. }

type
  enumerated_type = (red, green, blue, orange, white);
  record_type =
    record
      c: char;
      st: set of char;
      z: array [1..10] of char;
      case colors: enumerated_type of
        red: ( b: boolean;
              s: single );
        green: ( i16: integer16;
                d: double );
      end;
var
  { Initialization by name. }
  rec1: record_type :=
    [st := ['a', 'b', 'c'],
     c := 'A',
     z := 'ARRAY1',
     colors := green,
     i16 := 32767];
```

Initializing Record Variables (Screen 1 of 2)

```
{ Initialization by position. }
rec2: record_type :=
  ['X',
  ['x', 'y', 'z'],
  'ARRAY2',
  red,
  true];
{ Initialization by name and position. }
rec3: record_type :=
  [colors := red,
  true,
  1.16,
  st := ['m', 'n', 'o'],
  'ARRAY3'];

begin
  writeln('char      ', rec1.c);
  writeln('char array ', rec1.z);
  writeln('integer    ', rec1.il6);
  writeln;
  writeln('char      ', rec2.c);
  writeln('char array ', rec2.z);
  writeln('boolean   ', rec2.b);
  writeln;
  writeln('char array ', rec3.z);
  writeln('boolean   ', rec3.b);
  writeln('single    ', rec3.s)
end. { record_example }
```

Initializing Record Variables (Screen 2 of 2)

The commands to compile and execute `init_rec.p`

```
hostname% pc init_rec.p
hostname% a.out
char      A
char array ARRAY1
integer   32767

char      X
char array ARRAY2
boolean   true

char array ARRAY3
boolean   true
single    1.160000e+00
```

Data Representation of Unpacked Records

This section describes the data representations of unpacked fixed and variant records.

Fixed Records

Pascal allocates fields in a fixed record so that they assume the natural alignment of the field type. The alignment of a record is equal to the alignment of the largest element. The size of the record is a multiple of the alignment.

Variant Records

The space Pascal allocates for a variant record is the same with or without the `-x1` option.

Data Representation of Packed Records

Table 2-8, Table 2-9, and Table 2-10 show how Pascal aligns fields in a packed record.

Note – In packed records, bit-aligned fields do not cross word boundaries.

*Packed Record Storage Without the -x1 Option**Table 2-8* Packed Record Storage Without -x1

Data Type	Size	Alignment
integer	4 bytes	4 bytes
integer16	2 bytes	Bit-aligned
integer32	4 bytes	4 bytes
real	8 bytes	8 bytes
single	4 bytes	4 bytes
shortreal	4 bytes	4 bytes
double	8 bytes	8 bytes
longreal	8 bytes	8 bytes
boolean	1 bit	Bit-aligned
char	1 byte	1 byte
enumerated	Number of bits required to represent the highest ordinal value	Bit-aligned
subrange of char	1 byte	1 byte
all other subrange	Number of bits required to represent the highest ordinal value	Bit-aligned
set of cardinality <= 32	One bit per element	Bit-aligned
set of cardinality > 32	Same as if unpacked	4 bytes
array	Requires the same space required by the base type of the array	Same as element type

Packed Record Storage with the -x1 Option

Table 2-9 Packed Record Storage with -x1

Data Type	Size	Alignment
real	4 bytes	4 bytes
integer	2 bytes	Bit-aligned

Packed Record Storage with the -calign Option

Table 2-10 Packed Record Storage with -calign

Data Type	Size	Alignment
integer16	2 bytes	2 bytes

The following example declares a packed record. Table 2-11 shows the alignment and sizes of the fields of the record. Figure 2-11 shows the representation of this record.

```

type
  small = 0..128;
  medium = 0..255;
  large = 0..65535;
  colors = (green, blue, orange, white, black,
            magenta, gray);
  sets = (autumn, summer, winter, fall);
  vrec1 = packed record
    a: integer16;
    b: boolean;
    e: colors;
    sm: small;
    med: medium;
    lg: large;
    se: sets;
    x: integer32;
  end;

```

Table 2-11 Sample Sizes and Alignment of Packed Record

Field	Size	Alignment
a	16 bits	16 bit-aligned
b	1 bit	Bit-aligned
e	3 bits	Bit-aligned
sm	8 bits	Bit-aligned
med	16 bits	Bit-aligned
lg (without -x1)	32 bits	32 bit-aligned
lg (with -x1)	16 bits	16 bit-aligned
se	4 bits	Bit-aligned
x	32 bits	32 bit-aligned

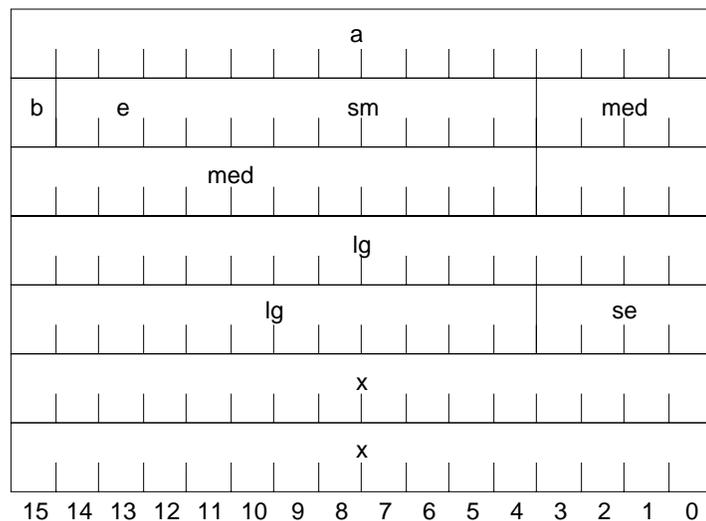


Figure 2-11 Sample Packed Record (Without -x1)

Array

Pascal supports the standard `array` data type. As extensions to the standard, Pascal supplies the predeclared character array types `alfa`, `string`, and `varying` and permits you to initialize an array variable when you declare it in the variable declaration.

Array Variables

In addition to the standard array data types, this compiler supports the three data types in Table 2-12, which include a variable-length string.

Table 2-12 Array Data Types

Type	Description
<code>alfa</code>	An array of <code>char</code> 10 characters long.
<code>string</code>	An array of <code>char</code> 80 characters long.
<code>varying</code>	A string of variable length. You declare a varying string as follows: <code>varying[upper_bound] of char</code> ; <code>upper_bound</code> is an integer between 0 and 65,535

You can assign a variable-length string a string of any length, up to the maximum length you specify in the declaration. Pascal ignores any characters you specify over the maximum. It does not pad the unassigned elements with spaces if you specify a string under the maximum. When you output a variable-length string with `write` or `writeln`, the procedure writes only the characters included in the string's current length.

You also can assign a variable-length string to a fixed-length string. If the variable-length string is shorter than the fixed-length string, the fixed-length string is padded with blanks. If the variable-length string is longer than the fixed-length string, the string is truncated.

The following program demonstrates the differences between the fixed-length and varying data types:

The Pascal program, `varying.p`

```
program varying_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the differences
  between fixed- and variable-length strings. }

var
  name1: array [1..25] of char; { String of size 25. }
  name2: array [76..100] of char; { String of size 25. }
  name3: alfa; { String of size 10. }
  name4: string; { String of size 80. }
  name5: varying [25] of char; { Varying string. }
  name6: varying [25] of char; { Varying string. }

begin
  name1 := 'van Gogh';
  name2 := 'Monet';
  name3 := 'Rembrandt';
  name4 := 'Breughel';
  name5 := 'Matisse';
  name6 := 'Cezanne';
  writeln(name1, ' and ', name2, '.');
  writeln(name3, ' and ', name4, '.');
  writeln(name5, ' and ', name6, '.');
end. { varying_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `varying.p`

```
hostname% pc varying.p
hostname% a.out
van Gogh                and Monet
Rembrandt and
Breughel
Matisse and Cezanne.
```

Array Initialization

To initialize an array variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your main program, use an assignment statement after the declaration. Pascal offers you the following four different formats:

- Supply the lower and upper bounds in the initialization.

This code initializes the first five elements of `int` to `maxint`, 1, -32767, 5, and 20. The first six elements of `c1` are assigned the characters 1 through 6. Because `c1` is a fixed-length string, the last four characters are padded with blanks.

```
var
  int : array[1..10] of integer := [maxint, 1, -327, 5, 20];
  c1 : array[1..10] of char := '123456';
```

- Put an asterisk in place of the upper bound, and let the compiler determine the upper bound once it counts the initial values. You can use this format only when you also supply the initial values.

In this example, the compiler assigns the upper bound of 5 to `int` and of 6 to `c1`.

```
var
  i : integer;
  int : array[1..*] of integer := [maxint, 1, -32767, 5, 20];
  c1 : array[1..*] of char := '123456';
```

- Use the repeat count feature `n of constant` to initialize `n` array elements to the value `constant`. `n` must be an integer or an expression that evaluates to an integer constant.

This code initializes all the first 50 values of `int2` to 1 and the second 50 values to 2.

```
var
  int2 : array[1..100] of integer := [50 of 1, 50 of 2];
```

- Use the repeat count feature `* of constant` to initialize all remaining array elements to the value of *constant*.

This example initializes all 100 elements of `int4` to 327. The example also initializes the multidimensional array `int5` to an array of 10 rows and columns. The compiler initializes all 10 elements in the first row to 327, the first three elements of the second row to 8, and all 10 elements of the third row to 88.

```
var
  int4 : array[1..100] of integer := [* of 327];
  int5 : array[1..10,1..10] of integer := [
                                          [* of 327],
                                          [3 of 8],
                                          [10 of 88],
                                          ];
```

When you initialize an array in the `var` declaration, the compiler sets those elements for which it doesn't find data to zero.

You can also initialize array variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, you must also declare the variable as `static`.

Packed Arrays

Although you can define an array as `packed`, it has no effect on how the Pascal compiler allocates the array data space.

Data Representation

The elements of an array require the same space as that required by the base type of the array. However, there are two exceptions to this. With the `-calign` option, the size of all arrays is the size of each element times the number of elements. When you use the `-calign` and `-xl` options together, arrays are the same as with `-calign` alone, except the size of an array of booleans is always a multiple of two.

Set

Pascal supports sets of elements of integer, boolean, character, and enumerated data types. As extensions to the standard, Pascal predefines a set of `intset`; you can then initialize a set variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program.

Set Variables

In Pascal, you declare set variables the same as you do in standard Pascal. The following is a valid set variable:

```
type
    character_set = set of char;

var
    letters: character_set;
```

Pascal predefines the set `intset` as the set of `[0..127]`.

Set Initialization

To initialize a set variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, create an assignment statement, as follows:

This code initializes `citrus` to the set of orange, lemon, and lime.

```
type
    fruit = (orange, lemon, lime, apple, banana);
var
    citrus: set of fruit := [orange, lemon, lime];
```

You can also initialize set variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`:

This example initializes `primary` to the set of red, yellow, and blue. It also initializes `grays` to the set of white and black.

```
procedure assign_colors;
type
  colors = (white, beige, black, red, blue,
           yellow, green);
var
  primary: static set of colors := [red, yellow,
                                   blue];
  grays: static set of colors := [white, black];
```

Packed Sets

Although you can define a set as packed, it has no effect on how the compiler allocates the set data space.

Data Representation

Pascal implements sets as bit vectors, with one bit representing each element of a set. The maximum ordinal value of a set element is 32,768.

The size of a set is determined by the size of the ordinal value of maximal element of the set plus one. Sets are allocated in multiples of 16 bits; therefore, the smallest set has size 16 bits. The ordinal value of the minimal element must be equal to or greater than 0. Sets have an alignment of four bytes when they are longer than 16 bits; otherwise their alignment is two bytes. For example, 'set of 1..20' has a four-byte alignment and 'set of 1..15' has a two-byte alignment.

With the `-calign` option, sets have an alignment of two bytes. The size is the same as the default.

Table 2-13 shows the data representation of four sets.

Table 2-13 Data Representation of Sets

Set	Description
set of 0..15	This set requires 16 bits because 15 is the maximal element, and $15 + 1 = 16$.
set of 0..16	This set requires 32 bits because 16 is the maximal element. $16 + 1 = 17$, and the next multiple of 16 above 17 is 32.
set of 14..15	This set requires 16 bits because 15 is the element, and $15 + 1 = 16$.
set of char	This set requires 256 bits because the range of <code>char</code> is <code>chr(0) .. chr(255)</code> . The ordinal value of the maximal element is 255, and $255+1 = 256$, which is divisible by 16.

You can visualize the bit vector representation of a set as an array of bits starting from the highest element to the lowest element. For example, the representation of the following set is shown in Figure 2-12.

```
var
  smallset: set of 2..15 := [7,4,3,2];
```

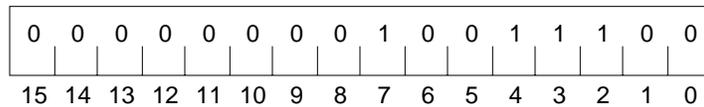


Figure 2-12 Small Set

The representation of this larger set is shown in Figure 2-13.

```
var
  largeset: set of 2..255 := [7,4,3,2];
```

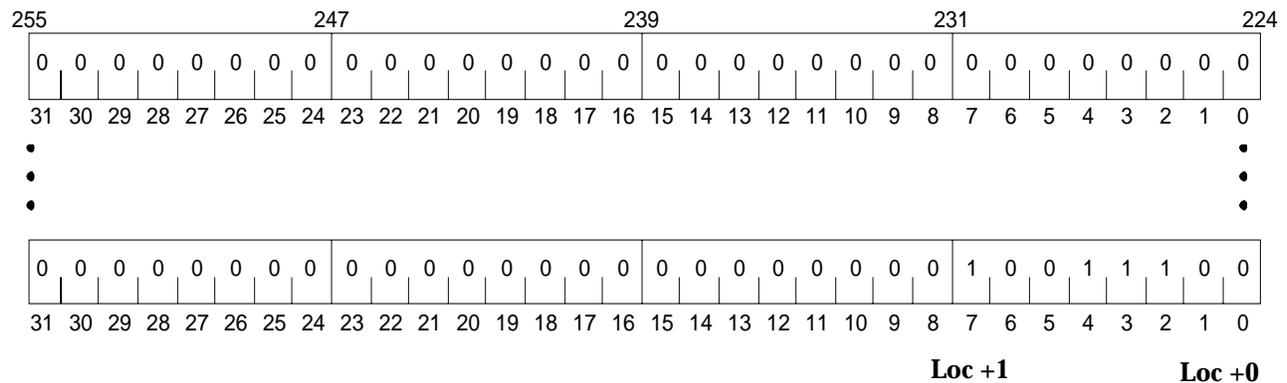


Figure 2-13 Large Set

File

Pascal treats files declared as `file of char` the same as files declared as `text`, except when you use the `-s -s0`, `-s1`, `-v0`, or `-v1` options. In this case, the compiler treats the two data types differently, as required by standard Pascal.

Pointer

Pascal supports the standard Pascal pointer and the nonstandard universal pointer and procedure and function pointer.

Standard Pointer

The standard pointer is the same in Pascal and standard Pascal.

Universal Pointer

The universal pointer data type, `univ_ptr`, is compatible with any pointer type. Use `univ_ptr` to compare a pointer of one type to another, to assign a pointer of one type to another, or to weaken type checking when passing parameters of pointer types.

When the type of a formal parameter is `univ_ptr`, the type of the corresponding actual parameter can be of any pointer type, or vice versa.

You cannot dereference a `univ_ptr` variable: you cannot find the contents of the address to which `univ_ptr` points.

The Pascal program, `univ_ptr.p`, which prints the value of the floating-point variable `r` in hexadecimal format.

```
program univ_ptr_example;

{ This program demonstrates how to use
  universal pointers. }

var
  i: integer32;
  r: single;
  ip: ^ integer32;
  rp: ^ single := addr(r);
  up: univ_ptr;

begin
  r := 10.0;
  { The next two statements are equivalent to rp := ip.
    However, rp := ip is not legal since they are
    different types. }
  up := rp;
  ip := up;
  writeln(ip^ hex);
  { This will do the same thing but uses transfer functions. }
  writeln(integer32(r) hex)
end. { univ_ptr_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `univ_ptr.p`

```
hostname% pc univ_ptr.p  
hostname% a.out  
41200000  
41200000
```

Procedure and Function Pointers

The syntax for procedure and function pointers follows:

```
<procedure pointer> ::= '^' <procedure heading>  
| <type identifier>
```

```
<function pointer> ::= '^' <function heading>  
| <type identifier>
```

The Pascal program, `pointer.p`, which demonstrates how to print out enumerated values using procedure pointers.

```
program pointer_example;

type
  colors = (red, white, blue);
  procptr = ^ procedure; { Procedure pointer type. }

procedure printred;

begin
  writeln('RED')
end; { printred }

procedure printwhite;

begin
  writeln('WHITE')
end; { printwhite }

procedure printblue;

begin
  writeln('BLUE')
end; { printblue }

var
  { Array of procedure pointers. }
  colorprinter: array [colors] of procptr :=
    [addr(printred),
     addr(printwhite),
     addr(printblue)];
  c: colors;
  desc_proc: procptr;

begin
  write('Enter red, white, or blue: ');
  readln(c);
  desc_proc := colorprinter[c];
  desc_proc^
end. { pointer_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `pointer.p`

```
hostname% pc pointer.p
hostname% a.out
Enter red, white, or blue: red
RED
```

Pointer Initialization

To initialize a pointer variable when you declare it in the `var` declaration of your program, use an assignment statement, as follows:

This example initializes the variable `rp` to `addr(r)`. Legal values for compile-time initializations are `NIL`, `addr(0)` of variables, procedures, strings, and set constants, and previously declared constants of the same pointer type.

```
var
  rp : ^single := addr(r);
  pp : ^procedure := NIL;
  sp : ^string := addr('Title');
```

You can also initialize pointer variables in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function; however, when you do so, you must also declare the variable as `static`.

Data Representation

Pascal represents a pointer as shown in Figure 2-14.

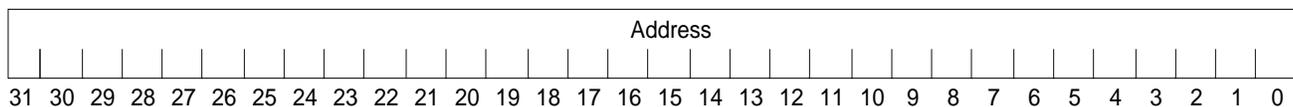


Figure 2-14 Pointer

Statements

This chapter describes Pascal statements in the following sections:

<i>Standard Statements</i>	<i>page 47</i>
<i>Statements Specific to Pascal</i>	<i>page 47</i>

Standard Statements

Pascal supports all standard statements. Pascal also supports extensions to:

assert	next
case	otherwise
exit	return
goto	with

Statements Specific to Pascal

Table 3-1 summarizes the nonstandard Pascal statements and standard statements with nonstandard features. Detailed descriptions and examples of each statement follow.

Table 3-1 Nonstandard Pascal Statements

Statement	Description
<code>assert</code>	Causes a boolean expression to be evaluated each time the statement is executed.
<code>case</code>	Accepts ranges of constants and an otherwise statement.
<code>exit</code>	Transfers program control to the first statement after the end of a <code>for</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>repeat</code> loop.
<code>goto</code>	Accepts an identifier as the target of <code>goto</code> .
<code>next</code>	Causes the program to skip to the next iteration of the enclosing <code>for</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>repeat</code> loop.
<code>otherwise</code>	An extension to the <code>case</code> statement. If the expression in a <code>case</code> statement does not match any of the <code>case</code> values, the compiler executes the statements under the <code>otherwise</code> statement.
<code>return</code>	Prematurely ends a procedure or a function.
<code>with</code>	An alternative format to the standard <code>with</code> statement.

`assert` *Statement*

The `assert` statement causes a boolean expression to be evaluated each time the statement is executed. The syntax is:

```

<assert statement> ::= 'assert' '(' <boolean expression> ')'
```

If your program contains an `assert` statement, you must compile it with the `-C` option, which enables runtime tests. Otherwise, the compiler treats `assert` as a comment.

A runtime error results if the expression in the `assert` statement evaluates to false.

`assert` is a shorthand for using the `if` statement.

For example, the following code uses an `assert` statement to test whether `num` is greater than 0 and less than or equal to `MAX_STUDENTS`:

```
assert((num > 0) and (num <= MAX_STUDENTS));
for i := 1 to num do begin
    write('Enter grade for student ', i: 3, ': ');
    readln(grades[i])
end.
```

The following `if` statement is equivalent to the `assert` statement in the preceding program:

```
if (num > 0) and (num <= MAX_STUDENTS) then begin
    for i := 1 to num do begin
        write('Enter grade for student ', i: 3, ': ');
        readln(grades[i])
    end
end else begin
    writeln('Error message. ');
    halt
end
```

≡ 3

The Pascal program, `assert.p`, which tests whether `num` is greater than 0 and less than or equal to `MAX_STUDENTS` before reading in the grades.

```
program assert_example;
const
    MAX_STUDENTS = 4;
var
    num: integer;
    i: integer;
    grades: array [1..MAX_STUDENTS] of char;
begin
    num := 6;
    assert((num > 0) and (num <= MAX_STUDENTS));
    for i := 1 to num do begin
        write('Enter grade for student ', i: 3, ': ');
        readln(grades[i])
    end
end. { assert_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `assert.p` without the `-C` option. The compiler treats `assert` as a comment.

```
hostname% pc assert.p
hostname% a.out
Enter grade for student 1: A
Enter grade for student 2: B
Enter grade for student 3: C
Enter grade for student 4: D
Enter grade for student 5: F
Enter grade for student 6: A
```

The result when you compile `assert.p` with the `-C` and `-g` option. The expression evaluates to `false`, so the compiler generates an error and halts.

```
hostname% pc -C assert.p
hostname% a.out

Assertion #1 failed
Trace/BPT trap (core dumped)

hostname% pc -C -g assert.p
hostname% a.out

Assertion #1 failed
Trace/BPT trap (core dumped)
```

case *Statement*

Pascal supports the standard `case` statement with extensions for an `otherwise` clause and ranges of constants.

```
<case statement> ::= 'case' <expression> 'of'
  { <case values> ':' <statement> ';' }
  [ 'otherwise' <statement list> ]
  'end'
```

```
<case values> ::= <case range> { ',' <case range> }
```

```
<case range> ::= <constant expression>
  | <constant expression> '..' <constant expression>
```

If *expression* does not match any of the *case values*, the compiler executes the *otherwise statement list*. The reserved word `otherwise` is not a case label, so it is not followed by a colon (:). Also, the `begin/end` pair is optional in an `otherwise` statement.

You can use a range of constants instead of a single case value. A case range must be in ascending order.

The `case` statement operates differently when you compile your program with and without the `-xl` option. Without `-xl`, if the value of the expression is not equal to one of the case labels and you omit the `otherwise` statement, the program generates an error and halts.

If this situation occurs and you compile your program with `-xl`, the program falls through and does not generate an error; program execution continues with the statement immediately following the `case` statement.

The Pascal program, `otherwise.p`, which reads a character from the terminal. If the value of the character is not in the range 0 - 9, the compiler executes the statement in the `otherwise` statement. The program specifies all digits between 0 and 9 as the range '0'..'9'.

```

program otherwise_example(input, output);
{ This program demonstrates the otherwise
  clause and ranges in the case statement. }
var
  ch: char;
begin
  write('Please enter one character: ');

  {More than one character will produce erroneous results.}
  readln(ch);
  case ch of
    '0'..'9':
      writeln('The character you input is a digit.');

```

The commands to compile and execute `otherwise.p` without `-xl`. This example shows your output when you input the characters 3 and B.

```

hostname% pc otherwise.p
hostname% a.out
Please enter one character: 3
The character you input is a digit.
hostname% a.out
Please enter one character: B
The character you input is not a digit.
```

`exit` *Statement*

The `exit` statement, which you can use in a `for`, `while`, or `repeat` loop, transfers program control to the first statement after the end of the current loop.

```
<exit statement> ::= 'exit'
```

If used in a nested loop, `exit` only breaks out of the innermost loop.

You receive a compile-time error if you use this statement anywhere but in a `for`, `while`, or `repeat` loop.

≡ 3

The Pascal program, `exit.p`

```
program exit_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  exit statement in for, while, and repeat loops. }

const
  MAX = 10;

type
  integer_type = array [1..MAX] of integer16;

var
  i: integer16;
  i_array: integer_type := [1, 99, 13, 45, 69, 18, 32, -6];
  number: integer16;
  flag: boolean := false;

begin
  write('Enter a number: ');
  readln(number);
  for i := 1 to MAX do begin
    if number = i_array[i] then begin
      flag := true;
      exit
    end
  end;
  if flag then
    writeln('Number WAS found: ', number)
  else
    writeln('Number WAS NOT found: ', number)
end. { exit_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `exit.p`. This example shows the program output when you input the number 13.

```
hostname% pc exit.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a number: 13
Number WAS found:           13
```

goto *Statement*

Pascal supports the standard format of the `goto` statement with two extensions.

```
<goto statement> ::= 'goto' <label>
```

```
<label> ::= <number> | <identifier>
```

In Pascal, you can use an identifier as the target of a `goto`. Standard Pascal allows only integers as targets of `gotos`.

