



ALBUQUERQUE
High Performance Computing Center



W orkshop O n S cientific P roblem S olving I n F ortran 90/95 – D erived T ypes

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Topics To Be Covered

- ▶ Derived types
 - ◆ **What are they and why have them?**
- ▶ Pointers
 - ◆ **What are they and why have them?**
- ▶ Data abstraction with modules
- ▶ A summary of input/output
 - ◆ **The new input/output features**
 - **stream I/O**
 - **namelist I/O**



Derived Types – What And Why

- ▶ The mechanism for defining new types
 - ◆ the new types are called **derived types**
 - ◆ uses a strong typing model in the following sense:
 - associations require access to the **same** type definition
- ▶ But why?
 - ◆ Helpful in an application in which objects (variables) are naturally grouped together but are of different “type”
 - a mesh point in a grid where the data at the point represents
 - pressure, temperature, velocity, ...
 - ◆ You want to pass all of the information at a point about the program altogether, not as a list of variables, one for each item -- you want to think of the list as a single object and you want many instances of such objects



More On Why

- ▶ And from the practical program side
 - ◆ **you want to avoid long argument lists, long common block lists**
 - ◆ **otherwise, the process is very error prone**
 - **wrong order, mistakes in spelling the names, etc.**
 - ◆ **even the compiler may be more effective at compiling your code efficiently because the name space is reduced**
 - ◆ **and your code is easier to read and maintain**



Topics To Discuss

- ▶ Defining a derived type
- ▶ Declaring objects of a derived type
- ▶ Using derived-type definitions in other scoping units
- ▶ Passing objects of derived types to other scoping units
 - ◆ **as arguments of procedures**
 - ◆ **through common blocks (storage association)**
 - ◆ **from a module (use association)**



Topics To Be Covered Continued

- ▶ Intrinsically defined operations for derived-type objects
- ▶ Constructing objects of derived type
 - ◆ **the derived-type constructor**
- ▶ User-defined operations for derived-type objects
- ▶ Pointers
- ▶ A scientific programming example
 - ◆ **adaptive grids**



Defining A New Type (A Derived Type)

- ▶ A new type is made up of components whose types are either:
 - ◆ **intrinsic,**
 - ◆ **other derived types, including the same type**
- ▶ Defining a type is like declaring a template for the parts or components of the type

```
type polar
    real magnitude, phase
end type polar
```

- ◆ a type to represent complex numbers in polar coordinates
 - components are named **magnitude** and **phase**
 - the type name is: **polar**



Defining A New Type Continued

- ▶ The components can be arrays or pointers
- ▶ There may be any number of components
- ▶ The general form is:

```
type <type_name>
```

```
    <any type> [, dimension(...)], [pointer] :: list_of_names  
end type [<type_name>]
```



Declaring Objects of a Derived Type

- ▶ Data objects of a derived type
 - ◆ **type spelled: `type(<type_name>)`**
`type(polar) x1, y1`
 - ◆ **variables and constants**
 - **`x1` and `y1` above are variables**
 - **a constant can be declared as named constant: for example, `j` in:**
`type(polar), parameter :: j = polar(1.0, PI/2.0)`
 - ◆ **scalars (as are `x1` and `y1` above) or arrays (as is `points` below)**
`type(polar), dimension(100) :: points`
 - ◆ **can have attributes like any intrinsic object**
SAVE, DIMENSION, POINTER, TARGET, EXTERNAL, ...



Accessing And Defining Components

- Suppose x is an object of a derived type
 - A component of x is selected using the selector `%` as in:
name % component

- An example of defining a component is the assignment statement

```
x%magnitude = 1.0
```

defines the component of x named **magnitude** with the value 1.0. The following defines the component **phase** of x :

```
x%phase = PI/7.0 + y%phase
```

- `%` is used instead of dot (`.`) because of ambiguities with the names of the relational operators:

```
x.lt.y
```

- Is this $x < y$ or the component **y** of the component **lt** of x ?



