Absoft Fortran

Language Reference Manual
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POINTER Statement</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POINTER Statement (Cray-Style)</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIVATE And PUBLIC Statements</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROCEDURE Statement</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECORD Statement</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAVE Statement</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEQUENCE Statement</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STDCALL Statement</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRUCTURE Declaration</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNION Declaration</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TARGET Statement</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUE Statement</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VOLATILE Statement</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATA Statement</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implied DO List In A DATA Statement</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER 4 ARRAYS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrays</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array Declarator</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array Subscript</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array Valued Expressions</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed Shape Array</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automatic Array</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deferred shape Array</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pointer Arrays</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array sections</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Array Constructor</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vector subscript</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>array conformance</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
array operations .......................................................................................................................................... 62
array valued functions ................................................................................................................................ 62

CHAPTER 5  MODULES AND INTERFACES.................................................. 63
modules ........................................................................................................................................................ 63
  Module Structure ..................................................................................................................................... 63
  Module Use .............................................................................................................................................. 64
  PRIVATE And PUBLIC Statements ....................................................................................................... 64
interfaces ..................................................................................................................................................... 64
  Abstract Interfaces ................................................................................................................................. 68

CHAPTER 6  EXPRESSIONS AND ASSIGNMENT STATEMENTS ................. 69
Arithmetic Expressions .............................................................................................................................. 69
  Data Type of Arithmetic Expressions ...................................................................................................... 70
  Arithmetic Constant Expression ............................................................................................................... 71
Character Expressions .................................................................................................................................. 72
Relational Expressions ............................................................................................................................... 72
Logical Expressions .................................................................................................................................... 73
Operator Precedence .................................................................................................................................. 74
Arithmetic Assignment Statement ............................................................................................................. 75
Logical Assignment Statement ................................................................................................................... 75
Character Assignment Statement .............................................................................................................. 76
ASSIGN Statement ..................................................................................................................................... 76

CHAPTER 7  CONTROL STATEMENTS .......................................................... 77
GOTO Statements ...................................................................................................................................... 77
  Unconditional GOTO............................................................................................................................... 77
  Computed GOTO .................................................................................................................................. 77
  Assigned GOTO .................................................................................................................................... 77
IF Statements .............................................................................................................................................. 78
  Arithmetic IF ........................................................................................................................................ 78
  Logical IF ............................................................................................................................................. 78
  Block IF ............................................................................................................................................... 78
Loop Statements .......................................................................................................................................... 79
  Basic DO loop ..................................................................................................................................... 79
    DO Loop Execution ............................................................................................................................ 80
    DO WHILE ..................................................................................................................................... 81
    Infinite DO ....................................................................................................................................... 81
    END DO statement .......................................................................................................................... 81
EXIT statement.......................................................................................................................... 82
CYCLE statement.......................................................................................................................... 82
CONTINUE Statement.................................................................................................................... 82
  Labeled DO loops......................................................................................................................... 82
BLOCK CASE.................................................................................................................................. 83
  Execution of a block CASE statement.......................................................................................... 84
  Block CASE Example .................................................................................................................. 85
STOP Statement.............................................................................................................................. 85
PAUSE Statement............................................................................................................................ 85
END Statement................................................................................................................................. 86
WHERE........................................................................................................................................... 86
FORALL........................................................................................................................................... 87

CHAPTER 8  INPUT/OUTPUT AND FORMAT SPECIFICATION .................................................. 89

Records ........................................................................................................................................ 89
  Formatted Record ......................................................................................................................... 89
  Unformatted Record .................................................................................................................... 90
  Endfile Record ............................................................................................................................. 90
Files ............................................................................................................................................. 90
  File Name .................................................................................................................................. 90
  File Position ............................................................................................................................... 90
  File Access ................................................................................................................................. 90
  Internal Files ............................................................................................................................... 91
  Input/Output Editing ................................................................................................................... 91
I/O Specifiers ............................................................................................................................... 92
  Unit Specifier ............................................................................................................................. 92
  Implicit File Connections ........................................................................................................... 93
  Format Specifier ......................................................................................................................... 93
  Namelist Specifier ....................................................................................................................... 94
  Record Specifier ........................................................................................................................ 94
  Error Specifier ........................................................................................................................... 94
  End of File Specifier .................................................................................................................. 94
  I/O Status Specifier ................................................................................................................... 95
  I/O Message Specifier ............................................................................................................... 95
  Partial Record Specifier ............................................................................................................ 95
I/O List .......................................................................................................................................... 96
  Implied DO List In An I/O List ..................................................................................................... 96
DATA TRANSFER STATEMENTS ............................................................................................... 96
  READ, WRITE and PRINT ........................................................................................................... 96
  ACCEPT and TYPE .................................................................................................................... 98
  Unformatted Data Transfer ....................................................................................................... 98
  Formatted Data Transfer ......................................................................................................... 98
  Printing ..................................................................................................................................... 98
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OPEN Statement</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOSE Statement</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BACKSPACE Statement</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REWIND Statement</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENDFILE Statement</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLUSH Statement</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INQUIRE Statement</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENCODE and DECODE Statements</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving a FORMAT Specification</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMAT and I/O List Interaction</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Input Validation</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integer Editing</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I Editing</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B, O, and Z Editing</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floating Point Editing</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F Editing</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E and D Editing</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EN Editing</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES Editing</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G Editing</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P Editing</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character and Logical Editing</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Editing</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L Editing</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sign Control Editing</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank Control Editing</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positional Editing</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X Editing</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T, TL, and TR Editing</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slash Editing</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dollar Sign and Backslash Editing</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colon Editing</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apostrophe and Hollerith Editing</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apostrophe Editing</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H Editing</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q Editing</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 1

Introduction

INTRODUCTION TO THIS MANUAL

This is the common language reference manual for the Absoft Fortran 77, Fortran 90, and Fortran 95 implementations. Operating systems supported on the platforms include: Windows, Linux, and Macintosh OS X. Absoft Fortran compilers in these environments are 100% source compatible and most control options are identical. Options relevant only to a specific environment are noted as such.

INTRODUCTION TO ABSOFT FORTRAN

Absoft Fortran is a complete implementation of the FORTRAN programming languages: FORTRAN 77, Fortran 90, and Fortran 95. It also completely implements ISO Technical Reports TR15580 and TR15581. The microprocessor-based computers of today are vastly more powerful and sophisticated than their predecessors. They offer more RAM, faster clock speeds, advanced scheduling and multiple core capabilities at very low prices..

Absoft Fortran is designed especially for these modern CPUs. It is not an evolutionary descendent of older compiler technology. Absoft Fortran brings a complete software development tool set with exceptional flexibility and improved ease-of-use to modern personal computers.

COMPATIBILITY

Absoft Fortran provides excellent compatibility with legacy code developed on mainframes and workstations. Most popular VAX/VMS statement extensions are accepted, as well as several from IBM/VS, Cray, Sun, and others. See the chapter Porting Code in the Pro Fortran User Guide for additional compatibility information.
2 Introduction

CONVENTIONS USED IN THIS MANUAL

There are a few typographic and syntactic conventions used throughout this manual for clarity.

- [] square brackets indicate that a syntactic item is optional.
- ... indicates a repetition of a syntactic element.
- Term definitions are underlined.
- -option font indicates a compiler option.
- Italics is used for emphasis and book titles.
- On-screen text such as menu titles and button names look the same as in pictures and on the screen (e.g. the File menu).
- The modifier keys on PC keyboards are Shift, Alt, and Control. They are always used with other keys and are referenced as in the following:
  
  Shift-G press the Shift and ‘G’ keys together
  Alt-F4 press the Alt and F4 function keys together
  Control-C press the Control and ‘C’ keys together

- Unless otherwise indicated, all numbers are in decimal form.

- FORTRAN examples appear in the following form:

  PROGRAM HELLO
  WRITE (*,*) "Hello World!"
  END PROGRAM HELLO

- Language features that have been deleted or are categorized as obsolescent from the ISO Fortran standard are highlighted in salmon in this manual. They are no longer part of the language. While they are supported, their use should be avoided.

- Extensions to the Fortran language are highlighted in gray in this manual. Extensions are provided only for compatibility with legacy Fortran programs. Their use should be avoided.
CHAPTER 2

The Fortran Program

Fortran source programs consist of one program unit called the main program and any number of related program units called subprograms. A program or program unit is constructed as an ordered set of statements that describes procedures for execution and information to be used by the Fortran compiler during the compilation of a source program. Every program unit is written using the Fortran character set and follows a prescribed statement line format. A program unit may be one of the following:

- Main program
- Subroutine subprogram
- Function subprogram
- External subprogram
- Module
- Block Data subprogram

This chapter describes the format of Fortran programs and the data objects that may be manipulated by them.

CHARACTER SET

The compiler's character set consists of the following characters:

- Uppercase and lowercase letters: A–Z, a–z
- Digits: 0–9
- Blank character
- Special characters: +−*/=,:,(,) $'_:!<>"&

Any of these characters, as well as the remaining printable ASCII characters, may appear in character and Hollerith constants (see below).
SYMBOLIC NAMES

A symbolic name is used to identify a Fortran entity, such as a variable, array, program unit, module, or labeled common block. The first character of a symbolic name must be a letter. Additional characters may be letters, digits, or the underscore (_) character. A symbolic name may contain up to 64 significant characters. Symbolic names of greater than 64 characters are acceptable, but only the first 64 characters are significant to the compiler.

The blank character may not be used within a Fortran 95 source format symbolic name. The blank character is not significant in a Fortran 77 source format symbolic name but may be used as a separator.

Global symbolic names are known to every program unit within an executable program and therefore must be unique. The names of main programs; subroutine, function, block data subprograms; modules; and common blocks are examples of global symbolic names.

Local symbolic names are known only within the program unit in which they occur. The names of variables, arrays, symbolic constants, statement functions, contained subprograms, and dummy procedures are local symbolic names.

KEYWORDS

A keyword is a sequence of characters that has a predefined meaning to the compiler. A keyword is used to identify a statement or serve as a separator in a statement. Some typical statement identifiers are READ, FORMAT, and REAL. Two separators are TO and THEN.

There are no reserved words in Fortran, therefore a symbolic name may assume the exact sequence of characters as a keyword. The compiler determines the meaning of a sequence of characters through the context in which the characters are used. A surprising example of a keyword/symbolic name exchange in Fortran 77 is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DO10I=1,7</td>
<td>Control statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DO 10 I = 1. 7</td>
<td>Assignment statement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the embedded blanks are not significant in Fortran 77 source format nor are they required as separators for the compiler to determine that the first statement is the initial statement of a DO loop. The absence of a comma in the second statement informs the compiler that an assignment is to be made to the variable whose symbolic name is DO10I.

In Fortran 95 source format, blanks are required as separators.
LABELS

A statement label may appear on a Fortran statement initial line. Actual placement of a
label on the initial line is governed by rules described later in this chapter in the section
Statement Format. A statement label is used for reference in other statements. The
following considerations govern the use of the statement label:

- The label is an unsigned integer in the range of 1 to 99999.
- Leading zeros not significant to the compiler.
- A label must be unique within a program unit.
- A label is not allowed on a continuation line.
- Labels may appear in any numeric order.

Examples of labels:

1101
88
10
010

The last two examples produce the same label.

STATMENTS

Individual statements deal with specific aspects of a procedure described in a program
unit and are classified as either executable or nonexecutable. The proper usage and
construction of the various types of statements is described in the following chapters.

Executable Statements

Executable statements specify actions and cause the Fortran compiler to generate
executable program instructions. There are 3 types of executable statements:

- Assignment statements
- Control statements
- Input/Output statements
Nonexecutable Statements

Nonexecutable statements are used as directives to the compiler: start a new program unit, allocate variable storage, initialize data, set the options, etc. There are 9 types of nonexecutable statements:

- Specification statements
- Data initialization statements
- FORMAT statements
- Function defining statements
- Subprogram statements
- Main program statements
- Module statements
- Interface statements
- Compiler directives

Statement Format

A FORTRAN statement consists of one or more source records referred to as a statement line. Historically, a record is equivalent to a card. In current source file formats, a record is one line of text terminated by an end of record character (generally a line feed, or carriage return-line feed pair).

Two statement formats are supported by the compiler and are described in the following sections.

FORTRAN 77 fixed format is selected if the file name ends with .f, .for, or the compiler option –f fixed is specified.

Fortran 90 free format is selected if the file name ends with .f90, .f95, or the compiler option –f free is specified.
The Fortran Program

FORTRAN 77 Fixed Format

A FORTRAN 77 statement line consists of 80 character positions or columns, numbered 1 through 80 that are divided into 4 fields.

The \texttt{-W132} compiler option may be used to expand the statement field to column 132.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Columns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Statement label</td>
<td>1-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuation</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>7-72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identification</td>
<td>73-80, 132+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Identification field is available for any purpose the programmer may desire and is ignored by the Fortran compiler. Historically this field has been used for sequence numbers and commentary. The statement line itself may exceed the column of the last field; the compiler ignores all characters beyond the last field.

There are four types of source lines in Fortran:

\textbf{Comment Line} – used for source program annotation and formatting. A comment line may be placed anywhere in the source program and assumes one of the forms:

- Column 1 contains the character C or an asterisk. The remainder of the line is ignored by the compiler.

- Column 1 contains an exclamation point. The remainder of the line is ignored by the compiler.

- The line is completely blank.

- An exclamation point not contained within a character constant designates all characters including the exclamation point through the end of the line to be commentary.

- Column 1 contains the character D, d, X, or x and the conditional compilation \texttt{-x} compiler option is not on.

Comment lines have no effect on the object program and are ignored by the Fortran compiler.
End Line – the last line of a program unit.

- The word `END` must appear within the statement field.
- Each Fortran program unit must have an `END` line as its last line to inform the compiler that it is at the physical end of the program unit.
- An `END` line may follow any other type of line.

Initial Line – the first and possibly only line of each statement.

- Columns 1 through 5 may contain a statement label to identify the statement.
- Column 6 must contain a zero or a blank.
- Statement field contains all or part of the statement.

Continuation Line – used when additional characters are required to complete a statement originating on an initial line.

- Columns 1 through 5 must be blank.
- Column 6 must contain a character other than zero or blank.
- Statement field contains the continuation of the statement.
- There may be only 999 continuation lines per statement, for a total of 1000 lines per statement.
Fortran 90 Free Format

A Fortran 90 free format statement line consists of 132 character positions. In this source format, there are no “fields” in which labels, statements, or comments must appear.

A statement label must appear before the statement on a line; it may be in any column:

```fortran
100 I=123
   J=456
200 I=123
       300     I=123
400
   I=123
```

Comments in Fortran 90 format begin with an exclamation point character “!” in any column not in character context. The letter C in column 1 does not indicate a comment.

```fortran
! This entire line is a comment
A=1 !A trailing comment
    ! Blank line
C="ab!cd"!The exclamation point in quotes does not begin a comment
```

To continue a statement across multiple lines, the ampersand character (&) is used according to the following rules:

- The “&” as the last non-blank character on a line signifies the line is continued on the next line. Comment lines may not be continued. A comment, beginning with “!””, may appear after the “&” when not in character context.

- The “&” as the first non-blank character on the next line will cause continuation to begin after the “&”. Otherwise, continuation begins with the first character. When continuing character context, the next line must begin with a "&" as the first non-blank character.

- There may be only 999 continuation lines per statement, for a total of 1000 lines per statement.

The following valid program demonstrates Fortran 90 continuation:

```fortran
! Fortran 90 example
character s,&
   t,&
&u
s="This string &
&contains NO &
&ampersand symbols" !Comment
t="One ampersand:&&
 &"
&00 I=1 !This line has label 100
```
VAX FORTRAN Tab-Format

A VAX FORTRAN tab-format statement line consists of 80 character positions or columns with fields similar to those in the Fortran format. The TAB character is used to begin the continuation and statement fields rather than having them tied to a specific column. The tab-format is primarily useful for entering FORTRAN source with many editors since it is generally easier to hit the TAB key once as opposed to hitting the space bar multiple times before a statement. A TAB character elsewhere in a FORTRAN statement is treated as spaces. Tab-format may be freely mixed with fixed format source.

A statement label must appear anywhere on a line before the first TAB character:

```
1(TAB) WRITE(*,*) "This line has label 1"
2  3(TAB) WRITE(*,*) "This line has label 123"
```

Comments in VAX FORTRAN tab-format begin with a C or asterisk in column 1 or an exclamation point character “!” in any column not in character context. Having a D or X in column 1 will also comment an entire line unless the -x compiler option is on for conditional compilation:

```
I=123  ! Statement begins after TAB
D     J=456  ! Compiled only with x option
```

To continue a statement across multiple lines, the continuation line must have a non-zero digit after the first tab. Note that the initial line cannot start with a digit – no FORTRAN statement begins with a digit:

```
(TAB) WRITE(*,*) "This line spans multiple lines because"  
(TAB) 2 of the non-zero continuation digit after first  
(TAB) 3 tab character on each line"
```

The -W132 compiler option will expand the statement field to column 132.

Multiple Statement Lines

Multiple statements may be placed on the same line by separating them with a semicolon (;).

```
I=10; J=10; N(I,J)=0
```
### Statement Order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROGRAM, FUNCTION, SUBROUTINE, BLOCK DATA or MODULE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPLICIT NONE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPLICIT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARAMETER</td>
<td>Derived-Type definitions, Interface Blocks, Type Declaration statements, statement function statements, and specification statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARAMETER and DATA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATA</td>
<td>Executable Statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTAINS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal or module procedures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>END</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Required Statement Order

---

### INCLUDE Statement

This statement is a compiler directive and is provided as a convenience for copying standard declaration statements and documentation sections directly into a source file at compile time. The syntax of this statement is:

```
INCLUDE filespec
```

where: `filespec` is a standard file specification presented as a character constant (i.e. enclosed in quotation marks or apostrophes).

INCLUDE statements may be nested up to 10 files deep.
The -I compiler option, described in the chapter **Using the Compilers** in the *Pro Fortran User Guide*, is useful for specifying directories and search paths for include files.

### Conditional Compilation Statements

In addition to the previously described limited capability for conditional compilation available by placing a D or an X in column one, a complete set of compiler directives is also provided which gives dynamic control over the compilation process. These compiler directives are specified with a dollar sign ($) in column 1 and take the following forms:

```
$DEFINE name [value]
$UNDEFINE name
$IF expr
$ELSE
$ELIF expr
$ENDIF
```

`name` is the case sensitive symbolic name of a variable that is used only in conditional compilation directives. It can have the same name as any variable used in standard FORTRAN statements without conflict. Conditional compilation variables exist from the point they are defined until the end of the file unless they are undefined with the $UNDEFINE directive. `value` is an integer constant expression that is used to give the variable a value. If `value` is not present, the variable is given the value of 1.

`expr` is any expression using constants and conditional compilation variables which results in a logical value. Also provided is the logical function `DEFINED` which is used to determine if a variable has actually been defined. Consider the following:

```
$IF DEFINED(debug)
   WRITE (*,*) "iter=",iter
$ENDIF
```

In this case, you are interested in displaying the value of the variable `iter` only during the debugging stages of program development. To turn this feature on, all that is required is to define `debug` before the conditional compilation clause in the source file:

```
$DEFINE debug
```
A more complicated example:

```
$DEFINE precision 8

$IF precision == 4
   REAL a,b,c,d(100),pi
   pi = atan(1.0)*4.0
$ELSEIF precision == 8
   DOUBLE PRECISION a,b,c,d(100),pi
   pi = datan(1d0)*4d0
$ENDIF
```

Conditional compilation variables that are not defined can only be referenced as arguments to the `DEFINED` function. Any other use will result in a compile error.

Inline comments are **not** allowed.

Conditional compilation statements are particularly useful for managing large groups of include files with nested dependencies. Suppose you are using an include file named "graphics.inc" that declares certain structures which are dependent on another include file named "types.inc". If you add the statement `$DEFINE TYPES` at the end of the "types.inc" include file and add the following three statements to the beginning of the "graphics.inc" include file:

```
$IF !DEFINED(TYPES)
   INCLUDE "types.inc"
$ENDIF
```

your source program file only needs to include "graphics.inc" to compile successfully.

The conditional compilation statements are:

- `$DEFINE variable [value]` define a variable [with a value]
- `$UNDEFINE variable` undefined a variable
- `$IF expression` begin an *if* clause
- `$ELSE` begin an *else* clause
- `$ELIF expression` begin an *else if* clause
- `$ENDIF` end an *if* clause

The conditional compilation operators are:

- `<` less than
- `<=` less than or equal
- `==` equal
- `!=` unequal
- `>` greater than
- `>=` greater than or equal
- `!` logical *not*
- `& &` logical *and*
- `| |` logical *or*
TYPE AND KIND

Fortran provides several categories of data known as type. These are integers, floating-point numbers, complex numbers, character, and logical values. Integers are an exact representation of integral values. Floating-point numbers are approximations of real numbers. Complex numbers are composed of two floating-point numbers representing the real and imaginary portions of the value. Character values are representations of individual or strings of printable characters. Logical data items represent the Boolean values of true and false. The representation and presentation of these data types are described in detail in the following sections of this chapter.

Fortran further provides for data of the same type to support multiple precision, range, and size or length. The numeric model is known as kind. Several features are available for inquiring about the numeric model and specifying the kind of the data entity. They are:

KIND(x)  
x is a numeric expression.

SELECTED_INT_KIND(p)  
p is an integer expression.

SELECTED_REAL_KIND(p, r)  
p and r are integer expressions

These functions return an integer value that in the Absoft implementation of Fortran represents the number of bytes required to store a value specified by the expression. The value of the expression x represents the number of required digits of precision. The value of the expression r represents the number of required range of the exponent. If the value cannot be represented, the functions return a value of -1. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KIND(1.0)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIND(32873)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_INT_KIND(3)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_INT_KIND(5)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_INT_KIND(12)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_REAL_KIND(6,30)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_REAL_KIND(14,100)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELECTED_REAL_KIND(30,300)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DATA ITEMS

The symbolic name used to represent a constant, variable, array, substring, statement function, derived type, or external function identifies its data type, and once established, it
does not change within a particular program unit. The data type of an array element name is always the same as the type associated with the array.

Special FORTRAN statements, called type statements, may be used to specify a data type as character, logical, integer, real, double precision, or complex. When a type statement is not used to explicitly establish a type, the first letter of the name is used to determine the type. If the first letter is I, J, K, L, M, N, i, j, k, l, m, or n, the type is integer; any other letter yields an implied type of real. The IMPLICIT statement, described later, may be used to change the default implied types.

The IMPLICIT NONE statement, also described later, causes the compiler to require the declaration of all variables.

An intrinsic function, LOG, EXP, SQRT, INT, etc., may be used with either a specific name or generic name. The data types of the specific intrinsic function names are given in the Programs, Subroutines, and Functions chapter. A generic function assumes the data type of its arguments as discussed in that chapter.

A main program, subroutine, common block, module, and block data subprogram are all identified with symbolic names, but have no data type.

Constants

Fortran constants are identified explicitly by stating their actual value; they do not change in value during program execution. The plus (+) character is not required for positive constants. The value of zero is neither positive nor negative; a zero with a sign is just zero.

The data type of a constant is determined by the specific sequence of characters used to form the constant. A constant may be given a symbolic name with the PARAMETER statement.

For fixed format source programs, except within character and Hollerith constants, blanks are not significant and may be used to increase legibility. For example, the following forms are equivalent:

```
3.14159265358979  3.1415 92653 58979
2.71828182845904  2.7182 81828 45904
```

Blanks are significant in a free format source program and may not occur within a numeric or logical constant.

Character Constant

A character constant is a string of ASCII characters delimited by either apostrophes (') or quotation marks ("). The character used to delimit the string may be part of the string itself by representing it with two successive delimiting characters. The number of charac-
ters in the string determines the length of the character constant. A character constant requires a character storage unit (one byte) for each character in the string.

```
"TEST"   'TEST'
"EVERY GOOD BOY"  'EVERY GOOD BOY'
"Luck is everything"  'Luck is everything'
"didn't"  'didn''t'
```

As an extension to Fortran, special escape sequences may be embedded in a character constant by using the backslash (\) followed immediately by one of the letters in the following list. The actual character value generated in place of the escape sequence is system dependent. For compatibility with FORTRAN programs which do not expect the backslash as an escape sequence, these escape sequences are not recognized by the compiler unless the `-YCSLASH=1` option is used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Escape Sequence</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>\n</td>
<td>Newline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\t</td>
<td>Tab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\r</td>
<td>Carriage return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\f</td>
<td>Form feed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\b</td>
<td>Backspace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\ \</td>
<td>Backslash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>\nnn</td>
<td>Sets character position with value nnn, where nnn are octal digits.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example,

```
WRITE(*,*) "First line\nSecond line"
```

When compiled without the `-YCSLASH=1` option, it displays,

```
First line\nSecond line
```

When compiled with the `-YCSLASH=1` option, it displays,

```
First line
Second line
```

Logical Constant

Logical constants are formed with the strings of characters, `.TRUE.` and `.FALSE.`, representing the Boolean values true and false respectively. A false value is represented with the value zero, and a true value is represented with the value one. A default logical constant requires one numeric storage unit (four bytes).
Integer Constant

An integer constant is an exact binary representation of an integer value with negative integers maintained in two's complement form. An integer constant is a string of decimal digits that may contain a leading sign:

\[
\begin{align*}
15 \\
101 \\
-72 \\
1126 \\
123456789
\end{align*}
\]

The default range of an integer constant is -2147483648 to +2147483647. This is internally represented using four bytes of memory. One, two, and eight byte integer constants are available by attaching a kind parameter to the end of the constant:

\[
\begin{align*}
22_1 \\
367_2 \\
54893657452854_8 \\
-8746359852145_8
\end{align*}
\]

The range of an one-byte integer constant is -128 to +127. The range of an two-byte integer constant is -32768 to +32767. The range of an eight-byte integer constant is -9223372036854775808 to +9223372036854775807.

The kind parameter can be represented symbolically:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{INTEGER, PARAMETER } &:: \text{ I2=SELECTED_INT_KIND(3)} \\
J &= 224_{-\text{I2}}
\end{align*}
\]

Alternate Integer Bases

The compiler normally expects all numeric constants to be in base ten, however, three alternate unsigned integer bases are available when explicitly specified. These optional bases are binary, octal, and hexadecimal and are designated by preceding the constant with the characters B, O, and Z respectively and delimiting the constant itself with apostrophes. The following examples all result in the assignment of the decimal value 3994575:

\[
\begin{align*}
I &= B'1111001111001111001111' \\
J &= O'17171717' \\
K &= Z'3CF3CF'
\end{align*}
\]

The VAX FORTRAN form of hexadecimal and octal constants may also be used:

\[
\begin{align*}
J &= '017171717'O \\
K &= '3CF3CF'X
\end{align*}
\]
Real Constant

A real constant consists of an optional sign and a string of digits that contains a decimal point. The decimal point separates the integer part of the constant from the fractional part and may be placed before or after the string indicating that either the integer or fractional part is zero. A real constant may have an exponent that specifies a power of ten applied to the constant. An exponent is appended to a real constant with the letter E, D, or Q and an integer constant. The exponent letters, E, D, or Q, indicate the precision of the constant: single, double, and quad precision respectively. If an exponent is given and the fractional part is zero, the decimal point may be omitted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1E2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-12.76</td>
<td>-12.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.07D-1</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4237E3</td>
<td>423.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.892Q2</td>
<td>789.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Single precision values are maintained in IEEE single precision floating point representation. The exponent range is -37 to +39. The most significant bit is interpreted as the sign, the next eight bits provide a binary exponent biased by 127, and the remaining twenty-three bits form the binary mantissa with a twenty-fourth bit implied. This representation supplies seven digits of precision and a range of ±0.3402823E+39 to ±0.1175494E-37.

Double precision values are maintained in IEEE double precision floating point representation. The exponent range is -307 to +309. The most significant bit is interpreted as the sign, the next eleven bits provide a binary exponent biased by 1023, and the remaining fifty-two bits form the binary mantissa with a fifty-third bit implied. This representation yields sixteen digits of precision and a range of ±0.1797693134862320D+309 to ±0.2225073858507202D-307.

Quad precision values are maintained as a pair IEEE double precision floating point values, with the most significant value representing the exponent and the most significant portion of the mantissa and least significant value representing the least significant portion of the mantissa and least. The exponent range is -307 to +309. The most significant bit is interpreted as the sign, the next eleven bits provide a binary exponent biased by 1023, and the remaining fifty-two bits of both values form the binary mantissa. This representation yields thirty-one digits of precision and a range of ±0.179769313486231570814527423731730Q-309 to ±0.222507385850720229569787989021279Q-307.

Real constants may also be qualified with a kind parameter:

1.0_4  
33.7_8  
-0.7?93_16
The kind parameter can be represented symbolically:

```fortran
INTEGER, PARAMETER :: DP=SELECTED_REAL_KIND(15,100)
A = 3.0_DP
```

**Complex Constant**

A complex constant is stated using a left parenthesis, a pair of real or integer constants separated by a comma, and a right parenthesis. The first constant is the real portion (in the mathematical sense) and the second is the imaginary portion. A complex constant requires two numeric storage units (eight bytes).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constant</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(2.76,-3.81)</td>
<td>(2.76 -3.81i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-12,15)</td>
<td>(-12.0 +15.0i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(0.62E2,-0.22E-1)</td>
<td>(62.0 -.022i)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hollerith Constant**

The Hollerith data type is an older method of representing characters in FORTRAN. While it is not included in the current standard, this implementation of FORTRAN includes the Hollerith data type to provide compatibility for older programs. Like character constants, a Hollerith constant is formed with a string of any of the characters from the ASCII character set. Logical, integer, real, double precision, and complex variables can be defined with a Hollerith value through `DATA` statements and `READ` statements.

A Hollerith constant is stated with a nonzero, unsigned integer constant, the letter `H`, and a string of characters whose length must be the same as the integer constant.

```
4HTEST
14HEVERY GOOD BOY
```

When a Hollerith constant is assigned to a variable it is left justified and space padded if the length of the constant is less than the length of the variable. If a Hollerith constant appears anywhere in the source code except within a `DATA` statement, a `FORMAT` statement, or a `CALL` statement, an error will result. Embedded escape sequences (i.e. `\n`) are not permitted in a Hollerith constant.

Two additional forms of Hollerith constants are available that are padded with 0’s (zeros) rather than spaces: `L` and `R`. Hollerith using the letter `L` are truncated from the right if they are too large. They are left justified and 0 padded if they are too short. Hollerith using the letter `R` are truncated from the left if they are too large. They are right justified and 0 padded if they are too short.
Variables

A variable is used to maintain a Fortran quantity and is associated with a single storage location through a symbolic name. Simple variables are often called scalar variables to distinguish them from arrays and array elements. Arrays are discussed in the next chapter. Unlike a constant, the value of a variable can be changed during the execution of a program with assignment statements and input and output statements.

Substrings

A substring is a contiguous segment of a character entity and is itself a character data type. It can be used as the destination of an assignment statement or as an operand in an expression. Either a character variable or character array element can be qualified with a substring name:

\[
 v( [e1] : [e2] ) \\
 a(s ,s\ldots)( [e1] : [e2] ) 
\]

where: \( e1 \) and \( e2 \) are called substring expressions and must have integer values.

\( v \) is the symbolic name of a character variable, and \( a(s ,s\ldots) \) is the name of a character array element (see the Arrays chapter).

The values \( e1 \) and \( e2 \) specify the leftmost and rightmost positions of the substring. The substring consists of all of the characters between these two positions, inclusive. For example, if \( A \) is a character variable with a value of 'ABCDEF', then \( A(3:5) \) would have a value of 'CDE'.

The value of the substring expression \( e1 \) must be greater than or equal to one, and if omitted implies a value of one. The value of the substring expression \( e2 \) must be greater than or equal to \( e1 \) and less than or equal to the length of the character entity, and if omitted implies the length of the character entity.

Substring expressions may contain array or function references. The evaluation of a function within a substring expression must not alter the value of other entities also occurring within the substring expression.

STORAGE

Storage refers to the physical computer memory where variables and arrays are stored. Variables and arrays can be made to share the same storage locations through equivalences, common block declarations, and subprogram argument lists. Data items that share storage in this manner are said to be associated.
The contents of variables and arrays are either defined or undefined. All variables and arrays not initially defined through `DATA` statements are undefined.

A storage unit is primarily a FORTRAN 77 concept and refers to the amount of storage needed to record a particular class of data. A storage unit can be a numeric storage unit or a character storage unit.

**Numeric Storage Unit**

A numeric storage unit can be used to hold or store an integer, real, or logical datum. One numeric storage unit consists of four bytes. The amount of storage for default numeric data is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Type</th>
<th>Storage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Integer</td>
<td>1 storage unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real</td>
<td>1 storage unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Double precision</td>
<td>2 storage units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex</td>
<td>2 storage units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical</td>
<td>1 storage unit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Character Storage Unit**

A character datum is a string of characters. The string may consist of any sequence of ASCII characters. The length of a character datum is the number of characters in the string. A character storage unit differs from numeric storage units in that one character storage unit is equal to one byte and holds or stores one character.

**Storage Sequence**

The storage sequence refers to the sequence of storage units, whether they are held in memory or stored on external media such as a disk or a tape.
Storage Association

The storage locations of variables and arrays become associated in the following ways:

- The `EQUIVALENCE` statement (described in the Specification and DATA Statements chapter) causes the storage units of the variables and array elements listed within the enclosing parentheses to be shared. Note that the data types of the associated entities need not be the same.

- The variable and array names appearing in the `COMMON` statements (described in the Specification and DATA Statements chapter) of two different program units are associated.

- The dummy arguments of subroutine and function subprograms are associated with the actual arguments in the referencing program unit.

- An `ENTRY` statement (described in the Programs, Subroutines, and Functions chapter) in a function subprogram causes its corresponding name to be associated with the name appearing in the `FUNCTION` statement.

Storage Definition

Storage becomes defined through `DATA` statements, assignment statements, and I/O statements. `READ` statements cause the items in their associated I/O lists to become defined. Any I/O statement can cause items in its parameter list to become defined (the `IOSTAT` variable for instance). A `DO` variable becomes defined as part of the loop initialization process.

The fact that storage can become undefined at all should be carefully noted. Some events that cause storage to become undefined are obvious: starting execution of a program that does not initially define all of its variables (through `DATA` statements), attempting to read past the end of a file, and executing an `INQUIRE` statement on a file that does not exist. When two variables of different types are either partially or totally associated, defining one causes the other to become undefined.

Because Fortran provides for both dynamic as well as static storage allocation, certain events can cause dynamically allocated storage to become undefined. In particular, returning from subroutine and function subprograms causes all of their variables to become undefined except for those:

- in blank `COMMON`.
- specified in a `MODULE`
- specified in `SAVE` statements.
The -s compiler option has the effect of an implicit `SAVE` for every program unit encountered during the current compilation (see the chapter Using the Compilers in the Pro Fortran User Guide).
CHAPTER 3

Specification and DATA Statements

Specification statements are used to define the properties of the symbolic entities, variables, arrays, symbolic constants, etc. that are used within a program unit. For this reason, specification statements are also called declaration statements and are grouped together in the declaration section of a program unit: before any statement function statements, DATA statements, and executable statements. Specification statements themselves are classified as non-executable.

DATA statements are used to establish initial values for the variables and arrays used within a Fortran program. Variables not appearing in DATA statements may contain random values when a program starts executing. The use of undefined variables can cause problems that are difficult to detect when transporting a program from one environment to another, because the previous environment may have set all storage to zeros while the new environment performs no such housekeeping.

TYPE STATEMENTS

The most common of the specification statements are the type statements. They are used to give data types to symbol names and declare array names. Once a data type has been associated with a symbol name it remains the same for all occurrences of that name throughout a program unit.

Arithmetic and Logical Type Statements

The forms of the type statement for the arithmetic and logical data types are:

\[
\begin{align*}
type \ v \ [,v]... \\
type \ [*len] \ v[/value/] \ [,v[/value/]... \\
type \ [(kind)] \ [[attributes] ::] \ v \ [,v]... \ [=value]
\end{align*}
\]

where: type can be any of the following specifiers: LOGICAL, INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, or DOUBLE COMPLEX.

\(v\) is the symbolic name of a variable, an array, a constant, a function, a dummy procedure, or an array declaration.

\(len\) is an unsigned integer constant that specifies the length, in bytes, of a variable, an array element, a symbolic constant, or a function.
value is an optional initial value for the preceding variable or array. When initializing an array, value must contain constants separated by commas for each element of the array.

kind is a kind expression that specifies the kind of the data entity (see below).

attributes is a list attributes that apply to the data entity (see below).

The following len specifiers are available:

- LOGICAL*4 is the default for LOGICAL and occupies one numeric storage unit. The default may be changed to LOGICAL*2 with the -in compiler option (see the chapter Using the Compilers in the Pro Fortran User Guide).

- LOGICAL*2 data is a representation of the logical values of true and false. This type of logical data occupies one half of one numeric storage unit. A false value is represented by the number zero and a true value is represented by the number one.

- LOGICAL*1 data is a representation of the logical values of true and false. This type of logical data occupies one byte. A false value is represented by the number zero and a true value is represented by the number one.

- INTEGER*8 data is an exact binary representation of an integer in the range of -9223372036854775808 to +9223372036854775807 with negative integers carried in two's complement form. This type of integer is maintained in two numeric storage units.

- INTEGER*4 is the default for INTEGER and occupies one numeric storage unit. The default may be changed to INTEGER*2 or INTEGER*8 with the -in compiler option (see the chapter Using the Compilers in the Pro Fortran User Guide).

- INTEGER*2 data is an exact binary representation of an integer in the range of -32768 to +32767 with negative integers carried in two's complement form. This type of integer is maintained in one half of one numeric storage unit.

- INTEGER*1 data is an exact binary representation of an integer in the range of -128 to +127 with negative integers carried in two's complement form. This type of integer is maintained in one byte of storage.
REAL*4 is the default for REAL and occupies one numeric storage unit. The default may be changed to REAL*8 with the -N113 compiler option (see the chapter Using the Compilers in the Pro Fortran User Guide).

REAL*8 data is identical to DOUBLE PRECISION and occupies two numeric storage units.

REAL*16 is quad precision and occupies 4 numeric storage units.

COMPLEX*8 data is identical to COMPLEX and occupies two numeric storage units. The default may be changed to COMPLEX*16 with the -N113 compiler option (see the chapter Using the Compilers in the Pro Fortran User Guide).

COMPLEX*16 data is similar to COMPLEX except that both halves of the complex value are represented as DOUBLE PRECISION and it occupies four numeric storage units.