If you use a `goto` to jump out of the current block, Pascal closes all open files in the intervening blocks between the `goto` statement and the target of the `goto`.

≡ 3

The Pascal program, `goto.p`, which uses an identifier as a target of a `goto` statement.

```
program goto_example;

{ This program uses an identifier as a target
  of a goto statement. }

label
  skip_subtotal;

const
  MAX_STUDENTS = 100;

var
  i: integer;
  grades: array [1..MAX_STUDENTS] of char;
  num: 1..MAX_STUDENTS;
  sum: real;
  points: real;

begin
  { Read in number of students and their grades. }
  write('Enter number of students: ');
  readln(num);
  assert((num > 0) and (num < MAX_STUDENTS));
  for i := 1 to num do begin
    write('Enter grade for student ', i: 3, ': ');
    readln(grades[i])
  end;
  writeln;
  { Now calculate the average GPA for all students. }
  sum := 0;
  for i := 1 to num do begin
    if grades[i] = 'I' then begin
      goto skip_subtotal
    end else begin
      case grades[i] of
        'A': points := 4.0;
        'B': points := 3.0;
        'C': points := 2.0;
        'D': points := 1.0;
        'F': points := 0.0;
```

Identifiers as Targets (Screen 1 of 2)

```

        otherwise
            writeln('Unknown grade: ', grades[i]);
            points := 0.0
        end
    end;
    sum := sum + points;
    skip_subtotal:
end;
writeln('GPA for all students is ', sum / num: 6: 2, '.')
end. { goto_example }

```

Identifiers as Targets (Screen 2 of 2)

You must compile `goto.p` with the `-C` option to execute the `assert` statement; otherwise, the compiler treats `assert` as a comment. This example returns the collective GPA of four students.

```

hostname% pc -C goto.p
hostname% a.out
Enter number of students:    4
Enter grade for student    1: B
Enter grade for student    2: B
Enter grade for student    3: C
Enter grade for student    4: A

GPA for all students is    3.00.

```

`next` *Statement*

The `next` statement, which you can only use in a `for`, `while`, or `repeat` loop, causes the program to skip to the next iteration of the current loop, thus skipping the rest of the statements in the loop.

```
<next statement> ::= 'next'
```

The `next` statement has the same effect as a `goto` to the end of the loop. If you use `next` in a `for` loop, Pascal increments the index variable as normal.

When you use `next` in a nested loop, it goes to the end of the innermost loop containing the `next` statement.

You receive a compile-time error if you use this statement anywhere but in a for, while, or repeat loop.

The Pascal program, `next.p`, which also uses the otherwise statement.

```
program next_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the next
  statement in for, while, and repeat loops. }

const
  MAX_STUDENTS = 100;

var
  i: integer;
  grades: array [1..MAX_STUDENTS] of char;
  num: 1..MAX_STUDENTS;
  sum: real;
  points: real;

begin
  { Read in number of students and their grades. }
  write('Enter number of students: ');
  readln(num);
  assert((num > 0) and (num <= MAX_STUDENTS));
  for i := 1 to num do begin
    write('Enter grade for student ', i: 3, ': ');
    readln(grades[i])
  end;
  writeln;
```

The next Statement (Screen 1 of 2)

```

{ Now calculate the average GPA for all students. }
sum := 0;
for i := 1 to num do begin
  if grades[i] = 'I' then begin
    next
  end else begin
    case grades[i] of
      'A': points := 4.0;
      'B': points := 3.0;
      'C': points := 2.0;
      'D': points := 1.0;
      'F': points := 0.0;
    otherwise
      writeln('Unknown grade: ', grades[i]);
      points := 0.0
    end
  end;
  sum := sum + points
end;
writeln('GPA for all students is: ', sum / num: 6: 2)
end. { next_example }

```

The next Statement (Screen 2 of 2)

You must compile `next.p` with the `-C` option to execute the `assert` statement; otherwise, the compiler treats `assert` as a comment. This example outputs the collective GPA of three students.

```

hostname% pc -C next.p
hostname% a.out
Enter number of students: 3
Enter grade for student 1: A
Enter grade for student 2: A
Enter grade for student 3: C

GPA for all students is: 3.33

```

otherwise *Statement*

The `otherwise` statement is a Pascal extension to the standard Pascal `case` statement. If specified, `otherwise` must be at the end of the `case` statement. See the listing in “`case Statement`” on page 51 for additional information.

return *Statement*

The `return` statement prematurely ends a procedure or a function.

```
<return statement> ::= 'return'
```

Program control transfers to the calling routine. This has the same effect as a `goto` to the end of the routine. If used in the main program, `return` causes the program to terminate.

The Pascal program, `return.p`. The compiler prematurely returns from the procedure `test` if you input 1 or any integer from 4 through 99. The program also uses identifiers as the target of a `goto`.

```
program return_example;
{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  return statement in a procedure. }
var
  i: integer;

procedure test;
label
  error_negative_value, error_bad_values, error_value_too_big;
begin
  if i < 0 then
    goto error_negative_value
  else if (i = 2) or (i = 3) then
    goto error_bad_values
  else if i > 100 then
    goto error_value_too_big;
  return;
error_negative_value:
  writeln('Value of i must be greater than 0. ');
  return;
error_bad_values:
  writeln('Illegal value of i: 2 or 3. ');
  return;
error_value_too_big:
  writeln('Value of i too large. ');
  return;
end; { test }

begin { main procedure }
  write('Enter value for i: ');
  readln(i);
  test
end. { return_example }
```

≡ 3

The commands to compile and execute `return.p`

```
hostname% pc return.p
hostname% a.out
Enter value for i: -1
Value of i must be greater than 0.
hostname% a.out
Enter value for i: 2
Illegal value of i: 2 or 3.
hostname% a.out
Enter value for i: 101
Value of i too large.
hostname% a.out
Enter value for i: 5
```

with *Statement*

Pascal supports the standard with statement plus an alternative format.

```
<with statement> ::= 'with' <record variable list> 'do' <statement>
```

```
<record variable list> ::= <record variable> { ' ' , ' <record variable> }
```

```
<record variable> ::= variable [ ':' <with_identifier> ]
```

```
<with_identifier> ::= <identifier>
```

This form of the `with` statement is used as an alias or shorthand notation for a qualified variable. The scope of the *with_identifier* is the lexical scope of the `with` statement.

The Pascal program, with.p, which uses the alternate form of the with statement.

```
program with_example(output);

{ Sample program using the extension to the
  with statement. }

const
  MAX = 12;

type
  name_type = varying [MAX] of char;
  Patient =
    record
      LastName: name_type;
      FirstName: name_type;
      Sex: (Male, Female)
    end;

var
  new_patient: Patient;
  old_patient: Patient;

begin
  with new_patient: new, old_patient: old do begin
    new.LastName := 'Smith';
    new.FirstName := 'Abby';
    new.Sex := Female;

    old.LastName := 'Brown';
    old.FirstName := 'Henry';
    old.Sex := Male;
  end;
  write('The new patient is ');
  write(new_patient.FirstName: 10);
  writeln(new_patient.LastName: 10, '.');
  write('The old patient is ');
  write(old_patient.FirstName: 10);
  writeln(old_patient.LastName: 10, '.');
end. { with_example }
```

≡ 3

The commands to compile and execute `with.p`

```
hostname% pc with.p
hostname% a.out
The new patient is      Abby      Smith.
The old patient is     Henry      Brown.
```

Assignments and Operators

This chapter describes the different types of assignments and operators in Pascal. It contains the following sections:

<i>Data Type Assignments and Compatibility</i>	<i>page 65</i>
<i>String Assignments</i>	<i>page 66</i>
<i>Operators</i>	<i>page 68</i>
<i>Precedence of Operators</i>	<i>page 78</i>

Data Type Assignments and Compatibility

Table 4-1 lists the assignment compatibility rules for `real`, `integer`, `boolean`, `character`, `enumerated`, `subrange`, `record`, `set`, and `pointer` data types.

Table 4-1 Data Type Assignment

Type of Variable/Parameter	Type of Assignment-Compatible Expression
real, single, shortreal	real, single, shortreal, double, longreal, any integer type [†]
double, longreal	real, single, shortreal, double, longreal, any integer type
integer, integer16, integer32	integer, integer16, integer32
boolean	boolean
char	char
enumerated	Same enumerated type
subrange	Base type of the subrange
record	Record of the same type
array	Array with the same type
set	Set with compatible base type
pointer	Pointer to an identical type, univ_ptr

[†] Pascal implicitly converts the integer to the real type, if necessary.

String Assignments

Pascal has special rules for assigning fixed- and variable-length strings, null strings, and string constants.

Fixed- and Variable-Length Strings

When you make an assignment to a fixed-length string, and the source string is shorter than the destination string, the compiler pads the destination string with blanks. If the source string is larger than the destination string, the compiler truncates the source string to fit the destination.

When you make an assignment to a variable-length string, and the source string is longer than the destination string, the compiler truncates the source to fit the destination.

The valid fixed- and variable-length string assignments are given in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2 Fixed- and Variable-Length String Assignments

Type of String	Type of Assignment-Compatible Expression
array of char	varying string, constant string, and array of char if the arrays have the same length
varying	varying string, constant string, array of char, and char

Null Strings

Pascal treats null strings as constant strings of length zero. Table 4-3 shows the null string assignments.

Table 4-3 Null String Assignments

Assignment	Description
<code>varying := '';</code>	The compiler assigns the null string to the variable-length string. The length of the variable-length string equals zero.
<code>array of char := '';</code>	The compiler assigns a string of blanks to the character array. The length of the resulting string is the number of elements in the source character array.
<code>char := '';</code>	It is illegal to assign a null string to a char variable. Use <code>chr(0)</code> instead.
String concatenation	In a string concatenation expression such as: <code>S := 'hello' + '' + S;</code> <code>''</code> is treated as the additive identity (as nothing).

String Constants

When assigning a constant string to a packed array of char, standard Pascal requires that the strings be the same size.

Pascal allows the constant string and packed array of char to be unequal in size, truncating the constant string if it is longer or padding it with blanks if it is shorter.

Operators

Pascal supplies six classes of operators:

- Arithmetic operators
- Bit operators
- boolean operators
- Set operators
- Relational operators
- String operators

Arithmetic Operators

The arithmetic operators are summarized in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4 Arithmetic Operators

Operator	Operation	Operands	Result
+	addition	integer or real	integer or real
-	subtraction	integer or real	integer or real
*	multiplication	integer or real	integer or real
/	division	integer or real	real
div	truncated division	integer	integer
mod	modulo	integer	integer

The mod Operator

Pascal extends the standard definition of the mod operator as follows.

In the expression `i mod j`, when `i` is positive, Pascal and standard Pascal produce the same results. However, when `i` is negative, and you do not compile your program with a standard option (`-s`, `-s0`, `-s1`, `-v0`, or `-v1`), the following is true:

`i mod j`

equals:

`-1 * remainder of |i| divided by |j|`

The Pascal program, `mod.p`,
which computes `i mod j`

```
program modexample(output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the nonstandard  
  mod function. }  
  
var  
    i: integer;  
    j: integer;  
  
begin  
    for i := -3 to -1 do  
        for j := 1 to 3 do  
            if j <> 0 then  
                writeln(i: 4, j: 4, i mod j: 4)  
            end. { mod_example }
```

The commands to compile and
execute `mod.p` without any
options

```
hostname% pc mod.p  
hostname% a.out  
-3 1 0  
-3 2 -1  
-3 3 0  
-2 1 0  
-2 2 0  
-2 3 -2  
-1 1 0  
-1 2 -1  
-1 3 -1
```

The results negative `i` produces when you compile `mod.p` with the `-s` option

```
hostname% pc -s mod.p
hostname% a.out
-3 1 0
-3 2 1
-3 3 0
-2 1 0
-2 2 0
-2 3 1
-1 1 0
-1 2 1
-1 3 2
```

Bit Operators

Table 4-5 shows the bit operators. The `~` operator produces the same results as the built-in Pascal function, `lnot`. Similarly, `&` is equivalent to the function, `land`; `|` and `!` are equivalent to `lor`. See Chapter 7, “Input and Output,” for descriptions of these functions and the truth tables that both the functions and operators use.

Table 4-5 Bit Operators

Operator	Operation	Operands	Result
<code>~</code>	bitwise not	integer	integer
<code>&</code>	bitwise and	integer	integer
<code> </code>	bitwise or	integer	integer
<code>!</code>	bitwise or (same as <code> </code>)	integer	integer

boolean Operators

The boolean operators, which include the nonstandard `and then` and `or else` operators, are summarized in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6 boolean Operators

Operator	Operation	Operands	Result
and	Conjunction	boolean	boolean
and then	Similar to boolean and	boolean	boolean
not	Negation	boolean	boolean
or	Disjunction	boolean	boolean
or else	Similar to boolean or	boolean	boolean

The and then Operator

The `and then` operator differs from the standard `and` operator in that it guarantees the order in which the compiler evaluates the logical expression. Left to right and the right operands are evaluated only when necessary. For example, when you write the following syntax, the compiler may evaluate `odd(y)` before it evaluates `odd(x)`:

```
odd(x) and odd(y)
```

However, when you use the following syntax, the compiler always evaluates `odd(x)` first:

```
odd(x) and then odd(y)
```

If `odd(x)` is false, `odd(y)` is not evaluated.

Note – You cannot insert comments between the `and` and the `then` operators.

The Pascal program, `and_then.p`, which uses `and then` to test if two numbers are odd

```
program and_then(input, output);
{ This program demonstrates the use
  of the operator and then. }

var
  x, y: integer16;

begin
  write('Please enter two integers: ');
  readln(x, y);
  if odd(x) and then odd(y) then
    writeln('Both numbers are odd.')
  else
    writeln('Both numbers are not odd.');
```

The commands to compile and execute `and_then.p`. This example shows the output when you input the numbers 45 and 6.

```
hostname% pc and_then.p
hostname% a.out
Please enter two integers: 45 6
Both numbers are not odd.
```

The or else Operator

The `or else` operator is similar to the `and then` operator. In the following expression, the compiler evaluates `odd(x)` first, and if the result is `true`, does not evaluate `odd(y)`:

```
odd(x) or else odd(y)
```

Note – You cannot insert comments between the `or` and the `else` operators.

The Pascal program, `or_else.p`, which uses `or else` to test if two numbers are less than 10.

```

program or_else(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the use
  of the operator or else. }

var
  x, y: integer16;

begin
  write('Please enter two integers: ');
  readln(x, y);
  if (x < 10) or else (y < 10) then
    writeln('At least one number is less than 10.')
  else
    writeln('Both numbers are greater than or equal to 10.');
```

The commands to compile and execute `or_else.p`. This example shows the output when you input the numbers 101 and 3.

```

hostname% pc or_else.p
hostname% a.out
Please enter two integers: 101 3
At least one number is less than 10.
```

Set Operators

The set operators in Table 4-7 accept different set types as long as the base types are compatible. The relational operators can also be used to compare set-type values.

Table 4-7 Set Operators

Operator	Operation	Operands	Result
+	Set union	Any set type	Same as operands
-	Set difference	Any set type	Same as operands
*	Set intersection	Any set type	Same as operands
in	Member of a specified set	2nd arg: any set type 1st arg: base type of 2nd arg	boolean

Relational Operators

The relational operators are given in Table 4-8. In Pascal, you can apply all relational operators to sets and the equality (=) and inequality (<>) operators on records and arrays.

Table 4-8 Relational Operators

Operator	Operation	Operand	Results
=	Equal	Any real, integer, boolean, char, record, array, set, or pointer type	boolean
<>	Not equal	Any real, integer, boolean, char, record, array, set, or pointer type	boolean
<	Less than	Any real, integer, boolean, char, string, or set type	boolean
<=	Less than or equal	Any real, integer, boolean, char, string, or set type	boolean
>	Greater than	Any real, integer, boolean, char, string, or set type	boolean
>=	Greater than or equal	Any real, integer, boolean, char, string, or set type	boolean

Relational Operators on Sets

Use the relational operators to compare sets of identical types. The result is a boolean (true or false) value.

The Pascal program, `sets.p`, which applies the `<` and `>` operators to two sets of colors. The `<` operator tests if a set is a subset of another set. The `>` operator tests if a set is a proper subset of another set.

```
program set_example(output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the use of relational  
  operators on sets. }  
  
var  
    set1, set2: set of (red, orange, yellow, green);  
  
begin  
    set1 := [orange, yellow];  
    set2 := [red, orange, yellow];  
    writeln(set1 > set2);  
    writeln(set1 < set2);  
end. { set_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `sets.p`

```
hostname% pc sets.p  
hostname% a.out  
false  
true
```

The = and <> Operators on Records and Arrays

Use the `=` and `<>` operators to compare character arrays of the same size. For example:

- You can compare a `varying[10]` string with an `alfa` string.
- You cannot compare an `alfa` string with an `array[1..15]`.

In making comparisons, between arrays and records, make sure the operands are of the same type.

The Pascal program,
compare.p, which makes
comparisons among records

```
program record_example(output);
const
    MAX = 10;
type
    Shape = (Square, Trapezoid, Rectangle);
    variant_record =
        record
            case Shape_type: Shape of
                Square: ( sidel: real );
                Trapezoid: ( topl: real;
                           bottom: real;
                           height: real );
                Rectangle: ( length: real;
                            width: real );
            end;
    normal_record =
        record
            name: array [1..MAX] of char;
            avg: integer;
            grade: char
        end;
var
    class1: normal_record := ['Susan', 100];
    class2: normal_record := ['John', 99];
    shapes1: variant_record;
    shapes2: variant_record;
```

Comparing Records (Screen 1 of 2)

```
begin
{ Should PASS. }
if class1 <> class2 then
  writeln('PASSED')
else
  writeln('FAIL');

shapes1.Shape_type := Rectangle;
shapes2.Shape_type := Square;
{ Should PASS }
if shapes1 = shapes2 then
writeln('FAIL')
else
  writeln('PASSED');

shapes1.Shape_type := Trapezoid;
shapes2.Shape_type := Trapezoid;

{ Should PASS. }
if shapes1 = shapes2 then
  writeln('PASSED')
else
  writeln('FAIL')
end. { record_example }
```

Comparing Records (Screen 2 of 2)

The commands to compile and execute `compare.p`

```
hostname% pc compare.p
hostname% a.out
PASSED
PASSED
PASSED
```

String Operators

With the string concatenation operator, the plus sign (+), you can concatenate any combination of varying, array of char, constant strings, and single characters.

≡ 4

The Pascal program, `concat.p`, which concatenates four types of strings

```
program string_example(output);
{ This program demonstrates the use of
  the string concatenation operator. }

var
  col: varying [10] of char := 'yellow';
  fish: array [1..4] of char := 'tail';
  n1: char := 'o';
  n2: char := 'r';

begin
  write(fish + n1 + n2 + 'bird ', col + 'bird ');
  writeln(col + fish)
end. { string_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `concat.p`

```
hostname% pc concat.p
hostname% a.out
tailorbird yellowbird yellowtail
```

Precedence of Operators

Table 4-9 lists the order of precedence of Pascal operators, from the highest to the lowest.

Table 4-9 Precedence of Operators

Operators	Precedence
~, not,	Highest
*, /, div, mod, and, &,	.
, !, +, -, or,	.
=, <>, <, <=, >, >=, in,	.
or else, and then	Lowest

Program Heading and Declarations

5 

This chapter describes Pascal program heading and declarations. It contains the following sections:

<i>Program Heading</i>	<i>page 79</i>
<i>Declarations</i>	<i>page 80</i>
<i>Procedure and Function Declarations</i>	<i>page 89</i>
<i>Procedure and Function Headings</i>	<i>page 89</i>

Program Heading

The syntax for the Pascal program heading is:

```
<program heading> ::= 'program' <identifier>  
    [ ' (' <identifier list> ' ) ' ] ' ; '
```

Pascal does not require you to declare `input` and `output` in the program heading. The file identifiers (other than `input` and `output`) must be declared as variables of type `file` in the global declaration part.

Declarations

The syntax for the Pascal declarations follows. You can specify these parts in any order and an unlimited number of times.

```
<declaration> ::= <label declaration>
                | <constant declaration>
                | <type declaration>
                | <variable declaration>
                | <define declaration>
                | <procedure declaration>
                | <function declaration>
```

The remaining sections of this chapter describe the label, constant, type, variable, and define declarations. Procedure and function declarations are described in Chapter 6, “Built-In Procedures and Functions.”

Label Declaration

The `label` declaration defines labels, which are used as the target of `goto` statements.

Syntax

```
<label declaration> ::= 'label' <label> {',' <label>} ';' ;
```

Comments

In Pascal, you can use both identifiers and integers as labels. Using identifiers as labels makes your code easier to read.

Example

The Pascal program, label.p

```
program return_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  label declaration. }

var
  i: integer;

procedure test;
label
  error_negative_value, error_bad_values, error_value_too_big;
begin
  if i < 0 then
    goto error_negative_value
  else if (i = 2) or (i = 3) then
    goto error_bad_values
  else if i > 100 then
    goto error_value_too_big;
  return;
error_negative_value:
  writeln('Value of i must be greater than 0. ');
  return;
error_bad_values:
  writeln('Illegal value of i: 2 or 3. ');
  return;
error_value_too_big:
  writeln('Value of i too large. ');
  return;
end; { test }

begin { main procedure }
  write('Enter value for i: ');
  readln(i);
  test
end. { return_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `label.p`

```
hostname% pc label.p
hostname% a.out
Enter value for i: 101
Value of i too large.
```

Constant Declaration

The constant declaration defines constants, values that do not change during program execution.

Syntax

```
<constant declaration> ::= 'const' <identifier> '='
    <constant expression> ';' { <identifier> '='
    <constant expression> ';' }
```

The value of *expression* can be a compile-time evaluable expression. It can contain any of the following:

- A real, integer, boolean, character, set, or string value.
- The pointer constant `nil`.
- Another previously defined constant.
- Predefined Pascal routines (see Chapter 7, “Input and Output”) called with constant expression arguments, if applicable.
- An operator (see Chapter 4, “Assignments and Operators”).

Example

This constant declaration defines six valid constants.

```
const
  x = 75;
  y = 85;
  month = 'November';
  lie = false;
  result = (x + y) / 2.0;
  answer = succ(sqrt(5+4));
```

Type Declaration

The type declaration describes and names types used in variable, parameter, and function declarations.

Syntax

```
<type declaration> ::= 'type' <identifier> '=' <type> ';'
  { <identifier> '=' <type> ';' }
```

Unlike standard Pascal, in Pascal, you can define universal pointer types and procedure and function pointer types in the `type` declaration.

Example

This type declaration defines `opaque_pointers` as a universal pointer and `routines` as a function pointer.

```

type
  lowints = 0..100;
  primary_colors = (red, yellow, blue);
  opaque_pointers = univ_ptr;
  routines = function(i: integer): boolean;
  capital_letters = set of 'A'..'Z';
  digits = set of lowints;
  char_array = array[1..10] of char;
  record_type = record
    name: char_array;
    age : integer;
  end;
end;

```

Variable Declaration

The variable declaration declares variables.

Syntax

```

<variable declaration> ::= [ <variable scope> ] 'var' <identifier list> ':'
  [ <variable attribute> ] <type specification> [ <initialization> ] ';'
  { <identifier list> ':' [ <variable attribute> ] <type specification>
    [ <initialization> ] ';' }

```

In the variable declaration, you can specify the variable scope, attributes, and initial values. In most cases, you do not have a variable declaration that has both a variable scope and a variable attribute, because these are different ways for doing similar things.

Scope

The scope of a variable is either `private` or `public`.

- A `private` variable is visible in the current compilation unit only.
- A `public` variable is visible across multiple programs and modules.

The syntax for scope is:

```
<variable scope> ::= ( 'private' | 'public' )
```

You can also use the `define/extern` declaration to declare a variable as `public`, and the `static` attribute to declare a variable as `private`. See Appendix A, “Overview of Pascal Extensions,” for information on `define/extern`.

Variables in the `var` declaration section of a program default to `public` when you compile your program without the `-xl` option. When you compile your program with `-xl`, variables default to `private`.

This code declares both `public` and `private` variables.

