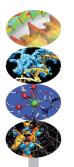




Introduction to Fortran 90

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A Fortran Survey 1

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







Introduction

Fortran Basics

More Fortran Basics

Integer Types and Iterating

More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks





Formula Translator History

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





Fortran General Philosophy



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



Technical and Scientific Computing



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



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





Our Aims



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





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- 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





Outline



Introduction

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

More Fortran Basics

Integer Types and Iterating

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My First Scientific Program in Fortran



```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
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program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  real :: delta
  real :: x1, x2
  real :: a, b, c
 print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c:'
  read (*,*) a, b, c
  delta = sgrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c) ! square root of discriminant
  x1 = -b + delta
  x^2 = -b - delta
  x1 = x1/(2.0*a)
  x^2 = x^2/(2.0*a)
  write(*,*) 'Real roots:', x1, x2
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end program second_degree_eq





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Text following ! is ignored up to the end of current line





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- Best practice: do comment your code!
 - Variable contents
 - Algorithms
 - Assumptions
 - Tricks





Comments



- Text following ! is ignored up to the end of current line
- Best practice: do comment your code!
 - Variable contents
 - Algorithms
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 - Tricks
- Best practice: do not over-comment your code!
 - Obvious comments obfuscate code and annoy readers
 - square root of discriminant is a bad example





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Program Units: Main Program



- Fortran code is organized in program units
 - Main program
 - Procedures (subroutines and functions)
 - Modules
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- The main program (one, and only one!) can't be dispensed with
 - It's called automatically to execute the program
 - An optional program program-name can appear at the beginning
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- Fortran code is organized in program units
 - Main program
 - Procedures (subroutines and functions)
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 - More on this later...
- The main program (one, and only one!) can't be dispensed with
 - It's called automatically to execute the program
 - An optional program program-name can appear at the beginning
 - An end statement must terminate it, optionally followed by program Or program program-name
- Best practice: always mark unit beginning and ending with its type and name
 - Makes your readers (including you) happier





My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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end program second_degree_eq
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Variables



▶ real :: x1, x2 declares two variables

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









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









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 - At most 31 characters are permitted (63 in Fortran 2003)
 - A good advice: do not exceed 31 characters in a name
- Beware: Fortran is CaSe insenSITIVE!







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 - ► Variables whose name starts with I, J, K, L, M, N are integers







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





My First Scientific Program in Fortran



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end program second_degree_eq
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 - read(*,*) and read *, read
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- These very common idioms perform formatted, list directed I/O
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- write(*,*) and print *, are equivalent
- Enough for now, disregard details





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- Operators compute values from terms
 - ► +, -, ★ (multiplication), and / behave like in "human" arithmetic
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- sqrt () is an intrinsic function returning the square root of its argument
- x1 = x1 + delta is a statement assigning the value of expression x1 + delta to variable x1
- By the way, expressions can be passed as argument to functions, as to sqrt(): their value will be computed and passed to the function





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More Types and Choices

Wrapping it Up 1

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What a Compiler Is



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





What a Compiler Does



- Compilers are sophisticated tools, made up of many components
- When compiler is invoked to generate executable code, three main steps are performed:
 - 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!



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user@cineca\$> gfortran second_degree_eq.f90

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



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Run the program under GNU/Linux with:

user@cineca\$> ./a.out

```
or under Windows with:
```

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



Do You Like IDEs? Geany



<pre>\$ second_degre \$ second_degre \$ a [7] \$ b [7] \$ c [7] \$ c [7] \$ c [7] \$ detta [5] \$ x2 [6] \$ y z2 [6</pre>	mbols Documents	second_degree_eq.f90 #	
gfortran -Wall -o "second_degree_eq" "second_degree_eq.f90" (in directory: /home/rorro) Ompilation finished successfully.	<pre></pre>	2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3	
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Hands-on Session #1



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  x1 = x1/(2.0*a)
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end program second_degree_eq





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• User wants to solve $x^2 + 1 = 0$







User wants to solve x² + 1 = 0 Enters: 1, 0, 1







- User wants to solve $x^2 + 1 = 0$
 - Enters: 1, 0, 1
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 - Enters: 1, 0, 1
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- Discriminant is negative, its square root is Not A Number, NaN
- Let's avoid this, by changing from:

```
delta = sqrt(b**2 - 4.0*a*c)
t0:
delta = b**2 - 4.0*a*c
if (delta < 0.0) then
   stop
end if</pre>
```

```
delta = sqrt(delta)
```

► Try it now!







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





Conditional Statement



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





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 - When block is made up by a single statement, you can use one-liner if (logical-condition) statement instead
- But let's be more polite by changing from:

```
if (delta < 0.0) then
   stop
endif
t0:
if (delta < 0.0) stop 'No real roots!'</pre>
```

► Try it now!





Conditional Statement



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Good Style



Some folks prefer this: if (delta < 0.0) stop 'No real roots!' and it's OK





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- Other folks prefer this:

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if (delta < 0.0) then
  stop 'No real roots!'
end if
</pre>
```

```
and it's OK
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Sloppy guys write: if (delta < 0.0) then stop 'No real roots!' end if

but this is not that good ...









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but this is not that good ...

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





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



```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
```

```
program second_degree_eq
  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 < 0.0) stop 'No real roots!'
  delta = sqrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
  rp = -b/(2.0*a)
  print *,'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
end program second degree eq
```





And Now Make it More Complex!



```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
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program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  real :: delta, rp, a, b, c
  logical :: rroots
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  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  rroots = .true.
  if (delta < 0.0) then
   delta = -delta
    rroots = .false.
  end if
  delta = sqrt(delta)/(2.0*a)
  rp = -b/(2.0*a)
  if (rroots) then
    print *, 'Real roots: ', rp+delta, rp-delta
  else
    print *,'Complex roots: ', rp, '+', delta, 'i ', &
             rp, '-', delta, 'i'
  end if
end program second degree eq
```





More Types and Choices



- logical type represents logical values
 - Can be .true. or .false.





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 - Can be .true. or .false.
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- Allows for choosing between alternative paths





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





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More Types and Choices



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









! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients

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





Let's Make it as Complex as Possible!



```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
```

```
program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
  complex :: delta
  complex :: z1, z2
  real :: a, b, c
  print *, 'Solving ax^2+bx+c=0, enter a, b, c: '
  read(*,*) a, b, c
  delta = b*b - 4.0*a*c
  delta = sqrt(delta)
  z1 = (-b+delta)/(2.0*a)
  z_2 = (-b-delta)/(2.0*a)
 print *, 'Roots: ', z1, z2
end program second degree eq
```







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







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- Most math functions like sqrt () work for complex type too!
 - Returning correct results, instead of NaNs







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





```
Try it Now!
```



```
! roots of a 2nd degree equation with real coefficients
```

```
program second_degree_eq
  implicit none
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end program second degree eq
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What if user inputs zeroes for a or a and b?







- What if user inputs zeroes for a or a and b?
- Let's prevent these cases, inserting right after input:

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







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Can you see the program logic?







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```

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





Miscellaneous remarks

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







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





Miscellaneous remarks



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





```
> Let's give names to if constructs:
no2nd: if (a == 0.0) then
no1st: if (b == 0.0) then
write(0,*) 'A trivial identity!'
else no0th
write(0,*) 'Plainly absurd!'
end if no0th
else no1st
write(0,*) 'Too simple problem!'
end if no1st
stop
end if no2nd
```







```
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no2nd: if (a == 0.0) then
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```

Giving names to constructs makes program logic more explicit







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







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end if no1st
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



Fortran Code, in the Beginning of Times





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





A Taste of Fortran in the Late 70s



C ROOTS OF A 2ND DEGREE EQUATION WITH REAL COEFFICIENTS

```
PROGRAM EQ2DEG
```

```
IMPLICIT NONE
REAL DELTA
REAL RP
REAL A, B, C
```

```
PRINT *,'SOLVING AX^2+BX+C=0, ENTER A, B, C: '
READ(*,*) A, B, C
```

```
DELTA = B*B - 4.0*A*C
IF (DELTA.LT.0.0) STOP 'NO REAL ROOTS!'
DELTA = SQRT(DELTA)/(2.0*A)
```

```
RP = -B/(2.0 \star A)
```

```
PRINT *, 'REAL ROOTS: ', RP+DELTA, RP-DELTA
```





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...



```
CINECA
                               A Bottle of Fortran, Vintage Year 1963
SuperComputing Applications and Innovation
                 SOLUTION OF QUADRATIC EQUATION
       С
       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 OUADRATIC EOUATIONS FROM A6)
              DO 21 I = 1, N
             READ INPUT TAPE 5, 53, A, B, C
          53 FORMAT (3F10.2)
             WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6,54, I, A, B, C
           54 FORMAT (1H0, 8HSET NO. 12/5H 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 \text{ REAL1} = (-B + \text{ SORTF}(D)) / (2, *A)
             REAL2 = (-B - SQRTF(D))/(2.*A)
          20 WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 57, REAL1, REAL2
          57 FORMAT (6H REAL 25X, 5HX1 = F10, 3, 13X, 5HX2 = F10, 3)
          21 CONTINUE
             WRITE OUTPUT TAPE 6, 58, ANAME
          58 FORMAT (8H0END OF A6)
             GO TO 1
              END
```



Best Practice: Free Yourself



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





Outline



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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

Homeworks





A Fortran Program is Made of: I



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





A Fortran Program is Made of: II



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





Best Practices



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





Introduction

Fortran Basics

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

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My First Fortran Functions



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







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 - Same as a variable declaration
 - Could be declared on the function heading, but it's less flexible and less readable
 - More on this later...
- How to return a value
 - Just assign it to the function name, as if it were a variable
 - But this doesn't force function termination
 - Multiple assignments can be done
 - The last assigned value before function execution is complete value will be returned





My First Fortran Functions



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 - Declared like variables inside the function
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 - Declared like variables inside the function
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- What if two functions have arguments with identical names?
 - No conflicts of sort, they are completely independent
- 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





My First Fortran Functions



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Intrinsic vs. External



- Fortran sports a wealth (over a hundred!) of predefined functions and procedures
- ► These are termed *intrinsic*
 - ► acos (x) returns the arc cosine of x such that |x| ≤ 1 in the range 0 ≤ arccos(x) ≤ π
 - sin(x) returns the sine function value of x in radians
 - abs (x) returns the absolute value of x





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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





My First Fortran Functions



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 - only intrinsic operators or functions are allowed







- ► The **parameter** attribute is used to declare named constants
 - 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 π)





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Outline



On To Testing



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





On To Testing



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





Hands-on Session #2



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







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- We want to test these functions
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program dsp_test
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real :: i,j,k
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real :: i, j, k
real :: rheta, rsinc, rrect
real, external :: theta, sinc, rect
print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
read(*,*) i, j, k
rtheta = theta(i)
rsinc = sinc(i)
rrect = rect(j, k)
```

end program dsp_test

program dsp test







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program dsp_test

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real, external :: theta, sinc, rect
print *, 'Enter i, j, k:'
read(*,*) i, j, k