COMPLEX*32 data is similar to COMPLEX except that both halves of the complex value are represented as REAL*16 and it occupies eight numeric storage units.

attributes consists of comma separated list of one or more of the following:

- **PARAMETER** allows a constant to be given a symbolic name. The symbol must be given a value.
- **ALLOCATABLE** specifies that the array will have a deferred shape that will be specified when it is allocated.
- **DIMENSION** is given with an array dimension declaration to be applied to the variable name(s) given.
- **EXTERNAL** allows symbolic names to be used as arguments in CALL statements and function references without the compiler automatically creating a variable at the point of reference.
- **INTENT(inout)** specifies the intended use of a dummy argument. *inout* may be one of IN, OUT, INOUT.
- **INTRINSIC** allows the specific or generic name of an intrinsic function to be used as an argument in CALL statements and function references without the compiler automatically creating a variable at the point of reference.
OPTIONAL specifies that the declared dummy argument is optional and may be omitted from the actual argument list of a subroutine or function reference.

POINTER specifies that the variable will be a pointer.

SAVE prevents variables and arrays that are declared locally in subprograms from being deallocated and losing their definition status when the program is exited.

STDCALL Windows 32-bit only. Indicates that the function in the specification is to use the Windows STDCALL call/return protocol.

TARGET allows the variable to be associated via a pointer assignment operator with a variable that has the POINTER attribute.

AUTOMATIC forces a variable to be allocated on the stack. This is the default in the absence of a SAVE statement or compiler directive.

VALUE specifies that the declared dummy argument is passed by value rather than the default of by reference.

VOLATILE informs the compiler that variable can be modified outside of Fortran and it should not be maintained in a CPU register.

BIND(spec) specifies that the entity has interoperability with C and external linkage. spec takes the form:

\[
C [,NAME=character_constant]
\]

where: character_constant is the external name of the entity.
kind examples:

REAL(4)
REAL(KIND(1.0D0))
INTEGER(SELECTED_INT_KIND(4))

Character Type Statement

The form of the type statement for the character data type is:

\[
\text{CHARACTER } [*\text{len } [,]] \text{ v}[*\text{len}] [,\text{v}[*\text{len}]] ... \\
\text{CHARACTER } [(\text{len})] [\text{attributes}] [:] \text{ v } [,\text{v}] ... [=\text{value}] \\
\text{CHARACTER } [*\text{len } [,]] \text{ v}[*\text{len}]/[\text{value}]/ [,\text{v}[*\text{len}]/[\text{value}]/] ... \\
\]

where: \( v \) is a variable name, an array name, an array declaration, the symbolic name of a constant, a function name, or a dummy procedure name

\( \text{len} \) is either an unsigned INTEGER constant, an INTEGER constant expression within parentheses, or an asterisk within parentheses and specifies the length, in bytes, of a variable, an array element, a symbolic constant, or a function.

\( \text{value} \) is an optional initial value for the preceding variable or array. When initializing an array, \( \text{value} \) must contain constants separated by commas for each element of the array.

If \( \text{len} \) directly follows the word CHARACTER, the length specification applies to all symbols not qualified by their own length specifications. When \( \text{len} \) is not specified directly after the keyword CHARACTER, all symbols not qualified by their own length specifications default to one byte.

The length of symbolic CHARACTER constants, dummy arguments of SUBROUTINE and FUNCTION subprograms, and CHARACTER functions may be given as an asterisk enclosed in parentheses: \((*)\). The length of a symbolic constant declared in this manner is the number of characters appearing in the associated PARAMETER statement. Dummy arguments and functions assume the length of the actual argument declared by the referencing program unit.

\[
\text{CHARACTER TITLE}*(*) \\
\text{PARAMETER } (\text{TITLE} = '\text{FORTRAN 77}')
\]

or:

\[
\text{CHARACTER(LEN=}*)\), \text{PARAMETER } :: \text{TITLE} = '\text{Fortran 90}'
\]

produces a ten byte symbolic CHARACTER constant.
DERIVED TYPES

Derived types are useful for manipulating and maintaining data objects that are most suitably organized as an aggregate. Derived types are also known as *user defined data types*. A derived type must first be defined. Once defined, instances of the derived type can be declared with unique variable names.

Derived type definition:

```fortran
TYPE name
cOMPONENT component_declarations
END TYPE [name]
```

where: `name` is the symbolic name that will be used to reference the type.

`component_declarations` declarations of the variables, arrays, and derived types that comprise the new type. They may have default initializations.

Examples:

```fortran
TYPE DATE
  INTEGER Month
  INTEGER Day
  INTEGER Year
END TYPE DATE

TYPE POINT
  INTEGER X, Y
END TYPE POINT

TYPE TRIANGLE
  TYPE(POINT) A, B, C
END TYPE TRIANGLE
```

Once a derived type has been defined, it is available to declare variables of that type and to create values of that type. A derived type declaration takes a form similar to normal type statement:

```fortran
TYPE(type_name) [attributes ::] v [,v]... [=value]
```

where: `type_name` is the name of a previously defined type.

`v` is the symbolic name of a variable, an array, or an array declaration.

`value` is a type constant (see below).

Examples:

```fortran
TYPE (DATE) :: DATEA, DATEB
```
Structure Constructor

A structure constructor is used to create a derived type constant value and takes the form of the type name and a comma separated list of expressions that define the components of the type. Examples:

```fortran
TYPE(DATE) :: DATEC = DATE(5, 12, 2001)
TYPE(TRIANGLE) :: T1 = TRIANGLE(POINT(6,2), POINT(6,14), POINT(18,2))
```

DATEA = DATE(2, 16, 1977)

Component keywords can be used for identification, to change the order or to omit components. An omitted component must have a default initialization established when the type was declared. Examples:

```fortran
TYPE DATE
  INTEGER :: Month = 1
  INTEGER :: Day   = 1
  INTEGER :  Year  = 1970
END TYPE DATE
```

```fortran
TYPE(DATE) :: TheDate
TheDate = DATE(Month=12, Day=31, Year=2013)
TheDate = DATE(Year=2013, Month=12, Day=31)
TheDate = DATE(Year=2013)
```

In the last example, the two omitted components (Month and Day) are given the default initializations from the declaration.

Derived Type Component Reference

The components of a derived type are accessed with the variable name and the component separated by a percent sign (%):

```fortran
TYPE(DATE) :: DateA
TYPE(TRIANGLE) :: T1
```

```fortran
DateA%Month = 7
DateA%Day   = 12
DateA%Year  = 2002
T1%A%X = -12
T1%A%Y =   4
T1%B%X =  15
T1%B%Y =  22
T1%C%X =  15
T1%C%Y =   4
```
Normal array element syntax is used to access arrays of derived types:

```
TYPE(DATE), DIMENSION(5) :: Dates

IF (Dates(i)%Month == Dates(j)%Month .AND. &
    Dates(i)%Day == Dates(j)%Day .AND. &
    Dates(i)%Year == Dates(j)%Year) THEN
```

The ability to define operators for manipulating derived types and their components is provided in Fortran. This is discussed on the Chapter **Modules**.

**POINTERS**

A pointer is an object that can be made to point to other objects. If the object that a pointer points to is not itself a pointer, it must have the `TARGET` attribute. The pointer assignment operator, `=>`, is used to associate a pointer to an object. It is important to distinguish the difference between pointer assignment and normal assignment.

```
REAL, TARGET :: A, B
REAL, POINTER :: P

IF (I > 10) THEN
    P => A
ELSE
    P => B
END IF

P = 1.0/P
```

A powerful use of pointers is to create linked lists.

```
TYPE Style
    INTEGER index
    REAL value
    TYPE(Style), POINTER :: next
END TYPE Style

TYPE(Style), POINTER :: Head, Current, Next

ALLOCATE(Head)
Head = Style(1, 0.0, NULL())

allocate a linked list of 10 elements:

    Current => Head
    do i=2, 10
        ALLOCATE(Current%next)
        Current => Current%next
        Current = Style(i, 0.0, NULL())
    end do

deallocate a linked list:

    Current => Head
    do
```
if (.not. ASSOCIATED(Current)) exit
Next => Current%next
DEALLOCATE(Current)
Current => Next
end do

**Pointer Aliases**

A pointer can point to a commonly used array section to simplify a program.

```fortran
INTEGER, DIMENSION(3,4), TARGET :: a
INTEGER, DIMENSION(:,,:), POINTER :: b
a = RESHAPE(/1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12/), (/3,4/)
b => a(1:3,2:3)
print *,b
end
```

4 5 6 7 8 9

**Pointer Bounds Remapping**

The bounds of a pointer object can be remapped with a bounds remapping list. A bounds remapping list takes the same form as a normal array specification. If a bounds remapping list it present it must be the same rank as the pointer target. A bounds remapping list may not specify an array larger than the pointer target.

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(50,50), TARGET :: T
REAL, DIMENSION(:, :), POINTER :: P
P(0,0) => T
```

In above example, the dimensions of the pointer object, P, are 0:49, 0:49.

```fortran
P(0:24,0:24) => T
```

In above example, the dimensions of the pointer object, P, are 0:24, 0:24 and are the section of the pointer target, T, 1:25, 1:25.
Arrays of Pointers
Arrays of pointers are not allowed in Fortran, but the equivalent effect can be easily attained with a type containing a pointer element.

```fortran
TYPE POINTER_ARRAY
  REAL, POINTER, DIMENSION(:) :: A
END TYPE POINTER_ARRAY

TYPE(POINTER_ARRAY) :: DIMENSION(10) :: S

DO I=1,10
  ALLOCATE(S(I)%A(100))
END DO
```

ASSOCIATED() Function
The logical function `ASSOCIATED` is used to determine if a pointer is associated with a target. It is also used to determine if a pointer is associated with a specific target.

```fortran
ASSOCIATED(pointer[, target])
```

NULL() Function
The `NULL` function is used to give a pointer a disassociated status.

```fortran
REAL, POINTER :: P => NULL()
```

NULLIFY Statement
The `NULLIFY` statement is used to disassociate a pointer.

```fortran
REAL, POINTER :: P
... NULLIFY(P)
```

is equivalent to:

```fortran
P => NULL()
```
ALLOCATABLE STATEMENT
The ALLOCATABLE statement specifies the ALLOCATABLE attribute for a list of variable names:

ALLOCATABLE :: [var [(def-spec)] [var [(def-spec)]]...

where var is the symbolic name of a variable
def-spec is a deferred shape specification if the DIMENSION attribute had been previously specified for the variable

AUTOMATIC STATEMENT
The AUTOMATIC statement specifies the AUTOMATIC attribute for a list of variable names:

AUTOMATIC :: [var [,var]]...

where var is the symbolic name of a variable

DIMENSION STATEMENT
The DIMENSION statement declares the names and supplies the dimension information for arrays to be used within a program unit.

DIMENSION :: [a (d) [,a (d)]]...

where a (d) is an array declarator as described in the chapter Arrays.

Arrays may be declared with either DIMENSION statements, COMMON statements, or type statements, but multiple declarations are not allowed. That is, once a symbolic name has been declared to be an array it may not appear in any other declaration statement with an array declarator in the same program unit. The following three statements declare the same array:

DIMENSION A(5,5,5)
REAL A(5,5,5)
REAL(KIND(1.0e0), DIMENSION(5,5,5) :: A
REAL(KIND(1.0e0) :: A(5,5,5)
COMMON A(5,5,5)

COMMON STATEMENT
The COMMON statement is used to declare the storage order of variables and arrays in a consistent and predictable manner. This is done through a FORTRAN data structure called a common block, which is a contiguous block of storage. A common block may be identified by a symbolic name but does not have a data type. Once the order of storage in a common block has been established, any program unit that declares the same common
block can reference the data stored there without having to pass symbol names through argument lists.

The `GLOBAL` statement may be used to make the common block accessible to other tasks on systems which support shared data.

Common blocks are specified in the following manner:

```
COMMON [/[cb]/] nlist [[,]/[cb]/ nlist]...
GLOBAL [/[cb]/] nlist [[,]/[cb]/ nlist]...
```

where: \(cb\) is the symbolic name of the common block. If \(cb\) is omitted, the first pair of slashes may also be omitted.

\(nlist\) contains the symbolic names of variables, arrays, and array declarators.

When the `COMMON` block name is omitted, the `COMMON` block is called blank `COMMON`. The symbolic name "BLANK" is reserved by the compiler for blank `COMMON` and if used explicitly as a `COMMON` block name will result in all entities in the `nlist` being placed in blank `COMMON`.

Any `COMMON` block name or an omitted name (blank `COMMON`) can occur more than once in the `COMMON` statements in a program unit. The list of variables and arrays following each successive appearance of the same common block name is treated as a continuation of the list for that common block name.

A `COMMON` block name can be the same as that of a variable, array, or program unit.

**CONTAINS STATEMENT**

The `CONTAINS` statement marks the section of program unit (MAIN, SUBROUTINE, FUNCTION, or MODULE) that contains internal procedures. See the Chapter `PROGRAMS, SUBROUTINES, and FUNCTIONS`. Example

```
CONTAINS
```

**EQUIVALENCE STATEMENT**

The `EQUIVALENCE` statement provides a means for one or more variables to share the same storage location. Variables that share storage in this manner are said to be associated. The association may be total if both variables are the same size or partial if they are of different sizes. The `EQUIVALENCE` statement is used in the following manner:

```
EQUIVALENCE (nlist) [, (nlist)]...
```
The symbolic names of at least two variables, arrays, array elements, or character substrings must be specified in each \textit{nlist}. Only integer constant expressions may be used in subscript and substring expressions. An array name unqualified by a subscript implies the first element of the array.

An \texttt{EQUIVALENCE} statement causes storage for all items in an individual \textit{nlist} to be allocated at the same starting location:

\begin{verbatim}
REAL A,B
INTEGER I,J
EQUIVALENCE (A,B), (I,J)
\end{verbatim}

The variables \texttt{A} and \texttt{B} share the same storage location and are totally associated. The variables \texttt{I} and \texttt{J} share the same storage location and are totally associated.

Items that are equivalenced can be of different data types and have different lengths. When a storage association is established in this manner several elements of one data type may occupy the same storage as one element of a different data type:

\begin{verbatim}
DOUBLE PRECISION D
INTEGER I(2)
EQUIVALENCE (D,I)
\end{verbatim}

The array element \texttt{I(1)} shares the same storage location as the upper (most significant) thirty-two bits of \texttt{D}, and the array element \texttt{I(2)} shares the same storage location as the lower (least significant) thirty-two bits of \texttt{D}. Because only a portion of \texttt{D} is stored in the same location as \texttt{I(1)}, these entities are only partially associated.

The \texttt{EQUIVALENCE} may not specify that an item occupy more than one storage location or that a gap occur between consecutive array elements.
Equivalence of Arrays

The `EQUIVALENCE` statement can be used to cause the storage locations of arrays to become either partially or totally associated.

```fortran
REAL A(8), B(8)
INTEGER I(5), J(7)
EQUIVALENCE (A(3), B(1)), (A(1), I(1)), (I(4), J(1))
```

Storage would be allocated as follows:

```
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|---------------A---------------|
|---------------B---------------|
|---------I---------|
|-------------J-------------|
```

Equivalence of Substrings

The `EQUIVALENCE` statement can be used to cause the storage locations of substrings to become either partially or totally associated.

```fortran
CHARACTER A(2)*5
CHARACTER B*8
EQUIVALENCE (A(2)(2:4), B(4:7))
```

Byte storage would be allocated as follows:

```
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
|-------------------A-------------------|
|---------------B---------------|
```

Notice that the lengths of the equivalenced substrings need not be the same, as in the above example.

COMMON and EQUIVALENCE Restrictions

The `EQUIVALENCE` statement can be used to increase the size of a common block by adding storage to the end, but it cannot increase the size by adding storage units prior to the first item in a `COMMON` block.

The `EQUIVALENCE` statement must not cause two different `COMMON` blocks to have their storage associated.

ENUMERATIONS
An enumeration is a construct for creating and generating named integer constants. The constants are identical to named integer constants created with the `PARAMETER` attribute or statement.

```
ENUM, BIND(C)
ENUMERATOR [::] enum-spec[, enum-spec]...
END ENUM
```

where: `enum-spec` is the symbolic name used to reference the constant.

`enum-spec` may be given a value with an equals sign and a scalar integer constant. If any `enum-spec` is given a value, the double colon separator must appear. The default initial value is 0. A subsequent `enum-spec` without a value is incremented by 1 from the previous `enum-spec`.

**example:**

```
ENUM, BIND(C)
ENUMERATOR :: STEP1=1, STEP2, STEP3
ENUMERATOR STEP4
END ENUM
```

Equivalent `INTEGER` declaration with a `PARAMETER` attribute:

```
INTEGER, PARAMETER :: STEP1=1, STEP2=2, STEP3=4, STEP4=4
```

**EXTERNAL STATEMENT**

The `EXTERNAL` statement allows symbolic names to be used as arguments in `CALL` statements and function references without the compiler automatically creating a variable at the point of reference. Symbolic names so declared may or may not have an associated data type. The `EXTERNAL` statement is given with a list of external or dummy procedure names or intrinsic function names:

```
EXTERNAL proc [,proc]...
```

where: `proc` is a symbolic name of a procedure or intrinsic function.

An intrinsic function name appearing in an `EXTERNAL` statement specifies that the particular intrinsic function has been replaced by a user supplied routine.

**IMPLICIT STATEMENT**

The `IMPLICIT` statement is used to establish implicit data typing that differs from the default `INTEGER` and `REAL` typing described in chapter *The Fortran Program*. The
IMPLICIT statement can also be used to remove implied typing altogether. The IMPLICIT statement takes the following form:

```fortran
IMPLICIT type [*len] (a [,a]...) [,type [*len] (a [,a]...)]
```

where: *type* is a type chosen from the set CHARACTER, LOGICAL, INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, DOUBLE COMPLEX, or NONE.

*len* is an unsigned integer constant specifying the length, in bytes, of LOGICAL, INTEGER, REAL, COMPLEX or CHARACTER variables.

*a* is an alphabetic specifier which is either a single letter or a range of letters. A range of letters is specified with a character representing the lower bound of the range, a minus, and a character representing the upper bound of the range. The range A-z specifies all the letters of the alphabet.

If *len* is not specified, the defaults are:

- CHARACTER 1 byte
- LOGICAL 4 bytes
- INTEGER 4 bytes
- REAL 4 bytes
- COMPLEX 8 bytes

The IMPLICIT statement must appear before all other declaration statements except PARAMETER statements and specifies the data type of all symbolic names that can take a data type that are not given one explicitly with a type statement. The data type will be the data type that corresponds to the first character of their names.

When NONE appears in place of a type specifier, all variables used within the program unit must appear in an explicit type statement.

**INTENT STATEMENT**

The INTENT statement specifies the INTENT attribute for a list of dummy arguments. It is used to inform the compiler how dummy arguments are intended to be used. INTENT(IN), INTENT(OUT), and INTENT(INOUT) are available:

```fortran
INTENT(spec) [:] var [,var...]
```

where *spec* is IN, OUT, or INOUT.

*var* is the symbolic name of a function or subroutine dummy argument.

```fortran
SUBROUTINE SOLVER(TD)
IMPLICIT NONE
```
REAL, INTENT(IN) :: TD
...
END SUBROUTINE SOLVER

INTRINSIC STATEMENT

The INTRINSIC statement designates symbolic names as intrinsic functions (see the chapter Programs, Subroutines, and Functions). Similar to the EXTERNAL statement, this allows intrinsic functions to be used as arguments in CALL statements and function references without the compiler automatically creating a variable at the point of reference. The intrinsic function name specified in an INTRINSIC statement retains its associated data type. The INTRINSIC statement is given in the following manner:

```
INTRINSIC func [,func]...
```

where: func is the name of an intrinsic function.

The following intrinsic functions do not follow conventional FORTRAN calling conventions and may not appear in an INTRINSIC statement:

```
AMAX0 AMAX1 AMIN0 AMIN1 CHAR CMPLX DBLE DCMPLX DMAX1 FLOAT ICHAR IDINT INT
LEN LGE LGT LLE LIT MAX MAX0 MAX1 MIN MIN0 MIN1 REAL SNGL
```

This restriction also applies to the Absoft Fortran 77 intrinsic functions below:

```
ADJUSTL ADJUSTR TRIM REPEAT
ADJUSTL ADJUSTR TRIM REPEAT
```

The INTRINSIC statement is used to pass intrinsic functions to external procedures:

```
INTRINSIC SIN, COS
DIMENSION A(100), B(100)
CALL TRIG(SIN, A)
CALL TRIG(COS, B)
```
SUBROUTINE TRIG(FUNC, ARRAY)
DIMENSION ARRAY(100)
DO 10 I=1,100
10 ARRAY(I) = FUNC(FLOAT(I))
END

NAMELIST STATEMENT

The NAMELIST statement associates a unique group name with a list of variable or array names. The group-name is used in namelist directed input and output operations. Namelists are specified in the following manner:

```
NAMELIST /group_name/nlist[ [, ]/group_name/nlist]...
```

where:  
- `group_name` is a symbolic name.
- `nlist` is a list of variables or array names that is to be associated with `group_name`

The `group_name` must be a unique identifier and cannot be used for any purpose other than namelist directed I/O in the program unit in which it appears.

Variables in a namelist can be of any data type and can be explicitly or implicitly typed. Subscripted array names and CHARACTER substrings cannot appear in the NAMELIST, however NAMELIST directed I/O can be used to assign values to array elements and CHARACTER substrings.

The order of appearance of variables in a NAMELIST controls the order in which the values are written during NAMELIST directed output. The order of appearance has no affect on NAMELIST directed input.

Adjustable arrays are not permitted in NAMELIST statements.

OPTIONAL STATEMENT

The OPTIONAL statement specifies the OPTIONAL attribute for a list of dummy arguments:

```
OPTIONAL [::] var [, var...]
```

where `var` is the symbolic name of a function or subroutine dummy argument.

```
INTERFACE
   REAL FUNCTION Accumulate(A, B, C)
   REAL :: A
   REAL, OPTIONAL :: B, C
END FUNCTION Accumulate
END INTERFACE
```
The \texttt{PRESENT} function is used to determine if an \textit{optional} dummy argument is present.

\begin{verbatim}
REAL FUNCTION Accumulate(A, B, C)
REAL :: A
REAL, OPTIONAL :: B, C
Accumulate = A
IF (PRESENT(B)) Accumulate = Accumulate + B
IF (PRESENT(C)) Accumulate = Accumulate + C
END FUNCTION Accumulate
\end{verbatim}

\section*{PARAMETER STATEMENT}

The \texttt{PARAMETER} statement allows a constant to be given a symbolic name in the following manner:

\begin{verbatim}
PARAMETER (p=c [,p=c]...)
\end{verbatim}

where \textit{p} is the symbolic name that is used to reference the constant and \textit{c} is a constant expression.

If the data type and length attributes of the symbolic name are to be other than the implied default for that name, then the type (and size) must be previously defined in an explicit type statement or through the typing supplied by an \texttt{IMPLICIT} statement. A character parameter may have its length declared as an asterisk in parentheses, in which case the actual size will be the number of characters in the expression.

The type of the constant expression must match the type of the symbolic name.

\begin{verbatim}
INTEGER EOF
CHARACTER TITLE*(*)
PARAMETER (PI=3.1415926, THIRD=1.0/3.0)
PARAMETER (EOF=-1)
PARAMETER (TITLE='FORTRAN 77')
\end{verbatim}

\section*{POINTER STATEMENT}

The \texttt{POINTER} statement specifies the \texttt{POINTER} attribute for a list of variable names:

\begin{verbatim}
POINTER [:] var[(def-spec)] [,var[(def-spec)]]…
\end{verbatim}

where \textit{var} is the symbolic name of a variable

\textit{def-spec} is a deferred shape specification if the \texttt{DIMENSION} attribute had been previously specified for the variable
POINTER STATEMENT (CRAY-STYLE)

The **POINTER** statement is an extension to standard Fortran and is provided for compatibility with older implementations of Fortran. This type of pointer is commonly known as a “Cray pointer”. It is recommended that new programs use the standard pointer mechanism described earlier in this chapter.

The **POINTER** statement is used to establish a means for directly manipulating the address of a variable. Normally, when a FORTRAN variable is created, either explicitly with a declaration statement of implicitly by reference in the program, its location or address in memory is fixed by the compiler or the linker. However, there are situations where it is useful for the location of a variable to be dynamic. The **POINTER** statement provides this mechanism by associating a pointer to a variable as follows:

```
POINTER (ptr, pbv) [, (ptr, pbv), ...]
```

where: *ptr* is the symbolic name that is used to manipulate the address of the associated variable and *pbv* is the pointer-based variable.

Before the pointer-based variable can be used, the pointer must be defined with the initial address of the variable. The **LOC** function is useful for this purpose:

```
INTEGER m(100), a
POINTER (pa, a)
pa = LOC(m)
DO i=1, 100
   a = i
   pa = pa + 4
END DO
```

The array will contain the integers from 1 to 100 after the execution of the **DO** loop.

When a pointer-based variable is referenced, its address is established from the current value of the associated pointer variable. Pointers can be used just as if they were **INTEGER** variables except that they cannot appear as dummy arguments. Pointer-based variables can be of any FORTRAN data type. Pointer-based variables cannot be dummy arguments or appear in **COMMON, GLOBAL, EQUIVALENCE, NAMELIST, SAVE, VALUE or PARAMETER** statements. Further information and examples are presented in the appendices.

PRIVATE AND PUBLIC STATEMENTS

Modules allow specifications, data, and procedures to be encapsulated. The default is that all data entities are visible to procedures that use the module; they are **PUBLIC**. Often it is useful to limit the accessibility of symbolic entities to the module itself. For example, only the generic interface to a generic function is typically visible outside of the module. The specific interfaces and function implementations are **private** to the module. A **PRIVATE** statement can be used to limit the scope to only the module.
REAL, PARAMETER, PRIVATE :: PI=3.1415926535
PRIVATE :: SP_LOGB, DP_LOGB

TYPE SEMAPHORE
  PRIVATE
  REAL, DIMENSION(), POINTER :: ACCESS
  LOGICAL STATE
END TYPE SEMAPHORE

**PROCEDURE STATEMENT**

The **PROCEDURE** statement declares external procedures, dummy procedures, and procedure pointers:

```
PROCEDURE([proc-inter]) [[,proc-attr] ::] proc-list
```

where *proc-inter* is the name of an interface or a type name.

*proc-attr* is comma separated list of any of the following:

- PUBLIC
- PRIVATE
- INTENT(INOUT)
- OPTIONAL
- POINTER
- SAVE

*proc-list* is a list of procedure names. The procedure pointer name may be initialized with the **NULL()** function.

The following two statements are equivalent:

```
PROCEDURE(INTEGER) IFUN
INTEGER, EXTERNAL :: IFUN
```

A typical use of the **PROCEDURE** statement is shown below:

```
INTERFACE
  FUNCTION CONSTRUCT(X,Y)
  REAL, INTENT(IN) :: X, Y
  REAL :: CONSTRUCT
  END FUNCTION CONSTRUCT
END INTERFACE

PROCEDURE(CONSTRUCT), POINTER :: SYSCON => NULL()
```
RECORD STATEMENT

RECORD statements are used to define variables that are instances of structures defined in
STRUCTURE declarations. Variables declared in RECORD statements are composite or
aggregate data items. RECORD statements are defined as follows:

```
RECORD /structure-name/rlist[,/structure-name/rlist...]
```

where: `structure-name` is a name given in a STRUCTURE definition.

`rlist` is one or more variable names, array names or array
declarators separated by commas.

Record names cannot appear in NAMELIST statements and can only be read from and
written to UNFORMATTED files. For more information on the use of records, see the
appendices.

SAVE STATEMENT

Fortran permits dynamic as well as static storage allocation. Variables, arrays, and
COMMON blocks declared in a main program are allocated statically and always retain their
definition status. Variables and arrays that are declared locally in subprograms are allo-
cated dynamically when the subprogram is invoked. When the subprogram executes a
RETURN or END statement, these items are deallocated and lose their definition status. The
SAVE statement is used to retain the definition status of these items by specifying them in
the following manner:

```
SAVE [[::] a [,a]...]
```

where: `a` is either a common block name delimited with slashes, a
variable name, or an array name.

If `a` is not specified, the effect is as though all items in the program unit were presented in
the list.

In order to maintain portability in FORTRAN programs, it is recommended that the SAVE
statement be used on COMMON blocks declared only in subprograms. Although it has no
effect in this implementation, other FORTRAN compilers may cause deallocation of
common blocks upon returning from a subprogram if they are not SAVED.
SEQUENCE STATEMENT

The storage sequence of members of a derived type is not specified. For optimization purposes, a compiler may rearrange them. The **SEQUENCE** statement is used to specify the order of the derived type members and to assure adjacency.

```fortran
TYPE PIXEL
  SEQUENCE
  INTEGER(SELECTED_INT_KIND(4)) :: XPos, YPos
  INTEGER(SELECTED_INT_KIND(9)) :: RVal, GVal, BVal
END TYPE PIXEL
```

STDCALL STATEMENT

The **STDCALL** statement indicates that a function or subroutine is to use the Windows 32-bit STDCALL call/return protocol

```fortran
STDCALL proc [,proc]...
```

where **proc** is the symbolic name of a subroutine or function

**NOTE:** This statement is applicable only to programs intended for execution on a Windows 32-bit system only. The statement may appear in Windows 64-bit programs, but has no effect.

STRUCTURE DECLARATION

The **STRUCTURE** statement is an extension to standard Fortran and is provided for compatibility with older implementations of Fortran. It is recommended that new programs use the standard derived type mechanism described earlier in this chapter.

The **STRUCTURE** declaration provides a mechanism for organizing various data items into meaningful groups forming an aggregate data type called a structure. The **STRUCTURE** declaration establishes the data types, ordering, and alignment of a structure, but may not actually define storage for a structure. Storage for the actual structure may be defined in the **STRUCTURE** declaration or with a **RECORD** statement (see above section **RECORD Statement**). A **STRUCTURE** declaration takes the following form:
STRUCTURE */structure-name/*[rlist [,rlist...]]
  field-declaration  
  [field-declaration]  
  .  
  rlist is a list of symbolic names or array declarators allocating records having the form defined in the STRUCTURE declaration. 
  [field-declaration]  
END STRUCTURE

where: */structure-name/* is the name used to identify the structure declaration.

rlist is a list of symbolic names or array declarators allocating records having the form defined in the STRUCTURE declaration.

field-declaration defines a data item in the structure.

The */structure-name/* must be unique among STRUCTURE declarations, but can be used for variable and global names.

A field-declaration can be any FORTRAN type statement, a POINTER declaration, a UNION declaration, a RECORD statement, or another STRUCTURE declaration. Arithmetic and logical type statements may take an optional */value/* specifier to provide initialization for the data item in each instance of the structure as described earlier in this chapter.

The name */FILL/* can be used in place of the symbol name in a field-declaration (e.g. INTEGER*2 */FILL/*). In this case, no field name is defined, but empty space is added to the structure for the purpose of alignment. This extension is provided for compatibility with other FORTRAN environments.

If the field-declaration is another STRUCTURE declaration, the */structure-name/* may be omitted, but the rlist must be given. In this case the symbolic names in rlist become fields of the structure which contains it. If the */structure-name/* is given, it can be used in RECORD statements to define instances of the substructure.

The structure fields established with field-declarations are accessed by appending a period and the field name to the record name:

    STRUCTURE */date/ day
    INTEGER mm
    INTEGER dd
    INTEGER yy
END STRUCTURE

day.mm = 9
day.dd = 12
day.yy = 90

See the appendix Using Structures and Pointers for examples using STRUCTURE declarations.
UNION DECLARATION

A UNION declaration defines a data area which is shared by one or more fields or groups of fields. It begins with a UNION statement and ends with an ENDUNION statement. In between are MAP and ENDMAP statements which define the field or groups of fields which will share the storage area. A UNION declaration is as follows:

```
UNION
    map-declaration
    map-declaration
[map-declaration]
    .
    .
    [map-declaration]
END UNION
```

where: map-declaration takes the following form:

```
MAP
    field-declaration
    [field-declaration]
    .
    .
    [field-declaration]
END MAP
```

A field-declaration contains one or more of the following, a STRUCTURE declaration, a POINTER declaration, another UNION declaration, a RECORD statement or a standard FORTRAN type declaration. Field-declarations cannot have been previously declared or be dummy arguments.

The size of the shared data area for the union is the size of the largest map area contained within the union. The fields of only one of the map areas are defined at any given time during program execution.

Example:

```
UNION
    MAP
        INTEGER*4 long
    END MAP
    MAP
        INTEGER*2 short1, short2
    END MAP
END UNION
```

In the above example, the storage for the first half of the field long is shared by the field short1, and the storage for the second half of the field long is shared by the field short2.
TARGET STATEMENT

The TARGET statement specifies the TARGET attribute for a list of variable names:

```
TARGET [:] var[(array-decl)] [:var[(array-decl)]]...
```

where `var` is the symbolic name of a variable

`array-decl` is an array declaration.

VALUE STATEMENT

The VALUE statement informs the compiler that certain dummy arguments are going to be passed by value to a subroutine or function. When a value parameter is passed, the contents of a variable rather than its address is passed. The result is that the actual argument cannot be changed by the program unit. Pass by value is the default method for C and Pascal programs and is used when the `VAL` intrinsic function is used in Absoft Fortran 77.

```
VALUE [:] a [[,a]...]
```

where: `a` is the name of a dummy argument.

Value arguments can be of any data type except `CHARACTER`. Value arguments cannot be arrays, but they can be of type `RECORD`. VALUE statements cannot appear in program units which contain ENTRY statements.

VOLATILE STATEMENT

The VOLATILE statement disables optimization for any symbol, array, or COMMON block. It is useful when a variable is actually an absolute address, when two dummy arguments can represent the same location, or when a POINTER variable points to defined storage.

```
VOLATILE [:] a [[,a]...]
```

where: `a` is either a common block name delimited with slashes, a variable name, or an array name.
DATA STATEMENT

Variables, substrings, arrays, and array elements are given initial values with DATA statements. DATA statements may appear only after the declaration statements in the program unit in which they appear. DATA statements take the following form:

```
DATA vlist/clist/ [[,] vlist/clist/]...
```

where: `vlist` contains the symbolic names of variables, arrays, array elements, substrings, and implied DO lists

`clist` contains the constants which will be used to provide the initial values for the items in `vlist`

A constant may be specified in `clist` with an optional repeat specifier: a positive integer constant (or symbolic name of a constant) followed by an asterisk. The repeat specifier is used to indicate one or more occurrences of the same constant:

```
DATA A,B,C,D,E/1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0,1.0/
```

can be written as:

```
DATA A,B,C,D,E/5*1.0/
```

An array name unqualified by a subscript implies every element in the array:

```
INTEGER M(5)
DATA M/5*0/
```

means:

```
INTEGER M(5)
DATA M(1),M(2),M(3),M(4),M(5)/0,0,0,0,0/
```

Type conversion is automatically performed for arithmetic constants (INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, and COMPLEX) when the data type of the corresponding item in `vlist` is different. CHARACTER constants are either truncated or padded with spaces when the length of the corresponding character item in `vlist` is either shorter or longer than the constant respectively.

The items specified in `vlist` may not be dummy arguments, functions, or items in blank COMMON. Items in a named common block can be initialized only within a BLOCK DATA subprogram (see the chapter Programs, Subroutines, and Functions).
Implied DO List In A DATA Statement

An implied DO list is used to initialize array elements as though the assignments were within a DO loop. The implied DO list is of the form:

$$(dlist, i = m1, m2 [,m3])$$

where: $dlist$ contains array elements and implied DO lists

$i$ is the DO variable and must be an integer

$m1, m2, and m3$ are integer constant expressions which establish the initial value, limit value, and increment value respectively (see the Control Statements chapter)

INTEGER M(10,10),N(10),L(4)
CHARACTER*3 S(5)

DATA (N(I),I=1,10),((M(I,J),J=3,8),I=3,8)/5*1,5*2,36*99/
DATA (L(I),I=1,4)/'ABCD','EFGH','IJKL','MNOP'/
DATA (S(I),I=1,5)/'ABC','DEF','GHI','JKL','MNO'/
CHAPTER 4

Arrays

ARRAYS

An array is a compound data object that consists of a sequence of data elements all of the
same type and referenced by one symbolic name. When an array name is used alone it
refers to the entire sequence starting with the first element. When an array name is
qualified by a subscript it refers to an individual element of the sequence. Arrays can
statically declared or dynamically declared (allocatable).

ARRAY DECLARATOR

An array declarator is used to assign a symbolic name to an array, define its data type
(either implicitly or explicitly), and declare its dimension information:

\[ a(d_1, d_2, \ldots) \]

where \( a \) is the symbolic name that will be used to reference the array and the elements of
the array, and \( d \) is called a dimension declarator. An array declarator must contain at least
one and no more than seven dimension declarators. A dimension declarator is given with
either one or two arguments:

\[ [d_1:] d_2 \]

where \( d_1 \) and \( d_2 \) are called the lower and upper dimension bounds respectively. The
lower and upper dimension bounds must be expressions containing only constants or
integer variables. Integer variables are used only to define adjustable and automatic arrays
(described below) in subroutine and function subprograms. If the lower dimension bound
is not specified, it has a default value of one.

An array declarator specifies the rank and shape of an array. The number of dimensions is
determined by the number of dimension declarators and called its rank. Dimension
bounds specify the size or extent of an individual dimension. The sequence of dimension
extents of an array is called its shape.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{REAL } A(10,10,10) & \quad ! \text{rank 3, shape (10,10,10)} \\
\text{REAL } B(2,12,8,8) & \quad ! \text{rank 4, shape (2,12,8,8)} \\
\text{REAL } C(-10:-1,2:11,-2:7) & \quad ! \text{rank 3, shape (10,10,10)}
\end{align*}
\]

While the value of a dimension bound may be positive, negative, or even zero, the value
of the lower dimension bound must always be less than or equal to the value of the upper
Arrays

dimension bound. The extent of each dimension is defined as \( d_2-d_1+1 \). The number of elements in an array is equal to the product of all of its dimension extents.

Array declarators are called constant, adjustable, automatic, deferred shape, or assumed shape depending on the form of the dimension bounds. A constant array declarator must have integer constant expressions for all dimension bounds. An adjustable array declarator contains one or more integer variables in the expressions used for its bounds. An automatic array is an explicit shape array in a subprogram that takes it dimension bounds and hence its shape in non-constant expressions.

An array declarator in which the upper bound of the last dimension is an asterisk (*) is an assumed size array declarator. Adjustable and assumed size array declarators may appear only in subroutine and function subprograms.

All array declarators are permitted in \texttt{DIMENSION} and type statements, however only constant array declarators are allowed in \texttt{COMMON} or \texttt{SAVE} statements.

An array can be either an actual array or a dummy array. An actual array uses constant array declarators and has storage established for it in the program unit in which it is declared. A dummy array may use constant, adjustable, or assumed size array declarators and declares an array that is associated through a subroutine or function subprogram dummy argument list with an actual array.

The number of dimensions and the dimension extents of arrays associated with one another either through common blocks, equivalences, or dummy argument lists need not match.

\textbf{ARRAY SUBSCRIPT}

The individual elements of an array are referenced by qualifying the array name with a subscript:

\[ a(s[,s]...) \]

where each \( s \) in the subscript is called a subscript expression and \( a \) is the symbolic name of the array. The subscript expressions are integer scalar expressions whose values fall between the lower and upper bounds of the corresponding dimension. There must be a subscript expression for each declared dimension.

Subscript expressions may contain array element and function references. The evaluation of a subscript expression must not affect the value of any other expression in the subscript. This means that functions should not have side effects altering the values of the other subscript expressions.

Note the following example where \( A \) is a two-dimensional array and \( F \) is an external function.
\[ Y = A(X, F(X)) \]

The function \( F(X) \) will be evaluated before the value of \( X \) is fetched from memory. Therefore, if \( F(X) \) alters the value of \( X \), the altered value will be used as the first subscript expression.

Arrays are stored in contiguous array element order. Fortran arrays are stored in column major order. The ordering of elements in the array \( A(5,4) \) is:

\[
\begin{align*}
A(1,1) & \quad A(1,2) & \quad A(1,3) & \quad A(1,4) \\
A(2,1) & \quad A(2,2) & \quad A(2,3) & \quad A(2,4) \\
A(3,1) & \quad A(3,2) & \quad A(3,3) & \quad A(3,4) \\
A(4,1) & \quad A(4,2) & \quad A(4,3) & \quad A(4,4) \\
A(5,1) & \quad A(5,2) & \quad A(5,3) & \quad A(5,4)
\end{align*}
\]

The order of an array element within the column major storage sequence of the array in memory is called the subscript value. This is calculated according to the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Dimensions</th>
<th>Dimension Declarator</th>
<th>Subscript</th>
<th>Subscript Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(j1:k1)</td>
<td>(s1)</td>
<td>1+(s1-j1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(j1:k1, j2:k2)</td>
<td>(s1,s2)</td>
<td>1+(s1-j1)+(s2-j2)*d1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(j1:k1, j2:k2, j3:k3)</td>
<td>(s1,s2,s3)</td>
<td>1+(s1-j1)+(s2-j2)*d1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>(j1:k1, ..., jn:kn)</td>
<td>(s1, ..., sn)</td>
<td>1+(s1-j1)+(s2-j2)<em>d1+(s3-j3)<em>d2</em>d1+...+(sn-jn)<em>dn-1</em>dn-2</em>d1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where: \( d_i = k_i-j_i+1 \)

Subscript Value

Note that subscript values always range from 1 to the size of the array:

\[
\text{DIMENSION } X(-4:4), Y(5,5) \]

\[
X(3) = Y(2,4)
\]
For the array element name \( X(3) \), the subscript is (3), the subscript expression is 3 with a value of three, and the subscript value is eight. For the array element name \( Y(2,4) \), the subscript is (2,4), the subscript expressions are 2 and 4 with values two and four, respectively, and the subscript value is seventeen. The effect of the assignment statement is to replace the eighth element of \( X \) with the seventeenth element of \( Y \).

ARRAY VALUED EXPRESSIONS

Some FORTRAN constructs accept array names unqualified by a subscript. This means that every element in the array is selected. The elements are processed in column major order. The first element is specified with subscript expressions all equal to their lower dimension bounds. The next element will have the leftmost subscript expression increased by one. After an array subscript expression has been increased through its entire extent it is returned to the lower bound and the next subscript expression to the right is increased by one.

When an array name is used unqualified by a subscript, it implies that every element in the array is to be selected as described above. Generally speaking, any Fortran 90 expression may have array operands and the result is array valued. For example:

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(200,300) :: A, B, C
A = 0.0
C = A+B
```

Array names unqualified by a subscript may also be used in `COMMON` statements for data alignment and sharing purposes, in actual and dummy argument lists to pass entire arrays to other procedures, in `EQUIVALENCE` statements where it implies the first element of the array, and in `DATA` statements for giving every element an initial value. Array names may also be used in the input and output statements to specify internal files, format specifications and elements of input and output lists.