```
public var
  total: single := 100.00;
  quantity: integer16 := 25;

private var
  score: integer16 := 99;
```

Attributes

The variable attributes determine how to allocate the variable and its scope. They include `static`, `extern`, and `define`. The syntax is:

```
<variable attribute> ::= ( 'static' | 'extern' | 'define' )
```

`static`

A `static` variable is a variable that is `private` in scope and which is allocated statically. A global variable declared as `static` is equivalent to a variable that has been declared `private`. Pascal generates a compile-time error if you attempt to declare a global variable as both `static` and `public`.

When you declare a local variable as `static`, the variable retains its value after the program exits the procedure in which it is declared. You can only initialize a local variable, that is, a variable declared in a procedure, in the `var` declaration if you also declare it as `static`.

The Pascal program, `static.p`

```

program static_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  static variable attribute. }

var
    i: integer;

procedure count;

var
    number_of_times_called: static integer := 0;

begin
    number_of_times_called := number_of_times_called + 1;
    writeln('Call number: ', number_of_times_called)
end; { count }

begin { main program }
    for i := 1 to 4 do begin
        count
    end
end. { static_example }

```

The commands to compile and execute `static.p`

```

hostname% pc static.p
hostname% a.out
Call number: 1
Call number: 2
Call number: 3
Call number: 4

```

`extern`

The `extern` attribute is used to declare a variable that is not allocated in the current module or program unit, but is a reference to a variable allocated in another unit. You cannot initialize `extern` variables. See the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide*, which describes separately compiled programs and modules; it also contains examples of the `extern` attribute.

`define`

The `define` attribute is used to declare a variable that is allocated in the current module and whose scope is `public`. `define` is especially useful for declaring variables with the `-xl` option, which makes global variables `private` by default. See the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide* for an example of this attribute.

Initialization

You can initialize `real`, `integer`, `boolean`, `character`, `set`, `record`, `array`, and `pointer` variables in the `var` declaration. You cannot initialize a local variable (a variable in the `var` declaration of a procedure or function) unless you declare it as `static`. The syntax for initialization is:

```
<initialization> ::= ':'<initial values>
```

This example shows how to initialize a variable in the `var` declaration.

```
var
  x: array[1..5, 1..3] of real := [[* of 0.0],[* of 0.0]];
  year, zeta: integer := 0;
  sunny: boolean := false;
  c1: char := 'g';
  citrus: set of fruit := [orange, lemon, lime];
  name: array[1..11] of char := 'Rembrandt';
```

This code correctly declares the variables `x`, `y`, `windy`, and `grade` in procedure `miscellaneous` as static.

```
procedure miscellaneous;
var
  x: static integer16 := maxint;
  y: static single := 3.9;
  windy: static boolean := true;
  grade: static char := 'C';
```

Define Declaration

The define declaration controls the allocation of variables.

Syntax

```
<define declaration> ::= 'define' <identifier> [ <initialization> ]
{ ',' <identifier> [ <initialization> ] } ';' ;
```

Comments

The value of *identifier* must correspond to either a variable or procedure or function identifier. If *identifier* corresponds to a variable, it must have a matching variable declaration with the `extern` attribute. The `define` declaration nullifies the meaning of `extern`: it allocates the variable in the current program or module unit.

If *identifier* corresponds to a procedure or a function, it nullifies a previous `extern` procedure/function declaration; this means that you must define the procedure/function thereafter.

You can initialize variables, but not procedures and functions, in the `define` declaration. Identifiers in the `define` declaration are always `public`.

Example

See the chapter on separate compilation in the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide* for examples of the `define` declaration.

Procedure and Function Declarations

The syntaxes for procedure and function declarations are:

```
<procedure declaration> ::= <procedure heading> <declaration list> <block>
```

```
<function declaration> ::= <function heading> <declaration list> <block>
```

Procedure and Function Headings

Procedure and function headings have the following formats:

```
<procedure heading> ::= [ <visibility> ] 'procedure' <identifier>  
[ '(' <parameter list> ')' ] ';' [ <routine options> ] ';' ;
```

```
<function heading> ::= [ <visibility> ] 'function' <identifier>  
[ '(' <parameter list> ')' ] ':' <type identifier> ';' ;  
[ <routine options> ] ;
```

Visibility

You can declare a procedure or function at the outer block level as either `public` or `private`.

When a procedure or function is `public`, you can reference that routine in another program or module unit. Declaring a routine as `private` restricts its accessibility to the current compilation unit.

The syntax is:

```
<visibility> ::= ('public' | 'private')
```

You can also use the `define/extern` declaration to declare a procedure or function as `public`, and the `internal routine` option to declare a routine as `private`. For more information on the `define/extern` declaration, see Appendix A, “Overview of Pascal Extensions.”

Top-level procedures and functions declared in a program default to `public` when you compile your program without the `-xl` option. When you compile your program with `-xl`, all top-level routines declared in the program become `private`.

Nested procedures and functions are always `private`; it is illegal to declare a nested routine as `public`.

Procedures and functions declared within a module unit are always `public`. For additional information on modules, see the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide*.

This code fragment declares both `public` and `private` functions and procedures.

```
public procedure average(s,t: single);

private procedure evaluate(n : integer);

public function big (quart : integer16;
                    cost : single) : single;

private function simple (x, y : boolean) : integer16;
```

Parameter List

Pascal supplies the parameter types `in`, `out`, `in out`, `var`, `value`, and `univ`. The syntax is:

```
<parameter list> ::= <parameters> { ';' <parameters> }
```

```
<parameters> ::= ([ 'in' | 'out' | 'in out' | 'var' ]
  <identifier list> ':' [ 'univ' ] <type specification>
  | 'procedure' <identifier parameters>
  | 'function' <identifier parameters> ':' <type specification>
  | <conformant array parameters> )
```

Parameters: *in*, *out*, and *in out*

The *in*, *out*, and *in out* parameters are extensions to the standard, which are used to specify the direction of parameter passing:

<i>in</i>	Indicates that the parameter can only pass a value into the routine. The parameter is, in effect, a read-only variable. You cannot assign a value to an <i>in</i> parameter, nor can you pass an <i>in</i> parameter as an argument to another procedure that expects a <i>var</i> , <i>out</i> , or <i>in out</i> argument.
<i>out</i>	Indicates that the parameter is used to pass values out of the routine. In effect, declaring a parameter as <i>out</i> informs the compiler that the parameter has no initial value, and that assignments to the parameter are retained by the caller.
<i>in out</i>	Indicates that the parameter can both take in values and pass them back out. An <i>in out</i> parameter is equivalent to a <i>var</i> parameter.

Example

The Pascal program, `in_out.p`. The procedure `compute_area` reads in the length and width and outputs result. The procedure `multiply_by_two` reads in result, multiplies it by two and returns the modified value.

```
program in_out_example(input, output);

{ This program, which finds the area of a rectangle,
  demonstrates the use of the in, out, and in out
  parameters. }

var
    length, width, result: real;

{ Find area given length and width. }
procedure compute_area(in length: real; in width: real;
                      out result: real);

begin
    result := length * width
end; { compute_area } { compute_area }

{ Multiply the area by two. }
procedure multiply_by_two(in out result: real);

begin
    result := result * 2
end; { multiply_by_two } { multiply_by_two }

begin { main program }
    write('Enter values for length and width: ');
    readln(length, width);
    compute_area(length, width, result);
    writeln('The area is ', result: 5: 2, '.');
    multiply_by_two(result);
    writeln('Twice the area is ', result: 5: 2, '.');
end. { in_out_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `in_out.p`. This example shows the program output when you input a length of 4 and a width of 5.

```
hostname% pc in_out.p
hostname% a.out
Enter values for length and width: 4 5
The area is 20.00.
Twice the area is 40.00.
```

var Parameters

With standard conformance options (`-s`, `-V0`, `-V1`), `var` parameters are the same in standard Pascal and Pascal. By default, the Apollo-like `var` compatibility approach applies: actual and formal records and arrays should be of the same type; other types of `var` must be of the same length.

For example, all pointer types are compatible to `univ_ptr`, and vice versa. See “Universal Pointer” on page 42. Subranges `-128...127` and `0...127` are also `var`-compatible.

Value Parameters

Value parameters are the same in standard Pascal and Pascal.

univ Parameters

The nonstandard `univ` parameter type is actually a modifier used before data types in formal parameter lists to turn off type checking for that parameter. You can use it with any type of parameter except conformant array, procedure, or function parameters.

`univ` is used as follows:

```
procedure somename (var firstparam: univ integer);
```

You could then call this procedure with a parameter of any type. You should always declare a `univ` parameter as either `in`, `out`, `in out`, or `var`.

`univ` is most often used for passing arrays, where you can call a procedure or function with different array sizes. In that case, you generally would pass another parameter that gives the actual size of the array, as follows:

```
type
  real_array = array[1..100] of real;

procedure receive(size: integer;
  var theArray: univ real_array);

var
  n: integer;

begin
  for n:= 1 to size do
    .
    .
    .
```

Type Identifier

In Pascal, a function may represent a structure, such as a set, array, or record. In standard Pascal, a function can only represent the simple types of value, ordinal, or real.

Functions Returning Strings and Varying Strings

When declaring functions that return strings (arrays of chars) and varying strings, you can specify the result by an assignment. For example:

```
F:= 'The answer: 12 miles'
```

where `F` is the function. However, sometimes you may want to obtain the string result by modifying some of the characters of an existing string (variable or parameter). In the following example, you may want to substitute a string for the string `XX`.

```
program String_Function_Example;
type s1 = array [1..20] of char;
   s2 = array [1..2 ] of char;

function f(x:s2):s1;
begin
  f := 'The answer: XX miles';
  f[13]:=x[1];
  f[14]:=x[2];
end;

var r: s2;
    s: s1;
begin
  r:='12';
  s:=f(r);

  writeln(s)
end.
```

In general, an identifier of a function f returning a string can be used in an assignment of the kind:

```
f[i]:=c
```

for specifying the i 'th byte of the function result. This Pascal extension can be used both for strings and varying strings.

Options

Pascal supplies the standard forward routine option and the nonstandard options, `extern`, `external`, `internal`, `variable`, and `nonpascal`. The syntaxes are:

```
<routine options> ::= 'options'(' <options> {' <options> } )'
| { <options> ';' } ''
```

```
<options> ::= ('forward' | 'extern'[('fortran' | 'c')]  
             | 'external' [ ( 'fortran' | 'c' ) ]  
             | 'internal' | 'variable' | 'nonpascal')
```

forward

The `forward` option is the same in Pascal and standard Pascal.

extern *and* external

The `extern` and `external` options indicate that the procedure or function is defined in a separate program or module. `extern` and `external` allow the optional specification of the source language of the procedure or function. For more information on these options, see the chapter on separate compilation in the *SPARCompiler Pascal 3.0.3 User's Guide*.

internal

The `internal` option makes the procedure or function local to that module. Specifying the `internal` option is the same as declaring the procedure or function as `private`. Pascal generates an error message if you attempt to declare a `public` procedure or function as `internal`.

variable

Using the `variable` option, you can pass a procedure or function a smaller number of actual arguments than the number of formal arguments defined in the routine. The actual arguments must match the formal parameters types. You cannot pass a larger number of actual arguments than formal arguments.

Example

The Pascal program, `variable.p`, passes either two or three actual arguments to the procedure, `calculate_total`, depending on the user input.

```
program variable_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  variable routine option. }

const
  tax_rate = 0.07;
  shipping_fee = 2.50;

var
  price: single;
  resident: char;
  total: single;

function calculate(count: integer16; price: single;
                  tax: single): single;
  options(variable);

begin
  if count = 2 then
    calculate := price + tax + shipping_fee
  else
    calculate := price + shipping_fee
end; { calculate }

begin { main program }
  write('Please enter the price: ');
  readln(price);
  writeln('California residents must add local sales tax. ');
  write('Are you a California resident? Enter y or n: ');
  readln(resident);
  if resident = 'y' then
    total := calculate(2, price, tax_rate * price)
  else
    total := calculate(1, price);
  writeln('Your purchase amounts to $', total: 5: 2, '.');
end. { variable_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `variable.p`

```
hostname% pc variable.p
hostname% a.out
Please enter the price: 10.00
California residents must add local sales tax.
Are you a California resident? Enter y or n: y
Your purchase amounts to $13.20.
hostname% a.out
Please enter the price: 10.00
California residents must add local sales tax.
Are you a California resident? Enter y or n: n
Your purchase amounts to $12.50.
```

`nonpascal`

Pascal supports `nonpascal` as a routine option when you compile your program with the `-xl` option. `nonpascal` declares non-Pascal routines when you are porting Apollo DOMAIN programs written in DOMAIN Pascal, FORTRAN, or C.

`nonpascal` passes arguments by reference. If the argument is a variable, `nonpascal` passes its address. If the argument is a constant or expression, `nonpascal` makes a copy on the caller's stack and passes the address of the copy.

Built-In Procedures and Functions

6

This chapter describes the built-in procedures and functions Pascal supports. It starts with two major sections:

<i>Standard Procedures and Functions</i>	<i>page 99</i>
<i>Routines Specific to Pascal</i>	<i>page 100</i>

A third section, beginning on page 103, lists the nonstandard routines alphabetically and contains detailed descriptions and examples of each routine.

Standard Procedures and Functions

Pascal supplies the standard procedures listed in Table 6-1, and the standard functions listed in Table 6-2.

Table 6-1 Standard Procedures

dispose	page	readln	unpack
get	put	resey	write
new	read	rewrite	writeln
pack			

Table 6-2 Standard Functions

abs	eof	odd	round	sqrt
arctan	eoln	ord	sin	succ
chr	exp	pred	sqr	trunc
cos	ln			

Routines Specific to Pascal

This sections lists the nonstandard Pascal procedures and functions according to the following categories:

- Arithmetic routines
- Bit-shift routines
- Character string routines
- Input and output routines
- Miscellaneous routines

Table 6-3 Nonstandard Arithmetic Routines

Routine	Description
addr	Returns the address of a variable, constant, function, or procedure.
card	Returns the cardinality of a set.
expo	Calculates the exponent of a variable.
firstof	Returns the first possible value of a type or variable.
in_range	Determines whether a value is in the defined integer subrange.
lastof	Returns the last possible value of a type or variable.
max	Returns the larger of two expressions.
min	Returns the smaller of two expressions.
random	Generates a random number between 0.0 and 1.0.
seed	Resets the random number generator.
sizeof	Returns the size of a designated type or variable.

Table 6-4 Nonstandard Bit Shift Routines

Routine	Description
<code>arshft</code>	Does an arithmetic right shift of an integer.
<code>asl</code>	Does an arithmetic left shift of an integer.
<code>asr</code>	Identical to <code>arshft</code> .
<code>land</code>	Returns the bitwise <code>and</code> of two integers.
<code>lnot</code>	Returns the bitwise <code>not</code> of an integer.
<code>lor</code>	Returns the inclusive <code>or</code> of two integers.
<code>lshft</code>	Does a logical left shift of an integer.
<code>lsl</code>	Identical to <code>lshft</code> .
<code>lsr</code>	Identical to <code>rshft</code> .
<code>rshft</code>	Does a logical right shift of an integer.
<code>xor</code>	Returns the exclusive <code>or</code> of two integers.

Table 6-5 Nonstandard Character String Routines

Routine	Description
<code>index</code>	Returns the position of the first occurrence of a string or character inside another string.
<code>length</code>	Returns the length of a string.
<code>substr</code>	Extracts a substring from a string.
<code>trim</code>	Removes all trailing blanks in a character string.

Table 6-6 Nonstandard Input and Output Routines

Routine	Description
<code>close</code>	Closes a file.
<code>flush</code>	Writes the output buffered for a Pascal file into the associated operating system file.
<code>getfile</code>	Returns a pointer to the C standard I/O descriptor associated with a Pascal file.
<code>linelimit</code>	Terminates program execution after a specified number of lines has been written into a text file.
<code>message</code>	Writes the specified information on <code>stderr</code> .
<code>open</code>	Associates an external file with a file variable.
<code>remove</code>	Removes the specified file.

Table 6-7 Extensions to Standard Input and Output Routines

Routine	Description
<code>read</code> and <code>readln</code>	Reads in <code>boolean</code> variables, fixed- and variable-length strings, and enumerated types from the standard input.
<code>reset</code> and <code>rewrite</code>	Accepts an optional second argument, an operating system file name.
<code>write</code> and <code>writeln</code>	Outputs enumerated type values to the standard output. Outputs expressions in octal or hexadecimal. Allows negative field widths.

Table 6-8 Miscellaneous Nonstandard Routines

Routine	Description
<code>argc</code>	Returns the number of arguments passed to the program.
<code>argv</code>	Assigns the specified program arguments a string variable.
<code>clock</code>	Returns the user time consumed by this process.
<code>date</code>	Fetches the current date.
<code>discard</code>	Explicitly discards the return value of a function.
<code>getenv</code>	Returns the value associated with an environment name.
<code>halt</code>	Terminates program execution.
<code>null</code>	Performs no operation.
<code>pcexit</code>	Terminates the program and returns an exit code.
<code>stlimit</code>	Terminates program execution if a specified number of statements have been executed in the current loop
<code>sysclock</code>	Returns the system time consumed by this process.
<code>time</code>	Retrieves the current time.
Type transfer	Changes the data type of a variable or expression.
<code>wallclock</code>	Returns the elapsed number of seconds since 00:00:00 GMT January 1, 1970.

`addr`

The `addr` function returns the address of a variable, constant, function, or procedure.

Syntax

`addr(x)`

Arguments

`x` is either a variable, a constant string, a function, or a procedure.

Return Value

The return value of `addr` is the address in which the variable or a constant string is stored. For function or procedural arguments, `addr` returns the starting address of the function or procedure. In each case, `addr` returns a value of type `univ_ptr`.

Comments

In Pascal, you can apply `addr` to a variable, function, or procedure with dynamic extent such as local variables and nested functions or procedures. Exercise caution in doing so and then dereferencing the resulting pointer value. In the case of local variables, dereferencing these pointers outside the scope in which the variable is active results in a meaningless value.

The compiler passes a static link to nested functions and procedures when it calls them. The compiler does not generate this link when dereferencing pointer values to procedures or functions. Consequently, Pascal generates a warning if the argument to `addr` is any of these objects.

`addr` cannot be applied to bit-aligned fields of aggregates.

Note - If you use the `addr ()` function, do not use the `-H` option. The `-H` option makes sure that all pointers used point into the heap.

Example

The Pascal program, `addr.p`

```
program addr_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  addr function. }

const
  name = 'Gail';

type
  ptr = ^ integer;
  ptr_char = ^ alfa;

var
  ptr_address: ptr;
  ptr_address_char: ptr_char;
  x: integer;
  y: integer;
  c: alfa;

begin
  x := maxint;

  { Get the address of x. }
  ptr_address := addr(x);

  { Get the contents of ptr_address. }
  y := ptr_address^;
  writeln('The address of x is ', ptr_address: 3, '.');
  writeln('The contents of x is ', y: 3, '.');

  { Get the address of the constant name. }
  ptr_address_char := addr(name);

  { Get the contents of ptr_address_char. }
  c := ptr_address_char^;

  writeln('The address of c is ', ptr_address_char: 3, '.');
  writeln('The contents of c is ', c: 4, '.');
end. { addr_example }
```

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The commands to compile and execute `addr.p`

```
hostname% pc addr.p
hostname% a.out
The address of x is 38764.
The contents of x is 2147483647.
The address of c is 33060.
The contents of c is Gail.
```

`argc`

The `argc` function returns the number of arguments passed to the program.

Syntax

`argc`

Arguments

`argc` does not take any arguments.

Return Value

`argc` returns an integer value.

Comments

The return value of `argc` is always at least 1, the name of the program.

`argc` is normally used in conjunction with the built-in procedure, `argv`. See the `argv` listing on page 107.

Example

See the example in the `argv` listing page 107.

`argv`

The `argv` procedure assigns the specified program argument to a string variable.

Syntax

```
argv(i, a)
```

Arguments

i is an integer value.

a is a fixed- or variable-length string.

Return Value

`argv` returns a string variable.

Comments

`argv` returns the *i*'th argument of the current process to the string variable *a*. *i* ranges from 0, the program name, to `argc-1`.

`argc` is a predeclared function that tells you how many arguments are being passed to the program. `argv` is normally used in conjunction with `argc`.

Example

The Pascal program, `argv.p`

```
program argv_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of
  argc and argv. }

var
  i: integer32;
  name: varying [30] of char;

begin
  { Argument number 0 is the name of the program. }
  argv(0, name);
  writeln('The name of the program is ', name, '.');
  i := 1;
  while i <= argc - 1 do begin
    argv(i, name);
    writeln('Argument number ', i: 1, ' is ', name, '.');
    i := i + 1
  end
end. { argv_example }
```

The commands to output and execute `argv.p`

```
hostname% pc argv.p
hostname% a.out
The name of the program is a.out.
hostname% a.out one two three
The name of the program is a.out.
Argument number 1 is one.
Argument number 2 is two.
Argument number 3 is three.
```

arshft

The `arshft` function does an arithmetic right shift of an integer value.

Syntax

```
arshft(num, sh)
```

Arguments

num and *sh* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`arshft` returns a 32-bit integer value.

Comments

`arshft` shifts the bits in *num* *sh* places to the right. `arshft` preserves the sign bit of *num*. `arshft` does not wrap bits around from left to right. The sign bit is the most significant (leftmost) bit in the number. Pascal uses two's complement to represent negative integers. For example, -8 as a 16-bit integer is represented as:

```
1111 1111 1111 1000
```

If you shift this number to the right by 1:

```
(arshft (-8, 1) )
```

your result is:

```
1111 1111 1111 11er100
```

However, if you shift to the right by 1,

```
0111 1111 1111 1000
```

your result is:

```
0011 1111 1111 1100
```

The result `arshft` returns is machine-dependent and is unspecified unless the following is true:

`0 <= sh <= 32`

Example

The Pascal program, `arshft.p`

```

program arshft_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the arithmetic right shift. }

const
    SIZE = 8;

var
    i: integer32;
    i32: integer32;
    loop: integer32;

begin
    write('Enter a positive or negative integer: ');
    readln(i);
    for loop := 1 to SIZE do begin
        i32 := arshft(i, loop);
        write('Arithmetic right shift ', loop: 2);
        writeln(' bit(s): ', i32 hex)
    end
end. { arshft_example }

```

The commands to compile and execute `arshft.p`. The value the bit-shift routines return may depend upon the architecture of your system.

```

hostname% pc arshft.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a positive or negative integer: -2
Arithmetic right shift 1 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 2 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 3 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 4 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 5 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 6 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 7 bit(s): FFFFFFFF
Arithmetic right shift 8 bit(s): FFFFFFFF

```

asl

The `asl` function does an arithmetic left shift of an integer value.

Syntax

```
asl(num, sh)
```

Arguments

num and *sh* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`asl` returns a 32-bit integer value.

Comments

`asl` shifts the bits in *num* *sh* places to the left. `asl` preserves the sign bit of *num* and does not wrap bits from left to right.

The result `asl` returns is machine-dependent and is unspecified unless the following is true:

```
0 <= sh <= 32
```

Example

The Pascal program, `asl.p`

```

program asl_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the arithmetic left shift. }

const
    SIZE = 8;

var
    i: integer32;
    i32: integer32;
    loop: integer32;

begin
    write('Enter a positive or negative integer: ');
    readln(i);
    for loop := 1 to SIZE do begin
        i32 := asl(i, loop);
        write('Arithmetic left shift ', loop: 2);
        writeln(' bit(s): ', i32 hex)
    end
end. { asl_example }

```

The commands to compile and execute `asl.p`

```

hostname% pc asl.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a positive or negative integer: 19
Arithmetic left shift 1 bit(s): 26
Arithmetic left shift 2 bit(s): 4C
Arithmetic left shift 3 bit(s): 98
Arithmetic left shift 4 bit(s): 130
Arithmetic left shift 5 bit(s): 260
Arithmetic left shift 6 bit(s): 4C0
Arithmetic left shift 7 bit(s): 980
Arithmetic left shift 8 bit(s): 1300

```

`asr`

The `asr` function is identical to the `arshft` function. See the `arshft` listing on page 109.

`card`

The `card` function returns the number of elements in a set variable.

Syntax

`card(x)`

Arguments

`x` must be a set variable.

Return Value

`card` returns an integer value.

Comments

`card` returns the number of elements in the actual set variable, not the size of the set type.

Example

The Pascal program, card.p

```
program card_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the card function. }
type
  lowints = 0..100;
  primary_colors = set of (red, yellow, blue);
  possibilities = set of boolean;
  capital_letters = set of 'A'..'Z';
  digits = set of lowints;

var
  pri: primary_colors;
  pos: possibilities;
  cap: capital_letters;
  dig: digits;

begin
  pri := [red, yellow, blue];
  pos := [true, false];
  cap := ['A'..'Z'];
  dig := [0..100];
  writeln('There are ',card(pri): 4, ' primary colors. ');
  writeln('There are ',card(pos): 4, ' possibilities. ');
  writeln('There are ',card(cap): 4, ' capital letters. ');
  writeln('There are ',card(dig): 4, ' digits. ')
end. { card_example }
```

The commands to output and execute card.p

```
hostname% pc card.p
hostname% a.out
There are    3 primary colors.
There are    2 possibilities.
There are   26 capital letters.
There are  101 digits.
```

clock

The `clock` function returns the user time consumed by the process.

Syntax

```
clock
```

Arguments

`clock` does not take any arguments.

Return Value

`clock` returns an integer value.

Comments

`clock` returns the user time in milliseconds.

See also the `sysclock` function on page 178, which returns the system time the process uses.

Example

The Pascal program, clock.p

```
program clock_example(input, output);

{ This program times how long it takes to run the
  towers of hanoi. }

const
  DISK = 16;

var
  num: array [1..3] of integer;
  counts: integer32;
  before_user: integer;
  before_sys: integer;
  after_user: integer;
  after_sys: integer;

procedure moves(number, f, t: integer);

var
  o: integer;

begin
  if number = 1 then begin
    num[f] := num[f] - 1;
    num[t] := num[t] - 1;
    counts := counts + 1
  end else begin
    o := 6 - (f + t);
    moves(number - 1, f, o);
    moves(1, f, t);
    moves(number - 1, o, t)
  end
end; { moves } { moves }
```

clock.p Program (Screen 1 of 2)

```
begin { main program }
  before_user := clock;
  before_sys := sysclock;
  moves(DISK, 1, 3);
  after_sys := sysclock;
  after_user := clock;
  write('For ', DISK: 1, ' disks, there were ');
  writeln(counts: 1, ' steps. ');
  write('Elapsed system time: ');
  writeln(after_sys - before_sys: 1, ' milliseconds. ');
  write('Elapsed user time: ');
  writeln(after_user - before_user: 1, ' milliseconds. ')
end. { clock_example }
```

clock.p Program (Screen 2 of 2)

The commands to compile and execute clock.p. The time clock and sysclock return is system-dependent.

