## FORTRAN EXTENDED VERSION 4 USER'S GUIDE

## CDC ${ }^{\circledR}$ OPERATING SYSTEMS: <br> NOS 1 <br> NOS/BE 1 <br> SCOPE 2

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This user's guide provides helpful information for the user of CDC FORTRAN Extended. FORTRAN Extended is supported by the following operating systems:

NOS 1 for the CONTROL DATA ${ }^{\circledR}$ CYBER 170 Models 171, 172, 173, 174, 175; CYBER 70 Models 71, 72, 73, 74; and 6000 Series Computer Systems

NOS/BE 1 for the CDC ${ }^{\circledR}$ CYBER 170 Series; CYBER 70 Models 71, 72, 73, 74; and 6000 Series Computer Systerns

SCOPE 2 for the CONTROL DATA CYBER 170 Model 176, CYBER 70 Model 76, and 7600 Computer Systems

This user's guide is written primarily for the FORTRAN programmer who is unfamiliar with CDC operating systems. It is a supplement to the FORTRAN Extended Version 4 Reference Manual, with minimal duplication of information. This guide concentrates on the interfaces between FOR TRAN Extended and other software products, as well as on programming, debugging, and aptimization techniques of particular interest to the FORTRAN Extended programmer.

Some topics of interest to the FORTRAN Extended programmer are discussed in other user's guides. These include the following:

- Interactive program creation and execution. For NOS/BE, this topic is covered in the INTERCOM Guide for FORTRAN Extended Users. For NOS users, parallel material is included in the NOS Time-Sharing User's Guide and the NOS Text Editor Reference Manual.
- Input/output implementation. This topic, with particular emphasis on the advanced input/output capabilities available through the CYBER Record Manager interface routines, is covered in the CYBER Record Manager Version 1 Guide for Users of FORTRAN Extended Version 4. SCOPE 2 users can find parallel information in the SCOPE 2 User's Guide.
- Debugging facility. The C DEBUG capability included with the FORTRAN Extended compiler is described in the FORTRAN Extended DEBUG User's Guide.

In addition, user's guides exist for SCOPE 2 and NOS/BE; these guides are recommended for programmers new to these systems.

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| NOS 1 Operating System Reference Manual, Volume 1 | 60435300 |
| NOS/BE 1 Operating System Reference Manual | 60493800 |
| SCOPE 2 Reference Manual | 60342600 |
| NOS/BE 1 User's Guide | 60494000 |
| SCOPE 2 User's Guide | 60372600 |
| FORTRAN Extended Version 4 Reference Manual | 60497800 |
| CYBER Loader Version 1 Reference Manual | 60429800 |
| SCOPE 2 Loader Reference Manual | 60454780 |
| FORTRAN Extended DEBUG User's Guide | 60498000 |
| INTERCOM Interactive Guide for Users of FORTRAN Extended | 60495000 |
| CYBER Record Manager Version 1 Guide for Users of FORTRAN Extended Version 4 | 60495900 |
| FORTRAN Common Library Mathematical Routines | 60498200 |
| UPDATE Reference Manual | 60449900 |
| CYBER Common Utilities Reference Manual | 60495600 |
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This section outlines some procedures designed to simplify and safeguard the production of FORTRAN Extended programs, as well as some techniques to improve their accuracy. Although the process of programming is essentially the same, regardless of the language in which the program is written, FORTRAN presents specific difficulties and specific opportunities.

## TOP-DOWN PROGRAMMING

In recent years, the attempt to reduce the cost of computer systems has focused increasingly on the cost of software development and maintenance. The consensus is that these processes should be better controlled and more standardized than they have been in the past. The following criteria are those generally agreed upon for software, regardless of its function:

- It should be reliable. This requires extensive (and well planned) testing before the software is used for its intended purpose.
- It should be easy to read. This simplifies the process of maintenance, which is frequently done by different people than those who originally developed the software. This goal is achieved by avoiding convoluted algorithms and implementation-dependent tricks, and by providing ample and useful documentation. Very large programs usually require external documentation, in addition to the comments in the code itself.
- It should be modular. This is partly for the purpose of increased readability, and partly so that useful modules can be written once, to be used by many programs.

Several principal methods have been developed to achieve these goals. The method that has attracted the most interest, and that is advocated here, is top-down programming. This is more than just the advice to design first and code later, which has always been followed by good programmers. The key component of top-down programming is the formalization of the successive steps between the original requirements of an application and the final coded version of the program. The idea is to hold in check the tendency, when beginning to write a program, to write FORTRAN statements immediately. In top-down programming, FORTRAN is not used until the very last step earlier steps are written in English or in a more informal pseudo-FORTRAN. (It is important to note that all steps must actually be written, or the purpose of top-down programming is defeated.)

Another important component of top-down programming is modularity. Modularity means limiting the size of program units, and ensuring that each performs a well-defined function. A good rule of thumb is that each program unit should be about one page long. This ensures that the purpose and logic of each module are readily comprehensible. When the purpose of each module is well-defined, it is frequently possible to use the same subprogram in more than one program (as explained under User Libraries, in section 6). The division of a program into modules should not be arbitrary, but should follow as much as possible the separation of functions between program units.

Nevertheless, the advantages of modularity must be weighed against their effect on optimization (see section 2). Subprogram calls are more expensive to execute than simple branches. Therefore, they should be kept to a minimum in frequently-executed loops. In any particular application, a balance must be struck between the decreased programmer time brought about by modularity, and the decreased execution time brought about by limiting subprogram calls.

The number of steps between problem definition and final coding depends on the size and complexity of the application, but at least four steps are always necessary. These steps can be summarized as follows:

1. The problem to be solved is defined as precisely as possible (in English).
2. An algorithm covering only major steps of the program is written, in English and, where appropriate, in mathematical notation. The major modules of the program are also defined.
3. For each module defined in step 2, the algorithm is broken down into lower level steps, written in a higherlevel language than FORTRAN. This step is repeated until the program is in a form of pseudo-FORTRAN.
4. The program is coded in FORTRAN. If step 3 was done properly, this process can take place practically line-by-line.
To illustrate this procedure, we will follow the various steps for a simple example. The example is not ideal; because it is so small, it uses no subprograms, and therefore does not illustrate the development of separate modules. The example is program NEWTON, which is explained more fully, with input and output, in section 2.

The origin of the program is an application that needs to find the roots of a polynomial equation (presumably part of a larger application). After considering various methods, the programmer decides on Newton's method. The stages of program development are then written down as shown in figure 1-1.

Step 1 defines the problem as precisely as possible. In this case, the reader of the description is assumed to be familiar with Newton's method, so little description is necessary.

Step 2 presents the algorithm to be used. At this stage, the order in which major steps are to be executed is determined. In order to describe the algorithm, some of the data structures to be used might be defined. In a program longer than NEWTON, the algorithm would probably not be detailed enough to include any mathematical formulas.

In step 3, the algorithm is made more detailed and, for the first time, the program logic is defined. The language used in this step is very casual; it is a mixture of ALGOL, English, and FORTRAN. A more standardized language could be developed; the main point is to defer actual FORTRAN statements as long as possible. By the last iteration of step 3, each module should be written in a sort of pseudo-FORTRAN, with the statements appearing in their final order. Non-executable statements are generally omitted in step 3, as are most statement labels. Input/output statements are only sketched in.

Step 1. Problem definition. Find the roots of a given equation using Newton's method.

## Step 2. Algorithm specification

Given:
$F(x)$ The function
$F^{\prime}(x)$ Its derivative
$X_{0} \quad$ An initial approximation
e The convergence criterion
max Maximum number of iterations (in case of failure of convergence).
Algorithm:
Repeat the following until $\left|x_{i}-x_{i+1}\right|<e$ or until number of iterations $=\max :$

$$
x_{i+1}=x_{i}-\frac{f\left(x_{i}\right)}{f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)}
$$

Step 3. Pseudo-FORTRAN
Given:
F The name of the function whose roots are to be found; the text of the function to be provided in a manner to be determined in step 4.

DERIV The name of a function that is the derivative of $F$; to be provided in the same manner as $F$.
Input values:
XO Initial approximation to $f(x)=0$
EPS Convergence criterion
ITMAX Maximum number of iterations
Algorithm:
Read XO, EPS, ITMAX
Do for $I=1$ to ITMAX:
$X 1=X 0-F(X O) / D E R I V(X 0)$
If abs(X1 - X0) $\leqslant$ EPS go to Label1

$$
x_{0}=x_{1}
$$

End loop
Write "method has not converged in" I "iterations"
Stop
Label1 Write "method has converged in" I "iterations"
Write Xo
Stop

Figure 1-1. Top-Down Programming Example (Sheet 1 of 2)

## Step 4. Completed Program:

```
    PROGRAM NEWTON (INPIIT, OUTPUT, TAPES=OUTPUTI
C
    PROGRAM FNEWTONt FINDS THE ROOTS OF THE EQUATION DEFTNED IN THE
    FUNCTION STATEMENT RY NEWTON\not=S METHOD. THE FOLLOWING VALUES ARE
    INPUT
        XO INITIAL APPROXIMATION
        EPS CONVERGFNCE CRITERION
        ITMAX MAXIMUM NUMBER OF ITERATIONS
    EQUATION TO BE SOLVFD
    F(x)=SIN(x)-(x+i.0)/(x-1.0)
    DERIVATIVE OF EQUATION
    DERIV (x) = cos(x) + 2.0/(x-1.0)**2
    READ * XO. EPS. ITMAX
    IF (DERIV(XO) FO. Ö.O) GO TO 300
        DO 100 I=1,ITMAX
        ITS = I
        x1 = x0-F(x0)/DFRIV(x0)
        r = F(X1)
        PRINT #, \not=X,Y #, YO, Y
        If (APS(X) - XO) .LE. EPG) GO TO 200
        x0}=\times
        CONTINUE
    WRITE (5.20) ITMAX
    STOD
2000 WRITE (5.10) ITS, xi
    STOP
300 WRITE (5.30) x0
    stgo
```



```
    1E12.4)
20 FORMAT (# METHOD HAS NOT CONVERGED IN *&I3 &* ITERATIONS*//
    1,* EXECUTION TERMINATED#)
30 FORMAT (IX.EIZ.4, * IS INVALID VALUE FOR XO#)
    END
```

Figure 1-1. Top-Down Programming Example (Sheet 2 of 2)

Step 4 expands the version in step 3 into an actual FORTRAN program. This step requires a number of minor decisions, such as the types of variables, the sizes of arrays, the formats to be used for input/output, and the exact text of messages to be printed. The PROGRAM statement, nonexecutable statements, and statement labels are all added at this time, as well as extensive comments. In many cases, the text of the comments can be taken verbatim from earlier stages of program preparation.

## CODING STYLE

Top-down programming deals with the overall process of preparing a program. In addition, it has been found to be helpful for an installation to prepare standards dealing with the physical appearance of programs. FORTRAN allows a relatively free format of the text of a program. This feature allows a uniform appearance among all the programs prepared at an installation. This is time-saving and convenient for the programmers, and can also serve to reenforce the principles of top-down programming. The following set of rules is one possibility for coding standards:

1. Begin each program unit with a comment block, immediately after the header line. The block should briefly state the purpose (and possibly the algorithm) of the program. In a subprogram, each of the formal parameters should be identified.
2. Additional comments should be interspersed throughout the program. Comments are especially desirable before each major step of the program. If a label occurs a long distance from the statements branching to it, a comment just before the label should explain how it is reached. Comments should also appear whenever the program does something devious, or non-obvious. Each comment should be preceded and followed by a line containing only a $C$ in column 1. Code should be written in the form of paragraphs, with a comment preceding each paragraph.
3. Multiple statements per line (separated by the \$ character) should not be used.
4. When continuation lines are necessary, the character in column 6 should be one that cannot be mistaken for part of the statement. The \$ character can always be used for this purpose. For a very long statement, it may be useful to put numbers in column 6 to keep the cards in sequence (remember that 0 is not permitted). Continuation lines should be indented (they should start in column 8 or later).
5. The body of a DO loop should be indented by at least two spaces. If loops are nested, each inner loop should be indented from its outer loop. DO loops should always terminate with a CONTINUE statement.
6. Blanks should be used copiously to set off the components of a statement. Blanks should especially be used in the following contexts:

Surrounding parentheses
Surrounding the + or - operator
Between the keyword of a statement and the rest of the statement

Surrounding the $=$ character in an assignment statement

Between elements of a list in a specification statement

Blanks should be omitted in the following contexts:
On either side of the */or ** operator (this sets off the components of an expression)

Inside parentheses in an array subscript or subprogram reference

After the control variable and index parameters in a DO statement (DO $100 \mathrm{I}=1,50,2$ )
7. The labels in a program should be in numerical order. The FORMAT statements should be grouped together just before the END statement. The labels should be consistent in size (such as 3 -digit labels for executable statements, and l-digit labels for FORMAT statements).

Figure 1-2 shows a program unit before and after these standards are applied.

Before:
PRGGRAMNADA (INPUT, OUTPUT:TAPES =INPUT)
CIMENS IONE (10.10)
COMMON/XYZ/C(10,10)
C CONTROLLING ROUTINE FOR THE PROGRAM
READ $(5,2) 1, J, K$
2 FCRMAT $2 \times 314$ )
IF (EOF (5) 1100,206
$100 \quad 00300 \mathrm{M}=1$, I
$306 \quad E(J, M)=C(M, K) *+2+I^{*} K$
CALLWHATSIS ( $B, C, M$ )
STOP
200 STCP
END

After:
FROGRAM NADA (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE5=INPUT)
$\mathbf{C}$
$\mathbf{C}$
$\mathbf{C}$
$\mathbf{C}$
$\mathbf{C}$
C
C
C
C
C
C
program nada computes the lowest value cf n greater than
2) FOR WHICH $X^{*+*} N+Y++N=Z+* N$. MOST OF THE WORK IS DONE

IN THE SUBPROGRAM WHATSIS; THE MAIN PROGRAM PERFORMS HDUSE-
KEEPING CHORES.

AUTHOR: A. ALLIVER, COC 1977

DIMENSION B(10, 10)
COMMON /XYZ/C(10,10).
FEAD (5.2) I, J, K
IF (EOF (5).NE.D.O) STOP
DO $100 \mathrm{C}=1, \mathrm{I}$
$B(J, M)=C(M, K) * * 2+I * K$
100 CONTINUE
CALL WHATSIS (B, C, M)
STOP
2 FGRMAT (2X, 3I4)
END

Figure 1-2. Coding Style Example

The programs in this section are intended to illustrate the programming practices discussed in section 1 through application of some commonly used mathematical procedures and basic algorithms. The programs are typical of smaller special-purpose FORTRAN programs, rather than larger, more complex applications.

## ACCTAB

Program ACCTAB (figure 2-1) computes acceleration as a function of mass and force. It reads two sets of data cards. The first set is read in line 9 and contains three numbers per card, representing time, force and mass. These values are used to generate a table of time versus acceleration. Acceleration is calculated in line 15 by the statement:

$$
A C C(N)=F / A M A S S
$$

where $\operatorname{ACC}(N)$ is acceleration, $F$ is force, and AMASS is mass. The variable AMASS is tested for a zero or negative value. The counter N is incremented each time a card is read. If N exceeds the maximum allowable table size, a message is printed and execution terminates. The variable NTIMES contains the total number of time values in the table. When the first set of cards has been read, the table is printed.

The program then reads the second set of cards, which contains selected time values, one per card. A table search is performed for the time values immediately above and below the input value. In lines 30 and 31 , each time value is tested for validity. If a time is outside the table bounds, a message is printed and the next card is read. In lines 46 through 55, a second degree interpolation is performed for the acceleration value. This is accomplished by the formula:

$$
\begin{aligned}
A C C X & =\frac{(T-T 1)(T-T 2) A 0}{(T O-T 1)(T 0-T 2)} \\
& -\frac{(T-T 0)(T-T 2) A 1}{(T 1-T O)(T 1-T 2)} \\
& +\frac{(T-T 0)(T-T 1) A 2}{(T 2-T 0)(T 2-T 1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $T$ is the input time, $A 0, A 1$, and $A 2$ are tabular acceleration values corresponding to the time points $\mathrm{TO}, \mathrm{Tl}$, and T 2 , and $\mathrm{TO}<\mathrm{T} \leq \mathrm{T} 1$. A diagram of interpolation is shown in figure 2-2.

Since, for a given input time, two tabular points beyond that time are required for interpolation, special processing is included in lines 31 through 33 for times falling between $\operatorname{TIME}(N-1)$ and $\operatorname{TIME}(N)$, where $\operatorname{TIME}(N)$ is the last point in the table. After the interpolation has been performed, time and acceleration are printed, the next card is read, and so on, until all input times have been processed. A sample input deck is shown in figure 2-3; the output is shown in figure 2-4.

Statements in the program test for table overflow (line 12), for an invalid value for AMASS (line 13), and for a zero divisor in the formula (line 49). The development of this program is explained in section 4.

## NEWTON

Program NEWTON (figure 2-5) finds the roots of a polynomial equation by Newton's method. The iterative formula

$$
x_{i+1}=x_{i}-f\left(x_{i}\right) / f^{\prime}\left(x_{i}\right)
$$

is applied to generate successive approximations to the equation $f(x)=0$, where $x_{i}$ is the current approximation, $x_{i+1}$ is the new approximation, and $f^{\prime}(x)$ represents the derivative of $f(x)$. The test for convergence is:

$$
\left|x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right|<e p s
$$

where eps is a constant indicating the desired degree of accuracy.

In the example, the equation to be solved and its derivative are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=\sin (x)-(x+1) /(x-1) \\
& f^{\prime}(x)=\cos (x)+2 /(x-1)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The equation and its derivative are provided in the form of statement functions (lines 13 and 17); these can be easily replaced to apply the procedure to other functions. A data card is read containing the following information:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { X0 } & \text { Initial approximation to } f(x)=0 \text { (real) } \\
\text { EPS } & \text { Convergence criterion (real) }
\end{array}
$$

ITMAX Maximum number of iterations (integer); ensures that the program terminates even when the function fails to converge.

The DO-loop applies the iteration formula to calculate a new approximation Xl (line 23) and tests for convergence (line 26). If convergence has not occurred, the new approximation Xl becomes the current approximation $\times 0$ and the iteration is continued until either the process converges or the maximum number of iterations is reached. In either case, an appropriate message is printed and processing terminates. Sample input for the program is shown in figure 2-6, and the output generated from that input is shown in figure 2-7.

Line 20 tests for a zero value for the derivative; otherwise the division in line 23 produces an infinite value and the program aborts.

## GAUSS

Program GAUSS (figure 2-8) solves a linear system of $N$ equations in $N$ unknowns by the Gauss-Seidel method. The system is of the form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{11} x_{1}+a_{12} x_{2}+\ldots+a_{1 n} x_{n}=b_{1} \\
& a_{21} x_{1}+a_{22} x_{2}+\ldots+a_{2 n} x_{n}=b_{2} \\
& \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \\
& a_{n 1} x_{1}+a_{n 2} x_{2}+\ldots+a_{n n} x_{n}=b_{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

1

```
    PROGRAY ACCTAB (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE4=INPUT)
    OIHENSION TIME(10), ACC(1C)
J....rEAD TIVE, MASS, FORCE, AND COMPUTE AGCELERATION TABLE
    N=C
    IER = J.
    100 READ (4,F) T, AMASS, F
        IF (EOF(4) -NE. O) GO TO 15C
        N=N*1
        IF IN .GT. 10, GO TO }50
        IF (AMASS .LE. Q.I GO TO 70G
        TIME(N): = T
        ACC(NI = F/AMASS
        GO TO 10C
O
    150 NTIMES = N
    PRINT 10
    PRINT 15, (TIME(I),ACC(I),I=1,NTIMES)
    IF IIER.NE. O) GOTO 900
0
C
        170 REAO ( (%,*) T
            IF (ENF(4) .NE.O) GOTO 900
            N=N | 1
            IF (T .LT. TIME(1) .OR. T .GT. TIME(NTIMESI) GO TO 800
            IF (T -LE. TIME(NTIMES-1)) GO TO ig5
            IT = NTIMES - 1
            GO TO 220
                S....SEARCH ICCELERATION TABLE
            175 LIM = NTIMES - 1
                    O0 20:OI = 2,LIM
                    IT = I
                    IF If ULE. TIMEIITIB GO TO 220
        23: CONTINUS
            GO TO 956
5
    *...SOU SECOND DEGREE INTERPOLATION
    220 D1 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT)
    D2 = TIME(IT-1)-TIME(IT&I)
    D3 = TIMEIIT\ - TIME{IT+1)
    IF CDI .EQ. O. .OR. O2 .EN. E. .OR. D3 .EQ. O.) GOTO 850
    O1 = T - TIME(IT-1)
            O2 = T - TIMEIIT)
            03 = T - TIME (IT*1)
            ACCX = 02*O3*ACC(IT-1)/(01*D2)
        1-01*23*ACC(IT)/(01*03)
        2+ O1*32*ACC(IT+1)/(02*03)
            PRINT 2.5, T, ACCX
            GO TO }19
V
        500 PRINT *, & TOO MUCH OATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES IS 10%
    STOP
        73 PRINT *i, tINUALIO VALUE FOR AMASS t, N
            IFR = 1
            GOTO 100
        920 PRINT F, z BAD TIME, VALUE IS*, T
    50 T0 190
        35J PRINT *, & INTERPOLATION PRORLEMS, TABLE ERROR&
            50 Tn 190
        9JJ PRINT *i, & END ACCTAEF
            STOP
j
    10 FORMAT (*1:%2(z TIME ACCELस))
    15 FORMAT (2(5XF7.2.2XF8.5))
    25 FORMAT (# TIME = #,F7.2,# ACCELERATION = #,F8.5)
    END
```

Figure 2-1. Program ACCTAB


Figure 2-2. Second Degree Interpolation

|  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (Time | Mass | Force) |
| 0. | 100. | 1000. |
| 1. | 100. | 1010. |
| 2. | 100. | 1020. |
| 3. | 100. | 1030. |
| 4. | 100. | 1040. |
| 5. | 100. | 1050. |
| $7 / 8 / 9$ |  |  |
| 0. |  |  |
| 0.5 |  |  |
| 3.6 |  |  |
| 4.9 |  |  |
| 6.0 |  |  |
| $6 / 7 / 8 / 9$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Figure 2-3. Sample Input Deck

This can be rewritten as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1}=-\left(a_{12} x_{2}+a_{13} x_{3}+\ldots+a_{1 n} x_{n}\right) / a_{11} \\
& x_{2}=-\left(a_{21} x_{1}+a_{23} x_{3}+\ldots+a_{2 n} x_{n}\right) / a_{22}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
x_{n}=-\left(a_{n 1} x_{1}+a_{n 2} x_{2}+\ldots+a_{n, n-1} x_{n-1}\right) / a_{n n}
$$

Successive approximations are generated by applying the iteration

$$
x_{i}^{(k+1)}=\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} b_{i j} x_{j}^{(k+1)}+\sum_{j=i}^{n} b_{i j} x_{j}^{(k)}+c_{i}
$$

where:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b_{i j}=-a_{i j} / a_{i i}(\text { for } i=1, n ; j=1, n) \\
& b_{i j}=0(\text { for } i=j) \\
& c_{i}=b_{i} / a_{i i}(\text { for } i=1, n)
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 2-4. ACCTAB Output
and the notation $x_{i}{ }^{(k)}$ indicates the $(k+i) s t$ iteration of the solution vector for $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$.