ASSUMED SHAPE ARRAY

An assumed shape array is a subprogram dummy argument declaration where the dimension bounds are omitted. The array assumes its shape from the actual argument. Note that only the shape is assumed, not the lower and upper bounds.

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(200,300) :: A ! actual argument
REAL, DIMENSION(:, :) :: D ! dummy argument
```

The equivalent explicit shape declaration is:

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(1:11,1:11) :: A ! dummy argument
```
AUTOMATIC ARRAY

An automatic shape array is an explicit shape array in a subprogram that takes its
dimension bounds and hence its shape from non-constant expressions. Such an array is
local to the subprogram, allocated on the stack on entry, and deallocated on exit.

SUBROUTINE SWAP(A,B)
REAL, DIMENSION(:) :: A,B ! assumed shape arrays
REAL, DIMENSION(SIZE(A)) :: TEMP ! automatic array
TEMP = A
A    = B
B    = TEMP
END SUBROUTINE SWAP

DEFERRED SHAPE ARRAY

A deferred shape or allocatable array is an array that has an ALLOCATABLE attribute and a
specified rank. However, the bounds are determined when storage is created for the array
in an ALLOCATE statement. Allocatable arrays are freed with the DEALLOCATE statement,

REAL, DIMENSION(:,:), ALLOCATABLE :: A
...
ALLOCATE(A(2:12),(4:14))
...
DEALLOCATE(A)

The ALLOCATE and DEALLOCATE statements may take the optional specifier STAT=ierr.

*ierr is an INTEGER variable that is defined with a 0 if the allocation succeeds. If the
allocation fails, *ierr is defined with one of the following integer values:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10045</td>
<td>attempt to DEALLOCATE unallocated array</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10046</td>
<td>attempt to DEALLOCATE item with modified size</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10047</td>
<td>attempt to ALLOCATE array which has already been allocated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10070</td>
<td>attempt to ALLOCATE of requested size failed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ALLOCATE(A(2:12),(4:14), STAT=ierr)

The syntax of the ALLOCATE statement is:

ALLOCATE (object_list [STAT=ierr])

where *object_list is a comma separated list of an array declarators.

*ierr is a scalar integer variable.

The syntax of the DEALLOCATE statement is:

DEALLOCATE (object_list [STAT=ierr])

where *object_list is a comma separated list of allocatable array names.
**Arrays**

*ierr* is a scalar integer variable.

### POINTER ARRAYS

Pointer arrays are similar to allocatable arrays in that they are explicitly allocated with the `ALLOCATE` statement to have computed sizes and are explicitly deallocated with the `DEALLOCATE` statement. Simple examples of pointer arrays result by replacing `ALLOCATABLE` with `POINTER` in the preceding examples of allocatable arrays.

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(:,,:), POINTER :: A
...
IF (.NOT. ASSOCIATED(A)) ALLOCATE(A(2:12,4:14), STAT=IERR)
...
DEALLOCATE(A, STAT=IERR)
```

In addition, pointer arrays can be used as *aliases* for (may point to) other arrays and array sections; the pointer assignment statement is used to establish such aliases. The target for pointer associations (as such aliasing is called) may be other explicitly allocated arrays, or static or automatic arrays that have been explicitly identified as allowable targets for pointers. The association status of a pointer array may be tested with the `ASSOCIATED` intrinsic function. Pointer arrays may be dummy arguments and structure components, neither of which are allowed for allocatable arrays.

Given this apparent similarity between allocatable arrays and pointer arrays, what is the fundamental distinction between these two forms of dynamic arrays, and when should allocatable arrays be used rather than pointer arrays? Pointer arrays subsume all of the functionality of allocatable arrays, and in this sense allocatable arrays are never needed - pointer arrays could always suffice. The problem with pointer arrays is efficiency. Though pointer arrays must always point to explicit *targets*, which makes some optimization practical that would otherwise be infeasible, pointer assignment makes optimization of pointer arrays much more difficult than for allocatable arrays. Because of their more limited nature and functionality, allocatable arrays are just “simpler” and can be expected to be more efficient than pointer arrays.

Therefore, when all that is needed is simple dynamic allocation and deallocation of arrays, and automatic arrays are not sufficient, use allocatable arrays. A common example of this is if a “work array” is needed of a size dependent upon the results of a local computation. If, on the other hand, the algorithm calls for a dynamic alias, of for example a “moving” section of a host array, then a pointer array is probably indicated.
ARRAY SECTIONS

Array section subscript syntax, called a *subscript triplet*, provides a means to access a subarray:

\[
[\text{lower-bound}]:[\text{upper-bound}]:[\text{stride}]
\]

Any element of the triplet can be omitted. If *lower-bound* is omitted, the default is the actual lower bound. If *upper-bound* is omitted, the default is the actual upper bound. If *stride* is omitted, the default is 1. Examples:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
A(I, J:N) \quad \text{! elements J-N of row I} \\
A(I, :) \quad \text{! all elements of row I} \\
A(I, : 1:N:3) \quad \text{! elements 1, 4, \ldots, through N of row I}
\end{array}
\]

Array Sections

```fortran
INTEGER, DIMENSION(5,5) :: m

1  6 11 16 21 1  6 11 16 21
2  7 12 17 22 2  7 12 17 22
m(3,4)  3  8 13 \textbf{18} 23 m(3,3:5)  3  8 \textbf{13} \textbf{18} \textbf{23}
4  9 14 19 24 4  9 14 19 24
5 10 15 20 25 5 10 15 20 25

1  6 \textbf{11} 16 21 1  6 \textbf{11} \textbf{16} 21
2  7 \textbf{12} 17 22 2  7 \textbf{12} 17 22
m(:,3)  3  8 \textbf{13} 18 23 m(1::2,2:4)  3  8 \textbf{13} \textbf{18} 23
4  9 \textbf{14} 19 24 4  9 14 19 24
5 10 \textbf{15} 20 25 5 \textbf{10} \textbf{15} \textbf{20} 25
```

Fortran Language Reference Manual
ARRAY CONSTRUCTOR

Array constructors are used to create general rank-one arrays (vectors). Two equivalent syntaxes are available for creating a vector. The first consists of \(/\), the list of array elements, and \(/\). The second form is \[\], the list of array elements, and \]. Either form may be used, but the opening and closing characters must match. The array elements can be constants, expressions, or implied DO lists.

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10/)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]
\]
or:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/(i, i=1,10) /)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[ (i, i=1,10) ]
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20/)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20]
\]
or:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/(i, i=2,20,2) /)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[ (i, i=2,20,2) ]
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3/)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3]
\]
or:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/((i, i=1,3), j=1,3) /)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[ ((i, i=1,3), j=1,3) ]
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1/)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1]
\]
or:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
(/(0,1, i=1,5) /)
\end{array}
\]
\[
[ (0,1, i=1,5) ]
\]

INTEGER, DIMENSION(10) :: M, N
M = (/ (0,1, i=1,5) /)
N = [ (M+1) ]

VECTOR SUBSCRIPT

A form of section subscript syntax, call a vector subscript, provides access to individual array elements:

A( (/1, 8, 6, 5/) )

or:

A( [1, 8, 6, 5] )
Arrays

Producés a section with the elements \( A(1), A(8), A(6), \text{and } A(5) \).

\[
A( (/1, 8, 6, 5/) ) = (-1, -1, -1, -1)
\]

Example:

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(5,2) :: A
A(:,1) = (/1.,2.,3.,4.,5./)
A(:,2) = [6.,7.,8.,9.,10.]  
PRINT *, A((/1,3,5/),1)
PRINT *, A([1,3,5], 2)
END
```

1.00000  3.00000  5.00000
6.00000  8.000000  10.0000

**ARRAY CONFORMANCE**

Two arrays of the same shape are said to be conformable. Array assignments can only performed when both the left and right hand sides are conformable. The `RESHAPE` function is available to change the shape of an array.

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(2,3) :: A
REAL, DIMENSION(3,2) :: B

B = A                  ! produces an error

A = RESHAPE([1.,2.,3.,4.,5.,6.], [2,3])
B = RESHAPE(A, (/3,2/))
```
ARRAY OPERATIONS

Most operations that can be performed on scalar variables can be performed on arrays.

```fortran
REAL, DIMENSION(2,3) :: A, B

A = 2  3  5
    1  7  4
B = 5  4  1
    2  2  3
2 = 2  2  2

A+B = 7  7  6
     3  9  7
A*B = 10 12  5
     2 14 12
A+2 = 4  5  7
     3  9  6
A*2 = 4  6 10
     2 14  8
```

REAL, DIMENSION(2,3) :: A, B, C

A = 0.0
B = (B+1.0)/2.0
C = SQRT(B)

ARRAY VALUED FUNCTIONS

A function may return an array. However, whenever such a function is referenced it must always have an explicit interface.

```fortran
FUNCTION VADD(a, r)
    REAL, DIMENSION(:) :: a
    REAL r
    REAL, DIMENSION(SIZE(a)) :: VADD
    VADD = a+COS(r)
    RETURN
END
```
CHAPTER 5

Modules and Interfaces

A module is a Fortran program unit that encapsulates global declarations, global data, derived types and procedures. A module is not executable. It contains definitions to be used by other programs unit and these definitions may include procedures, but the module itself is not executable.

An interface provides an explicit prototype of a procedure.

MODULES

Module entities are made available to other program units by the `USE` statement:

```
program Seismic_Processing
  use Seismic_Trace_Definitions
  ...
end program
```

Available modules entities are said to be “use associated” within the using program. A module may contain private entities; such entities are not available to using program units (private entities are available only within the module itself, including any procedure definitions within the module). In addition, the only form of the use statement limits the module entities that are available in the using program unit.

The principal contents of a module include: type definitions, interface definitions, procedure definitions, and shared data objects (including global constants). Typical uses of modules include: procedure libraries (with explicit interfaces), encapsulated data abstractions, and shared-data units (alternative to COMMON)

Module Structure

The general structure of a module is as follows; additional syntax rules are listed for specific items in the following description:

```
module module-name
  use-statements
  constant-definitions
  variable-declarations
  interface-blocks
  type-definitions
  contains
  module-subprograms
end [module [module-name]]
```
Module Use

Other program units (main programs, functions, subroutines, and other modules) may use the definitions provided in a module by including a `USE` statement immediately after the program unit heading, as in the Seismic_Processing example above:

```
use module-name [rename-list]
use module-name, only: only-list
```

In the first example, all public entities of the module are imported. In the second example, only the specified public entities in the `only-list` are imported.

Module entities are imported into the using program with the same name as they have in the module, unless they are renamed in the `USE` statement; this may be necessary to avoid name conflicts, as an imported (“use associated”) name does not “mask” a local entity with the same name. A `rename` has the form:

```
local-name => use-name
```

where `local-name` is the new name (in the using program) and `use-name` is the name of the entity in the module (the new name “points to” the module entity). An `only` can be either the name of the module entity being imported, or a rename:

```
[ local-name => ] use-name
```

PRIVATE And PUBLIC Statements

Modules allow specifications, data, and procedures to be encapsulated. The default is that all data entities are visible to procedures that use the module; they are `PUBLIC`. Often it is useful to limit the accessibility of symbolic entities to the module itself. For example, only the generic interface to a generic function is typically visible outside of the module. The specific interfaces and function implementations are `private` to the module. A `PRIVATE` statement can be used to limit the scope to only the module.

```
REAL, PARAMETER, PRIVATE :: PI=3.1415926535

PRIVATE :: SP_LOGB, DP_LOGB

TYPE SEMAPHORE
  PRIVATE
    REAL, DIMENSION(), POINTER :: ACCESS
    LOGICAL STATE
END TYPE SEMAPHORE
```

INTERFACES

A procedure interface comprises the information needed to use that procedure correctly; explicit interfaces make this information available to the calling environment. *Interface blocks are used to provide various explicit interfaces.* Explicit interfaces include dummy argument list characteristics, alternate names for a procedure (primarily used to define procedure overloads -
that is, generic procedures), and new operator and assignment definitions. Interface blocks are not needed to make module and internal procedure interfaces explicit, as these interfaces are automatically explicit wherever such procedures are accessible. However, external procedure interfaces are not automatically explicit; interface blocks with one or more interface bodies may be used to make them explicit:

```
interface
    interface-body
    [interface-body] ...
end interface
```

Each `interface-body` specifies an external (or dummy) procedure name, its type (if it is a function), and the order names, and types (and kinds) of all dummy arguments. If a function has certain properties it may be given an `operator interface`, thereby creating a `defined operator`, and called using operator notation; it must have one (unary operator) or two (binary operator) `intent(in)` arguments. Such a function may be called with either the normal function syntax or `infix operation format`; in the latter form the first actual argument appears as the first operation operand and the second actual argument is the second operand (for unary operators the operand follows the operator). The operator form of the interface block is used to define a new operator and associate it with one (or more) functions:

```
interface operator (defined-operator)
    [interface-body] ...
    [module-procedure-stmt] ...
end interface
```

Examples of using an operator interface to define an overloaded operators are:

```
interface operator (+)
    integer function sum_char_int(c, i)
        character :: c
        integer :: i
    end function
end interface
```

and:

```
MODULE DATES
    TYPE DATE
        INTEGER Month, Day, Year
    END TYPE DATE

    INTERFACE OPERATOR(==)
        MODULE PROCEDURE DatesEqual
    END INTERFACE

    PRIVATE DatesEqual
    CONTAINS

        LOGICAL FUNCTION DatesEqual(A, B)
            TYPE(DATE), INTENT(IN) :: A, B
            IF ((A%Month == B%Month) .AND. &
                (A%Day   == B%Day)   .AND. &
```
(A%Year == B%Year)) THEN
  DatesEqual = .TRUE.
ELSE
  DatesEqual = .FALSE.
ENDIF
END FUNCTION DatesEqual

END MODULE DATES

PROGRAM Main

USE DATES

TYPE(DATE) :: A = DATE(2,10,2002)
TYPE(DATE) :: B = DATE(2,11,2002)

IF (A == B) PRINT *,"Equal"

END PROGRAM Main

A defined operator can be either a user-defined dot operator or (an overload of) an
intrinsic operator, as in the preceding examples. If it is an intrinsic operator it must not redefine
an intrinsic operation - for example, the + operator must not be given an operator interface for a
function with two integer arguments, as that would be an attempt to redefine addition of two
integer values. All operator definitions are considered to be generic procedure definitions and
must be consistent with the generic reference resolution rules (see below). The function(s)
associated with a defined operator may be either external functions (in which case the interface
contains the corresponding interface bodies, as in the above example) or accessible module
functions (in which case the interface contains the corresponding module-procedure
statements).

An example of a user-defined dot operator:

MODULE strings

INTERFACE OPERATOR (.CONCAT.)
  MODULE PROCEDURE concatenation
END INTERFACE
PRIVATE concatenation

CONTAINS
  FUNCTION concatenation(A, B)
    CHARACTER(LEN=*) , INTENT(IN) :: A, B
    CHARACTER(LEN=LEN_TRIM(A)+LEN_TRIM(B)) :: concatenation
    concatenation = TRIM(A)//TRIM(B)
  END FUNCTION concatenation
END MODULE strings

If a subroutine has two arguments, the first being intent(out) or intent(inout) and the
second being intent(in), then it may be given an assignment overload:

    interface assignment (=)
      [interface-body] ...
      [module-procedure-stmt] ...
    end interface
An example is:

```fortran
interface assignment (=)
  subroutine to_char_from_int(c, i)
    character :: c
    integer :: i
  end subroutine
end interface
```

The purpose of such a subroutine is to convert the value of the second argument to an appropriate value for the type of the first argument, and to assign this converted value to the first actual argument; the subroutine defines the conversion that takes place in such an assignment. The *assignment interface* makes it possible to use assignment syntax for this operation, as an alternative to using normal subroutine calls. In analogy with operator interfaces, assignment interfaces define assignment overloads and thus must be consistent with the generic reference resolution rules. Intrinsic assignments cannot be redefined except for intrinsic assignment of structures (that is, derived type intrinsic assignment). As with operator functions, assignment subroutines may be either external subroutines or module subroutines.

Interface blocks may be used to define overloaded (generic) procedure names. Any procedure name may be (further) overloaded, including an intrinsic procedure name:

```fortran
interface generic-name
  [interface-body] ...
  [module-procedure-stmt] ...
end interface
```

A *generic name* may be associated with any number of external procedures and module procedures. Such a procedure may be called using either its original (specific) name or the generic name. A call to a procedure using the generic name is considered to be a generic reference; any generic reference must be resolvable to a specific procedure, in accordance with the generic reference resolution rules. Generally speaking, this means that each procedure sharing the same generic name must have a different argument “signature” (type pattern). External and module procedures may be given generic interfaces. For example:

```fortran
INTERFACE LOGB
  MODULE PROCEDURE SP_LOGB, DP_LOGB
END INTERFACE LOGB

CONTAINS
  FUNCTION SP_LOGB(X)
    REAL(KIND(1.0E0)) :: SP_LOGB, X
    SP_LOGB = EXPONENT(X) - 1.0E0
  END FUNCTION SP_LOGB

  FUNCTION DP_LOGB(X)
    REAL(KIND(1.0D0)) :: DP_LOGB, X
    DP_LOGB = EXPONENT(X) - 1.0D0
  END FUNCTION DP_LOGB
```
A \texttt{module-procedure-stmt} takes the form of:

\begin{verbatim}
module procedure
\end{verbatim}

Interface bodies are not necessary as the compiler will determine the interface from the actual implementation of the module procedure. An example would be:

\begin{verbatim}
interface c_associated
  module procedure c_associated_c_ptr, c_associated_c_funptr
end interface c_associated
\end{verbatim}

\section*{Abstract Interfaces}

An abstract interface describes the characteristics of a procedure without defining the interface of specific subroutine or function. It is useful for defining an interface for a procedure pointer that may point to one of several different procedures, all with the same characteristics. The syntax is the same as an explicit interface with the addition of the keyword \texttt{ABSTRACT}:

\begin{verbatim}
abstract interface
  interface-body
  [interface-body] ...
end interface
\end{verbatim}

For example:

\begin{verbatim}
ABSTRACT INTERFACE
  FUNCTION REAL_FUN(X)
    REAL :: REAL_FUN, X
  END FUNCTION REAL_FUN
END INTERFACE

PROCEDURE(REAL_FUN), POINTER :: FUNC
\end{verbatim}
CHAPTER 6

Expressions and Assignment Statements

Being primarily a computational language, a large number of FORTRAN statements employ expressions. The evaluation of an expression results in a single value which may be used to define a variable, take part in a logical decision, be written to a file, etc. The simplest form of an expression is a scalar value: a constant or single variable. More complicated expressions can be formed by specifying operations to be performed on one or more operands.

There are four types of expressions available in Fortran: arithmetic, character, relational, and logical. This chapter describes the rules for the formation and evaluation of these expressions.

Assignment statements, together with expressions, are the fundamental working tools of FORTRAN. Assignment statements are used to establish a value for variables and array elements. Assignment statements assign a value to a storage location.

ARITHMETIC EXPRESSIONS

An arithmetic expression produces a numeric result and is formed with integer, real, double precision, and complex operands and arithmetic operators. An arithmetic operand may be one of the following:

- an arithmetic scalar value
- an arithmetic array element
- an arithmetic expression enclosed in parentheses
- the result of an arithmetic function

The arithmetic operators are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>**</td>
<td>exponentiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*</td>
<td>multiplication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/</td>
<td>division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>addition or identity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-</td>
<td>subtraction or negation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fortran Language Reference Manual
The operators **, *, and / operate only on pairs of operands, while + and - may operate on either pairs of operands or on single operands. Pairs of operators in succession are not allowed: A+-B must be stated as A+(-B). In addition, there is precedence among the arithmetic operators which establishes the order of evaluation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Precedence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>**</td>
<td>highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* and /</td>
<td>intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ and -</td>
<td>lowest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Except for the exponentiation operator, when two or more operators of equal precedence occur consecutively within an arithmetic expression they may be evaluated in any order if the result of the expression is mathematically equivalent to the stated form. However, exponentiation is always evaluated from right to left:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A+B-C</td>
<td>(A+B)-C or A+(B-C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A<strong>B</strong>C</td>
<td>A**(B**C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A+B/C</td>
<td>A+(B/C)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the result of an arithmetic expression involving integer operands and the division operator is the quotient; the remainder is discarded: 10/3 produces an integer result of 3. Consequently, expressions such as I*J/K may have different values depending on the order of evaluation:

(4*5)/2 = 10, but 4*(5/2) = 8

**Data Type of Arithmetic Expressions**

When all of the operands of an arithmetic expression are of the same data type, the data type of the result is the same as that of the operands. When expressions involving operands of different types are evaluated, automatic conversions between types occur. These conversions are always performed in the direction of the highest ordered data type presented and the data type of the result is that of the highest ordered operand encountered. INTEGER is the lowest ordered data type and COMPLEX is the highest.

**Data Type Conversion Order**

INTEGER
REAL
DOUBLE PRECISION
COMPLEX
COMPLEX*16

Consider the expression I/R*D+C, where I is INTEGER, R is REAL, D is DOUBLE PRECISION, and C is COMPLEX. The evaluation proceeds as follows:
• the value of \( I \) is converted to REAL and then divided by the value of \( R \)

• the result of the division is implicitly converted to DOUBLE PRECISION and multiplied by the value of \( D \)

• the result of the multiplication is then added to the real portion of the of the value \( C \) giving DOUBLE PRECISION

• the imaginary portion of the value \( C \) is implicitly converted to DOUBLE PRECISION in the final result

• the data type of the result of the expression is COMPLEX*16

Parentheses are used to force a specific order of evaluation that the compiler may not override.

When exponentiation of REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, and COMPLEX operands involves integer powers, the integer power is not converted to the data type of the other operand. Exponentiation by an integer power is a special operation which allows expressions such as -2.1**3 to be evaluated correctly.

Conversion from a lower to a higher precision does not increase the accuracy of the converted value. For example, converting the result of the real expression 1.0/3.0 to DOUBLE PRECISION yields:

\[
0.333333343267441D+00
\]

not:

\[
0.333333300000000D+00 \text{ or } 0.333333333333333D+00
\]

**Arithmetic Constant Expression**

Arithmetic expressions in which all of the operands are constants or the symbolic names of constants are called arithmetic constant expressions. INTEGER, REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, and COMPLEX constant expressions may be used in PARAMETER statements. Integer constant expressions may also be used in specification and declaration statements (see the Specifications and DATA Statements chapter).
CHARACTER EXPRESSIONS

A CHARACTER expression produces a character result and is formed using character operands and character operators. A CHARACTER operand may be one of the following:

- a CHARACTER scalar value
- a CHARACTER array element
- a CHARACTER substring
- a CHARACTER expression enclosed in parentheses
- the result of a CHARACTER function

The only CHARACTER operator is //, meaning concatenation. Although parentheses are allowed in character expressions, they do not alter the value of the result. The following character expressions all produce the value 'CHARACTER':

'CHA'//'RAC'//'TER'
('CHA'//'RAC')//'TER'
'CHA'//('RAC'//'TER')

RELATIONAL EXPRESSIONS

A relational expression produces a logical result (.TRUE. or .FALSE.) and is formed using arithmetic expressions or CHARACTER expressions and relational operators. The relational operators perform comparisons; they are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Comparison</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;</td>
<td>or .LT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=</td>
<td>or .LE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>==</td>
<td>or .EQ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/=</td>
<td>or .NE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;=&gt;</td>
<td>or .NE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;</td>
<td>or .GT.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;=</td>
<td>or .GE.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the .EQ. and .NE. relational operators can be applied to complex operands.

All of the relational operators have the same precedence which is lower than the arithmetic operators and the character operator.

If the data types of two arithmetic operands are different, the operand with the lowest order is converted to the type of the other operand before the relational comparison is performed. The same type coercion rules apply to relational operators as arithmetic operators when comparisons are made, but results are always returned as LOGICAL.
Character comparison proceeds on a character by character basis using the ASCII collating sequence to establish comparison relationships. Since the letter 'A' precedes the letter 'B' in the ASCII code, 'A' is less than 'B'. Also, all of the upper case characters have lower "values" than the lower case characters. A complete chart of the ASCII character set is provided in the appendices.

When the length of one of the CHARACTER operands used in a relational expression is shorter than the other operand, the comparison proceeds as though the shorter operand were extended with blank characters to the length of the longer operand.

When an integer value is compared with a CHARACTER constant, one to four bytes of the character string are extracted as an integer and a comparison is made between the two integer values. This is useful if the integer has been defined with a Hollerith data type. This type of comparison is only defined for character constants with a length less than or equal to four.

**LOGICAL EXPRESSIONS**

A LOGICAL expression is formed with LOGICAL or INTEGER operands and logical operators. A LOGICAL operand may be one of the following:

- a LOGICAL or INTEGER scalar value
- a LOGICAL or INTEGER array element
- a LOGICAL or INTEGER expression enclosed in parentheses
- a relational expression
- the result of a LOGICAL or INTEGER function

A LOGICAL expression involving LOGICAL operands and relational expressions produces a LOGICAL result (.TRUE. or .FALSE.). When applied to LOGICAL operands the logical operators, their meanings, and order of precedence are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Precedence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.NOT.</td>
<td>negation</td>
<td>highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.AND.</td>
<td>conjunction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.OR.</td>
<td>inclusive disjunction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.EQV.</td>
<td>equivalence</td>
<td>lowest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.NEQV.</td>
<td>nonequivalence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.XOR.</td>
<td>nonequivalence</td>
<td>same as .NEQV.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A **LOGICAL** expression involving **INTEGER** operands produces an **INTEGER** result. The operation is performed on a bit-wise basis. When applied to integer operands the logical operators have the following meanings:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operator</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.NOT.</td>
<td>one's complement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.AND.</td>
<td>Boolean and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.OR.</td>
<td>Boolean or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.EQV.</td>
<td>integer compare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.NEQV.</td>
<td>Boolean exclusive or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.XOR.</td>
<td>Boolean exclusive or</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that expressions involving **INTEGER** and **LOGICAL** operands are ambiguous.

Consider the following example:

```
LOGICAL l,m
INTEGER i
i = 2
l = .TRUE.
IF (l .AND. i) WRITE(*,*) "first if clause executed"
m = i
IF (l .AND. m) WRITE(*,*) "second if clause executed"
END
```

Since the **LOGICAL** constant **.TRUE.** has a value of one when converted to **INTEGER**, the first **IF** clause would not normally be executed since a Boolean **.AND.** between the values one and two produces a zero which is logically false. For this reason, integers are converted to **LOGICAL** when the **.AND.** operator is used with a **LOGICAL**. The second **IF** clause will execute since the conversion of a non-zero **INTEGER** to **LOGICAL** (in the assignment statement `m = i`) gives the value **.TRUE.** (stored as the value one). Note that the above code is not guaranteed to be portable to other FORTRAN environments.

**OPERATOR PRECEDENCE**

As described above, a precedence exists among the operators used with the various types of expressions. Because more than one type of operator may be used in an expression, a precedence also exists among the operators taken as a whole: arithmetic is the highest, followed by character, then relational, and finally logical which is the lowest.

```
A+B .GT. C .AND. D-E .LE. F
```

is evaluated as:

```
((A+B) .GT. C) .AND. ((D-E) .LE. F)
```
ARITHMETIC ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

Arithmetic assignment statements are used to store a value in arithmetic variables. Arithmetic assignment statements take the following form:

\[ v = e \]

where: \( v \) is the symbolic name of an integer, real, double precision, or complex variable or array element whose contents are to be replaced by \( e \).

\( e \) is a character constant or arithmetic expression.

If the data type of \( e \) is arithmetic and different than the type of \( v \), then the value of \( e \) is converted to the type of \( v \) before storage occurs. This may cause truncation.

If \( e \) is a \texttt{CHARACTER} constant, bytes of data will be moved directly to the storage location with no type conversion. If \( e \) is a \texttt{CHARACTER} expression, a type mismatch error will occur.

LOGICAL ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

LOGICAL assignment statements are used to store a value in LOGICAL variables. LOGICAL assignment statements are formed exactly like arithmetic assignment statements:

\[ v = e \]

where: \( v \) is the symbolic name of a logical variable or logical array element.

\( e \) is an arithmetic or logical expression.

If the data type of \( e \) is not LOGICAL, the value assigned to \( v \) is the LOGICAL value \texttt{.FALSE.} if the value of the expression \( e \) is zero. For non-zero values of \( e \), the value assigned to \( v \) is the LOGICAL value \texttt{.TRUE.}. This rule for the conversion of an arithmetic expression to a LOGICAL value applies wherever a LOGICAL expression is expected (i.e. an IF statement).
CHARACTER ASSIGNMENT STATEMENT

Character assignment statements are used to store a value in character variables:

\[ v = e \]

where: \( v \) is the symbolic name of a character variable, character array element, or character substring. \( e \) is an expression whose type is character.

If the length of \( e \) is greater than the length of \( v \), the leftmost characters of \( e \) are used.

If the length of \( e \) is less than the length of \( v \), blank characters are added to the right of \( e \) until it is the same length as \( v \).

ASSIGN STATEMENT

The `ASSIGN` statement is used to store the address of a labeled statement in an integer variable. Once defined with a statement label, the integer variable may be used as the destination of an assigned `GOTO` statement (`Control Statements` chapter) or as a format descriptor in an I/O statement (`Input/Output and Format Specification` chapter). The `ASSIGN` statement is given in the following manner.

\[ ASSIGN \ s \ TO \ i \]

where: \( s \) is the label of a statement appearing in the same program unit that the `ASSIGN` statement does.

\( i \) is an integer variable name.

Caution: No protection is provided against attempting to use a variable that does not contain a valid address as established with the `ASSIGN` statement.
CHAPTER 7

Control Statements

Control statements direct the flow of execution in a Fortran program. Included in the control statements are constructs for looping, conditional and unconditional branching, making multiple choice decisions, and halting program execution.

GOTO STATEMENTS

Unconditional GOTO

The unconditional GOTO statement causes immediate transfer of control to a labeled statement:

```
GOTO s
```

The statement label `s` must be in the same program unit as the GOTO statement.

Computed GOTO

The computed GOTO statement provides a means for transferring control to one of several different destinations depending on a specific condition:

```
GOTO (s [,s]...) [,] e
```

`e` is an expression which is converted as necessary to integer and is used to select a destination from one of the statements in the list of labels (`s [,s]...`). The selection is made such that if the value of `e` is one, the first label is used, if the value of `e` is two, the second label is used, and so on. The same label may appear more than once in the label list. If the value of `e` is less than 1 or greater than the number of labels in the list no transfer is made. All of the statement labels in the list must be in the same program unit as the computed GOTO statement.

Assigned GOTO

The assigned GOTO statement is used with an integer variable that contains the address of a labeled statement as established with an ASSIGN statement:

```
GOTO i [[,] (s [,s]...)]
```
The address of the labeled statement contained in the integer variable \( i \) is used as the destination. If the optional list of statement labels, \((s_1, s_2, \ldots)\), appears then \( i \) must be defined with the address of one of them or no transfer is made.

**IF STATEMENTS**

**Arithmetic IF**

The arithmetic IF statement is used to transfer control based on the sign of the value of an expression:

\[
\text{IF (} e \text{) } s_1, s_2, s_3
\]

\( e \) can be an INTEGER, REAL, or DOUBLE PRECISION expression which if negative, transfers control to the statement labeled \( s_1 \); if zero, transfers control to the statement labeled \( s_2 \); and if positive, transfers control to the statement labeled \( s_3 \). The statements labeled \( s_1, s_2, \) and \( s_3 \) must be in the same program unit as the arithmetic IF statement.

**Logical IF**

The logical IF statement is used to execute another statement based on the value of a logical expression:

\[
\text{IF (} e \text{) } st
\]

The statement \( st \) is executed only if the value of the logical expression \( e \) is .TRUE. The statement \( st \) cannot be any of the following: DO, IF, ELSE IF, ELSE, END IF, END, END DO, REPEAT, SELECT CASE, CASE, or END SELECT.

**Block IF**

A block IF consists of IF (\( e \)) THEN, ELSE, and END IF statements. Each IF (\( e \)) THEN statement must be balanced by an END IF statement. A block IF provides for the selective execution of a particular block of statements depending on the result of the LOGICAL expression \( e \).

\[
[\text{if-construct-name:}] \ \text{IF (} e \text{) THEN} \\
\text{block of statements} \\
\text{ELSE [if-construct-name]} \\
\text{block of statements} \\
\text{END IF [if-construct-name]}
\]

The ELSE statement and the second block of statements are optional. If the value of the LOGICAL expression \( e \) is .TRUE., the first block of statements is executed and then control of execution is transferred to the statement immediately following the END IF statement. If \( e \) has a .FALSE. value, then, if a second block of statements exists
(constructed by \texttt{ELSE} or \texttt{ELSE IF} statements) it is executed, and control of execution is transferred to the statement immediately following the \texttt{END IF} statement.

A block \texttt{IF} construct may be labeled with an \texttt{if-construct-name} for clarity.

Each block of statements may contain more block \texttt{IF} constructs. Since each block \texttt{IF} must be terminated by an \texttt{END IF} statement there is no ambiguity in the execution path.

A more complicated block \texttt{IF} can be constructed using the alternate form of the \texttt{ELSE} statement: the \texttt{ELSE IF (e) THEN} statement. Multiple \texttt{ELSE IF (e) THEN} statements can appear within a block \texttt{IF}, each one being evaluated if the previous logical expression \(e\) has a \texttt{.FALSE.} value:

\begin{verbatim}
IF (I.GT.0 .AND. I.LE.10) THEN
  block of statements
ELSE IF (I.GT.10 .AND. I.LE.100) THEN
  block of statements
ELSE IF (I.GT.100 .AND. I.LE.1000) THEN
  block of statements
ELSE
  block of statements
END IF
\end{verbatim}

**LOOP STATEMENTS**

The \texttt{DO} statements provide the fundamental structure for constructing loops in Fortran. The standard \texttt{DO} loop is discussed in this section.

**Basic DO loop**

The basic \texttt{DO} statement takes the following form:

\begin{verbatim}
DO [s [,]] i = e1, e2 [,e3]
\end{verbatim}

where: \(s\) is the label of the statement that defines the range of the \texttt{DO} loop and must follow the \texttt{DO} statement in the same program unit. If \(s\) is omitted, the loop must be terminated with an \texttt{END DO} statement.

\(i\) is called the \texttt{DO} variable and must be either an \texttt{INTEGER}, \texttt{REAL}, or \texttt{DOUBLE PRECISION} scalar variable

\(e1, e2,\) and \(e3\) may be integer, real, or double precision expressions whose values are called the initial value, the limit value, and the increment value, respectively

The loop termination statement, labeled \(s\), if present, must not be a \texttt{DO}, \texttt{arithmetic IF}, \texttt{block IF}, \texttt{ELSE}, \texttt{END IF}, \texttt{unconditional GOTO}, \texttt{assigned GOTO}, \texttt{RETURN}, \texttt{STOP}, \texttt{END}, \texttt{SELECT CASE}, \texttt{CASE}, or \texttt{END SELECT} statement.
DO loops may be nested to any level, but each nested loop must be entirely contained within the range of the outer loop. The termination statements of nested DO loops may be the same. If the termination statement of nested DO loops is the same, no more than 16 DO loops may have the same termination statement.

DO loops may appear within IF blocks and IF blocks may appear within DO loops, but each structure must be entirely contained within the enclosing structure.

DO Loop Execution

The following steps govern the execution of a DO loop:

1. The expression $e_1$, the initial value, is evaluated and assigned to the DO variable $i$, with appropriate type conversion as necessary.

2. The expressions $e_2$ and $e_3$, the limit value and increment value respectively, are evaluated. If $e_3$ is omitted, it is given the default value of one.

3. The iteration count is calculated from the following expression:

$$\text{MAX} \left( \text{INT} \left( \frac{e_2 - e_1 + e_3}{e_3} \right), 0 \right)$$

and determines how many times the statements within the loop will be executed.

4. The iteration count is tested, and if it is zero, control of execution is transferred to the statement immediately following the loop termination statement.

5. The statements within the range of the loop are executed.

6. The DO variable is increased by the increment value, the iteration count is decreased by one, and control branches to step four.

Variables that appear in the expressions $e_1$, $e_2$, and $e_3$ may be modified within the loop, without affecting the number of times the loop is iterated.

