

## Fortran 90 programming rules

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A photograph of a red barn with a dark roof situated on a rocky shore next to a body of water. In the background, there is a forested hill and distant mountains under a blue sky. The foreground shows green grass and some reeds. A large, light blue 'DRAFT' watermark is oriented diagonally across the center of the image.



# **Fortran 90 programming rules**

## **Technical Reference Manual**

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## Fortran 90 programming rules, Technical Reference Manual

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This report describes the rules a Fortran program as written within Deltares must adhere to. The rules are an adaptation and modernisation of the rules developed in 2001 for the OMS project.

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-

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## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>Which Fortran standard?</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>3</b>	<b>Declarations</b>	<b>5</b>
3.1	Overall declarations . . . . .	5
3.2	Dummy arguments and intents . . . . .	5
3.3	Parameters . . . . .	5
3.4	Arrays . . . . .	6
3.5	Allocatables versus pointers . . . . .	6
3.6	Dimensions . . . . .	6
3.7	Character strings . . . . .	7
3.8	Numeric variables and kinds . . . . .	7
3.9	Variables . . . . .	8
3.10	Attributes . . . . .	8
3.11	Form of declarations . . . . .	8
<b>4</b>	<b>Control structures</b>	<b>11</b>
4.1	GOTO statements . . . . .	11
4.2	DO-loops . . . . .	11
4.3	IF statements . . . . .	12
4.4	STOP statement . . . . .	12
4.5	WHERE statement . . . . .	13
4.6	SELECT statement . . . . .	13
<b>5</b>	<b>I/O statements</b>	<b>15</b>
5.1	File access . . . . .	15
5.2	Logical unit numbers . . . . .	15
<b>6</b>	<b>Expressions and assignments</b>	<b>17</b>
6.1	Pointers and allocatable arrays . . . . .	17
6.2	Arrays . . . . .	18
6.3	Logical operators . . . . .	18
6.4	Mixed precision . . . . .	19
6.5	Character strings . . . . .	19
6.6	Intrinsic functions . . . . .	19
<b>7</b>	<b>Modules</b>	<b>21</b>
7.1	Interfaces to routines . . . . .	21
7.2	Derived types . . . . .	21
7.3	Controlling access . . . . .	22
<b>8</b>	<b>Source code documentation by Doxygen</b>	<b>25</b>
8.1	Documentation for files and modules . . . . .	25
8.2	Documentation for subroutines and functions . . . . .	25
8.3	Documentation for variables . . . . .	25
<b>9</b>	<b>Source files</b>	<b>27</b>
9.1	File names and extension . . . . .	27
9.2	Executable statements . . . . .	27
9.3	Letters . . . . .	27
9.4	Line length . . . . .	27
9.5	Tabs . . . . .	27
9.6	Comments . . . . .	27

9.7	Include files . . . . .	28
9.8	Indentation . . . . .	28
9.9	Continuation . . . . .	28
9.10	END statement . . . . .	28
9.11	Header of function/subroutine . . . . .	28
<b>10</b>	<b>General recommendations</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>11</b>	<b>Points of attention</b>	<b>33</b>
11.1	SAVE attribute . . . . .	33
11.2	Alignment of arrays . . . . .	33
11.3	Large datasets . . . . .	33
11.4	Scope of variable . . . . .	33
<b>12</b>	<b>Prohibited features</b>	<b>35</b>
	<b>References</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>A</b>	<b>Example of a source file</b>	<b>39</b>



# 1 Introduction

When programming in any programming language it is important to avoid obsolete, undesirable and overly complex constructions, to have well-documented code (internally or externally) and code with a well-defined layout to support easy understanding and code reviewing. Furthermore such code is easier to transfer to other programmers. Rules will help the programmer to develop and maintain the source code. As such the set of rules has been kept fairly small.

In 2013 a tool was developed at Deltares to help the programmer fulfill the Fortran90 programming rules as stated in this document, the tool is called Fortran\_Conformer.

In this document we will give the rules and guidelines on the following subjects:

**Chapter 2: Which Fortran standard?**

**Chapter 3: Declarations**

**Chapter 4: Control structures**

**Chapter 5: I/O statements**

**Chapter 6: Expressions and assignments**

**Chapter 7: Modules Chapter 9: Source files**

**Chapter 10: General recommendations**

**Chapter 11: Points of attention**

**Chapter 12: Prohibited features**

The appendix shows an extended example of the layout and style.

The following literature is used during evaluation of these Fortran 90 programming rules: [Akin \(2003\)](#), [Brainerd \(2009\)](#), [Brainerd et al. \(1994\)](#), [Chapman \(2004\)](#), [Markus \(1999\)](#), [Markus \(2009\)](#), [Metcalf et al. \(2004\)](#) and [Morgan and Schonfelder \(1993\)](#)

## Notation

The coding guidelines are ranked by four classes: *critical rules*, *rules*, *recommendations* and *suggestions*.

**CRITICAL:** Rules that are mandatory and critical to be satisfied are marked as such in the page margin. Source code is not shippable when it violates any of these rules.

**RULE:** Rules that are mandatory are marked as such in the page margin. Source code should in principle satisfy these rules. Only motivated exceptions allow shipping of the software.

**RECOMMENDED:** Recommendations are marked as such in the page margin. It is strongly suggested to adhere to these rules, but this is not required. Software is always shippable.

**SUGGESTED:** Suggestions are marked as such in the page margin. When applicable, source code can benefit from them, but they are the least critical of the four classes. Software is always shippable.

All may be followed by an explanation and/or example(s).

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## 2 Which Fortran standard?

