

# The New Features of Fortran 2000

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The aim of this paper is to summarize the new features in the draft Fortran 2000 standard (J3 2002). We take as our starting point Fortran 95 plus the two official extensions (Cohen 2001, Reid 2001) that have been published as Type 2 Technical Reports. These provide features for

1. Allocatable dummy arguments and type components, and
2. Support for the five exceptions of the IEEE Floating Point Standard (IEEE 1989) and for other features of this Standard.

There is a firm commitment to include the features of these TRs in Fortran 2000, apart from changes that follow from errors and omissions found during implementation. Therefore, these features are not open to comment and are not described here. For an informal description, see chapters 12 and 13 of Metcalf and Reid (1999).

Fortran 2000 is a major extension of Fortran 95. This contrasts with Fortran 95, which was a minor extension of Fortran 90. The major changes concern the two TR items, object orientation, and interfacing with C. Allocatable arrays are very important for optimization – after all, good execution speed is Fortran's forte. Exception handling is needed to write robust code. Object orientation provides an effective way to separate programming into independent tasks and to build upon existing codes; we describe these features in Section 1. Interfacing with C is needed for access to the all the hardware features and to allow C programmers to call efficient Fortran codes; we describe these features in Section 4. There are also many less major enhancements, described in Sections 2 and 3.

We hope that this will help people to prepare comments, but it is not an official document and has not been approved by either of the Fortran committees WG5 or J3. Comments should be based on the draft itself (J3 2002), which is available via the web at

<ftp://ftp.j3-fortran.org/j3/doc/standing/2002/02-007r3/>

Comments should be sent to your national body. For the USA, they should be sent to Deborah Donovan, email: [ddonovan@itic.org](mailto:ddonovan@itic.org). For the UK, they should be sent to David Muxworthy, email: [d.muxworthy@ed.ac.uk](mailto:d.muxworthy@ed.ac.uk).

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# 1 Introduction and overview of the new features

Fortran is a computer language for scientific and technical programming that is tailored for efficient run-time execution on a wide variety of processors. It was first standardized in 1966 and the standard has since been revised three times (1978, 1991, 1997). The revision of 1991 was major and those of 1978 and 1997 were relatively minor. This proposed fourth revision is major and has been made following a meeting of ISO/IEC JTC1/SC22/WG5 in 1997 that considered all the requirements of users, as expressed through their national bodies.

The significant enhancements in the 1991 revision were dynamic storage, structures, derived types, pointers, type parameterization, modules, and array language. The main thrust of the 1997 revision was in connection with alignment with HPF (High Performance Fortran).

The major enhancements for this revision are

1. Derived type enhancements: parameterized derived types, improved control of accessibility, improved structure constructors, and finalizers.
2. Object oriented programming support: type extension and inheritance, polymorphism, dynamic type allocation, and type-bound procedures.
3. Data manipulation enhancements: allocatable components, deferred type parameters, VOLATILE attribute, explicit type specification in array constructors, pointer enhancements, extended initialization expressions, and enhanced intrinsic procedures.
4. Input/output enhancements: asynchronous transfer, stream access, user specified transfer operations for derived types, user specified control of rounding during format conversions, named constants for preconnected units, the flush statement, regularization of keywords, and access to error messages.
5. Procedure pointers.
6. Support for IEC 60559 (IEEE 754) exceptions.
7. Interoperability with the C programming language.
8. Support for international usage: access to ISO 10646 4-byte characters and choice of decimal or comma in numeric formatted input/output.
9. Enhanced integration with the host operating system: access to command line arguments, environment variables, and processor error messages.

In addition, there are numerous minor enhancements.

Except in extremely minor ways, this revision is upwards compatible with the current standard, that is, a program that conforms to the present standard will conform to the revised standard.

The enhancements are in response to demands from users and will keep Fortran appropriate for the needs of present-day programmers without losing the vast investment in existing programs.

## 2 Data enhancements and object orientation

### 2.1 Parameterized derived types

An obvious deficiency of Fortran 95 is that whereas each of the intrinsic types has a kind parameter and character type has a length parameter, it is not possible to define a derived type that is similarly parameterized. This deficiency is remedied with a very flexible facility that allows any number of ‘kind’ and ‘nonkind’ parameters. A kind parameter is a constant (fixed at compile time) and may be used for a kind parameter of a component of intrinsic (or derived) type. A nonkind parameter is modelled on the length parameter for type character and may be used for declaring character lengths of character components and bounds of array components. The names of the type parameters are declared on the `TYPE` statement of the type definition, like the dummy arguments of a function or subroutine, and they must be declared as `KIND` or `NONKIND`. Here is an example for a matrix type

```
TYPE matrix(kind,m,n)
  INTEGER, KIND :: kind
  INTEGER, NONKIND :: m,n
  REAL(kind) :: element(m,n)
END TYPE
```

Explicit values for the type parameters are normally specified when an object of the type is declared. For example,

```
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),10,20)) :: a
```

declares a double-precision matrix of size 10 by 20. However, for a pointer or allocatable object, a colon may be used for a nonkind parameter to indicate a deferred value:

```
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0),:,:)),ALLOCATABLE :: a
```

The actual value is determined when the object is allocated or pointer assigned. For a dummy argument, an asterisk may be used to indicate an assumed value; the actual value is taken from the actual argument. For a kind parameter, the value must be an initialization expression (known at compile time).

The keyword syntax of procedure calls may be used:

```
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0),m=10,n=20)) :: a
```

and the same syntax is used for declaring components of another derived type:

```
TYPE double_matrix(kind,m,n)
  INTEGER, KIND :: kind
  INTEGER, NONKIND :: m,n
  TYPE(matrix(kind,m,n)) :: a,b
END TYPE
```

For enquiries about the values of type parameters, the syntax of component selection is provided:

```
a%kind, a%m
```

Of course, this syntax may not be used to alter the value of a type parameter, say by appearing on the left of an assignment statement. This syntax is also available for enquiring about a type parameter of an object of intrinsic type:

```
LOGICAL :: L  
WRITE (*,*) L%KIND ! Same value as KIND(L)
```

## 2.2 Procedure pointers

A pointer or pointer component may be a procedure pointer. It may have an explicit or implicit interface and its association with a target is as for a dummy procedure, so its interface is not permitted to be generic or elemental. The statement

```
PROCEDURE (proc), POINTER :: p => NULL()
```

declares `p` to be a procedure pointer that is initially null and has the same interface as the procedure `proc`.

