Modern Fortran for Scientific Programming

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Course Overview

(Times very approximate)

- Intro, History (10 min)
- New syntax (30 min), Hands on #I (60 min)
- Functions, Modules (45 min), Hands on #2 (30 min)
- Lunch (I hr)
- New Array Features (15 min), Hands on #3 (30 min)
- Pointers & Interfaces (30 min), Hands on #4 (30 min)
- Derived Data Types and Objects (30 min)
- Interoperability with C,Python (30 min)
- Coarrays (30 min)



Fortran

 Only major compiled programming language designed specifically for scientific programming.

 Powerful array operations; many mathematical functions (Bessel functions!) built in; designed to enable compiler optimizations for fast code



Fortran

- Oldest (54-57 yrs) still-used programming language.
- Most people come to Fortran via being given old code by someone.
- Can't understand the old code, or quirks of modern language, without understanding it's history



A Brief History of Fortran

- 1957 J.W. Backus et al. In Proceedings Western Joint Computer Conference, Los Angeles, California, February 1957.
- IBM 704
- (Arguably) first modern compiled programming language.
- Idea of compilers at all was controversial at time.

```
DIMENSION ALPHA(25), RHO(25)
```

- FORMAT(5F12.4)
- 2 READ 1, ALPHA, RHO, ARG

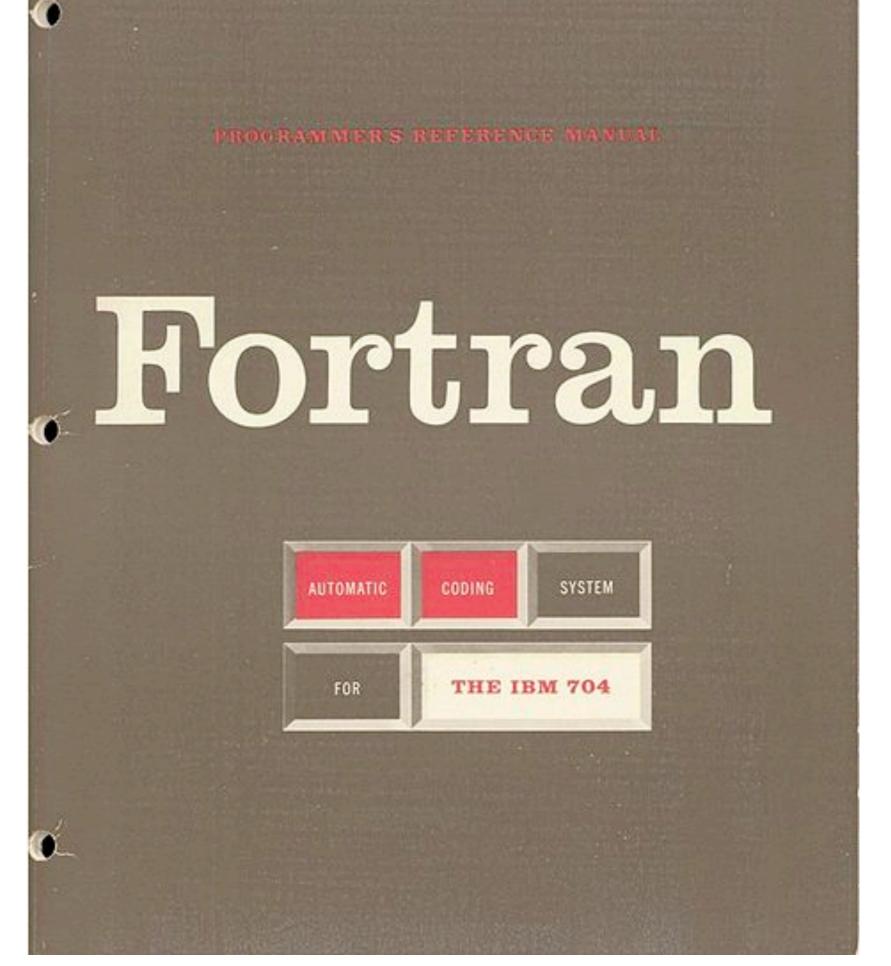
$$SUM = 0.0$$

DO
$$3 I = 1, 25$$

$$3 \quad SUM = SUM + ALPHA(I)$$

4 VALUE =
$$3.14159*RHO(I - 1)$$

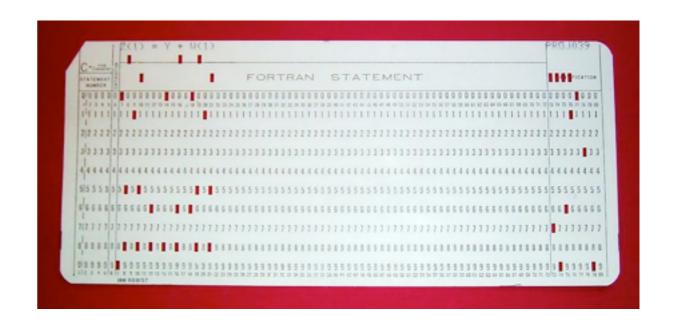






FORTRAN (1957)

- Fixed-column format to simplify punched cards
- C in column I comment
- Line labels in cols 2-5
- Continuation character in col 6
- Code in cols 7-72.
- Continued until Fortran90!

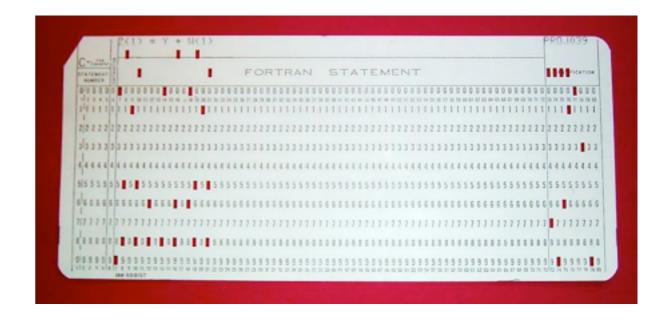


http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:FortranCardPROJ039.agr.jpg



FORTRAN (1957)

- Variables did not need declaration
- Any variables used starting with i,j,k,l,m,n were assumed integer, all others real.
- Saved punched cards.
- Idea is with us today terrible idea.
- Already had multidimensional arrays!



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:FortranCardPROJ039.agr.jpg



Incremental changes

- FORTRAN II (1958) subroutines and functions (good!) common blocks (terrible, terrible). Still machine dependent (READ INPUT TAPE)
- FORTRAN III inline assembly never released
- FORTRAN IV (1961) removed machine dependancies



Many implementations, standardization

- FORTRAN66:
 - double precision, complex, logical types
 - intrinsic and external routines
- With implementation of standard, loss of machine dependency, started gaining wide use on many computers



FORTRAN77

- The most common to see "in the wild" of old code today
- if/else/endif, better do loops, control of implicit typing
- Character strings, saved variables, IO improvements
- Approved in 1978, beginning long tradition of "optimistic" naming of standards by year.



The interregnum

- Programming languages and techniques were moving quite quickly
- Several attempts were made to make new version, but standardization process very slow, failed repeatedly.
- Absent new real standard, implementations began to grow in many different directions
- Some extensions became quasi-standard, many were peculiar to individual compilers.



Fortran90

- Enormous changes; the basis of modern Fortran (not FORTRAN!)
- Free form, array slices, modules, dynamic memory allocation, derived types...
- Changes so major that took several years for compilers to catch up.
- Modern fortran



And since...

 Fortran95 - modest changes to Fortran90, killed off some deprecated F77 constructs.

 Fortran 2003 - bigger change; object-oriented, C interoperability. Most compilers have pretty good F2003 support.

 Fortran 2008 - mostly minor changes, with one big addition (coarray), other parallel stuff.
 Compiler-writers getting there.



