# 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.

## Outline

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 languagé (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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- 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
- 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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- You'll happen to encounter things we didn't cover, but it will be easy for you to learn more... or to attend a more advanced course!
- A course is not a substitute for a reference manual or a good book!
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- Neither a substitute for personal practice

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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

SuperComputing Applications and Innovation
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## My First Scientific Program in Fortran

```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
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 = sqrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c) ! square root of discriminant
    x1 = -b + delta
    x2 = -b - delta
    x1 = x1/(2.0*a)
    x2 = x2/(2.0*a)
    write(*,*) 'Real roots:', x1, x2
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- Best practice: do comment your code!
- Variable contents
- Algorithms
- Assumptions
- Tricks


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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
- 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


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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 $\mathbf{x 1}$ and $\mathbf{x} 2$ host IEEE single precision (i.e. 32 bits) floating point values
- 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. $\mathbf{x} 1$ is a valid name, $1 \mathbf{x}$ 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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- 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


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## A Few First Words on I/O

- The bare minimum: textual input output from/to the user terminal
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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
- $\mathrm{x} 1=\mathrm{x} 1+$ delta is a statement assigning the value of expression $\mathbf{x 1}+$ delta to variable $\mathbf{x 1}$
- 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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More on Compiling and Linking

## 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:

1. 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!
- GNU compiler collection includes gfortran compiler, supporting Fortran 95 and some features of the 2003 standard
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- Compile with:


## user@caspur\$> gfortran second_degree_eq.f90

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

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- Compile with:

```
user@caspur$> gfortran second_degree_eq.f90
```

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
```



## Hands-on Session \#1

```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
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 = sqrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c)
    x1 = -b + delta
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    x1 = x1/(2.0*a)
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    write(*,*) 'Real roots:', x1, x2
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- User wants to solve $x^{2}+1=0$
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－User wants to solve $x^{2}+1=0$
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Fixing a Defect

- User wants to solve $x^{2}+1=0$
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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 < O.O) then
        stop
    end if
delta = sqrt(delta)
```

- Try it now!
- User wants to solve $x^{2}+1=0$
- Enters: 1, 0, 1
- Gets: Real roots: NaN, NaN
- Discriminant is negative, its square root is Not A Number, NaN
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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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- But let's be more polite by changing from:

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if (delta < O.O) then
        stop
    endif
```

    to:
    if (delta < O.O) stop 'No real roots!'
    - Try it now!
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block of statements


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## Good Style

- Some folks prefer this:
if (delta < O.O) stop 'No real roots!' and it's OK

Good Style
－Some folks prefer this：
if（delta＜O．O）stop＇No real roots！＇ and it＇s OK
－Other folks prefer this：

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if (delta < 0.0) then
    stop 'No real roots!'
```

end if
and it＇s OK

## Good Style

- Some folks prefer this:
if (delta < O.O) stop 'No real roots!' and it's OK
- Other folks prefer this:
if (delta $<0.0$ ) then
stop 'No real roots!'
end if
and it's OK
- Sloppy guys write:

```
if (delta < O.O) then
stop 'No real roots!'
end if
```

but this is not that good...

## Good Style

- Some folks prefer this:
if (delta < O.O) stop 'No real roots!'
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- Other folks prefer this:
if (delta < 0.0) then
stop 'No real roots!'
end if
and it's OK
- Sloppy guys write:
if (delta < 0.0) then
stop 'No real roots!'
end if
but this is not that good...
- In general, Fortran disregards white space, but proper indentation visualizes program control flow

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More on Compiling and Linking
! roots of a 2 nd degree equation with real coefficients
program second_degree_eq
implicit none
real : : delta
real : : rp
real :: $a, b, c$
print *,'Solving $a x^{\wedge} 2+b x+c=0$, enter $a, b, c: '$
read(*,*) $a, b, c$
delta $=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{~b}$ - 4.0*a*c
if (delta < O.O) stop 'No real roots!'
delta $=\operatorname{sqrt}($ delta) $/(2.0 * a)$
$r p=-b /(2 \cdot 0 * a)$
print *,'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
end program second_degree_eq

## And Now Make it More Complex!

! roots of a 2 nd 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 < O.O) 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_eq
```

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

- logical type represents logical values
- Can be .true. or .false.
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- Again, use proper indentation
! roots of a 2 nd degree equation with real coefficients

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    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
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## More Types and Choices

- logical type represents logical values
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- 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 \&
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    end if
end program second_degree_eq
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## 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 $a x^{\wedge} 2+b x+c=0$, enter $a, b, c: ~ '$
read(*,*) a, b, c
delta $=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{~b}$ - 4.0*a*c
delta $=$ sqrt (delta)
z1 = (-b+delta)/(2.0*a)
$z 2=(-b-$ delta) $/(2.0 * a)$
print *,'Roots: ', z1, z2
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Complex Numbers
－Fortran has complex type：
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- Returning correct results, instead of NaNs
- And so do read, write, and print
- (1.5, 2.3) is Fortranese for $1.5+2.3 \imath$
! roots of a 2 nd 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 $=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{~b}$ - 4.0*a*c
delta $=$ sqrt (delta)
z1 = (-b+delta)/(2.0*a)
$z 2=(-b-$ delta) $/(2.0 * a)$
print *,'Roots: ', z1, z2
end program second_degree_eq


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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!'
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end if
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```

- Can you see the program logic?


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- Try it now!


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        stop
    end if
```

- 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


## Sorting it Out

- Let's give names to if constructs:

```
no2nd: if (a == 0.0) then
no1st: if (b == 0.0) then
noOth: if (c == O.O) then
                write(0,*) 'A trivial identity!'
                else noOth
                write(0,*) 'Plainly absurd!'
                end if noOth
    else nolst
        write(0,*) 'Too simple problem!'
    end if no1st
        stop
end if no2nd
```


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```
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            else nolst
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            end if nolst
            stop
            end if no2nd
```

- Giving names to constructs makes program logic more explicit


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```
no2nd: if (a == 0.0) then
        no1st: if (b == 0.0) then
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                write(0,*) 'A trivial identity!'
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                write(0,*) 'Plainly absurd!'
                end if noOth
            else nolst
                write(0,*) 'Too simple problem!'
            end if nolst
            stop
            end if no2nd
```

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- Names are for readability purposes only, do not enforce pairing rules


## Sorting it Out

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                end if noOth
                else no1st
                write(0,*) 'Too simple problem!'
            end if nolst
            stop
            end if no2nd
```

- 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

SuperComputing Applications and Innovation
Fortran Code, in the Beginning of Times


- The one on the right, is the statement $\mathbf{Z}(\mathrm{I})=\mathbf{Y}+\mathbf{W}(\mathrm{I})$
- 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.O.O) 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...


## A Bottle of Fortran, Vintage Year 1963

```
C SOLUTION OF QUADRATIC EQUATION
C (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 QUADRATIC EQUATIONS 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 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, COMPR, 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 REAL1 = (-B + SQRTF (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
```

- 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 . $\mathbf{f 9 0}$ 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

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

## 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
- 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

Outline

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More Fortran Basics
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Copying with Legacy Wrapping it Up 2

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More on Compiling and Linking

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```
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
    sinc = 1.0
    if (x /= 0.0) sinc = sin(x)/x
end function sinc
function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    implicit none
    real :: rect
    real :: t, tau
    real :: abs_t, half_tau
    real, external :: theta
    abs_t = abs(t)
    half_tau = 0.5*tau
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    if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect
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## Functions and their Definition

- Functions are program units
- Function name must be a legal Fortran name
- Functions specialty is performing computations and returning a value

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- 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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## Function Arguments and Local Variables

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- Declared like variables inside the function
- Arguments are termed dummy arguments inside the function
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- What if a dummy argument has the same name of a variable elsewhere in the program?
- No conflicts of sort, they are completely independent
- 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
- $\operatorname{acos}(x)$ returns the arc cosine of $x$ such that $|x| \leq 1$ in the range $0 \leq \arccos (x) \leq \pi$
- $\sin (x)$ returns the sine function value of $x$ in radians
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- $\sin (x)$ returns the sine function value of $x$ in radians
- abs (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. $\mathbf{f 9 0}$
- 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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- 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