The algorithm begins with an initial guess at the value of the solution vector $X(0) \quad(X(0)=(X,(0)$, $\left.\left.x_{7}(0), \ldots, x_{n}(0)\right)\right)$ and substitutes that vector into the right hand side of the relation to generate a vector $X(1)$, which should be a better approximation to the solution. It then substitutes $X(1)$ into the equation to yield $X(2)$. Continuing in this manner, it generates successive approximations until it achieves the desired degree of accuracy. The criterion for convergence is

for a prescribed E. In others words, when the difference between successive values of $x_{i}$ is sufficiently small, the process is considered to have converged. If this criterion is not satisfied after a prescribed number of iterations, the process is assumed not to converge and the iteration is discontinued.

Input to the program is from data cards. Sample input is shown in figure 2-9. The first card specifies the number of equations and unknowns ( $N$ ), the maximum number of iterations (MAXIT), and the convergence criterion (EPS). Succeeding cards specify the elements of the coefficient


Figure 2-5. Program NEWTON
$\square$
Figure 2-6. Input to NEWTON
matrix: each card contains the value of the element and two integers indicating the position of the element within the matrix. Zero elements need not be included.

The program begins by reading the input deck and scanning for errors (lines 42-48). If an error is encountered, the card number is printed along with an appropriate message and processing terminates after the entire deck is scanned.

Once the matrix has been read and stored in array A, the program applies the Gauss-Seidel scheme to generate the solution values. The solution values are stored in array $X$. An initial approximation for each value of $X$ is required to initiate the process. For the sake of simplicity, the values of $X$ are initially set to 0 .

Three nested DO-loops control the iterative process (lines 56-72). Each pass through the outer loop constitutes

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X, Y O . .1728053032038 \\
& X, Y-.3333333333333 .035764994517376 \\
& X, Y=.416815892431 .00001133754253679 \\
& X, Y-420356453534230197797582288 E-11 \\
& M E T H O D \text { HAS CONVERGEDIN } \\
& X=\quad-.4204 E+00
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 2-7. Output from NEWTON
one iteration. The variable MAXIT is used as the upper limit, allowing the process to terminate if convergence does not occur within the specified number of iterations. Each pass through the middle loop yields a new approximation XNEW for a particular element of the solution vector. The inner loop sums the rows of the matrix.

The variable CNV is initially set to 0 . After an approximation to a particular $x$ has been calculated, CNV is set to the difference between the new approximation and the previous approximation, if the difference is greater than the current contents of CNV. Thus, CNV always contains the maximum of the differences between the new and previous values of the solution vector.

1

PROGRAN GAUSS (INPUT, OUTPUT,TAPE4 I INPUT, TAPE5天OUTPUT)
PROGRAN PGAUSS + SOLVES A LINEAR SYSTEM OF N EQUATIONS IN N UNKNOWNS BY THE GAUSS-SEIDEL METHOD. INPUT IS FROM CARDS. THE FIRST GARD CONTAINS THE VALUES

| N | NUMBER OF EQUATIONS AND UNKNOMNS |
| :--- | :--- |
| MAXIT | MAXIMUH NUMBER OF ITERATIONS |
| EPS | CONVERGENCE CRITERION |

SUCCEEJING CARDS CONTAIN ELEMENTS OF THE COEFFICIENT MATRIX. EACH CARD CONTAINS THE FOLLOWING VALUES

| I | ROH POSITION OF ELEMENT (INTEGER) |
| :--- | :--- |
| J | COLUMN POSITION OF ELEMENT (INTEGER) |
| ELEANT | VALUE OF COEFFICIENT (FLOATING POINT) |

zero coefficients need not be ineluded. the input deck is SCANNEJ FOR ERRORS. AFTER A IS READ, THE NEXT N CARDS CONTAIN VALUES FOR B.
DIMENSION $A(50,51), X(50)$

INITIALIZE WORKING ARRAYS
NCARD $=1$
IRRR $=0$
DO 150 I $=1,50$
$x(I)=0.0$
D $100 \mathrm{~J}=1,50$
$A(I, J)=0.0$
CONTINUE
CONTINUE
READ FIRST CARD CONTAINING PARAMETER VALUES FOLLOWED BY CAP.JS CONTAINING COEFFICIENTS

READ ( $\ddagger, *$ ) $N$, MAXIT, EPS
IF (EOF(4) .NE. O.0) GO TO 900
IF (N.GT. 50) GO TO 910
2JJ RFAD ('4,*) I, J, ELEMNT
IF (EO=(4)) 330, 350
35J NCARD $=$ NCARD +1
IF (I .LT. 1 .OR. I .GT. N) GO TO 360
IF (J .LT. 1 .OR. J. $G T . N+1$ ) GO TO 350
A(I,J) = ELEMNT
GO TO 200
350 IERR $=1$
DRINT F, $\neq E R R O R$ ON CARD $\neq$, NCARD
GO TO 200
390 IF IIERR.NE. O) 60 TO 650
begin Iteration
00600 ITS=1,MAXIT
CNV $=0.0$
$00500 \quad I=1, N$
SUY $=0.0$
$30400 \mathrm{~J}=1, \mathrm{~N}$
IF (J.NE. I) SUM $=$ SUA $+A(I, J) * X(J)$
s'Ont INUE
$X N E W=(A(I, N+1)-S U M) / A(I, I)$
TENP $=$ ABS $(X(I)-X N E W) / X N E W$
CNV = ABAXI (CNV,TEMP)
XII) $=$ XNEW

500 CONTINUE
$\stackrel{2}{2}$

Figure 2-8. Program GAUSS (Sheet 1 of 2)


Figure 2-8. Program GAUSS (Sheet 2 of 2)

| 3 | 5 | 0 | 0001 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 1 | 10 | 0 |
| 1 | 2 | 10 |  |
| 1 | 3 | 1 |  |
| 1 | 4 | 24 |  |
| 2 | 1 | 10 |  |
| 2 | 2 | 10 |  |
| 2 | 3 | 10 |  |
| 2 | 4 | 24 |  |
| 3 | 1 | 10 |  |
| 3 | 2 | 10 |  |
| 3 | 3 | 10 |  |
| 3 | 4 | 24 |  |

Figure 2-9. Input to GAUSS
At the completion of each iteration, CNV is compared with the convergence criterion EPS; if convergence has occurred, the solution values are printed and processing terminates. If convergence does not occur within the specified number of iterations, an appropriate message is printed and processing terminates. Figure 2-10 shows the output produced from execution with the input shown in figure 2-9.

```
PROCESS HAS CONVERGED IN 5 ITERATIIONS
SOLUTION VALUES ARE
    .2000E+01 .2000E+01 . 2000E+01
```

Figure 2-10. Output from GAUSS

## OTOD

Program OTOD (figure 2-11) reads display coded octal numbers and converts them to decimal numbers. Input is from cards containing a single octal number, with up to 20 digits, appearing anywhere within the first 30 columns; the $B$ suffix is optional. Octal digits are positive integers written in base 8 notation; therefore, they can only contain the digits 1 to 7.

The octal numbers are read according to 3R10 format specification. This produces a right-justified, zero-filled string 30 characters long contained in array OCT. The DECODE statement strips off each display coded octal digit and stores it in array IA in reverse order. The format specification produces an array of right-justified, zeropadded characters. For example, suppose a card is read
containing 3742B in columns 10-14. Then the array OCT would contain the values shown in figure 2-12. After the number is decoded, the contents of array IA would be as shown in the same figure.

For each character, the DO-loop does the following:
Lines 24, 25 Tests for blank or $B$; the $B$ must be at the end of the string.

Line 28 Tests for sign; + or - is the last character processed

Line 29 Tests for non-octal digit

Line 30 Tests for too many digits
Line 31 Converts display coded octal digit to internal format by subtracting 1RO (33B)

Line 32 Sums place value of digit to form decimal number

When all digits of an octal number have been processed, the decimal number is signed and printed. In the above example, the procedure for converting to decimal is

$$
3 \times 8^{3}+7 \times 8^{2}+4 \times 8+2=201810
$$

so that 2018 is printed.
A test for end of file is included after the READ statement; when all input cards have been read, a message is printed and processing terminates.

## LINK

Program LINK (figure 2-13) assumes that a previously executed scientific program has calculated temperatures for regions of a grid at specified time intervals and that the results have been written to a file called INFIL. For each time point there is a record containing the time value, the region numbers, and the region temperatures. Regions and temperatures are packed into single words, with a region number in the lower half of a word and the temperature in the upper half. The record format and some sample records are shown in figure 2-14.

Program LINK reads the entire input file, reformats the data, and writes a new file called NEWFIL. In NEWFIL, there is one record for each region. Each record contains the region number, the time points, and the temperature at each time point, as shown in figure 2-15. Time values and associated temperatures are packed into a single word, with a temperature in the upper half of a word and the time in the lower half.

An array in ECS (Extended Core Storage) or LCM (Large Core Memory) is allocated for data read from the input file (line 8). The LEVEL statement defines the type of memory
allocated for the array. Since data assigned to level 3 cannot be referenced in expressions, the MOVLEV subroutine is used to transfer the data to and from central memory.

The first record is buffered in and the length is obtained from the LENGTH subroutine (lines 20-23). The loop (lines 26-34) does the following: the time value, from the first word of the record, is stored in a separate array and the record is moved from the input buffer to ECS with the MOVLEV subroutine. The variable I, used as a pointer to the next available location in the ECS array, is incremented by the record length. If the value of I exceeds the array

| 1 |  | PRPOGRAY OTOD (INPUT, TAPE4=INPUT, $\mathrm{OUTPUT)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 5 | PRIGRAM POTOOP REAOS OCTAL NUMGERS CONTAINING UP TO 20 DIGITS |
|  | 5 | a ND C INVERTS THEM TO DECIMAL. INPUT IS ON CARDS: THE NUMBER MAY BE ANYWHERE WITHIN THE FIRST $3 C$ COLUMNS, AND THE $B$ SUFFIX IS OPTIONAL |
|  |  | INTEGER OCT(3), DEC DIMENSION IA(3) |
| $1:$ |  | PPINT 30 |
|  | 5 | RFAD AND DECODE DISPLAY CODEO OCTAL NUMBER |
| 15 | 130 | 2F.A ${ }^{(4+, 10) ~ O C T ~}$ |
|  |  | IF (EOF( 4 ) , NE. O) GOTO SOC |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & B=C \\ & D F C=3 \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | DECODE (3C,15, DCT) (IA $30-I+1), I=1,30)$ |
| $2 こ$ | i | S ONVERT DISPLAY TO INTERNAL, THEN TO DECIMAL |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 3020.0 I=1,3 \mathrm{U} \\ & \text { IOIG }=I A(I) \\ & I F(I J I G \quad E Q \cdot 1 R) \text { GOTO } 2 C Q \end{aligned}$ |
| 25 |  | IF (IDIG.NE, 1RS) GO TO 150 |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { IF IJ EO. GI GOTO } 200 \\ & \text { GO TJ } 850 \end{aligned}$ |
| - | 253 |  |
| 32 |  | IF (J.GT. 19) GO TO 750 |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { IOIG }=\text { IOIG }-1 R 0 \\ & \text { DEC }=\text { DEC } \end{aligned}$ |
|  |  | $J=J+1$ |
|  | 233 | C Ont I NUE |
| 35 | 2230 | IF (J.EQ. O) GO TO 7CO |
|  |  | IF (IOIG.EQ. $1 R-1$ DEC $=-D E C$ |
|  |  | PRINT 20, (OCT(I),I $=1,3)$, DEC 30 TO 100 |
| $4 i$ | 730 | PRINT 30, (OCT (I), $5=1,31$ |
|  |  | G0 TO 100 |
|  | 753 | PRINT 50 |
|  |  | 50 TO 100 |
|  | 931 | PRINT +0 |
| 45 |  | STOP |
|  | 3う ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ | PRINT PC |
|  |  | GO TO 100 |
|  | 13. | FORMAT (3R1C) |
|  | 15 | FORMAT (30R1) |
| 53 | 23 | FORMAT (3(1XA10), $1 \times 120)$ |
|  | 30 | FORMAT (3(1XA10), $z$ IS NOT AN OCTAL NUMBERE) |
|  | 4 | FORMAT ( $\ddagger$ END OTODA |
|  | $3 J$ | FORMAT ( 11 OCTAL*, $20 X, \neq D E C I M A L \neq 1$ |
|  | 50 | FORMAT ( $\pm$ INPUT NUMBER HAS MORE THAN 20 DISITS ${ }^{\text {I }}$ |
| 55 | 79 | FRRMAT (3(1XA10), $t$ CONTAINS B OUT OF SEQUENCEt) |

Figure 2-11. Program OTOD
boundary, a warning message is printed; no more data is read but processing continues on the incomplete array. The next record is read and the record counter NTIMES is incremented; if NTIMES exceeds its limit, a warning message is printed and the incomplete array is processed. Records are read and stored in this manner until either the end-of-file is reached or the ECS array is full.

When the entire file, or as much of it as possible, has been read and stored in ECS, lines 38 through 48 construct the output records and write the output file NEWFIL. Each pass through the outer DO-loop constructs a single output record; each pass through the inner DO-loop stores a single word in the output record. On the first pass through the inner loop, the first input record is transferred to central memory via MOVLEV; its time value is packed with the temperature value of the first region and stored in the output buffer OUT to form the second word of the output record. On the second pass, the second input record is moved to central memory, and the time value is packed with the temperature. value for the first region to form the third word of the first output record. When all times and temperatures for the region have been stored in the output buffer (inner loop completed), the region number is stored in the first word of the output buffer and the new record is written. Then, under control of the outer loop, the subsequent records are constructed and written in a like manner, until the entire array has been processed.

## CORCO

Program CORCO (figure 2-16) assumes that a series of standardized tests has been given to two groups of students, and that the results have been stored in two corresponding files. For each test there is a record containing the test number, the number of students who took the test, and the number of students who correctly answered each question on the test. The record format, along with some sample records from both files, is shown in figure 2-17.


Figure 2-12. Arrays OCT and IA in Program OTOD

The program reads the two files and, for each test, calculates the probability that a student will answer each question correctly, calculates a correlation coefficient, calculates a new probability for each question, and writes a new file. The output file record contains the test number, number of students, and the probability that a student will answer each question correctly. The output record format, along with some sample records, is shown in figure 2-18.

The program begins by reading a record from each file. Since data from the first file is needed immediately, the input operation on unit 5 must be complete before processing can continue; unit 5 is tested immediately after the BUFFER IN. However, data from the second file is not needed until later in the program; therefore, processing can continue while the input operation on unit 6 is in progress. Since execution of the UNIT function loops until input is complete, it should not be executed until just before the data is needed.

When the first BUFFER IN has completed, the loop (lines 22-24) calculates the probability that a student will answer a question correctly.
$\mathrm{P}=\frac{\text { No. of correct answers }}{\text { No. of students }}$
After this calculation, data from the second file is needed. Unit 6 is tested; when the input operation has completed, the record from the second file is processed in the same manner as the record from the first file.

Lines 37 through 46 calculate the correlation coefficient for corresponding records of the two files. The formula is shown in figure 2-19. In the figure, $X$ and $Y$ are the probabilities for the first and second testings, respectively, and N is the number of students who took the test. The correlation coefficient has a value between -1 and 1 . A negative coefficient indicates unreliable data. The test number and coefficient are printed. An example of the printed output is shown in figure 2-20.

When every question on a test was correctly answered by the same number of students, the divisor in the formula became zero, and the correlation coefficient infinite. Therefore, the LEGVAR function is used to check this possibility (line 47).

New probabilities are calculated by the relation:

$$
\text { NEWPR }=\left(N_{1} X+N_{2} Y\right) /\left(N_{1}+N_{2}\right)
$$

where $N_{1}$ is the number of students in the first testing, $N_{2}$ is the number in the second testing, and $X$ and $Y$ are as before. The output record is written in line 55.

Records are read and processed in this manner until an end-of-file is encountered on either of the input files.