The standard we use in general is Fortran 95 (colloquially known as Fortran 90). That is to say:

For new code:

- ◇ When developing new code we use the free form for source files, with a layout as described in this document.
- ◇ We also use the modern constructs as defined in the Fortran 90/95 standard and newer (2003,...), some of which are recommended in this document.

For existing code:

- ◇ Should (small) changes be made to existing source files which use the fixed form of FORTRAN 77, then it is not necessary to first convert the entire file to free form. Instead you can continue to use the fixed form.
- ◇ It is important for readability that a source file uses a consistent layout and coding style. So, if the original source file is messy, it may be advantageous to first clean up the source file before making the required changes.
- ◇ Should undesirable features be found in an existing source file, such as arithmetic ifs, take the opportunity to clean these up (see [chapter 11](#)).
- ◇ It may also be good opportunity to convert the old do/continue constructions to do/enddo (if necessary with label names) and convert jumps to controls the execution of do-loops into their more structured equivalents (exit and cycle).

While all sorts of *refactoring* are possible, only the ones without any risk of breaking the code should be considered. (Refactoring is a subject in its own right that should be backed by appropriate testing.)

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## 3 Declarations

In this chapter we describe the rules for declaring and naming variables.

### 3.1 Overall declarations

**CRITICAL:** The use of the statement `IMPLICIT NONE` at the start of a module or a program unit outside a module is obligatory. The reason for this is simple: it helps the author catch typos like:

```
do i = 2, 10
    x(i) = x(i-1)
enddo
```

**Note:** that in the above fragment, `i` is a lowercase *ell*, not a *one*.



### 3.2 Dummy arguments and intents

**RULE:** All dummy arguments must have the `INTENT` attribute (exception: this is not possible for pointers in Fortran 90).

The Fortran 90 language allows you to define a dummy argument as input-only or that the dummy argument will get a value in the subroutine. The advantage is that it makes the intention of the dummy argument clearer. It also prohibits certain errors:

**Example:**

```
subroutine suba ( a, b)
    real, intent(in)  :: a
    real, intent(out) :: b

    a = b
end subroutine suba
```

This example gives a compile-time error (assignment of `a`) and a warning (`b` used without initialisation) with some compilers or just an error with others.

### 3.3 Parameters

**RECOMMENDED:** Literal real numbers (constants) should be parametrised with the `PARAMETER` attribute. Acceptable exceptions are the real numbers that are whole numbers and are easily recognised, and the inverses of whole numbers that can be written as an exact fraction.

You have to use parameters (named constants) or variables instead of literal numbers for:

- ◇ local unit numbers
- ◇ array dimensions
- ◇ physical constants

The advantage is that the numbers are defined in just one place, so changing the value needs to be done in just one place. Additionally the meaning of the number will be clearer.

**Examples:**

- ◇ The number 0.16 should be parametrised, the numbers 4.0 and 0.25 need not be parametrised.
- ◇ The number 0.33333 is better written as (1./3.). The number  $\pi$  can be parametrised as a literal or computed with an intrinsic function:  $\pi = 4.0 * \text{atan}(1.0)$ <sup>1</sup>
- ◇ The numbers "0.4" or "9.81" may be recognised by knowledgeable programmers as the Von Kármán constant and the gravitational acceleration on earth, but for other programmers they are nearly random.

**Example:**<sup>2</sup>

```
real(kind=sp), parameter :: g = 9.81_sp
real(kind=sp), parameter :: pi = 4.0_sp * atan(1.0_sp)
```

**3.4 Arrays****RECOMMENDED:**

The use of allocatable arrays is preferred to (potentially large) automatic arrays. The reason is that automatic arrays are allocated on the stack and if there is not enough space, the program simply crashes. Allocatable arrays are put on the (much larger) heap. Moreover, with explicit allocation there is at least the chance of gracefully stopping the program.

**RECOMMENDED:**

Allocatable arrays without the SAVE attribute are automatically deallocated upon return from a function or subroutine, according to the Fortran 95 standard, but it is preferred that you explicitly deallocate them when they are no longer needed. Include an `if (allocated(xs) ...` when necessary.

**RECOMMENDED:**

Use utility libraries where possible to re-use functionality instead of implementing it yourself. Consider the "m\_alloc" module in the "utils\_flow" library, which offers subroutines "realloc" for a range of data types and array ranks.

**3.5 Allocatables versus pointers****RECOMMENDED:**

Use of allocatables in favour of pointer arrays is highly recommended. The 2003 extensions to Fortran 95 now allow `allocatable` arrays as components of structures, which makes use of pointers a lot less necessary. Pointers are generally slower and moreover, pointer dummy arguments are impractical, since the actual arguments at the call site then always need to have either the `pointer` or `target` attribute (as opposed to C-style pointers).

**3.6 Dimensions****RULE:**

Use either explicit dimensioning for dummy arguments or assumed-shape arrays ("`:`"), *not* assumed-size ("`*`"). That is:

```
integer, dimension(1:10) :: array    ! Explicit dimension
integer, dimension(:)    :: array    ! Assumed shape is allowed
```

but not:

```
integer, dimension(*) :: array        ! Assumed size is not allowed
```

<sup>1</sup>Most compilers will accept the use of the intrinsic function here, but there is some controversy possible: the parameter's value is computed by the compiler and in a cross-compiler environment the program will be run on a different platform. There is no guarantee that on that platform the result of that expression will be the same.

<sup>2</sup>See [section 3.8](#) for an explanation of the use of KIND

**RULE:** Note that the interface to a subroutine with assumed-shape dummy arguments must be explicit on all call sites. In case of a non-module procedure, either an interface must be declared, or all dummy arguments must be explicitly dimensioned.