```
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
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DSP test program

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- Let's write a dsp_test. $\mathbf{f} 90$ program:

DSP test program

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program dsp_test real :: $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, k$
end program dsp_test

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- Let's write a dsp_test.f90 program:
program dsp_test

```
real :: i,j,k
real :: rtheta, rsinc, rrect
real, external :: theta, sinc, rect
```

end program dsp_test

DSP test program

- We have collected DSP functions in dsp.f90 source file
- We want to test these functions
- Let's write a dsp_test.f90 program:

```
program dsp_test
real :: i,j,k
real :: rtheta, rsinc, rrect
real, external :: theta, sinc, rect
print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
read(*,*) i, j, k
```

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rtheta = theta(i)
rsinc = sinc(i)
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```

```
write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ')= ', rtheta
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write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ')= ', rtheta
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write(*,*) 'rect(', j, ',', k, ')= ', rrect

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write(*,*) 'rect(', j, ',', k, ')= ', rrect
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end program dsp_test

## Testing DSP Functions

- 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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    Enter i, j, k:
-1 0 1
    theta( -3.1415927 ) = 0.0000000
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    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. $\mathbf{f 9 0}$
- 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

```
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/= 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
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SuperComputing Applications and Innovation

## Testing DSP Functions Again

- Try to recompile dsp. $\mathbf{f 9 0} .$.


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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)
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dsp.f90:16.2:
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Error: Cannot assign to INTENT(IN) variable 'x' at (1)
```

- Got a compiler error message? Good!


It＇s Pass by Reference！
－Arguments are passed by reference in Fortran

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    implicit none
    real :: theta
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    real :: sinc, xpi
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    real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
    xpi = x*pi
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    real :: abs_t, half_tau
    real, external :: theta
    abs_t = abs(t)
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    rect = 0.5
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end function rect
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- Way much better!

```
user@caspur$> gfortran -o dsp_test dsp_test.f90 dsp.f90
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－Now comment out real ：：i，j，kin dsp＿test．f90， recompile and rerun
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```

－Now comment out real ：：i，j，kin dsp＿test．f90， recompile and rerun
－Now add implicit none to dsp＿test．f90 and do it again

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

Ignorance is Evil

- 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
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- It is totally ignorant about argument types
- We can make it aware using interface blocks

```
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
    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, j, k
write(*,*) 'theta(', i, ')= ', theta(i)
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- 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?
use Modules, Instead!
- Modules are the Fortran way to complete and robust management of sets of related routines and more

```
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
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    function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
            real :: sinc, xpi
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    function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
            real :: rect
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            real :: abs_t, half_tau
            abs_t = abs(t)
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```
- 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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- Best practices
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- 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


## Modules Give You Fine Control

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- but you prefer your own version of rect (), which returns 1 on borders:
- don't change the module source


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- rename the theta () function in dsp like this: use dsp, heaviside=>theta


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- or maybe both:
- use dsp, only : heaviside=>theta, sinc


## Managing Wrong Arguments

```
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
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end function rect
```

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


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- Taking the absolute value of tau it's a possibility


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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
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- A known approach...


## Failing Predictably

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end function rect
```

- 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
    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 <= 0.0) then
            dsp_info = DSPERR_DOMAIN
            rect = 0.0
            return
            end if
            abs_t = abs(t)
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! 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 <= 0.0) then
            dsp_info = DSPERR_DOMAIN
            rect = 0.0
            return
            end if
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- For variables hosting integer numerical values
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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

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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


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```
dsp_info = 0
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if (dsp_info == DSPERR_DOMAIN) then
    ! take corrective action or fail gracefully
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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
```

! ...
function rect( $t$, tau, info) !generalized 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 <= 0.0) then
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

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## Using Arguments to Return Error Codes

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## Using Arguments to Return Error Codes

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- And return a sensible result
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```
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
```

! ...
function rect(t, tau, info) !generalized 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 $<=0.0$ ) then
if (present(info)) info = DSPERR_DOMAIN
rect $=0.0$
return
end if
$a b s \_t=a b s(t)$
half_tau $=0.5 * t a u$
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- 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
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- But then the floating point environment configuration should be checked, proper floating point exceptions set...


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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!

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## 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

## A Glimpse to Fortran 77

```
FUNCTION SINC(X)
    IMPLICIT NONE
    REAL SINC, X, XPI
    REAL PI
    PARAMETER (PI = 3.1415926)
    XPI = X*PI
    SINC = 1.0
    IF (XPI .NE. O.O) 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. O.O) THEN
        DSPINFO = 1
        RECT = 0.0;
        RETURN
    END IF
    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
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- And type in variable types and common statements in each unit
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- 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

\section*{Refurbishing Old Code}
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- Tested and tried

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- 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

\section*{Wrapping Old Code in a Module}
module dspmod
```

    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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\section*{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
- 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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More on Compiling and Linking

\section*{Greatest Common Divisor}
- Euclid's Algorithm
1. Take two integers \(a\) and \(b\)
2. Let \(r \leftarrow a \bmod b\)
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
```

module number_theory
implicit none
contains
function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
integer :: gcd
integer, intent(in) :: a, b
integer :: gb, t
gcd = a
gb = b
do
t = mod (gcd,gb)
gcd = gb
if (t == 0) exit
gb = t
end do
end function gcd
function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
integer :: lcm
integer, intent(in) :: a, b
lcm = a*b/gcd(a,b)
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- Only integer values, positive, negative or zero
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- 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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block of statements end do
1. Executes again and again the block of statements
2. And does this forever...
3. ... unless exit is executed, forcing execution to proceed at code following end do

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- 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
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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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\section*{Hands-on Session \#3}
- Put the code in file numbertheory. \(\mathbf{f 9 0}\)
- 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,\(18 ;-15,18 ; 15,-18\); \(-15,-18 ; 0,15 ; 15,0 ; 0,0\)
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module number_theory
implicit none
contains
function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
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- 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
- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)\) is non negative, even if \(a\) or \(b\) is less than zero
- Taking the absolute value of \(a\) and \(b\) using abs () will do
```

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)
gb = abs(b)
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- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)\) is non negative, even if \(a\) or \(b\) is less than zero
- Taking the absolute value of \(a\) and \(b\) using abs () will do
- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, 0)\) is \(|a|\)
- Conditional statements will do
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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)
gb = abs (b)
if (a == 0) gcd = gb
if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
do
t = mod (gcd,gb)
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- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)\) is non negative, even if \(a\) or \(b\) is less than zero
- Taking the absolute value of \(a\) and \(b\) using \(a b s()\) will do
- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, 0)\) is \(|a|\)
- Conditional statements will do
- \(\operatorname{gcd}(0,0)\) is 0
- Already covered by the previous item, but let's pay attention to lcm()

\section*{CINECA \\ Con \\ 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
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gcd = abs(a)
gb = abs (b)
if (a == 0) gcd = gb
if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
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gb = t
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- \(\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)\) is non negative, even if \(a\) or \(b\) is less than zero
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- Conditional statements will do
- \(\operatorname{gcd}(0,0)\) is 0
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\section*{More Fortran Basics}

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- and let's test also with: 1000000, 1000001

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- 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

\section*{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)) :: gb, t
gcd9 = abs(a)
gb = abs(b)
if (a == 0) gcd9 = gb
if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
do
t = mod (gcd9,gb)
gcd9 = gb
if (t == 0) exit
gb = 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 lcm9
end module number_theory
end module number_theory

