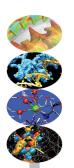




## Introduction to Fortran 90

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## Part I

# A Fortran Survey 1

Program main unit, source formats, comments, declarations and instructions. Fundamental operators, expressions, conditional constructs, loops, functions: arguments passing, intent, interface, intrinsic and external functions. Modules: contains and use. Intrinsic types: integer, real, complex, logical, and parameter. I/O base.







#### Introduction

Fortran Basics

More Fortran Basics

Integer Types and Iterating

More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks





## Formula Translator History

- Developed in the 50s among the earliest high level language (HLL)
- Widely and rapidly adopted in the area of numerical, scientific, engineering and technical applications
- ► First standard in 1966: Fortran 66
  - The first of all programming language standards
- Second standard in 1978: Fortran 77
- ► Third standard in 1991: Fortran 90
  - Adds new, modern features such as structured constructs, array syntax and ADT
  - Extended and revised in 1997: Fortran 95
  - Further extended with published Technical Reports
- ► Fourth standard in 2004: Fortran 2003
  - Major revision, incorporates TRs, adds many new features (OO!), still not fully supported
- Fifth standard in 2010: Fortran 2008





## Fortran General Philosophy



- Strongly oriented to number crunching
- Efficient language, highly optimized code
  - Basic data types and operators mapping "naturally" to CPUs
  - Translated by a compiler to machine language
  - Language rules allow for aggressive, automatic optimization
  - Facilities to build new data types from the basic ones
  - Flexible flow control structures mapping the most common numerical computing use cases
- Scientific computing specialized syntax
  - A wealth of math data types and functions available as intrinsics of the language
  - Compact, readable array syntax to operate on many values as a whole





# Technical and Scientific Computing



- Why Fortran is bad
  - Current standard embodies four different language versions,...
  - ... all of them still alive in legacy codes
  - Non-numeric computing in Fortran is a real pain
  - ► There are more C than Fortran programmers
  - GUI and DB accesses are best programmed in C
  - C99 partly addressed numerical computing needs





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  - GUI and DB accesses are best programmed in C
  - C99 partly addressed numerical computing needs
- Why Fortran is good
  - Fortran is highly tuned for numerical computation
  - Fortran is older and more "rigid" than C, compilers optimize better
  - Much better than C at managing user defined data types
  - Object-oriented features are now part of the language
  - Provides facilities for interoperability with C and other languages





#### **Our Aims**

- ▶ Teach you the fundamentals of modern Fortran
- ► For both reading (old and new) and writing (new) programs
- Showing common idioms
- Illustrating and demonstrating many of the extensions introduced in the more recent standards
- Illustrating best practices
- Blaming bad ones
- Making you aware of the typical traps





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- A course is not a substitute for a reference manual or a good book!





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- Neither a substitute for personal practice





# Outline



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My First Fortran Program
Compiling and Linking Your First Program
Making Choices
More Types and Choices
Wrapping it Up 1

More Fortran Basics

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#### My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  real :: delta
  real :: x1, x2
  real :: a, b, c
 print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c:'
  read (*,*) a, b, c
  delta = sgrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c) ! square root of discriminant
  x1 = -b + delta
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  x1 = x1/(2.0*a)
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- Best practice: do comment your code!
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- Best practice: do comment your code!
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  - ▶ Tricks
- ▶ Best practice: do not over-comment your code!
  - Obvious comments obfuscate code and annoy readers
  - ▶ ! square root of discriminant is a bad example





### My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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## Program Units: Main Program



- ► Fortran code is organized in program units
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  - Procedures (subroutines and functions)
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  - It's called automatically to execute the program
  - An optional program program-name can appear at the beginning
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  - It's called automatically to execute the program
  - An optional program program-name can appear at the beginning
  - An end statement must terminate it, optionally followed by program or program program-name
- Best practice: always mark unit beginning and ending with its type and name
  - Makes your readers (including you) happier





### My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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#### Variables



- ▶ real :: x1, x2 declares two variables
  - Named memory locations where values can be stored
  - Declared by specifying a data type, an optional attribute list, and a comma-separated list of names
  - ► On most CPUs (notably x86), real means that x1 and x2 host IEEE single precision (i.e. 32 bits) floating point values





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- ► A legal *name* must be used for a variable:
  - Permitted characters: a-z, A-Z, 0-9, \_
  - The first one cannot be a digit (e.g. x1 is a valid name, 1x is not)
  - At most 31 characters are permitted (63 in Fortran 2003)
  - ► A good advice: do not exceed 31 characters in a name





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  - A good advice: do not exceed 31 characters in a name
- Beware: Fortran is CaSe insenSITIVE!







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- By default, Fortran assumes that variables not appearing in any declaration statement are implicitly declared as follows:
  - Variables whose name starts with A H and O Z are reals
  - ► Variables whose name starts with I, J, K, L, M, N are integers
- Best practice: it is strongly recommended to turn off implicit declarations with implicit none, at the beginning of each program unit
  - Improves readability and clarity: each variable has its type declared
  - Mistyped names can be caught by the compiler as undeclared variables





### My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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  - ▶ read(\*,\*) and read \*, read
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- write(\*,\*) and print \*, are equivalent
- Enough for now, disregard details





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- sqrt () is an intrinsic function returning the square root of its argument
- x1 = x1 + delta is a statement assigning the value of expression x1 + delta to variable x1
- By the way, expressions can be passed as argument to functions, as to sqrt(): their value will be computed and passed to the function





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### What a Compiler Is



- Fortran lets you write programs in a high-level, human-readable language
- Computer CPUs do not directly understand this language
- You need to translate your code into machine-level instructions for your CPU architecture
- Compilers take care of that translation and generate machine code that can be actually executed by a CPU





### What a Compiler Does



- Compilers are sophisticated tools, made up of many components
- When compiler is invoked to generate executable code, three main steps are performed:
  - parsing of source files, various kinds of analysis and transformations, optimization and assembly files creation
  - 2. machine-code generation and object file creation
    - an object file is an organized collection of all symbols (variables, functions...) used or referenced in the code
  - 3. linking and executable creation
- Options are provided to execute each step separately, take a look at the manual of your favourite compiler, there's a lot to learn!





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  - Compile with:

user@caspur\$> gfortran second\_degree\_eq.f90

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An executable file named a.out (a.exe under Windows) will be generated

Run the program under GNU/Linux with:

user@caspur\$> ./a.out

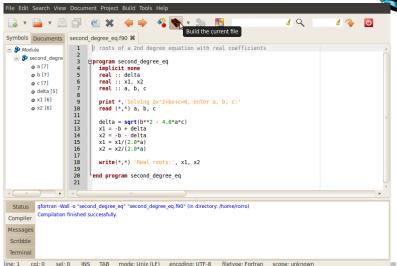
or under Windows with:

C:\Documents and Settings\user> a.exe





## Do You Like IDEs? Geany







#### Hands-on Session #1



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- Let's avoid this, by changing from:

```
delta = sqrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c)
tO:
delta = b**2 - 4.0*a*c
if (delta < 0.0) then
    stop
end if
delta = sqrt(delta)</pre>
```

► Try it now!





- ▶ User wants to solve  $x^2 + 1 = 0$ 
  - ▶ Enters: 1, 0, 1
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- ► Try it now!
- Did you check that normal cases still work? Good.





#### Conditional Statement



▶ if (logical-condition) then block of statements

#### end if

- ► Executes *block of statements* only if *logical-condition* is true
- ► Comparison operators: == (equal), /= (not equal), >, <, >=, <=
- When block is made up by a single statement, you can use one-liner if (logical-condition) statement instead





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if (delta < 0.0) then
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to:
if (delta < 0.0) stop 'No real roots!'</pre>
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Try it now!





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- Try it now!
- Did you check that normal cases still work? Good.







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Sloppy guys write:

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In general, Fortran disregards white space, but proper indentation visualizes program control flow





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#### Let's Refactor Our Program (and Test it!)



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  real :: delta
  real :: rp
  real :: a, b, c
  print *,'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  if (delta < 0.0) stop 'No real roots!'
  delta = sgrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
  rp = -b/(2.0*a)
  print *,'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
end program second degree eg
```



### And Now Make it More Complex!



! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients

```
program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  real :: delta, rp, a, b, c
  logical :: rroots
  print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  rroots = .true.
  if (delta < 0.0) then
   delta = -delta
    rroots = .false.
  end if
  delta = sqrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
  rp = -b/(2.0*a)
  if (rroots) then
    print *, 'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
  else
    print *,'Complex roots: ', rp, '+', delta, 'i ', &
             rp, '-', delta, 'i'
  end if
end program second degree eg
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# More Types and Choices



- ▶ logical type represents logical values
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## More Types and Choices



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  - ► Can be .true. or .false.
- else has to appear inside an if () then/end if pair, and the following statements up to end if are executed when the logical condition is false
- Allows for choosing between alternative paths





## More Types and Choices



- logical type represents logical values
  - ► Can be .true. or .false.
- else has to appear inside an if () then/end if pair, and the following statements up to end if are executed when the logical condition is false
- Allows for choosing between alternative paths
- Again, use proper indentation





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  real :: delta, rp, a, b, c
  logical :: rroots
  print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  rroots = .true.
  if (delta < 0.0) then
   delta = -delta
    rroots = .false.
  end if
  delta = sqrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
  rp = -b/(2.0*a)
  if (rroots) then
    print *, 'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
  else
    print *,'Complex roots: ', rp, '+', delta, 'i ', &
             rp, '-', delta, 'i'
  end if
end program second degree eg
```





# More Types and Choices



- logical type represents logical values
  - Can be .true. or .false.
- else has to appear inside an if () then/end if pair, and the following statements up to end if are executed when the logical condition is false
- Allows for choosing between alternative paths
- Again, use proper indentation
- ▶ And Fortran statements cannot exceed one line, unless it ends with an &





# Try it Now!



! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients

```
program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  real :: delta, rp, a, b, c
  logical :: rroots
  print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  rroots = .true.
  if (delta < 0.0) then
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  end if
  delta = sqrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
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  if (rroots) then
    print *, 'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
  else
    print *,'Complex roots: ', rp, '+', delta, 'i ', &
             rp, '-', delta, 'i'
  end if
end program second degree eg
```



### Let's Make it as Complex as Possible!



! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients

```
program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  complex :: delta
  complex :: z1, z2
  real :: a, b, c
  print *,'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  delta = sqrt(delta)
  z1 = (-b+delta)/(2.0*a)
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 print *.'Roots: ', z1, z2
end program second degree eg
```







- ► Fortran has complex type:
  - hosting two real values, real and imaginary parts







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- Most math functions like sqrt () work for complex type too!
  - Returning correct results, instead of NaNs
- And so do read, write, and print
- ▶ (1.5, 2.3) is *Fortranese* for 1.5 + 2.3*i*





# Try it Now!



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```
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  complex :: z1, z2
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▶ What if user inputs zeroes for *a* or *a* and *b*?





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- Let's prevent these cases, inserting right after input:

```
if (a == 0.0) then
  if (b == 0.0) then
   if (c == 0.0) then
     write(0,*) 'A trivial identity!'
  else
     write(0,*) 'Plainly absurd!'
  end if
  else
     write(0,*) 'Too simple problem!'
  end if
  stop
end if
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Can you see the program logic?





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```

- Can you see the program logic?
- Try it now!
- Did you check that normal cases still work? Good.





#### Miscellaneous remarks



- ► Nested ifs can be a problem
  - ▶ else marries innermost if () then/end if pair
  - Proper indentation is almost mandatory to sort it out



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- What's this write(0,\*) stuff?
  - write() and read() let you specify an output (input) file 'handle' called a unit
  - Unit 0 is usually connected to a special file, mandatory for error messages to the terminal (e.g. UNIX standard error)
  - By the way, write (\*, \*) is a system independent idiom for what you'll often find written as write (6, \*)
  - And read(\*,\*) is a system independent idiom for what you'll often find written as read(5,\*)
  - And stop error-message is equivalent to: write (0, \*) error-message stop





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  - And read(\*,\*) is a system independent idiom for what you'll often find written as read(5,\*)
  - And stop error-message is equivalent to: write (0, \*) error-message stop
- Best practice: if your program has to fail, always have it fail in a controlled way





► Let's give names to if constructs:





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- Giving names to constructs makes program logic more explicit
- Names are for readability purposes only, do not enforce pairing rules
- Best practice: always give names to constructs which span many lines of code or are deeply nested





### Fortran Code, in the Beginning of Times



- ► The one on the right, is the statement **z**(**I**) = **Y** + **W**(**I**)
- The one in the middle, is an IBM punch card reader
- ► The one on the left, is a complete Fortran source program
- But you'll only encounter these in museums, nowadays





### A Taste of Fortran in the Late 70s



#### C ROOTS OF A 2ND DEGREE EQUATION WITH REAL COEFFICIENTS

#### PROGRAM EQ2DEG

```
IMPLICIT NONE
REAL DELTA
REAL RP
REAL A, B, C
PRINT *, 'SOLVING AX^2+BX+C=0, ENTER A, B. C: '
READ (*,*) A, B, C
DELTA = B*B - 4.0*A*C
IF (DELTA.LT.0.0) STOP 'NO REAL ROOTS!'
DELTA = SQRT(DELTA)/(2.0*A)
RP = -B/(2.0*A)
PRINT * . 'REAL ROOTS: ' . RP+DELTA . RP-DELTA
END
```





### Legacy Code: Distinctive Characters



- Code is all capitals
  - First computers had only uppercase letters
- Fixed source form
  - ► The legacy of punch cards
  - ▶ Comment lines must be marked with a c or \* in first column
  - First six columns on each line are reserved for labels and to mark continuation lines
  - Columns after the 72nd are ignored (cause of really nasty bugs!)
- ► No double colon on variable declarations
  - And no way to initialize a variable at declaration, for that matter
  - More on this later
- And this example is not that different...





C

### A Bottle of Fortran, Vintage Year 1963



```
SOLUTION OF QUADRATIC EQUATION
      (P. 122 OF A FORTRAN PRIMER BY E. ORGANICK)
 1 READ INPUT TAPE 5, 51, ANAME, N
51 FORMAT (A6, I2)
   WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6.52, ANAME
52 FORMAT (1H1.33HROOTS OF OUADRATIC EOUATIONS FROM A6)
   DO 21 I = 1, N
   READ INPUT TAPE 5, 53, A, B, C
53 FORMAT (3F10.2)
   WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6,54, I, A, B, C
54 FORMAT (1H0, 8HSET NO. I2/5H A = F8.2, 12X, 4HB = F8.2, 12X, 4HC = F8.2)
   IF(A) 10, 7, 10
 7 \text{ RLIN} = -C/B
   WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 55, RLIN
55 FORMAT (7H LINEAR, 25X, 4HX = F10.3)
   GO TO 21
10 D = B**2 - 4.*A*C
   IF(D) 12, 17, 17
12 COMPR = -B/(2.*A)
   COMP1 = SQRTF(-D)/(2.*A)
   COMP2= -COMP1
   WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 56, COMPR, COMP1, COMP2
56 FORMAT(8H COMPLEX, 21X, 7HR(X1) = F10.3, 11X, 7HI(X1) = F10.3, /1H , 28X,
  17HR(X2) = F10.3, 11X, 7HI(X2) = F10.3
16 GO TO 21
17 \text{ REAL1} = (-B + \text{SORTF}(D))/(2.*A)
   REAL2 = (-B - SQRTF(D))/(2.*A)
20 WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 57, REAL1, REAL2
57 FORMAT (6H REAL 25X, 5HX1 = F10.3, 13X, 5HX2 = F10.3)
21 CONTINUE
   WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 58, ANAME
58 FORMAT (8H0END OF A6)
   GO TO 1
   END
```





### Best Practice: Free Yourself



- Write new code in free source form
  - No limits on beginning of program statements
  - ► Each line may contain up to 132 default characters
  - Comments can be added at end of line
  - And it comes for free: just give your source file name an .f90 extension
- Use new language features
  - Like new styles for declarations
  - Or naming of constructs
  - They are more powerful and readable
- ► We'll focus on modern Fortran programming style
  - Making you aware of differences you are most likely to encounter
  - Look at compiler manuals or reference books to tame very old codes





# Outline



#### Introduction

#### Fortran Basics

My First Fortran Program
Compiling and Linking Your First Program
Making Choices
More Types and Choices
Wrapping it Up 1

More Fortran Basics

Integer Types and Iterating

More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks





# A Fortran Program is Made of: I



- Comments
  - Compiler disregards them, but humans do not
  - Please, use them
  - ▶ Do not abuse them, please
- Program units
  - ▶ One, at least: program
  - ► Some of them (functions) are intrinsic to the language
- Variables
  - Named memory location you can store values into
  - Must be declared
- Variables declarations
  - Give name to memory location you can store values into
  - An initial value can be specified





# A Fortran Program is Made of: II



- Expressions
  - Compute values to store in variables
  - Compute values to pass to functions and statements
- Statements
  - Units of executable work
  - Whose execution can be controlled by other constructs
- if statements and constructs
  - Allow for conditional and alternative execution
  - For both single statements and blocks of





### **Best Practices**



- ▶ Use free source form
- implicit none statement
  - Turn off implicit declarations
- Use proper indentation
  - Compilers don't care about
  - Readers visualize flow control
- Give names to complex control structures, readers will appreciate
- Do non-regression testing
  - Whenever functionalities are added
  - Whenever you rewrite a code in a different way
- Fail in a controlled way
  - Giving feedback to humans





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# My First Fortran Functions



```
function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
 implicit none
 real :: theta
 real :: x
 theta = 1.0
 if (x < 0.0) theta = 0.0
end function theta
function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
  implicit none
 real ·· sinc
 real :: x
 real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
 x = x*pi
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 if (x \neq 0.0) sinc = \sin(x)/x
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  - Same as a variable declaration
  - Could be declared on the function heading, but it's less flexible and less readable
  - More on this later...
- How to return a value
  - Just assign it to the function name, as if it were a variable
  - But this doesn't force function termination
  - Multiple assignments can be done
  - The last assigned value before function execution is complete will be returned





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- What if a dummy argument has the same name of a variable elsewhere in the program?
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- Variables can be defined inside functions
  - Again, they are local, thus completely independent from the rest of the program





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#### Intrinsic vs. External



- Fortran sports a wealth (over a hundred!) of predefined functions and procedures
- ► These are termed intrinsic
  - ▶ acos (x) returns the arc cosine of x such that  $|x| \le 1$  in the range  $0 \le \arccos(x) \le \pi$
  - $\blacktriangleright$  sin(x) returns the sine function value of x in radians
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  - $\triangleright$  sin(x) returns the sine function value of x in radians
  - **abs** ( $\mathbf{x}$ ) returns the absolute value of x
- What's this external keyword?
- It's one of the many attributes you can give to something you define
  - external tells the compiler theta is an external (i.e. non intrinsic) function
  - So the compiler is not forced to guess what it is from its use
  - And that way, masters can override intrinsic functions





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  - I.e. variables that cannot be modified after initialization (compiler will bark if you try)
- In initialization expressions:
  - only constants (possibly other parameters) can be used
  - only intrinsic operators or functions are allowed
- Best practice: always give name to constants
  - Particularly if unobvious, like 1.0/137.0
  - ▶ It also helps to centralize updates (well, not for  $\pi$ )





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### On To Testing



- ▶ Let's put the code in a file named dsp.f90
- Best practice: always put different groups of related functions in different files
  - Helps to tame complexity
  - You can always pass all source files to the compiler
  - And you'll learn to do better ...





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  - You can always pass all source files to the compiler
  - And you'll learn to do better ...
- And let's write a program to test all functions
  - And be distrustful, check again actual arguments after all function calls
- Best practice: always write a special purpose program to test each subset of functions
  - Best to include in the program automated testing of all relevant cases
  - Let's do by hand with I/O for now, to make it short





#### Hands-on Session #2



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real :: i,j,k
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real, external :: theta, sinc, rect
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end program dsp\_test







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print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
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rtheta = theta(i)
rsinc = sinc(i)
rrect = rect(j, k)
```

end program dsp\_test

program dsp test







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rsinc = sinc(i)
rrect = rect(j, k)

write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ') = ', rtheta
write(*,*) 'sinc(', i, ') = ', rsinc
write(*,*) 'rect(', j, ',', k, ') = ', rrect
end program dsp test
```







► Let's build our test program putting all together:

```
user@caspur$> gfortran dsp.f90 dsp_test.f90 -o dsp_test
```

-o option specifies the name dsp\_test for the executable







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- ► -o option specifies the name dsp\_test for the executable
- Now run the program:

```
user@caspur$> ./dsp_test
Enter i, j, k:
-1 0 1

theta( -3.1415927  ) = 0.0000000
sinc( -3.1415927  ) = -2.78275341E-08
rect( 0.0000000  , 1.0000000  ) = 1.0000000
```







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```

- Something is going wrong, isn't it?
  - Seems like one function changed its actual argument!





#### On To Testing



- ► Let's put the code in a file named dsp.f90
- Best practice: always put different groups of related functions in different files
  - Helps to tame complexity
  - You can always pass all source files to the compiler
  - And you'll learn to do better ...
- And let's write a program to test all functions
  - And be distrustful, check again actual arguments after all function calls
- Best practice: always write a special purpose program to test each subset of functions
  - Best to include in the program automated testing of all relevant cases
  - Let's do by hand with I/O for now, to make it short





#### State Your Intent!