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







Let's build our test program putting all together:

user@cineca\$> gfortran dsp.f90 dsp_test.f90 -o dsp_test

-o option specifies the name dsp_test for the executable







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-1 0 1
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```
user@cineca$> ./dsp_test
Enter i, j, k:
-1 0 1
theta( -3.1415927 ) = 0.0000000
sinc( -3.1415927 ) = -2.78275341E-08
rect( 0.0000000 , 1.0000000 ) = 1.0000000
```







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





On To Testing



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





State Your Intent!



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





Testing DSP Functions Again



► Try to recompile dsp.f90...





Testing DSP Functions Again



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

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





Testing DSP Functions Again



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

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

► Got a compiler error message? Good!







Arguments are passed by reference in Fortran







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 - Dummy and actual arguments share the same memory locations







- ► Arguments are passed by reference in Fortran
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 - intent (inout) (default) for those you plan to do both





My First Fortran Functions Fixed!

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





SuperComputing Applications and Innovation



Way much better!

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



SCAI Testing DSP Function the Last Time



Way much better!

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

Now comment out real :: i, j, k in dsp_test.f90, recompile and rerun



Testing DSP Function the Last Time



► Way much better!

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

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





Introduction

Fortran Basics

More Fortran Basics

My First Fortran Functions Making it Correct Making it Robust

Copying with Legacy Wrapping it Up 2

Integer Types and Iterating

More on Compiling and Linking

Homeworks



Outline







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







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







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







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- Got some surprising behavior?
- Our testing program doesn't know enough about external functions it is calling
 - It is knowledgeable about return types
 - It is totally ignorant about argument types
- 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

Explicit Interface







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)
write(*,*) 'sinc(', i, ')= ', sinc(i)
write(*,*) 'rect(', j, ', ', k, ')= ', rect(j,k)
```

end program dsp

Explicit Interface









- Try to pass integer variables as actual arguments to theta(), sinc(), and rect()
- Got some surprising behavior?
- Our testing program doesn't know enough about external functions it is calling
 - It is knowledgeable about return types
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 - Just type it in each program unit calling dsp functions







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 - But life is too short to modify interfaces spread around 56 program units







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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?





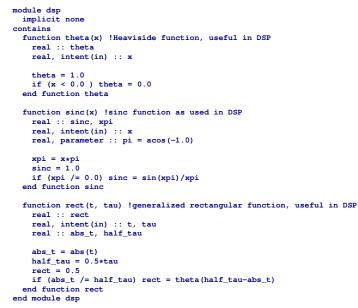


 Modules are the Fortran way to complete and robust management of sets of related routines and more





My First Module

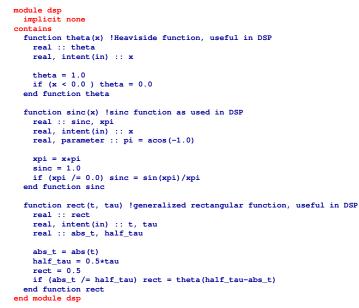








My First Module











- 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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 - before you declare anything else in the unit
- Try it now!





module dsp

Try it Now!



```
implicit none
contains
  function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
    real :: theta
    real. intent(in) :: x
   theta = 1.0
    if (x < 0.0) theta = 0.0
 end function theta
  function sinc(x) !sinc function as used in DSP
    real :: sinc, xpi
    real, intent(in) :: x
    real, parameter :: pi = acos(-1.0)
    xpi = x*pi
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 end function sinc
  function rect(t, tau) !generalized rectangular function, useful in DSP
    real ·· rect
    real, intent(in) :: t, tau
    real :: abs t, half tau
    abs t = abs(t)
    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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- Interfaces are automatically defined for each procedure a module contains
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- Best practices







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 - before you declare anything else in the unit
- Try it now!
- Best practices
 - If you have a set of related procedures, always make a module
 - If you have a single procedure, just to tame code complexity, called by a single program unit, a module could be overkill





use Modules, Instead!



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







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







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







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







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- or maybe both:
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```
function rect(t, tau)
implicit none
real :: rect
real, intent(in) :: t, tau
real :: abs_t, half_tau
abs_t = abs(t)
half_tau = 0.5*tau
rect = 0.5
if (abs_t /= half_tau) rect = theta(half_tau-abs_t)
end function rect
```

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







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







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







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```

- What if rect () is passed a negative argument for tau?
 - Wrong results
- Taking the absolute value of tau it's a possibility
- 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)
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end function rect</pre>
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A known approach...





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```

- 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





A Better Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer :: dsp_info
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR DOMAIN = 1
contains
  function theta(x) !Heaviside function, useful in DSP
! code as in previous examples...
  end function theta
  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)
    half tau = 0.5 \star 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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More Module Power, and More Types



Yes, a module can define variables, too





More Module Power, and More Types



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





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  end function rect
end module dsp
```





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...





A Better Approach



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module dsp
  implicit none
  integer :: dsp_info
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    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)
    half tau = 0.5 \star tau
    rect = 0.5
    if (abs t /= half tau) rect = theta(half tau-abs t)
  end function rect
end module dsp
```





More Module Power, and More Types



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





A Better Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer :: dsp_info
  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)
    half tau = 0.5 \star tau
    rect = 0.5
    if (abs t /= half tau) rect = theta(half tau-abs t)
  end function rect
end module dsp
```





Error Management Strategy



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





Error Management Strategy



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

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





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
end if
```

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





A Widely Used Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  function rect(t, tau, info) !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
```





A Widely Used Approach



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  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
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      return
    end if
    abs t = abs(t)
    half tau = 0.5*tau
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  end function rect
end module dsp
```





Using Arguments to Return Error Codes



- Set a dedicated argument to a constant corresponding to the error class
- And return a sensible result





Using Arguments to Return Error Codes



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

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





Using Arguments to Return Error Codes



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

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

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





Making Argument Optionals



```
module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  function rect(t, tau, info) !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
    abs t = abs(t)
    half tau = 0.5*tau
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Making Argument Optionals



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module dsp
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: DSPERR_DOMAIN = 1
contains
1 ...
  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
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    end if
    abs t = abs(t)
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- Your platform could support IEEE floating point standard
 - Most common ones do, at least in a good part







- Your platform could support IEEE floating point standard
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- This means more bad cases:
 - one of the arguments is a NaN
 - both arguments are infinite (they are not ordered!)







- ► Your platform could support IEEE floating point standard
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- Best strategy: return a NaN and set dsp_info in these bad cases
 - And do it also for non positive values of tau
 - But then the floating point environment configuration should be checked, proper floating point exceptions set...





- ► Your platform could support IEEE floating point standard
 - Most common ones do, at least in a good part
- This means more bad cases:
 - one of the arguments is a NaN
 - both arguments are infinite (they are not ordered!)
- 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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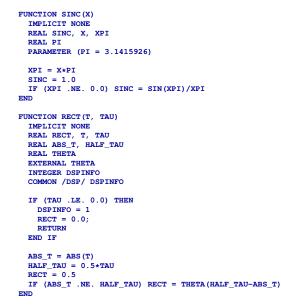








A Glimpse to Fortran 77









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
- N0 interface







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







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- N0 interface
- No easy way to share variables among program units
 - To share you had to use common statements
 - And type in variable types and common statements in each unit
 - And the smallest mistake can turn into a nightmare
- Bottom line:
 - Is common good or bad? The jury is still out
 - We'll not cover them, but you'll encounter them
 - Read the fine print, or better switch to modules, they are way much better





Refurbishing Old Code



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





Refurbishing Old Code



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





Refurbishing Old Code



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





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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We Did Progress!



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





Best Practices



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





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Greatest Common Divisor



Euclid's Algorithm

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





GCD & LCM



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







- ► As we said, integer means that a value is an integer
 - Only integer values, positive, negative or zero
 - ► On most platforms, integer means a 32 bits value, ranging from -2³¹ to 2³¹ 1







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 - ...on all platforms we know of, the intrinsic function kind() will return the size in bytes of any integer expression you'll pass as an argument





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





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





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GCD & LCM



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







do

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







do block of statements

end do

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- 2. And does this forever...
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- In this specific example:







do

block of statements end do

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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







► do

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





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Hands-on Session #3



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





GCD & LCM: Try it Now!



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





Hands-on Session #3



- Put the code in file numbertheory.f90
- Write a program to test both gcd() and lcm() on a pair of integer numbers
- Test it:
 - with pairs of small positive integers
 - with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
- In some cases, we get wrong results or runtime errors
 - Euclid's algorithm is only defined for positive integers





- 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





SuperComputing Applications and Innovation GCD & LCM: Dealing with 0 and Negatives



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





Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set

- 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
- ▶ 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
    acd = abs(a)
    \sigma b = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) \operatorname{gcd} = \operatorname{gb}
    if (a == 0 .or, b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(gcd, gb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
  end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
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    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    lcm = a \star b/gcd(a,b)
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```





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 - Already covered by the previous item, but let's pay attention to lcm()





SuperComputing Applications and Innovation GCD & LCM: Dealing with 0 and Negatives

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    do
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      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: lcm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    if (a == 0 . and. b == 0) then
      lcm = 0 : return
    end if
    lcm = a * b/gcd(a,b)
 end function lcm
end module number theory
```







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 - Taking the absolute value of a and b using abs () will do
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 - .and. and .or. combine two logical conditions
 - ; makes for two statements on the same line: but its use is only justified when space is at a premium, like in slides





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 - with pairs of small positive integers
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module number_theory
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contains
  function gcd(a, b) ! Greatest Common Divisor
    integer :: gcd
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    integer :: gb, t
    gcd = abs(a)
    qb = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) gcd = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd, qb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: lcm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    if (a == 0 . and. b == 0) then
      lcm = 0 : return
    end if
    lcm = a * b/gcd(a,b)
 end function lcm
end module number theory
```







Let's Generalize to the Whole Integer Set

- 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
- ▶ gcd(a, 0) is |a|
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- ▶ gcd(0,0) is 0
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- By the way:
 - .and. and .or. combine two logical conditions
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- Try and test it:
 - with pairs of small positive integers
 - with the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
 - and with the pair: 1000000, 1000000





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







- a*b/gcd(a,b) same as (a*b)/gcd(a,b)
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 - ► Technically, you get an arithmetic overflow
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 - Best practice: be very careful of intermediate results







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- ► Easy fix: gcd(*a*, *b*) is an exact divisor of *b*



GCD & LCM: Preventing Overflow