```
K = 0
L = 10
DO 10 I=1, L
    DO 10 J=1, I
    L = J
10   K = K + 1
```

When the execution of both the inner and outer loops is finished, the values of both $I$ and $J$ are 11, the value of $K$ is 55, and the value of $L$ is 10.
DO WHILE

The DO WHILE statement provides a method of looping not necessarily governed by an iteration count. The form of the DO WHILE statement is:

```fortran
DO WHILE (e)
  
  where: e is a LOGICAL expression.
```

The DO WHILE statement tests the LOGICAL expression at the top of the loop. If the expression evaluates to a .TRUE. value, the statements within the body of the loop are executed. If the expression evaluates to a .FALSE. value, execution proceeds with the statement following the loop:

```fortran
INTEGER :: status
INTEGER, PARAMETER :: eof-1
DATA a,b,c /3*0.0/
status = 0
DO WHILE (status<>eof)
  c = c + a*b
  READ (*,*,IOSTAT=status) a,b
END DO
```

Infinite DO

```fortran
DO
  block
END DO
```

This is essentially a DO forever construct for use in situations where the number of loop iterations is unknown and must be determined from some external condition (i.e. processing text files).

END DO statement

The END DO statement is used to terminate DO loops. After execution of an END DO statement, the next statement executed depends on the result of the DO loop incrementation processing. The form of the END DO statement is:

```fortran
END DO
```
EXIT statement

The EXIT statement provides a convenient means for abnormal termination of a DO loop. This statement causes control of execution to be transferred to the statement following the terminal statement of a DO loop or block DO.

\[
\text{DO} \quad \text{READ} (\ast, \ast, \text{IOSTAT}=\text{ios}) \ v1,v2; \text{IF} (\text{ios}=-1) \ \text{EXIT}
\]

CALL process(v1,v2)

END DO

CYCLE statement

The CYCLE statement causes immediate loop index and iteration count processing to be performed for the DO loop or block DO structure to which the CYCLE statement belongs.

\[
\text{READ} (\ast, \ast) \ n
\]

\[
z = 0.0
\]

\[
\text{DO} (n \ \text{TIMES})
\]

\[
\text{READ} (\ast, \ast) \ x,y; \text{IF} (y=0.0) \ \text{CYCLE}
\]

\[
z = z + x/y
\]

END DO

CONTINUE STATEMENT

The CONTINUE statement is used to provide a reference point. It is usually used as the terminating statement of a basic DO loop, but it can appear anywhere in the executable section of a program unit. Executing the CONTINUE statement itself has no effect. The form of the CONTINUE statement is:

\[
\text{CONTINUE}
\]

Labeled DO loops

DO loops may use labels for clarity and allow iterating or exiting a specific loop. The label is called a do-construct-name. If a DO loop is labeled with a do-construct-name, the corresponding END DO statement must have the same do-construct-name. CYCLE and EXIT statements may mention a do-construct-name to indicate the specific loop they refer to. Examples:

\[
\text{outer_loop: do}
\]

\[
\text{inner_loop: do}
\]

\[
\text{if} (\ldots) \ \text{cycle inner_loop}
\]

\[
\text{if} (\ldots) \ \text{exit outer_loop}
\]

\[
\text{end do inner_loop}
\]

\[
\text{end do outer_loop}
\]
BLOCK CASE

The block CASE structure is an extension to the FORTRAN standard for constructing blocks which are executed based on comparison and range selection. The SELECT CASE statement is used with an END SELECT statement, at least one CASE statement and, optionally, a CASE DEFAULT statement to control the execution sequence. The SELECT CASE statement is used to form a block CASE.

The form of a block CASE is:

```
[case-construct-name] SELECT CASE (e)
  CASE (case_selector) [case-construct-name]
    [block]
  [CASE (case_selector) [case-construct-name]
    [block]
  ...]
  [CASE DEFAULT [case-construct-name]]
    [block]
END SELECT [case-construct-name]
```

where: e is an expression formed from one of the enumerative data types: CHARACTER, INTEGER, REAL, or DOUBLE PRECISION. For the purposes of the block CASE construct, the value of CHARACTER expression is its position in the ASCII collating sequence.

case-construct-name is an optional label that may be used for identification. If a case-construct-name is used it must be the same for each element of the CASE structure.

A CASE block must contain at least one CASE statement and must be terminated by an END SELECT statement. Control of execution must not be transferred into a block CASE.

CASE blocks are delimited by a CASE statement and the next CASE, CASE DEFAULT, or END SELECT statement. A CASE block may be empty. After execution of a CASE block, control of execution is transferred to the statement following the END SELECT statement with the same CASE level. Block CASE structures may be nested. Since each block CASE must be terminated by an END SELECT statement there is no ambiguity in the execution sequence.
A case_selector takes the form of either of the following:

    CASE (con[,con,...,con])
    CASE DEFAULT

con may be either a value selector or a range selector. A value selector is a constant. A range selector takes one of the following three forms:

    con1:con2    where    (con1 .LE. e) .AND. (e .LE. con2)

    con:        where    con .LE. e

    :con        where    e .LE. con

All constants must be of the same type as the expression e in the SELECT CASE statement. A block CASE may have only one CASE DEFAULT statement where control of execution is transferred if no match is found in any other CASE statement. If a CASE DEFAULT statement is not present and no other match is found, there is no match.

**Execution of a block CASE statement**

Execution of block CASE statement causes evaluation of the expression e in the SELECT CASE statement. The value of the expression is then compared sequentially with the parameters of the case selectors. If a match is made, transfer of control is passed to that case block. If the comparison fails, the next case selector is checked.
Block CASE Example

```
!
!    routine to count the number and types of characters
!    in a text file
!
USE ISO_FORTRAN_ENV
IMPLICIT INTEGER(a-z)
CHARACTER line*80

lines=0; alf=0; num=0; blk=0; trm=0; spl=0

DO
    READ (*,'(a)',IOSTAT=ios) line
    IF (ios==IOSTAT_END) EXIT
    chars = LEN(TRIM(line))
    lines = lines+1
    DO (i=1, chars)
        SELECT CASE (line(i:i))
        CASE ("A":"Z", "a":"z")
            alf = alf+1
        CASE ("0":"9")
            num = num+1
        CASE (" ")
            blk = blk+1
        CASE (".", "!", "?")
            trm = trm+1
        CASE DEFAULT
            spl = spl+1
        END SELECT
    END DO
END DO
END
```

STOP STATEMENT
The STOP statement terminates execution of a program:

```
STOP [s]
```

The optional string s may be a CHARACTER constant or string of five or fewer digits and is output to standard out with end of record characters.

PAUSE STATEMENT
The PAUSE statement suspends execution until a carriage return character is read from standard input (usually from the keyboard).

```
PAUSE [s]
```

The optional string s may be a CHARACTER constant or string of five or fewer digits and is output to unit * without end of record characters.
END STATEMENT

Every program unit and module must have an \texttt{END} statement which terminates the range of the program unit or module within a source file. A source file itself may contain more than one program unit; the entry points of the individual program units in the compiled object file are available to the linker.

An \texttt{END} statement in a program unit is executable and if encountered in a main program has the effect of a \texttt{STOP} statement and if encountered in a subroutine or function subprogram has the effect of a \texttt{RETURN} statement. An \texttt{END} statement is given on a statement line by itself:

\begin{verbatim}
END [type [name]]
\end{verbatim}

where:  \texttt{type} is \texttt{PROGRAM}, \texttt{SUBROUTINE}, \texttt{FUNCTION}, or \texttt{MODULE}.

\texttt{name} is the name of the program unit or module.

WHERE

The \texttt{WHERE} keyword can be used both as a statement and a construct, similar to the \texttt{IF} keyword. \texttt{WHERE} is used to perform masked array assignments, applying a logical test to each element of an array. The syntax of the \texttt{WHERE} statement is:

\begin{verbatim}
WHERE ( mask_expr ) assign_stmt
\end{verbatim}

where:  \texttt{mask_expr} is a logical array expression

\texttt{assign_stmt} is an array assignment statement. The shape of the array must be the same as the shape of the array used in the \texttt{mask_expr}

In the following example, the arcsine function will only be evaluated if the absolute value of the element of the array \texttt{a} is less than or equal to 1.0.

\begin{verbatim}
REAL a(100), b(100)
.
.
WHERE (ABS(a) <= 1.0) b = ASIN(a)
\end{verbatim}

The syntax of the \texttt{WHERE} construct is:

\begin{verbatim}
[name:] WHERE ( mask_expr )
[where_body_construct]
[ELSEWHERE ( mask_expr ) [name]
 where_body_construct]
[ELSEWHERE [name]
 where_body_construct]
END WHERE [name]
\end{verbatim}
where: $\text{mask_expr}$ is a logical array expression

$\text{where_body_construct}$ is an array assignment statement or a \texttt{WHERE} statement or construct. The shape of all arrays must be the same as the shape of the array used in the $\text{mask_expr}$

Example:

\begin{verbatim}
REAL, DIMENSION(10,10) :: A
WHERE (A <= 10.0)
  A = A - 0.5
ELSEWHERE (A <= 100.0)
  A = A - 5.0
ELSEWHERE
  A = A - 50.0
END WHERE
\end{verbatim}

\section*{FORALL}

The \texttt{FORALL} keyword can be used both as a statement and a structure. It is similar to the masked array assignment \texttt{WHERE}, but is more general, allowing more array shapes to be assigned. It is used to perform array assignments, possibly masked, on an element by element basis. The syntax of the \texttt{FORALL} statement is:

\begin{verbatim}
FORALL (triplet_spec [,triplet_spec]... [,mask_expr] )assign_stmt
\end{verbatim}

where: \textit{triplet_spec} is a triplet specification of an index variable normally used as an array element index. It has the following form:

\begin{verbatim}
index = subscript : subscript [: stride]
\end{verbatim}

where: \textit{index} is a scalar integer variable. It is valid only with the scope of the \texttt{FORALL} statement

\begin{verbatim}
subscript is a scalar integer expression and may not contain a reference to any \textit{index} in the \textit{triplet_spec} in which it appears
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
stride is a scalar integer expression and may not be zero. If omitted, a default value of 1 is supplied. It may not contain a reference to any \textit{index} in the \textit{triplet_spec} in which it appears
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
mask_expr is any logical scalar expression, including one which references an \textit{index} of a \textit{triplet_spec}.
\end{verbatim}
assign_stmt is an assignment statement or a pointer assignment statement.

In the following example, every element of the array \( a \) is assigned the value 1.0.

\[
\text{REAL } a(100, 100) \\
\text{. } \\
\text{.}
\]

\[
\text{FORALL } (i=1:100, j=1,100) \ a(i,j) = 1.0
\]

The syntax of the FORALL construct is:

\[
\text{[name:] FORALL } (\text{triplet_spec }[,\text{triplet_spec}]... [,\text{mask_expr}]) \\
\text{forall_body_construct} \\
\text{END FORALL [name]}
\]

where: \( \text{triplet_spec} \) is a triplet specification of an index variable normally used as an array element index. It has the following form:

\[
\text{index } = \text{subscript } : \text{subscript } [: \text{stride]}
\]

where: \( \text{index} \) is a scalar integer variable. It is valid only with the scope of the FORALL statement

\( \text{subscript} \) is a scalar integer expression and may not contain a reference to any \( \text{index} \) in the \( \text{triplet_spec} \) in which it appears

\( \text{stride} \) is a scalar integer expression and may not be zero. If omitted, a default value of 1 is supplied. It may not contain a reference to any \( \text{index} \) in the \( \text{triplet_spec} \) in which it appears

\( \text{mask_expr} \) is any logical scalar expression, including one which references an \( \text{index} \) of a \( \text{triplet_spec} \).

\( \text{forall_body_construct} \) is an assignment statement, pointer assignment statement, \text{WHERE} statement or construct, or \text{FORALL} statement or construct.
Input and output statements provide a channel through which Fortran programs can communicate with the outside world. Facilities are available for accessing disk and tape files, communicating with terminals and printers, and controlling external devices. Fortran input and output statements are designed to allow access to the wide variety of features implemented on various computer systems in the most portable manner possible.

A format specification is used with formatted input and output statements to control the appearance of data on output and provide information regarding the type and size of data on input. Converting the internal binary representation of a floating point number into a string of digits requires a format specification and is called editing. A format specification divides a record into fields, each field representing a value. An explicitly stated format specification designates the exact size and appearance of values within fields.

When an asterisk (*) is used as a format specification it means “list directed” editing. Instead of performing editing based on explicitly stated formatting information, data will be transferred in a manner which is “reasonable” for its type and size.

Throughout the remainder of this chapter, input and output will be referred to in the conventional abbreviated form: I/O.

RECORDS

All FORTRAN I/O takes place through a data structure called a record. A record can be a single character or sequence of characters or values. A record might be a line of text, the data received from a bar code reader, the coordinates to move a plotter pen, or a punched card. FORTRAN uses three types of records:

- Formatted
- Unformatted
- Endfile

**Formatted Record**

A formatted record is a sequence of ASCII characters. It may or may not be terminated depending on the operating system. If it is terminated, the usual terminating characters are a carriage return, a line feed, or both. A single line of text on this page is a formatted record. The minimum length of a formatted record is zero. The maximum record length is limited only by available memory.
Unformatted Record

An unformatted record is a sequence of values. Its interpretation is dependent on the data type of the value. For example, the binary pattern 01010111 can be interpreted as the integer value 87 or the character value “W” depending on its data type. The minimum length of an unformatted record is zero. Records in unformatted sequential access files which contain no record length information (see below) have unlimited length. Records in unformatted sequential access files that contain imbedded record length information have a maximum size of 2,147,483,647 bytes. The maximum length of direct access unformatted records is limited only by available memory.

Endfile Record

The endfile record is the last record of a file and has no length. An endfile record may or may not be an actual record depending on the file system of a particular operating system.

FILES

A file is composed of zero or more records and can be created and accessed by means other than Fortran programs. For example, a text processor might be used to create and edit a document file and a Fortran program used to manipulate the information in the file.

Files that are usually stored on disks or tapes are called external files. Files can also be maintained in main memory. These are called internal files.

File Name

Most external files are accessed explicitly by their names. While the file naming conventions of operating systems vary greatly, Fortran can accommodate most of the differences. The circumstances where a name is not required to access a file are discussed later in this chapter.

File Position

The position within a file refers to the next record that will be read or written. When a file is opened it is usually positioned to just before the first record. The end of the file is just after the last record. Some of the I/O statements allow the current position within a file to be changed.

File Access

The method used to transfer records to and from files is called the access mode. External files may contain either formatted or unformatted records. When the records in a file can be read or written in an arbitrary manner, randomly, the access mode is direct. Individual records are accessed through a record number, a positive integer. All of the records in a direct access file have the same length and contain only the data actually written to them;
there are no record termination characters. Records may be rewritten, but not deleted. Generally, only disk files can use the direct access mode of record transfer.

When the records are transferred in order, one after another, the access mode is sequential. The records in a sequential access file may be of different lengths. Some files, like terminals, printers, and tape drives, can only use the sequential access mode.

Formatted sequential access files usually contain textual information and each record has a terminating character(s) as described above.

Unformatted sequential access is generally used for two conflicting, but equally common purposes:

- For controlling external devices such as plotters, graphics terminals, and machinery as well as processing unencoded binary information such as object files. In this case it is important that the data transferred to and from the external media be a true byte stream containing no record length information.

- For its data compression and speed of access characteristics. In this case it must be possible to determine the length of a record for partial record reads and backspacing purposes.

This implementation of Fortran contains provisions for both of these requirements. The default manner of unformatted processing of a sequential access is to imbed record length information for a maximum record size of 2,147,483,647 bytes. The `OPEN` statement `FORM` and `ACCESS` specifiers provide mechanisms for disabling record length information (see below).

**Internal Files**

Internal files are comprised of `CHARACTER` variables, `CHARACTER` array elements, `CHARACTER` substrings, or `CHARACTER` arrays. An internal file which is a `CHARACTER` variable, `CHARACTER` array element, or character substring has one record whose length is the length of the character entity. An internal file that is a `CHARACTER` array has as many records as there are array elements. The length of an individual record is the length of a `CHARACTER` array element. Data may only be transferred through the formatted sequential access mode. Internal files are usually used to convert variables between numeric and `CHARACTER` data types.

**Input/Output Editing**

Editing provides the means for converting between the internal format of a value and the external format:

```
internal          01000100010000110100001101000011001101000001
```
I/O SPECIFIERS

Fortran I/O statements are formed with lists of specifiers that are used to identify the parameters of the operation and direct the control of execution when exceptions occur.

Unit Specifier

The mechanism through which a channel of communication with a file is established and maintained is called a unit. A unit may be either explicitly or implicitly identified, and may refer to an external or internal file. When the channel is established, the unit is said to be connected to the file. The relationship is symmetric; that is, you can also say that the file is connected to the unit.

A connection to an external file is established and maintained with an external unit identifier that is an integer expression whose value is an arbitrary positive integer. An external unit identifier is global to the program; a file opened in one program unit may be referenced with the same unit number in other program units. There is no relationship between a FORTRAN unit specifier and the numbers used by various operating systems to identify files.

A connection to an internal file is made with an internal file identifier which is the name of the CHARACTER variable, CHARACTER array element, CHARACTER substring, or CHARACTER array that comprises the file.

Unit numbers that are “preconnected” to system devices and default files are:

1. Unit 0 is preconnected to “standard error”, usually the screen.
2. Unit 5 is preconnected to “standard input”, usually the keyboard, for input operations. Unit 6 is preconnected to “standard output”, usually the monitor, for output operations.
3. An asterisk as a unit identifier refers to “standard input” for input operations and “standard output” for output operations.
4. All other unit numbers are preconnected to default files for sequential input and output operations. If a sequential input or output operation references a unit which has not been connected with a FORTRAN OPEN statement, the effect is as if an OPEN statement with only the
UNIT= specifier present had been executed to connect the unit. Execution of direct access input and output operations is not permitted on preconnected units.

With the exception of the asterisk, the preconnection of a unit number may be defeated by explicitly connecting the unit number to a file with the FORTRAN OPEN statement.

A unit specifier is given as:

\[ \text{UNIT=}~u \]

where: \( u \) is either a positive INTEGER expression representing an external unit identifier, or a CHARACTER entity representing an internal file identifier.

The characters UNIT= may be omitted if the unit identifier occurs first in the list of identifiers.

**Implicit File Connections**

If an input/output statement specifies a unit that was not connected to a file with an OPEN statement, a file is implicitly connected to the unit. The file is given the name:

\[ \text{fort.}n \]

where \( n \) is the unit number used in the connection.

**Format Specifier**

The format specifier establishes the method of converting between internal and external representations. It can be given in one of two ways:

\[ \text{FMT=}~f \]

or

\[ \text{FMT=}~* \]

where: \( f \) is the statement label of a FORMAT statement, an integer variable that has been assigned a FORMAT statement label with an ASSIGN statement, a CHARACTER array name, or any CHARACTER expression

\* indicates “list directed” editing

The characters FMT= may be omitted if the format specifier occurs second in the list of identifiers and the first item is the unit specifier with the characters UNIT= also omitted. The following are equivalent:

\[ \text{WRITE (UNIT=9, FMT=1000)} \]
\[ \text{WRITE (9,1000)} \]
Namelist Specifier
The namelist specifier establishes that conversion from internal and external representations is to be accomplished through namelist directed I/O and is given as:

\[ \text{NML=} n \]

where \( n \) is the name of a previously defined namelist identifier.

The characters \( \text{NML=} \) may be omitted if the namelist specifier occurs second in the list of identifiers and the first item is the unit specifier with the characters \( \text{UNIT=} \) also omitted.

Record Specifier
The record specifier establishes which direct access record is to be accessed and is given as:

\[ \text{REC} = rn \]

where \( rn \) is a positive integer expression.

Error Specifier
The error specifier provides a method to transfer control of execution to a different section of the program unit if an error condition occurs during an I/O statement. It takes as an argument the label of the statement where control is to be transferred:

\[ \text{ERR} = s \]

where: \( s \) is the statement label.

End of File Specifier
The end of file specifier provides a method to transfer control of execution to a different section of the program unit if an end of file condition occurs during an I/O statement. It also takes as an argument the label of the statement where control is to be transferred:

\[ \text{END} = s \]

where: \( s \) is the statement label.

To generate an end of file from the keyboard, type either Command-Return or Command-Enter.
I/O Status Specifier

The I/O status specifier is used to monitor error and end of file conditions after the completion of an I/O statement. Its associated integer variable becomes defined with a -1 if end of file has occurred, a positive integer if an error occurred, and zero if there is neither an error nor end of file condition:

\[ IOSTAT = i_{os} \]

where: \( i_{os} \) is the symbolic name of an \texttt{INTEGER} variable or array element.

I/O Message Specifier

If an error, end of file, or end of record condition occurs during an I/O statement, the \texttt{CHARACTER} variable associated with the \texttt{IOMSG=} specifier is defined with a string describing the error. If no error, end of file, or end of record occurs, the variable is unchanged.

\[ IOMSG = m_{sg} \]

where: \( m_{sg} \) is the symbolic name of an \texttt{CHARACTER} variable or array element.

Partial Record Specifier

Fortran I/O is fundamentally record oriented, and explicit specification is needed for a read (write) statement to consume (produce) only part of a record. In (the default) whole-record I/O, the position of the file is said to \texttt{advance} to the next record after a read or a write statement. Thus partial-record I/O is called \textit{nonadvancing} I/O, as the file position is “left where it is” rather than advancing to the beginning of the next record. In nonadvancing input the position of the file is left at the beginning of the next datum within the record that has not yet been read, and the next read statement continues reading from that point; in nonadvancing output an end-of-record is not written by the write statement, and the next write statement continues the same output record.

Nonadvancing I/O is specified with the \texttt{ADVANCE=NO} in the read or write statement; nonadvancing can be specified only for sequential, formatted I/O:

\[ ADVANCE = a_{s} \]

where: \( a_{s} \) is a \texttt{CHARACTER} expression that evaluates to \texttt{YES} or \texttt{NO}. The default is \texttt{YES}. 

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For\texttt{tran Language Reference Manual}
I/O LIST

The I/O list, iolist, contains the names of variables, arrays, array elements, and expressions (only in output statements) whose values are to be transferred with an I/O statement. The following items may appear in an iolist:

- A variable name
- An array element name
- A CHARACTER substring name
- An array name which is interpreted as every element in the array
- Any expression (only in an output statement)

Implied DO List In An I/O List

The elements of an iolist in an implied DO list are transferred as though the I/O statement was within a DO loop. An implied DO list is stated in the following manner:

\[(dlist, i = e1, e2 [,e3])\]

where:  \(i\) is the DO variable

\(e1, e2,\) and \(e3\) establish the initial value, the limit value, and increment value respectively (see the Control Statements chapter).

\(dlist\) is an iolist and may consist of other implied DO lists

In a READ statement (see below), the DO variable, \(i\), must not occur within \(dlist\) except as an element of subscript, but may occur in the iolist prior to the implied DO list.

DATA TRANSFER STATEMENTS

Data transfer statements transfer one or more records of data.

READ, WRITE and PRINT

The READ statements transfer input data from files into storage and the WRITE and PRINT statements transfer output data from storage to files.

```
READ (cilist) [iolist]
READ f [,iolist]
WRITE (cilist) [iolist]
```
PRINT $f$, $iolist$

PRINT $n$

where: $f$ is a format identifier

$iolist$ is an I/O list

$n$ is a list name previously defined in a NAMELIST statement

$cilist$ is a parameter control list that may contain:

1. A unit specifier identifying the file connection.

2. An optional format specifier for formatted data transfers or an optional namelist specifier for namelist directed data transfers, but not both.

3. An optional record specifier for direct access connections.

4. An optional error specifier directing the execution path in the event of error occurring during the data transfer operation.

5. An optional end of file specifier directing the execution path in the event of end of file occurring during the data transfer operation.

6. An optional I/O status specifier to monitor the error or end of file status.

7. An optional I/O message specifier

The PRINT statements, as well as the READ statements which do not contain a $cilist$, implicitly use the asterisk as a unit identifier.
ACCEPT and TYPE

The ACCEPT statements transfer input data from records accessed in sequential mode and the TYPE statements transfer output data to records accessed in sequential mode.

\[
\text{ACCEPT } f [,iolist] \\
\text{ACCEPT } n \\
\text{TYPE } f [,iolist] \\
\text{TYPE } n
\]

where: \( f \) is a format identifier

\( iolist \) is an I/O list

\( n \) is a list name previously defined in a NAMELIST statement

The ACCEPT and TYPE statements implicitly use the asterisk as a unit identifier.

Unformatted Data Transfer

Unformatted data transfer is permitted only to external files. One unedited record is transferred per data transfer statement.

Formatted Data Transfer

Formatted data transfer requires a format specifier which directs the interpretation applied to items in the \( iolist \). Formatted data transfer causes one or more records to be transferred.

Printing

WRITE statements which specify a unit connected with ACTION='PRINT' in the OPEN statement (see below) use the first character of each record to control vertical spacing.

This character, called the carriage control character, is not printed and causes the following vertical spacing to be performed before the record is output:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Vertical Spacing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>blank</td>
<td>one line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>two lines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>top of page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>no advance (over print)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Any other character appearing in the first position of record or a record containing no characters causes vertical spacing of one line.
OPEN STATEMENT

The OPEN statement connects a unit to an existing file, creates a file and connects a unit to it or modifies an existing connection. The OPEN statement has the following form:

```
OPEN ([UNIT=] u [,olist])
```

where:   \( u \) is the external unit specifier

\( olist \) is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers, each of which must have a variable or constant following the equal sign:

- **FILE** = a CHARACTER expression which represents the name of the file to be connected to the unit. If this specifier is omitted and the specified unit is not currently connected, a file name will be created.

- **ACCESS** = a CHARACTER expression which must be SEQUENTIAL, DIRECT, APPEND, or TRANSPARENT and specifies the access mode or position. The default value is SEQUENTIAL. TRANSPARENT disables the embedding of record length information.

- **ACTION** = a CHARACTER expression which must be READ, WRITE, READWRITE, or PRINT. If READ is specified, only READ statements and file positioning statements are allowed to refer to the connection. If WRITE is specified, only WRITE, PRINT, and file positioning statements are allowed to refer to the connection. If BOTH is specified, any input/output statement may be used to refer to the connection. If PRINT is specified, the first character in each record is interpreted for carriage control (see the previous section on printing) and only WRITE and PRINT statements are allowed to refer to the connection. The default for ACTION is BOTH.

- **ASYNCHRONOUS** = a CHARACTER expression which must be YES or NO. The default value is NO. Regardless of the value of the ASYNCHRONOUS specifier, all I/O is synchronous.

- **BLANK** = a CHARACTER expression which must be NULL or ZERO specifying how blank characters in formatted numeric input fields are to be handled. A value of ZERO causes blanks in the input field (leading, embedded, and trailing) to be replaced with zeros. The default value is NULL and causes blanks to be ignored.

- **DELM** = a CHARACTER expression which must be APOSTROPHE, QUOTE, or NONE and specifies delimiter for writing list-directed CHARACTER data.
ERR = an error specifier as described above.

FORM = a CHARACTER expression which must be FORMATTED, UNFORMATTED, or BINARY specifying the type of records in the file. The default value is UNFORMATTED for direct access files and FORMATTED for sequential access files. BINARY is UNFORMATTED without record length information.

IOSTAT = an I/O status specifier as described above.

IOMSG = an I/O message specifier as described above.

PAD = a CHARACTER expression which must be YES or NO specifying whether blank padding is used for input. The default is NO.

POSITION = a CHARACTER expression which must be REWIND, APPEND, or ASIS. If REWIND is specified the file is opened at its beginning position for input or output. If APPEND is specified, the file is opened at its end position for output. The default is ASIS and has the same effect as REWIND.

RECL = a positive INTEGER expression which must be given for direct access file connections and specifies, in bytes, the length of each direct access record.

STATUS = a CHARACTER expression which must be OLD, NEW, SCRATCH, REPLACE, or UNKNOWN. The file must already exist when OLD is specified. The file must not exist when NEW is specified. If SCRATCH is specified a file will be created which will exist only during the execution of the program and FILE= must not be specified. If UNKNOWN is specified, a file will be created if one does not already exist. The default value is UNKNOWN.

READONLY = a specifier without an equal sign equivalent to ACTION=READ.

CARRIAGECONTROL= a CHARACTER expression which must be FORTRAN, LIST or NONE. Setting the value to FORTRAN is equivalent to ACTION='PRINT'. Setting the value to LIST or NONE has no effect and is only supported for compatibility.

CONVERT = a CHARACTER expression which must evaluate to BIG_ENDIAN or LITTLE_ENDIAN. This specifier controls the byte ordering of binary data in unformatted files. The default is the ordering appropriate for the type of processor the compiler is installed on.
If a unit is already connected to a file, execution of an `OPEN` statement for that unit is allowed. If the file to be connected is not the same as the file which is connected, the current connection is terminated before the new connection is established. If the file to be connected is the same as the file which is connected, only the `BLANK=` and `ACTION=` specifiers may have a different value from the ones currently in effect. Execution of the `OPEN` statement causes the new values of `BLANK=` and `ACTION=` to be in effect.

**CLOSE STATEMENT**

The `CLOSE` statement flushes a file's buffers and disconnects a file from a unit. The `CLOSE` statement has the following form:

```
CLOSE ([UNIT=] u [,clist])
```

where:  $u$ is the external unit specifier.

$clist$ is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers, each of which must have a variable or constant following the equals sign:

- `IOSTAT` = an I/O status specifier as described above.
- `IOMSG` = an I/O status message as described above.
- `ERR` = an error specifier as described above.
- `STATUS` = a character expression which must be `KEEP` or `DELETE` which determines whether a file will continue to exist after it has been closed. `STATUS` has no effect if the value of the `STATUS` specifier in the `OPEN` statement was `SCRATCH`. The default value is `KEEP`.

Normal termination of execution of a Fortran program causes all units that are connected to be closed.
BACKSPACE STATEMENT

The BACKSPACE statement causes the file pointer to be positioned to a point just before the previous record. The forms of the BACKSPACE statement are:

\[
\text{BACKSPACE } u \\
\text{BACKSPACE } ([\text{UNIT=}] u [,alist])
\]

where: \( u \) is the external unit specifier.

\[
\text{alist} \text{ is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers:}
\]

- \( \text{IOSTAT} = \) an I/O status specifier as described above.
- \( \text{IOMSG} = \) an I/O status message as described above.
- \( \text{ERR} = \) an error specifier as described above.

REWIND STATEMENT

The REWIND statement causes the file pointer to be positioned to a point just before the first record. The forms of the REWIND statement are:

\[
\text{REWIND } u \\
\text{REWIND } ([\text{UNIT=}] u [,alist])
\]

where: \( u \) is the external unit specifier.

\[
\text{alist} \text{ is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers:}
\]

- \( \text{IOSTAT} = \) an I/O status specifier as described above.
- \( \text{IOMSG} = \) an I/O status message as described above.
- \( \text{ERR} = \) an error specifier as described above.
ENDFILE STATEMENT

The ENDFILE statement does nothing to disk files. The forms of the ENDFILE statement are:

```
ENDFILE u
ENDFILE ([UNIT=] u [,alist])
```

where:  
\( u \) is the external unit specifier.

\( alist \) is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers:

\( IOSTAT \) = an I/O status specifier as described above.

\( IOMSG \) = an I/O status message as described above.

\( ERR \) = an error specifier as described above.

FLUSH STATEMENT

The FLUSH statement causes any pending internal buffers associated with a data transfer statements to be completed. The forms of the FLUSH statement are:

```
FLUSH u
FLUSH ([UNIT=] u [,alist])
```

where:  
\( u \) is the external unit specifier.

\( alist \) is optional and consists of zero or more of the following specifiers:

\( IOSTAT \) = an I/O status specifier as described above.

\( IOMSG \) = an I/O status message as described above.

\( ERR \) = an error specifier as described above.

INQUIRE STATEMENT

The INQUIRE statement is used to obtain information regarding the properties of files and units. The forms of the INQUIRE statement are:

```
INQUIRE ([UNIT=] u, iilist)
INQUIRE (FILE= fin, iilist)
INQUIRE (IOLENGTH= n) olist
```
The first form, \textit{inquiry by unit}, takes a unit number as the principal argument and is used for making inquiries about specific units. The unit number, \( u \), is a positive integer expression. The second form, \textit{inquiry by file}, takes a file name as the principal argument and is used for making inquiries about specific named files. The file name, \( \text{fin} \), is a character expression. The third form is used to determine the length in bytes of \( \text{olist} \). \( \text{olist} \) is a list of variable names. Only one of \texttt{UNIT=}, \texttt{FILE=}, or \texttt{IOLENGTH=} may be specified. One or more of the following \texttt{Ilist} specifiers are also used with the \texttt{INQUIRE} statement:

\begin{align*}
\text{NUMBER} &= \text{an INTEGER variable or array element which is defined with the number of the unit that is connected to the file.} \\
\text{NAMED} &= \text{a LOGICAL variable or array element which is defined with a true value if the file has a name.} \\
\text{NAME} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the name of the file.} \\
\text{EXIST} &= \text{a LOGICAL variable or array element which is defined with a true value if the unit or file exists.} \\
\text{OPENED} &= \text{a LOGICAL variable or array element which is defined with a true value if the unit or file is connected.} \\
\text{ACCESS} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with either the value SEQUENTIAL or DIRECT depending on the access mode.} \\
\text{SEQUENTIAL} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES or NO indicating whether the file can be connected for sequential access.} \\
\text{DIRECT} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES or NO indicating whether the file can be connected for direct access.} \\
\text{ACTION} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with either the value READ, WRITE, or READWRITE depending on the action mode.} \\
\text{READ} &= \text{a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES, NO, or UNKNOWN indicating whether the file can be read from.}
\end{align*}
**WRITE** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES, NO, or UNKNOWN indicating whether the file can be written to.

**READWRITE** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES, NO, or UNKNOWN indicating whether the file can be read from and written to.

**FORM** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with either the value FORMATTED or UNFORMATTED depending on whether the file is connected for formatted or unformatted I/O.

**FORMATTED** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES or NO indicating whether the file can be connected for formatted I/O.

**UNFORMATTED** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES or NO indicating whether the file can be connected for unformatted I/O.

**BLANK** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with either the value NULL or ZERO depending on how blanks are handled.

**DELIM** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value APOSTROPHE, QUOTE, or NONE.

**ERR** = an error specifier as described above.

**IOSTAT** = an I/O status specifier as described above.

**IOMSG** = an I/O message specifier as described above.

**PAD** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value YES or NO.

**POSITION** = a CHARACTER variable or array element which is defined with the value ASIS, REWIND or APPEND.

**RECL** = an INTEGER variable or array element which is defined with the record length if the file is connected for direct access.

**NEXTREC** = an INTEGER variable or array element which is defined with the value of the next record number to be read or written.

**IOLength** = RECL= value for an output item list.
SIZE = an INTEGER variable or array element which is defined with the size of the file in bytes.

Some of the specifiers may not be defined if a unit is not connected or a file does not exist. For example:

```
CHARACTER*20 FN,AM
LOGICAL OS
INTEGER RL
INQUIRE (UNIT=18, OPENED=OS, NAME=FN, ACCESS=AM, RECL=RL)
```

If unit 18 is not connected to a file, OS will be defined with a false value, but FN, AM, and RL will be undefined. If unit 18 is connected for sequential access, OS, FN, and AM will be defined appropriately, but record length is meaningless in this context, and RL will be undefined.
**ENCODE AND DECODE STATEMENTS**

The **ENCODE** and **DECODE** statements use internal files to effectively transfer data in internal form to character form, and vise versa. **ENCODE** can be thought of as writing the list of variables to the **CHARACTER** variable `char_form` with space padding if necessary, while **DECODE** reads the values of the variables from `char_form`. The forms of the **ENCODE** and **DECODE** statements are:

```fortran
ENCODE (count, fmt, char_form[,IOSTAT=ios][,ERR=label]) [list]
DECODE (count, fmt, char_form[,IOSTAT=ios][,ERR=label]) [list]
```

where: `count` is the number of characters to convert to character form in the **ENCODE** statement. It is the number of characters to convert to internal form in the **DECODE** statement.

`fmt` is a format specifier described in the **Format Specifier** section near the beginning of this chapter.

`char_form` is a scalar variable or array which will hold the converted character form for the **ENCODE** statement. It holds the character form to be converted for the **DECODE** statement.

`ios` is an **INTEGER*4** variable used to monitor error and end of file conditions. It is described in the **I/O Status Specifier** section near the beginning of this chapter.

`label` is a statement label at which execution will be continued in the event of an error during an **ENCODE** or **DECODE** conversion.

`list` is a list of variables separated by commas. These are in internal form.

The following example assigns the ASCII representation of the variables `I` and `J` to the character variable `C`. After the **ENCODE** statement, `C` equals "123 456".