```
function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
 implicit none
 real :: theta
 real, intent(in) :: x
 theta = 1.0
 if (x < 0.0) theta = 0.0
end function theta
function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
  implicit none
 real ·· sinc
 real. intent(in) :: x
 real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
 x = x*pi
 sinc = 1.0
 if (x \neq 0.0) sinc = \sin(x)/x
end function sinc
function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
 implicit none
 real :: rect
 real, intent(in) :: t, tau
 real :: abs t. half tau
 real, external :: theta
 abs t = abs(t)
 half tau = 0.5*tau
 rect = 0.5
 if (abs t /= half tau) rect = theta(half tau-abs t)
end function rect
```





## Testing DSP Functions Again



► Try to recompile dsp.f90...





# Testing DSP Functions Again



- ► Try to recompile dsp.f90...
- Now compiler will check if you respect your stated intents:

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -o dsp_test dsp_test.f90 dsp.f90
dsp.f90:16.2:
    x = x*pi
    1
Error: Cannot assign to INTENT(IN) variable 'x' at (1)
```



# Testing DSP Functions Again



- ► Try to recompile dsp.f90...
- Now compiler will check if you respect your stated intents:

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -o dsp_test dsp_test.f90 dsp.f90
dsp.f90:16.2:
    x = x*pi
    1
Error: Cannot assign to INTENT(IN) variable 'x' at (1)
```

Got a compiler error message? Good!







► Arguments are passed *by reference* in Fortran







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  - Dummy and actual arguments share the same memory locations







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  - intent(in) for those you only plan to read values from
  - intent (out) for those you only plan to write values to
  - intent (inout) (default) for those you plan to do both





### My First Fortran Functions Fixed!



```
function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
 implicit none
 real :: theta
 real, intent(in) :: x
 theta = 1.0
 if (x < 0.0) theta = 0.0
end function theta
function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
  implicit none
 real :: sinc, xpi
 real, intent(in) :: x
 real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
 xpi = x*pi
 sinc = 1.0
 if (xpi /= 0.0) sinc = sin(xpi)/xpi
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function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
  implicit none
 real :: rect
 real, intent(in) :: t, tau
 real :: abs t. half tau
 real, external :: theta
 abs t = abs(t)
 half tau = 0.5*tau
 rect = 0.5
 if (abs t /= half tau) rect = theta(half tau-abs t)
end function rect
```





# Testing DSP Function the Last Time



#### Way much better!

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -o dsp_test dsp_test.f90 dsp.f90
user@caspur$> ./dsp_test
Enter i, j, k:
-1 0 1
theta(
       -1.0000000
                               0.000000
 sinc(
      -1.0000000
                       ) = -2.78275341E-08
        0.0000000
                           1.0000000
                                                1.0000000
 rect (
```





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                                                1.0000000
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Now comment out real :: i, j, k in dsp\_test.f90, recompile and rerun





# SCAI Testing DSP Function the Last Time



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 sinc( -1.0000000
                       ) = -2.78275341E-08
        0.0000000
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                                                1.0000000
```

- Now comment out real :: i, j, k in dsp\_test.f90, recompile and rerun
- ▶ Now add implicit none to dsp\_test.f90 and do it again





# Outline



#### Introduction

#### Fortran Basics

#### More Fortran Basics

My First Fortran Functions
Making it Correct
Making it Robust
Copying with Legacy
Wrapping it Up 2

Integer Types and Iterating

More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks







► Try to pass integer variables as actual arguments to theta(), sinc(), and rect()





- ► Try to pass integer variables as actual arguments to theta(), sinc(), and rect()
- Got some surprising behavior?





- Try to pass integer variables as actual arguments to theta(), sinc(), and rect()
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- Our testing program doesn't know enough about external functions it is calling
  - It is knowledgeable about return types
  - It is totally ignorant about argument types





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- Our testing program doesn't know enough about external functions it is calling
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  - It is totally ignorant about argument types
- We can make it aware using interface blocks



# **Explicit Interface**



```
program dsp
```

```
implicit none
real :: i, j,k
```

real, external :: theta, sinc, rect

```
print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
read(*,*) i, j, k

write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ')= ', theta(i)
write(*,*) 'sinc(', i , ')= ', sinc(i)
write(*,*) 'rect(', j, ',', k, ')= ', rect(j,k)
end program dsp
```



program dsp

# **Explicit Interface**



```
implicit none
 real :: i,j,k
 interface
    function theta(x)
      real :: theta, x
    end function theta
 end interface
 interface
    function sinc(x)
      real :: sinc, x
    end function sinc
 end interface
  interface
    function rect(t, tau)
      real :: rect, t, tau
    end function rect
 end interface
 print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
 read(*.*) i. i. k
 write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ')= ', theta(i)
 write(*,*) 'sinc(', i , ') = ', sinc(i)
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  - Just type it in each program unit calling dsp functions







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  - Just type it in each program unit calling dsp functions
  - Or, if your life is too short for typing, copy and paste it
  - But life is too short to modify interfaces spread around 56 program units
  - Good, but still error prone, no better way?







Modules are the Fortran way to complete and robust management of sets of related routines and more



# My First Module



```
module dsp
  implicit none
contains
  function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
    real :: theta
    real. intent(in) :: x
    theta = 1.0
    if (x < 0.0) theta = 0.0
  end function theta
  function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
    real :: sinc. xpi
    real, intent(in) :: x
    real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
    xpi = x*pi
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  end function sinc
  function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    real ·· rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
    real :: abs t, half tau
    abs t = abs(t)
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end module dsp
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  end function rect
end module dsp
```







- Modules are the Fortran way to complete and robust management of sets of related routines and more
- Interfaces are automatically defined for each procedure a module contains
- ▶ To use theta(), sinc(), and rect() in a program unit:
  - just add a use dsp statement
  - before you declare anything else in the unit





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- ► Try it now!





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- ► Try it now!
- Best practices







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- Best practices
  - ▶ If you have a set of related procedures, always make a module
  - If you have a single procedure, just to tame code complexity, called by a single program unit, a module could be overkill





#### use Modules, Instead!



- Modules are the Fortran way to complete and robust management of sets of related routines and more
- Interfaces are automatically defined for each procedure a module contains
- ▶ To use theta(), sinc(), and rect() in a program unit:
  - just add a use dsp statement
  - before you declare anything else in the unit
- ► Try it now!
- Best practices
  - If you have a set of related procedures, always make a module
  - ► If you have a single procedure, just to tame code complexity, called by a single program unit, a module could be overkill
- But there is a lot more to say about modules







- ► A nice colleague handed you the **dsp** module...
- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
  - don't change the module source







- ► A nice colleague handed you the dsp module...
- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
  - don't change the module source
  - use dsp, only : theta, sinc and keep using your own rect()







- ► A nice colleague handed you the dsp module...
- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
  - don't change the module source
  - use dsp, only : theta, sinc and keep using your own rect()
- or you already have a function called theta(), called all over your code, and don't want to change it:







- ► A nice colleague handed you the dsp module...
- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
  - don't change the module source
  - use dsp, only : theta, sinc and keep using your own rect()
- or you already have a function called theta(), called all over your code, and don't want to change it:
  - rename the theta() function in dsp like this: use dsp, heaviside=>theta







- ► A nice colleague handed you the dsp module...
- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
  - don't change the module source
  - use dsp, only : theta, sinc and keep using your own rect()
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- or maybe both:







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  - rename the theta() function in dsp like this: use dsp, heaviside=>theta
- or maybe both:
  - ▶ use dsp, only : heaviside=>theta, sinc







```
function rect(t, tau)
  implicit none
  real :: rect
  real, intent(in) :: t, tau
  real :: abs_t, half_tau

  abs_t = abs(t)
  half_tau = 0.5*tau
  rect = 0.5
  if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect
```

▶ What if rect () is passed a negative argument for tau?







```
function rect(t, tau)
  implicit none
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- ▶ What if rect () is passed a negative argument for tau?
  - Wrong results





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- What if rect () is passed a negative argument for tau?
  - Wrong results
- ► Taking the absolute value of tau it's a possibility





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  real :: rect
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  real :: abs_t, half_tau

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  half_tau = 0.5*tau
  rect = 0.5
  if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect
```

- What if rect () is passed a negative argument for tau?
  - Wrong results
- ► Taking the absolute value of tau it's a possibility
- But not a good one, because:
  - a negative rectangle width is nonsensical
  - probably flags a mistake in the calling code
  - and a zero rectangle width is also a problem





# Failing Predictably



```
function rect(t, tau)
  implicit none
  real :: rect
  real, intent(in) :: t, tau
  real :: abs_t, half_tau

  if (tau <= 0.0) stop 'rect() non positive second argument'
  abs_t = abs(t)
  half_tau = 0.5*tau
  rect = 0.5
  if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect</pre>
```

A known approach...



# Failing Predictably



```
function rect(t, tau)
  implicit none
  real :: rect
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if (tau <= 0.0) stop 'rect() non positive second argument'
  abs_t = abs(t)
  half_tau = 0.5*tau
  rect = 0.5
  if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect</pre>
```

- A known approach...
- but too rude!
  - No clue at the argument value
  - No clue at which call to rect () was wrong
  - And stopping a program in a procedure, called by another procedure, called by another procedure, ..., is widely reputed bad programming practice





module dsp

# A Better Approach



```
implicit none
 integer :: dsp_info
 integer, parameter :: DSPERR DOMAIN = 1
contains
  function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
! code as in previous examples...
 end function theta
 function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
! code as in previous examples...
 end function sinc
  function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    real :: rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
    real :: abs t, half tau
    if (tau \le 0.0) then
     dsp info = DSPERR DOMAIN
      rect = 0.0
      return
    end if
    abs t = abs(t)
    half tau = 0.5*tau
    rect = 0.5
    if (abs t /= half tau) rect = theta(half tau-abs t)
 end function rect
end module dsp
```





# A Better Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer :: dsp_info
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR DOMAIN = 1
contains
  function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
! code as in previous examples...
  end function theta
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#### More Module Power, and More Types



► Yes, a module can define variables, too





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- ► Yes, a module can define variables, too
- And they will be accessible to all program units using it





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#### More Module Power, and More Types



- ► Yes, a module can define variables, too
- And they will be accessible to all program units using it
- And yes, integer it's another Fortran type
  - For variables hosting integer numerical values
  - ► More on this later...





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#### More Module Power, and More Types



- ► Yes, a module can define variables, too
- And they will be accessible to all program units using it
- And yes, integer it's another Fortran type
  - For variables hosting integer numerical values
  - More on this later...
- And yes, return forces function execution to terminate and return to calling unit





# A Better Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer :: dsp_info
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# Error Management Strategy



- Set a module variable to a constant corresponding to the error class
- And return a sensible result





### **Error Management Strategy**



- Set a module variable to a constant corresponding to the error class
- And return a sensible result
- ► Then a wise user would do something like this:

```
dsp_info = 0
r = rect(x, width)
if (dsp_info == DSPERR_DOMAIN) then
  ! take corrective action or fail gracefully
end if
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end if
```

 Note: even if Fortran ignores case, constants are often highlighted using all capitals





## A Widely Used Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  function rect(t, tau, info) !qeneralized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    real :: rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
    integer, intent(out) :: info
    real :: abs t, half tau
    info = 0
    if (tau \le 0.0) then
      info = DSPERR DOMAIN
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#### Using Arguments to Return Error Codes



- Set a dedicated argument to a constant corresponding to the error class
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```
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if (rect_info == DSPERR_DOMAIN) then
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#### Using Arguments to Return Error Codes



- Set a dedicated argument to a constant corresponding to the error class
- And return a sensible result
- ► Then a wise user would do something like this:

```
r = rect(x, width, rect_info)
if (rect_info == DSPERR_DOMAIN) then
 ! take corrective action or fail gracefully
end if
```

- But this is annoying when the arguments are guaranteed to be correct
  - info can be given the optional attribute
  - ▶ and omitted when you feel it's safe: rect (x, 5.0)





# Making Argument Optionals



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  function rect(t, tau, info) !qeneralized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    real :: rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
    integer, intent(out), optional :: info
    real :: abs t, half tau
    if (present(info)) info = 0
    if (tau \le 0.0) then
      if (present(info)) info = DSPERR DOMAIN
      rect = 0.0
      return
    end if
    abs t = abs(t)
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## Making Argument Optionals



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  - Most common ones do, at least in a good part





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  - one of the arguments is a NaN
  - both arguments are infinite (they are not ordered!)







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- Best strategy: return a NaN and set dsp\_info in these bad cases
  - And do it also for non positive values of tau
  - But then the floating point environment configuration should be checked, proper floating point exceptions set...







- Your platform could support IEEE floating point standard
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- Best strategy: return a NaN and set dsp\_info in these bad cases
  - And do it also for non positive values of tau
  - But then the floating point environment configuration should be checked, proper floating point exceptions set...
- Being absolutely robust is difficult
  - Too advanced stuff to cover in this course
  - But not an excuse, some robustness is better than none
  - It's a process to do in steps
  - Always comment in your code bad cases you don't cover yet!





# Outline



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Copying with Legacy

Wranning it I in 2

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Homeworks





FUNCTION SINC(X)

### A Glimpse to Fortran 77



```
IMPLICIT NONE
 REAL SINC, X, XPI
 REAL PI
 PARAMETER (PI = 3.1415926)
 XPI = X*PI
 SINC = 1.0
 IF (XPI .NE. 0.0) SINC = SIN(XPI)/XPI
END
FUNCTION RECT (T. TAU)
 IMPLICIT NONE
 REAL RECT, T, TAU
 REAL ABS T. HALF TAU
 REAL THETA
 EXTERNAL THETA
 INTEGER DSPINFO
 COMMON /DSP/ DSPINFO
 IF (TAU .LE. 0.0) THEN
   DSPINFO = 1
   RECT = 0.0;
   RETURN
  END TE
 ABS T = ABS(T)
 HALF TAU = 0.5*TAU
 RECT = 0.5
  IF (ABS_T .NE. HALF_TAU) RECT = THETA(HALF_TAU-ABS_T)
END
```





# Many Things are Missing



- Strange looking relational operators
- No attributes
  - ▶ Declarations spread over many lines, error prone
- No initialization expressions
  - You had to type in the actual number
- ▶ No intent i.e. no defense from subtle bugs
- No interface





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- No easy way to share variables among program units
  - ► To share you had to use **common** statements
  - ► And type in variable types and **common** statements in each unit
  - And the smallest mistake can turn into a nightmare





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- No easy way to share variables among program units
  - ► To share you had to use **common** statements
  - And type in variable types and common statements in each unit
  - And the smallest mistake can turn into a nightmare
- Bottom line:
  - ▶ Is **common** good or bad? The jury is still out
  - We'll not cover them, but you'll encounter them
  - Read the fine print, or better switch to modules, they are way much better





### Refurbishing Old Code



- You are lucky, and inherit a 4000 lines of code library, coming from the dark ages
  - Tested and tried





### Refurbishing Old Code



- You are lucky, and inherit a 4000 lines of code library, coming from the dark ages
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- But no interface
  - Thus no compiler checks when you call it
  - And rewriting a working code in modern language is soooo dangerous...





### Refurbishing Old Code



- You are lucky, and inherit a 4000 lines of code library, coming from the dark ages
  - Tested and tried
- But no interface
  - ► Thus no compiler checks when you call it
  - And rewriting a working code in modern language is soooo dangerous...
- Modules come to rescue
  - They don't need to include the actual code
  - But they can publish an interface for code which is elsewhere
  - And then you can use the module in calling program units





module dspmod

### Wrapping Old Code in a Module



```
implicit none
interface
  function theta(x)
    real :: theta
    real, intent(in) ::x
  end function theta
end interface
interface
  function sinc(x)
    real :: sinc
    real, intent(in) :: x
  end function sinc
end interface
interface
  function rect(t, tau)
    real :: rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
  end function rect
end interface
```

end module dspmod





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Homeworks





### We Did Progress!



- A program can be subdivided in more source files
- Functions and their arguments
- Arguments are passed to functions by reference
- intent attribute is precious to prevent subtle bugs
- Intrinsic and external procedures are two different things
- parameter variables
- Explicit interfaces
- Modules allow complete management of procedures
- Modules allow access to variables from many program units
- Modules can be used to make proper use of legacy, reliable codes





### **Best Practices**



- Always name constants
- ► Test every function you write
  - Writing specialized programs to do it
- Use language support and compiler to catch mistakes
- Use explicit interfaces
- Use modules
- Describe all attributes of a variable at declaration
- Anticipate causes of problems
  - Find a rational way to react
  - Fail predictably and in a user friendly way
  - Robustness it's a long way to do in steps
  - Comment in your code issues still to address





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#### **Greatest Common Divisor**



- Euclid's Algorithm
  - 1. Take two integers a and b
  - 2. Let  $r \leftarrow a \mod b$
  - 3. Let  $a \leftarrow b$
  - 4. Let  $b \leftarrow r$
  - 5. If b is not zero, go back to step 2
  - 6. a is the GCD
- Let's implement it and learn some more Fortran





#### GCD & LCM



```
module number_theory
  implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = a
    qb = b
    do
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      qb = t
    end do
  end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
  end function 1cm
end module number_theory
```





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- As we said, integer means that a value is an integer
  - Only integer values, positive, negative or zero
  - ► On most platforms, **integer** means a 32 bits value, ranging from  $-2^{31}$  to  $2^{31} 1$







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  - Try with kind(0), to know the size of a normal integer





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  - Try with kind(0), to know the size of a normal integer
  - And works for real values too, or values of any type, for that matter
  - More on this later
- Want to know more?
  - Intrinsic function huge (0) returns the greatest positive value an integer can assume
  - Again, we'll be back at this





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#### GCD & LCM



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contains
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    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = a
    qb = b
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      qb = t
    end do
  end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
  end function 1cm
end module number_theory
```







▶ do

block of statements

- 1. Executes again and again the block of statements
- 2. And does this forever...
- ... unless exit is executed, forcing execution to proceed at code following end do







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  - thus, we could use return instead of exit, which is legal,
  - but generally regarded bad practice







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- In this specific example:
  - the code following end do is the end of the function
  - thus, we could use return instead of exit, which is legal,
  - but generally regarded bad practice
- Best practice: do not bail out of a function from inside a loop, particularly a long one





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#### Hands-on Session #3



- ▶ Put the code in file numbertheory.f90
- Write a program to test both gcd() and lcm() on a pair of integer numbers
- Test it:
  - with pairs of small positive integers
  - ▶ with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18;
    - -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0





#### GCD & LCM: Try it Now!