```
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)
    qb = abs(b)
    if (a == 0) gcd = gb
    if (a == 0 .or. b == 0) return
    do
      t = mod(qcd, qb)
      qcd = qb
      if (t == 0) exit
      ab = t
    end do
 end function gcd
  function lcm(a, b) ! Least Common Multiple
    integer :: lcm
    integer, intent(in) :: a, b
    if (a == 0 . and. b == 0) then
      lcm = 0 : return
    end if
    lcm = a \star (b/gcd(a,b))
 end function lcm
end module number theory
```









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- ► Easy fix: gcd(*a*, *b*) is an exact divisor of *b*
- Try and test it:
 - with pairs of small positive integers
 - on the following pairs: 15, 18; -15, 18; 15, -18; -15, -18; 0, 15; 15, 0; 0, 0
 - with the pair: 1000000, 1000000







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





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On most nowadays platforms:







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 - integers have 32 bits and huge (0) returns 2147483647
 - range (0) returns 9, i.e. you can store 10⁹ in an integer
 - but 64 bits wide integers can safely host 10¹⁸
- selected_int_kind(n):
 - returns a kind type parameter corresponding to an internal representation capable to host the value 10ⁿ
 - or -1 if none is wide enough
- integer accepts an optional kind type parameter
 - integer(kind=selected_int_kind(9)) :: di usually
 makes di a 32 bits wide variable
 - integer(kind=selected_int_kind(18)) :: wi makes
 wi a 64 bits wide variable
 - integer(selected_int_kind(18)) :: wi will also do





GCD & LCM: Let's Make Kind Explicit

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











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







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







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





GCD & LCM: Making it Generic

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











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







- And let's add support for a wider integer range
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 - and module procedure spares us typing and inconsistencies





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









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Being More General and Generic



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- Best practices for robustness:





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- Best practices for robustness:
 - write generic procedures, whenever possible





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Dusty Decks



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





A Limited Language with Many Dialects



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





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More Types and Flow Control



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





Best Practices



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







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







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





Building a Program



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

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





When you give the command:

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







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- It's like going through three steps
- Pre-processing

user@cineca\$> gfortran -E -cpp dsp.f90 user@cineca\$> gfortran -E -cpp dsp_test.f90

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





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- Simply calls cpp (automatically invoked if the file extension is F90)
- Output sent to standard output
- Compiling sources

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

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





Linking with GNU gfortran



Linking object files together

user@cineca\$> 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@cineca\$> gfortran file1.o file2.o -L/mypath -ldsp

How to create and link the DSP library:

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

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







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Homework I



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





Homework II



- Write a module containing a function that takes an integer n as input, and returns the n-th element of the Fibonacci series fn
- ► Hint:
 - ► *F*₀ = 0

$$\bullet \quad F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

- Write a main program to test your function
 - Read n from standard input
 - ▶ Try with n=2, 10, 40, 46, 48, ...
 - What's the greatest n := maxn, for which fn is representable by a default integer? (huge can help to find it out)
 - Use this information to handle too large values of n in your function:
 - If n > maxn print an error message and return -1





Part II



A Fortran Survey 2

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







More Flow Control Numerical Integration Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





Caveat Emptor



- The code in this section is meant for didactical purposes only.
- It is deliberately naive: focus is on language aspects, not on precision or accuracy.
- As a consequence, it is prone to numerical problems.







More Flow Control Numerical Integration Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





Numerical Integration



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





Double Steps



```
module integrals
 implicit none
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
                                      ! integration interval and tolerance
    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
    interface
      real function f(x)
                                      ! function to integrate
        real. intent(in) :: x
      end function f
    end interface
    integer, parameter :: maxsteps = 2**23
    integer :: steps, i
    real :: acc, dx, prev estimate, estimate
    steps = 2
    prev estimate = 0.0; estimate = huge(0.0)
    dx = (b - a) * 0.5
    acc = (f(a) + f(b)) * 0.5
conv: do while (abs(estimate - prev estimate) > tol)
        prev estimate = estimate
        do i=1, steps, 2
                                      ! only contributions from new points
          acc = acc + f(a + i * dx)
        end do
        estimate = acc * dx
        steps = steps * 2
        if (steps > maxsteps) exit conv
        dx = dx + 0.5
      end do conv
    trap int = estimate
 end function trap int
end module
```



Double Steps



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        end do
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        steps = steps * 2
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        dx = dx + 0.5
      end do conv
    trap int = estimate
 end function trap int
end module
```



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







Double Steps



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- Simply pass the name on call, like this:

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





end module

Double Steps



```
module integrals
 implicit none
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
                                      ! integration interval and tolerance
    real, intent(in) :: a, b, tol
    interface
      real function f(x)
                                      ! function to integrate
        real. intent(in) :: x
      end function f
    end interface
    integer, parameter :: maxsteps = 2**23
    integer :: steps, i
    real :: acc, dx, prev estimate, estimate
    steps = 2
    prev estimate = 0.0; estimate = huge(0.0)
    dx = (b - a) * 0.5
    acc = (f(a) + f(b)) * 0.5
conv: do while (abs(estimate - prev estimate) > tol)
        prev estimate = estimate
        do i=1, steps, 2
                                      ! only contributions from new points
          acc = acc + f(a + i * dx)
        end do
        estimate = acc * dx
        steps = steps * 2
        if (steps > maxsteps) exit conv
        dx = dx + 0.5
      end do conv
    trap int = estimate
 end function trap int
```

Iterating with do while ... end do

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







end module

Double Steps



```
module integrals
 implicit none
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
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 - 1. And it can be used on **exit** statements to make the flow more evident
 - 2. Particularly for nested loops





Applications and Innovation Iterating with do while ... end do

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







end module

Double Steps



```
module integrals
 implicit none
contains
  function trap int(a,b,f,tol)
                                      ! recursive approximation of integral
    real :: trap int
                                      ! by trapezoidal rule
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 end function trap int
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b do var = init, limit [, step] block of statements end do

1. Sets step to 1, if none was specified







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- 2. Assign the init value to var







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- 1. Sets step to 1, if none was specified
- 2. Assign the *init* value to *var*
- 3. Evaluates $n_{iter} = \max\{0, \lfloor (limit init + step) / step \rfloor\}$
- 4. If n_{iter} is zero goes to 6







- do var = init, limit [, step] block of statements end do
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- var, init, limit, and step should be integers







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 - Reals can be used up to Fortran 95, but a bad idea, for both performance and reliability issues



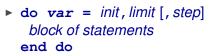




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- Less flexible than a do while but more efficient execution (exit works, anyway)
- Best practice: do not give name to very tight loops





Hands-on Session #1

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    real :: trap int
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    integer, parameter :: maxsteps = 2**23
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    steps = 2
    prev estimate = 0.0; estimate = huge(0.0)
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conv: do while (abs(estimate - prev estimate) > tol)
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 end function trap int
end module
```







 Write a program to exercise trap_int() on functions with known integrals







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







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- ► Hints:







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





Good Ol' Fortran



 Procedure arguments and mixed-mode expressions were already there





Good Ol' Fortran



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

```
do 10, i=1,10,3
    write(*,*) i
```

10 continue





Good Ol' Fortran



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- Counted loops looked like this:

```
do 10, i=1,10,3
    write(*,*) i
    continue
```

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







More Flow Control Numerical Integration Wrapping it Up 4

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays





Forward Steps



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







More Flow Control

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

Arrays





Data



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





Fortran is a Strongly Typed Language

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







More Flow Control

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math Integer Types

Floating Types Expressions Arithmetic Conversions More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





Integer Types (as on most CPUs)



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

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





Integer literal constants have kinds too







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- By default, kind(0)





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- Unless you specify it
 - In a non portable way:

-123456_8

Or in a portable way:

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







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 - write the number as is, if it is in default integer kind range
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```

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







integer Math

Function	Returns	2
abs(i)	i	
sign(i,j)	$ \mathbf{i} $ if $\mathbf{j} \ge 0, - \mathbf{i} $ otherwise	
dim(i,j)	if $i > j$ returns $i - j$ else returns 0	
<pre>mod(i,j)</pre>	Remainder function $i - int (i/j) \times j$	
<pre>modulo(i,j)</pre>	Modulo function $i - floor(i/j) \times j$	
<pre>min(i,j[,])</pre>	min{i, j[,]}	
<pre>max(i,j[,])</pre>	max{i,j[,]}	

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





More Flow Control

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

Arrays



Floating Types (as on most CPUs)

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

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





- Need something to distinguish them from integers
 - ▶ Decimal notation: 1.0, -17., .125, 0.22
 - Exponential decimal notation: 2e19 (2 × 10¹⁹), -123.4e9 (-1.234 × 10¹¹), .72e-6 (7.2 × 10⁻⁷)







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

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









- ▶ Decimal notation: 1.0, -17., .125, 0.22
- ► Exponential decimal notation: 2e19 (2 × 10¹⁹), -123.4e9 (-1.234 × 10¹¹), .72e-6 (7.2 × 10⁻⁷)
- By default, kind(0.0)
- Unless you specify it
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 - -1.23456d5
 - For all kinds:

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

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





real Math

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

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



real Higher Math



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

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





complex Math



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

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







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







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- To gain confidence: write a small program to print out range and huge values for these kinds







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- Something going wrong?







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- Write a module which defines the kind constant for single, double and quadruple real precision
- 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 most recent GNU compiler version and try again: module load gnu





Let's Be Generic



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







More Flow Control

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

- Integer Types Floating Types Expressions
- Arithmetic Conversions More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





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







Hitting Limits



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











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





- ► As you'll remember, these are known as *side effects*
- Now imagine you meet code like this:
 - t = foo(a,b) bar(b,a)
 - q = mod(foo(a,b), bar(a,b))



- ► As you'll remember, these are known as *side effects*
- Now imagine you meet code like this:
 - t = foo(a,b) bar(b,a)
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- Code like this is evil!





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- Now imagine you meet code like this:
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- Ditto for order of evaluation of function arguments!
- NEVER! NEVER write code that relies on order of evaluation of NECA subexpressions, or actual arguments!





More Flow Control

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Integer Types Floating Types Expressions Arithmetic Conversions More Intrinsic Types

Arrays





Mixing Types in Expressions



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 - A result will always be produced
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- OK when mixing integer types
 - The wider range includes the narrower one







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 - ▶ if variable and expression have the same type, fine
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 - $a = b \star 2$

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a = b*2 + 1_i8
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```

▶ while:

a = b*2_i8 + 1 is OK







Think of mixing floating and integer types







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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!







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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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Being logical



- A type good at reasoning
 - May have .false. or .true. value
 - Kind only affects size in memory





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- Arithmetic comparison operators return logical values
 - ► == (equal), /= (not equal), >, <, >=, <=</p>
 - or, in ancient Fortran, .eq., .ne., .gt., .lt., .ge., .le.





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

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

In doubt, add parentheses, but be sober





More Logic



- Logical friends from ieee_arithmetic module (simply use it)
 - ieee_is_finite(x):.true. if argument value is finite
 - ieee_is_nan(x): .true. if argument value is NaN
 - ieee_unordered(x, y):.true. if at least one among x and y is NaN





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 - ieee_unordered(x, y):.true. if at least one among x and y is NaN
- As usual, order of subexpressions evaluation is implementation dependent
- But it's worse:
 - if test() is a function returning a logical type value
 - and a is .true.
 - and b is .false.
 - implementation is free (but not forced!) to not call test() at all in a.or.test(x) and b.and.test(x)
 - Again, do not rely on expressions side effects









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





String Manipulation

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

Our advice:

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







More Flow Control

Fortran Intrinsic Types, Variables and Math

Arrays Smoothing Signals A More Compact Notation







More Flow Control

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Arrays Smoothing Signals A More Compact Notation





In Place Smoothing of a Periodic Signal

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



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





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▶ real :: x(n)

- Declares an array named x
- A collection of variables of the same type (elements), laid out contiguously in memory
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- 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)





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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:

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

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





WARNING: NO BOUNDS CHECKING!

► In Fortran, there is no bounds checking on array access



And it is possible for something like this to happen real :: a(10)