Most of the compilers have an option to check the array boundaries, it is a little bit slower but in the development phase of the project it is very be useful.<sup>3</sup> The check option does not work on arrays with assumed size. Furthermore, using these types of arrays, array and memory facilities that are facilitated by Fortran 90 can not be used.

**Example:**

```
integer, dimension(:)      :: array
integer, dimension(1:noarr) :: array ! noarr another argument
```

or (better):

```
integer, dimension(:)      :: array
integer                    :: noarr = size(array)
```

The last example is better because the noarr argument does not have to appear in the parameter list of the function call, and there can therefore be no mistake.

Note that assumed-shape arrays imply that the interface to the routine must be made explicit. This is easiest when the routine is part of a module or is an internal routine.

**Exception:**

Assumed-size arrays are allowed when the routine must be called from a routine in a different programming language. But then the dimensions must be clear in another way.

### 3.7 Character strings

**RULE:** A dummy argument that is a character variable should have a variable length specification with: `character(len=*)`.

The length of a character variable must not appear in the argument list. The length should only be determined with the intrinsic function `len`.

**RECOMMENDED:** (Local) character string variables should be declared with the form `character(len=n)` in favour of `character*n`.

### 3.8 Numeric variables and kinds

**RULE:** The bare declaration `REAL` is not advocated, as it makes the possible transition to a different precision more difficult. Always add the `KIND` attribute.

The declaration `DOUBLE PRECISION` may not be used, for these the `KIND` selector is used.

<sup>3</sup>Related options that are often available is checking for undefined variables and checking for the allocation and association status.

**Example:**

```
integer, parameter :: sp = selected_real_kind(p=6, r=37)
integer, parameter :: dp = selected_real_kind(p=13, r=200)
real(kind=sp)      :: var1 = 0.0_sp
real(kind=dp)      :: var2 = 0.0_dp
```

**RECOMMENDED:**

The last two items have the advantage that in a very easy way the accuracy of the numbers can be increased for the whole program. So these statements should be placed in a include file or, preferably a separate module. The "utils\_flow" library contains the "precision" module, which does exactly this.

Literal real (floating-point) numbers should always have their kind (precision) indicated. This can prevent the inadvertent use of numbers of a lesser precision (see also [section 3.3](#)).

### 3.9 Variables

**RULE:**

All local variables declared should be used and vice versa (the latter will be enforced by `implicit none`). The only exception is the case where an external function is used, where the function requires a fixed number of dummy arguments.

**RECOMMENDED:**

The name of a variable may occur only once within the same scope. So in an internal procedure a *local* variable with the same name as one in the containing subroutine might cause confusion.

**RECOMMENDED:**

Use a variable for one purpose only and provide a meaningful name.

### 3.10 Attributes

**RULE:**

Define all attributes in just one statement. Only Fortran 90 style is allowed (that is, with double colons).

**Example:**

```
integer, dimension(1:10), save :: array
integer                        :: simple_variable
```

instead of

```
integer array
dimension array(10)
save array
integer simple_variable
```

### 3.11 Form of declarations

**RULE:**

Declaration blocks of variables (local, dummy and module) should adhere to the following rules:

- ◇ The dummy arguments of a subprogram and its local variable declarations are in two separate blocks, but the order within these respective blocks is free (e.g, not alphabetical per se, so dependent on the programmer).
- ◇ Use initialisation in the declaration statements, with keyword `parameter` where appropriate (see [section 3.3](#)). `data` statements are forbidden.



**RULE:**

Additionally, declarations of module variables and dummy arguments of subprograms should adhere to:

- ◇ The obligatory double colons (::) in a declaration block are vertically aligned.
- ◇ The obligatory `intents` in a dummy variables declaration block are vertically aligned.
- ◇ A comment block with descriptions explains the declared variables, and should be in Doxygen-format (see [section 8.3](#)).
- ◇ A declaration line for module variables and dummy arguments should contain only one variable and all attributes should be part of the declaration.

**Example:**

```
subroutine get_cell_circumcenter(n, xz, yz, zz)
implicit none
integer,          intent(in)          :: n  !< Netcell number
real(kind=dp), intent( out) :: xz !< x-coordinate of circumcenter point.
real(kind=dp), intent( out) :: yz !< y-coordinate of circumcenter point.
real(kind=dp), intent( out) :: zz !< Depth value at cc point.

integer, parameter :: max_rank = 6
real(kind=dp), dimension(max_rank) :: xv, yv
```

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## 4 Control structures

### 4.1 GOTO statements

**RULE:** The GOTO statement may only be used for error handling in the following specific way. It is only allowed to jump forwards over more than one block to a CONTINUE statement with a label like 999.

Such a CONTINUE statement for error handling is directly preceded by a RETURN statement, and is directly followed by the error handling.

**Example:**

```
open(lun, file='general.input', iostat=open_error)
if (open_error /= 0) goto 999
...
<ordinary processing>
...
return
!
!   error handling
!
999 continue
write(lun_diag, ('Error opening file: general.input'))
return
```

This way error handling is visually separated from the normal processing, making the program flow of the routine clearer.

### 4.2 DO-loops

**RULE:** Use the `do ... enddo` construction (not `do/continue`).

Use EXIT to jump out a do-loop to the first executable statement after the do-loop. This is not possible when using OpenMP.

**SUGGESTED:** Document the `enddo` in case of nested loops (see example below).

Use labels to identify the structure of do-loops when it is necessary to jump up out of a higher level loop. Note that label names can not be equal to variable names.

**Example:**

```
time_loop: &
do nt = 1,101
do k = 1,23
do j = 1,37
if (...check...)
exit time_loop
end if
enddo ! j
enddo ! k
enddo time_loop
```

**RECOMMENDED:** It is preferable not to use the `do while` loop, but instead to use the `exit` statement to terminate the `do-loop`.

