

# Modern Fortran

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# Day 1: Introduction to Fortran Programming

On the first day, we will provide an introduction to the Fortran 90/95 Programming Language. Go to slide 3

# Day 2: Advanced Concepts in Fortran Programming

On the second day, we will cover advanced topics such as modules, derived types, interfaces, etc. Go to slide 101









# Part I

**Introduction to Fortran Programming** 









- Introduction
- 2 Basics
- Program Structure
- Input and Output
- Control Constructs
- **6** Exercise



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Modern Fortran



- Fortran is a general-purpose, imperative programming language that is especially suited to numeric computation and scientific computing.
- Originally developed by IBM for scientific and engineering applications.
- The name Fortran is derived from The IBM Mathematical Formula Translating System.
- It was one of the first widely used "high-level" languages, as well as the first programming language to be standardized.
- It is still the premier language for scientific and engineering computing applications.



Modern Fortran

## Many Flavors of Fortran



- FORTRAN first released by IBM in 1956
- FORTRAN II released by IBM in 1958
- FORTRAN IV released in 1962, standardized
- FORTRAN 66 appeared in 1966 as an ANSI standard
- FORTRAN 77 appeared in 1977, structured features
- Fortran 90 1992 ANSI standard, free form, modules
- Fortran 95 a few extensions
- Fortran 2003 object oriented programming
- Fortran 2008 a few extensions

The correct spelling of Fortran for 1992 ANSI standard and later (sometimes called Modern Fortran) is "Fortran". Older standards are spelled as "FORTRAN".





## Why Learn Fortran?



- Fortran was designed by, and for, people who wanted raw number crunching speed.
- There's a great deal of legacy code and numerical libraries written in Fortran.
- attempts to rewrite that code in a more "stylish" language result in programs that just don't run as fast.
- Fortran is the primary language for some of the most intensive supercomputing tasks, such as
  - astronomy,
  - weather and climate modeling,
  - numerical linear algebra and libraries,
  - computational engineering (fluid dynamics),
  - computational science (chemistry, biology, physics),
  - computational economics, etc.
- How many of you are handed down Fortran code that you are expected to further develop?





## Why learn Modern Fortran and not FORTRAN?



- FORTRAN is a fixed source format dating back to the use of punch cards.
- The coding style was very restrictive
  - Max 72 columns in a line with
  - first column reserved for comments indicated by a character such as c or \*,
  - the second through fifth columns reserved for statement labels,
  - the sixth column for continuation indicator, and
  - columns 7 through 72 for statements.
  - Variable names can consists of up to 6 alphanumeric characters (a-z,0-9)
- Cannot process arrays as a whole, need to do it element by element.
- Cannot allocate memory dynamically.







# SAXPY Code

```
program test
      integer n
      parameter (n=100)
      real alpha, x(n), y(n)
      alpha = 2.0
      do^{10} i = 1, n
         x(i) = 1.0
         v(i) = 2.0
 10
      continue
      call saxpy(n,alpha,x,y)
      return
      end
      subroutine saxpy(n, alpha, x, y)
      integer n
      real alpha, x(*), y(*)
c Saxpy: Compute y := alpha*x + y,
c where x and y are vectors of length n (at least).
      do 20 i = 1, n
         v(i) = alpha * x(i) + v(i)
 20
      continue
      return
      end
```





## Why Learn Modern Fortran?



- Free-format source code with a maximum of 132 characters per line.
- Variable names can consists of up to 31 alphanumeric characters (a-z,0-9) and underscores ( ),
- Dynamic memory allocation and Ability to operate on arrays (or array sections) as a whole,
- generic names for procedures, optional arguments, calls with keywords, and many other procedure call options,
- Recursive procedures and Operator overloading,
- Structured data or derived types,
- Object Oriented Programming.
- See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fortran# Obsolescence\_and\_deletions for obsolete and deleted FORTRAN 77 features in newer standards.









## **SAXPY Code**

```
program test
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: n = 100
 real :: alpha, x(n), y(n)
 alpha = 2.0
 x = 1.0
 v = 2.0
 call saxpy(n,alpha,x,y)
end program test
subroutine saxpy(n, alpha, x, y)
 implicit none
 integer :: n
 real :: alpha, x(*), y(*)
! Saxpy: Compute y := alpha*x + y,
 where x and y are vectors of length n (at least).
 v(1:n) = alpha*x(1:n) + v(1:n)
end subroutine saxpy
```



- No standard libraries: No specific libraries have to be loaded explicitly for I/O and math.
- Implicit type declaration: In Fortran, variables of type real and integer may be declared implicitly, based on their first letter. *This behaviour is not recommended in Modern Fortran*.
- Arrays vs Pointers: Multi-dimension arrays are supported (arrays in C are one-dimensional) and therefore no vector or array of pointers to rows of a matrices have to be constructed.
- Call by reference: Parameters in function and subroutine calls are all passed by reference. When a variable from the parameter list is manipulated, the data stored at that address is changed, not the address itself. Therefore there is no reason for referencing and de-referencing of addresses (as commonly seen in C).





### Fortran Source Code I



- Fortran source code is in ASCII text and can be written in any plain-text editor such as vi, emacs, etc.
- For readability and visualization use a text editor capable of syntax highlighting and source code indentation.
- Fortran source code is case insensitive i.e. PROGRAM is the same as Program.
- Using mixed case for statements and variables is not considered a good programming practice. Be considerate to your collaborators who will be modifying the code.
- Some Programmers use uppercase letters for Fortran keywords with rest of the code in lowercase while others (like me) only use lower case letters.
- Use whatever convention you are comfortable with and be consistent throughout.





#### Fortran Source Code II



The general structure of a Fortran program is as follows

#### PROGRAM name

#### IMPLICIT NONE

```
[specification part]
[execution part]
[subprogram part]
```

#### END PROGRAM name

- A Fortran program starts with the keyword PROGRAM followed by program name,
- ② This is followed by the **IMPLICIT NONE** statement (avoid use of implicit type declaration in Fortran 90),
- Followed by specification statements for various type declarations,
- Followed by the actual execution statements for the program,
- Any optional subprogram, and lastly
- The END PROGRAM statement





### Fortran Source Code III



- A Fortran program consists of one or more program units.
  - PROGRAM
  - SUBROUTINE
  - FUNCTION
  - MODULE
- The unit containing the **PROGRAM** attribute is often called the *main* program or main.
- The main program should begin with the PROGRAM keyword. This is however not required, but it's use if highly recommended.
- A Fortran program should contain only one main program i.e. one PROGRAM keyword and can contain one or more subprogram units such as SUBROUTINE, FUNCTION and MODULE.
- Every program unit, must end with a END keyword.







- Any program needs to be able to read input and write output to be useful and portable.
- In Fortran, the print command provides the most simple form of writing to standard output while,
- the read command provides the most simple form of reading input from standard input

```
print *, <var1> [, <var2> [, ... ]]
```

- read \*, <var1> [, <var2> [, ...]]
- The \* indicates that the format of data read/written is unformatted.
- In later sections, we will cover how to read/write formatted data and file operations.
- variables to be read or written should be separated by a comma (,).







 Open a text editor and create a file helloworld.f90 containing the following lines

```
program hello
  print *, 'Hello World!'
end program hello
```

- The standard extension for Fortran source files is .f90, i.e., the source files are named <name>.f90.
- The .f extension implies fixed format source or FORTRAN 77 code.

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## Compiling Fortran Code



- To execute a Fortran program, you need to compile it to obtain an executable.
- Almost all \*NIX system come with GCC compiler installed. You might need to install the Fortran (gfortran) compiler if its not present.
- Command to compile a fortran program

```
<compiler> [flags] [-o executable] <source code>
```

• The [...] is optional. If you do not specify an executable, then the default executable is a . out

```
altair:Exercise apacheco$ gfortran helloworld.f90
altair:Exercise apacheco$ ./a.out
Hello World!
```

• Other compilers available on our clusters are Intel (ifort), Portland Group (pgf90) and IBM XL (xlf90) compilers.

ifort -o helloworld helloworld.f90; ./helloworld







- To improve readability of the code, comments should be used liberally.
- A comment is identified by an exclamation mark or bang (!), except in a character string.
- All characters after ! upto the end of line is a comment.
- Comments can be inline and should not have any Fortran statements following it

```
program hello
! A simple Hello World code
 print *, 'Hello World!' ! Print Hello World to screen
! This is an incorrect comment if you want Hello World to print
    to screen ! print *, 'Hello World!'
end program hello
```







- Variables are the fundamental building blocks of any program.
- In Fortran, a variable name may consist of up to 31 alphanumeric characters and underscores, of which the first character must be a letter.
- There are no reserved words in Fortran.
- However, names must begin with a letter and should not contain a space.
- Allowed names: a, compute\_force, qed123
- Invalid names: 1a, a thing, \$sign







# Variable Types

• Fortran provides five intrinsic data types

INTEGER: exact whole numbers **REAL**: real, fractional numbers

**COMPLEX**: complex, fractional numbers

LOGICAL: boolean values

**CHARACTER:** strings

- and allows users to define additional types.
- The REAL type is a single-precision floating-point number.
- The COMPLEX type consists of two reals (most compilers also provide a DOUBLE COMPLEX type).
- FORTRAN also provides DOUBLE PRECISION data type for double precision REAL. This is obsolete but is still found in several programs.







# **Explicit and Implicit Typing**

• For historical reasons, Fortran is capable of implicit typing of variables.

$$\underbrace{ABCDEFGH}_{REAL} \underbrace{IJKLMN}_{OPQRSTUVWXYZ} \underbrace{OPQRSTUVWXYZ}_{REAL}$$

- You might come across old FORTRAN program containing
   IMPLICIT REAL\*8 (a-h, o-z) or
   IMPLICIT DOUBLE PRECISION (a-h, o-z).
- It is highly recommended to explicitly declare all variable and avoid implict typing using the statement IMPLICIT NONE.
- The IMPLICIT statement must precede all variable declarations.







- Constants are literal representation of a type that are specified by a programmer.
- In Fortran, different constant formats are required for each type.

## Integer

- Integers are specified by a number without a decimal point,
- may contain an optional sign, and
- not contain commas
- Example

137

-5678

900123







#### Real

- Reals (single precision) may be specified by adding a decimal point, or by using scientific notation with the letter *e* indicating the exponent.
- Examples

```
19.
3.14159
6.023e23
```

- Double precision constants must be specified in the expontent notation with the letter *d* indicating the exponent
- Examples

```
23d0
6.626d-34
-3.14159d0
```





### Complex

- Complex constants consist of two single-precision constants enclosed in parenthesis.
- The first constant is the real part; the second is the imaginary part.
- Example

```
(1.0, 0.0)
(-2.7e4.5.0)
```

• For systems that support double precision complex, the floating point constants must use the *d* notation.

$$(-2.7d-4, 5.d0)$$

### Logical

• Logical constants can take only the value .True. or .FALSE. with the periods part of the constant.







#### Character

- Character constants are specified by enclosing them in single quotes.
- Example

```
'This is a character constant'
'The value of pi is 3.1415'
```

 If an apostrophe is to be part of the constant, it should be represented by a double quote

```
'All the world''s a stage'
```







- Variables must be declared before they can be used.
- In Fortran, variable declarations must precede all executable statements.
- To declare a variable, preface its name by its type.

TYPE Variable

• A double colon may follow the type.

TYPE[, attributes] :: Variable

- This is the new form and is recommended for all declarations. If attributes need to be added to the type, the double colon format must be used.
- A variable can be assigned a value at its declaration.







## • Numeric Variables:

```
INTEGER :: i, j = 2
REAL :: a, b = 4.d0
COMPLEX :: x, y
```

- In the above examples, the value of j and b are set at compile time and can be changed later.
- If you want the assigned value to be constant that cannot change subsequently, add the attribute **PARAMETER**

```
INTEGER, PARAMETER :: 1 = 2
REAL, PARAMETER :: pi = 3.14159265
COMPLEX, PARAMETER :: ci = (0.d0, 1.d0)
```

• Logical: Logical variables are declared with the LOGICAL keyword

```
LOGICAL :: 1, flag=.true.
```







- **Character:** Character variables are declared with the **CHARACTER** type; the length is supplied via the keyword **LEN**.
- The length is the maximum number of characters (including space) that will be stored in the character variable.
- If the LEN keyword is not specified, then by default LEN=1 and only the first character is saved in memory.

```
CHARACTER :: ans = 'yes' ! stored as y not yes CHARACTER(LEN=10) :: a
```

• FORTRAN programmers: avoid the use of CHARACTER\*10 notation.





## Array Variables



- Arrays (or matrices) hold a collection of different values at the same time.
- Individual elements are accessed by subscripting the array.
- Arrays are declared by adding the DIMENSION attribute to the variable type declaration which can be integer, real, complex or character.
- Usage: TYPE, DIMENSION (lbound: ubound):: variable\_name
  Lower bounds of one can be omitted

```
INTEGER, DIMENSION(1:106) :: atomic_number
REAL, DIMENSION(3, 0:5, -10:10) :: values
CHARACTER(LEN=3), DIMENSION(12) :: months
```

- In Fortran, arrays can have upto seven dimension.
- In contrast to C/C++, Fortran arrays are column major.
- We'll discuss arrays in more details in the Advanced Concepts Tutorials.





#### DATA Statments



- In FORTRAN, a DATA statement may be used to initialize a variable or group of variables.
- It causes the compiler to load the initial values into the variables at compile time i.e. a nonexecutable statment
- General form

```
DATA varlist /varlist/ [, varlist /varlist/]
Example DATA a,b,c /1.,2.,3./
```

- DATA statements can be used in Fortran but it is recommended to to eliminate this statement by initializing variables in their declarations.
- In Fortran 2003, variables may be initialized with intrinsic functions (some compilers enable this in Fortran 95)

```
REAL, PARAMETER :: pi = 4.0*atan(1.0)
```





### KIND Parameter I



- In FORTRAN, types could be specified with the number of bytes to be used for storing the value:
  - real \*4 uses 4 bytes, roughly  $\pm 10^{-38}$  to  $\pm 10^{38}$ .
  - real \*8 uses 8 bytes, roughly  $\pm 10^{-308}$  to  $\pm 10^{308}$ .
  - complex \* 16 uses 16 bytes, which is two real \* 8 numbers.
- Fortran 90 introduced kind parameters to parameterize the selection of different possible machine representations for each intrinsic data types.
- The kind parameter is an integer which is processor dependent.
- There are only 2(3) kinds of reals: 4-byte, 8-byte (and 16-byte), respectively known as single, double (and quadruple) precision.
- The corresponding kind numbers are 4, 8 and 16 (most compilers)







KIND	Size (Bytes)	Data Type
1	1	integer, logical, character (default)
2	2	integer, logical
$4^a$	4	integer, real, logical, complex
8	8	integer, real, logical, complex
16	16	real, complex

adefault for all data types except character

- You might come across FORTRAN codes with variable declarations using integer\*4, real\*8 and complex\*16 corresponding to kind=4 (integer) and kind=8 (real and complex).
- The value of the kind parameter is usually not the number of decimal digits of precision or range; on many systems, it is the number of bytes used to represent the value.