```
module number theory
  implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = a
    qb = b
    do
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
  end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
  end function 1cm
end module number_theory
```





#### Hands-on Session #3



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- ▶ Write a program to test both gcd() and lcm() on a pair of integer numbers
- Test it:
  - with pairs of small positive integers
  - with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
- In some cases, we get wrong results or runtime errors
  - Euclid's algorithm is only defined for positive integers





#### Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set











# GCD & LCM: Dealing with 0 and Negatives



```
module number theory
  implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = abs(a)
    qb = abs(b)
    do
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
  end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
  end function 1cm
end module number_theory
```





#### Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set



- ► Taking the absolute value of a and b using abs () will do
- gcd(a, 0) is |a|
  - Conditional statements will do







# GCD & LCM: Dealing with 0 and Negatives



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module number theory
 implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: gb, t
    gcd = abs(a)
    \sigma b = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) gcd = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
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 end function gcd
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    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
 end function 1cm
end module number theory
```





#### Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set





- ▶ gcd(a, 0) is |a|
  - Conditional statements will do
- ▶ gcd(0,0) is 0
  - Already covered by the previous item, but let's pay attention to lcm()





# GCD & LCM: Dealing with 0 and Negatives



```
module number theory
 implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = abs(a)
    qb = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) gcd = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd, qb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    if (a == 0 .and. b == 0) then
      lcm = 0 : return
    end if
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
 end function 1cm
end module number theory
```





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- ▶ gcd(a, 0) is |a|
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- By the way:
  - .and. and .or. combine two logical conditions
  - ; makes for two statements on the same line: but its use is only justified when space is at a premium, like in slides





#### Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set





- ▶ gcd(a, 0) is |a|
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- By the way:
  - .and. and .or. combine two logical conditions
  - ; makes for two statements on the same line: but its use is only justified when space is at a premium, like in slides
- Try and test it:
  - with pairs of small positive integers
  - with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0





#### GCD & LCM: Try it Now!



```
module number_theory
 implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
    gcd = abs(a)
    qb = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) gcd = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd, qb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
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    end if
    lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
 end function 1cm
end module number theory
```





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- ▶ gcd(a, 0) is |a|
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- Try and test it:
  - with pairs of small positive integers
  - ▶ with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18;
    - -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
  - ▶ and with the pair: 1000000, 1000000





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▶ a\*b/gcd(a,b) same as (a\*b)/gcd(a,b)





- a\*b/gcd(a,b) same as (a\*b)/gcd(a,b)
- What if the result of a calculation cannot be represented in the given type?
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  - ▶ To Fortran, it's your fault: you are on your own
  - Best practice: be very careful of intermediate results







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#### GCD & LCM: Preventing Overflow



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module number_theory
 implicit none
contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: qb, t
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    qb = abs(b)
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    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd, qb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: 1cm
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    end if
    lcm = a*(b/gcd(a,b))
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end module number theory
```







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  - Best practice: be very careful of intermediate results
- ► Easy fix: gcd(a, b) is an exact divisor of b
- Try and test it:
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  - with the pair: 1000000, 1000000







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  - with pairs of small positive integers
  - ▶ on the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
  - with the pair: 1000000, 1000000
  - and let's test also with: 1000000, 1000001





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  - ▶ but 64 bits wide integers can safely host 10<sup>18</sup>







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- selected\_int\_kind(n):
  - returns a kind type parameter corresponding to an internal representation capable to host the value 10<sup>n</sup>
  - ▶ or -1 if none is wide enough
- integer accepts an optional kind type parameter
  - integer(kind=selected\_int\_kind(9)) :: di usually makes di a 32 bits wide variable
  - integer (kind=selected\_int\_kind(18)) :: wi makes wi a 64 bits wide variable
  - ▶ integer(selected\_int\_kind(18)) :: wi will also do





#### GCD & LCM: Let's Make Kind Explicit



```
module number_theory
  implicit none
contains
  function gcd9(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer(selected_int_kind(9)) :: gcd9
    integer(selected int kind(9)), intent(in) :: a, b
    integer(selected int kind(9)) :: qb, t
    gcd9 = abs(a)
    qb = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) \gcd 9 = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd9, qb)
      gcd9 = gb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd9
  function lcm9(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer(selected int kind(9)) :: lcm9
    integer(selected_int_kind(9)), intent(in) :: a, b
    if (a == 0 .and. b == 0) then
      lcm9 = 0 : return
    end if
    lcm9 = a*(b/gcd9(a,b))
 end function 1cm9
end module number theory
```







And let's add support for a wider integer range





#### GCD & LCM: Let's Add Headroom



```
function gcd18(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
  integer(selected_int_kind(18)) :: gcd18
  integer(selected int kind(18)), intent(in) :: a, b
  integer (selected int kind(18)) :: qb, t
  gcd18 = abs(a)
  qb = abs(b)
  if (a == 0) \gcd 18 = gb
  if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
  do
    t = mod(qcd18, qb)
    gcd18 = gb
    if (t == 0) exit
    ab = t
  end do
end function gcd18
function lcm18(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
  integer(selected int kind(18)) :: lcm18
  integer(selected_int_kind(18)), intent(in) :: a, b
  if (a == 0 .and. b == 0) then
    lcm18 = 0 : return
  end if
  lcm18 = a*(b/gcd18(a,b))
end function 1cm18
```

! add right after: end function 1cm9







- And let's add support for a wider integer range
- Wait!
  - Now we have to remember to call the right function, depending on the integer kind
  - But this is not Fortran style: we didn't have to change the call to intrinsic abs (), it's name is generic
  - ► Can we do better?







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  - Can we do better?
- Yes, we can do better!
  - interface blocks come to rescue





module number theory

# GCD & LCM: Making it Generic



```
implicit none
 private gcd9, lcm9, gcd18, lcm18
 interface gcd
    module procedure gcd9, gcd18
 end interface
  interface 1cm
    module procedure 1cm9, 1cm18
 end interface
contains
function gcd9(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd9
function lcm9(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm9
function gcd18(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd18
function lcm18(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm18
end module number theory
```







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  - Beware: specific functions under a same generic interface must differ in type of at least one argument





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 interface gcd
    module procedure gcd9, gcd18
 end interface
  interface 1cm
    module procedure 1cm9, 1cm18
 end interface
contains
function gcd9(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd9
function lcm9(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm9
function gcd18(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd18
function lcm18(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm18
end module number theory
```







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 private gcd9, lcm9, gcd18, lcm18
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    module procedure gcd9, gcd18
 end interface
  interface 1cm
    module procedure 1cm9, 1cm18
 end interface
contains
function gcd9(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd9
function lcm9(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm9
function gcd18(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
! code as before
end function gcd18
function lcm18(a,b) ! Least Common Multiple
! code as before
end function 1cm18
end module number theory
```







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### Being More General and Generic



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- Best practices for robustness:





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#### Being More General and Generic



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# **Dusty Decks**



```
FUNCTION GCD18(A, B)
        INTEGER*8 GCD18, A, B
        INTEGER*8 GB, T
        GCD18 = A
        GB = B
1
        T = MOD(GCD18, GB)
        GCD18 = GB
        IF (T .EQ. 0) GO TO 2
        GB = T
        GO TO 1
2
        CONTINUE
      END
      FUNCTION LCM18(A, B)
        INTEGER*8 LCM18, A, B
        INTEGER*8 GCD18
        EXTERNAL GCD18
        LCM18 = A*B/GCD18(A,B)
      END
```



#### A Limited Language with Many Dialects



- No structured endless loops
  - ► Labels and GO TOs where used instead
- ► CONTINUE was a no-op
  - Used to mark destination of jumps
  - No comment
- ► INTEGER\*8 was used to declare an 8 bytes integer variable
  - Absolutely non standard
  - ► As are INTEGER\*1, INTEGER\*2, INTEGER\*4, REAL\*4, REAL\*8, COMPLEX\*8, COMPLEX\*16
- Many dialects
  - Many proprietary extensions used to be developed
  - And then copied among vendors for compatibility reasons
  - Many extensions were eventually standardized
  - But not all of them!
  - They still lurk around, and can be tempting: resist!





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### More Types and Flow Control



- There are many integer types
  - With implementation dependent ranges
  - Selectable by kind type parameters
  - Whose limits can be devised using huge () or range ()
- ► Library functions have generic names, good for most types
- And you can write your own generic interfaces
- Behavior on integer overflow is implementation defined
  - Some control is possible using parentheses
- Blocks of statements can be iterated forever...
  - ... and exit gets off the roundabout
- Logical conditions can be combined using .or. and .and. operators





#### **Best Practices**

- Do not rely on type sizes, they are implementation dependent
- Do not leave a function from inside a loop
- Think of intermediate results in expressions: they can overflow or underflow
- Be consistent with Fortran approach
  - ► E.g. writing generic interfaces
  - Even if it costs more work
  - Even if it costs learning more Fortran
  - Once again, you can do it in steps
  - You'll appreciate it in the future
- Hide implementation details as much as possible
  - ➤ You'll never regret
- Resist the temptation of old Fortran or non standard extensions
  - Will pay back in the future







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Compiler stops on errors (grammar violation, syntactic errors, ...)





...)

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- Something is an error if not in Fortran 95 standard





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- -Wall option turns on commonly used warning on gfortran but not -Wimplicit-interface for example
- ▶ If given earlier ...
- Something is an error if not in Fortran 95 standard
  - ► Use -std=f95 to force reference standard





# **Building a Program**



Creating an executable from source files is in general a three phase process:

- pre-processing:
  - each source file is read by the pre-processor
    - substitute (#define) MACROs
    - insert code by #include statements
    - ▶ insert or delete code evaluating #ifdef, #if ...
- compiling:
  - each source file is translated into an object code file
    - an object code file is an organised collection of symbols, referring to variables and functions defined or used in the source file
- ► linking:
  - object files should be combined together to build a single executable program
  - every symbol should be resolved
    - symbols can be defined in your object files
    - or available in other object code (external libraries)







► When you give the command:

user@caspur\$> gfortran dsp.f90 dsp\_test.f90







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```

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- Pre-processing

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -E -cpp dsp.f90
user@caspur$> gfortran -E -cpp dsp_test.f90
```

- ► -E -cpp option, tells gfortran to stop after pre-process
- Simply calls cpp (automatically invoked if the file extension is F90)
- Output sent to standard output







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```

- ► -E -cpp option, tells gfortran to stop after pre-process
- Simply calls cpp (automatically invoked if the file extension is F90)
- Output sent to standard output
- Compiling sources

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -c dsp.f90
user@caspur$> gfortran -c dsp_test.f90
```

- -c option tells gfortran to only compile the source
- An object file .o is produced from each source file





### Linking with GNU gfortran



Linking object files together

```
user@caspur$> gfortran dsp.o dsp_test.o
```

- ➤ To resolve symbols defined in external libraries, specify:
  - which libraries to use (-1 option)
  - ▶ in which directories they are (-L option)
- ► How to link the library libdsp.a in /mypath

```
user@caspur$> gfortran file1.o file2.o -L/mypath -ldsp
```

How to create and link the DSP library:

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -c dsp.f90
ar curv libdsp.a dsp.o
ranlib libdsp.a
gfortran test_dsp.f90 -L. -ldsp
```

- ar create the archive libdsp.a containing dsp.o
- ► ranlib generate index to archive
- ▶ To include file like .mod, specify
  - ▶ in which directories they are (¬I option)







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#### Homework I



- Write a program that reads an integer value limit and prints the first limit prime numbers
  - Use the GCD function to identify those numbers
  - ► After testing the basic version, handle negative limit values: print an error message and attempt to read the value again





#### Homework II



- ▶ Write a module containing a function that takes an integer n as input, and returns the n-th element of the Fibonacci series fn
- Hint:
  - ▶  $F_0 = 0$
  - ▶  $F_1 = 1$
  - $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$
- Write a main program to test your function
  - ► Read n from standard input
  - ► Try with n=2, 10, 40, 46, 48, ...
  - What's the greatest n := maxn, for which fn is representable by a default integer? (huge can help to find it out)
  - Use this information to handle too large values of n in your function:
  - If n > maxn print an error message and return -1









# A Fortran Survey 2

Passing functions as arguments of procedurs. Conditional and numerical loops. Managing the precision, conversions, overflow, underflow, Inf e NaN. Expressions and subexpressions with mixed types. Types, operators and logical expressions. Type character and intrinsic functions for strings. Subroutine. Array. Default constructor for arrays and implicit loops. Assumed-shape array and automatic object. Expressions with arrays and conformity.







More Flow Control Numerical Integration Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





# Caveat Emptor



The code in this section is meant for didactical purposes only.

It is deliberately naive: focus is on language aspects, not on precision or accuracy.

As a consequence, it is prone to numerical problems.







More Flow Control Numerical Integration Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





# **Numerical Integration**



- ► Let's use the trapezoidal rule to estimate  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$
- Dividing the interval [a, b] into n equal sized slices, it boils down to:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \approx \frac{b-a}{n} \left( \frac{1}{2} f(a) + \frac{1}{2} f(b) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f\left(a + k \frac{b-a}{n}\right) \right)$$

And to make it more juicy, let's make a succession of estimates, doubling n each time, until the estimate seems stable



module integrals implicit none

# Double Steps



```
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
                                      ! integration interval and tolerance
    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
    interface
      real function f(x)
                                      ! function to integrate
        real, intent(in) :: x
      end function f
    end interface
    integer, parameter :: maxsteps = 2**23
    integer :: steps, i
    real :: acc, dx, prev estimate, estimate
    steps = 2
    prev estimate = 0.0 ; estimate = huge(0.0)
    dx = (b - a) *0.5
    acc = (f(a) + f(b))*0.5
conv: do while (abs(estimate - prev estimate) > tol)
        prev estimate = estimate
        do i=1, steps, 2
                                      ! only contributions from new points
          acc = acc + f(a + i*dx)
        end do
        estimate = acc+dx
        steps = steps*2
        if (steps > maxsteps) exit conv
        dx = dx + 0.5
      end do conv
    trap int = estimate
 end function trap int
end module
```





module integrals implicit none

## **Double Steps**



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contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                     ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                     ! by trapezoidal rule
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    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
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        real. intent(in) :: x
      end function f
    end interface
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#### **Function Arguments**



- Yes, a function can be passed as an argument to another function!
- ► Simply pass the name on call, like this:
- g = trap\_int(-pi, pi, sinc, 0.0001)
- And then the function can be called using the dummy argument name
- And this can be done for any procedure
- And allows for very generic code to be written
  - ► I.e. reuse the same routine to integrate different functions in the same program





module integrals implicit none

## Double Steps



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contains
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- And then the function can be called using the dummy argument name
- And this can be done for any procedure
- ► And allows for very generic code to be written
  - ▶ I.e. reuse the same routine to integrate different functions in the same program
- Integer and real values can be mixed in expressions
  - As well as values of same type but different kind
  - And the right thing will be done
  - Which is: when two values of different type/kind meet each other at a binary operator, the one with smaller numeric range fent converted to the other



module integrals implicit none

# Double Steps



```
contains
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                                     ! recursive approximation of integral
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```





# Iterating with do while ... end do



- do while (logical-condition) block of statements end do
  - 1. Evaluates logical-condition
  - 2. If *logical-condition* is false, goes to 5
  - 3. Executes the block of statements
  - Goes back to 1
  - Execution proceeds to the statement following end do





module integrals implicit none

# Double Steps



```
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                     ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
                                     ! integration interval and tolerance
    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
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end module
```





# Iterating with do while ... end do



do while (logical-condition) block of statements

- 1. Evaluates *logical-condition*
- 2. If logical-condition is false, goes to 5
- 3. Executes the block of statements
- 4. Goes back to 1
- Execution proceeds to the statement following end do
- do loops too can be given a name
  - And it can be used on exit statements to make the flow more evident
  - 2. Particularly for nested loops





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- Execution proceeds to the statement following end do
- do loops too can be given a name
  - 1. And it can be used on exit statements to make the flow more evident
  - 2. Particularly for nested loops
- Best practices:
  - use names to mark loops when they are long or belong to a deep nest
  - NEVER, NEVER permit your code to loop forever for some inputs





module integrals implicit none

# Double Steps



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contains
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                                     ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
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```







▶ do var = init, limit [, step]
 block of statements
end do







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  end do
  - 1. Sets step to 1, if none was specified







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   block of statements
  end do
  - 1. Sets *step* to 1, if none was specified
  - 2. Assign the init value to var





- ▶ do var = init, limit [, step]
   block of statements
  end do
  - 1. Sets *step* to 1, if none was specified
  - 2. Assign the init value to var
  - 3. Evaluates  $n_{iter} = \max\{0, \lfloor (limit init + step)/step \rfloor\}$





- ▶ do var = init, limit [, step] block of statements end do
  - 1. Sets *step* to 1, if none was specified
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  - 4. If  $n_{iter}$  is zero goes to 6





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    - 5. Executes *n*<sub>iter</sub> times the *block of statements*, adding *step* to *var* at the end of each *block of statements*







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- var, init, limit, and step should be integers







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  - Mandatory in Fortran 2003







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- Less flexible than a do while but more efficient execution (exit works, anyway)







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- Less flexible than a do while but more efficient execution (exit works, anyway)
- Best practice: do not give name to very tight loops





module integrals implicit none

## Hands-on Session #1



```
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
                                      ! integration interval and tolerance
    interface
      real function f(x)
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        real, intent(in) :: x
      end function f
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    integer, parameter :: maxsteps = 2**23
    integer :: steps, i
    real :: acc, dx, prev estimate, estimate
    steps = 2
    prev estimate = 0.0 ; estimate = huge(0.0)
    dx = (b - a) *0.5
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conv: do while (abs(estimate - prev estimate) > tol)
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        do i=1, steps, 2
                                      ! only contributions from new points
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    trap int = estimate
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```







Write a program to exercise trap\_int() on functions with known integrals







- Write a program to exercise trap\_int() on functions with known integrals
- ► Then take care of what was left out





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- ► Hints:







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  - trap\_int() arguments are naively handled: wrong results could be produced







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  - What if some arguments take a NaN value?







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  - Robustness has been almost totally overlooked (except for the safety exit)
  - What if some arguments take a **NaN** value?
  - What if some arguments take an Inf value?
  - ▶ What if some arguments take a ... value?





## Good Ol' Fortran



 Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there





## Good Ol' Fortran



- Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there
- Counted loops looked like this:



## Good Ol' Fortran



- Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there
- Counted loops looked like this:

- ▶ do while, exit, end do weren't there...
  - ... at least in the standard...
  - but are often found in codes, as dialect extensions.





More Flow Control
Numerical Integration
Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





# Forward Steps



- More flow control
  - Procedure arguments
  - ▶ do while
  - ► Counted do
- Mixed-mode expressions
- Name your loops
  - Particularly if long or nested
  - Particularly if you exit them
  - But don't do it for short ones
- Prevent any loop from running forever for some program inputs







#### More Flow Contro

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math Integer Types Floating Types Expressions Arithmetic Conversions More Intrinsic Types

#### Arrays





## Data



- Computing == manipulating data and calculating results
  - Data are manipulated using internal, binary formats
  - Data are kept in memory locations and CPU registers
- Fortran doesn't make assumptions on internal data representations
  - And tries to abstract
  - Most CPU are similar but all have peculiarities
  - Some details depend on the specific executing (a.k.a. target) hardware architecture and software implementation
  - Fortran provides facilities to translate between internal formats and human readable ones
- Fortran allows programmers to:
  - think in terms of data types and named containers
  - disregard details on actual memory locations and data movements





## Fortran is a Strongly Typed Language

- Each literal constant has a type
  - Dictates internal representation of the data value
- Each variable has a type
  - Dictates content internal representation and amount of memory
  - Type must be specified in a declaration before use
  - Unless you are so naive to rely on implicit declaration
- Each expression has a type
  - And subexpressions have too
  - Depends on operators and their arguments
- Each function has a type
  - That is the type of the returned value
  - Specified in function interface
- Procedure arguments have types
  - I.e. type of arguments to be passed in calls
  - Specified in procedure interface
  - ► If the compiler doesn't know the interface, it will blindly pass whatever you provide







#### More Flow Contro

# Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math Integer Types

Floating Types
Expressions
Arithmetic Conversions
More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





## Integer Types (as on most CPUs)

Type	Sign	Usual	Usual	Usual
.,,,,	O.g.	huge ()	Width (bits)	Size (bytes)
<pre>integer(selected_int_kind(2))</pre>	+/-	127	8	1
<pre>integer(selected_int_kind(5))</pre>	+/-	32767	16	2
integer				
integer(kind(0))	+/-	2147483647	32	4
<pre>integer(selected_int_kind(9))</pre>				
<pre>integer(selected_int_kind(18))</pre>	+/-	9223372036854775807	64	8

- selected\_int\_kind(n) returns the least type able to host 10<sup>n</sup>
- selected\_int\_kind(n) returns -1 if no suitable type is available
- New platform/compiler? Always check maximum headroom with huge() or range()
- As we said, on most platforms kind() returns the byte size, but it's not standard







Integer literal constants have kinds too







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- ► By default, kind(0)





- ► Integer literal constants have kinds too
- By default, kind(0)
- ▶ Unless you specify it
  - ▶ In a non portable way:

```
-123456_8
```

Or in a portable way:

```
integer, parameter :: i8=selected_int_kind(18)
-123456_i8
```





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Or in a portable way:

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- Rule of thumb:
  - write the number as is, if it is in default integer kind range
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-123456_i8
```

- Rule of thumb:
  - write the number as is, if it is in default integer kind range
  - otherwise, specify kind
- ► Remember:
  - ▶ do not write spokes = bycicles\*2\*36
  - ▶ integer, parameter :: SpokesPerWheel = 36
  - code will be more readable, and you'll be ready for easy changes





## integer Math

Function	Returns
abs(i)	<b>i</b>
sign(i,j)	$ \mathtt{i} $ if $\mathtt{j} \geq \mathtt{0}, - \mathtt{i} $ otherwise
dim(i,j)	if $i > j$ returns $i - j$ else returns 0
mod(i,j)	Remainder function $i - int(i/j) \times j$
modulo(i,j)	Modulo function $i - floor(i/j) \times j$
min(i,j[,])	$\min\{i,j[,]\}$
max(i,j[,])	$\max\{i,j[,]\}$

- ► Use like: a = abs(b+i) + c
- More functions are available to manipulate values
  - ► E.g. for bit manipulations on binary computers
  - We'll not cover them in this course, you can learn more about if you need to
- ► They can be found under different names (e.g. iabs()): these are relics from the past





#### More Flow Contro

### Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Integer Types

Floating Types

Expressions

Arithmetic Conversions
More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





## Floating Types (as on most CPUs)

Туре	Usual	Usual	Usual
	huge ()	Width (bits)	Size (bytes)
real			
real(kind(0.0))	3.40282347e38	32	4
<pre>real(selected_real_kind(6))</pre>			
double precision			
real(kind(0.0d0))	1.79769313486231573e308	64	8
<pre>real(selected_real_kind(15))</pre>			
real(selected_real_kind(18))	> 1.2e4932	80 or 128	10 or 16
complex			
complex(kind(0.0))	NA NA	NA	8
<pre>complex(selected_real_kind(6))</pre>			
complex(kind(0.0d0)	NA	NA	16
<pre>complex(selected_real_kind(15))</pre>	l IVA		
<pre>complex(selected_real_kind(18))</pre>	NA	NA	20 or 32

- In practice, always in IEEE Standard binary format, but not a Standard requirement
- selected\_real\_kind() gets number of significant decimal digits, plus a second optional argument for exponent range, returns negative result if no suitable type is available
- tiny() returns smallest positive value
- New platform/compiler? Always check maximum headroom with huge() or range()





- Need something to distinguish them from integers
  - ▶ Decimal notation: 1.0, -17., .125, 0.22
  - ► Exponential decimal notation: **2e19** (2 × 10<sup>19</sup>), **-123.4e9** ( $-1.234 \times 10^{11}$ ), **.72e-6** ( $7.2 \times 10^{-7}$ )





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- By default, kind(0.0)
- Unless you specify it
  - ► For double precision only:
    - -1.23456d5
  - For all kinds:

```
integer, parameter :: r8=selected_real_kind(15)
-123456.0_r8
```





- Need something to distinguish them from integers
  - ▶ Decimal notation: 1.0, -17., .125, 0.22
  - ► Exponential decimal notation: **2e19** (2 × 10<sup>19</sup>), **-123.4e9** ( $-1.234 \times 10^{11}$ ), **.72e-6** ( $7.2 \times 10^{-7}$ )
- By default, kind(0.0)
- Unless you specify it
  - ► For double precision only:
    - -1.23456d5
  - ▶ For all kinds:

```
integer, parameter :: r8=selected_real_kind(15)
-123456.0_r8
```

- ▶ Remember:
  - b do not write charge = protons\*1.602176487E-19
  - ▶ real,parameter::UnitCharge=1.602176487E-19
  - it will come handier when more precise measurements will be cinecavailable





real Math

3 45			
Function	Returns		
abs(x)	x		
sign(x,y)	$ \mathbf{x} $ if $\mathbf{y} \geq 0$ , $- \mathbf{x} $ otherwise		
dim(x,y)	if $\mathbf{x} > \mathbf{y}$ returns $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$ else returns 0		
mod(x, y)	Remainder function $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{int} (\mathbf{x}/\mathbf{y}) \times \mathbf{y}$		
modulo(x,y)	Modulo function $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{floor} (\mathbf{x}/\mathbf{y}) \times \mathbf{y}$		
$aint(x)^2$ , $int(x)^{1,2}$	if <b>x</b> > 0 returns [ <b>x</b> ] else returns [ <b>x</b> ]		
anint $(x)^2$ , nint $(x)^{1,2}$	nearest integer to x		
floor $(x)^{1,2}$ , ceiling $(x)^{1,2}$	[x], [x]		
fraction(x)	fractional part of x		
nearest(x,s)	next representable value to x,		
	in direction given by the sign of s		
spacing(x)	absolute spacing of numbers near x		
max(x,y[,])	$\max\{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}[,]\}$		
min(x,y[,])	$\min\{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}[,]\}$		
1. Result is of integer type 2. Ac	cept an optional argument for kind type of the result		

- ► They can be found under different names (e.g. dabs()): these are relics from the past
- ▶ More functions are available to manipulate values
  - Mostly in the spirit of IEEE Floating Point Standard
  - We'll not cover them in this course, but encourage you to learn more about



## real Higher Math



Functions	Compute	
sqrt(x)	$\sqrt{\mathbf{x}}$	
sin(x), cos(x),		
tan(x), asin(x),	Trigonometric functions	
acos(x), atan(x)		
atan2(x, y)	Arc tangent in $(-\pi, \pi]$	
exp(x),	$e^{\mathbf{x}}$ ,	
log(x), log10(x)	$\log_e \mathbf{x}$ , $\log_{10} \mathbf{x}$	
sinh(x), cosh(x),	Hyperbolic functions	
tanh(x)		

► Again, they can be found under different names (e.g. dcos()): these are relics from the past





## complex Math



Functions	Compute	
abs(z),	$ \mathbf{z} ,$	
aimag(z)	imaginary part of <b>z</b> ,	
real(z) <sup>1</sup>	real part of z	
cmplx(x,y)	converts from real to complex	
conj(z)	Complex conjugate of z	
sqrt(z)	$\sqrt{\mathbf{z}}$	
sin(z), cos(z)	sine and cosine	
exp(z),	e <sup>z</sup> ,	
log(z)	log <sub>e</sub> <b>z</b>	
1. Accept an optional argument for kind type of the result		

Once again, they can be found under different names (e.g. cabs ()): again, these are relics from the past





- ► The intrinsic function **precision** (x) for real or complex x returns the number of significant decimal digits.
- Write a module which defines the kind constant for single, double and quadruple real precision





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```
module real_kinds
  integer, parameter :: sp = kind(1.0)
  integer, parameter :: dp = selected_real_kind(2*precision(1.0_sp))
  integer, parameter :: qp = selected_real_kind(2*precision(1.0_dp))
end module real kinds
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```

- ➤ To gain confidence: write a small program to print out range and huge values for these kinds
- ► Something going wrong?
- GNU Fortran compiler, up to release 4.5, lacks support for the quad-precision
- If you are using, Linux load the GNU compiler version 4.6 and try again:
  - module load gcc



#### Let's Be Generic



- Use the real\_kinds module to rewrite dsp module functions to support both single and double precision
- And make all of them generic procedures
- Modify your test program to see exercise the new dsp module









#### More Flow Contro

#### Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Integer Types

Francisco

Expressions

Arithmetic Conversions More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





### Arithmetic Expressions and Assignment



- ▶ Binary operators +, -, \* (multiplication) and / have the usual meaning and behavior
- And so do unary operators and +
- Precedence
  - $\rightarrow$  -a\*b + c/d same as ((-a)\*b) + (c/d)
  - ► -a + b same as (-a) + b
- Associativity of binary ones is from left to right
  - $\rightarrow$  a + b + c same as (a + b) + c
  - a\*b/c\*d same as ((a\*b)/c)\*d
- Explicit ( and ) override precedence and associativity
- \*\* is the exponentiation operator
- Assignment: =
  - Assigns the value of expression on right hand side to a variable on the left hand side
  - Prior to first assignment, a variable content is undefined





## **Hitting Limits**



- All types are limited in range
- What about:
  - ► huge (0) + 1? (too big)
  - ► -huge (0.0) \*3.0? (too negative)
- ► Technically speaking, this is an arithmetic *overflow*
- And division by zero is a problem too
- ► For integer types, the Standard says:
  - behavior and results are unpredictable
  - i.e. up to the implementation
- For real types, it also depends on the floating point environment
  - i.e. how behavior is configured for those cases
  - you could get -huge (0.0), or a NaN, or -Inf
- Best practice: NEVER rely on behaviors observed with a specific architecture and/or compiler







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  - You don't know in advance the order in which foo () and bar() are called
  - Thus program behavior could differ among different implementations, or even among different compilations by the same compiler!
- Ditto for order of evaluation of function arguments!
- NEVER! NEVER write code that relies on order of evaluation of subexpressions, or actual arguments!







#### More Flow Contro

#### Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Integer Types

Floating Types

Expressions

**Arithmetic Conversions** 

More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





## Mixing Types in Expressions



- ► Fortran allows for expressions mixing any arithmetic types
  - A result will always be produced
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- OK when mixing integer types
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- For the assignment statement:
  - ▶ if variable and expression have the same type, fine
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**Social** 

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    - a = b\*2
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  - ▶ and in (i8 as in a previous example):
    - a = b\*2 + 1\_i8
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▶ and in (i8 as in a previous example):

while:

$$a = b*2_i8 + 1$$
 is OK







▶ Think of mixing floating and integer types







- ► Think of mixing floating and integer types
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- But not necessarily more precision
- A 32 bits real has fewer digits of precision than a 32 bits integer
- And a 64 bits real has fewer digits of precision than a 64 bits integer
- ► The result of a conversion could actually be smaller than expected!







► Do not blindly rely on implementation dependent chance!







- ► Do not blindly rely on implementation dependent chance!
- ▶ Use explicit type conversion functions:
  - ▶ int(x[, kind])
  - ▶ real(x[, kind])
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  - ► In previous example, you could use it like this:

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a = int(b, i8) *2 + 1
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- Type conversion functions are not magic
  - Only convert values, not type of variables you assign to
- Do not abuse them
  - Make codes unreadable
  - Could be evidence of design mistakes
  - Or that your Fortran needs a refresh







#### More Flow Contro

### Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

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### Being logical



- A type good at reasoning
  - ► May have .false. or .true. value
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  - == (equal), /= (not equal), >, <, >=, <=</pre>
  - ▶ or, in ancient Fortran, .eq., .ne., .gt., .lt., .ge., .le.



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  - ▶ or, in ancient Fortran, .eq., .ne., .gt., .lt., .ge., .le.
- Logical expressions
  - .not. is unary NOT, .and. and .or. are binary AND and OR respectively, .eqv. is logical equivalence (.true. if operands both .true. or both .false.)
  - .not. a .and. b .or. a .and. .not. b
    means

```
((.not.a).and.b).or.(a.and.(.not.b))
```

In doubt, add parentheses, but be sober





### More Logic

- Logical friends from ieee\_arithmetic module (simply use it)
  - ▶ ieee\_is\_finite(x):.true. if argument value is finite
  - ▶ ieee\_is\_nan(x): .true. if argument value is NaN
  - ieee\_unordered(x, y): .true. if at least one among x
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    and y is NaN
- As usual, order of subexpressions evaluation is implementation dependent
- ▶ But it's worse:
  - if test() is a function returning a logical type value
  - ▶ and a is .true.
  - ▶ and b is .false.
  - implementation is free (but not forced!) to not call test() at all in a.or.test(x) and b.and.test(x)
  - Again, do not rely on expressions side effects





#### character



- Fortran is not that good at manipulating text
- ▶ But it has some character:
  - character :: c defines a variable holding a single character, like 'f'
  - character(len=80) :: s1, s2, s3 defines three variables holding strings of up to 80 characters, like 'Fortran 2003'
- ► There are character expressions, like:
  - ► s3(1:40) = s1(1:20) //s2(21:40)
    which assigns to first half of s3 the first quarter of s1 and second quarter of s2
- On assignment of a character expression to a longer variable, blank filling will take place
- On assignment of a character expression to a shorter variable, truncation will happen



String Manipulation

Function	Returns
len(s)	string length
len_trim(s)	string length with trailing blanks ignored
trim(s)	string with trailing blanks removed
repeat(s, n)	string made of n copies of s
adjustl(s)	move leading blanks to trailing position
adjustr(s)	move trailing blanks to leading position
lge(s1,s2),	string comparisons
lgt (s1, s2),	
lle(s1,s2),	
llt(s1,s2)	
index(s, subs)	starting position of subs in s, 0 if not found
scan(s, set)	first position in s of a character matching set, 0 if none found
<pre>verify(s, set)</pre>	first position in s of a character not matching set, 0 if all match
achar(i)	character with ASCII code i
iachar(c)	ASCII code of character c

#### Our advice:

- For most practical purposes, use I/O statements to manipulate strings as internal files (more on this later)
- If you are really serious about textual data, learn more
- Or switch to a different language







More Flow Contro

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays
Smoothing Signals
A More Compact Notation







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#### In Place Smoothing of a Periodic Signal



```
module smoothing
 implicit none
contains
  subroutine smooth (v, k)
    real.intent(inout) :: v(:)
    integer, intent(in) :: k
    integer :: n, l, i, j
    real :: work(size(v))
    n=size(v)
    1 = 2*k +1
    work = 0.0
    do i=1.n
       do j=i-k,i+k
          work(i) = work(i) + v(1+mod(n-1+i, n))
       enddo
    enddo
    v = work/1
 end subroutine smooth
end module smoothing
program test_smooth
 use smoothing
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: n=10
 integer :: i, k
  real
       :: x(n)
 k = 2
 x = (/ (real(mod(i, n/2)), i=1, n) /)
 if ( k > n) stop 'More smoothing points than array elements'
 call smooth(x,k)
 write(*,*) x
end program test smooth
```





module smoothing

### In Place Smoothing of a Periodic Signal



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#### **Subroutines**



- Subroutines are procedures, like functions, except they do not return any value
- ► They are invoked by: call subroutine-name(argument-list)
- Like functions, they have dummy arguments that will be associated to actual arguments at call time
- Unlike functions, they can not be used inside expressions
- ▶ Their use is to be preferred to functions when:
  - actual arguments must be modified
  - more than one result needs to be returned





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### **Arrays**



- ▶ real :: x(n)
  - Declares an array named x
  - ► A collection of variables of the same type (elements), laid out contiguously in memory
  - i-th element can be accessed with x (i)
  - n must be an integer expression whose value must be known at declaration time



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 integer :: i, k
  real
        :: x(n)
 k = 2
 x = (/ (real(mod(i, n/2)), i=1, n) /)
 if ( k > n) stop 'More smoothing points than array elements'
 call smooth(x,k)
 write(*,*) x
end program test smooth
```





# **Arrays**



- ▶ real :: x(n)
  - Declares an array named x
  - A collection of variables of the same type (elements), laid out contiguously in memory
  - ▶ i-th element can be accessed with x (i)
  - n must be an integer expression whose value must be known at declaration time
- ▶ What's that  $\mathbf{x} = (/.../)$ ?
  - ► (/.../) is an array constructor
  - ▶ I.e. a sequence of values forming an array
  - Assigned to array in a single statement
  - (expression, index=initial, final) evaluates
     expression for each value of index as in a do-loop (hence is termed implied do-loop)





### In Place Smoothing of a Periodic Signal



```
module smoothing
 implicit none
contains
  subroutine smooth (v, k)
    real.intent(inout) :: v(:)
    integer, intent (in) :: k
    integer :: n, l, i, j
    real :: work(size(v))
    n=size(v)
    1 = 2*k +1
    work = 0.0
    do i=1.n
       do j=i-k, i+k
          work(i) = work(i) + v(1+mod(n-1+i, n))
       enddo
    enddo
    v = work/1
 end subroutine smooth
end module smoothing
program test_smooth
 use smoothing
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: n=10
 integer :: i, k
  real
        :: x(n)
 k = 2
 x = (/ (real(mod(i, n/2)), i=1, n) /)
 if ( k > n) stop 'More smoothing points than array elements'
 call smooth(x,k)
 write(*,*) x
end program test smooth
```





# Subroutines and Arrays

- Arrays can be passed as arguments to procedures
- ► How can subroutine *smooth* know the size of the actual argument passed as **v**?
  - ▶ real :: v(:) states that size of v will be that of the actual argument
  - ▼ is termed an assumed-shape array
  - ► This only works if the subroutine has explicit interface
- Otherwise, you can still use the good ol' way:

```
subroutine smooth(v,k,n)
  integer n
  real v(n)
```





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    n=size(v)
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    enddo
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  - ▼ is termed an assumed-shape array
  - This only works if the subroutine has explicit interface
- Otherwise, you can still use the good oi' way:

```
subroutine smooth(v,k,n)
  integer n
  real v(n)
  ...
```

- How can subroutine smooth declare a local array matching in size the actual argument?
  - size (v) returns the number of elements (size) of v
  - ▶ real :: work(size(v)) gives work same size as v
  - work is termed an automatic object





#### WARNING: NO BOUNDS CHECKING!

- ▶ In Fortran, there is no bounds checking on array access
- And it is possible for something like this to happen

```
real :: a(10)
...
do i=-100,100
a(i) = i
end do
```

- If you are lucky, you'll get a runtime error, otherwise you'll corrupt surrounding memory areas, with really puzzling behavior
- Once upon a long ago, it used to be a 'feature':

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subroutine smooth(v,k,n)
  integer n
  real v(1)
  ...
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subroutine smooth(v,k,n)
  integer n
  real v(1)
  ...
```

- Use compiler options to enable runtime detection of out of bounds accesses
  - But execution is incredibly slowed down
  - Just a debugging tool, do not use it in production







```
real :: t1, t2
...
call cpu_time(t1)
... ! code to be timed
call cpu_time(t2)
write(*,*) 'Execution time for section 1: ', t2-t1, 'seconds'
```







► The intrinsic subroutine cpu\_time () is used to time code regions

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real :: t1, t2
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call cpu_time(t1)
... ! code to be timed
call cpu_time(t2)
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► Takes a default real argument







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- Takes a default real argument
- And returns in it processor time consumed by the program in seconds





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- ► Use it to measure execution time of test\_smooth program







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- Can we use less operations to get the same results (within round-off errors)?







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- ► Try it now!







More Flow Contro

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays Smoothing Signa

A More Compact Notation





### Same Smoothing in a Different Idiom



```
module smoothing
  implicit none
contains
  subroutine smoothinplace(v, k)
    implicit none
    real, intent(inout) :: v(:)
    integer, intent(in) :: k
    real
                       :: work (-k+1:size(v)+k)
    integer :: i, j, l, n
    n=size(v)
    1 = 2*k +1
    work(1:n) = v
    work(-k+1:0) = v(n-k+1:n)
    work(n+1:n+k) = v(1:k)
    do j=1, k
      v = v + work(1-j:n-j) + work(1+j:n+j)
    end do
    v = v/1
  end subroutine smoothinplace
```

end module smoothing





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    integer :: i, j, l, n
    n=size(v)
    1 = 2*k +1
    work(1:n) = v
    work(-k+1:0) = v(n-k+1:n)
    work(n+1:n+k) = v(1:k)
    do j=1, k
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    end do
    v = v/1
  end subroutine smoothinplace
end module smoothing
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  - work (-k+1:0) selects the first k elements work (1:n) selects the successive n elements work (n+1:n+k) selects...
- Arrays and array sections are assigned to by = in a natural manner (more on this later)





### Same Smoothing in a Different Idiom



```
module smoothing
  implicit none
contains
  subroutine smoothinplace(v, k)
    implicit none
    real, intent(inout) :: v(:)
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    real
                       :: work (-k+1:size(v)+k)
    integer :: i, j, l, n
    n=size(v)
    1 = 2*k +1
    work(1:n) = v
    work(-k+1:0) = v(n-k+1:n)
    work(n+1:n+k) = v(1:k)
    do j=1, k
      v = v + work(1-i:n-i) + work(1+i:n+i)
    end do
    v = v/1
  end subroutine smoothinplace
```

end module smoothing





# **Array Expressions**



- Arrays and array sections may be
  - referenced and used in expressions
  - passed as arguments to procedures

```
do j=1, k

v = v + work(1-j:n-j) + work(1+j:n+j)

end do
```

Without array expressions, this code would look like:

```
do j=1, k
  do i=1, n
    v(i) = v(i) + work(i-j) + work(i+j)
  end do
end do
```

- ▶ In an array expression, result must not depend in any way on the order of evaluation of elements
- ➤ You should think of array expressions as if all elements were computed at the same time





### In Good Shape

- ► The size of a one-dimensional array is its shape
- Arithmetic operators act on arrays element by element
- Binary operators combine pairs of corresponding elements from the operands
- With binary operators and assignments, you must use conformable, i.e. identically shaped, arrays
- Except for scalar values (not variables!), that match any shape, as if they were replicated

```
real, dimension(4) :: u, v, w
real :: t(1), s
t = s ! it's right
s = t ! it's wrong
w = (u-v)**2 ! it's right
w = s*u+v+2.3 ! it's OK
w = u+v(1:2) ! it's wrong
```

By the way, dimension attribute lets you specify bounds and dimensions for a list of identical arrays





### Hands-on Session #4: RNG



- Intrinsic subroutine random\_number(x) returns pseudo-random numbers uniformly distributed in [0, 1) interval
  - ► Takes an argument of type real, that can be either a scalar or an array
  - Returns one random number if x is a scalar
  - ightharpoonup Returns an array of random numbers if x is an array
- ▶ Is random\_number() as uniform as advertised? Let's check...





# Let's Build An Histogram



### Write a program that:

- reads an integer niter from standard input
- 2. generates **niter** random numbers in interval [0, 10)
- 3. builds an histogram and computes their average
- 4. Prints out results

#### ▶ To build the histogram:

- Initialize to 0s an array hist of 20 integers to hold the bin count, then, at each iteration:
- 2. generate a random number
- 3. find out the bin it belongs to (i.e. its index in the array hist)
- intrinsic ceiling(x) function helps: it returns [x]
- increment the corresponding array element and compute the percentages
- accumulate the sum of the random numbers to compute the average value





- A prime number is a natural number which has only two distinct natural divisors: 1 and itself
- ► Find all primes less than or equal to a given *n* by Eratosthenes' algorithm:
  - 1. create a list of consecutive integers from 2 to *n*
  - 2. let be  $p \leftarrow 2$  the first prime
  - 3. strike from the list all multiples of p up to n
  - 4. let  $p \leftarrow$  next number still in the list after p
  - 5. if 2p < n, get back to step 3
  - 6. all remaining numbers in the list are primes

Try it now!





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#### Try it now!

- How could you spare iterations?
- How could you spare memory?







### Part III

# Array Syntax and I/O

Multidimensional arrays, array-syntax, array-value function, temporary array, shape, data, reshape, constant array and elemental procedure. Costructs where, forall, array reduction. Advanced I/O: formats and descriptors, I/O to/from file, namelist, internal file, unformatted I/O, positioning instructions, stream access. Managing errors.







Array Syntax
More dimensions
Not a Panacea
Arrays of Constants
Elemental Procedures
More Array Syntax

Input/Output







Array Syntax More dimensions

> Not a Panacea Arrays of Constants Elemental Procedures More Array Syntax

Input/Output





## Matrix Averaging



```
function avgk(v, k)
 implicit none
 real, intent(in) :: v(:,:)
 integer,intent(in) :: k
 real :: avgk(size(v,1)/k,size(v,2)/k)
 integer :: i, j, n, m
 n = (size(v, 1)/k) *k
 m = (size(v, 2)/k)*k
 avgk = 0.0
 do j=1, k
    do i=1, k
      avgk = avgk + v(i:n:k, j:m:k)
    end do
 end do
 avgk = avgk/k**2
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```



#### **More Dimensions**



- Arrays may have up to 7 dimensions
- ▶ Lower bounds default to 1, but you can specify them as for one-dimensional arrays, like in q(-k:k,11:20)
- Elements are referenced by a list of indices: v(1,1)
- ► The sequence of extents of an array is termed its shape, e.g. if a is real :: a(3,2:5) then:
  - shape (a) returns the array of extents (/3,4/)
  - whereas size (a) returns 12
- Multidimensional (i.e. rank>1) arrays and array sections may be involved in array expressions
- As in the case of rank 1 arrays, they must be conformable when needed:

```
avgk(1:3,:) = avgk(5:9,:) is wrong
```





## **Matrix Averaging**



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- Yes, a function may return an array
  - And can be used in array expressions
  - Its type is defined like any automatic object
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- size (array, dim) returns the integer extent of array along dimension dim
- Number of dimensions (a.k.a. rank) is mandatory in assumed shape arrays





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  - Runtime checking is too costly for a performance oriented language
  - And out of bounds access could happen
- Compile time detection of non conformable operands only works in a few cases
- Again, use compiler options for runtime bounds checking
- Again, very slow, only tolerable in debugging







#### ► Good ol' style:

```
do i=1,n
  x(i) = b(i) / a(i,i)
  do j=i+1,n
   b(j) = b(j) - A(j,i)*x(i)
  enddo
enddo
```





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▶ In modern idiom:

```
do i=1,n
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  b(i+1:n) = b(i+1:n) - A(i+1:n,i)*x(i)
enddo
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▶ In modern idiom:

```
do i=1,n

x(i) = b(i) / a(i,i)

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▶ What happens for i==n?





