

## 3. Programming Languages - II

# Fortran 95/2003

<sup>2</sup>A typical F90/95/2003 code to solve  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ :

```
PROGRAM roots ! This program solves a * x**2 + b * x + c = 0.
IMPLICIT NONE
! Declare the variables used in this program
REAL :: a,b,c ! Coefficients of the equation
REAL :: disc, imag_part, real_part, x1, x2 !New variables
! Read coefficients
WRITE (*,*) 'Enter the coefficients A, B, and C:'
READ (*,*) a, b, c
! Check data entry
WRITE (*,*) 'The coefficients A, B, and C are: ', a, b, c
disc = b**2 - 4.*a*c
IF ( disc > 0.0 ) THEN ! there are two real roots X1 and X2:
X1 = ( -b + sqrt(disc) ) / ( 2.0*a ) ! Note X1 is same as x1
X2 = ( -b - sqrt(disc) ) / ( 2.0*a )
WRITE (*,*) 'This equation has two real roots X1 and X2:'
WRITE (*,*) 'X1 = ', x1
WRITE (*,*) 'X2 = ', x2
```

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<sup>2</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

```

ELSE IF ( disc == 0.0 ) THEN ! there is one repeated root x1:
x1 = ( -b ) / ( 2.0*a )
WRITE (*,*) 'This equation has two identical real roots:'
WRITE (*,*) 'X1 = X2 = ', x1
ELSE ! the roots are complex roots:
real_part = ( -b ) / ( 2. * a )
imag_part = sqrt ( abs (disc) ) / ( 2.0*a )
WRITE (*,*) 'This equation has complex roots:'
WRITE (*,*) 'X1 = ', real_part, ' +i ', imag_part
WRITE (*,*) 'X2 = ', real_part, ' -i ', imag_part
END IF
END PROGRAM roots

```

- Save the above code as `roots.f90`
- On Sayers Lab machines using the GNU Fortran compiler (`gfortran`) we may create an executable version, say, `roots_exe`, by typing the command  
`gfortran -o roots_exe roots.f90`
- You may also use the Portland Group (PG) compiler in the lab. For PG compiler, replace `gfortran` in the above command with `pgf90` or `pgf95`, or `pghpf`.
- To execute the file, type the command `./roots_exe`
- On MIO/AuN, you may use `gfortran`, `pgf90`, `pgf95`, `pghpf`, or the Intel Fortran Compiler `ifort`.

- <sup>4</sup>We use the notation F90+ to denote Fortran 90/95/2003
- In F90+ the 26 uppercase letters A to Z are same as the corresponding 26 lowercase letters a to z
- In addition, the F90+ character set consists of digits (0 to 9), underscore character (\_), arithmetic symbols (+, -, \*, /, \*\*), miscellaneous symbols: ( ) = , ' \$ : ! ' ' % & ; < > ? and blank
- Fortran 2003 character-set includes additional symbols:  
~ \ [ ] ' ^ { } | # @
- F90+ statements in a line may be up to 132 characters long
- A statement can be continued in the next line by ending the current line with an ampersand (&), with a maximum continuation of up to 40 lines
- Fortran 2003 allows continuation up to 256 lines

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<sup>4</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- F90+ statements can be numbered (between 1 and 99999)
- The statements numbers are unique within a program
- Avoid using statement numbers in F90+
- Any characters followed by ! are comments
- In general, main F90+ programs have three sections: declaration, execution, and termination
- The first statement of the declaration section is a nonexecutable PROGRAM statement (first one) that specifies the name of the program
- The names/variables of F90+ programs may each have up to 31 characters. (In Fortran 2003, these can be up to 63 characters)
- The termination section consists of an END PROGRAM that specifies the name of the program to be terminated
- The STOP statement can be used anywhere between the second and last line of a program to break a program due to, for example, encountering some unwanted values or ....