If no suitable procedure is to hand to act as a template, an ‘abstract interface’ may be declared thus

```
ABSTRACT INTERFACE  
  REAL FUNCTION f(a,b,c)  
    REAL, INTENT(IN) :: a,b,c  
  END FUNCTION  
END INTERFACE
```

without there being any actual procedure `f`.

As for data pointers, procedure pointers are either uninitialized or initialized to null. The statement

```
PROCEDURE ( ), POINTER :: p
```

declares `p` to be an uninitialized pointer with an implicit interface. It may be associated with a subroutine or a function. The statement

```
PROCEDURE (TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=10,n=20))), POINTER :: p
```

is similar but specifies that the pointer may be associated only with a function whose result is of the given type and type parameters.

A function may have a procedure pointer result.

Pointer assignment takes the same form as for data pointers:

```
p => proc
```

The interfaces must agree in the same way as for procedure calls. The right-hand side may be a procedure, a procedure pointer, or a reference to a function whose result is a procedure pointer.

Having procedure pointers fills a big hole in the Fortran 95 language. It permits ‘methods’ to be carried along with objects (dynamic binding):

```
TYPE matrix(kind,m,n)
  INTEGER, KIND :: kind
  INTEGER, NONKIND :: m,n
  REAL(kind) :: element(m,n)
  PROCEDURE (lu), POINTER :: solve
END TYPE
:
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=10,n=20)) :: a
:
CALL a%solve(....
:
```

If the method is always the same, a better way to carry it along with an object is through binding it to the type (Section 2.4).

## 2.3 Finalization

A derived type may have ‘final’ subroutines bound to it. Their purpose is to perform clean-up operations such as the deallocation of the targets of pointer components when an object of the type ceases to exist. Each final subroutine is a module procedure with a single argument of the derived type to which will be passed an object that is about to cease to exist. The usual rules of argument association apply, so the object has the type and kind type parameters of the dummy argument and has the same rank unless the subroutine is elemental. The dummy argument is required not to have `INTENT(OUT)` and its array shape and nonkind type parameters must be assumed.

An example of the syntax for declaring module subroutines to be final is

```
TYPE T
  : ! Component declarations
CONTAINS
  FINAL :: finish1, finish2
END TYPE T
```

A derived type is finalizable if it has any final subroutines or if it has a component that is of a type that is finalizable but is neither a pointer nor allocatable. A nonpointer data object is finalizable if its type is finalizable. When such an object ceases to exist, a finalization subroutine is called for it if there is one with the right kind type parameters and rank; failing this, an elemental one with the right kind type parameters is called. Next, each finalizable component is finalized; if any is an array, each finalizable component of each element is finalized separately. For a nested type,

working top-down like this means that the final subroutine has only to concern itself with components that are not finalizable.

## 2.4 Procedures bound by name to a type

A procedure may be bound to a type and accessed by component selection syntax from a scalar object of the type rather as if it were a procedure component with a fixed target.

An example of the syntax is

```
TYPE T
  : ! Component declarations
CONTAINS
  PROCEDURE :: proc => my_proc
  PROCEDURE :: proc2
END TYPE T
```

which binds `my_proc` with the name `proc` and `proc2` with its own name. Each procedure must be a module procedure or an external procedure with an explicit interface. If `a` is a scalar variable of type `T`, an example of a type-bound call is

```
CALL a%proc(x,y)
```

Several such procedures may be accessed by a single generic name. The `PROCEDURE` statement is replaced by a `GENERIC` statement such as

```
GENERIC :: gen => proc1, proc2, proc3
```

The usual rules about disambiguating procedure calls apply to all the procedures accessible through a single generic binding name.

## 2.5 The PASS attribute

A procedure that is accessed as a component or by being bound by name usually needs to access the scalar object through which it was invoked. By default, it is assumed that it is passed to the first argument. For example, the call

```
CALL a%proc(x,y)
```

would pass `a` to the first argument of the procedure, `x` to the second, and `y` to the third. This requires that the first argument is a scalar of the given type and the procedure is said to have the `PASS` attribute. If this behaviour is not wanted, the `NOPASS` attribute must be specified explicitly:

```
PROCEDURE, NOPASS, POINTER :: p
```

The usual `PASS` attribute may be explicitly confirmed:

```
PROCEDURE, PASS :: proc2
```

or may be attached to a another argument:

```
PROCEDURE, PASS(arg) :: proc3
```

The passed-object dummy argument must not be a pointer, must not be allocatable, and all its nonkind type parameters must be assumed.

The specific procedures of a generic binding may be declared within the generic statement to be with or without the pass attribute and the position in the argument list of the passed-on argument can vary, for example

```
GENERIC, PASS :: gen => proc1, proc2
GENERIC, PASS(arg) :: gen => proc3
```

This significantly complicates the rules (Section 16.2.3 of the draft standard) on the required difference between two procedures with the same generic name. I will not explain the rules here.

## 2.6 Procedures bound to a type as operators

A procedure may be bound to a type as an operator or a defined assignment. In this case, the procedure is accessible wherever an object of the type is accessible. The syntax is through `GENERIC` statements in the contained part of a type declaration:

```
TYPE matrix(kind,m,n)
  INTEGER, KIND :: kind
  INTEGER, NONKIND :: m,n
  REAL(kind) :: element(m,n)
CONTAINS
  GENERIC :: OPERATOR(+) => plus1, plus2, plus3
  GENERIC :: ASSIGNMENT(=) => assign1, assign2
    ! plus1 and assign1 are for matrices alone.
    ! The others are for mixtures with other types.
END TYPE
:
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=10,n=20)) :: a,b,c
:
a = b + c ! Invokes plus1, then assign1.
:
```

One or both of the arguments must be of the type to which the procedure is bound. The usual rules about disambiguating procedure calls apply to all the procedures accessible in a scoping unit through a single operator.



## 2.7 Type extension

A derived type may be defined as extensible:

```
TYPE, EXTENSIBLE :: matrix(kind,n)
    INTEGER, KIND :: kind
    INTEGER, NONKIND :: n
    REAL(kind) :: element(n,n)
END TYPE
```

and then extended:

```
TYPE, EXTENDS(matrix) :: factored_matrix
    LOGICAL :: factored=.FALSE.
    REAL(matrix%kind) :: factors(matrix%n,matrix%n)
END TYPE
```

An extended type is extensible, too, so the term ‘parent type’ is used for the type from which an extension is made. All the type parameters, components, and bound procedures of the parent type are inherited by the extended type and they are known by the same names. For example,

```
TYPE(factored_matrix(kind(0.0),10)) :: f
```

declares a real factored matrix of order 10. The values of its type parameters are given by `f%kind` and `f%n`. The inherited component may be referenced as `f%element`.