Values And Operations

▶ Values of the type

- ◆ can be defined by a constructor as follows:

`<derived-type-name>(list_of_values_one_for_each_component)`

- ◆ examples:

```
polar( 1.0, PI/2.0 )
```

```
polar( R, THETA )      ! R and THETA are reals
```

▶ Operations

- ◆ the only intrinsic operations are:

- assignment (component by component)

- `==` and `/=` (synonyms for `.eq.` and `.ne.`)

`==` each corresponding component is equal, and false otherwise

`/=` one or more corresponding components are not equal



Operations Continued

- ▶ ONLY the intrinsic operations for **derived types** may be redefined:
 - ◆ for example, polar values can be defined as equal when their values are identical or when the angles are out of phase by a multiple of two π
 - ◆ this is done by defining a function with two arguments that returns true when the angles are equal or different by a multiple of 2π
 - ◆ also, an interface is provided for the relational operation `==` (or equivalently `.eq.`) that specifies this function
- ▶ Any other operator may be defined (say, `+`)
 - ◆ for example, `x1+y1` can be defined for type **polar** objects



Interfaces For ==

- ▶ To have a user function be used for ==
 - ◆ an interface for the operator == must be defined
 - ◆ it is accomplished with an interface specification as follows:

```
interface operator( == )  
    module procedure eq_polar  
end interface
```

- In essence, this interface says that any use of == with each operand of type polar uses the procedure eq_polar; that is,

```
result = (x == y)
```

- is the same as:

```
result = eq_polar( x, y )
```



Redefining The Operator ==

```
Module polar_module
    . . .
    interface operator(==)
        module procedure eq_polar( x, y )
    end interface
CONTAINS
    logical function eq_polar( x, y )
        type( polar ), intent(in) :: x, y
        . . .
        eq_polar = x%magnitude == y%magnitude .and. &
            (mod(x%phase,2*PI) - mod(y%phase,2*PI)) < &
                2*EPS
    end function eq_polar
end module polar_module
```



Redefining The Assignment Operator =

```
Module polar_module
    . . .
    interface assignment(=)
        module procedure assign_polar( x, y )
    end interface
CONTAINS
    subroutine assign_polar( x, y )
        type( polar ), intent(out) :: x
        type( polar ), intent(in)  :: y
        x%magnitude = y%magnitude
        x%phase = mod(y%phase,TWO_PI)
    end subroutine assign_polar
end module polar_module
```



Using Derived Types In Other Scoping Units

- ▶ Because of local scoping rules, the definition of a type is known only in the unit where the definition appears
- ▶ That definition may be inherited into other units by:
 - ◆ a **USE statement -- USE association**
 - ◆ **host association -- inherit from an enclosed scope**
 - in an internal procedure from its host
 - in a module procedure from its module
- ▶ What about external units with no USE?



Passing Derived Types To External Units

- ▲ A repetition of the type definition is a different and new type
 - ◆ **when passing objects, this results in a type mismatch**
 - **derived types are strongly typed**
 - ◆ **an “escape” is provided to handle this case and storage layouts for derived types**
 - **the escape is the SEQUENCE attribute**
 - **the model is that the compiler must layout the components in a predictable (and natural) storage sequence**
 - the components one after the other in order with no padding (essentially)



When Do Sequenced Types Match?

- ▶ The rules are:
 - ◆ the type name must be the same
 - ◆ the names of the components must be the same and in the same order
 - ◆ the attributes of the corresponding components must be the same
 - ◆ they both must have the SEQUENCE attribute



An Example Of "Sequenced Types"

```
Program sequence_types
. . . ! Sequence type definition for type person
type(person) patients(10)
interface
    real function average_weight( p )
        . . . ! Sequence type definition for type person
        type( person ), dimension(:), intent(in) :: p
    end function average_weight
end interface
. . .
new_avg_wt = average_weight( patients ) + 10.3
```



Example Continued

▶ Sequence type definition for type **person**

```
type person
  sequence
  character(12)  name
  integer  ssn
  real  height, weight
end type person
```



External Procedure With Derived Type Argument

```
Function average_weight( p )  
    type person  
        sequence  
        character(12) name  
        integer ssn  
        real height, weight  
    end type person  
    type( person), dimension(:), intent(in) :: p  
    real average_weight  
    average_weight = sum( p(:)%weight )  
end function average_weight
```