**Example:**

```
do nt = 1, 101
  if (condition) then
    exit
  endif
  ...
enddo
```

Use the `cycle`-statement to go to the end of the `do`-loop, with labels you can jump to another level.

**Example:**

```
time_loop: &
  do nt = 1, ntmax
    do k = 1, kmax
      do j = 1, jmax
        do i = 1, imax
          ...
          ! (Note that generally this check could better be 3 levels up)
          if (nt == nt_skip) then
            cycle time_loop
          endif
          ...
        enddo ! i
      enddo ! j
    enddo ! k
  enddo &
time_loop
```

### 4.3 IF statements

**SUGGESTED:**

IF-statements nested more than three levels deep or with lengthy bodies should be documented with a short label at their closing (conform DO-loops).

**Example:**

```
if (m <= mmax) then
  if (k <= kmax) then
    if (j <= jmax) then
      if (i <= imax) then
        ...
      endif
    endif ! jmax
  endif ! kmax
endif ! mmax
```

### 4.4 STOP statement

**RULE:**

Use the `STOP` statement only in the main program, not in subprograms. Library routines should never have a `STOP` statement, as this may prevent the program that uses that library from providing useful information to the user to solve the problem. Any of the called subroutines should *also* not contain `STOP` statements.

**RECOMMENDED:**

Stopping a program or a library routine can better be handled by simply returning from the routine, and returning an integer error result code. All possible values of returned error codes should be defined in named integer parameter constants.

**Example:**

```

integer, parameter :: DFM_MODELNOTINITIALIZED = 21  !< Model was empty or
                                                    !! not properly initialized.
! ...
if (ndx == 0) then
  ireresult = DFM_MODELNOTINITIALIZED
  goto 888
end if

```

**4.5 WHERE statement****RECOMMENDED:**

Use simple do-loops in favour of the `where` and `forall` constructs.

**4.6 SELECT statement**

The construction of a `select case` replaces the computed `goto` or, in some cases, large `if ... elseif ... elseif ... else ... endif` construction. It is a more structured solution than a computed `goto`.

**RECOMMENDED:**

When you use a `select case` you have to use a case default to assure that there are no unexpected side effects.

**Example:**

```

select case ( icode )
case (1)
  result = 1.0_dp
case ( 2 )
  result = 2.0_dp
case ( 3 )
  result = 3.0_dp
case default
  write( *, * ) 'Impossible case:', icode
  write( *, * ) 'Programming error!'
end select

```

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## 5 I/O statements

### 5.1 File access

**RECOMMENDED:**

In the case of file access you have to check the status of the access with the use of the IOSTAT= clause, always check it. Never use END= or ERR=.

**Example:**

```
open(lun, file='general.input', iostat=open_error)
if (open_error /= 0) goto 9999
```

### 5.2 Logical unit numbers

**RULE:**

File unit numbers should be provided by a generic function/routine. In Fortran 2008, a NEWUNIT specifier is introduced, where the NEWUNIT specifier opens a file on an unused unit number that is automatically chosen. It also returns the unit number that was chosen.

**Example:**

```
...
integer, external :: newunit
...
open (newunit = lunvol, file=trim(filnam)//'vol', form = 'binary', SHARED)
```

**Remark:**

- ◇ Be careful when using Fortran90 compilers which does not support the Fortran 2008 standard (so new code with old compilers). Then you have to define your own unit numbers because there is no generic routine available; you have to start your unit numbers at value 11. So 11 is the first unit number. Traditionally the LU-numbers 5 and 6 are the default input and output devices (keyboard and screen). However, to access these two devices, always use "\*".



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## 6 Expressions and assignments

### 6.1 Pointers and allocatable arrays

#### RECOMMENDED:

First a repeated recommendation to use allocatables in favour of pointers, see [section 3.5](#).

#### RULE:

When using pointers and allocatable arrays you have to meet the following requirements:

- ◇ Be sure that initialisation is right:
  - Pointers should either be explicitly nullified (using `nullify(..)` or `..=>null()`) or point to a valid item before they are used.
  - Allocatable arrays should have the status "allocated" before you use them.
- ◇ Check the allocation and deallocation of arrays, use `STAT=` to check the validity of the (de)allocation.
- ◇ Free the memory as soon as convenient, deallocation statements are typically placed at the end of the routine.
- ◇ If a pointer refers to an allocatable array, never deallocate the memory by pointer but deallocate the memory via the array.
- ◇ Array assignment for pointer arrays should be done with an explicit `do`-loop to avoid stack overflows.
- ◇ Again, it is recommended to use the "realloc" routines in the "m\_alloc" module inside "deltares\_common".

#### Example:

```
subroutine resize( ptr, newsize, error )
  implicit none
  real, dimension(:), pointer      :: ptr
  integer,               intent(in) :: newsize
  logical,               intent(out) :: error
  real, dimension(:), pointer      :: newptr
  integer :: istat
  integer :: i
  !
  ! Always give the error flag a value
  !
  error = .false.
  !
  ! Allocate the new array
  !
  allocate(newptr(1:newsize),stat=istat)
  !
  ! Check the status
  !
  if (istat /= 0) then
    error = .true.
    return
  endif
  !
  ! Initialise the new array and copy the
  ! original values
  !
  newptr = 0
  if (associated(ptr)) then
    do i=1,size(ptr)
      newptr(i) = ptr(i)
    end do
  end if
  !
```

```
! Now free the old memory
!  
deallocate(ptr)  
ptr    => newptr  
newptr => null()  
end subroutine resize
```

#### *Example (deallocation rule)*

```
real, dimension(:), allocatable, target :: array  
real, dimension(:), pointer             :: ptr  
  
allocate( array(1:10) )  
ptr => array  
deallocate( ptr ) ! WRONG: use: deallocate( array )
```

## 6.2 Arrays

### RECOMMENDED:

Use basic `do`-loops instead of array expressions. Simple array expressions may be more compact, but not always more readable. Moreover, when conditions are used (like `array > 0.0`), you must be aware that a temporary array is often created and this could impact the performance with large arrays.

