Array Concepts

Introduction

Working with a collection of data of the same type **REAL :: relhum I, relhum2, relhum3, ..., relhum8252**

The Fortran language will not recognize the intended relationship between these variables. Instead, use an array which is a collection of values of the same type.

REAL, DIMENSION(8252) :: relhum

Array Declarations (1)

Fortran 90 uses the **DIMENSION** attribute to declare arrays. The most common examples are:

INTEGER, DIMENSION(30) :: days_in_month CHARACTER(LEN=10), DIMENSION(250) :: names REAL, DIMENSION(350,350) :: box_locations

In Fortran the starting index defaults to a value of I (not 0 as is common in many other languages - C/C++/ Python)

Array Declarations (2)

BUT you can specify a lower bound different than 1. It will just default to 1 if you omit it.

The syntax is <lower bound>:<upper bound> where the bound values are INTEGERs.

INTEGER, DIMENSION(0:99) :: arr1, arr2, arr3 CHARACTER(LEN=10), DIMENSION(1:250) :: names REAL, DIMENSION(-10:10,-10:10) :: pos1, pos2 REAL, DIMENSION(0:5,1:7,2:9,1:4,-5:-2) :: pos1, pos2

Array Declarations(3)

Alternative way to declare arrays: Put the dimensions next to the variable name

INTEGER :: arr1(0:99), arr2(0:99), arr3(0:99) REAL :: pos1(10), pos2(35) REAL :: globe1(144,92), globe2(128,64)

Don't mix the two forms!

Array Terminology

REAL :: A(0:99), B(3,6:9,5)

- The rank of an array is the number of dimensions.
 The maximum number of dimensions is 7!
 A has rank I and B has rank 3
- The bounds are the upper and lower limits.
 A has bounds 0:99 and B has bounds 1:3, 6:9 and 1:5
- The extent of an array dimension is the range of its index or indices. (upperbound-lowerbound+1)

A has extent 100 and B has extents 3, 4 and 5

REAL :: A(0:99), B(3,6:9,5)

• The size of an array is the total number of elements.

A has size 100 and B has size 60

The shape of an array is its rank and extents.
 A has shape (100) and B has shape (3,4,5)

Arrays are **conformable** if they share the same shape. The bounds do not have to be the same.

Array References

In general, there are **three** different ways to reference arrays:

- individual array elements arrI(5), myintval(-10)
- entire array arrl or arrl(:)
- array section arrl(5:24), arrl(-10:-7)

Array Element References

An array index can be any integer expression e.g., months(j) selects the jth month

INTEGER, DIMENSION(-50:50) :: val DO i = -50,50 val(i) = 2*i END DO

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Sets val to -100, -98, ..., 98, 100
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Index Expressions

Set the even elements to the odd indices and vice versa INTEGER, DIMENSION(1:80) :: series DO K = 1,40 series(2*K) = 2*K-1 series(2*K-1) = 2*K END DO

You can go completely overboard, too series(int(1.0+80.0*cos(-0.4))) = 42

Example of Arrays: Sorting

Sort a list of numbers into ascending order The top level algorithm is:

- I. Read the numbers and store them in an array.
- 2. Sort them into ascending order of magnitude.
- 3. Print them out in sorted order.

Selection Sort

This is NOT how to write a general sort It takes $O(N^2)$ time compared to $O(N \log(N))$

For each location J from I to N-I For each location K from J+I to N If the value at J exceeds that at K Then swap them End of loop End of loop

Let's take a look: sort | 0.f90

Using Arrays as Objects

Set all the elements of an array to a single value

INTEGER, DIMENSION(1:50) :: series series = 0

You can use entire arrays as simple variables provided they are conformable

REAL, DIMENSION(200) :: arr1, arr2arr1 = arr2 + 1.23*exp(arr1/4.56)

The RHS and any LHS indices are evaluated, and then the RHS is assigned to the LHS.