```fortran
CHARACTER*20 C
I = 123
J = 456
ENCODE (20,100,C) I,J
100 FORMAT (2I4)
END
```
GIVING A FORMAT SPECIFICATION

An explicit format specification may be given in either a FORMAT statement or in a character array or character expression. A FORMAT statement must be labeled so that it can be referenced by the data transfer statements (READ, WRITE, PRINT, etc.). The form of the FORMAT statement is:

\[
\text{FORMAT format_specification}
\]

When a format specification is given with a CHARACTER array or CHARACTER expression (CHARACTER variables, array elements, and substrings are simple CHARACTER expressions) it appears as a format specifier in the codelist of data transfer statements as described later in this chapter. An array name not qualified by subscripts produces a format specification which is the concatenation of all of the elements of the array. Leading and trailing blanks within the CHARACTER item are not significant.

A format specification is given with an opening parenthesis, an optional list of edit descriptors, and a closing parenthesis. A format specification may be given within a format specification; that is, it may be nested. When a format specification is given in this manner it is called a group specifier and can be given a repeat count, called the group repeat count, which is a positive INTEGER constant immediately preceding the opening parenthesis. The maximum level of nesting is 20.

The edit descriptors define the fields of a record and are separated by commas except between a P edit descriptor and an F, E, D, or G edit descriptor and before or after slash and colon edit descriptors (see below). The fields defined by edit descriptors have an associated width, called the field width.

An edit descriptor is either repeatable or nonrepeatable. Repeatable means that the edit descriptor is to be used more than once before going on to the next edit descriptor in the list. The repeat factor is given immediately before the edit descriptor as a positive integer constant.
The repeatable edit descriptors and their meanings are:

- \( I_w \) and \( I_{w,m} \): integer editing
- \( B_w \) and \( B_{w,m} \): binary editing
- \( O_w \) and \( O_{w,m} \): octal editing
- \( Z_w \) and \( Z_{w,m} \): hexadecimal editing
- \( F_{w,d} \): floating point editing
- \( E_{w,d} \) and \( E_{w.d,E} \): single precision scientific editing
- \( D_{w,d} \): double precision scientific editing
- \( E_{Nw.d} \) and \( E_{w.d,E} \): single precision engineering editing
- \( G_{w.d} \) and \( G_{w.d,E} \): general floating point editing
- \( L_w \): logical editing
- \( A[w] \): character editing

\( w \) and \( e \) are nonzero, unsigned, integer constants and \( d \) and \( m \) are unsigned integer constants.

The nonrepeatable edit descriptors and their meanings are:

- \( 'h_1 \ h_2 \ ... \ h_n' \): character string
- \( n'h_1 \ h_2 \ ... \ h_n' \): Hollerith string
- \( nX \): skip positions
- \( Tc, Tlc, and TRc \): tab to column
- \( kP \): set scale factor
- \( / \): start a new record
- \( : \): conditionally terminate I/O
- \( S, SP, and SS \): set sign control
- \( B2 \) and \( BN \): set blank control
- \( $ \) or \( \backslash \): suppress end of record
- \( Q \): return count of characters remaining in current record
- \( "h_1 \ h_2 \ ... \ h_n" \): character string

\( h \) is an ASCII character; \( n \) and \( c \) are nonzero, unsigned, integer constants; and \( k \) is an optionally signed integer constant.

**FORMAT AND I/O LIST INTERACTION**

During formatted data transfers, the I/O list items and the edit descriptors in the format specification are processed in parallel, from left to right. The I/O list specifies the variables that are transferred between memory and the fields of a record, while the edit descriptors dictate the conversions between internal and external representations.

The repeatable edit descriptors control the transfer and conversion of I/O list items. A repeatable edit descriptor or format specification preceded by a repeat count, \( r \), is treated
as \( r \) occurrences of that edit descriptor or format specification. Each repeatable edit descriptor controls the transfer of one item in the I/O list except for complex items which require two \( F \), \( E \), \( D \), or \( G \) edit descriptors. A complex I/O list item is considered to be two real items.

The nonrepeatable edit descriptors are used to manipulate the record. They can be used to change the position within the record, skip one or more records, and output literal strings. The processing of I/O list items is suspended while nonrepeatable edit descriptors are processed.

If the end of the format specification is reached before exhausting all of the items in the I/O list, processing starts over at the beginning of the last format specification encountered and the file is positioned to the beginning of the next record. The last format specification encountered may be a group specifier, if one exists, or it may be the entire format specification. If there is a repeat count in front of a group specifier it is also reused.

**INPUT VALIDATION**

Before numeric conversion from external to internal values using a format specification, input characters will be checked to assure that they are valid for the specified edit descriptor.

Valid input under the \( I \) edit descriptor:

- **digits**: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
- **characters**: +, −

Valid input under the \( B \) edit descriptor:

- **digits**: 0, 1

Valid input under the \( O \) edit descriptor:

- **digits**: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

Valid input under the \( Z \) edit descriptor:

- **digits**: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
- **characters**: A, B, C, D, E, F, a, b, c, d, e, f

Valid input under the \( F \), \( E \), \( D \), and \( G \) edit descriptors:

- **digits**: 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
- **characters**: E, D, e, d, +, −, .
The appearance of any character not considered valid for a particular edit descriptor will generate a runtime error. However, the appearance of a valid character in an invalid position will not result in an error. If the ERR= I/O specifier was present in the input statement generating the error, control will be transferred to the specified line number. If the IOSTAT= I/O specifier was present in the input statement generating the error, the specified variable will be defined with the error code.

**INTEGER EDITING**

The B, O, Z and I edit descriptors control the translation of character strings representing integer values to and from the appropriate internal formats.

**I Editing**

The I_w and I_w.m edit descriptors must correspond to an integer I/O list item. The field width in the record consists of w characters.

On input, the I/O list item will be defined with the value of the integer constant in the input field which may have an optional leading sign.

The output field consists of a string of digits representing the integer value which is right justified and may have a leading minus sign if the value is negative. If m is specified, the string will consist of at least m digits with leading zeros as required. The output field will always contain at least one digit unless an m of zero is specified in which case only blank characters will be output. If the specified field width is too small to represent the integer value, the field is completely filled with the asterisk character.

```
WRITE (*,10) 12, -12, 12
10 FORMAT (2I4,I6.4)
```

```
12 -12 0012
```

**B, O, and Z Editing**

The B, O, and Z edit descriptors are specified in the same manner as the I edit descriptor and perform bit editing on binary, octal, and hexadecimal fields respectively. The field width in the record consists of w characters. An input list item can be up to thirty-two bits in length and may have a LOGICAL, INTEGER, REAL, or COMPLEX data type. An output list value can be no longer than thirty-two bits in length and may have a LOGICAL, INTEGER, REAL, or COMPLEX data type. (Note that COMPLEX data requires two edit descriptors per data item).

On input, the I/O list item will be defined with the binary representation of the external value.

The output field consists of a string of characters representing the value and is right justified. If m is specified, the string will consist of at least m digits with leading zeros as
required. The output field will always contain at least one digit unless an $m$ of zero is specified in which case only blank characters will be output.

```fortran
WRITE (*,10) 199, 199, 199
10 FORMAT (Z4,O7.6,B9)
C7 000307 11000111
```

**FLOATING POINT EDITING**

The F, E, D, and G edit descriptors control the translation of character strings representing floating point values (REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, and COMPLEX) to and from the appropriate internal formats. The edit descriptor must correspond to a floating point I/O list item. On input, the I/O list item will be defined with the value of the floating point constant in the input field.

A complex value consists of a pair of real values and consequently requires two real edit descriptors.

**F Editing**

The field width of the $F_{w.d}$ edit descriptor consists of $w$ characters. The fractional portion, if any, consists of $d$ characters. If the specified field width is too small to represent the value, the field is completely filled with the asterisk character.

The input field consists of an optional sign and a string of digits which can contain a decimal point. This may be followed by an exponent which takes the form of either a signed integer constant or the letter $E$ or $D$ followed by an optionally signed integer constant.

The output field consists of a minus sign if the value is negative and a string of digits containing a decimal point with $d$ fractional digits. The value is rounded to $d$ fractional digits and the string is right justified in the field. The position of the decimal point may be modified by the scale factor as described under the $kP$ edit descriptor.

```fortran
WRITE (*,10) 1.23, -1.23, 123.0, -123.0
10 FORMAT (2F6.2,F6.1,F6.0)
1.23 -1.23 123.0 -123.
```

**E and D Editing**

The field width of the $E_{w.d}$, $E_{w.eE}$, and $D_{w.d}$ edit descriptors consists of $w$ characters in scientific notation. $d$ specifies the number of significant digits. If $e$ is specified, the exponent contains $e$ digits, otherwise, the exponent contains two digits for $E$ editing and three digits for $D$ editing.

The input field is identical to that specified for $F$ editing.
The output field consists of a minus sign if the value is negative, a zero, a decimal point, a string of \( d \) digits, and an exponent whose form is specified in the table below. The value is rounded to \( d \) fractional digits and the string is right justified in the field. The position of the decimal point may be modified by the scale factor as described under the \( KP \) edit descriptor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edit Descriptor</th>
<th>Absolute value of Exponent</th>
<th>Form of Exponent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( Ew.d )</td>
<td>( \leq 99 )</td>
<td>( \pm n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Ew.d )</td>
<td>( 100 - 999 )</td>
<td>( \pm nnn )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Ew.dEe )</td>
<td>( \leq (10^e) - 1 )</td>
<td>( \pm n1n2\ldots ne )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Dw.d )</td>
<td>( \leq 99 )</td>
<td>( D\pm nn )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Dw.d )</td>
<td>( 100 - 999 )</td>
<td>( \pm nnn )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```fortran
WRITE (*,10) 1.23, -1.23, -123.0E-6, .123D3
10 FORMAT (2E12.4,E12.3E3,D12.4)
0.1230E+01 -0.1230E+01 -0.123E-003  0.1230D+03
```

**EN Editing**

The \( ENw.d \) and \( ENw.dEe \) edit descriptors produce engineering notation where the decimal exponent is divisible by 3 and the integer portion is greater than or equal to 1 and less than 1000. The input field is identical to that specified for \( F \) editing.

```fortran
PRINT "(EN15.3)",5.79642, -100221.0, 0.008554

5.796E+00
-100.221E+03
8.554E-03
```

**ES Editing**

The \( ESw.d \) and \( ESw.dEe \) edit descriptors produce engineering notation where the decimal integer portion is greater than or equal to 1 and less than 10. The input field is identical to that specified for \( F \) editing.

```fortran
PRINT "(ES15.3)",5.79642, -100221.0, 0.008554

5.796E+00
-1.002E+05
8.554E-03
```
G Editing

The \( Gw.d \) and \( Gw.dee \) edit descriptors are similar to the \( F \) and \( E \) edit descriptors and provide a flexible method of accomplishing output editing.

The input field is identical to that specified for \( F \) editing.

The form of the output field depends on the magnitude of the value in the I/O list. \( F \) editing will be used unless the value of the item would cause the field width to be exceeded in which case \( E \) editing is used. In both cases, the field consists of \( w \) right justified characters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Magnitude of ( N )</th>
<th>Equivalent Conversion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( N &lt; 0.1 )</td>
<td>( Ew.d )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 0.1 &lt; N &lt; 1.0 )</td>
<td>( F(w-4).d, 4X )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 1.0 &lt; N &lt; 10.0 )</td>
<td>( F(w-4).(d-1), 4X )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
<td>( \ldots )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 10^{d-2} &lt; N &lt; 10^{d-1} )</td>
<td>( F(w-4).1, 4X )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( 10^{d-1} &lt; N &lt; 10^d )</td>
<td>( F(w-4).0, 4X )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( N &gt; 10^d )</td>
<td>( Ew.d[ee] )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

```
WRITE (*,10) 1.0, 10.0, 100.0, 1000.0, 10000.0
10 FORMAT (5G10.4)
```

P Editing

The \( kP \) edit descriptor is used to scale floating point values edited with the \( F \), \( E \), \( D \), and \( G \) edit descriptors. \( k \) is called the scale factor and is given as an integer constant which may negative, positive, or zero. The scale factor starts at zero for each formatted I/O statement. If there is an exponent in the input field, the scale factor has no effect, otherwise the external value is equal to the internal value multiplied by \( 10^k \).

For output with \( F \) editing, the effect of the scale factor is the same as described for input. For \( E \) and \( D \) editing, the scale factor is used to control decimal normalization of the output value. If \( k \) is negative, leading zeros are inserted after the decimal point, the exponent is reduced by \( k \), and \(|k| \) significant digits are lost. If \( k \) is positive, the decimal point is moved to the right within the \( d \) significant digits, the exponent is reduced by \( k \), and no significant digits are lost. The field width remains constant in all cases, meaning that \(-d < k < d+2 \).

For output with \( G \) editing, the \( P \) edit descriptor has no effect unless the value cannot be represented with \( F \) editing. In that case the effect is the same as the \( E \) edit descriptor.
WRITE (*,10) 1.23, 1.23, 1.23
10 FORMAT (1PF8.4,-1PF8.4,1PE12.4)
12.3000   .1230  1.2300E+00

CHARACTER AND LOGICAL EDITING

The A and L edit descriptors control the translation of character strings representing CHARACTER and LOGICAL values to and from the appropriate internal formats.

A Editing

The A[w] edit descriptor is used to copy characters (bytes) to and from I/O list items. If present, w specifies the field width; otherwise the field width is the same as the length of the I/O list item. The only editing performed is to space fill or truncate for input and output respectively.

For input, when w is less than the length of the I/O list item, the characters from the field are left justified and space filled to the length of the item. When w is equal to or greater than the length of the I/O list item, the rightmost characters in the field are used to define the item.

For output, when w is less than or equal to the length of the I/O list item, the field will contain the leftmost w characters of the item. When w is greater than the length of the I/O list item, the item is right justified in the field with leading spaces added as necessary.

WRITE (*,10) 'HELLO, WORLD ', ',', 'WORLD'
10 FORMAT (A5,A,A6)
HELLO, WORLD

L Editing

The L[w] edit descriptor must correspond to a logical I/O list item. The field width in the record consists of w characters.

The input field consists of an optional decimal point and either the letter T (.TRUE.) or F (.FALSE.). Other characters may follow, but they do not take part in determining the LOGICAL value. The field may contain leading spaces.

The output field is right justified and contains either the letter T or F representing the values .TRUE. and .FALSE., respectively.
SIGN CONTROL EDITING

The S, SP, and SS edit descriptors control the output of optional plus signs. Normally, a leading plus sign is not output for positive numeric values. The SP edit descriptor forces a plus sign to appear in the output field. The S and SS edit descriptors return the processing of plus signs to the default state of not being output.

```
WRITE (*,10) 123, -123, 123.0, -123.0, 123.0
10 FORMAT (SP,2I5,2F7.1,SS,F7.1)
+123 -123 +123.0 -123.0  123.0
```

BLANK CONTROL EDITING

The BN and BZ edit descriptors control the processing of blanks in numeric input fields which can be interpreted either as nulls or zeros. The default for an individual file connection is established with the “BLANK=” specifier. If the specifier does not appear in an OPEN statement blanks are treated as nulls. The BN edit descriptor causes blanks to be treated as nulls and the BZ edit descriptor causes blanks to be treated as zeros.

POSITIONAL EDITING

The X, T, and / edit descriptors are used to control the position within the record and the position within the file.

X Editing

The nX edit descriptor moves the position within the record n characters forward. On input n characters are bypassed in the record. On output n blanks are output to the record.

```
WRITE (*,10) -123, -123.0
10 FORMAT (I4,1X,F6.1)
-123 -123.0
```

T, TL, and TR Editing

On output, the entire record is first filled with spaces. The Tc, TLC, and TRc edit descriptors are also used to move the position within the record, but in a non-destructive manner. This is called tabbing. Position means character position with the first character
in the record being at position one. Changing the position within the record does change
the length of the record.

The $Tc$ edit descriptor moves to absolute position $c$ within the record. The $TLC$ and $TRc$ edit descriptors move to positions relative to the current position. $TRc$ moves the position $c$ characters to the right and $TLC$ moves the position $c$ characters to the left. $c$ is a positive integer constant.

```
WRITE (*,10) 89, 567, 23, 1, 4
10 FORMAT (T8,I2,TL5,I3,T2,I2,TL3,I1,TR2,I1)
```

```
123456789
```

**Slash Editing**

The $/$ edit descriptor positions the file at the beginning of the next record. On input it skips the rest of the current record. On output it creates a new record at the end of the file.

The $/$ edit descriptor can be used to skip entire records on input or to write empty records on output. Empty records in internal or direct access files are filled with blanks.

When the $/$ edit descriptor is used with files connected for direct access it causes the record number to be increased and data transfer will be performed with that record.

```
WRITE (*,10) (A, A=1.0,10.0)
10 FORMAT (5F5.1,/,5F5.1)
```

```
1.0 2.0 3.0 4.0 5.0
6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0
```

**Dollar Sign and Backslash Editing**

The $\$ and $\$ edit descriptors are interchangeable and are used to suppress the normal output of end of record characters in formatted records. When one of these edit descriptors appears in a format list, the output of end of record characters will be suppressed for the remainder of the I/O statement.

**COLON EDITING**

The $:$ edit descriptor is used to terminate a formatted I/O statement if there are no more data items to process. For example, the $:$ edit descriptor could be used to stop positional editing when there are no more items in the I/O list.
APOSTROPHE AND HOLLERITH EDITING

Apostrophe and Hollerith edit descriptors are used to copy strings of characters to the output record. These edit descriptors may only be used with the WRITE, PRINT and TYPE statements.

Apostrophe Editing

An apostrophe edit descriptor takes exactly the same form as a character constant as described in The Fortran Program chapter. The field width is equal to the length of the string.

```
WRITE (*,10)
10 FORMAT ('APOSTROPHE',1X,'EDIT FIELDS')
```

HOLLERITH EDIT FIELDS

H Editing

The \( n \)H edit descriptor takes exactly the same form as a Hollerith constant as described in the chapter The Fortran Program. The field width is equal to the positive integer constant, \( n \), which defines the length of the Hollerith constant.

```
WRITE (*,10)
10 FORMAT (15HHOLLERITH EDIT ,6HFIELDS)
```

HOLLERITH EDIT FIELDS

Q EDITING

The Q edit descriptor obtains the number of characters remaining in the current input record and assigns it the corresponding I/O list element. The I/O list element must be four byte integer variable. The Q edit descriptor has no effect on output except that the corresponding I/O list item is skipped.

```
READ (*,10) I,(CHRS(J),J=1,I)
10 FORMAT (Q,80A1)
```

This example uses the Q edit descriptor to determine the number of characters in a record and then reads that many characters into the array CHRS.
VARIABLE FORMAT EXPRESSIONS

Variable format expressions allow you to use an arithmetic expression enclosed in angle brackets wherever an integer would normally be used in a FORMAT statement, with exception of the number of characters in a H (Hollerith constant) field. For example:

```
1000 FORMAT (I<N+4>)
```

The variable format expression, \( N+4 \), is scanned at runtime each time the FORMAT is used. If necessary, the expression is first converted to integer. The expression may contain function references. If side effects of the I/O statement cause the value of the expression to change, the value before the execution of the I/O statement is used.

LIST DIRECTED EDITING

List directed editing is indicated with an asterisk (*) as a format specifier. List directed editing selects editing for I/O list items appropriate to their data type and value. List directed editing treats one or more records in a file as a sequence of values delimited by value separators. A value separator is one or more blanks, a comma, a slash, or an end of record. Blanks can precede and follow the comma and slash separators. Except within a quoted character constant, multiple blanks and end of record characters are treated as a single blank character. An end of record occurring within a quoted character constant is treated as a null.

Tabs are expanded modulo eight by default; other tab sizes can be used by setting an environment variable. Refer to your system documentation for instructions on modifying this system dependent variable.

The values are either constants, nulls, or one of the forms:

- \( r^*c \)
- \( r^* \)

where \( r \) is an unsigned, nonzero, integer constant. The first form is equivalent to \( r \) occurrences of the constant \( c \), and the second is equivalent to \( r \) nulls. Null items are defined by having no characters where a value would be expected, that is, between successive separators or before the first separator in a record.

List Directed Input

A character value is a string of characters between value separators. If the string is quoted embedded blanks are significant and the value can span more than one record. The corresponding I/O list item is defined with the value as though a character assignment statement was performed; left justified and truncated or blank filled as necessary.

Any form suitable for an \( \_ \) edit descriptor can be used for list directed input of an INTEGER item.
Any form suitable for an L edit descriptor can be used for list directed input of a LOGICAL item. In particular, .TRUE. and .FALSE. are acceptable.

DOUBLE PRECISION and REAL input is performed with the effect of a \( F_w.0 \) edit descriptor where \( w \) is the number of characters in the constant. The value can be in any form acceptable to the \( F \) edit descriptor.

A COMPLEX constant must have an opening parenthesis, a floating point constant as described above, a comma, another floating-point constant, and a closing parenthesis. Leading and trailing spaces are permitted around the comma. The first constant represents the real portion of the value and the second constant represents the imaginary portion.

Null values have no effect on the corresponding I/O list items; their definition status will not change.

A slash in the input record terminates a list directed input statement. Any unprocessed I/O list items will be left unchanged.

**List Directed Output**

With the exception of CHARACTER constants, all output items are separated by a single blank that is generated as part of the string.

CHARACTER output is performed using an A edit descriptor. There is no leading blank.

LOGICAL output is performed using an L2 edit descriptor.

INTEGER output is performed using an I\( w \) edit descriptor where \( w \) is one digit greater than the number of digits required to represent the value.

DOUBLE PRECISION and REAL output is performed using 1PG15.6E2 and 1PG24.15E3 edit descriptors respectively.

COMPLEX output consists of an opening parenthesis, the real portion of the value, a comma, the imaginary portion of the value, and a closing parenthesis. The numeric portions are formatted with descriptors that match the precision of the data as above.

**NAMELIST DIRECTED EDITING**

Namelist directed editing, an extension to standard Fortran, allows a number of variables to be treated as a group for the purpose of data transfer. Its use is restricted to formatted external files that have been connected for sequential access. Namelist directed editing selects editing for a namelist group member based on its type and value. Namelist directed editing treats one or more records as a group, where each group contains a series of group-member/value(s) combinations.
Namelist Directed Input

Namelist directed input reads external records until it finds the specified namelist group. It then assigns data to the specified group members in the order they are encountered. Group members which are not specified retain their previous values.

Namelist directed input has the following form:

\[
\text{group \ member=value, [member=value, ...] END}
\]

where: $ is used to delimit the start and end of a particular group. The ampersand (&) can also be used for this purpose. The slash (/) can also be used to delimit the end of input for a given namelist group.

group is the symbolic name of a namelist previously defined in the program unit. The name cannot contain spaces or tabs.

member is a namelist defined variable. It may be a scalar, an array name, an array element name, a substring, or an array name with a substring. The member name cannot contain spaces or tabs. Subscript and substring specifiers must be integer constants. Use of symbolic (PARAMETER) constants is not allowed.

value is a constant, a list of constants, or a repetition of constants of the form \( r^*c \). Valid separators for value constants are spaces, tabs, and commas. A null value is specified by two consecutive commas, a leading comma, or a trailing comma. The form \( r^* \) indicates \( r \) null values. Character constants must be delimited by apostrophes or quotation marks. Occurrences of a character delimiter within the delimiting string are represented by two consecutive occurrences of the delimiter. The end of record character is equivalent to a single space unless it occurs in a character constant, in which case it is ignored and the character constant is assumed to continue on the next record. Hollerith, binary, octal, and hexadecimal constants are not permitted.

END is an optional part of the terminating delimiter.

Group and member names are not case sensitive and are folded to upper case before use. Consider the following example:

```
INTEGER*4 INT,int
NAMELIST /NLIST/INT,int
...
READ (*,NML=NLIST)
```

where the input looks like:

```
$NLIST
INT = 12,
```
int = 15,
$END

Because namelist input is not case sensitive, execution of the read statement will cause INT to take on the value 15 and the value of int will be unchanged.

Conversion of external to internal representations is performed using the same editing as list directed input.

It is not necessary to assign values to all members of a namelist group. Group members not specified in the input retain their previous values. For namelist input of subscripted arrays and substring, only the values of the specified array elements and substrings are changed. Input containing group-members which are not actually members of the group is not permitted.

When namelist input is performed using an asterisk for the unit specifier, the group-name is written to standard out and the program waits for input from standard in.

An example of namelist directed input follows:

```
NAMELIST /WHO/NAME,CODE,NEW,RATIO,UNCHANGED
CHARACTER*8 NAME
INTEGER*4 CODE(4)
LOGICAL*4 NEW
REAL*4 RATIO,UNCHANGED
OPEN(10,FILE='INFO',FORM='FORMATTED',ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL')
READ(UNIT=10,NML=WHO)
```

where the input file test contains:

```
$WHO
NAME    = 'John Doe',
CODE(3) = 12,13,
NEW     = .TRUE.,
RATIO   = 1.5,
$END
```

The NAMELIST statement in this example creates a group named WHO with the members NAME, CODE, NEW, RATIO, and UNCHANGED. The READ statement then assigns values to the group members which are present in the input file. After execution of the READ statement, the array CODE has been subscripted, value assignment will begin with element three and continue until a new group-member name is encountered. As a result, elements 3 and 4 will be assigned the values 12 and 13 respectively. Elements 1 and 2 retain their previous values. Since the variable UNCHANGED does not appear in the input, it will retain whatever value it had before execution of the READ statement.
Namelist Directed Output

Namelist directed output transfers the current values of all members of a namelist group. The values are written in a form acceptable for namelist input. The group and group member names will be converted to upper case before being output. The order in which the values are written is determined by the order in which the group members appear in the NAMELIST statement. An example of namelist output follows:

```
INTEGER ONE, TWO
CHARACTER*10 ALPHA
NAMELIST /NLIST/ ONE, TWO, ALPHA
ONE = 10
TWO = 20
ALPHA = 'ABCDEFGHIJ'
OPEN(10, FILE='TEST', ACCESS='SEQUENTIAL', FORM='FORMATTED')
WRITE(UNIT=10, NML=NLIST)
...
```

The WRITE statement produces the following output:

```
$NLIST
ONE     = 10,
TWO     = 20,
ALPHA   = 'ABCDEFGHIJ',
$END
```
CHAPTER 9

Programs, Subroutines, and Functions

There are seven types of procedures available in Absoft Fortran: main programs, subroutines, external functions, internal procedures, statement functions, intrinsic functions, BLOCK DATA subprograms.

The main program is the entry point of a Fortran program. The compiler does not require that the main program occurs first in the source file, however, every Fortran program must have exactly one main program.

Subroutines and external functions are procedures that are defined outside of the program unit that references them. They may be specified either in separate Fortran subprograms or by means other than Fortran such as assembly language or the C programming language.

An internal procedure is a subroutine or function that is defined inside an external procedure. An internal procedure may only appear after a CONTAINS statement and must end with either END SUBROUTINE, END FUNCTION, or END. An internal procedure automatically has access to all of the host’s entities, including variables, dummy arguments, and other internal procedures.

BLOCK DATA subprograms are nonexecutable procedures that are used to initialize variables and array elements in named COMMON blocks. There may be several block data subprograms in a Fortran program.

PROGRAMS

A main program is defined in the following manner:

```
[PROGRAM program-name]
[specification-statements]
[executable-statements]
[CONTAINS
  internal-procedures]
END [PROGRAM [program-name]]
```

The PROGRAM statement is not required to be present in a Fortran program. If it is present it must be the first line of the main program unit.
SUBROUTINES

A subroutine is an external procedure that is defined external to the program unit that references it and is specified in a subroutine subprogram. A subroutine may be referenced within any other procedure of the executable program.

A subroutine subprogram is defined in the following manner:

```
SUBROUTINE name([([dummy-arguments]])]
[specification-statements]
[executable-statements]
[CONTAINS
  internal-procedures]
END [SUBROUTINE [name]]
```

where:  `name` is a unique symbolic name that is used to reference the subroutine.

`([dummy-arguments])` is an optional comma separated list of variable names, array names, dummy procedure names, or asterisks that identifies the dummy arguments that are associated with the actual arguments in the referencing statement.

A subroutine is referenced with a `CALL` statement that has the form:

```
CALL sub [([actual-arguments])]
```

where:  `sub` is the symbolic name of a subroutine or dummy procedure.

`([actual-arguments])` is the comma separated list of actual arguments that are associated with the arguments in the `SUBROUTINE` statement.

**Subroutine Arguments**

The argument lists of `CALL` and `SUBROUTINE` statements have a one to one correspondence; the first actual argument is associated with the first dummy argument and so on. The actual arguments in a `CALL` statement are assumed to agree in number and type with the dummy arguments declared in the `SUBROUTINE` statement. No type checking is performed by the compiler or the run time system to insure that this assumption is followed.

The addresses of labeled statements may be passed to subroutines by specifying the label preceded by an asterisk in the actual argument list and specifying an asterisk only in the corresponding position in the dummy argument list of the `SUBROUTINE` statement. This allows you to return to a location in the calling procedure other than the statement that immediately follows the `CALL` statement (see `RETURN` below).
Dummy procedure names allow you pass the names of procedures to other subprograms. The dummy procedure name can then be referenced as though it were the actual name of an external procedure.

FUNCTIONS

A function returns a value to the point within an expression that references it. An external function is specified in a separate procedure called a function subprogram. A statement function is defined in a single statement within a program unit and is local to that program unit. Intrinsic functions are library procedures provided with the Fortran environment and are available to any program unit in an executable program. A function name may not be used on the left side of an equals sign except for an external function name and then only within the program unit that defines it.

A function reference is made in the form of an operand in an expression. The function name is given with an argument list enclosed in parentheses. The parentheses must be used even if there are no arguments to the function so that the compiler can determine that a function reference is indeed being made and not simply a reference to a variable.

External Functions

An external function may be referenced within any other procedure in an executable program. Character functions must be declared with integer constant lengths so that the compiler can determine the size of the character value that will be returned.

The form of a function subprogram declaration is:

```
[type [*len]] FUNCTION func ([arg] [,arg]...) [RESULT(r)]
```

where: `func` is a unique symbolic name that is used to reference the function.

```
([arg] [,arg]...) is an optional list of variable names, array names, or dummy procedure names that identifies the dummy arguments that are associated with the actual arguments in the referencing statement.
```

```
RESULT(r) is an optional symbolic name that is used to record the function result. If this argument is present, the symbolic name `func` must not appear in any declaration statement.
```

As indicated, the function can be given an optional type and length attribute. This can be done either explicitly in the `FUNCTION` statement or in a subsequent type statement, or implicitly following the data typing rules described in The Fortran Program chapter. Note that an `IMPLICIT` statement may change the data type and size.
When a `CHARACTER` function is given a length attribute of `(*)` it assumes the size established in the corresponding character declaration in the referencing program unit.

The symbolic name used to define the function or the symbolic name specified in the `RESULT` argument must be assigned a value during the execution of the function subprogram. It is the value of this variable that is returned when a `RETURN` or `END` statement is executed.

A function (external or internal) can return a pointer:

```fortran
integer, dimension(10) :: m = (/123, 87, 55, 203, 88, 6, 908, 13, 792, 66, 118/) integer, dimension(:), pointer :: p
p => pick(m, 100)
print *,p
contains
function pick(m, limit)
    integer, dimension(:), pointer :: pick
    integer, dimension(:) :: m
    j = 0
    do i=1,size(m)
        if (m(i) >= limit) j = j+1
    end do
    allocate (pick(j))
    j = 0
    do i=1,size(m)
        if (m(i) >= limit) then
            j = j+1
            pick(j) = m(i)
        end if
    end do
end function pick
end
```

123  203  908  792  118

Statement Functions

A statement function is specified with a single statement that may appear only after the declaration section and before the executable section of the program unit in which it is to be used. A statement function is defined in the following manner:

```fortran
func ([arg[,arg]...]) = e
```

where: `func` is the name that is used to reference the function.

`([arg[,arg]...])` is the dummy argument list, and `e` is an expression using the arguments from the dummy argument list.
The dummy argument names used in the statement function argument list are local to the statement function and may be used elsewhere in the program unit without conflict.

A statement function statement must not contain a forward reference to another statement function. The compilation of a statement function removes the symbolic name of the function from the list of available names for variables and arrays within the program unit in which it is defined. Any variable or array that is defined in a program unit may not be redefined as a statement function.

**Intrinsic Functions**

Intrinsic functions contained in the math library do not follow the typing rules for user defined functions and cannot be altered with an `IMPLICIT` statement. The types of these functions and their argument list definitions appear in the next chapter, **Intrinsic Procedures**.

**RECURSION**

 Normally, a function or subroutine may not reference itself, either directly or indirectly. Such a reference would be recursive. The `RECURSIVE` keyword allows such direct or indirect self referencing statements.

```fortran
RECURSIVE FUNCTION
RECURSIVE SUBROUTINE

The function \( N! = N \times (N-1) \ldots 2 \times 1 \) lends itself to recursive programming.

```fortran
INTEGER RECURSIVE FUNCTION Factorial(n) RESULT(r)
  IF (n == 1) THEN
    r = 1
  ELSE
    r = n*Factorial(n-1)
  END IF
END FUNCTION Factorial
```

**PURE PROCEDURES**

The `PURE` keyword is used with functions and subroutines to indicate that the procedure has no side effects. A pure procedure cannot perform I/O operations, contains no variable with a `SAVE` attribute, does not alter variables accessed by host or use association, does not contain a `STOP` statement, and, if a function, does not alter any dummy argument that does not have a pointer attribute.

```fortran
PURE FUNCTION AREA(T)
```
ELEMENTAL PROCEDURES

Elemental intrinsic procedures are those with scalar dummy arguments that return scalar results. They can be called with array arguments to return an array result of the same shape. The ELEMENTAL keyword can be used to produce non-intrinsic procedures with the same characteristics.

```
ELEMENTAL FUNCTION AREA(T)
```

An elemental procedure is automatically a pure procedure. All dummy arguments must be scalar without a POINTER attribute.

ENTRY STATEMENT

The ENTRY statement may only be used within subroutine and function subprograms and provides for multiple entry points into these procedures. The form of an ENTRY statement is the same as that for a SUBROUTINE statement except that the keyword ENTRY is used. An ENTRY statement appearing within a FUNCTION subprogram may appear in a type statement. An ENTRY statement may not occur within any block structure (DO, IF, or CASE).

In a function subprogram, a variable name that is used as the entry name must not appear in any statement that precedes the appearance of the entry name except in a type statement. All function and entry names in a function subprogram share an equivalence association.

Entry names used in character functions must have a character data type and the same size as the name of the function itself.

RETURN STATEMENT

The RETURN statement ends execution in the current subroutine or function subprogram and returns control of execution to the referencing program unit. The RETURN statement may only be used in function and subroutine subprograms. Execution of a RETURN statement in a function returns the current value of the function name variable to the referencing program unit. The RETURN statement is given in the following manner:

```
RETURN [e]
```

where: $e$ is an INTEGER expression allowed only in subroutine RETURN statements and causes control to be returned to a labeled statement in the calling procedure associated with an asterisk in the dummy argument list. The first alternate return address corresponds to the first asterisk, the second return address to the second asterisk, etc. If the value of $e$ is less than one or greater than the number of asterisks, control is returned to the statement immediately following the CALL statement.
PASSING PROCEDURES IN DUMMY ARGUMENTS

When a dummy argument is used to reference an external function, the associated actual argument must be either an external function or an intrinsic function. When a dummy argument is associated with an intrinsic function there is no automatic typing property. If a dummy argument name is also the name of an intrinsic function then the intrinsic function corresponding to the dummy argument name is removed from the list of available intrinsic functions for the subprogram.

If the dummy argument is used as the subroutine name of a CALL statement then the name cannot be used as a variable or a function within the same program unit.

PASSING RETURN ADDRESSES IN DUMMY ARGUMENTS

If a dummy argument is an asterisk, the compiler will assume that the actual argument is an alternate return address passed as a statement label preceded by an asterisk. No check is made by the compiler or by the run time system to insure that the passed parameter is in fact a valid alternate return address.

COMMON BLOCKS

A COMMON block is used to provide an area of memory whose scoping rules are greater than the current program unit. Because association is by storage offset within a known memory area, rather than by name, the types and names of the data elements do not have to be consistent between different procedures. A reference to a memory location is considered legal if the type of data stored there is the same as the type of the name used to access it. However, the compiler does not check for consistency between different program units and COMMON blocks.

The total amount of memory required by an executable program can be reduced by using COMMON blocks as a sharable storage pool for two or more subprograms. Because references to data items in common blocks are through offsets and because types do not conflict across program units, the same memory may be remapped to contain different variables.

BLOCK DATA

A BLOCK DATA statement takes the following form:

`BLOCK DATA [sub]`

where: `sub` is the unique symbolic name of the block data subprogram.

There may be more than one named BLOCK DATA subprogram in a Fortran program, but only one unnamed block data subprogram.
Only `COMMON`, `SAVE`, `DATA`, `DIMENSION`, `END`, `EQUIVALENCE`, `IMPLICIT`, `PARAMETER`, and type declaration statements may be used in a `BLOCK DATA` subprogram.
CHAPTER 10

INTRINSIC PROCEDURES

This chapter is devoted to summarizing and categorizing Fortran’s intrinsic procedures: intrinsic functions and intrinsic subroutines. This summary has ten categories of procedure, each with certain similar characteristics, and ends with a concise alphabetical listing of all intrinsic procedures and their arguments. Each intrinsic procedure is described more fully, in alphabetical order, in the last section of this chapter.

INTRINSIC PROCEDURE SUMMARY

numeric inquiry functions

digits
  significant digits (e.g., bits) for a given integer or real kind
epsilon
  a small value (small compared to 1) for a given real kind
exponent
  the exponent value for a given real value
fraction
  the fractional part of a given real value
huge
  the largest value representable for a given real or integer kind
minexponent
  the minimum exponent value for a given real kind
maxexponent
  the maximum exponent value for a given real kind
nearest
  the processor value nearest to a given real value, in a given direction
precision
  the decimal precision of a given real or complex kind
radix
  numeric base (typically binary) for a given real or integer kind
rrspacing
  reciprocal of the relative spacing near a given real value
range
  the decimal exponent range of a given numeric kind
scale
  change the exponent of a given real value by a specified amount
set_exponent
  set the exponent of a given real value to the specified amount
spacing
  the absolute spacing near a given real value
tiny
  the smallest positive value representable for a given real kind

array inquiry functions

allocated
  true if the given array is currently allocated (false otherwise)
lbound
  lower bound(s) of a given array or a given dimension of an array
shape
  the number of elements in each dimension of a given array
size
  the size (total number of elements) of a given array
ubound
  upper bound(s) of a given array or a given dimension of an array
### Intrinsic Procedures

#### miscellaneous inquiry functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>associated</td>
<td>true if the given pointer is currently allocated (false otherwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bit_size</td>
<td>the number of bits (for bit computations) in a given integer kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>command_argument_count</td>
<td>the number command line arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is_iostat_end</td>
<td>Test IOSTAT value for end-of-file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is_iostat_eor</td>
<td>Test IOSTAT value for end-of-record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kind</td>
<td>the value of the kind type parameter of a given data entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>len</td>
<td>the number of characters in a given string value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>true if there is an actual argument for a given optional dummy argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selected_char_kind</td>
<td>the character kind for a given character type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selected_int_kind</td>
<td>the integer kind for a given integer decimal range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selected_real_kind</td>
<td>the real kind for a given decimal precision and range</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### conversion functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>achar</td>
<td>the character in the specified position of the ASCII character set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aimag</td>
<td>the imaginary part of a given complex value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aint</td>
<td>a given real value truncated to an integer (result is still real)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anint</td>
<td>a given real value rounded to the nearest integer (result is still real)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>char</td>
<td>the character in the specified position of the processor character set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cmplx</td>
<td>the complex value of a given single or pair of integer or real values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conjg</td>
<td>the complex conjugate of a given complex value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dble</td>
<td>the double precision value of a given numeric value of any type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iachar</td>
<td>position of the specified character in the ASCII character set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibits</td>
<td>the specified substring of bits of a given integer value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ichar</td>
<td>position of the specified character in the processor character set</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int</td>
<td>the (truncated) integer value of a given numeric value of any type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logical</td>
<td>the logical value of specified kind for a given logical value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nint</td>
<td>the (rounded) integer value of a given real value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real</td>
<td>the real value of a given numeric value of any type and kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfer</td>
<td>conversion to a specified type without change in the “bit pattern”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### numeric computation functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abs</td>
<td>the absolute value of a given numeric value of any type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acos</td>
<td>the arc cosine (radians) of a given real value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acosh</td>
<td>the inverse hyperbolic cosine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asin</td>
<td>the arc sine (radians) of a given real value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asinh</td>
<td>the inverse hyperbolic sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atan</td>
<td>the arc tangent (radians) of a given real value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atanh</td>
<td>the inverse hyperbolic tangent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atan2</td>
<td>the angle (radians) of given real and imaginary components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bessel_j0</td>
<td>Bessel function of the 1st kind, order 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bessel_j1</td>
<td>Bessel function of the 1st kind, order 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bessel_jn</td>
<td>Bessel functions of the 1st kind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
bessel_y0  Bessel function of the 2st kind, order 0
bessel_y1  Bessel function of the 2st kind, order 1
bessel_yn  Bessel functions of the 2st kind
ceiling    the smallest integer not less than a given real value
cos       the cosine of a given real or complex value (given value in radians)
cosh      the hyperbolic cosine of a given real value
dim       maximum of: zero and the difference of two real or integer values
dot_product  the dot product of two given vectors of numeric or logical type
dprod     the double precision product of two single precision real values
erf       the error function
erfc      the complementary error function
erfc_scaled  the scaled complementary error function
exp       the natural exponential function (real or complex)
floor     the greatest integer not greater than a given real value
hypot     the Euclidean distance function
gamma     the Gamma function
log       the natural logarithm function (real or complex)
log10     the logarithm to the base 10 of a given real value greater than zero
log_gamma the logarithm of the absolute value of the gamma function
matmul    matrix multiplication of two given numeric or logical matrices
max       the maximum of a set of given integer or real values
min       the minimum of a set of given integer or real values
mod       the remainder function, having the sign of the first given value
modulo    the remainder function, having the sign of the second given value
sign      apply a given sign to a given integer or real value
sin       the sine of a given real or complex value (given value in radians)
sinh      the hyperbolic sine of a given real value
sqrt      the square root of a given real or complex value greater than zero
tan       the tangent of a given real value (given value in radians)
tanh      the hyperbolic tangent of a given real value

character computation functions
adjustl   left-justify a given string value in the same-width field
adustr    right-justify a given string value in the same-width field
index     find the location of a given substring in a given string value
len_trim  length of a given string after trailing blanks have been removed
lge       greater than or equal to ASCII comparison of two given strings
lg1       greater than ASCII comparison of two given string values
lle       less than or equal to ASCII comparison of two given string values
llt       less than ASCII comparison of two given string values
repeat    concatenate several copies of a given string value
scan      search a given string value for any of a given set of characters
trim      remove trailing blank characters from a given string value
verify    position of a character in a string that is not one of a given set

bit computation functions
bge       bitwise greater than or equal
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic Procedures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bgt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>blt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>btest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dshifl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dshiftr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibclr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ieor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ishft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ishftc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leadz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maskl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maskr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merge_bits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>popcnt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poppar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shifta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shiftl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shiftr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trailz</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**array computation functions**

| all       | true if all of the elements of a given logical array are true |
| any       | true if any of the elements of a given logical array are true |
| count     | the number of true elements in a given logical array |
| cshift    | circular shift the elements of a given array of any type |
| eoshift   | end-off shift the elements of a given array of any type |
| maxloc    | a rank-one array locating the maximum element of a given array |
| maxval    | the maximum element value of a given integer or real array |
| merge     | combines (merges) two arrays under control of a mask |
| minloc    | a rank-one array locating the minimum element of a given array |
| minval    | the minimum element value of a given integer or real array |
| pack      | packs elements of an array into a vector, under control of a mask |
| product   | the product of all elements of a given numeric array of any type |
| reshape   | reshapes a given rank-one array into the specified array shape |
| spread    | replicates an array along a new dimension |
| sum       | the sum of all elements of a given numeric array of any type |
| transpose | the matrix transpose of a given rank-two array of any type |
| unpack    | unpacks a vector into elements of an array, under control of a mask |

**intrinsic subroutines**

| cpu_time     | returns processor time |
| date_and_time| returns date and time information in several formats |
execute_command_line  execute a command line
get_command        the command line
get_command_argument a command line argument
get_environment_variable an environment variable
mvbits             copies a sequence of bits between given integer values
random_number      returns one or more pseudorandom numbers
random_seed        allows setting of the random number generator seed value
system_clock       returns various data from the processor’s real-time clock

pointer functions

null                 returns a disassociated pointer

**ALPHABETICAL LISTING OF INTRINSIC PROCEDURES**

generic procedure   optional arguments    specific name    specific argument type
---                  -------------------    ---------------    -------------------
abs (a)              abs (a)              real
                    cabs (a)              complex
                    dabs (a)              double precision
                    iabs (a)              integer
achar (i)            achar (i)            complex
acos (x)             acos (x)              real
                    dacos (x)             double precision
                    real, complex
acosh (x)            acosh (x)            real
adjustl (string)     adjustl (string)     real
adjustr (string)     adjustr (string)      real
aimag (z)            aimag (z)            complex
aint (a, kind)       aint (a)              real
                    dint (a)              double precision
all (mask, dim)      all (mask, dim)       real
allocated (array)    allocated (array)     double precision
anint (a, kind)      anint (a)             real
                    dnint (a)             double precision
any (mask, dim)      any (mask, dim)       real
asin (x)             asin (x)              real
                    dsin (x)              real, complex
asin (x)             asinh (x)             real
associated (pointer, target) asinh (x) associated (pointer, target) real, complex
atan (x)             atan (x)              real
                    dtan (a)              double precision
atan2 (y, x)         atan2 (y, x)          real
atanh (x)            atanh (x)             real
bessel_j0 (x)        bessel_j0 (x)         real
bessel_j1 (x)        bessel_j1 (x)         double precision
bessel_jn (n,x)      bessel_jn (n,x)         real
bessel_j1 (n1,n2,x)  bessel_j1 (n1,n2,x)     real, complex
bessel_y0 (x)        bessel_y0 (x)          real
bessel_y1 (x)        bessel_y1 (x)          double precision
bessel_yn (n,x)
### Intrinsic Procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>generic procedure</th>
<th>optional arguments</th>
<th>specific name</th>
<th>specific argument type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bessel_yn (n1,n2,x)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bge(i,j)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>bgt(i,j)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ble(i,j)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>blt(i,j)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>bit_size (i)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>btest (i, pos)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ceiling (a, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>char (i, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cmplx (x, y, kind)</td>
<td>y, kind</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>command_argument_count()</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>conjg (z)</td>
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<td>conjg (x)</td>
<td>complex</td>
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<tr>
<td>cos (x)</td>
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<td>cos (x)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>dcos (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td>cosh (x)</td>
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<td>dcosh (x)</td>
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<td>dcosh (x)</td>
<td>double precision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>count (mask, dim)</td>
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<tr>
<td>cshift (array, shift, dim)</td>
<td>dim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>date_and_time (date, time, zone, values)</td>
<td>date, time, zone, values</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>dble (a)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>digits (x)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>dim (x, y)</td>
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<td>dim (x, y)</td>
<td>real</td>
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<td>idim (x, y)</td>
<td>integer</td>
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<td>ddim (x, y)</td>
<td>double precision</td>
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<tr>
<td>dot_product (vector_a, vector_b)</td>
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<tr>
<td>dprod (x, y)</td>
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<td>dshiftl (i, j, shift)</td>
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<td>dshiftr (i, j, shift)</td>
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<tr>
<td>eoshift (array, shift, boundary, dim)</td>
<td>boundary, dim</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>epsilon (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td>erf (x)</td>
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<td>erfnc (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td>erfc_scaled (x)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>execute_command_line (command, wait, exitstat, cmdstat, cmdmsg)</td>
<td>wait, exitstat, cmdstat, cmdmsg</td>
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</tr>
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<td>exp (x)</td>
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<td>exponent (x)</td>
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<td>floor (a, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>fraction (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>gamma (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td>get_command(command, length, status)</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_command_argument(number, value, length, status)</td>
<td>value, length, status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get_environment_variable(name, value, length, status, trim_name)</td>
<td>value, length, status, trim_name</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huge (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypot (x, y)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generic procedure</td>
<td>optional arguments</td>
<td>specific name</td>
<td>specific argument type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iachar (c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iand (i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>default character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibclr (i, pos)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibits (i, pos, len)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibset (i, pos)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ichar (c)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ieor (i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>index (string, substring, back, kind)</td>
<td>back, kind</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>int (a, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ior (i, j)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ishftc (i, shift)</td>
<td>size</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is_iostat_end()</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is_iostat_eor()</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leadz (i)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lbound (array, dim)</td>
<td>dim</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>len (string)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>len_trim (string)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lge (string_a, string_b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lgt (string_a, string_b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lle (string_a, string_b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>llt (string_a, string_b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log10 (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>log_gamma (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logical (l, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maskl (l, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maskr (l, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matmul (matrix_a, matrix_b)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max (a1, a2, a3, ...)</td>
<td>a3, ...</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maxexponent (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maxloc (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maxval (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merge (tsource, fsourc, mask)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merge_bits (i, j, mask)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min (a1, a2, a3, ...)</td>
<td>a3, ...</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minexponent (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minloc (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minval (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mod (a, p)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modulo (a, p)</td>
<td></td>
<td>index (string, substring)</td>
<td>character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generic procedure</td>
<td>optional arguments</td>
<td>specific name</td>
<td>specific argument type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>mvbits</code> (from, frompos, len, to, topos)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>nearest</code> (x, s)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>new_line</code> (a)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><code>nint</code> (a, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
<td>nint (a)</td>
<td>real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>null</code> (mold)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>pack</code> (array, mask, vector)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>precision</code> (x)</td>
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<td><code>present</code> (a)</td>
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<td><code>pocnt</code> (i)</td>
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<td><code>poppar</code> (i)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>product</code> (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>radix</code> (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>random_number</code> (harvest)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>random_seed</code> (size, put, get)</td>
<td>size, put, get</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>range</code> (x)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><code>real</code> (x, kind)</td>
<td>kind</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>repeat</code> (string, ncopies)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>reshape</code> (source, shape, pad, order)</td>
<td>pad, order</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>rrspacing</code> (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>scale</code> (x, i)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><code>scan</code> (string, set, back)</td>
<td>back</td>
<td></td>
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<td><code>selected_int_kind</code> (r)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><code>selected_real_kind</code> (p, r)</td>
<td>p, r</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>set_exponent</code> (x, i)</td>
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<td><code>shape</code> (source)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>shifta</code> (i, shift)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>shiftl</code> (i, shift)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td><code>shiftr</code> (i, shift)</td>
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<td>sign (a, b)</td>
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<td>real</td>
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<td>csin (x)</td>
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<td>complex</td>
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<td>sinh (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>real</td>
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<td>dsinh (x)</td>
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<td>double precision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>size</code> (array, dim)</td>
<td>dim</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>spacing</code> (x)</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>spread</code> (source, dim, ncopies)</td>
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<td><code>sqrt</code> (x)</td>
<td>sqrt (x)</td>
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<td>real</td>
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<td></td>
<td>csqrt (x)</td>
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<td>complex</td>
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<td></td>
<td>dsqrt (x)</td>
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<td>double precision</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>sum</code> (array, dim, mask)</td>
<td>dim, mask</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>system_clock</code></td>
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<tr>
<td>(count, count_rate, count_max)</td>
<td>count, count_rate, count_max</td>
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<tr>
<td><code>tan</code> (x)</td>
<td>tan (x)</td>
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<td>real</td>
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<td></td>
<td>dtan (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>double precision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tanh</code> (x)</td>
<td>tanh (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dtanh (x)</td>
<td></td>
<td>double precision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>tiny</code> (x)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>transfer</code> (source, mold, size)</td>
<td>size</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
INTRINSIC PROCEDURE DETAILS

The intrinsic procedures are described in detail in this section. A “pseudo” interface block, without the `interface ... end interface` bracketing keywords, describes the interface of each procedure; the semantics is described in comments in the interface, often augmented by text following the interface. Constraints and other relevant information are also included, either in the interface comments or in the following text.

Most of the intrinsic procedures are generic over the various kinds of the argument type - for example, `sqrt` is generic for single, double precision, and quad precision real arguments. Unless explicitly mentioned otherwise, each single-argument intrinsic procedure is generic in this sense, with the result kind being the same as the argument kind. Similarly, each intrinsic function with one argument plus a `kind` argument is generic in this sense, but with the result kind as specified by the `kind` argument.

Intrinsic procedures may be classified as either elemental or transformational (most are elemental). If an intrinsic procedure is elemental the interface starts with the keyword `elemental`; otherwise that procedure is transformational. (In a call to an elemental function with two or more arguments, the actual arguments must be conformable; but note that a scalar is conformable with any array.) Similarly, some intrinsic functions are identified as inquiry functions with the keyword `inquiry`; actual arguments to inquiry functions need not be defined.

All intrinsic function arguments are `intent(in)` and so the intent for these arguments is not explicitly given in the interface; however, the argument intent is explicitly specified for each argument of the five intrinsic subroutines. The argument names can be used as actual argument keywords.

Many of the intrinsic procedures take array arguments of any rank. These arguments are shown as rank one (`:`) in the following interfaces, and the descriptions identify which arguments may be generic over rank and the resulting meaning of the different ranks.

```
abs (a)

elemental function abs(a) ! the |a|
  real :: abs
  ! or integer if a is of type integer
  real :: a
  ! or type integer or type complex
end function
```

If `a` is complex with value (x,y), `abs` returns an approximation to `sqrt(a**2+b**2)`. 
achar (i)

```
elemental function achar(i) ! the ith ascii character
    character :: achar ! the result kind is kind('a')
    integer :: i
end function
```

Note that achar(iachar(x)) is x for any character x of default kind represented by the processor.

acos (x)

```
elemental function acos(x) ! the arccosine (inverse cosine)
    real :: acos
    real :: x ! |x| \leq 1 or of type complex
end function
```

The result has a value equal to a processor-dependent approximation to \arccos(x), expressed in radians. It lies in the range $0 \leq \text{acos}(x) \leq \pi$. If complex, the real portion lies in the range $0 \leq \text{acos}(x) \leq \pi$.

acosh (x)

```
elemental function acosh(x) ! the inverse hyperbolic cosine
    real :: acosh
    real :: x ! real or complex
end function
```

adjustl (string)

```
elemental function adjustl(string) ! remove leading blanks
    character(len(string)) :: adjustl ! (the same number of trailing
                                            ! blanks added)
    character(*) :: string
end function
```

adjustr (string)

```
elemental function adjustr(string) ! remove trailing blanks
    character(len(string)) :: adjustr ! (the same number of leading
                                           ! blanks added)
    character(*) :: string
end function
```

aimag (z)

```
elemental function aimag(z) ! imaginary part of z
    real :: aimag ! if z = (x, y), aimag is y
    complex :: z
end function
```

aint (a, kind)

```
elemental function aint(a,kind) ! truncate a
    real(kind) :: aint ! if kind is absent the result kind
                       ! is kind(a)
    real :: a
    integer, optional :: kind ! may be any kind
                              ! if present, must be a scalar
                              ! initialization expression
end function
```
If $|a| < 1$, \texttt{aint (a)} has the value 0; if $a > 1$, \texttt{aint (a)} has the sign of $a$ and a value equal to the integer whose magnitude is the largest integer that does not exceed the magnitude of $a$.

\begin{verbatim}
all (mask, dim)
    function all(mask,dim)
        ! returns true if all of mask (along dim)
        ! is true
        logical :: all
        ! all is an array if dim is present and
        ! mask rank > 1
        logical :: mask(:)
        ! may be any kind, any rank
        integer, optional :: dim
        ! if present, 1\leq\texttt{dim}\leqn, where n is rank of
        ! mask
    end function
\end{verbatim}

The result is scalar if \texttt{dim} is absent or \texttt{mask} has rank one; otherwise, the result is an array of rank $n-1$ and of shape ($d_1,d_2,...,d_{\texttt{dim}-1},d_{\texttt{dim}+1},...,d_n$) where ($d_1,d_2,...,d_n$) is the shape of \texttt{mask}.

\begin{verbatim}
allocated (array)
    inquiry function allocated(array)
        ! check allocation status of argument
        logical :: allocated
        ! true if array is currently allocated; false otherwise
        real :: array(:)
        ! array can be any type and any rank
    end function
\end{verbatim}

The actual argument for \texttt{array} must be an allocatable array with defined allocation status.

\begin{verbatim}
anint (a, kind)
    elemental function anint(a,kind)
        ! integer value nearest a
        real(kind) :: anint
        ! if kind is absent the result kind is \texttt{kind(a)}
        ! if present, must be a scalar initialization expression
        real :: a
        integer, optional :: kind
    end function
\end{verbatim}

If $a > 0$ \texttt{anint(a)} is \texttt{aint (a + 0.5)}; if $a \leq 0$ \texttt{anint (a)} is \texttt{aint (a - 0.5)}.

\begin{verbatim}
any (mask, dim)
    function any(mask,dim)
        ! returns true if any of mask (along dim)
        ! is true
        logical :: any
        ! any is an array if dim is present and
        ! mask rank > 1
        logical :: mask(:)
        ! may be any kind, any rank
        integer, optional :: dim
        ! if present, 1\leq\texttt{dim}\leqn, where n is rank of
        ! mask
    end function
\end{verbatim}

The result is scalar if \texttt{dim} is absent or \texttt{mask} has rank one; otherwise, the result is an array of rank $n-1$ and of shape ($d_1,d_2,...,d_{\texttt{dim}-1},d_{\texttt{dim}+1},...,d_n$) where ($d_1,d_2,...,d_n$) is the shape of \texttt{mask}.

\begin{verbatim}
asin (x)
    elemental function asin(x)
        ! the arcsine (inverse sine)
        real :: asin
\end{verbatim}
Intrinsic Procedures

real :: x
end function

The result has a value equal to a processor-dependent approximation to arcsin(x), expressed in radians. It lies in the range \(-\pi/2 \leq \text{asin}(x) \leq \pi/2\). If complex, the real portion lies in the range \(-\pi/2 \leq \text{asin}(x) \leq \pi/2\).

asinh (x)

elemental function asinh(x) ! the inverse hyperbolic sine
real :: asinh
real :: x ! real or complex
end function

asinh (x)

elemental function asinh(x) ! the inverse hyperbolic sine
real :: asinh
real :: x ! real or complex
end function

associated (pointer, target)
inquiry function associated(pointer,target) ! check association
logical :: associated
! status of argument
! true if pointer is
! currently associated,
! else false
real, pointer :: pointer(:)
! pointer can be any
! type, any rank
real, optional :: target(:)
! target can be any
! type, any rank
end function

The actual argument for pointer must be a pointer with defined pointer association status. The actual argument for target, if present, must be either a target or a pointer with defined pointer association status. If target is absent, the result is true if pointer is currently associated with a target and false otherwise. If target is present and is a target, the result is true if pointer is currently associated with target and false if it is not. If target is present and is a pointer, the result is true if both pointer and target are currently associated with the same target, and false otherwise.

atan (x)
elemental function atan(x) ! the arctangent (inverse tangent)
real :: atan
real :: x ! may be complex
end function

The result has a value equal to a processor-dependent approximation to arctan(x), expressed in radians, that lies in the range \(-\pi/2 \leq \text{atan}(x) \leq \pi/2\).

atanh (x)
elemental function atanh(x) ! the inverse hyperbolic tangent
real :: atanh
real :: x ! real or complex
end function

ForTRAN Language Reference Manual
atan2 (y, x)
  elemental function atan2(x)  ! the arctangent (inverse tangent)
    real :: atan2          ! of the nonzero complex number (x, y)
    real :: y
    real :: x
  end function

The result has a value equal to a processor-dependent approximation to the arctan(y/x),
expressed in radians that lies in the range \(-\pi \leq \text{atan2}(y,x) \leq \pi\). If \(y>0\), the result is
positive. If \(y=0\), the result is zero if \(x>0\) and \(\pi\) if \(x<0\). If \(y<0\), the result is negative. If
\(x=0\), the absolute value of the result is \(\pi/2\).

bessel_j0 (x)
  elemental function bessel_j0(x)  ! Bessel function of the first kind,
    real :: bessel_j0        ! order 0
    real :: x                ! real
  end function

bessel_j1 (x)
  elemental function bessel_j1(x)  ! Bessel function of the first kind,
    real :: bessel_j1        ! order 1
    real :: x                ! real
  end function

bessel_jn (n,x)
  elemental function bessel_jn(n,x)  ! Bessel function of the first kind,
    real :: bessel_jn        ! order n
    integer :: n           ! integer
    real :: x              ! real
  end function

bessel_jn (n1,n2,x)
  function bessel_jn(n1,n2,x)  ! Bessel function of the first kind,
    real :: bessel_jn        ! order n1 through n2
    integer :: n1,n2        ! integer
    real :: x                ! real
  end function

The result is a rank one array with an extent \(n2-n1+1\). Element \(i\) of the result is the
Bessel function of the first kind and order \(N1+i-1\) of \(X\).

bessel_y0 (x)
  elemental function bessel_y0(x)  ! Bessel function of the second
    real :: bessel_y0        ! kind, order 0
    real :: x                ! real
  end function

bessel_y1 (x)
  elemental function bessel_y1(x)  ! Bessel function of the second
    real :: bessel_y1        ! kind, order 1
    real :: x                ! real
bessel_yn (n,x)

```
elemental function bessel_yn(n,x)
  ! Bessel function of the second kind, order n
  real :: bessel_yn ! integer
t  integer :: n ! real
  real :: x
end function
```

bessel_yn (n1,n2,x)

```
function bessel_yn(n1,n2,x)
  ! Bessel function of the second kind, order n1 through n2
  real :: bessel_yn ! integer
  integer :: n1,n2 ! real
  real :: x
end function
```

The result is a rank one array with an extent \( n2-n1+1 \). Element \( i \) of the result is the Bessel function of the second kind and order \( N1+i-1 \) of \( X \).

bge (i,j)

```
elemental function bge(i,j) ! bitwise greater than or equal
  logical :: bge
  integer :: i,j
end function
```

bgt (i,j)

```
elemental function bgt(i,j) ! bitwise greater than
  logical :: bgt
  integer :: i,j
end function
```

ble (i,j)

```
elemental function ble(i,j) ! bitwise less than or equal
  logical :: ble
  integer :: i,j
end function
```

blt (i,j)

```
elemental function blt(i,j) ! bitwise less than or equal
  logical :: blt
  integer :: i,j
end function
```

bit_size (i)

```
inquiry function bit_size(i)
  ! number of bits in argument i
  integer :: bit_size
  integer :: i
end function
```

btest (i, pos)

```
elemental function btest(i,pos)
  ! returns true if the bit in position pos of i is 1
  logical :: btest
  integer :: i
  integer :: pos
end function
```

ceiling (a)
elemental function ceiling(a) ! least integer greater than or integer :: ceiling
! equal to a real :: a
end function

char (i, kind)
elemental function char(i,kind) ! character in the ith position of character(kind) :: char
! the character set ! default character kind if kind is absent integer :: i ! in range 0 ≤ i ≤ n-1 where n is # ! of characters integer, optional :: kind ! if present, must be a scalar ! initialization expression end function

Note that ichar(char(y,kind(x))) = y and char(ichar(x),kind(x)) = x.

cmplx (x, y, kind)
elemental function cmplx(x,y,kind) ! complex number with real complex(kind) :: cmplx
! part x, imaginary part y ! or default kind if kind is absent real :: x ! or integer or complex real, optional :: y ! or integer, or absent if x integer, optional :: kind ! is complex ! if present, must be a scalar ! initialization expression end function

If y is absent and x is not complex, then the imaginary part of the result is zero.

command_argument_count ()
integer function command_argument_count () ! the number of command integer function command_argument_count () ! line arguments end function

conjg (z)
elemental function conjg(z) ! the conjugate of a complex number complex :: conjg complex :: z end function

cos (x)
elemental function cos(x) ! the cosine of x real :: cos ! same type and kind as x real :: x ! may be complex end function

If x is of type real, it is regarded as a value in radians; if x is of type complex, its real part is regarded as a value in radians.

cosh (x)
elemental function cosh(x) ! the hyperbolic cosine of x
real :: cosh
real :: x
end function

count (mask, dim)
function count(mask,dim)
integers:: count
    ! count is an array if dim is present and mask rank > 1
logical:: mask(:)
    ! may be any kind, any rank
integer, optional:: dim
    ! if present, 1 ≤ dim ≤ n, where n is rank of mask
end function

If dim is present and n is greater than 1 then the result is an array of rank n-1. For example, if mask is a 3x2 array and dim is 2, then the result is a one-dimensional array of size 3, with the count taking place along each row of mask.

cpu_time (time)
subroutine cpu_time (time)
    ! return cpu usage time
    real:: time
        ! processor dependent approximation
        ! in seconds
end subroutine

cshift (array, shift, dim)
function cshift(array,shift,dim)
    ! circularly shift array
    real:: cshift(:)
        ! same type, kind, and shape as array
    real:: array(:)
        ! or any type, kind, and rank (not scalar)
    integer:: shift
        ! amount to be shifted, positive for left shifts
    integer, optional:: dim
        ! if present, 1 ≤ dim ≤ n, where n is rank of array
end function

Positive shift amounts are “left” shifts (e.g., cshift(i)=array(i+1)) and negative shifts are “right”; values shifted “off” one end are routed into the other end. If dim is absent it is assumed to be 1. If array has rank greater than 1 then n-1 “one-dimensional shifts” take place along the dimension specified by dim. For example, if array is a 3x2 array and dim=1, each of the two columns of array are shifted an amount specified by shift. shift is allowed to be an array of rank n-1, specifying a different shift amount for each “one dimensional shift”. In the preceding example, shift could be a one-dimensional array of two elements, having values, say, of 2 and -1; in this case the first column of the array will be circularly shifted “up” two and the second column will be shifted “down” one.
date_and_time (date, time, zone, values)

subroutine date_and_time(date,time,zone,values)
! returns date and
! time information
character(*), optional, intent(out)) :: date
! date in CCYYMMD
! format
character(*), optional, intent(out)) :: time
! time in
! HHMMSS.SSS
! format
character(*), optional, intent(out)) :: zone
! zone in ±HHMM
! format
integer, optional, intent(out)) :: values(:)
! date, time, and
! zone in integer
! form
end subroutine

Returned results are compatible with the representations defined in ISO 8601:1988. CC is
the century, YY the year of the century, MO the month, DD the day of the month, HH the hour
of the day, MM the minutes of the hour, and SS.SSS the seconds/milliseconds. For zone,
the result is the hours and minutes from Coordinated Universal Time. For values,
values(1) is the integer form of CCYY - e.g., the year, values(2) is MO, values(3) is DD,
values (4) is the zone, values(5) is HH (range 0:23), values(6) is MM (range 0:59),
values(7) is the seconds (range 0:60), and values(8) is the milliseconds.

dble (a)

elemental function dble(a) ! converts a to a double precision real
! value
real(DOUBLE) :: dble
! kind value or integer or complex,
real :: a
! of any kind
end function

If a is complex, then dble returns the real part of a in double precision form.

digits (x)

inquiry function digits(x) ! returns the model value of n if x is
! integer, or q if x is real
integer :: digits
integer :: x
! may also be real and/or an array
end function

dim (x, y)

elemental function dim(x,y) ! returns max(0,x-y)
integer :: din ! same type and kind as x (and y)
in integer :: x, y
! may also be real; y must have same type
! and kind as x
end function
dot_product (vector_a, vector_b)

function dot_product(vector_a, vector_b) ! the dot-product
    ! multiplication of numeric or
    ! logical vectors
    real :: dot_product
    ! may also be logical or
    ! integer - see discussion
real :: vector_a(:), vector_b(:)
    ! one-dimensional arrays of
    ! the same size and both
    ! either of type logical or of
    ! any numeric type
end function

If the vectors are size zero, the result value is either zero or false; otherwise, if the vectors
are of type logical the result is type logical with value and kind of
any(vector_a.and.vector_b), if vector_a is of type integer or real the result value and
kind are those of sum(vector_a*vector_b), and else the result value and kind are are
those of sum(conjg(vector_a)*vector_b).

dprod (x, y)
delemental function dprod(x, y) ! returns double-precision product
    ! of two default real values
    real(DOUBLE) :: dprod
    ! where DOUBLE is the double-
    ! precision kind value
real :: x, y
end function
dshiftl (i, j, shift)
delemental function dshiftl(i, j, shift) ! rightmost shift bits of the
    ! result are the same as
    ! leftmost bits of j and
    ! remaining bits of result are
    ! are the same as rightmost
    ! bits of i
integer :: i, j, shift
end function
dshiftr (i, j, shift)
delemental function dshiftr(i, j, shift) ! leftmost shift bits of the
    ! result are the same as
    ! rightmost bits of j and
    ! remaining bits of result are
    ! are the same as leftmost
    ! bits of i
integer :: i, j, shift
end function
eoshift (array, shift, boundary, dim)
function eoshift(array,shift,boundary,dim)  ! end-off shift off
  real :: eoshift(:)  ! same type, kind, and
  real :: array(:)   ! shape as array
  integer :: shift    ! or any type, kind, and
                   ! rank (not scalar)
  integer, optional :: boundary  ! amount to be shifted,
                                ! positive for left
                                ! shifts
  integer, optional :: dim       ! same type and kind as
                                ! array - value for
                                ! vacated positions
                                ! if present, 1≤dim≤n,
                                ! where n is rank of
                                ! array
end function

eoshift is exactly the same as cshift, except that values shifted “off” one end are not
routed into the vacated positions on the other end; the boundary value is placed in the
vacated positions. If boundary is omitted, the default value is 0, 0.0, (0.0,0.0), false, or
blanks, depending on whether array is type integer, real, complex, logical, or character,
respectively. boundary is allowed to be an array of rank n-1, specifying a different fill
value amount for each vacated position.

epsilon (x)
inquiry function epsilon(x)  ! a positive value almost negligible
                           compared to unity
  real :: epsilon  ! same type and kind as x
  real :: x       ! may be any kind; may be an array of any
                   ! rank
end function

erf (x)
elemental function erf(x)  ! the error function
  real :: erf  ! type and kind of x, must be real
  real :: x
end function

erfc (x)
elemental function erfc(x)  ! the complementary error function
  real :: erfc  ! type and kind of x, must be real
  real :: x
end function

erfc_scaled (x)
elemental function erfc_scaled(x)  ! scaled complementary error
                                   ! function
  real :: erfc_scaled
  real :: x
end function
execute_command_line (command, wait, exitstat, cmdstat, cmdmsg)

subroutine execute_command_line (command, wait, exitstat, cmdstat, cmdmsg)
character(len=*) :: command ! command line
logical, optional :: wait ! default logical scalar
integer, optional :: exitstat ! default integer scalar
integer, optional :: cmdstat ! default integer scalar
character(len=*), optional :: cmdmsg ! error message
end subroutine

default execution is synchronous. If wait is present and equal to .false., the command is executed asynchronously. cmdstat returns 0 if the command is successfully initiated and non-zero if it fails. exitstat returns the exit status of the command. cmdmsg returns text string if the command fails to initiate.

exp (x)

elemental function exp(x) ! an approximation to e**x
    real :: exp
    real :: x
end function

exponent (x)

elemental function exponent(x) ! the real model exponent part of x
    integer :: exponent
    real :: x
end function

floor (a)

elemental function floor(a) ! greatest integer less than or equal to a
    integer :: floor
    real :: a
end function

gamma (x)

elemental function gamma(a) ! Gamma function
    real :: gamma
    real :: x
end function

fraction (x)

elemental function fraction(x)! the real model fractional part of x
    real :: fraction
    real :: x
end function

get_command (command, length, status)

subroutine get_command (command, length, status)
character(len=*), optional :: command ! the command line
integer, optional :: length ! default integer kind
integer, optional :: status ! default integer kind
end subroutine

length returns the actual length of the command line. If command is present and len(command) < length, status is set to -1, otherwise it is set to 0.
get_command_argument (number, value, length, status)
subroutine get_command_argument (number, value, length, status)
  integer :: number
    ! default integer kind
  character(len=*)!, optional :: value
    ! command line argument
  integer, optional :: length
    ! default integer kind
  integer, optional :: status
    ! default integer kind
end subroutine

If number is 0, the name of the program is returned in command. length returns the actual length of the command line argument. If value is present and len(value) < length, status is set to -1, if number is greater than the number of command line arguments, status is set to 1, otherwise it is set to 0.

get_environment_variable (name, value, length, status, trim_name)
subroutine get_environment_variable (name, value, length, status, & trim_name)
  character(len=*) name
    ! environment variable name
  character(len=*)!, optional :: value
    ! environment variable value
  integer, optional :: length
    ! default integer kind
  integer, optional :: status
    ! default integer kind
  integer, optional :: trim_name
    ! default logical kind
end subroutine

length returns the actual length of the environment variable. If value is present and len(value) < length, status is set to -1, otherwise it is set to 0. If name does not exist, status is set to 1.

huge (x)
inquiry function huge(x)
  ! the largest value for the type and kind
  ! of x
  real :: huge
    ! same type and kind as x
  real :: x
    ! may be any kind; may be integer; may be
    ! an array
end function

hypot (x, y)
elemental function hypot(x,y)
  ! Euclidean distance
  real :: hypot
    ! same type and kind as x and y
  real :: x, y
    ! real
end function

The result has a value equal to a processor-dependent approximation to sqrt(x**2 + y**2).

iachar (c)
elemental function iachar(c)
  ! same as ichar, except the ASCII
  ! collating sequence (ISO 646:1983)
  integer :: iachar
    ! is used instead of the processor’s
  character :: c
end function
iand (i, j)

```fortran
elemental function iand(i,j)
    integer :: iand      ! same kind as i (and j)
    integer :: i, j     ! any kind, but both must be the same kind
end function
```

The result is the bit-by-corresponding-bit *and* of the arguments; if both argument bits are 1 the corresponding result bit is 1, otherwise the result bit is 0.

ibclr (i, pos)

```fortran
elemental function ibclr(i,pos)
    integer :: ibclr      ! same as i, but with the specified bit set to 0
    integer :: i          ! may be any kind
    integer :: pos        ! position of bit in i to set to zero; 0≤pos<bit_size(i)
end function
```

The result is the same as i but with the specified bit set to zero.

ibits (i, pos, len)

```fortran
elemental function ibits(i,pos,len)
    integer :: ibits      ! same type and kind as i
    integer :: i          ! may be any kind
    integer :: pos        ! position of first bit to extract; pos≥0
    integer :: len        ! number of bits to extract; len≥0 and pos+len < bit_size(i)
end function
```

The result has the sequence of len bits from i, beginning at bit pos; these bits are in the rightmost bit positions of the result, with all other bits zero.

ibset (i, pos)

```fortran
elemental function ibset(i,pos)
    integer :: ibset      ! same as ibclr, except the specified bit is set to 1 instead of 0
    integer :: i
    integer :: pos
end function
```

ichar (c)

```fortran
elemental function ichar(c)
    integer :: ichar      ! position of a character in the processor collating sequence
    character :: c
end function
```

The result is the position of the character in the processor collating sequence.
ieor (i, j)

```fortran
elemental function ieor(i,j)
  ! perform logical exclusive-or on bits of
  ! i and j
  integer :: ieor
  ! same kind as i (and j)
  integer :: i, j
  ! any kind, but both must be the same kind
end function
```

The result is the bit-by-corresponding-bit exclusive-or of the arguments; if one of the argument bits is 1 and the other is 0, the corresponding result bit is 1, otherwise the result bit is 0.

index (string, substring, back, kind)

```fortran
elemental function index(string,substring,back,kind)
  ! search string for a substring
  integer :: index
  ! beginning position of substring (or zero)
  character(*) :: string
  ! may be any kind
  character(*) :: substring
  ! same kind as string
  logical, optional :: back
  ! if present and true, search is
  ! from back of string
  integer,optional :: kind
  ! if present, the kind of the result
end function
```

If `back` is absent or present with the value false, the result is the minimum positive value of `i` such that `string(i:i+len(substring)-1) == substring` or zero if there is no such value; if `back` is present with the value true, the result is the maximum value of `i` less than or equal to `len(string)-len(substring)+1` such that `string(i:i+len(substring)+1) == substring` or zero if there is no such value. Zero is returned if `len(string)<len(substring)` and one is returned if `len(substring)==0`.

int (a, kind)

```fortran
elemental function int(a,kind)
  ! convert a to an integer value (of
  ! specified kind)
  integer(kind) :: int
  ! the converted integer value
  real :: a
  ! may be any numeric type
  integer, optional :: kind
  ! if present, must be a scalar
  ! initialization expression. if kind
  ! is absent, the result kind is
  ! default integer
end function
```

If `a` is of type integer, the result is this same value, but possibly of a different kind. If `a` is of type real, the real value is truncated toward zero (e.g., `int(3.7)` is 3 and `int(-3.7)` is -3). If `a` is of type complex, the result is `int(real(a))`.

ior (i, j)