```
...
do i=-100,100
a(i) = i
end do
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- 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 unteger n

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







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 - Takes a default real argument
 - And returns in it processor time consumed by the program in seconds
- Use it to measure execution time of test_smooth program
- Can we use less operations to get the same results (within round-off errors)?







More Flow Control

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Same Smoothing in a Different Idiom



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

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     n=size(v)
     1 = 2 k + 1
     work(1:n) = v
     work(-k+1:0) = v(n-k+1:n)
     work(n+1:n+k) = v(1:k)
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       \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \operatorname{work}(1-j:n-j) + \operatorname{work}(1+j:n+j)
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end subroutine smoothinplace

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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







- ► 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
 - Ibound () and ubound () functions help to check
- Our work array is larger than v, to accommodate copies of values needed to smooth the first and last k elements
- 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 (-k+1:0) selects the first k elements work (1:n) selects the successive n elements work (n+1:n+k) selects...







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 - An array section is a subset of the elements, and is itself an array
 - work (-k+1:0) selects the first k elements work (1:n) selects the successive n elements work (n+1:n+k) selects...
- Arrays and array sections are assigned to by = in a natural manner (more on this later)





Same Smoothing in a Different Idiom



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

end subroutine smoothinplace

end module smoothing





Array Expressions



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

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

Without array expressions, this code would look like:

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

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





In Good Shape



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

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

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





Hands-on Session #4: RNG



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



Let's Build An Histogram



- ► Write a program that:
 - 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 (x) function helps: it returns [x]
 - 5. increment the corresponding array element and compute the percentages
 - 6. accumulate the sum of the random numbers to compute the average value







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

Try it now!







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Try it now!

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







Part III

Array Syntax and I/O

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









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

Input/Output









Array Syntax More dimensions

Not a Panacea Arrays of Constants Elemental Procedures More Array Syntax

Input/Output





Matrix Averaging



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





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 end do
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end function avgk
```





More Dimensions



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

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



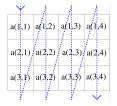


Arrays and memory

Some statements treat the elements of an array one by one in a special order, the array element order



- obtained by counting most rapidly in the early dimensions
- in the natural matrix representation this corresponds to storing the elements by column



- Most implementations actually store arrays in contiguous storage following the array element order
 - not required by the Standard, though
 - but crucial wrt performances, a typical optimization topic
- When dealing with complex data structures, the contiguity issue arises
 - Fortran 2008 adds the contiguous keyword to somehow address it





Matrix Averaging



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 integer :: i, j, n, m
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 do j=1, k
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```







- ► Yes, a function may return an array
 - And can be used in array expressions
 - Its type is defined like any automatic object
 - It must be assigned values inside the function
 - ► No array-sections of the result can be selected on invocation







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- size (array, dim) returns the integer extent of array along dimension dim
- Number of dimensions (a.k.a. rank) is mandatory in assumed shape arrays





Matrix Averaging



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- Compile time detection of non conformable operands only works in a few cases
- Again, use compiler options for runtime bounds checking
- Again, very slow, only tolerable in debugging







Good ol' style:

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







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In modern idiom:

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do i=1,n
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```

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







► a (11:20) specifies all elements from index 11 to index 20







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- And b = a (20:11:-1) does the same, but elements order is reversed
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- Which in this case implies:
 - size(shape(b)) returns 1
 - and size(b) returns 10







In array assignment everything must happen 'as if' the r.h.s.' expression is evaluated before assignment



A Closer Look To Array Expressions



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









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





Optimized Array Smoothing



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







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

Input/Output





Tables of Coefficients



```
! Polinomial approximation of J0(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 \star xo3sq + coeff(i-1)
 end do
end function j0
```





parameter Arrays



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

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

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









Array Syntax

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

Input/Output





Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
```

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

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

```
end program array_swap
```

```
subroutine swap(a,b)
```

```
implicit none
```

```
real, intent(inout) :: a(:,:),b(:,:)
real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp
```

tmp = a a = b b = tmp

CINECA

```
end subroutine swap
```



Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
```

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

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

```
end program array_swap
```

```
subroutine swap(a,b)
```

```
implicit none
```

```
real, intent(inout) :: a(:,:),b(:,:)
real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp
```

tmp = a a = b b = tmp

CINECA

```
end subroutine swap
```

SCAIASSUMED-shape arrays & Automatic objects



- The scope of the implied do loop indices i and j is the loop itself
 - Other variables with same names are unaffected





Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
```

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

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

```
end program array_swap
```

```
subroutine swap(a,b)
```

```
implicit none
```

```
real, intent(inout) :: a(:,:),b(:,:)
real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp
```

```
tmp = aa = bb = tmp
```

CINECA

end subroutine swap

SCAIASsumed-shape arrays & Automatic objects



- The scope of the implied do loop indices i and j is the loop itself
 - Other variables with same names are unaffected
- 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





Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
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implicit none
integer :: i, j
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```

```
interface
subroutine swap(a,b)
real, intent(inout) :: a(:,:), b(:,:)
real, dimension(size(a,1),size(a,2)) :: tmp
end subroutine swap
end interface
```

```
a=reshape( (/ (i*0.1, i=1,110) /), (/11,10/) )
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```
end program array_swap
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```
subroutine swap(a,b)
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implicit none

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CINECA

end subroutine swap

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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
- Interface is as always mandatory for assumed shape arguments, so the compiler knows that additional information must be passed in to the function



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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
- Interface is as always mandatory for assumed shape arguments, so the compiler knows that additional information must be passed in to the function
- But life can be simpler...





Elemental Arrays Swap



```
program array_swap
  implicit none
  integer :: i, j
  real :: a(0:10,10), b(11,10)
  interface
    elemental subroutine swap(a,b)
      real, intent(inout) :: a, b
      real
                           :: tmp
    end subroutine swap
  end interface
a = reshape( (/ (i*0.1, i=1,110) /), (/11,10/) )
b = reshape( (/ ((i*j+i, i=1,11), j=1,10) /), (/11,10/))
  call swap(a,b)
end program array_swap
elemental subroutine swap(a,b)
  implicit none
  real. intent(inout) :: a, b
  real
                      :: tmp
  tmp = a
  a = b
  b = tmp
```



end subroutine swap



Elemental Procedures



 Elemental procedures are applied element-wise to arrays (like most intrinsic arithmetic operators and mathematical functions)





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- ► To define one, it has to be pure
 - If a function, it shall not have side effects of sort (not even stop!)
 - If a subroutine, side effects shall be restricted to intent (out) and intent (inout) arguments
 - 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









Array Syntax

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

Input/Output







Logical array expressions like a (:) >0.0 are often termed masks







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 where (abs(a) > abs(b)) a = b the elemental assignment is evaluated only on elements satisfying the condition







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- The general form is the where construct where (abs(a) > abs(b))

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c=b
elsewhere
c=a
```

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end where
```







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 - c=b elsewhere

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end where
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- Pay attention if you use non elemental functions in a where, you could be in for a surprise!
- where constructs can be nested and given a name







forall allows writing array assignments which cannot be expressed with array expressions:

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)

end forall
```

It works like array assignments:







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- 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
```





Laplace Equation in Three Idioms



Using do loops (dependencies! loop order is crucial)
 do j=2, n-1
 do i=2, n-1

```
 \begin{array}{rcl} T(i,j) &= & (T(i-1,j) + T(i+1,j) + \& \\ & T(i,j-1) + T(i,j+1) & )/4.0 \\ \end{array} \\ 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