1

5
PROGRAM LINK (OUTPUT,LNKFIL,TAPE4=LNKFIL,NEWFIL,TAPE5=NEHFIL)

```
C
    PROGRAM PLINK + READS A BINARY FILE CONTAINING TIME
    HISTORY DATA, REFORMATS THE DATA, AND WRITES THE REFORMATTED
    DATA TO A NEM FILE
    COYMON /ECSCOM/ ECSBLK(5000)
    LFVFL 3, ECSBLK
    OIMENSION INBUF(50), OUTBUF(50), TIME(50)
    DATA MASKU/7777777777000000C000B/, MASKL/7777777777B/
こ
    I = 1
    J=1
    NCARD = 1
    NTIMES = 1
    SEWINC 4
i zFAD fIRST RECCRD TO DETEDMINF RECORD LENGTH
    RUFFEF IN (4,0) (INSUF(1), INSUF(50))
    IF (UNIT(4)\ 100, BCC, 80:
    1JJ LFMREC = LENGTH(4)
    IF (LFNPEC.GT.5E) fon Tn 9:t
    RFAO PEMAINDER OF FILE ANO STORE IN ECS/LCM
    110 TIME(NTIMES) = SHIFT(INBUF(1),30) .AND. MASKL
    CaLL MOVLEV (INaUF(1), ECEBLK(I), LENREC)
    I = I + LENREC
    gUFFFR IN (4,G) (INQUF(1), INPUFILENREC))
    NTIMES = NTIMES + 1
    IF (NTIMES .GT. 5L) GO TC gCC
    IE (UNIT(4)) 110, 2:0, 300
#
    2:0 NTIMFS = NTIMES - 1
        On 3uO I=2,LENREC
        II = 1
            OO 25¢ J=1,NTIMES
            CCLL YOVLEV (ECSBLK(II), INBUF(I), I)
            II = II + LENREC
                BITRUF(J+I)=(INRUF(I) .ANC. MASKU) .OR. TIME(J)
                    coviINuE
            OU-3UF(1) = INBUF(I) . ANO. MASKL
        QIIFFER OUT (5,0) (OUTPUF(1), NUTRUF(NTIMES+1))
        IF (JNIT(5)) 30こ, 8C?, Bg!
        3: CONTENUF
        =
    DDINT *, tEND LENKZ
    STn%
9:? PFINT *, & OISK I/O ERROP#
    STOD
#j: DFINT *, IINPUT FILE EXCETOS PROGRAM LIMITS.f
    nPINT *, tEXECUTION CONTINUINT, QUT SOME DATA MAY GE LOST*
    jr TO 20G
    ENO
```

Figure 2-13. Program LINK

A．Record Format
B．Sample Actual Records


Figure 2－14．Record Format for INFIL

## A．Record Format

| word1 | word2 | word3 |  | wordM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| region \＃ | temp／time1 | temp／time2 | $\ldots$ | temp／timeM |

B．Sample Actual Records

| $2 \cos \stackrel{1}{2}$ | 172662006C17264こ6U心く | 17264340001721400000 | $/ / \mathrm{c} 200001 i 22500000$ | 1726604000172 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{gathered} 2 \\ 2 \in c c o r l \end{gathered}$ | 17266705こ017204çuct | 172644 OCCOO172140060 | 266100001722500600 | 1726520000172 |
| $3$ $2600000$ | 172674056i172C4C6C6 | 17264440 した 17214 CO | 7266000001722500000 | 1726404000172 |
| $\operatorname{cocco}^{4}$ |  |  | 17265700001i22500000 | 1724760000172 |
| ${ }_{5}$ | $172655086 C 172040 C 068$ | 17264540601721466 | 17265600001722500000 | 1724600000172 |
| $2 \in \operatorname{coc}^{6}$ | 17265sucjorit2t4ígol | 1726463060172140 | 17265500001722500000 | 1725660000172 |

Figure 2－15．Record Format for NEWFIL

1

PROGRAM CDRCO COUTPUT,TESTA,TESTB,PROBS,
1 TAPE5=TESTA,TAPE6=TESTE,TAPET=PROBS)
0
INTFGER TESTN1, TESTN2, TOTST
JIMENSION IBUFA (150), IBUFB(150), OUTBUF(150), $X(150), Y(150)$, 1 IOUT(2)
EOUIVALENCE (IOUT (1), OUTEUF (1))
READ INPUT FILES CONTAINING TEST RESULTS
RFWINO 5
REHINO 6 $N=10$
133 EUFFER IN (5,0) (IBUFA(1), IBUFA(N+2)) SUFFEF IN (6,0) (IBUFE(1), IRUFR(N+2)) IF (UNIT(5)) 110, 900, 800

CALCILATE PRDBAEILITIES FOR FIRST TESTING
11) TFSTN1 = IBUFA(1)

NST1 = I 3UFA(2)
$0 \cap 120 \quad I=1, N$
$X(I)=F L O A T(I$ BUFA $(I+2)) / N S T 1$
120 CONTINUE
$=$
$i$
$c$
CALCIILATE PROBABILITIES FOR SECOND TESTING
IF (UNIT(6)) $130,900,800$
130 TFSTN? = ISUFB(1)
NST2 = IPUFE\&2)
$00140 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N}$ $P(I)=F L O A T(I B U F B(I+2)) / N S T 2$
1:9 CONTINUE
2
$\vdots$
$\vdots$ CALCULATE CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
SUMX $=$ SUMY $=$ SUMXY $=$ SUMXSO $=$ SUMYSQ $=0.0$ กn $1.50 \quad I=1, N$ S!JMX $=\operatorname{SUMX}+X(I)$ SUMY $=$ SUMY + Y(I) SUMXY $=$ SUMXY $+X(I) * Y(I)$ SUMXSO $=$ SUMXSQ $+X(I) \neq * 2$ SUMYSO $=$ SUMYSQ $+Y(I) * * 2$
150 CONTINUS
R $=\left(N^{*}\right.$ SUMXY - SUMX*SUMY) /
1 (SIRT(N*SUMXSQ - SUMX**2)*SORT(N*SUMYSQ - SUMY**21)
IF (LFGVAR(R) , NE. G) GO Tin 150]
PRINT 14, TESTN1, R
14 FRRMAT ( $\neq$ TEST NO. $=\neq$ IZ, $\neq$ CORRELATION COEFFICIENT $=\neq, F 5.2)$
TOTST $=$ NST1 + NST2
$\hat{c}$
$\stackrel{y}{c}$
$c$
こalculate new probapilities and write output file
DO 15A $I=1, N$
NUTRJF $(I+2)=(X(I) * N S T 1+Y(I) * N S T 2) / T O T S T$
150 CONTINUE
INUTII = TESTN1
I OUT(2) $=$ TOTST
SUFFER NUT 17,0 ) (OUTEUF (1), OUTRUF (N+2))
IF (UNIT(7)) $100,800,80 \mathrm{C}$
$c$
SJO PRINT * *FATAL I/O ERROR *
STOP
938 PRINT *, FEND CORCOK
STOP
1[Ji PRINT *, $\neq$ INVALID COEFFICIENT $\neq$
GO TO 100
END

Figure 2-16. Program CORCO
A. Record Format

B. Sample Actual Records


Figure 2-17. Input Records for CORCO
A. Record Format

| word | word | word3 | word | $\ldots$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| test no. | no. of students | $P(01)$ | $P(02)$ | $\ldots$ |

B. Sample Actual Records


Figure 2-18. Records on File PROBS
.89
.56
.65
.63
.71
.96
.40
.28
.45


Figure 2-19. Formula for Correlation Coefficient

```
TEST NO. = 1 SORRELATION COEFFICIENT = -.45
TEST NO. = 2 GORRELATION COEFFICIENT = . 24
TEST NO. = 3 CORFELATION COEFFICIENT = .64
TEST AO. = 4 SORRELATION COFFFICIENT = -.42
TEST NO. = 5 SOREELATION COEFFICIENT = . 27
TEST AN. = 6 CORRELATION CDEFFICIENT = .59
TEST NO. = 7 SORRELATION COEFFICIENT = .12
INVALIO COEFFICIENT
TEST AO. = 9 SORRELATION CNEFFICIENT = -.35
TEST NO. = 16 OOPFELATION COEFFICIENT = . 26
END CCRCO
```

Figure 2-20. Printed Output from CORCO

The purpose of optimizing a program is to reduce the cost of executing it. This cost is literally a cost in money, whether the cost is charged to the individual user or shared among all the users. Because the cost of a job results from the use of several kinds of system resources, the cost can be reduced by reducing the use of one or more of these resources. These resources include central processor time, central memory field length, and the various resources used in input/output operations.

Frequently, however, a reduced expenditure of one resource requires an increased expenditure of another. For instance, the amount of memory required by a program can be reduced by using segmentation or overlays (section 7), but more-central processor time is then required. Conversely, some optimization techniques, such as loop unrolling (described in this section), decrease central processor time at the expense of field length. Only the requirements of a particular application can determine whether specific optimizations are worthwhile.

A resource cost that is frequently overlooked when optimization is considered is programmer time. As discussed in section l, program development, debugging, and maintenance frequently contribute more to the overall cost of a program than the computer resources required to execute it. Therefore, a programmer should be very cautious about optimizing a program in such a way as to make it less comprehensible or maintainable. Unless a program is to be executed repeatedly, or to use a lot of resources, not much time should be spent on user optimization.

This section describes both the optimizations that the compiler performs for the user as well as those the user can embody in the source code. Most of these optimizations decrease central processor time (not always at the expense of field length), but some decrease field length, input/output time, or real time (throughput).

It should be kept in mind that the best way to optimize code is to use efficient algorithms. The higher the level at which a program is optimized, the better the results.

Array subscript computation is discussed frequently in this section; therefore, the formulas for one-, two-, and threedimensional arrays are shown in table 3-1 for convenient reference. These formulas do not apply to double precision or complex arrays.

Because it is reasonable to assume that any programmer interested in optimal program execution will compile the program under $\mathrm{OPT}=2$ or UO (unsafe optimization), the optimizations performed by the compiler in those modes are discussed first.

## COMPILER OPTIMIZATION

When OPT=2 is specified on the FTN control statement, the compiler optimizes the user code extensively in the process of generating object code. When the UO option is also specified, all the OPT=2 optimizations are performed, as well as some additional ones that could cause incorrect results. (The additional optimizations performed when $U O$ is specified are identified below.)

OPT $=2$ mode is a global optimizer; that is, it analyzes the structure of an entire program unit during the optimization process. A brief description of the procedure followed by this optimizer will help to clarify the specific optimizations described here in more detail.

In optimizing mode, several passes are made over the source code. In the first pass, the syntax of statements is analyzed, a symbol table is constructed, and the statements are translated into an intermediate language similar to assembly language. Typically, several instructions in this intermediate language are required for each executable FORTRAN statement. At this stage, no register assignment has taken place; rather, an indefinite number of registers ( $\mathrm{R} 1, \mathrm{R} 2, \ldots, \mathrm{Rn}$ ) are used as needed. An example of a FORTRAN statement and its translation into intermediate language is shown in figure 3-1. The intermediate language used in this example is similar to that used by the compiler, but is different in format.

Local optimizations are performed before global optimization begins. (Local optimizations are also performed when $\mathrm{OPT}=0$ or 1 is specified.) The local optimizations include constant evaluation and elimination of redundant subexpressions.

Global optimization begins by grouping sequences of intermediate language instructions into units called basic blocks. A basic block is a sequence of instructions with one entry and one point of exit. It has the property that if one instruction in a block is executed, all the instructions are executed. This grouping simplifies the process of analyzing the flow of control in the program. In figure 3-2, each section of code between comment lines constitutes a basic block.

TABLE 3-1. ARRAY SUBSCRIPT FORMULAS

| Number of <br> Dimensions | Declaration | Reference | Formula for Offset <br> from First Element |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | $A(I)$ | $A(L)=$ | $L-1$ |
| 2 | $A(I, J)$ | $A(L, M)=$ | $L-1+I *(M-1)$ |
| 3 | $A(I, J, K)$ | $A(L, M, N)=$ | $L-1+I *(M-1+J *(N-1))$ |

The next stage is to construct a directed graph in which the basic blocks are nodes, and the lines connecting the nodes indicate a conditional or unconditional transfer between blocks. The optimizer constructs a table indicating which variables are used and defined in each block.

The optimizer then identifies all the loops in the program unit (IF loops as well as DO loops). The loops are categorized according to how deeply they are nested. (An unnested loop is in the same category as the innermost loop of a nest.) Then, beginning with the innermost loops and proceeding outward, optimizations are performed for each loop. These optimizations include movement of invariant code outside the loop, strength reduction, elimination of dead variable definitions, and register assignment.

After all loops have been optimized, object code is generated. As a result of optimization, the order in which operations are performed can be different than the order in which those operations were specified in the source code. The result, however, is always identical.
FORTRAN Statement:
$\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{X}+\mathrm{Y} / \mathrm{Z}$
Intermediate Language Equivalent:
LOAD $\mathrm{Y} \rightarrow \mathrm{R} 1$
LOAD $\mathrm{Z} \rightarrow \mathrm{R} 2$
DIVIDE $\mathrm{R} 1 / \mathrm{R} 2 \rightarrow \mathrm{R} 3$
LOAD $X \rightarrow \mathrm{R} 4$

ADD R3 $+\mathrm{R} 4 \rightarrow \mathrm{R5}$
STORE $\mathrm{R} 5 \rightarrow \mathrm{O}$

Figure 3-1. Intermediate Language Example


Figure 3-2. Basic Block Example

Users with a knowledge of COMPASS are encouraged to examine the object listing produced from an OPT=2 compilation to get an idea of the types of source code manipulation that take place. The listing can be compared with one produced by an OPT $=0$ compilation.

The compiler-produced optimizations discussed in this section are divided into machine-independent optimizations and machine-dependent optimizations. Machine-independent optimizations are those that would produce more efficient code on any machine. Primarily, they consist of the elimination of unnecessary operations. Optimizations in this category include common subexpression squeezing, elimination of dead variable definitions, invariant code motion, and compilation time evaluation of constants. Machinedependent optimizations are those that take into account the specific features of the systems on which FORTRAN Extended programs run. They include replacing expensive operations with cheaper ones and taking advantage of the functional units present on some models.

## MACHINE-INDEPENDENT OPTIMIZATIONS

As stated above, machine-independent optimizations are those that result in the elimination of operations. In some cases, the operations are completely removed from the source code; this saves space as well as time. In other cases, operations are moved out of loops so that they are executed less frequently; this does not necessarily save any space.

## Invariant Code Motion

If a sequence of instructions appears in a loop, and the result of execution of the instructions does not depend on any variable whose value changes within the loop, the instructions are called invariant. If the instructions remain in the loop, they are redundantly executed as many times as the loop is executed; therefore, the optimizer removes such sequences from loops whenever possible.

For example, in the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{J} / \mathrm{L}+\mathrm{I}^{* * 2} \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

neither $J$ nor $L$ can change in value during execution of the loop and, therefore, $J / L$ is invariant and can be safely removed from the loop. $\mathrm{J} / \mathrm{L}$ is then calculated only once, rather than repeatedly. After optimization, the loop is equivalent to the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{Rl}=\mathrm{J} / \mathrm{L} \\
& \mathrm{DO} 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \mathrm{~K}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{Rl}+\mathrm{I}^{* *} \\
& 100 \mathrm{CONTINUE}
\end{aligned}
$$

(In this example of code after optimization, and those that follow, variables of the form Rn indicate machine registers rather than memory locations; thus, the examples should not strictly speaking be read as FORTRAN statements.)

Invariant code can extend for several statements, as shown in figure 3-3. This example also shows that IF loops that are essentially the same as DO loops are optimized in the same way.

Invariant code can also include code that is invisible in FORTRAN. For example, in the sequence:

```
    DIMENSION B(10,10,10)
    DO 10 I= 1,N
    B(I,7,K) =I
10 CONTINUE
```

The relative location of the element of array B is calculated by the formula (see table 3-1):

$$
1-1+10 \times(6+10 \times(K-1))
$$

Without optimization, this entire calculation would be performed once for each execution of the loop. After optimization, however, the invariant part of the calculation is performed before entering the loop. This invariant part consists of the following subexpression which, in fact, is most of the calculation:

$$
-1+10 \times(6+10 \times(K-1))
$$

The optimizer only moves code out of a loop when it is certain that the code is actually invariant. There are circumstances in which execution of a sequence of instructions proves it to be invariant but the determination cannot be made at compilation time. These circumstances include the following:

- When a call is made to a subprogram within the loop, and the code that is being considered for invariancy uses the value of a variable that is either in common or is an actual parameter to the subprogram. For example, in figure 3-4, neither $X^{* * 2}$ nor $Y / Z$ can be moved out of the loop, because the subroutine MYSUB might change the value of $X$ or $Z$. However, if the call to MYSUB were:

CALL MYSUB ( $Q, R, Z+2$ )
then $\mathrm{Y} / \mathrm{Z}$ could be moved out of the loop, since the compiler assumes that the call to MYSUB does not change the value of $Z$.

## Before optimization:

$100 \quad A=P(1)+S / Q$

$$
Y=X / Z+D
$$

$$
1=1+1
$$

IF(I.LT.12) GO TO 100

After optimization:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R 1=S / Q \\
& Y=X / Z+D \\
& 100 \quad A=P(1)+R 1 \\
& I=I+1 \\
& \text { IF(I.LT.12) GO TO } 100
\end{aligned}
$$

When a conditional branch within the loop introduces the possibility that the code might never be executed. For example, in figure 3-5, the expression $K+M$ can be moved out of the loop so that it is executed only once, but the store into J must be left in the loop.

- When the value of an expression ultimately depends on a variable that is capable of changing value in successive iterations of the loop. For example, in figure 3-6, the division L/Nl cannot be moved out of the loop because the value of $L$ ultimately depends on that of I , which changes each time the loop is executed.

Taking the limitations of the optimizer into account, the user concerned with optimal performance can write loops so as to maximize the amount of optimization that can take place. Above all, loop structure should be kept simple and straightforward. Common should not be used for storage of strictly local variables. Finally, expressions should be written in such a way as to make invariant subexpressions easier to recognize. For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \mathrm{~A}(\mathrm{I})=(1 .+\mathrm{X})+\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I}) \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

|  | COMMON $X$ |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | DO $100 I=1, N$ |
|  | $A(I)=X^{* * 2}$ |
|  | $B(I)=Y / Z$ |
| CALL MYSUB $(Q, R, Z)$ |  |
| 100 | CONTINUE |

Figure 3-4. Invariant Code (Example 1)

|  | LOGICAL L |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | DO 100 I $=1, N$ |
|  | IF (L) GO TO 110 |
|  | $\mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{K}+\mathrm{M}$ |
| 110 | $\mathrm{~A}(1)=\mathrm{B}(1)+\mathrm{C}(1)$ |
| 100 | CONTINUE |

Figure 3-5. Invariant Code (Example 2)

$$
100
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \mathrm{~J}=\mathrm{I}+\ldots \\
& \mathrm{K}=\mathrm{J}^{*} \ldots \\
& \mathrm{~L}=\mathrm{K}+\ldots \\
& M=\mathrm{L} / \mathrm{N} 1+\mathrm{N} 2^{*} \mathrm{~N} 3 \\
& \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 3-3. Invariant Code Motion Example
Figure 3-6. Invariant Code (Example 3)
is preferable to
DO $100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N}$
$\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{I})=1 .+\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{X}$

## 100 CONTINUE

because 1. $+X$ is recognized as an invariant expression only in the first case.

Common sense must be used to decide when rewriting loops interferes with the readability of code.

Whenever it is not clear whether the compiler can move invariant code, the user can move it. Moving code sometimes requires the creation of temporary variables to hold subexpressions; these variables should only be used locally, so that the optimizer does not generate unnecessary stores into them (as explained under Dead Definition Elimination). An exception to the effectiveness of this technique is that the program should not perform its own subscript calculation for a multidimensional array. For example, the sequence:

DIMENSION B(10,10,10)
DO $10 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N}$
$B(I, 7, K)=I$
10 CONTINUE
should not be rewritten as:
DIMENSION $B(10,10,10)$
ITEMP $=-1+10^{*}\left(6+10^{*}(\mathrm{~K}-1)\right)$
DO $10 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N}$
$B($ I + ITEMP $)=I$
10
CONTINUE
even though the results are the same, because the rewritten version inhibits certain special-case optimizations the optimizer performs on array subscripts. (The expression in the rewritten version is not recognized as a subscript.)

## Common Subexpression Elimination

A common subexpression is an expression that occurs more than once in the source code. In completely unoptimized code, the expression is evaluated each time it occurs. Instead, the optimizer tries to save the result of the expression in a register whenever possible and to use that result instead of reevaluating the expression.

For example, in the following sequence of code:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=A * B * C \\
& S(A * B)=(A * B) / C
\end{aligned}
$$

all three occurrences of $A * B$ are matched; $A * B$ is evaluated only once, and the result is used three times. This procedure can take place only when all of the following conditions are true:

- The expressions can be recognized as the same expression. The compiler reorders each expression into a canonical order, and then compares expressions term-by-term. Only expressions that match exactly are used. For example, $A+B, A+B+C, C+D$, and so forth, are recognized as subexpressions of $A+B+C+D$, but $A+C$ is not recognized. $B+A$ can be matched with $A+B$, however, because they are rearranged into the same order. When a subexpression contains more than one operator of equal precedence, as in:


## A*B/C

the expression is usually evaluated from left to right. Since the operators are associative, however, the compiler might reorder the operations. Parentheses can be used to ensure the desired grouping of subexpressions:
( $A * B$ )/C

- The expressions must be in the same sequence of code, otherwise it is not feasible to allocate a register to save the result. The further apart two occurrences of the same expression are, the less likely it is that they will be matched. Furthermore, no code can occur between occurrences of the same expression that might cause it to change in value. For example, in the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=A(2) / B(2)-Q \\
& A(I)=4.5 \\
& Z=A(2) / B(2)+13.4
\end{aligned}
$$

$A(2) / B(2)$ cannot be matched as a common subexpression because of the possibility that I will be equal to 2 at execution time, changing the value of the expression. In this example, if the user is sure that I will not be equal to 2 , the assignment to $A(I)$ should be placed after the assignment to Z .

Keeping these restrictions in mind, the user can write expressions so as to maximize the chance that identical expressions are recognized by the optimizer. For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A A=X * A / Y \\
& B B=X * B / Y
\end{aligned}
$$

is not likely to result in subexpression elimination, but

$$
\begin{aligned}
& A A=A^{*}(X / Y) \\
& B B=B^{*}(X / Y)
\end{aligned}
$$

will do so.

## Dead Definition Elimination

As explained above, the optimizer divides a program unit into basic blocks as part of its analysis. In the process, it keeps track of the uses and definitions of each variable within the block. By investigating which combinations of blocks can be branched to from a given block, the optimizer determines whether the value of a variable is needed after the block is executed. If the value is needed, the variable is referred to as live on exit, otherwise it is referred to as dead on exit. If a variable is dead on exit from a block, the last store into the variable can be eliminated, since the value of the variable will not be needed again in the program.

For example, in the program unit shown in figure 3-7, the store into $X$ in the line labeled 100 is eliminated, because there is path through the program in which $X$ could be referenced subsequently.

Locally (that is, within a basic block), other stores of a variable can also be eliminated. For example, in the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=Y+Z \\
& A=X+B \\
& X=X / R
\end{aligned}
$$

all three of these statements must be executed whenever the first one is executed. Therefore, it is not necessary to store $X$ after the first statement because it is almost immediately redefined. A dead definition is eliminated only if the optimizer can be certain that it is really dead. For instance, the logic of the program might be such that it is impossible to decide for certain where the last usage of the variable is. In this case, no stores can be deleted (except locally). Also, the ability of the optimizer to eliminate stores even locally is limited by the availability of registers. For example, in the sequence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& X=Y+Z \\
& A(I+J, J+K, K+I)=(B(M, N)+ \\
& 1 C(N, L)) * *(D(L, M) / E * * X) / F \\
& X=Q / R / S / T
\end{aligned}
$$

it is impossible to keep the value of $X$ in a register throughout the execution of the second statement, so $X$ must be stored and then subsequently loaded.

