Lecture 2 – Overview of Fortran 95/03

- Fortran 95/03 remains the language of choice for many scientific programmers
- Latest extensions of Fortran allow for:
 - Dynamic memory allocation
 - Object-oriented programming
 - Modules
 - Derived data types
 - Pointers
- We will give a brief overview of Fortran 95/03 here to give you the basic information to create parallel programs
 - structure of statements and programs, assignment statements, intrinsic functions, I/O, branches and loops, arrays, modules, data-types, pointers, memory allocation

Structure of a Fortran Statement

- Fortran program consists of a series of executable and non-executable statements
 - Executable statements describe actions (additions, subtractions, etc.)
 - Non-executable statements provide information necessary for the proper operation of the program
- Fortran statements may be entered anywhere on a line and each line may be up to 132 characters long. Continuation lines are available by using an "&" between lines:

```
100 output = input1 + input2 ! Sum the inputs

100 output = input1 & ! Sum the inputs

& + input2
```

These statements are identical

The number to the left is a unique statement label that can be used as a reference

The! is used to comment

Structure of a Fortran Program

 A Fortran program consists of a mixture of executable and nonexecutable statements that occur in a specific order

Declaration section

Notice:

- Statements are case insensitive and can be in upper or lower case
- Programming style varies. Some people like to capitalize key words, while others stay totally in upper or lower case.
- Be consistent!!Readability is important!

Execution section

Termination section

```
Program my_first_program
! Purpose:
! To illustrate some of the basic features of a Fortran program
! Declare the variables used in this program
INTEGER::i, j, k
                                       ! All variables are integers
! Get the variables to multiply together.
WRITE (*,*)' Enter the numbers to multiply:'
READ(*,*)i, j
! Multiply the numbers together
k = i * j
! Write out the results.
WRITE(*,*)' Result=', k
! Finish up.
STOP
END PROGRAM
```

Fortran Variables

- A Fortran variable is a data object that can change value during execution. Each variable must have a unique name
 - Up to 31 characters long
 - May contain any combination of alphabetic characters, digits and the underscore character
 - First character must be alphabetic
- A Fortran constant is a data object that is defined before execution and does not change value
- Types of variables and constants:
 - Numeric (INTEGER, REAL, and COMPLEX)
 - Logical (.TRUE. and .FALSE.)
 - Characters (CHARACTER)
 - Derived Data Types (which we will discuss later)

INTEGER, REAL, CHARACTERS

 By default, variable names beginning with the letters I, J, K, L, M, and N are assumed to be INTEGER type <u>unless</u> declared otherwise

INTEGER:: var1, var2, var3

 By default, variable name beginning with any other letter are assumed to be REAL <u>unless</u> declared otherwise

REAL:: var1, var2, var3

Character variables can be declared with lengths

CHARACTER (len = < length >):: var1, var2, var3 !General form

CHARACTER:: var1 ! var1 has length = 1

CHARACTER (len = 10):: var1 ! var1 has length = 10

CHARACTER (10):: var1 ! var1 has length = 10

Parameters

 Fortran constants may be assigned values with an executable statement or a PARAMETER statement in the declaration portion of the code

type, PARAMETER :: name = value REAL, PARAMETER pi = 3.1415926 ! where type is REAL, INTEGER, CHARACTER, LOGICAL

- Real constants or hard coded real numbers should always have a decimal point!
- Integer constants or hard coded integers should not have a decimal point!

Arithmetic Calculations

- Arithmetic operations include
 - + Addition
 - Subtraction
 - * Multiplication
 - / Division
 - ** Exponentiation
- No two operators may occur side by side.
 Operators must be grouped:

$$a * (-b)$$

 $a * * (-(b+2)/3)$

Integer Arithmetic

- Integer arithmetic will result in the truncated integer
 - Be careful when writing integer arithmetic code

```
3 / 4 will result in 0
```

5 / 4 will result in 1

compared to the following for REAL arithmetic

3./4. will result in 0.75

5./4. will result in 1.25

Order of Arithmetic Operations

Operations will be performed using the following hierarchy:

- Operations delineated between () will be performed first with the inner-most done first
- All exponentials are evaluated next, working from right to left
- All multiplications and divisions are evaluated next working from left to right
- All additions and subtractions are evaluated next, working from left to right

Mixed-Mode Arithmetic

- When a mixed-mode operation is encountered, Fortran converts the integer into a real number and then performs the operation
 - The order of operation is therefore important

```
answer = 1.25 + 9/4 ! results in answer = 3.25 answer = 1.25 + 9./4 ! results in answer = 3.5
```

- Don't program mixed-mode operations! Bad Form!
- I usually take points off for mixed-mode operations!
- For exponentiation, only use a real power when absolutely necessary. Integer powers are performed must faster without evaluating natural logs and exponential functions.

Relational Operators

 Logic operators are typically used as part of IF statements. They include:

```
== Equal to (.eq. Fortran 77)
/= Not equal to (.ne. Fortran 77)
> Greater than (.gt. Fortran 77)
>= Greater than or equal to (.ge.Fortran 77)
< Less than (.lt.Fortran 77)
<= Less than or equal to (.le. Fortran 77)</pre>
```

Combinational logic operators include:

11.AND.I2	Result is TRUE if both I1 and I2 are TRUE, otherwise FALSE
I1.OR.I2	Result is TRUE if either I1 or I2 are TRUE, otherwise FALSE
11.EQV.12	Result is TRUE if I1 is the same as I2, otherwise FALSE
I1.NEQV.I2	Result is TRUE if one of I1 and I2 is , TRUE, otherwise FALSE
.NOT.I1	Result is TRUE if I1 is FALSE and FALSE if I1 is TRUE

Hierarchy of Logic Operators

- If multiple logic operators are used in a single statement without () to delineate groupings, then the operators are performed in the order:
 - Relational operators, ==, /=, <, <=, >, >= are evaluated from left to right
 - All .NOT. operators are evaluated
 - All .AND. operators are evaluated from left to right
 - All .OR. operators are evaluated from left to right
 - All .EQV and .NEQV. operators are evaluated from left to right

Intrinsic Functions

 Fortran has many built in (intrinsic) functions to deal with trigonometric, log, exponential, etc. operations. These functions are very fast, computationally. They include:

TAB	LE 2-6		
Some	common	intrinsic	functions

Function name and arguments	Function value	Argument type	Result type	Comments
SQRT(X)	\sqrt{x}	R	R	Square root of x for $x \ge 0$.
ABS(X)	x	R/I	*	Absolute value of x .
ACHAR(I)		I	CHAR(1)	Returns the character at position I in the ASCII collating sequence.
SIN(X)	sin(x)	R	R	Sine of x (x must be in $radians$).
cos(x)	$\cos(x)$	R	R	Cosine of x (x must be in $radians$).
TAN(X)	tan(x)	R	R	Tangent of x (x must be in $radians$).
EXP(X)	e^x	R	R	e raised to the xth power.
LOG(X)	$\log_{e}(x)$	R	R	Natural logarithm of x for $x > 0$.
LOG10(X)	$\log_{10}(x)$	R	R	Base 10 logarithm of x for $x > 0$.
IACHAR(C)		CHAR(1)	I	Returns the position of the character C i
				the ASCII collating sequence.
INT(X)		R	I	Integer part of x (x is truncated).
NINT(X)		R	Ĭ	Nearest integer to x (x is rounded).
REAL(I)		1	R	Converts integer value to real.
MOD(A,B)		R/I	*	Remainder or modulo function.
MAX(A,B)		R/I	*	Picks the larger of a and b.
MIN(A,B)		R/I	*	Picks the smaller of a and b.
ASIN(X)	$\sin^{-1}(x)$	R	R	Inverse sine of x (results in radians).
ACOS(X)	$\cos^{-1}(x)$	R	R	Inverse cosine of x (results in $radians$).
ATAN(X)	$tan^{-1}(x)$	R	R	Inverse tangent of x (results in radians).

Notes

^{* =} Result is of the same type as the input argument(s).