```fortran
elemental function ior(i,j)
  ! perform logical inclusive-or on bits of
  ! i and j
  integer :: ior
  ! same kind as i (and j)
  integer :: i, j
  ! any kind, but both must be the same kind
end function
```

The result is the bit-by-corresponding-bit inclusive-or of the arguments; if either one, or both, of the argument bits is 1, the corresponding result bit is 1, otherwise the result bit is 0.
ishft (i, shift)
  elemental function ishift(i,shift) ! logically end-off shift the
    integer :: i ! bits of i the amount shift
    integer :: shift ! may be any kind
  ! amount to shift the bit
  ! pattern of i; shift must
  ! have a magnitude less than
  ! or equal to bit_size(i)
end function

The result is the value obtained by shifting the bits of i by shift positions. If shift is
positive, the shift is to the left. Bits shifted out are lost; zeros are shifted in at the opposite
end.

ishftc (i, shift, size)
  elemental function ishift(i,shift, size) ! same as ishift, but the
    integer :: i ! shift is circular
    integer :: shift ! rather than end-off
    ! may be any kind
  ! amount to shift the
  ! bit pattern of i;
  ! shift ≤ size
  integer, optional :: size ! 0 ≤ size < bit_size(i)
end function

The result has the value obtained by shifting the bits of i by shift positions. If shift is
positive, the shift is to the left. Bits shifted out are shifted into at vacated positions at the
opposite end.

is_iotstat_end (i)
  logical function is_iotstat_end(i) ! returns .true. if i equals
    integer :: i ! the value returned in an
    ! IOSTAT specifier for end of
    ! file
end function

is_iotstat_eor (i)
  logical function is_iotstat_eor(i) ! returns .true. if i equals
    integer :: i ! the value returned in an
    ! IOSTAT specifier for end of
    ! of record
end function

kind (x)
  inquiry function kind(x) ! the kind type parameter value of any
    integer :: kind ! object
    real :: x ! the kind value of x
    ! may be any intrinsic type and any kind;
    ! may be an array
end function
leadz (i)

  elemental function leadz (i)  ! number of leading zero bits
      integer :: leadz             ! default integer kind
      integer :: i                 ! integer
  end function

lbound (array, dim)

  inquiry function lbound(array,dim)  ! the lower bound(s) of array
      integer :: lbound           ! scalar if dim is present; a rank
                                      ! one array otherwise
      real :: array(:)           ! may have any type, kind, and
                                      ! rank
      integer, optional :: dim    ! if present, 1 ≤ dim ≤ n, where n
                                      ! is the rank of array
  end function

If dim is present the result is a scalar and is the lower bound of array along the
dimension dim. If dim is absent the result is a one-dimensional array whose size is the
rank of array, and the value of each element of the result is the lower bound of that
dimension of array. If array is an array expression other than an array name (e.g., an
array section), the lower bound for each dimension is 1.

len (string)

  inquiry function len(string)  ! the length (numbers of characters)
                                 ! of a string
      integer :: len             ! the length of string
      character(*) :: string    ! may be any kind; may be an array
  end function

len_trim (string)

  elemental function len_trim(string)  ! same as len(trim(string))
      integer :: len_trim        ! the length of string with all
                                  ! trailing blanks removed
      character(*) :: string
  end function

lge (string_a, string_b)

  elemental function lge(string_a,string_b)  ! string comparison, based
      logical :: lge             ! on ASCII
                                 ! true if string_a >=
                                 ! string_b in the ASCII
                                 ! collating sequence,
                                 ! false otherwise
      character(*) :: string_a, string_b
  end function

lgt (string_a, string_b)

  elemental function lgt(string_a,string_b)  ! string comparison, based
      logical :: lgt             ! on ASCII
                                 ! true if string_a >
                                 ! string_b in the ASCII
                                 ! collating sequence,
                                 ! false otherwise
      character(*) :: string_a, string_b
  end function
**Intrinsic Procedures**

```fortran
lle (string_a, string_b)
   elemental function lle(string_a,string_b) ! string comparison, based
   logical :: lle
   character(*) :: string_a, string_b
end function

llt (string_a, string_b)
   elemental function llt(string_a,string_b) ! string comparison, based
   logical :: llt
   character(*) :: string_a, string_b
end function

log (x)
   elemental function log(x) ! the natural logarithm, log_ex
   real :: log ! same type and kind as x
   real :: x ! may be complex; if real, x > 0
end function

log10 (x)
   elemental function log10(x) ! base-10 logarithm, log_10x
   real :: log10 ! same kind as x
   real :: x ! x > 0
end function

log_gamma (x)
   elemental function log_gamma (x) ! Logarithm of the absolute value of
   real :: log Gamma ! the gamma function
   real :: x ! may be complex; if real, x > 0
end function

logical (l, kind)
   elemental function logical(l,kind) ! convert between logical kinds
   logical(kind) :: logical
   logical :: l
   integer, optional :: kind
end function

maskl (i, kind)
   elemental function integer(i,kind) ! left justified mask
   integer(kind) :: maskl ! non-negative
   integer :: i
   integer, optional :: kind ! if present, kind of result
end function
```

The result has its leftmost i bits set to 1 and the remaining bits set to 0.
maskr (i, kind)

elemental function integer(i,kind) ! right justified mask
  integer(kind) :: maskl
  integer :: i
  integer, optional :: kind
end function

The result has its rightmost i bits set to 1 and the remaining bits set to 0.

matmul (matrix_a, matrix_b)

function matmul(matrix_a,matrix_b)
  ! matrix multiplication of two numeric or logical matrices
  real :: matmul(:,:)
  ! type and kind determined by the arguments - see below
  real :: matrix_a(:,:), matrix_b(:,:)
  ! may be any kind; may be integer, complex or logical;
  ! one of the argument matrices (but not both) may be rank
  ! one
end function

The two arguments must be both of type logical or of numeric (integer, real, complex) type. The size of the first (or only) dimension of matrix_b must equal the size of the last (or only) dimension of matrix_a. There are three cases: (1) matrix_a has shape (n,k) and matrix_b has shape (k,m), in which case the result has shape (n,m); (2) matrix_a has shape (k) and matrix_b has shape (k,m), in which case the result has shape (m); (3) matrix_a has shape (n,k) and matrix_b has shape (k), in which case the result has shape (n). For case (1) the (i,j) element of the result has the value and kind of sum(matrix_a(i,:)*matrix_b(:,j)) if the arguments are of numeric type and any(matrix_a(i,:).and.matrix_b(:,j)) otherwise. For case (2) the (i) element of the result has the value and kind of sum(matrix_a(:)*matrix_b(:,i)) if the arguments are of numeric type and any(matrix_a(:).and.matrix_b(:,j)) otherwise, and for case (3) the (i) element of the result has the value and kind of sum(matrix_a(i,:)*matrix_b(:)) if the arguments are of numeric type and any(matrix_a(i,:).and.matrix_b(:)) otherwise.

max (a1, a2, a3, ...)

elemental function max(a1,a2,a3,...) ! return the maximum of the argument values
  real :: max
  real :: a1, a2
  real, optional :: a3, ...
end function

maxexponent (x)

inquiry function maxexponent(x) ! maximum model exponent that this kind of real can have
  integer :: maxexponent
  real :: x
end function
maxloc (array, dim, mask)

function maxloc(array,dim,mask)
    ! location in array of element with the maximum value
    integer :: maxloc(:)
    ! result element values are the subscripts of the location
    real :: array(:)
    ! any kind, any rank; can be type integer
    integer, optional :: dim
    ! dimension along which to determine maximum location
    logical, optional :: mask(size(array))
    ! must be same shape as array
end function

The result is scalar if dim is omitted or array has rank 1 (as illustrated in the interface), in which case the value returned is the location of the maximum element value in array. If array has rank n greater than 1 and dim is present, 1\leq dim\leq n and dim specifies the dimension along which to determine the maximum values; in this case the result is an array of rank n-1 and shape (d1,d2,...,ddim-1, ddim+1,...,dn) where (d1,d2,...,dn) is the shape of array and each value of the result is the location of the maximum value along the dim dimension of array. If mask is present only those elements of array corresponding to the true values in mask are searched for the maximum value.

maxval (array, dim, mask)

function maxval(array,dim,mask)
    ! the maximum value in array, or along one of its dimensions
    real :: maxval
    ! same kind and type as array
    real :: array(:)
    ! any kind, any rank; can be type integer
    integer, optional :: dim
    ! dimension along which to determine maximum values
    logical, optional :: mask(size(array))
    ! must be same shape as array
end function

The result is scalar if dim is omitted or array has rank 1 (as illustrated in the interface), in which case the value returned is the maximum element value in array. If array has rank n greater than 1 and dim is present, 1\leq dim\leq n and dim specifies the dimension along which to determine the maximum values; in this case the result is an array of rank n-1 and shape (d1,d2,...,ddim-1, ddim+1,...,dn) where (d1,d2,...,dn) is the shape of array and each value of the result is the maximum value along the dim dimension of array. If mask is present only those elements of array corresponding to the true values in mask are searched for the maximum value.
merge (tsource, fsource, mask)
   elemental function merge(tsource,fsource,mask) ! select one of two
   ! arguments, based on a
   ! mask
   real :: merge ! same type and kind as
   ! tsource
   real :: tsource ! may be of any type
   ! and kind
   real :: fsource ! same type and kind as
   ! tsource
   logical :: mask ! return tsource if
   ! mask is true,
   ! fsource if mask is
   ! false
end function

merge is an elemental function and is most often used to merge two arrays, based on the
(conformable) mask.

merge_bits (i, j, mask)
   elemental function merge_bits(i,j,mask) ! merge bits under mask
   integer :: merge_bits
   integer :: i ! integer or boz
   integer :: j ! integer or boz
   integer :: mask ! integer or boz
end function

min (a1, a2, a3, ...)
   elemental function min(a1,a2,a3,...) ! return the minimum of the
   ! argument values
   real :: min ! same type and kind as the
   ! arguments
   real :: a1, a2 ! may be integer,
   real, optional :: a3, ... ! but all arguments must have
   ! the same type and kind
end function

minexponent (x)
   inquiry function minexponent(x) ! minimum model exponent that this
   ! kind of real can have
   integer :: minexponent
   real :: x ! may be any kind; may be an array
end function

minloc (array, dim, mask)
   function minloc(array,dim, mask) ! same as maxloc,
   ! but with minimum value rather than
   ! maximum value
   integer :: minloc(:)
   real :: array(:) ! may be integer,
   integer, optional :: dim ! may be array
   logical, optional :: mask(size(array))
end function

minval (array, dim, mask)
   function minval(array,dim,mask) ! same as maxval,
   ! but with minimum value rather than
   ! maximum value
   real :: minval
   real :: array(:)
   integer, optional :: dim
logical, optional :: mask(size(array))
end function

mod (a, p)
elemental function mod(a,p) ! the remainder function (has sign of a)
  integer :: mod
  ! same type and kind as a; value is
  ! a-int(a/p)*p
  integer :: a
  ! any kind; may be real
  integer :: p
  ! same type and kind as a; the value of
  ! p must not be zero
end function

modulo (a, p)
elemental function modulo(a,p) ! the modulo function (has sign of p)
  integer :: modulo
  ! same type and kind as a; value is
  ! a-floor(a/p)*p
  integer :: a
  ! any kind; may be real
  integer :: p
  ! same type and kind as a; the value
  ! of p must not be zero
end function

move_alloc (from, to)
pure subroutine move_alloc(from,to) ! move an allocation
  any, allocatable() :: from ! any kind
  any, allocatable() :: to ! any kind
end function

from may be any kind and rank, but must be allocatable. to must be the same kind and
rank and must be allocatable.

mvbits (from, frompos, len, to, topos)
elemental subroutine mvbits(from,frompos,len,to,topos) ! move bits
  integer, intent(in) :: from ! from from to to
  ! may be any kind
  integer, intent(in) :: frompos ! 0 £ frompos < bit_size(from)
  integer, intent(in) :: len ! 0 £ len
  integer, intent(inout) :: to ! same kind as from (and may be the
  ! same object)
  integer, intent(in) :: topos ! 0 £ topos; (topos+len) <
  ! bitsize(to)
end subroutine

Copies len bits from object from, starting at bit position frompos in from, to object to,
starting at bit position topos in to.

nearest (x, s)
elemental function nearest(x,s) ! the nearest value in the specified
  ! direction
  real :: nearest ! same kind as x; value is that
  ! nearest x, but not x
  real :: x ! may be any kind
  real :: s ! must not be zero; s > 0 means
  ! nearest > x
  ! s < 0 means nearest < x
function new_line (a)
    character(len=1) new_line
    character :: a
end function

This function returns char(10).

nint (a, kind)

elemental function nint(a,kind)
    integer(kind) :: nint
    real :: a
    integer, optional :: kind
end function

not (i)

elemental function not(i)
    integer :: not
    integer :: i
end function

null (mold)

function null(mold)
    any :: null
    any :: mold
end function

mold is a pointer of any type. Its association status can be undefined, disassociated, or associated. If its status is associated, the target does not have to be defined. If mold is present the result type is the same as mold; otherwise the result type is determined by the context.

pack (array, mask, vector)

function pack(array,mask,vector)
    real :: pack(:)
    real :: array(:)
    logical :: mask(size(array))
    real, optional :: vector(:)
end function

If vector is present the size of pack is the size of vector; otherwise the size of pack is count(mask). The elements of array that correspond to true values in mask are placed in pack, starting with the first element of pack and in array element order from array.

popcnt (i)

integer function popcnt(i)
    integer :: popcnt
    integer :: i
end function
Intrinsic Procedures

poppar (i)
integer function poppar (i)
  integer :: poppar
  integer :: i
end function

precision (x)
inquiry function precision(x)
  integer :: precision
  real :: x
end function

present (a)
inquiry function present(a)
  logical :: present
  real :: a
end function

product (array, dim, mask)
function product(array,dim,mask)
  real :: product
  real :: array(:)
  integer, optional :: dim
  logical, optional :: mask
end function

The result is scalar if dim is omitted or array has rank 1, in which case the value returned is the product of the elements of array. If array has rank n greater than 1 and dim is present, dim specifies the dimension along which to compute the products; in this case the result is an array of rank n-1 and shape (d1,d2,...,ddim-1, ddim+1,...,dn) where (d1,d2,...,dn) is the shape of array and each value of the result is the product of the elements along the dim dimension of array. If mask is present only those elements of array corresponding to the true values in mask are used in computing the product(s).

radix (x)
inquiry function radix(x)
  integer :: radix
  real :: x
end function

random_number (harvest)
subroutine random_number(harvest)
  real, intent(out) :: harvest
end subroutine
If `harvest` is a scalar, a single pseudorandom number from the uniform distribution between 0 and 1 is generated and assigned to `harvest`; if `harvest` is an array, `size(harvest)` such numbers are generated and assigned to `harvest`.

```fortran
random_seed (size, put, get)
subroutine random_seed(size,put,get) ! set or retrieve the
  integer, optional, intent(out) :: size ! random_number seed
  integer, optional, intent(in) :: put(:) ! number of integers (n)
  integer, optional, intent(out) :: get(:) ! used for the value of the
  ! seed
  integer, optional, intent(in) :: put(:) ! size(put) must be equal
  ! to n; set the seed to put
  integer, optional, intent(out) :: get(:) ! size(get) must be equal
  ! to n; retrieve the seed
  ! into get
end subroutine
```

If a call to `random_seed` is made without any arguments, the seed is set to an implementation determined value. When the argument is `put`, the seed is reinitialized to this value; when the argument is `get`, the current value of the seed is retrieved.

```fortran
range (x)
inquiry function range(x) ! decimal exponent range for x
  integer :: range ! value is int(log10(huge(x))) - but see
  ! comment below
  real :: x ! may be any kind, any numeric type; may be
  ! an array
end function
```

If `x` is of type integer, `huge(x)` returns an integer, which is not legal for `log10`; the effect for `range` is, however, as if the equivalent real value had been returned for `huge`. If `x` is of type real the value actually returned by `range` is \( \min(int(log10(huge(x))), -int(log10(tiny(x)))) \).

```fortran
real (a, kind)
elemental function real(a,kind) ! convert a to the equivalent real
  real(kind) :: real ! value of specified kind
  real :: a ! the converted real value
  integer, optional :: kind ! may be any kind and any numeric
  ! type
  ! if present, must be a scalar
  ! initialization expression
end function
```

If `a` is of type real, the result is this same value, but possibly of a different kind. If `a` is an integer, the equivalent real value is returned. If `a` is complex, the result is the real part of `a`. 
repeat (string, ncopies)
function repeat(string,ncopies)
  ! concatenate several copies of a string
  character(len(string)*ncopies) :: repeat
  ! concatenated ; same kind as string
  character(*) :: string
  integer :: ncopies
end function

reshape (source, shape, pad, order)
function reshape(source,shape,pad,order)
  ! reshape source into the array shape specified
  ! shape
  real :: reshape(:)
  ! same type and kind as source, with shape shape
  real :: source(:)
  ! may be any type, kind, and rank
  integer :: shape(:)
  ! all element values must be positive
  real, optional :: pad(:)
  ! same type and kind as source, may be any rank
  integer, optional :: order(size(shape))
  ! a permutation of (1, 2, 3, ..., size(shape))
end function

values are copied from source (and then, if needed, from pad) to reshape, in array element order. if size(source) > product(shape), the extra values of source are ignored. if size(source) < product(shape), pad must be supplied, with size(pad) ≥ product(shape)-size(source). if order is present it specifies the array element order of the reshape subscripts.

rrspacing (x)
elemental function rrspacing(x)
  ! reciprocal of the relative spacing of values near x
  real :: rrspacing
  ! value is x/(nearest(x,1.)-x) for x > 0
  real :: x
end function

scale (x, i)
elemental function scale(x,i)
  ! scales x by a specified amount
  real :: scale
  ! same kind as x; value is x*radix(x)**i
  real :: x
  integer :: i
end function
scan (string, set, back)

    elemental function scan(string, set, back) ! search string for an
    ! occurrence of any
    ! character in set
    ! value is first such
    ! position in string
    ! may be any kind
    ! same kind as string
    ! if present and true,
    ! search is from back of
    ! string instead
    ! if no match, zero is
    ! returned

    integer :: scan
    character(*) :: string
    character(*) :: set
    logical, optional :: back

end function

selected_char_kind (name)

    function selected_int_kind(name) ! select a character kind
        integer :: selected_char_kind
        character :: name
    end function

If name has the value DEFAULT, then the result has a value equal to that of the kind type parameter of default character. If name has the value ASCII, then the result has a value equal to that of the kind type parameter of ASCII character; otherwise the result has the value -1.

selected_int_kind (r)

    function selected_int_kind(r) ! determines kind value for specified
    ! integer range
    ! the kind value, or -1 if there is no
    ! such integer type
    ! specifies an integer range of at
    ! least -10**r to +10**r

        integer :: selected_int_kind
        integer :: r

    end function

If more than one integer type meets the criteria, the kind value for the one with the smallest decimal exponent range is returned or, if there are several such, the smallest of these kind values.
selected_real_kind (p, r)
  function selected_real_kind(p,r)
    ! determines kind value for real
    ! type with specified properties
    integer :: selected_real_kind
      ! the kind value, or a negative
      ! value if there is no such real
      ! type
    integer, optional :: p
      ! specifies a real type with at
      ! least p decimal digits of
      ! precision
    integer, optional :: r
      ! specifies an exponent range of at
      ! least $10^{-r}$ to $10^{r}$
  end function
  ! at least one argument must be
  ! present

The result is the kind type parameter of a real data type with decimal precision, as
returned by the precision function, of at least p digits and a decimal exponent range, as
returned by the range function, of at least r; if no such type is available on the processor,
the result is –1 if the precision is not available, –2 if the exponent range is not available,
and –3 if neither is available. If more than one real type meets the criteria, the kind value
for the one with the smallest decimal precision is returned or, if there are several such, the
smallest of these kind values.

set_exponent (x, i)
  elemental function set_exponent(x,i)
    ! a value with the fractional
    ! part of x and exponent i
    real :: set_exponent
      ! same kind as x; value is
      ! $x \times \text{radix}(x)^{(i - \text{exponent}(x))}$
    real :: x
      ! may be any kind
    integer :: i
      ! i may be positive, negative, ! or zero
  end function

shape (source)
  inquiry function shape(source)
    ! determine the shape of an array
    integer :: shape(:)
      ! element values are the extents of
      ! source
    real :: source(:)
      ! may be any type, kind, and rank; may
      ! be scalar
  end function

The value of the kth element of shape is the size of the kth dimension of source.
size(shape) is n, where n is the rank of source; if source is a scalar, n is zero. source
must not be a disassociated pointer array, an unallocated allocatable array, or an assumed-size array.

shiftl (i, shift)
  elemental function shiftl(i,shift)
    ! logically end-off left shift
    ! the bits of i the amount
    ! shift
    integer :: i
      ! integer
    integer :: shift
      ! amount to shift the bit
      ! pattern of i; shift must
      ! have a magnitude less than
      ! or equal to bit_size(i)
  end function
shifta (i, shift)
  elemental function shifta(i,shift)
  ! logically end-off right
  ! shift the bits of i the
  ! amount shift with fill
  integer :: i
  integer :: shift
  ! amount to shift the bit
  ! pattern of i; shift must
  ! have a magnitude less than
  ! or equal to bit_size(i)

end function

The leftmost bit of i is replicated shift times.

shiftr (i, shift)
  elemental function shiftr(i,shift)
  ! logically end-off right
  ! shift the bits of i the
  ! amount shift
  integer :: i
  integer :: shift
  ! amount to shift the bit
  ! pattern of i; shift must
  ! have a magnitude less than
  ! or equal to bit_size(i)

end function

sign (a, b)
  elemental function sign(a,b)
  ! set the sign of a value
  ! value is |a| if b ≥ 0, -|a| if b < 0;
  ! type and kind of a
  real :: sign
  ! may be any kind; may be integer
  real :: a
  real :: b
  ! same type and kind as a
end function

sin (x)
  elemental function sin(x)
  ! the sine of x
  ! may be complex
  real :: sin
  real :: x
end function

If x is of type real, it is regarded as a value in radians; if x is of type complex, its real part is regarded as a value in radians.

sinh (x)
  elemental function sinh(x)
  ! the hyperbolic sine of x;
  ! may be complex
  real :: sinh
  real :: x
end function

size (array, dim)
  inquiry function size(array,dim)
  ! determine number of elements in (a
  ! dimension of) an array
  integer :: size
  ! value is product(shape(array)) if
  ! dim is absent
  real :: array(:)
  ! may be any type, kind, and rank
  integer, optional :: dim
  ! if present, 1 ≤ dim ≤ n, where n
  ! is the rank of array, and
  ! the returned value is the extent
  ! of the dim dimension
end function

spacing (x)
elemental function spacing(x)
  ! absolute spacing near x
  real :: spacing
  ! value is nearest(x,1.)-x for x > 0
  real :: x
end function

spread (source, dim, ncopies)
function spread(source,dim,ncopies)
  ! makes ncopies of source along a new dimension
  real :: spread(:,:)
  ! same type and kind as source;
  ! rank 1 greater than source
  real :: source(:)
  ! may be any type, kind, and rank; may be scalar
  integer :: dim
  ! 1 ≤ dim ≤ n+1, where n is the rank of source
  integer :: ncopies
  ! number of copies to spread is max(0,ncopies)
end function

spread broadcasts several copies of source along a specified dimension (as in forming a book from copies of a single page) and thus forms an array of rank one greater than source. If source is a scalar then spread is an array of rank one and size max(0,ncopies) and all element have the value of source. If source is an array with shape (d1,d2,...,dn), spread has shape (d1,d2,...,ddim-1, max(0,ncopies),ddim,ddim+1,...,dn).

sqrt (x)
function sqrt(x)
  ! the square root of x
  real :: sqrt
  ! same type and kind as x; value is
  real :: x
  ! may be complex
end function

If x is complex, the real part of the result is nonnegative; if the real part is zero, the imaginary part is nonnegative.

sum (array, dim, mask)
function sum(array,dim,mask)
  ! sum of the elements of array
  real :: sum
  ! same type and kind as array
  real :: array(:)
  ! may be any kind, any numeric type,
  ! and any rank
  integer, optional :: dim
  ! if present, 1 ≤ dim ≤ n, where n is
  ! rank of array
  logical, optional :: mask
  ! if present, mask must have same shape
  ! as array
end function

The result is scalar if dim is omitted or array has rank 1, in which case the value returned is the sum of the elements of array. If array has rank n greater than 1 and dim is present, 1≤dim≤n and dim specifies the dimension along which to compute the sums; in this case the result is an array of rank n-1 and shape (d1,d2,...,ddim-1, ddim+1,...,dn) where (d1,d2,...,dn) is the shape of array and each value of the result is the sum of the elements along the dim dimension of array. If mask is present only those elements of array corresponding to the true values in mask are used in computing the sum(s).
system_clock (count, count_rate, count_max)

subroutine system_clock(count, count_rate, count_max)
  ! integer data
  ! from a real-time
  ! clock

  integer, intent(out), optional :: count ! 0 ≤ count ≤ count_max
  integer, intent(out), optional :: count_rate ! clock counts per
  ! second
  integer, intent(out), optional :: count_max ! the maximum count can
  ! have

end subroutine

All values are processor dependent; count_rate indicates how many times count is
incremented each second; when it reaches count_max, it resets to zero. If there is no
processor clock count always returns -huge(0), count_rate returns zero, and count_max
returns zero.

tan (x)

elemental function tan(x) ! the tangent of x
  real :: tan
  real :: x ! value is assumed to be radians, may be
  ! complex
end function

tanh (x)

elemental function tanh(x) ! the hyperbolic tangent of x
  real :: tanh ! may be complex
  real :: x
end function

tiny (x)

inquiry function tiny(x) ! the smallest positive value for the type
  ! and kind of x
  real :: tiny ! same kind as x
  real :: x ! may be any kind; may be an array
end function

trailz (i)

elemental function trailz (i) ! number of trailing zero bits
  integer :: trailz ! default integer kind
  integer :: i ! integer
end function

transfer (source, mold, size)

function transfer(source, mold, size)
  ! same bit pattern, but different
  ! type/kind

  real :: transfer ! bit pattern of source;
  ! type/kind of mold; may be an
  ! array

  real :: source ! may be any type and kind; may
  ! be scalar or array

  real :: mold ! may be any type and kind; may
  ! be scalar or array

  integer, optional :: size ! specifies the shape of the
  ! result; the value must be
  ! positive

end function
If `mold` is scalar and `size` is absent the result is scalar. If `mold` is an array and `size` is absent the result is a rank 1 array; its size is the smallest possible to hold all of the bits of `source`. If `size` is present, the result is a rank 1 array of this size; if this makes transfer longer than source, the extra part of transfer is undefined and if it makes transfer shorter than source the extra bits of source are not transferred.

```fortran
transpose (matrix)
  function transpose(matrix)
    real :: transpose(size(matrix,2),size(matrix,1))
    ! element (i,j) is matrix(j,i)
    real :: matrix(:,:)
    ! may be any type and kind
  end function

trim (string)
  function trim(string)
    ! removes trailing blanks from a string
    character(*) :: trim
    ! same as string, except all trailing blanks removed
    character(*) :: string
    ! may be any kind
  end function

ubound (array, dim)
  inquiry function ubound(array,dim)
    integer :: ubound
    ! scalar if dim is present; a rank one array otherwise
    real :: array(:)
    ! may have any type, kind, and rank
    integer, optional :: dim
    ! if present, 1 \leq \text{dim} \leq n, where \ n \text{ is the rank of array}
  end function
```

If `dim` is present the result is a scalar and is the upper bound of `array` along the dimension `dim`. If `dim` is absent the result is a one-dimensional array whose size is the rank of `array`, and the value of each element of the result is the upper bound of that dimension of `array`. If `array` is an array expression other than an array name (e.g., an array section), the upper bound value is based on the lower bound value being 1.

```fortran
unpack (vector, mask, field)
  function unpack(vector,mask,field)
    real :: unpack(:)
    ! same type and kind as vector; same shape as mask
    real :: vector(:)
    ! may be any type and kind
    logical :: mask(:)
    ! may be any rank
    real :: field(size(mask))
    ! same type and kind as vector; same shape as mask
    ! field may be a scalar, in which case it is broadcast
  end function
```

The element of the result that corresponds to the kth true element of `mask`, in array element order, is `vector(k)`, for all the true values in `mask`. Each other element of the result is the value of the corresponding element of `field`. 
verify (string, set, back)
  elemental function verify (string, set, back)

    integer :: verify

    character(*) :: string
    character(*) :: set
    logical, optional :: back

end function

! check that set contains all the characters in string
! value is first position in string that is not a set character
! may be any kind
! same kind as string
! if present and true, check is from back of string instead
! if all characters in string are in set, zero is returned
ASCII codes 0 through 31 are control codes that may or may not have meaning on Linux. They are listed for historical reasons and may aid when porting code from other systems. Codes 128 through 255 are extensions to the 7-bit ASCII standard and the symbol displayed depends on the font being used; the symbols shown below are from the Times New Roman font. The Dec, Oct, and Hex columns refer to the decimal, octal, and hexadecimal numerical representations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Character</th>
<th>Dec</th>
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<th>Hex</th>
<th>Description</th>
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Appendix A

ASCII Table
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Fortran Language Reference Manual
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Appendix B

Exceptions and IEEE Arithmetic

Three modules are provided to support floating-point exceptions and IEEE arithmetic: `IEEE_FEATURES`, `IEEE_ARITHMETIC`, and `IEEE_EXCEPTIONS`. Use of these modules and the procedures in them ensure portability of programs exploiting features of IEEE arithmetic across platforms. The module `IEEE_ARITHMETIC` contains a USE statement for `IEEE_EXCEPTIONS`. Any procedure that uses `IEEE_ARITHMETIC` will have access to the public features of `IEEE_EXCEPTIONS`.

IEEE_FEATURES

This module defines the derived type `IEEE_FEATURES_TYPE` whose components are all private. Its purpose is to express the need for particular IEEE features.

IEEE_FEATURES_TYPE

The only possible values are the following constants:

- **IEEE_DATATYPE**: IEEE data types are available
- **IEEE_DENORMAL**: IEEE denormalized values are supported
- **IEEE_DIVIDE**: IEEE division to the required precision is supported
- **IEEE_HALTING**: control of halting is supported
- **IEEE_INEXACT_FLAG**: inexact exceptions are supported.
- **IEEE_INF**: IEEE infinities (positive and negative) are supported
- **IEEE_INVALID_FLAG**: invalid exceptions are supported
- **IEEE_NAN**: IEEE NaN (Not a Number) values are supported
- **IEEE_ROUNDING**: all IEEE rounding modes are supported
- **IEEE_SQRT**: SQRT is supported to the IEEE standard
- **IEEE_UNDERFLOW_FLAG**: underflow exceptions supported
IEEE_ARITHMETIC

This module defines the two derived types IEEE_CLASS_TYPE and IEEE_ROUND_TYPE whose components are all private. The purpose of IEEE_CLASS_TYPE is to identify the class of a value. The purpose of IEEE_ROUND_TYPE is to specify or inquire the rounding mode. This module also defines two elemental operators for each of these types: == and /=. The == operator returns true if two values of these types are equal and false if they are not. The /= operator returns true if two values of these types are not equal and false if they are equal.

The IEEE_ARITHMETIC module further provides a number of subroutines and functions for inquiry, performing operations, and setting the IEEE rounding environment.

IEEE_CLASS_TYPE

The only possible values are the following constants:

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IEEE_ROUND_TYPE

The only possible values are the following constants:

IEEE_NEAREST
IEEE_TO_ZERO
IEEE_UP
IEEE_DOWN

Subroutines and Functions

The IEEE_ARITHMETIC module provides the following inquiry functions:

logical function IEEE_SUPPORT_DATATYPE(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if the data type of the argument is supported in
conformance with section 14.8 of the Fortran 2003 Draft Standard.

logical function IEEE_SUPPORT_DENORMAL(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if denormalized numbers are supported for the data type
of the argument.

logical function IEEE_SUPPORT_DIVIDE(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if division to the accuracy specified by the IEEE
standard is supported for the data type of the argument.

logical function IEEE_SUPPORT_INF(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if infinities numbers are supported for the data type of
the argument.

logical function IEEE_SUPPORT_IO(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if IEEE rounding is supported during formatted input
and output conversions for the data type of the argument.
logical function {IEEE_SUPPORT_NAN(x)}
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

    returns the value .TRUE. if NaN (Not a Number) values are supported for the data type of the argument.

logical function {IEEE_SUPPORT_ROUNDING}(round_value, x)
type(IEEE_ROUND_TYPE), intent(in) :: round_value
real(kind=SP), intent(in), optional :: x

    returns the value .TRUE. if the specified rounding type is supported for the data type of the argument.

logical function {IEEE_SUPPORT_SQRT}(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

    returns the value .TRUE. if SQRT to the accuracy specified by the IEEE standard is supported for the data type of the argument.

logical function {IEEE_SUPPORT_STANDARD}(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

    returns the value .TRUE. if all capabilities and facilities specified by the IEEE standard are supported for the data type of the argument.

logical function {IEEE_SUPPORT_UNDERFLOW}(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in), optional :: x

    returns the value .TRUE. if control of underflow mode is supported for the data type of the argument. Control of underflow mode allows specifying gradual or abrupt underflow. On some processors, chopped underflow can produce code that executes faster.

The {IEEE_ARITHMETIC} module provides the following {elemental} functions for data values that {IEEE_SUPPORT_DATATYPE(x)} returns .TRUE.:

elemental type(IEEE_CLASS_TYPE) function {IEEE_CLASS}(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

    returns the class of the input argument x.
elemental real function IEEE_COPY_SIGN(x, y)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x, y

returns a result that has the value of x and the sign of y, even when x is a special value such as NaN or infinity.

elemental logical function IEEE_IS_FINITE(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if the value of x is finite. That is its class is one of:

- IEEE_NEGATIVE_NORMAL
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_DENORMAL
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_ZERO

elemental logical function IEEE_IS_NAN(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if the value of x is a NaN.

elemental logical function IEEE_IS_NORMAL(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if the value of x is normal. That is its class is one of:

- IEEE_NEGATIVE_NORMAL
- IEEE_POSITIVE_NORMAL
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_ZERO
- IEEE_POSITIVE_ZERO

elemental logical function IEEE_IS_NEGATIVE(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

returns the value .TRUE. if the value of x is negative. That is its class is one of:

- IEEE_NEGATIVE_NORMAL
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_DENORMAL
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_ZERO
- IEEE_NEGATIVE_INFINITY

elemental real function IEEE_LOGB(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x

returns the unbiased exponent of x as a floating-point value. If x is 0.0, -infinity is returned and IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO is signaled.

elemental real function IEEE_NEXT_AFTER(x, y)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x, y

returns the neighbor of x in the direction of y. The kind of the result is the same as x. If x is 0.0, the result is the smallest denormalized number.
elemental real function IEEE_REM(x, y)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x, y
returns the exact remainder of $x/y$. The function is defined as $x - y \times n$ where $n$ is the nearest integer to $x/y$. If $|n - x/y| = \frac{1}{2}$, $n$ is even. The kind of the result is the same as $x$.

elemental real function IEEE_RINT(x)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x
returns the rounded to integer value of $x$. $x$ is rounded according to the current rounding mode.

elemental real function IEEE_SCALB(x, i)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x
integer (kind=4), intent(in) :: i
returns the floating-point value of $x \times 2^{i}$. The kind of the result is the same as $x$.

elemental logical function IEEE_UNORDERED(x, y)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x, y
returns if either $x$ or $y$ is a NaN.

elemental real function IEEE_VALUE(x, class)
real(kind=any), intent(in) :: x
type(IEEE_CLASS_TYPE), intent(in) :: class
returns a value of the specified IEEE_CLASS_TYPE.

The IEEE_ARITHMETIC module provides the following non-elemental subroutines:

subroutine IEEE_GET_ROUNDING_MODE(round_value)
type(IEEE_ROUND_TYPE), intent(out) :: round_value
the current rounding mode is returned in the round_value variable.

subroutine IEEE_GET_UNDERFLOW_MODE(gradient)
logical(kind=4), intent(out) :: gradient
the current underflow mode (gradual/abrupt) is returned in the gradient variable. If the mode is gradual, the value of gradient will be set to .TRUE.. If IEEE_SUPPORT_UNDERFLOW_CONTROL(x) returns .FALSE. this subroutine will produce a runtime error and should not be called.
subroutine IEEE_SET_ROUNDING_MODE(round_value)
  type(IEEE_ROUND_TYPE), intent(in) :: round_value

  the rounding mode is set to the mode specified in the round_value variable.

subroutine IEEE_SET_UNDERFLOW_MODE(gradual)
  logical(kind=4), intent(in) :: gradual

  the underflow mode is set to gradual if the value of the gradual variable is .TRUE.. If the value of the gradual variable is .FALSE., the underflow mode is set to abrupt. If IEEE_SUPPORT_UNDERFLOW_CONTROL(x) returns .FALSE. this subroutine will produce a runtime error and should not be called.

The IEEE_ARITHMETIC module provides the following kind function:

integer(kind=4) function IEEE_SELECTED_REAL_KIND(p, r)
  integer(kind=4), intent(in), optional :: p
  integer(kind=4), intent(in), optional :: r

  returns the kind of an IEEE floating-point value with the requested precision and exponent range. This function is similar to SELECTED_REAL_KIND, but only returns IEEE reals.

IEEE_EXCEPTIONS

This module defines the two derived types IEEE_FLAG_TYPE and IEEE_STATUS_TYPE whose components are all private. The purpose of IEEE_FLAG_TYPE is to identify the exception flags. The purpose of IEEE_STATUS_TYPE is to save and restore the current floating-point environment.

The IEEE_EXCEPTIONS module also provides a number of subroutines and functions for inquiry and getting and setting exception flags.

An important feature of exception flags is that they may or may not halt execution of the program depending on the state of the halting modes. A floating-point operation (such as divide-by-zero) will cause an exception flag to signal, but unless the halting mode for that flag is set to true, execution will continue with an IEEE default value. The IEEE_GET_FLAG subroutine can be used to retrieve the current state (signaling or quiet) of a specific exception flag.
IEEE_FLAG_TYPE

The only possible values are the following constants:

IEEE_INVALID
IEEE_OVERFLOW
IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO
IEEE_UNDERFLOW
IEEE_INEXACT

and the array constants:

IEEE_USUAL

type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), parameter, dimension(3) :: IEEE_USUAL = &
(/IEEE_OVERFLOW, IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO, IEEE_INVALID/)

IEEE_ALL

type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), parameter, dimension(5) :: IEEE_ALL = &
(/IEEE_USUAL, IEEE_UNDERFLOW, IEEE_INEXACT/)

IEEE_STATUS_TYPE

This type is used to save and restore the floating-point environment.

Subroutines and Functions

The IEEE_EXCEPTIONS module provides the following elemental subroutines:

elemental subroutine IEEE_GET_FLAG(flag, flag_value)
type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), intent(in) :: flag
logical(kind=4), intent(out) :: flag_value

retrieves the state of the specified flag. If the flag is signaling, flag_value is set
to .TRUE.. If the flag is quiet, flag_value is set to .FALSE..
elemental subroutine `IEEE_GET_HALTING_MODE(flag, halting)`
  type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), intent(in) :: flag
  logical(kind=4), intent(out) :: halting

  retrieves the halting mode of the specified flag. If the flag mode is halting, halting is set to .TRUE.. If the flag mode is continue, halting is set to .FALSE..

The **IEEE_EXCEPTIONS** module provides the following non-**elemental** subroutines:

subroutine `IEEE_GET_STATUS(status_value)`
  type(IEEE_STATUS_TYPE) :: status_value

  retrieves the state of the floating-point environment.

subroutine `IEEE_SET_FLAG(flag, flag_value)`
  type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), intent(in) :: flag
  logical(kind=4), intent(in) :: flag_value

  sets the state of the specified flag. If flag_value is .TRUE., the flag is set to signaling. If flag_value is .FALSE., the flag is set to quiet.

elemental subroutine `IEEE_SET_HALTING_MODE(flag, halting)`
  type(IEEE_FLAG_TYPE), intent(in) :: flag
  logical(kind=4), intent(in) :: halting

  sets the halting mode of the specified flag. If halting is .TRUE., the flag mode is set to halting. If halting is .FALSE., the flag mode is set to continue.

subroutine `IEEE_SET_STATUS(status_value)`
  type(IEEE_STATUS_TYPE) :: status_value

  sets the state of the floating-point environment.
EXAMPLES

The following example demonstrates the sequence necessary to exercise program control over detection of an exception.