Good ol' style:

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- ▶ What happens for i==n?
  - ▶ the array section b (n+1:n) has zero size: lower bound > upper bound
  - ▶ No operation is performed







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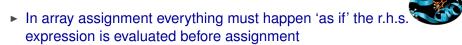




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  - ▶ and size(b) returns 10

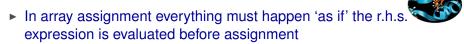








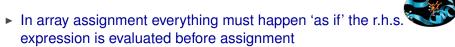




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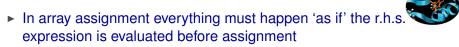




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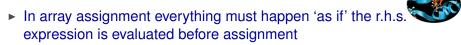




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## SuperComputing Applications and Innovation

## A Closer Look To Array Expressions

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- ▶  $\mathbf{x}(10:2:-1) = \mathbf{x}(9:1:-1)$  is more easily understood by some compilers
- Array syntax can be very compact and elegant
- But temporary copies may impact performance, use your compiler options to spot them







### Array Syntax

More dimensions

#### Not a Panacea

Arrays of Constants Elemental Procedures More Array Syntax

Input/Outpu









```
function trace (matrix)
implicit none
real, intent(in) :: matrix(:,:)
real :: trace
integer :: i
integer :: dim(2)
dim = shape(matrix)
trace = 0.0
if (dim(1) /= dim(2)) return
do i=1.dim(1)
   trace = trace + matrix(i,i)
enddo
end function trace
```

- Not all operations on arrays can easily be expressed in array syntax
- ▶ Do you remember shape ()? It returns an array whose elements are the extents of its argument





## Optimized Array Smoothing



```
subroutine smooth(v, k)
  implicit none
 real, intent(inout) :: v(:)
 integer.intent(in) :: k
 integer :: n, l, i, j
 real :: work(size(v))
 n=size(v)
 1 = 2*k +1
 work(1) = 0.0
 do i=1-k,1+k
    work(1) = work(1) + v(1+mod(n-1+j, n))
 enddo
 do i=2.n
    work(i) = work(i-1) + v(1 + mod(n-1+i+k, n)) - v(1 + mod(n-2+i-k, n))
  enddo
 v = work/1
end subroutine smooth
```

- The above code does the smoothing with minimal operations count
- And cannot be expressed at all in array syntax
- ► This is a quite common situation: optimal algorithms operating on arrays often sports dependencies in elements evaluations and updates





### Array Syntax

More dimensions Not a Panacea

Arrays of Constants

Elemental Procedures More Array Syntax

Input/Output





### **Tables of Coefficients**



```
! Polinomial approximation of JO(x) for -3<=x<=3
! See Abramowitz&Stegun for details
function j0(x)
 implicit none
 real :: j0
 real, intent(in) :: x
 integer, parameter :: order = 6
  real, parameter, dimension(0:order) :: coeff = &
    (/ 1.0000000. &
      -2.2499997, &
       1.2656208. &
      -0.3163866, &
      0.0444479, &
      -0.0039444, &
       0.0002100 /)
  real :: xo3sq
 integer :: i
 xo3sq = (x/3.0)**2
 j0 = coeff(order)
! horner method
 do i=order, 1, -1
    j0 = j0*xo3sq + coeff(i-1)
 end do
end function j0
```





### parameter Arrays



- parameter arrays are very good at storing tables of:
  - polynomial coefficients
  - physical measurements
  - function values at discrete points
- In the past, data statements were used:

```
data coeff /1.0,-2.2499997,1.2656208,-0.3163866, & 0.0444479,-0.0039444,0.0002100/
```

- data statements:
  - are very versatile
  - very difficult to decipher
  - and tend to float away from variable declaration
- Use initialization instead







#### Array Syntax

More dimensions
Not a Panacea
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More Array Syntax

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## **Arrays Swap**



```
program array_swap

implicit none
integer :: i, j
real :: a(0:10,10), b(11,10)
```

```
a=reshape( (/ (i*0.1, i=1,110) /), (/11,10/) )
b=reshape( (/ ((i*j+i, i=1,11), j=1,10) /), (/11,10/) )
call swap(a,b)
end program array_swap

subroutine swap(a,b)
implicit none
real, intent(inout) :: a(:,:),b(:,:)
real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp

tmp = a
a = b
b = tmp
end subroutine swap
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# Assumed-shape arrays & Automatic objects



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- reshape (source, new\_shape) returns an array with shape given by the rank one integer array new\_shape, and elements taken from **source** in array element order





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 interface
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                          :: a(:,:), b(:,:)
     real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp
   end subroutine swap
  end interface
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end program array_swap
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- Interface is as always mandatory for assumed shape arguments, so the compiler knows that additional information must be passed in to the function
- But life can be simpler...





## Elemental Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
  implicit none
  integer :: i, j
  real :: a(0:10.10), b(11.10)
  interface
    elemental subroutine swap(a,b)
      real, intent(inout) :: a, b
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                           :: tmp
    end subroutine swap
  end interface
a = reshape((/(i*0.1, i=1,110)/), (/11,10/))
b = reshape( (/ ((i*j+i, i=1,11), j=1,10) /), (/11,10/))
  call swap(a,b)
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elemental subroutine swap(a,b)
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  - If a function, it shall not have side effects of sort (not even stop!)
  - If a subroutine, side effects shall be restricted to intent (out) and intent (inout) arguments
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  - And some more constraints ensure the different procedure calls can be safely executed in any order
- An explicit interface is mandatory
  - It must specify the procedure as elemental
  - ▶ It must specify intent () attribute for all arguments







### Array Syntax

More dimensions
Not a Panacea
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- where constructs can be nested and given a name







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forall(i = 2:n-1, j = 2:n-1)

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# Laplace Equation in Three Idioms



▶ Using do loops (dependencies! loop order is crucial)

```
do j=2,n-1

do i=2,n-1

T(i,j) = (T(i-1,j) + T(i+1,j) + &

T(i,j-1) + T(i,j+1) )/4.0

enddo

enddo
```



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Using array syntax (compiler enforces correct semantics)

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T(2:n-1,2:n-1) = (T(1:n-2,2:n-1) + T(3:n,2:n-1) & + T(2:n-1,1:n-2) + T(2:n-1,3:n))/4.0
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T(2:n-1,2:n-1) = (T(1:n-2,2:n-1) + T(3:n,2:n-1) & + T(2:n-1,1:n-2) + T(2:n-1,3:n))/4.0
```

Using foral1 (ditto, but more readable)

```
forall (i=2:n-1, j=2:n-1)  T(i,j) = (T(i-1,j) + T(i+1,j) + & \\ T(i,j-1) + T(i,j+1) )/4.0  end forall
```





end do

### **Bilateral Filter**



```
integer, parameter :: maxn=768, maxm=939, R=3
real, parameter :: sd=10.0, sr=10.0
real, parameter :: sd22=2.0*sd**2, sr22=2.0*sr**2
integer :: i.i.m.n
real :: B(maxn, maxm), A(maxn, maxm)
real :: zsum, z
real, dimension(-R:R,-R:R), parameter :: z0=&
   reshape((/ ((exp(-(m**2 + n**2)/sr22), m=-R, R), n=-R, R), (/ 2*R+1, 2*R+1/))
. . .
B = 0 0
do i=1, maxn
  do j=1, maxm
    zsum = 0.0
    do m = -R, R
      if (i+m >= 1 .and. i+m <= maxn) then
        do n = -R.R
          if(j+n >= 1 .and. j+n <= maxm) then
            z = \exp(-(A(i+m, j+n)-A(i, j))**2/sd22)*z0(m, n)
            zsum = zsum + z
            B(i,j) = B(i,j) + z*A(i+m,j+n)
          end if
        end do
      end if
    end do
    B(i,j) = B(i,j)/zsum
  end do
```





## Bilateral Filter Using foral1



```
integer, parameter :: maxn=768, maxm=939, R=3
real, parameter :: sd=10.0, sr=10.0
real, parameter :: sd22=2.0*sd**2, sr22=2.0*sr**2
integer :: i,j,m,n
real :: B(maxn,maxm), A(maxn,maxm)
real :: z(-R:R, -R:R), aw(-R:R, -R:R)
real, dimension(-R:R,-R:R), parameter :: z0=&
   reshape((/ ((exp(-(m**2 + n**2)/sr22), m=-R, R), n=-R,R) /), (/ 2*R+1, 2*R+1 /))
                  ! These two cannot be changed into forall
do i=1, maxn
  do j=1, maxm
                  ! Why?
    z = 0.0
    forall (m=max(1,i-R):min(maxn,i+R))
      forall (n=max(1,j-R):min(maxm,j+R))
        aw(m-i,n-j) = A(m,n)
        z(m-i,n-i) = exp(-(aw(m-i,n-i)-A(i,i))**2/sd22)*z0(m-i,n-i)
      end forall
    end forall
    B(i,j) = sum(z*aw)/sum(z)
  end do
end do
```





## Bilateral Filter Using foral1



```
integer, parameter :: maxn=768, maxm=939, R=3
real, parameter :: sd=10.0, sr=10.0
real, parameter :: sd22=2.0*sd**2, sr22=2.0*sr**2
integer :: i,j,m,n
real :: B(maxn,maxm), A(maxn,maxm)
real :: z(-R:R, -R:R), aw(-R:R, -R:R)
real, dimension(-R:R,-R:R), parameter :: z0=&
   reshape((/ ((exp(-(m**2 + n**2)/sr22), m=-R, R), n=-R,R) /), (/ 2*R+1, 2*R+1 /))
do i=1.maxn
                  ! These two cannot be changed into forall
  do j=1, maxm
                  ! Why?
    z = 0.0
                  ! Because this happens at every iteration, it's a dependency!
    forall (m=max(1,i-R):min(maxn,i+R))
      forall (n=max(1,j-R):min(maxm,j+R))
        aw(m-i,n-i) = A(m,n)
        z(m-i,n-i) = exp(-(aw(m-i,n-i)-A(i,i))**2/sd22)*z0(m-i,n-i)
      end forall
    end forall
    B(i,i) = sum(z*aw)/sum(z)
  end do
end do
```





## **Array Reductions**



- Reductions squeeze an array to a scalar
  - ▶ all (mask) returns true if all the elements of mask are true
  - any (mask) returns true if any of the elements of mask are true
  - count (mask) returns the number of .true. elements in mask
  - maxval (array) returns the maximum value of array
  - minval (array) returns the minimum value of array
  - sum(array) returns the sum of the elements of array
  - product (array) returns the product of the elements of array
- Or to an array of rank reduced by one, if you specify an optional dimension to perform reduction along, like in sum(a(:,:,:), dim=2)





# More Array Little Helpers



- More functions, good to know:
  - maxloc() and minloc() return locations of maximum and minimum value respectively
  - cshift () performs a circular shift along an array dimension
  - eoshift () perform a end-off shift along an array dimension
  - spread() increases by one the rank of an array expression
  - pack () selects elements from an array according to a mask and packs them in a rank-1 array
  - And unpack () does the reverse
- But too much detail to cover in this introduction, look for them on your compiler documentation, and experiment





# Matrix Algebra



- Vector and matrix multiplication functions
  - dot\_product(vector\_a, vector\_b)
  - matmul(matrix\_a, matrix\_b)
- But the BLAS libraries are around
  - Widely used
  - Highly optimized implementations available
- Outstanding compilers include special purpose, optimized BLAS version for those calls
- Good compilers do not include BLAS, but give option to link them for those calls
- Average compilers do not shine for those calls
- Our advice: install a reputably good BLAS version and use it
- There is more to matrix algebra than matrix multiplies and vector products





### Hands-on Session #1



► Re-write the Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm using array syntax









### Array Syntax

Input/Output

Formatted I/O

File I/O

Namelist

Internal Files

Unformatted I/O

Robust I/O







### Array Syntax

Input/Output
Formatted I/O
File I/O
Namelist
Internal Files
Unformatted I/O





### Formatted I/O



- Data are manipulated in internal (usually binary) format
- Fortran Standard leaves internal format details up to the implementation
- Formatted I/O translates internal representation of variables into human readable format
- Best practices:
  - Use formatted I/O just for small amount of data meant to be read by humans
  - Beware: human readable representation may cause problems because of rounding or not enough digits
  - ▶ Do not use I/O inside heavy computations: inhibits some code optimizations, and significantly affects performance





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter start value, tol, max iterations'
 read(*.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(*,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(*,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
100 format (A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



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 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
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 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter start value, tol, max iterations'
 read(*.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(*,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(*,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
100 format (A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```





### List Directed I/O



- The easiest way to do formatted I/O
- Specified using \*
- Values are translated according to their types
- In the order they are listed on I/O statements
- No-nonsense, implementation dependent format
- Often outputs more digits than you actually care of
- Best practices:
  - Use it for terminal input
  - Use it for input of white-space separated values
  - Use it for quick output
  - Not suitable for rigid tabular formats





# Explicit formats



▶ Put you in total control of what is read/written



#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter start value, tol, max iterations'
 read(*.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(*,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(*.100) 'Tolerance:'.tol
 write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
100 format (A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```





# Explicit formats



- ▶ Put you in total control of what is read/written
- ► Specified by (format-list)



## Explicit formats



- Put you in total control of what is read/written
- ► Specified by (format-list)
- ▶ Where format-list is a comma separated list of items, which can be:
  - string literals, usually in double quotes, emitted as-is
  - or proper edit descriptors, which dictate how a corresponding element on the I/O list should be converted





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter start value, tol, max iterations'
 read(*.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(*,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(*.100) 'Tolerance:'.tol
 write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
100 format (A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```





## Explicit formats



- Put you in total control of what is read/written
- ► Specified by (format-list)
- ▶ Where format-list is a comma separated list of items, which can be:
  - string literals, usually in double quotes, emitted as-is
  - or proper edit descriptors, which dictate how a corresponding element on the I/O list should be converted
- Repeat counts can be used
  - ► Like in 513, which will convert 5 integer values
  - Like in 2 (I3, F7.4), which will convert 2 pairs, each made of an integer and a real value





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter start value, tol, max iterations'
 read(*.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(*,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(*,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
100 format (A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```





## Explicit formats



- Put you in total control of what is read/written
- ► Specified by (format-list)
- ► Where format-list is a comma separated list of items, which can be:
  - string literals, usually in double quotes, emitted as-is
  - or proper edit descriptors, which dictate how a corresponding element on the I/O list should be converted
- Repeat counts can be used
  - ► Like in 513, which will convert 5 integer values
  - Like in 2 (I3, F7.4), which will convert 2 pairs, each made of an integer and a real value
- Formats must be specified on I/O statements
  - As a literal string, usually in single quotes
  - As a character expression
  - As a numeric label of a format statement in the same program unit (traditionally, before its end), reusable in many statements





### Edit Descriptors: characters and integers



- ▶ A is used to translate character values
  - ▶ A will emit the value as is
  - ► A10 will emit 10 characters, truncating the value if longer, right justifying it if shorter
  - Beware: leading white-space skipped on input
  - ▶ Beware: A10 and 10A mean very different things!





### Edit Descriptors: characters and integers



- ▶ A is used to translate character values
  - ▶ A will emit the value as is
  - ► A10 will emit 10 characters, truncating the value if longer, right justifying it if shorter
  - Beware: leading white-space skipped on input
  - Beware: A10 and 10A mean very different things!
- ▶ I is used to translate integer values
  - I6 will emit up to 6 characters (sign included!), right justified with blanks
  - ► 16.3 will emit 6 characters (sign included!), containing at least 3 (possibly zero) digits, right justified with blanks
  - Beware: again, I10 and 10I mean very different things!





### Edit Descriptors: reals



- F can be used to translate real values
  - ► F8.3 will emit up to 8 characters (sign and decimal point included!) in total, with 3 decimal digits (possibly zero), right justified with blanks
  - ▶ Beware: if F6.2 is specified in input, and -12345 is met, the value -123.45 will be read in!
  - ▶ Beware: if F6.2 is specified in input, and -1.234 is met, the value -1.234 will be read in anyhow!
- Beware of rounding: internal representation could have more precision than specified in edit descriptors





### More Edit Descriptors for reals



- ► E (or D) can also be used to translate real values
  - Exponential form is used (mantissa in the [0,1) range)
  - ▶ Values  $|x| < 10^{99}$ , as  $-1.5372 \times 10^{98}$ , will be converted like: -.15372**E**+99
  - ▶ Values  $|x| \ge 10^{99}$ , as  $-1.5372 \times 10^{99}$ , will be converted like: -.15372+100
  - ► E15.7 will emit up to 15 characters (sign, decimal point, and exponent field included!), with 7 decimal mantissa digits (possibly zero), right justified with blanks
  - ▶ Ditto for E15.7E4, except that 4 digits will be used for exponent
  - Again, input is more liberal





## More Edit Descriptors for reals



- ► E (or D) can also be used to translate real values
  - Exponential form is used (mantissa in the [0,1) range)
  - ► Values  $|x| < 10^{99}$ , as  $-1.5372 \times 10^{98}$ , will be converted like: -.15372E+99
  - ▶ Values  $|x| \ge 10^{99}$ , as  $-1.5372 \times 10^{99}$ , will be converted like: -.15372+100
  - ► E15.7 will emit up to 15 characters (sign, decimal point, and exponent field included!), with 7 decimal mantissa digits (possibly zero), right justified with blanks
  - ▶ Ditto for E15.7E4, except that 4 digits will be used for exponent
  - Again, input is more liberal
- And more can be used to the same purpose
  - ▶ Like EN (engineering notation), same as E, with exponent always multiple of 3
  - ► Like G, which uses the most suitable between F and E, depending on the value magnitude





# Even More Edit Descriptors



- **/**
- ► Forces a new line on output
- ► Skips to next line on input





## **Even More Edit Descriptors**



- > /
- Forces a new line on output
- Skips to next line on input
- Leading sign of numeric values
  - SP forces following numeric conversions to emit a leading + character for positive values
  - ss restores the default (sign is suppressed for positive values)





## **Even More Edit Descriptors**



- > /
- Forces a new line on output
- Skips to next line on input
- Leading sign of numeric values
  - SP forces following numeric conversions to emit a leading + character for positive values
  - ss restores the default (sign is suppressed for positive values)
- Embedded blanks in numeric input fields
  - ▶ BZ forces embedded blanks to be treated as 0 digits
  - ▶ **BN** restores the default (blanks are skipped)





# **Even More Edit Descriptors**



- > /
- Forces a new line on output
- Skips to next line on input
- Leading sign of numeric values
  - SP forces following numeric conversions to emit a leading + character for positive values
  - ss restores the default (sign is suppressed for positive values)
- Embedded blanks in numeric input fields
  - ▶ BZ forces embedded blanks to be treated as 0 digits
  - ▶ **BN** restores the default (blanks are skipped)
- ▶ And more... browse your compiler manuals





### complexes and Arrays



- complex values are made of two reals
  - Thus two edit descriptors must be provided
  - First one for real part, second one for imaginary part





### complexes and Arrays



- complex values are made of two reals
  - Thus two edit descriptors must be provided
  - First one for real part, second one for imaginary part
- Arrays are indexed collections of elements
  - ▶ Thus a proper edit descriptor must be provided for each element
  - ► And if elements are of complex, or derived types, see above







What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?





- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
  - ► After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line





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- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
  - After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
- What if the list of items to read/write is exhausted before end of edit descriptors in a format?
  - ► Following edit descriptors are ignored
- What if the list of edit descriptors in a format is exhausted before end of items to read/write?





program iterative inversion

#### **Iterative Matrix Inversion**



```
! experiments with matrix iterative inversion
 implicit none
  real, dimension(4,4) :: a, x, x old, x start
 real :: tol. err
 integer :: i, max iter
 write(*,*) 'Enter 4x4 matrix to invert'
 read(*,*) a
 write(*,*) 'Enter 4x4 start matrix'
 read(*.*) x start
 write(*.*) 'Enter tol, max iterations'
 read(*,*) tol, max iter
 x old = x start
 do i=1.max iter
    x = 2.0*x old - matmul(x old, matmul(a, x old))
    err = maxval(abs(x - x old))
   if (err < tol) exit
   x \text{ old} = x
 end do
 write(*,'("Matrix to invert:")')
 write(*,100) a
 write(*.'(/,"Start matrix:")')
 write(*,100) x start
 write(*,'(/,A," ",E15.7)') 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(*,'(/,2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,'("Final matrix:")')
 write(*,100) x
100 format(4(E15.7." "))
end program iterative inversion
```





- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
  - ► After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
- What if the list of items to read/write is exhausted before end of edit descriptors in a format?
  - Following edit descriptors are ignored
- What if the list of edit descriptors in a format is exhausted before end of items to read/write?
  - Easy answer: I/O continues on a new line, reapplying the format list from its beginning, quite handy for arrays





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  - Could be more complex, look for reversion to know more





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- What if a numeric value is too big to fit the characters you specified on its corresponding edit descriptor?