Array Sections

Array sections create an aliased subarray It is a simple variable with a value

INTEGER :: arr1(100), arr2(50), arr3(100)
arr1(1:63) = 5; arr1(64:100) = 7
arr2 = arr1(1:50)+arr3(51:100)

Even this is legal but it forces a copy: arrl(26:75) = arrl(1:50)+arrl(51:100)

Short Form

Existing array bounds may be omitted Especially useful for multidimensional arrays If we have REAL, DIMENSION(6, 8) :: A

A(3:, :4) is the same as A(3:6, 1:4) A(6, :) is the same as A(6, 1:8)

A(6, :) is the 6th row as a I-D vector A(:, 3) is the 3rd column as a I-D vector A(6:6, :) is the 6th row as a Ix8 matrix A(:, 3:3) is the 3rd column as a 6x1 matrix

Conformability of Sections

The conformability rule applies to sections, too. REAL :: A(1:6, 1:8), B(0:3, -5:5), C(0:10)

A(2:5,1:7) = B(:,-3:3)A(4,2:5) = B(:,0) + C(7:) ! all have shape (4) C(:) = B(2,:)

! both have shape (4,7) ! both have shape (11)

But these would be illegal

A(1:5,1:7) = B(:,-3:3) ! shapes (5,7) and (4,7) A(1:1,1:3) = B(1,1:3) ! shapes (1,3) and (3)

Sections with Strides

- Array sections need not be contiguous Any uniform progression is allowed
- This is exactly like a more compact DO-loop Negative strides are allowed, too

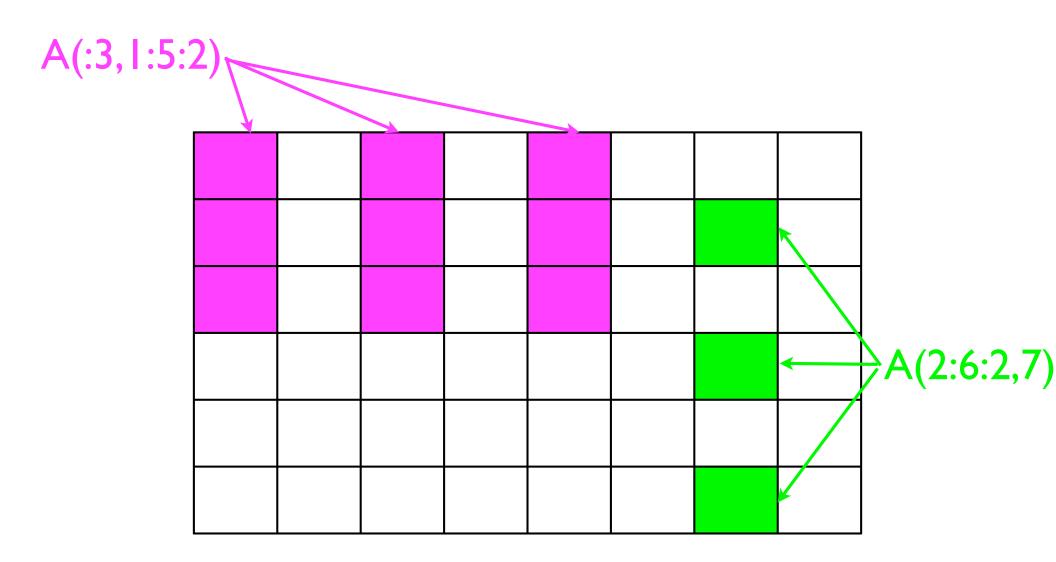
INTEGER :: arr1(1:100), arr2(1:50), arr3(1:50)
arr1(1:100:2) = arr2 ! Sets every odd element
arr1(100:1:-2) = arr3 ! Even elements, reversed

arrl = arrl(100:1:-1) ! Reverses the order of arrl

Actual source code: arrsection.f90

Strided Sections

A(1:6, 1:8)



Array Bounds

Subscripts and sections must be within the array bounds The following are invalid (undefined behavior)

REAL :: A(1:6, 1:8), B(0:3, -5:5), C(0:10)

$$A(2:5,1:7) = B(:,-6:3)$$

 $A(7,2:5) = B(:,0)$
 $C(:11) = B(2,:)$

Most compilers will NOT check for this automatically!