F90, F95, F2003, F2008...

 We won't distinguish between versions; we'll just show you a lot of useful features of modern fortran.

 Will only show widely-implemented features from 2003 and 8, with exception of coarrays; these are being implemented and are very important.



New Format, New Syntax



```
program example
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
    real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
    integer :: i
    if (npts < 2) then
        print *, 'Too few points!'
    else
        integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
        xleft = 0.
   int: do i=0, npts-1
            xright = (i+1)*dx
            xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
            integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                            f(xright))
            xleft = xright
         end do int
         print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
         print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                      (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
     endif
contains
    function f(x)
        implicit none
        real :: f
        real, intent(in) :: x
        f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```

Free Format: some highlights

samples/freeform/ freeform.f90



```
program example
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
  real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
  real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
```

Columns no longer significant; can start at left margin

```
integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
        xleft = 0.
   int: do i=0, npts-1
            xright = (i+1)*dx
            xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
            integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                             f(xright))
            xleft = xright
         end do int
         print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
         print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                       (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
     endif
contains
    function f(x)
        implicit none
        real :: f
        real, intent(in) :: x
        f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
    implicit none
    inter, parameter :: npts = 10000
         parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
         parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
         :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
    rea
    int
         Implicit none.
   Always, always use.
  int: do i=0, npts-1
           xright = (i+1)*dx
           xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
            integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                          f(xright))
           xleft = xright
        end do int
         print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
         print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                    (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
    endif
contains
    function f(x)
       implicit none
       real :: f
       real, intent(in) :: x
       f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter : dx = (endx-startx)/npts
                     left, xright, xmid
    real :: integra
    integer :: i
    if (npts < 2) th
       print *, 'Too ew points!'
    else
                    ! Simpson's Rule
       integral = 0
       xleft =
                Variable declaration syntax changed
                 more later)
           integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                          f(xright))
           xleft = xright
        end do int
        print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
        print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                    (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
    endif
contains
    function f(x)
       implicit none
       real :: f
       real, intent(in) :: x
       f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
   implicit none
   integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter :: dx = (endx-
                                 Lines can be up to 132 char long;
    real :: integral, xleft, xrigh
   integer :: i
                                 to continue, put & at end of line.
   if (npts < 2) then
       print *, 'Too few points!'
   else
       integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
       xleft = 0.
  int: do i=0, npts-1
           xright = (i+1)*dx
           xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
           integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                         f(xright))
           xleft = xright
        end do int
        print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
        print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                    (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
    endif
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   function f(x)
       implicit none
       real :: f
       real, intent(in) :: x
       f = \sin(x)**2
   end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
    real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
    integer :: i
   if (npts < 2) then
       print *, 'Too few points!'
    else
       integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
       xleft = 0.
  int: do i=0, npts-1
                                 ! for comments;
           xright = (i+1)*dx
           xmid = (xleft+xri
                                comments out rest of line.
           integral = integr
           xleft = xright
        end do int
         print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
         print *, 'Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                    (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
    endif
contains
    function f(x)
       implicit none
       real :: f
       real, intent(in) :: x
       f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```



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program example
    implicit none
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    integer :: i
    if (npts < 2) then
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    else
        integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
        xleft = 0.
  int: do i=0, npts-1
            xright = (i+1)*dx
            xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
            integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                           f(xright))
            xleft = xright
         end do int
         print *, 'Numerical integral is ', integral
```

Numeric line labels are strongly discouraged, but control structures can be named (more later)

```
end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
    real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
    integer :: i
    if (npts < 2) then
        print*, 'Too few points!'
    else
        inter at = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
        xleft = 0.
   int: do i: ,npts-1
                             vs .lt., .gt.
            int
            xle
         end do
         print
         print *, Exact soln is ', (endx-startx)/2. - &
                                      (\sin(2*\text{endx})-\sin(2*\text{startx}))/4.
     endif
contains
    function f(x)
        implicit none
        real :: f
        real, intent(in) :: x
        f = \sin(x)**2
    end function f
end program example
```



```
program example
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
  real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
  real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts

real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
  integer :: i

if (npts < 2) then
    print *,'Too few points!'
else
    integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
    xleft = 0.

int: do i=0,npts-1
        xright = (i+1)*dx
        xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.</pre>
```

Program, procedure can contain other procedures



```
program example
    implicit none
    integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
    real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
    real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
    real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
    integer :: i
   if (npts < 2) then
        print *, 'Too few points!'
    else
        integral = 0. ! Simpson's Rule
       xleft = 0.
  int: do i=0, npts-1
            xright = (i+1)*dx
            xmid = (xleft+xright)/2.
            integral = integral + (dx/6.)*(f(xleft) + 4.*f(xmid) + &
                                           f(xright))
           xleft = xright
         end do int
```

"program x" or "function y" ended by end program x" or "end function y"

```
function f(x)
mplicit none
eal :: f
eal, intent(in) :: x

z sin(x)**2
end unction f

end program example
```



Free Format Summary

- Case doesn't matter (except strings)
- Lines can start anywhere, can be 132 cols long
- Continue with an & at end of line
- Can continue a single line 255 times
- Comments !, can start anywhere, comments out rest of line
- Compilers can usually handle both old fixed format and modern free format, but not within the same file.

- Implicit none turns off all implicit typing.
- Was a common F77
 extension, but not
 part of a standard.
- DO THIS. Without, (eg) variable typos don't get caught.

```
implicit none
integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
integer :: i
```



- This is going to be a recurring theme for several features.
- You do a little more typing and make things explicit to compiler.
- Then compiler can catch errors, optimize, better.

```
implicit none
integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
integer :: i
```



- The "::" separating type and name is new
- Type declarations can now have a lot more information
- Many attributes of variables set on declaration line
- :: makes it easier for you, compiler, to see where attributes stop and variable names begin

```
implicit none
integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
integer :: i
```



- Parameter attribute for values which will be
 constants.
- Compiler error if try to change them.
- Useful for things which shouldn't change.
- F77 equivalent:
 integer i
 parameter (i=5)

```
implicit none
integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
integer :: i
```



- Initialization of variables at declaration time
- Required for parameters (because can't change them later), can be done for other variables.
- Can do anything that compiler can figure out at compile time, including math.

```
implicit none
integer, parameter :: npts = 10000
real, parameter :: startx=0., endx=1.
real, parameter :: dx = (endx-startx)/npts
real :: integral, xleft, xright, xmid
integer :: i
```



- Initializing variables this way gives unexpected behaviour in functions/subroutines "for historical reasons".
- Initialized variables given the "save" attribute
 - eg, integer, save, i=5
- Value saved between calls. Can be handy - but not threadsafe.
- Initialization done only first time through.
- Not a problem for main program, parameters.