- <sup>5</sup>In F90+, there are five built-in type constants and variables:  
INTEGER, REAL, COMPLEX, CHARACTER , LOGICAL
- INTEGER:
  - ★ An INTEGER constant does not contain a decimal point
  - ★ An INTEGER variable takes a value of integer data type
  - ★ Most compilers support 16-bit and 32-bit integers,  
leading to maximum integer constant/variable value being  
 $2^{31} - 1 = 2147483647 = 2.147483647 \times 10^9$
  - ★ F90+ allows choice of 16-bit or 32-bit kinds of integers
  - ★ The kind number can be obtained for a particular choice, system,  
and compiler using the built-in function `SELECTED_INT_KIND`
  - ★ The statement `kind_number = SELECTED_INT_KIND(r)` returns the small-  
est kind of integer value with maximum storage of  $r$  digits
  - ★ On Sayers Lab machines and MIO/AuN, with GFORTRAN, PG,  
and INTEL compilers, the useful `kind_number` values are 1, 2, 4,  
and 8 respectively for  $r = 1, 2$ ,  $r = 3, 4$ ,  $r = 5, 6, 7, 8$ , and  $r = 10$  to 16

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<sup>5</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018



- <sup>6</sup>Use `INTEGER :: val` or `INTEGER(KIND=8) :: val` or `INTEGER(KIND = SELECTED_INT_KIND(10)) :: val`
- Beware of integer arithmetic:  
involves integer data and produces only an integer result
- The statements  
`INTEGER, PARAMETER :: master = 0` !Note: `PARAMETER`  
`INTEGER(KIND = SELECTED_INT_KIND(10)) :: a, b`  
`a = 5`  
`b = 8`  
`c = a/b`
- will lead to the value of `c = 0.0`
- Avoid integer arithmetic, especially division, whenever possible
- If the type of a variable is not explicitly specified and if the variable name begins with one the letters I, J, K, L, M, N, then the variable is assumed to be of `INTEGER` type; otherwise assumed to be of `REAL` type

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<sup>6</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<sup>7</sup>REAL constants and variables :

- A REAL constant contains a decimal point
- A REAL variable takes a value of real data type
- Storage of data type, say  $x$ , is done in three parts: sign, mantissa, and exponent, of the form

$$\star x = s(d_0 \cdot d_1 d_2 \cdots d_{p-1})_\beta \beta^e = s(d_0 + d_1 \beta^{-1} + d_2 \beta^{-2} + \cdots + d_{p-1} \beta^{-(p-1)}) \beta^e$$

$$\star \text{sign} \quad s = + \text{ or } -$$

$$\star \text{digits} \quad d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{p-1}, \quad 0 \leq d_j \leq \beta - 1$$

$$\star \text{precision} \quad p$$

$$\star \text{base} \quad \beta$$

$$\star \text{exponent } e \quad \text{with} \quad e_{\min} \leq e \leq e_{\max}$$

$$\star \text{exponent (in bits with width } w) \quad e = (e_1 e_2 \cdots e_w)_\beta$$

$$\star \text{mantissa (in bits with precision value } p) \quad (d_0 \cdot d_1 d_2 \cdots d_{p-1})_\beta$$

- In IEEE Standard 754, the  $p$ -digit mantissa is stored using  $p - 1$  bits, because the first digit in a normalized binary number is always 1 (and de-normalized numbers, Inf, NaN are taken care of using certain biased representation for the exponent in IEEE 754)

## <sup>8</sup>5.3 IEEE Standard 754

	Single Precision	Double precision
$\beta$	<b>2</b>	<b>2</b>
$p$	<b>24</b>	<b>53</b>
$w$	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>
$e_{\max}$	$2^7 - 1 = 127$	$2^{10} - 1 = 1023$
$e_{\min}$	$2 - 2^7 = -126$	$2 - 2^{10} = -1022$
$\epsilon$	$2^{-23} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-7}$	$2^{-52} \approx 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$

Width in Bits

	Single	Double
sign	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>
exponent	<b>8</b>	<b>11</b>
mantissa	<b><u>23</u></b>	<b><u>52</u></b>
Total	<b><u>32</u></b>	<b><u>64</u></b>