## KIND Parameter III



- The intrinsic functions selected\_int\_kind and selected\_real\_kind may be used to select an appropriate kind for a variable or named constant.
- selected\_int\_kind(R) returns the kind value of the smallest integer type that can represent all values ranging from  $-10^R$  (exclusive) to  $10^R$  (exclusive)
- selected\_real\_kind(P,R) returns the kind value of a real data type with decimal precision of at least P digits, exponent range of at least R. At least one of P and R must be specified, default R is 308.





#### KIND Parameter IV



```
program kind_function
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: dp = selected real kind(15)
  integer,parameter :: ip = selected int kind(15)
 integer(kind=4) :: i
 integer(kind=8) :: j
 integer(ip) :: k
 real(kind=4) :: a
  real(kind=8) :: b
 real(dp) :: c
 print '(a,i2,a,i4)', 'Kind of i = ',kind(i), ' with range =', range(i)
 print '(a,i2,a,i4)', 'Kind of j = ', kind(j), ' with range =', range(j)
 print (a, i2, a, i4)', 'Kind of k = ', kind (k), ' with range =', range (k)
 print '(a, i2, a, i2, a, i4)', 'Kind of real a = ', kind(a), &
       with precision = ', precision(a),&
       ' and range =', range(a)
 print '(a,i2,a,i2,a,i4)', 'Kind of real b = ', kind(b), &
       with precision = ', precision(b),&
       ' and range =', range(b)
 print '(a,i2,a,i2,a,i4)', 'Kind of real c = ',kind(c),&
       / with precision = ', precision(c),&
       ' and range =', range(c)
 print *, huge(i),kind(i)
 print *, huge(j),kind(j)
 print *, huge(k),kind(k)
end program kind function
```





#### KIND Parameter V



```
[apacheco@qb4 Exercise] ./Kindfns
Kind of i = 4 with range = 9
Kind of j = 8 with range = 18
Kind of k = 8 with range = 18
Kind of real a = 4 with precision = 6 and range = 37
Kind of real b = 8 with precision = 15 and range = 307
Kind of real c = 8 with precision = 15 and range = 307
```



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# Fortran defines a number of operations on each data type.

### Arithmetic Operators

+ : addition

- : subtraction

\* : multiplication

/ : division

\*\* : exponentiation

### Logical Expressions

.AND. intersection

OR union

.NOT. negation

.EQV. logical equivalence

.NEQV. exclusive or

#### Relational Operators (FORTRAN versions)

== : equal to (.eq.)

/= : not equal to (.ne.)

< : less than (.lt.)

<= : less than or equal to (.le.)

> : greater than (.gt.)

>= : greater than or equal to (.ge.)

#### **Character Operators**

// : concatenation







- In Fortran, all operator evaluations on variables is carried out from left-to-right.
- Arithmetic operators have a highest precedence while logical operators have the lowest precedence
- The order of operator precedence can be changed using parenthesis, '(' and ')'
- In Fortran, a user can define his/her own operators.
- User defined monadic operator has a higher precedence than arithmetic operators, while
- dyadic operators has a lowest precedence than logical operators.



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### Operator Precedence

Operator	Precedence	Example
expression in ()	Highest	(a+b)
user-defined monadic	-	.inverse.a
**	-	10**4
* or /	-	10*20
monadic + or -	-	-5
dyadic + or -	-	1+5
//	-	str1//str2
relational operators	-	a > b
.not.	-	.not.allocated(a)
.and.	-	a.and.b
.or.	-	a.or.b
.eqv. or .neqv.	-	a.eqv.b
user defined dyadic	Lowest	x.dot.y







- An expression is a combination of one or more operands, zero or more operators, and zero or more pairs of parentheses.
- There are three kinds of expressions:
  - An arithmetic expression evaluates to a single arithmetic value.
  - A character expression evaluates to a single value of type character.
  - A logical or relational expression evaluates to a single logical value.
- Examples:

```
x + 1.0

97.4d0

sin(y)

x*aimag(cos(z+w))

a .and. b

'AB' // 'wxy'
```





### Statements I



- A statement is a complete instruction.
- Statements may be classified into two types: executable and non-executable.
- Non-executable statements are those that the compiler uses to determine various fixed parameters such as module use statements, variable declarations, function interfaces, and data loaded at compile time.
- Executable statements are those which are executed at runtime.
- A statements is normally terminated by the end-of-line marker.
- If a statement is too long, it may be continued by the ending the line with an ampersand (&).





#### Statements II



- Max number of characters (including spaces) in a line is 132 though it's standard practice to have a line with up to 80 characters. This makes it easier for file editors to display code or print code on paper for reading.
- Multiple statements can be written on the same line provided the statements are separated by a semicolon.
- Examples:

```
force = 0d0 ; pener = 0d0
do k = 1, 3
   r(k) = coord(i,k) - coord(j,k)
```

- Assignment statements assign an expression to a quantity using the equals sign (=)
- The left hand side of the assignment statement must contain a single variable.
- x + 1.0 = y is not a valid assignment statement.





- Fortran provide a large set of intrinsic functions to implement a wide range of mathematical operations.
- In FORTRAN code, you may come across intrinsic functions which are prefixed with i for integer variables, d for double precision, c for complex single precision and cd for complex double precision variables.
- In Modern Fortran, these functions are overloaded, i.e. they can carry out different operations depending on the data type.
- For example: the abs function equates to  $\sqrt{a^2}$  for integer and real numbers and  $\sqrt{\Re^2 + \Im^2}$  for complex numbers.



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#### Arithmetic Functions



Function	Action	Example
INT	conversion to integer	J=INT(X)
REAL	conversion to real	X=REAL(J)
KEAL	return real part of complex number	X=REAL(Z)
$DBLE^a$	convert to double precision	X=DBLE(J)
CMPLX	conversion to complex	A=CMPLX(X[,Y])
AIMAG	return imaginary part of complex number	Y=AIMAG(Z)
ABS	absolute value	Y=ABS(X)
MOD	remainder when I divided by J	K=MOD(I,J)
CEILING	smallest integer $\geq$ to argument	I=CEILING(a)
FLOOR	largest integer $\leq$ to argument	I=FLOOR(a)
MAX	maximum of list of arguments	A=MAX(C,D)
MIN	minimum of list of arguments	A=MIN(C,D)
SQRT	square root	Y=SQRT(X)
EXP	exponentiation	Y=EXP(X)
LOG	natural logarithm	Y=LOG(X)
LOG10	logarithm to base 10	Y = LOG10(X)

ause real(x,kind=8) instead



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# Trignometric Functions



Function	Action	Example
SIN	sine	X=SIN(Y)
COS	cosine	X=COS(Y)
TAN	tangent	X=TAN(Y)
ASIN	arcsine	X=ASIN(Y)
ACOS	arccosine	X=ACOS(Y)
ATAN	arctangent	X=ATAN(Y)
ATAN2	arctangent(a/b)	X=ATAN2(A,B)
SINH	hyperbolic sine	X=SINH(Y)
COSH	hyperbolic cosine	X=COSH(Y)
TANH	hyperbolic tangent	X=TANH(Y)

hyperbolic functions are not defined for complex argument

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#### **Character Functions**



len(c)	length
len_trim(c)	length of c if it were trimmed
lge(s1,s2)	returns .true. if s1 follows or is equal to s2 in lexical order
lgt(s1,s2)	returns .true. if s1 follows s1 in lexical order
lle(s1,s2)	returns .true. if s2 follows or is equal to s1 in lexical order
llt(s1,s2)	returns .true. if s2 follows s1 in lexical order
adjustl(s)	returns string with leading blanks removed and
	same number of trailing blanks added
- 4:(-)	returns string with trailing blanks removed and
adjustr(s)	same number of leading blanks added
repeat(s,n)	concatenates string s to itself n times
scan(s,c)	returns the integer starting position of string c within string s
trim(c)	trim trailing blanks from c

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## **Array Intrinsic Functions**



- size(x[,n]) The size of x (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)
- sum(x[,n]) The sum of all elements of x (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)  $sum(x) = \sum_{i,j,k,...} x_{i,j,k,...}$
- $\operatorname{product}(\mathbf{x}[,\mathbf{n}])$  The product of all elements of  $\mathbf{x}$  (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)
- $prod(x) = \prod_{i,j,k,\dots} x_{i,j,k,\dots}$ 
  - transpose(x) Transpose of array x:  $x_{i,j} \Rightarrow x_{j,i}$
- dot\_product(x,y) Dot Product of arrays x and y:  $\sum_i x_i * y_i$ 
  - matmul(x,y) Matrix Multiplication of arrays x and y which can be 1 or 2 dimensional arrays:  $z_{i,j} = \sum_k x_{i,k} * y_{k,j}$ 
    - conjg(x) Returns the conjugate of x:  $a + ib \Rightarrow a ib$







```
PROGRAM program-name
IMPLICIT NONE
[specification part]
[execution part]
[subprogram part]
END PROGRAM program-name
```

- All Fortran statements are case insensitive.
- Most programmers use lower case letters with upper case letters reserved for program keywords.
- Are you a FORTRAN 77 or older programmer?
  - Use the IMPLICIT NONE statement, avoid implicit real\*8 (a-h, o-z) statement. Get in the habit of declaring all variables.







- Write a simple program that
  - Onverts temperature from celsius to fahrenheit
  - Converts temperature from fahrenheit to celsius

```
altair: Exercise apacheco$ gfortran simple.f90
program temp
                                        altair: Exercise apacheco$ ./a.out
  implicit none
                                         10C =
                                                  42.0000000
  real :: tempC, tempF
                                         40F =
                                                  0.00000000
  ! Convert 10C to fahrenheit
  tempF = 9 / 5 * 10 + 32
  ! Convert 40F to celsius
  tempC = 5 / 9 * (40 - 32)
  print *, '10C = ', tempF, 'F'
  print *, '40F = ', tempC, 'C'
end program temp
```

• So what went wrong? 10C = 50F and 40F = 4.4C





- In computer programming, operations on variables and constants return a result of the same type.
- In the temperature code, 9/5 = 1 and 5/9 = 0. Division between integers is an integer with the fractional part truncated.
- In the case of operations between mixed variable types, the variable with lower rank is promoted to the highest rank type.

Variable 1	Variable 2	Result
Integer	Real	Real
Integer	Complex	Complex
Real	Double Precision	Double Precision
Real	Complex	Complex





 As a programmer, you need to make sure that the expressions take type conversion into account

```
program temp
    implicit none
    real :: tempC, tempF

! Convert 10C to fahrenhiet

tempF = 9. / 5. * 10 + 32
! Convert 40F to celsius

tempC = 5. / 9. * (40 - 32 )

print *, '10C = ', tempF, 'F'
print *, '40F = ', tempC, 'C'
end program temp

altair:Exercise apacheco$ gfortran temp.f90
altair:Exercise apacheco$ ./a.out
10C = 50.0000000 F
40F = 4.44444466 C

**Convert 10C to fahrenhiet

tempF = 9. / 5. * 10 + 32

! Convert 40F to celsius

tempC = 5. / 9. * (40 - 32 )

print *, '10C = ', tempF, 'F'
print *, '40F = ', tempC, 'C'
end program temp
```

- The above example is not a good programming practice.
- 10, 40 and 32 should be written as real numbers (10., 40. and 32.) to stay consistent.







- Input and output are accomplished by operations on files.
- Files are identified by some form of file handle, in Fortran called the **unit number**.
- We have already encountered read and write command such as print \*, and read \*,
- Alternative commands for read and write are

```
read(unit,*)
write(unit,*)
```

- There is no comma after the ')'. FORTRAN allowed statements
  of the form write (unit,\*), which is not supported on some
  compilers such as IBM XLF. Please avoid this notation in
  FORTRAN programs.
- The default unit number 5 is associated with the standard input, and







- unit number 6 is assigned to standard output.
- You can replace unit with \* in which case standard input (5) and output (6) file descriptors are used.
- The second \* in read/write or the one in the print \*/read \* corresponds to unformatted input/output.
- If I/O is formatted, then  $\star$  is replaced with

```
fmt=<format specifier>
```



Modern Fortran

# File Operations I



• A file may be opened with the statement

```
OPEN([UNIT=]un, FILE=fname [, options])
```

• Commonly used options for the open statement are:

**IOSTAT**=ios: This option returns an integer ios; its value is zero if the statement executed without error, and nonzero if an error occured.

ERR=label: label is the label of a statement in the same program unit. In the event of an error, execution is transferred to this labelled statement.

**STATUS**=istat: This option indicates the type of file to be opened. Possible values are:

old: the file specified by the file parameter must exist.

new: the file will be created and must not exist.





# File Operations II



replace: the file will be created if it does not exist or if it exists, the file will be deleted and created i.e. contents overwritten.

unknown: the file will be created if it doesn't exist or opened if it exists without further processing.

scratch: file will exist until the termination of the executing program or until a close is executed on that unit.

position=todo: This options specifies the position where the read/write marker should be placed when opened. Possible values are:

rewind: positions the file at its initial point. Convenient for rereading data from file such as input parameters.

append: positions the file just before the endfile record. Convenient while writing to a file that already exists. If the file is new, then the position is at its initial point.







• The status of a file may be tested at any point in a program by means of the INQUIRE statement.

```
INQUIRE([UNIT=]un, options)
```

### OR

```
INQUIRE (FILE=fname, options)
```

• At least one option must be specified. Options include

**IOSTAT**=ios: Same use as open statement.

**EXIST**=lex: Returns whether the file exists in the logical variable

**OPENED**=Iop: Returns whether the file is open in the logical variable Iop

NUMBER=num: Returns the unit number associated with the file, or -1 if no number is assigned to it. Generally used with the second form of the INQUIRE statement.





# File Operations IV



NAMED=isnamed: Returns whether the file has a name. Generally used with the first form of the **INOUIRE** statement.

**NAME**=fname: Returns the name of the file in the character variable fname. Used in conjunction with the NAMED option.

**READ**=rd: Returns a string YES, NO, or UNKNOWN to the character variable rd depending on whether the file is readable. If status cannot be determined, it returns UNKNOWN.

**WRITE**=wrt: Similar to the **READ** option to test if a file is writable.

**READWRITE**=rdwrt: Similar to the **READ** option to test if a file is both readable and writeable.







• A file may be closed with the statement

```
CLOSE([UNIT=]un [, options])
```

• Commonly used options for the close statement are:

**IOSTAT**=ios: Same use as open statement.

**ERR**=label: Same use as open statement.

**STATUS**=todo: What actions needs to be performed on the file while closing it. Possible values are

keep: file will continue to exist after the close statement, default option except for scratch files.

delete: file will cease to exist after the close statement, default option for scratch files.