Importance of Sequenced Type

- ▶ Sequence types **MUST** be used when derived types are placed in common
 - ◆ **common utilizes a concept of storage association which requires a strict layout of components in storage**
- ▶ Sequence types are virtually required when passing derived-type objects to other languages such as C
 - ◆ **both languages have a concept of storage layout that is in most cases compatible -- however, it is often vendor specific**
 - ◆ **Fortran 2002 will likely specify interoperability requirements with C to make passing of sequenced derived types more dependable and portable**



Pointers

- ▲ Why have them?
 - ◆ **Supports arbitrary dynamic structures**
 - more and more scientific computation needs this capability as simulations become bigger and bigger
 - also simulations are multi-problem or phased, with different algorithms and modeling techniques used in each phase
 - ◆ **Recognition of the need to simplify the programming methodologies with high level capabilities**
 - as opposed to simulating high level programming techniques with static programming facilities
 - the con is that this feature introduces potential execution inefficiencies that are subtle and difficult to avoid, particularly with poor compiler implementations



General Characteristics of Fortran Pointers

- ▶ Strongly typed
- ▶ Tightly specified to permit traditional optimizations of non-pointer code
 - ◆ **requires the use of the TARGET attribute for any variable that can be pointed to**
- ▶ No pointer arithmetic allowed
- ▶ Automatic de-referencing in non-pointer contexts
 - ◆ **the target is the object of interest, not the pointer**
 - ◆ **it is design mostly as an restricted name aliasing facility**



Automatic De-Referencing

- ▲ Use of the pointer is a reference to its target in most cases rather than its pointer.
 - ◆ in an expression
 - ◆ as the variable on the left side of an assignment
 - ◆ in an I/O item list
 - ◆ as an actual argument in an argument list, unless the corresponding dummy argument has the pointer attribute
 - ◆ see the examples on the next slide
 - convention -- ..._ptr is the pointer, ... is the target



Illustration of Automatic De-Referencing

real, pointer :: A_PTR, B_PTR

real, target :: A = 3.1, B = 4.2

integer, pointer :: C_PTR

integer, target :: C = -32

A_PTR => A; B_PTR => B; C_PTR => C ! **Pointers** on the left

A_PTR = B_PTR + C ! **Targets** referenced here on both sides

! A_PTR becomes -27.8.

C_PTR => A ! **Invalid** -- A and C_PTR are not the same type

C_PTR = sqrt(A_PTR + B_PTR) + abs(C_PTR) ! All are targets



The Implementation Model For Pointers

- ▶ A variable with the pointer attribute contains either:
 - ◆ an address of a target (associated with a target)
 - more generally, the address of a descriptor for the target which indicates where the target is
 - ◆ a null value (disassociated, points to null)
 - ◆ an undefined (unpredictable, not testable) value
- ▶ Cases above correspond to one of three states for a pointer
 - ◆ associated, disassociated, undefined
- ▶ Initially, a pointer is in the undefined state
 - ◆ the programmer can specify an initial value or state other than undefined in F95



The Disassociated State For Pointers

- ▶ A pointer becomes **disassociated** in one of three ways:
 - ◆ **nullified as in the statement**
 nullify(PTR)
 - ◆ **deallocated as in the statement**
 deallocate(PTR)
 - ◆ **pointer-assigned to a disassociated pointer**
 nullify(A_PTR) ! A_PTR is disassociated
 PTR => A_PTR ! Now PTR is disassociated



Associated State For Pointers

- ▶ A pointer becomes **associated** by being:
 - ◆ **pointer assigned to a target or to a pointer that is associated with a target using pointer assignment:**
 $A_PTR \Rightarrow A$! Assume A is a target
 - ◆ **allocated using the ALLOCATE statement**
`allocate(A_PTR)`