```
- And let's add support for a wider integer range

\section*{GCD \& LCM: Let's Add Headroom}
```

! add right after: end function lcm9
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)) :: gb, t
gcd18 = abs(a)
gb = abs (b)
if (a == 0) gcd18 = gb
if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
do
t = mod (gcd18,gb)
gcd18 = gb
if (t == 0) exit
gb = 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 lcm18

```

\section*{Being More General and Generic}
- 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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- interface blocks come to rescue
```

module number_theory
implicit none
private gcd9, lcm9, gcd18, lcm18
interface gcd
module procedure gcd9, gcd18
end interface
interface lcm
module procedure lcm9, lcm18
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 lcm9
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 lcm18
end module number_theory

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module number_theory
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end function lcm9
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Dusty Decks
```

FUNCTION GCD18(A, B)
INTEGER*8 GCD18, A, B
INTEGER*8 GB, T
GCD18 = A
GB}=\textrm{B
T = MOD (GCD18,GB)
GCD18 = GB
IF (T .EQ. O) GO TO 2
GB = T
GO TO 1
CONTINUE
END
FUNCTION LCM18(A, B)
INTEGER*8 LCM18, A, B
INTEGER*8 GCD18
EXTERNAL GCD18
LCM18 = A*B/GCD18(A,B)
END

```
1
2
- 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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\section*{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

\section*{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

Outline

\section*{Introduction}

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More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks

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- Something is an error if not in Fortran 95 standard
- Use -std=f95 to force reference standard

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)

\section*{Compiling with GNU gfortran}
- When you give the command:
```

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

```

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1-898

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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)
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- 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

\section*{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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Homeworks

\section*{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

\section*{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 \(n=2,10,40,46,48, \ldots\)
- What's the greatest \(\mathrm{n}:=\) 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 \(\mathrm{n}>\operatorname{maxn}\) print an error message and return -1

\section*{Part II}

\section*{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

\section*{Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math}

\section*{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

\section*{Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math}

\section*{Arrays}

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\(1-8 \cdot 8\) 8888

\section*{Numerical Integration}
- Let's use the trapezoidal rule to estimate \(\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x\)
- Dividing the interval \([a, b]\) into \(n\) equal sized slices, it boils down to:
\(\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x \approx \frac{b-a}{n}\left(\frac{1}{2} f(a)+\frac{1}{2} f(b)+\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f\left(a+k \frac{b-a}{n}\right)\right)\)
- And to make it more juicy, let's make a succession of estimates, doubling \(n\) each time, until the estimate seems stable

\section*{Double Steps}
module integrals
implicit none
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 \(f(x) \quad\) ! 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)
        \(d x=(b-a) * 0.5\)
        \(\mathrm{acc}=(\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{a})+\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{b})) * 0.5\)
conv: do while (abs (estimate - prev_estimate) > tol)
            prev_estimate \(=\) estimate
            do \(i=1\), steps, \(2 \quad\) ! only contributions from new points
                \(a c c=a c c+f(a+i * d x)\)
                    end do
                    estimate \(=\) acc*dx
                    steps \(=\) steps*2
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\section*{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

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- 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 \(\$ \$ N \mathrm{NECA}\) converted to the other

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block of statements
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1. Evaluates logical-condition
2. If logical-condition is false, goes to 5
3. Executes the block of statements
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2. Particularly for nested loops
- Best practices:
1. use names to mark loops when they are long or belong to a deep nest
2. NEVER, NEVER permit your code to loop forever for some inputs

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－do var＝init，limit［，step］
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- Best practice: do not give name to very tight loops

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- What if some arguments take a ... value?

Good Ol' Fortran
- Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there

\section*{Good Ol' Fortran}
- Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there
- Counted loops looked like this:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { do } 10, i=1,10,3 \\
& \text { write }(*, *) \text { i } \\
& \text { continue }
\end{aligned}
\]

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\section*{Good Ol' Fortran}
- Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there
- Counted loops looked like this:
```

    do 10, i=1,10,3
        write(*,*) i
    continue
    ```
- do while, exit, end do weren't there...
- ... at least in the standard...
- but are often found in codes, as dialect extensions.

Outline

More Flow Control
Numerical Integration
Wrapping it Up 4

\section*{Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math}

\section*{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

Outline

\section*{More Flow Control}

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

Arrays
- 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

\section*{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

Outline

\section*{More Flow Control}

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math Integer Types

Expressions
Arithmetic Conversions
More Intrinsic Types

\section*{Arrays}

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\section*{Integer Types (as on most CPUs)}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multicolumn{1}{|c|}{ Type } & Sign & \begin{tabular}{c} 
Usual \\
huge ()
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{c} 
Usual \\
Width (bits)
\end{tabular} & \begin{tabular}{c} 
Usual \\
Size (bytes)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline integer(selected_int_kind(2)) & \(+/-\) & 127 & 8 & 1 \\
\hline integer(selected_int_kind(5)) & \(+/-\) & 32767 & 16 & 2 \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
integer \\
integer(kind(0)) \\
integer(selected_int_kind(9))
\end{tabular} & \(+/-\) & 2147483647 & 32 & 4 \\
\hline integer(selected_int_kind(18)) & \(+/-\) & 9223372036854775807 & 64 & 8 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- selected_int_kind(n) returns the least type able to host \(10^{n}\)
- 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

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- Or in a portable way:
integer, parameter : : i8=selected_int_kind(18)
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- Rule of thumb:
- write the number as is, if it is in default integer kind range
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- Rule of thumb:
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- 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
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Function & Returns \\
\hline abs (i) & |i| \\
\hline sign (i, j) & i \({ }^{\text {if }} \mathbf{j} \geq 0,-|\mathbf{i}|\) otherwise \\
\hline dim(i, \({ }^{\text {) }}\) & if \(\mathbf{i}>\boldsymbol{j}\) returns \(\mathbf{i}-\mathrm{j}\) else returns 0 \\
\hline mod (i, j) & Remainder function \(\mathbf{i}\) - int (i/j) \(\times \mathrm{j}\) \\
\hline modulo (i, j) & Modulo function i - floor (i/j) \(\times \mathrm{j}\) \\
\hline \(\min (i, j[, \ldots])\) & \(\min \{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}[, \ldots]\}\) \\
\hline \(\max (i, j[, . .]\). & \(\max \{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}[, \ldots]\}\) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- Use like: \(a=a b s(b+i)+c\)
- 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

Outline

\section*{More Flow Control}

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math
Integer Types
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More Intrinsic Types

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CINECA
1-8.8 Floating Types (as on most CPUs)
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Usual \\
Size (bytes)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
real \\
real (kind(0.0)) \\
real(selected_real_kind(6))
\end{tabular} & 3.40282347 e 38 & 32 & 4 \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
double precision \\
real (kind(0.0d0)) \\
real(selected_real_kind(15))
\end{tabular} & 1.79769313486231573 e 308 & 64 & 8 \\
\hline real(selected_real_kind(18)) & \(>1.2 e 4932\) & 80 or 128 & 10 or 16 \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
complex \\
complex (kind(0.0)) \\
complex(selected_real_kind(6))
\end{tabular} & NA & NA & 8 \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l} 
complex(kind(0.0d0) \\
complex(selected_real_kind(15))
\end{tabular} & NA & NA & 16 \\
\hline complex(selected_real_kind(18)) & NA & NA & 20 or 32 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- 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 ()