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<sup>8</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>9</sup>The standard dictates a biased representation for the exponent with

$$e = E - e_{\max} = E - (2^{w-1} - 1).$$

- Notice that

$$e = e_{\max} + 1 \quad \text{when} \quad E = 2e_{\max} + 1 = 2^w - 1 = (1 \cdots 1)_2$$

$$e = e_{\min} - 1 \quad \text{when} \quad E = e_{\max} + e_{\min} - 1 = 0 = (0 \cdots 0)_2$$

biased exponent	signed exponent	mantissa	number
$1 \leq E \leq 2^w - 2$	$e_{\min} \leq e \leq e_{\max}$	$0 \leq M \leq 2^{p-1} - 1$	$1.m \times 2^e$
$E = 0$	$e = e_{\min} - 1$	$\begin{cases} M = 0 \\ M \neq 0 \end{cases}$	$\begin{matrix} 0 \\ 0.m \times 2^{e_{\min}} \end{matrix}$
$E = 2^w - 1$	$e = e_{\max} + 1$	$\begin{cases} M = 0 \\ M \neq 0 \end{cases}$	$\begin{matrix} \text{Inf} \\ \text{NaN} \end{matrix}$

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<sup>9</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- E is the value of exponent bits and M is value of mantissa bits
- The IEEE 754 standard leads to the following in double precision:
  - ★ Largest positive normalized machine number is:  
 $(\beta - \beta^{1-p})\beta^{e_{\max}} = 1.797693134862316 \dots \times 10^{308}$
  - ★ Smallest positive normalized machine number is:  
 $\beta^{e_{\min}} = 2.225073858507201 \times 10^{-308}$

- <sup>10</sup>A simple approach to create double precision real variables, say a, b, pi, in F90+ is to use the statements  
double precision :: a, b  
double precision, parameter :: pi = 3.141592653589793d0
- To create single precision variables a and b, replace double precision with single precision
- The simple approach assumes that single precision variables are stored in 32-bits and double precision variables are stored in 64-bits
- However, some 64-bit processors use 64-bits for single precision and 128-bits for double processors
- In view of expected substantial changes in processors and compilers, avoid the above simple approach/assumption
- Fortran 95/2003 provides a way to avoid the above assumption using the intrinsic KIND functions and KIND type parameters
- The kind numbers depend also on compilers

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- <sup>11</sup>The processor and compilers dependent kind number, say MINE, that facilitates declaration of real variables with a decimal digits accuracy in mantissa and exponent range between  $10^{-b}$  and  $10^b$  can be created using `SELECTED_REAL_KIND(a,b)` or `SELECTED_REAL_KIND(p=a,r=b)` or `SELECTED_REAL_KIND(precision=a,range=b)`
- For example, the integer parameter MINE with  $p = 15, r = 30$  can be created using the statement  
`INTEGER, PARAMETER :: MINE = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15,30)`
- On Sayers Lab machines (with GNU, PG compilers) and on MIO/AuN (with gfortran, PG, INTEL compilers), we get `MINE = 8`
- The above statement may be followed by  
`REAL (KIND=MINE) :: e, f, g`  
`REAL (KIND=MINE), PARAMETER :: h = 2.74_MINE`  
to create real variables with kind-type MINE
- The statement `e_type = KIND(e)` will give `e_type = 8`
- A simple approach to obtain single and double precision kind numbers is to seek output of `kind(0.0)` and `kind(0.d0)`.  
(Resp. 4 and 8 on MIO/AuN.)