There is not much the user can do to help the optimizer eliminate dead definitions. Of course, many dead definitions result from incorrect or redundant code. For example, if the last statement to be executed in a program unit is a store into a local variable, the statement is superflucus and should be eliminated by the programmer. The best advice is to keep program logic simple and avoid unnecessary use of common blocks and equivalence classes.

## Constant Evaluation

At all optimization levels, the compiler attempts to evaluate as many constant subexpressions as possible. The reason for this is that programs are usually executed many more times than they are compiled. For example:

$$
x=3.5+4 . * * 2
$$

The compiler evaluates the expression and replaces it with the constant 19.5. Some constant subexpressions serve no useful purpose and should be evaluated by the programmer, not the compiler. Others are justified, however, when they make programs more readable. This is particularly true when one of the components of the expression is a standard constant, such as pi ore. Because the expression is evaluated at compile time at minimal expense, it is better to leave such expressions unevaluated.

```
    SUBROUTINE A (M,V, 1)
    DIMENSION V(M)
    READ *, X
    GO TO (100,200) I
100 X = X/2.
    IF (M .GT. 20) GO TO 250
    STOP
200 PRINT *, X
    RETURN
250 V(M) = 25.6
    RETURN
    END
```

Figure 3-7. Variable Dead on Exit

The user can help the optimizer by grouping constant subexpressions within an expression. For example, it is better to write:

$$
X=Y *(3.14159265358979 / 2 .)
$$

than:

$$
X=3.14159265358979 * Y / 2 .
$$

because the constant subexpression is recognized in the first case but not the second.

## Test Replacement

Test replacement consists of replacing, in a locp, all or some occurrences of a variable with a function of a related variable. The control variable is especially likely to be eliminated. A variable can be eliminated if it satisfies the following conditions:

- It is not in common or a formal parameter
- Its value is not required outside the loop
- At least one of its appearances in the loop is in the form of a linear function (expecially as an array subscript); for example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{DO} 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \mathrm{~A}(2, \mathrm{I})=33.2 \\
& 100 \mathrm{CONTINUE}
\end{aligned}
$$

Test replacement of I can take place in this loop, but not in the following case:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 110 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \text { X }=\text { SQRT(FLOAT(I)) } \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

In test replacement, the increment and test portions of the loop code are rewritten so that a linear function of the control variable is incremented and tested, rather than the control variable itself; for example:

DO $100 \mathrm{I}=1,10$
$A(\mathrm{I})=2.5$
100 CONTINUE

In this loop, test replacement causes the address of the successive elements of the array $A$ to be used for testing and incrementing, rather than the variable I. Because the distinction is easier to see in COMPASS code, the object code generated for this loop under OPT $=0$ and $O P T=2$ is shown in figure 3-8. It should be noted that the variable I, for all intents and purposes, does not exist in the second version.

When the control variable has more than one use within a loop, test replacement can still take place, but the control variable is not necessarily eliminated. However, at least one increment instruction per loop iteration is eliminated.

## MACHINE-DEPENDENT <br> OPTIMIZATION

As stated above, machine-dependent optimizations are those that take advantage of the peculiar features of the systems on which FORTRAN Extended programs can be run. They fall into three main categories:

- Those that replace slower operations by faster operations. In FORTRAN, the relative speeds of operations can be ranked as follows (slowest first):

| ** | Exponentiation |
| :--- | :--- |
| $/$ | Division |
| * | Multiplication |
| +- | Addition and subtraction |

- Those that reorder instructions so as to use simultaneously as many functional units as possible. These optimizations are only carried out on systems with functional units; that is, the 6600, 6700, CYBER 70 Models 74 and 76, and CYBER 170 Models 175 and 176 Computer Systems.
- Those that schedule register usage so as to minimize stores and loads. These apply to all computer systems.


## Strength Reduction

Strength reduction is one instance of the replacement of expensive operations by cheaper operations. Specifically, strength reduction replaces exponentiation by multiplication, and multiplication by addition.

| Under OPT $=0$ : |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| IAA | Sx7 | 18 |
|  | SA7 | 1 |
|  | BSS | 03 |
|  | SA5 | CON. |
|  | SA4 |  |
|  | BX7 | $\times 5$ |
|  | SA7 | X $4+A-18$ |
|  | SA5 | 1 |
|  | S $\times 7$ | X5+18 |
|  | S×0 | X7-13B |
|  | SA7 | A5 |
|  | MI | XO, IAA |
| Under OPT=2: |  |  |
|  | SA1 S 86 | $\mathrm{CON}_{4+118}$ |
|  | S 87 | 4 |
| IAA | BSS | OB |
|  | BX7 | $\times 1$ |
|  | SA7 | 87 |
|  | S87 | B7+18 |
|  | GE | B6, B7, AA |

Figure 3-8. Test Replacement Generated Code

Some types of strength reduction are local optimizations. For example, any exponentiation by a small integer constant (less than about 12) is replaced by a series of multiplications. Exponentiation by larger integers results in a call to a Common Library routine, which also uses multiplication for exponentiation by any integer up to about 100 .

Another example is multiplication by 2 , which can be replaced by addition of the variable to itself; thus:

$$
\mathrm{J}=2 * \mathrm{I}
$$

becomes:

$$
\mathrm{J}=\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{I}
$$

When OPT=2 is specified, strength reduction also takes place in other situations. For example, if a subscript expression is of the form:

$$
n * I+m
$$

where $n$ and $m$ are unsigned integer constants, and $I$ is a variable that varies only linearly in the loop (such as the control variable), then the multiplication can be replaced by an addition. For example, in the loop:

```
    DO 120 I=1, 100
    B(4*I + 3) = 2.5
```

100 CONTINUE
the loop is rewritten as follows:
$\mathrm{RI}=3$
DO $120 \mathrm{I}=1,100$
$\mathrm{Rl}=\mathrm{Rl}+4$
$B(R 1)=2.5$
120 CONTINUE
so that the multiplication is replaced by an addition.

## Special Casing of Subscripts

In a multidimensional array, subscript computation requires one or more multiply instructions. The formula for this computation is shown in table 3-1. If any of the declared dimensions (except the last dimension, which is not used in a multiply) is a power of 2 , the multiplication can be replaced with a shift instruction, which executes more quickly. This is possible becausp subscript dimensions are positive numbers less than $2^{-1}-1$. (Shifts cannot replace multiplications of other integer variables because the results might overflow 48 bits, leading to invalid results.)

In the following example:

```
DIMENSION A(2,4,7)
    :
A(I,J,K)=452.3
```

the subscript calculation is:

$$
1-1+2 *\left(J-1+4^{*}(\mathrm{~K}-1)\right)
$$

After optimization, both multiplications are performed by shifts instead of multiply instructions.

The replacement of multiplication by a shift also takes place when the array dimension is a sum or difference of two powers of 2. In this case, the number to be multiplied is shifted twice, and the two results are added or subtracted.

In the following example:

```
DIMENSION A(6,12,3)
    \vdots
A(I,J,K) = 452.3
```

the formula for the subscript is:

$$
\mathrm{I}-1+6 *(\mathrm{~J}-1+12 *(\mathrm{~K}-1))
$$

or

$$
\mathrm{I}+6 * \mathrm{~J}+72 * \mathrm{~K}-79
$$

Both multiplications are performed using shift and add instructions.

Another type of special casing takes place when the first subscript expression of a subscript is a constant. In this case, the constant is added to the base address of array, saving one addition each time the subscript is calculated. For example, in the following case:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DIMENSION A }(10,10,10) \\
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~N} \\
& \text { A }(4, J, \mathrm{I})=\mathrm{I} \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

the address of the array element in the assignment statement is calculated as follows:

$$
\text { Address }=\text { Base address }+(3+10 *(\mathrm{~J}-1+10 *(\mathrm{I}-1)))
$$

where the base address is the address of the first element in the array. Since the constant part of the calculation only needs to be performed once, 3 is added to the base address at compile time, effectively transforming the calculation to the following form:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Address = Biased base address + } \\
(10 *(\mathrm{~J}-1+10 *(\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{I})))
\end{gathered}
$$

The same principle can be applied to the case where the two leftmost subscript expressions, or all three, are constants.

## Functional Unit Scheduling

The central processor in several of the computer systems on which FORTRAN Extended programs run has multiple functional units. The optimizer takes advantage of this feature whenever possible by scheduling instructions so as to use units simultaneously. This optimization is performed only when the program is compiled on a system with functional units; the compiler assumes that the program is to be executed on the same system on which it was compiled. However, performance is not degraded if the program is executed on a different system.

An important special case of functional unit scheduling is array element prefetching. Prefetching takes place when the elements of an array are used successively in a loop. With prefetching, loading of the next element to be used overlaps usage of the current element. For example:

```
    DO 100 I=1,N
    A(I)=B(I)+C(I)
100 CONTINUE
```

Without prefetching, both $\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})$ and $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I})$ would have to be loaded before being added, so either the floating add unit or the increment unit (which is responsible for loads and stores)
would be idle while the other unit was in use. With prefetching, $\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{l})$ and $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{l})$ are fetched at the same time as $\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})$ and $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I})$ are added.

The potential danger with prefetching is that the last iteration of a loop might attempt to load a nonexistent array element. In the example, $\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{N}+1)$ and $\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{N}+1)$ are loaded (but not used) even if the arrays only have N elements. If the array is stored near the end of the user's field length, this attempt might result in an address out-of-range (an arithmetic mode 1 error). Thus, a program that executes correctly without prefetching might abort with prefetching. For this reason, prefetching is not performed for compilations under OPT=2 unless there is no danger of exceeding field length. However, when the LO (unsafe optimization) option is specified in addition to OPT $=2$, the compiler can prefetch for any array, without regard for the possibility of exceeding field length. Therefore, UO should not be used unless the user is sure that field length is not exceeded.

In the example above, field length is not exceeded because the increment between prefetched elements is only one word, and at least one word is guaranteed at the end of the field length.

## Register Assignment

As one of the last stages of code generation, the optimizer decides which register to use for each variable and temporary quantity in every sequence of code. As part of the process, an attempt is made to minimize the number of loads and stores required. Whenever a program uses more quantities than there are registers, some of the quantities not immediately in use must be stored and subsequently loaded. To avoid this, the optimizer analyzes the register usage of a sequence of code and decides whether to put each quantity in an $A, B$, or $X$ register.

For some quantities, no alternative is available. The value of most variable or array elements must be in an $X$ register (which is 60 bits long), and the address of an operand to be loaded or stored must be in an A register. However, any quantity known to be less than or equal to 18 bits long can be kept in either a $B$ register (which is 18 bits long) or an $X$ register. These quantities include DO-loop control variables, limits, and increments, and any quantity used in array subscript calculation.

In the following example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{J}, \mathrm{~K}, \mathrm{~L} \\
& \mathrm{~A}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{~N}, \mathrm{I}) \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{J}, \mathrm{K}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}$, and N can all be legally placed in B registers, because none of these quantities are allowed to exceed 18 bits.

Usually, register assignment consists of reallocating quantities from $X$ registers to $B$ registers, since $X$ registers are usually scarcer than $B$ registers, but occasionally the reverse is true. A special case of register assignment is retention of $B$ registers across calls to basic external functions (library routines), which takes place only when the UO option is specified. Normally, all registers are saved whenever an external reference occurs, because it is impossible to determine at compile time what registers are used by the referenced function. However, when the $\cup O$ option is specified, the compiler assumes that certain $B$ registers are not used by basic external functions, and does not bother to save those registers when such functions are referenced. When the UO option is specified, the user
should ensure that functions with the same names as basic external functions are not loaded at execution time, unless the functions are referred to in EXTERNAL statements or type statements that override the default type.

## OPTIMIZATION EXAMPLE

A somewhat more complex example can serve to illustrate how various optimizations are combined. Figure $3-9$ shows a
simple program unit and the code that would be generated for it when compiled with each of the following two control statements:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { FTN,OPT=0,ER=0,OL. } \\
& \text { FTN,OPT=2,UO,OL. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Only the object code generated for the executable statements is shown; a full listing of the object code would also include code to allocate data blocks and common blocks, and

| Source Code: |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |  | SUBROUTINE 0 |
|  |  |  | INTFGER A. B, C |
|  |  |  | COMMON A 10,10$), \mathrm{B}(10,10), \mathrm{C}(10.10)$ |
|  |  |  | D0 $100 \mathrm{I}=2,10$ |
|  | 5 |  | $A(1+1,1-1)=\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{I}+1, \mathrm{I}+1)+\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}-1, \mathrm{I}-1)$ |
|  |  | 100 | CONTINUF. |
|  |  |  | RETURN |
|  |  |  | FND |

Under OPT=0:


Under OPT $=2$ :

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | LINE | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 000002 CODE. |  | 5120000172 | 11 |  | SA2 | B+26B |  |  |
|  |  | 5110000310 | // |  | SAl | C |  |  |
| 000003 | CODE | 6150000013 | // |  | SB5 | 138 | LINE |  |
|  |  | 6160000002 |  |  | SB6 | $A+2 B$ |  |  |
| 000004 | CODE. | 617000013 ? | // |  | SB7 | $A+132 B$ |  | 4 |
|  |  |  |  | * |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 000005 \\ & 000005 \end{aligned}$ | CODE. | 36712 |  | ) $A$ A | BSS | OB |  |  |
|  | CODE. |  |  |  | IX7 | $\times 1+\times 2$ |  |  |
|  |  | 5422554115 |  |  | SA2 | A2+B5 |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | SAl | Al ${ }^{\text {B }} 5$ |  |  |
|  |  | 56760 |  |  | SAT | 86 |  |  |
| 000006 | CODE | 646650676000005 | CODE. | * | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SB6 } \\ & \text { GE } \end{aligned}$ | $86+85$ |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | LIve | 7 |
| 000007 | CODE. | 0400000001 | START. |  | EQ | EXIT. |  |  |

Figure 3-9. FORTRAN Subprogram and Generated Object Code
to establish communication between program units. The COMPASS instructions shown are not explained; they should be self-evident to anyone familiar with COMPASS. The code generated under OPT $=2$ shows the following features:

- Test replacement (the registers B6 and B7 hold linear functions of the control variable, which does not exist within the loop)
- Strength reduction (the multiplications that would normally be used in the subscript calculation have all been replaced by additions)
- Common subexpression elimination (not well shown in this example, because the expressions $\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{l}$ and $\mathrm{I}-1$ have disappeared completely)
- Register assignment (use of B registers to hold array subscripts)


## - Prefetching (of elements of $B$ and $C$ )

The object code under OPT=2 is two words shorter than the object code under OPT=0. More significantly, the loop itself is reduced from six words to two words.

## SOURCE CODE OPTIMIZATION

A program compiled under OPT=2 almost always runs faster than a program compiled under OPT $=0$, OPT $=1$, or timesharing (TS) mode. The amount of improvement depends primarily on the number of loops in the program, because that is where most of the optimization under OPT $=2$ takes place.

In addition to the optimizations performed by the compiler, the user can rewrite the source code in such a way as to improve its performance, especially for cases that the compiler is incapable of optimizing. Time should be devoted only to optimizing loops, especially innermost loops; optimizations in straight-line code are not likely to be fruitful.

Source code optimization should not be done at the expense of other desirable features; some optimizations decrease execution time while increasing field length. (This is rarely true for compiler optimizations.) Also, many optimizations decrease the comprehensibility or ease of maintenance of a program. The added cost in programmer time often exceeds the savings in execution time.

With these cautions in mind, the user can decide which of the source code optimizations described here is worthwhile in any given application.

## HELPING THE COMPILER OPTIMIZE

Probably the most important source code optimizations are those intended to maximize the optimizations the compiler can perform. Many of these have already been discussed in the context of the compiler optimizations, so only a summary is necessary here.

A primary consideration is to avoid unnecessary use of common blocks and equivalence classes. With variables in common, every subroutine call or function reference requires the compiler to store the variable before the reference, because it cannot be determined at compile time whether the variable is used in the referenced subprogram. In particular, the practice sometimes encountered of allocating local scratch variables in unused portions of
common blocks to save space is very detrimental, and can actually cause space to be wasted. For example, in the following sequence:

COMMON I,A(1000),B(1000)<br>DO $100 \mathrm{I}=1,1000$<br>$\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{I})=4 * \mathrm{~B}(\mathrm{I})$<br>CALL SUBI (C,D)<br>100 CONTINUE<br>CALL SUB2<br>END

I is in common, therefore its value must be stored before each call to SUB1 or SUB2. These two stores, 30 bits each, occupy the same amount of space as the variable. If I were not in common, the stores could be eliminated, saving the same amount of space and considerably speeding execution.

Equivalence classes inhibit optimization in somewhat less obvious ways. The following example is typical:

```
DIMENSION X(100)
EQUIVALENCE (X(1),W)
W=Y
PRINT *,X(I)
STOP
END
```

Without the EQUIVALENCE statement, the assignment statement could be eliminated because the value of $W$ is not used again in the program. However, because $W$ is equivalenced to $X(1)$, and the PRINT statement might reference $X(1)$, the assignment statement cannot be eliminated.

These cautions are not meant to discourage legitimate uses of common blocks and equivalence classes. In particular, when variables are needed by more than one program unit, it is faster to pass them through common than as parameters, because the code for setting up and using the parameter list is eliminated.

Another major way to help the compiler optimize is to keep program logic straightforward and simple, and to keep program units short. Of course, this also improves program readability and modularity. But the advantage to the optimizer is that it is more likely to correctly identify loops and monitor the usage of variables in different portions of the program.

It has already been mentioned that the optimizer recognizes IF loops as well as DO loops. The user should keep in mind that the more closely the IF loop resembles a DO loop, the more different kinds of optimizations are performed. (The implication of this is that a DO loop should be used whenever possible.) For example, the IF loop in the following sequence of code:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{l} \\
& 100 \begin{array}{l}
\mathrm{A}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}) \\
\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}+1 \\
\mathrm{IF}(\mathrm{I} . \mathrm{LE} .12) \text { GO TO } 100
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

generates code essentially identical to that generated by the following DO loop:

```
    DO 100 I=1,12
    A(I) = B(I) +C(I)
100 CONTINUE
```

and all the same optimizations are performed. However, if the loop is changed to the following algebraically identical form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{I}=1 \\
& 100 \mathrm{~A}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}) \\
& \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{I}+1 \\
& \mathrm{IF}(\mathrm{I}+5 . \operatorname{LE} .17) \text { GO TO } 100
\end{aligned}
$$

some of the optimizations the compiler performed in the first case cannot be performed in the second (for example, test replacement).

## LOOP RESTRUCTURING

When the user is rewriting a program to optimize the source code, special attention should be paid to the loops, because that is where most of the execution time is spent in a typical FORTRAN program. Frequently, the users can take advantage of their knowledge of the peculiarities of their own programs to rewrite loops in such a way as to reduce the total number of operations performed at execution time.

One of the best known methods of restructuring is called loop unrolling. The idea is to reduce the overhead resulting from incrementing and testing the loop control variable by reducing the number of times the loop is executed. For example, the following loop:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1,10000 \\
& \times(\mathrm{I})=Z(\mathrm{I}) * * 2 \\
& 100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{aligned}
$$

can be replaced by this loop:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1,9999,2 \\
& \times(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{I}) * * 2 \\
& \times(\mathrm{I}+1)=\mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{I}+1) * * 2 \\
& 100 \mathrm{CONTINUE}
\end{aligned}
$$

In the second case, only half as many increment, test, and branch instructions are executed.

One disadvantage of loop unrolling is that it makes programs more difficult to understand. Carried to its logical conclusion, loops would be completely eliminated, and replaced with long sequences of assignment statements. Clearly the user who is this concerned with optimization would be better off coding in COMPASS in the first place.

A more technical limitation of unrolling arises in the case when it is not known at compile time just how often the loop will be executed. For example, if the DO statement is:

## DO $100 \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{J}$

unrolling does not produce the correct results unless $J$ is an even number (assuming that each assignment statement is unrolled into two statements).

Another way to reduce the overhead associated with loops is to combine them. For example, in the sequence:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~K} \\
A(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}) \\
100 \mathrm{CONTINUE} \\
\text { DO } 110 \mathrm{~J}=1, \mathrm{~K} \\
\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{~J})=\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{~J})+\mathrm{G}(\mathrm{~J}) \\
100 \text { CONTINUE }
\end{gathered}
$$

the two loops can be combined into one, thus reducing by half the overhead associated with the loop:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { DO } 100 \mathrm{I}=1, \mathrm{~K} \\
A(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{C}(\mathrm{I}) \\
\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{I})=\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{I})+\mathrm{G}(\mathrm{I}) \\
100 \mathrm{CONTINUE}
\end{gathered}
$$

Combining loops is usually worthwhile; however, its usefulness as an optimizing tool is limited by the requirement that both original loops must be executed the same number of times.

## MISCELLANEOUS OPTIMIZATIONS

The following is a list of miscellaneous techniques for optimization which might be found helpful under particular circumstances. They are discussed very briefly.