In addition, the extended type has the parameters, components, and bound procedures that are declared in its own definition. Here, we have the additional components `f%factored` and `f%factors`.

The extended type also has a component, called the parent component, whose type and type parameters are those of its parent type and whose name is the name of the parent type. We actually made use of this in the definition of the type `factored_matrix`. The inherited parameters, components, and bound procedures may be accessed as a whole, `f%matrix`, as well as directly, `f%n` and `f%element`. They may also be accessed individually through the parent as `f%matrix%n` and `f%matrix%element`.

The parent component may be given a default initial value in the `TYPE` statement using a structure constructor (Section 3.1):

```
TYPE, EXTENDS(matrix=matrix(kind(0.0),10)(0.0)) :: factored_matrix
```

This overrides any default initialization defined for the parent type’s components.

There is an ordering of the nonparent components that is needed in structure constructors and for input/output. It consists of the inherited components in the component order of the parent type, followed by the new components. In our example, it is `element`, `factored`, `factors`.

In a structure constructor, values may be given for a parent component or for the inherited

components. No component may be explicitly specified more than once and any component that does not have a default value must be specified exactly once.

A specific procedure bound by name is permitted to have the name and attributes of a procedure bound to the parent, apart from the type of the `PASS` argument (Section 2.5), if any. It must not be `PRIVATE` if the parent's binding is `PUBLIC`. In this case, it overrides the procedure bound to the parent type.

Similarly, a procedure bound as a generic may be overridden if it is given the same generic name or operator and fulfills the condition that it would have been overridden had it been bound as a specific.

Such overriding may be prohibited in the parent type:

```
PROCEDURE, NON_OVERRIDABLE :: proc2
GENERIC, PASS, NON_OVERRIDABLE :: gen => proc1, proc2
```

## 2.8 Type aliases

An alias may be set up for a type and an explicit set of type parameter values, for example,

```
TYPEALIAS :: DOUBLE_COMPLEX => COMPLEX(KIND(1.0D0)), &
           Matrix10 => TYPE( matrix(kind(0.0),10) )
TYPE(DOUBLE_COMPLEX) :: C
TYPE(Matrix10) :: T
```

The syntax `TYPE(alias-name)` may be used wherever the aliased type and type parameters can appear. It is useful in allowing a program to be altered in only one place when a change in type or type parameter values is desired for many entities.

An enumeration is an alias for `INTEGER` of a particular `KIND`, together with a set of constants (its enumerators). For example,

```
ENUM (SELECTED_INT_KIND(1)) :: PRIMARY_COLORS
    ENUMERATOR :: RED = 4, BLUE = 9
    ENUMERATOR YELLOW
END ENUM
```

is equivalent to the declarations

```
TYPEALIAS :: PRIMARY_COLORS => INTEGER (SELECTED_INT_KIND(1))
TYPE(PRIMARY_COLORS), PARAMETER :: RED=4, BLUE=9, YELLOW=10
```

If a value is not specified for an enumerator, it is taken as one greater than the previous enumerator or zero if it is the first. If the kind is not specified on the `ENUM` statement:

```
ENUM :: PRIMARY_COLORS
```

default `INTEGER` is taken.

Another possibility is to specify `BIND(C)` on the `ENUM` statement:

```
ENUM, BIND(C) :: PRIMARY_COLORS
```

which is appropriate when interoperating with C (Section 4). In this case, the kind chosen corresponds to the integer type that C would chose for the same set of constants.

## 2.9 Polymorphic entities

A polymorphic entity is declared to be of a certain type by using the `CLASS` keyword in place of the `TYPE` keyword and is able to take this type or any of its extensions during execution. The type at a particular point of the execution is called the ‘dynamic type’. The feature allows code to be written for objects of a given type and used later for objects of an extended type. An entity is said to be ‘type compatible’ with entities of the same declared type or of any declared type that is an extension of its declared type.

Derived-type intrinsic assignment is extended; the declared types must agree, but the right-hand side may have a dynamic type that is an extension, in which case the components of the left-hand side are copied from the corresponding components of the right-hand side.

Access is permitted directly to type parameters, components, and bound procedures for the declared type only. However, further access is available through the `SELECT TYPE` construct:

```
CLASS (matrix(kind(0.0),10)) :: f
  :
  SELECT TYPE (ff => f)
    TYPE IS (matrix)
      : ! Block of statements
    TYPE IS (factored_matrix)
      : ! Block of statements
  END SELECT
```

The first block is executed if the dynamic type of `f` is `matrix` and the second block is executed if it is `factored_matrix`. In the second block, we may use the associated name `ff` to access the extensions thus: `ff%factored`, `ff%factor`. This construct is described in detail in Section 2.11.

An object may be declared with the `CLASS(*)` specifier and is then ‘unlimited polymorphic’. It is not considered to have the same declared type as any other entity, but is type compatible with all entities of extensible type.

## 2.10 ASSOCIATE construct

The ASSOCIATE construct associates named entities with expressions or variables during the execution of its block. Here are some simple examples:

```
ASSOCIATE ( Z => EXP(-(X**2+Y**2)) * COS(THETA) )
  PRINT *, A+Z, A-Z
END ASSOCIATE
```

```
ASSOCIATE ( XC => AX%B(I,J)%C, ARRAY => AX%B(I,:)%C )
  XC%DV = XC%DV + PRODUCT(XC%EV(1:N))
  ARRAY = ARRAY + 1.0
END ASSOCIATE
```

Each name is known as an ‘associate name’. The association is as for argument association. Any expressions in the ASSOCIATE statement are evaluated when it is executed and their values are used thereafter. The associated object must not be used in a situation that might lead to its value changing unless it is associated with a variable.

The construct may be nested with other constructs in the usual way.