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 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 /))
                   ! These two cannot be changed into forall
do i=1, maxn
  do j=1, maxm
                  ! Why?
    z = 0.0
    forall (m=max(1,i-R):min(maxn,i+R))
      forall (n=max(1, j-R):min(maxm, j+R))
        aw(m-i,n-j) = A(m,n)
        z(m-i, n-i) = exp(-(aw(m-i, n-i)-A(i, i)) **2/sd22) *z0(m-i, n-i)
      end forall
    end forall
    B(i,j) = sum(z*aw)/sum(z)
  end do
end do
```





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





Array Reductions



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





More Array Little Helpers



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





Matrix Algebra



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





Hands-on Session #1



Re-write the Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm using array syntax









Array Syntax

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









Array Syntax

Input/Output Formatted I/O

File I/O Namelist Internal Files Unformatted I/O Robust I/O





Formatted I/O



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





Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



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





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```





List Directed I/O



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





Explicit formats



Put you in total control of what is read/written





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Explicit formats



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





Explicit formats



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- Where *format-list* is a comma separated list of items, which can be:
 - ► string literals, usually in double quotes, emitted as-is
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- Repeat counts can be used
 - Like in 513, which will convert 5 integer values
 - Like in 2 (I3, F7.4), which will convert 2 pairs, each made of an integer and a real value





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- Repeat counts can be used
 - Like in 513, which will convert 5 integer values
 - Like in 2 (I3, F7.4), which will convert 2 pairs, each made of an integer and a real value
- Formats must be specified on I/O statements
 - As a literal string, usually in single quotes
 - As a character expression
 - As a numeric label of a format statement in the same program unit (traditionally, before its end), reusable in many statements



Edit Descriptors: characters and integers



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



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 - 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 **101** mean very different things!





Edit Descriptors: reals



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





More Edit Descriptors for reals



- E (or D) can also be used to translate real values
 - Exponential form is used (mantissa in the [0,1) range)
 - Values |x| < 10⁹⁹, as −1.5372 × 10⁹⁸, will be converted like: -.15372E+99
 - Values |x| ≥ 10⁹⁹, as −1.5372 × 10⁹⁹, 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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 - E15.7 will emit up to 15 characters (sign, decimal point, and exponent field included!), with 7 decimal mantissa digits (possibly zero), right justified with blanks
 - Ditto for E15.7E4, except that 4 digits will be used for exponent
 - Again, input is more liberal
- And more can be used to the same purpose
 - ► Like EN (engineering notation), same as E, with exponent always multiple of 3
 - ► Like G, which uses the most suitable between F and E, depending on the value magnitude







▶ /

- Forces a new line on output
- Skips to next line on input







► /

- 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)







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- Embedded blanks in numeric input fields
 - BZ forces embedded blanks to be treated as 0 digits
 - BN restores the default (blanks are skipped)





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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





complexes and Arrays



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













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



After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line





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



- After **read**, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
- What if the list of items to read/write is exhausted before end of edit descriptors in a format?





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



- After **read**, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
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 - Following edit descriptors are ignored
- What if the list of edit descriptors in a format is exhausted before end of items to read/write?





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 \text{ old} = x \text{ start}
 do i=1.max iter
    x = 2.0*x old - matmul(x old,matmul(a,x old))
    err = maxval(abs(x - x old))
   if (err < tol) exit
   x \text{ old} = x
 end do
 write(*,'("Matrix to invert:")')
 write(*,100) a
 write(*.'(/."Start matrix:")')
 write(*,100) x start
 write(*,'(/,A," ",E15.7)') 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(*,'(/,2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max iter
 write(*,'("Final matrix:")')
 write(*,100) x
100 format(4(E15.7." "))
end program iterative inversion
```





- What if more characters than needed are present on an input line?
 - After read, remaining ones are ignored up to end of line
- What if the list of items to read/write is exhausted before end of edit descriptors in a format?
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 - Could be more complex, look for reversion to know more
- What if a numeric value is too big to fit the characters you specified on its corresponding edit descriptor?
 - The field is filled with asterisks (i.e. *)
- What if a type mismatch happens between an item to read/write and its corresponding edit descriptor?
 - Your fault, you are in for a runtime, implementation defined surprise!





Hands-on Session #2



Play with golden.f90 and itinv.f90:

- trying good and bad inputs
- giving less or more inputs than needed
- changing format descriptors









Array Syntax

Input/Output Formatted I/O File I/O Namelist Internal Files Unformatted I/O Robust I/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)
end program golden ratio
```





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







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

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







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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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 - When you pass a * instead, you are using pre-opened units mapping to user terminal
 - Which usually means 5 for read and 6 for write, but *, or input_unit and output_unit from iso_fortran_env Fortran 2003 module are more portable
 - For error messages, 0 is commonly used, but error_unit from iso_fortran_env module is portable





Some open Options



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





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 - use 'write' to only write
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- ► **STATUS**=*st* tells how to behave wrt file existence:
 - use 'old' to open a file that must already exist
 - use 'new' to open a file that must not exist
 - use 'replace' to open a new file, even if one already exists
 - use 'unknown' (the default) to leave it up to the implementation (in all cases we know of, this means 'replace')



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- ACTION=act specifies allowed actions
 - use 'read' to only read
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 - use 'replace' to open a new file, even if one already exists
 - use 'unknown' (the default) to leave it up to the implementation (in all cases we know of, this means 'replace')
- ► **POSITION=***pos* tells where to start I/O on an existing file
 - use 'rewind' (the default) to start at beginning of file
 - use 'append' to start at end of file





Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



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 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
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 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
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end program golden ratio
```





How to close a File



close(u[,STATUS=st])

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





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- 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





How to close a File



close(u[,STATUS=st])

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









Array Syntax

Input/Output Formatted I File I/O Namelist

Internal Files Unformatted I/O Robust I/O





Iterative search for the Golden Ratio



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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
 namelist /golden_inputs/ phi_start, tol, max_iter
 open(11,FILE='golden.in',STATUS='old')
 read(11,golden_inputs)
 close(11)
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    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
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 integer :: i, max iter
 namelist /golden inputs/ phi start, tol, max iter
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 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
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namelistS



namelists allow input/output of annotated lists of values





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- Performed by read or write statements that do not have an I/O list and in which format is replaced by a namelist name





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- namelists allow input/output of annotated lists of values
- Performed by read or write statements that do not have an I/O list and in which format is replaced by a namelist name
- File content is structured, self-describing, order independent, comments are allowed:

```
$golden_inputs
tol=1.e-4 ! tolerance
phi_start=5.0 ! Oth iteration
max_iter=10000000 /
```





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```

- Items missing in the input will retain previous value
- Items can be added to a namelist in different statements, but a code like this easily misleads readers (and you read your own codes, don't you?)
- Use them to make input robust, in output mostly good for debugging









Array Syntax

Input/Output Formatted I/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, test no
 character(15) :: outfilename
 namelist /golden inputs/ phi start, tol, max iter, test no
  test no = 1
 open(11,FILE='golden.in',STATUS='old')
  read(11, golden inputs)
 close(11)
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(outfilename,'("golden", I5.5, ".out")') test no
 open(12,FILE=outfilename)
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max_iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
100 format(A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```







Iterative search for the Golden Ratio

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program golden ratio
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 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: rk = kind(1.0d0)
 real(rk) :: phi, phi_old
 real(rk) :: phi start, tol
 integer :: i, max iter, test no
 character(15) :: outfilename
 namelist /golden inputs/ phi start, tol, max iter, test no
 test no = 1
 open(11,FILE='golden.in',STATUS='old')
  read(11, golden inputs)
 close(11)
 phi old = phi start
 do i=1.max iter
    phi = 1.0d0/phi old + 1.0d0
    if (abs(phi - phi old) < tol) exit
    phi old = phi
  end do
 write(outfilename,'("golden", I5.5, ".out")') test no
 open(12,FILE=outfilename)
 write(12,100) 'Start value:',phi start
 write(12,100) 'Tolerance:',tol
 write(12,'(2(A," ",I11," "))') 'Ended at iteration:', i, 'of', max_iter
 write(12,100) 'Final value:',phi
 close(12)
100 format(A, " ", F13.10)
end program golden ratio
```







Internal Files



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





Internal Files



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

▶ ...





Internal Files



- character variables of default kind can be specified in place of units in read and write statements
- 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
 - ▶ ...
- Reading from internal files can be useful to read complex inputs
 - You have a textual input file sporting different formats
 - And the right format depends on actual data in the file
 - Just read each line in a character variable, suitably sized
 - Pick the suitable format
 - And use it to read from the variable itself





Hands-on Session #3



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









Array Syntax

Input/Output

- Formatted I/O File I/O Namelist Internal Files Unformatted I/O
 - Robust I/O





Unformatted I/O



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





Iterative Matrix Inversion



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





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 \text{ old} = x \text{ start}
  do i=1.max iter
    x = 2.0 \times x old - matmul(x old.matmul(a, x old))
    err = maxval(abs(x - x old))
    if (err < tol) exit
    x \text{ old} = x
  end do
  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



Unformatted I/O



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





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





Hands-on Session #4



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





As you are at it...



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

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

column-wise, using an implied do-loop:

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

with two implied do-loops:

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

Can you spot the difference?





As you are at it...



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```

with two implied do-loops:

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

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





File Positioning



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





Fortran 2003: Stream Access I/O



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









Array Syntax

Input/Output

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





I/O Errors and Mishaps



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





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 - ▶ ...
- And get an unfriendly runtime error





I/O Errors and Mishaps



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





Managing I/O Errors



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





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







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







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







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







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







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- And many more variations, look to manuals





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
- inquire (15, ACTION=s) will set s to 'READ' or 'WRITE' or 'READWRITE', depending on what actions are allowed on unit 15, to 'UNDEFINED' if unconnected
- inquire(IOLENGTH=k) output-list will set k to the number of processor dependent units (bytes, in practice) occupied by an unformatted write of output-list
- And many more variations, look to manuals
- ► Of course, **IOSTAT** and **ERR** can be useful on **inquire** too





Hands-on Session #5



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







Part IV

Derived Types and Memory Management

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





Outline



Extending the Language Derived Types Operators Overloading Parameterized Types Extending Types, and Objects

Managing Memory

Conclusions









Extending the Language Derived Types

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User Defined Types



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

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

```
end type velocity
```

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





Growing Types from Types

Derived types are not second class citizens



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

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

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





Structures In Action



```
type(atom) :: h1, h2, he
h1%r = position(0.0, 0.0, 0.0)
h1%v = velocity(1.0, -1.0, 0.0)
h1%mass = 1.00794
h1%an = 1 ! Assigns atomic number
h2 = h1 ! Intrinsic assignment
he = atom(position(1.0, 0.0, -1.0), h2%v, 4.002602, 2)
```

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





Formatted I/O of Derived Types



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









Extending the Language Derived Types Operators Overloading

Parameterized Types Extending Types, and Objects

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Conclusions







Binary operator + can be used to add:







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 - a pair of integer values







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







- Binary operator + can be used to add:
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- Binary operator + can be used to add:
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- It's like the meaning of + is 'overloaded'
 - Different machine code is generated depending on operand types
- ► And ditto for -, ★, /, >, >=, ...





Bringing Abstractions Further



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

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





Changing Rules as We Need



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

```
interface operator(+)
function addpos(p1, p2)
type(position), intent(in) :: p1, p2
type(position) :: addpos
end function
end interface operator(+)
function addpos(p1, p2) ! Adds positions with periodic boundary conditions
implicit none
type(position), intent(in) :: p1, p2
type(position) :: addpos
real,parameter :: boxwidth = 128.0
addpos%x = modulo(p1%x+p2%x, boxwidth)
addpos%y = modulo(p1%y+p2%y, boxwidth)
addpos%z = modulo(p1%y+p2%z, boxwidth)
end function addpos
```







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







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







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





A Module Centered on Derived Types



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





Structuring Structures



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





Hands-on Session #1



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