\section*{real Literal Constants}
- Need something to distinguish them from integers
- Decimal notation: 1.0, -17., .125, 0.22
- Exponential decimal notation: \(2 \mathrm{e} 19\left(2 \times 10^{19}\right),-123.4 \mathrm{e} 9\) \(\left(-1.234 \times 10^{11}\right), .72 \mathrm{e}-6\left(7.2 \times 10^{-7}\right)\)

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integer, parameter : : r8=selected_real_kind(15)
-123456.0_r8
- Remember:
- do not write charge = protons*1.602176487E-19
- real, parameter: : UnitCharge=1.602176487E-19
- it will come handier when more precise measurements will be cINECA available
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Function & Returns \\
\hline abs (x) & | \(\mathbf{x}\) \\
\hline sign ( \(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}\) ) & \(|\mathbf{x}|\) if \(\mathbf{y} \geq 0,-|\mathbf{x}|\) otherwise \\
\hline \(\operatorname{dim}(x, y)\) & if \(\mathbf{x}>\mathbf{y}\) returns \(\mathbf{x}-\mathrm{y}\) else returns 0 \\
\hline \(\bmod (x, y)\) & Remainder function \(\mathbf{x}\) - int ( \(\mathbf{x} / \mathrm{y}\) ) \(\times \mathrm{y}\) \\
\hline modulo ( \(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}\) ) & Modulo function \(\mathbf{x}-\) floor ( \(\mathbf{x} / \mathbf{y}\) ) \(\times \mathbf{y}\) \\
\hline aint (x) \({ }^{2}\), int (x) \({ }^{1,2}\) & if \(\mathbf{x}>0\) returns \(\lfloor\mathbf{x}\rfloor\) else returns \(\lceil\mathbf{x}\rceil\) \\
\hline anint (x) \({ }^{2}\), nint (x) \({ }^{1,2}\) & nearest integer to \(\mathbf{x}\) \\
\hline floor (x) \({ }^{1,2}\), ceiling (x) \({ }^{1,2}\) & x \(\rfloor,\lceil\mathbf{x}\rceil\) \\
\hline fraction(x) & fractional part of \(\mathbf{x}\) \\
\hline nearest ( \(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}\) ) & next representable value to \(\mathbf{x}\), in direction given by the sign of \(s\) \\
\hline spacing (x) & absolute spacing of numbers near \(\mathbf{x}\) \\
\hline \(\max (x, y[, \ldots])\) & \(\max \{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}[, \ldots]\}\) \\
\hline \(\min (x, y[, \ldots])\) & \(\min \{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}[, \ldots]\}\) \\
\hline \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{1. Result is of integer type 2. Accept an optional argument for kind type of the result} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- 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
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|}
\hline Functions & Compute \\
\hline \(\operatorname{sqrt}(\mathbf{x})\) & \(\sqrt{\mathbf{x}}\) \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\sin (\mathbf{x}), \cos (\mathbf{x})\), \\
\(\tan (\mathbf{x}), \operatorname{asin}(\mathbf{x})\), \\
\(\operatorname{acos}(\mathbf{x}), \operatorname{atan}(\mathbf{x})\)
\end{tabular} & Trigonometric functions \\
\hline \(\operatorname{atan} 2(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\) & Arc tangent in \((-\pi, \pi]\) \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\exp (\mathbf{x})\), \\
\(\log (\mathbf{x}), \log 10(\mathbf{x})\)
\end{tabular} & \(e^{\mathbf{x}}\), \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
\(\sinh (\mathbf{x}), \cosh (\mathbf{x})\), \\
\(\tanh (\mathbf{x})\)
\end{tabular} & Hyperbolic functions \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- Again, they can be found under different names (e.g. dcos ()): these are relics from the past
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|}
\hline Functions & Compute \\
\hline \(\operatorname{abs}(\mathbf{z})\), & \(|\mathbf{z}|\), \\
\hline \(\operatorname{aimag}(\mathbf{z})\) & imaginary part of \(\mathbf{z}\), \\
\hline \(\operatorname{real}(\mathbf{z})^{1}\) & real part of \(\mathbf{z}\) \\
\hline \(\operatorname{cmpl}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})^{1}\) & converts from real to complex \\
\hline \(\operatorname{conj}(\mathbf{z})\) & Complex conjugate of \(\mathbf{z}\) \\
\hline \(\operatorname{sqrt}(\mathbf{z})\) & \(\sqrt{\mathbf{z}}\) \\
\hline \(\sin (\mathbf{z}), \cos (\mathbf{z})\) & sine and cosine \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l|l|}
\(\exp (\mathbf{z})\), & \(e^{\mathbf{z}}\), \\
\(\log (\mathbf{z})\)
\end{tabular} & \(\log _{e} \mathbf{z}\) \\
\hline 1. Accept an optional argument for kind type of the result \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- Once again, they can be found under different names (e.g. cabs () ): again, these are relics from the past

\section*{Hands-on Session \#2}
- The intrinsic function precision (x) for real or complex \(\mathbf{x}\) 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

\section*{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

Outline

\section*{More Flow Control}

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

\section*{Arrays}
- Binary operators +, -, * (multiplication) and / have the usual meaning and behavior
- And so do unary operators - and +
- Precedence
- \(-\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}+\mathrm{c} / \mathrm{d}\) same as ( \((-\mathrm{a})\) *b) + (c/d)
- \(-\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{b}\) same as (-a) + b
- Associativity of binary ones is from left to right
- \(a+b+c\) 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
- 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
- Just imagine both functions foo (x,y) and bar (x,y) modify their actual arguments, or do I/O
- As you'll remember, these are known as side effects
- Now imagine you meet code like this:
\(t=f \circ \circ(a, b)-b a r(b, a)\)
\(q=\bmod (f \circ \circ(a, b), b a r(a, b))\)
- Code like this is evil!
- Order of subexpressions evaluation is implementation dependent!
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$t=f \circ \circ(a, b)-b a r(b, a)$
$q=\bmod (f \circ \circ(a, b), b a r(a, b))$
t = 100(a,b) bar(b,a)

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- NEVER! NEVER write code that relies on order of evaluation offeca subexpressions, or actual arguments!

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CINECA
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- while:
```

a = b*2_i8 + 1
is OK

```

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- 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!

\section*{Get in Control！}
－Do not blindly rely on implementation dependent chance！

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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

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- 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 \(x\) and \(y\) is NaN

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- 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
- 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 \(\mathbf{s} 3\) the first quarter of \(\boldsymbol{s} 1\) 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

\title{
String Manipulation
}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Function & Returns \\
\hline len(s) & string length \\
\hline len_trim(s) & string length with trailing blanks ignored \\
\hline trim(s) & string with trailing blanks removed \\
\hline repeat (s, n ) & string made of \(n\) copies of \(s\) \\
\hline adjustl(s) & move leading blanks to trailing position \\
\hline adjustr (s) & move trailing blanks to leading position \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { lge (s1,s2), } \\
& \operatorname{lgt}(s 1, s 2), \\
& \operatorname{lle}(s 1, s 2), \\
& \operatorname{llt}(s 1, s 2)
\end{aligned}
\] & string comparisons \\
\hline index(s,subs) & starting position of subs in s, 0 if not found \\
\hline scan (s, set) & first position in s of a character matching set, 0 if none found \\
\hline verify (s,set) & first position in s of a character not matching set, 0 if all match \\
\hline achar (i) & character with ASCII code i \\
\hline iachar (c) & ASCII code of character c \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
- 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

\section*{More Flow Control}

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays
Smoothing Signals
A More Compact Notation

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\section*{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)
l = 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+j, n))
enddo
enddo
v = work/l
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
end program test_smooth

```

\section*{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)
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call smooth(x,k)
write(*,*) x
end program test_smooth
end program test_smooth