# Reading and Writing Data I



- The WRITE statement is used to write to a file.
- Syntax for writing a list of variable, varlist, to a file associated with unit number un

WRITE (un, options) varlist

• The most common options for write are:

**FMT**=label A format statement label specifier.

You can also specify the exact format to write the data to be discussed in a few slides.

**IOSTAT**=ios Returns an integer indicating success or failure; zero if statement executed with no erros and nonzero if an error occured.

**ERR**=label The label is a statement label to which the program should jump if an error occurs.







- The **READ** statement is used to read from a file.
- Syntax for reading a list of variable, varlist, to a file associated with unit number up

```
READ (un, options) varlist
```

- Options to the READ statement are the same as that of the WRITE statement with one additional option,
  - **END**=label The label is a statement label to which the program should jump if the end of file is detected.



Modern Fortran

### List-Directed I/O I



- The simplest method of getting data into and out of a program is list-directed I/O.
- The data is read or written as a stream into or from specified variables either from standard input or output or from a file.
- The unit number associate with standard input is 5 while standard output is 6.
- If data is read/written from/to standard input/output, then
  - the unit number, un can also be replaced with \*,
  - use alternate form for reading and writing i.e. the read \*, and print \*, covered in an earlier slide.
  - If data is unformatted i.e. plain ASCII characters, the option to write and read command is \*
- Example of list-directed output to standard output or to a file associated with unit number 8







```
print *, a, b, c, arr
write(*,*) a, b, arr
write(6,*) a, b, c, arr
write(8,*) a, b, c, &
    arr
```

- Unlike C/C++, Fortran always writes an end-of-line marker at the end of the list of item for any print or write statements.
- Printing a long line with many variables may thus require continuations.
- Example of list-directed input from standard output or to a file associated with unit number 8

```
read *, a, b, c, arr
read(*,*) a, b, c, arr
read(5,*) a, b, c, arr
read(8,*) a, b, c, arr
```







- When reading from standard input, the program will wait for a response from the console.
- Unless explicitly told to do so, no prompts to enter data will be printed. Very often programmers use a print statement to let you know that a response is expected.

```
print *, 'Please enter a value for the variable inp'
read *, inp
```







- List-directed I/O does not always print the results in a particularly readable form.
- For example, a long list of variable printed to a file or console may be broken up into multiple lines.
- In such cases it is desirable to have more control over the format of the data to be read or written.
- Formatted I/O requires that the programmer control the layout of the data.
- The type of data and the number of characters that each element may occupy must be specified.



Modern Fortran

### Formatted Input/Output II



• A formatted data description must adhere to the generic form,

#### nCw.d

#### where

- n is an integer constant that specifies the number of repititions (default 1 can be omitted),
- C is a letter indicating the type of the data variable to be written or read.
- w is the total number of spaces allocated to this variable, and,
- d is the number of spaces allocated to the fractional part of the variable. Integers are padded with zeros for a total width of w provided  $d \leq w$ .
- The decimal (.) and d designator are not used for integers, characters or logical data types. Note that d designator has a different meaning for integers and is usually referred to as m to avoid confusion.
- Collectively, these designators are called **edit descriptors**.





# Formatted Input/Output III



• The space occupied by an item of data or variable is called *field*.

Data Type	Edit Descriptor	Examples	Result
Integer	nIw[.m]	I5.5	00010
Real <sup>a</sup> (floating point)	nFw.d	F12.6	10.123456
Real (exponential)	Ew.d[en] <sup>b</sup>	E15.8	0.12345678E1
Real (engineering)	ESw.d <sup>c</sup>	ES12.3	50.123E-3
Character	nAw	A12	Fortran

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>For complex variables, use two appropriate real edit descriptors

• **Control descriptors** alter the input or output by addings blanks, new lines and tabs.

Space	nX	add n spaces
	tn	tab to position n
Tabs	tln	tab left n positions
	trn	tab right n positions
New Line	/	Create a new line record





 $<sup>^</sup>b$  en is used when you need more than 2 digits in the exponent as in 100. E15.7e4 to represent  $2.3 imes 10^{1021}$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> data is printed in multiples of 1000



- Edit descriptors must be used in conjunction with a PRINT, WRITE OF READ statement.
- In the simplest form, the format is enclosed in single quotes and parentheses as as argument to the keyword.

```
print '(I5,5F12.6)', i, a, b, c, z ! complex z
write(6,'(2E15.8)') arr1, arr2
read(5,'(2a)') firstname, lastname
```

- If the same format is to be used repeatedly or it is complicated, the FORMAT statement can be used.
- The FORMAT statement must be labeled and the label is used in the input/output statement to reference it

```
label FORMAT(formlist)
PRINT label, varlist
WRITE(un, label) varlist
READ(un, label) varlist
```







• The FORMAT statements can occur anywhere in the same program unit. Most programmers list all FORMAT statements immediately after the type declarations before any executable statements.

```
10 FORMAT(I5,5F12.6)
20 FORMAT(2E15.8)
100 FORMAT(2a)
print 10, i, a, b, c, z ! complex z
write(6,20) arr1, arr2
read(5,100) firstname, lastname
```

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- Many scientific codes have a large number of input parameters.
- Remembering which parameter is which and also the order in which they are to read, make creating input files very tedious.
- Fortran provides **NAMELIST** input simplify this situation.
- In a NAMELIST, parameters are specified by name and value and can appear in any order.
- The NAMELIST is declared as a non-executable statement in the subprogram that reads the input and the variables that can be specified in it are listed.

```
NAMELIST /name/ varlist
```

Namelists are read with a special form of the READ statement.
 READ (un, [nml=]name)





#### Namelist II



- The input file must follow a particular format:
  - begin with an ampersand followed by the name of the namelist (&name) and ends with a slash (/),
  - variables are specified with an equals sign (=) between the variable name and its value,
  - only statis objects may be part of a namelist; i.e. dynamically allocated arrays, pointers and the like are not permitted
- For example, consider a program that declares a namelist as follows:

```
namelist/moldyn/natom, npartdim, tempK, nstep, dt
```

• The corresponding input file can take the form

```
&moldyn
  npartdim = 10
  tempK = 10d0
  nstep = 1000
  dt = 1d-3
/
```





### Namelist III



- Note:
  - parameters may appear in any order in the input file, and
  - may be omitted if they are not needed i.e. they can take default values that is specified in the program
- The above namelist can be read with a single statement as in (other options to READ statement can be added if needed)
   READ (10, nml=moldyn)
- To write the values of a namelist is similar
   WRITE (20, nml=moldyn)
- Namelist names and variables are case insensitive.
- The namelist designator cannot have blanks
- Arrays may be namelist variables, but all the values of the array must be listed after the equals sign following its name
- If any variable name is repeated, the final value is taken.







- Namelist are convenient when you want to read different input for different types of calculations within the same program.
- Amber Molecular Dynamics package uses namelist to read input. The following is the input file from Amber's test directory.

```
&cntrl
  ntx=1, imin=5, ipb=1, inp=2, ntb=0,
/
&pb
  npbverb=0, istrng=0, epsout=80.0, epsin=1.0, space=0.5,
  accept=0.001, sprob=1.6, radiopt=1, dprob=1.6,
/
```

• If multiple variables are listed on the same line, they need to be separated by a comma (,) not semicolon(;)







- Fortran allows a programmer to cast numeric types to character type and vice versa.
- The character variable functions as an internal file.
- An internal write converts from numeric to character type, while
- an **internal read** converts from character to numeric type.
- This is useful feature particularly for writing output of arrays that are dynamically allocated.
- Example: Convert an integer to a character

```
CHARACTER(len=10) :: num
INTEGER :: inum
WRITE(NUM,'(A10)') inum
```







• Example: Convert an character to an integer

```
CHARACTER(len=10) :: num = "435"
INTEGER :: inum
READ(inum,'(I4)') num
```

 Example: Writing data when parameters are not known at compile time

```
CHARACTER(len=23) :: xx
CHARACTER(len=13) :: outfile
INTEGER :: natoms, istep
REAL :: time
REAL, ALLOCATABLE, DIMENSION(:) :: coords
natoms = 100 ; ALLOCATE(coords(natoms*3))

WRITE(xx,'(A, I5, A)') '(F12.6,', 3*natoms, '(2X, E15.8))'
WRITE(outfile,'(A8, I5.5, A4)') 'myoutput', istep, '.dat'

OPEN(unit = 10, file = outfile)
WRITE(10, xx) time, coords(:)
```







• A Fortran program is executed sequentially

```
program somename
  variable declarations
  statement 1
  statement 2
  ...
end program somename
```

- Control Constructs change the sequential execution order of the program
  - Conditionals: IF
  - 2 Loops: DO
  - Switches: SELECT/CASE
  - Branches: GOTO (obsolete in Fortran 95/2003, use CASE instead)







• The general form of the if statement

```
if ( expression )statement
```

- When the if statement is executed, the logical expression is evaluated.
- If the result is true, the statement following the logical expression is executed; otherwise, it is not executed.
- The statement following the logical expression cannot be another if statement. Use the if-then-else construct instead.

```
if (value < 0) value = 0</pre>
```







- The if-then-else construct permits the selection of one of a number of blocks during execution of a program
- The if-then statement is executed by evaluating the logical expression.
- If it is true, the block of statements following it are executed. Execution of this block completes the execution of the entire if construct.
- If the logical expression is false, the next matching else if, else or end if statement following the block is executed.

```
if (expression 1) then
  executable statements
else if (expression 2) then
  executable statements
else if ···
else
  executable statements
end if
```







# • Examples:

```
if ( x < 50 ) then GRADE = 'F' else if ( x >= 50 .and. x < 60 ) then GRADE = 'D' else if ( x >= 60 .and. x < 70 ) then GRADE = 'C' else if ( x >= 70 .and. x < 80 ) then GRADE = 'B' else GRADE = 'A' end if
```

- The else if and else statements and blocks may be omitted.
- If else is missing and none of the logical expressions are true,
   the if-then-else construct has no effect.
- The end if statement must not be omitted.
- The if-then-else construct can be nested and named.







```
no else if

[outer_name:] if ( expression ) then
    executable statements
    executable statements
    [inner_name:] if ( expression ) then
    executable statements
    end if [inner_name]
end if [outer_name]
```

#### no **else**

```
if ( expression ) then
executable statements
else if ( expression ) then
executable statements
else if ( expression ) then
executable statements
end if
```



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```
program roots_of_quad_eqn
 implicit none
 real(kind=8) :: a,b,c
 real(kind=8) :: roots(2),d
 print *, '=========='
 print *, ' Program to solve a quadratic equation'
 print *, ' ax^2 + bx + c = 0'
 print *, ' If d = b^2 - 4ac >= 0 '
 print *, ' then solutions are: '
 print *, ' (-b +/- sgrt(d) )/2a '
 print *, '-----'
 ! read in coefficients a, b, and c
 write(*,*) 'Enter coefficients a,b and c'
 read(*,*) a,b,c
 write(*,*)
 write(*,*) ' Quadratic equation to solve is: '
 write (*, fmt = (a, f6.3, a, f6.3, a, f6.3, a)') ', a, 'x^2 + ', b, 'x + ', c, ' = 0'
 write(*,*)
 outer: if ( a == 0d0 ) then
    middle: if (b == 0.d0) then
       inner: if ( c == 0.d0 ) then
          write(*,*) 'Input equation is 0 = 0'
       else
          write(*,*) 'Equation is unsolvable'
```



# Finding roots of quadratic equation II



```
write (*, fmt='(a, f5.3, a)') '', c, ' = 0'
        end if inner
     else
        write (*, *) 'Input equation is a Linear equation with '
        write(*,fmt='(a,f6.3)') ' Solution: ', -c/b
     end if middle
  else
     d = b*b - 4d0*a*c
     dis0: if (d > 0d0) then
        d = sart(d)
        roots(1) = -(b + d)/(2d0*a)
        roots(2) = -(b - d)/(2d0*a)
        write(*, fmt='(a,2f12,6)') 'Solution: ', roots(1), roots(2)
     else if (d == 0.d0) then
        write (*, fmt=' (a, f12.6)') 'Both solutions are equal: ', -b/(2d0*a)
     else
        write(*,*) 'Solution is not real'
        d = sqrt(abs(d))
        roots(1) = d/(2d0*a)
        roots(2) = -d/(2d0*a)
        write(*, fmt='(a, ss, f6.3, sp, f6.3, a2, a, ss, f6.3, sp, f6.3, a2)') &
             ' (',-b/(2d0*a), sign(roots(1), roots(1)),'i)',' and (',-b/(2d0*a), sign(
                   roots(2), roots(2)),'i)'
     end if dis0
  end if outer
end program roots of quad eqn
```



# Finding roots of quadratic equation III



```
[apacheco@qb4 Exercise] ./root.x
 Program to solve a guadratic equation
    ax^2 + bx + c = 0
 If d = b^2 - 4ac >= 0
   then solutions are:
     (-b +/- sgrt(d))/2a
 _____
Enter coefficients a,b and c
 Quadratic equation to solve is:
  1.000x^2 + 2.000x + 1.000 = 0
Both solutions are equal: -1.000000
[apacheco@gb4 Exercise] ./root.x
 _____
 Program to solve a quadratic equation
    ax^2 + bx + c = 0
 Tf d = b^2 - 4ac >= 0
   then solutions are:
     (-b +/- sqrt(d))/2a
Enter coefficients a,b and c
 Quadratic equation to solve is:
  0.000x^2 + 1.000x + 2.000 = 0
Input equation is a Linear equation with
```





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Solution: -2 000

#### Case Construct I



- The case construct permits selection of one of a number of different block of instructions.
- The value of the expression in the select case should be an integer or a character string.