## 2.11 SELECT TYPE construct

The SELECT TYPE construct selects for execution at most one of its constituent blocks, depending on the dynamic type of a variable or an expression. A name is associated with the expression, as for the ASSOCIATE construct (Section 2.10). Here is an example:

```
TYPE, EXTENSIBLE :: POINT
  REAL :: X, Y
END TYPE POINT
TYPE, EXTENDS(POINT) :: POINT_3D
  REAL :: Z
END TYPE POINT_3D
TYPE, EXTENDS(POINT) :: COLOR_POINT
  INTEGER :: COLOR
END TYPE COLOR_POINT

TYPE(POINT), TARGET :: P
TYPE(POINT_3D), TARGET :: P3
TYPE(COLOR_POINT), TARGET :: C
CLASS(POINT), POINTER :: P_OR_C

P_OR_C => C
```

```

SELECT TYPE ( A => P_OR_C )
TYPE IS ( POINT_3D )
    PRINT *, A%X, A%Y, A%Z
CLASS IS ( POINT )
    PRINT *, A%X, A%Y ! This block gets executed
END SELECT

```

Within each block, the associate name has the declared type or class given on the TYPE IS or CLASS IS statement. The block is chosen as follows:

- (i) If a TYPE IS block matches, it is taken;
- (ii) otherwise, if a single CLASS IS block matches, it is taken;
- (iii) otherwise, if several CLASS IS blocks match, one must be an extension of all the others and it is taken.

There may also be a CLASS DEFAULT block. This is selected if no other block is selected; the associate name then has the same declared and dynamic types as the selector.

## 3 Miscellaneous enhancements

### 3.1 Structure constructors

The value list of a structure constructor may use the syntax of an actual argument list with keywords that are component names. Components that were given default values in the type definition may be omitted. This implies that structure constructors can be used for types that have private components, so long as the private components have default values. Of course, no component may be given an explicit value more than once and explicit values override default values. If the type has type parameters, these must be specified:

```
a = TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0),m=10,n=20)) (element = 0.0)
```

A generic name may be the same as a derived type name, provided it references a function. This has the effect of overriding or overloading the constructor for the type.

### 3.2 The allocate statement

The allocatable attribute is no longer restricted to arrays and a source variable may be specified to provide values for deferred nonkind type parameters and an initial value for the object itself. For example,

```
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=10,n=20)) :: a
TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=:,n=:),ALLOCATABLE) :: b, c
:
ALLOCATE(b,SOURCE=a)
ALLOCATE(c,SOURCE=a)
```

allocates the scalar objects `b` and `c` to be  $10 \times 20$  matrices with the value of `a`. With `SOURCE` present, the allocate statement allocates just one object. The value is assigned by the rules for intrinsic assignment; in particular, the rules of array conformability apply so that the source variable is limited to being a scalar or an array of the same shape as the array being allocated.

Alternatively, the nonkind type parameters may be specified by a type declaration within the allocate statement:

```
ALLOCATE ( TYPE(matrix(KIND(0.0D0),m=10,n=20)) :: b,c )
```

If this feature is used in an allocate statement, initialization from a source variable is not available. One or the other must be used if the type has any deferred type parameters. If either is used, each allocatable object in the list must have the same non-deferred type parameters as the source variable or the type declaration.

The allocate statement may also specify the dynamic type of a polymorphic object:

```
CLASS (matrix(kind(0.0),10)) :: a,b,c,d
:
ALLOCATE(TYPE(factored_matrix(kind(0.0),10)) :: b,c)
ALLOCATE(d,SOURCE=a) ! d takes its dynamic type from a
```

An `ALLOCATE` or `DEALLOCATE` statement may optionally contain an `ERRMSG=` specifier that identifies a default character scalar variable. If an error occurs during execution of the statement, the processor assigns an explanatory message to the variable. If no such condition occurs, the value of the variable is not changed.

### 3.3 More control of access from a module

More detailed control of access from a module is possible. The individual components of a derived type may be declared PUBLIC or PRIVATE:

```
TYPE, EXTENDS(PRIVATE::person) :: s_person ! Parent component
                                     ! is private
    CHARACTER(:), ALLOCATABLE, PUBLIC :: name
    INTEGER, PRIVATE :: age
END TYPE
```

The bindings to a type may be declared PUBLIC or PRIVATE:

```
PROCEDURE, PUBLIC, PASS, POINTER :: p
GENERIC, PUBLIC, PASS :: gen => proc1, proc2
GENERIC, PRIVATE :: OPERATOR(+) => plus1, plus2, plus3
```

Note, however, that a final subroutine may not be declared PUBLIC or PRIVATE. It is always available for the finalization of any variable of the type.

The PROTECTED attribute may be applied to a variable or a pointer declared in a module, and specifies that its value or pointer status may be altered only within the module itself. The PROTECTED statement has the syntax

```
PROTECTED [ :: ] entity-name-list
```

and it may be specified in a type declaration statement such as

```
REAL, PROTECTED :: a(10)
```

If any object has the PROTECTED attribute, all of its subobjects have the attribute.

If a pointer has the PROTECTED attribute, its pointer association status is protected, but not the value of its target.

This feature is very useful for constructing reliable software. It parallels INTENT(IN) for a dummy argument. The value is made available, but changing it is not permitted. The protection is only in the module of original declaration; if a module uses an unprotected variable from another module, it cannot apply the PROTECTED attribute to it.

### 3.4 Renaming operators on the USE statement

In Fortran 2000, it is permissible to rename operators that are not intrinsic operators:

```
USE MY_MODULE, OPERATOR(.MY_ADD.) => OPERATOR(.ADD.)
```

### 3.5 Pointer assignment

Pointer assignment for arrays has been extended to allow lower bounds to be specified:

```
p(0:,0:) => a
```

As for dummy arrays, the lower bounds may be specification expressions.

Remapping of the elements of a rank-one array is permitted:

```
p(1:m,1:2*m) => a(1:2*m*m)
```

The mapping is in array-element order and the target array must be large enough. The bounds may be specification expressions.

The limitation to rank-one arrays is because pointer arrays need not occupy contiguous storage:

```
a => b(1:10:2)
```

but all the gaps have the same length in the rank-one case.

If the target of a pointer assignment is polymorphic (Section 2.9), the pointer must be polymorphic and type compatible with it. It takes the dynamic type of the target.

Nonkind type parameters of the pointer may be deferred (declared with a colon). Pointer assignment gives these the values of the corresponding parameters of the target. All the pointer's other type parameters must have the same values as the corresponding type parameters of the target.

### 3.6 Pointer INTENT

INTENT was not permitted to be specified in Fortran 95 for pointer dummy arguments because of the ambiguity of whether it should refer to the pointer association status, the value of the target, or both. INTENT is permitted in Fortran 2000; it refers to the pointer association status and has no bearing the value of the target.

### 3.7 The VOLATILE attribute

The VOLATILE attribute has been introduced for a data object to indicate that its value might change by means not specified in the standard, for example, by another program that is executing in parallel. Whether an object has the VOLATILE attribute may vary between scoping units. If an object has the VOLATILE attribute, all of its subobjects also have the attribute.