Errors will lead to overwriting, etc. and CHAOS

Actual source code: abounds.f90

Elemental Operations

Most built-in operators/functions are elemental They act element-by-element on arrays

REAL, DIMENSION(1:200) :: arr1, arr2, arr3arr1 = arr2 + 1.23*EXP(arr3/4.56)

Comparisons and logical operations, too

REAL, DIMENSION(1:200) :: arr1, arr2, arr3 LOGICAL, DIMENSION(1:200) :: flags flags = (arr1 > EXP(arr2) .OR. arr3 < 0.0)

Array Intrinsic Functions (1)

There are over 20 useful intrinsic procedures They can save a lot of coding and debugging

SIZE(x [,n]) ! The size of x (an integer scalar)
SHAPE(x) ! The shape of x (an integer vector)

LBOUND(x [,n]) !The lower bound of x UBOUND(x [,n]) !The upper bound of x

If n is present then compute for that dimension only And the result is an integer scalar Otherwise the result is an integer vector

Array Intrinsic Functions (2)

MINVAL(x) ! The minimum of all elements of x MAXVAL(x) ! The maximum of all elements of x

These return a scalar of the same type as x

MINLOC(x) ! The indices of the minimum MAXLOC(x) ! The indices of the maximum

These return an integer vector, just like SHAPE

Array Intrinsic Functions (3)

- SUM(x [,n])! The sum of all elements of xPRODUCT(x [,n])! The product of all elements of x
- If n is present the compute for that dimension only
- TRANSPOSE(x) means $X_{ij} \Rightarrow X_{ji}$
 - It must have two dimensions but need not be square
- DOT_PRODUCT(x,y) means $\sum_i X_i \cdot Y_i \Rightarrow Z$ Two vectors, both of same length and type

Array Intrinsic Functions (4)

MATMUL(x,y) means $\sum_{k} X_{ik} \cdot Y_{kj} \Rightarrow Z_{ij}$

2nd dimension of X must match the 1st of Y The matrices need not be the same shape Either X or Y may be a vector

Many more for array reshaping and array masking

Array Element Order (1)

This is also called the "storage order"

Traditional term is "column-major order" But Fortran arrays are not laid out in columns! Much clearer: "first index varies fastest"

REAL, DIMENSION(1:3,1:4) :: A

The elements of A are stored in this order:

A(I,I),A(2,I),A(3,I),A(I,2),A(2,2),A(3,2), A(I,3),A(2,3),A(3,3),A(I,4),A(2,4),A(3,4)

Array Element Order (2)

Opposite to C, Matlab, Mathematica, IDL, etc.

You don't often need to know the storage order Three important cases where you do:

- I/O of arrays, especially unformatted
- Array constructors and array constants
- Optimization (caching and locality)

Simple Array I/O (1)

Arrays and sections can be included in I/O These are expanded in array element order

REAL, DIMENSION(3,2) :: oxo READ *, oxo

This is exactly equivalent to:

READ *, oxo(1,1), oxo(2,1), oxo(3,1), & oxo(1,2), oxo(2,2), oxo(3,2)

Simple Array I/O (2)

Array sections can also be used

REAL, DIMENSION(100) :: nums READ *, nums(30:50)

REAL, DIMENSION(3,3) :: ∞ READ *, ∞ (:,3), ∞ (3:1:-1,1)

This last statement equivalent to:

READ *, oxo(1,3), oxo(2,3), oxo(3,3), & oxo(3,1), oxo(2,1), oxo(1,1)

Array Constructors (1)

Commonly used for assigning array values An array constructor will create a temporary array

INTEGER, DIMENSION(6) :: marks marks = (/ 10, 25, 32, 54, 56, 60 /)

Constructs an array with the elements 10, 25, 32, 54, 56, 60

And then copies that array into marks

Fortran 2003 addition: Also can use square brackets

marks = [10, 25, 32, 54, 56, 60]

Array Constructors (2)

Variable expressions are okay in constructors marks = (/ x, 2.0*y, SIN(t*w/3.0), ... /)

They can be used anywhere an array can be Except where you might assign to them!