```
[case_name:] select case ( expression )
  case ( selector )
    executable statement
  case ( selector )
    executable statement
  case default
  executable statement
end select [case_name]
```

- The selector in each case statement is a list of items, where each item is either a single constant or a range of the same type as the expression in the select case statement.
- A range is two constants separated by a colon and stands for all the values between and including the two values.





#### Case Construct II



- The case default statement and its block are optional.
- The select case statement is executed as follows:
  - Compare the value of expression with the case selector in each case. If a match is found, execute the following block of statements.
  - If no match is found and a case default exists, then execute those block of statements.

#### Notes

- The values in selector must be unique.
- Use case default when possible, since it ensures that there is something to do in case of error or if no match is found.
- case default can be anywhere in the select case construct.

  The preferred location is the last location in the case list.









• Example for character case selector

```
select case ( traffic_light )
  case ( "red" )
    print *, "Stop"
  case ( "yellow" )
    print *, "Caution"
  case ( "green" )
    print *, "Go"
  case default
    print *, "Illegal value: ", traffic_light
end select
```

• Example for integer case selector

```
select case ( score )
case ( 50 : 59 )
GRADE = "D"
case ( 60 : 69 )
GRADE = "C"
case ( 70 : 79 )
GRADE = "B"
case ( 80 : )
GRADE = "A"
case default
GRADE = "F"
end select
```





#### Do Construct I



- The looping construct in fortran is the do construct.
- The block of statements called the loop body or do construct body is executed repeatedly as indicated by loop control.
- A do construct may have a construct name on its first statement

```
[do name:] do loop control
  execution statements
end do [do name]
```

- There are two types of loop control:
  - Ocunting: a variable takes on a progression of integer values until some limit is reached.
    - variable = start, end[, stride]
    - stride may be positive or negative integer, default is 1 which can be omitted.
  - General: a loop control is missing





#### Do Construct II



- Before a do loop starts, the expression start, end and stride are evaluated. These values are not re-evaluated during the execution of the do loop.
- stride cannot be zero.
- If *stride* is positive, this do counts up.
  - The variable is set to start
  - 2 If variable is less than or equal to end, the block of statements is executed.
  - Then, stride is added to variable and the new variable is compared to end
  - If the value of variable is greater than end, the do loop completes, else repeat steps 2 and 3
- If stride is negative, this do counts down.
  - The variable is set to start
  - 2 If *variable* is greater than or equal to *end*, the block of statements is executed.
  - Then, stride is added to variable and the new variable is compared to end
  - If the value of *variable* is less than *end*, the **do** loop completes, else repeat steps 2 and 3







```
program factorial1
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: dp = selected_int_kind(15)
  integer(dp) :: i,n,factorial
  print *, 'Enter an integer < 15 '
  read *. n
  factorial = n
  do i = n-1, 1, -1
     factorial = factorial * i
  end do
  write(*,'(i4,a,i15)') n,'!=',factorial
end program factorial1
[apacheco@gb4 Exercise] ./fact1
 Enter an integer < 15
10
              3628800
```

```
program factorial2
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: &
       dp = selected int kind(15)
  integer(dp) :: i,n,start,factorial
  print *, 'Enter an integer < 15 '</pre>
  read *. n
  if ((n/2) * 2 == n) then
     start = 2 ! n is even
  e1 se
    start = 1 + n is odd
  endif
  factorial = 1 dp
  do i = start.n.2
     factorial = factorial * i
  end do
  write(*,'(i4,a,i15)') n,'!!=',factorial
end program factorial2
[apacheco@gb4 Exercise] ./fact2
Enter an integer < 15
```

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INFORMATION



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10!!=

#### Do Construct: Nested I



- The exit statement causes termination of execution of a loop.
- If the keyword exit is followed by the name of a do construct, that named loop (and all active loops nested within it) is exited and statements following the named loop is executed.
- The cycle statement causes termination of the execution of one iteration of a loop.
  - The do body is terminated, the do variable (if present) is updated, and control is transferred back to the beginning of the block of statements that comprise the do body.
- If the keyword cycle is followed by the name of a construct, all active loops nested within that named loop are exited and control is transferred back to the beginning of the block of statements that comprise the named do construct.





#### Do Construct: Nested II



```
program nested_doloop
  implicit none
  integer, parameter :: dp = selected_real kind(15)
  integer :: i, j
  real(dp) :: x,y,z,pi
  pi = 4d0*atan(1.d0)
  outer: do i = 0,180,45
     inner: do j = 0,180,45
        x = real(i) *pi/180d0
        v = real(j) *pi/180d0
        if ( j == 90 ) cycle inner
        z = \sin(x) / \cos(y)
        print '(2i6,3f12.6)', i,j,x,v,z
     end do inner
  end do outer
end program nested doloop
```

```
[apacheco@qb4 Exercise] ./nested
          45
                             0.785398
                             2.356194
                                         -0.000000
         180
                             3.141593
                                         -0.000000
   45
           0
                0.785398
                             0.000000
                                         0.707107
          45
                0.785398
                             0.785398
   45
                0.785398
                             2.356194
   45
         180
                0.785398
                             3.141593
                                         -0.707107
                1.570796
          45
                1.570796
                             0.785398
                                         1.414214
                             2.356194
                                         -1.414214
   90
         180
                1.570796
                             3.141593
                2.356194
                                         0.707107
          45
                2.356194
                             0.785398
                2.356194
                             2.356194
         180
                2.356194
                             3.141593
                                         -0.707107
  180
                3.141593
                                         0.000000
  180
          45
                3.141593
                             0.785398
  180
                3.141593
                             2.356194
                                        -0.000000
  180
         180
                3.141593
                             3.141593
```

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• The General form of a do construct is

```
[do name:] do
  executable statements
end do [do name]
```

- The executable statements will be executed indefinitly.
- To exit the do loop, use the exit or cycle statement.
- The exit statement causes termination of execution of a loop.
- The cycle statement causes termination of the execution of one iteration of a loop.

```
finite: do
  i = i + 1
  inner: if (i < 10) then
    print *, i
    cycle finite
  end if inner
  if ( i > 100 ) exit finite
end do finite
```







• If a condition is to be tested at the top of a loop, a do ... while loop can be used

```
[do_name:] do while ( expression )
 executable statements
end do [do name]
```

• The loop only executes if the logical expression evaluates to .true.

```
finite: do while ( i \le 100 )
  i = i + 1
  inner: if ( i < 10 ) then
    print *, i
  end if inner
end do finite
```

```
finite: do
  i = i + 1
  inner: if (i < 10) then
   print *, i
    cycle finite
  end if inner
  if ( i > 100 ) exit finite
end do finite
```



Modern Fortran



- Thats all for Day 1
- Any Question?
- In the second part of the tutorial we will cover advanced topics:
  - Arrays: Dynamic Arrays, Array Conformation concepts, Array declarations and Operations, etc.
  - 2 Procedures: Modules, Subroutines, Functions, etc.
  - Object Oriented Concepts: Derived Type Data, Generic Procedures and Operator Overloading.



Modern Fortran

# References



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- Fortran 90 course at University of Liverpool,
   http://www.liv.ac.uk/HPC/F90page.html
- Introduction to Modern Fortran, University of Cambridge, http://www.ucs.cam.ac.uk/docs/course-notes/ unix-courses/Fortran
- Scientific Programming in Fortran 2003: A tutorial Including Object-Oriented Programming, Katherine Holcomb, University of Virginia.







- Online Courses: http://moodle.hpc.lsu.edu
- Contact us
  - ♦ Email ticket system: sys-help@loni.org
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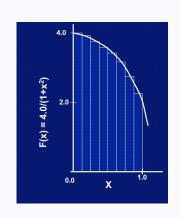
We know that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{4.0}{(1+x^2)} \, dx = \pi$$

 So numerically, we can approxiate pi as the sum of a number of rectangles

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} F(x_i) \Delta x \approx \pi$$

Meadows et al, A "hands-on" introduction to OpenMP, SC09







# Algorithm 1 Pseudo Code for Calculating Pi

# $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{program} \ \text{CALCULATE\_PI} \\ step \leftarrow 1/n \\ sum \leftarrow 0 \\ \textbf{do} \ i \leftarrow 0 \cdots n \\ x \leftarrow (i+0.5) * step; sum \leftarrow sum + 4/(1+x^2) \\ \textbf{end do} \\ pi \leftarrow sum * step \\ \textbf{end program} \end{array}$





- SAXPY is a common operation in computations with vector processors included as part of the BLAS routines y ← αx + y
- Write a SAXPY code to multiply a vector with a scalar.

# Algorithm 2 Pseudo Code for SAXPY

```
program SAXPY
```

 $n \leftarrow \text{some large number}$ 

 $x(1:n) \leftarrow \text{some number say, } 1$ 

 $y(1:n) \leftarrow \text{some other number say, 2}$ 

 $a \leftarrow \text{some other number ,say, } 3$ 

**do**  $i \leftarrow 1 \cdots n$ 

$$y_i \leftarrow y_i + a * x_i$$

end do

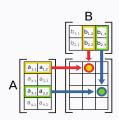
end program SAXPY







- Most Computational code involve matrix operations such as matrix multiplication.
- Consider a matrix C which is a product of two matrices A and B:
   Element i,j of C is the dot product of the i<sup>th</sup> row of A and j<sup>th</sup> column of B
- Write a MATMUL code to multiple two matrices.







# **Algorithm 3** Pseudo Code for MATMUL

# **program** MATMUL $m, n \leftarrow \text{some large number} \leq 1000$ Define $a_{mn}, b_{nm}, c_{mm}$

$$a_{ij} \leftarrow i + j; b_{ij} \leftarrow i - j; c_{ij} \leftarrow 0$$
  
**do**  $i \leftarrow 1 \cdots m$ 

**do** 
$$j \leftarrow 1 \cdots m$$

$$c_{i,j} \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{i,k} * b_{k,j}$$

end do

end do

end program MATMUL









# Part II

# Advanced Concepts in Fortran Programming







- Arrays
- 8 Procedures
- Derived Types
- Object Based Programming
- Exercise



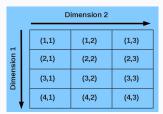




- Arrays (or matrices) hold a collection of different values at the same time.
- Individual elements are accessed by subscripting the array.
- A 10 element array is visualized as

1 2 3		8	9	10
-------	--	---	---	----

while a 4x3 array as



• Each array has a type and each element of holds a value of that type.



## **Array Declarations**



- The dimension attribute declares arrays.
- Usage: dimension(lower\_bound:upper\_bound)

  Lower bounds of one (1:) can be omitted
- Examples:

```
integer, dimension(1:106) :: atomic_number
real, dimension(3,0:5,-10:10) :: values
character(len=3), dimension(12) :: months
```

• Alternative form for array declaration

```
integer :: days_per_week(7), months_per_year(12)
real :: grid(0:100,-100:0,-50:50)
complex :: psi(100,100)
```

• Another alternative form which can be very confusing for readers

```
integer, dimension(7) :: days_per_week, months_per_year(12)
```





## Array Terminology



Rank: Number of dimensions.

a has rank 1 and b has rank 3

Bounds: upper and lower limits of each dimension of the array.

a has bounds 0:20 and b has bounds 1:3, 0:5 and -10:10

Extent: Number of element in each dimension

a has extent 21 and b has extents 3,6 and 21

Size: Total number of elements.

a has size 21 and b has 30

Shape: The shape of an array is its rank and extent

a has shape 21 and b has shape (3,6,21)

- Arrays are conformable if they share a shape.
- The bounds do not have to be the same

$$c(4:6) = d(1:3)$$



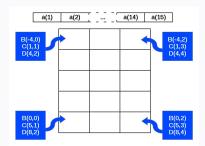






• Define arrays a, b, c and d as follows

```
real, dimension (15) :: a
real, dimension (-4:0,0:2) :: b
real, dimension(5,3) :: c
real, dimension (4:8,2:4) :: d
```

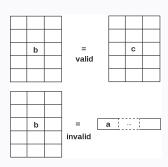








- Array or sub-arrays must conform with all other objects in an expression
  - a scalar conforms to an array of any shape with the same value for every element
    - c = 1.0 is the same as c(:,:) = 1.0
  - 2 two array references must conform in their shape.

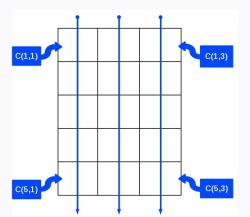








• Fortran is a column major form i.e. elements are added to the columns sequentially. This ordering can be changed using the reshape intrinsic.



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#### Array Constructors I



Used to give arrays or sections of arrays specific values

```
implicit none
integer :: i
integer, dimension(10) :: ints
character(len=5), dimension(3) :: colors
real, dimension(4) :: height
height = (/5.10, 5.4, 6.3, 4.5 /)
colors = (/'red ', 'green', 'blue ' /)
ints = (/ 30, (i = 1, 8), 40 /)
```

• constructors and array sections must conform.

```
ints = (/30, (i = 1, 10), 40/) is invalid
```

- strings should be padded so that character variables have correct length.
- use reshape intrinsic for arrays for higher ranks
- (i = 1, 8) is an implied do.
- You can also specify a stride in the implied do.

```
ints = (/30, (i = 1, 16, 2), 40/)
```

• There should be no space between / and ( or )





#### Array Constructors II



- reshape (source, shape, pad, order) constructs an array with a specified shape shape starting from the elements in a given array source.
- If pad is not included then the size of source has to be at least product (shape).
- If pad is included it has to have the same type as source.
- If order is included, it has to be an integer array with the same shape as shape and the values must be a permutation of (1,2,3,...,N), where N (max value is 7) is the number of elements in shape.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & a & a \\
a & 0 & a \\
a & a & 0
\end{array}\right)$$

```
rcell = reshape( (/ & 0.d0, 0.d0, a, a, & 0.d0, a, 0.d0, a, & 0.d0, a, & 0.d0, a, & 0.d0 & /),(/4,3/) )
```

rcell = reshape( (/ & 0.d0, 0.d0, 0.d0 & 0.d0, a & a & a & a, a, a, 0.d0 & a, a, a, 0.d0 & a, (/4,3/), (/4,3/), order=(/2,1/)





# Array Constructors III



- In Fortran, for a multidimensional array, the first dimension has the fastest index while the last dimension has the slowest index i.e. memory locations are continuous for the last dimension.
- The order statement allows the programmer to change this order. The last example above sets the memory location order which is consistent to that in C/C++.
- Arrays can be initialized as follows during variable declaration

```
integer, dimension(4) :: imatrix = (/ 2, 4, 6, 8/)
character(len=*),dimension(3) :: colors = (/'red ', 'green', 'blue '/)}
! All strings must be the same length}
real, dimension(4) :: height = (/5.10, 5.4, 6.3, 4.5/)
integer, dimension(10) :: ints = (/ 30, (i = 1, 8), 40/)
real, dimension(4,3), parameter :: rcell = reshape( (/0.d0, 0.d0, 0.d0, 0.d0, \&
a, a, 0.d0, a, a, a, 0.d0 /),(/4,3/),order=(/2,1/))
```





\_\_\_\_\_

#### Array Syntax



- Arrays can be treated as a single variable when performing operations
  - $\bigcirc$  set whole array to a constant: a = 0.0
  - can use intrinsic operators between conformable arrays (or sections)

```
b = c * d + b**2
this is equivalent to
```

```
b(-4,0) = c(1,1) * d(4,2) + b(-4,0) **2
b(-3,0) = c(2,1) * d(5,2) + b(-3,0) **2
...
b(-4,0) = c(1,1) * d(4,2) + b(-4,0) **2
b(-4,1) = c(1,2) * d(4,3) + b(-4,1) **2
...
b(-3,2) = c(4,3) * d(7,4) + b(-3,2) **2
b(-4,2) = c(5,3) * d(8,4) + b(-4,2) **2
```

elemental intrinsic functions can be used:

$$b = \sin(c) + \cos(d)$$

All operations/functions are applied element by element



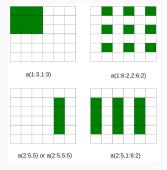


# Array Sections I



#### real, dimension(6:6):: a

- $\bullet$  a (1:3,1:3) = a(1:6:2,2:6:2) and a(1:3,1:3) = 1.0 are valid
- $\bullet$  a (2:5,5) = a (2:5,1:6:2) and a(2:5,1:6:2) = a(1:6:2,2:6:2) are not
- $\bullet$  a (2:5,5) is a 1D section while a (2:5, 1:6:2) is a 2D section



- The general form for specifying sub-arrays or sections is [<bound1>]:[<bound2>][:<stride>]
- The section starts at < bound1> and ends at or before < bound2>.
- <stride> is the increment by which the locations are selected, by default stride=1
- <bound1>, <bound2>, <stride> must all be scalar integer expressions.





#### Array Sections II



```
real, dimension(1:20) :: a
integer :: m,n,k

a(:) the whole array
a(3:9) elements 3 to 9 in increments of 1
a(3:9:1) as above
a(m:n) elements m through n
```

a (m:n:k) elements m through n in increments of k a (15:3:-2) elements 15 through 3 in increments of -2

a (15:3) zero size array

a (m:) elements m through 20, default upper bound a (:n) elements 1, default lower bound through n a (::2) all elements from lower to upper bound in increments of 2

a (m:m) 1 element section

a (m) array element not a section

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are valid sections.