```

\section*{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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contains
subroutine smooth(v, k)
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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
end program test_smooth

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

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```

module smoothing
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subroutine smooth(v, k)
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integer :: n, l, i, j
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- i-th element can be accessed with \(\mathbf{x}\) (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)

\section*{In Place Smoothing of a Periodic Signal}
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```

\section*{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
- v 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 ( \(\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{n}\) )
integer \(n\)
real \(v(n)\)

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

\section*{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':
```

subroutine smooth(v,k,n)

```
    integer \(n\)
    real \(v(1)\)

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subroutine smooth(v,k,n)

```
    integer n
    real \(\mathrm{v}(1)\)
- 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
- The intrinsic subroutine cpu_time () is used to time code regions
```

real :: t1, t2
call cpu_time(t1)
call cpu_time(t2)
write(*,*) 'Execution time for section 1: ', t2-t1, 'seconds'

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```
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Hands-on Session \#3
- The intrinsic subroutine cpu_time () is used to time code regions
```

real :: t1, t2
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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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- The intrinsic subroutine cpu_time () is used to time code regions
```

real :: t1, t2
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- Use it to measure execution time of test_smooth program

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- Yes: once work (1) is computed, we can compute \(\operatorname{work}(2)=\operatorname{work}(1)+v(1+\bmod (n+k, n))-v(1+\bmod (n-1-k, n))\) and so on
- Try it now!

\section*{More Flow Control}

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays
Smoothing Signals
A More Compact Notation

\section*{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)
l = 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/l
end subroutine smoothinplace
end module smoothing

```

\section*{Same Smoothing in a Different Idiom}
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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)
l = 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/l
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```

Array Slices
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- If first element index > last element index than the number of elements will be zero
- lbound () and ubound () functions help to check
- By default, first element of a Fortran array has index 1
- But you can pick one to your taste, as in work (-k+1:size(v) +k)
- If first element index > last element index than the number of elements will be zero
- lbound () and ubound () functions help to check
- Our work array is larger than \(\mathbf{v}\), to accommodate copies of values needed to smooth the first and last \(\mathbf{k}\) elements
- By default, first element of a Fortran array has index 1
- But you can pick one to your taste, as in work ( \(-\mathrm{k}+1\) : size (v) k )
- If first element index > last element index than the number of elements will be zero
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- An array section is a subset of the elements, and is itself an array
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- work is initialized in steps, each corresponding to a different section
- An array section is a subset of the elements, and is itself an array
- work ( \(-\mathrm{k}+1: 0\) ) selects the first k elements work ( \(1: \mathrm{n}\) ) selects the successive n elements work ( \(\mathrm{n}+1: \mathrm{n}+\mathrm{k}\) ) selects...
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- work ( \(-\mathrm{k}+1: 0\) ) selects the first k elements work ( \(1: n\) ) selects the successive \(n\) elements work ( \(\mathrm{n}+1: \mathrm{n}+\mathrm{k}\) ) selects...
- Arrays and array sections are assigned to by = in a natural manner (more on this later)

\section*{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)
l = 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/l
end subroutine smoothinplace
end module smoothing

```

\section*{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

\section*{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

\section*{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 \(\boldsymbol{x}\) is a scalar
- Returns an array of random numbers if \(\boldsymbol{x}\) is an array
- Is random_number () as uniform as advertised? Let's check...

\section*{Let's Build An Histogram}
- Write a program that:
1. 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:
1. 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)
4. intrinsic ceiling ( \(\mathbf{x}\) ) function helps: it returns \(\lceil\mathbf{x}\rceil\)
5. increment the corresponding array element and compute the percentages
6. accumulate the sum of the random numbers to compute the average value

\section*{Hands-on Session \#5}
- 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 \(2 p<n\), get back to step 3
6. all remaining numbers in the list are primes

Try it now!

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4. let \(p \leftarrow\) next number still in the list after \(p\)
5. if \(2 p<n\), get back to step 3
6. all remaining numbers in the list are primes

Try it now!
- How could you spare iterations?
- How could you spare memory?

\section*{Part III}

\section*{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

CINECA

Array Syntax
More dimensions
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Input/Output
```

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
end function avgk

```
```

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end do
end do
avgk = avgk/k**2
end function avgk

```

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\section*{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 \(\mathrm{q}(-\mathrm{k}: \mathrm{k}, 11: 20)\)
- Elements are referenced by a list of indices: \(\mathbf{v}(1,1)\)
- 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:
\(\operatorname{avgk}(1: 3,:)=\operatorname{avgk}(5: 9,:)\) is wrong
```

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
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avgk = avgk/k**2
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```

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\section*{Array-Valued Functions}
- 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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- An explicit interface is mandatory in the calling program
- 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
```

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
end function avgk

```

CINECA
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- Again, very slow, only tolerable in debugging

\section*{Lower-Triangular Linear System}
- 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)
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- What happens for \(i==n\) ?
- the array section \(\mathrm{b}(\mathrm{n}+1: \mathrm{n}\) ) has zero size: lower bound \(>\) upper bound
- No operation is performed
- a(11:20) specifies all elements from index 11 to index 20

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- Remember: b and the right hand side expression must be conformable
- Which in this case implies:
- size (shape (b)) returns 1
- and size(b) returns 10 expression is evaluated before assignment
- To the benefit of performances, this is in many cases unnecessary
- But difficult ones exist, like \(\mathbf{x}(2: 10)=\mathbf{x}(1: 9)\)
- In which \(\mathbf{x}(2)\) may not be assigned \(\mathbf{x}(1)\) value until the existing \(\mathbf{x}(2)\) value is assigned to \(\mathbf{x}(3)\), which itself...
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- Tonne bessary

\section*{SCAI A Closer Look To Array Expressions}
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- But difficult ones exist, like \(\mathbf{x}(2: 10)=\mathbf{x}(1: 9)\)
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- A prudent (lazy?) compiler could add intermediate copies to temporary arrays
- \(\mathbf{x}(10: 2:-1)=\mathbf{x}(9: 1:-1)\) 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

Outline

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

Input/Output
```

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

\section*{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)
l = 2*k +1
work(1) = 0.0
do j=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/l
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 CINECA and updates

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Input/Output

\section*{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 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

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Input/Output
```

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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end subroutine swap
- The scope of the implied do loop indices \(i\) and \(j\) is the loop itself
- Other variables with same names are unaffected
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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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program array_swap
implicit none
integer :: i, j
real :: a(0:10,10), b(11,10)
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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...
```

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
real :: tmp
end subroutine swap
end interface
a = reshape( (/ (i*0.1, i=1,110) /), (/11,10/) )
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call swap (a,b)
end program array_swap
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- Of course, a procedure that appears to be pure, but calls a non pure procedure, is not pure at all!
- And some more constraints ensure the different procedure calls can be safely executed in any order

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- Of course, a procedure that appears to be pure, but calls a non pure procedure, is not pure at all!
- 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

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- where constructs can be nested and given a name

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forall(i = 1:n) a(i,i) = x(i)**2

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```
- In its construct form, it looks like:
```

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

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end forall

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- Thus, no conflicts between reads and writes to a
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```

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

```
end forall

It works like array assignments:
- Unlike do, there is no ordering of iterations, and changes appear as they were deferred
- Thus, no conflicts between reads and writes to a
- Assignment to \(b(i, j)\) takes place after that to \(a(i, j)\)
- forall allows writing array assignments which cannot be expressed with array expressions:
```

forall(i = 1:n) a(i,i) = x(i) **2