The effect is that the compiler is required to reference and define the memory that can change by other means rather than rely on values in cache or other temporary memory.



### 3.8 The **IMPORT** statement

In Fortran 95, interface bodies ignore their environment, that is, nothing from the host is accessible. For example, a type that is defined in a module is not accessible in an interface block within the module. The `IMPORT` statement has therefore been introduced. It has the syntax

```
IMPORT [ [ :: ] import-name-list ]
```

and is allowed only in an interface body. Without an `import-name` list, it specifies that all entities in the host scoping unit are accessible by host association. With a list, those named are accessible.

### 3.9 Access to the computing environment

The concept of a module being intrinsic was introduced as part of the exception handling technical report (Reid 2001). A new intrinsic module is `ISO_FORTRAN_ENV`. It contains the following constants

`INPUT_UNIT`, `OUTPUT_UNIT`, and `ERROR_UNIT` are default integer scalars holding the unit identified by an asterisk in a `READ` statement, an asterisk in a `WRITE` statement, and used for the purpose of error reporting, respectively.

`IOSTAT_END` and `IOSTAT_EOR` are default integer scalars holding the values that are assigned to the `IOSTAT=` variable if an end-of-file or end-of-record condition occurs, respectively.

In addition, the following intrinsic procedures have been added. Note that they are ordinary intrinsics and are not part of the module `ISO_FORTRAN_ENV`.

`COMMAND_ARGUMENT_COUNT ( )` is an inquiry function that returns the number of command arguments as a default integer scalar.

`CALL GET_COMMAND ( [COMMAND, LENGTH, STATUS] )` returns the entire command by which the program was invoked in the following `INTENT(OUT)` arguments:

`COMMAND` (optional) is a default character scalar that is assigned the entire command.

`LENGTH` (optional) is a default integer scalar that is assigned the significant length (number of characters) of the command.

`STATUS` (optional) is a default integer scalar that indicates success or failure.

`CALL GET_COMMAND_ARGUMENT (NUMBER[, VALUE, LENGTH, STATUS] )` returns a command argument.

`NUMBER` is a default integer `INTENT(IN)` scalar that identifies the required command argument. Useful values are those between 0 and `COMMAND_ARGUMENT_COUNT ( )`.

`VALUE` (optional) is a default character `INTENT(OUT)` scalar that is assigned the value of the command argument.

`LENGTH` (optional) is a default integer `INTENT(OUT)` scalar. It is assigned the significant

length (number of characters) of the command argument.

STATUS (optional) is a default integer scalar that indicates success or failure.

CALL GET\_ENVIRONMENT\_VARIABLE (NAME[ , VALUE , LENGTH , STATUS , TRIM\_NAME ] ) obtains the value of an environment variable.

NAME is a default character INTENT(IN) scalar that identifies the required environment variable. The interpretation of case is processor dependent.

VALUE (optional) is a default character INTENT(OUT) scalar that is assigned the value of the environment variable.

LENGTH (optional) is a default integer INTENT(OUT) scalar. If the specified environment variable exists and has a value, LENGTH is set to the length (number of characters) of that value. Otherwise, LENGTH is set to 0.

STATUS (optional) is a default integer scalar that indicates success or failure.

TRIM\_NAME (optional) is a logical INTENT(IN) scalar that indicates whether trailing blanks in NAME are considered significant.

### 3.10 Support for international character sets

Fortran 90 introduced the possibility of multi-byte character sets, which provides a foundation for supporting ISO 10646 (2000). This is a standard for 4-byte characters, which is wide enough to support all the world's languages. A new intrinsic function has been introduced to provide the kind value for a specified character set:

SELECTED\_CHAR\_KIND(NAME) returns the kind value as a default INTEGER.

NAME is a scalar of type default character. If it has one of the values DEFAULT, ASCII, and ISO\_10646 and specifies the required character set.

Further printable ASCII characters have been added to the Fortran character set as special characters:

- ~ Tilde
- \ Backslash
- [ Left square bracket
- ] Right square bracket
- ` Grave accent
- ^ Circumflex accent
- { Left curly bracket
- } Right curly bracket
- | Vertical bar
- # Number sign
- @ Commercial at

Only square brackets are actually used in the syntax (for array constructors, Section 3.13).

### **3.11 Lengths of names and statements**

Names of length up to 63 characters and statements of up to 256 lines are allowed. The main reason for the longer names and statements is to support the requirements of codes generated automatically.

### **3.12 Binary, octal and hex constants**

A binary, octal or hex constant is permitted as a principal argument in a call of the intrinsic function INT, REAL, CMPLX, or DBLE (not for an optional argument that specifies the kind). Examples are

```
INT(O'345'), REAL(Z'1234ABCD')
```

For INT, the 'boz' constant is treated as if it were an integer constant of the kind with the largest range supported by the processor.

For the others, it is treated as having the value that a variable of the same type and kind type parameters as the result would have if its value was the bit pattern specified. The interpretation of the value of the bit pattern is processor dependent. If the kind is not specified, it is the default kind.

The advantage of limiting boz constants in this way is that there is no ambiguity in the way they are interpreted. There are vendor extensions that allow them directly in expressions, but the ways that values are interpreted differ.

### **3.13 Array constructor syntax**

Square brackets are permitted as an alternative to (/ and /) for delimiters for array constructors.

### **3.14 Specification and initialization expressions**

The rules on what may appear in an initialization expression have been relaxed. Any standard intrinsic procedure is permitted. For details of the new rules, see 7.1.6 and 7.1.7 of the draft standard (J3 2002). The rules on what may appear in a specification expression have been relaxed, too. For details, see 7.1.6 and 7.1.7 of the draft standard.

## 4 Input/output enhancements

### 4.1 Derived type input/output

It may be arranged that when a derived-type object is encountered in an input/output list, a Fortran subroutine is called. This reads some characters from the file and constructs a value of the derived type or accepts a value of the derived type and writes some characters to the file.

For formatted input/output, the DT edit descriptor passes a character string and an integer array to control the action. An example is

```
DT 'linked-list' (10, -4, 2)
```

The character string may be omitted, in which case a string of length zero is passed. The bracketed list of integers may be omitted, in which case an array of length zero is passed.