Initial States

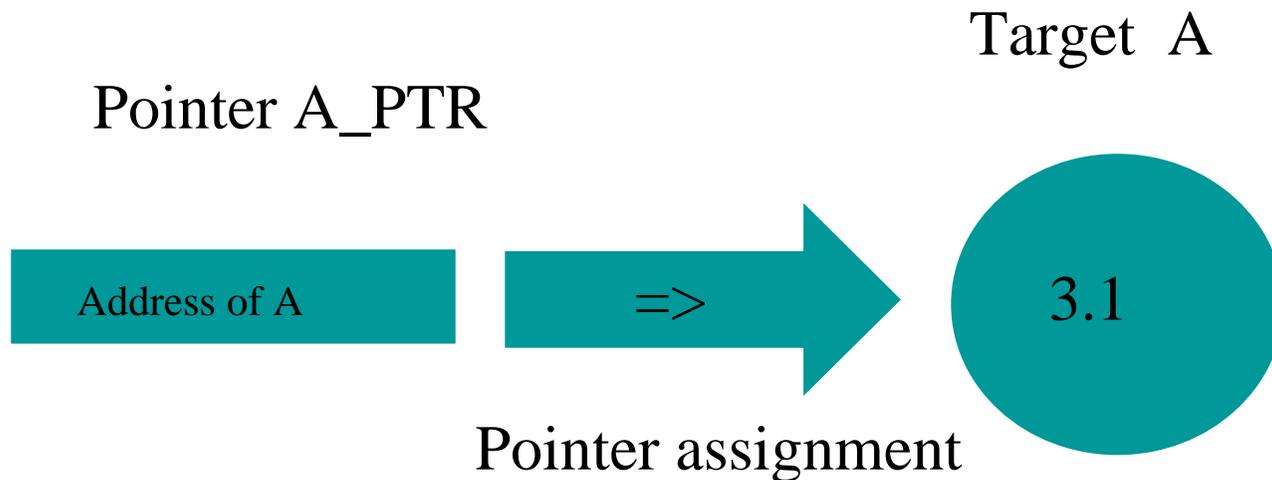
- When the program starts initially:





Associated States

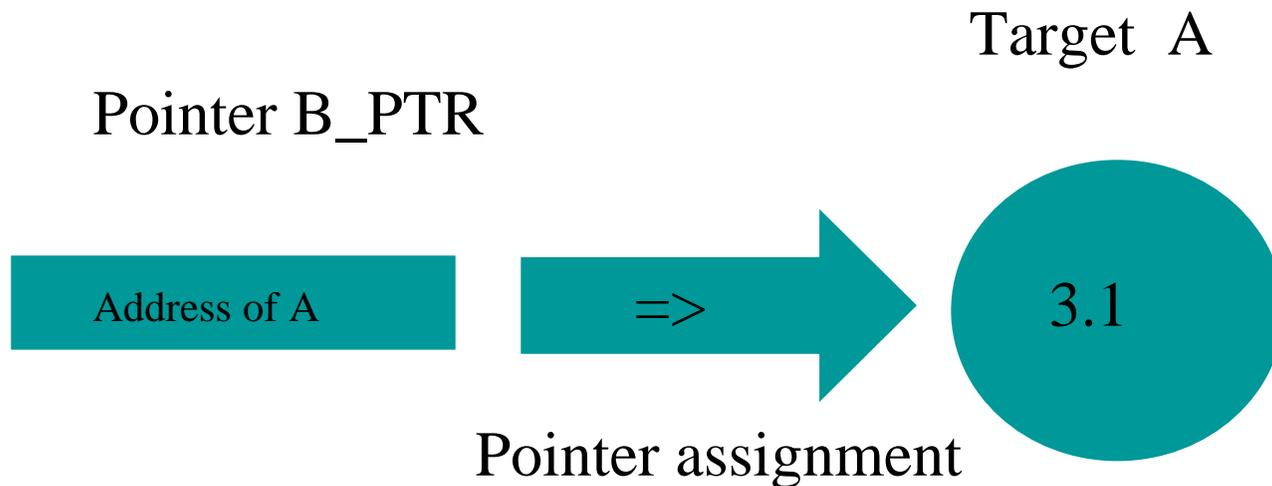
- After the following statements are executed:
 $A = 3.1; A_PTR \Rightarrow A$