```
- forall also accepts masks:
forall(i = 1:n, j = 1:n, y(i,j)/=0.) x(j,i) = 1.0/y(i,j)
- In its construct form, it looks like:
```

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

```
end forall

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- Referenced procedures must be pure
- forall allows writing array assignments which cannot be expressed with array expressions:
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```
- forall also accepts masks:
\[
\text { forall(i = 1:n, j = } 1: n, y(i, j) /=0 .) x(j, i)=1.0 / y(i, j)
\]
- In its construct form, it looks like:
```

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

```
end forall

It works like array assignments:
- Unlike do, there is no ordering of iterations, and changes appear as they were deferred
- Thus, no conflicts between reads and writes to a
- Assignment to \(b(i, j)\) takes place after that to \(a(i, j)\)
- Referenced procedures must be pure
- forall constructs can be nested and given a name

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

```
- 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

```
- Using array syntax (compiler enforces correct semantics)
\[
\begin{aligned}
T(2: n-1,2: n-1)=( & T(1: n-2,2: n-1)+T(3: n, 2: n-1) \& \\
& +T(2: n-1,1: n-2)+T(2: n-1,3: n)) / 4.0
\end{aligned}
\]

\section*{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

```
- Using array syntax (compiler enforces correct semantics)
```

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 forall (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

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,j,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
end do

```

\section*{Bilateral Filter Using forall}
```

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
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-j) = exp(-(aw (m-i,n-j)-A(i,j))**2/sd22)*z0(m-i,n-j)
end forall
end forall
B(i,j) = sum(z*aw)/sum(z)
end do
end do

```

\section*{Bilateral Filter Using forall}
```

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-j) = A(m,n)
z(m-i,n-j) = exp(-(aw(m-i,n-j)-A(i,j))**2/sd22)*z0(m-i,n-j)
end forall
end forall
B(i,j) = sum(z*aw)/sum(z)
end do
end do

```

\section*{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)

\section*{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

\section*{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

\section*{Hands-on Session \#1}
- Re-write the Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm using array syntax

\section*{Array Syntax}

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

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Input/Output
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Robust I/O

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\section*{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

\section*{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

```

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```

\section*{List Directed I/O}

\section*{Explicit formats}
- Put you in total control of what is read/written

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write(*,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max_iter
write(*,100) 'Final value:',phi
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end program golden_ratio

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

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- or proper edit descriptors, which dictate how a corresponding element on the I/O list should be converted

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phi_old = phi_start
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- Repeat counts can be used
- Like in 5I3, 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

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integer :: i, max_iter
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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
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- Where format-list is a comma separated list of items, which can be:
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- Repeat counts can be used
- Like in 5I3, 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
- 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!
- 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
- I6. 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!

\section*{Edit Descriptors: reals}
- \(\mathbf{F}\) 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 \(\mathbf{F 6 . 2}\) 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

\section*{More Edit Descriptors for reals}
- \(\mathbf{E}\) (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: \(-.15372 \mathrm{E}+99\)
- Values \(|x| \geq 10^{99}\), 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

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- Values \(|x| \geq 10^{99}\), 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 \(\mathbf{E}\), with exponent always multiple of 3
- Like G, which uses the most suitable between \(\mathbf{F}\) and E , depending on the value magnitude

\section*{Even More Edit Descriptors}
- /
- Forces a new line on output
- Skips to next line on input

\section*{Even More Edit Descriptors}
- 1
- 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)

\section*{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)

\section*{Even More Edit Descriptors}
- \(/\)
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- 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
- 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

\section*{Fortran I／O is Robustly Designed}
－What if more characters than needed are present on an input line？ Fortran I/O is Robustly Designed
- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
- After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line

\section*{Fortran I/O is Robustly Designed}
- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
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- Following edit descriptors are ignored
- What if the list of edit descriptors in a format is exhausted before end of items to read/write?

\section*{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
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_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

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- Easy answer: I/O continues on a new line, reapplying the format list from its beginning, quite handy for arrays


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- What if the list of edit descriptors in a format is exhausted before end of items to read/write?
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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?


## Fortran I/O is Robustly Designed

- 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
- 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／O

## 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)
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opening a File for I/O
open (u,FILE=file_name[,option][,option][...])

- $u$ is an integer, positive expression specifying a file handle opening a File for I/O
open (u,FILE=file_name[,option][,option][...])
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- file_name is a string specifying file name (and possibly path) in your file system
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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
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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
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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
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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 l/O on an existing file
- use 'rewind' (the default) to start at beginning of file
- use 'append' to start at end of file


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    phi_old = phi_start
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## How to close a File

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## How to close a File

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- 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)


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    integer :: i, max_iter
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    phi_old = phi_start
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## namelists

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- Items missing in the input will retain previous value
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- Use them to make input robust, in output mostly good for debugging


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

\section*{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
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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
- 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


\section*{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

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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

\section*{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_old - matmul (x_old,matmul (a,x_old))
err = maxval (abs(x - x_old))
if (err < tol) exit
x_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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end program iterative_inversion

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\section*{Unformatted I/O}
- Formatted I/O is good, but:
- internal data format is much more compact
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- 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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- 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...

\section*{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

\section*{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), \(i=1, n) \quad!a(:, j)\) 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 \(4 \times 4\) matrices, but think of a \(256 \times 256 \times 1024\) grid!

\section*{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

\section*{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

Outline

\section*{Array Syntax}

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\section*{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
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- Run out of disk space while writing
- Try writing to a read-only file
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- ...
- 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

\section*{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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- 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

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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 (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 sto '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

\section*{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

\section*{Part IV}

\section*{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.

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\section*{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 \(=0.0\)

\section*{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: \(\mathrm{p} \% \mathrm{v} \% \mathrm{z}=0.0\)

\section*{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

\section*{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

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\section*{Same Name，Different Personality}
－Binary operator＋can be used to add：

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- a pair of complex values

\section*{Same Name, Different Personality}
- Binary operator + can be used to add:
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- a pair of real values
- a pair of complex values
- two integer values of different kinds

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

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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
- an integer and a complex value

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- It's like the meaning of + is 'overloaded'
- Different machine code is generated depending on operand types
- And ditto for \(-, \star, /,>,>=, \ldots\)

\section*{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 chsvel

```

\section*{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+p 2%x, boxwidth)
addpos%y = modulo(p1%y+p2%y, boxwidth)
addpos%z = modulo(p1%z+p2%z, boxwidth)
end function addpos

```

\section*{Operator Overloading}
- 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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- 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

\section*{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, y, z
end type position
type velocity
real :: x, y, z
end type velocity
interface operator(+)
module procedure addpos
module procedure addvel
end interface operator(+)
!
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+p 2%x, boxwidth)
addpos%y = modulo(p1%y+p2%y, boxwidth)
addpos%z = modulo(p1%z+p 2%z, boxwidth)
end function addpos
function addvel
!...
end function addvel
! ...
end module periodic_box

```

\section*{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

\section*{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:
\[
a \times b=\left(a_{2} b_{3}-a_{3} b_{2}\right) \hat{i}+\left(a_{3} b_{1}-a_{1} b_{3}\right) \hat{j}+\left(a_{1} b_{2}-a_{2} b_{1}\right) \hat{k}
\]
- Then extend operators to have them work with array of vectorsiNECA it's elementary!

A Possible Solution
module class_vector
contains
end module class_vector

\section*{A Possible Solution}
module class_vector implicit none
contains
end 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
end 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)) :: y
real(kind(1.dO)) :: 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 \(=a \% y\) * \(b \% z-a \% z\) * \(b \% y\)
        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
    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)) :: y
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 \(=a \% y\) * \(b \% z-a \% z\) * \(b \% y\)
        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
    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 \(\operatorname{sum} \% \mathrm{z}=\mathrm{a} \% \mathrm{z}+\mathrm{b} \% \mathrm{z}\)
    end function vec sum
end module class_vector

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\section*{Parameterized Types}

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Conclusions

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
- 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

\section*{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 ( \(\mathrm{n}=100\) )) : : ahundredsegments
type (segments \((n=1000)\) ) : : athousandsegments
- Warning: compilers support still lags behind, your mileage may vary

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\section*{Objects}
- So, we are able to define new types, and specialized procedures and operators to use them

Objects
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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
- But they are conceptually (and dimensionally!) different things
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- This is what Computer Science priests term Object-Based programming
- 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!

\section*{Fortran 2003 extends Derived Types}
```

type point
real :: x, y, 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?