Such subroutines may be bound to the type as generic bindings (see Sections 2.4 and 2.6) of the forms

```
GENERIC :: READ(FORMATTED) => r1, r2
GENERIC :: READ(UNFORMATTED) => r3, r4, r5
GENERIC :: WRITE(FORMATTED) => w1
GENERIC :: WRITE(UNFORMATTED) => w2, w3
```

which makes them accessible wherever an object of the type is accessible. An alternative is an interface block such as

```
INTERFACE READ(FORMATTED)
  MODULE PROCEDURE r1, r2
END INTERFACE
```

The form of such a subroutine depends on whether it is for formatted or unformatted input or output:

```
SUBROUTINE formatted_io (dtv,unit,iotype,v_list,iostat,iomsg)
SUBROUTINE unformatted_io(dtv,unit,                iostat,iomsg)
```

`dtv` is a scalar of the derived type. It must be polymorphic if and only if the object in the input/output list is polymorphic. Any nonkind type parameters must be assumed. For output, it is of `intent(in)` and holds the value to be written. For input, it is of `intent(inout)` and must be altered in accord with the values read.

`unit` is a scalar of `intent(in)` and type default `integer`. Its value is the unit on which input/output is taking place or zero if on an internal file.

`iotype` is a scalar of `intent(in)` and type `CHARACTER(*)`. Its value is the character string from the edit descriptor.

`v_list` is a rank-one assumed-shape array of type default integer. Its value comes from the parenthetical list of the edit descriptor.

`iostat` is a scalar of `intent(out)` and type default integer. If an error condition occurs, it must be given a positive value. Otherwise, if an end-of-file or end-of-record condition occurs it must be given the value `IOSTAT_END` or `IOSTAT_EOR` (see Section 3.9), respectively. Otherwise, it must be given the value zero.

`iomsg` is a scalar of `intent(inout)` and type `CHARACTER(*)`. If `iostat` is given a nonzero value, `iomsg` must be set to an explanatory message. Otherwise, it must not be altered.

Input/output within the subroutine to external files is limited to the specified unit and in the specified direction. However, input/output to an internal file is permitted. An input/output list may include a `DT` edit descriptor for a component of the `dtv` argument, with the obvious meaning.

The file position on entry is treated as a left tab limit and there is no record termination on return.

This feature is not available in combination with asynchronous input/output (next section).

## 4.2 Asynchronous input/output

Input/output may be asynchronous, that is, other statements may execute while an input/output statement is in execution. It is permitted only for external files opened with `ASYNCHRONOUS='YES'` in the `OPEN` statement and is indicated by `ASYNCHRONOUS='YES'` in the `READ` or `WRITE` statement. Execution of an asynchronous input/output statement initiates a 'pending' input/output operation, which is terminated by a wait operation for the file. This may be performed by an explicit wait statement

```
WAIT(10)
```

or implicitly by an `INQUIRE`, a `CLOSE`, or a file positioning statement for the file. The compiler is permitted to treat each asynchronous input/output statement as an ordinary input/output statement; this, after all, is just the limiting case of the input/output being fast. The compiler is, of course, required to recognize all the new syntax.

Further asynchronous input/output statements may be executed for the file before the wait statement is reached. The input/output statements are performed in the same order as if they were synchronous.

An execution of an asynchronous input/output statement may be identified by a scalar integer variable in an `ID=` specifier. Successful execution of the statement causes the variable to be given a processor-dependent value which can be passed to a subsequent `WAIT` or `INQUIRE` statement as a scalar integer variable in an `ID=` specifier.

A wait statement may have `END=`, `EOR=`, `ERR=` and `IOSTAT=` specifiers. These have the same meanings as for an input/output statement and refer to situations that occur while the input/output operation is pending. If there is an `ID=` specifier, too, only the identified pending operation is

terminated and the other specifiers refer to this; otherwise, all pending operations for the file are terminated in turn.

An INQUIRE statement is permitted to have a PENDING= specifier for a scalar default logical variable. If an ID= specifier is present, the variable is given the value true if the particular input/output operation is still pending and false otherwise. If no ID= specifier is present, the variable is given the value true if all input/output operations for the unit are still pending and false otherwise. In the 'false' case, wait operations are performed for the file or files. Wait operations are not performed in the 'true' case, even if some of the input/output operations are complete.

A file positioning statement (BACKSPACE, ENDFILE, REWIND) performs wait operations for all pending input/output operations for the file.

Asynchronous input/output is not permitted in conjunction with user-defined derived type input/output (Section 4.1) because it is anticipated that the number of characters actually written is likely to depend on the values of the variables.

A variable in a scoping unit is said to be an 'affector' of a pending input/output operation if any part of it is associated with any part of an item in the input/output list, namelist, or SIZE= specifier. While an input/output operation is pending, an affector is not permitted to be redefined, become undefined, or have its pointer association status changed. While an input operation is pending, an affector is also not permitted to be referenced or associated with a dummy argument with the VALUE attribute (Section 5.6).

The ASYNCHRONOUS attribute has been introduced to warn the compiler that some code motions across wait statements might lead to incorrect results. If a variable appears in an executable statement or a specification expression in a scoping unit and any statement of the scoping unit is executed while the variable is an affector, it must have the ASYNCHRONOUS attribute in the scoping unit.

A variable is automatically given this attribute if it or a subobject of it is an item in the input/output list, namelist, or SIZE= specifier of an asynchronous input/output statement. A named variable may be declared with this attribute:

```
INTEGER, ASYNCHRONOUS :: int_array(10)
```

or given it by the ASYNCHRONOUS statement

```
ASYNCHRONOUS :: int_array, another
```

This statement may be used to give the attribute to a variable that is accessed by use or host association.

Like the VOLATILE (Section 3.7) attribute, whether an object has the ASYNCHRONOUS attribute may vary between scoping units. All subobjects of a variable with the ASYNCHRONOUS attribute have the attribute.

There are restrictions that avoid any copying of an actual argument when the corresponding

dummy argument has the `ASYNCHRONOUS` attribute.

### 4.3 FLUSH statement

Execution of a `FLUSH` statement for an external file causes data written to it to be available to other processes, or causes data placed in it by means other than Fortran to be available to a `READ` statement. The syntax is just like that of the file positioning statements.

In combination with `ADVANCE='NO'` or stream access (Section 4.5), it permits the program to access keyboard input character by character.

### 4.4 IOMSG specifier

Any input/output statement is permitted to have an `IOMSG=` specifier. This identifies a scalar variable of type default character into which the processor places a message if an error, end-of-file, or end-of-record condition occurs during execution of the statement.

### 4.5 Stream access input/output

Stream access is a new method of accessing an external file. It is established by specifying `ACCESS='STREAM'` on the `OPEN` statement and may be formatted or unformatted.