```
subroutine testvarinit
   implicit none
   integer :: i = 5
   print '(A,I3)', 'On entry; i = ', i
   print '(A,I3)', 'Now set; i = ', i
end subroutine testvarinit
   call testvarinit
   call testvarinit
$ ./initialization
On entry; i =
Now set;
On entry; i =
```



Now set;

Kinds

- Reals, Double
 precisions, really
 different "kinds" of
 same "type" floating
 pt real #s.
- Kinds introduced to give enhanced version of functionality of non-standard but ubiquitous constructs like REAL*8

```
program realkinds
    use iso_fortran_env
    implicit none
    real :: x
    real(kind=real32) :: x32
    real(kind=real64) :: x64
    real(kind=real128):: x128
    real(kind=selected_real_kind(6)) :: y6
    real(kind=selected real kind(15)):: y15
    print *, 'Default:'
    print *, precision(x), range(x)
    print *, 'Real32:'
    print *, precision(x32), range(x32)
    print *, 'Real64:'
    print *, precision(x64), range(x64)
    print *, 'Real128:'
    print *, precision(x128), range(x128)
    print *,''
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 6:'
    print *, precision(y6), range(y6)
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 15:'
    print *, precision(y15), range(y15)
end program realkinds
```

AINet

Kinds

- real32, real64 defined in iso_fortran_env in newest compilers (gfortran 4.6, ifort 12)
- selected_real_kind(N): returns kind parameter for reals with N decimal digits of precision

```
program realkinds
    use iso_fortran_env
    implicit none
    real :: x
    real(kind=real32) :: x32
    real(kind=real64) :: x64
    real(kind=real128):: x128
    real(kind=selected_real_kind(6)) :: y6
    real(kind=selected real kind(15)):: y15
    print *, 'Default:'
    print *, precision(x), range(x)
    print *, 'Real32:'
    print *, precision(x32), range(x32)
    print *, 'Real64:'
    print *, precision(x64), range(x64)
    print *, 'Real128:'
    print *, precision(x128), range(x128)
    print *, ''
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 6:'
    print *, precision(y6), range(y6)
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 15:'
    print *, precision(y15), range(y15)
end program realkinds
```

Kinds

 Default real is generally 4-byte (32bit) real, has 6 digits of precision and a range of 37 in the exponent.



Kinds

- Many built-in ('intrinsic')
 functions which give info
 about properties of a
 variable's numerical type.
- precision #digits of precision in decimal
- range of exponent
- tiny, huge smallest, largest positive represented number
- epsilon machine epsilon
- several others

```
program realkinds
    use iso_fortran_env
    implicit none
    real :: x
    real(kind=real32) :: x32
    real(kind=real64) :: x64
    real(kind=real128):: x128
    real(kind=selected_real_kind(6)) :: y6
    real(kind=selected real kind(15)):: y15
    print *, 'Default:'
    print *, precision(x), range(x)
    print *, 'Real32:'
    print *, precision(x32), range(x32)
    print *, 'Real64:'
    print *, precision(x64), range(x64)
    print *, 'Real128:'
    print *, precision(x128), range(x128)
    print *,''
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 6:'
    print *, precision(y6), range(y6)
    print *, 'Selected Real Kind 15:'
    print *, precision(y15), range(y15)
end program realkinds
```

AINet

Kinds

- Similar constructs for integers
- selected int kind(N): kind can represent all N-digit decimal numbers.
- huge(N): largest positive number of that type

```
program integerkinds
    use iso_fortran_env
    implicit none
    integer :: i
    integer(kind=int8) :: i8
    integer(kind=int16) :: i16
    integer(kind=int32) :: i32
    integer(kind=int64) :: i64
    integer(kind=selected_int_kind(6)) :: j6
    integer(kind=selected_int_kind(15)):: j15
    print *, 'Default:'
    print *, huge(i)
    print *, 'Int8:'
    print *, huge(i8)
    print *, 'Int16:'
    print *, huge(i16)
    print *, 'Int32:'
    print *, huge(i32)
    print *, 'Int64:'
    print *, huge(i64)
    print *,"
    print *, 'Selected Integer Kind 6:'
    print *, huge(j6)
    print *, 'Selected Integer Kind 15:'
    print *, huge(j15)
```

end program integerkinds



Kinds

- Similar constructs for integers
- selected int kind(N): kind can represent all N-digit decimal numbers.
- huge(N): largest positive number of that type

```
$ ./intkinds
Default:
   2147483647
Int8:
   127
Int16:
   32767
Int32:
   2147483647
Int64:
   9223372036854775807

Selected Integer Kind 6:
   2147483647
Selected Integer Kind 15:
   9223372036854775807
```



Strings

- Character types are usually used for strings
- Specify length
- Padded by blanks
- Intrinsic trim() gets rid of blanks at end
- Can compare strings
 with <,>,==, etc.
- Concatenate with //

```
program strings
    implicit none
    character(len=20) :: hello
    character(len=20) :: world
    character(len=30) :: helloworld
    hello = "Hello"
    world = "World!"
    helloworld = trim(hello) // " " // trim(world)
    print *, helloworld
    if (hello < world) then
        print *, '<', hello, '> is smaller.'
        print *, '<', world, '> is larger.'
    endif
end program strings
$ ./strings
 Hello World!
 <Hello
                          > is smaller.
```



Strings

- Characters have kinds too
- gfortran has partial support for selected_char_kind("ISO_10646") for unicode strings.



Array declarations

- Array declarations have changed, too:
- dimension is now an attribute
- Can easily declare several arrays with same dimension



- Do loops syntax has had some changes
- do/enddo was a common extension, now standard.

```
program doi
         implicit none
         integer :: i
         do i=1,10
             print *, i, i**2, i**3
         enddo
end program doi
$ ./doi
                                    125
                                    216
                        49
                                    343
            8
                        64
                                    512
                                    729
           10
                       100
                                   1000
```



- All constructs now have end constructname to end.
- Named constructs
 (program, subroutine)
 require, eg, end program doi.
- Helps catch various simple errors (mismatched ends, etc.)

```
program doi
         implicit none
         integer :: i
         do i=1,10
             print *, i, i**2, i**3
         enddo
end program doi
$ ./doi
                                    125
                                    216
                                    343
                        64
                                    512
                                    729
          10
                                   1000
                       100
```



- Can name control structures like do, if statements now, too.
- Handy for documentation, or to distinguish deeply-nested loops.
- Again, can help catch mismatched loops.
- enddo or end do; fortran isn't picky about spaces.

```
program nameddo
     implicit none
     integer :: i, j
     outer: do i=1,3
          inner: do j=1,3
              print *, i, j, i*i+j*j
     end do outer
 end program nameddo
$ ./nameddo
                                    13
                                    10
                                    13
                                    18
```

samples/variables/doloops/nameddo.f90



- Do loops don't even need a i=1,n
- do/enddo
- Will loop forever
- Can control looping with cycle, exit
- exit exits loop. (exit loopname can exit out of nested loops)
- cycle jumps back to do

```
program cycleexit
    implicit none
    integer :: i
    do
        print *, 'Enter a number between 1-13'
        read *, i
        if (i>=1 .and. i<=13) exit
        print *, 'Wrong; try again.'
    enddo
    print *, 'Good; you entered ', i
    print *, "Let's play again."
        print *, 'Enter a number between 1-13'
        read *.
        if (i<1 .or. i>13) then
            print *, 'Wrong; try again.'
            cycle
        endif
        exit
    enddo
end program cycleexit
```

Cycle/exit

```
program cycleexit
    implicit none
    integer :: i
    do
        print *, 'Enter a number between 1-13'
        read *, i
        if (i>=1 .and. i<=13) exit
        print *, 'Wrong; try again.'
    enddo
    print *, 'Good; you entered ', i
    print *, "Let's play again."
    do
        print *, 'Enter a number between 1-13'
        read *, i
        if (i<1 .or. i>13) then
            print *, 'Wrong; try again.'
            cycle
        endif
        exit
    enddo
```

```
$ ./cycleexit
 Enter a number between 1-13
23
 Wrong; try again.
 Enter a number between 1-13
-1
 Wrong; try again.
 Enter a number between 1-13
12
                              12
 Good; you entered
 Let's play again.
 Enter a number between 1-13
111
Wrong; try again.
 Enter a number between 1-13
11
```

end program cycleexit



Do while

- do while repeats as long as precondition is true.
- Seems like it should be useful, but in practice, just do/enddo with exit condition is usually cleaner.