1. Avoid mixing modes in an expression. Each conversion from one mode to another requires extra instructions. An exception is exponentiation; integers as exponents are usually quicker than real numbers, whatever the base. When a choice among modes is possible for an expression, the choice should be made according to the following hierarchy (from most efficient to least efficient):

## Integer

Real
Double Precision
Double precision is especially inefficient, and should be avoided whenever possible. A single precision floating point number has 48 significant bits, which is more than enough for most purposes.
2. If a program is only going to be relocated once (see section 7), but executed many times, the DATA statement is preferable to assignment statements for initialization of variables, especially large arrays.
3. The forms of conditional branch, from slowest to fastest, are as follows:

## Computed GO TO

IF statement

## Assigned GO TO

Unfortunately, the assigned GO TO makes following the flow of control in a program more difficult, and also impedes the detection of logic errors during debugging; it must be used with caution. When more than four or five branches can be taken from a given point, the computed GO TO is more efficient than the IF statement.
4. More efficient code is generated if one branch of an arithmetic IF or two-branch logical IF immediately follows the IF statement. In this case, the path for this statement falls through instead of branching.
5. References to basic external functions should be consolidated whenever possible. For example:

$$
A=A L O G(C)+A L O G(D)
$$

is not as efficient as:

$$
A=A L O G(C * D)
$$

6. If the executable statements in a function subprogram can be consolidated into a single assignment statement, a statement function is more efficient. Because the code for a statement function is expanded inline during compilation, the overhead associated with passing parameters, saving registers, and branching to and from the function is saved for each function reference.
7. Expressions should be factored whenever possible to reduce the number of operations required for evaluation. For example:

$$
X=A * C+B * C+A * D+B * D
$$

should be replaced by:

$$
X=(A+B) *(C+D)
$$

The first version requires four multiplications and three additions; the second requires only one multiplication. and two additions.

## PROGRAMMING FOR GREATER ACCURACY

The remainder of this section presents some miscellaneous ideas designed to improve the accuracy and efficiency of mathematical programs coded in FORTRAN Extended.

## SUM SMALL TO LARGE

It is better to sum from small to large than from large to small. That is, when a group of numbers is to be added together, if the numbers vary widely in magnitude, a more accurate result is achieved if the smallest numbers are added first, and then the largest, rather than the other way around.

This can best be explained by an illustration. For the sake of simplicity, assume that the computer can only maintain four decimal digits of accuracy. When two numbers are added, only the four most significant digits of the result are kept, and the remainder is truncated. If the following series of numbers is to be added:
.00001234
. 00005678
. 00003121
.41610000
.21320000
the true result is .62940033 . If the numbers are added in pairs from largest to smallest, and all but four significant digits of each result discarded, the result is .6293. If they are added from smallest to largest, the result is .6294 , which is more accurate.

The explanation of this phenomenon is that, when adding from smallest to largest, because of carrying, the cumulative total of the small numbers often has one or more significant digits within the range of the larger numbers. Adding from largest to smallest, however, the total becomes very large immediately, and smaller numbers are ignored completely.

## AVOID ILL'-CONDITIONING

Because of the inherent properties of certain mathematical functions, precision is increasingly lost as the function approaches a certain value. In an effort to counteract this effect, programmers often use the double precision versions of the functions. However, this technique is drastically less efficient and often produces results that are less accurate. In many cases, better and faster results can be achieved by rewriting the referencing expressions and avoiding the double precision functions.

The problem arises for values of the argument for which the derivative of the function is very large. More precisely, when the following function:

$$
g(x)=\frac{x f^{\prime}(x)}{f(x)}
$$

is very large, which is usually true when the derivative is very large.

For example, in the expression:

$$
\text { SQRT }(1 .-X * * 2)
$$

when the value of $X$ is very close to 1 ., the result of the expression tends not to be very accurate. Therefore, $X$ is frequently declared double precision, and the expression rewritten as:
SNGL(DSQRT(1. - X**2))

However, noting that:

$$
1-x^{2}=(1-X)(1+X)
$$

The expression can be rewritten with greater accuracy as:
SQRT((1.+5NGL(X)) * SNGL(1.-X))

The amplification of relative error when the value of a function nears a certain value is a particular problem with trigonometric functions. With the tangent function, the function $g(x)$ defined above has the value:

$$
g(x)=\frac{x}{\sin (x) \cos (x)}
$$

$g$ increases without limit as $\times$ approaches any multiple of $\pi / 2$ radians. When the value of $x$ might be in this range, programmers frequently declare $x$ double precision and compute the function as follows:

## SNGL(DTAN(X))

However, greater accuracy and efficiency can be achieved by declaring $x$ double precision and using the addition formula for tangents (since a double precision number is the sum of its upper and lower parts). The formula is as follows (where $x_{y}$ is the upper word of the double precision number, and $x_{1}$ is the lower word):

$$
\tan \left(x_{u}+x_{1}\right)=\frac{\tan \left(x_{u}\right)+\tan \left(x_{1}\right)}{1-\tan \left(x_{u}\right) \tan \left(x_{1}\right)}
$$

Furthermore, for any number $x$ less than $10^{7}$, tan $\left(x_{1}\right)$ is approximately the same as $x_{l}$. Therefore the formula can be rewritten as:

$$
\tan \left(x_{u}+x_{1}\right)=\frac{\tan \left(x_{u}\right)+x_{1}}{1-\tan \left(x_{u}\right) x_{1}}
$$

or, in FORTRAN:

## DOUBLE PRECISION X

```
XU = SNGL(X)
XL=X - XU
RESULT = (TAN(XU) + XL) / (1. - TAN(XU) * XL)
```

using no double precision arithmetic.
Similar substitutions can be made for sine and cosine, using the addition formulas and the information that $\sin \left(x_{1}\right)$ is approximately $x_{1}$, while $\cos \left(x_{1}\right)$ is approximately 1.0.

An even better example is the exponentiation function EXP. In this case, the larger the value of $x$, the larger the function $g(x)$ defined above. The addition formula in this case is as follows:

$$
\exp \left(x_{u}+x_{1}\right)=\exp \left(x_{u}\right)+x_{1} \exp \left(x_{u}\right)
$$

or, in FORTRAN:

DOUBLE PRECISION X

RESULT $=\operatorname{EXP}(5 N G L(X))+(X-\operatorname{SNGL}(X))$ * 1(EXP(SNGL(X)))

Debugging can be difficult and time consuming, particularly where lengthly programs and intricate logic are involved. FORTRAN Extended and the operating systems that support it offer the programmer several features that can aid in the debugging process. By becoming familiar with these features, the amount of time involved in debugging programs can be substantially reduced.

The debugging process actually begins when the program is initially coded; a program that is well documented and has logic that is easy to follow is easier to debug than one that is not. (Refer to section l for a discussion of good programming practices.)

Debugging a FORTRAN program involves three steps, which can be summarized as follows:

| Desk checking | The program is checked for obvious <br> keypunch and logic errors. A simple <br> test case can be followed through the <br> program by hand to test the logic. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Compilation $\quad$The program is compiled using a fast <br> compilation mode. Errors detected <br> by the compiler are identified and <br> corrected. |  |
| Execution | The program is executed using test <br> cases designed to thoroughly test all <br> aspects of the program. If possible, |
| output should be compared with a |  |
| known standard to ensure cor- |  |
| rectness. |  |

In this section, these steps are illustrated by means of a sample program which is debugged using some of the features of FORTRAN Extended. Although the typical FORTRAN program is much longer than the sample program, portions of many longer programs often can be coded and debugged separately and the intermediate results checked. The program illustrated is program ACCTAB, which is discussed in section 2 in its final version. It is shown in figure 4-1, complete with bugs, as it might appear after initial coding.

## DESK CHECKING

The programmer should examine a program for the more obvious errors before attempting to compile and execute it. Regardless of how carefully a program is desk checked, however, it might not run or even compile without errors on the first attempt. Because of this the programmer should not spend a lot of time desk checking; instead, the computer should be allowed to do as much of the debugging as possible. Even with a program as small as the sample program (figure 4-1), it is unlikely that desk checking would reveal all the bugs.

An examination of the sample program $A C C T A B$ reveals some obvious blunders. The character . appearing in line 13 is a mispunch; the programmer intended to type a / . The compiler would have detected this particular error. On the other hand, if the character * had been punched instead of the character ., the statement would have been
syntactically correct and the error not quite as obvious. In line 20, a left parenthesis should be a right parenthesis. The error in line 41 is obvious; the statement was punched starting in column 1 instead of in column 7. The compiler would have detected both of these errors.

In addition to checking for syntax errors, the programmer should examine the program for logic errors and ensure that no steps have been left out. Informative comments are helpful in verifying program logic. The comments included in ACCTAB indicate that all the necessary steps are present and in the correct logical sequence and that the flow of the program is essentially correct. Or is it? After interpolating and printing time and acceleration, the program is supposed to branch back and read the next statement; but the branch in line 48 goes back to the beginning of the program where the data for the table is read. The correct branch is to the statement labeled 190.

Although closer inspection of the program might reveal additional bugs, this illustration continues with an attempt to compile ACCTAB.

## COMPILATION

The FORTRAN Extended compiler provides useful debugging information, particularly the diagnostic messages and the cross-reference map.

The following control statement is used for the first attempt at compilation of ACCTAB:

$$
F T N, Q, R=3 .
$$

On the FTN control statement, the $Q$ parameter specifies quick mode: the compiler performs a full syntactic scan of the source code but does not produce object code. The program cannot be executed in the absence of object code, but compilation errors would undoubtedly prevent execution anyway and $Q$ mode compilation is substantially faster than normal compilation. For debugging purposes, compilation speed is more important than optimization of object code. When the program has been completely debugged and checked out, it will be recompiled to produce optimized object code. The $\mathrm{R}=3$ parameter produces a long crossreference map. By default, the compiler produces a list of informative and fatal diagnostics.

## DIAGNOSTICSCAN

The source listing and diagnostic messages issued during compilation of ACCTAB are shown in figure 4-2. Information provided in the diagnostic messages includes the line number where the error occurred, the severity of the error, and a brief description of the problem. In figure 4-2, two different codes appear in the severity column. Severity I indicates that the message is informative; the compiler can produce executable object code, although the results from executing the code might not be correct. As a matter of good programming practice, the programmer should try to eliminate the causes of informative diagnostics from the program. Severity code FE indicates that the error is fatal and the program cannot execute.

In figure 4-2, the first error in ACCTAB occurs in line 12, where times are being stored in the array TIME. In line 12 the array subscript is missing. The corrected line reads:

$$
\operatorname{TIME}(N)=T
$$

Because the severity code is I , this error produced only a warning message. It would not have prevented the program from executing; however, it would have had catastrophic effects upon the results of the execution.

The next error is in line 18; it also has generated an informative message. The executable statement just before line 18 is an unconditional branch to statement label 100. Because the statement at line 18 has no label, there is no logical path to that statement. The correct branch is specified in line 9, but the label has been omitted from line 18. The corrected statement reads:

150 NTIMES $=\mathrm{N}$

1

PROGRAM ACCTAB (INPUT, OUTPUT,TAPE4FINPUT)
C
DIMENSION TIME(10). ACC(10)
C
C.... READ TIME, MASS, FORCE, AND COMPUTE ACCELERATION TAELE

C
$N=0$
100 READ (4, *) T. AMASS. F
IF (EOF (4) •NE. O) GOTO 150
$N=N+1$
IF IN -GT. 1016010600
TIME = 1
ACC $(N)=F$.AMASS
GO TO 100
C
C....PRINT ACCELERATION TABLE

NTIMES $=N$
PRINT 10
PRINT 15, (TIME(I), ACC(IX,I=1,NTIMES)
C....READ A CARD CONTAINING A TIME VALUE

C
190 READ ( $4 *$ ) T
IF (EOF (4) NE ©) GOTO 900
$N=N+1$
C
C....SEARCH ACCELERATION TABLE
C

DO $200 \mathrm{I}=2$, NTIMES
$\mathbf{I T}=\mathbf{I}$
IF (T LE. TINE (ITJ) GO TO 220
200 CONTINUE
GO TO 850
C
C....DO SECOND DEGREE INTERPOLATION

220 D1 - TIME (IT-1) - TIME(IT)
$D 2=T I M E(I T-1)-T I M E(I T+1)$
D3 $=$ TIME (IT) - TIME(IT+1)
Q1 $=T$ - TIME(IT-1)
Q2 $=\mathrm{T}$ - TIME(IT)
$03=T-$ TIME(IT*1)
$A C C X=$ Q2*Q3*ACC(IT-1)/(DI*D2)
1 - Q1*Q3*ACC(IT)/(D1*03)
$2+\mathrm{Q}_{1 * \mathrm{Q}_{2} * A C C(I T+1) /(02 * \mathrm{D3}) ~}^{\text {(IT }}$
PRINT 25. T. ACCX
GOTO 190
C
600 PRINT *. = TOO MUCH DATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES IS\#
STOP
B50 PRINT * * INTERPOLATION PROBLEMS, TABLE ERROR*
6070190
900 PRINT *, $\neq$ END ACCTABF
STOP
C
10 FORMAT ( $\neq 1 \neq 2( \pm$ TIME ACCEL $\neq)$ )
15 FORMAT (2 (5XF7.2,2XF8.5))
25 FORMAT ( $\ddagger$ TIME $=\neq F 7.2 g \neq$ ACGELERATION $\pm \neq * F 8.5$ )
END

Figure 4-1. Program ACCTAB Before Debugging

1

| 12 | 1 | tIme | ARRAY NAME UPERinu not subscriptej，first element hitl be ust．u． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 18 | I |  | there is no path to this statement． |
| 24 | Fe | ＊ | SYNTAX ERROR IN IAPUTIOUTPUT STATEMENT． |
| 25 | Fe | NEC | invalio use of a charactef string． |
| 25 | FE | 6 | UNMATCHED PARENTHESIS． |
| 33 | fe |  | UNRECOGNIZED STATEMENT． |
| $5:$ | FE | roomulite | symbolil mate has too many characters． |
| 60 | FF： |  | Unuefined statement labelis），see list gelom． |

$5:$
C PROGRAM ALCTAB（INPUT，OUTPUT，TAPE4＝INPUT）
OIMENSION TIME（16），ACC（16）

```
C....read time, masS, forie, and compute acceleration table
```