The file is positioned by 'file storage units', normally bytes, starting at position 1. The current position may be determined from a scalar integer variable in a `POS=` specifier of an `INQUIRE` statement for the unit. A required position may be indicated in a `READ` or `WRITE` statement by the `POS=` specifier which accepts a scalar integer expression. For formatted input/output, the value must be 1 or a value previously returned in an `INQUIRE` statement for the file. In the absence of a `POS=` specifier, the file position is left unchanged.

The standard permits a processor to prohibit the use of `POS=` for particular files that do not have the properties necessary to support random positioning or the use of `POS=` for forward positioning.

### 4.6 ROUND= specifier

Rounding during formatted input/output may be controlled by the `ROUND=` specifier on the `OPEN` statement, which takes one of the values `UP`, `DOWN`, `ZERO`, `NEAREST`, `COMPATIBLE`, or `PROCESSOR_DEFINED`. It may be overridden by a `ROUND=` specifier in a `READ` or `WRITE` statement with one of these values. The meanings are obvious except for the difference between `NEAREST` and `COMPATIBLE`. Both refer to a closest representable value. If two are equidistant, which is taken is processor dependent for `NEAREST` and the value away from zero for `COMPATIBLE`.

The rounding mode may also be temporarily changed within a `READ` or `WRITE` statement by the `RU`, `RD`, `RZ`, `RN`, `RC`, and `RP` edit descriptors.

## 4.7 `DECIMAL=` specifier

The character that separates the parts of a decimal number in formatted input/output may be controlled by the `DECIMAL=` specifier on the `OPEN` statement, which takes one of the values `COMMA` or `POINT`. It may be overridden by a `DECIMAL=` specifier in a `READ` or `WRITE` statement with one of these values. The meanings are obvious.

The mode may also be temporarily changed within a `READ` or `WRITE` statement by the `DC` and `DP` edit descriptors.

This feature is intended for use in those countries in which decimal numbers are usually written with a comma rather than a decimal point: 469,23.

## 4.8 `SIGN=` specifier

The `SIGN=` specifier has been added to the `OPEN` statement. It can take the value `SUPPRESS`, `PLUS`, or `PROCESSOR_DEFINED` and controls the optional plus characters in formatted numeric output. It may be overridden by a `ROUND=` specifier in a `WRITE` statement with one of these values. The rounding mode may also be temporarily changed within a `WRITE` statement by the `SS`, `SP`, and `S` edit descriptors, which are part of Fortran 95.

# 5 Interoperability with C

## 5.1 Introduction

Fortran 2000 provides a standardized mechanism for interoperating with C. Clearly, any entity involved must be such that equivalent declarations of it may be made in the two languages. This is enforced within the Fortran program by requiring all such entities to be ‘interoperable’. We will explain in turn what this requires for types, variables, and procedures. They are all requirements on the syntax so that the compiler knows at compile time whether an entity is interoperable. We finish with two examples.

## 5.2 Interoperability of intrinsic types

There is an intrinsic module called `ISO_C_BINDING` that contains named constants holding kind type parameter values for intrinsic types. Their names are shown in Table 1, together with the corresponding C types. The processor is not required to support all of them. Lack of support is indicated with a negative value.



Table 1. Interoperability between Fortran and C types

Type	Named constant	C type or types
INTEGER	C_INT	int
	C_SHORT	short int
	C_LONG	long int
	C_LONG_LONG	long long int
	C_SIGNED_CHAR	signed char, unsigned char
	C_SIZE_T	size_t
	C_INT_LEAST8_T	int_least8_t
	C_INT_LEAST16_T	int_least16_t
	C_INT_LEAST32_T	int_least32_t
	C_INT_LEAST64_T	int_least64_t
	C_INT_FAST8_T	int_fast8_t
	C_INT_FAST16_T	int_fast16_t
	C_INT_FAST32_T	int_fast32_t
	C_INT_FAST64_T	int_fast64_t
	C_INTMAX_T	c intmax_t
	REAL	C_FLOAT
C_DOUBLE		double
C_LONG_DOUBLE		long double
COMPLEX	C_FLOAT_COMPLEX	float _Complex
	C_DOUBLE_COMPLEX	double _Complex
	C_LONG_DOUBLE_COMPLEX	long double _Complex
LOGICAL	C_BOOL	_Bool
CHARACTER	C_CHAR	char

For character type, interoperability also requires that the length type parameter be omitted or be specified by an initialization expression whose value is one. The following named constants (with the obvious meanings) are provided: C\_NULL\_CHAR, C\_ALERT, C\_BACKSPACE, C\_FORM\_FEED, C\_NEW\_LINE, C\_CARRIAGE\_RETURN, C\_HORIZONTAL\_TAB, C\_VERTICAL\_TAB.

### 5.3 Interoperability with C pointers

For interoperating with C pointers (which are just addresses), the module contains a derived type `C_PTR` that is interoperable with any C pointer type and a named constant `C_NULL_PTR` with the value `NULL` of C.

The module also contains the following procedures:

`C_LOC(X)` is an inquiry function that returns the C address of `X`.

`X` is permitted to be

- (a) a procedure that is interoperable (see Section 5.6) or a pointer associated with such a procedure;
- (b) a variable with interoperable type and type parameters that has the `TARGET` attribute and is either interoperable, an allocated allocatable variable, or a scalar pointer with a target; or
- (c) a nonpolymorphic scalar without nonkind parameters that has the `TARGET` attribute and is either an allocated allocatable variable, or a scalar pointer with a target.

`C_ASSOCIATED(C_PTR1[, C_PTR2])` is an inquiry function that returns a default logical scalar.

It has the value `false` if `C_PTR1` is a C null pointer or if `C_PTR2` is present with a different value; otherwise, it has the value `true`.

`C_F_POINTER(CPTR, FPTR[, SHAPE])` is a subroutine with arguments

`CPTR` is a scalar of type `C_PTR` with intent `IN`. Its value is the C address of an entity that is interoperable with variables of the type and type parameters of `FPTR` or was returned by a call of `C_LOC` for a variable of the type and type parameters of `FPTR`. It must not be the C address of a Fortran variable that does not have the `TARGET` attribute.

`FPTR` is a pointer that becomes pointer associated with the target of `CPTR`. If it is an array, its shape is specified by `SHAPE`.

`SHAPE` (optional) is a rank-one array of type integer with intent `IN`. If present, its size is equal to the rank of `FPTR`. If `FPTR` is an array, it must be present.

This is the mechanism for passing dynamic arrays between the languages. A Fortran pointer target or assumed-shape array cannot be passed to C since its elements need not be contiguous in memory. However, an allocated allocatable array may be passed to C and an array allocated in C may be associated with a Fortran pointer.

