

Chapter 1

Basic Elements of Fortran

1.1 Variable Names

A name is a symbolic link to a location in memory. A variable is a memory location whose value may be changed during execution. Names must:

- have between 1 and 63 alphanumeric character (alphabet, digits and underscore).
- start with a letter.

One should not use Fortran keyword or standard intrinsic (in-built) function as a variable name. Tempting names that should be avoided in this respect include: counts, len, product, range, scale, size, sum, tiny. The following are valid variable names: `SUST_UNITED`, `as_easy_as_123`. The following are not: `Math+Physics` ('+' is not allowed), `999help` (starts with a number), `Hello!` ('!' would be treated a comment not as a part of the variable name)

1.2 Data Types

In Fortran there are 5 intrinsic data types.

1. Integer
2. Real
3. Complex
4. Character
5. Logical

The first three are numeric types while the other two are non-numeric types. It is also possible to have derived data types and pointers.

1.2.1 Integer

Integer constants are whole numbers without a decimal point. e.g. 100, +16, -14, 0, 666. They are stored exactly, but their range is limited; typically -2^{n-1} to $2^{n-1} - 1$. Where n is either 16 (for 2-byte integer) or 32 (for 4-byte integer). It is possible to change the default range using the `kind` type parameter.

1.2.2 Real

Real constant has a decimal point and maybe entered as either fixed point, eg. 442.2 or floating point, eg. 4.122e+02. Real constants are stored in exponential form in memory, no matter how they are entered. They are accurate only to a finite machine precision (which again, can be changed using the `kind` type parameter).

1.2.3 Complex

Complex constants consist of paired real number corresponding to real and imaginary parts. eg. (2.0, 3.0) corresponds to $2 + 3i$.

1.2.4 Character

Character constants consists of strings of characters enclosed by a pair of delimiters, which may be either single (') or double (") quotes. eg. "This is a string", 'Department of Mathematics'. The delimiter themselves are not part of the string.

1.2.5 Logical

Logical constants may be either true or false.

1.3 A program to compute square root of a number

$$x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(x_n + \frac{a}{x_n} \right) \rightarrow \sqrt{a}$$

Using `if (...) exit`

```
1 program newton
2   implicit none
3   real a
4   real x, xold
5   real change
6   real, parameter :: tolerance=10e-6
7   print*, "Enter a number:"
8   read*, a
9   x=1.0
10  do
11    xold=x
12    x=0.5*(x+a/x)
13    print*, x
14    change=abs((x-xold)/x)
15    if(change<tolerance) exit
16  end do
17 end program newton
```

Listing 1.1: Newton's method for finding square root (using if)

Using `do while`

```
1 program newton
2   implicit none
3   real a
4   real x, xold
5   real change
6   real, parameter :: tolerance=10e-6
7   print*, "Enter a number:"
8   read*, a
9   x=1.0
10  do while(change>tolerance)
11    xold=x
12    x=0.5*(x+a/x)
13    print*, x
14    change=abs((x-xold)/x)
15  end do
```

1.4 Declaration of Variable

1.4.1 Type

Variables should be declared (that is, have either data types defined and memory set aside for them) before any executable statements. This is achieved by a type declaration statement of form, eg.

```
integer num
real x
complex z
logical answer
character letter
```

More than one variable can be declared in each statement, eg. `integer i,j,k`

1.4.2 Initialization

If desired variables can be initialized in their type-declaration statement. In this case a double colon (`::`) must be used. Thus, the above examples might become

```
integer :: num=2
real :: x=0.5
complex :: z=(0.0, 1.0)
logical :: answer=true
character :: letter='A'
```

Variables can also be initialized with a data statement. eg.

```
data, num, x, z, answer, letter / 20,50, (0.09,1.0), .false., 'B' /
```

The data statement must be placed before any executable statement.