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<sup>11</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>12</sup>Recall that, according to IEEE standard 754, in double precision (with 64-bits) the largest positive normalized machine number is:  $(\beta - \beta^{1-p})\beta^{e_{\max}} = 1.797693134862316 \dots \times 10^{308}$
- For “val = 1.5e+39”, why does an F90+ compiler gives an overflow error despite choosing correct precision and range for val?
- In our derivation of  $1.797693134862316 \dots \times 10^{308}$ , we used the IEEE 754 standard of how the 64-bits are allocated in double precision
- In particular, the exponent part has 11 bits, hence  $e_{\max} = 2^{10} - 1 = 1023$  and the remaining 53 bits are for the non-exponent part, leading to machine epsilon  $2^{-52} = 2.2204 \times 10^{-16}$ , that is, 15 to 16 digit accuracy.
- F90+ standard does not specify how bits must be used
- In particular, because  $2^{-55} = 2.7756 \times 10^{-17}$ , to achieve 16 to 17 accuracy, one may allocate 56 bits for the non-exponent part and the remaining  $64 - 56 = 8$  bits (as in single precision) for the exponent part
- In this case, we get  $e_{\max} = 2^7 - 1 = 127$ ,  $e_{\min} = 2 - 2^7 = -126$ . Thus the range of the exponent is from  $10^{-38}$  to  $10^{38}$ , because, with  $p = 56$ ,  $e_{\max} = 127$ ,  $e_{\min} = -126$ ,  $(\beta - \beta^{1-p})\beta^{e_{\max}} = 3.4028 \times 10^{38}$  and  $\beta^{e_{\min}} = 1.1755 \times 10^{-38}$

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<sup>13</sup>COMPLEX constants and variables :

- A COMPLEX constant contains two numeric constants, separated by a comma and enclosed in parenthesis
- The first and second numeric constants in the parenthesis are respectively the real and imaginary part of the complex constant
- A COMPLEX variable takes a value of complex data type
- The following statements illustrate initializing and using complex constants and variables:
  - `COMPLEX :: a = (3, 5)`
  - `INTEGER, PARAMETER :: MINE = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15,30)`
  - `REAL(KIND=MINE) :: a1 = 3.1423_MINE`
  - `REAL(KIND=MINE) :: a2 = 4.7453_MINE`
  - `COMPLEX(KIND=MINE) :: b, c`
  - `COMPLEX :: d`
  - `b = CMPLX(a1, a2, MINE)`
  - `c = CONJG(a)`
  - `d = CABS(a)`

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<sup>14</sup>**A shorter F90+ code to solve  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  using CMPLX:**

```
PROGRAM roots ! This program solves a * x**2 + b * x + c = 0.
IMPLICIT NONE
! Declare the variables used in this program
REAL (KIND = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15,100)) :: a,b,c, disc
COMPLEX (KIND = SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15,100)):: x1, x2
! Read coefficients
Write (*,*) 'Enter the coefficients A, B, and C:'
READ (*,*) a, b, c
! Check data entry
WRITE (*,*) 'The coefficients A, B, and C are: ', a, b, c
disc = b**2 - 4.*a*c
x1 = ( -b + sqrt( CMPLX(disc, 0.0) ) / ( 2.0*a )
x2 = ( -b - sqrt(CMPLX(disc, 0.0) ) / ( 2.0*a )
WRITE (*,*) 'This roots are:'
WRITE (*,*) 'x1 = ', REAL(x1), ' +i ', AIMAG(x1)
WRITE (*,*) 'x1 = ', REAL(x2), ' -i ', AIMAG(x2)
END PROGRAM roots
```

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<sup>14</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<sup>15</sup>Character constants and variables :

- A character constant is a string of characters enclosed in single or double quotes
- A character variable takes a value of character data type that consists of strings and alphanumeric characters
- To create three character variables, say `first_name`, `mid_ini`, `last_name`, with `mid_ini` of length one and rest of length 25, we may use  
`CHARACTER :: mid_ini`  
`CHARACTER(len=25) :: first_name, last_name` or  
`CHARACTER(25) :: first_name, last_name`
- Specifying length of a declared character may be avoided:  
`CHARACTER, PARAMETER :: MY_ERROR = 'Don't know how now, fix later'`
- Fortran 2003 allows a new function `SELECTED_CHAR_KIND(name)` where, for example, `name` can be `DEFAULT`, `ASCII`, `ISO_9660` or ..., to get an integer `kind_num` that can then be used (if  $\geq 1$ ), for example, as  
`CHARACTER(KIND = kind_num, len = 25) :: first_name, last_name`