Associated States Continued

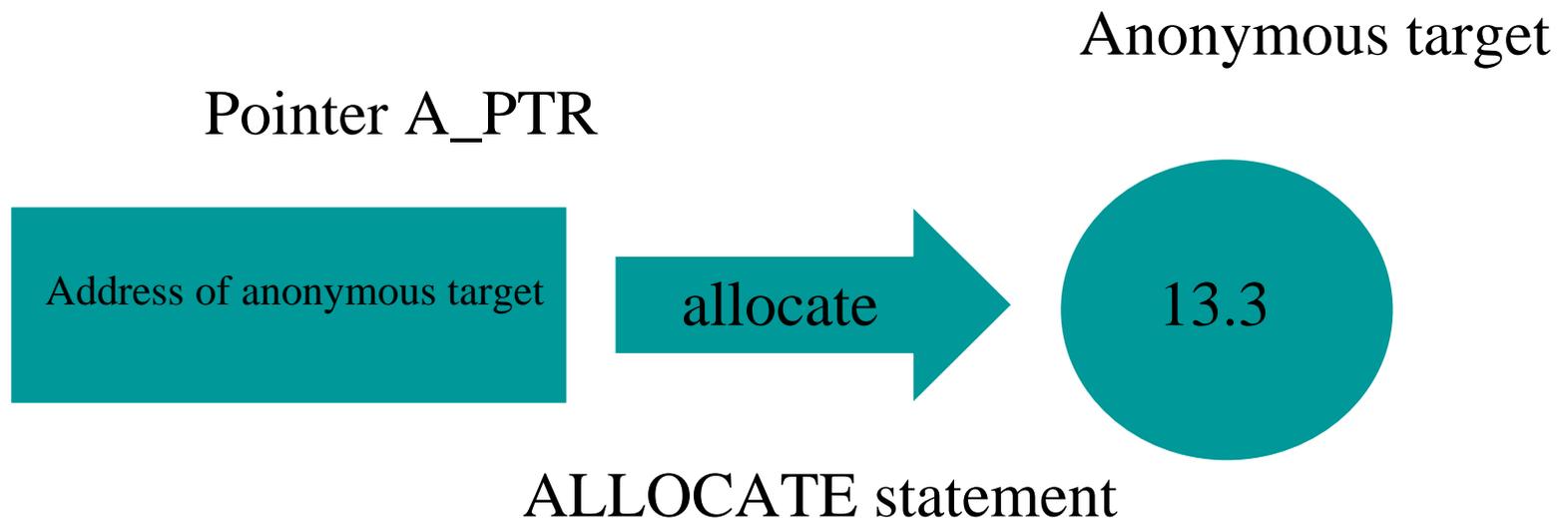
- After the following statements are executed:
 $A = 3.1; A_PTR \Rightarrow A; B_PTR \Rightarrow A_PTR$





Associated States Continued

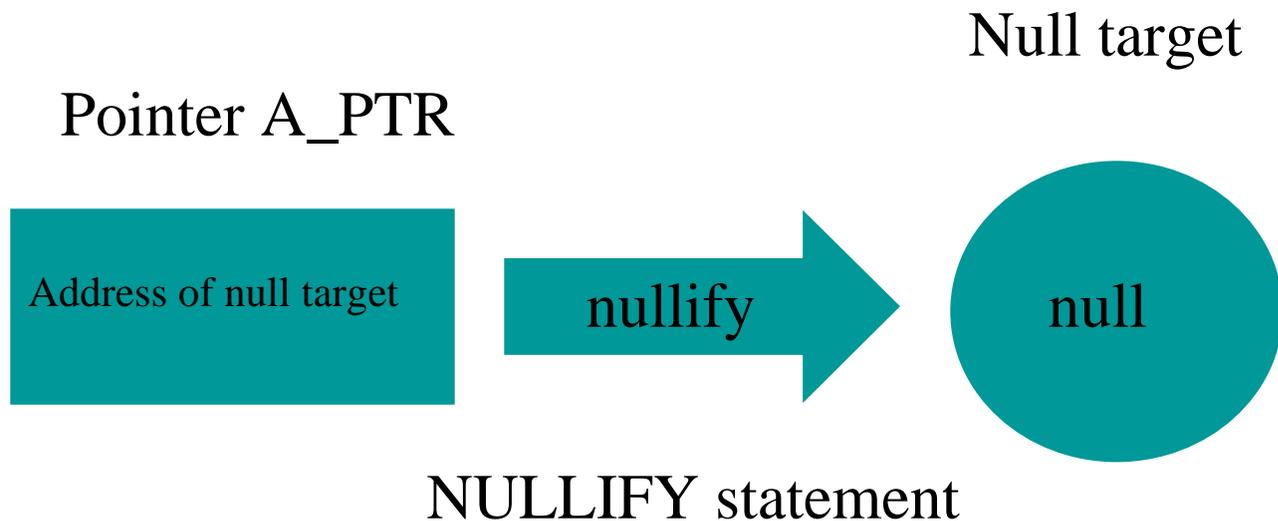
- After the execution of the following statement:
`allocate(A_PTR); A_PTR = 13.3`