\section*{Fortran 2003 Object Oriented Full Glory}
- 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

\section*{Fortran 2003 Object Oriented Full Glory}
- Fortran 2003 adds type bound procedures (a.k.a. methods OO jargon)
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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
- 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
- Fortran 2003 also adds polymorphism
- 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
- OO programming is not a matter of good coding, but of thoughtful and thorough design

\section*{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

SuperComputing Applications and Innovation

\section*{A Rigid Solution}
integer, parameter : : NX = 200
integer, parameter : : NY = 450
integer, parameter : : NZ \(=320\)
integer, parameter \(:: ~ r k=s e l e c t e d \_r e a l \_k i n d(12)\)
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) : \(\quad \mathrm{w}(\mathrm{NX}, \mathrm{NY}, \mathrm{NZ})\)
real (rk) : : \(\quad \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{NX}, \mathrm{NY}, \mathrm{NZ})\)
- We could write something like that in a module, and use it everywhere

SuperComputing Applications and Innovation

\section*{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) :: p(NX,NY,NZ)

```
- 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
```

integer, parameter :: NX = 200

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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
- Couldn't we size data structures according to user input?
\(\rightarrow\) real (rk) : : u(NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : \(\quad \mathrm{v}(\mathrm{NX}, \mathrm{NY}, \mathrm{NZ})\)
real (rk) : \(\quad \mathrm{w}(\mathrm{NX}, \mathrm{NY}, \mathrm{NZ})\)
real (rk) : : \(p(N X, N Y, N Z)\)
or
type flow
real (rk) : : \(u, v, w, p\)
end type
type (flow) : : f(NX,NY,NZ)
Which one is best?
- real (rk) : : u(NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : \(\quad \mathrm{v}(\mathrm{NX}, \mathrm{NY}, \mathrm{NZ})\)
real(rk) : \(\quad \mathrm{w}(N X, N Y, N Z)\)
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real (rk) : : u, v,w,p
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Which one is best?
- Both have merits

\section*{A Recurrent Issue}
- real (rk) : : u(NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : V(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) : : w (NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : p(NX,NY,NZ)
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Which one is best?
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- The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses

\section*{A Recurrent Issue}
- real (rk) : : u(NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : v(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) : \(\quad \mathrm{w}(N X, N Y, N Z)\)
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?
- 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

\section*{A Recurrent Issue}
- real (rk) : : u(NX,NY,NZ)
real (rk) : : v(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) : \(\quad \mathrm{w}(N X, N Y, N Z)\)
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?
- 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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- We lean to the former
- As in most numerical schemes, values of the same field in neighboring grid points are accessed together

\section*{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)
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- We could think of declaring automatic arrays inside a subroutine

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```
- 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

\section*{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

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- But this only works if interface is implicit
- Which is dangerous

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!...

```
- 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 must CINECA be less than MAXSIZE

\section*{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

\section*{Extending the Language}

Managing Memory
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Conclusions

\section*{Enter Allocatable Arrays}
```

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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- 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

\section*{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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- 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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- 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
- Best practice: always deallocate when you are done with an allocatable array

\section*{Three Common Mistakes}
- 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

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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

Outline

\section*{Extending the Language}

Managing Memory
Dynamic Memory Allocation
Fortran Pointers
Bridging the Gap with C
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\section*{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()

```

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- Structure components can be pointers
- 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

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```

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type(atom_list), pointer :: next
end type

```
which comes in handy to define complex data structures, like lists
- Pointers may also alias subobjects
```

real, dimension(:,:,:), pointer :: r
type(velocity), pointer :: v
real, target :: a(5,15,6)
type(atom), target :: oneatom
r => a(2:4,1:10,3:6) ! r(1,1,1) aliases a(2,1,3)
! r(3,10,4) aliases a(4,10,6)

```
v => oneatom\%velocity

\section*{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
- This gives you a workaround if your compiler doesn't support allocatable structure components
- Just add a suitable pointer component
- And allocate it

\section*{BIG Mistakes with Pointers}
- Referencing an undefined pointer (strange things may happen, it may also seem to work)
- Good practice: initialize pointers to null ()

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- Referencing a nullified pointer
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- Which is better than messing up with memory

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- 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 ( \(x(n, m)\) )
p => r
! ...
deallocate (r)
\(p(k, 1)=p(k, 1)+1\)
Now you'll be in troubles with p, with really strange behavior
- Discretization on Cartesian 2D grid with Dirichelet Boundary Conditions
\[
\begin{cases}f\left(x_{i+1, j}\right)+f\left(x_{i-1, j}\right)-2 f\left(x_{i, j}\right)+ & \\ f\left(x_{i, j+1}\right)+f\left(x_{i, j-1}\right)-2 f\left(x_{i, j}\right)=0 & \forall x_{i, j} \in(a, b)^{2} \\ f\left(x_{i, j}\right)=\alpha\left(x_{i, j}\right) & \forall x_{i, j} \in \partial[a, b]^{2}\end{cases}
\]
- Iterative advancement using Jacobi method
\[
\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
f_{n+1}\left(x_{i, j}\right)=\frac{1}{4}[ & f_{n}\left(x_{i+1, j}\right)+f_{n}\left(x_{i-1, j}\right)+ & \\
& \left.f_{n}\left(x_{i, j+1}\right)+f_{n}\left(x_{i, j-1}\right)\right] & \forall n>0 \\
f_{0}\left(x_{i, j}\right)=0 & \forall x_{i, j} \in(a, b)^{2} & \\
f_{n}\left(x_{i, j}\right)=\alpha\left(x_{i, j}\right) & \forall x_{i, j} \in \partial[a, b]^{2}, & \forall n>0
\end{array}\right.
\]

\section*{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)
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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do while (var > tol .and. iter <= maxIter)
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

## 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, 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)
    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.dO)
    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)
        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
    deallocate(T,Tnew)
end program laplace
```


## Laplace: pointer implementation

```
program laplace
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.dO)
    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 = maxval(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

Compressed Sparse Row Format


## class_connectivity Module

module class_connectivity

```
    implicit none
    type connectivity
        integer, allocatable :: lookup(:)
        integer, allocatable :: conn(:)
    end type connectivity
end module class_connectivity
```

Compressed Sparse Row Format

- The class_connectivity implements the CSR format
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## Compressed Sparse Row Format

- The class_connectivity implements the CSR format
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- 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
module class_connectivity

```
    implicit none
```

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

## Compressed Sparse Row Format

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


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- 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
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## Compressed Sparse Row Format

- The class_connectivity implements the CSR format
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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