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<sup>15</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

## 16 Write basic F90+ codes

- As illustrated in the code for solving a general quadratic equation, to write a code to solve/simulate a chosen problem/model first identify various formulas/algorithms to solve the problem
- Start with a PROGRAM statement using a name for the code
- Use IMPLICIT NONE statement to turn off default types in Fortran
- Use the built-in type constants and variables (such as INTEGER, REAL, ....) to declare various variables required to solve the problem. Use SELECTED\_INT\_KIND, SELECTED\_REAL\_KIND, .... to make the code portable to various computing environments
- If required, use READ and WRITE to read and write/validate any input data
- If required, use STOP statement to stop execution of the program. (It is common to use CHARACTER type to print out error messages, using WRITE or PRINT, before using a STOP statement in between the code.)
- End the code using END PROGRAM statement using the chosen name

<sup>17</sup>Logical constants, variables, and operators :

- A logical constant can take one of the two values: `.TRUE.` or `.FALSE.`
- A logical variable takes a value of the logical data type
- Logical variables, say, `a`, `b`, `c`, can be specified using the statement:  
`LOGICAL :: a, b, c`
- Arithmetic expressions and operators are used for real variables
- Similarly, logical variables are usually created using logical expressions that require logic (relational and combinational) operators
- The relational operators in F90+ are:  
`==`, `/=`, `>`, `>=`, `<`, `<=`, where the meaning of `/=` is *not equal to*.  
(In earlier Fortran versions : `.EQ.`, `.NE.`, `.GT.`, `.GE.`, `.LT.`, `.LE.`)
- The combinational operators in F90+ are:  
`.AND.`, `.OR.`, `.EQV.`, `.NEQV.`, `.NOT.`
- In particular, the statement `a_new = a .NEQV. b`  
yields a new logical variable `a_new` with value `.TRUE.`, if the logical variables `a` and `b` do not have the same value

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<sup>17</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

## <sup>18</sup> IF statements

In F90+, IF statements take the following form:

```
IF <logical expression>1 THEN
```

```
    <statements>1
```

```
    ...
```

```
ELSE IF <logical expression>2 THEN
```

```
    <statements>2
```

```
    ...
```

```
ELSE
```

```
    <statements>3
```

```
    ...
```

```
END IF
```

- <statements><sub>*i*</sub> are executed if <logical expression><sub>*i*</sub> is .TRUE.
- More than one ELSE IF branch is permitted. The ELSE IF and ELSE branches may be omitted and statement lists may be empty

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<sup>18</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>19</sup>In F90+, a block of branching and loop statements can be named to facilitate ease in tracking nested branching and loop statements
- The format for a named IF construct is:

```
name_value: IF <logical expression>1 THEN
    <statements>1
    ...
ELSE IF <logical expression>2 THEN
    <statements>2
    ...
ELSE
    <statements>3
    ...
END IF name_value
```

---

<sup>19</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

For example, in a nested class of IF statements, it is useful to have  
my\_outer: IF <logical expression><sub>i</sub> THEN

    <statements><sub>i</sub>

    ...

my\_middle: IF <logical expression><sub>j</sub> THEN

    <statements><sub>j</sub>

    ...

my\_last: IF <logical expression><sub>z</sub> THEN

    <statements><sub>z</sub>

    END IF my\_last

    ...

END IF my\_middle

...