All expressions must be the same type This can be relaxed in Fortran 2003

Array Constructors (3)

Arrays can be used in the value list They are flattened into array element order Implied DO-loops (as in I/O) allow sequences If n has the value 5:

marks = (/ 0.0, (k/10.0, k=2, n), 1.0 /)

This is equivalent to:

marks = (/ 0.0, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 1.0 /)

Constants and Initialization (1)

Array constructors can be very useful for this All elements must be initialization expressions i.e., ones that can be evaluated at compile time

For rank one arrays just use a constructor

REAL, PARAMETER :: a(3) = (/ 1.23, 4.56, 7.89 /) REAL :: b(3) = (/ 1.23, 4.56, 7.89 /) b = exp(b)

Constants and Initialization (2)

Other types can be initialized in the same way

CHARACTER(LEN=4), DIMENSION(5) :: & names = (/ 'Fred', 'Joe', 'Bill', 'Bert', 'Alf' /)

Initialization expressions are allowed

INTEGER, PARAMETER :: N = 3, M = 6, P = 12 INTEGER :: arr(3) = (/ N, (M/N), (P/N) /)

Constants and Initialization (3)

What about this?

REAL :: arr(3) = (/ 1.0, exp(1.0), exp(2.0) /)

Fortran 90 does NOT allow this but Fortran 2003 does

Not just intrinsic functions but all sorts of things

Sample source code: arrayinit.f90

Multiple Dimensions

Constructors cannot be nested - e.g., NOT:

REAL, DIMENSION(3,4) :: xvals = & (/ (/ 1.1, 2.1, 3.1 /), (/ 1.2, 2.2, 3.2 /), & (/ 1.3, 2.3, 3.3 /), (/ 1.4, 2.4, 3.4 /) /)

They construct only rank one arrays

Use the **RESHAPE** intrinsic function to construct higher rank arrays. (See **myreshape.f90**)

Allocatable Arrays (1)

Arrays can be declared with an unknown shape Use the ALLOCATABLE attribute in the type declaration

INTEGER, DIMENSION(:), ALLOCATABLE :: counts REAL, DIMENSION(:,:,:), ALLOCATABLE :: values

They become defined when space is allocated

ALLOCATE(counts(1:1000000)) ALLOCATE(values(0:N,-5:5,M:2*N+1))

You can also allocate multiple arrays in a single ALLOCATE statement

Allocatable Arrays (2)

Failures will terminate the program You can trap most allocation failures

INTEGER :: istat ALLOCATE(arr(0:100,-5:5,7:14),STAT=istat) IF (istat /= 0) THEN

ENDIF

Arrays can be deallocated using

DEALLOCATE(counts)

Example

INTEGER, DIMENSION(:), ALLOCATABLE :: counts **INTEGER** :: size, code !-- Ask the user how many counts he has PRINT *, 'Type in the number of counts' READ *, size **!--** Allocate memory for the array ALLOCATE(counts(l:size),STAT=code) IF (code $\neq 0.0$) THEN PRINT *, 'Error in allocate statement'



WHERE Construct (1)

Used for masked array assignment Example: Set all negative elements of an array to zero

REAL, DIMENSION(20,30) :: array

But the WHERE statement is much more convenient WHERE (array < 0.0) array = 0.0

WHERE Construct (2)

It has a statement construct form, too Example: Set all negative elements of an array to zero

WHERE (array < 0.0) array = 0.0 ELSE WHERE array = 0.01 * array ENDWHERE

Masking expressions are LOGICAL arrays You can use an actual array there, if you want Masks and assignments need the same shape