```
hostname% a.out
For 16 disks, there were 65535 steps.
Elapsed system time: 16 milliseconds.
Elapsed user time: 583 milliseconds.
```

close

The close procedure closes a file.

Syntax

close(*file*)

Arguments

file is a file having the text or file data type.

Return Value

close does not return any values.

Comments

`close` closes the open file named *file*. `close` is optional; Pascal closes all files either when the program terminates or when it leaves the procedure in which the file variable is associated with the open file.

Pascal generates a runtime error if *file* is not an open file. You can trap this error with the I/O error recovery mechanism, described in “I/O Error Recovery” on page 204.

In Pascal, you cannot close the predeclared files `input` and `output`. If you redirect `input` or `output`, the associated streams are automatically closed.

See also the `open`, `reset`, and `rewrite` procedures, which open a file.

Example

See the example in the `open` listing in this chapter.

date

The `date` procedure takes the current date (as assigned when the operating system was initialized) and assigns it to a string variable.

Syntax

```
date(a)
```

Arguments

a is a variable that can be either a character array 10 elements long or a variable-length string.

Return Value

`date` returns a character string in the form `dd mmm yy`, where `dd` is the day, `mmm` is the first three characters of the month, and `yy` is the year.

Comments

`date` puts a zero in front of the day and year (07) to make them two digits. Also, `date` stores the answer with the day, month, and year separated by spaces. `date` puts a blank at the end of the string.

Example

The Pascal program, `date.p`

```
program date_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the date procedure. }

var
  s1: alfa;
  s2: array [1..10] of char;
  s3: array [89..98] of char;
  s4: varying [100] of char;

begin
  date(s1);
  date(s2);
  date(s3);
  date(s4);
  writeln('The date is ', s1, '.');
  writeln('The date is ', s2, '.');
  writeln('The date is ', s3, '.');
  writeln('The date is ', s4, '.');
end. { date_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `date.p`

```
hostname% pc date.p
hostname% a.out
The date is 23 May 89 .
```

discard

The `discard` procedure removes the value of an expression.

Syntax

```
discard(expr)
```

Arguments

expr is any expression including a function call.

Return Value

`discard` does not return any values.

Comments

Use `discard` to call a function or evaluate an expression whose value you do not need to continue program execution. For example, you can use `discard` to execute a function whose return value you do not need.

Example

The Pascal program,
discard.p

```
program discard_example(output);

{ This program computes a discount if the total amount
  is over DISC_AMOUNT. }

const
  RATE = 0.15;
  DISC_AMOUNT = 100.00;

var
  amount: single;
  discount: single;

function compute(amount: single): single;

begin
  compute := amount * RATE
end; { compute }

begin { main program }
  write('Enter sale amount: ');
  readln(amount);
  if amount < DISC_AMOUNT then begin
    discard(compute(amount));
    write('No discount applied; total charge amount');
    writeln(' must be more than ', DISC_AMOUNT:2: 2, '.')
  end else begin
    discount := compute(amount);
    write('The amount of discount on ');
    writeln(amount: 2: 2, ' is ', discount: 2: 2, '.')
  end
end. { discard_example }
```

The commands to compile and
execute discard.p

```
hostname% pc discard.p
hostname% a.out
Enter sale amount: 125.00
The amount of discount on 125.00 is 18.75.
```

`expo`

The `expo` function calculates the integer-valued exponent of a specified number.

Syntax

`expo(x)`

Arguments

`x` is either a real or integer value.

Return Value

`expo` returns an integer value.

Comments

`expo` returns an integer that represents the integer-valued exponent of a real number.

Example

The Pascal program, `expo.p`

```

program expo_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the expo function. }

const
    MAX = 10;

var
    i: integer;
    r: real;

begin
    writeln(' x   r := exp(x)                expo(r)');
    writeln(' -   -----                -----');
    for i := 1 to MAX do begin
        r := exp(i);
        writeln(i: 2, ' ', r, ' ', expo(r))
    end
end. { expo_example }

```

The value `expo` returns may depend upon the architecture of your system.

```

hostname% pc expo.p
hostname% a.out
 x r := exp(x)                expo(r)
 - -----                -----
 1 2.71828182845905e+00      0
 2 7.38905609893065e+00      0
 3 2.00855369231877e+01      1
 4 5.45981500331442e+01      1
 5 1.48413159102577e+02      2
 6 4.03428793492735e+02      2
 7 1.09663315842846e+03      3
 8 2.98095798704173e+03      3
 9 8.10308392757538e+03      3
10 2.20264657948067e+04      4

```

firstof

The `firstof` function returns the value of the lower bound when its argument is or has an ordinal type. For array types, `firstof` returns the lower bound for the subrange defining the array index. For set types, it returns the lower bound of the set base type.

Syntax

```
firstof(x)
```

Arguments

`x` is either a variable, a constant, an expression, or the name of a user-defined or predeclared Pascal data type. `x` cannot be a record, a file, a pointer type, a conformant array, a procedure or function parameter, or a string literal.

Return Value

The return value depends on the type that `x` is.

When <code>x</code> is ...	The value <code>firstof</code> returns ...
An ordinal type, a constant, an expression, or variable	Has the same data type as its argument.
An array	Has the same data type as the type of the array index.
A set type	Has the same data type as the base type of the set.

Comments

Pascal follows the rules in Table 6-9 when returning the value of `x`.

Table 6-9 firstof Return Values

Type of Argument	Return Value
integer (without -xl option)	-2,147,483,648
integer (with -xl option)	-32,768
integer16	-32,768
integer32	-2,147,483,648
char	chr(0)
boolean	false
Enumerated	The first element in the enumeration type declaration.
array	The lower bound of the subrange that defines the array size.
varying	1
set of 'A' .. 'Z'	A (the character A).

Example

See the examples that follow.

≡ 6

The Pascal program,
firstof.p

```
program firstof_example(output);

{ This program illustrates the use of firstof and lastof
  used with arrays and enumerated types. }

const
  dollars_per_tourist = 100;

type
  continents = (North_America, South_America, Asia, Europe,
               Africa, Australia, Antarctica);

var
  i: continents;
  major_targets: array [continents] of integer :=
    [20, 3, 15, 25, 5, 1, 0];
  planned_targets: array [continents] of integer := [* of 0];

begin
  for i := firstof(planned_targets) to
    lastof(planned_targets) do begin
    planned_targets[i] := major_targets[i] *
dollars_per_tourist
  end;

  for i := firstof(continents) to lastof(continents) do begin
    writeln(i, ' is the goal of ', planned_targets[i]: 1,
           ' dollars per tourist.')
  end

end. { firstof_example }
```

The commands to compile and
execute firstof.p

```
hostname% pc firstof.p
hostname% a.out
North_America is the goal of 2000 dollars per tourist.
South_America is the goal of 300 dollars per tourist.
Asia is the goal of 1500 dollars per tourist.
Europe is the goal of 2500 dollars per tourist.
Africa is the goal of 500 dollars per tourist.
Australia is the goal of 100 dollars per tourist.
Antarctica is the goal of 0 dollars per tourist.
```

flush

The `flush` procedure writes the output buffer for the specified Pascal file into the associated file.

Syntax

```
flush(file)
```

Arguments

file is a file having the `text` or `file` data type.

Return Value

`flush` does not return any values.

Comments

The `flush` procedure causes the compiler to write all characters buffered for output to the specified file.

For example, in the following code fragment, the compiler writes the output integer *i* to the file *f* when it encounters `flush`:

```
for i := 1 to 5 do begin
    write(f,i);
    Compute a lot with no output
end;
flush(f);
```

`flush` does not append a newline character after writing the data. See also the output procedures, `message`, `write`, and `writeln`.

Example

The Pascal program, flush.p

```
program flush_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  flush procedure. }

const
  NAME = 'flush.txt';
var
  i: integer;
  f1, f2: text;

procedure read_file;
var
  i: integer;
begin
  reset(f2, NAME);
  writeln('Beginning of file. ');
  while not eof(f2) do begin
    while not eoln(f2) do begin
      read(f2, i);
      writeln(i)
    end;
    readln(f2)
  end;
  writeln('End of file. ');
  writeln
end; { read_file }
```

flush.p (Screen 1 of 2)

```
begin { main program }
  rewrite(f1, NAME);
  for i := 1 to 10 do
    write(f1, i);

    { At this point the file is still empty. }
    read_file;

    flush(f1);

    { Now the file contains data after the flush. }
    read_file
end. { flush_example }
```

flush.p (Screen 2 of 2)

The commands to compile and execute flush.p

```
hostname% pc flush.p
hostname% a.out
Beginning of file.
End of file.

Beginning of file.
  1
  2
  3
  4
  5
  6
  7
  8
  9
 10
End of file.
```

getenv

The `getenv` function returns the value associated with an environment name.

Syntax

```
getenv(string, string_variable)
```

Arguments

string is either a constant string, a variable-length string, or a character array.
string_variable is a variable-length string or a character array.

Return Value

`getenv` returns a variable-length string or a character array.

Comments

The variable *string* is an environment name. Pascal returns the value for the environment name through the parameter, *string_variable*.

string must match the environment exactly, and trailing blanks are significant. If *string* is a character array, you may want to use the `trim` function.

If there are no environment names with the value *string*, the value of *string_variable* is the null string if *string_variable* is a variable-length string. If *string_variable* is a character array, it is padded with blanks.

See the Solaris documentation for a complete description of environment variables.

Example

The Pascal program, `getenv.p`

```
program getenv_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  getenv function. }

var
  namev: varying [10] of char := 'EDITOR';
  names: array [1..10] of char := 'EDITOR';
  valv: varying [20] of char;

begin
  getenv(namev, valv);
  writeln(namev, ' = ', valv);
  getenv(trim(names), valv);
  writeln(names, ' = ', valv)
end. { getenv_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `getenv.p`

```
hostname% pc getenv.p
hostname% a.out
EDITOR = /usr/ucb/vi
EDITOR = /usr/ucb/vi
```

getfile

The `getfile` function returns a pointer to the C standard I/O descriptor associated with a Pascal file.

Syntax

```
getfile(file)
```

Arguments

file is a file having the text or file data type. *file* must be associated with an open file; otherwise, `getfile` returns nil.

Return Value

`getfile` returns a value of type `univ_ptr`.

Comments

You can use the result of `getfile` for files opened with either the `reset`, `rewrite`, or `open` procedures, placing the return value as a parameter to a C I/O routine. Use extreme caution when you call `getfile`; directly calling C I/O routines circumvents bookkeeping data structures in the Pascal I/O library.

As a general rule, calling C routines for writing is safe. Using the return value for calling C routines for reading may cause subsequent `eoln`, `eof`, or `readln` calls to produce errors for that file.

Example

The Pascal program,
`getfile.p`

```
program getfile_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the getfile function. }

type
  char_array = array [1..30] of char;

var
  f: text;
  cfile: univ_ptr;

procedure fprintf(cf: univ_ptr; in format: char_array;
                 in year: integer); external c;

begin { main program }
  rewrite(f, 'output.data');
  cfile := getfile(f);
  fprintf(cfile, 'Hello, world, in the year %d .', 1990)
end. { getfile_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `getfile.p`

```
hostname% pc getfile.p
hostname% a.out
hostname% more output.data
Hello, world, in the year 1990 .
```

halt

The `halt` procedure terminates program execution.

Syntax

```
halt
```

Arguments

`halt` does not take any arguments.

Return Values

`halt` does not return any values.

Comments

You can use `halt` anywhere in a program to terminate execution. When execution of a program encounters a `halt`, it prints the following message:

```
Call to procedure halt
```

Pascal returns to command level after it executes `halt`.

Example

The Pascal program, `halt.p`

```
program halt_example(input, output);

{ This program calculates a factorial. }

var
    x, y: integer;

function factorial(n: integer): integer;

begin
    if n = 0 then
        factorial := 1
    else
        factorial := n * factorial(n - 1)
    end; { factorial } { factorial }

begin { main program }
    write('Enter a positive integer from 0 to 16: ');
    readln(x);
    if (x >= 0) and (x <= 16) then begin
        y := factorial(x);
        write('The factorial of ', x: 1);
        writeln(' is ', y: 1, '.');
    end else begin
        writeln('Illegal input. ');
        halt
    end
end. { halt_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `halt.p`

```
hostname% pc halt.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a positive integer from 0 to 16: 8
The factorial of 8 is 40320.
hostname% a.out
Enter a positive integer from 0 to 16: 20
Illegal input.
Call to procedure halt
```

`in_range`

The `in_range` function checks if a value is in the defined subrange.

Syntax

```
in_range(x)
```

Arguments

`x` is an integer, boolean, character, enumerated, or subrange data type.

Return Value

`in_range` returns a boolean value.

Comments

`in_range` returns `true` if `x` is in the defined range, `false` if `x` is outside the range.

`in_range` is useful for doing a runtime check to see if `x` has a valid value. `in_range` is especially helpful for checking enumerated and subrange types. However, this feature does not work for 32-bit integer values.

If you compile your program with the `-C` option, the compiler also generates code that does range checking. However, if the variable is out of range, the program terminates. By using `in_range` instead, you can control subsequent execution of your program.

Example

The Pascal program,
`in_range.p`

```
program in_range_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the in_range function. }

type
    positive = 1..maxint;

var
    base, height: positive;
    area: real;

begin
    write('Enter values for triangle base and height: ');
    readln(base, height);
    if in_range(base) and in_range(height) then begin
        area := base * height / 2;
        writeln('Area is ', area: 5: 2, '.')
    end else
        writeln('Cannot compute negative areas.')
    end. { in_range_example }
```

The commands to compile and
execute `in_range.p`

```
hostname% pc in_range.p
hostname% a.out
Enter values for triangle base and height: 4 5
Area is 10.00.
```

index

The `index` function returns the position of the first occurrence of a string or character within another string.

Syntax

```
index(target_string, pattern_string)
```

Arguments

target_string is a constant string, variable-length string, or an array of character.

pattern_string is a constant string, variable-length string, an array of character, or a character.

Return Value

`index` returns an integer value that represents the position of the first occurrence of *pattern_string* within *target_string*. If the first occurrence is at the starting position of the original string, the returned `index` value is 1.

Comments

The leftmost occurrence of the *pattern-string* is considered the first occurrence.

If the *pattern_string* is not found in the *target_string*, `index` returns 0. If *pattern_string* is the null string, `index` returns -1.

Example

See the example that follows.

≡ 6

The Pascal program, `index.p`

```
program index_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of
  the index function. }

const
  MAX = 20;
  STRING = 'FOO';

type
  char_array = varying [MAX] of char;

var
  s1: char_array := 'INDEX_EXAMPLE';
  s2: char_array := 'EXAMPLE';
  i: integer16;

procedure print(index: integer; s1: char_array;
               s2: char_array);

begin
  if index = 0 then begin
    write('The string ', s2, ' is not');
    writeln(' in the string ', s1, '.');
  end else begin
    write('The string ', s2, ' is at index ', i: 1);
    writeln(' in the string ', s1, '.');
  end
end; { print } { print } { print }

begin { main program }
  i := index(s1, s2);
  print(i, s1, s2);
  i := index(s1, STRING);
  print(i, s1, STRING)
end. { index_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `index.p`

```
hostname% pc index.p
hostname% a.out
The string EXAMPLE is at index 7 in the string INDEX_EXAMPLE.
The string FOO is not in the string INDEX_EXAMPLE.
```

land

The `land` function returns the bitwise and of two integer values.

Syntax

```
land(int1, int2)
```

Arguments

int1 and *int2* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`land` returns an integer value.

Comments

`land` performs a bit-by-bit and operation, as shown in Table 6-10.

Table 6-10 `land` Truth

Value of Bit in <i>int1</i>	Value of Bit in <i>int2</i>	Value of Bit in <i>result</i>
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

If *int1* and *int2* are different size integers, Pascal converts the smaller integer to the larger integer before it performs the `land` operation.

`land` produces the same results as the bitwise operator `&`. Do not confuse `land` with the `boolean` operator `and`, which finds the logical and of two `boolean` expressions.

When *x* is a set type, the value `lastof` returns has the same data type as the base type of the set.

Comments

Pascal follows the rules in Table 6-11 when returning the value of *x*.

Table 6-11 lastof Return Values

Type of Argument	Return Value
<code>integer</code> (without <code>-xl</code>)	2,147,483,647
<code>integer</code> (with <code>-xl</code>)	32,767
<code>integer16</code>	32,767
<code>integer32</code>	2,147,483,647
<code>char</code>	<code>chr(255)</code>
<code>boolean</code>	<code>true</code>
<code>enumerated</code>	The last element in the enumeration type declaration.
<code>array</code>	The upper bound of the subrange that defines the array size.
<code>varying</code>	The upper bound of the <code>varying</code> string.
<code>set of 'A' .. 'Z'</code>	The character <code>Z</code> .

Example

See the example under `firstof` on page 124.

length

The `length` function returns the length of a string.

Syntax

`length(str)`

Arguments

str is a variable-length string, a character array, or a character-string constant.

Return Value

`length` returns an integer value.

Comments

`length` returns a value that specifies the length of *str*.

Example

The Pascal program, `length.p`

```
program length_example(output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the use of the length function. }  
  
var  
    s1: array [1..15] of char;  
    s2: varying [20] of char;  
begin  
    s1 := 'San Francisco ';  
    s2 := 'California';  
    writeln('The length of string one is ', length(s1): 2, '.');  
    writeln('The length of string two is ', length(s2): 2, '.');  
    writeln('The combined length is ', length(s1 + s2): 2, '.');  
end. { length_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `length.p`

```
hostname% pc length.p  
hostname% a.out  
The length of string one is 15.  
The length of string two is 10.  
The combined length is 25.
```

linelimit

The `linelimit` procedure terminates execution of a program after a specified number of lines has been written into a text file.

Syntax

```
linelimit(file, n)
```

Arguments

file is a file having the `text` or `file` data type.

n is a positive integer expression.

Return Value

`linelimit` does not return any values.

Comments

`linelimit` terminates program execution if more than *n* lines are written to file *f*. If *n* is less than zero, no limit is imposed.

`linelimit` has no effect unless you compile your program with the `-C` option.

Example

The Pascal program,
linelimit.p

```
program linelimit_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  linelimit procedure. }

const
  FILE = 'linelimit.dat';

var
  infile: text;
  error: integer32;
  name: array [1..20] of char;

begin
  open(infile, FILE, 'unknown', error);
  rewrite(infile, FILE);
  if error = 0 then begin
    writeln('Enter the names of your children. ');
    writeln('The last entry should be "0". ');
    repeat
      readln(name);
      writeln(infile, name);
      linelimit(infile, 10)
    until name = '0';
    close(infile)
  end else begin
    writeln('Difficulty opening file. ');
    writeln('Error code = ', error, '. ');
  end
end. { linelimit_example }
```

≡ 6

The commands to compile and execute `linelimit.p`

```
hostname% pc -C linelimit.p
hostname% a.out
Enter the names of your children.
The last entry should be "0".
Ryan
Matthew
Jennifer
Lynne
Lisa
Ann
Katherine
Devon
Geoffrey
Bria

linelimit.dat : Line limit exceeded
*** a.out terminated by signal 5: SIGTRAP
*** Traceback being written to a.out.trace
Abort (core dumped)
```

lnot

The `lnot` function returns the bitwise not of an integer value.

Syntax

```
lnot(int)
```

Arguments

int is an integer expression.

Return Value

`lnot` returns an integer value.

Comments

`lnot` performs a bit-by-bit not operation, as shown in Table 6-12.

Table 6-12 `lnot` Truth

Value of Bit in <i>int</i>	Value of Bit in <i>result</i>
0	1
1	0

`lnot` produces the same results as the bitwise operator `~`. Do not confuse `lnot` with the boolean operator `not`, which evaluates the logical not of a boolean expression.

Example

See the example under `land` on page 139.

`lor`

The `lor` function returns the inclusive or of two integer values.

Syntax

```
lor(int1, int2)
```

Argument

int1 and *int2* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`lor` returns an integer value.

Comments

`lor` performs an inclusive `or`, as shown in Table 6-13.

Table 6-13 `lor` Truth

Value of Bit in <i>int1</i>	Value of Bit in <i>int2</i>	Value of Bit in <i>result</i>
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

If *int1* and *int2* are different size integers, Pascal converts the smaller integer to the larger integer before it performs the `lor` operation.

`lor` produces the same results as the bitwise operators `!` and `|`. Do not confuse `lor` with the boolean operator `or`, which evaluates the logical `or` of a boolean expression.

Example

See the example under `land` on page 139.

`lshft`

The `lshft` function does a logical left shift of an integer value.

Syntax

`lshft(num, sh)`

Argument

num and *sh* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`lshft` returns a 32-bit integer value.

Comments

`lshft` shifts all bits in *num sh* places to the left. `lshft` does not wrap bits from the left to right. The value `lshft` returns is machine-dependent and is unspecified unless $0 \leq sh \leq 32$.

Do not confuse `lshft` with the arithmetic left shift functions which preserve the sign bit.

The Pascal program, `lshft.p`

```
program lshft_example(input, output);

{ This program does a logical left shift. }

const
    SIZE = 8;

var
    i: integer32;
    i32: integer32;
    loop: integer32;

begin
    write('Enter a positive or negative integer: ');
    readln(i);
    for loop := 1 to SIZE do begin
        i32 := lshft(i, loop);
        write('Logical left shift ', loop: 2);
        writeln(' bit(s): ', i32 hex)
    end
end. { lshft_example }
```

≡ 6

The commands to compile and execute `lshft.p`. The value the bit-shift routines return may depend upon the architecture of your system.

```
hostname% pc lshft.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a positive or negative integer: 3
Logical left shift 1 bit(s): 6
Logical left shift 2 bit(s): C
Logical left shift 3 bit(s): 18
Logical left shift 4 bit(s): 30
Logical left shift 5 bit(s): 60
Logical left shift 6 bit(s): C0
Logical left shift 7 bit(s): 180
Logical left shift 8 bit(s): 300
```

`lsl`

The `lsl` function is identical to the `lshft` function. See the `lshft` listing on page 148.

`lsr`

The `lsr` function is identical to the `rshft` function. See the `rshft` listing on page 168.

`max`

The `max` function evaluates two scalar expressions and returns the larger one.

Syntax

`max(exp1, exp2)`

Arguments

exp1 and *exp2* are any valid scalar expressions that are assignment-compatible.

Return Value

`max` returns the same or the converted type of *exp1* and *exp2*.

See also the min listing on page 153.

Example

The Pascal program, `max.p`

```
program max_example(input, output);

{ This program reads in 10 positive integers
  in the range 1 through 501 and determines
  the largest even and smallest odd. Out of range numbers
  are rejected. }

var
  smallest_odd: integer := 501;
  largest_even: integer := 0;
  number, counter: integer;

begin
  writeln('Please enter 10 integers between 0 and 501:');
  for counter := 1 to 10 do begin
    read(number);
    if (number < 0) or (number > 501)
      then writeln ('The number is out of range ')
      else if odd(number)
          then smallest_odd := min(number, smallest_odd)
          else
              largest_even := max(number, largest_even)
    end;
    writeln('The smallest odd number is ', smallest_odd:1, '.');
    writeln('The largest even number is ', largest_even:1, '.')
  end. { max_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `max.p`

```
hostname% pc max.p
hostname% a.out
Please enter 10 integers between 0 and 501:
56 431 23 88 222 67 131 337 401 99
The smallest odd number is 23.
The largest even number is 222.
```

message

The `message` procedure writes the specified information on `stderr` (usually the terminal).