#### **Examples:**

Initialisation of arrays:

```
copy = 0.0_dp  
do i = 1, noarr  
    if ( array(i) >= 0.0_dp ) then  
        copy(i) = array(i)  
    endif  
enddo
```

instead of:

```
copy = merge( array, 0.0_dp, array > 0.0_dp )
```

Adding all positive array elements:

```
sum1 = 0.0  
do i = 1, noarr  
    if ( array(i) >= 0.0 ) then  
        sum1 = sum + array(i)  
    endif  
enddo
```

instead of:

```
sum1 = sum( array , array > 0.0_dp )
```

## 6.3 Logical operators

### RECOMMENDED:

Use the new style of logical operators: `>`, `>=`, `==`, `<=`, `<`, `/=`.

This style is chosen to have more distinction between the logical clause: `.and.`, `.or.`

The operator '==' may only be used in combination with REAL numbers if these don't contain computed values.

**Example:**

```
if ( a >= b .and. &
    ( b >= c .or. &
      a > 0.0      ) ) then
...
endif
```

## 6.4 Mixed precision

**CRITICAL:** Mixed-precision expressions and implicit data-conversions are not allowed, also not in initialisations. The reason is that the expressions are evaluated without regard to the precision of the receiving variable. This may lead to unexpected results as shown in the example below.

To convert to and from a different precision use the REAL() intrinsic function with the proper kind argument

**Example:**

program mixed\_mode

```
program mix_mode
!
!   test of mixed mode initialisation
!
integer, parameter :: double = selected_real_kind(p=13, r=200)
real(kind=double)  :: a1 = 6.666666666666666
real(kind=double)  :: a2 = 6.666666666666666_double
double precision   :: a3 = 6.666666666666666
double precision   :: a4 = 6.666666666666666d0
write(*,*) a1, a2, a3, a4
end program
```

Result:

```
6.66666650772095      6.666666666666667      6.66666650772095
6.666666666666667
```

## 6.5 Character strings

**RULE:** Character strings may not appear as operand in an expression with the following relational operators: .lt. (<), .le., .gt., .ge.. Use the Fortran functions lge, lgt, lle, llt

**RECOMMENDED:** String comparisons can conveniently be done by "strcmpi" in the "string\_module" inside "deltares\_core". **RULE:** Don't use ichar and char in a way that it depends on the underlying character set (e.g. ascii or ebcdic). iachar and achar are good alternatives.

**RECOMMENDED:** The length of a character variable which gets a value (expression), must not be shorter than that expression. When it does, make sure to initialize it with blanks: str = ' '.

## 6.6 Intrinsic functions

**RULE:** For intrinsic functions only the generic names may be used, not the type-specific interfaces. For example, use cos, not dcos and sign, not isign.

DRAFT

## 7 Modules

Modules in Fortran 90 are the main mechanism to package routines and data. As such they provide a means to hide data and the actual implementation of some functionality. They also provide a means to automatically expose the interface to routines. If you use modules, the compiler can check that the call to a subroutine or function uses the correct number of arguments and the correct types of arguments. This prevents a large class of programming errors to enter into the program. Because routines and data in a module are only available to a routine that actually uses the module, you can use them to avoid name clashes (two routines with the same name for instance in a large program).

**RULE:** With the introduction of modules as a way to share data and code, common blocks are obsolete and should not be used.<sup>1</sup>

### 7.1 Interfaces to routines

Explicit interfaces for subroutines and functions should be used. The interfaces are automatically known in the calling routines via the USE statement, if the routines live in a module. Many of the features that Fortran 90 introduced require an explicit interface, for example the assumed-shape declaration of arrays (see [section 3.6](#)).

You can define interfaces in at least two ways:

**RECOMMENDED:**

- ◇ Place the whole subroutines in the module  
**Drawback:** a change in a module procedure, even if it is declared as private and the interfaces are not changed, may cause a cascade of compilations in all the places where the module is used.  
Nevertheless, this is the preferred way for all new software.
- ◇ Place only the interfaces in the module  
**Drawback:** the interfaces appear twice: once in the actual subroutine and once in the module.  
This method is recommended if the subroutines or functions can not be put in modules (for instance, they are written in C).

### 7.2 Derived types

**RECOMMENDED:**

Derived types should always be defined in a module, together with the routines that manipulate them. Always avoid duplicate definition of types!

Example (problem: the derived type "GridType" is defined in two places):

```
program testGrid
  type GridType
    integer :: gridtype
  end type GridType
  interface GridGet
    function GridGet(fileName) result(grid)
      type GridType
        integer :: gridtype
      end type GridType
      type(GridType), pointer :: grid
      character(len=*)          :: fileName
    end function
  end interface
```

<sup>1</sup>COMMON blocks might be required to communicate with old software. In that case, make their use as localised as possible.

```
type(GridType), pointer :: grid
grid = GridGet('grid1.grd')
end
```

This problem can be solved by placing the definition of GridType in a separate module:

```
modules types
  type GridType
    integer :: gridtype
  end type GridType
end module types

program testGrid
  use types

  interface GridGet
    function GridGet(fileName) result(grid)
      use types
      type(GridType), pointer :: grid
      character(len=*)          :: fileName
    end function
  end interface

  type(GridType), pointer :: grid
  grid = GridGet('grid1.grd')
end
```

All entities in a module must be declared private by default, and thereafter the entities that have to be known outside the module are explicitly declared public.