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  - Easy answer: I/O continues on a new line, reapplying the format list from its beginning, quite handy for arrays
  - ► Could be more complex, look for *reversion* to know more
- What if a numeric value is too big to fit the characters you specified on its corresponding edit descriptor?
  - ► The field is filled with asterisks (i.e. \*)





- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
  - After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
- What if the list of items to read/write is exhausted before end of edit descriptors in a format?
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- What if a type mismatch happens between an item to read/write and its corresponding edit descriptor?





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  - ► Could be more complex, look for *reversion* to know more
- What if a numeric value is too big to fit the characters you specified on its corresponding edit descriptor?
  - ► The field is filled with asterisks (i.e. \*)
- What if a type mismatch happens between an item to read/write and its corresponding edit descriptor?
  - Your fault, you are in for a runtime, implementation defined surprise!





#### Hands-on Session #2



- ▶ Play with golden.f90 and itinv.f90:
  - trying good and bad inputs
  - giving less or more inputs than needed
  - changing format descriptors









#### Array Syntax

#### Input/Output

Formatted I/O

File I/O

Namelist

Internal Files

Unformatted I/O

Robust I/C





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 open (11, FILE='golden.in', STATUS='old')
  read(11.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 close(11)
 phi_old = phi_start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi \ old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
 end do
 open (12.FILE='golden.out')
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12.'(2(A." ".I11." "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
100 format(A, " ",F13,10)
end program golden ratio
```





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



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program golden ratio
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 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 open (11, FILE='golden.in', STATUS='old')
  read(11.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 close(11)
 phi_old = phi_start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi \ old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
 end do
 open (12.FILE='golden.out')
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi_start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12.'(2(A." ".I11." "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
100 format(A, " ",F13,10)
end program golden ratio
```







```
open(u,FILE=file_name[,option][,option][...])
```

▶ u is an integer, positive expression specifying a *file handle* 





- ightharpoonup u is an integer, positive expression specifying a *file handle*
- file\_name is a string specifying file name (and possibly path) in your file system





- ▶ u is an integer, positive expression specifying a *file handle*
- file\_name is a string specifying file name (and possibly path) in your file system
- file handle is then used as first argument to read and write







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  - Which usually means 5 for read and 6 for write, but \*, or input\_unit and output\_unit from iso\_fortran\_env Fortran 2003 module are more portable
  - For error messages, 0 is commonly used, but error\_unit from iso\_fortran\_env module is portable





# Some open Options



- ► **ACTION**=act specifies allowed actions
  - use 'read' to only read
  - ► use 'write' to only write
  - ▶ use 'readwrite' (the default) to allow both



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  - use 'old' to open a file that must already exist
  - use 'new' to open a file that must not exist
  - use 'replace' to open a new file, even if one already exists
  - use 'unknown' (the default) to leave it up to the implementation (in all cases we know of, this means 'replace')





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  - use 'unknown' (the default) to leave it up to the implementation (in all cases we know of, this means 'replace')
- ► POSITION=pos tells where to start I/O on an existing file
  - use 'rewind' (the default) to start at beginning of file
  - use 'append' to start at end of file





#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
program golden ratio
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
  real(rk) :: phi, phi old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 open (11, FILE='golden.in', STATUS='old')
  read(11.*) phi start, tol, max iter
 close(11)
 phi_old = phi_start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi \ old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
 end do
 open (12.FILE='golden.out')
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12.'(2(A." ".I11." "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
100 format(A, " ",F13,10)
end program golden ratio
```





#### How to close a File



#### close(u[,STATUS=st])

close completes all pending I/O operations and disassociates the file from the unit



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#### How to close a File



#### close(u[,STATUS=st])

- close completes all pending I/O operations and disassociates the file from the unit
- close is automatically executed on all open files at program end, but closing a file explicitly when you are done with it is a good practice
- st tells what to do with the file after closing it
  - use 'keep' to preserve the file (it's the default)
  - use 'delete' to remove it (good for files used for temporary storage)







#### Array Syntax

#### Input/Output

Formatted I/O

File I

**Namelist** 

Internal Files

Unformatted I/O

Robust I/O





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  real(rk) :: phi, phi_old
 real(rk) :: phi_start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter
 namelist /golden_inputs/ phi_start, tol, max_iter
 open(11,FILE='golden.in',STATUS='old')
 read(11,golden_inputs)
 close(11)
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi \ old + 1.0d0
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#### namelistS



▶ namelists allow input/output of annotated lists of values



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- ► File content is structured, self-describing, order independent, comments are allowed:

```
&golden_inputs
tol=1.e-4 ! tolerance
phi_start=5.0 ! Oth iteration
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- Items can be added to a namelist in different statements, but code like this easily misleads readers (and you read your own codes, don't you?)
- Use them to make input robust, in output mostly good for debugging









#### Array Syntax

### Input/Output

Formatted I/C

File I/O

Namelist

Internal Files

Unformatted I/O

Robust I/O





program golden ratio

#### Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



```
! experiments with the golden ratio iterative relation
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
 real(rk) :: phi, phi_old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter, test no
 character(15) :: outfilename
 namelist /golden inputs/ phi start, tol, max iter, test no
  test no = 1
 open (11, FILE='golden.in', STATUS='old')
  read(11, golden inputs)
 close(11)
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(outfilename, '("golden", I5.5, ".out")') test no
 open (12.FILE=outfilename)
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max_iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
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 character(15) :: outfilename
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 test no = 1
 open (11, FILE='golden.in', STATUS='old')
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 close(11)
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 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(outfilename, '("golden", I5.5, ".out")') test no
 open (12.FILE=outfilename)
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max_iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
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```



### Internal Files



► character variables of default kind can be specified in place of units in read and write statements





#### Internal Files



- character variables of default kind can be specified in place of units in read and write statements
- Writing to internal files is good to:
  - dynamically build file names according to a pattern (like number of iterations)
  - dynamically assemble complex I/O formats, depending on actual data
  - prepare complex labels for plot data formats
  - build commands to be sent to hardware devices
  - ▶ .





#### Internal Files



- character variables of default kind can be specified in place of units in read and write statements
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  - dynamically assemble complex I/O formats, depending on actual data
  - prepare complex labels for plot data formats
  - build commands to be sent to hardware devices
  - ٠..
- Reading from internal files can be useful to read complex inputs
  - You have a textual input file sporting different formats
  - And the right format depends on actual data in the file
  - ▶ Just read each line in a character variable, suitably sized
  - Pick the suitable format
  - And use it to read from the variable itself





#### Hands-on Session #3



- Play with goldenfile.f90, goldenfnl.f90, and goldeniio.f90:
  - writing input files
  - writing good and bad data in input files
  - giving input files wrong file names









#### Array Syntax

### Input/Output

Formatted I/O

File I/O

Namelist

Internal Files

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### Unformatted I/O



- ► Formatted I/O is good, but:
  - internal data format is much more compact
  - and roundoff may happen, making recovery of original values impossible
  - and conversion takes time





### **Iterative Matrix Inversion**



```
program iterative inversion
! experiments with matrix iterative inversion
  implicit none
  real, dimension(4,4) :: a, x, x old, x start
  real :: tol, err
  integer :: i, max iter
  open (21, FILE='input.dat', FORM='unformatted', STATUS='old')
  read(21) a
  read(21) x start
  read(21) tol, max iter
  close(21)
  x old = x start
  do i=1.max iter
    x = 2.0 * x \text{ old} - \text{matmul}(x \text{ old}, \text{matmul}(a, x \text{ old}))
    err = maxval(abs(x - x old))
    if (err < tol) exit
    x \text{ old} = x
  end do
  open (22, FILE='itinv.dat', FORM='unformatted')
  write(22) a
  write(22) x start
  write(22) tol.max iter
  write(22) i
  write(22) x
  close(22)
end program iterative inversion
```



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  open (22, FILE='itinv.dat', FORM='unformatted')
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  write(22) tol.max iter
  write(22) i
  write(22) x
  close(22)
end program iterative inversion
```



### Unformatted I/O



- Formatted I/O is good, but:
  - internal data format is much more compact
  - and roundoff may happen, making recovery of original values impossible
  - and conversion takes time
- Unformatted I/O is used to store and recover data in internal representation
  - ▶ Just give FORM='unformatted' option when opening the file
  - ► And omit format in read and write statements





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  - and conversion takes time
- Unformatted I/O is used to store and recover data in internal representation
  - Just give FORM='unformatted' option when opening the file
  - ► And omit format in read and write statements
- ▶ Unformatted I/O is performed on a *record* basis
  - ▶ In unformatted mode, each write writes a record
  - ▶ As we'll see, this allows walking your files backward and forward
  - ▶ But has interesting consequences, as more than your data is written to your file...





#### Hands-on Session #4



- Modify itinv.f90 to perform unformatted I/O
- ► To test it, you'll need an additional program:
  - taking text input from keyboard or initializing all needed data
  - to write a good unformatted input file for the new version of itinv.f90





# As you are at it...



- Try different ways to output the results:
  - element-wise

```
do j=1,n
   do i=1,n
    write(79) a(i,j)
   end do
end do
```

column-wise, using an implied do-loop:

```
do j=1,n
  write(79) (a(i,j), i=1,n) ! a(:,j) will also do
end do
```

with two implied do-loops:

```
write(79) ((a(i,j), i=1,n), j=1,n)
```

Can you spot the difference?



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end do
```

with two implied do-loops:

```
write(79) ((a(i,j), i=1,n), j=1,n)
```

- Can you spot the difference?
- Not a big issue for 4 × 4 matrices, but think of a 256 × 256 × 1024 grid!





# File Positioning



- read always advance to next record, even if you read only part of the record (or possibly nothing)
- backspace (u) moves position for subsequent I/Os to the record preceding the current one
- rewind (u) moves position for subsequent I/Os to file beginning
- To allow positioning back and forth, a four bytes record marker is added in 32 bit mode (eight bytes in 64 bit mode) before and after each record
- Best practice: write data in whole blocks





### Fortran 2003: Stream Access I/O



- Record markers added in unformatted I/O make exchanging data with other programs (notably C ones) troublesome
- open (unit,..., ACCESS='stream',...) is a new method to access external files
- ▶ No record markers are written before or after a write
  - ► Thus, advancing or backspacing over records is not possible
  - But required position may be specified by: write(unit,POS=position) x read(unit,POS=position) y
- Best practice: if you are really serious about data exchanges, across different programs and systems, use libraries like HDF5, VTK, CGNS







#### Array Syntax

### Input/Output

Formatted I/O

File I/O

Namelist

Internal Files

Unformatted I/C

Robust I/O





# I/O Errors and Mishaps



- You may happen to:
  - ▶ Try to open a new file, when one with same name already exists
  - Look for an existing file, which is missing
  - Encounter an unexpected end of record in a read
  - Encounter an unexpected end of file while reading
  - Run out of disk space while writing
  - Try writing to a read-only file
  - ▶ ..





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  - ▶ .
- And get an unfriendly runtime error





# I/O Errors and Mishaps



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  - Encounter an unexpected end of file while reading
  - Run out of disk space while writing
  - Try writing to a read-only file
  - ▶ ..
- And get an unfriendly runtime error
- Or you may need to open a file in a library you are writing
  - And use a unit already opened in a calling program
  - The previously opened unit is automatically closed
  - With surprising consequences on program behavior





# Managing I/O Errors



- ► All I/O statements accept an **IOSTAT**=*ios* option
  - ios must be an integer variable of default kind
  - Set to zero on success
  - Set to negative values on end of file or record (in Fortran 2003, iostat\_end and iostat\_eor respectively, from iso\_fortran\_env module)
  - Set to positive values on error
  - Execution will not stop
- Use it to identify the issue, and recover or fail gracefully





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     (in Fortran 2003, iostat\_end and iostat\_eor respectively, from iso\_fortran\_env module)
  - Set to positive values on error
  - Execution will not stop
- Use it to identify the issue, and recover or fail gracefully
- ► All I/O statements accept an ERR=err-label option
  - err-label is a statement label in the same program unit
  - Flow control jumps to err-label in case of error
- Use it to centralize error management and recovery
- ► Together with iostat, of course







▶ Let's assume ans is a logical variable, k is an integer variable, and s is a character variable of suitable length







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- inquire (15, OPENED=ans) will set ans to .true. if a file is already opened on unit 15





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- inquire(FILE='input.dat',OPENED=ans) will set ans to .true. if file input.dat is already opened
- inquire (15, OPENED=ans) will set ans to .true. if a file is already opened on unit 15
- ▶ inquire (FILE='input.dat', NUMBER=k) will set k to -1 if file input.dat is not opened, to connected unit otherwise





# More Doubts? inquire More!



inquire (15, FORM=s) will set s to 'FORMATTED' or 'UNFORMATTED' if unit 15 is connected for formatted or unformatted I/O respectively, to 'UNDEFINED' otherwise





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- inquire (15, FORM=s) will set s to 'FORMATTED' or 'UNFORMATTED' if unit 15 is connected for formatted or unformatted I/O respectively, to 'UNDEFINED' otherwise
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- And many more variations, look to manuals
- ► Of course, IOSTAT and ERR can be useful on inquire too





#### Hands-on Session #5



- Write a program that:
  - reads an 'arbitrarily' long column of real numbers from an ASCII file
  - prints maximum, minimum, average of the numbers
  - ▶ and prints the  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ -th row where *n* is the length of the column







#### Part IV

# Derived Types and Memory Management

Derived types, operators overloading, parametric types and inheritance. Memory management, dynamic allocation and memory heap. Pointers. C and Fortran interoperability.







Extending the Language
Derived Types
Operators Overloading
Parameterized Types
Extending Types, and Much More

Managing Memory

Conclusions









# Extending the Language Derived Types

Parameterized Types
Extending Types, and Much More

Managing Memory

Conclusions





#### **User Defined Types**



 Fortran allows programmers to add new types, built as assemblies of existing ones

```
type position
  real :: x, y, z
end type position

type velocity
  real :: x, y, z
end type velocity
```

- Components in different derived types may have the same name (not a surprise!)
- type (position) :: r declares a variable of type
  position
- Components of a derived type can be accessed like this:
  r%y = 0.0





# **Growing Types from Types**

- Derived types are not second class citizens
- Thus derived types (also termed structures) can be assembled from other derived types too

```
type particle
  type(position) :: r
  type(velocity) :: v
  real :: mass
end type particle

type atom
  type(position) :: r
  type(velocity) :: v
  real :: mass ! In atomic units
  integer :: an ! Atomic number
end type atom
```

- type(particle) :: p declares a variable of type
  particle
- ► Components of a component of a variable can be accessed like this: p%v%z = 0.0





#### Structures In Action



```
type(atom) :: h1, h2, he

h1%r = position(0.0, 0.0, 0.0)
h1%v = velocity(1.0, -1.0, 0.0)
h1%mass = 1.00794
h1%an = 1 ! Assigns atomic number

h2 = h1 ! Intrinsic assignment

he = atom(position(1.0, 0.0, -1.0), h2%v, 4.002602, 2)
```

- Derived type name can be used to construct values of the type
- Unsurprisingly, velocity() is termed a constructor
- Values passed as argument to constructors must be ordered as in type definition
- Assignment is intrinsically available





#### Formatted I/O of Derived Types



- Derived types boil down (possibly recursively) to collections of intrinsic types
- And behavior is coherent with I/O of complex values and arrays
- All single intrinsic type (sub)components will be processed in sequence
- If you want control of the conversion:
  - a proper edit descriptor must be provided for each component
  - ▶ in same order as components are declared in type declaration
- Fortran 2003 introduces the DT edit descriptor to give users total control









#### Extending the Language

**Derived Types** 

**Operators Overloading** 

Parameterized Types
Extending Types, and Much More

Managing Memory

Conclusions







► Binary operator + can be used to add:







- ► Binary operator + can be used to add:
  - a pair of integer values







- ► Binary operator + can be used to add:
  - ▶ a pair of integer values
  - a pair of real values







- Binary operator + can be used to add:
  - ▶ a pair of integer values
  - ► a pair of real values
  - a pair of complex values







- Binary operator + can be used to add:
  - a pair of integer values ▶ a pair of real values
  - a pair of complex values

  - two integer values of different kinds







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  - two integer values of different kinds
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  - two complex values of different kinds
  - an integer and a real value





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  - an integer and a real value
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  - a real and a complex value
- It's like the meaning of + is 'overloaded'
  - Different machine code is generated depending on operand types
- ► And ditto for -, \*, /, >, >=, ...





# Bringing Abstractions Further



Wouldn't it be nice to have arithmetic operators work on structures?

```
interface operator (-)
  function subvel(p1, p2)
    type (velocity), intent(in) :: p1, p2
    type(velocity) :: subvel
 end function
end interface operator (-)
interface operator (-)
  function chsvel(p)
    type(velocity), intent(in) :: p
    type(velocity) :: chsvel
 end function
end interface operator (-)
function subvel(p1, p2)
 implicit none
 type (velocity), intent(in) :: p1, p2
 type(velocity) :: subvel
  subvel*x = p1*x-p2*x; subvel*y = p1*y-p2*y; subvel*z = p1*z-p2*z
end function subvel
function chsvel(p)
 implicit none
 type(velocity), intent(in) :: p
 type(velocity) :: chsvel
 chsvel%x = -p%x; chsvel%y = -p%y; chsvel%z = -p%z
end function chavel
```





#### Changing Rules as We Need



- We are fitting an infinite space into a finite box with periodic boundary conditions
- Wouldn't it be nice to define our operators with custom functionality?

```
interface operator(+)
  function addpos(p1, p2)
    type(position), intent(in) :: p1, p2
    type(position) :: addpos
  end function
end interface operator(+)

function addpos(p1, p2) ! Adds positions with periodic boundary conditions
  implicit none
  type(position), intent(in) :: p1, p2
  type(position) :: addpos
  real,parameter :: boxwidth = 128.0

addpos%x = modulo(p1%x+p2%x, boxwidth)
  addpos%y = modulo(p1%x+p2%x, boxwidth)
  addpos%z = modulo(p1%x+p2%x, boxwidth)
end function addpos
```







- interface operator (op-name) lets you overload op-name with a generic procedure
  - ► Arguments must be intent (in) and can be either one or two
  - ▶ op-name may be an intrinsic operator, or a .new\_name.







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- And defining subtraction is an easy job
- Positions may be added as usual intrinsic variables and boundary conditions are automatically imposed







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  - same for existing operators
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  - lowest for new binary operators
- Now velocities may be added as intrinsic arithmetic types
- And defining subtraction is an easy job
- Positions may be added as usual intrinsic variables and boundary conditions are automatically imposed
- Time for a module





#### A Module Centered on Derived Types



```
module periodic box
 implicit none
  real, private, parameter :: boxwidth = 128.0
 private addpos, addvel, chsvel, subvel, subpos
 type position
    real :: x, v, z
 end type position
 type velocity
    real :: x, y, z
 end type velocity
 interface operator (+)
    module procedure addpos
    module procedure addvel
 end interface operator(+)
1 ...
contains
  function addpos(p1, p2) ! Adds positions with periodic boundary conditions on x
    type (position), intent(in) :: p1, p2
    type(position) :: addpos
    addpos%x = modulo(p1%x+p2%x, boxwidth)
    addpos%v = modulo(p1%v+p2%v, boxwidth)
    addpos%z = modulo(p1%z+p2%z, boxwidth)
 end function addpos
  function addvel
    1...
 end function addvel
! ...
end module periodic box
```





#### Structuring Structures



- Again, modules are the best way of grouping related stuff
- Again, with modules and module procedures we don't need to write interface blocks
- Modules let us hide implementation details
- Best practice: put structure definitions and related functions and operators in modules
  - Anyway, they will be used together
  - When dealing with nested types with many related functions, a hierarchy of modules would probably help
  - ► Because, of course, you can use modules in a module





#### Hands-on Session #1

- Write a module that defines:
  - ▶ A new type vector made up of three real components
  - ► Operator .cross. for cross product
  - Operator + to sum two vectors
- Write a program to test your module

```
program test_class_vector
    use class_vector

implicit none

type(vector) :: v, w, z

v=vector(1.d0,0.d0,0.d0)
    w=vector(0.d0,1.d0,0.d0)
    z=vector(0.d0,0.d0,1.d0)

write(*,*) v+w.cross.z

end program test_class_vector
```

Definition of cross product:

$$a \times b = (a_2b_3 - a_3b_2)\hat{i} + (a_3b_1 - a_1b_3)\hat{j} + (a_1b_2 - a_2b_1)\hat{k}$$

► Then extend operators to have them work with array of vectors it's elementary!





#### A Possible Solution



contains





#### A Possible Solution



contains







```
module class_vector
implicit none
type vector
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: x
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: y
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: z
end type vector
```

contains







```
module class_vector
implicit none
type vector
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: x
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: y
  real(kind(1.d0)) :: z
end type vector

interface operator(.cross.)
  module procedure cross_prod
end interface
```

#### contains