```fortran
subroutine safe_divide(a, b, c, fail)
use IEEE_EXCEPTIONS
real a, b, c
logical fail
type(IEEE_STATUS_TYPE) status

! save the current floating-point environment, turn halting for ! divide-by-zero off, and clear any previous divide-by-zero flag
call IEEE_GET_STATUS(status)
call IEEE_SET_HALTING_MODE(IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO, .false.)
call IEEE_SET_FLAG(IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO, .false.)

! perform the operation
  c = a/b

! determine if a failure occurred and restore the floating-point ! environment
  call IEEE_GET_FLAG(IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO, fail)
call IEEE_SET_STATUS(value)

end subroutine safe_divide
```
Appendix C

Language Binding Modules

ISO_FORTRAN_ENV MODULE

The ISO_FORTRAN_ENV provides constants and functions describing the Fortran environment to assist in porting source code between different Fortran compilers. All constants in the module are default integer kind, INTEGER(KIND=4), values except the CHARACTER functions COMPILER_VERSION() and COMPILER_OPTIONS().

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHARACTER_STORAGE_SIZE</td>
<td>Size in bits of a character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPILER_VERSION()</td>
<td>Character scalar result describing the compiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>version at the compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPILER_OPTIONS()</td>
<td>Character scalar result describing the compiler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>options at the compile time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERROR_UNIT</td>
<td>Preconnected unit used for error reporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILE_STORAGE_SIZE</td>
<td>Size in bits of the file storage unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INPUT_UNIT</td>
<td>Preconnected unit used for input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT8</td>
<td>Kind of 8 bit integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT16</td>
<td>Kind of 16 bit integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT32</td>
<td>Kind of 32 bit integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INT64</td>
<td>Kind of 64 bit integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER_KINDS</td>
<td>Rank 1 integer array of available integer kinds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOSTAT_END</td>
<td>Value of IOSTAT= on end-of-file</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOSTAT_EOR</td>
<td>Value of IOSTAT= on end-of-record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGICAL_KINDS</td>
<td>Rank 1 integer array of available logical kinds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUMERIC_STORAGE_SIZE</td>
<td>Size in bits of numeric storage unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OUTPUT_UNIT</td>
<td>Preconnected unit used for output</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL32</td>
<td>Kind of 32 bit real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL64</td>
<td>Kind of 64 bit real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL128</td>
<td>Kind of 128 bit real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL_KINDS</td>
<td>Rank 1 integer array of available real kinds</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ISO_C_BINDING MODULE

The ISO_C_BINDING module, part of the Fortran 2003 standard, provides constants, types, and procedures that are useful in programs which are built using a mix of C and Fortran routines.

KIND Parameters

The KIND parameters contained in the ISO_C_BINDING module provide interoperability between Fortran intrinsic types and C types. The KIND parameters are all of type INTEGER(KIND=1) and are summarized in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORTRAN TYPE</th>
<th>KIND NAME</th>
<th>C TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER</td>
<td>C_INT</td>
<td>int</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C SHORT</td>
<td></td>
<td>short</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_LONG</td>
<td></td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_LONG_LONG</td>
<td></td>
<td>long long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_SIGNED_CHAR</td>
<td></td>
<td>signed char</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_SIZE_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>size_t</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORTRAN TYPE</th>
<th>KIND NAME</th>
<th>C TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER</td>
<td>C_INT8_T</td>
<td>int8_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT16_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int16_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT32_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int32_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT64_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int64_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_LEAST8_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_least8_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_LEAST16_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_least16_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_LEAST32_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_least32_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_LEAST64_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_least64_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_FAST8_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_fast8_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_FAST16_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_fast16_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_FAST32_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_fast32_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INT_FAST64_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>int_fast64_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INTMAX_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>intmax_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_INTPTR_T</td>
<td></td>
<td>intptr_t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>C_FLOAT</td>
<td>float</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_DOUBLE</td>
<td></td>
<td>double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_LONG_DOUBLE</td>
<td></td>
<td>long double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_FLOAT_COMPLEX</td>
<td></td>
<td>float_Complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_DOUBLE_COMPLEX</td>
<td></td>
<td>double_Complex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_LONG_DOUBLE_COMPLEX</td>
<td></td>
<td>long double_Complex</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

LOGICAL
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND NAME</th>
<th>C_TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C_BOOL</td>
<td>Bool</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHARACTER
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND NAME</th>
<th>C TYPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C_CHAR</td>
<td>char</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHARACTER CONSTANTS

The ISO_C_BINDING module provides character constants for C character values used as escape sequences. These constants are of type CHARACTER(LEN=1) and are summarized in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>DEFINITION</th>
<th>C CHARACTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C_NULL_CHAR</td>
<td>null character</td>
<td>'0'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_ALERT</td>
<td>alert</td>
<td>'a'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_BACKSPACE</td>
<td>backspace</td>
<td>'b'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_FORM_FEED</td>
<td>form feed</td>
<td>'f'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_NEW_LINE</td>
<td>new line</td>
<td>'n'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_CARRIAGE_RETURN</td>
<td>carriage return</td>
<td>'r'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_HORIZONTAL_TAB</td>
<td>horizontal tab</td>
<td>'t'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C_VERTICAL_TAB</td>
<td>vertical tab</td>
<td>'v'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

POINTER CONSTANTS

The ISO_C_BINDING module defines the constant C_NULL_PTR that is of type C_PTR and has the value of a C null pointer. The module also defines the constant C_NULL_FUNPTR that is of type C_FUNPTR and has the value of C null function pointer.

TYPE DEFINITIONS

The ISO_C_BINDING module defines two data types: C_PTR and C_FUNPTR. The C_PTR type is interoperable with any C data pointer. The C_FUNPTR type is interoperable with a C function pointer. The components of both types are private and not visible to code that uses the ISO_C_BINDING module.

PROCEDURES

The ISO_C_BINDING module provides five procedures to facilitate interoperability with the C language: C_ASSOCIATED, C_F_POINTER, C_F_PROCPOINTER, C_FUNLOC and C_LOC.

The C_ASSOCIATED function is use to determine if a variable of type C_PTR or C_FUNPTR has been pointer associated. It is also used to compare the values of two variables of type C_PTR (or two variables of type C_FUNPTR) for equality.

```
logical function c_associated(c_ptr1,c_ptr2)
type(C_PTR), intent(in) :: cptr1
type(C_PTR), intent(in), optional :: c_ptr2
```
logical function c_associated(c_fun_ptr1,c_fun_ptr2)
type(C_FUNPTR), intent(in) :: c_fun_ptr1
type(C_FUNPTR), intent(in), optional :: c_fun_ptr2

When called with one argument, C_ASSOCIATED returns the value .FALSE. if the argument is a C null pointer and .TRUE. otherwise. When called with two arguments, C_ASSOCIATED returns the value .TRUE. if the arguments compare equal to each other and .FALSE. otherwise.

The C_F_POINTER subroutine is used to associates a Fortran variable of type C_PTR with a C pointer variable.

subroutine C_F_POINTER(cptr,fptr,shape)
type(C_PTR), intent(in) :: cptr
any type, pointer, intent(out) :: fptr
integer, dimension(:), intent(in), optional :: shape
The value of \( cptr \) is the address of an interoperable data entity or the result of a reference to the \texttt{C\_LOC} function with a noninteroperable argument. The value of \( cptr \) must not be the C address of a Fortran variable that does not have the target attribute.

The argument \( fptr \) is a pointer. If the value of \( cptr \) is the C address of an interoperable data entity, \( fptr \) must be a data pointer with type and type parameters that are interoperable. In this case, \( fptr \) becomes pointer associated with the target of \( cptr \). If \( fptr \) is an array, its shape is specified by \( \texttt{shape} \) and each lower bound is 1. If the value of \( cptr \) is the result of a reference to \texttt{C\_LOC} with a noninteroperable argument \( X \), \( fptr \) must be a scalar pointer with the same type and type parameters as \( X \) and \( fptr \) becomes pointer associated with \( X \).

The argument \( \texttt{shape} \) is present if and only if \( fptr \) is an array and its size is equal to the rank of \( fptr \).

The \texttt{C\_F\_PROCPOINTER} subroutine associates a Fortran variable of type \texttt{C\_FUNPTR} with the address of a C function.

```fortran
subroutine C_F_PROCPOINTER(cptr,fptr)
  type(C_FUNPTR), intent(in) :: cptr
  integer(kind=intptr_t), intent(out) :: fptr
end subroutine C_F_PROCPOINTER
```

The value of \( cptr \) is the address of a C procedure which is interoperable and \( fptr \) is type integer with size large enough to hold the value of \( cptr \).

The \texttt{C\_FUNLOC} function returns the address of an interoperable C procedure as a \texttt{C\_FUNPTR}.

```fortran
type(C_FUNPTR) function C_FUNLOC(x)
  integer(kind=intptr_t), intent(in) :: x
end function C_FUNLOC
```

The value of \( x \) is the address of a procedure which is interoperable. The result is a value that can be used in a call to \texttt{C\_F\_PROCPOINTER}.

The \texttt{C\_LOC} function returns the C address of its argument.

```fortran
type(C_PTR) function C_LOC(x)
  any type, intent(in) :: x
end function C_LOC
```

The argument \( x \) has interoperable type and type parameters and is a variable that has the \texttt{TARGET} attribute, is an allocated allocatable array that has the \texttt{TARGET} attribute and not of zero size, or is an associated scalar pointer. The argument \( x \) may also be a scalar with no length type parameters and be a noallocatable, nonpointer variable that has the \texttt{TARGER} attribute, an allocated allocatable variable that has the \texttt{TARGET} attribute, or an associated pointer.
Appendix D

Error Messages

This appendix lists runtime error numbers and their meanings. These numbers are assigned to the STAT= specifier in ALLOCATE statements and to the IOSTAT= specifier variable in I/O statements.

ALLOCATE statement errors

10045 attempt to DEALLOCATE an unallocated array
10046 attempt to DEALLOCATE an item with a modified size
10047 attempt to ALLOCATE an array that has already been allocated
10070 attempt to allocate array of requested size failed

FORTRAN I/O errors:

10000 File not open for read
10001 File not open for write
10002 File not found
10003 Record length negative or 0
10004 Buffer allocation failed
10005 Bad iolist specifier
10006 Error in format string
10007 Illegal repeat count
10008 Hollerith count exceeds remaining format string
10009 Format string missing opening “(”
10010 Format string has unmatched parens
10011 Format string has unmatched quotes
10012 Non-repeatable format descriptor
10013 Attempt to read past end of file
10014 Bad file specification
10015 Format group table overflow
10016 Illegal character in numeric input
10017 No record specified for direct access
10018 Maximum record number exceeded
10019 Illegal file type for namelist directed I/O
10020 Illegal input for namelist directed I/O
10021 Variable not present in current namelist
10022 Variable type or size does not match edit descriptor
10023 Illegal direct access record number
10024 Illegal use of internal file
10025 RECL= only valid for direct access files
10026  BLOCK= only valid for unformatted sequential files
10027  Unable to truncate file after rewind, backspace, or endfile
10028  Can’t do formatted I/O on an entire structure
10029  Illegal (negative) unit specified
10030  Specifications in re-open do not match previous open
10031  No implicit OPEN for direct access files
10032  Cannot open an existing file with STATUS='NEW'
10033  Command not allowed for unit type
10034  MRWE is required for that feature
10035  Bad specification for window
10036  Endian specifier not BIG_ENDIAN or LITTLE_ENDIAN
10037  Cannot ENDIAN convert entire structures
10038  Attempt to read past end of record
10039  Attempt to read past end of record in non-advancing I/O
10040  Illegal specifier for ADVANCE=
10041  Illegal specifier for DELIM=
10042  Illegal specifier for PAD=
10043  SIZE= specified with ADVANCE= YES
10044  EOR= specified with ADVANCE= YES
10045  Cannot DEALLOCATE disassociated pointer or unallocated array
10046  Cannot DEALLOCATE a portion of an original allocation
10047  An allocatable array has already been allocated
10048  Internal or unknown runtime library error
10049  Unknown data type passed to runtime library
10050  Illegal DIM argument to array intrinsic
10051  Size of SOURCE argument to RESHAPE smaller than SHAPE array
10052  SHAPE array for RESHAPE contains a negative value
10053  Unallocated or disassociated array passed to inquiry function
10054  The ncopies argument to REPEAT is negative
10055  The S argument to NEAREST is negative
10056  The ORDER argument to RESHARE contains an illegal value
10057  Result of TRANSFER with no SIZE is smaller than source
10058  SHAPE array for RESHAPE is zero sized array
10059  VECTOR argument to UNPACK contains insufficient values
10060  Attempt to write a record longer than specified record length
10061  ADVANCE= specified for direct access or unformatted file
10062  NAMELIST name is longer than specified record length
10063  NAMELIST variable name exceeds maximum length
10064  PAD= specified for unformatted file
10065  NAMELIST input contains multiple strided arrays
10066  Expected & or $ as first character for NAMELIST input
10067  NAMELIST group does not match current input group
10068  Pointer or allocatable array not associated or allocated
10069  NAMELIST input contains negative array stride
10070  Runtime memory allocation fails
10071  Illegal rank for matrix argument to MATMUL array intrinsic
10072  Matrix arguments to MATMUL array intrinsic are not conformable
Appendix E

Technical Support

The Absoft Technical Support Group will provide technical assistance to all registered users. They will *not* answer general questions about operating systems, operating system interfaces, graphical user interfaces, or teach the FORTRAN language. For further help on these subjects, please consult this manual and any of the books and manuals listed in the bibliography.

Before contacting Technical Support, please study this manual and the *Fortran User Guide* to make sure your problem is not covered here. Specifically, look at the chapter *Using The Compilers* in the *Pro Fortran User Guide* and the *Error Messages* appendices of both manuals. To help Technical Support provide a quick and accurate solution to your problem, please include the following information in any correspondence or have it available when calling.

**Product Information:**

- Name of product.
- Version number.
- Serial number.
- Version number of the operating system.

**System Configuration:**

- Hardware configuration (hard drive, etc.).
- System software release (i.e. 4.0, 3.5, etc).
- Any software or hardware modifications to your system.

**Problem Description:**

- What happens?
- When does it occur?
- Provide a small (20 line) reproducible program or step-by-step example if possible.

**Contacting Technical Support:**

Address:  
Absoft Corporation  
Attn: Technical Support  
2075 West Big Beaver Road, Suite 250  
Troy, MI  48084
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Phone Number</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical Support</td>
<td>(248) 220-1191</td>
<td>9am - 3pm EST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAX</td>
<td>(248) 220-1194</td>
<td>24 Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>email</td>
<td><a href="mailto:support@absoft.com">support@absoft.com</a></td>
<td>24 Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Wide Web</td>
<td><a href="http://www.absoft.com">http://www.absoft.com</a></td>
<td>24 Hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F

Floating Point Numbers

A floating point number is an approximation of a real number. The model for floating point numbers is:

\[ v = s \times r^e \times \sum_{i=0}^{q} d_i \times r^{i-1} \]

The most common implementation is IEEE P754 single and double precision, where \( s \) is \( \pm 1 \), \( q \) is 24 or 53, \( r \) is 2, \( d \) is 0 or 1, and \(-126 \leq e \leq 127\) or \(-1022 \leq e \leq 1023\).

The range of representable single precision number is approximately:

\[ \pm 0.3402823E+39 \text{ to } \pm 0.1175494E-37 \]

and the range of representable double precision number is approximately:

\[ \pm 0.1797693134862320D+309 \text{ to } \pm 0.2225073858507202D-307 \]

The number of values in these ranges is finite and not all numbers are representable. For example, just as 1/3 cannot be stated exactly as a decimal, 1/10 or 0.1 cannot represented exactly in IEEE floating point. Because of this potential for inexact representation of real values, the equality relational operators (== and /=) may at times yield “unreliable” results and thus should be used with care (if at all) with real operands.

Consider the \textsc{sqrt} function. The square roots of the values in the interval (.25,1.0) map into the interval (0.5,1.0). There are twice as many numbers in the first interval as there are in the second, so on average, the square roots of 2 numbers in the first interval must map into one number in the second.

Floating point numbers have a finite number of digits, either binary or decimal. The \( \log_2 10 \) is about 3.322 so about 3.322 binary digits are needed to represent a decimal digit.

- \textsc{real}(4) has a 24 bit mantissa => 7.2 decimal digits
- \textsc{real}(8) has a 53 bit mantissa => 15.9 decimal digits
The results of operations on numbers with large exponent differences may not be representable. For example, both of the single precision numbers $2.0 \times 10^5$ and $2.0 \times 10^{-5}$ are representable, but their sum is not:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
200000.0 \\
+ 0.00002 \\
200000.0
\end{array}
\]

```fortran
a = 2.0*10.0**(+5)
b = 2.0*10.0**(-5)
c = a+b
print *,a, b, c
print *,a /= a+b, a /= c
end
```

Loss of precision with floating point numbers is a significant problem with numerically sensitive programs. Consider the sine function. It is defined over the interval $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ and returns values in the interval $(0.0,1.0)$. Range reduction is automatically performed for arguments outside of the interval. However, although range reduction is carefully performed, loss of significant digits can occur to the extent that the function result becomes useless.

```fortran
integer, parameter :: rp = selected_real_kind(6,30)
real(rp) halfpi, a
halfpi = atan(1.0_rp)*2.0_rp
do i=1,7
   a = halfpi * 10.0_rp**i
   print 100,i,a,sin(a)
end do
100 format (i2, f18.6, f10.6)
end
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i</th>
<th>$10^i$</th>
<th>$\sin(10^i)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15.707963</td>
<td>-0.000001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>157.079630</td>
<td>0.000003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1570.796300</td>
<td>0.0000060</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>15707.963000</td>
<td>0.0000599</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>157079.640000</td>
<td>0.007945</td>
</tr>
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<td>6</td>
<td>1570796.300000</td>
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<td>10</td>
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## Appendix G

### Extensions To Intrinsic Functions

The functions listed in the following table are historical extensions to the Fortran programming language. They are provided as a convenience to porting legacy programs. Their use is not recommended for new programs, as they are non-standard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Name</th>
<th>Generic Name</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Argument Type</th>
<th>Result Type</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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#### Type Conversion

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<th>Argument Type</th>
<th>Result Type</th>
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</thead>
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<td>INT</td>
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<td>real</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>JINT</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>JINT(x)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KINT</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>KINT(x)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer*8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIIFIX</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IIIFIX(x)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer*2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HFIX</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>HFIX(x)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer*2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KFIX</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>KFIX(x)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer*8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIFIX</td>
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<tr>
<td>IIDINT</td>
<td>INT</td>
<td>IIDINT(d)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>INT</td>
<td>JIDINT(d)</td>
<td>double</td>
<td>integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLOATI</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>FLOATI(i)</td>
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<td>real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLOATJ</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>FLOATJ(i)</td>
<td>integer</td>
<td>real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLOATK</td>
<td>REAL</td>
<td>FLOATK(i)</td>
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<td>real</td>
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<td>DREAL</td>
<td>DREAL(x)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFLOTI</td>
<td>DBLE</td>
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<tr>
<td>DFLOTJ</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>DBLE</td>
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<td>double</td>
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#### Nearest Integer

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<th>Result Type</th>
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</thead>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>NINT</td>
<td>JNINT(r)</td>
<td>real</td>
<td>integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNINT</td>
<td>NINT</td>
<td>KNINT(r)</td>
<td>real</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIDNNT</td>
<td>NINT</td>
<td>IIDNNT(d)</td>
<td>double</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIDNNT</td>
<td>NINT</td>
<td>JIDNNT(d)</td>
<td>double</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>KIDNNT</td>
<td>NINT</td>
<td>KDNINT(d)</td>
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#### Absolute Value

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<th>Result Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>IABS</td>
<td>ABS</td>
<td>IIABS(i)</td>
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<td>integer*2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JABS</td>
<td>ABS</td>
<td>JIABS(i)</td>
<td>integer</td>
<td>integer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KABS</td>
<td>ABS</td>
<td>KIABS(i)</td>
<td>integer*8</td>
<td>integer*8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDABS</td>
<td>ABS</td>
<td>CDABS(cd)</td>
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</table>
### Extensions to Intrinsic Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Name</th>
<th>Generic Name</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Argument Type</th>
<th>Result Type</th>
<th>Notes</th>
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<td><strong>Mod</strong></td>
<td><strong>IMOD(i,j)</strong></td>
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<td>integer*2</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>JMOD</strong></td>
<td><strong>MOD</strong></td>
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<td>integer</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>KMOD</strong></td>
<td><strong>MOD</strong></td>
<td><strong>KMOD(i,j)</strong></td>
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<td>integer*8</td>
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<td><strong>Transfer of Sign</strong></td>
<td><strong>SIGN</strong></td>
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<td>integer*2</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>SIGN</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>Positive Difference</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Choosing Largest Value</strong></td>
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<td>integer*2</td>
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<td>integer</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>integer*8</td>
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<td><strong>AJMAX0(i,j,...)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>JMAX1(r,s,...)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Choosing Smallest Value</strong></td>
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<td>integer*2</td>
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<td><strong>MIN</strong></td>
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<td><strong>AIMIN0(i,j,...)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>AJMIN0(i,j,...)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>IMIN1</strong></td>
<td><strong>IMIN1(r,s,...)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>JMIN1</strong></td>
<td><strong>JMIN1(r,s,...)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>KMIN1</strong></td>
<td><strong>KMIN1(r,s,...)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Imaginary Part of Complex</strong></td>
<td><strong>DIMAG</strong></td>
<td><strong>DIMAG(cd)</strong></td>
<td>complex*16</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conjugate of Complex</strong></td>
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### Extensions to Intrinsic Functions

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<th>Generic Name</th>
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<th>Result Type</th>
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### Square Root

#### Exponential

| CDEXP         | EXP          | CDEXP(cd)     | complex*16     | complex*16   |       |

#### Natural Logarithm

| CDLOG        | LOG          | CDLOG(cd)     | complex*16     | complex*16   |       |

### Common Logarithm

| DLOG10       | LOG10        | DLOG10(d)     | double         | double       |       |

### Sine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>SIND</th>
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<tr>
<td>CDCOS</td>
<td>COS</td>
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### Tangent

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### Arcsine

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### Arccosine

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## Extensions to Intrinsic Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Name</th>
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<th>Usage</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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### Bitwise Operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specific Name</th>
<th>Generic Name</th>
<th>Usage</th>
<th>Argument Type</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Index

/ editing, 117
\ editing, 117
\f, 16
\n, 16
\t, 16
\'3 editing, 117
\'4 editing, 117
=>, 32
A editing, 115
ABS, 141
Absoft address, 199
ACCEPT, 98
ACCESS, 99, 104
ACHAR, 142
ACOS, 142
ACTION, 99
ADJUSTL, 142
ADJUSTR, 142
ADVANCE, 95
AIMAG, 142
AINT, 142
ALL, 143
ALLOCATABLE, 35
ALLOCATE error messages, 195
ALLOCATE statement, 57
ALLOCATED, 143
ampersand, 9
ANINT, 143
ANASI standard, 7
ANY, 143
apostrophe editing, 118
arithmetic
  assignment statement, 75
  constant expression, 71
  expressions, 69
  IF statement, 78
arithmetic expressions
  data type, 70
array, 53
  actual, 54
  adjustable, 54
  dummy, 54
  storage sequence, 56
  subscript, 54
array conformance, 61
array constructor, 60
array declarator, 53
array operations, 62
array rank, 53
array sections, 59
array shape, 53
array valued functions, 62
ASCII conversion, 107
ASCII table, 175
ASIN, 143
ASSIGN, 76
assigned GOTO, 77
ASSOCIATED, 34, 144
assumed shape array, 56
ASYNCHRONOUS, 99
ATAN, 144
ATAN2, 145
AUTOMATIC, 35
automatic array, 57
B editing, 111
backslash editing, 117
BACKSPACE, 102
binary constants, 17
BIT SIZE, 146
BLANK, 99, 105
blank control editing, 116
BLOCK DATA, 131
block IF, 78
BN editing, 116
BTEST, 146
BZ editing, 116
CALL statement, 126
CARRIAGECONTROL, 100
CASE block, 83
CASE DEFAULT, 83
case selector, 84
CASE statement, 83
CEILING, 147
CHAR, 147
character, 15
  assignment statement, 76
  constant delimiter, 16
  editing, 115
  expressions, 72
  set, 3
  storage unit, 21
  substring, 20
CLOSE, 101
CMPLX, 147
colon editing, 117
Command-Enter, 94
Command-Return, 94
comment line, 7
COMMON, 35
  restrictions, 38
COMMON blocks, 131
compatibility, introduction, 1
compiler options
  -f fixed, FORTRAN 77 fixed format, 6
  -f free, Fortran 90 free format, 6
  -f, case fold, 4
  -s, static storage, 23
  -W132, wide format, 7
  -x, conditional compilation, 7, 10
  -YCSLASH=1, escape sequences, 16
COMPLEX, 19
complex editing, 112
COMPLEX*16, 29
COMPLEX*8, 27
computed GOTO, 77
conditional compilation, 7, 10, 12
CONJG, 147
constants
  blanks in, 15
  character, 15
  COMPLEX, 19
  Hollerith, 19

Fortran Language Reference Manual
INDEX

INTEGER, 17
LOGICAL, 16
PARAMETER, 15
real, 18
contacting Absoft, 200
CONTAINS, 36
continuation lines, 8
CONTINUE statement, 82
control statements, 77
conventions used in the manual, 2
CONVERT, 100
COS, 147
COSH, 147
COUNT, 148
CPU_TIME, 148
CSHIFT, 148
CYCLE statement, 82
D. see conditional compilation
D editing, 112
data length specifiers, 26
  COMPLEX*1.6, 29
  COMPLEX*8, 27
  INTEGER*1, 26
  INTEGER*2, 26
  INTEGER*4, 26
  INTEGER*8, 26
  LOGICAL*1, 26
  LOGICAL*2, 26
  LOGICAL*4, 26
  REAL*4, 27
  REAL*8, 27
DATA statement, 51
data type, 14
  character, 15
  COMPLEX, 19
  Hollerith, 19
  IMPLICIT, 15
  INTEGER, 17
  intrinsic function, 15
  LOGICAL, 16
  name, 15
  real, 18
DATE_AND_TIME, 149
DBLE, 149
DEALLOCATE statement, 57
decimal constants, 17
declaration initialization, 26
DECODE, 107
deferred shape array, 57
derived types, 30
DESCR function, 206
DIGITS, 149
DIM, 149
DIMENSION, 35
dimension bound, 53
dimension declarator, 53
DIRECT, 104
do, 79, 81
DO variable, 79
do_WHILE, 81
do-construct-name, 82
documentation conventions, 2
dollar editing, 117

DOUBLE PRECISION
  editing, 112
DPROD, 150
E editing, 112
editor descriptor, 108
elemental functions, 182
elemental subroutines, 186
ELSE, 78
EN editing, 113
ENCODE, 107
END (I/O specifier), 94
END DO, 81
END ENUM, 39
END IF, 78
END MAP statement, 49
END SELECT, 83
END statement, 86
END UNION statement, 49
ENDFILE, 103
dendfile record, 90
ENTRY, 130
ENUM, 39
ENUMERATOR, 39
EOSHIFT, 151
EPSILON, 151
EQUIVALENCE
  arrays, 38
  restrictions, 38
  substrings, 38
ERF, 151
ERFC, 151
ERR, 94
error messages, 195
  runtime, 195
ES editing, 113
escape sequences, 16
exclamation point, 9, 10
EXIST, 104
EXIT statement, 82
EXP, 152
EXPONENT, 152
expressions, 69
  arithmetic, 69
  character, 72
  relational, 72, 73
extensions to FORTRAN 77, 2
EXTERNAL, 39
external files, 90
external function, 127
F editing, 112
field width, 108
FILE, 99
files, 90
  access, 90
  internal, 91
  name, 90
  position, 90
files, including, 11
floating point
  editing, 112
  floating point numbers, 201
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FLOOR, 152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLUSH, 103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FMT, 93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORALL statement, 87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORM, 100, 105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMAT, 108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>format specification, 108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORMATTED, 105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formatted data transfer, 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formatted record, 89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortran 77 introduction, 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORTRAN 77 extensions, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 15, 16, 26, 27, 29, 36, 41, 44, 46, 47, 49, 94, 98, 100, 107, 108, 110, 111, 117, 118, 120, 206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACCEPT, 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTION specifier, 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B editing, 111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backlash editing, 117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARRIAGECONTROL specifier, 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>character set, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>character type statement, 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comment, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compiler directives, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPLEX*8, 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conditional compilation, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data length specifiers, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>declaration initialization, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECODE statement, 107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DESCR function, 206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dollar sign editing, 117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edit descriptors, 108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENCODE statement, 107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>escape sequences, 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortran 90 Free Source Form, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOBAL statement, 36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollerith Constant, 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPLICIT NONE statement, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>input validation, 110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integer editing, 111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER*1, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER*2, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER*4, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTEGER*8, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intrinsic functions, 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGICAL*1, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGICAL*2, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOGICAL*4, 26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAP declaration, 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namelist Specifier, 94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>namelist directed editing, 120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O editing, 111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POINTER statement, 44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q editing, 118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>READONLY specifier, 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL*4, 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REAL*8, 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECORD statement, 46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECFMT specification, 105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statement field, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRUCTURE declaration, 47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>symbolic names, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TYPE, 98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNION declaration, 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAL function, 206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAX FORTRAN Tab-Format, 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z editing, 111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZEXT function, 206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortran 90 Free Source Form, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRACTION, 152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUNCTION statement, 127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functions, 127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statement, 128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G editing, 114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOBAL, 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOTO, statement, 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graying of text, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H editing, 118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hexadecimal constants, 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollerith constant, 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hollerith editing, 118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUGE, 153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I editing, 111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IACHAR, 153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IAND, 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBCLR, 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBITS, 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBSET, 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICHAR, 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE floating point representation, 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_ALL, 186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_CLASS, 182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_CLASS_TYPE, 184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_COPY_SIGN, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_DATATYPE, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_DENORMAL, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_DIVIDE, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_DIVIDE_BY_ZERO, 183, 186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_DOWN, 181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_FEATURES_TYPE, 179, 180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_FLAG_TYPE, 185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_GET_FLAG, 185, 186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_GET_HALTING_MODE, 187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_GET_ROUNDING_MODE, 184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_GET_STATUS, 187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_GET_UNDERFLOW_MODE, 184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_HALTING, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_INEXACT, 186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_INEXACT_FLAG, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_INVALID, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_INVALID_FLAG, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_ISFINITE, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NAN, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEGATIVE, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NORMAL, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_LOGB, 183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NAN, 179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEAREST, 181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEGATIVE_DENORMAL, 180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEGATIVE_INF, 180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEGATIVE_NORMAL, 180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEGATIVE_ZERO, 180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IEEE_NEXT_AFTER, 183</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IEEE_OVERFLOW, 186
IEEE_POSITIVE_DENORMAL, 180
IEEE_POSITIVE_INF, 180
IEEE_POSITIVE_NORMAL, 180
IEEE_POSITIVE_ZERO, 180
IEEE_QUIET_NAN, 180
IEEE_REM, 184
IEEE_RINT, 184
IEEE_ROUND_TYPE, 180
IEEE_ROUNDING, 179
IEEE_SCALE, 184
IEEE_SELECTED_REAL_KIND, 185
IEEE_SET_FLAG, 187
IEEE_SET_HALTING_MODE, 187
IEEE_SET_ROUNDING_MODE, 185
IEEE_SET_STATUS, 187
IEEE_SET_UNDERFLOW_MODE, 185
IEEE_SIGNALING_NAN, 180
IEEE_SQRT, 179
IEEE_STATUS_TYPE, 185
IEEE_SUPPORT_DATATYPE, 181, 182
IEEE_SUPPORT_DENORMAL, 181
IEEE_SUPPORT_DIVIDE, 181
IEEE_SUPPORT_INF, 181
IEEE_SUPPORT_IO, 181
IEEE_SUPPORT_NAN, 180
IEEE_SUPPORT.Raise, 185
IEEE_SUPPORT_UNDERFLOW, 182
IEEE_SUPPORT_UNDERFLOW_CONTROL, 184, 185
IEEE_TO_ZERO, 181
IEEE_UNDERFLOW, 186
IEEE_UNDERFLOW_FLAG, 179
IEEE_UNORDERED, 184
IEEE_UP, 181
IEEE_USUAL, 186
IEEE_VALUE, 184
IEOR, 155
IF, 78
IMPLICIT, 39
Implicit File Connections, 93
implied DO list, 52, 96
INCLUDE statement, 11
INDEX, 155
initial line, 8
input and output, 89
input validation, 110
INQUIRE, 103
inquiry functions, 181
INT, 155
INTEGER, 17
integer constant expression, 71
integer editing, 111
INTEGER*1, 26
INTEGER*2, 26
INTEGER*4, 26
INTEGER*8, 26
interfaces, 63, 64
internal files, 90, 91
INTRINSIC, 41
intrinsic functions, 15, 129
IOMSG, 95
IOR, 155
IOSTAT, 95, 195
IOSTATE error messages, 195
ISHFT, 156
ISHFTC, 156
ISO C Binding, 190
italicized text, defined, 2
iteration count, 80
keywords, 4
kind, 14
KIND, 156
kind function, 185
kind parameter, 17, 19
L editing, 115
labels, 5
LBOUND, 157
LEN, 157
LEN_TRIM, 157
LGE, 157
LGT, 157
list directed editing, 119
input, 119
output, 120
LLE, 158
LLT, 158
LOG, 158
LOG10, 158
logical assignment statement, 75
epressions, 73
IF statement, 78
operators, 74
LOGICAL, 16, 158
logical editing, 115
LOGICAL*1, 26
LOGICAL*2, 26
LOGICAL*4, 26
looping, 79
MAP statement, 49
MATMUL, 159
MAX, 159
MAXEXponent, 159
MAXLOC, 160
MAXVAL, 160
MERGE, 161
MIN, 161
MINEXponent, 161
MINLOC, 161
MINVAL, 161
MOD, 162
modifier keys, 2
modules, 63
MVBITS, 162
MOVE Alloc, 162
multiple statement lines, 10
MVNIBits, 162
NAME, 104
NAMED, 104
NAMELIST, 42
namelist directed
Index

REAL, 165
real editing, 112
REAL*4, 27
REAL*8, 27
REC, 94
RECL, 100, 105
RECORD statement, 46
records, 89
endfile, 90
formatted, 89
unformatted, 90
recursion, 129
RECURSIVE, 129
REF function, 206
relational expressions, 72
relational operators, 72
REPEAT, 166
repeat factor, 108
RESHAPE, 166
RETURN, 130
REWIND, 102
RRSPACING, 166
runtime error messages, 195
S editing, 116
SAVE statement, 46
scalar variable, 52
SCALE, 166
scale factor, 114
SCAN, 167
SELECT CASE, 83
SELECTED_INT_KIND, 167
SELECTED_REAL_KIND, 168
SEQUENCE statement, 47
SEQUENTIAL, 104
SET_EXPONENT, 168
shape, 53
shared data, 36
SHIFT functions, 207
SIGN, 169
sign control editing, 116
SIN, 169
SINH, 169
SIZE, 106, 169
slash editing, 117
SOURCE, 168
source format, 6
ANSI standard, 7
VAX FORTRAN tab-format, 10
SP editing, 116
SPACING, 169
SPREAD, 170
SQRT, 170
square brackets, defined, 2
SS editing, 116
STAT, 195
statement format, 6
statement functions, 128
statement labels, 5
statement line
comment, 7
continuation, 8
END, 8
initial, 8

editing, 120
input, 121
output, 123
NEAREST, 162
NEXTREC, 105
NINT, 163
NML, 94
non-elemental subroutines, 184, 187
NOT, 163
NULL, 34
NULLIFY, 34
NUMBER, 104
numeric bases, 17
decimal, 17
hexadecimal, 17
octal, 17
numeric basis
binary, 17
numeric storage unit, 21
O editing, 111
octal constants, 17
OPEN statement, 99
OPENED, 104
operator precedence, 74
OPTIONAL, 40, 42
options, manual convention, 2
P editing, 114
PACK, 163
PARAMETER, 15, 43
parentheses in expressions, 71
PAUSE statement, 85
phone number, technical support, 200
POINTER, 43
POINTER, 58
pointer arrays, 58
pointer assignment, 32
pointer assignment operator, 32
POINTER statement, 44
pointers, 32
POSITION, 100
positional editing, 116
precedence, 74
PRECISION, 164
PRESENT, 164
PRINT, 96
printing, 98
PRIVATE, 44, 45, 64
PRIVATE statement, 44
problems, technical support for, 199, 203
PROCEDURE statement, 45
PRODUCT, 164
PROGRAM statement, 125
PUBLIC, 44, 45, 64
PUBLIC statement, 44
Q editing, 118
RADIUS, 164
RANDOM NUMBER, 164
RANDOM SEED, 165
RANGE, 165
rank, 53
READ, 96
READONLY, 100
real, 18
statement size
   Fortran 90, 9
statements, 5
statements
   executable, 5
statements
   nonexecutable, 6
statements, 25
STATUS, 100
STDCALL statement, 47
STOP statement, 85
storage, 20
storage association, 22
storage definition, 22
storage sequence, 21
storage unit, 21
   character, 21
   numeric, 21
STRUCTURE declaration, 47
SUBROUTINE, 126
subroutines, 126
subscript, 54
   expression, 54
substring, 20
   expressions, 20
SUM, 170
symbolic names, 4
   global, 4
   local, 4
SYSTEM_CLOCK, 171
T editing, 116
TAN, 171
TANH, 171
TARGET, 50
technical support, 199, 203
TINY, 171
TL editing, 116
TR editing, 116
TRANSFER, 171
TRANSPOSE, 172
TRIM, 172
type, 14
TYPE, 98
type statement, 25
   CHARACTER, 29
   COMPLEX, 25
   DOUBLE PRECISION, 25
   INTEGER, 25
   LOGICAL, 25
   REAL, 25
UBOUND, 172
underlined text, defined, 2
UNFORMATTED, 105
unformatted data transfer, 98
unformatted record, 90
UNION statement, 49
UNIT, 92
   preconnected, 92
UNPACK, 172
user defined data types, 30
VAL function, 206
value separator, 119
VALUE statement, 50
variable, 20
variable format expressions, 119
VAX FORTRAN
   tab-format, 10
   VAX hexadecimal format, 17
vector subscript, 60
VERIFY, 173
VOLATILE statement, 50
W option, 7
W132 option, 10
WHERE statement, 86
WRITE, 96
X. see conditional compilation
X editing, 116
Z editing, 111
ZEXT function, 206