R = REAL, I = INTEGER, CHAR(1) = CHARACTER(len = 1)

Input and Output

Input and Output statements are written as:

READ (unit, format) input_list

where "unit" is defined device and "format" is a statement number that defines the lay-out of the data to be read

Example-1: READ (10,30) var, ivar

30 FORMAT(f10.,5x,I5)

reads from unit 10 (could be from a file or keyboard) and using format statement 30 that says var will be read as a floating-point number in columns of 10 and ivar will be read as an integer 5 spaces to the right in columns of 5. (Note: integers are assumed to be read as right-adjusted)

Example-2: READ (*,*) var, ivar

reads from the default device (keyboard) in a free format. (Note that numbers must be separated by a space or a comma, or be on $_{14}$ separate lines in free format)

Input and Output

Example-3: WRITE (10,30) var, ivar

30 FORMAT('real data = 'f10.5, 2x, 'integer data = ',i5)

writes to unit 10 (could be file or terminal) using format statement 30 to define the lay-out of the data that is written.

Example-4: WRITE(*,*) 'real data = ',var,2x,'integer data = ',ivar

writes out var and ivar with the format included as part of the write statement. Note that var is written out as a floating point and ivar is written out as an integer since they are defined as real and integers, respectively

We will discuss this more in the next lecture

Initialization of Variables

- It is good practice to
 - declare all variables used in a program
 - initialize all variables introduced in a program
 - at a minimum, you should use implicit declaration of variables

$$implicit \ real(kind = 8)(a-h, o-z)$$
 Double precision real

 A good way to force yourself to declare all variables is through the use of the

implicit none

statement. This forces every variable to be declared, INTEGER, REAL, COMPLEX, CHARACTER, OR LOGICAL, otherwise the program will not compile correctly. This also helps to pick up typo's in your code.

Program Design

- Designing the program is a very important first step before coding of the program even starts
- Use of "top-down" layout and flow charts is very useful in structuring the program
 - Clearly state the problem that you are trying to solve
 - Define the inputs required by the program and the outputs produced by the program
 - Design the algorithm that you intend to implement in the program
 - Turn the algorithm into Fortran statements
 - Test the resulting program
- Indentations are used to delineate "blocks" of code associated with loops and logic (shown below)
- Object-oriented design (OOD) is a modern method of code design (this will be discussed in a later lecture)

Branches

- Branches are Fortran statements that allow us to select and execute specific sections of code while skipping other sections of code.
- The most common form of a branch is the IF statement:

IF(logical_expression)THEN
statement 1

statement 2

•

END IF

Example: IF(a**2 <= b) THEN

write(*,*) a,b

END IF

writes the a and b variables when a² is less than or equal to b, otherwise it skips the write statement

• **Example:** IF(a**2 <=b) write(*,*) a,b

ELSE and ELSE IF Blocks

 Sometimes we may want to execute one block of statements if some condition is true and a different set of statements if other conditions are true. This can be done with ELSE and ELSEIF blocks:

• Example:

IF(a**2 <= b) THEN

write(*,*) 'a**2 is less than or equal to b', a,b

ELSE

write(*,*) 'a**2 is greater than b'

statements must be on separate lines

END IF

• Example: IF(a**2 < b) THEN

write(*,*) 'a**2 = b', a,b

ELSE IF(a**2 = b) THEN

write(*,*) 'a**2 is equal to b', a,b

ELSE

write(*,*) 'a**2 is greater than b', a,b

END IF

Any number of ELSE IF statements may appear. An ELSE IF will be tested IFF all other IF tests above it fail so order is important.

Naming Block IFs

 You can give a block IF a unique name in order to make your code more readable

```
    Example
        ASQUARED: IF(a**2 < b) THEN
            write(*,*) 'a**2 = b', a,b
        ELSE IF(a**2 = b) THEN
            write(*,*) 'a**2 is equal to b', a,b
        ELSE
            write(*,*) 'a**2 is greater than b', a,b
        END IF ASQUARED</li>
```

Branching with CASE

 Another form of branching involves the CASE construct. It allows a particular code block to execute based upon a single integer, character, or logical expression:

PICKTYPE: SELECT CASE (itype_current)

CASE (itype1)
statements....

