# Introduction to Scientific & Engineering Computing BIL 102FE (Fortran) Course for Week 8

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# IMPROVED BUILDING BLOCKS

Procedures and modules were first introduced at week 4 as the fundamental building blocks in F programming. This chapter introduces several important extensions.

Recursion is an important mathematical concept, and both function and subroutines may be delayed to be recursive order to allow their use in appropriate recursive algorithms. Both recursive and non-recursive procedures in order to provide still more flexibility to a program.

F includes the capability for programmers to create their own data types to supplement the five intrinsic types, which are integer, real, character, logical and complex.

Since these data types must be derived from the intrinsic data types they are called **derived types**.

# **Recursive procedures**

Since the concept is easier to understand, the recursive procedures shall be examined with functions, and then it will be extended to subroutines.

If a function is called recursively, either directly or indirectly, then the word recursive must be added before function in the initial statement:

recursive function recursive\_function\_name(...) result(result)

The calculation of factorials, which is a recursive algorithm, will be illustrated.

**Example:** Write a function to calculate n!.

**Analysis:** The factorial n is written by mathematicians as n! and is defined as follows:

$$0! = 1$$
, and  $n! = n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times ... \times 2 \times 1$  for  $n \ge 1$ 

Another, recursive, way of expressing this is:

for 
$$n = 0 => n! = 1$$
  
for  $n \ge 1 => n! = n \times (n-1)$ 

# Structure Plan

```
1 Select case on n
1.1   n = 0
1.1.1 factorial_n = 1
1.2   n > 0
1.2.1 factorial_n = n*factorial(n-1)
1.3   n < 0
1.3.1 Error - return factorial n = 0</pre>
```

```
recursive function factorial(n) result(factorial n)
! dummy argument and result variable
  integer, intent(in) :: n
  real :: factorial n
! determine whether further recursion is required
  select case (n)
 case(0)
! recursion has reached the end
  factorial n = 1.0
  case (1:)
! more recursive calculation(s) requires
  factorial n = n*factorial(n-1)
  case default
! n is negative - return zero as an error indicator
  factorial n = 0.0
  end select
 end function factorial
```

A recursive subroutine operates in much the same way, and it is specified by including the word recursive before subroutine in the initial statement of the subroutine:

```
recursive subroutine factorial(n, factorial n)
 dummy argument and result variable
   integer, intent(in) :: n
   real, intent(out) :: factorial_n
! determine whether further recursion is required
   select case (n)
   case(0)
! recursion has reached the end
   factorial_n = 1.0
   case (1:)
  recursive call(s) required to obtain (n-1)!
   call factorial(n-1, factorial_n)
   factorial_n = n*factorial_n
   case default
  n is negative - return zero as an error indicator
   factorial n = 0.0
   end select
   end subroutine factorial
```

# Passing procedures as arguments

It is possible to have a procedure as a dummy argument, in which case the dummy argument is called a dummy procedure.

However, the declaration of a dummy procedure takes a quite different form from that of any other type of dummy argument.

For the purpose of the declaration is to provide information about the procedure's **interface** in contrast to a dummy variable where only the type and certain other attributes (real, integer, character or logical) are required.

```
interface
    interface_body
end interface
```

where the syntax of the interface\_body is the same as that of a procedure, but without any declarations of local variables and without any executable statements. For example, the interface block for a function, which takes two real arguments and delivers a real result might be

```
interface
    function dummy_fun(a,b) result(r)
        real, intent(in) :: a, b
        real :: r
    end function dummy_fun
end interface
```

If there are several dummy procedures then all the interface bodies may be included in a single interface block:

```
interface
    subroutine one_arg(x)
        real, intent(inout) :: x
    end subroutine one_arg

recursive subroutine two_args(x,y)
        real, intent(inout) :: x, y
    end subroutine two_args
end interface
```

The interface of the actual procedure argument corresponding to a dummy procedure must agree with that of the dummy procedure except that its name. The name of any dummy arguments or result variable may be different.

**Example:** Write a program which uses a procedure to print the values of a function for a sequence of values between two specified limits, and test the procedure with the following functions and values of x:

1.) 
$$x^3 - 3x^2 - 4x + 12 = 0$$

- 2.)  $2e^{x} e^{-x} = 0$
- 3.)  $\sin(2x) 2\cos(x) = 0$

**Analysis:** This program requires a module containing the three functions,

a second module containing the print procedure, and a main program to set things going.