## 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
```

    subroutine set_ith_conn(a2b,i,ith_conn)
        type (connectivity), intent (inout) \(:: \mathrm{a} 2 \mathrm{~b}\)
        integer, intent (in) : : i
        integer, intent (in) : : ith_conn(:)
        !
        integer : : i1, i2
        \(i 1=a 2 b \%\) lookup (i)
        i2 \(=\) i1 + size(ith_conn) - 1
        \(a 2 b \% c o n n(i 1: i 2)=i t h \_c o n n(:)\)
        \(a 2 b \% 10 o k u p(i+1)=i 2+1\)
    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)
$i 1=a 2 b \%$ lookup (i)
$i 2=a 2 b \% l o o k u p(i+1)-1$
n=i2-i1+1
allocate (ith_conn (n))
ith_conn $=a 2 b \% c o n n(i 1: i 2)$
end subroutine get_ith_conn
end module class_connectivity

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- Write module procedures to:
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- retrieve vertices values of the $i$-th cell (getter)
- The class_connectivity implements the CSR format
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- Let's hide implementation details so that:
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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
- 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 INECA $i$-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
```

    subroutine set_ith_conn(a2b,i,ith_conn)
        type (connectivity), intent (inout) \(:: \mathrm{a} 2 \mathrm{~b}\)
        integer, intent (in) : : i
        integer, intent (in) : : ith_conn(:)
        !
        integer : : i1, i2
        \(i 1=a 2 b \%\) lookup (i)
        i2 \(=\) i1 + size(ith_conn) - 1
        \(a 2 b \% c o n n(i 1: i 2)=i t h \_c o n n(:)\)
        \(a 2 b \% 10 o k u p(i+1)=i 2+1\)
    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)
$i 1=a 2 b \%$ lookup (i)
$i 2=a 2 b \% l o o k u p(i+1)-1$
n=i2-i1+1
allocate (ith_conn (n))
ith_conn $=a 2 b \% c o n n(i 1: i 2)$
end subroutine get_ith_conn
end module class_connectivity

```
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
```

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Outline

## Extending the Language

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

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
- 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;
}
```

and you want to call it from your Fortran code like:
$a v g=a v g \_\operatorname{var}(m, b, v a r)$

## 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;
}
```

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 ( $1, \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{f}$ )
integer, intent (in) : : $1, m, n$ real (kind(1.ODO)), intent(inout) : : $f(1, m, n)$ end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
and you want to call it from your C code like:
myPoissonSolver(nx, ny, nz, field);


## A Naive Approach

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

```
interface
    function avg_var(n, a, var)
        integer, intent(in) :: n
        real(kind(1.0DO)), intent(in) :: a(*)
        real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(out) :: var
        real(kind(1.ODO)) :: 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) :: l, m, n
        real(kind(1.ODO)), 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


## Thou Shalt Not Mangle Names

- 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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- Enter Fortran 2003 bind attribute


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- Enter Fortran 2003 bind attribute
- For C to Fortran:

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

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interface
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        real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(in) :: a(*)
        real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(out) :: var
        real(kind(1.0DO)) :: avg_var
    end function avg_var
end interface
```

- For Fortran to C, Fortran side:

```
interface
    subroutine myPoissonSolver(l, m, n, f) bind(c)
        integer, intent(in) :: l, m, n
        real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(inout) :: f(l,m,n)
    end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
```

and on the C side, the declaration:
void myPoissonSolver(int $n x$, int $n y$, int $n z$, field[nz][ny][nx]);

## 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
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- But usually scalars are passed by value in C
- Enter Fortran 2003 value attribute
- For C to Fortran:

```
interface
    function avg_var(n, a, var) bind(c)
                integer, value :: n
                real(kind(1.0DO)), intent(in) :: a(*)
                real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(out) :: var
                real(kind(1.ODO)) :: avg_var
    end function avg_var
end interface
```


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                real(kind(1.0DO)) :: avg_var
    end function avg_var
end interface
```

- For Fortran to C, Fortran side:

```
interface
    subroutine myPoissonSolver(l, m, n, f) bind(c)
        integer, value :: l, m, n
        real(kind(1.ODO)), intent(inout) :: f(l,m,n)
    end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
```

and on the C side, still the declaration:
void myPoissonSolver(int $n x$, int ny, int nz, field[nz][ny][nx]);
－Fortran is quite liberal on data sizes
－Implementations have a lot of freedom
－And C is also quite liberal

Thou Shalt Care for Data Size and Layout

- Fortran is quite liberal on data sizes
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- Enter Fortran 2003 iso_c_binding module
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- Enter Fortran 2003 iso_c_binding module
- 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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end interface
```

and on the C side, still the declaration:
void myPoissonSolver(int $n x$, int ny, int $n z, f i e l d[n z][n y][n x])$;

## 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
- A few of them:

| Type | 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 |

- 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
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- maps to C array a [N] [M] [L]
- 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

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

```
C
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/
```

```
c
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:

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

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

- iso_c_binding module provides much needed help
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- c_loc (x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable $\mathbf{x}$
- 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 (/l,m,n/) gives it a shape for array pointers


## SCAI

- iso_c_binding module provides much needed help
- c_loc (x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable $\mathbf{x}$
- 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 (/l,m,n/) gives it a shape for array pointers
- If $\mathbf{f} \mathbf{f} \mathbf{p r o c}$ 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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```
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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

Outline

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Conclusions

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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
!...
type(nonuniform_grid) :: my_grid
integer :: alloc_stat
!...
allocate (my_grid%deltax(nx),my_grid%deltay(ny), &
    my_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
        real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltax
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end type
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- Related information is best kept together
- Grid size and grid steps are related information


## Keeping Information Together

```
type nonuniform_grid
        integer :: nx, ny, nz
        ! Grid steps
        real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltax
        real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltay
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end type
!...
type(nonuniform_grid) :: my_grid
integer :: alloc_stat
!...
allocate (my_grid%deltax(nx),my_grid%deltay(ny), &
                my_grid%deltaz(nz), STAT=alloc_stat)
if (alloc_stat > 0) then
    ! graceful failure
end if
```

- Related information is best kept together
- Grid size and grid steps are related information
- Use pointer components if your compiler lags behind the standard


## Structured Grids in General Form



- Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE


## 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
!...
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


## A Recurrent Issue, Again

- real (rk) : : $\quad$ (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?


## A Recurrent Issue, Again

- real (rk) : : $\quad$ (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
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Which one is best?
- Again, both have merits


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- As in most numerical schemes, $x, y$, and $z$ components of the same mesh point are accessed together


## Multiblock Meshes and More

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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
- 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...

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type block_item
    type(block), pointer :: this_block
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end type
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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
!...
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
```

```
type block_tree_node
        type(block), pointer :: this_block
        integer :: children_no
        type(block_tree_node), pointer :: childrens
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!...
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

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- 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/
Fortran 2003 Standard Final Draft
Search Internet for n3661.pdf
Fortran Wiki
http://fortranwiki.org/
M. Metcalf, J. Reid, M. Cohen

Fortran 95/2003 Explained
Oxford University Press, corrected ed., 2008
M. Metcalf, J. Reid, M. Cohen

Modern Fortran Explained
Oxford University Press, 2011
S. Chapman

Fortran 95/2003 for Scientists \& Engineers
McGraw-Hill, 3d ed., 2007
Adams, J.C., Brainerd, W.S., Hendrickson, R.A., Maine, R.E., Martin, J.T., Smith, B.T.

The Fortran 2003 Handbook
Springer, 2009

Salvatore Filippone's Home Page
www.ce.uniroma2.it/people/filippone.html
Parallel Sparse Basic Linear Algebra Subroutines
www.ce.uniroma2.it/psblas/index.html
Numerical Engine (for) Multiphysics Operators
www.ce.uniroma2.it/nemo/index.html
Q Portable Fortran Interfaces to the Trilinos C++ Package
trilinos.sandia.gov/packages/fortrilinos/
Stefano Toninel
Development of a New Parallel Code for Computational Continuum Mechanics Using Object-Oriented Techniques
PhD Thesis, University of Bologna, 2006.

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