```
real, dimension (4,4):: a
```

• Arrays are printed in the order that they appear in memory

```
print *, a
```

would produce on output

```
a(1,1), a(2,1), a(3,1), a(4,1), a(1,2), a(2,2), \cdots, a(3,4), a(4,4)
read *, a
```

would read from input and assign array elements in the same order as above

• The order of array I/O can be changed using intrinsic functions such as reshape, transpose or cshift.



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• Example: consider a 3x3 matrix

1	4	7
2	5	8
3	6	9

• The following print statements

```
print *, 'array element = ',a(3,3)
print *, 'array section = ',a(:,2)
print *, 'sub-array = ',a(:3,:2)
print *, 'whole array = ',a
print *, 'array transpose = ',transpose(a)
```

• would produce the following output

```
array element = 9
array section = 4 5 6
sub-array = 1 2 3 4 5 6
whole array = 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
array transpose = 1 4 7 2 5 8 3 6 9
```







- size(x[,n]) The size of x (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)
  - shape(x) The shape of x
- lbound(x[,n]) The lower bound of x
- ubound(x[,n]) The upper bound of x
  - minval(x) The minimum of all values of x
  - maxval(x) The maximum of all values of x
  - minloc(x) The indices of the minimum value of x
  - maxloc(x) The indices of the maximum value of x
  - sum(x[,n]) The sum of all elements of x (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)

$$sum(x) = \sum_{i,j,k,\dots} x_{i,j,k,\dots}$$







product(x[,n]) The product of all elements of x (along the  $n^{th}$  dimension, optional)

$$prod(x) = \prod_{i,j,k,\dots} x_{i,j,k,\dots}$$

transpose(x) Transpose of array x:  $x_{i,j} \Rightarrow x_{j,i}$ 

 $\operatorname{dot\_product}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  Dot Product of arrays  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ :  $\sum_i x_i * y_i$ 

matmul(x,y) Matrix Multiplication of arrays x and y which can be 1 or 2 dimensional arrays:  $z_{i,j} = \sum_k x_{i,k} * y_{k,j}$ 

conjg(x) Returns the conjugate of x:  $a + ib \Rightarrow a - ib$ 

cshift(ARRAY, SHIFT, dim) perform a circular shift by SHIFT positions to the left on array ARRAY along the dim<sup>th</sup> dimension







#### Why?

- At compile time we may not know the size an array needs to be
- We may want to change the problem size without recompiling
- The molecular dynamics code was written for 4000 atoms. If you want to run a simulation for 256 and 1024 atoms, do you need to recompile and create two executables?
- Allocatable arrays allow us to set the size at run time.

```
real, allocatable :: force(:,:)
real, dimension(:), allocatable :: vel
```

We set the size of the array using the allocate statement.
 allocate (force (natoms, 3))

• We may want to change the lower bound for an array





# Allocatable Arrays II



```
allocate(grid(-100,100))
```

 We may want to use an array once somewhere in the program, say during initialization. Using allocatable arrays also us to dynamically create the array when needed and when not in use, free up memory using the deallocate statement

```
deallocate(force, grid)
```

- Sometimes, we want to check whether an array is allocated or not at a particular part of the code
- Fortran provides an intrinsic function, allocated which returns a scalar logical value reporting the status of an array

```
if ( allocated(grid))deallocate(grid)
if ( .not. allocated(force))allocate(force(natoms, 3)
)
```

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# Masked Array Assignment: Where Statement



Masked array assignment is achieved using the where statement

```
where (c < 2)a = b/c the left hand side of the assignment must be array valued. the mask (logical expression) and the right hand side of the assignment must all conform
```

- Fortran 95/2003 introduced the where ... elsewhere ... end where functionality
- where statement cannot be nested

```
! Apply PBC to coordinates
where ( coord(i,:) > boxl(:) )
  coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) - boxl(:)
elsewhere ( coord(i,:) < 0d0 )
  coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) + boxl(:)
end where</pre>
```

```
! Apply PBC to coordinates
do j = 1, 3
  if ( coord(i,j) > boxl(j) ) then
      coord(i,j) = coord(i,j) - boxl(j)
  else if ( coord(i,j) < 0d0 ) then
      coord(i,j) = coord(i,j) + boxl(j)
  endif
end do</pre>
```





#### Program Units I



- Most programs are hundreds or more lines of code.
- Use similar code in several places.
- A single large program is extremely difficult to debug and maintain.
- Solution is to break up code blocks into procedures

Subroutines: Some out-of-line code that is called exactly where

it is coded

Functions: Purpose is to return a result and is called only

when the result is needed

Modules: A module is a program unit that is not executed

directly, but contains data specifications and procedures that may be utilized by other program

units via the use statement.





# Program Units II



```
program main
  use module1 ! specify which modules to use
  implicit none ! implicit typing is not recommended
  variable declarations ! declare all variables used in the program
  . ! executable statements in segeunce
  call routinel(argl,arg2,arg3) ! call subroutine routinel with arguments
  abc = func(argl,arg2) ! abc is some function of argl and arg2
  contains ! internal procedures are listed below
    subroutine routinel(argl,arg2) ! subroutine routinel contents go here
    end subroutine routinel ! all program units must have an end statement
    function func(arg1,arg2) ! function func1 contents go here
    end function func
  end program main
```





#### Program Units III



#### program md

- ! Molecular Dynamics code for equilibration of Liquid Argon
- ! Date : Jan 30, 2014
- ! This program simulates the equilibration of Liquid Argon
- ! starting from a FCC crystal structure using Lennard-Jones
- ! This program should be the starting point to learn Modern
- ! This program is hard coded for 4000 atoms equilibrated at
- ! 10K with a time step of 0.001 time units and 1000 time steps
- ! Lets assume that time units is femtoseconds, so total simulation
- ! time is 1 femtosecond
- ! Modern Fortran Training:
- ! Modify this code using the Fortran Concepts learned
- ! 1. split code into smaller subunits, modules and/or subroutines
- 2. generalize, so that the following parameters can be read from a input file
- a. number of atoms or number of unit cells (you can't do both)

  - c. time step
- d. number of time steps i.e. how long in fs do you want the simulation to run
- e. read input parameters using namelists You will need to make use allocatable arrays. If you do not know why, review
- training slides or ask ! 3. Can you use Modern Fortran Concepts such as derived types? If yes, program it
  - 4. If you use derived types, can you overload operators? If yes, program it
- Lets assume that you have completed upto step 2 from Modern Fortran objective
- Parallelize the code for OpenMP/OpenACC (can also be done from step 3 or 4)
- ! There is no time limit for completing this exercise. This exercise is for measuring
- ! what have you got from the training.

- ! As an additional exercise, use other potentials such as Morse potential and





# Program Units IV



```
! read from input file which potential you want to use.
 ! All Lennard-Jones Potential parameters are set to 1.
 ! This is code can be used as an introduction to molecular dynamics. There are lot more
 ! concepts in MD that are not covered here.
 ! npartdim : number of unit cells, uniform in all directions. change to nonuniform if you desire
 ! natom : number of atoms
 ! nstep : nummber of simulation time steps
 ! dt : simulation time steps
 ! kb : boltzmann constant, set to 1 for simplicity
 ! mass : mass of Ar atom, set to 1 for simplicity
 ! epsilon, sigma : LJ parameters, set to 1 for simplicity
 ! rcell : FCC unit cell
 ! vel, vel_t0 : nuclear velocities for each step
 ! force, pener : force and potential energy at current step
 ! avtemp : average temperature at current time step
 ! gasdev : Returns a normally distributed deviate with zero mean and unit variance from Numerical recipes
 implicit none
 integer, parameter :: npartdim = 10
 integer, parameter :: natom - 4.d0 * npartdim ** 3
 integer, parameter :: nstep - 1000
 real+8, parameter :: tempK - 10, dt - 1d-3
 integer :: istep
 real *8 :: boxl(3), alat
 integer :: n, i, i, k, l
! Can you use derived types for coord, vel, acc and force
```





real \*8 :: coord\_t0(natom,3), coord(natom,3) real \*8 :: vel\_t0(natom, 3), vel(natom, 3) real+8 :: acc\_t0(natom, 3), acc(natom, 3)

# Program Units V



```
real *8 :: force(natom, 3), pener, mass
real *8 :: vcm(3), r(3), rr, r2, r6, f
real *8 :: avtemp, ke, kb, epsilon, sigma, rcell(3,4), scale
real+8 :: gasdev
alat = 2d0 ** (2d0/3d0)
! Hint: Array operations
do i - 1, 3
  boxl(i) - npartdim * alat
end do
kb = 1.d0
mass - 1.d0
epsilon - 1.d0
sigma - 1.d0
! Create FCC unit cell
! Hint: Simplify unit cell creation, maybe in variable declaration
rcell(1,1) = 0d0
rcell(2,1) = 0d0
rcell(3,1) = 0d0
rcell(1,2) = 0.5d0 * alat
rcell(2,2) = 0.5d0 * alat
rcell(3,2) = 0d0
rcell(1,3) = 0d0
rcel1(2,3) = 0.5d0 * alat
rcell(3,3) = 0.5d0 * alat
rcell(1.4) = 0.5d0 * alat
rcell(2,4) = 0d0
rcell(3.4) = 0.5d0 * alat
! Set initial coordinates, velocity and acceleration to zero
! Hint: Use Array operations
do i - 1, natom
  do 1 - 1, 3
     coord_t0(i,j) = 0d0
     vel_t0(i,j) = 0d0
     acc_t0(i, j) = 0d0
  end do
end do
```

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# Program Units VI



```
! Initialize coordinates and random velocities
! call initialize(coord t0, vel t0, ...)
n - 1
do i - 1, npartdim
   do 1 - 1, npartdim
      do k - 1, npartdim
         do 1 - 1, 4
            coord_t0(n,1) = alat * dble(i - 1) + rcell(1,1)
            coord_t0(n,2) = alat * dble(j - 1) + rcell(2,1)
            coord_t0(n,3) = alat * dble(k - 1) + rcell(3,1)
            n - n + 1
         end do
      end do
   end do
end do
open(unit-1, file-'atom.xyz', status-'unknown')
write(1,'(i8)') natom
write(1, +)
do i - 1, natom
   write(1,'(a2,2x,3f12.6)') 'Ar', coord_t0(i,1), coord_t0(i,2), coord_t0(i,3)
end do
close(1)
! Assign initial random velocities
do i - 1, natom
   do 1 - 1, 3
      vel t0(i,i) = gasdev()
   end do
end do
! Set Linear Momentum to zero
! Hint: This is needed again below so put in a subroutine
! First get center of mass velocity
vcm = 0d0
```





```
do i - 1, natom
  do 1 - 1, 3
     vcm(i) = vcm(i) + vel t0(i,i)/natom
and do
! Now remove center of mass velocity from all atoms
do i - 1, natom
  do 1 - 1, 3
     vel_t0(i,j) = vel_t0(i,j) - vcm(j)
and do
! call get_temp( vel_t0, ... ) will be needed again
ke - 0d0
do i - 1, natom
  do 1 - 1, 3
      ! Hint: Use dot_product function to calculate vel**2
      ke = ke + mass * vel t0(i,i)**2
  end do
end do
avtemp = mass \star ke / (3d0 \star kb \star ( natom - 1))
print '(a,2x,1pe15.8)', 'Initial Average Temperature: ', avtemp
scale - sgrt ( tempK / avtemp )
ke = 0d0
do i - 1, natom
  do 1 - 1, 3
     vel_t0(i,j) = vel_t0(i,j) * scale
      ke = ke + mass * vel_t0(i,j)**2
  end do
end do
avtemp = mass \star ke / ( 3d0 \star kb \star ( natom - 1))
print '(a,2x,1pe15.8)', 'Initial Scaled Average Temperature: ', avtemp
```



# Program Units VIII



```
! MD Simulation
do istep - 1, nstep
  ! Set coordinates, velocity, acceleration and force at next time step to zero
  do i - 1, natom
     do 1 - 1, 3
        vel(i,j) = 0d0
        acc(i,j) = 0d0
        force(i,j) = 0d0
      end do
  end do
  pener - 0d0
  ! Get new atom positions from Velocity Verlet Algorithm
  ! Hint: create a subroutine to do velocity verlet
  ! Hint: OpenMP/OpenACC
  do i - 1, natom
      do j - 1, 3
        coord(i, j) = coord_t0(i, j) + vel_t0(i, j) * dt + 0.5d0 * acc_t0(i, j) * dt ** 2
        ! Apply PBC to coordinates
        if (coord(i,j) > boxl(j)) then
            coord(i, j) = coord(i, j) - boxl(j)
        else if (coord(i,j) < 0d0) then
            coord(i, 1) = coord(i, 1) + boxl(1)
         endif
      and do
  end do
  ! Get force at new atom positions
  ! Hint: you might want to also separate the potential and force calculation into a separate subroutine
  ! this will be useful if you want to use other potentials
  do i = 1, natom - 1
      do j - i + 1, natom
        do k = 1, 3
            r(k) = coord(i,k) = coord(i,k)
```

# Program Units IX