C....read time, masS, forie, and compute acceleration table
C N}
1:- READ (4,+) T, AMMSS,f
IF (EOF(4) .NE. い) LO TO 15C
N=N+1
IF (N .GT. IC ) GO TU 60J
TIME = T
ACC(N) = F/AMASS
GO TO LE:
\iota
C.....pRINT ACCELERATION table
NTIMES = N
PRINT 1L
PRINT 15, (TIME(I),ACC(I),I=1,NTIMES)
c
c....read a garj containing a time value.
19. READ (4 +) T
IF (ECF(t) .NE j) GO TO G:L
N = N + 1
C
C....SEARCH ACCELERGTION TABLE
C
0O zCi I = z.NTImES
IT = I
IF (T .lE. IINE(IT)) Go ro 2zl
z!T iONTINUE
GO TO 35:
C
C....dO SECONd ueGRLE INTERfOLATION
zac 0i - TIme(IT-1) - Tlme(IT)
LZ = TIME (IT-i) - TIME (IT +1)
C3 = TIME(IT) - TIME(IT+1)
Gi = T - TIME([r-1)
*2 = T - TIME(IT)
G3 = T - TIME(IT+1)
ACLX = Q2*QS*\&CL(IT-1)/(DI*O2)
1-G1*U3*ム(C(IT)/(01*03)
2 +61*G2*ムごいIT+1)/(Li2*03)
PRINT 25, T, ACCX
go to 196
C
6.- PRINT *, = TOO MULH UATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES ISF
STOP
8F. PRINT *, z INTERPOLATION PROBLE:IS, TAELE ERROR\#
GO TO 19C
9Ui PRINT *. z ENO ACCTABF
STOP
C
11 FORMAT (まこま, 2(\# TIME ACこELF))
15 FORMAT (2(5xF7.2.2xFy.5))
z5 FOYMAT (7 TIME = F,F7.2,F ACCELERATION = F,F8.5)
ENO
OETAILS OIAGNOSIS OF fROBLEM
ARKAY NAHE UPERANU NOT SUBSCRIPTEJ, first ELEMENT WILL BE USE.U.
THERE IS NO Path to thIS StATEMENT.
SYNTAX ERROR IN INPUT/OUTPUT STATEMENT.
INJALIO USE OF A CHARACTEF STRING.
UNMATCHEO PARENTHESIS.
SYMQOLIL NAHE HAS TOO MANY CHARACTERS.
unuEFINED statement Label(S), SEE LISt gelom.
woffined lapels
15:

```

Figure 4－2．Example after Desk Checking，with Diagnostics

The error in line 24 is a fatal error: a comma is missing from the READ statement. The corrected statement reads:

\section*{190 READ (4,*) T}

The statement at line 25 has generated two fatal diagnostics. Neither states explicitly what the problem is. It often happens that error messages appear to have little relation to the errors that caused them. In such cases, it is sometimes necessary for the programmer to use some imagination in determining the cause of the diagnostic. In the example, it is easily seen that a period is missing from the .NE. operator. This is clear from reading the FORTRAN statement but not from reading the error message.

In line 38, the character \(=\) was mispunched as the - character. The compiler could not recognize the statement and generated a fatal error. The corrected line reads:
\[
220 \mathrm{Dl}=\operatorname{TIME}(\mathrm{I}-1)-\operatorname{TIME}(\mathrm{I})
\]

If the statement had been mispunched with two equal signs instead of two minus signs as follows:
\[
220 \mathrm{Dl}=\operatorname{TIME}(\mathrm{I}-1)=\operatorname{TIME}(\mathrm{I})
\]
it would have been interpreted as a multiple replacement statement, and no diagnostic would have been generated.

The message referring to line 50 appears to have little relation to the actual error. The opening \(\neq\) of the character string was mispunched as an \(=\). Once again, the message gives little clue as to what is wrong with the statement; however, it does indicate that something is wrong. If the programmer is unable to determine the specific error from the text of the message, the statement should be checked for syntax errors.

The last message refers to a list of undefined labels. A statement appearing in this list has been referenced in a GO TO or other branching statement, but does not appear as a statement label anywhere in the program. In locating the cause of this error, the programmer can make use of the cross-reference map.

\section*{CROSS-REFERENCE MAP}

The cross-reference map (figure 4-3) is a list of all symbols used in the program, with the properties of each symbol and the references to each symbol listed by source line number. It can be used to detect errors that do not show up as compilation errors. A typical listing is that for the variable ACC; the map shows that it is located at address \(12{ }_{8}\) relative to the starting address of the program; is of type real; is an array; is referenced once in line 3 , twice in line 20, and three times in line 44; and appears to the left of \(a n=\) in line 13.

For debugging purposes, it is useful to look at the column under the heading SN. A stray name flag appears under SN if the symbol appears only once in the program. Such symbols are likely to be keypunch errors, misspellings, and the like. In figure 4-3, the variables D1 and DI both have stray name flags. Also, they are both undefined; that is, they do not appear to the left of an \(=\), in a common block, in an argument list, in an input statement, in an ASSIGN statement or in a DATA statement. Both variables are referenced in line 44. Apparently DI is a misspelling of Dl. The attempt to define Dl , in line 38 , failed because that statement contained an error.

The EXTERNALS section of the reference map lists names of functions and subroutines called from the program. The programmer should check this section to make sure all function and subroutine references are correct. The external names appearing in ACCTAB are EOF (the FORTRAN function that tests for end-of-file) and TINE. TINE is referenced in line 32 and appears to be a misspelling of the array TIME. An error message has not been generated, because the compiler has no way of knowing what functions and subroutines will be loaded at execution time. This error is left uncorrected to illustrate its effect on further attempts to execute ACCTAB.

The last section of the cross-reference map lists each label used in the program, the line numbers in which the label is referenced, and the line where the label is defined. Statement label 150 is referenced in line 9 of ACCTAB, but does not appear as a statement label. This error, as previously noted, is corrected by inserting the label in line 18. This section of the map is also useful in locating duplicate labels: a statement label defined in more than one line generates a fatal error.

The corrected source listing is shown in figure 4-4.

\section*{EXECUTION TIME DEBUGGING}

Errors detected during the execution of a program can cause abnormal termination or produce incorrect results. The standard dump (DMPX), load map, and the FORTRAN Extended debugging facility can help the programmer determine the causes of execution-time errors.

With all I and FE compilation errors presumably corrected, \(A C C T A B\) is ready for another compilation attempt. This time it is anticipated that the program will compile without errors and produce executable object code. Because the program is still in the testing phase, a compilation mode resulting in quick compilation but unoptimized object code is used; the input data is included in the deck.

The program is then compiled with the following control statement:
FTN,R=3,OPT=0.

When OPT=0 is specified in the control statement, the ER option is implied. When this option is specified and an execution-time error is detected, the approximate line number in the source program where the error occurred is printed in the dayfile. When OPT \(=1\) or OPT \(=2\) is specified, the default is \(E R=0\). The \(T\) option is also implied when \(\mathrm{OPT}=0\) is specified; this option produces a full error traceback when an execution-time error is detected.

An important consideration in execution-time debugging is the use of test data. The programmer should design one or more test cases that completely test the program, including all options and all possible paths through the logic. It is frequently a good idea to include data that tests the limits of acceptable values. The programmer should determine what data causes execution errors or incorrect results, and then either correct the program or include program statements to check for invalid data.

Once satisfactory test data has been selected, the results must still be verified. Verification can be performed by comparing the results to a known standard, or, if none is available, by comparing to hand calculations.


1
C PROGRAM ALCTAB (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE4=INPUT)
DIMENSION TIME(IG), ACC (1C)
    C.....READ TIME, MASS, FORCE, AND COMPUTE ACEELERATION TABLE
        \(N=0\)
    ICC READ ( \(4, *\) ) \(T\), AMASS, \(F\)
        IF (EOF(4) .NE. i) GO TO 150
        \(N=N+1\)
        IF (N .GT. 10 ) GO TO 6CC
        \(\operatorname{TIME}(N)=T\)
        ACL (N) = F/AMASS
        GO TO 100
    C
    C....PRINT ACCELERATION TABLE
    150 NTIMES \(=N\)
        PRINT 16
        PRINT 15, (TIME(I), ACC(I), I=1,NTIMES)
        C
        C.....read a carc containing a time value
        190 READ ( \(4, *\) ) T
        IF (EOF(4) .NE. i) ©O TO G0:
        \(\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{N}+1\)
        C
        C.....SEARCH acceleration table
            DO 2JC I = z,NTIMES
            IT \(=\mathrm{I}\)
            IF (T . LE. TINE(IT)) GO TO 22 \&
            21 C CONTINUE
        GO TO 850
        C
C..... DO SECONL DEGREE INTEKFOLATION
    22c 01 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT)
        \(D 2=\operatorname{TIME}(I T-1)-T I M E(I T+1)\)
        D3 \(=\) TIME (IT) - TIME (IT +1 )
        Q1 \(=T-\operatorname{TIME}(I T-1)\)
        \(02=T-\operatorname{TME}(I T)\)
        \(03=T-T I M E(I T+1)\)
        \(A C C X=Q 2 * Q 3 * A C C(I T-1) /(D 1 * D 2)\)
        1 - Q1*Q3*ACC(IT)/(01*03)
        \(2+01 * Q 2+A C C(I T+1) /(D 2+D 3)\)
        PRINT 25, T, AUCX
        GO TO 190
        C
    66: PRINT *, \(\neq\) TUO MUCH CATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES IS \(1 C \neq\)
        STOP
    850 PRINT *, \(\mathcal{I N T E R P C L A T I O N ~ P R O B L E M S , ~ T A B L E ~ E R R O R A ~}\)
        GO TO 190
        9010 PRINT *, 7 END ACCTABZ
            STOP
        C
            1: FORMAT ( \(\neq 1 \neq 2\) (IME ACCELま))
            15 FORMAT (2(5XF7.2,2XFB.5))
    25 FORMAT ( \(\mathcal{I}\) TIME \(=\neq F 7.2, \neq\) ACCELERATION \(=\neq, F 8.5)\)
        E.NO

Figure 4-4. Example with Compilation Errors Corrected

The data shown in figure 4－5 is used to check out ACCTAB． The first data card results in a zero acceleration value；the second card introduces a zero into the acceleration calcula－ tion；the fifth card is a duplicate of the fourth．The second set of data consists of selected times for which the table search is performed．The first time corresponds to the lower limit of the table；the second time corresponds to a discrete point in the table；the third time causes the duplicate point to be used in an interpolation；the fourth time is below the lower limit of the table；the fifth and sixth times require interpolation to be performed；the seventh time corresponds to the last point in the table；and the last time exceeds the upper limit of the table．

\section*{DMPX AND LOAD MAP}

The dayfile from the first test with data is shown in figure 4－6．This time，ACCTAB compiles without errors，is loaded and executed，but terminates with errors．A nonfatal loader error was detected．Because the error was nonfatal， the program went into execution and subsequently termi－ nated with an arithmetic mode l error．Mode l errors are generated when the computer detects an address outside the field length reserved for the program．The computer tried to reference address 404334 ，which is outside the field length of ACCTAB．The load map（figure 4－7）shows that ACCTAB was loaded at address \(111_{8}\) with a last word address（LWA）of 20447．The error summary on the map states that \(A C C T A B\) references a function or subroutine called TINE，which could not be found by the loader．As previously noted，the EXTERNALS section of the cross－ reference map indicates that TINE is referenced in line 32， where TINE is a misspelling of the array TIME．A dayfile message also specifies line 32 as the location of the arithmetic mode error．This message results from the ER option．

More information can be obtained from the object listing and the DMPX listing（figure 4－8）．A DMPX listing is produced automatically when a program terminates abnor－ mally．The DMPX consists of the contents of the hardware registers，the exchange package，the first \(100_{8}\) words of the program field length，and \(2008_{8}\) words of memory centered on the instruction the central processor was executing when the error was detected．

The machine instructions associated with line 32 of the source listing are shown in figure 4－9．This listing was generated through the OL（object listing）control statement option．FORTRAN Extended generates an RJT（return jump） instruction to branch to an external entry point．In this
\begin{tabular}{|c|}
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
0．10c． 0. \\
1．G．10C： \\
2．103．1こ1 J． \\
3． 103 －1ら2に． \\
3．10お．1525． \\
4．103．1936． \\
5． 100 ．1：4～． \\
0. \\
1. \\
－1． \\
2.5 \\
3.5 \\
4.5 \\
5. \\
5.5
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 4－5．Test Data for ACCTAB
case，the jump is to entry point TINE．This instruction occurs at relative address 4222．To locate this instruction in the dump，the relative address of the instruction must be added to the first word address（FWA）of the program：
4222
\(\frac{111}{4333}\)

The instruction appearing at this address in the DMPX listing is：

\author{
0100404333
}

This is a return jump to address 404333，an illegal address generated by the loader when it was unable to locate the nonexistent entry point．Because the address is outside the program＇s field length，a mode 1 diagnostic was issued．

Program debugging continues with a correction of the misspelling，and rerunning of ACCTAB．The dayfile（fig－ ure 4－10）reveals that a mode 2 error was detected during execution．To determine the cause of this error，the FORTRAN debugging facility is used．

\section*{DEBUGGING FACILITY}

FORTRAN Extended provides a debugging facility to monitor the execution of a program．（Refer to the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual for a detailed description of the facility．）The debugging facility consists of statements that are included in the source input file and processed by the compiler．The statements can be inter－ spersed with the FORTRAN source statements，or they can be included separately as an external deck．This allows debugging of portions of a program，or of individual subroutines，as well as the entire source file．In debug mode，programs execute regardless of compilation errors（up to a limit of 100 errors），but execution terminates when a fatal error is detected．Hence，the debug facility is useful in locating both compilation and execution－time errors． Debug output is written by default to a file named DEBUG． By equivalencing DEBUG to OUTPUT，the output can be interspersed with program output．

Because ACCTAB is being run and debugged for the first time，and no debugged program units are included in the source file，an external debug deck is used；the debug statements apply to the entire program．Debug statements are included to provide information about the arrays ACC and TIME．The job deck is shown in figure 4－1l．

The D parameter on the FTN control statement implies debug mode．The debug deck performs the following：

> Checks bounds for arrays TIME and ACC；prints a message if array bounds are exceeded

> Prints a message each time the value of an element of T or ACC changes

The NOGO statement suppresses partial execution if compi－ lation errors are detected．

The dayfile in figure 4－10 states that an infinite value is used near line 44 of the source listing．This is an arithmetic mode 2 error．Infinite operands are usually generated by dividing a nonzero number by zero，or by an addition， subtraction，multiplication whose result is greater than
\(10^{322}\). Line 38 is the first line of the interpolation scheme. One of the variables used in the equation contains an infinite value (a value of \(37770 \ldots 0_{8}\) ); however, it is not clear which variable contains the infinite value.

The debug file (figure 4-12) reveals that the second value stored into the array ACC was infinite, indicated by R. It is likely that this value, when used in the interpolation calculation, caused the program to terminate with a mode 2 error. Referring to line 13 of figure \(4-4\), where values are stored into array ACC, one might suspect that a division by zero occurred here. This is verified by recalling that the second data card contains a zero, which is subsequently stored into the variable AMASS. Notice that the program terminates only when the infinite value is used, not when it is generated. If the program were executed on a CYBER 70 Model 76 or 7000 series computer, the mode error would occur when the infinite value was generated. Figure 4-13 shows that coding has been inserted to test variable AMASS for a zero or negative value and to print a message if zero is detected.

For the next debugging step the data card containing the zero value is removed from the deck and ACCTAB is run again. The dayfile is shown in figure 4-14. An infinite value has again been used, near line 47. To determine the source of this infinite value, the following debug statement is used:

\section*{\(\mathrm{C} \$ \mathrm{STORES}(\mathrm{D} 1, \mathrm{D} 2, \mathrm{D} 3, \mathrm{Q} 1, \mathrm{Q} 2, \mathrm{Q} 3)\)}

This statement produces a printout of the intermediate values used in the interpolation scheme. These values can be useful in tracing the progress of the program. The resulting debug output, interspersed with program output, is shown in figure 4-15.

The debug file reveals that the last value stored in variable D3 was zero. D3 is calculated in line 43. If the two consecutive times used in the calculation are equal, the result is zero. Recall that a duplicate time point was included in the data for the acceleration table. A debug statement to print out values of the array TIME could be used to verify that the duplicate point caused the error. The coding to test for duplicate points is indicated in figure 4-16.

The output from the next run is shown in figure 4-17. Some of the acceleration values are correct, but accelerations corresponding to points outside the table limits are not printed. Also, the input time corresponding to the upper limit of the table does not appear.

An examination of the dayfile reveals that this run terminated with a mode 2 error. Although the program processed some input times correctly, it cannot process extreme values. This illustrates the importance of test data that includes such values. In figure 4-18, statements have been inserted in ACCTAB to process times that fall outside the table limits or coincide with the end points.

The output from the next run is shown in figure 4-19. The table has been generated correctly and hand calculations verify that the interpolations are correct. The two points falling outside the limits of the table, whose values are -1 . and 5.5, have been detected. The program can now be considered debugged. Of course, there are numerous improvements that can be made to ACCTAB, and it is possible that future use will reveal more bugs.

The program should now be recompiled with the following control statement to produce optimized object code.

FTN,OPT=2.


Figure 4-6. Dayfile Showing Loader Errors and Mode 1 Errors



\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & － & & ＊ & & & line & 32 \\
\hline 004221 CODE． & 6102000040 & & ＋ & 580 & H2＋46B & & \\
\hline & 5110004311 & CODE． & & SA1 & ［AP3 & & \\
\hline CO4222 CODS． &  & ＜EXT＞ & ＋ & RJT & TINE，4C3 & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 4－9．Object Listing（Partial）


Figure 4－10．Dayfile Showing Mode－2 Error
Job statement
FTN，D，R＝3．
LGO．
7／8／9
CS DEBUG
CS ARRAYS
CS \(\quad\) STORES（ACC，TIME）
CS NOGO
FORTRAN source statements
7／8／9
Data
6／7／8／9

Figure 4－11．Sequence of Debug Statements
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ／debug／ & ACCTAB & AT－INE & 12－ & & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & TIME & Is & 0. & \\
\hline IDEBUG／ & & AT IINE & 13－ & r．HE & NEK & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & 0. & \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & AT－INE & 12－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & time & IS & 1.000000000 & \\
\hline ／DE3UG／ & & AT－INE & \(13-\) & 「HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & & R \\
\hline ／0Ebue／ & & AT LINE & 12－ & 「HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & TIME & IS & 2．00C000000 & \\
\hline ＇0Ebug & & AT－INE & \(13-\) & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & variable & ACS & IS & 10.10000000 & \\
\hline 10EBUG／ & & AT LINE & 12－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & time & IS & 3.000000000 & \\
\hline 10Esug／ & & AT－INE & \(13-\) & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & 10.20000000 & \\
\hline ＇0EBUG／ & & AT LINE & 12－ & & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & TIME & IS & 3.00000000 & \\
\hline desue＇ & & AT LINE & \(13-\) & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & 10.2000000 & \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & AT LINE & 12－ & 「HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & time & IS & 4.000000000 & \\
\hline dobbuel & & AT LINE & 13－ & 「HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & 10.30000000 & \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & at LINE & 12－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & time & IS & 5.00000000 & \\
\hline ＇DE3UG＇ & & At line & 13－ & 「HE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & ACC & IS & 10.4000000 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 4－12．Debug Output Showing Array Contents

1

5
```

        PROGRAY ACCTAB (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE4=INPUT,DEBUG=OUTPUT)
        OIMENSLON TIME(10), ACC(10)
        j.....२EAD TIME, MASS, FORCE, AND COMPUTE ACJELERATION TABLE
        IER = 3
        N=C
    10J 2FAD (4,*) T, AMASS, F
        IF (EN=(4) .NE. O) GO TO 150
        N=N+1
        IF (N .GT. 10 ) GO TO 600
        IF (AMASS .LE. G.) GO TO 70E
        TIME(N) = T
        ACC (N) = F/AMASS
        GO TO 100
    %....ORINT ASCELERATION TAELE
        15] NTIMES = N
        PRINT }1
        PRINT 15, (TIME(I),ACC(I),I=1,NTIMES)
        | IF (IER .NE. O) GO TO 9NO
    j....reaj a zard containIng a time value
        173 RFAD (4,*) T
        IF (EO=(4) .NE. G) GO TO 90C
        N=N+1
    Z
        \etan 200 I = 2,NTIMES
        IT = I
            IF (r .lE. TIME(IT)) GO TO 22J
        2j] COMTINUE
        3n TO 350
        j
        ....JO SFCOND DEGREE INTERPOLATION
        220 כ1 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT)
        D2 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT +1)
        D3 = TIME(IT) - TIME(IT+1)
        O1 = T - TIME(IT-1)
        22 = T - TIME(IT)
        33 = T - TIME(IT + 1)
        ACCX = Q2*Q3*ACC(IT-1)/(D1*D2)
            1- 01*3.3*ACC(IT)/(D1*D3)
            2+ O1*22*ACC(IT+1)/(D2*D3)
        PRINT 25,T, ACCX
            G0 TO 190
    こ
        5j pRINT *, & TOO MUCH DATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES IS 10t
        STOP
        \longrightarrowJJ POINT *, &INVALIO VALUE FOR AMASS }\not=,
        # INSRORT}=
        50TO 100
        95J OPINT *, & INTERPOLATION PROBLEMS, TABLE ERRORZ
        G0 T0 19C
        ЭJJ PRINT F, & ENO ACCTAB*
        STOP
    =
        13 FORMAT (*1昂21: TIME ACCEL*))
        15 FORMAT (2(5XF7.2,2XF9.5))
        FMRMAT (# TIME = &,F7.2, ( ACCELERATION = #,F8.5)
        ENO
    ```

Figure 4－13．Example with Zero Value Test
```

15.59.17.FTST4PV FROM /C6
15.59.18.IP 00000576 WORDS - FILE INPUT , DC 04
15.59.18.FTST4,T5,P4.
16.02.42.FTN,D,R=3.
16.06.13. . }415\mathrm{ JP SECONOS SOMPILATION TIME
16.06.13.LGO.
16.06.29.MODE ERROR
16.06.29.JOB REPRIEVES
16.06.29. INFIAITE VA.JE IN ACCTAB NEAR LINE 47
16.06.29.
16.06.29. .064 CO SECONOS EXECUTION TIME
16.06.30. (PREVIOUS E२२J२ CONDITION RESET)
16.06.30.ERROR MODE =02. ADORESS =004417
16.06.30.0P 00002944 NORDS - FILE OUTPUT , DC 40
16.06.30.MS 3584 WORDS ( }25388 MAX USEDI
16.06.3G.CPA 1.112 SEC. 1.112 ADJ.
16.06.30.CPB . 302 SEC. . 302 ADJ.
16.06.30.IO 1.265 SEC. 1.265 ADJ.
16.05.3C.CM 49.567 KWS. 3.025 ADJ.
16.06.30.SS 5.705
16.05.30.PP 9.35i SEC. DATE 10/26/77
16.06.30.EJ ENJ OF JOG, C6

```

Figure 4－14．Dayfile Showing Mode 2 Error
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ／0E3ug & acctas & AT & LIVE & 41－ & THE & NEH & Value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 01 & IS & －2．000000000 \\
\hline ／DFBUG／ & & AT & －INE & 42－ & THE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & variable & 02 & IS & －3．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEJug／ & & at & －INE & 43－ & THE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & D3 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & \(4 T\) & －INE & 44. & THE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q1 & IS & 0. \\
\hline ＇debueg & & ar & LINE & 450 & THE & NEH & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q2 & IS & －2．000000000 \\
\hline ／OEGUG／ & & at & －INE & 46－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & the & VARIABLE & Q3 & IS & \(-3.00000000\) \\
\hline TIME \(=\) & 0.00 & ajee & ミRATI & & 0.00 & 000 & & & & & & & \\
\hline ／DEBUE／ & ACCTAE & at & －INE & 41－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & The & VARIABLE & D1 & IS & －2．000000000 \\
\hline doebue／ & & at & IINE & 42－ & THE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 02 & IS & －3．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEBUE／ & & \(4 T\) & －INE & \(43-\) & THE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & D3 & IS & \(-1.000000000\) \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & ar & －INE & \(44-\) & fihe & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q1 & IS & 1.000000000 \\
\hline ／Desue／ & & at & LINE & 45－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q2 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEbug／ & & & LINE & 46－ & T：HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q3 & IS & \(-2.00000000\) \\
\hline TIME \(=\) & 1．0C & AここE & ERaTI & \(\cdots=\) & 5.70 & 0 & & & & & & & \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & \(\triangle C C T A B\) & at & LINE & 41－ & THE & NEW & value & OF & The & variable & 01 & IS & －2．000000000 \\
\hline deeug & & \(4 T\) & LINE & 42－ & THE & NEH & value & OF & THE & variable & D2 & IS & －3．000000000 \\
\hline doebug／ & & at & －INE & \(43-\) & r：HE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 03 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & at & LINE & \(44-\) & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 01 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline lDEBUG／ & & ar & －INE & 45－ & PIHE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q2 & IS & －3．00c000000 \\
\hline degsueg & & at & －INE & 46－ & THE & NEH & value & OF & THE & variable & & IS & －4．000000000 \\
\hline TIME = & －1．00 & AこCE： & ERATI & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline foeguel & acctab & 4 r & －INE & 41－ & THE & NEH & value & OF & THE & VARI4 \({ }^{\text {ale }}\) & 01 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline ／DEBUE／ & & \(4 T\) & －INE & 42 － & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 02 & IS & －1．000000000 \\
\hline IDESUG／ & & AT & \(-1 N E\) & \(43-\) & rite & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 03 & IS & \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & at & ITNE & \(44-\) & T＇HE & NEW & VALUE & OF & THE & VARIABLE & Q1 & IS & .5006000000 \\
\hline ／DEsug／ & & at & －INE & 45－ & & NEW & value & OF & THE & variable & Q2 & IS & －． 5000000000 \\
\hline ／DEBUG／ & & at & －INE & 46 － & THE & NEW & value & OF & THE & VARIABLE & 03 & IS & －． 500000000 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 4－15．Debug Output and Printed Output

1
```

        PROGRAM ACCTAB (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE4=INPUT)
        DIMENSION TIME(10), ACS(10)
        S....२EAD TIME, MASS, FORCE, ANO COMPUTE ACCELERATION TABLE
        N=C
        IFR = J
        1:J PEAD (4,*) T, AMASS, F
        IF (EO=(4) .NE. O) GO TO 150
        N=N+1
        IF &N .GT. 10 ) GO TO 600
        IF (AYASS .LE. O.) GO TO 70C
        TIME(N) = T
        ACC(N) = F/AMASS
        GO TO 100
        3....ORINT ASCELEPATION TABLE
        150 NTIMES = N
        PRINT 10
        ORINT 15, (TIME(I),ACC(I),I=1,NTIMES)
        IF (IFR.NE. O) GO TO 9UO
        S....rミA.] a garo containIng a tIme value
        <
        170 RFAD (4,*) T
        IF (EOF(4) .NE. O) GO TO 9JC
            N=N+1
        S....SEARCH acCELERATION TABLE
        On 200 I = 2,NTIMES
        IT = I
                IF IT .LE. TIME|ITI) GO TO 220
        2J0 coniINUE
    G0 Tn 350
        ま
        2?0 D1 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT)
            J2 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT+1)
            j3 = TIME(IT) - TIME(IT +1)
            IF LDI .EO. C.,OR. D2 .EO. U. .OR. D3 .EQ. O.I GO TO.850
            01 = T - TIME(IT-1)
            a2 = T - TIME(IT)
            \imath3 = T - TIME (IT +1)
            ACCX = Q2*Q3*ACC(IT-1)/(01*D2)
        1- D1*33*ACC(IT)/(D1*D3)
            2+01*12*ACC(IT+1)/(D2*03)
            OPINT 25; T, ACCX
            GO TO 190
        J
            jJE 口RINT ", f TOO MUCH DATA. MAX NO. OF TIMES IS 10t
            STnP
        TEO PRINT *, &INVALIO VALUE FOR AMASS &, N
            IER = 1
            GO TO 100
            3jJ PRINT *, & INTERPOLATION PROBLEMS, TABLE ERRORZ
            GO TO 190
            33J PPINT *, # END ACCTABZ
            STOP
    =
1] FпRMAT (\#1\#,2!\# TIME ACCEL*))
15 = ORMAT (2(5XF7.2,2XF9.5))
25 FORMAT \&\# TIME = f,F7.2,\# ACCELERATION = f,F8.5)
ENJ