Syntax

```
message(x1, ..., xN)
```

Arguments

x is one or more expressions separated by commas. *x* can be a variable, constant, or expression of a type that `write` accepts (such as integer, real, character, boolean, enumerated, or string). *x* cannot be a set variable.

Return Value

`message` does not return any values.

Comments

`message` is an output procedure similar to `write` and `writeln`. Whereas `write` and `writeln` send the output to standard output or the specified file, `message` sends the output to standard error. `message` also appends a carriage return to the message.

`message` flushes all buffers both before and after writing the message.

`message(x1, ..., xN)` is equivalent to the following code:

```
writeln(errout, x1, ..., xN);
flush(errout);
flush(output);
.
.
{ Flush all open files. }
```

Example

The Pascal program,
message.p

```
program message_example(output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the use of the  
  message function. }  
  
begin  
    writeln('This message will go to standard output.');
```

```
    message('This message will go to standard error.')
```

```
end. { message_example }
```

The commands to compile and
execute message.p

```
hostname% pc message.p  
hostname% a.out > temp_file  
This message will go to standard error.  
hostname% cat temp_file  
This message will go to standard output.  
hostname% a.out >& temp_file  
hostname% cat temp_file  
This message will go to standard output.  
This message will go to standard error.
```

`min`

The `min` function evaluates two scalar expressions and returns the smaller one.

Syntax

```
min(exp1, exp2)
```

Arguments

exp1 and *exp2* are any valid scalar expressions that are assignment-compatible.

Return Value

`min` returns the same or the converted type of `exp1` and `exp2`.

Comments

See also the `max` listing on page 150.

Example

See the example under the `max` listing on page 150.

`null`

The `null` procedure performs no operation.

Syntax

```
null
```

Arguments

`null` does not take any arguments.

Return Value

`null` does not return any values.

Comments

`null` does absolutely nothing; it is useful as a placeholder. For example, suppose you are developing a program, and you are uncertain about a particular `case` statement, you could put `null` in place of the `case` statement, then replace it later with an actual function or procedure.

open

The `open` procedure associates an external file with a file variable.

Syntax

```
open(file, pathname, history, error, buffer)
```

Arguments

`open` takes the following arguments:

- *file* is a variable having the `text` or `file` data type.
- *pathname* is a string constant or string variable.
- *history* is a string variable.
- *error* is an `integer32` variable. This argument is optional.
- *buffer* is an optional integer variable. This argument is currently ignored.

Return Value

`open` does not return any values.

Comments

`open` associates the permanent file *file* with a file variable for reading or writing. `open` does *not* actually open the file; you must call `reset` or `rewrite` before reading or writing to that file.

pathname must be one of the following:

- An operating system path name.
- A string of `'^n'`, where *n* is an integer from 1 to 9. *n* represents the *n*th argument passed to the program. `^n` is equivalent to `argv(n, file)`.
- A prompt string. The string must begin with the character `'*`. Pascal prints the prompt string on the standard output at runtime.
- The string `'-STDIN'` or `'-STDOUT.'`
- A variable or constant that contains any of the above items.

history instructs the compiler whether to create the file or what to do with it if it exists. *history* must be one of these values:

'new'	Associates the operating system file with a new file. The compiler generates an error if the file already exists.
'old'	Associates the operating system file with an existing file. The compiler generates an error if the file does not exist. This option first tries to open the file for writing. Failing to do so, it tries to open it for reading only.
'unknown'	Searches for an existing file and associate it with the operating system file. The compiler creates the file if it does not exist.

Pascal returns an integer error code through *error*, as shown in Table 6-14.

Table 6-14 open Error Codes

Number	Description
0	open is successful.
1	File not specified on the command-line. For example, this error is generated for the following line when argument one is not specified: <code>open(infile, '^1', 'new', Error);</code>
2	Unable to open file.
3	Invalid <i>history</i> specified. <i>history</i> must be either 'new', 'old', or 'unknown'.

Pascal automatically closes all open files when your program terminates or when the program exits the scope in which the file variable for the open file is allocated. See also the `close`, `reset`, and `rewrite` procedures on page 117, page 164, and page 165, respectively.

The Pascal program, open.p

```
program open_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the open procedure. }

const
  name_of_file = 'open1.txt';
  file3 = '*Enter_a_filename-- ';

type
  char_array = varying [50] of char;

var
  infile: text;
  error: integer32;
  name: char_array;

begin
  { Open an existing file. }
  open(infile, name_of_file, 'old', error);
  if error = 0 then begin
    writeln('Opened ', name_of_file, ' for reading. ');
    close(infile)
  end else
    writeln('Error opening file', name_of_file, error);

  { Open a file specified by a command line argument. }
  open(infile, '^1', 'unknown', error);
  if error = 0 then begin
    argv(1, name);
    writeln('Opened ', name, ' for reading. ');
    close(infile)
  end else
    writeln('No command line argument; error code =', error);

  { Open a file that may or may not exist. }
  { Prompt user for name of file at runtime. }
  open(infile, file3, 'unknown', error);
  if error = 0 then begin
    writeln('Opened file for reading. ');
    close(infile)
  end else
    writeln('Error opening file', error)
end. { open_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `open.p`

```
hostname% pc open.p
hostname% a.out
Opened open1.txt for reading.
No command line argument; error code =      1
Enter_a_filename-- test.txt
Opened file for reading.
```

pcexit

The `pcexit` function:

- Checks whether any imposed statement count has been exceeded.
- Calls the `ieee_retrospective ()` routine. See the Solaris documentation for details.
- Terminates the program with the specified return value (similar to the C `exit()` function).

Syntax

`pcexit(x)`

Arguments

`x` is an integer variable or constant.

Return Value

`pcexit` does not return any values.

Comments

The C function `exit(3C)` calls any functions registered through the `atexit(3C)` function in the reverse order of their registration.

random

The random function generates a random number between 0.0 and 1.0.

Syntax

```
random(x)
```

Arguments

x has no significance and is ignored.

Return Value

random returns a real value.

Comments

random generates the same sequence of numbers each time you run the program. See the seed function on page 170 to reseed the number generator.

Example

The Pascal program, `random.p`

```
program random_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of
  the random function. }

var
  i: integer;
  x: integer;

begin
  writeln('These numbers were generated at random:');
  for i := 1 to 5 do begin
    write(trunc(random(x) * 101))
  end;
  writeln
end. { random_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `random.p`

```
hostname% pc random.p
hostname% a.out
These numbers were generated at random:
  97   6   48   91   35
```

read *and* readln

Pascal supports the standard form of `read` and `readln` with three extensions:

- Read in `boolean` variables.
- Read in fixed- and variable-length strings.
- Read in enumerated type values from a text file.

Syntax

```
read(file, var1 ..., varN);
```

```
readln(file, var1 ..., varN);
```

Arguments

file is an optional variable having either the `text` or `file` data type.

var can be any `real`, `integer`, `character`, `boolean`, `subrange`, `enumerated`, or `array` variable or a `fixed-` or `variable-length` string variable. If `read` or `readln` is used in a function to define the function result, *var* can also be an identifier of that function.

Return Value

`read` and `readln` do not return any values.

Comments

If *var* is a variable-length string, `read` and `readln` try to read in as many characters as indicated by the current length, up to the first newline character. `read` and `readln` do not pad the string with blanks if the length of the string is less than the current length.

With both variable- and fixed-length strings, if the number of characters on a line is more than the maximum length of the string, the next `read` picks up where the last `read` left off. With `readln`, the rest of the line is discarded, so the next `read` or `readln` begins at the next line.

If *var* is an enumerated type, `read` and `readln` attempt to read a value that is included in the type definition. If the value is not in the type definition, the compiler terminates program execution and prints the following error message:

```
Unknown name "value" found on enumerated type read
Trace/BPT trap (core dumped)
```

You can trap this error with the I/O error recovery mechanism, described in “I/O Error Recovery” on page 204. Using `read` or `readln` in the block of a function in the form:

```
read (... , f , ...)
```

is treated as if it were an assignment of the form:

```
f := e
```

where e is the input value. This feature is an extension of the Pascal Standard, and so cannot be used with the `-s` option.

Example

The Pascal program, `read.p`

```

program read_example(input, output);

{ This program uses readln to input strings,
  boolean data, and enumerated data. }

type
  gem_cuts = (marquis, emerald, round, pear_shaped);

var
  x: gem_cuts;
  gem: varying [10] of char;
  gift: boolean;

begin
  write('Enter type of gem: ');
  readln(gem);
  write('Enter cut: ');
  write('marquis, emerald, round, pear_shaped: ');
  readln(x);
  write('Enter true if this a gift, false if it is not: ');
  readln(gift);
  write('You have selected a ', gem);
  writeln(' with a ', x, ' cut. ');
  if gift then
    writeln('We will gift wrap your purchase for you. ')
end. { read_example }

```

The commands to compile and execute `read.p`

```

hostname% pc read.p
hostname% a.out
Enter type of gem: diamond
Enter cut: marquis, emerald, round, pear_shaped: pear_shaped
Enter true if this a gift, false if it is not: true
You have selected a diamond with a pear_shaped cut.
We will gift wrap your purchase for you.

```

`remove`

The `remove` procedure removes the specified file.

Syntax

```
remove(file)
```

Arguments

file is either a fixed- or variable-length string that indicates the name of the file to be removed. *file* cannot be a `text` or `file` variable.

Return Value

`remove` does not return any values.

Comments

Pascal generates an I/O error if the file does not exist. You can trap this error with the I/O error recovery mechanism, described in “I/O Error Recovery” on page 204.

Example

The Pascal program, `remove.p`

```
program remove_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  remove procedure. }

var
  name: varying [10] of char;

begin
  if argc <> 2 then
    writeln('Usage is : rm <file>')
  else begin
    argv(1, name);
    remove(name)
  end
end. { remove_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `remove.p`

```
hostname% pc remove.p
hostname% touch rmc
hostname% ls rmc
rmc
hostname% a.out rmc
hostname% ls rmc
rmc not found
```

reset

Pascal supports an optional second argument to the `reset` procedure. This argument gives an operating system file name.

Syntax

```
reset(file, filename)
```

Arguments

file is a variable having the `text` or `file` data type.

filename is a fixed- or variable-length string, or a string constant.

Return Value

`reset` does not return any values.

Comments

`reset` gives you permission to read from the file, but not to write to the file.

In standard Pascal, `reset` takes only one argument, a file variable. In Pascal, `reset` can take an optional second argument, an operating system file name. If you give the optional file name, the compiler opens the file with that name on the current path and associates it with the given file variable.

For example, this code associates the Pascal file `data` with the operating system file `primes`:

```
reset(data, 'primes');
```

`reset` does an implicit close on the file, hence you can reuse its file variable with a different file. Similarly, if `input` or `output` is reset, the current implementation of the product also implicitly closes `stdin` and `stdout`.

`reset` normally generates an error and halts if the file specified in the two argument form does not exist. You can trap this error with the I/O error recovery mechanism, described in “I/O Error Recovery” on page 204.

See also `rewrite` on page 165, which opens a file for writing.

Example

See the example in the `rewrite` listing that follows.

```
rewrite
```

Pascal supports an optional second argument to the `rewrite` procedure. This argument gives an operating system file name.

Syntax

```
rewrite(file, filename)
```

Arguments

file is a variable having the `text` or `file` data type.

filename is a fixed- or variable-length string, or a string constant.

Return Value

`rewrite` does not return any values.

Comments

`rewrite` gives you permission to modify a file.

- In standard Pascal, `rewrite` takes only one argument—a file variable.
- In Pascal, `rewrite` can take an optional second argument, an operating system file name.

In Pascal, if you give the optional file name, the compiler opens the file with that name on the current path and associates it with the given file variable. For example, this code associates the Pascal file `data` with the operating system file `primes`:

```
rewrite(data, 'primes');
```

If you do not give an optional second argument, Pascal creates a physical operating system file for you. This file has the same name as the file variable *if* the file variable is listed in the program header. If the file variable is *not* listed in the program header, Pascal creates a temporary file with the name `#tmp.suffix`. The temporary file is deleted when the program terminates.

If the file variable is `output`, and the second argument is not given, Pascal creates a temporary file, but does not delete it after the program exits.

`rewrite` does an implicit close on the file, thus you can reuse its file variable with a different file.

See also `reset` on page 164, which opens a file for reading.

Example

The Pascal program, `rewrite.p`

```
program rewrite_example(input, output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of rewrite
  and reset.}

const
  MAX = 80;

var
  f: text;
  line: varying [MAX] of char;

begin
  rewrite(f, 'poem.txt');
  write('Enter a line of text. ');
  writeln(' Hit Control-D to end the job. ');
  while not eof do begin
    readln(line);
    writeln(f, line)
  end;
  close(f);
  writeln;
  writeln;
  writeln('These are the lines of text you input: ');
  reset(f, 'poem.txt');
  while not eof(f) do begin
    readln(f, line);
    writeln(line)
  end;
  close(f)
end. { rewrite_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `rewrite.p`

```
hostname% pc rewrite.p
hostname% a.out
Enter a line of text. Hit Control-D to end the job.
Hello, how are you?
Please keep in touch
^D

These are the lines of text you input:
Hello, how are you?
Please keep in touch.
```

rshft

The `rshft` function does a logical right shift of an integer value.

Syntax

```
rshft(num, sh)
```

Arguments

num and *sh* are integer expressions.

Return Value

`rshft` returns a 32-bit integer value.

Comments

`rshft` shifts the bits in *num* *sh* spaces to the right. `rshft` does not preserve the sign bit (leftmost) bit of a number and does not wrap bits from right to left. The value `rshft` returns is machine-dependent, and is unspecified unless $0 \leq sh \leq 32$. Do not confuse `rshft` with the arithmetic right shift functions `asr` and `arshft`, which preserve the sign bit.

The Pascal program, `rshft.p`

```
program rshft_example(input, output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the logical right shift. }  
  
const  
    SIZE = 8;  
  
var  
    i: integer32;  
    i32: integer32;  
    loop: integer32;  
  
begin  
    write('Enter a positive or negative integer: ');  
    readln(i);  
    for loop := 1 to SIZE do begin  
        i32 := rshft(i, loop);  
        write('Logical right shift ', loop: 2);  
        writeln(' bit(s): ', i32 hex)  
    end  
end. { rshft_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `rshft.p`. The value the bit-shift routines return may depend upon the architecture of your system.

```
hostname% pc rshft.p  
hostname% a.out  
Enter a positive or negative integer: 32  
Logical right shift 1 bit(s):    10  
Logical right shift 2 bit(s):    8  
Logical right shift 3 bit(s):    4  
Logical right shift 4 bit(s):    2  
Logical right shift 5 bit(s):    1  
Logical right shift 6 bit(s):    0  
Logical right shift 7 bit(s):    0  
Logical right shift 8 bit(s):    0
```

seed

The `seed` function reseeds the random number generator.

Syntax

```
seed(x)
```

Arguments

`x` is an integer value.

Return Value

`seed` returns an integer value.

Comments

`seed` sets the random number generator to `x` and returns the previous seed. If you do not reseed the random number generator, the `random` function returns the same sequence of random numbers each time you run the program. To produce a different random number (sequence each time the program is run), set the seed with the following statement:

```
x := seed(wallclock);
```

Example

See the example that follows.

The Pascal program, `seed.p`

```
program seed_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  seed function. }

var
  i: integer;
  x: integer;
begin
  x := seed(wallclock);
  writeln('These numbers were generated at random:');
  for i := 1 to 5 do begin
    write(trunc(random(i) * (i * 101)))
  end;
  writeln
end. { seed_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `seed.p`

```
hostname% pc seed.p
hostname% a.out
These numbers were generated at random:
  75  175  186  260  178
```

sizeof

`sizeof` returns the number of bytes the program uses to store a data object.

Syntax

```
sizeof(x, tag1, ... tagN)
```

Arguments

x is any predeclared or user-defined Pascal data type, a variable, a constant, or a string.

tag is a constant. This argument is optional.

Return Value

`sizeof` returns an integer value.

Comments

`sizeof` returns the number of bytes in the data object *x*. *tags* correspond to the fields in a variant record. *tags* are effectively ignored because Pascal allocates records according to the largest variant.

You cannot use `sizeof` to determine the size of a conformant array parameter because the array size is not known until runtime. The difference between the size of a constant string and that of a `varying` string variable to which the string is assigned. For example:

```
sizeof ('') = 0
```

However, if *S* is defined as follows:

```
var S: varying [12] of char;  
begin  
  S:='';
```

then `sizeof (S) = 16`. Moreover,

```
sizeof ('+') = 4
```

because the '+' string operator returns a `varying` string object.

Example

The Pascal program, sizeof.p

```
program sizeof_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  sizeof function. }

const
  MAX = 5;

type
  subB = false..true;
  sub1 = 0..7;
  sub2 = 0..127;
  sub3 = 0..255;
  color1 = (re, gree, blu, whit);
  color2 = (red, green, blue, white, orange, purple, black);
  rec_type =
    record
      i: integer;
      ar: array [1..MAX] of single;
      d: double
    end;

var
  b: boolean;
  c: char;
  f: text;
  i: integer;
  i16: integer16;
  i32: integer32;
  s: shortreal;
  r: real;
  l: longreal;
  rec: rec_type;
  u: univ_ptr;
```

sizeof.p Program (Screen 1 of 2)

```

begin
  writeln('The size of boolean is      ', sizeof(b), '.');
  writeln('The size of char is        ', sizeof(c), '.');
  writeln('The size of color1 is       ', sizeof(color1), '.');
  writeln('The size of color2 is       ', sizeof(color2), '.');
  writeln('The size of file is           ', sizeof(f), '.');
  writeln('The size of integer is          ', sizeof(i), '.');
  writeln('The size of integer16 is        ', sizeof(i16), '.');
  writeln('The size of integer32 is        ', sizeof(i32), '.');
  writeln('The size of longreal is         ', sizeof(l), '.');
  writeln('The size of shortreal is        ', sizeof(s), '.');
  writeln('The size of real is             ', sizeof(r), '.');
  writeln('The size of rec_type is         ', sizeof(rec_type), '.');
  writeln('The size of rec_type.ar         ', sizeof(rec.ar), '.');
  writeln('The size of subB                ', sizeof(subB), '.');
  writeln('The size of sub1 (8)            ', sizeof(sub1), '.');
  writeln('The size of sub2 (128)          ', sizeof(sub2), '.');
  writeln('The size of sub3 (256)          ', sizeof(sub3), '.');
  writeln('The size of univ_ptr            ', sizeof(u), '.');
end. { sizeof_example }

```

sizeof.p Program (Screen 2 of 2)

The commands to compile and execute `sizeof.p`. The value `sizeof` returns may depend upon the architecture of your system.

```
hostname% pc sizeof.p
hostname% a.out
The size of boolean is1.
The size of char is1.
The size of color1 is1.
The size of color2 is1.
The size of file is2089.
The size of integer is 4.
The size of integer16 is 2.
The size of integer32 is 4.
The size of longreal is 8.
The size of shortreal is 4.
The size of real is 8.
The size of rec_type is 32.
The size of rec_type.ar 20.
The size of subB 1.
The size of sub1 (8) 1.
The size of sub2 (128) 1.
The size of sub3 (256) 2.
The size of univ_ptr 4.
```

`stlimit`

The `stlimit` procedure terminates program execution if a specified number of statements have been executed in the current loop.

Syntax

```
stlimit(x)
```

Arguments

`x` is an integer value.

Return Value

`stlimit` does not return any values.

Comments

To use `stlimit`, you must include the following code in your source program:

```
{ $p+ }
```

When you call `stlimit`, it tests if x number of statements have been executed in the current loop. If the number of statements executed equals or exceeds x , `stlimit` stops the program, dumps core, and prints the following message:

```
Statement count limit of  $x$  exceeded  
Trace/BPT trap (core dumped)
```

If `stlimit` is used without a loop, it reports the number of statements executed and the CPU time utilized.

To check the statement limit after each statement, you can turn on runtime checks using the `-C` command-line option or the `C` or `t` program text options. When runtime checks are turned on and the compiler encounters a `stlimit` statement, the compiler inserts a statement limit check after each subsequent statement.

Example

The Pascal program,
`stlimit.p`

```
program stlimit_example;  
{ $p+ }  
  
{ This program demonstrates the use  
  of the stlimit procedure. }  
  
begin  
  repeat  
    writeln('Hello. ');  
    stlimit(10)  
  until false  
end. { stlimit_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `stlimit.p`

```
hostname% pc stlimit.p
hostname% a.out
Hello.
Hello.
Hello.
Hello.

Statement count limit of 11 exceeded
Trace/BPT trap (core dumped)
```

substr

The `substr` function takes a substring from a string.

Syntax

```
substr(str, p, n)
```

Arguments

str is a variable-length string, a character array, or a character-string constant.

p is a positive integer.

n is and must be a positive integer.

Return Value

`substr` returns a variable-length string.

Comments

`substr` returns a substring beginning at position *p* and continuing for *n* characters. If the values of either *p* or *n* indicate a character outside the bounds of the string size, Pascal returns a null string.

Example

The Pascal program, `substr.p`

```
program substr_example(output);  
  
{ This program demonstrates the use of the  
  substr function. }  
  
var  
  string1: array [1..15] of char;  
  string2: varying [25] of char;  
  
begin  
  string1 := 'Paris, Texas';  
  string2 := 'Versailles, France';  
  write(substr(string1, 1, 6));  
  writeln(substr(string2, 12, 7))  
end. { substr_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `substr.p`

```
hostname% pc substr.p  
hostname% a.out  
Paris, France
```

`sysclock`

The `sysclock` function returns the system time consumed by the process.

Syntax

`sysclock`

Arguments

`sysclock` does not take any arguments.

Return Value

`sysclock` returns an integer value.

Comments

`sysclock` returns the system time in milliseconds. See also the `clock` function on page 115, which returns the user time the process consumes.

Example

See the example in the `clock` listing earlier in this chapter.

`time`

The `time` procedure retrieves the current time.

Syntax

```
time(a)
```

Arguments

`a` is either a character array 10 elements long or a variable-length string.

Return Value

`time` returns a character string in the form `hh:mm:ss`, where `hh` is the hour (0 through 23), `mm` is minutes (0 through 59), and `ss` is seconds (0 through 59).

Comments

`time` uses a 24-hour clock; 8:00 p.m., for example, is shown as 20:00:00. `time` puts a zero in front of the hours, minutes, and seconds to make them have two digits. `time` also puts a blank at the beginning and end of the string.

Example

The Pascal program, `time.p`

```
program time_example(output);  
  
{ This program retrieves the current time. }  
  
var  
  s1: alfa;  
  s2: array [1..10] of char;  
  s3: array [89..98] of char;  
  s4: varying [100] of char;  
  
begin  
  time(s1);  
  time(s2);  
  time(s3);  
  time(s4);  
  writeln('The time is ', s1, '.');  
  writeln('The time is ', s2, '.');  
  writeln('The time is ', s3, '.');  
  writeln('The time is ', s4, '.');  
end. { time_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `time.p`

```
hostname% pc time.p  
hostname% a.out  
The time is 15:40:17 .  
The time is 15:40:17 .  
The time is 15:40:17 .  
The time is 15:40:17 .
```

`trim`

The `trim` function removes the trailing blanks in a character string.

Syntax

`trim(input_string)`

Arguments

input_string is a constant string, a variable-length string, a character array, or a character.

Return Value

`trim` returns a variable-length string equal to the input string without any trailing blanks. If *input_string* is a null string or contains only blanks, `trim` returns a null string of length 0.

Comments

`trim` has no effect if its result value is assigned to a fixed-length character string variable. Fixed-length characters are always padded with blanks during assignments.

Example

The Pascal program, trim.p

```

program trim_example;

{ This program demonstrates the use of the trim function. }
const
    TEN = '          ';
    MAX = 10;
type
    large = varying [100] of char;
    s_type = array [1..MAX] of char;
    v_type = varying [MAX] of char;
var
    c1: char := ' ';
    st1: s_type := '123456   ';
    st2: s_type := '          ';
    st3: s_type := '0123456789';
    v1: v_type := '01234   ';
    v2: v_type := '          ';
    v3: v_type := '0123456789';
    l: large;

begin
    l := trim(st1) + trim(st2) + trim(st3) + trim(c1);
    writeln(l, length(l));
    l := substr(trim(st1) + trim(st2) + trim(st3), 3, 5);
    writeln(l, length(l));
    l := trim(v1) + trim(TEN) + trim(v2) + trim(v3) + trim(st1)
    + trim(st2) + trim(st3);
    writeln(l, length(l))
end. { trim_example }

```

The commands to compile and execute trim.p

```

hostname% pc trim.p
hostname% a.out
1234560123456789          16
34560                    5
0123401234567891234560123456789          31

```

Type Transfer

The type transfer function changes the data type of a variable, constant, or expression.

Syntax

```
transfer_function(x)
```

Arguments

transfer_function is a predeclared or user-defined Pascal data type.

x is a variable, constant, or expression.

Return Value

A type transfer function returns its argument unchanged in internal value, but with a different apparent type.

Comments

Suppose your program contains the following data type declarations:

```
var
  x: integer32;
  y: single;
```

To transfer the value of variable *x* to a floating-point number, you would write:

```
y := single(x);
```

When the argument of a type transfer function is a variable, the size of the argument must be the same as the size of the destination type. However, if the argument to a transfer function is a constant or an expression, Pascal attempts to convert the argument to the destination type because constants and expressions do not have explicit types.

The type transfer functions copy, but do *not* convert, a value. Do not confuse the type transfer functions with functions that actually convert the value of the variable, such as `ord`, `chr`, and `trunc`.

Example

The Pascal program, `type.p`

```
program type_transfer_example(output);  
  
{ This program uses transfer functions to  
  convert integer to character. }  
  
type  
  range = 65..90;  
  
var  
  i: range;  
  c: char;  
  
begin  
  for i := firstof(i) to lastof(i) do begin  
    write('The character value of ', i: 1);  
    writeln(' is ', char(i), '.')  
  end  
end. { type_transfer_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `type.p`

```
hostname% pc type.p
hostname% a.out
The character value of 65 is A.
The character value of 66 is B.
The character value of 67 is C.
The character value of 68 is D.
The character value of 69 is E.
The character value of 70 is F.
The character value of 71 is G.
The character value of 72 is H.
The character value of 73 is I.
The character value of 74 is J.
The character value of 75 is K.
The character value of 76 is L.
The character value of 77 is M.
The character value of 78 is N.
The character value of 79 is O.
The character value of 80 is P.
The character value of 81 is Q.
The character value of 82 is R.
The character value of 83 is S.
The character value of 84 is T.
The character value of 85 is U.
The character value of 86 is V.
The character value of 87 is W.
The character value of 88 is X.
The character value of 89 is Y.
The character value of 90 is Z.
```

wallclock

The `wallclock` function returns the elapsed number of seconds since 00:00:00 GMT January 1, 1970.