1.4.3 Attributes

Various attributes may be specified for variables in their type-declaration statement. One such is `parameter`. A variable declaration with this attribute may not have its value changed within the program unit. It is often used to emphasize key physical or mathematical constants. eg. `real, parameter :: gravity=9.81`

1.4.4 Precision and Kind

By default, `real x` will occupy 4 bytes of computer memory and will be inaccurate in the sixth significant figure. The accuracy can be increased by replacing this type statement by `double precision x` with the floating-point variable now requiring twice as many bytes of memory. Better portability can be used using `kind` parameters. Avoid `double precision` statement by using

```
integer, parameter :: rkind=kind(1.0d0)
```

followed by the declaration for all floating point variable like :

```
real (kind=rkind) x
```

To switch to single precision for all floating-point variable just replace `1.0d0` by `1.0` in the first statement.

Intrinsic functions which allow you to determine the `kind` parameter for different types are

```
selected_char_kind(name)
selected_int_kind(range)
selected_real_kind(precision, range)
```

1.5 Operators and Expression

1.5.1 Numeric Operator

A numeric expression is a formula combining constants, variables and functions using the numeric intrinsic operators given in the following table:

Operator	Meaning	Precedence (1=highest)
**	x^y (Exponential)	1
*	xy (Multiplication)	2
/	$\frac{x}{y}$ (Division)	2
+	$x + y$ (Addition) or $(+x)$ unary plus	3
-	$x - y$ (Subtraction) or $(-x)$ unary minus	3

Repeated exponential is the single exception to the left-to-right rule for equal precedence.

$$a ** b ** c \rightarrow a^{b^c}$$

1.5.2 Type Coercion

When a binary operator has operands of different type, the weaker type is coerced to the stronger type and the result is of the stronger type. eg. $3/10.0 \rightarrow 3.0/10.0$

1.5.3 Character Operator

There is only one character operator, concatenation, `//`, eg. `"shah"//"jalal"` gives `"shahjalal"`

1.6 Line Discipline

The usual layout of statement is one pre line. However, there may be more than one statement per line separated by a semi colon; eg. `a=1.0;b=1.0; c=100`

$$\text{radius} = \text{degrees} * \text{Pi} \& \\ / 180.0$$

is same as the single line statement `radius = degrees * Pi / 180.0`

1.7 Remarks

1.7.1 Pi

The constant π appears a lot in mathematical programming. eg, whenever converting between degrees and radians. If a **real** variable `Pi` is declared then its value can be set within the program: `Pi=3.14159`. But it is good to declare it as a **parameter** in its type statement. eg, `real, parameter :: Pi=3.14159`. Alternatively, a popular method to obtain an accurate value is to insert the result

$$\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = 1.0 \\ \Rightarrow \text{Pi} = 4.0 * \text{atan}(1.0)$$

1.7.2 Exponents

If an exponent ("Power") is coded as an integer it will be worked out by repeated multiplication.

eg, `a ** 3` will be worked out as `a*a*a`
`a ** (-3)` will be worked out as `1/(a*a*a)`

For non-integer powers (including whole numbers if a decimal point is used) the result will be worked out by $a^b = (e^{\ln a})^b$

$a^{**3.0}$ will be worked out something akin to $e^{3.0 \ln a}$. However, the logarithms of negative numbers don't exist. So the following Fortran statement is legitimate:

$$x = (-1) ** 2$$

but the next one isn't

$$x = (-1) ** 2.0$$

The bottom line is that

- If the exponent is genuinely a whole number, then don't use a decimal point or for small powers, simply write it explicitly as a repeated multiple. eg, $a*a*a$
- Take special care with odd roots of negative numbers. e.g, $(-1)^{1/3}$; ypu should work out the fractional power of the magnitude, then adjust the sign. eg, write $(-8)^{1/3}$ as $-(8)^{1/3}$

Remember because of the integer arithmetic the Fortran statement $x**(1/3)$ actually evaluates to $x**0$ (=1.0; presumably not intended). To ensure real arithmetic code as $x**(1.0/3.0)$.

A useful intrinsic function for setting sign of an expression as $\text{sign}(x,y) \rightarrow$ absolute value of x times the sign of y .