```

Figure 4－16．Example with Duplicate Point Test


Figure 4－17．Output from Figure 4－16．
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & time & ACここし & trime & ACCEL \\
\hline & 0.00 & 0.00000 & 2.0 .0 & 10.10000 \\
\hline & 3.10 & 10.20000 & 3.00 & 10.20000 \\
\hline & 4.00 & 10.30000 & 5．0：0 & 10．40000 \\
\hline TIME & 0.00 & acceleration & \(=0.0\) & 000 \\
\hline TIME & 1.00 & AJEELERATION & \(=5107\) & 000 \\
\hline BAD & TIME，VAL & UE IS－1． & & \\
\hline INTE & EPOLATION & P208LEMS，TABL & LE ERR & \\
\hline TIME & 3.50 & ACJELERATION & \(=10.25\) & 000 \\
\hline IIME & 4.50 & asceleration & \(=10.3\) & 000 \\
\hline TIME & 5.00 & ajceleraition & \(=10.4\) & 000 \\
\hline BAD & TIME，VAL & UE IS5．5 & & \\
\hline ENO & acctas & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 4－19．Output from Figure 4－18

1
```

2 PROGRAY ACCTAS (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE4=INPUT)
DIMENSION TIME(10), ACC(1C)
S....REAO TIYE, MASS, FORCE, ANO COMPUTE ACCELERATION TABLE
N=0
IER = S
130 REAO (4,*) T, AMASS,F
IF (EO=(4) .NE. 0) GOTO 15C
N=N*1
IF IN GGT. 10,GOTO 600
IF (AMASS -LE. O.) GOTO 700
TIME(N): = T
\triangleCC(N) = F/AMASS
GOTO100
\ C....PRINT A:SELERATION TABLE
150 NTIMES = N
PRINT }1
PRINT 15, (TIME(I),ACC(I),I=1,NTIMES)
IF (IER.NE. O) GO TO 900
C
170 READ (4,*) T
IF(EOF(4).NE. O) GOTO 900
N=N+1
\longrightarrowIF (T .LT. TIME(1).OR. T.GT. TIME(NTIMESI) GO TO 800
IF (T .LE. TIME(NTIMES-1)) G0 TO ig5
IT = NTIMES - 1
GO TO 220
2
C....SEARCH ACCELERATION TABLE
175 LIM = NTIMES - 1
00 20:0 I = 2,LIM
IT = I
IF If .LE. TIME(ITI) GO TO 220
233 CONTINUE
GO.TO 550
S....00 SECOVD DEGREE INTERPOLATION
220 D1 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT)
D2 = TIME(IT-1) - TIME(IT +1)
D2 = TIME(IT-1) =TIME(IT+1)
IF (DI .EQ. O..OR. D2.EQ. ..,OR. DJ .EQ. O.) GOTO 850
233 CONTINUE
=

```

Figure 4－18．Final ACCTAB Source Listing（Sheet 1 of 2）


Figure 4-18. Final ACCTAB Source Listing (5heet 2 of 2)

This section describes some of the most commonly used procedures for batch execution of FORTRAN programs under NOS/BE, NOS, and SCOPE 2.

Batch execution usually involves reading a deck of punched cards, called the job deck, through the card reader at a remote batch terminal or at the central site of an installation. The equivalent of a job deck, in the form of card images, can also be submitted as a unit from a terminal under NOS (SUBMIT control statement), NOS/BE (INTERCOM BATCH command), and SCOPE 2 (HELLO7 SUBMIT command).

Job decks contain the following components in the order shown:
1. A group of control statements, beginning with the job statement.
2. A \(7 / 8 / 9\) card (characters 7,8 , and 9 multipunched in column 1).
3. Various combinations of the following groups of cards, separated by 7/8/9 cards:

FORTRAN source programs
Binary decks of previously compiled programs
Data
The order of programs or data cards depends on the order indicated by the control statements.
4. A \(6 / 7 / 8 / 9\) card (characters \(6,7,8\), and 9 multipunched in column 1).

\section*{SAMPLE JOB DECKS}

The sample job decks shown in figures 5-1 through 5-3 are typical decks that might be used for FORTRAN program compilation and execution. Brief descriptions of some of the control statements most commonly used by FORTRAN users are found later in this section. Except as noted, control statements are common to all three operating systems.

A simple job for compilation and execution of a FORTRAN program is shown in figure 5-1. The object code and data output from the program are saved on permanent files.

The example shown in figure 5-2 executes the program compiled in figure \(5-1\) with data taken from a magnetic tape file. A new tape file is created.

The job shown in figure 5-3 executes the binary deck punched in figure 5-2 with two different sets of data.

\section*{JOB PROCESSING CONTROLSTATEMENTS}

Brief descriptions of some commonly used control statements for batch processing follow. Permanent file control statements and tape usage control statements are discussed later in this section. Loader control statements are discussed in section 7.

\section*{JOB STATEMENT}

The job statement (figure 5-4) is the first control statement in every job deck. It assigns a name to the job, and it provides information used by the system in determining an initial scheduling priority for the job.

The parameters on this statement are:
jobname One to seven letters or digits; the first character must be a letter. More than one job with the same name can be in the system at the same time; the system ensures unique job identification.
\(\mathrm{Tt} \quad \mathrm{t}\) is a number, containing one to five octal digits, that specifies the maximum number of central processor seconds the job can use. Exceeding this limit causes a fatal error condition. The default for NOS and NOS/BE is \(100_{8}\); the default for SCOPE 2 is \(10_{8}\).

ECfl (NOS/BE) \(f l\) is the maximum number of words (in octal) of ECS (extended core storage) the job can use. Although the EC parameter is also applicable to SCOPE 2, where it indicates the maximum number of words of LCM (large core memory), its use is not recommended because it inhibits automatic LCM field length management.
(NOS/BE, SCOPE 2) \(n\) is the maximum number of 7 -track (MT) or 9 -track (NT) tape units that the job will use concurrently. This is not the same as the number of tapes; if several tapes are read successively, only one tape unit is necessary. The UNLOAD control statement (described below) causes a tape to be removed from a device.
Under NOS, the MT and NT parameters are specified on the RESOURC control statement.

As discussed in section 7, the CM parameter can also be specified on the job statement, but it is not recommended.

\section*{ACCOUNT CONTROL STATEMENT}

The ACCOUNT control statement (figure 5-5) enables user validation by the system. If used, it should immediately follow the jab statement. Either an ACCOUNT control statement or a USER control statement (which has the same parameters and format) is required for each job under NOS. The USER control statement is recommended because the ACCOUNT control statement is included only for compatibility with previous versions of the operating system.

The parameters for NOS are:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
un & User number \\
pw & Password
\end{tabular}

Whether or not an ACCOUNT control statement is required under NOS/BE or SCOPE 2 depends on the installation. The parameters under NOS/BE are installation-defined. The parameters for SCOPE 2 are:
a Account number; seven letters or digits.
s Suffix to the account number; three letters or digits. Only the first seven characters are validated by the system.
p
Project number; 10 letters or digits.

Various combinations of these parameters might be required by an installation.

\section*{RESOÜRC CONTROL STATEMENT (NOS)}

The RESOURC control statement (figure 5-6) is required whenever a job uses more than one tape unit concurrently. The \(n\) following the MT ( 7 -track) or NT (9-track) parameter indicates the maximum number of tape units that are used concurrently.

\section*{EXIT CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The EXIT control statement (figure 5-7) allows processing to continue after a fatal error has occurred. When no EXIT control statement is present, any fatal error causes job termination. When an EXIT control statement is present, processing might continue, depending on the type of error and the parameter on the statement.

MYJOB,T100.


Required under NOS; might be required by particular installations under NOS/BE or SCOPE 2.

Specify that TAPE2 and LGO are to be assigned to permanent file devices.

Compile program with debugging parameters specified. The A parameter prevents saving a bad binary as a permanent file by terminating the job in the event of a fatal compilation error; the ER parameter helps locate execution time fatal errors.

Execute compiled program.

Save program binary and resulting data as permanent files.

7/8/9 card (characters 7, 8, and 9 multipunched in column 1)
PROGRAM FIRST (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE2,TAPE1=INPUT)
INPUT is equivalenced so that the EOF function can be used.

READ (1,2) X,Y,Z
IF (EOF(T) .NE. 0) . . .
.

IF (ERROR) PRINT *, "X OUT OF RANGE:", X
-
\(\cdot\)
WRITE (2) TOTAL
-
.
END
7/8/9 card
data for program
File OUTPUT is used for display of monitoring messages.

Binary data goes to TAPE2.

6/7/8/9 card (characters 6, 7, 8, and 9 multipunched in column 1)

Figure 5-1. Compilation and Execution

When an error occurs, the system searches through the control statements, skipping all control statements until an EXIT control statement with the appropriate parameter is found. If an appropriate statement is found, processing resumes with the control statement immediately after the EXIT control statement. If no appropriate control statement is found, the job terminates.

Three types of fatal errors can occur. How each type is handled depends on the operating system and the type of EXIT control statement specified. For a complete list of the errors in each category, refer to the operating system reference manual or diagnostic handbook.
1. Unrecoverable errors. This category includes job statement errors, accounting errors, and explicit operator action leading to job termination. Under all three operating systems, exit processing is ignored; the job is always terminated.
2. Special errors. This category includes FORTRAN fatal compilation errors when the A option has been selected
on the FTN control statement. Under NOS, this category is the same as category 3. Under NOS/BE and SCOPE 2, control statements are skipped up to the next EXIT(S) statement.
3. All other errors. This category includes arithmetic mode errors, central processor time limit exceeded, and fatal loader errors. These errors cause a branch to the next EXIT control statement under NOS, and a branch to the next EXIT, EXIT(S), or EXIT(U) control statement under NOS/BE and SCOPE 2.

The fourth way an EXIT control statement can be reached is through normal job step advancement. That is, no error has occurred, but the EXIT control statement is the next control statement to be processed. Table 5-1 summarizes the processing that takes place when each of the four types of EXIT control statement is encountered after an error has occurred or through normal job step advancement.


Figure 5-2. Execution with Data on Magnetic Tape

JOBBB.
ACCOUNT,12334,USER1.
COPYBR,INPUT,BIN.
Copies the binary program to the file BIN to enable repeated execution.
\(\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { REQUEST,TAPE2,"PF. } \\ \text { REQUEST,TAPE3,"PF. }\end{array}\right\}\) NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
BIN.

CATALOG,TAPE2,OUT1,ID=MINE. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
BIN, , ,TAPE3.

CATALOG,TAPE3,OUT2,ID=MINE. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
SAVE,TAPE3=OUT2. NOS
7/8/9
binary program
7/8/9 \(7 / 8 / 9\) NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
6/7/9 (characters 6, 7, and 9 multipunched in column 1) NOS
data set 1
7/8/9
data set 2
6/7/8/9

Figure 5-3. Execution of Binary Program with Two Sets of Data Cards
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
jobname,Tt,ECfl,MTn,NTn. & NOS/BE \\
jobname,Tt. & NOS \\
jobname,Tt,MTn,NTn. & SCOPE 2
\end{tabular}

Figure 5-4. Job Statement Format
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline ACCOUNT,parameter list. & NOS/BE \\
ACCOUNT,un,pw. & NOS \\
ACCOUNT,as,p. & SCOPE 2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 5-5. ACCOUNT Control Statement Format


Figure 5-6. RESOURC Control Statement Format


Figure 5-7. EXIT Control Statement Format

\section*{REWIND CONTROL STATEMENT}

The REWIND control statement (figure 5-8) positions a file at beginning-af-information. For a tape file, beginning-ofinformation is defined as a point immediately after all header labels. For a mass storage file, beginning-ofinformation is the beginning of the first record in the file.

\section*{RETURN CONTROL STATEMENT}

The RETURN control statement (figure 5-9) releases a file from the job with which it is associated. The effect of RETURN depends on the type of file:
\begin{tabular}{l} 
Local (scratch) \\
file
\end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{l} 
The contents of the file are \\
destroyed.
\end{tabular}
Permanent file \begin{tabular}{l} 
The file remains in existence, but is \\
no longer attached.
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Tape file & Trailer labels are written and the file is rewound and unloaded. The number of tape units the job is permitted, as requested on the job statement (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2) or RESOURC statement (NOS) is decreased by one. Under NOS this takes place only when the maximum number is actually in use. \\
\hline Print or punch file & The file is printed or punched. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\section*{UNLOAD CONTROL STATEMENT}

The UNLOAD control statement (figure 5-10) is identical in its effect to the RETURN control statement, with one exception: for tape files, the number of tape units required by the job is not decreased. Thus, the UNLOAD control statement is used whenever more than one tape is to be used successively in a job. If all the tapes are used concurrently, it is irrelevant whether UNLOAD or RETURN is used, since each tape requires its own tape unit.

\section*{COPY AND SKIP \\ OPERATIONS}

It is frequently necessary to copy part or all of one file to another or to skip forward or backward in a file. The copy and skip operations accomplish this.

Some control statements copy or skip sections and partitions. Both terms refer to groupings of data within a file, terminated by special delimiters. A section is a less inclusive grouping than a partition, and a partition is less inclusive than a file. The FORTRAN user is primarily interested in end-of-partition boundaries, because these are the applicable boundaries in the following contexts:
- A 7/8/9 card in the file INPUT is interpreted by Record Manager as an end-of-partition.
- The FORTRAN ENDFILE statement writes an end-ofpartition.
- When an output file (a file being written) is closed as the result of program termination, or when REWIND or BACKSPACE is executed, an end-of-partition is written following the last record.
- The EOF function detects end-of-partition.

The only case in which the FORTRAN user needs to be concerned with sections is that of files with unformatted records under NOS/BE and NOS. The unformatted WRITE statement writes Record Manager W type records. For this record type, an end-of-partition boundary is detected as an end-of-section boundary by the operating system and, therefore, by the copy and skip operations. This requires processing that differs in some ways from that for other files, as discussed below.

Under SCOPE 2, a boundary written as end-of-partition is always recognized as end-of-partition, regardless of the record type.

\section*{COPY Control Statement}

The COPY control statement (figure 5-11) copies all the information on \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\) up to the end-of-information of
\[
\text { REWIND,Ifn }, \ldots, \text { Ifn }_{n}
\]

Ifn Logical file name of file to be rewound.

Figure 5-8. REWIND Control Statement Format

RETURN, \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{Ifn}_{\mathrm{n}}\).
Ifn Logical file name of file to be returned.

Figure 5-9. RETURN Control Statement Format

UNLOAD, \(1 \mathrm{fn}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{Ifn}_{\mathrm{n}}\).
Ifn Logical file name of file to be unloaded.

Figure 5-10. UNLOAD Control Statement Format
\[
\text { COPY, } \mathrm{Ifn}_{1}, \mathrm{lfn}_{2}
\]

TABLE 5-1. EXIT PROCESSING
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Condition Resulting in Search for EXIT} & \multicolumn{5}{|c|}{Action Taken When EXIT Encountered} \\
\hline & EXIT (NOS) & \[
\begin{array}{|c|}
\text { EXIT } \\
\text { (SCOPE 2, NOS/BE) } \\
\hline
\end{array}
\] & \[
\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered}
\text { EXIT (C) } \\
\text { (SCOPE 2, NOS/BE) }
\end{gathered}\right.
\] & EXIT (S) (SCOPE 2, NOS/BE) & \begin{tabular}{l}
EXIT(U) \\
(SCOPE 2, NOS/BE)
\end{tabular} \\
\hline Normal job step advancement & Terminate job & Terminate job & Continue with next control statement & Terminate job & Continue with next control statement \\
\hline Unrecoverable error & Terminate job & Terminate job & Terminate job & Terminate job & Terminate job \\
\hline Special error & Continue with next control statement & Continue skipping & Continue skipping & Continue with next control statement & Continue skipping \\
\hline Other error & Continue with next control statement & Continue with next control statement & Terminate job & Continue with next control statement & Continue with next control statement \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) (or double end-of-partition, if present). The copy starts from the current position of both files; therefore, either file might have information preceding the duplicated information. After all information has been copied to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\), an end-of-partition is written to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\) under SCOPE 2 and NOS, and a double end-of-partition is written under.NOS/BE.

Under NOS/BE and NOS, a double end-of-partition on lfn does not terminate COPY processing on files with \(W\) type (FORTRAN unformatted) records. COPYBR can be used to copy portions of these files.

\section*{COPYBF and COPYCF Control Statements}

The COPYBF and COPYCF control statements (figure 5-12) copy the specified number of partitions from \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\). Copying takes place from the current position of both files until the specified number of end-of-partition boundaries has been read from \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\). COPYBF is intended for binary files, and COPYCF is intended for coded files. Under SCOPE 2, there is no difference between the two. Under NOS/BE, there is no difference for mass storage files, but binary tapes should be copied by COPYBF, and coded tapes should be copied by COPYCF. Under NOS, COPYCF is intended for print files, or any files generated by FORTRAN formatted output statements; COPYBF should be used for all other files.

Because COPYBF and COPYCF count end-of-partition boundaries without regard for intervening data, the amount of information is not always what would be expected. For example, in the files shown in figure 5-13, the following control statement:

\section*{COPYBF ,FILEA,FILEB,3.}
would copy the information from A to B when FILEA is positioned at point \(A\) in all three cases; the file is positioned immediately after the third end-of-partition.

If an end-of-information is encountered on \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\), a single end-of-partition is written to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\) at the end of the copy.

Under NOS and NOS/BE, COPYBF and COPYCF should not be used on files with \(W\) type (FORTRAN unformatted) records; COPYBR should be used instead.

\section*{COPYBR Control Statement}

The COPYBR control statement (figure 5-14) copies the specified number of sections from \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) to \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\). The FORTRAN user uses this control statement primarily to copy files whose records were written by FORTRAN unformatted WRITE statements. The end-of-partition boundaries on these files are recognized as end-of-section boundaries under NOS/BE and NOS. Under SCOPE 2, COPYBF should be used.

\section*{NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 Skip Operations}

The SKIPF and SKIPB control statements (figure 5-15) skip sections. SKIPF bypasses sections in a forward direction; SKIPB bypasses sections in a reverse direction. End-ofsection boundaries are skipped until the specified number, \(n\), has been read. The file denoted by Ifn is then positioned immediately after the nth boundary (for SKIPF) or immediately after the preceding boundary (for SKIPB). An end-ofpartition boundary is counted as an end-of-section. If a level number is present, only sections of that level or higher are counted. In particular, if the level number is 17 , only
end-of-partition boundaries are counted (a level 17 section is equivalent to a partition). Under NOS/BE, level 17 must be used to skip partitions for all files except those with \(W\) type (FORTRAN unformatted) records. For files with \(W\) type records, level 0 should be used. Under SCOPE 2, level 17 is used for partitions on all files.

Figure \(5-16\) shows how files are positioned by SKIPF and SKIPB. In each case, the position of the file is moved from \(A\) to \(B\) after execution of the control statement shown.


Figure 5-12. COPYBF and COPYCF Control Statement Formats


Figure 5-13. COPYBF Example


Figure 5-14. COPYBR Control Statement Format


Figure 5-15. SKIPF and SKIPB Control Statement Formats (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)

\section*{NOS Skip Operations}

The SKIPF, SKIPBF, SKIPR, and BKSP control statements (figure 5-17) skip partitions and sections.

SKIPF bypasses partitions in a forward direction; SKIPBF bypasses partitions in a reverse direction. End-of-partition boundaries are skipped until the specified number, \(n\), have been read. The file denoted by \(I f n\) is then positioned immediately after the nth boundary (for SKIPF) or immediately after the preceding boundary (for SKIPBF). SKIPF and SKIPBF skip partitions on all files except those with \(W\) type (FORTRAN unformatted) records. For these files, SKIPR and BKSP should be used.

SKIPR bypasses sections in a forward direction; BKSP bypasses sections in a reverse direction. End-of-section boundaries are skipped until the specified number, \(n\), have been read. The file denoted by \(l f n\) is then positioned immediately after the nth boundary (for SKIPR) or immediately after the preceding boundary (for BKSP). An end-ofpartition boundary is counted as an end-of-section.

\section*{PERMANENT FILE USAGE}

If a mass storage file containing user data or programs is to remain in existence between jobs, it must be made a permanent file. Because permanent file concepts and control statements differ substantially between NOS on the one hand and NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 on the other, they are described separately.

\section*{NOS/BEAND SCOPE 2 PERMANENT FILES}

Creating a permanent file under NOS/BE or SCOPE 2 involves the following steps:
1. The file must be assigned to a permanent file device before it is written. The required control statement is REQUEST.
2. Before the end of the first job using the file, the file must be identified to the system as a permanent file. The required control statement is CATALOG.