```
program test_class_vector
use class_vector
```

```
implicit none
```

```
type(vector) :: v, w, z
```

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

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

end program test_class_vector

Definition of cross product:

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

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





Outline



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Making It wider



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

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

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

But not very elegant, nor easy to manage





Fortran 2003 Adds Parameterized Types



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

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

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

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





More Derived Type Parameters



Structures may have array components

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

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

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

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









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 - And that's always true, whatever the space dimensions
 - But they are conceptually (and dimensionally!) different things







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- And particle, and atom share identical components
 - And a ion would simply add a charge component







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





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



Handling inheritance



- A type extension includes an implicit component with the same name and type as its parent type
 - this can come in handy when the programmer wants to operate on components specific to a parent type

```
      type(ion) :: p
      ! declare p as a ion object

      p%mass
      ! access mass component for p

      p%atom%mass
      ! another way

      p%atom%particle%mass
      ! ...
```

- We often say the child and parent types have a "is a" relationship
 - an atom "is" a particle
 - but a particle is not an atom because the atomic component may be found in atom but not in particle





Polymorphism in Fortran 2003



- Consider the case you have to evolve the position of a particle according to a given velocity field
 - atoms or ions may behave in the (nearly) same way wrt this evolution
 - and you do not want to write two (nearly) identical procedures for the two types
- Polymorphic procedures are the right way
 - i.e., procedures which can take one or more polymorphic variables as arguments
 - "polymorphic variable" = variable whose data type is dynamic at runtime
 - the class keyword allows F2003 programmers to create polymorphic variables
 - use it for dummy arguments (the simplest usage, not the only one)





Procedure Polymorphism



```
subroutine setMass(p, m)
class(particle) :: p
real, intent(in) :: m
p%mass = m
end subroutine setMass
```

- The p dummy argument is polymorphic, based on the usage of class (particle)
- The subroutine can operate on objects that satisfy the "is a" particle relationship
 - setMass can be called passing a particle, atom, ion, or any future type extension of particle

```
type(particle) :: pa ! declare an instance of particle
type(atom) :: at ! declare an instance of atom
type(ion) :: io ! declare an instance of ion
call setMass(pa, mm) ! set the mass for a particle
call setMass(at, mm) ! set the mass for an atom
call setMass(io, mm) ! set the mass for a ion
```







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 - e.g., only mass, r, v are accessible for p declared as class (particle)
- To access the components of the dynamic type, the select type construct is required
 - and optional arguments come in handy







```
subroutine initialize(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, ccharge)
class(particle) :: p
real :: mm
type(position) :: rr
type(velocity) :: vv
integer, optional :: aan, ccharge
p%mass = mm
p%r = rr
p \approx v = vv
select type (p)
type is (particle)
    ! no further initialization required
class is (atom)
    ! atom or ion specific initializations
    if (present(aan)) then
       p%an = aan
    else
       p%an = 1
    endif
class is (ion)
    if (present(ccharge)) then
        p%charge = ccharge
    else
        p%charge = 0
    endif
class default
    ! give error for unexpected/unsupported type
     stop 'initialize: unexpected type for p object!'
end select
end subroutine initialize
```







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- There are two styles of type checks that we can perform







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 - e.g., only mass, r, v are accessible for p declared as class (particle)
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- There are two styles of type checks that we can perform
 - type is: satisfied if the dynamic type of the object is the same as the type specified in parentheses







- By default, only those components found in the declared type of an object are accessible
 - e.g., only mass, r, v are accessible for p declared as class (particle)
- To access the components of the dynamic type, the select type construct is required
 - and optional arguments come in handy
- There are two styles of type checks that we can perform
 - type is: satisfied if the dynamic type of the object is the same as the type specified in parentheses
 - class is: satisfied if the dynamic type of the object is the same or an extension of the specified type in parentheses







```
subroutine initialize(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, ccharge)
class(particle) :: p
real :: mm
type(position) :: rr
type(velocity) :: vv
integer, optional :: aan, ccharge
p%mass = mm
p%r = rr
p \approx v = vv
select type (p)
type is (particle)
    ! no further initialization required
class is (atom)
    ! atom or ion specific initializations
    if (present(aan)) then
       p%an = aan
    else
       p%an = 1
    endif
class is (ion)
    if (present(ccharge)) then
        p%charge = ccharge
    else
        p%charge = 0
    endif
class default
    ! give error for unexpected/unsupported type
     stop 'initialize: unexpected type for p object!'
end select
end subroutine initialize
```







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- Best practice: add a class default branch and print error when p is not an extension of particle type
 - an empty type is (particle) branch may be required to avoid getting error when p is only a particle







```
subroutine initialize(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, ccharge)
class(particle) :: p
real :: mm
type(position) :: rr
type(velocity) :: vv
integer, optional :: aan, ccharge
p%mass = mm
p%r = rr
p \approx v = vv
select type (p)
type is (particle)
    ! no further initialization required
class is (atom)
    ! atom or ion specific initializations
    if (present(aan)) then
       p%an = aan
    else
       p%an = 1
    endif
class is (ion)
    if (present(ccharge)) then
        p%charge = ccharge
    else
        p%charge = 0
    endif
class default
    ! give error for unexpected/unsupported type
     stop 'initialize: unexpected type for p object!'
end select
end subroutine initialize
```





Type-bound procedures



- Objects in Fortran 2003
 - A Fortran 90/95 module can be viewed as an object because it can encapsulate both data and procedures
 - But, derived types in F2003 are considered objects because they now can encapsulate data as well as procedures
 - Modules and types work together...
- Procedures encapsulated in a derived type are called type-bound procedures ("methods" in OO jargon)

```
type particle
type (position) :: r
type (velocity) :: v
real :: mass
contains
procedure :: initialize => initialize_particle
end type particle
```

- initialize_particle is the name of the underlying procedure to be implemented
- Explicit interface is required: wrap in a module!





Modules, Types and Objects



Employing modules and types to design objects

```
module particle mod
type particle
 type(position) :: r
 type(velocity) :: v
  real ·· mass
contains
      procedure :: initialize => initialize particle
end type particle
type, extends(particle) :: atom
end type atom
type, extends (atom) :: ion
end type ion
contains
! insert the implementation or at least the interface of initialize particle
subroutine initialize particle (p, mm, rr, vv, aan, ccharge)
class(particle) :: p
end subroutine initialize particle
end module particle mod
```





Using class

initialize is the name to be used to invoke the type bound procedure



use particle_mod
type(particle) :: p
call p%initialize(mas, pos, vel)

! declare an instance of particle
! initialize particle

- What about the first dummy argument of initialize?
 - it is known as the passed-object dummy argument
 - must be declared class and of the same type as the derived type that defined the type-bound procedure
 - by default, it is the first dummy argument in the type-bound procedure: it receives the object that invoked the type-bound procedure
- It is possible to pass another argument in place of the first one

```
procedure, pass(p) :: initialize
```

...or to avoid passing it at all

procedure, nopass :: initialize





Inheritance and TBP



A child type inherits or reuses components from their parent or ancestor types: this applies to both data and procedures

```
type(particle) :: pa
type(atom) :: at
type(ion) :: io
call pa%initialize(mas, pos, vel)
call at%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu)
call io%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu, cha)
```

```
! declare an instance of particle
! declare an instance of atom
! declare an instance of ion
! initialize a particle
! initialize an atom
! initialize a ion
```

- initialize behaves accordingly to the passed arguments,
 i.e. using optional and select type features
- Sometimes, another approach may be more appropriate: overriding!





Overriding TBP



```
module particle mod
type particle
 type(position) :: r
 type(velocity) :: v
 real :: mass
 contains
     procedure :: initialize => initialize particle
end type particle
type, extends(particle) :: atom
  contains
     procedure :: initialize => initialize atom
end type atom
type, extends (atom) :: ion
end type ion
contains
! insert the implementation or at least the interface of initialize
subroutine initialize_particle(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, cch)
class(particle) :: p
end subroutine initialize particle
subroutine initialize atom(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, cch)
class(atom) :: p
end subroutine initialize atom
end module particle mod
```





Override with care

5	
	S

<pre>type(particle) :: p</pre>	a
type (atom) :: a	t
type(ion) :: i	0
call pa%initialize(mas, pos, vel)
call at%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu)
call io%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu, cha)

! declare an instance of particle ! declare an instance of atom ! declare an instance of ion ! calls initialize_particle ! calls initialize_atom

- ! calls initialize_atom
- Beware: an overriding type-bound procedure must have exactly the same interface as the overridden procedure except for the passed-object dummy argument which must be class(new-type)
 - optional arguments may hide useless arguments





Overriding TBP



```
module particle mod
type particle
 type(position) :: r
 type(velocity) :: v
 real :: mass
 contains
     procedure :: initialize => initialize particle
end type particle
type, extends(particle) :: atom
  contains
     procedure :: initialize => initialize atom
end type atom
type, extends (atom) :: ion
end type ion
contains
! insert the implementation or at least the interface of initialize
subroutine initialize_particle(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, cch)
class(particle) :: p
end subroutine initialize particle
subroutine initialize atom(p, mm, rr, vv, aan, cch)
class(atom) :: p
end subroutine initialize atom
end module particle mod
```





Override with care



type(particle)	:: pa			
type (atom)	:: at			
type(ion)	:: io			
call pa%initial	ize(mas, pos,	vel)		
call at%initial	ize(mas, pos,	vel,	anu)	
call io%initial	ize(mas, pos,	vel,	anu,	cha)

```
! declare an instance of particle<sup>®</sup>
! declare an instance of atom
! declare an instance of ion
! calls initialize_particle
! calls initialize_atom
```

```
calls initialize_atom
```

- Beware: an overriding type-bound procedure must have exactly the same interface as the overridden procedure except for the passed-object dummy argument which must be class(new-type)
 - optional arguments may hide useless arguments
- Of course, it is still possible to explicitly invoke the version defined by a parent type instead of the overrided one





Override with care



type(particle) :: pa
type(atom) :: at
type(ion) :: io
call pa%initialize(mas, pos, vel)
call at%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu)
call io%initialize(mas, pos, vel, anu, cha)

```
! declare an instance of particle
! declare an instance of atom
! declare an instance of ion
! calls initialize_particle
! calls initialize_atom
```

```
! calls initialize_atom
```

- Beware: an overriding type-bound procedure must have exactly the same interface as the overridden procedure except for the passed-object dummy argument which must be class(new-type)
 - optional arguments may hide useless arguments
- Of course, it is still possible to explicitly invoke the version defined by a parent type instead of the overrided one
- And it is possible to prevent any type extensions from overriding a particular type-bound procedure

procedure, non_overridable :: initialize







- Information hiding allows the programmer to view an object and its procedures as a "black box"
 - procedure overriding is a first example of information hiding, initialize has different "hidden" implementations depending on the calling object







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 - procedure overriding is a first example of information hiding, initialize has different "hidden" implementations depending on the calling object
- Hiding data:
 - safer against data corruption: the user may modify data only trough adequate procedures
 - changes to the data structure will not affect codes using our class provided that we don't change interfaces







- Information hiding allows the programmer to view an object and its procedures as a "black box"
 - procedure overriding is a first example of information hiding, initialize has different "hidden" implementations depending on the calling object
- Hiding data:
 - safer against data corruption: the user may modify data only trough adequate procedures
 - changes to the data structure will not affect codes using our class provided that we don't change interfaces
- Hiding procedures: e.g., prevent users from calling low-level procedures





public and private

 Fortran 2003 adds "private" and "public" keywords for derived types



beware of the placement of the keywords, in modules and/or in types: confused?