END IF my\_outer



## <sup>20</sup> SELECT CASE statements

- These are branching construct in F90+, to execute a block of codes based on the value of a single integer, character, or logical expression
- The format for a named SELECT CASE construct is:

```
name_value: SELECT CASE <case_expression>
```

```
CASE <case_value>1
```

```
    <statements>1
```

```
    ...
```

```
CASE <case_value>2
```

```
    <statements>2
```

```
    ...
```

```
CASE DEFAULT
```

```
    <statements>default
```

```
    ...
```

```
END SELECT name_value
```

---

<sup>20</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>21</sup> $\langle \text{statements} \rangle_i$  are executed if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle$  is in the range of values included in the  $\langle \text{case\_value} \rangle_i$
- The CASE DEFAULT block is optional and if included the  $\langle \text{statements} \rangle_{\text{default}}$  are executed only if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle$  does not match any of the range of values included in  $\langle \text{case\_value} \rangle_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$
- The name\_value: part is optional and if desired can be included also in the line CASE  $\langle \text{case\_value} \rangle_i$ . E.g., CASE  $\langle \text{case\_value} \rangle_i$  name\_value
- The colon operator “:” is useful to specify  $\langle \text{case\_value} \rangle_i$
- The statements in the block  
CASE (low\_val:high\_val)  
is executed if  $\text{low\_val} \leq \langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \leq \text{high\_val}$
- The statements in the block  
CASE (:high\_val)  
is executed if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \leq \text{high\_val}$
- The statements in the block  
CASE (low\_val:)  
is executed if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \geq \text{low\_val}$

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<sup>21</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

## <sup>22</sup> Loops

In F90+, we have a few types of loops.

First we consider the while-type loop of the form:

```
DO
    <statements>
    ...
    IF <logical expression> EXIT
    ...
END DO
```

It is better to use the above form rather than the following form:

```
DO WHILE <logical expression>
    <statements>
    ...
END DO
```

---

<sup>22</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>23</sup>The iterative/counting loop in F90+ is of the form:

```
DO index = istart, iend, incr
    <statements>
    ...
END DO
```

- CYCLE statements provide a mechanism to skip over some parts
- For example, to skip certain work described in <statements><sub>z</sub> for a particular index (if encountered), say 5, within a loop, one may use

```
DO index = istart, iend, incr
    <statements>
    ...
    IF (index == 5) CYCLE
    <statements>z
END DO
```

- To exit out of the loop if index 5 is encountered, replace the CYCLE statement with IF (index == 5) EXIT

---

<sup>23</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<sup>24</sup>As in IF statements, DO loops can be named and these are particularly useful for nested loops:

```
my_outer: DO i = 1, 1000, 4
    <statements>i
    ...
my_middle: DO p = i, 2000, 2
    <statements>j
    ...
my_last: DO w = i*p, 6000, 3
    <statements>z
    END DO my_last
    ...
END DO my_middle
...
END DO my_outer
```

---

<sup>24</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<sup>25</sup>INPUT/OUTPUT statements :

- General READ/WRITE statements are of the form

READ(s, f) data

WRITE(s, f) data

where s is the unit from/to which the data to be read/written using the format specified in f

- In particular, the statements

READ(\*, \*) data

WRITE(\*, \*) data

correspond to read/write from/to the standard input/output unit using a default format. These are unformatted I/O statements

- Examples of formatted statements to print integer data ival1, ival2 (using field width of size 8) and real data rval1, rval2, rval3 (using field width of size 8 in characters and 4 digits reserved right of decimal place) are:

WRITE(\*, 100) ival1, ival2, rval1, rval2, rval3

or

PRINT 100, ival1, ival2, rval1, rval2, rval3

100 FORMAT(2I8, 3F8.4)

---

<sup>25</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>26</sup>The F format (rFw.d) displays the real data in decimal notation
- The E format (rEw.d) displays the real data in exponential notation
- The G format (rGw.d) displays the real data in E or F format  
(In E form if the exponent in the data is negative or bigger than d.)
- The ES format (rESw.d) displays the real data in scientific notation
- The EN format (rENw.d) displays the real data in engineering notation
- For the above E, G, ES, EN formats,  $w \geq d + 7$ ,  
with two digits reserved for the exponent part
- To reserve e digits for the exponent part, use  
rEw.dEe, rGw.dEe, rESw.dEe, rENw.dEe
- The L format (rLw) is useful for logical data
- The A format (rAw) is useful for character data
- The X format (nX) is useful for skipping n spaces
- The T format (Tc) is useful to move to column c
- / is useful to move down one line