Syntax

```
wallclock
```

Arguments

`wallclock` does not take any arguments.

Return Value

`wallclock` returns an integer value.

Comments

`wallclock` can be used with the `seed` function to generate a random number. It can also be used to time programs or parts of programs.

Example

See the example that follows.

The Pascal program,
wallclock.p

```

program wallclock_example(output);

{ This program demonstrates the use of the
  wallclock function. }

const
  NTIMES = 20; { Number of times to compute Fib value. }
  NUMBER = 24; { Biggest one we can compute with 16 bits. }

var
  start: integer;
  finish: integer;
  i: integer;
  value: integer;

{ Compute fibonacci number recursively. }
function fib(number: integer): integer;

begin
  if number > 2 then
    fib := fib(number - 1) + fib(number - 2)
  else
    fib := 1
end; { fib }

begin { main program }
  writeln('Begin computing fibonacci series. ');
  write(NTIMES, ' Iterations: ');
  start := wallclock;
  for i := 1 to NTIMES do
    value := fib(NUMBER);
  finish := wallclock;
  writeln('Fibonacci(', NUMBER: 2, ') = ', value: 4, '. ');
  writeln('Elapsed time is ', finish - start: 3, ' seconds. ')
end. { wallclock_example }

```

The commands to compile and
execute wallclock.p

```

hostname% pc wallclock.p
hostname% a.out
Begin computing fibonacci series.
      20 Iterations: Fibonacci(24) = 46368.
Elapsed time is    5 seconds.

```

write *and* writeln

Pascal supports the standard form of `write` and `writeln` with the following extensions:

- Output enumerated type values to a text file.
- Write the internal representation of an expression in octal or hexadecimal.
- Specify a negative field width.

Syntax

```
write(file, exp1:width ..., expN:width)
```

```
writeln(file, exp1:width ..., expN:width)
```

Arguments

file is a variable having either the `text` or `file` data type. *file* is optional; it defaults to `output`.

exp is a variable, constant, or expression of type `integer`, `real`, `character`, `boolean`, `enumerated`, or `string`. *exp* cannot be a set variable.

width is an integer. *width* is optional.

Return Value

`write` and `writeln` do not return any values.

Comments

If *exp* is an enumerated type, `write` and `writeln` attempt to write a value that is included in the type definition. If the value is not in the type definition, the compiler terminates program execution and prints an error message.

To write the internal representation of an expression in octal, use this form:

```
write(x oct);
```

x is a `boolean`, `character`, `integer`, `pointer`, or user-defined type. It can also be a constant, expression, or variable.

To write an expression in hexadecimal, use this form:

```
write(x hex);
```

When you specify a negative field width of a parameter, Pascal truncates all trailing blanks in the array. `write` and `writeln` assume the default values in Table 6-15 if you do not specify a minimum field length.

Table 6-15 Default Field Widths

Data Type	Default Width Without <code>-xl</code> Option	Default Width With <code>-xl</code> Option
array of char	Declared length of the array	Declared length of the array
boolean	Length of true or false	15
char	1	1
double	21	21
enumerated	Length of type	15
hexadecimal	10	10
integer	10	10
integer16	10	10
integer32	10	10
longreal	21	21
octal	10	10
real	21	13
shortreal	13	13
single	13	13
string constant	Number of characters in string	Number of characters in string
variable-length string	Current length of the string	Current length of the string

Example

The Pascal program, `octal.p`

```
program octal_example(output);  
  
{ This program writes a number in octal  
  and hexadecimal format. }  
  
var  
  x: integer16;  
  
begin  
  write('Enter an integer: ');  
  readln(x);  
  writeln(x: 5, ' is ', x oct, ' in octal.');  writeln(x: 5, ' is ', x hex, ' in hexadecimal.')end. { octal_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `octal.p`

```
hostname% pc octal.p  
hostname% a.out  
Enter an integer: 10  
10 is      12 in octal.  
10 is      A in hexadecimal.
```

XOR

The `xor` function returns the exclusive or of two integer values.

Syntax

```
xor(int1, int2)
```

Arguments

`int1` and `int2` are integer expressions.

Return Value

`xor` returns an integer value.

Comments

Pascal uses Table 6-16 to return the bitwise exclusive or of *int1* and *int2*.

Table 6-16 `xor` Truth

Value of Bit in <i>int1</i>	Value of Bit in <i>int2</i>	Value of Bit in <i>result</i>
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

If *int1* and *int2* are different size integers, Pascal converts the smaller integer to the larger integer before it performs the `xor` operation.

`xor` is a bitwise operator similar to `&`, `!`, and `~`. Do not confuse it with the boolean operators, `and`, `or`, and `not`.

Example

See the example in the `land` listing on page 139.

Input and Output

This chapter describes the Pascal input and output environments, with emphasis on interactive programming. It contains the following sections:

<i>Input and Output Routines</i>	<i>page 193</i>
<i>eof and eoln Functions</i>	<i>page 194</i>
<i>More About eoln</i>	<i>page 198</i>
<i>External Files and Pascal File Variables</i>	<i>page 199</i>
<i>input, output, and errout Variables</i>	<i>page 201</i>
<i>Pascal I/O Library</i>	<i>page 202</i>
<i>Buffering of File Output</i>	<i>page 203</i>
<i>I/O Error Recovery</i>	<i>page 204</i>

Input and Output Routines

Pascal supports all standard input and output routines, plus the extensions listed in Table 7-1. For a complete description of the routines, refer to Chapter 6, “Built-In Procedures and Functions.”

Table 7-1 Extensions to Input/Output Routines

Routine	Description
close	Closes a file.
flush	Writes the output buffer for the specified Pascal file into the associated operating system file.
getfile	Returns a pointer to the C standard I/O descriptor associated with the specified Pascal file.
linelimit	Terminates program execution after a specified number of lines has been written into a text file.
message	Writes the specified information to <code>stderr</code> .
open	Associates an external file with a file variable.
read and readln	Read in <code>boolean</code> , integer and floating-point variables, fixed- and variable-length strings, enumerated types, and pointers.
remove	Removes the specified file.
reset and rewrite	Accepts an optional second argument.
write and writeln	Outputs <code>boolean</code> integer and floating-point variables, fixed- and variable-length strings, enumerated types, and pointers; output expressions in octal or hexadecimal; allows negative field widths.

eof and eoln Functions

A common problem encountered by new users of Pascal, especially in the interactive environment of the operating system, relates to `eof` and `eoln`. These functions are supposed to be defined at the beginning of execution of a Pascal program, indicating whether the input device is at the end of a line (`eoln`) or the end of a file (`eof`).

Setting `eof` or `eoln` actually corresponds to an implicit read in which the input is inspected, but not “used up.” In fact, the system cannot detect whether the input is at the end of a file or the end of a line unless it attempts to read a line from it.

If the input is from a previously created file, then this reading can take place without runtime action by you. However, if the input is from a terminal, then the input is what you type. If the system does an initial read automatically at the beginning of program execution, and if the input is a terminal, you must type some input before execution can begin. This makes it impossible for the program to begin by prompting for input.

Pascal has been designed so that an initial read is not necessary. At any given time, Pascal may or may not know whether the end-of-file and end-of-line conditions are `true`.

Thus, internally, these functions can have three values: `true`, `false`, and, “I don't know yet; if you ask me I'll have to find out.” All files remain in this last, indeterminate state until the program requires a value for `eof` or `eoln`, either explicitly or implicitly; for example, in a call to `read`. If you force Pascal to determine whether the input is at the end of the file or the end of the line, it must attempt to read from the input.

Consider the following example:

The Pascal program, `eof_example1.p`, which shows the improper use of the `eof` function

```
program eof_example1;
var
    i: integer;
begin
    while not eof do begin
        write('Number, please? ');
        read(i);
        writeln('That was a ', i: 2, '.');
        writeln
    end
end. { eof_example1 }
```

At first glance, this may appear to be a correct program for requesting, reading, and echoing numbers. However, the `while` loop asks whether `eof` is `true` before the request is printed. Thus, this system is forced to decide whether the input is at the end of the file. It gives no messages; it simply waits for the user to type a line, as follows:

The commands to compile and execute `eof_example1.p`

```
hostname% pc eof_example1.p
hostname% a.out
23
Number, please? That was a 23.

Number, please? ^D
standard input: Tried to read past end of file
a.out terminated by signal 5: SIGTRAP
Traceback being written to a.out.trace
Abort (core dumped)
```

The following code avoids this problem by prompting before testing `eof`:

The Pascal program, `eof_example2.p`, which also shows the improper use of the `eof` function.

```
program eof_example2;

var
    i: integer;

begin
    write('Number, please? ');
    while not eof do begin
        read(i);
        writeln('That was a ', i: 2, '.');
        writeln;
        write('Number, please? ')
    end
end. { eof_example2 }
```

You must still type a line before the `while` test is completed, but the prompt asks for it. This example, however, is still not correct, because it is first necessary to know that there is an end-of-line character at the end of each line in a Pascal text file. Each time you test for the end of the file, `eof` finds the end-of-line character. Then, when `read` attempts to read a character, it skips past the end-of-line character, and finds the end of the file, which is illegal.

Thus, the modified code still results in the following error message at the end of a session:

The commands to compile and execute `eof_example2.p`

```
hostname% pc eof_example2.p
hostname% a.out
Number, please? 23
That was a 23.

Number, please? ^D
standard input: Tried to read past end of file
Traceback being written to a.out.trace
Abort (core dumped)
```

The simplest way to correct the problem in this example is to use the procedure `readln` instead of `read`. `readln` also reads the end-of-line character, and `eof` finds the end of the file:

The Pascal program, `eof_example3.p`, which shows the proper use of the `eof` function.

```
program eof_example3;
var
  i: integer;
begin
  write('Number, please? ');
  while not eof do begin
    readln(i);
    writeln('That was a ', i, '.');
    writeln;
    write('Number, please? ')
  end
end. { eof_example3 }
```

The commands to compile and execute `eof_example3.p`

```
hostname% pc eof_example3.p
hostname% a.out
Number, please? 23
That was a 23.

Number, please? ^D
```

In general, unless you test the end-of-file condition both before and after calls to `read` or `readln`, there may be input that causes your program to attempt to read past the end-of-file.

More About `eoln`

To have a good understanding of when `eoln` is `true`, remember that in any file text, there is a special character indicating end-of-line. In effect, Pascal always reads one character ahead of the `read` command.

For instance, in response to `read(ch)`, Pascal sets `ch` to the current input character and gets the next input character. If the current input character is the last character of the line, then the next input character from the file is the newline character, the normal operating system line separator.

When the `read` routine gets the newline character, it replaces that character by a blank (causing every line to end with a blank) and sets `eoln` to `true`. `eoln` is `true` as soon as you read the last character of the line and before you read the blank character corresponding to the end of line. Thus, it is almost always a mistake to write a program that deals with input in the following way:

This code shows the improper use of the `eoln` function.

```
read(ch);
if eoln then
    Done with line
else
    Normal processing
```

This program almost always has the effect of ignoring the last character in the line. The `read(ch)` belongs as part of the normal processing. In Pascal terms, `read(ch)` corresponds to `ch := input^; get(input)`.

This code shows the proper use of `eoln`.

```
read(ch);
if eoln then
    Done with line
else begin
    read(ch);
    Normal processing
end
```

Given this framework, the function of a `readln` call is defined as follows:

```
while not eoln do
  get(input);
get(input);
```

This code advances the file until the blank corresponding to the end of line is the current input symbol and then discards this blank. The next character available from `read` is the first character of the next line, if one exists.

External Files and Pascal File Variables

In Pascal, most input and output routines have an argument that is a file variable. This system associates these variables with either a permanent or temporary file at compile time.

Permanent Files

Table 7-2 shows how to associate a Pascal file variable with a permanent file.

Table 7-2 Pascal File Variable with a Permanent File

Association	Description
With the <code>open</code> function	<code>open</code> associates a permanent file with a file variable for reading or writing. <code>open</code> can also determine if a file actually exists.
With the <code>reset</code> and <code>rewrite</code> functions	In Pascal, <code>reset</code> and <code>rewrite</code> take an optional second argument, a file name. If you specify the file name, the compiler opens the file and associates it with the given file variable. Any previous file associated with the file variable is lost.
With the program header	If you call <code>reset</code> or <code>rewrite</code> with a file variable <code>f1</code> , which is bound to a file variable declared <code>f2</code> in the program header and do not specify the file name, Pascal opens a file with the same name as the variable <code>f2</code> . <code>reset</code> gives a runtime error if the file does not exist. <code>rewrite</code> creates the file if it does not exist.

Temporary Files

Table 7-3 shows how to associate a Pascal file variable with a temporary file.

Table 7-3 Pascal File Variable with a Temporary File

Association	Description
With the procedure: <code>rewrite(file_variable)</code>	<code>file_variable</code> must <i>not</i> be declared in the program statement. This procedure creates a temporary file called <code>#tmp.suffix</code> , where <code>suffix</code> is unique to that temporary file. When the program exits or leaves the scope in which <code>file_variable</code> is declared, the file is deleted.
With the procedure: <code>rewrite(output)</code>	The procedure creates the temporary file called <code>#tmp.suffix</code> , where <code>suffix</code> is unique to that temporary file. This file is not deleted after program execution.

input, output, *and* errout *Variables*

The `input`, `output`, and `errout` variables are special predefined file variables.

- `input` is equivalent to the operating system standard input file, `stdin`.
- `output` is equivalent to the operating system standard output file, `stdout`.
- `errout` is equivalent to the operating system standard error file, `stderr`.

Properties of input, output, *and* errout *Variables*

The `input`, `output`, and `errout` variables are of the type `text` and have the following special properties:

- `input`, `output`, and `errout` are optional in the program header.
- You can redirect `input`, `output`, and `errout` to files or pipe them to other programs.
- You can redefine `input`, `output`, and `errout`.
- You do not have to name `input` and `output` as explicit arguments to the `read`, `readln`, `write`, and `writeln` procedures.
- In the initial state of `input`, `eoln` is `true` and `eof` is `false`. `input`[↑] is not initially defined when it is associated with `stdin` until the first `read` or `readln`. For `output`, `eoln` is initially undefined, and `eof` is `true`.

Associating input *with a File Other Than* `stdin`

To associate `input` with a file other than `stdin`, call `reset(input, filename)`. Pascal opens `filename` and associates it with `input`. `read` and `readln` read from that file. For example, this line opens the file `some/existing/file` and associates it with `input`:

```
reset(input, 'some/existing/file');
```

You must supply a file name for the association to work.

Associating output with a File Other Than stdout

To associate output with a file other than stdout, call `rewrite(output, filename)`. Pascal opens *filename* and associates it with output. For example, this line associates `/home/willow/test` with output:

```
rewrite(output, '/home/willow/test');
```

Now, whenever you direct `write` or `writeln` to output, the output is sent to `/home/willow/test`. This includes the default case, when you write without giving a file variable.

If you call `rewrite` on output and you haven't associated output with an external file, the program creates a file with a name of the form `#tmp.suffix`, where *suffix* is unique to that file. Pascal does not delete this file after the program exits.

Associating errout with a File Other Than stderr

To associate `errout` with a file other than `stderr`, call:

```
rewrite (errout, '/some/new/file');
```

Subsequently, whenever you direct `write` or `writeln` to `errout`, the output is sent to `/some/new/file`. You obtain the same results when you write a string to `errout` implicitly, using the `message` function. See “message” on page 152 for details.

Pascal I/O Library

Each file variable in Pascal is associated with a data structure. The data structure defines the physical Solaris 2.x operating system file with which the variable is associated. It also contains flags that indicate whether the file variable is in an `eoln` or `eof` state.

The data structure also includes the buffer. The buffer normally contains a single component that is the same type as the type of the file. For example, a file of `char` has one character buffer, and a file of `integer` has one integer buffer.

Buffering of File Output

It is extremely inefficient for Pascal to send each character to a terminal as it generates it for output. It is even less efficient if the output is the input of another program, such as the line printer daemon, `lpr(1)`.

To gain efficiency, Pascal buffers output characters; it saves the characters in memory until the buffer is full and then outputs the entire buffer in one system interaction.

For interactive prompting to work, Pascal must print the prompt before waiting for the response. For this reason, Pascal normally prints all the output that has been generated for output whenever one of the following conditions occurs:

- The program calls a `writeln`.
- The program reads from the terminal.
- The program calls either the `message` or `flush` procedure.

In the following code sequence, the output integer does not print until the `writeln` occurs:

```
for i := 1 to 5 do begin
    write(i);
    Compute a lot with no output
end;
writeln;
```

Pascal performs line buffering by default. To change the default, you can compile your program with `-b` option. When you specify the `-b` option on the command-line, the compiler turns on block-buffering with a block size of 1,024. You can specify this option in a program comment using one of these formats:

<code>{ \$b0 }</code>	No buffering.
<code>{ \$b1 }</code>	Line buffering. This is the default.
<code>{ \$b2 }</code>	Block buffering. The block size is 1,024. Any number greater than 2, for example, <code>{ \$b5 }</code> , is treated as <code>{ \$b2 }</code> .

This option only has an effect in the main program. The value of the option in effect at the `end` statement of the main program is used for the entire program.

I/O Error Recovery

When an I/O routine encounters an error, it normally does the following:

1. Generates an error message.
2. Flushes its buffers.
3. Terminates with a SIGTRAP.

Although you can set up a signal handler to trap this signal, you cannot determine which routine called the signal or the reason it was called.

With Pascal, you can set I/O trap handlers dynamically in your program. The handler is a user-defined Pascal function.

When an I/O error occurs, Pascal runtime library checks if there is a current active I/O handler. If one does not exist, Pascal prints an error message, invokes a SIGTRAP signal, and terminates.

If a handler is present, the handler is passed the values `err_code` and `filep` as in parameters. The parameter `err_code` is bound to the error value that caused the I/O routine to fail. The parameter `filep` is bound to the I/O descriptor that `getfile` returned for the file in which the error occurred. If `filep` equals `nil`, no file was associated with the file variable when the error occurred.

The handler returns a `boolean` value. If the value is `false`, the program terminates. If the value is `true`, program execution continues with the statement immediately following the I/O routine that called the trap. The results of the I/O call remain undefined.

You can set the handler to `nil` to return it to its default state.

The scope of the active handler is determined dynamically. Pascal has restrictions as to the lexical scoping when you declare the handler. The compiler assumes that the handler is a function declared at the outermost level. Providing a nested function as the handler may cause unexpected results. The compiler issues a warning if it attempts to take the address of a nested procedure.

To set an I/O trap handler, you must include the file `ioerr.h` in your Pascal source file. `ioerr.h` consists of an enumeration type of all possible I/O error values, a type declaration of an `io_handler` procedure pointer type, and an external declaration of the `set_io_handler` routine.

This file resides in different directories for Solaris 1.x and Solaris 2.x:

```
Solaris 1.x  /usr/lang/SC3.0.1/include/pascal
Solaris 2.x  /opt/SUNWspro/SC3.0.1/include/pascal
```

If the compiler is installed in a non-default location, change `/usr/lang` or `/opt/SUNWspro` to the location where the compiler is installed.

The include file, ioerr.h

```

/* Copyright 1989 Sun Microsystems, Inc. */

type
  IOerror_codes = (
    IOerr_no_error,
    IOerr_eoln_undefined,
    IOerr_read_open_for_writing,
    IOerr_write_open_for_reading,
    IOerr_bad_data_enum_read,
    IOerr_bad_data_integer_read,
    IOerr_bad_data_real_read,
    IOerr_bad_data_string_read,
    IOerr_bad_data_varying_read,
    IOerr_close_file,
    IOerr_close_null_file,
    IOerr_open_null_file,
    IOerr_create_file,
    IOerr_open_file,
    IOerr_remove_file,
    IOerr_reset_file,
    IOerr_seek_file,
    IOerr_write_file,
    IOerr_file_name_too_long,
    IOerr_file_table_overflow,
    IOerr_line_limit_exceeded,
    IOerr_overflow_integer_read,
    IOerr_inactive_file,
    IOerr_read_past_eof,
    IOerr_non_positive_format
  );

io_handler = ^function( in err_code : IOerror_codes;
  in fileptr : univ_ptr ) :
  boolean;

procedure set_ioerr_handler(handler : io_handler); extern c;

```

The following program illustrates how to set an I/O trap routine.

The Pascal program `ioerr.p`, which defines the I/O trap routine, `test_handler`. This routine is called each time a runtime error occurs during an I/O operation. The `#include` statement includes `ioerr.h` in the program.

```
{ $w- }
program ioerr_example(output);
{ This program sets and uses an I/O trap routine. }

#include "ioerr.h"
const
    NAME = 'rmc.dat';

var
    f: text;
    IO_ERROR: IOerror_codes;
    str: array [1..10] of char := 'Testing';

function test_handler(in code: IOerror_codes;
                    in fileptr: univ_ptr): boolean;

begin
    if code = IO_ERROR then begin
        writeln('ERROR HANDLER ', code);
        test_handler := true
    end else
        test_handler := false
end; { test_handler }

begin { main program }
    set_ioerr_handler(addr(test_handler));
    { Write to an unopened file. }
    IO_ERROR := IOerr_inactive_file;
    write(f, 'This file is not open. ');
    { Read a file open for writing. }
    rewrite(f, NAME);
    IO_ERROR := IOerr_read_open_for_writing;
    readln(f, str);
    remove(NAME);
    { Remove a nonexistent file. }
    IO_ERROR := IOerr_remove_file;
    remove('nonexistent.dat')
end. { ioerr_example }
```

The commands to compile and execute `ioerr.p`. When you use an I/O error recovery routine, you should compile your program with the `-C` option.