**Note:**

Do not use "clever" constructions to circumvent *compilation cascades* when the module changes. Use only the standard possibilities of the local compiler and build system and accept the impossibilities. (For instance: do not compare the module intermediate files by contents to prevent unnecessary recompilation.)

### 7.3 Controlling access

Quite often a module will contain data and routines that are meant for internal use only. To prevent a using routine from accessing these private items, use the PRIVATE statement or attribute. To make a routine or data items available outside the module, use the PUBLIC statement or attribute.

**RECOMMENDED:**

The recommended way of using these two attributes is:

- ◇ Declare everything to be PRIVATE, via the statement PRIVATE
- ◇ Declare only those items to be PUBLIC that actually should be available.

Example:

```
module grids
  private
  type GridType
    integer :: gridtype
  end type GridType
  public :: GridType, definegrid, getgrid
contains
  !
  ! Private routine to set up the arrays
end module grids
```

```
!
subroutine allocategrid( ...
)
    ...
end subroutine allocategrid
!
! Public routine to create the grid
!
subroutine definegrid( ...
)
    ...
    call allocategrid( ...
)
    ...
end subroutine definegrid
!
! Public routine to load a grid from file
!
type(gridtype) function getgrid( filename )
    ...
    call allocategrid( ...
)
    ...
end function getgrid
end module
```

DRAFT



## 8 Source code documentation by Doxygen

### 8.1 Documentation for files and modules

**RECOMMENDED:**

Program modules are recommended to be documented in prefix block notation, using `!>` (and `!!` on subsequent lines). If a file contains non-module functions, document at the top of the file instead using `!> @file yourfile.f90`

**Example:**

```
!> @file modules.f90
!! Modules with global data.
!! call default_*() routines upon program startup and when loading a new MDU.
```

### 8.2 Documentation for subroutines and functions

**RULE:**

All subroutines and functions should be documented in prefix block notation, using `!>` (and `!!` on subsequent lines).

**Example:**

```
!> Adds an observation station to the current station set.
!! Flow data at this station will end up in the history file.
subroutine addObservation(x, y, name, isMoving)
```

### 8.3 Documentation for variables

**RULE:**

Documentation for variables declarations should be in postfix notation, using `!<`. Large blocks of dummy argument declarations may also be documented in the subroutine header using `\param`.

**Example:**

```
subroutine addObservation(x, y, name, isMoving)
  real(kind=dp),          intent(in) :: x          !< x-coordinate
  real(kind=dp),          intent(in) :: y          !< y-coordinate
  character(len=*), optional, intent(in) :: name    !< Name of the station,
                                                    !! appears in output file.
  logical,                optional, intent(in) :: isMoving !< Whether point is
                                                    !! a moving station or not.
Default: .false.
```

! Alternative:

```
!>
!! \param[in] x    x-coordinate
!! \param[in] y    y-coordinate
!! \param[in] name Name of the station, appears in output file.
!! \param[in] isMoving Whether point is a moving station or not.
Default: .false.
subroutine addObservation(x, y, name, isMoving)
  real(kind=dp),          intent(in) :: x,y
  character(len=*), optional, intent(in) :: name
  logical,                optional, intent(in) :: isMoving
```

DRAFT

## 9 Source files

### 9.1 File names and extension

**RULE:** New source files should always use the free form of Fortran source code. The base name (i.e., not the extension) should be in lower-case.<sup>1</sup> Spaces in file names are not allowed.

**RULE:** Files with source code in fixed form should have the extension `.f` (not `.for` as this is a Windows-only extension).

**RULE:** Files with source code in free form should have the extension `.f90`.

**RULE:** Files that need to be preprocessed by `fpp` should have an uppercase file extension, i.e., `*.F` or `*.F90`.

### 9.2 Executable statements

**RULE:** Only one statement per line is allowed. Also, control structure should span multiple lines (Example: `if (check) return` is forbidden, use `if ... end if`).

**RECOMMENDED:** The length of a program unit (procedure) should be as short as pragmatic (direction:  $< 500$  lines). When an algorithm is complicated and can not reasonably be split up into separate routines then internal routines may help.

### 9.3 Letters

**RULE:** Only lowercase letters are allowed in the executable statements because it improves the readability, except in comments and strings. The only exception on lowercase letters are names declared as parameter. To improve the readability of long variable names underscores are recommended.

### 9.4 Line length

**RECOMMENDED:** Do not use more than 80 characters on one line. Most of the screens and printers are tuned to a line length of 80 characters. At least keep (Doxygen-)comment blocks limited to 80 characters per line for direct readability.

### 9.5 Tabs

**RULE:** Tabs are *not allowed* in the source code. The reason is that tabs are interpreted differently by different editors and printers. Relying on tabs to layout the source code may work in one environment, but will produce horrible results in another. See also [section 9.8](#) on indentation of code.

### 9.6 Comments

**RULE:** Comments for the various program blocks (modules, subprograms, declarations) should be in Doxygen-format, see [chapter 8](#). Furthermore, the code should have enough comment statements explaining the algorithms, in such way that the program flow is easy to understand.

Avoid, however, adding so many comment lines that the code is obscured.

---

<sup>1</sup>On Linux file names are case-sensitive, on Windows file names are case-preserving. This leads to all manner of problems.