Disassociated States

- After the execution of the following statement:
`nullify(A_PTR)`





Examples of Pointers

```
real, pointer :: PTR
```

```
real, target :: A, B, C
```

```
PTR => A           ! Pointer assignment.  
                  ! PTR now has A as its target.  
PTR => B           ! Change the target of PTR to B.  
allocate( PTR )   ! Create storage for a target and  
                  ! point PTR to this storage  
                  ! (target is anonymous, has no name).  
                  ! (PTR no longer points to B.)
```



Rules For Pointer Assignment

Form

<pointer> => <target>

- ◆ **<pointer> and <target> must have the same type, kind, and rank**
- ◆ **<target> must be a variable or function with the TARGET or POINTER attribute**
- ◆ **<pointer> must be a variable with the POINTER attribute**



Rules For Reference To A Pointer

- ▶ In a pointer assignment:
 - ◆ **<pointer> is a reference to the address (or descriptor) of the target**
- ▶ As an actual argument corresponding to a dummy argument with the POINTER attribute
 - ◆ **it is the address of the target if it is associated**
- ▶ In all other executable constructs:
 - ◆ **it is a reference to the target**



Map Uses In Scientific Computing

- ▶ Avoiding the copy operation for large data structures -- for example, large arrays
- ▶ Dynamically sized data structures
 - ◆ **arrays**
 - ◆ **lists of objects of arbitrary lengths and with arbitrary sized objects**
 - link lists of grids
 - sparse matrices



Avoiding Large Copy Operations

- ▶ Iterating with a large grid of points with a large amount of data associated with the grid points (pressures, temps, velocities, etc)
 - ◆ **may be megabytes of storage**
 - OLD_GRID = NEW_GRID
 - NEW_GRID = ... OLD_GRID ... ! A calculation
! with the old grid
 - ◆ **first assignment moves lots of data**
 - **from the storage for NEW_GRID to the storage for OLD_GRID**



No Data Movement With Pointers

T => OLD_GRID

OLD_GRID => NEW_GRID

NEW_GRID => T

NEW_GRID = ... OLD_GRID ...

- ▶ No data is moved when => is used
- ▶ The computation of the new grid values are stored in the location for NEW_GRID which was the location of the OLD_GRID on the previous iteration



Simple Aliasing For Documentation

- Consider the Gaussian elimination algorithm

```
subroutine column_eliminate_elementary( a, i, pivot )  
    real, dimension(:), pointer :: pivot_row  
    . . .  
    pivot_row => a(i+1:,i)  
    do j = i+1, n  
        a(i+1:,j) = a(i+1:,j) - pivot_row*a(i,j)  
    enddo  
    . . .  
end subroutine column_eliminate_elementary
```



Data Structures For An Adaptive Grid Algorithm

- ▶ Consider a simulation on a region which changes its mesh point density and configuration as the algorithm proceeds with the simulation
 - ◆ **changes to adapt to periods of high activity or change**
 - mesh becomes finer to obtain an accurate enough solution
 - ◆ **changes to adapt to periods of low activity or change**
 - mesh becomes coarser to improve the efficiency of the computation