```
hostname% pc -C ioerr.p
hostname% a.out
ERROR HANDLER IOerr_inactive_file
ERROR HANDLER IOerr_read_open_for_writing
ERROR HANDLER IOerr_remove_file
```

Overview of Pascal Extensions



This Appendix gives an overview of the Pascal extensions to ISO/ANSI standard Pascal.

Lexical Elements

Pascal supports the following extensions to the lexical elements of standard Pascal:

- Uppercase- and lowercase-sensitive
- The special symbols `~`, `&`, `|`, `!`, `#`, and `%`
- The reserved words `external`, `otherwise`, `private`, `public`, and `univ`
- The reserved words `define`, `extern`, `module`, and `static`
- The identifiers in Table A-1
- An underscore (`_`) and `dollar_sign($)` in identifier names
- The comment delimiters `/* */` in addition to the standard `(* *)` and `{ }`
- The comment delimiters `" "`

Table A-1 Nonstandard Identifiers

Nonstandard Identifiers				
FALSE	clock	in_range	lshft	pack
TRUE	close	index	lsl	random
addr	date	integer16	lsr	remove
alfa	discard	integer32	max	return
argc	double	intset	maxchar	rshft
argv	exit	land	message	seed
arshft	expo	lastof	min	shortreal
asl	firstof	length	minchar	single
asr	flush	linelimit	minint	sizeof
assert	getfile	lnot	next	substr
bell	getenv	longreal	null	trim
card	halt	lor	open	univ_ptr

Data Types

Pascal supports the following extensions to the standard Pascal data types:

- The real data types `shortreal` and `longreal`
- The real data types `single` and `double`
- A real constant without a digit after the decimal point
- The integer data types `integer16` and `integer32`
- An integer constant in another base
- Character constants `minchar`, `maxchar`, `bell`, and `tab`
- Fixed-length and variable-length character strings
- Array initialization using a default upper bound or a repeat count

- A set of type `intset`, which contains the elements 0 through 127
- A pointer type to procedures and functions
- A universal pointer type that holds a pointer to a variable of any data type

Statements

Pascal extends the standard definition of statements, as follows:

- The `and` `then` and `or` `else` operators in the `if` statement
- The `assert` statement
- The `otherwise` statement in a `case` statement
- Constant ranges in a `case` statement
- The `exit` statement in a `for`, `while`, or `repeat` loop
- The `next` statement in a `for`, `while`, or `repeat` loop
- An identifier as the target of a `goto` statement
- The `return` statement in a procedure or function
- An alternative format of the `with` statement

Assignments and Operators

Pascal supports the following extensions to standard Pascal operators:

- The bitwise operators `~`(not), `&`(and), `|`(or), and `!`(or)
- The `boolean` operators `and` `then` and `or` `else`
- The relational operators on sets
- The equality (`=`) and inequality (`<>`) (operators on records and arrays
- The concatenation operator, the plus sign (`+`), on any combination of fixed- and variable-length strings

Headings and Declarations

Pascal supplies the following extensions to the standard program heading and declarations:

- Identifiers as labels
- A constant equal to a set expression
- `public` and `private` variable declarations
- The `static`, `extern`, and `define` variable attributes
- `real`, `integer`, `boolean`, `character`, `set`, `record`, `array`, and `pointer` variable initialization in the `var` declaration
- The `define` declaration
- The `label`, `const`, `type`, `var`, and `define` declaration in any order and any number of times

Procedures and Functions

Pascal supports the following extensions to the standard Pascal definition of procedures and functions:

- `public` and `private` procedure and function declarations
- The `in`, `in out`, and `out` parameter types
- The `univ` keyword parameter type
- The `extern`, `external`, `internal`, `variable`, and `nonpascal` routine options

Built-In Routines

Pascal supports the following nonstandard built-in routines:

- The `addr` function, which returns the address of a specified variable
- The `argc` function, which returns the number of arguments passed to the program
- The `argv` procedure, which assigns the specified program argument to a string variable

-
- The `arshft` function, which does an arithmetic right shift of an integer
 - The `asl` function, which does an arithmetic left shift of an integer
 - The `asr` function, which is identical to `arshft`
 - The `card` function, which returns the cardinality of a set
 - The `clock` function, which returns the user time used by the process
 - The `close` procedure, which closes the specified file
 - The `date` procedure, which fetches the current date
 - The `discard` procedure, which explicitly discards the return value of a function
 - The `expo` function, which calculates the exponent of a specified variable
 - The `firstof` function, which returns the first possible value of a type or variable
 - The `flush` procedure, which writes the output buffered for the specified Pascal file into the associated operating system file
 - The `getenv` function, which returns the value associated with an environment name
 - The `getfile` function, which returns a pointer to the C standard I/O descriptor associated with the specified Pascal file
 - The `halt` procedure, which terminates program execution
 - The `index` function, which returns the position of the first occurrence of a string or character within another string
 - The `in_range` function, which determines whether a specified value is in the defined integer subrange
 - The `land` function, which returns the bitwise and of two integer values
 - The `lastof` function, which returns the last possible value of a type or variable
 - The `length` function, which returns the length of a string
 - The `linelimit` function, which terminates execution of a program after a specified number of lines have been written into a text file
 - The `lnot` function, which returns the bitwise not of an integer value

- The `lor` function, which returns the inclusive `or` of two integer values
- The `lshft` function, which does a logical left shift of an integer
- The `lsl` function, which is identical to `lshft`
- The `lsr` function, which is identical to `rshft`
- The `max` function, which returns the larger of two expressions
- The `message` procedure, which writes the specified information to `stderr`
- The `min` function, which returns the smaller of two expressions
- The `null` procedure, which performs no operation
- The `open` procedure, which associates an external file with a file variable
- The `random` function, which generates a random number between 0.0 and 1.0
- The `read` and `readln` procedures, which read in `boolean` variables, fixed- and variable-length strings, enumerated types, and pointers from the standard input
- The `remove` procedure, which removes the specified file
- The `reset` and `rewrite` procedures, which accept an optional second argument, a Solaris 2.x operating system file name
- The `rshft` function, which does a logical right shift of an integer
- The `seed` function, which reseeds the random number generator
- The `sizeof` function, which returns the size of a specified type, variable, constant, or string
- The `stlimit` procedure, which terminates program execution if a specified number of statements have been executed in the current loop
- The `substr` function, which extracts a substring from a string
- The `sysclock` function, which returns the system time used by the process
- The `time` procedure, which retrieves the current time
- The `trim` function, which removes the trailing blanks in a character string
- The `type_transfer` function, which changes the data type of a variable or expression

- The `wallclock` function, which returns the elapsed number of seconds since 00:00:00 GMT January 1, 1970
- The `write` and `writeln` procedures, which output enumerated type values to the standard output and allow output expressions in octal or hexadecimal
- The `write` and `writeln` procedures, which allow negative field widths
- The `xor` function, which returns the exclusive or of two integer values

Input and Output

Pascal supports the following extensions to standard Pascal input and output:

- Association of a Pascal file with either a permanent or temporary Solaris operating system file
- The special predefined file variables, `input` and `output`, that need not be specified in the program statement
- The special predefined file variable, `errout`
- An I/O error recovery mechanism

Program Compilation

Pascal supports the following extensions to program compilation:

- Sharing variable, procedure, and function declarations across multiple units using `include` files
- Sharing variable, procedure, and function declarations across multiple units using multiple declarations
- Sharing variable, procedure, and function declarations across multiple units using the `extern` and `define` variable declarations
- Sharing variable, procedure, and function declarations between units of different languages using the `extern` and `external` routine options

≡ A

Pascal and DOMAIN Pascal



This Appendix describes the differences between Pascal and Apollo DOMAIN Pascal, and how the `-x1` option can be used to get around most of these differences.

The `-x1` Option

The `-x1` option to the `pc` command makes the language accepted by the Pascal compiler similar to DOMAIN Pascal. Table B-1 lists the differences in your program when you compile it with and without the `-x1` option.

Table B-1 Differences Between Programs Compiled With and Without `-x1`

With <code>-x1</code>	Without <code>-x1</code>
The default <code>integer</code> size is 16 bits.	The default is 32 bits.
The default <code>real</code> size is 32 bits.	The default is 64 bits.
The default enumerated type size is 16 bits.	The default is either 8 or 16 bits, depending on the number of elements in the enumerated set.
The source file is run through the preprocessor <code>cppas</code> before it is processed by the compiler.	The source file is run through the preprocessor <code>cpp</code> .
Pascal supports <code>nonpascal</code> as a routine option.	<code>nonpascal</code> is not supported.

≡ B

Table B-1 Differences Between Programs Compiled With and Without `-x1` (Continued)

With <code>-x1</code>	Without <code>-x1</code>
The <code>-L</code> option, which maps all identifiers to lowercase, is on by default.	<code>-L</code> is off by default.
If the value of the expression in a <code>case</code> statement does not match any of the <code>case</code> values, the program falls through and does not generate an error. The program continues execution in the statement immediately following the <code>case</code> statement.	The compiler generates an error and halts.
The writing of enumerated and <code>boolean</code> variables defaults to uppercase and 15-character width format.	Enumerated variables default to the length of the type. <code>boolean</code> variables default to the length of <code>true</code> or <code>false</code> .
Integer or real constant literals that overflow implementation limits do not cause an error. The resulting action is undefined.	An error is generated.
No warning is generated when the argument to the <code>addr</code> function is a local or private variable.	A warning is generated.
Top-level variables, procedures, and functions in programs default to <code>private</code> .	Variables, procedures, and functions in programs default to <code>public</code> .
Top-level variables in modules default to <code>private</code> .	Variables in modules default to <code>public</code> .
Modules compiled with <code>-x1</code> are <i>not</i> compatible with modules compiled without <code>-x1</code> .	These two types of modules are not linked together.

DOMAIN Pascal Features Accepted but Ignored

Pascal accepts these DOMAIN Pascal features, but otherwise ignores them, with a warning message as appropriate:

- The `volatile`, `device`, and address extensions for attributes of variables and types
- Routine attribute lists
- The routine options `abnormal`, `nosave`, `noreturn`, `val_param`, and `d0_return`, `a0_return`, and `c_param`

DOMAIN Pascal Features Not Supported

Pascal does not support the following features of DOMAIN Pascal:

- Alignment specific to the DN10000 in DOMAIN Pascal SR10
- Allocation of variables into named sections
- Calls to the DOMAIN system libraries
- Compiler directives inside comments
- The functions `append`, `ctop`, `find`, `ptoc`, `replace`, and `undefined`
- Special characters embedded in string literals
- The system programming routines, `disable`, `enable`, and `set_sr`

≡ B

Implementation Restrictions



This Appendix describes the Pascal features that are implementation-defined.

Identifiers

Pascal restricts the maximum length of an identifier to 1,024 characters. All characters are significant.

Identifiers in a nested procedure are concatenated with the identifier of the containing procedure. Thus, an identifier in a deeply nested procedure may become several hundred characters when concatenated and may cause problems with the compiler. Pascal generates an error when this situation occurs.

Data Types

This section describes the restrictions Pascal places on the following data types:

- `real`
- `Integer`
- `Character`
- `Record`
- `Array`
- `Set`
- `Alignment`

real

Table C-1 lists the minimum and maximum values Pascal assigns to the real data types, `single` and `double`.

Table C-1 Values for `single` and `double`

Type	Bits	Maximum Value	Minimum Value
<code>single</code>	32 bits	3.402823e+38	1.401298e-45
<code>double</code>	64 bits	1.79769313486231470e+308	4.94065645841246544e-324

Integer

The value Pascal assigns to the integer constants `maxint` and `minint` depends on whether or not you compile your program with the `-xl` option, as shown in Table C-2.

Table C-2 `maxint` and `minint`

Option	<code>maxint</code>	<code>minint</code>
<code>-xl off</code>	2,147,483,647	-2,147,483,648
<code>-xl on</code>	32,767	-32,768

Character

Pascal defines the maximum range of characters as 0 to 255.

Record

Pascal restricts the maximum size of a record to 2,147,483,647 bytes.

Array

Pascal restricts the maximum size of an array to 2,147,483,647 bytes.

Set

Pascal restricts the maximum size of a set to 32,767 elements.

Alignment

The size and alignment of data types depends on whether or not you compile your program with the `-x1` option. Table C-3 shows the representation of data types without `-x1`, and Table C-4 shows the representation with `-x1`.

Table C-3 Internal Representation of Data Types Without -x1

Data Type	Size	Alignment
integer	Four bytes	Four bytes
integer16	Two bytes	Two bytes
integer32	Four bytes	Four bytes
real	Eight bytes	Eight bytes
single	Four bytes	Four bytes
shortreal	Four bytes	Four bytes
double	Eight bytes	Eight bytes
longreal	Eight bytes	Eight bytes
boolean	One byte	One byte
char	One byte	One byte
enumerated	One or two bytes, depending on the number of elements in the enumerated set	One or two bytes
subrange	One, two, or four bytes	One, two, or four bytes
record	Depends upon the base type of that field.	Four bytes
array	Requires the same space required by the base type of the array.	Same as element type
set	Pascal implements vector, with one bit representing each element of a set. The size is determined by the size of the ordinal value of the maximal element of the set plus one. It is a minimum of two bytes and always in two-byte multiples.	Two bytes if size = 2; otherwise, four bytes
pointer	Four bytes	Four bytes

Table C-4 Internal Representation of Data Types with -x1

Data Type	Size	Alignment
integer	Two bytes	Four bytes
integer16	Two bytes	Two bytes
integer32	Four bytes	Four bytes
real	Four bytes	Eight bytes
single	Four bytes	Four bytes
shortreal	Four bytes	Four bytes
double	Eight bytes	Eight bytes
longreal	Eight bytes	Eight bytes
boolean	One byte	One byte
char	One byte	One byte
enumerated	Two bytes	Two bytes
subrange	Two or four bytes	Two or four bytes
record	Depends on the base type of that field.	Four bytes
array	Needs the same space required by the base type of the array.	Same as element type
set	Pascal implements sets as a bit vector, with one bit representing each element of a set. The size is determined by the size of the ordinal value of maximal element of the set plus one. It is a minimum of two bytes and always in two-byte multiples.	Two bytes if size = 2; otherwise, four bytes
pointer	Four bytes	Four bytes

Nested Routines

Pascal allows a maximum of 20 levels of procedure and function nesting.

Default Field Widths

The `write` and `writeln` statements assume the default values in Table C-5 if you do not specify the minimum field length of a parameter.

Table C-5 Default Field Widths

Data Type	Default Width Without <code>-xl</code> Option	Default Width With <code>-xl</code> Option
array of char	Declared length of the array	Declared length of the array
boolean	Length of <code>true</code> or <code>false</code>	15
char	1	1
double	21	21
enumerated	Length of type	15
hexadecimal	10	10
integer	10	10
integer16	10	10
integer32	10	10
longreal	21	21
octal	10	10
real	21	13
shortreal	13	13
single	13	13
string constant	Number of characters in the string	Number of characters in the string
variable-length string	Current length of the string	Current length of the string

Pascal Validation Summary Report



The Pascal Version 3.0.2 compiler has been validated using Version 5.1 of the Pascal Validation Suite. It complies with FIPS PUB 109 ANSI/IEEE 770 X3.97-1983 and BS6192/ISO7185 at both level 0 and level 1.

Test Conditions

The Pascal Version 3.0.2 compiler was validated under the Solaris 2.3 operating system on a SPARCstation™ 10 machine.

The following compiler options were used during each validation:

- Level 1 mode
- All checks
- Runtime trace
- All other default options

The following manufacturer's statement of compliance is included in the *Validation Summary Report* for the architecture.

Manufacturer's Statement of Compliance

The above processor complies with the requirements of both level 0 and level 1 (by means of a compiler switch) of BS 6192/ISO 7185, with no exceptions.

Implementation-Defined Features

The implementation-defined features are as follows:

- E.1 The value of each char-type corresponding to each allowed string-character is the corresponding ISO 8859/1 (ASCII) character.
- E.2 The subset of real numbers denoted by signed-real are the values representable in the single precision (32-bit) format of the IEC559:1982 Standard *Binary Floating Point Arithmetic for Microprocessor Systems*, which is the same format as in the IEEE standard P754.
- E.3 The values of char-type are the ISO 8859/1 (ASCII) character set.
- E.4 The ordinal numbers of each value of char-type are the corresponding ISO 8859/1 (ASCII) code value.
- E.5 All file operations are performed at the point where they are encountered at execution time, with the exception of `get` (both explicit and where implied by `reset` and `read`), which is delayed in its execution to the point at which the file is next referenced—a technique known as “lazy I/O.”
- E.6 The value of `maxint` is 2,147,483,647.
- E.7 The accuracy of the approximations of the real operations and functions is determined by the representation (see E.2) and by the rounding of intermediate results. This gives approximately 16-decimal digits of precision.
- E.8 The default value of `TotalWidth` for integer-type is 10.
- E.9 The default value of `TotalWidth` for real-type is 21.
- E.10 The default value of `TotalWidth` for boolean-type is 5.
- E.11 The value of `ExpDigits` is 2.
- E.12 The exponent character is `e`.
- E.13 The case in the output of the value of boolean-type is uppercase for the initial letter, and lowercase for the remaining letters.

- E.14 The procedure `Page` causes the contents of the output buffer (if any) to be written, and then outputs the ISO 8859/1 (ASCII) form-feed character. The effect on any device depends on that device.
- E.15 There is no binding between physical files and program parameters of file-type. Variables of file-type are associated with physical files or devices automatically by the processor.
- E.16 The effects of `reset` and `rewrite` on the standard files `input` and `output` depend on the binding of these files specified at the invocation of the program. In general, `reset` and `rewrite` have the effects described in clause 6.6.5.2 of the Pascal Standard¹ when `input` and `output` have been bound to permanent files. When the binding is to a device, `reset(input)` has no effect other than discarding any partially processed line. `rewrite(output)` terminates any partially complete line but has no other effect. `rewrite(input)` and `reset(output)` are treated as errors.
- E.17 This implementation supports the alternative representation of symbols permitted by the Standard.

Reporting of Errors

The following errors are detected prior to, or during, execution of a program:

D.1, D.3, D.7, D.9, D.10, D.11, D.14, D.15, D.16, D.17, D.18, D.23, D.26, D.29, D.33, D.34, D.35, D.36, D.37, D.40, D.41, D.42, D.45, D.46, D.47, D.49, D.51, D.52, D.53, D.54, D.55, D.56, D.57, D.58, D.59

The following errors are not, in general, reported:

D.2, D.4, D.5, D.6, D.8, D.12, D.13, D.19, D.20, D.21, D.22, D.24, D.25, D.27, D.28, D.30, D.31, D.32, D.38, D.39, D.43, D.44, D.48, D.50

1. The American National Standard Pascal Computer Programming Language, ANSI/IEEE 770 X3.97-1983, published by the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, Inc., 345 East 47th Street, New York, NY 10017, c. 1983.

Implementation-Dependent Features

Implementation-dependent features F.1 to F.11 of Pascal are treated as undetected errors.

Extensions

The processor does not contain any extensions to BS6192/ISO 7185. Such extensions must be enabled by means of a compiling option, not the subject of validation.

Glossary



This glossary defines some general programming terms, as well as terms that are specific to Pascal.

Special Characters

	The bitwise <code>or</code> operator.
~	The bitwise <code>not</code> operator.
!	The bitwise <code>or</code> operator.
#	A programming symbol that specifies an integer value in a base other than 10, includes a file in your program, or indicates a preprocessor command.
%	A programming symbol used with the <code>-x1</code> option for special <code>cppas</code> directives.
&	The bitwise <code>and</code> operator.
A	
adb	An interactive, general-purpose, assembly-level debugger.



<code>addr</code>	A built-in function that returns the address of a specified variable.
<code>alfa</code>	An array of <code>char</code> 10 characters long.
<code>and then</code>	An operator similar to the standard <code>and</code> operator. The difference is that <code>and then</code> enforces left-to-right evaluation and evaluates the right operand only if the left operand is <code>true</code> .
<code>argc</code>	A built-in function that returns the number of arguments passed to the program.
<code>argv</code>	A built-in procedure that assigns the specified program argument to a string variable.
<code>arshft</code>	A built-in function that does an arithmetic right shift of an integer value.
<code>asl</code>	A built-in function that does an arithmetic left shift of an integer value.
<code>asr</code>	A built-in function that does an arithmetic right shift of an integer value. Same as <code>arshft</code> .
<code>assert</code>	A statement which causes a <code>boolean</code> expression to be evaluated and aborts the program if <code>false</code> , provided that the <code>-C</code> option is specified.
B	
<code>bell</code>	A predeclared character constant equal to <code>char(7)</code> , which makes the terminal beep.
block buffering	Output buffering with a block size of 1,024.



C

card

A built-in function that returns the number of elements of a set variable.

clock

A built-in function that returns the user time consumed by the process.

close

A built-in procedure that closes a file.

compiler directive

A percent sign (%) followed by a name indicating an action for the `cppas` preprocessor to take. Programs that contain compiler directives must be compiled with the `-x1` option.

conditional variable

A variable, either defined or undefined, handled by the `cppas` preprocessor. A conditional variable is defined when it appears in a `%var` directive. Programs that contain conditional variables must be compiled with the `-x1` option.

`%config`

A compiler directive that is a special predefined conditional variable with a value of either `true` or `false`. Programs that contain the `%config` directive must be compiled with the `-x1` option.

`cppas`

The preprocessor that handles the Pascal conditional variables and compiler directives when the `-x1` option is specified.

D

date

A built-in procedure that fetches the current date (as assigned when the operating system was initialized) and assigns it to a string variable.

dbx

A symbolic debugger that understands Pascal, Modula-2, C, and FORTRAN programs.



<code>%debug</code>	A compiler directive that works with the <code>-cond</code> compiler option. <code>-cond</code> instructs <code>pc</code> , the Pascal compiler, to compile the lines in your program that begin with <code>%debug</code> . Programs that contain the <code>%debug</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>define attribute</code>	An attribute used to declare a variable that is allocated in the current module and whose scope is <code>public</code> .
<code>define declaration</code>	A declaration used to declare a variable that is allocated in the current module and whose scope is <code>public</code> .
<code>discard</code>	A built-in procedure that throws away the value a function returns.
<code>double</code>	A real data type that represents a 64-bit floating-point number. Same as <code>longreal</code> .
E	
<code>%else</code>	A compiler directive that provides an alternative action to the <code>%if</code> directive. If the expression in <code>%if</code> is <code>false</code> , the compiler skips over the <code>%then</code> part and executes the <code>%else</code> part instead. Programs that contain the <code>%else</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>%elseif</code>	A compiler directive that provides another alternative action to the <code>%if</code> directive. If the expression in <code>%if</code> is <code>false</code> , the compiler skips over the <code>%then</code> part and executes the <code>%elseif</code> part instead. Programs that contain the <code>%elseif</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>%elseifdef</code>	A compiler directive that provides an alternative action to the <code>%ifdef</code> directive. If the expression in <code>%ifdef</code> is <code>false</code> , the compiler skips over the <code>%then</code> part and executes the <code>%elseifdef</code> part instead. Programs that contain the <code>%elseifdef</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>%enable</code>	A compiler directive that sets a conditional variable to <code>true</code> . Programs that contain the <code>%enable</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.



<code>%endif</code>	A compiler directive that indicates the end of the <code>%if</code> or <code>%ifdef</code> directive. Programs that contain the <code>%endif</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>%error</code>	A compiler directive that prints a string on the standard output and treats it as an error. Programs that contain the <code>%error</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>errout</code>	A special predefined file variable equivalent to the operating system standard error file, <code>stderr</code> .