**Example:**

```
if ( x > 0 ) then
    ...
endif
!
!   Start summation loop
!
sum = 0
do i=1, n
    sum = sum+i
enddo
```

**9.7 Include files**

Be aware of the following problem: an include file in free source form cannot be included in program using fixed source form. This can especially happen if a program has parts in free and in (old) fixed source form.

It is possible to combine both source forms, include files, by applying the next four rules:

- ◇ use an exclamation mark (!) as comment.
- ◇ use spacing between names, keywords etc.

**RULE:** Use the above combination of both source forms only when strictly needed.

**9.8 Indentation**

**RECOMMENDED:** Use indentation for nested blocks. Do the indentation with 3 or 4 spaces for new developed code. For adjusted code the number of spaces must be constant per file, or at least per subroutine.

**9.9 Continuation**

**RECOMMENDED:** Ampersands (&) used to continue lines must be preceded by at least one space.

**9.10 END statement**

**RECOMMENDED:** Use the name of the module, function or subroutine in the END statement. Do the same for DO loops and other control structures with a name. This improves the readability of the code.

**Example:**

```
subroutine suba( ... )
    ...
end subroutine suba
```

**9.11 Header of function/subroutine**

**RECOMMENDED:** Each module, function or subroutine must be associated with a block of information (a block of comment lines). This may appear before or after the statement introducing the item. See [chapter 8](#) for the respective Doxygen-formats for each of these. The bare minimum of information contained in this block is:

- ◇ Name of the item
- ◇ Short description of the purpose

- ◇ Explanation of the arguments and the result
- ◇ Possibly notes on its usage

In the appendix you will find a more elaborate form of such an information block. This can be taken as a template. Whatever form is chosen for a particular program it is important that these information blocks are used and that they have the same form.

DRAFT

DRAFT

## 10 General recommendations

This chapter lists some further guidelines:

- 1 Consistently use a predefined layout for comment statements.
- 2 Split up long subroutines in "chapters" via easily recognised comment blocks or other layout features.
- 3 Use simple logical expressions and if it is a complex logical expression place each condition on a separate line.

**Example:**

```
bool = ((ifirs <= ibode) .and. &
        (ibode <= ilast) .and. &
        (ibode-ifirs+incr)/incr > (ibodb-ifirs+incr)/incr) .or. &
        (ibode < 0.0) )
```

- 4 Use an analysis tool like FORCHECK.
- 5 Names have to be distinguishable in the first few characters.

**Example:**

```
x_position, y_position
```

instead of

```
position_x, position_y
```

- 6 Use underscores (\_) to separate parts of a name (not capital letters), total\_number\_records.
- 7 Use mnemonic and functional names.
- 8 Use verbs in the names of the subroutines and functions: write\_data\_to\_file.
- 9 Use nouns for single and simple variables: value\_in\_cell.
- 10 Use names for logical variables that correspond to the default value. The default value is: .false.

**Example:**

If a routine can reasonably be expected to succeed (for instance: solving a system of linear equations), then a variable called error to indicate an unusual situation occurred (the system's matrix is near singular) is better than a variable success to indicate everything went well.

- 11 Use the SELECT ... CASE construct in the case of more than two mutually exclusive choices.
- 12 Avoid data dependency in array expressions:

If you are using array expressions then you have to avoid data dependency for two reasons: Loss of performance - the compiler has to assure that the expression is evaluated correctly and therefore it sometimes copied the array in a local copy – and readability - complex array expressions are difficult to understand.

**Example:**

```
array(10:1,-1) = array(1:10) + array(2:11)
```

which is the same as

```
do i = 1, 10
    temp(i) = array(i) + array(i+1)
enddo
do i = 1, 10
    array(11-i) = temp(i)
enddo
```

A better solution might be:

```
temp = array(1:10) + array(2:11)
array(10:1,-1) = temp
```

- 13 Use internal procedures:

Because the interface for internal routines and routines within a module are automatically known, you are able to use that advantage by using internal routines or modules. Independent of your choice divides your program in coherent parts.

- 14 Consider using existing, well-known libraries, for instance BLAS or LAPACK, for certain generic tasks.
- 15 Write real numbers in ES (extended scientific) format to print files.

DRAFT



## 11 Points of attention

### 11.1 SAVE attribute

Use the SAVE attribute (not the SAVE statement!) when the value of a variable must be retained in the next call of a subroutine. Note that a value assignment in a variable declaration implicitly assigns that variable the `save` attribute:

```
integer :: i = 0 ! i now implicitly has gotten the 'save' attribute.
```

therefor use

```
integer, save :: i = 0
```

In the past Fortran 77 compilers on PC used static memory for all variables, including the local ones. As a result the variables retain their value between two successively calls of the routine, but as a consequence the memory was allocated in the global memory space. Unfortunately this became a de facto standard. The compilers on UNIX do use the stack (dynamic memory), so (conform the F77 standard) the value of local variables are not saved between two successively calls to a routine, despite you use SAVE.

The stack can grow on UNIX and is therefore fairly unlimited so the problems with large program is less severe on UNIX then on PC, but there is still a limit. Most compilers do have options to avoid or detect problems with dynamic memory.

So the message is: Without the SAVE attribute you can guarantee nothing about the values of variables between two successively calls of a subroutine.

### 11.2 Alignment of arrays

Memory which is allocated for multi-dimensional arrays, cannot be assured to be one block of memory.

**Example:**

```
real, dimension(10,11) :: array
!
!   probably wrong
!
do i = 1, 110
    array(i,1) = real(i)
enddo
```

Rather than rely on such tricks, simply respect the array bounds.

### 11.3 Large datasets

Use allocatable arrays or pointers for very large data sets. Arrays defined in a classical way or automatic arrays are simple in use but they can lead to stack overflow problems.