```
module particle mod
private ! hide the implementation of type-bound procedures
public :: average_position_particle ! allow access to particle averaging position
type, public :: particle
 private
                       ! hide the data underlying details
    type(position) :: r
   type(velocity) :: v
    real :: mass
  contains
                        ! hide the type bound procedures by default
    private
                        :: check init => check init particle ! private type-bound procedure
     procedure
      procedure, public :: initialize => initialize particle ! allow access to TBP
end type particle
contains
! implementation of type-bound procedures
subroutine initialize particle(p. mm, rr, vv. aan, cch)
. . .
subroutine check init particle(p)
subroutine average position particle(p1,p2)
class(particle) :: p1, p2
. . .
end subroutine average position particle
end module particle mod
```



Fortran 2003 Object Oriented Full Glory



- ► Data Polymorphism:
 - as how polymorphic dummy arguments form the basis to procedure polymorphism...
 - ...polymorphic non-dummy variables form the basis to data polymorphism







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 - you may encounter class(*)







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- Abstract types and deferred bindings







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- Typed allocation
- Unlimited Polymorphic Objects
 - you may encounter class(*)
- Generic-type bound procedures
 - like generic interfaces, but for type-bound procedures
- Abstract types and deferred bindings
- Finalization







Extending the Language

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

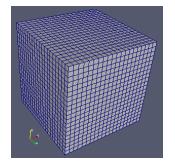
Conclusions





A PDE Problem





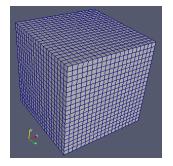
Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE





A PDE Problem





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





A Rigid Solution



```
integer, parameter :: NX = 200
integer, parameter :: NY = 450
integer, parameter :: NZ = 320
integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
real(rk) :: deltax ! Grid steps
real(rk) :: deltay
real(rk) :: deltaz
real(rk) :: 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





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





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```

- 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?





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









type flow		
real(rk)	::	u(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk)	::	v(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk)	::	w(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk)	::	p(NX,NY,NZ)
end type		
		_
type(flow)	::	f
or		
type flow		
real(rk)	::	u,v,w,p
end type		
type(flow)	::	f(NX,NY,NZ)
Which one	is	best?

Both have merits





•	type flow		
	real(rk)	::	u (NX, NY, NZ)
	real(rk)	::	v(NX,NY,NZ)
	real(rk)	::	w(NX,NY,NZ)
	real(rk)	::	p(NX,NY,NZ)
	end type		
	type(flow)	::	f
	or		
	type flow real(rk) end type	::	u,v,w,p
	type(flow)	::	f(NX,NY,NZ)
			h = =10

- Both have merits
- > The choice strongly depends on the computer architecture







•	type flow		
	real(rk)	::	u(NX,NY,NZ)
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	real(rk)	::	w(NX,NY,NZ)
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	type(flow)	::	f
	or		
	type flow real(rk) end type	::	u,v,w,p
	type(flow)	::	f(NX,NY,NZ)
	Which one	. :-	haat?

- Both have merits
- ► The choice strongly depends on the computer architecture
 - for cache-based CPUs the choice is difficult (it depends on the order of the accesses of your numerical scheme)







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

- Both have merits
- The choice strongly depends on the computer architecture
 - for cache-based CPUs the choice is difficult (it depends on the order of the accesses of your numerical scheme)
 - but using GPUs or MICs the first one is usually better!







Looking for Flexibility



```
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx, ny, nz)
integer, intent(in) :: nx, ny, nz
integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
real(rk):: deltax, deltay, deltaz ! Grid steps
real(rk) :: u(nx,ny,nz)
real(rk) :: v(nx,ny,nz)
real(rk) :: w(nx,ny,nz)
real(rk) :: p(nx,ny,nz)
```

 We could think of declaring automatic arrays inside a subroutine





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

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





A Bad, Old, Common approach



```
program pde_solve
parameter (MAXNX=400, MAXNY=400, MAXNZ=400)
parameter (MAXSIZE=MAXNX*MAXNX*MAXNZ)
real*8 u(MAXSIZE),v(MAXSIZE),w(MAXSIZE),p(MAXSIZE)
common u,v,w,p
```

```
! ...
call my_pde_solver(nx, ny, nz, u, v, w, p)
! ...
end
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx, ny, nz, u, v, w, p)
real*8 u(nx, ny, nz), v(nx, ny, nz), w(nx, ny, nz), p(nx, ny, nz)
!...
```

We could give a different shape to dummy arguments





A Bad, Old, Common approach



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

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





A Bad, Old, Common approach



```
program pde solve
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  common u,v,w,p
1 ...
  call my pde solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
1 ....
end
subroutine my_pde_solver(nx,ny,nz,u,v,w,p)
  real*8 u(nx,ny,nz),v(nx,ny,nz),w(nx,ny,nz),p(nx,ny,nz)
1 . . .
```

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



Removing Limitations



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







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Conclusions







```
integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
```

```
real(rk), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: u,v,w,p
```

```
\texttt{allocate}\left(u\left(nx,ny,nz\right),v\left(nx,ny,nz\right),w\left(nx,ny,nz\right),p\left(nx,ny,nz\right)\right)
```

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







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







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```

- When allocatable arrays are declared, only their rank is specified (dimension(:,:,:))
- allocate statement performs actual memory allocation and defines extents
 - On failure, program stops







```
integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
```

```
real(rk), dimension(:,:,:), allocatable :: u,v,w,p
```

```
\texttt{allocate}\left(u\left(nx,ny,nz\right),v\left(nx,ny,nz\right),w\left(nx,ny,nz\right),p\left(nx,ny,nz\right)\right)
```

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







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integer, parameter :: rk = selected_real_kind(12)
```

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```

```
\texttt{allocate}\left(u\left(nx,ny,nz\right),v\left(nx,ny,nz\right),w\left(nx,ny,nz\right),p\left(nx,ny,nz\right)\right)
```

- When allocatable arrays are declared, only their rank is specified (dimension(:,:,:))
- allocate statement performs actual memory allocation and defines extents
 - On failure, program stops
 - But if STAT=integer_var is specified, integer_var is set to zero on success and to a positive value on failure, and execution doesn't stop
- Best practice: use STAT= and, on failure, provide information to users before terminating execution





Freeing Memory



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





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





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- 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







 Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable







- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable
 - Compiler will catch it







- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable
 - Compiler will catch it
- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not deallocated or allocated respectively







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- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not deallocated or allocated respectively
 - Compiler can't catch it, runtime error
 - In some cases (error recovery) use logical allocated() function to check





Three Common Mistakes



- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not allocatable
 - Compiler will catch it
- Trying to allocate or deallocate an array that was not deallocated or allocated respectively
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- Mistaking allocatables for a substitute to procedure automatic arrays



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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





Automatic allocation (F2003)



- When assigning an array value to a not allocated allocatable array, the allocatable array gets automatically allocated
- This simplifies the use of array functions which return a variable-sized result

```
real, dimension(100) :: x
real, allocatable, dimension(:) :: all_values, nonzero_values
! size is 100, small benefit wrt explicit allocation
all_values = x
! size depends on x values, AA is a great benefit now
nonzero_values = pack(x, x/=0)
```

 Also useful when dealing with allocatable components in a derived type





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```

- Also useful when dealing with allocatable components in a derived type
 - avoids separate coding for each allocatable component





Automatic allocation (F2003) / 2



Automatic re-allocation is performed when the shape of the assignment does not fit, e.g.

a = (/ a , 5 , 6 /)

- Beware: it may dramatically affect performances!
 - if you don't need it, disable it using compiler options
- AA naturally extends to characters strongly increasing their adaptability
 - when declaring characters, the len value declaration may be postponed (deferred type parameter)
 - during assignment the Right Hand Side passes its len on the deferred-length string (under the hood, automatic re-allocation may occur)
 - explicit allocation is possible but often worthless, required when reading from input, though

```
character(len=:), allocatable :: str
character(len=50) :: fixed_str
allocate(character(80) :: str) ! allocates str using len=80 CINE
str = fixed_str ! re-allocates str using len=50
```





Extending the Language

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

Conclusions





Enter Fortran Pointers

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

```
real, dimension(:,:,:), pointer :: r
real, target :: a(5,15,6), b(3,22,7)
r => a    ! pointer assignment
    ! now r is an alias of a
r(1,1,1) = 2. ! usual assignment
    ! now both r(1,1,1) and a(1,1,1) values are 2.
nullify(r)  ! a is still alive
r => b    ! now r is an alias of b
r => null()
CINECA
```







Let us clarify

real, dimension(:), pointer :: p

does not declare an array of pointers, but a pointer capable of aliasing an array







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- What about array of pointers?
 - as such are not allowed in Fortran, but the equivalent effect can be achieved by creating a type containing a pointer component and building an array of this type







Let us clarify

```
real, dimension(:), pointer :: p
```

does not declare an array of pointers, but a pointer capable of aliasing an array

- What about array of pointers?
 - as such are not allowed in Fortran, but the equivalent effect can be achieved by creating a type containing a pointer component and building an array of this type
- For example, a lower-triangular matrix may be held using a pointer for each row

```
type row
  real, dimension(:), pointer :: r
end type row
type(row), dimension(n) :: t
do i=1,n
  allocate(t(i)%r(1:i)) ! Allocate row i of length i
enddo
```







Pointers may also alias subobjects







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The reverse in not true: it is not possible to explicitly associate sections of pointers







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- But lower bounds may be specified (from F2003) s(2:,:,:) => a(2:4,1:10,3:6) ! s(2,1,1) aliases a(2,1,3)







Pointers may also alias subobjects

- The reverse in not true: it is not possible to explicitly associate sections of pointers
- But lower bounds may be specified (from F2003) s(2:,:,:) => a(2:4,1:10,3:6) ! s(2,1,1) aliases a(2,1,3)
- A target of a multidimensional array pointer may be one-dimensional

```
a(1:n,1:n) => a_linear(1:n*n)
```







```
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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real, dimension(:,:,:), pointer :: r
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- ! allocated on the heap
- Unlike allocatables, once allocated the pointers may be migrated to other targets







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```
! allocated on the heap
```

- Unlike allocatables, once allocated the pointers may be migrated to other targets
- You can use pointer allocation in place of allocatable, but, unless necessary, prefer allocatable: the compiler usually optimizes better







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```
! allocated on the heap
```

- Unlike allocatables, once allocated the pointers may be migrated to other targets
- You can use pointer allocation in place of allocatable, but, unless necessary, prefer allocatable: the compiler usually optimizes better
- You can deallocate the pointee by specifying the pointer in a deallocate statement



Lists!