It will be proceeded directly to the solution, using two modules.

```
1 First module: It contains the definitions of three functions
module functions
public :: f1,f2,f3
contains
function f1(x) result(fx)
real, intent(in) :: x
real :: fx
fx = x**3 - 3.0-x*x - 4.0*x + 12.0
end function f1
function f2(x) result(fx)
real, intent(in) :: x
real :: fx
fx = 2.0*exp(x) - exp(-x)
end function f2
function f3(x) result(fx)
real, intent(in) :: x
real :: fx
fx = \sin(2.0*x) - 2.0*\cos(x)
end function f3
end module functions
```

```
2. Second module: It contains the print and interface procedures.
   module use functions
   public :: list function
   contains
    subroutine list function(f,x1,x2,xinc)
    ! dummy arguments
    interface
   function f(x) result(fx)
   real, intent(in) :: x
   real :: fx
   end function f
   end interface
   real, intent(in)::x1,x2,xinc
    ! local variable
   real :: x
    ! loop to print values of f(x) for specified values of x
   x = x1
   do
   print *, "x = ", x, "f(x) = ", f(x)
   x = x + xinc
   if (x > x2) then
   exit
   end if
   end do
   end subroutine list function
end module use functions
```

#### 3. Main program.

end program test functions

# program test\_functions use functions use use\_functions real, parameter :: pi=3.1415927, twopi=2.0\*pi, piby4=0.25\*pi print \*,"f(x) = x\*\*3 - 3.0\*x\*x - 4.0\*x + 12" call list\_function(f1, -4.0, 4.0, 0.5) print \*,"f(x) = 2.0\*exp(x) - exp(-x)" call list\_function(f2, -10.0, 10.0, 1.0) print \*,"f(x) = sin(2.0\*x) - 2.0\*cos(x)" call list function(f3, -twopi, twopi, piby4)

# Creation of special data types

F includes the capability for programmers to create their own data types to supplement the five intrinsic types, which are integer, real, character, logical and complex. Since these data types must be derived from the intrinsic data types they are called **derived types**.

A derived data is defined by a special sequence of statements, which in their simplest form are as follows:

There may be as many component definitions as required, and each takes the same form as a variable declaration. Unlike the declaration of variables, however, derived type definitions may *only* appear in a module. It gains an access to the new data type with a **public** attribute. It is also permissible to declare derived types to be **private**, but then the type is only available within the module.

As an example a new data type called person, which would contain all information, could be defined as:

```
type, public:: person
character (len=12) :: first_name
character (len=1) :: middle_initial
character (len=12) :: last_name
integer :: age
character (len=1) :: sex   ! Male or Female
character (len=11) :: social_security
end type person
```

Once a new type has been defined the variables may be declared in a similar way to that used for intrinsic types:

```
type(person) :: jack, jill
```

Such declarations will need access to the type a definition, which is why such definitions must always be placed in a module.

A constant value of a derived type is written as a sequence of constants corresponding to the components of the derived type, enclosed in parentheses and preceded by the type name:

```
jack = person("Jack","R","Hagenbach",47,"M","123-
45-6789")
jill = person("Jill","M","Smith",39,"F","987-45-
6789")
```

This form of defining a constant value for derived type is called a **structure constructor**.

A component of a derived type variable is referred directly by following the name of variable by a percentage sign and the name of the component.

The following statement changes the last name of Jill to that of Jack, for example if she had married with Jack.

jill%last\_name = Jack%Last\_name

A derived type can be used in the definition of another derived type:

However, operations between two objects of the same derived type are more difficult because although it would be meaningful to write

```
Pat%salary - Tom%salary
```

to establish the difference between the salaries of Pat and Tom, since both are real values

the expression

Pat%department - Tom%department

is meaningless because both components are character strings.

**Example 1:** Define two data types, one to represent a point by means of its coordinates (in two-dimensional space only) and the other to represent a line (also in two-dimensional space) by the coefficients of its defining equation. Write a program which reads the coordinates of two points and which then calculates the line joining them, printing the equation of the line.

<u>Analysis:</u> First the two derived types – point and line must be established. The point consists of two real components, representing the x and y coordinates, respectively.

A straight line is defined by an equation of the form ax + by + c = 0. From simple analytical geometry knowledge, the coefficients can be defined with

$$a = y_2 - y_1$$
;  $b = x_1 - x_2$  ;  $c = y_1 x_2 - y_2 x_1$ 

where  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$  are the two coordinate points on the line.