```
! interaction of an atom with another atom or its image within the unit cell
         r(k) = r(k) = nint(r(k) / boxl(k)) + boxl(k)
      end do
      rr = r(1) ** 2 + r(2) ** 2 + r(3) ** 2
      r2 = 1.d0 / rr
      r6 = r2 + 3
      ! V = 4 \star epsilon \star [ (sigma/r) \star \star 12 - (sigma/r) \star \star 6 ]
      ! = 4 \star \text{epsilon} \star (\text{sigma/r}) \star \star 6 \star [ (\text{sigma/r}) \star \star 2 - 1 ]
      ! F_i = 48 * epsilon * (sigma/r) **6 * (1/r**2) * [ ( sigma/r) ** 6 - 0.5 ] * i where i = x,y,z
           - 48 * r**(-8) * [ r**(-6) - 0.5 ] * i for epsilon=sigma=1
      pener - pener + 4d0 * r6 * ( r6 - 1.d0 )
      f = 48d0 + r2 + r6 + (r6 - 0.5d0)
      do k = 1, 3
         ! use array function to obtain r(k) +f
         force(i,k) = force(i,k) + r(k) * f
         force(i,k) = force(i,k) - r(k) * f
      end do
   end do
end do
! Calculate Acceleration and Velocity at current time step
do i - 1, natom
   do 1 - 1, 3
      acc(i,i) = force(i,i) / mass
      vel(i,j) = vel_t0(i,j) + 0.5d0 * (acc(i,j) + acc_t0(i,j)) * dt
   end do
end do
! Set Linear Momentum to zero
! First get center of mass velocity
! See Hint above on Linear Momentum
vcm = 0d0
do i - 1, natom
   do 1 - 1, 3
      vcm(j) = vcm(j) + vel(i, j)/natom
   end do
end do
```

# Program Units X



```
do i - 1, natom
      do 1 - 1, 3
         vel(i, j) = vel(i, j) - vcm(j)
      and do
  end do
  ! compute average temperature
  ! See Hint above on calculating average temperature
  ke = 0d0
  do i - 1, natom
     do 1 - 1, 3
         ke = ke + vel(i, j) ** 2
     end do
  end do
  avtemp = mass \star ke / (3d0 \star kb \star ( natom - 1))
  print '(a,2x,18,2x,1pe15.8,1x,1pe15.8)', 'Average Temperature: ', istep, avtemp, pener
  scale - sqrt ( tempk/ avtemp )
  ! Reset for next time step
  do i - 1, natom
     do 1 - 1, 3
         acc_t0(i,j) = acc(i,j)
         ! scale velocity to desired temperature
         vel t0(i,i) - vel(i,i) * scale
      end do
  end do
  ! Write current coordinates to xyz file for visualization
  open (unit-1, file-'atom, xvz', position-'append')
  write(1,'(i8)') natom
  write(1.+)
  do i - 1, natom
      write(1,'(a2,2x,3f12,6)') 'Ar', coord t0(i,1), coord t0(i,2), coord t0(i,3)
  end do
  close(1)
end do
```

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# Program Units XI



```
end program md
double precision function gasdev()
  implicit none
  real+8 :: v1, v2, fac, rsq
  real *8, save :: gset
  logical, save :: available - .false.
  if (available) then
     gasdev - gset
     available - .false.
 else
     do
        call random_number(v1)
        call random_number(v2)
        v1 = 2.d0 * v1 = 1.d0
        v2 = 2.d0 + v2 = 1.d0
        rsg = v1**2 + v2**2
        if ( rsq > 0.d0 .and. rsq < 1.d0 ) exit
     end do
     fac = sgrt(-2.d0 + log(rsg) / rsg)
     gasdev - v1 * fac
     qset - v2 * fac
     available - .true.
 end if
end function gasdev
```

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#### Subroutines I



- Call Statement:
  - The call statement evaluates its arguments and transfers control to the subroutine
  - Upon return, the next statement is executed.
- SUBROUTINE Statement:
  - The subroutine statement declares the procedure and its arguments.
  - These are also known as dummy arguments.
- The subroutine's interface is defined by
  - The subroutine statement itself
  - The declarations of its dummy arguments
  - Anything else that the subroutine uses





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#### Subroutines II



#### Statement Order

- A subroutine statement starts a subroutine
- Any use statements come next
- implicit none comes next, followed by
- generation rest of the declarations,
- executable statements
- 6 End with a end subroutine statement

#### Dummy Arguments

- Their names exist only in the procedure and are declared as local variables.
- The dummy arguments are associated with the actual arguments passed to the subroutines.
- The dummy and actual argument lists must match, i.e. the number of arguments must be the same and each argument must match in type and rank.





#### Subroutines III



```
subroutine verlet(coord, coord_t0, vel, vel_t0, acc, acc_t0, force, pener
 use precision
 use potential
 use param, only : natom, mass, dt, boxl, pot
 implicit none
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc, force
 real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
 integer(ip) :: i, j, k
 real(dp) :: epot
 real(dp) :: r(3), f(3)
 ! Set coordinates, velocity, acceleration and force at next time step
 coord = 0d0 ; vel = 0d0 ; acc = 0d0 ; force = 0d0
 pener = 0d0
 ! Get new atom positions from Velocity Verlet Algorithm
 coord = coord_t0 + vel_t0 * dt + 0.5d0 * acc_t0 * dt ** 2
 do i = 1, natom
    where ( coord(i,:) > boxl(:) )
       coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) - boxl(:)
    elsewhere ( coord(i,:) < 0d0 )
    end where
 end do
 ! Get force at new atom positions
 do i = 1, natom - 1
    do j = i + 1, natom
       r = r - pint(r / boxl) * boxl
       select case (pot)
       case ('mp')
          call morse ( r. f. epot )
       case default
          call lennard jones ( r. f. epot )
       end select
       pener = pener + epot
       force(i,:) = force(i,:) + f(:)
    end do
 end do
 ! Calculate Acceleration and Velocity at current time step
 acc = force / mass
 vel = vel t0 + 0.5d0 * (acc + acc t0) * dt
```

```
program md
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: coord_t0, coord
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: vel t0, vel
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: acc t0, acc, force
  real(dp) :: pener
  interface
     subroutine verlet (coord, coord t0, vel t0, vel, acc t0, acc, force,
       use precision
       implicit none
       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc, force
       real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
     end subroutine verlet
  end interface
  do istep = 1, nstep
     ! Set coordinates, velocity, acceleration and force at next time
     coord = 0d0; vel = 0d0; acc = 0d0
     force = 0d0 ; pener = 0d0
     ! Get new atom positions from Velocity Verlet Algorithm
     call verlet(coord, coord_t0, vel_t0, vel, acc_t0, acc, force, pener)
  end do
  deallocate (coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0, coord, vel, acc, force)
end program md
```

and subroutine verlet





- Internal procedures appear just before the last end statement and are preceded by the contains statement.
- Internal procedures can be either subroutines or functions which can be accessed only by the program, subroutine or module in which it is present
- Internal procedures have declaration of variables passed on from the parent program unit
- If an internal procedure declares a variable which has the same name as a variable from the parent program unit then this supersedes the variable from the outer scope for the length of the procedure.



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#### **Functions**



- functions operate on the same principle as subroutines
- The only difference is that function returns a value and does not involve the call statement

```
module potential
  use precision
  implicit none
  real(dp) :: r2, r6, d2, d
  real(dp), parameter :: de = 0.176d0, a = 1.4d0, re = 1d0
  real(dp) :: exparre
contains
  subroutine lennard_jones(r,f,p)
         = 48 * r**(-8) * [ r**(-6) - 0.5 ] * i for epsilon=sigma=1
   implicit none
   real(dp), dimension(:), intent(in) :: r
   real(dp), dimension(:), intent(out) :: f
   real(dp), intent(out) :: p
   r2 = 1.d0 / dot product(r,r)
   r6 = r2 ** 3
   f = dvdr \ 1i(r2, r6) * r
   p = pot li(r2, r6)
  end subroutine lennard iones
  subroutine morse(r,f,p)
    ! Morse Potential
   ! V = D * [1 - exp(-a*(r - re))] 1^2
   ! F_i = 2*D * [1 - exp(-a*(r - re))] * a exp(-a*(r-re)) * i / r
   implicit none
   real(dp), dimension(:), intent(in) :: r
   real(dp), dimension(:), intent(out) :: f
   real(dp), intent(out) :: p
```

```
d2 = dot_product(r,r)
    d = sqrt(d2)
    exparre = exp(-a * (d - re))
   f = dvdr_mp(exparre) * r
   p = pot_mp(exparre)
 end subroutine morse
 function pot_lj(r2, r6)
    implicit none
   real(dp), intent(in) :: r2, r6
   real(dp) :: pot_lj
   pot_1j = 4d0 * r6 * (r6 - 1.d0)
  end function pot_l;
  function pot mp(exparre)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: exparre
    real(dp) :: pot mp
   pot mp = de \star ( 1d0 - exparre ) \star \star 2
 end function pot mp
 function dvdr li(r2,r6)
    implicit none
   real(dp), intent(in) :: r2, r6
   real(dp) :: dvdr li
    dvdr 1i = 48d0 * r2 * r6 * ( r6 - 0.5d0 )
 end function dvdr li
 function dvdr_mp(exparre)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: exparre
    real(dp) :: dvdr mp
   dvdr mp = 2d0 * de * a * (1d0 - exparre) * exparre
 end function dydr mp
end module potential
```



# function can also return arrays

```
module potential
  use precision
  implicit none
  real(dp) :: r2, r6, d2, d
  real(dp), parameter :: de - 0.176d0, a - 1.4d0, re - 1d0
  real(dp) :: exparre
contains
  subroutine lennard_jones(r,f,p)
    ! V = 4 * epsilon * [ (sigma/r)**12 - (sigma/r)**6 ]
    ! = 4 * epsilon * (sigma/r)**6 * [ (sigma/r)**2 - 1 ]
    ! = 4 + r * * (-6) * [ r * * (-2) - 1 ] for epsilon-sigma-1
    ! F i = 48 * epsilon * (sigma/r) **6 * (1/r**2) * [ (
         = 48 + r**(-8) + [r**(-6) - 0.5] + i for epsilon
            -sigma-1 implicit none
    implicit none
    real(dp), dimension(:), intent(in) :: r
    real(dp), dimension(:), intent(out) :: f
    real(dp), intent(out) :: p
    r2 - 1.d0 / dot_product(r,r)
    r6 = r2 + 3
    f = dvdr_1(r2, r6, r)
    p = pot 11(r2, r6)
  end subroutine lennard iones
  subroutine morse(r,f,p)
    ! Morse Potential
    ! V = D * [1 - exp(-a*(r - re))]^2
    ! F i = 2*D * [1 - exp(-a*(r - re))] * a exp(-a*(r-re))
    implicit none
    real(dp), dimension(:), intent(in) :: r
    real(dp), dimension(:), intent(out) :: f
```

```
real(dp), intent(out) :: p
    d2 - dot_product(r,r)
    d = sqrt(d2)
    exparre - exp(-a + (d - re))
    f - dvdr_mp(exparre,r)
    p = pot mp(exparre)
  end subroutine morse
  function pot_lj(r2, r6)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: r2, r6
    real(dp) :: pot_lj
    pot_1 = 4d0 \times r6 \times (r6 - 1.d0)
  end function pot 11
  function pot_mp(exparre)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: exparre
    real(dp) :: pot_mp
    pot_mp = de * ( 1d0 - exparre ) **2
  end function pot_mp
  function dvdr 11(r2,r6,r)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: r2, r6, r
    real(dp), dimension(size(r)) :: dvdr li
    dvdr 11 = 48d0 * r2 * r6 * (r6 - 0.5d0) * r
  end function dvdr_li
  function dvdr mp(exparre,r)
    implicit none
    real(dp), intent(in) :: exparre, r
    real(dp), dimension(size(r)) :: dvdr mp
    dvdr_mp = 2d0 * de * a * (1d0 - exparre) * exparre * r
  end function dvdr_mp
end module potential
```

#### Recursive Procedures



- In Fortran 90, recursion is supported as a feature
  - recursive procedures call themselves
  - recursive procedures must be declared explicitly
  - recursive function declarations must contain a result keyword, and
  - one type of declaration refers to both the function name and the result variable.

```
program fact
  implicit none
  integer :: i
 print *, 'enter integer whose factorial you want to calculate
  read *, i
 print '(i5,a,i20)', i, '! = ', factorial(i)
  recursive function factorial(i) result(i fact)
    integer, intent(in) :: i
   integer :: i_fact
    if (i > 0) then
      i_fact = i * factorial(i - 1)
    01 00
      i fact = 1
    and if
  end function factorial
```

```
[apacheco@gb4 Exercise] ./factorial
enter integer whose factorial you want to calculate
[apacheco@gb4 Exercise] ./fact1
Enter an integer < 15
             3628800
```



# **Argument Association**



Recall from MD code example the invocation

```
call linearmom(vel_t0)
```

and the subroutine declaration

```
subroutine linearmom(vel)
```

- vel\_t0 is an actual argument and is associated with the dummy argument vel
- In subroutine linearmom, the name vel is an alias for vel\_t0
- If the value of a dummy argument changes, then so does the value of the actual argument
- The actual and dummy arguments must correspond in type, kind and rank.







- In subroutine linearmom, i and vcm are local objects.
- Local Objects
  - are created each time a procedure is invoked
  - are destroyed when the procedure completes
  - do not retain their values between calls
  - do not exist in the programs memory between calls.

```
Example
subroutine linearmom(vel)
  use precision
 use param, only : natom
  implicit none
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(inout) :: vel
  integer(ip) :: i
  real(dp) :: vcm(3)
  ! First get center of mass velocity
 do i - 1, 3
     vcm(i) - sum(vel(:,i))
  vcm - vcm / real(natom, dp)
  ! Now remove center of mass velocity from all atoms
  do i - 1, natom
     vel(i,:) = vel(i,:) - vcm(:)
  end do
end subroutine linearmom
```





#### Optional & Keyword Arguments I



- Optional Arguments
  - allow defaults to be used for missing arguments
  - make some procedures easier to use
- once an argument has been omitted all subsequent arguments must be keyword arguments
- the present intrinsic can be used to check for missing arguments
- if used with external procedures then the interface must be explicit within the procedure in which it is invoked.