 In alternative to target variables, allocated pointers may be practically used as targets







Lists!

- In alternative to target variables, allocated pointers may be practically used as targets
- Structure components can be pointers







Lists

- In alternative to target variables, allocated pointers may be practically used as targets
- 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









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







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 - Your program will fail
 - Which is better than messing up with memory







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 - Good practice: initialize pointers to null()
- Referencing a nullified pointer
 - Your program will fail
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- Changing association of an allocated pointer
 - This is a memory leak, and programmers causing memory leaks have really bad reputation

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

Now you'll be in troubles with \mathbf{p} , with really strange behavior





Laplace Equation



 Discretization on Cartesian 2D grid with Dirichelet Boundary Conditions

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

Iterative advancement using Jacobi method

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





Laplace: static implementation

```
program laplace
   implicit none
   integer, parameter :: dp=kind(1.d0), n = 100
                      :: maxIter = 100000, i, j, iter = 0
   integer
   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 i = 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 program laplace
```



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   real(dp)
                      :: tol = 1.d-4, var = 1.d0, top = 100.d0
   T(0:n, 0:n) = 0.d0
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         end do
      end do
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      T(1:n,1:n) = Tnew(1:n,1:n)
   end do
end program laplace
```





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





Very basic lists



- Declare two pointers to list elements (typically head and current elements)
- Allocate the head and let the current pointer alias the head, too
- Fill the inner content of the list element
- To add an element to the end allocate the next component
- Let the current pointer be associated to this new element type(atom_list), pointer :: first, current allocate(first) ; first%next => null() ; current => first current%a = 2 allocate(current%next) current => current%next : current%next => null()
- And if you want to access to an existing list, use associated

```
current => first
do while (associated(current))
    print*,'List Element: ',current%a
    current => current%next
end do
```







• Write a program that:







- Write a program that:
 - reads an 'arbitrarily' long column of real numbers from an ASCII file







- Write a program that:
 - reads an 'arbitrarily' long column of real numbers from an ASCII file
 - store the values in a double-linked list

```
type line_list
  real :: a
  type(line_list), pointer :: next
  type(line_list), pointer :: previous
endtype line_list
```







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```

Start by declaring the first and current pointers

```
type(line_list), pointer :: first=>null(), current=>null()
```





Hands-on Session #3



- Write a program that:
 - reads an 'arbitrarily' long column of real numbers from an ASCII file
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- For each valid read, add an element to the list and advance...







Extending the Language

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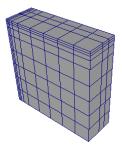
Conclusions





Nonuniform Grids





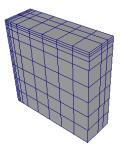
Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE





Nonuniform Grids





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





Keeping Information Together



```
type nonuniform grid
  integer :: nx, ny, nz
 ! Grid steps
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltax
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltay
  real(rk), dimension(:), allocatable :: deltaz
end type
1 . . .
type(nonuniform grid) :: my grid
integer :: alloc_stat
1...
allocate (my_grid%deltax(nx), my_grid%deltay(ny), &
         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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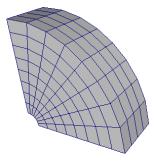
- Related information is best kept together
- Grid size and grid steps are related information





Structured Grids in General Form





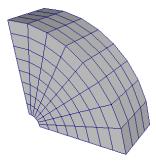
Let's imagine we have to solve a PDE





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







```
real(rk) :: x(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: y(NX,NY,NZ)
real(rk) :: z(NX,NY,NZ)
Of
type meshpoint
real(rk) :: x, y, z
end type
```

```
type (meshpoint), dimension (NX, NY, NZ) :: coords Which one is best?
```







```
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Of
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type(meshpoint), dimension(NX,NY,NZ) :: coords
Which one is best?
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Again, both have merits







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

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

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







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







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- Again, both have merits
 - The former (if done properly) allows hardware to play efficient tricks in memory accesses
 - The latter brings in cache all values related to a grid point as soon as one component is accessed
- Here, we lean to the latter
 - As in most numerical schemes, x, y, and z components of the same mesh point are accessed together





 A multiblock mesh is an assembly of connected structured meshes







- A multiblock mesh is an assembly of connected structured meshes
 - You could dynamically allocate a mesh array
 - Or build a block type including a mesh and connectivity information







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 - You want your blocks resolution to adapt to dynamical behavior of PDE solution
 - Which means splitting blocks to substitute part of them with more resolved meshes







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





If You Read Code Like This...



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





If You Read Code Like This...



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

- It is processing a singly-linked list of mesh blocks
- You know how to handle it, now





And If You Read Code Like This...

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

```
call advance_block_in_time(n%this_block)
end subroutine tree_advance_in_time
```







And If You Read Code Like This...

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

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









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Conclusions





Mixing C and Fortran



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





Two Naive Examples



Imagine you have this C function:

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

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

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





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];
        avg += a[i];
        avg = avg/n;
        *var = avg2/n - avg*avg;
    return avg;
}</pre>
```

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

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

Or you have your favorite, thoroughly tested Poisson solver:

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

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

```
myPoissonSolver(nx, ny, nz, field);
```





A Naive Approach



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

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

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

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

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

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

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





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







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

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

► For Fortran to C, Fortran side:

```
interface
   subroutine myPoissonSolver(1, m, n, f) bind(c)
        integer, intent(in) :: 1, m, n
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   end subroutine myPoissonSolver
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```

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







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 - Under the hood, it's like a C pointer
 - Works for C arrays and pointers to scalar variables
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- For C to Fortran:

```
interface
function avg_var(n, a, var) bind(c)
integer, value :: n
real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(in) :: a(*)
real(kind(1.0D0)), intent(out) :: var
real(kind(1.0D0)) :: avg_var
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and on the C side, still the declaration:

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







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- For C to Fortran:

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

► For Fortran to C, Fortran side:

```
interface
   subroutine myPoissonSolver(1, m, n, f) bind(c)
    use iso_c binding
    integer(c_int), value :: 1, m, n
    real(c_double), intent(inout) :: f(1,m,n)
   end subroutine myPoissonSolver
end interface
```

and on the C side, still the declaration:

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







A few of

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

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

► 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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 - C array parameter a []
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 - Fortran array a (L, M, N)
 - 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	С
<pre>type, bind(c) :: particle integer(c_int) :: n real(c_float) :: x,y,z real(c_float) :: vx,vy,vz end type particle</pre>	<pre>typedef struct particle { int n; float x,y,z; float vx,vy,vz; } particle;</pre>

For module variables or common blocks, use

Fortran	С
<pre>integer(c_long), bind(c) :: n</pre>	extern long n;
<pre>real(c_double) :: m,k common /com_mk/ m,k bind(c) :: /com_mk/</pre>	<pre>extern struct mk { double m, k; } com_mk; </pre>

Note: common blocks become C structs



Fortran Pointers vs. C Pointers

As of argument passing, not a problem



- 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	С
<pre>type, bind(c) :: block integer(c_int) :: n_neighbors type(c_ptr) :: neighbors type(c_ptr) :: grid end type block</pre>	<pre>typedef struct { int n_neighbors; int *neighbors; mesh *grid; } block;</pre>



SCAI Translating Pointers Back and Forth



iso_c_binding module provides much needed help



Translating Pointers Back and Forth

iso_c_binding module provides much needed help



- c_loc(x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable x
- c_f_pointer(cptr, fptr[, shape]) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran pointer fptr
 - An optional *shape* argument like (/n/) or (/1, m, n/) gives it a shape for array pointers

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- c_loc(x) returns a valid C pointer to the content of variable x
- c_f_pointer(cptr, fptr[, shape]) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran pointer fptr
 - An optional *shape* argument like (/n/) or (/1, m, n/) gives it a shape for array pointers
- If f_proc is an interoperable Fortran procedure,
 c_funloc(f_proc) returns a valid C pointer
 (type(c_funptr)) to it
- c_f_procpointer(cfptr, fpptr) performs the opposite translation, writing the result in the Fortran procedure pointer fpptr



Thou Shalt Compile and Link Properly



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

user@cineca\$> gcc -c fun_cmd.c user@cineca\$> gfortran -c main_cmd.f90 user@cineca\$> gfortran fun_cmd.o main_cmd.o -o main_cmd

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





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

user@cineca\$> gcc -lgfortran procedures.o main.c

Your mileage may vary, browse your compiler manuals





Hands-on 4: qsort



Write the Fortran interface to C qsort

```
module gsort c to fortran
  use iso c binding
  integer, parameter :: sp = kind(1.0)
  interface
  !Write the Fortran interface to C gsort!
  !void gsort(void *base,
  ! size t nmemb.
  ! size t size.
  ! int (*compar)(const void *, const void *));
  end interface
 contains
  function compare reals(a,b) bind(c)
   integer(c int) :: compare reals
   real(c float) :: a,b
   if(a>b) then
       compare reals=1
   else if(a<b) then
       compare reals=-1
   a] sa
       compare reals=0
   endif
  end function compare reals
end module gsort c to fortran
```

```
program test_qsort_c
use qsort_c_to_fortran
integer(c_size_t), parameter :: n=7
real(c_float), pointer :: a(:)
allocate(a(n))
call random_number(a)
print*, 'Unordered a: '
print*, a
call qsort(c_loc(a(1)), n, c_sizeof(a(1)), &
c funloc(compare reals));
```

```
print*,'Ordered a: '
print*,a
```

end program test_qsort_c









Extending the Language

Managing Memory

Conclusions





What We Left Out



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





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- More about programming
 - Code development management tools
 - Debugging tools
 - Look among CINECA HPC courses





What We Left Out



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 - 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
 - Coarrays





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



Advanced Fortran Coding Examples





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



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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