<code>exit</code>	A statement used in a <code>for</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>repeat</code> loop to transfer program control to the first statement after the loop.
<code>%exit</code>	A compiler directive that causes the compiler to stop processing the current Pascal source file. Programs that contain the <code>%exit</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>expo</code>	A built-in function that calculates the integer-valued exponent of a specified number.
<code>extern attribute</code>	An attribute used to declare a variable that is not allocated in the current program or module unit, but is a reference to a variable allocated in another unit.
<code>extern option</code>	A procedure and function option that indicates the procedure or function is defined in a separate program or module unit, and possibly in a different source language. Same as <code>external</code> .
<code>external</code>	A procedure and function option that indicates the procedure or function is defined in a separate program or module unit, and possibly in a different source language. Same as <code>extern</code> .



F

`firstof`

A built-in function that returns the first possible value of a type or variable.

`flush`

A built-in procedure that writes the output buffered for the specified Pascal file into the associated operating system file.

G

`getenv`

A built-in function that returns the value associated with an environment name.

`getfile`

A built-in function that returns a pointer to the C standard I/O descriptor associated with a Pascal file.

H

`halt`

A built-in procedure that terminates program execution.

I

`%if`

A compiler directive. When the compiler encounters a `%if expression %then` directive, it evaluates *expression*. If *expression* is `true`, the compiler executes the statements after `%then`. If *expression* is `false`, the compiler skips over `%then`. Programs that contain the `%if` directive must be compiled with the `-xl` option.

`%ifdef`

A compiler directive that determines whether or not a conditional variable in a `%var` directive has been previously defined. Programs that contain the `%ifdef` directive must be compiled with the `-xl` option.

I/O handler

A Pascal function that is passed the values `err_code` and `filep` when an I/O error occurs. The handler returns `false` to terminate the program, or `true` to continue program execution.



<code>in</code>	A parameter type indicating the parameter can only pass a value into a procedure or function.
<code>in out</code>	A parameter type indicating the parameter can both take in values and pass them back out.
<code>in_range</code>	A built-in function that checks if a value is in a defined subrange.
<code>%include</code>	A compiler directive that instructs <code>cppas</code> to insert the lines from the specified file in the input stream. Programs that contain the <code>%include</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-x1</code> option.
<code>include file</code>	A file that is inserted into a source file with the <code>%include</code> or <code>#include</code> directive.
<code>index</code>	A built-in function that returns the position of the first occurrence of a string or character in another string.
<code>input</code>	A special predefined file variable equivalent to the standard input file, <code>stdin</code> .
<code>integer16</code>	An integer data type that represents a 16-bit value.
<code>integer32</code>	An integer data type that represents a 32-bit value.
<code>internal</code>	A procedure and function option that makes the procedure or function local to a module.
<code>intset</code>	A predefined set of <code>[0..127]</code> .
L	
<code>land</code>	A built-in function that returns the bitwise and of two integers.



<code>lastof</code>	A built-in function that returns the last possible value of a type or variable.
<code>length</code>	A built-in function that returns the length of a string.
line buffering	The buffering of output line-by-line.
<code>linelimit</code>	A built-in procedure that terminates execution of a program after a specified number of lines have been written into a text file.
<code>%list</code>	A compiler directive that enables a listing of the program. Programs that contain the <code>%list</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
<code>lnot</code>	A built-in function that returns the bitwise <code>not</code> of an integer value.
<code>longreal</code>	A real data type that represents a 64-bit floating-point number. Same as <code>double</code> .
<code>lor</code>	A built-in function that returns the inclusive <code>or</code> of two integer values.
<code>lshft</code>	A built-in function that does a logical left shift of an integer value.
<code>lsl</code>	A built-in function that does a logical left shift of an integer value. Same as <code>lshft</code> .
<code>lsr</code>	A built-in function that does a logical right shift of an integer value. Same as <code>rshft</code> .
M	
<code>max</code>	A built-in function that evaluates two scalar expression and returns the larger one.



<code>maxchar</code>	A predeclared character constant equal to <code>char(255)</code> .
<code>maxint</code>	An integer constant that represents the 16-bit value 32,767 when you compile your program with the <code>-x1</code> option; otherwise, <code>maxint</code> represents the 32-bit value 2,147,483,647.
<code>message</code>	A built-in procedure that writes the specified information on <code>stderr</code> , usually the terminal.
<code>min</code>	A built-in function that evaluates two scalar expressions and returns the smaller one.
<code>minchar</code>	A predeclared character constant equal to <code>char(0)</code> .
<code>minint</code>	An integer constant that represents the 16-bit value -32,768 when you compile your program with the <code>-x1</code> option; otherwise, <code>minint</code> represents the 32-bit value, -2,147,483,648.
module heading	A heading that contains the reserved word <code>module</code> followed by an identifier. For example, <code>module sum;</code> is a legal module heading.
module unit	A source program that does not have a program header.
N	
<code>next</code>	A statement used in a <code>for</code> , <code>while</code> , or <code>repeat</code> loop to skip to the next iteration of the current loop.
<code>%nolist</code>	A compiler directive that disables the program listing. Programs that contain the <code>%nolist</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-x1</code> option.



nonpascal	A procedure and function option that declares non-Pascal routines when you are porting Apollo DOMAIN programs written in DOMAIN Pascal, FORTRAN, C, and C++.
null	A built-in procedure that performs no operation.
O	
open	A built-in procedure that associates an external file with a file variable.
or else	An operator similar to the standard <code>or</code> operator. The difference is that <code>or else</code> enforces left-to-right evaluation and evaluates the right operand only if the left operand is <code>false</code> .
otherwise	A Pascal extension to the standard Pascal <code>case</code> statement. If the value of the case selector is not in the case label list, Pascal executes the statements in the <code>otherwise</code> clause.
out	A parameter indicating that the parameter is used to pass values out of the routine.
output	A special predefined file variable equivalent to the standard output file, <code>stdout</code> .
P	
private	A variable, procedure, or function declaration that restricts its accessibility to the current compilation unit.
procedure and function pointer	A pointer that has the address of a procedure or function as its value.
public	A variable, procedure, or function declaration that is visible across multiple programs and modules.



R

random	A built-in function that generates a random number between 0.0 and 1.0.
remove	A built-in procedure that removes the specified file.
return	A statement used in a procedure or function to prematurely end the procedure or function.
rshft	A built-in function that does a logical right shift of an integer value.
S	
seed	A built-in function that reseeds the random number generator.
shortreal	A real data type that represents a 32-bit floating point number. Same as <code>single</code> .
single	A real data type that represents a 32-bit floating point number. Same as <code>shortreal</code> .
sizeof	A built-in function that returns the number of bytes the program uses to store a data object.
%slibrary	A compiler directive that directs <code>cppas</code> to insert the lines from the specified file in the input stream. Same as <code>%include</code> . Programs that contain the <code>%slibrary</code> directive must be compiled with the <code>-xl</code> option.
static	A variable attribute that declares the variable <code>private</code> in scope.
stderr	The standard operating system error file.
stdin	The standard operating system input file.



<code>stdout</code>	The standard operating system output file.
<code>stlimit</code>	A built-in procedure that terminates program execution if a specified number of statements have been executed in the current loop.
<code>string</code>	An array of <code>char 80</code> characters long.
<code>substr</code>	A built-in function that extracts a substring from a string.
<code>sysclock</code>	A built-in function that returns the system time consumed by the process.
T	
<code>tab</code>	A predeclared character constant equal to <code>char(9)</code> , which makes a tab character.
<code>time</code>	A built-in procedure that retrieves the current time.
<code>trim</code>	A built-in function that removes trailing blanks in a character string.
type transfer function	A built-in function that changes the data type of a variable, constant, or expression.
U	
unit	Either a program or a module.
<code>univ</code>	A modifier used before data types in formal parameter lists to turn off type checking for that parameter.
<code>univ_ptr</code>	See universal pointer.



universal pointer

A pointer used to compare a pointer of one type to another or to assign a pointer of one type to another.

V

`%var`

A compiler directive that defines conditional variables for the preprocessor. Programs that contain the `%var` directive must be compiled with the `-x1` option.

variable attribute

An attribute that determines how to allocate the variable. Variable attributes include `static`, `extern`, and `define`.

variable initialization

The initialization of a `real`, `integer`, `boolean`, `character`, `set`, `record`, `array`, or `pointer` variable in the `var` declaration of the program.

variable routine option

A routine option that is used to pass a routine a smaller number of actual arguments than the number of formal arguments defined in the routine.

variable scope

Either `private` or `public`. Visibility of a `private` variable is restricted to the current compilation unit. A `public` variable can be referenced across multiple programs and modules.

variable-length string

A string of variable length. A variable-length string can be assigned a string of any length, up to the maximum length specified in the declaration. Pascal ignores any characters specified over the maximum.

`varying`

A string of variable length.

W

`wallclock`

A built-in function that returns the elapsed number of seconds since 00.00.00 GMT January 1, 1970.



`%warning`

A compiler directive that tells the compiler to print a string on the standard output as a warning. Programs that contain the `%warning` directive must be compiled with the `-xl` option.

X

`-xl` **option**

An option of the `pc` command that causes the compiler to implement Pascal as DOMAIN Pascal.

`xor`

A built-in function that returns the exclusive `or` of two integers.

Index

A

- addr function, 103, 212
- alfa data type, 34
- alignment of data types, 223
- and operator, 2, 211
- and then operator, 71 to 72
- AnswerBook, xxxiv
- Apollo DOMAIN Pascal, 217 to 219
- argc
 - function, 103, 106, 212
 - procedure, 106
- argv procedure, 103, 106, 212
- arithmetic
 - left shift, 111
 - operators, 68
 - right shift, 109
 - routines, 99
- array data types, 34 to 37
 - alfa, 34
 - as function return value, 94
 - conformant, 94
 - data representation, 37
 - declaring variables, 34
 - initializing variables, 36
 - string, 34
 - univ parameter type, 94
 - varying, 34

- arrays, 75
- arshft function, 101, 109, 168, 213
- ASCII character set, 1
- asl function, 101, 111, 213
- asr function, 101, 113, 168, 213
- assert statement, 48, 211
- assignment statement, 13, 18, 20, 22
- assignments, 65 to 67
 - compatibility rules, 66
 - data types, 65
 - extensions, 211
 - null strings, 67
 - string constants, 67
 - strings, to and from, 66

B

- b option to pc command, 203
- bell character, 23, 210
- bit operators, 68
- bitwise operators, 148
 - and, 2, 211
 - not, 191, 211
 - or, 2, 3, 191, 211
- block buffering, 203
- boolean
 - expression, 48
 - operators, 68

- and then, 71 to 72
- or else, 73
- boolean data types, 20 to 21
 - assignment compatibility rules, 65
 - declaring constants, 21
 - declaring variables, 20
 - initializing variables, 20
- buffering
 - block, 203
 - file output, 202
 - line, 203
- built-in procedures and functions, 2
 - nonstandard, 99 to 191, 193, 212
 - standard, 99, 193

C

- C option to `pc` command, 48, 208
- C programming language, 98, 194
- card function, 100, 113, 213
- case statement, 48, 51 to 52, 154, 211
 - otherwise clause, 51, 59
 - range of constants, 52
 - with `-xl` option, 52
- character
 - data type, 23
 - assignment compatibility rules, 65
 - bell, 23, 210
 - data representation, 23
 - declaring constants, 23
 - declaring variables, 22
 - maxchar, 23, 210
 - minchar, 23, 210
 - tab, 23, 210
 - set, 1
 - string routines, 101
- clock function, 103, 115, 213
- close procedure, 102, 117, 194, 213
- comments, 6, 48, 203, 209
- conformant array, 94
- const declaration, 80, 82, 212
- conventions, typographical, xxxii

D

- data structure, 202
- data types
 - alignment, 223
 - array, 34 to 37
 - assignments, 65
 - boolean, 20 to 22
 - enumerated, 24
 - extensions, 210
 - file, 41, 79
 - integer, 222
 - internal representation
 - with `-xl`, 225
 - without `-xl`, 224
 - pointer, 41 to 45, 83
 - real, 221
 - real, 13 to 15
 - record, 27 to 33
 - set, 38 to 39
 - size restrictions, 222
 - space allocation, 222
 - subrange, 25
- date procedure, 103, 118, 213
- declarations, 79 to 89
 - const, 80, 82, 212
 - define, 80, 212
 - extensions, 212
 - function, 80
 - global, 79
 - label, 80, 212
 - procedure, 80
 - type, 80, 212
 - var, 14, 18, 27, 84 to 87
- default field widths, 226
- define
 - declaration, 80, 88, 212
 - variable, 84, 212
- discard procedure, 103, 120, 213
- documentation, xxxiii to xxxv

DOMAIN Pascal, 217 to 219
 features accepted but ignored, 217, 218
 features not supported, 219
 -xl option, 217
double data type, 13, 210, 222

E

enumerated data, 23, 24
 assignment compatibility rules, 65
 data representation, 24
 with read and readln
 procedures, 23
 with write and writeln
 procedures, 23
eof function, 132, 194 to 197
eoln function, 132, 194 to 199
error
 file, stderr, 201
 recovery of input and output, 204
errout file variable, 201
exit statement, 53 to 54, 211
expo function, 100, 122, 213
extensions, 209 to 215
 assignments and operators, 211
 built-in routines, 212
 data types, 210
 heading and declarations, 212
 input and output, 215
 lexical elements, 209
 procedures and functions, 212
 program compilation, 215
 statements, 211
extern
 option, 96, 212
 variable, 87, 88, 212
external option, *See* extern option

F

field widths, default, 226
file
 permanent, 200
 stderr, 201
 stdin, 201
 stdout, 201
 temporary, 200
file data type, 41, 79
 with -s option, 41
 with -v0 and -v1 option, 41
file identifiers, 79
 input, 79, 118
 output, 79, 118
file variable, 200
 errout, 201
 input, 201
 output, 201
files
 external and Pascal file variables, 199
 how to close, 118
 permanent and temporary, 200
firstof function, 100, 124, 213
flush procedure, 102, 127, 194, 203, 213
for statement, 53, 57, 211
formal parameter, 93, 96
FORTRAN programming language, 96, 98
forward option, 96
function
 addr, 103
 argc, 103, 106
 arshft, 101, 109, 168
 asl, 101, 111
 asr, 101, 113, 168
 association with define
 declaration, 88
 built-in, 99
 card, 100, 113
 clock, 103, 115
 declarations, 80
 eof, 132, 194 to 197
 eoln, 132, 194 to 199
 expo, 100, 122

- extensions, 212
- extern option, 96
- external option, 96
- firstof, 100, 124
- forward option, 96
- getenv, 103, 130
- getfile, 102, 131, 194, 204
- in_range, 135
- index, 101, 137
- internal option, 96
- land, 101, 139
- lastof, 141
- length, 101, 142
- lnot, 101, 146
- lor, 101, 147
- lshft, 101, 149
- lsl, 101, 150
- lsr, 101, 150
- max, 100, 150
- min, 100, 153
- nonpascal option, 98
- parameters, 91 to 93
- private, 89, 96, 212
- public, 89, 212
- random, 100, 159
- return statement, 60 to 62
- return value, 94, 120
- rshft, 101, 168
- seed, 100, 170
- sizeof, 100, 171
- substr, 101, 177
- sysclock, 103, 115, 178
- trim, 101, 180
- type transfer, 103, 183
- var declaration, 14, 18, 21, 23, 28
- variable option, 96
- wallclock, 103, 185
- xor, 101, 190

G

- getenv function, 103, 130, 213
- getfile function, 102, 131, 194, 204, 213

- global
 - declaration, 79
 - variable, 85
- goto statement, 48, 55, 60, 211
 - exiting current block, 55
 - use of identifier in, 55

H

- halt procedure, 103, 133, 213
- headings
 - extensions, 212
 - function, 89
 - program, 79, 200

I

- identifiers, 2, 4, 55, 61, 80
 - as labels, 80
 - in define declaration, 88
 - nonstandard predeclared, 4, 210
 - restrictions to, 221
 - standard predeclared, 4, 210
- if statement, 48, 198, 211
- implementation restrictions, 221 to 226
- in out parameter, 90, 93
- in parameter, 90, 93, 204
- in_range function, 135, 213
- include directive and statement, 206
- index function, 101, 137, 213
- initializing variables, 87
- input
 - environment, 193 to 208
 - error recovery, 204
 - extensions, 215
 - file
 - stdin, 201
 - variable, 201
- input and output
 - library, 202
 - routines, nonstandard and standard, 194
 - trap handler, 205

integer data types, 16 to 20
 assignment compatibility rules, 65
 data representation, 19
 declaring constants, 18
 integer, 17
 integer16, 17, 210
 integer32, 210
 maxint, 222
 minint, 19, 222
 specifying in another base, 19
 unsigned integer, 17
integer16, 20, 210
integer32, 17, 20, 210
interactive programming, 193
internal option, 96, 212
ioerr.h file, 205

K

keywords, 2

L

-L option to pc command, 2, 218
label declaration, 80, 212
land function, 101, 139, 213
lastof function, 141, 213
length function, 101, 142, 213
lexical
 characters, 1
 elements, 1
line buffering, 203
linelimit procedure, 102, 144, 194, 213
lnot function, 101, 146, 213
local variable, 84, 86, 103
longreal, 210
lor function, 101, 147, 214
lowercase characters, mapping, 2
lshft function, 101, 148, 214
lsl function, 101, 150
lsr function, 101, 150, 214

M

manuals, *See* documentation
mapping to lowercase characters, 2
max function, 150, 214
maxchar, 23, 210
message procedure, 102, 152, 194, 203,
 214
min function, 100, 153, 214
minchar, 23, 210
mod operators, 68
modules
 extern or external option, 96, 212
 extern variables, 87, 88
 public and private routines, 89
 scope of variables, 84

N

nested routines, 225
next statement, 57
nil, 82
nonpascal option, 98, 212
nonstandard special symbols
 !, 2, 209
 #, 2, 209
 %, 2, 209
 &, 2, 209
 |, 2, 209
 ~, 2, 209
not operator, 2, 191, 211
null procedure, 103, 154, 214
null string assignments, 67

O

open procedure, 102, 118, 155, 194, 200,
 214
operators, 68 to 78, 82
 and, 2, 211
 and then, 71 to 72
 arithmetic, 68
 bit, 68, 70
 boolean, 68, 70

- extensions, 211
 - mod, 68
 - not, 2, 191, 211
 - or, 2, 191, 211
 - or else, 72
 - precedence of, 78
 - relational, 68, 74
 - set, 68, 73
 - string, 68, 77
- options for routines, 96 to 98
 - extern or external, 96, 212
 - internal, 96
 - nonpascal, 98, 217
 - variable, 96
- or else operator, 72
- or operator, 2, 191, 211
- otherwise clause in case statement, 51, 59
- out parameter, 90, 93
- output
 - environment, 193 to 208
 - error recovery, 204
 - extensions, 215
 - file
 - buffering, 202
 - stdout, 201
 - variable, 201

P

- packed records, 30
- parameters, 89 to 94
 - formal, 91, 93, 96
 - in, 91, 93, 204
 - in out, 91, 93
 - out, 91, 93
- passing conventions, 91
- type checking, 93
- univ type, 93
- value, 91
- var, 91, 93
- Pascal
 - SPARCompiler implementation, xxix
 - symbols, 2
 - validation summary, 227 to 230
- pc command
 - b option, 203
 - C option, 48, 208
 - document reference, 2
 - L option, 2, 218
 - s option, 2, 3
 - V0 option, 3
 - V1 option, 3
 - xl option, 9, 17, 24, 98, 217, 224
- pcexit procedure, 103
- pointer data type, 41 to 45
 - assignment compatibility rules, 65
 - data representation, 45
 - declaring variables, 42
 - initializing variables, 45
 - procedure and function, 43, 83
 - univ_ptr, 42
 - universal, 83
- precedence of operators, 78
- private
 - function, 89
 - procedure, 89
 - variable, 85, 212
- procedure
 - argc, 106
 - argv, 103, 106
 - association with define
 - declaration, 88
 - built-in, 99
 - close, 102, 117, 194
 - date, 103, 118
 - declarations, 80
 - discard, 103, 120
 - extensions, 212
 - extern option, 96
 - external option, 96
 - flush, 102, 127, 194, 203
 - forward option, 96
 - halt, 103, 133
 - internal option, 96
 - linelimit, 102, 144, 194
 - message, 102, 152, 194, 203
 - nonpascal option, 98
 - null, 103, 154
 - open, 102, 118, 155, 194, 200

- parameters, 90 to 94
- pcexit, 103
- private, 96, 212
- public, 212
- read, 23, 102, 160, 194, 197, 198, 201
- readln, 23, 102, 132, 160, 194, 197, 199, 201
- remove, 102, 163, 194
- reset, 102, 118, 132, 164, 194, 201
- return statement, 61
- rewrite, 102, 132, 165, 194, 200
- stlimit, 103, 175
- time, 103, 179
- var declaration, 14, 21, 23, 28, 36, 39, 87
- variable option, 96
- write, 24, 102, 152, 188, 194, 201, 202
- writeln, 24, 102, 152, 188, 194, 201, 202

program

- compilation extensions, 215
- heading, 79, 200
- unit, 89

public

- function, 89
- procedure, 89
- variable, 85, 88, 212

R

- random function, 159, 214
- read procedure, 23, 102, 160, 194, 197, 198, 201, 214
- readln procedure, 23, 102, 132, 160, 197, 199, 201, 214
- real data types, 13 to 15
 - as function return value, 94
 - data representation, 15
 - declaring
 - constants, 14
 - variables, 13
 - double, 13, 210, 222
 - longreal, 13, 210
 - real, 13, 15
 - shortreal, 13, 15, 210
 - single, 13, 15, 210, 222
 - with `-xl` option, 13, 17
- record data type, 26 to 33
 - as function return value, 94
 - assignment compatibility rules, 65
 - declaring variables, 26
 - initializing
 - data, 27
 - variables, 87
 - representation of unpacked records, 30
- records, 75
- relational operators, 68, 74
- remove procedure, 102, 163, 194, 214
- repeat statement, 53, 57, 211
- reserved words, 3
 - nonstandard extensions, 4
 - standard, 3
- reset procedure, 102, 118, 132, 164, 194, 201, 214
- return statement, 60, 211
- rewrite procedure, 102, 118, 132, 165, 194, 200, 215
- routine
 - addr, 100, 103, 212
 - argc, 103, 106, 212
 - argv, 103, 106, 212
 - arithmetic, 99
 - arshft, 101, 109, 168, 213
 - asl, 101, 111, 213
 - asr, 101, 113, 168, 213
 - built-in, 99 to 191
 - card, 100, 113, 213
 - clock, 103, 115, 213
 - close, 102, 117, 194, 213
 - date, 103, 118, 213
 - discard, 120, 213
 - eof, 132, 194 to 197
 - eoln, 132, 194 to 199
 - expo, 100, 122, 213
 - extern option, 96
 - external option, 96
 - firstof, 100, 124, 213
 - flush, 102, 127, 194, 203, 213

forward option, 96
 getenv, 103, 213
 getfile, 102, 132, 194, 204, 213
 halt, 103, 133, 213
 in_range, 100, 135, 213
 index, 101, 137, 213
 input and output, 193
 internal option, 96
 land, 101, 139, 213
 lastof, 100, 141, 213
 length, 101, 143, 213
 linelimit, 102, 144, 194, 213
 lnot, 101, 146, 213
 lor, 101, 147, 214
 lshft, 101, 149, 214
 lsl, 101, 150
 lsr, 101, 150, 214
 max, 100, 214
 message, 102, 152, 194, 203, 214
 min, 100, 154, 214
 nonpascal option, 98
 null, 103, 154, 214
 open, 102, 118, 155, 194, 200, 214
 parameters, 90 to 94
 private, 89, 96
 public, 89
 random, 100, 159, 214
 read, 102, 160, 194, 197, 198, 201, 214
 readln, 102, 132, 160, 194, 197, 199,
 201, 214
 remove, 102, 163, 194, 214
 reset, 102, 118, 132, 164, 194, 201,
 214
 return statement, 60
 rewrite, 102, 118, 132, 166, 194, 200,
 215
 rshft, 101, 168, 214
 seed, 100, 170, 214
 sizeof, 100, 171, 214
 stlimit, 103, 175, 214
 substr, 101, 177, 214
 sysclock, 103, 115, 178, 214
 time, 103, 179, 214
 trim, 101, 180
 type transfer, 103, 183, 214
 var declaration, 36, 39
 variable option, 96
 wallclock, 103, 185, 215
 write, 102, 152, 188, 194, 201, 202,
 215
 writeln, 102, 152, 188, 194, 201, 202,
 215
 xor, 101, 190, 215
 routine parameters, 90 to 94
 routines, 82
 rshft function, 101, 168, 214

S

-s option to pc command, 2, 3
 scope of variables
 private, 84
 public, 84
 seed function, 159, 170, 214
 set
 data types, 38 to 39
 as function return value, 95
 assignment compatibility
 rules, 65
 data representation, 39
 declaring variables, 38
 returning number of
 elements, 113
 initializing variables, 87
 operators, 68, 73
 shortreal, 13, 15, 210
 signal handler, 204
 single, 13, 15, 210, 222
 sizeof function, 171, 214
 Solaris operating system, 1.x and 2.x, xxx
 space allocation of data types, 223
 SPARCompiler Pascal, xxix
 SPARCworks manuals, xxxiv
 special symbols, nonstandard and
 standard, 2
 standard files
 error, 201
 input, 201
 output, 201

statements, 47 to 64
 assert, 48, 211
 case, 47, 51 to 53, 154, 211
 exit, 53 to 54, 211
 extensions, 211
 for, 53, 57, 211
 goto, 48, 55, 60, 211
 if, 48, 198, 211
 next, 57
 repeat, 53, 57, 211
 return, 60, 211
 while, 53, 57, 195, 198, 211
 with, 47, 62, 211

static variable, 14, 18, 21, 23, 28, 37, 39, 87, 212

stderr, 194, 201

stdin, 201

stdout, 201

stlimit procedure, 103, 175, 214

string
 assignments, 66
 constants, assignments, 67
 data type, 34
 operators, 68, 77

subrange data, 17, 25 to 26
 assignment compatibility rules, 65
 data representation, 25
 declaring variables, 25
 with `-xl` option, 26

substr function, 101, 177, 214

SunOS, *See* Solaris operating system, 1.x and 2.x

symbols, 2

sysclock function, 103, 115, 178, 214

System V Release 4 (SVR4), xxx

T

tab character, 23, 210

time procedure, 103, 179, 214

trim function, 101, 180

type checking of parameters, 93

type declaration, 212

type transfer function, 183, 214

typographical conventions, xxxii

U

UCB BSD 4.3, xxx

univ parameter type, 93

univ_ptr, 42, 104, 132

unpacked records
 fixed, 30
 variant, 30

unsigned integer, 17

V

`-V0` option to `pc` command, 3

`-V1` option to `pc` command, 3

value parameter, 91, 93

var
 declaration, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27, 36, 84 to 87, 212
 attributes, 84
 initialization, 87
 scope, 84
 parameter, 91, 93

variable
 attributes, 84
 define, 85, 87, 212
 extern, 85, 87, 88, 212
 global, 84
 initialization, 87
 local, 84, 87, 103
 option, 96, 212
 private, 84, 212
 public, 84, 85, 88, 212
 scope, 84
 static, 85, 212

varying data type, 34

W

wallclock function, 103, 185, 215

while statement, 53, 57, 195, 198, 211

with
 alternate form, 62 to 64
 statement, 48, 211
write procedure, 23, 102, 152, 188, 194,
 201, 202, 215
writeln procedure, 23, 102, 152, 188, 194,
 201, 202, 215

X

-xl option to pc command, 9, 17, 24, 217
 with define attribute, 87
 with nonpascal routine option, 98
xor function, 101, 190, 215
XView, documentation, xxxiv