```
subroutine get_temp(vel,boltz)
  use precision
 use param, only : natom, avtemp, mass, kb
 implicit none
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: vel
 real(dp), optional :: boltz
 integer(ip) :: i
 real(dp) :: ke
 if (present (boltz))kb - boltz
 ke = 0d0
 do i - 1, natom
    ke - ke + dot product(vel(i,:),vel(i,:))
 avtemp = mass \star ke / (3d0 \star kb \star real(natom = 1, dp))
end subroutine get_temp
```

```
subroutine initialize(coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0)
 interface
     subroutine linearmom(vel)
      use precision
      implicit none
       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(inout) :: vel
    end subroutine linearmom
     subroutine get_temp(vel, boltz)
      use precision
      implicit none
      real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: vel
       real(dp), optional :: boltz
    end subroutine get_temp
 end interface
 call get_temp(vel_t0)
```



# Optional & Keyword Arguments II



- Keyword Arguments
  - allow arguments to be specified in any order
  - makes it easy to add an extra argument no need to modify any calls
  - helps improve readability of the program
  - are used when a procedure has optional arguments
- once a keyword is used, all subsequent arguments must be keyword arguments
- if used with external procedures then the interface must be explicit within the procedure in which it is invoked.





#### Optional & Keyword Arguments III



- subroutine initialize can be invoked using
  - using the positional argument invocation
  - using keyword arguments

```
program md
...
  interface
    subroutine initialize(coord, vel, acc)
    use precision
    implicit none
       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc
    end subroutine initialize
  end interface
...
! All three calls give the same result.
  call initialize(coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0)
  call initialize(coord=coord_t0, acc=acc_t0, vel=vel_t0)
  call initialize(coord_t0, acc=acc_t0, vel=vel_t0)
...
```





#### **Dummy Array Arguments**



- There are two main types of dummy array argument:
  - explicit-shape: all bounds specified real, dimension(4,4), intent(in):: explicit\_shape
    The actual argument that becomes associated with an explicit shape dummy must conform in size and shape
  - assumed-shape: no bounds specified, all inherited from the actual argument

```
real, dimension(:,:), intent(out):: assumed_shape
An explicit interface must be provided
```

- assumed-size: final dimension is specified by \* real :: assumed\_size(dim1, dim2, \*)
  Commomly used in FORTRAN, use assumed-shape arrays in Modern Fortran.
- dummy arguments cannot be (unallocated) allocatable arrays.





## Explicit-shape Arrays



```
program md
  use precision
  use param
  implicit none
  integer(ip) :: n, i, j, k, l
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: coord t0, vel t0, acc t0
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: coord, vel, acc, force
  ! Allocate arrays
  allocate(coord(natom, 3), coord_t0(natom, 3))
  allocate(vel(natom, 3), vel_t0(natom, 3))
  allocate (acc (natom, 3), acc_t0 (natom, 3))
  allocate (force (natom, 3))
  ! Initialize coordinates and random velocities
  call initialize(coord t0, vel t0, acc t0)
end program md
subroutine initialize (coord t0, vel t0, acc t0)
  use precision
  use param, only : natom, npartdim, alat, rcell
  implicit none
  real(dp), dimension(natom, 3) :: coord t0, vel t0, acc t0
  integer(ip) :: n, i, i, k, 1
  coord t0 = 0d0 ; vel t0 = 0d0 ; acc t0 = 0d0
end subroutine initialize
```

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#### Assumed-Shape Arrays



```
program md
  use precision
  use param
  implicit none
  integer(ip) :: n, i, j, k, l
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), allocatable :: coord, vel, acc, force
  interface
     subroutine initialize(coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0)
       use precision
       implicit none
       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
     end subroutine initialize
  end interface
  allocate (coord (natom, 3), coord t0 (natom, 3))
  allocate(vel(natom, 3), vel_t0(natom, 3))
  allocate (acc (natom, 3), acc_t0 (natom, 3))
  allocate (force (natom, 3))
  ! Initialize coordinates and random velocities
  call initialize (coord t0, vel t0, acc t0)
end program md
subroutine initialize(coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0)
  use precision
  use param, only : natom, npartdim, alat, rcell
  implicit none
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
  integer(ip) :: n, i, j, k, l
  ! Set initial coordinates, velocity and acceleration to zero
  coord_t0 = 0d0 ; vel_t0 = 0d0 ; acc_t0 = 0d0
end subroutine initialize
```

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- Automatic Arrays: Arrays which depend on dummy arguments
  - their size is determined by dummy arguments
  - 2 they cannot have the save attribute or be initialized.
- The size intrinsic or dummy arguments can be used to declare automatic arrays.

```
program main
  implicit none
  integer :: i, j
  real, dimension(5,6) :: a
  call routine(a,i,j)
  contains
    subroutine routine (c,m,n)
      integer :: m, n
      real, dimension(:,:), intent(inout) :: c ! assumed shape array
                                                  ! automatic array
      real :: b1(m,n)
      real, dimension(size(c,1),size(c,2)) :: b2 ! automatic array
    end subroutine routine
end program main
```







- Declaring a variable (or array) as save gives it a static storage memory.
- i.e information about variables is retained in memory between procedure calls.

```
subroutine something(iarg1)
implicit none
integer, intent(in) :: iarg1
real,dimension(:,:),allocatable,save :: a
real, dimension(:,:),allocatable :: b
...
if (.not.allocated(a))allocate(a(i,j))
allocate(b(j,i))
...
deallocate(b)
end subroutine something
```

- Array a is saved when something exits.
- Array b is not saved and needs to be allocated every time in something and deallocated, to free up memory, before something exits.





#### Intent



- intent attribute was introduced in Fortran 90 and is recommended as it
  - allows compilers to check for coding errors
  - facilitates efficient compilation and optimization
- Declare if a parameter is
  - ♦ Input: intent(in)
  - ♦ Output: intent(out)
  - ♦ Both: intent(inout)

```
subroutine verlet(coord, coord_t0, vel_t0, vel, acc_t0, acc, force, pener)
use precision
use param, only : natom, mass, boxl, dt
implicit none
real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord_t0, vel_t0, acc_t0
real(dp), dimension(::), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc, force
real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
:
:
: end subroutine verlet
```

 A variable declared as intent(in) in a procedure cannot be changed during the execution of the procedure (see point 1 above)





#### Interfaces I



- The interface statement is the first statement in an interface block.
- The interface block is a powerful structure that was introduced in FORTRAN 90.
- When used, it gives a calling procedure the full knowledge of the types and characteristics of the dummy arguments that are used inside of the procedure that it references.
- This can be a very good thing as it provides a way to execute some safety checks when compiling the program.
- Because the main program knows what argument types should be sent to the referenced procedure, it can check to see whether or not this is the case.
- If not, the compiler will return an error message when you attempt to compile the program.





#### Interfaces II



```
subroutine verlet(coord, coord_t0, vel, vel_t0, acc, acc_t0,
        force, pener)
 use precision
 use param, only : natom, mass, dt, boxl, pot
 implicit none
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord t0, vel t0,
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc,
 real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
 integer(ip) :: i
 interface
    subroutine get pot force(coord, force, pener)
      use precision
      implicit none
      real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord
      real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: force
      real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
    end subroutine get pot force
 end interface
 ! Set coordinates, velocity, acceleration and force at next
           time step to zero
 coord - 0d0 : vel - 0d0 : acc - 0d0
 ! Get new atom positions from Velocity Verlet Algorithm
 coord = coord t0 + vel t0 * dt + 0.5d0 * acc t0 * dt ** 2
 do i - 1, natom
    ! Apply PBC to coordinates
    where ( coord(i,:) > boxl(:) )
       coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) - boxl(:)
    elsewhere ( coord(i,:) < 0d0 )
       coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) + boxl(:)
    end where
 end do
 ! Get Potential and force at new atom positions
 call get pot force(coord, force, pener)
```

```
! Calculate Acceleration and Velocity at current time step
  acc - force / mass
  vel - vel t0 + 0.5d0 * ( acc + acc t0 ) * dt
end subroutine verlet
subroutine get_pot_force(coord, force, pener)
  use precision
  use potential
  use param, only : natom, boxl
  implicit none
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord
  real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: force
  real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
  integer(ip) :: i, j
  real(dp) :: epot
  real(dp) :: r(3), f(3)
  pener - 0d0
  force - 0d0
  do i = 1, natom - 1
    do j - i + 1, natom
        r - r - nint(r / boxl) + boxl
        select case(pot)
        case('mp')
           call morse ( r. f. epot )
        case default
           call lennard_jones( r, f, epot )
        end select
       pener - pener + epot
        force(i,:) = force(i,:) + f(:)
        force(i,:) = force(i,:) - f(:)
     end do
  end do
```

end subroutine get\_pot\_force





## Interfaces III



```
subroutine verlet(coord, coord t0, vel, vel t0, acc, acc t0,
                                                                   contains
        force, pener)
                                                                     subroutine get_pot_force(coord, force, pener)
 use precision
                                                                       use potential
 use param, only : natom, mass, dt, boxl, pot
                                                                       implicit none
 implicit none
                                                                       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(in) :: coord t0, vel t0,
                                                                       real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: force
                                                                       real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
 real(dp), dimension(:,:), intent(out) :: coord, vel, acc,
                                                                       integer(ip) :: i, j
                                                                       real(dp) :: epot
                                                                       real(dp) :: r(3), f(3)
 real(dp), intent(out) :: pener
 integer(ip) :: i
                                                                       pener - 0d0
 ! Set coordinates, velocity, acceleration and force at next
           time step to zero
                                                                       do i - 1, natom - 1
 coord - 0d0 : vel - 0d0 : acc - 0d0
                                                                          do i - i + 1, natom
 ! Get new atom positions from Velocity Verlet Algorithm
                                                                             ! minimum image criterion
 coord = coord_t0 + vel_t0 * dt + 0.5d0 * acc_t0 * dt ** 2
                                                                             r = r - nint(r / boxl) + boxl
 do i - 1, natom
                                                                             select case (pot)
    ! Apply PBC to coordinates
                                                                             case ('mp')
    where ( coord(i,:) > boxl(:) )
                                                                                call morse ( r, f, epot )
                                                                             case default
       coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) - boxl(:)
    elsewhere ( coord(i,:) < 0d0 )
                                                                                call lennard_jones( r, f, epot )
       coord(i,:) = coord(i,:) + boxl(:)
                                                                             end select
    end where
                                                                             pener - pener + epot
 end do
                                                                             force(1,:) = force(1,:) - f(:)
 ! Get Potential and force at new atom positions
                                                                          end do
 call get pot force(coord, force, pener)
                                                                       end do
 ! Calculate Acceleration and Velocity at current time step
                                                                    end subroutine get pot force
 acc - force / mass
 vel = vel_t0 + 0.5d0 * ( acc + acc_t0 ) * dt
                                                                  end subroutine verlet
```

Here since subroutine get\_pot\_force is an internal procedure, no
 interface is required since it is already implicit and all variable declarations are
 carried over from subroutine verlet



#### Modules I



- Modules were introduced in Fortran 90 and have a wide range of applications.
- Modules allow the user to write object based code.
- A module is a program unit whose functionality can be exploited by other programs which attaches to it via the use statement.
- A module can contain the following
  - global object declaration: replaces Fortran 77 common and **INCLUDE** statements
  - 2 interface declaration: all external procedures using assumed shape arrrays, intent and keyword/optional arguments must have an explicit interface
  - procedure declaration: include procedures such as subroutines or functions in modules. Since modules already contain explicit interface, an interface statement is not required





#### Modules II



```
module precision
implicit none
save
integer, parameter :: ip - selected_int_kind(15)
integer, parameter :: dp - selected_real_kind(15)
end module precision
module param
use precision
implicit none
integer(pp) :: npartdim, natom, natep, istep
```

```
real(dp)::tempK, dt, boxl(3), alat, mass real(dp)::avtemp, ke, kb, epsilon, sigma, scale real(dp), dimension(3,4)::rcell - reshape( (/ & 0.50+00, 0.00+00, 0.00+00, 6 0.50+00, 0.00+00, 6 0.50+00, 0.50+00, 0.50+00, 6 0.50+00, 0.50+00, 0.50+00, (/ 3, 4 / )) character(len-2)::pot end module param
```

- within a module, functions and subroutines are called module procedures.
- module procedures can contain internal procedures
- module objects that retain their values should be given a save attribute
- modules can be used by procedures and other modules, see module precision.
- modules can be compiled separately. They should be compiled before the program unit that uses them.
  - Observe that in my examples with all code in single file, the modules appear before the main program and subroutines.







# Visibility of module procedures

- By default, all module procedures are public i.e. they can accessed by program units that use the module using the use statement
- To restrict the visibility of the module procedure only to the module, use the private statement
- In the module potential, all functions which calculate forces can be declared as private as follows

```
module potential
  use precision
  implicit none
  real(dp) :: r2, r6, d2, d
  real(dp) parameter :: de = 0.176d0, a = 1.4d0, re = 1d0
  real(dp) :: exparre
  public :: lennard_jones, morse, pot_lj, pot_mp
  private :: dvdr_lj, dvdr_mp

contains
  ...
end module potential
```







• Program Units in the MD code can directly call lennard\_jones, morse, pot\_lj and pot\_mp but cannot access dvdr\_lj and dvdr\_mp

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## **Using Modules**

• The use statement names a module whole public definitions are to be made accessible.

To use all variables from module param in program md:

```
use param
...
end program md
```

module entities can be renamed.

To rename pot and dt to more user readable variables:

```
use param, pot => potential, dt => timestep
```

- It's good programming practice to use only those variables from modules that are neccessary to avoid name conflicts and overwrite variables.
- For this, use the use <modulename>, only statement

```
subroutine verlet(coord, force, pener)
  use param, only : dp, npart, boxl, tstep
  ...
end subroutine verlet
```





#### Compiling Modules I



- Consider the MD code containing a main program md.f90, modules precision.f90, param.f90 and potential.f90 and subroutines initialize.f90, verlet.f90, linearmom.f90 and get\_temp.f90.
- In general, the code can be compiled as
   ifort -o md md.f90 precision.f90 param.f90 potential.f90 initialize.f90 \
   verlet.f90 linearmom.f90 get\_temp.f90
- Most compilers are restrictive in the order of compilation.
- The order in which the sub programs should be compiled is
  - Modules that do not use any other modules.
  - Modules that use one or more of the modules already compiled.
  - Repeat the above step until all modules are compiled and all dependencies are resolved.
  - Main program followed by all subroutines and functions (if any).
- In the MD code, the module precision does not depend on any other modules and should be compiled first





# Compiling Modules II



- The modules param and potential only depend on precision and can be compiled in any order
- The main program and subroutines can then be compiled ifort -o md md.f90 precision.f90 param.f90 potential.f90 initialize.f90 \ verlet.f90 linearmom.f90 get temp.f90
- modules are designed to be compiled independently of the main program and create a .mod files which need to be linked to the main executable.

- The main program can now be compiled as
  - ifort -o md md.f90 initialize.f90 verlet.f90 linearmom.f90 get\_temp.f90 \
     -I{path to directory containing the .mod files}
- The Makefile tutorial will cover this aspect in more detail.







- Defined by user (also called structures)
- Can include different intrinsic types and other derived types
- Components are accessed using the percent operator (%)
- Only assignment operator (=) is defined for derived types
- Can (re)define operators see operator overloading
- Derived type definitions should be placed in a module.
- Previously defined type can be used as components of other derived types.