Data Structures Continued

- ▶ Suppose the changing grids are represented by a linked list of grids
 - ◆ **each node contains the grid (and associated data)**
 - ◆ **a link to a grid that is coarser for efficient computation**
 - or maybe to allow for computation of estimated errors
 - ◆ **a link to a grid that is finer for a more accurate solution**
 - or maybe to allow for computation of estimated errors

```
type mesh
  type (mesh), pointer :: finer
  real, pointer, dimension(:) :: mesh_points
  type (mesh), pointer :: coarser
end type mesh
```



Creating A Node In The Linked List

- ▶ Declare the head of the list

```
type (mesh) my_grid_head
```

- ▶ Allocate the mesh points in the top node

```
allocate (my_grid_head%mesh_points(3))
```

- ▶ Make this the only node in the list

```
nullify (my_grid_head%finer)
```

```
nullify (my_grid_head%coarser)
```

- ▶ Provide a set of mesh points for this node

```
my_grid_head%mesh_points(:) = (/ 1.0, 2.0, 3.0 /)
```



Printing A Contents Of A Node

▶ Printing the node:

```
type (mesh), pointer :: current_node  
current_node => my_grid_head  
call print_node( current_node )
```

▶ The print procedures:

```
subroutine print_node( node )  
  type(mesh), pointer :: node  
  call print_grid( node%mesh_points )  
end subroutine print_node  
subroutine print_grid(points)  
  real, dimension(:) :: points  
  print *, points  
end subroutine print_grid
```



More On The Link List Of Mesh Points

- ▶ There are three codes giving examples of more and more sophisticated uses of pointers, linked lists, and recursive procedures
 - ◆ see **mesh1.f90** in directory **dervtype**
 - ◆ see **mesh2.f90** in directory **dervtype**
 - ◆ see **mesh3.f90** in directory **dervtype**



Passing Nodes As Pointers To Procedures

- ▶ The following procedure prints the contents of a node:

```
subroutine print_node( node )  
  type(mesh), pointer :: node  
  call print_grid( node%mesh_points )  
end subroutine print_node
```

- ▶ The argument is a pointer of type **mesh**
 - ◆ the **mesh_points** component is passed to **print_grid**
 - ◆ the target is always used as the parent with the % selector



The Reference On the Calling Side

- ▶ To pass this node to `print_node` (pointer argument), a pointer must be supplied.

- ▶ The code looks like:

```
current_node => my_grid_head  
call print_node( current_node )
```

- ◆ **The pointer assignment creates a pointer to the target `my_grid_head` which is a target, not a pointer**



Data Abstraction With Modules

- ▲ Data abstraction and data hiding are programming concepts to limit access to parts of program with the following goals:
 - ◆ **make available only what is needed**
 - ◆ **leave the details of the implementation hidden so that**
 - **the details can be optimized separately to develop a more efficient or environment dependent implementation without changing the application**



Control Names From Modules

- ▶ This is done in Fortran with modules using:
 - ◆ attributes **PRIVATE** and **PUBLIC** for all items in a module
 - an item is made public if the user of the module is expected to use and need it in his applications
 - an item that should not or need not ever be used
 - ◆ the **USE** statement with **ONLY:** and the rename options to control and manipulate the accessibility of names



Input/Output In Fortran

- ▶ Introduction and Summary
 - ◆ **The Fortran I/O model**
 - Records, files, access methods, and units
 - Existence of files, inquiry, open, and closing files
 - ◆ **The access method**
 - sequential or direct access
 - ◆ **The kinds of files**
 - external and internal files
 - ◆ **The form of the file**
 - unformatted, formatted (user-controlled formats, list-directed and name directed)



New I/O Features With Application To Scientific Computing

- ▶ Internal files
 - ◆ read and write to and from a character string as opposed to an external file (disk, printer, tape, ...)
 - see the example of adjustable formats
- ▶ Stream input/output
 - ◆ no advancing of the record on a read or a write
 - continue from the position in the record left by a previous read or write
- ▶ Name directed input/output
 - ◆ the input is specified by names in the input record
 - ◆ the output prints the name of the variable in the output record.