```
function cross_prod(a,b)
  type(vector) :: cross_prod
  type(vector), intent(in) :: a, b
  cross_prod%x = a%y * b%z - a%z * b%y
  cross_prod%y = a%z * b%x - a%x * b%z
  cross_prod%z = a%x * b%y - a%y * b%x
end function cross_prod
```





```
module class vector
 implicit none
 type vector
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: x
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: v
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: z
 end type vector
 interface operator(.cross.)
    module procedure cross prod
 end interface
  interface operator(+)
    module procedure vec sum
  end interface
contains
  function cross_prod(a,b)
    type (vector) :: cross prod
    type (vector), intent(in) :: a, b
    cross prod x = a v * b z - a z * b v
    cross prody = axx * bx - axx * bx
    cross prod%z = a%x * b%y - a%y * b%x
 end function cross prod
  function vec sum(a,b)
    type(vector) :: vec sum
    type(vector), intent(in) :: a, b
    vec sum%x = a%x + b%x
    vec sum%y = a%y + b%y
    vec sum%z = a%z + b%z
 end function vec sum
end module class vector
```







```
module class vector
 implicit none
 type vector
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: x
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: v
    real(kind(1.d0)) :: z
 end type vector
 interface operator(.cross.)
    module procedure cross prod
 end interface
  interface operator(+)
    module procedure vec sum
  end interface
contains
 elemental function cross prod(a,b)
    type (vector) :: cross prod
    type (vector), intent(in) :: a, b
    cross prod x = a v * b z - a z * b v
    cross prody = axx * bx - axx * bx
    cross prod%z = a%x * b%y - a%y * b%x
 end function cross prod
 elemental function vec sum(a,b)
    type(vector) :: vec sum
    type (vector), intent(in) :: a, b
    vec sum%x = a%x + b%x
    vec sum % y = a % y + b % y
    vec sum%z = a%z + b%z
 end function vec sum
end module class vector
```







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# Making It wider



- What if we wanted different kinds of points?
- ► This is a possibility:

```
type point
  real( selected_real_kind(5) ) :: x, y, z
end type point

type widepoint
  real( selected_real_kind(12) ) :: x, y, z
end type widepoint
```

But not very elegant, nor easy to manage





### Fortran 2003 Adds Parameterized Types



▶ In Fortran 2003, types may have kind type parameters:

```
type point(point_kind)
  integer, kind :: point_kind = kind(0.0)
  real(point_kind) :: x, y, z
end type point

type(point(point_kind=kind(0.0))) :: apoint
type(point) :: anotherpoint
type(point(selected_real_kind(12))) :: awiderpoint
```

- kind states that this type parameter behaves as a kind
- And it works as kind does for intrinsic types





# More Derived Type Parameters



Structures may have array components

```
type segments(point_kind)
  integer, kind :: point_kind = kind(0.0)
  type(point(point_kind)), dimension(100) :: start_point
  type(point(point_kind)), dimension(100) :: end_point
end type segments
```

- Our segments type looks a bit rigid, doesn't it?
- Derived type parameters come to rescue:

```
type segments(point_kind, n)
  integer, kind :: point_kind = kind(0.0)
  integer, len :: n
  type(point(point_kind)), dimension(n) :: start_point
  type(point(point_kind)), dimension(n) :: end_point
end type segments
```

```
type(segments(n=100)) :: ahundredsegments
type(segments(n=1000)) :: athousandsegments
```

Warning: compilers support still lags behind, your mileage may vary





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➤ So, we are able to define new types, and specialized procedures and operators to use them







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- ► This is what Computer Science priests term *Object-Based* programming







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- But point, position, and velocity have the same components
  - And that's always true, whatever the space dimensions
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- So, we are able to define new types, and specialized procedures and operators to use them
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- But point, position, and velocity have the same components
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- ► And particle, and atom share identical components
  - And a ion would simply add a charge component







- So, we are able to define new types, and specialized procedures and operators to use them
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- But point, position, and velocity have the same components
  - And that's always true, whatever the space dimensions
  - But they are conceptually (and dimensionally!) different things
- ► And particle, and atom share identical components
  - And a ion would simply add a charge component
- Wouldn't it be nice to 'inherit' from one type to another?
  - Yeah, and easier to manage, too!
  - And this is what CS priests call Object-Oriented programming, and is so trendy!



### Fortran 2003 extends Derived Types



```
type point
  real :: x, v, z
end type point
type, extends(point) :: position
end type position
type, extends(point) :: velocity
end type velocity
type particle
 type (position) :: r
 type(velocity) :: v
  real · · mass
end type particle
type, extends(particle) :: atom
  integer :: an ! atomic number
end type atom
type, extends(atom) :: ion
  integer :: charge ! in units of elementary charge
end type ion
```

- extends means that the new type has the same components, and possibly more
- Now we still have to write procedures and operators, don't we



- y ds i
- Fortran 2003 adds type bound procedures (a.k.a. methods in OO jargon)
  - Which are sorts of 'code components' of a type
  - And are inherited when it is extended





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  - Which means you can write procedures to work on particle arguments
  - And have them behave correctly even if passed atoms or ions at runtime





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  - Which means you can write procedures to work on particle arguments
  - And have them behave correctly even if passed atoms or ions at runtime
- Unfortunately (or maybe fortunately) we'll not cover this stuff, because:
  - compilers support lags way behind
  - and OO programming is not that easy
  - get your type hierarchy wrong, and you'll bitterly regret





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- Unfortunately (or maybe fortunately) we'll not cover this stuff, because:
  - compilers support lags way behind
  - and OO programming is not that easy
  - get your type hierarchy wrong, and you'll bitterly regret
- OO programming is not a matter of good coding, but of thoughtful and thorough design







### Extending the Language

Managing Memory
Dynamic Memory Allocation
Fortran Pointers
Bridging the Gap with C
Sketchy Ideas on Data Structures

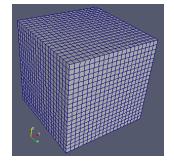
Conclusions





# A PDE Problem





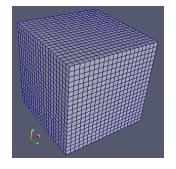
► Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE





### A PDE Problem





- ▶ Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE
- On a dense, Cartesian, uniform grid
  - Mesh axes are parallel to coordinate ones
  - Steps along each direction have the same size
  - And we have some discretization schemes in time and space to solve for variables at each point



# A Rigid Solution



```
integer, parameter :: NX = 200
integer, parameter :: NY = 450
integer, parameter :: NZ = 320

integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)

real(rk) :: deltax ! Grid steps
real(rk) :: deltay
real(rk) :: deltaz

real(rk) :: u(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: v(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: w(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: w(NX,NY,NZ)
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```

We could write something like that in a module, and use it everywhere



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- We could write something like that in a module, and use it everywhere
- But it has annoying consequences
  - Recompile each time grid resolution changes
  - A slow process, for big programs
  - And error prone, as we may forget about





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- But it has annoying consequences

integer, parameter :: NX = 200

- Recompile each time grid resolution changes
- A slow process, for big programs
- And error prone, as we may forget about
- Couldn't we size data structures according to user input?







```
real(rk) :: u(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: v(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: w(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: p(NX,NY,NZ)
```

or

type flow

real(rk) :: u,v,w,p

end type

type(flow) :: f(NX,NY,NZ)

Which one is best?





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real(rk) :: u(NX,NY,NZ)
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Of

type flow
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```

Both have merits





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Which one is best?
```

- Both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses





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Which one is best?
```

- Both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
  - The latter brings in cache all values related to a grid point as soon as one component is accessed





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Which one is best?

- Both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
  - The latter brings in cache all values related to a grid point as soon as one component is accessed
- We lean to the former





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or
type flow
  real(rk) :: u.v.w.p
end type
type(flow) :: f(NX, NY, NZ)
```

Which one is best?

- Both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
  - The latter brings in cache all values related to a grid point as soon as one component is accessed
- We lean to the former
  - As in most numerical schemes, values of the same field in neighboring grid points are accessed together





# Looking for Flexibility



```
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx, ny, nz)
  integer, intent(in) :: nx, ny, nz

integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
  real(rk):: deltax, deltay, deltaz ! Grid steps

real(rk) :: u(nx,ny,nz)
  real(rk) :: v(nx,ny,nz)
  real(rk) :: w(nx,ny,nz)
  real(rk) :: w(nx,ny,nz)
  real(rk) :: p(nx,ny,nz)
```

 We could think of declaring automatic arrays inside a subroutine





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  real(rk) :: w(nx,ny,nz)
  real(rk) :: p(nx,ny,nz)
```

- We could think of declaring automatic arrays inside a subroutine
- ▶ This is unwise
  - Automatic arrays are usually allocated on the process stack
  - Which is a precious resource
  - And limited in most system configurations





# A Bad, Old, Common approach



```
program pde solve
  parameter (MAXNX=400, MAXNY=400, MAXNZ=400)
  parameter (MAXSIZE=MAXNX*MAXNX*MAXNZ)
  real *8 u (MAXSIZE), v (MAXSIZE), w (MAXSIZE), p (MAXSIZE)
  common u, v, w, p
! ...
  call my pde solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
end
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
  real*8 u(nx,ny,nz),v(nx,ny,nz),w(nx,ny,nz),p(nx,ny,nz)
! . . .
```

▶ We could give a different shape to dummy arguments





# A Bad, Old, Common approach



```
program pde solve
  parameter (MAXNX=400, MAXNY=400, MAXNZ=400)
  parameter (MAXSIZE=MAXNX*MAXNX*MAXNZ)
  real *8 u (MAXSIZE), v (MAXSIZE), w (MAXSIZE), p (MAXSIZE)
  common u, v, w, p
! ...
  call my pde solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
end
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
  real*8 u(nx,ny,nz),v(nx,ny,nz),w(nx,ny,nz),p(nx,ny,nz)
1 . . .
```

- We could give a different shape to dummy arguments
- But this only works if interface is implicit
  - Which is dangerous





# A Bad, Old, Common approach



```
program pde solve
  parameter (MAXNX=400, MAXNY=400, MAXNZ=400)
  parameter (MAXSIZE=MAXNX*MAXNX*MAXNZ)
  real *8 u (MAXSIZE), v (MAXSIZE), w (MAXSIZE), p (MAXSIZE)
  common u, v, w, p
! ...
  call my pde solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
end
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
  real*8 u(nx,ny,nz),v(nx,ny,nz),w(nx,ny,nz),p(nx,ny,nz)
1 . . .
```

- We could give a different shape to dummy arguments
- But this only works if interface is implicit
  - Which is dangerous
- Maximum problem size still program limited: nx\*ny\*nz mustcinec be less than maxsize



## **Removing Limitations**



- Being program limited is annoying
- It's much better to accommodate to any user specified problem size
  - Right, as long as there is enough memory
  - But if memory is not enough, not our fault
  - It's computer or user's fault
- And there are many complex kinds of computations
  - Those in which memory need cannot be foreseen in advance
  - Those in which arrays do not fit
  - ► Those in which very complex data structures are needed







#### Extending the Language

Managing Memory
Dynamic Memory Allocation
Fortran Pointers
Bridging the Gap with C
Sketchy Ideas on Data Structures

Conclusions







```
integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
real(rk), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: u,v,w,p
allocate(u(nx,ny,nz),v(nx,ny,nz),w(nx,ny,nz),p(nx,ny,nz))
```

► When allocatable arrays are declared, only their rank is specified (dimension(:,:,:))







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integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
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- When allocatable arrays are declared, only their rank is specified (dimension (:,:,:))
- allocate statement performs actual memory allocation and defines extents







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- allocate statement performs actual memory allocation and defines extents
  - On failure, program stops
  - But if STAT=integer\_var is specified, integer\_var is set to zero on success and to a positive value on failure, and execution doesn't stop
- ▶ Best practice: use **STAT**= and, on failure, provide information to users before terminating execution



## Freeing Memory



- Where all these 'dynamic allocated memory' comes from?
  - ► From an internal area, often termed "memory heap"
  - When that is exhausted, OS is asked to give the process more memory
  - And if OS is short of memory, or some configuration limit is exhausted...





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- ► When you are done with an allocatable, use deallocate to claim memory back
  - Allocatable which are local to a procedure are automatically deallocated on return
  - But it's implementation defined what happens to allocatable private to a module





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  - ► From an internal area, often termed "memory heap"
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  - But it's implementation defined what happens to allocatable private to a module
- Best practice: always deallocate when you are done with an allocatable array







Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable







- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable
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  - In some cases (error recovery) use logical allocated() function to check
- Mistaking allocatables for a substitute to procedure automatic arrays
  - Dynamic allocation incurs costs
  - Only worth for big arrays that would not fit program stack







 Sometimes, you need to have allocatable components in a derived type







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- Sometimes, you need to have allocatable components in a derived type
- ► These were added in Fortran 2003
- But some compilers may still lag in this respect
- But Fortran has one more feature to be used to this aim
- And it is also useful to build complex, dynamic data structures







#### Extending the Language

### Managing Memory

**Dynamic Memory Allocation** 

Fortran Pointers

Bridging the Gap with C

Sketchy Ideas on Data Structures

Conclusions





#### **Enter Fortran Pointers**

- Fortran pointers are aliases to other objects
- ► Declared like regular variables, with attribute pointer
- Associated to actual objects with pointer assignment =>
- To be associated with a pointer, variables must have the target attribute
  - But compilers are often liberal (sloppy?) on this
- Disassociated by actual objects with nullify statement or by pointer assignment of null()

```
real, dimension(:,:,:), pointer :: r
real, target :: a(5,15,6), b(3,22,7)
r => a
! now r is an alias of a
nullify(r)
r => b
! now r is an alias of b
r => null()
```







► Pointers can point to whatever type, scalar or array







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- Structure components can be pointers





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- And a pointer in a structure can point to a structure of the same type:

```
type atom_list
  type(atom) :: a
  type(atom_list), pointer :: next
end type
```

which comes in handy to define complex data structures, like lists







- ► Pointers can point to whatever type, scalar or array
- Structure components can be pointers
- And a pointer in a structure can point to a structure of the same type:

```
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end type
```

which comes in handy to define complex data structures, like lists

Pointers may also alias subobjects





# Allocating Pointers

If you allocate a pointer, an unnamed object of the pointee type is created, and associated with the pointer itself

```
real, dimension(:,:,:), pointer :: r
type(atom_list), pointer :: first

allocate(r(5,15,6))
! now r refers an unnamed array allocated on the heap

allocate(first)
! now first refers to an unnamed type(atom_list) variable,
! allocated on the heap
```





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You can deallocate the pointee by specifying the pointer in a deallocate statement





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allocate(first)
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! allocated on the heap
```

- You can deallocate the pointee by specifying the pointer in a deallocate statement
- This gives you a workaround if your compiler doesn't support allocatable structure components
  - Just add a suitable pointer component
  - And allocate it





- Referencing an undefined pointer (strange things may happen, it may also seem to work)
  - Good practice: initialize pointers to null ()





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  - Good practice: initialize pointers to null ()
- Referencing a nullified pointer
  - Your program will fail
  - Which is better than messing up with memory





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- Changing association of an allocated pointer
  - ► This is a memory leak, and programmers causing memory leaks have really bad reputation





- Referencing an undefined pointer (strange things may happen, it may also seem to work)
  - Good practice: initialize pointers to null ()
- Referencing a nullified pointer
  - Your program will fail
  - Which is better than messing up with memory
- Changing association of an allocated pointer
  - This is a memory leak, and programmers causing memory leaks have really bad reputation

```
real, dimension(:,:), pointer :: r, p
!...
allocate(r(n,m))
p => r
! ...
deallocate(r)
p(k,1) = p(k,1)+1
```

Now you'll be in troubles with p, with really strange behavior





### Hands-on Session #2: Laplace Equation



 Discretization on Cartesian 2D grid with Dirichelet Boundary Conditions

$$\begin{cases} f(x_{i+1,j}) + f(x_{i-1,j}) - 2f(x_{i,j}) + \\ f(x_{i,j+1}) + f(x_{i,j-1}) - 2f(x_{i,j}) = 0 & \forall x_{i,j} \in (a,b)^2 \\ f(x_{i,j}) = \alpha(x_{i,j}) & \forall x_{i,j} \in \partial[a,b]^2 \end{cases}$$

Iterative advancement using Jacobi method

$$\begin{cases} f_{n+1}(x_{i,j}) = \frac{1}{4}[ & f_n(x_{i+1,j}) + f_n(x_{i-1,j}) + \\ & f_n(x_{i,j+1}) + f_n(x_{i,j-1}) & ] & \forall n > 0 \\ f_0(x_{i,j}) = 0 & \forall x_{i,j} \in (a,b)^2 \\ f_n(x_{i,j}) = \alpha(x_{i,j}) & \forall x_{i,j} \in \partial [a,b]^2, & \forall n > 0 \end{cases}$$





## Laplace: static implementation



```
program laplace
   implicit none
   integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0), n = 100
   integer
                      :: maxIter = 100000, i, j, iter = 0
   real(dp), dimension(0:n+1,0:n+1) :: T, Tnew
   real(dp)
                      :: tol = 1.d-4, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
   T(0:n,0:n) = 0.d0
   T(n+1,1:n) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
   T(1:n,n+1) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
   do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)</pre>
      iter = iter + 1; var = 0.d0
      do j = 1, n
         do i = 1, n
            Tnew(i, j) = 0.25d0*(T(i-1, j) + T(i+1, j) + &
                                 T(i, j-1) + T(i, j+1)
            var = max(var, abs(Tnew(i,j) - T(i,j)))
         end do
      end do
      if (mod(iter, 100) == 0) &
        write(*, "(a, i8, e12.4)") ' iter, variation:', iter, var
      T(1:n,1:n) = Tnew(1:n,1:n)
      end do
   end do
end program laplace
```



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program laplace
   implicit none
   integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0), n = 100
   integer
                      :: maxIter = 100000, i, j, iter = 0
   real(dp), dimension(0:n+1,0:n+1) :: T, Tnew
   real(dp)
                      :: tol = 1.d-4, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
   T(0:n,0:n) = 0.d0
   T(n+1,1:n) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
   T(1:n,n+1) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
   do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)</pre>
      iter = iter + 1; var = 0.d0
      do j = 1, n
         do i = 1, n
            Tnew(i, j) = 0.25d0*(T(i-1, j) + T(i+1, j) + &
                                 T(i, j-1) + T(i, j+1)
            var = max(var, abs(Tnew(i,j) - T(i,j)))
         end do
      end do
      if (mod(iter, 100) == 0) &
        write(*, "(a, i8, e12.4)") ' iter, variation:', iter, var
      T(1:n,1:n) = Tnew(1:n,1:n)
      end do
   end do
end program laplace
```



#### Hands-on Session #2



- Modify the code using advanced Fortran features:
  - array syntax
  - allocatable arrays
  - pointer arrays
- Try to list pros and cons of each approach





### Laplace in Array-syntax



```
program laplace
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0), n = 100
  integer
                      :: maxIter = 100000, i, j, iter = 0
  real(dp), dimension(0:n+1,0:n+1) :: T. Thew
  real(dp)
                      :: tol = 1.d-4, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
  T(0:n,0:n) = 0.d0
  T(n+1,1:n) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
  T(1:n,n+1) = (/(i, i=1,n)/) * (top/(n+1))
  do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)
      iter = iter + 1
      Tnew(1:n,1:n) = 0.25d0*(T(0:n-1,1:n) + T(2:n+1,1:n) + &
                                 T(1:n,0:n-1) + T(1:n,2:n+1)
     var = maxval(abs(Tnew(1:n,1:n) - T(1:n,1:n)))
      T(1:n,1:n) = Tnew(1:n,1:n)
      if (mod(iter, 100) == 0) write(*, "(a, i8, e12.4)") &
                     ' iter, variation:', iter, var
  end do
end program laplace
```



## Laplace: dynamic allocation



```
program laplace
   implicit none
   integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0)
   integer
                      :: n, maxIter, i, j, iter = 0
   real (dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: T, Tnew
   real (dp)
                      :: tol, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
   write(*,*) 'Enter mesh size, max iterations and tollerance:'
   read(*,*) n, maxIter, tol
   allocate (T(0:n+1,0:n+1), Tnew(0:n+1,0:n+1))
   call init_and_set_bc(T, top, 'linear')
   do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)</pre>
      iter = iter + 1
      Tnew(1:n,1:n) = 0.25d0 * (T(0:n-1,1:n) + &
         T(2:n+1,1:n) + T(1:n,0:n-1) + T(1:n,2:n+1)
      var = \max(abs(Tnew(1:n,1:n) - T(1:n,1:n)))
      T(1:n,1:n) = Tnew(1:n,1:n)
      if ( mod(iter, 100) == 0 ) write(*, "(a, i8, e12.4)") &
         ' iter, variation:', iter, var
   end do
   deallocate (T, Tnew)
end program laplace
```





## Laplace: pointer implementation



```
program laplace
  implicit none
   integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0)
  integer
                      :: n, maxIter, i, j, iter = 0
  real (dp), dimension(:,:), pointer :: T, Tnew, Tmp=>null()
  real (dp)
                      :: tol, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
  write(*,*) 'Enter mesh size, max iterations and tollerance:'
  read(*,*) n, maxIter, tol
  allocate (T(0:n+1,0:n+1), Tnew(0:n+1,0:n+1))
  call init_and_set_bc(T, top, 'linear')
  Tnew = T
  do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)
      iter = iter + 1
      Tnew(1:n,1:n) = 0.25d0 * (T(0:n-1,1:n) + &
        T(2:n+1,1:n) + T(1:n,0:n-1) + T(1:n,2:n+1)
     var = \max(abs(Tnew(1:n,1:n) - T(1:n,1:n)))
      Tmp =>T; T =>Tnew; Tnew => Tmp;
     if(mod(iter, 100) == 0) write(*,"(a,i8,e12.4)") &
         ' iter, variation:', iter, var
  end do
  deallocate (T, Tnew)
  nullify(Tmp)
end program laplace
```





#### Homework



- Re-write a program that:
  - reads an 'arbitrarily' long column of real numbers from an ASCII file
  - copy the values to a suitably allocated array
  - prints maximum, minimum, average of the numbers
  - ▶ and prints the  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ -th row where n is the length of the column

avoiding the constraint of the declaration of a static maximal array, e.g. a(1000)

- Use allocatables: you need to read the file twice
- Use pointers, first store the values in a linked list and then copy them to an allocatable array
  - How to spare memory?