## The structure plan would be:

#### Module geometry

(defines derived types for points and lines)

function distinct\_points(p1,p2) result(distinct)

1. Set distinct true if x\_coordinates or y\_coordinates differ

function line\_from\_points(p1,p2) result(joint\_line)

2. Calculate and return the coefficients of the line joining the points p1 and p2.

#### program geometry\_example

(uses geometry module)

function distinct\_points(p1,p2) result(distinct)

- 1. Reads coordinates of two points
- 2. If the points are distinct
  - 2.1. Calculate the coefficients of the line joining the points
- 2.2. Print equation of line otherwise
  - 2.3. Print an error message

# **Solution:** The module and program would be:

```
module geometry
public :: distinct_points,line_from_points
     type definitions
      type, public :: point
      cartesian coordinates of the point
      real :: x,y
      end type point
      type, public :: line
      coefficients of defining equation
      real :: a,b,c
      end type line
      constant declaration
      real, parameter, public :: small = 1.0e-5
      contains
```

```
function distinct_points(p1,p2) result(distinct)
    returns true if the two points supplied as arguments
   are not efficiently coincident
    dummy arguments and result variable declaration
    type(point), intent(in) :: p1,p2
    logical :: distinct
    set result true if either pair of corresponding
   coordinates are different
distinct= abs(p1%x-p2%x)>small .or. abs(p1%y-p2%y)>small
end function distinct points
function line_from_points(p1,p2) result(join_line)
     returns the line joining the two points supplied as
    arguments
     dummy arguments and result variable declaration
     type(point), intent(in) ::p1,p2
    type(line) :: join_line
    calculate coefficients of line
     join_line%a = p2%y - p1%y
     join line%b = p1%x - p2%x
     join line%c = p1%y*p2%x - p2%y*p1%x
end function line from points
end module geometry
```

```
program geometry_example
  A program to use derived types for two-dimensional
   geometric calculations
   use geometry
   contains point and line type definitions
   constant small definition and functions
  distinct points and line from points
  variable and constants declarations
   type(point) :: p1,p2
   type(line) :: p1_to_p2
  read data
  print *, "enter coordinates of first point (x,y)"
   read *, p1
   print *, "enter coordinates of second point(x,y)"
   read *, p2
```

```
! test for coincident points
    if (distinct_points(p1,p2)) then
! calculate coefficients of equation representing the line
    p1_to_p2 = line_from_points(p1,p2)
! print result
    print *,"the equation of the line joining these two"
    print *,"points is ax + by + c = 0"
    print *,"where a = ",p1_to_p2%a
    print *,"    b = ",p1_to_p2%b
    print *,"    c = ",p1_to_p2%c
    else
    print *,"error: the two points supplied are coincident!"
    end if
end program geometry_example
```

Another example will make this concept clearer

**Example 2:** Define a data type which can be used to represent complex numbers, and then use it in a program which reads two complex numbers and calculates and prints their sum, difference and product.

**Analysis:** The rules for addition, subtraction and multiplication are simply derived as:

$$(x_1,y_1) + (x_2,y_2) = (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2)$$
  
 $(x_1,y_1) - (x_2,y_2) = (x_1 - x_2, y_1 - y_2)$   
 $(x_1,y_1) * (x_2,y_2) = (x_1*x_2 - y_1*y_2, x_1*y_2 + x_2*y_1)$ 

#### The structure plan would be:

- 1. Define a data type for complex numbers
- 2. Read two complex numbers
- 3. Calculate their sum, difference and product
- 4. Print result

# The module and program would be:

### module complex\_arithmetic

- ! this module contains a derived type
- ! definition
- ! for complex numbers

type, public :: complex\_number

real :: real\_part, imaginary\_part

end type complex\_number

end module complex\_arithmetic

```
program complex example
   A program to illustrate the use of a derived type to
perform
! complex arithmetic
use complex arithmetic
     variable definitions
type(complex_number) :: c1, c2, csum, cdif, cprod
! read data
print *, "enter first complex number in the form of (x,y)"
read *, c1
print *, "enter second complex number in the form of
(x,y)"
read *, c2
     calculate sum, difference and product
csum%real_part=c1%real_part+c2%real_part
csum%imaginary_part=c1%imaginary_part+c2%imaginary_part
cdif%real_part = c1%real_part-c2%real_part
cdif%imaginary_part=c1%imaginary_part - c2%imaginary_part
```

# Controlling access to entities within a module

Derived types provide good programming practice to group related variables together in a derived type definition in a module in order that the type may then be easily used throughout a program. The access control within a module can be supplied by using **private** attribute. This restricts the use of the derived component in a module.

```
type, public :: complex_number
   private
   real :: a, phi
   end type complex_number
```

The privacy only applies *outside* the module in which the type definition appears. Within the module, including all its module procedures, the components are fully accessible.

