

### **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
```

---

<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 pgf95.
- To execute the file, type the command `./roots_exe`
- On MIO/AuN, you may use gfortran, pgf90, pgf95, pgf95, or the Intel Fortran Compiler ifort.

---

<sup>3</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <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

---

<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 smallest 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

---

<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

---

<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

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

\* sign                 $s = +$  or  $-$

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

\* precision         $p$

\* base               $\beta$

\* exponent  $e$                   with                       $e_{\min} \leq e \leq e_{\max}$

\* exponent (in bits with width  $w$ )     $e = (e_1 e_2 \cdots e_w)_\beta$

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

\* 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	1	1
exponent	8	11
mantissa	<u>23</u>	<u>52</u>
Total	<u>32</u>	<u>64</u>

---

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

---

<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

---

<sup>10</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

- <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.)

---

<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  $\beta^{e_{\min}} = 1.1755 \times 10^{-38}$

---

<sup>12</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<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)
```

<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 (*,*) 'These roots are:'  
WRITE (*,*) 'x1 = ', REAL(x1), ' +i ', AIMAG(x1)  
WRITE (*,*) 'x2 = ', REAL(x2), ' -i ', AIMAG(x2)  
END PROGRAM roots
```

---

<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 numb` that can then be used (if  $\geq 1$ ), for example, as

`CHARACTER(KIND = kind numb, len = 25) :: first_name, last_name`

---

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

## <sup>16</sup> 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 solved 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>16</sup>M. Ganesh, MATH440/540, SPRING 2018

<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

## <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
```

- $\langle \text{statements} \rangle_i$  are executed if  $\langle \text{logical expression} \rangle_i$  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

- <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><sub>1</sub>

    <statements><sub>1</sub>

    ...

CASE <case\_value><sub>2</sub>

    <statements><sub>2</sub>

    ...

CASE DEFAULT

    <statements><sub>default</sub>

    ...

END SELECT name\_value

- <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  
 $\text{CASE } (\text{low\_val}:\text{high\_val})$   
is executed if  $\text{low\_val} \leq \langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \leq \text{high\_val}$
- The statements in the block  
 $\text{CASE } (: \text{high\_val})$   
is executed if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \leq \text{high\_val}$
- The statements in the block  
 $\text{CASE } (\text{low\_val}:)$   
is executed if  $\langle \text{case\_expression} \rangle \geq \text{low\_val}$

---

<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>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  $\langle \text{statements} \rangle_z$  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>  
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>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

---

<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)

---

<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)
  - ★ ...

---

<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  
 $\text{CLOSE}(9)$                             $\text{CLOSE}(\text{UNIT}= 14)$
- More generally, one may use  
 $\text{CLOSE}(\text{UNIT}=9, \text{ STATUS}=\text{'delete'}, \text{ IOSTAT} = \text{close\_err})$   
 $\text{CLOSE}(\text{UNIT}=14, \text{ STATUS}=\text{'keep'}, \text{ IOMSG} = \text{'ok\_end'})$
- 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

---

<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) ...

---

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