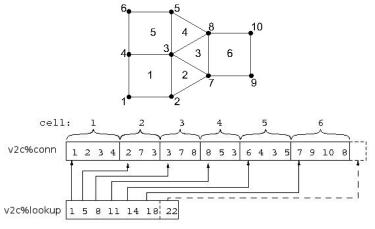


► The class\_connectivity implements the CSR format













### class\_connectivity Module



```
module class_connectivity
  implicit none

type connectivity
  integer, allocatable :: lookup(:)
  integer, allocatable :: conn(:)
  end type connectivity
end module class_connectivity
```





- ► The class\_connectivity implements the CSR format
- Array extents are unknown at compile time, so components must be allocatable





- ► The class\_connectivity implements the CSR format
- Array extents are unknown at compile time, so components must be allocatable
- ► Let's hide implementation details so that:
  - changes to the data structure will not affect codes using our class
  - provided that we don't change interfaces





## Encapsulation



```
module class_connectivity
  implicit none

type connectivity
    private
    integer, allocatable :: lookup(:)
    integer, allocatable :: conn(:)
    end type connectivity

contains
...
```





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- Now we need methods to initialize and access our data:





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  - a constructor to allocate components





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  - provided that we don't change interfaces
- ▶ Now we need methods to initialize and access our data:
  - a constructor to allocate components
  - ▶ a setter to assign vertices of the *i*-th cell





#### Constructor and Destructor



```
contains
```

```
subroutine alloc conn(a2b, nel, nconn)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: nel, nconn
    integer :: info
    allocate (a2b%lookup(nel+1), a2b%conn(nconn), stat=info)
    if (info /= 0) then
       write(0,100)
       stop
    end if
    a2b%lookup(1) = 1
100 format(' ERROR! Memory allocation failure in ALLOC CONN')
 end subroutine alloc conn
  subroutine free conn(a2b)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer :: info(2)
    info = 0
    if (allocated(a2b%lookup)) deallocate(a2b%lookup.stat=info(1))
    if (allocated(a2b%conn))
                               deallocate(a2b%conn.stat=info(2))
    if(any(info /= 0)) then
       write(0,100)
       stop
    end if
100 format(' ERROR! Memory deallocation failure in FREE CONN')
 end subroutine free conn
. . .
```





#### Setter and Getter



```
subroutine set ith conn(a2b,i,ith conn)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: i
    integer, intent(in) :: ith conn(:)
    integer :: i1, i2
    i1 = a2b%lookup(i)
    i2 = i1 + size(ith conn) - 1
    a2b%conn(i1:i2) = ith conn(:)
    a2b%lookup(i+1) = i2 + 1
 end subroutine set ith conn
  subroutine get ith conn(ith conn.a2b,i)
    integer, allocatable:: ith conn(:)
    type(connectivity), intent(in), target :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: i
    integer :: i1, i2, n
    if (allocated(ith conn)) deallocate(ith conn)
    i1 = a2b%lookup(i)
    i2 = a2b%lookup(i+1) - 1
    n=i2-i1+1
    allocate(ith conn(n))
    ith conn = a2b%conn(i1:i2)
 end subroutine get ith conn
end module class connectivity
```





- at 💮
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  - ▶ a setter to assign vertices of the *i*-th cell
- ► Write module procedures to:





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  - changes to the data structure will not affect codes using our class
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- ▶ Now we need *methods* to initialize and access our data:
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  - a setter to assign vertices of the i-th cell
- Write module procedures to:
  - destruct object of class\_connectivity type when no longer needed









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- Now we need methods to initialize and access our data:
  - a constructor to allocate components
  - a setter to assign vertices of the i-th cell
- Write module procedures to:
  - destruct object of class\_connectivity type when no longer needed
  - ► retrieve vertices values of the *i*-th cell (getter)









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- Write module procedures to:
  - destruct object of class\_connectivity type when no longer needed
  - ► retrieve vertices values of the *i*-th cell (getter)
- ► Then, for the sake of performance:
  - Write a module procedure returning a pointer to the vertices of i-th cell





#### Constructor and Destructor



```
contains
```

```
subroutine alloc conn(a2b, nel, nconn)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: nel, nconn
    integer :: info
    allocate (a2b%lookup(nel+1), a2b%conn(nconn), stat=info)
    if (info /= 0) then
       write(0,100)
       stop
    end if
    a2b%lookup(1) = 1
100 format(' ERROR! Memory allocation failure in ALLOC CONN')
 end subroutine alloc conn
  subroutine free conn(a2b)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer :: info(2)
    info = 0
    if (allocated(a2b%lookup)) deallocate(a2b%lookup.stat=info(1))
    if (allocated(a2b%conn))
                               deallocate(a2b%conn.stat=info(2))
    if(any(info /= 0)) then
       write(0,100)
       stop
    end if
100 format(' ERROR! Memory deallocation failure in FREE CONN')
 end subroutine free conn
```





#### Setter and Getter



```
subroutine set ith conn(a2b,i,ith conn)
    type(connectivity), intent(inout) :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: i
    integer, intent(in) :: ith conn(:)
    integer :: i1, i2
    i1 = a2b%lookup(i)
    i2 = i1 + size(ith conn) - 1
    a2b%conn(i1:i2) = ith conn(:)
    a2b%lookup(i+1) = i2 + 1
 end subroutine set ith conn
  subroutine get ith conn(ith conn.a2b,i)
    integer, allocatable:: ith conn(:)
    type(connectivity), intent(in), target :: a2b
    integer, intent(in) :: i
    integer :: i1, i2, n
    if (allocated(ith conn)) deallocate(ith conn)
    i1 = a2b%lookup(i)
    i2 = a2b%lookup(i+1) - 1
    n=i2-i1+1
    allocate(ith conn(n))
    ith conn = a2b%conn(i1:i2)
 end subroutine get ith conn
end module class connectivity
```





## **Returning Pointers**



```
function ith_conn(a2b,i)
   integer, pointer:: ith_conn(:)
   type(connectivity), intent(in), target :: a2b
   integer, intent(in) :: i
!
   integer :: i1, i2, n

   i1 = a2b%lookup(i)
   i2 = a2b%lookup(i+1) - 1
   ith_conn => a2b%conn(i1:i2)
```

end function ith conn







#### Extending the Language

#### Managing Memory

Dynamic Memory Allocation Fortran Pointers Bridging the Gap with C

,

Conclusions





## Mixing C and Fortran



- You may want to call a C function from a Fortran program
- Or call a Fortran procedure from a C program
- And you don't want to translate and re-debug
- Or you can't, as you don't have sources
- You may also want to share global data among C and Fortran program units
- This has been done in the past with non-standard tricks
- Fortran 2003 offers a better, standard way
- Let's look at it in steps





### Two Naive Examples



► Imagine you have this C function:

```
double avg_var(int n, const double a[], double *var) {
   double avg = 0.0;
   double avg2 = 0.0;
   for(int i=0;i<n;i++) {
       avg += a[i];
       avg2 += a[i]*a[i];
   }
   avg = avg/n;
   *var = avg2/n - avg*avg;
   return avg;
}</pre>
```

and you want to call it from your Fortran code like:

```
avg = avg_var(m,b,var)
```



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   return avg;
}</pre>
```

and you want to call it from your Fortran code like:

```
avg = avg_var(m,b,var)
```

Ore you have your favorite, thoroughly tested Poisson solver:

```
interface
   subroutine myPoissonSolver(1, m, n, f)
      integer, intent(in) :: 1, m, n
      real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(inout) :: f(1,m,n)
   end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
```

#### and you want to call it from your C code like:







# A Naive Approach

- We could think that Fortran interfaces and C declarations are enough
- And write, to call C from Fortran:

```
interface
  function avg_var(n, a, var)
   integer, intent(in) :: n
    real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(in) :: a(*)
    real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(out) :: var
    real(kind(1.0D0)) :: avg_var
  end function avg_var
end interface
```

▶ And to call Fortran from C, add on Fortran side:

```
interface
    subroutine myPoissonSolver(1, m, n, f)
    integer, intent(in) :: 1, m, n
    real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(inout) :: f(1,m,n)
    end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
```

#### and on the C side, the declaration:

```
void myPoissonSolver(int nx, int ny, int nz, field[nz][ny][nx]);
```

This is the right track, but still half way from our destination





- Fortran compilers mangle procedure names
  - ► All uppercase or all lowercase
  - Compilers may append/prepend one or two \_ characters
  - ► And for module procedures is even worse
  - ▶ Used to be sorted out on the C side, in non-portable ways







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- ► For C to Fortran:

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interface
   function avg_var(n, a, var) bind(c)
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For Fortran to C, Fortran side:

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void myPoissonSolver(int nx, int ny, int nz, field[nz][ny][nx]);
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#### Thou Shalt Care for Argument Passing

- Fortran passes arguments by reference
  - ► Under the hood, it's like a C pointer
  - ► Works for C arrays and pointers to scalar variables
  - ▶ But usually scalars are passed by value in C







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interface
   function avg_var(n, a, var) bind(c)
    integer, value :: n
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```

#### and on the C side, still the declaration:

```
void myPoissonSolver(int nx, int ny, int nz, field[nz][ny][nx]);
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- ▶ For C to Fortran:

```
interface
  function avg_var(n, a, var) bind(c)
    use iso_c_binding
    integer(c_int), value :: n
    real(c_double), intent(in) :: a(*)
    real(c_double), intent(out) :: var
    real(c_double) :: avg_var
  end function avg_var
end interface
```







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void myPoissonSolver(int nx, int ny, int nz, field[nz][ny][nx]);
```







## More from iso\_c\_binding

- iso\_c\_binding defines named constants holding kind type parameter values for intrinsic types for the platform
- integer(c\_int) is the kind value corresponding to a C int
- Negative values are used for unsupported C types, so the compiler will flag the problem

Туре	Kind	C type
integer	c_int	int
	c_short	short int
real	c_float	float
	c_double	double
complex	c_float_complex	float _Complex
	c_double_complex	double _Complex
logical	c_bool	_Bool
character	c char	char

► A few of them:

► Fortran 2008 adds c\_sizeof(), check with your compiler!





## **Mapping Arrays**



- Fortran has multidimensional arrays
- C has arrays of arrays (of arrays...)
- Thus the mapping of array indexes to actual data layout in memory is inverted
  - ► Fortran array a (L, M, N)
  - maps to C array a [N] [M] [L]



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- Before C99, the leading dimension of an array function parameter could not be specified in C
  - C array parameter a []
  - maps to Fortran assumed size array parameter a (\*)





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- Before C99, the leading dimension of an array function parameter could not be specified in C
  - C array parameter a []
  - maps to Fortran assumed size array parameter a (\*)
- In C99, Variable Length Arrays were introduced
  - C99 array parameter a [nz] [ny] [nx]
  - maps to Fortran array parameter a (nx, ny, nz)





## **Derived Types and Global Data**



- bind also helps for derived types and global data
- ► For derived types, each component must be interoperable

```
type, bind(c) :: particle
  integer(c_int) :: n
  real(c_float) :: x,y,z
  real(c_float) :: vx,vy,vz
end type particle
```

```
typedef struct particle {
  int n;
  float x,y,z;
  float vx,vy,vz;
} particle;
```

For module variables or common blocks, use

```
Fortran
integer(c_long), bind(c) :: n
real(c_double) :: m,k
common /com_mk/ m,k
bind(c) :: /com_mk/
```

```
extern long n;
extern struct mk {
  double m, k;
} com_mk;
```

▶ Note: common blocks become C structs





## Fortran Pointers vs. C Pointers

- As of argument passing, not a problem
- But Fortran pointers are not interoperable with C
- ► Fortran pointers sport richer semantics, notably:
  - multidimensional arrays
  - non-contiguous memory areas
- C functions returning a pointer must have type (c\_ptr) type (from iso\_c\_binding)
- Ditto for C pointer variables and pointer members of C structs:

```
type, bind(c) :: block
  integer(c_int) :: n_neighbors
  type(c_ptr) :: neighbors
  type(c_ptr) :: grid
end type block
```

```
typedef struct {
  int n_neighbors;
  int *neighbors;
  mesh *grid;
} block;
```



## Translating Pointers Back and Forth



▶ iso\_c\_binding module provides much needed help



## Translating Pointers Back and Forth



- ▶ iso\_c\_binding module provides much needed help
- ightharpoonup c\_loc(x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable x
- c\_f\_pointer(cptr, fptr[, shape]) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran pointer fptr
  - An optional shape argument like (/n/) or (/1,m,n/) gives it a shape for array pointers



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## Translating Pointers Back and Forth



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- ▶ c\_loc(x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable x
- c\_f\_pointer(cptr, fptr[, shape]) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran pointer fptr
  - An optional shape argument like (/n/) or (/1,m,n/) gives it a shape for array pointers
- If f\_proc is an interoperable Fortran procedure,
   c\_funloc(f\_proc) returns a valid C pointer
   (type(c\_funptr)) to it
- c\_f\_procpointer(cfptr, fpptr) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran procedure pointer fpptr





#### Thou Shalt Compile and Link Properly

 Obviously, C and Fortran sources must be separately compiled and then linked

```
user@caspur$> gcc -c fun_cmd.c
user@caspur$> gfortran -c main_cmd.f90
user@caspur$> gfortran fun_cmd.o main_cmd.o -o main_cmd
```

- ► Easy, if calling C functions from a Fortran program
  - ► Fortran Runtime Library is usually built on top of C one





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```

- ► Easy, if calling C functions from a Fortran program
  - ► Fortran Runtime Library is usually built on top of C one
- Less so if calling Fortran procedures from a C program
  - Fortran compiler might insert calls to its Runtime Library
- Best practice:

```
user@caspur$> gcc -lgfortran procedures.o main.c
```

Your mileage may vary, browse your compiler manuals







#### Extending the Language

#### Managing Memory

Dynamic Memory Allocation Fortran Pointers Bridging the Gap with C

Sketchy Ideas on Data Structures

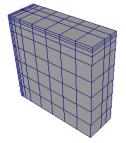
Conclusions





## Nonuniform Grids





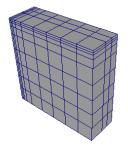
► Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE





#### Nonuniform Grids





- Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE
- ► On a dense, Cartesian, non uniform grid
  - Mesh axes are parallel to coordinate ones
  - Steps along each direction differ in size from point to point





## Keeping Information Together



```
type nonuniform grid
  integer :: nx, ny, nz
 ! Grid steps
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltax
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltay
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltaz
end type
1 . . .
type(nonuniform grid) :: my grid
integer :: alloc stat
1 . . .
allocate (my grid%deltax(nx), my grid%deltay(ny), &
         mv grid%deltaz(nz), STAT=alloc stat)
if (alloc stat > 0) then
 ! graceful failure
end if
```

Related information is best kept together





## Keeping Information Together



```
type nonuniform grid
  integer :: nx, ny, nz
 ! Grid steps
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- Related information is best kept together
- Grid size and grid steps are related information





## Keeping Information Together



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type nonuniform grid
  integer :: nx, ny, nz
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type(nonuniform grid) :: my grid
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allocate (my grid%deltax(nx), my grid%deltay(ny), &
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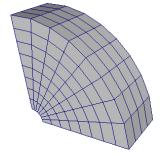
- Related information is best kept together
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- Use pointer components if your compiler lags behind the standard





## Structured Grids in General Form





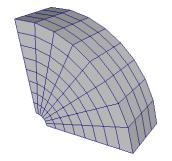
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## Structured Grids in General Form





- ▶ Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE
- On a dense structured mesh
  - Could be continuously morphed to a Cartesian grid
  - Need to know coordinates of each mesh point





## Sketching a Mesh Description



```
type meshpoint
  real(rk) :: x, y, z
end type
type, extends (meshpoint) :: normal
end type
type mesh
  integer :: nx, ny, nz
 type(meshpoint), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: coords
 type(normal), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: xnormals
 type(normal), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: ynormals
 type(normal), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: znormals
  real(rk), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: volumes
end type
1....
type (mesh) :: my_mesh
! allocate my mesh components with extents nx, ny, nz
! immediately checking for failures!
```

 Again, use pointer components if your compiler lags behind the standard





```
real(rk) :: x(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: y(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: z(NX,NY,NZ)

Or

type meshpoint
   real(rk) :: x, y, z
end type

type(meshpoint), dimension(NX,NY,NZ) :: coords

Which one is best?
```







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- Again, both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses





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- Again, both have merits
  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
  - The latter brings in cache all values related to a grid point as soon as one component is accessed







```
▶ real(rk) :: x(NX,NY,NZ)
  real(rk) :: v(NX,NY,NZ)
  real(rk) :: z(NX,NY,NZ)
  or
  type meshpoint
    real(rk) :: x, y, z
  end type
  type (meshpoint), dimension (NX, NY, NZ) :: coords
  Which one is best?
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  - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
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- Here, we lean to the latter
  - ▶ As in most numerical schemes, x, y, and z components of the same mesh point are accessed together



## Multiblock Meshes and More



A multiblock mesh is an assembly of connected structured meshes





## Multiblock Meshes and More



- A multiblock mesh is an assembly of connected structured meshes
  - ► You could dynamically allocate a mesh array
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  - You want your blocks resolution to adapt to dynamical behavior of PDE solution
  - Which means splitting blocks to substitute part of them with more resolved meshes





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  - Which means splitting blocks to substitute part of them with more resolved meshes
- Eventually, you'll need more advanced data structures





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- Adaptive Mesh Refinement
  - You want your blocks resolution to adapt to dynamical behavior of PDE solution
  - Which means splitting blocks to substitute part of them with more resolved meshes
- Eventually, you'll need more advanced data structures
  - Like lists
  - Like binary trees, oct-trees, n-ary trees





## If You Read Code Like This...



```
type block_item
  type(block), pointer :: this_block

  type(block_item), pointer :: next
end type
!...
  do while (associated(p))
    call advance_block_in_time(p%this_block)
    p => p%next
end do
```



#### If You Read Code Like This...



```
type block_item
  type(block), pointer :: this_block

  type(block_item), pointer :: next
end type
!...
  do while (associated(p))
     call advance_block_in_time(p%this_block)
     p => p%next
end do
```

- It is processing a singly-linked list of mesh blocks
- You need to learn more on abstract data structures
- Don't be afraid, it's not that difficult





## And If You Read Code Like This...



```
type block_tree_node
 type(block), pointer :: this block
 integer :: children no
 type(block tree node), pointer :: childrens
 type(block tree_node), pointer :: next_sibling
end type
1 . . .
recursive subroutine tree advance in time(n)
 type(block tree node) :: n
 type(block tree node), pointer :: p
 integer :: i
 p => n%childrens
 do i=0.n%children no
    call tree_advance_in_time(p)
    p => p%next sibling
  end do
 call advance block in time (n%this block)
end subroutine tree advance in time
```



#### And If You Read Code Like This...



```
type block tree node
 type(block), pointer :: this block
 integer :: children no
 type (block tree node), pointer :: childrens
 type (block tree node), pointer :: next sibling
end type
1 . . .
recursive subroutine tree advance in time(n)
 type(block tree node) :: n
 type(block tree node), pointer :: p
 integer :: i
 p => n%childrens
 do i=0.n%children no
    call tree advance in time(p)
    p => p%next sibling
  end do
 call advance block in time (n%this block)
end subroutine tree advance in time
```

- ► It is processing a tree of mesh blocks (AMR, probably)
- You need to learn more on abstract data structures
- Don't be afraid, it's not that difficult







Extending the Language

Managing Memory

Conclusions





#### What We Left Out



- More Fortran practice
  - ► Time was tight, and that's your job



#### What We Left Out



- ► More Fortran practice
  - Time was tight, and that's your job
- More about programming
  - Code development management tools
  - Debugging tools
  - Look among CINECA HPC courses





### What We Left Out



- More Fortran practice
  - Time was tight, and that's your job
- More about programming
  - Code development management tools
  - Debugging tools
  - Look among CINECA HPC courses
- ▶ More Fortran
  - Full object oriented programming
  - Floating point environment
  - ▶ Direct I/O
  - Asynchronous I/O
  - Submodules
  - Even more format edit descriptors
  - A few more statements and quite a few intrinsics





# **Looking for More**





J3 US Fortran Standards Committee



http://www.j3-fortran.org/



ISO WG5 Committee http://www.nag.co.uk/sc22wg5/



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