CASE (itype2)
statements....

CASE (itype2)
statements....

EXAMPLE:

SELECT CASE (itype_current is in the range of values of itype1, then the first block will execute

Examples of itype1, itype2 might be 1:20 or -5, or -10:55, or even a single integer

statements....

END SELECT PICKTYPE

Optional name

Loops

- We very often want to do a set of operations over elements of an array. In engineering problems, we often want to do a series of operations over the points (or cells) in a computational grid. We can do this using loops. There are different types of loops in Fortran
 - Logical DO Loop
 - Iterative or counting DO Loop

Logical Loops

Logical loops can be written with IF's inside a loop:

• Example: DO

statement 1

statement 2...

IF (logical_expression) EXIT

statement n

statement n+1

END DO

The statements are executed indefinitely until the logical_expression becomes true at which point control leaves the loop and executes the first statement after the END DO

Logical Loops

Logical loops can also be written with the WHILE construct:

Pseudo Code

Example: WHILE

. . . .

IF (logical_expression) EXIT

. . . .

END of WHILE

• **Example:** DO WHILE (logical_expression)

. . .

END DO

Iterative or Counting Loops

 We can also execute a block of statements N times by simply executing a DO loop with a counter

• **Example:** DO icounter = istart, iend, increment

statement 1

statement 2....

END DO

- The statements between the DO and END DO are executed "(iend-start+1)/increment" times.
- The variable, icounter, may be referenced inside the loop.
 The values of istart, iend, and increment must be specified and <u>must be integers or defined integer variables</u>.
 - I will take points off if non-integers are used as do loop indices!
- "increment" is optional with a default value of 1

Iterative or Counting Loops

X = REAL(I-1)

Y = Y + X*100.

END DO

Note the use of decimals in the numbers when performing real arithmetic

Example:

DO N = 10,-10,-2

F = 2.*REAL(N)**2

Z = 55.*F**2 - 25.

END DO

Note the use of integer 2 in power when possible...much faster

Iterative or Counting Loops

Iterative loops can be nested.

```
• Example: DO I = 1,20
DO J = 1,20
A = REAL(I)*REAL(J)
X = 10.*REAL(I)
B = A*X
END DO
END DO
```

Cycle and Exit

- Iterative loops can be controlled using the CYCLE and EXIT statements.
 - CYCLE in conjunction with an IF statement can be used to return operation back to the beginning of the DO loop.
 - EXIT in conjunction with an IF statement can be used to terminate a DO loop

```
Examples: DO I = 1,5
                                      DOI = 1,5
               IF(I == 3) CYCLE
                                        IF(I == 3) EXIT
               WRITE(*,*) 'TEST ', I
                                        WRITE(*,*) 'TEST ', I
             END DO
                                      END DO
             Results in:
                        TEST 1
                                      Results in:
                                                   TEST 1
                          TFST 2
                                                   TFST 2
                          TEST 4
                          TFST 5
```

Naming Loops

 DO loops can be named in order to improve organization and "readability" of your code

```
• Example:
                    MULTIPLY: DO I = 1,20
                       DOJ = 1,20
                         A = REAL(I)*REAL(J)
                         X = 10.*REAL(I)
                         B = A*X
                       END DO
                     END DO MULTIPLY
Example:
                    TEST: DO I = 1,5
                       IF(I == 2) CYCLE TEST
                       IF(I == 4) EXIT TEST
                       WRITE(*,*) 'TEST CASE ', I
                     END DO TEST
```

Combining IF Blocks and DO Loops

- When combining DO-loops with logical IF-blocks, it is generally much more computationally efficient to put the DO-loop inside of the IF-block
 - Logical IF-blocks are computationally expensive
 - By placing an IF-block inside of a DO-loop, the expense of the IF statement is greatly multiplied

```
• EXAMPLE: IF(TEST<=1.0) THEN

DO I = 1,32,2

TEMP = REAL(I)*100.

END DO

END IF
```