Case (c) of `C_LOC` allows the C program to receive a pointer to a Fortran scalar that is not interoperable. It is not intended that any use of it be made within C except to pass it back to Fortran where it will be dereferenced through `C_F_POINTER` and accessed.

## 5.4 Interoperability of derived types

For a derived type to be interoperable, it must be given the `BIND` attribute explicitly:

```
TYPE, BIND(C) :: MYTYPE
:
END TYPE MYTYPE
```

Each component must have interoperable type and type parameters, must not be a pointer, and must not be allocatable. This allows Fortran and C types to correspond, for example

```
typedef struct {
    int m, n;
    float r;
} myctype
```

is interoperable with

```
USE ISO_C_BINDING
TYPE, BIND(C) :: MYFTYPE
    INTEGER(C_INT) :: I, J
    REAL(C_FLOAT) :: S
END TYPE MYFTYPE
```

The name of the type and the names of the components are not significant for interoperability.

No Fortran type is interoperable with a C union type, struct type that contains a bit field, or struct type that contains a flexible array member.

## 5.5 Interoperability of variables

A scalar Fortran variable is interoperable if it is of interoperable type and type parameters, and is neither a pointer nor allocatable.

An array Fortran variable is interoperable if it is of interoperable type and type parameters, and is of explicit shape or assumed size. It interoperates with a C array of the same type, type parameters and shape, but with reversal of subscripts. For example, a Fortran array declared as

```
INTEGER :: A(18, 3:7, *)
```

is interoperable with a C array declared as

```
int b[][5][18]
```

## 5.6 Interoperability of procedures

For the sake of interoperability, a new attribute, `VALUE`, has been introduced for scalar dummy arguments. When the procedure is called, a copy of the actual argument is made. The dummy argument is a variable that may be altered during execution of the procedure, but on return no copy back takes place. If the type is character, the character length must be one.

A Fortran procedure is interoperable if it has an explicit interface and is declared with the `BIND` attribute:

```
FUNCTION FUNC(I, J, K, L, M), BIND(C)
```

All the dummy arguments must be interoperable. For a function, the result must be scalar and interoperable. The procedure has a ‘binding label’, which has global scope and is the name by which it is known to the C processor. By default, it is the lower-case version of the Fortran name. For example, the above function has the binding label `func`. An alternative binding label may be specified:

```
FUNCTION FUNC(I, J, K, L, M), BIND(C, NAME='C_Func')
```

Such a procedure corresponds to a C function prototype with the same binding label. For a function, the result must be interoperable with the prototype result. For a subroutine, the prototype must have a void result. A dummy argument with the `VALUE` attribute must correspond to a formal parameter of the prototype that is not of a pointer type. A dummy argument without the `VALUE` attribute must correspond to a formal parameter of the prototype that is of a pointer type.

## 5.7 Interoperability of global data

An interoperable module variable or a common block with interoperable members may be given the `BIND` attribute:

```
USE ISO_C_BINDING
INTEGER(C_INT), BIND(C) :: C_EXTERN
INTEGER(C_LONG) :: C2
BIND(C, NAME='myVariable') :: C2
COMMON /COM/ R, S
REAL(C_FLOAT) :: R, S
BIND(C) :: /COM/
```

It has a binding label defined by the same rules as for procedures and interoperates with a C variable of a corresponding type.

## 5.8 Example of Fortran calling C

C Function Prototype:

```
int C_Library_Function(void* sendbuf, int sendcount, int *recvcounts)
```

Fortran Module:

```
MODULE FTN_C
  INTERFACE
    INTEGER (C_INT) FUNCTION C_LIBRARY_FUNCTION      &
      (SENDBUF, SENDCOUNT, RECVCOUNTS), &
    BIND(C, NAME='C_Library_Function')
    USE ISO_C_BINDING
    IMPLICIT NONE
    TYPE (C_PTR), VALUE :: SENDBUF
    INTEGER (C_INT), VALUE :: SENDCOUNT
    TYPE (C_PTR), VALUE :: RECVCOUNTS
  END FUNCTION C_LIBRARY_FUNCTION
END INTERFACE
END MODULE FTN_C
```

Fortran Calling Sequence:

```
USE ISO_C_BINDING, ONLY: C_INT, C_FLOAT, C_LOC
USE FTN_C
...
REAL (C_FLOAT), TARGET :: SEND(100)
INTEGER (C_INT)          :: SENDCOUNT
INTEGER (C_INT), ALLOCATABLE, TARGET :: RECVCOUNTS(:)
...
ALLOCATE( RECVCOUNTS(100) )
...
CALL C_LIBRARY_FUNCTION(C_LOC(SEND), SENDCOUNT, &
  C_LOC(RECVCOUNTS))
...

```

## 5.9 Example of C calling Fortran

Fortran Code:

```
SUBROUTINE SIMULATION(ALPHA, BETA, GAMMA, DELTA, ARRAYS), BIND(C)
  USE ISO_C_BINDING
  IMPLICIT NONE
  INTEGER (C_LONG), VALUE                :: ALPHA
  REAL (C_DOUBLE), INTENT(INOUT)         :: BETA
  INTEGER (C_LONG), INTENT(OUT)          :: GAMMA
  REAL (C_DOUBLE), DIMENSION(*), INTENT(IN) :: DELTA
  TYPE, BIND(C) :: PASS
    INTEGER (C_INT) :: LENC, LENF
    TYPE (C_PTR)    :: C, F
  END TYPE PASS
  TYPE (PASS), INTENT(INOUT) :: ARRAYS
  REAL (C_FLOAT), ALLOCATABLE, TARGET, SAVE :: ETA(:)
  REAL (C_FLOAT), POINTER :: C_ARRAY(:)
  ...
  ! Associate C_ARRAY with an array allocated in C
  CALL C_F_POINTER (ARRAYS%C, C_ARRAY, (/ARRAYS%LENC/))
  ...
  ! Allocate an array and make it available in C
  ARRAYS%LENF = 100
  ALLOCATE (ETA(ARRAYS%LENF))
  ARRAYS%F = C_LOC(ETA)
  ...
END SUBROUTINE SIMULATION
```

C Struct Declaration:

```
struct pass {int lenc, lenf; float* f, *c}
```

C Function Prototype:

```
void simulation(long alpha, double *beta, long *gamma,
               double delta[], struct pass *arrays)
```

C Calling Sequence:

```
simulation(alpha, &beta, &gamma, delta, &arrays);
```

## 6 References

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