```
program dowhile
   implicit none
   integer :: i

i = -1
   do while (i < 1 .or. i > 13)
        print *, 'Enter a number between 1-13'
        read *, i
        if (i<1 .or. i>13) print *, 'Wrong; try again.'
   enddo

   print *, 'Good; you entered ', i

end program dowhile
```

samples/variables/doloops/dowhile.f90



Hands on #1

• In workedexample/f77 is a simplified, F77-ized version of a fluid-dynamics code from Ue-Li Pen, CITA, U of Toronto (http://www.cita.utoronto.ca/~pen/MHD/)

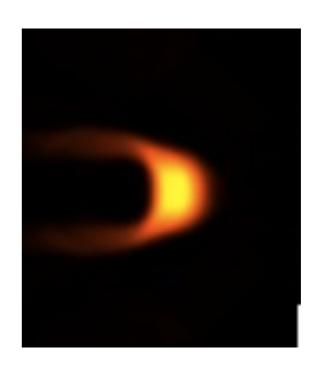
 Today we'll be translating it to a very modern Fortran

• ssh -Y in to login nodes, then to devel nodes, then compile (using make) and run (./hydro)



Hands on #1

• Outputs a .pbm file; use "display dens.pbm" to see the result of dense blob of fluid moving through a light medium.





Hands on #1

- In workedexamples/freeform, have partly converted the program to new freeform format, with enddos, ending procedures, implicit nones, and new variable declaration syntax.
- Finish doing so just need to do program hydro, subroutine color, subroutine outputpbm, function cfl. Fix indenting (Don't need to start at col 7 anymore).
- ~I hr (for getting logged in and everything working)





Procedures and modules

- Several enhancements to how procedures (functions, subroutines) are defined
- Modules are ways of organizing procedures, definitions, into sensible units for ease of code maintenance, clarity



Modules

- Easiest to show by example
- Here, the gravity module defines a constant, and contains a function
- Main program "use"s the module, has access to both.
- "Use" goes before "implicit none"

```
module gravity
    implicit none
    real, parameter :: G = 6.67e-11
                                        ! MKS units
contains
    real function gravforce(x1,x2,m1,m2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1,x2
        real, intent(in) :: m1, m2
        real :: dist
        dist = sqrt(sum((x1-x2)**2))
        gravforce = G * m1 * m2 / dist**2
    end function gravforce
end module gravity
program simplemod
    use gravity
    implicit none
    print *, 'Gravitational constant = ', G
    print *, 'Force between 2 1kg masses at [1,0,0] &
              &and [0,0,1] is'
    print *, gravforce([1.,0.,0.],[0.,0.,1.],1.,1.)
end program simplemod
```



Compiling & Running

- When compiling the code a gravity.mod file is created
- Machine-generated and readable "header" file containing detailed type, other information about contents of module
- Not compatible between different compilers, versions.

```
$ ls
simplemod.f90
$ gfortran -o simplemod simplemod.f90 -Wall
$ ls
gravity.mod simplemod simplemod.f90

$ ./simplemod
Gravitational constant = 6.6700000E-11
Force between 2 1kg masses at [1,0,0] and [0,0,1] is
3.3350003E-11
```



Modules

- function gravforce can "see" the modulewide parameter defined above.
- So can main program, through use statement.

```
module gravity
    implicit none
    real, parameter :: G = 6.67e-11 ! MKS units
contains
    real function gravforce(x1,x2,m1,m2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1,x2
        real, intent(in) :: m1, m2
        real :: dist
        dist = sqrt(sum((x1-x2)**2))
        gravforce = G * m1 * m2 / dist**2
    end function gravforce
end module gravity
program simplemod
    use gravity
    implicit none
    print *, 'Gravitational constant = ', G
    print *, 'Force between 2 1kg masses at [1,0,0] &
              &and [0,0,1] is'
    print *, gravforce([1.,0.,0.],[0.,0.,1.],1.,1.)
end program simplemod
```

U

use module, only:

- Best practice is to only pull in from the module what you need
- Otherwise, everything.
- Adds some clarity and documentation, good for maintainability

```
program simplemod2
    use gravity, only : G, gravforce
    implicit none

print *, 'Gravitational constant = ', G
    print *, 'Force between 2 1kg masses at [1,0,0] &
        &and [0,0,1] is'

print *, gravforce([1.,0.,0.],[0.,0.,1.],1.,1.)
end program simplemod2
```



Modules usually get their own files

- For encapsulation
- For ease of re-use
- Here's a slightly expanded module;
- Let's see how to compile it.
- (Main program hasn't changed much).

```
module gravity
    implicit none
    private
    character (len=8), parameter, public :: massunit="kilogram"
    character (len=8), parameter, public :: forceunit="Newton"
    public :: gravforce
    real, parameter :: G = 6.67e-11 ! MKS units
contains
    real function distance(x1,x2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1, x2
        distance = sqrt(sum((x1-x2)**2))
    end function distance
    real function gravforce(x1,x2,m1,m2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1,x2
        real, intent(in) :: m1, m2
        real :: dist
        dist = distance(x1,x2)
        gravforce = G * m1 * m2 / dist**2
    end function gravforce
end module gravity
```



Modules usually get their own files

- Compiling gravity.f90
 now gives both an .o
 file (containing the
 code) and the .mod
 file as before.
- Compiling the main program (multifilemod.f90) requires the .mod file.

```
FC=gfortran
FFLAGS=-03 -Wall

multifilemod: multifilemod.o gravity.o
    $(FC) -o $@ multifilemod.o gravity.o

%.mod: %.f90
    $(FC) $(FFLAGS) -c $<

multifilemod.o: multifilemod.f90 gravity.mod
    $(FC) $(FFLAGS) -c $<

clean:
    rm -f *.o *~ *.mod multifilemod</pre>
```



.mod needed for compilation

- ...because needs the type information of the constants,
- and type information, number and type of parameters, for the function call.
- Can't compile without these

```
program simplemod2
    use gravity, only : gravforce, massunit, forceunit
    implicit none

print *, 'Force between 2 1 ', massunit ,' masses ', &
        ' at [1,0,0] and [0,0,1] is'

print *, gravforce([1.,0.,0.],[0.,0.,1.],1.,1.), forceunit
end program simplemod2
```



.o needed for linking

- Linking, however, doesn't require the .mod file
- Only requires the .o file from the module code.
- .mod file analogous (but better than) .h files for C code.

```
FC=gfortran
FFLAGS=-03 -Wall

multifilemod: multifilemod.o gravity.o
    $(FC) -o $@ multifilemod.o gravity.o

%.mod: %.f90
    $(FC) $(FFLAGS) -c $<

multifilemod.o: multifilemod.f90 gravity.mod
    $(FC) $(FFLAGS) -c $<

clean:
    rm -f *.o *~ *.mod multifilemod</pre>
```



Compiling and running

```
$ make
gfortran -03 -Wall -c gravity.f90
gfortran -03 -Wall -c multifilemod.f90
gfortran -o multifilemod multifilemod.o gravity.o
$ ./multifilemod
Force between 2 1 kilogram masses at [1,0,0] and [0,0,1] is
3.3350003E-11 Newton
```

- So compile files with modules first, so those that need them have the .mod files
- Link the .o files



Private and public

- Not all of a module's content need be public
- Can give individual items public or private attribute
- "private" makes everything private by default
- Allows hiding implementation-specific routines

```
module gravity
    implicit none
    private
    character (len=8), parameter, public :: massunit="kilogram"
    character (len=8), parameter, public :: forceunit="Newton"
    public :: gravforce
    real, parameter :: G = 6.67e-11 ! MKS units
contains
    real function distance(x1,x2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1, x2
        distance = sqrt(sum((x1-x2)**2))
    end function distance
    real function gravforce(x1,x2,m1,m2)
        implicit none
        real, dimension(3), intent(in) :: x1,x2
        real, intent(in) :: m1, m2
        real :: dist
        dist = distance(x1,x2)
        gravforce = G * m1 * m2 / dist**2
    end function gravforce
end module gravity
```



Procedures

module procedures

- We've already seen procedures defined in new style; let's look more closely.
- Biggest change: intent attribute to "dummy variables" (eg, parameters passed in/ out).