### 11.4 Scope of variable

A disadvantage of the Fortran 90 possibilities is that you are able to introduce scope problems. Our experience is that the compilers do not always warn you for a scope problem.

**Example:**

The problem occurs that a module can use a variable `x` and the routine that uses the module also has a local variable `x`:

```
module A
  integer, dimension(1:10) :: x
endmodule A

subroutine b
  use A
  ! Local variables
  real :: x
  ...
some processing
  write( *, * ) x      ! The _local_ version of x is used!
end subroutine b
```

## 12 Prohibited features

The table below shows the features that are not allowed by the current rules and their alternatives.

Statement or construction	Alternatives
ASSIGN ... TO, and assigned GOTO	None <sup>1</sup>
<b>Obscure statements</b>	
Arithmetic IF	if ( ... ) then ... endif
Statement function	Normal or intrinsic functions
PAUSE	None
ENTRY	None
H-format	Write a normal string
PRINT	write(*, ...)
<b>Known statements</b>	
Computed GOTO	select ... case
COMMON	Via modules
D-format	Use ES format
ERR=	IOSTAT=
END=	IOSTAT=
CONTINUE	enddo, endif, ... (only allowed in case of error handling)
IMPLICIT	implicit none (required)
DATA / ... /	Use direct initialisation, with save-attribute
GOTO	only allowed in case of error handling
(CHARACTER*(*) FF(a))	Use explicit interface
BLOCK DATA	Via modules
<b>Dangerous statements</b>	
DO with real do-variable	Use integer counter and compute the real

continued on next page

<sup>1</sup>The main raison d'être for the ASSIGN statement has been obsolete for many decades

Table 12.0 – continued from previous page

Statement or construction	Alternatives
Alternate RETURN	Use an explicit argument
EQUIVALENCE	None
<b>New statements</b>	
NAMelist	Difficult in use
DO WHILE	Use the exit statement
SEQUENCE	None
<b>Attributes</b>	
CHARACTER*<length>	character(len=<length>)
PARAMETER	use parameter-attribute
SAVE	use save-attribute
DIMENSION	use dimension-attribute

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DRAFT

## A Example of a source file

This appendix contains an example of what source code should look like when adhering to the rules and guidelines given in this document. The internal documentation is fairly extensive. This type is useful for programs that are maintained by a large group of people.

The information block specifically appears after the subroutine statement and contains the name of the programmer, date and version as source code control macros, and copyright (no year). The date and version fields will be filled by the version control system (in casu: Subversion). The further sections are:

### DESCRIPTION

A short description of the subroutine must given here, no more than two lines.

### DUMMY ARGUMENTS

First the declarations and then the descriptions of the dummy arguments, one per line and in alphabetical lexicographical order. If the block has no contents, it should be filled with the word 'none'.

### MODULES USED

Description of the modules used. If the block has no contents, it should be filled with the word 'none'.

### LOCAL VARIABLES

First the declarations and then the descriptions of the local variables, one per line and in alphabetical lexicographical order. If the block has no contents, it should be filled with the word 'none'.

The description the variables has to be aligned in a proper way

#### **Example:**

```
!   a           description of array a
!   variabele_1  description of variable number 1
```

If the description of a long variable name does not fit on one line, continue it at the next line with the same alignment.

#### **Example:**

```
!   a           description of array a
!   a_useless_long_variable_name_01
!               variable with 31 characters, this is the maximum
!               number in this a example and it is too long.
!   variable_1  description of variable number 1
```

### FUNCTIONS CALLED

Description of the functions used

If the block has no contents, it should be filled with the word 'none'.

## CODE DESCRIPTION

Subroutines with more than 100 executable statements need to have a code description. The code's description is a summary of the functions in the file. Detailed information is not needed; the description should focus on structure and logic. Details can be found in the technical documentation.

If the block has no contents, it should be filled with the word 'none'.

Actual source code:

```
subroutine tridia (a, b, c, d, m)
  implicit none
  !
  !-----
  !   programmer: J. Mooiman
  !   date:       $date$
  !   version:    $version$
  !   copyright:  Deltares
  !
  !-----
  !   DESCRIPTION
  !
  !> Find solution of tridiagonal matrix with double sweep method
  !! (Gauss elimination)
  !
  !-----
  !   DUMMY ARGUMENTS
  !
  real, intent(in) , dimension(m) :: a ! a lower sub diagonal
  real, intent(in) , dimension(m) :: b ! b main diagonal
  real, intent(in) , dimension(m) :: c ! c upper sub diagonal
  real, intent(inout), dimension(m) :: d ! d righthandside, solution vector
  integer, intent(in) :: m ! m dimension of vector
  !
  !-----
  !   LOCAL VARIABLES
  !
  integer :: i ! i do-loop counter
  !
  !-----
  !   CODE DESCRIPTION
  !
  !   First sweep: eliminate the lower sub diagonal
  !   Second sweep: back substitution of the values
  !
  !-----
  !
  !   first sweep
  !
  a(1) = 0.0
  c(1) = c(1)/b(1)
  d(1) = d(1)/b(1)
  do i = 2, m
    c(i) = c(i) / ( b(i)-a(i)*c(i-1) )
    d(i) = ( d(i)-a(i)*d(i-1) ) / ( b(i)-a(i)*c(i-1) )
    b(i) = b(i)-a(i)*c(i-1)
  enddo
  !
  !   Second sweep
  !
```



```
i=m-1
d(i)=d(i)-c(i)*d(i+1)
do i = m-2, 1, -1
    d(i) = d(i)-c(i)*d(i+1)
enddo
end subroutine tridia
```

DRAFT