```
type line type
  real :: x1, y1, x2, y2
end type line type
type(line type) :: a, b
type vector_type
  type(line_type) :: line ! defines x1, y1, x2, y2
  integer :: direction ! 0=nodirection, 1=(x1,y1) \rightarrow (x2,y2)
end type vector type
type (vector type) :: c. d
```





#### Derived Types II



- values can be assigned to derived types in two ways
  - component by component individual component may be selected using the % operator
  - as an object the whole object may be selected and assigned to using a constructor

```
a%x1 = 0.0; a%x2 = 0.5; a%y1 = 0.0; a%y2 = 0.5
c%direction = 0
c%line%x1 = 0.0; c%line%x2 = 1.0
c%line%y1 = -1.0; c%line%y2 = 0.0
b = line_type(0.0, 0.0, 0.5, 0.5)
d%line = line_type(0.0, -1.0, 1.0, 0.0))
d = vector_type( d%line, 1)
! or
d = vector_type( line_type(0.0, -1.0, 1.0, 0.0), 1)
```







 Assignment between two objects of the same derived type is intrinsically defined

In the previous example: a = b is allowed but a = c is not.

- I/O on Derived Types
  - Can do normal I/O on derived types
     print \*, a will produce the result 1.00.51.5
     print \*, c will produce the result 2.00.00.00.0
- Arrays and Derived Types
  - Can define derived type objects which contain non-allocatable arrays and arrays of derived type objects







- Derived Type Valued Functions
  - Functions can return results of an arbitrary defined type.
- Private Derived Types
  - A derived type can be wholly private or some of its components hidden

```
module data
  type :: position
    real, private :: x, v, z
  end type position
  type, private :: acceleration
    real, private :: x, v, z
  end type acceleration
  contains
end module data
```

• Program units that use data have position exported but not it's components x, y, z and the derived type acceleration



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#### Generic Procedures I



- In Fortran, most intrinsic functions are generic in that their type is determined by their argument(s)
- For example, the abs (x) intrinsic function comprises of
  - cabs : called when x is complex
  - ② abs: called when x is real
  - iabs: called when x is integer
- These sets of functions are called *overload sets*
- Fortran users may define their own overload sets in an interface block

```
interface clear
  module procedure clear_real, clear_type, clear_typelD
end interface
```

• The generic name clear is associated with specific names clear\_real, clear\_type, clear\_type1D





#### Generic Procedures II



```
module dynamic data
  type dynamics
     real(dp) :: x,y,z
  end type dynamics
  interface dot product
     module procedure dprod
  end interface dot product
  interface clear
     module procedure clear real, clear type,
           clear type1D
  end interface
contains
  function dprod(a,b) result(c)
    type (dynamics), intent(in) :: a,b
    real(dp) :: c
    c = a%x * b%x + a%y * b%y + a%z * b%z
  end function dprod
  subroutine clear real(a)
    real(dp),dimension(:,:),intent(out) :: a
    a = 0.00
  end subroutine clear real
  subroutine clear type(a)
    type (dynamics), dimension(:), intent(out) ::
    a%x = 0d0 : a%v = 0d0 : a%z = 0d0
  end subroutine clear type
  subroutine clear typelD(a)
    type(dynamics),intent(out) :: a
    a%x = 0d0 : a%v = 0d0 : a%z = 0d0
  end subroutine clear type1D
end module dynamic data
```

```
program md
  use dynamic data
  type (dynamics), dimension (:), allocatable :: coord, coord
         0.vel.force
  allocate (coord (npart), coord0 (npart), vel (npart), force (
         npart))
     do i=1, npart
        v2t = v2t + dot product(vel(i), vel(i))
     enddo
end program md
subroutine setup(coord, vel, coord0)
  type(dynamics) :: vt
  call clear (coord)
  call clear(coord0)
  call clear (vel)
  call clear(vt)
end subroutine setup
```

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- The dot\_product intrinsic function is overloaded to inleude derived types
- The procedure clear is overloaded to set all components of derived types and all elements of 2D real arrays to zero.

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#### Operator Overloading I



- Intrinsic operators such as +, -, \* and / can be overloaded to apply to all types of data
- Recall, for derived types only the assignment (=) operator is defined
- In the MD code, coord\_t(i) = coord\_t0(i) is well defined, but vel\_t(i) = vel\_t(i) \* scalef is not
- Operator overloading as follows
  - specify the generic operator symbol in an interface operator statement
  - specify the overload set in a generic interface
  - declare the module procedures (functions) which define how the operations are implemented.
  - these functions must have one or two non-optional arguments with intent(in) which correspond to monadic or dyadic operators





# Operator Overloading II



```
module dynamic data
  type dynamics
     real(dp) :: x, v, z
  end type dynamics
  interface operator (*)
     module procedure scale tr. scale rt
  end interface operator (*)
  interface operator (+)
     module procedure add
  end interface operator (+)
contains
  type(dynamics) function scale_tr(a,b) result(c)
    type (dynamics), intent (in)::a
    real(dp),intent(in) :: b
    type (dynamics) :: c
    c%x = a%x * b
    c%y = a%y * b
```

```
c%z = a%z * b
  end function scale tr
 type (dynamics) function scale rt(b,a) result(c)
    type (dynamics), intent (in)::a
    real(dp),intent(in) :: b
   type (dynamics) :: c
   c%x = b * a%x
   c%v = b * a%v
   c%z = b * a%z
  end function scale rt
 type (dynamics) function add(a,b) result(c)
    type(dynamics),intent(in) :: a,b
   type(dynamics) :: c
   c%x = a%x + b%x
   c v = a v + b v
   c%z = a%z + b%z
 end function add
end module dynamic data
```

• The following operations are now defined for derived types

a, b, c and scalar r

```
c = a * r

c = r * a

c = a + b
```







• If operator overloading is not defined, the above operations would have to be executed as follows whereever needed

```
C%x = a%x * r

C%y = a%y * r

C%z = a%z * r

C%x = r * a%x

C%y = r * a%y

C%z = r * a%z

C%x = a%x + b%x

C%y = a%y + b%y

C%z = a%z + b%z
```



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- Fortran 90 has some Object Oriented facilities such as
  - data abstraction: user defined types (covered)
  - a data hiding private and public attributes (covered)
  - encapsulation modules and data hiding facilities (covered)
  - inheritance and extensibility super-types, operator overloading and generic procedures (covered)
  - polymorphism user can program his/her own polymorphism by generic overloading
  - o resuability modules



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#### Pointers I



- In Fortran, a pointer variable or simply a pointer is best thought of as a "free-floating" name that may be associated with or "aliased to" some object.
- The object may already have one or more other names or it may be an unnamed object.
- The object represent data (a variable, for example) or be a procedure.
- A pointer is any variable that has been given the pointer attribute.
- A variable with the pointer attribute may be used like any ordinary variable.





#### Pointers II



• Each pointer is in one of the following three states:

undefined condition of each pointer at the beginning of a program, unless it has been initialized null not an alias of any data object

associated it is an alias of some target data object

• pointer objects must be declared with the pointer attribute

```
real, pointer :: p
```

 Any variable aliased or "pointed to" by a pointer must be given the target attribute

```
real, target :: r
```

 To make p an alias to r, use the pointer assignment statement

```
p \Rightarrow r
```





• The variable declared as a pointer may be a simple variable as above, an array or a structure

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

• pointer v declared above can now be aliased to a 1D array of reals or a row or column of a multi-dimensional array

```
real, dimension(100,100), target :: a
v => a(5,:)
```

- pointer variables can be used as any other variables
   For example, print \*, v and print \*, a(5,:) are equivalent
   v = 0.0 is the same as a(5,:) = 0.0
- pointer variables can also be an alias to another pointer variable







 Consider the following example

```
real, target :: r
real, pointer :: pl, p2
r = 4.7
p1 => r
p2 \Rightarrow r
print *, r, p1, p2
r = 7.4
print *, r, p1, p2
```

• The output on the screen will be

• Changing the value of r to 7.4 causes the value of both p1 and p2 to change to 7.4

 Consider the following example

```
real, target :: r1, r2
real, pointer :: pl, p2
r1 = 4.7 ; r2 = 7.4
p1 => r1 ; p2 => r2
print *, r1, r2, p1, p2
p1 = p2
print *, r1, r2, p1, p2
```

• The output on the screen will he

```
4.7 7.4 4.7 7.4
4.7 4.7 4.7 4.7
```

• The assignment statement p2 = p1 has the same effect of r2 = r1 since p1 is an alias to r1 and p2 is an alias to r2





#### Pointers V



- The allocate statement can be used to create space for a value and cause a pointer to refer to that space.
  - allocate (p1) creates a space for one real number and makes p1 an alias to that space.
- No real value is stored in that space so it is neccessary to assign a value to p1
- p1 = 4.7 assigns a value 4.7 to that allocated space
- Before a value is assigned to p1, it must either be associated with an unnamed target using the allocate statement or be aliased with a target using the pointer assignment statement.
- deallocate statement dissociates the pointer from any target and nullifies it

deallocate(p1)



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#### **Pointer Intrinsic Functions**



- null intrinsic
  - pointer variables are undefined unless they are initialized
  - pointer variable must not be reference to produce a value when it is undefined.
  - It is sometime desirable to have a pointer variable in a state of not pointing to anything
  - The null intrinsic function nullifies a pointer assignment so that it is in a state of not pointing to anything p1 => null()
  - If the target of p1 and p2 are the same, then nullifying p1 does not nullify p2
  - If p1 is null and p2 is pointing to p1, then p2 is also nullified.
- associated intrinsic
  - The associated intrinsic function queries whether a pointer varibale is pointing to, or is an alias for another object. associated (p1, r1) and associated (p2, r2) are true, but associated (p1, r2) and associated (p2, r1) are false







 Recall the derived type example which has as a component another derived type

```
type, public :: line_type
  real :: x1, y1, x2, y2
end type line_type
type, public :: vector_type
  type(line_type) :: line !position of center of sphere
  integer :: direction ! 0=no direction, 1=(x1,y1)->(x2,y2)
end type vector_type
```

• An object, c, of type vector\_type is referenced as c%line%x1, c%line%y1, c%line%x2, c%line%y2 and c%direction which can be cumbersome.



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I CII

# Extended Data Types II



 In Fortran, it is possible to extend the base type line\_type to other types such as vector\_type and painted\_line\_type as follows

```
type, public, extends(line_type) :: vector_type
  integer :: direction
end type vector_type
type, public, extends(line_type) :: painted_line_type
  integer :: r, g, b ! rgb values
end type painted_line_type
```

- An object,c of type vector\_type inherits the components of the type line\_type and has components x1, y1, x2, y2 and direction and is referenced as c%x1, c%y1, c%x1, c%y2 and c%direction
- Similarly, an object, d of type painted\_line\_type is referenced as d%x1, d%y2, d%x2, d%y2, d%r, d%g and d%b







• The three derived types constitute a class; the name of the class is the name of the base type line\_type

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- Online Courses: http://moodle.hpc.lsu.edu
- Contact us
  - ♦ Email ticket system: sys-help@loni.org
  - ♦ Telephone Help Desk: 225-578-0900
  - ♦ Instant Messenger (AIM, Yahoo Messenger, Google Talk)
    - ★ Add "lsuhpchelp"



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## Hands-On Exercise: Molecular Dynamics



- Molecular Dynamics code for melting of solid Argon using Lennard-Jones Potential.
- Your goal is to rewrite the code using Modern Fortran concepts that you have grasped.
- This exercise is more of a "What concepts have I learned of Modern Fortran?", so there are multiple correct solutions
- Code can be obtained from http://www.hpc.lsu.edu/ training/archive/tutorials.php:
- md-orig.f90 is the original code that you should begin working on (this is the same code that was shown in todays slides)
- There is no "correct solution", however there are multiple solutions md-v{1-5}.f90 based on various concepts presented.
- It's entirely up to you to decide which solution you want to arrive at.
- Compare the results of your edited code with that of md-v0.out. If the results are not the same, debug your code.









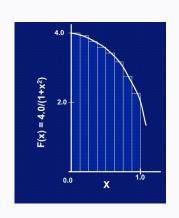
We know that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{4.0}{(1+x^2)} \, dx = \pi$$

 So numerically, we can approxiate pi as the sum of a number of rectangles

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} F(x_i) \Delta x \approx \pi$$

Meadows et al, A "hands-on" introduction to OpenMP, SC09



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# Algorithm 4 Pseudo Code for Calculating Pi

# $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{program} \ \text{CALCULATE\_PI} \\ step \leftarrow 1/n \\ sum \leftarrow 0 \\ \textbf{do} \ i \leftarrow 0 \cdots n \\ x \leftarrow (i+0.5) * step; sum \leftarrow sum + 4/(1+x^2) \\ \textbf{end do} \\ pi \leftarrow sum * step \\ \textbf{end program} \end{array}$





- SAXPY is a common operation in computations with vector processors included as part of the BLAS routines  $y \leftarrow \alpha x + y$
- Write a SAXPY code to multiply a vector with a scalar.

# **Algorithm 5** Pseudo Code for SAXPY

```
program SAXPY
```

$$n \leftarrow \text{some large number}$$

$$x(1:n) \leftarrow \text{some number say, } 1$$

$$y(1:n) \leftarrow$$
 some other number say, 2

$$a \leftarrow$$
 some other number, say, 3

**do** 
$$i \leftarrow 1 \cdots n$$

$$y_i \leftarrow y_i + a * x_i$$

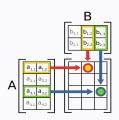
end do

end program SAXPY





- Most Computational code involve matrix operations such as matrix multiplication.
- Consider a matrix C which is a product of two matrices A and B:
   Element i,j of C is the dot product of the i<sup>th</sup> row of A and j<sup>th</sup> column of B
- Write a MATMUL code to multiple two matrices.





Moaern Fortran



# **Algorithm 6** Pseudo Code for MATMUL

# $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{program} \text{ MATMUL} \\ m,n \leftarrow \text{ some large number} \leq 1000 \\ \text{ Define } a_{mn},b_{nm},c_{mm} \\ a_{ij} \leftarrow i+j;b_{ij} \leftarrow i-j;c_{ij} \leftarrow 0 \\ \textbf{do } i \leftarrow 1 \cdots m \\ \textbf{do } j \leftarrow 1 \cdots m \\ c_{i,j} \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^n a_{i,k} * b_{k,j} \\ \textbf{end do} \\ \textbf{end do} \\ \textbf{end program} \text{ MATMUL} \end{array}$

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