```
contains
function square(x) result(xsquared)
      implicit none
      real :: xsquared
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      xsquared = x*x
end function square
function cube(x)
      implicit none
      real :: cube
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      cube = x*x*x
end function cube
subroutine squareAndCube(x, squarex, cubex)
      implicit none
      real, intent(in) :: x
      real, intent(out) :: squarex
      real, intent(out) :: cubex
      squarex = square(x)
      cubex = cube(x)
end subroutine squareAndCube
end module procedures
```



Procedures

module procedures

- contains
- Again, make expectations more explicit, compiler can catch errors, optimize.
- Intent(in) read only. Error to change.
- Intent(out) write only.
 Value undefined before set.
- Intent(inout) read/write.
 (eg, modify region of an array)
- Also documentation of a sort.

```
function square(x) result(xsquared)
      implicit none
      real :: xsquared
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      xsquared = x*x
end function square
function cube(x)
      implicit none
      real :: cube
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      cube = x*x*x
end function cube
subroutine squareAndCube(x, squarex, cubex)
      implicit none
      real, intent(in) :: x
real, intent(out) :: squarex
real, intent(out) :: cubex
      squarex = square(x)
      cubex = cube(x)
end subroutine squareAndCube
end module procedures
```



Functions

- Can be typed a couple of ways.
- Old-style still works (real function square..)
- Give a result variable different from function name; set that, type that result (xsquared) real :: xsquared
- Explicitly type the function name, set that as return value real :: cube
- Function values don't take intent

```
module procedures
contains
function square(x) result(xsquared)
      implicit none
      real :: xsquared
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      xsquared = x*x
end function square
function cube(x)
      implicit none
      real :: cube
      real, intent(IN) :: x
      cube = x*x*x
end function cube
subroutine squareAndCube(x, squarex, cubex)
      implicit none
      real, intent(in) :: x
      real, intent(out) :: squarex
      real, intent(out) :: cubex
      squarex = square(x)
      cubex = cube(x)
end subroutine squareAndCube
end module procedures
```

Procedure interfaces

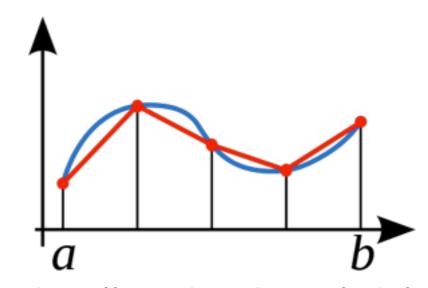
- The interface to a procedure consists of
 - A procedure's name
 - The arguments, their names, types and all attributes
 - For functions, the return value name and type
- Like a C prototype, but more detailed info
- mod files contain explicit interfaces to all public module procedures.

```
function square(x) result(xsquared)
      implicit none
      real :: xsquared
      real, intent(IN) :: x
end function square
function cube(x)
      implicit none
      real :: cube
      real, intent(IN) :: x
end function cube
subroutine squareAndCube(x, squarex, cubex)
      implicit none
      real, intent(in) :: x
      real, intent(out) :: squarex
      real, intent(out) :: cubex
end subroutine squareAndCube
```



Procedure interfaces

- To see where interfaces become necessary, consider this sketch of a routine to do trapezoid-rule integration
- We want to use a passed-in function f, but we don't know anything about it - type, # of arguments, etc.
- Need to "type" f the same way you do with xlo, xhi, n.
- You do that for procedures with interfaces



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ File:Trapezoidal_rule_illustration_small.svg

Procedure interfaces

- Define f as a parameter, give its type via an interface.
- Can then use it, and at compile time compiler ensures function passed in matches this interface.
- samples/procedures/interface/integrate.f90

```
function integratefx(xlo, xhi, f, n)
    ! integrate with trapezoid rule
    implicit none
    real, intent(in) :: xlo, xhi
    interface
        function f(x)
            implicit none
            real :: f
            real, intent(in) :: x
        end function f
    end interface
    integer, intent(in) :: n
    real :: integratefx
    integer :: i
    real :: dx, xleft, xright
    integratefx = 0.
    dx = (xhi-xlo)/n
    xleft = xlo
    do i=0, n-1
        xright = xleft + dx
        integratefx = integratefx + &
             dx*(f(xright)+f(xleft))/2.
        xleft = xright
    enddo
end function integratefx
```



Recursive procedures

- By default, Fortran procedures cannot call themselves (recursion)
- Can be enabled by giving the procedure the recursive attribute
- Subroutines, functions
- Recursive functions must use "result" keyword to return value.

```
recursive function integratefx(xlo, xhi, f, tol) &
          result(integral)
    ! integrate with trapezoid rule, simpsons rule;
    ! if difference between two is larger than
    ! relevant tolerance, subdivide region.
    ! ...typedefs as before...
    dx = xhi-xlo
    xmid = (xlo+xhi)/2.
    trapezoid = dx*(f(xlo)+f(xhi))/2.
    simpsons = dx/6.*(f(xlo)+4.*f(xmid)+f(xhi))
    error = abs(trapezoid-simpsons)/&
                (∅.5*(trapezoid+simpsons))
    if (error > tol) then
        ! too coarse; subdivide
        integral = integratefx(xlo,xmid,f,tol) + &
                   integratefx(xmid,xhi,f,tol)
    else
        integral = trapezoid
    endif
end function integratefx
```

samples/procedures/recursive/integrate.f90

Pure procedures

- Procedures are pure or impure depending on whether or not they have "side effects":
 - Changing things other than their dummy arguments
 - Modifying save variables
 - Modifying module data
 - Printing, etc.

```
pure subroutine axpy(a, x, y)
    ! y = y + a * x
    implicit none
    real, intent(IN) :: a, x
    real, intent(INOUT) :: y
    y = y + a * x
end subroutine axpy
subroutine printaxpy(a, x, y)
    ! y = y + a * x
    implicit none
    real, intent(IN) :: a, x
    real, intent(INOUT) :: y
    y = a*x + y
end subroutine printaxpy
samples/procedures/purity/purity.f90
```



Pure procedures

- Optimizations can be made for pure routines which can't for impure
- Label known-pure routines with the *pure* attribute.
- Almost all the procedures we've seen so far are pure.

```
pure subroutine axpy(a, x, y)
    ! y = y + a * x
   implicit none
   real, intent(IN) :: a, x
   real, intent(INOUT) :: y
   y = y + a * x
end subroutine axpy
subroutine printaxpy(a, x, y)
   ! y = y + a * x
   implicit none
   real, intent(IN) :: a, x
   real, intent(INOUT) :: y
   y = a*x + y
end subroutine printaxpy
```

samples/procedures/purity/purity.f90



Optional Arguments

- Can make arguments optional by using the optional attribute.
- Use present to test.
- Can't use tol if not present; have to use another variable.

```
recursive function integratefx(xlo, xhi, f, tol) &
                   result(integral)
    real, intent(in), optional :: tol
    ! use parameter if passed,
    ! else use default
    if (present(tol)) then
        errtol = tol
        errtol = 1.e-6
    endif
    if (error > errtol) then
        ! too coarse; subdivide
        integral = integratefx(xlo,xmid,f,errtol) +
                   integratefx(xmid,xhi,f,errtol)
    else
        integral = trapezoid
    endif
end function integratefx
```

samples/procedures/optional/integrate.f90



Optional Arguments

- When calling the procedure, can use the optional argument or not.
- Makes sense to leave optional arguments at end - easier to figure out what's what when it's omitted.