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<sup>26</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>27</sup>In order to read/write data from/to a specific disk file instead of the standard I/O unit, use OPEN and CLOSE statements with a specific unit number and use the unit number to replace \* in READ(\*,100) or WRITE(\*,100):
- Suppose that we want our program to read some data from an existing input data file input\_data.txt and that some output to be written in a new file output\_data.txt
- We need to assign an integer, say 9, for the input data file and a different integer, say 14, for the output file and these are the unit numbers to be used.
- After opening these two files within the program, we may use READ(9,100) or WRITE(14,100):
- The opening statements before the above statements are typically of the form  

```
OPEN(UNIT=9, FILE='input_data.txt', STATUS='old', ACTION = 'read',
      IOSTAT=read_error)
OPEN(UNIT=14, FILE='output_data.txt', STATUS='new', ACTION = 'write',
      IOSTAT=write_error)
```

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<sup>27</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018



- <sup>28</sup>In the above OPEN statements, ACTION (specifying action should be either read or write or readwrite) and IOSTAT (returning value 0 to the assigned integer variables read\_error and write\_error if successful or 1 if not successful) may be omitted from the list
- Fortran 2003 provides a new option IOMSG that allows specifying a character that will be unchanged if successful and will be changed to an error message if unsuccessful
- The general form of OPEN statement is OPEN(my\_list), where my\_list, may include
  - ★ UNIT= (a non-negative integer value)
  - ★ FILE= (a character value)
  - ★ STATUS= ('old' or 'new' or 'replace' or 'scratch' or 'unknown')
  - ★ ACTION= (a character 'read' or 'write' or 'readwrite')
  - ★ IOSTAT= (an integer variable)
  - ★ IOMSG= (a character variable)
  - ★ ...

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<sup>28</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>29</sup>A simple approach to closing the opened units 9 and 14 are the statements  
`CLOSE(9)`                                      `CLOSE(UNIT= 14)`
- More generally, one may use  
`CLOSE(UNIT=9, STATUS='delete', IOSTAT = close_err)`  
`CLOSE(UNIT=14, STATUS='keep', IOMSG = 'ok_end')`
- `REWIND (UNIT=9)` is useful to position the file to allow the next `READ` statement to read from the first line in the file
- `BACKSPACE (UNIT=9, IOSTAT= my_err)` is useful to position the file back by one line for the next `READ` statement
- `ENDFILE (UNIT=14, IOSTAT= end_err)` statement is useful to make sure that no further `READs` or `WRITEs` is possible until either the `REWIND` or `BACKSPACE` statements are executed for the unit 14
- Fortran 2003 allows further options such as `WAIT`, `FLUSH`, ...
- `INQUIRE` statements are useful to check the status or properties of a file before or after `OPEN` statements

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<sup>29</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <sup>30</sup>For example, use `INQUIRE (FILE='input_data.txt', EXIST = my_chk)` to get existence of the input data file in the working directory.
- Depending on the value of the logical variable `my_chk` several `IF` or other type statements can be used to proceed accordingly (such as creating new data, destroying old data, or ....)
- We may be interested in selecting certain group of variables within a code and write just that group to some output file
- This can be achieved by using `NAMelist` statement of the form  
`NAMelist / special_list / val1, val22, valxx`  
and then to write this to an already opened unit, say 15, use  
`WRITE(UNIT=15, NML=special_list)`
- The statements  
`WRITE(UNIT=14,FMT=100, IOSTAT=write_err) ...`  
`100 FORMAT (...)` create formatted output that is easy for us to read but may take substantial CPU time to read, if the file size is large
- For large output files (and that does not require you to see it and instead machine to access fast later), use `UNFORMATTED` output files. For example use `WRITE(UNIT=14, IOSTAT=write_err) ...`

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<sup>30</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018