**Example:** In the previous example a data type to represent complex numbers was defined and used this to carry out addition, subtraction and multiplication. Write a module, which contains a similar data type, whose components are hidden from the user of the module, and which also contains four procedures to carry out addition, subtraction, multiplication and division between two complex entities.

Analysis: It has been already carried out most of the work for this module, other than complex division and the four new procedures to carry out input/output and conversion. Complex division was not discussed in that example, but is included here for completeness. The formula required is as follows:

$$\left| \frac{(x_1, y_1)}{(x_2, y_2)} = \left( \frac{x_1 * x_2 + y_1 * y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2}, \frac{x_2 * y_2 - x_1 * y_2}{x_2^2 + y_2^2} \right) \right|$$

Input and output procedures are needed because derived type input and output takes place component by component, and the components will not be accessible outside the module. Two conversion procedures are required in order to allow access to the real and imaginary parts. They are all quite straightforward, however, and it can be proceeded straight to the solution.

The principle of data hiding or, more generally, of only allowing access to a restricted set of the entities in a module is extremely important for secure programming.

# **Solution:** The module and program would be:

```
module complex procedures
     public :: c add, c subt, c mult, c divs, print complex
     public :: read_complex, create_complex, extract_complex
    complex data derived type definition
     type, public :: complex number
    private
     real :: real part, imag part
     end type complex number
     contains
     function c add(z1,z2) result(c sum)
     type(complex number), intent(in) :: z1, z2
     type(complex number) :: c sum
     c sum%real part = z1%real part + z2%real part
     c sum%imag part = z1%imag part + z2%imag part
     end function c add
```

```
function c subt(z1,z2) result(c sub)
type(complex number), intent(in) :: z1, z2
type(complex number) :: c sub
c sub%real part = z1%real part - z2%real part
c sub%imag part = z1%imag part - z2%imag part
end function c subt
function c mult(z1,z2) result(c mul)
type(complex number), intent(in) :: z1, z2
type(complex number) :: c mul
local variable to avoid writing more data
real :: temp 1, temp 2
temp 1 = z1%real part * z2%real part
temp 2 = z1%imag part * z2%imag part
c mul%real part = temp 1 - temp 2
temp 1 = z1%real part * z2%imag part
temp 2 = z1%imag part * z2%real part
c_mul%imag_part = temp_1 + temp_2
end function c mult
```

```
function c divs(z1,z2) result(c div)
type(complex number), intent(in) :: z1, z2
type(complex number) :: c div
local variable to avoid writing and calculating more data
real ::temp 1, temp 2, denom
denom = z2%real part**2 + z2%imag part**2
temp 1 = z1%real part * z2%real part
temp 2 = z1%imag part * z2%imag part
c div%real part = (temp 1 + temp 2) / denom
temp 1 = z2%real part * z1%imag part
temp 2 = z1%real part * z2%imag part
c div%imag part = (temp 1 - temp 2) / denom
end function c divs
subroutine print complex(z)
type(complex number), intent(in) :: z
can not be done outside module
print *,z
end subroutine print complex
```

```
subroutine read complex(z)
type(complex number), intent(out) :: z
can not be done outside module
read *,z
end subroutine read complex
subroutine create complex(real part, imag part, z)
real, intent(in) :: real part, imag part
type(complex number), intent(out) :: z
z%real part = real part
z%imaq part = imaq part
end subroutine create_complex
subroutine extract_complex(real_part, imag_part,z)
type(complex number), intent(in) :: z
real, intent(out) :: real part, imag part
real part = z%real part
imag_part = z%imag_part
end subroutine extract complex
end module complex procedures
```

```
program test complex
use complex procedures
variabyle declaration
type(complex number) :: z1, z2, z3
real :: re, im
read a complex number
print *, "enter two complex numbers (z1,z2)"
call read complex(z1)
read two reals and form a complex number
read *, re, im
call create complex(re,im,z2)
multiply the two complex numbers and print their product
z3 = c \text{ mult}(z1, z2)
print *, "the product of these two numbers (z1*z2) is"
call print complex(z3)
```

```
add the two complex numbers asnd print the real
   and imaginary parts of their sum
   z3 = c add(z1,z2)
   call extract complex(re,im,z3)
   print *, "the sum of these two numbers (z1+z2) is ", re, im
   subtract the two complex numbers and print their result
    z3 = c subt(z1, z2)
  print*, "the difference between the two numbers (z1-z2) is"
   call print complex(z3)
   divide the two complex numbers and print their result
   z3 = c \operatorname{divs}(z1, z2)
   print *, "the division of the two numbers (z1/z2) is"
   call print complex(z3)
end program test complex
```