```
print *, 'Integrating using default tol'
approx = integratefx(0., 2*pi, sinesquared)
print *, 'Approximate integral = ', approx
print *, 'Exact integral = ', exact

print *, 'Integrating using coarser tol'
approx = integratefx(0., 2*pi, sinesquared, 0.01)
print *, 'Approximate integral = ', approx
```

samples/procedures/optional/optional.f90



Keyword Arguments

- To avoid ambiguity with omitted arguments - or really whenever you want - you can specify which value is which explicitly.
- Don't have to be in order.
- Can clarify calls of routines with many arguments.

samples/procedures/optional/optional.f90



Procedures & Modules Summary

- Modules let you bundle procedures, constants in useful packages.
- Can have public, private components
- Compiling them generates a .mod file (needed for compiling anything that does a "use modulename") and an .o file (where the code goes, needed to link together the program).



Procedures & Modules Summary

- New syntax for functions/subroutines: intent (IN/OUT/INOUT)
- New syntax for function return values; result or explicit typing of function in argument list.
- Procedures have interfaces, which are needed for (eg) passing functions
- Optional/keyword arguments
- Pure/recursive procedures



Hands on #2

- In workedexamples/modules, have have pulled the PBM stuff out into a module.
- Do the same with the hydro routines. What needs to be private? Public?
- The common block (thankfully) only contains constants, can make those module parameters
- ~30 min





Fortran arrays

- Fortran made for dealing with scientific data
- Arrays built into language
- The type information associated with an array includes rank (# of dimension), size, element type, stride..
- Enables powerful optimizations, programmer-friendly features.



Fortran arrays

- Can be manipulated like simple scalar variables
- Elementwise addition, multiplication..

```
program basicarrays
    implicit none
    integer, dimension(5) :: a, b, c
    integer :: i
    a = [1,2,3,4,5]
    b = [(2*i+1, i=1,5)]
    print *, 'a = ', a
    print *, 'b = ', b
    c = a+b
    print *, 'c = ', c
    c = a*b + 1
    print *, 'a*b+1=', c
end program basicarrays
```

samples/arrays/basic.f90



Array constructors

- Can have array constants like numerical constants
- use [] or (//), then comma-separated list of values.
- Implied do loops can be used in constructors
- (Variables have to be defined)

[1,2,3,4,5] or (/1,2,3,4,5/)

$$[(i,i=1,5)]$$

[
$$((i*j,j=1,3),i=1,5)$$
]



Elementwise operations

- Elementwise operations can be */+-, or application of an elemental function.
- Math intrinsics are all elemental - applied to array, applies to every element.
- Order of execution undefined - allows vectorization, parallelization.

```
program elementwise
    implicit none
    real, dimension(10) :: x,y,z
    integer :: i
    real, parameter:: pi = 4.*atan(1.)
    x = [(2*pi*(i-1)/9.,i=1,10)]
    y = \sin(x)
    z = x*x
    print *, x
    print *, y
    print *, z
end program elementwise
```

samples/arrays/elementwise.f90



Elemental Functions

- User can create their own elemental functions
- Label any scalar function with "elemental" should (until recently, must) be pure, so can be applied everywhere at same time.
- Faster than in loop.
- Can also take multiple arguments: eg z = addsquare(x,y)

```
program elementalfn
    implicit none
    real, dimension(10) :: x,y,z
    integer :: i
    real, parameter:: pi = 4.*atan(1.)
    x = [(2*pi*(i-1)/9., i=1, 10)]
    y = sinesquared(x)
    z = \sin(x) * \sin(x)
    print *, x
    print *, y
    print *, z
contains
    elemental function sinesquared(x)
    implicit none
    real :: sinesquared
    real, intent(in) :: x
    sinesquared = sin(x)**2
    end function sinesquared
end program elementalfn
```

samples/arrays/elemental.f90

Array comparisons

- Array comparisons return an array of logicals of the same size of the arrays.
- Can use any and all to see if any or all of those logicals are true.

```
program comparearrays
    implicit none
    integer, dimension(5) :: a, b
    integer :: i
    a = [1,2,3,4,5]
   b = [(2*i-3, i=1,5)]
    print *, 'A = ', a
   print *, 'B = ', b
   if (any(a > b)) then
        print *, 'An A is larger than a B'
   endif
   if (all(a > b)) then
        print *, 'All As ares larger than Bs'
    else if (all(b > a)) then
        print *, 'All Bs are larger than As'
   else
        print *, 'A, B values overlap'
    endif
end program comparearrays
```

samples/arrays/compare.f90



Array masks

- These logical arrays can be used to mask several operations
- Only do sums, mins, etc
 where the mask is true
- Eg, only pick out positive values.
- Many array intrinsics have this mask option

```
program mask
  implicit none
  integer, dimension(10) :: a
  logical, dimension(10) :: pos
  integer :: i

a = [(2*i-7, i=1,10)]
  pos = (a > 0)

print '(A,10(I4,1X))','A = ', a
  print *,'# of positive values: ', count(pos)
  print *,'Sum of positive values: ', sum(a,pos)
  print *,'Minimum positive value: ', minval(a,pos)
end program mask
```

```
A = -5 -3 -1 1 3 5 7 9 11 13

# of positive values: 7

Sum of positive values: 49

Minimum positive value: 1
```

samples/arrays/mask.f90



Where construct

- The where construct can be used to easily manipulate sections of array based on arbitrary comparisons.
- Where construct => for whatever indices the comparison is true, set values as follow; otherwise, set other values.

```
program wherearray
    implicit none
    real, dimension(6) :: a, diva

a = [(2*i-6, i=1,6)]
    where (a /= 0)
        diva = 1/a
    elsewhere
        diva = -999
    endwhere

print *, 'a = '
    print '(8(F8.3,1X))', a
    print *, '1/a = '
    print '(8(F8.3,1X))', diva

end program wherearray
```

samples/arrays/where.f90

```
$./where

a =

-4.000 -2.000 0.000 2.000 4.000 6.000

1/a =

-0.250 -0.500 -999.000 0.500 0.250 0.167
```



Forall construct

- Forall is an array assignment statement
- Each line in forall has to be independent. All done "at once" - no guarantees as to order
- If (say) 2 lines in the forall, all of the first line is done, then all of the second.
- Any functions called must be pure
- Can be vectorized or parallelized by compiler

```
program forallarray
   implicit none
   integer, dimension(6,6) :: a
   integer :: i,j

a = -999
   forall (i=1:6, j=1:6, i/=j)
        a(i,j) = i-j
   endforall

do i=1,6
    print '(6(I5,1X))',(a(i,j),j=1,6)
   enddo
end program forallarray
   samples/arrays/forall.f90
```

```
$ ./forall
-999 -1 -2 -3 -4 -5
1 -999 -1 -2 -3 -4
2 1 -999 -1 -2 -3
3 2 1 -999 -1 -2
4 3 2 1 -999 -1
5 4 3 2 1 -999
```



Array Sections

- Generalization of array indexing
- Familiar to users of Matlab, IDL, Python..
- Can use "slices" of an array using "index triplet"
 - [start]:[end][:step]
- Default start=I, default end=size, default step=I.
- Can be used for each index of multid array

```
a([start]:[end][:step])
a = [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
a(7:) == [7,8,9,10]
a(:3) == [1,2,3]
a(2:4) == [2,3,4]
a(::3) == [1,4,7,10]
a(2:4:2) == [2,4]
a(2) == 2
a(:) == [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```



Array Sections

- This sort of thing is very handy in numerical computation
- Replace do-loops with clearer, shorter, possibly vectorized array operations
- Bigger advantage for multidimensional arrays

```
program derivative
    implicit none
    real, dimension(10) :: x
    real, dimension(9) :: derivx
    integer :: i
    real, parameter:: pi = 4.*atan(1.), h=1.
    x = [(2*pi*(i-1)/9.,i=1,10)]
    derivx = ((x(2:10)-x(1:9))/h)
    print *, derivx
    do i=1,9
        derivx(i) = (x(i+1)-x(i))/h
    enddo
    print *, derivx
end program derivative
```

samples/arrays/derivative.f90



Array Sections

- The previous sorts of array sections - shifting things leftward and rightward - are so common there are intrinsics for them
- +ve shift shifts elements leftwards (or array bounds rightwards).
- cshift does circular shift shifting off the end of the array "wraps around".
- eoshift fills with zeros, or optional filling.
- Can work on given dimension

```
a = [1,2,3,4,5]

cshift(a,1) == [2,3,4,5,1]

cshift(a,-1) == [5,1,2,3,4]

eoshift(a,1) == [2,3,4,5,0]

eoshift(a,-1) == [0,1,2,3,4]
```



Other important array intrinsics

- minval/maxval finds min, max element in an array.
- minloc/maxloc finds location of min/max element
- product/sum returns product/sum of array elements
- reshape Adjusts shape of array data. Eg:

reshape(
$$[1,2,3,4,5,6]$$
, $[3,2]$) == 2,5 3,6



Linear algebra in Fortran

- Comes built in with transpose, matmul, dot_product for dealing with arrays.
- matmul also does matrix-vector multiplication
- Either use these or system-provided BLAS libraries never, ever write yourself.



Linear algebra in Fortran

```
program matvec
    implicit none
                                                                      17
    integer, dimension(4,5) :: a
                                                                      18
    integer, dimension(5,4) :: at
                                                                15
                                                                      19
    integer, dimension(4,4) :: aat
                                                                16
                                                                      20
    integer :: i
                                                1
    a = reshape([(i, i=1, 4*5)], [4, 5])
    at = transpose(a)
                                                                12
    print *, 'A = '
                                                     14
                                                          15
                                                                16
    call printmat(a)
    print *, 'A^T = '
                                                                20
                                                     18
                                                           19
                                              A \cdot A^T =
    call printmat(at)
                                                    610
                                              565
                                                         655
                                                               700
                                              610
                                                   660
                                                         710
                                                               760
    aat = matmul(a,at)
    print *, 'A . A^T = '
                                              655
                                                    710
                                                         765
                                                               820
    call printmat(aat)
                                              700
                                                   760
                                                         820
                                                               880
```

samples/arrays/matrix.f90



Array sizes and Assumed Shape

- Printmat routine here is interesting - don't pass (a,rows,cols), just a.
- Can assume a rank-2 array, and get size at runtime.
- Simplifies call, and eliminates possible inconsistency: what if rows, cols is wrong?
- size(array,dim) gets the size of array in the dim dimension.

```
subroutine printmat(a)
implicit none
integer, dimension(:,:) :: a
integer :: nr, nc, i, j

nr = size(a,1)
nc = size(a,2)
do i=1,nr
    print '(99(I4,1X))', (a(i,j),
enddo
end subroutine printmat

    samples/arrays/matrix.f90
```



Array sizes and Assumed Shape

- Assumed shape arrays (eg, dimension(:,:)) much better than older ways of passing arrays:

 integer nx, ny
 integer a(nx,ny)
 or worse,
- Information is thrown away, possibility of inconsistency.

integer a(*,ny)

 Here, (:,:) means we know the rank, but don't know the size yet.

```
subroutine printmat(a)
implicit none
integer, dimension(:,:) :: a
integer :: nr, nc, i, j

nr = size(a,1)
nc = size(a,2)
do i=1,nr
    print '(99(I4,1X))', (a(i,j),
enddo
end subroutine printmat

samples/arrays/matrix.f90
```



Allocatable Arrays

- So far, all our programs have had fixed-size arrays, set at compile time.
- To change problem size, have to edit code, recompile.
- Has some advantages (optimization, determinism) but very inflexible.
- Would like to be able to request memory at run time, make array of desired size.
- Allocatable arrays are arguably most important addition to Fortran.



Allocate(), Deallocate()

- Give array a deferred size (eg, dimension(:)) and the attribute allocatable.
- When time to allocate it, use allocate(a(n)).
- Deallocate with deallocate(a).
- In between, arrays can be used as any other array.

```
program allocarray
   implicit none
   integer :: i, n
   integer, dimension(:), allocatable :: a

   n = 10
   allocate(a(n))
   a = [(i, i=2,20,2)]

   print *,'A = '
   print *,a

   deallocate(a)
end program allocarray
```

samples/arrays/allocatable.f90



Allocate(), Deallocate()

- If allocation fails (not enough memory available for request), program will exit.
- Can control this by checking for an optional error code, allocate(a(n),stat=ierr)
- Can then test if ierr>0 (failure condition) and handle gracefully.
- In scientific programming, the default behaviour is often fine, if abrupt - you either have enough memory to run the problem, or you don't.



get_command_argument()

- Previous version still depended on a compiled-in number.
- Can read from file or from console, but Fortran now has standard way to get command-line arguments
- Get the count of arguments, and if there's at least one argument there, get it, read it as integer, and allocate array.

```
program allocarray2
    implicit none
    integer :: i, n
    integer, dimension(:), allocatable :: a
    character(len=30) :: arg
    if (command_argument_count() < 1) then</pre>
        print *,'Use: allocatable N, '//&
                 ' where N is array size.'
        stop
    endif
    call get_command_argument(1, arg)
    read( arg, '(I30)'), n
    print *, 'Allocating array of size ', n
    allocate(a(n))
    a = [(i, i=1, n)]
    print *, a
    deallocate(a)
end program allocarray2
```

samples/arrays/allocatable2.f90



get_command_argument()

```
program allocarray2
    implicit none
    integer :: i, n
    integer, dimension(:), allocatable :: a
    character(len=30) :: arg
    if (command_argument_count() < 1) then</pre>
        print *, 'Use: allocatable N, '//&
                 ' where N is array size.'
        stop
    endif
    call get_command_argument(1, arg)
    read( arg, '(I30)'), n
    print *,'Allocating array of size ', n
    allocate(a(n))
    a = [(i, i=1, n)]
    print *, a
    deallocate(a)
end program allocarray2
```

```
$ ./allocatable2
Use: allocatable N, where N is array size.

$ ./allocatable2 3
Allocating array of size 3
1 2 3

$ ./allocatable2 5
Allocating array of size 5
1 2 3 4 5
```

samples/arrays/allocatable2.f90



Hands on #3

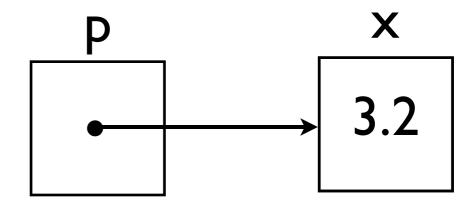
- Use array functionality to simplify hydro code
 don't need to pass, array size, and can simplify mathematics using array operations.
- In workedexamples/arrays, have modified hydro to allocate u, and pbm to just take array.
- Do the same with the fluid dynamic routines in solver.f90
- ~30 min





- Pointers, or references, refer to another variable.
- Eg, p does not contain a real value, but a reference to another real variable.
- Once associated with another variable, can read/write to it as if it were stored "in" p.

$$p => x$$





```
program simpleptr
    implicit none
    real, target :: x = 3.2
    real, pointer :: p
   p => x
   print *, ' p = ', p
   x = 5.3
   print *, ' p = ', p
   p = 17.9
   print *, ' x = ', x
   print *, 'Is p associated? ', &
        associated(p)
   p=>null()
   print *, 'Is p associated? ', &
        associated(p)
end program simpleptr
```

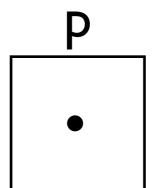
```
samples/pointers/ptr1.f90
```

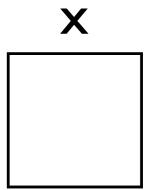
```
$ ./ptr1
p = 3.200000
p = 5.300000
x = 17.90000
Is p associated? T
Is p associated? F
```



- Pointers are either associated, null, or undefined; start out life undefined.
- Can associate them to a variable with => , or mark them as not associated with any valid variable by pointing it to null().

$$p => null()$$

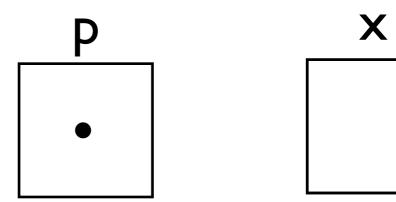






 Reading value from or writing value to a null pointer will cause errors, probably crash.

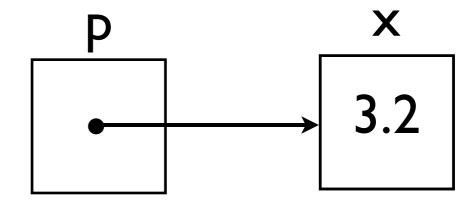
$$p => null()$$





- Fortran pointers can't point just anywhere.
- Must reference a variable with the same type, that has the target attribute.

$$p => x$$

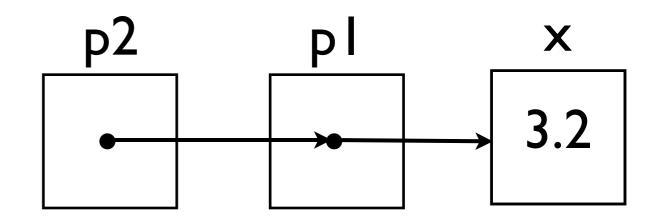




Fortran Pointers

- Pointers can reference other pointers.
- One must design algorithms carefully so that one doesn't deassociate pl and then access p2.

real, target :: x = 3.2 real, pointer:: p I, p2



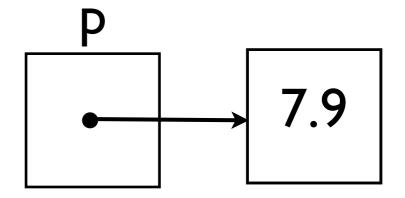


Allocating a pointer

- Pointer doesn't necessarily have to have another variable to target
- Can allocate memory for p to point to that does not belong to any other pointer.
- Must deallocate it when done

real, pointer:: p

allocate(p) p = 7.9





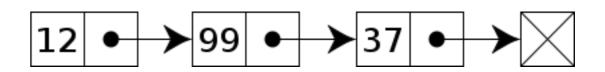
Allocating a Pointer

```
program allocptr
   implicit none
   real, pointer :: p
                                         ./ptr2
   allocate(p)
   p = 7.9
                                                   7.900000
   print *, ' p = ', p
                                       Is p associated?
   print *, 'Is p associated? ', &
                                            p associated?
       associated(p)
   deallocate(p)
   print *, 'Is p associated? ', &
       associated(p)
end program allocptr
    samples/pointers/ptr2.f90
```

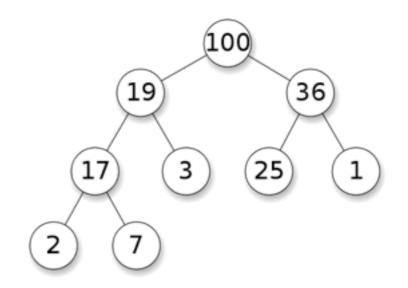


What are they good for? (1)

- Pointers are essential for creating, maintaining dynamic data structures
- Linked lists, trees, heaps...
- Some of these can be sort-of implemented in arrays, but very awkward
- Adaptive meshes, treebased particle solvers need these structures.



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Singly-linked-list.svg



http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Max-Heap.svg

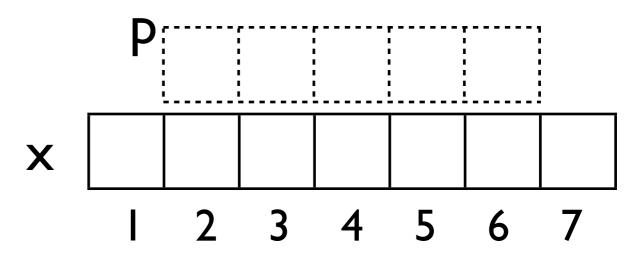


What are they good for? (2)

- A pointer can be of array type, not just scalar
- Fortran pointers +
 fortran arrays are quite
 interesting; can create
 "views" of subarrays

real, target, dimension(7) :: x real, pointer:: p(:)

$$p => x(2:6)$$





Array Views

```
program pointerviews
   implicit none
   integer, dimension(10), target :: alldata
   integer, dimension(:), pointer :: left
   integer, dimension(:), pointer :: centre
   integer, dimension(:), pointer :: right
   integer :: i

   alldata = (/ (i, i=1,10) /)

   left => alldata(1:8)
   right => alldata(3:10)
   centre=> alldata(2:9)

   print '(10(I3,1X))', alldata
   print '(4X,8(I3,1X))', (left - 2*centre + right)
end program pointerviews
```

samples/pointers/views.f90



Hands on #4

- Use pointers to provide views into subsets of the arrays in solver.f90 to clarify the functions.
- In workedexamples/pointers, have started the process with cfl, hydroflux; try tackling tvdld, others.
- ~30 min





Derived Types and Objects

- Often, groups of variables naturally go together to represent a larger structure
- Whenever you find yourself passing the same group of variables to several routines, a good candidate for a derived type.

```
type griddomain
  real :: xmin, xmax
  real :: ymin, ymax
  real :: nx, ny
  real, dimension(:,:) :: u
endtype griddomain
```

type(griddomain) :: g

$$g \% xmin = -1$$

 $g \% xmax = +1$



Derived Types and Objects

- Consider interval arithmetic (good for quantification of uncertainties, etc).
- An interval inherently has two values associated with it - the end points.
- Can make this a type.

```
program intervalmath
    implicit none
    type interval
        real :: lower, upper
    end type interval
    type(interval) :: a
    type(interval) :: b, c
    ! two ways of doing initialization
    a = interval(4.,5.)
    b % lower = 3.
    b % upper = 3.5
    ! do interval addition
    c % lower = a % lower + b % lower
    c % upper = a % upper + b % upper
    print *, c
    print *, '[', c%lower, &
               ',', c%upper, '].'
```

end program intervalmath

samples/derivedtypes/simple/intervalmath.f90



Derived Types and Objects

- Note can access the fields in the type with "%"
- typename
 (field I val, field 2 val..)
 initializes a value of that
 type.
- Can pass values of this type to functions, etc., just like a built-in type.

```
program intervalmath
    implicit none
    type interval
        real :: lower, upper
    end type interval
    type(interval) :: a
    type(interval) :: b, c
    ! two ways of doing initialization
    a = interval(4.,5.)
    b % lower = 3.
    b % upper = 3.5
    ! do interval addition
    c % lower = a % lower + b % lower
    c % upper = a % upper + b % upper
    print *, c
    print *, '[', c%lower, &
               ',', c%upper, '].'
```

end program intervalmath

samples/derivedtypes/simple/intervalmath.f90





Closing Hints

- Always give the compiler info it needs to help you by being as explicit as possible
 - implicit none, end [construct] [name], parameters for constants, intent in/out, use only, etc.
- Always get as much info from compiler as possible always use -Wall (gfortran) or -warn all (ifort).



Useful Resources

- http://fortranwiki.org/
 - Reference source; has all standards; Fortran2003/2008 status of major compilers
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fortran_language_features
 - Succinct summary of new features (spotty past F95)
- http://stackoverflow.com/questions/tagged/fortran
 - Programmers Questions & Answers