Using an existing permanent file requires these steps:
1. Subsequent jobs must obtain access to the file from the system before use. The required control statement is ATTACH.
2. If changes to a file are to be made permanent, the system must be notified. The required control statement is EXTEND or ALTER.
3. When the file is no longer needed as a permanent file, it should be removed from the system catalog. The required control statement is PURGE.

The following control statements and parameters are those most frequently used under NOS/BE and SCOPE 2.

\section*{SKIPF,Ifn,np,m.}

SKIPFB,Ifn,np,m.
SKIPR,Ifn,ns,IvI,m.
BKSP, \(1 \mathrm{fn}, \mathrm{ns}, \mathrm{m}\).
If Logical file name of the file to be repositioned
np Number of partitions to be skipped
ns Number of sections to be skipped
Ivl Level number of sections; 17 indicates partitions, all other values indicate sections, the default is 0
m File mode: C for coded, B for binary (default)

Figure 5-17. SKIPF, SKIPBF, SKIPR, and BKSP Control Statement Formats (NOS)

SKIPF,FILE,3.


SKIPF,FILE,3,17.


SKIPB,FILE,4.


Figure 5-16. SKIPB and SKIPF Examples (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)

\section*{REQUEST Control Statement}

The REQUEST control statement for permanent files (figure 5-18) ensures that the file can be made permanent. This control statement must appear before any other reference to the file in the job in which it is created. It specifies that the file is to be assigned automatically to a permanent file device when it is first referenced. The REQUEST control statement is not applicable to an existing permanent file.

\section*{CATALOG Control Statement}

The CATALOG control statement (figure 5-19) declares a file to be permanent. The file must exist on a permanent file device. A file should be cataloged as soon as possible after creation, so as to be more secure in event of system failure.

\section*{ATTACH Control Statement}

The ATTACH control statement (figure 5-20) makes a previously cataloged permanent file available as a local file to the current job. The logical file name can be different from job to job. A file should not be attached until just before it is needed, since each attached permanent file represents increased overhead for the operating system. Similarly, the file should be returned by the RETURN control statement as soon as it is no longer needed within a job.

\section*{ALTER and EXTEND Control Statements}

All files processed by FORTRAN Extended are sequential files except those processed by the mass storage input/output routines (READMS, WRITMS) and some of those processed by the CRM interface routines. (See the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual for descriptions of both these kinds of files.) On a sequential file, information can be added only at the end; existing records cannot be modified. If the file is permanent, it cannot be changed unless either the EXTEND or ALTER control statement (figure 5-21) is used.

EXTEND is used when information has been added at end-ofinformation. It causes the current end-of-information to become the permanent end-of-information, thus making the added information part of the permanent file.

ALTER can be used to change the length of the file. It specifies that the current file position is to become the permanent end-of-information. Thus, the file can either be shortened or (when information has been added) lengthened.

Although the functions of ALTER and EXTEND overlap, each has its specialized uses. When all the information that has been added to a file is to become part of the file, but the current file position is not at end-of-information, EXTEND must be used. If any of the information currently in the file is not to be part of the permanent file, ALTER must be used.

\section*{PURGE Control Statement}

The PURGE control statement removes permanent file status, so that the file referenced disappears at the end of a job. A permanent file can be purged whether or not it is attached. If the file is attached, the format shown in figure \(5-22\) is used. If it is not attached, the format shown in figure \(5-23\) is used and the file is attached after being purged.

\section*{REQUEST,Ifn,*PF.}

Figure 5-18. REQUEST Control Statement Format for Permanent Files (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)
```

CATALOG,Ifn,pfn,ID=idname,RP=days.
Ifn Logical file name
pfn Permanent file name; if omitted, the Ifn is used
as the pfn
idname Owner or creator of the file
days Number of calendar days the file is to be
retained in the system; the default is installa-
tion-defined

```

Figure 5-19. CATALOG Control Statement Format (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)

ATTACH,Ifn,pfn,ID=idname.
Ifn Logical file name; if omitted, pfn is used as Ifn
pfn Permanent file name under which the file was cataloged
idname Name of the owner or creator of the file used when the file was cataloged

Figure 5-20. ATTACH Control Statement Format (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)

EXTEND,Ifn.
ALTER,Ifn.
Ifn Logical file name of file to be extended or altered.

Figure 5-21. EXTEND and ALTER Control Statement Formats (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)


Figure 5-22. PURGE Control Statement Format for Attached Files (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)
\begin{tabular}{|ll|}
\hline PURGE, Ifn,pfn, ID=idname. \\
Ifn & Logical file name \\
pfn & Permanent file name \\
idname & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Name of the owner or creator used when the \\
file was cataloged
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 5-23. PURGE Control Statement Format for Unattached Files (NO்S/BE, SCOPE 2)

Because the file remains attached to the job, it can be altered and then recataloged. If the file is not going to be used anymore, a RETURN control statement should follow PURGE to remove the file from the system.

\section*{NOS PERMANENT FILES}

Two kinds of permanent files are used under NOS: direct access files and indirect access files. With indirect access files, the user attaches a local copy of the file; only the local copy is read or written. If the local copy is altered, it does not replace the permanent copy unless the system is so instructed. With direct access files, all reads and writes are performed directly on the only copy of the file. For most applications, direct access files are not as convenient as indirect access files, as they are less secure (because they are written directly) and they might use more system resources (because mass storage space is preallocated). Direct access files are more efficient for very large files, however.

Creating a permanent file in batch mode involves the following steps:
1. The USER or ACCOUNT control statement identifies the owner of the file to the system.
2. The file is created like any other file.
3. After the file is created, it is saved as a permanent file. The required control statement is SAVE (for indirect access) or DEFINE (for direct access).

Using an existing permanent file requires these steps:
1. A job using an indirect access file must obtain a copy of the file for use as a local file. The required control statement is GET. For a direct access file, the only copy is made available to the job through the ATTACH control statement.
2. For indirect access files, if changes are made to the local copy, and these changes are to become part of the permanent copy, the local copy replaces the permanent copy. The required control statement is REPLACE.
3. When the file is no longer needed as a permanent file, it should be removed from the system. The required control statement is PURGE for both types of files.

The following control statements and parameters are those most frequently used for permanent files.

\section*{SAVE Control Statement}

The SAVE control statement (figure 5-24) declares a local file to be permanent. A permanent copy is made of the current contents of the local file, and the local file is rewound. Subsequent changes can be made to the local file, but the changes are not permanent unless the REPLACE control statement is used.

\section*{GET Control Statement}

The GET control statement (figure 5-25) obtains a local copy of a permanent file and assigns to it the logical file name Ifn. If a file named Ifn is already assigned to the user, it is returned even if errors occur in processing the GET control statement. The local copy is always rewound.

\section*{REPLACE Control Statement}

The REPLACE control statement (figure 5-26) destroys the permanent copy of the file specified by pfn and replaces it with the local file specified by lfn. If pfn does not exist, a permanent copy of the local file is saved with the name pfn (in this case, REPLACE is identical to SAVE). It is not necessary for lfn to be a local copy of pfn; it could be a new file, or a local copy of some other permanent file.

\section*{DEFINE Control Statement}

The DEFINE control statement (figure 5-27) specifies that a file is to be a direct access permanent file. It can occur either before the first reference to the file (that is, the file does not exist yet) or after the last reference. The latter method is usually preferable, since it keeps system resources free as long as possible. However, the first method is more secure in the event of system failure. DEFINE is not applicable to existing direct access files; ATTACH must be used instead.

SAVE,lfn=pfn.
Ifn Logical file name of the local file to be made permanent
pfn Permanent file name; if the equals sign and the pfn are omitted, the Ifn is used as the pfn

Figure 5-24. SAVE Control Statement Format (NOS)

GET,Ifn=pfn.
Ifn Logical file name to be assigned to the local copy of a permanent file; if Ifn and the equals sign are omitted, the pfn is used as the Ifn
pfn Permanent file name

Figure 5-25. GET Control Statement Format (NOS)

REPLACE, Ifn=pfn.
Ifn Logical file name of the local file to replace a permanent file
pfn Permanent file name of the file to be replaced

Figure 5-26. REPLACE Control Statement Format (NOS)

DEFINE,Ifn=pfn.
Ifn Logical file name of file to be made a direct access file.
pfn Permanent file name to be assigned. If the equals sign and pfn are omitted, the Ifn is used as the pfn.

Figure 5-27. DEFINE Control Statement Format (NOS)

\section*{ATTACH Control Statement}

The ATTACH control statement (figure 5-28) makes an existing direct access permanent file available to a job. Subsequent output operations write directly to the only copy of the file.

\section*{ATTACH,Ifn=pfn.}

Ifn Logical file name to be assigned to direct access permanent file.
pfn Permanent file name. If Ifn and the equals sign are omitted, the pfn is used as the Ifn.

Figure 5-28. ATTACH Control Statement Format (NOS)

\section*{PURGE Control Statement}

The PURGE control statement (figure 5-29) removes a permanent file from the system. It is applicable to both direct and indirect access files. For indirect access files, no local copy is made when PURGE is executed; if a local copy exists, it is not destroyed by PURGE.

\section*{PURGE,pfn.}
pfn Permanent file name of the file to be purged

Figure 5-29. PURGE Control Statement Format (NOS)

\section*{MAGNETIC TAPE PROCESSING}

The user finds it necessary to know about magnetic tape processing in two different situations:
- When it is necessary to read an already existing tape. The tape could have been written at the installation in question, or sent there from somewhere else. In either case, it is necessary to know the exact attribute parameters with which the tape was created. If the tape was written on a computer system not manufactured by CDC, or was written by a different CDC system such as one of the 3000 series, special processing is required. This manual does not describe how to process such tapes; the user is referred to the appropriate operating system reference manual.
- After deciding that a tape is the most economical way to store data between jobs for a given application. Tapes are cheaper than the equivalent amount of disk space; however, disks are quicker in terms of real time. When planning an application using tapes, the user determines the type of tape processing before running the first job that writes to the tape. Because all processing is specified by the original user, tape attribute parameters can be chosen strictly on the basis of efficiency or expediency. The discussion that follows assumes that this is the case.

When designing a tape application, a number of decisions must be made about the characteristics of the tape. Among the attributes that must be chosen are the following:
- Tape drive used to read and write the tape (7-track or 9 -track). Data is stored in 6-bit units on 7-track tapes, and in 8-bit units on 9-track tapes (the remaining bit is used for parity). On a 9 -track tape, four 6 -bit characters in memory are converted to three 8-bit characters on tape. For 9 -track tapes, conversion mode is according to either ASCII or EBCDIC codes.
- Tape density. Tapes can be written at 200, 556, or 800 bits per inch on a 7 -track tape, or 800 or 1600 bits per inch on a 9-track tape. 9-track tapes can be written at 6250 bits per inch under NOS/BE only.
- Tape format. For a new application, one of the formats designed for use with CDC systems should be chosen, because these formats are the most efficient on CDC systems. Under NOS, I (the system default) and SI formats are available. Under NOS/BE and SCOPE 2, SI format (the system default) is available. To read existing tapes, it might be necessary to specify one of the \(S\) or \(L\) tape formats.
- Label type. A tape can be either labeled or unlabeled. Labeled tapes are strongly recommended. They provide greater security against accidental overwriting, and they are simpler to process because they can be assigned without operator intervention. Labels are either ANSI standard or user-defined. ANSI labels are the system default and are preferred for new applications.

\section*{Tapes are processed by the following steps:}
l. A volume serial number (VSN) for the tape must be determined. At many installations, tapes are blanklabeled before being made available to programmers. In this case, a serial number is recorded on the tape that agrees with the serial number on the visual sticker on the tape. If the tape has not been blank-labeled, the user selects an arbitrary volume serial number.
2. In the job that creates the tape, a LABEL control statement (NOS and NOS/BE) or REQUEST control statement (SCOPE 2) must appear before the control statement that writes the tape (such as COPY or LGO). This control statement specifies the attributes that are to be permanently associated with the tape. At the end of the job, or when a specific request is made, the tape is logically unloaded and physically dismounted. The procedure used to specify how long the tape is to be retained depends on the installation; however, if the expiration date field of the label is set, the tape cannot be overwritten before that date without explicit operator command. Before the tape can be written, a write-enabling ring must be mounted; this is explicitly requested through the LABEL or REQUEST control statement.
3. Any future job using the tape specifies the VSN on a LABEL control statement (NOS and NOS/BE) or REQUEST control statement (SCOPE 2).

The formats of the LABEL control statement under NOS and NOS/BE, and the REQUEST control statement (for tapes) under SCOPE 2, are shown in figures 5-30 through 5-32.
```

LABEL,lfn,D=den,CV=conv,PO=p,F=format,VSN=vsn,LB=lab,labwr.

```

Ifn Logical file name of the tape file.
den Tape density; the default is an installation parameter. Implies whether tape is 7-track or 9-track.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
LO & 200 bpi \\
HI & 556 bpi (7rack) \\
HY & 800 bpi (track) \\
HD & 800 bpi ( 9 -track) \\
PE & 1600 bpi ( 9 -track)
\end{tabular}
conv Conversion mode for 9 -track tapes; the default is an installation parameter.

\section*{AS ASCII conversion \\ EB EBCDIC conversion}
p Processing option. See the NOS Reference Manual for options other than the following:
R Enforce ring out. If the tape is mounted with the write ring in, job processing is suspended until the operator remounts the tape correctly. Recommended for tapes to be read.

W Enforce ring in. If the tape is mounted without the write ring in, job processing is suspended until the operator remounts the tape correctly.
format Tape format:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
I & NOS Internal (default) \\
SI & NOS/BE internal \\
S & Stranger \\
L & Long stranger
\end{tabular}
vsn Volume serial number. See the discussion in text.
lab Indicates whether the tape is labeled.
KL NOS labeled (ANSI standard labels; default)
NS Nonstandard labels
KU Unlabeled
labwr Indicates whether labels are to be written or read (checked).
R Existing labels are to be checked (default)
W Labels are to be written

Figure 5-30. LABEL Control Statement Format (NOS)

LABEL, Ifn,wr,ring, \(D=d, F=f, N=n, V S N=v s n\).
Ifn Logical file name of the tape file.
wr Indicates whether the label is'to be written or read (checked). No default.

W Label to be written
R Label to be checked
ring Indicates the presence or absence of a writeenabling ring; the default is an installation option.

RING Write-enabling ring required NORING Write-enabling ring prohibited
d Tape density. Also indicates whether the tape is 7 -track or 9 -track.

LO 200 bpi (7-track)
HI 556 bpi (7-track)
HY 800 bpi (7-track)
HD 800 bpi (9-track)
PE 1600 bpi (9-track)
GE 6250 bpi (9-track)
f Tape format; the default is SI (system internal) format.

S Stranger tape
L Long stranger tape
n Conversion mode for 9-track tapes; the default is an installation option.
```

US ASCII code
EB EBCDIC code

```
vsn Volume serial number. See the discussion in text.

REQUEST, Ifn,den,con,VSN=vsn,lab. RING IN
Ifn Logical file name of the tape file.
den Tape density; \({ }^{\text {in }}\) the default is an installation option. Also iutermines whether the tape is 7 -track or 9 -track.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
LO & 200 bpi ( 7 -track) \\
HI & 556 bpi (7-track) \\
HY & 800 bpi (7-track) \\
HD & 800 tbpi ( 9 -track) \\
PE & 1600 ivpi 9 -track)
\end{tabular}
con Conversion mode for 9-track tapes; the default is an installation option.
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
US & ASCII code \\
EB & EBCDIC code
\end{tabular}
vsn Volume serial number. See the discussion in text.
lab Indicates whether labels are to be written or read (checked).
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{N} & \text { New label to be written } \\
\mathrm{E} & \text { Existing label to be checked (default) }
\end{array}
\]

Figure 5-32. REQUEST Control Statement
Format for Tapes (SCOPE 2)

This section describes some efficient techniques when a group of routines are frequently used together or called from many other routines. The section describes how a user library can be created using EDITLIB (NOS/BE), LIBEDT (SCOPE 2) or LIBGEN (NOS). Maintenance and use of a user library is also described. In addition, this section describes how a source language program can be created or maintained using the UPDATE utility. The COPYL and LIBEDIT utilities that edit records on a file are also described. Table 6-1 indicates the utilities that operate under SCOPE 2, NOS/BE, and NOS. EDITLIB is discussed further in the NOS/BE Reference Manual, LIBGEN, LIBEDIT, and GTR are discussed in the NOS Reference Manual, LIBEDT is discussed in the SCOPE 2 Reference Manual, and COPYL is discussed in the CYBER Common Utilities Reference Manual.

In this section, the word library implies one of several different types of file, depending on the context. In a general sense, the word library refers to a collection of records. When the word library is qualified by the word user or program, however, it implies a particular type of file:

> A user library is a file in a format that can be used by the loader to satisfy external references or name call references. It must be created by a library-creating utility, EDITLIB, LIBEDT, or LIBGEN for the NOS/BE, SCOPE 2, and NOS operating systems, respectively. All records on a user library must be binary modules.
> A program library is a file in a format created or maintained by the UPDATE utility. Information in a program library consists of compressed images of punch cards in Hollerith format.

This section uses the program GETACC to illustrate user library and program library construction and maintenance. Subroutines GENTAB and INTERP are part of a physical card deck that also contains the main program GETACC. If GETACC is to be executed only once with one set of data, its existence as a card deck is reasonably efficient. Considering execution of GETACC with many sets of data over a period of time, however, leads to the need for keeping GETACC and its subroutines in some form other than punch cards containing source language programs.

Several alternatives can be chosen to provide for use of program GETACC over an extended period. These include the following when the program and its subroutines are kept together:
1. Keeping the main program and its two subroutines as a source language card deck
2. Storing an image of the deck as a permanent file
3. Storing the compiled program and subroutines as a permanent file

Alternative 1 requires the continued existence of a physical card deck. In this particular example, the GETACC deck is small, but it is susceptible to the problems of all card decks: mistreatment that results in card bending or warping, bulky size, and possible card shuffling.

Alternative 2 eliminates the inconvenience of a physical deck. Resubmission of the program for processing is accomplished by a deck containing only control statements and data. And, if the data is also on a permanent file, the program can be executed from a terminal that does not include a card reader.

Both alternatives 1 and 2 are expensive in terms of machine time, since a source language program must be compiled each time it is executed. If the program is compiled before it is stored, repetitive use of the program requires only loading and execution time. As long as a program and its subroutines will not be changed, use of a binary object module (alternative 3 ) is efficient.

Alternative 3 is less useful if changes are to be introduced. When a main program and the subprograms it calls are stored as one file, a change in any routine requires a recompilation of the entire source deck; that recompilation requires the existence of those routines in source format. In the absence of anticipated changes, alternative 3 stores the program in less space than required by a source program.

TABLE 6-1. UTILITY SUPPORT
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{2}{*}{ Utility } & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{ Function } & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{\begin{tabular}{c} 
Applicable Operating \\
System
\end{tabular}} \\
\cline { 3 - 5 } & & NOS & NOS/BE & SCOPE 2 \\
\hline UPDATE & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Coded card file \\
maintenance
\end{tabular} & \(\times\) & \(\times\) & \(\times\) \\
COPYL & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Copy of a file \\
with replace- \\
ment of selected \\
records
\end{tabular} & \(\times\) & \(\times\) & \(\times\) \\
LIBGED & \begin{tabular}{l} 
User library \\
creation
\end{tabular} & \(\times\) & - & - \\
GTR & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Modification of \\
sequential file \\
of binary \\
modules
\end{tabular} & \(\times\) & - & - \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
Extraction of \\
records from \\
file
\end{tabular} & \(\times\) & - & - \\
LIBEDT & \begin{tabular}{l} 
User library \\
Creation and \\
modification
\end{tabular} & - & - & \(\times\) \\
\begin{tabular}{l} 
User library \\
moreation and \\
modification
\end{tabular} & - & - \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

When changes to a program are anticipated, other alternatives should be considered:
4. Separating the main program from its subprograms, and separating the subprograms from each other in their source language and compiled forms
5. Storing all the source language routines in one program library and storing all the compiled routines in one user library file

Alternative 4 saves compilation time, because only the changed routine needs to be recompiled as a result of a change in that routine. This alternative adds to the programmer burden, however. When many separate routines are involved, the programmer must keep track of separate files or card decks, or keep track of many partitions in one file for both the source language and binary forms of routines. The control statements needed to execute GETACC would have to call for loading of three files by name, such as:
```

LOAD, GETACCB.
LOAD, GENTABB.
LOAD, INTERPB.
EXECUTE.

```
(See section 7.)
Alternative 5, storing source language programs in UPDATE format and compiled programs in user library format, eliminates several problems of the other alternatives. The card deck can be eliminated once the initial UPDATE program library is created; for instance, a change to one routine calls only for recompilation of the changed routine. All routines on the user library can be referenced by a single control statement identifying the file on which the library resides. Assuming GETACC and its subroutines exist on a user library (MYLIB), GETACC can be executed by:
```

LIBRARY,MYLIB.
LIBLOAD,MYLIB, GETACC.
EXECUTE,GETACC.

```

With subroutines on a declared library, the programmer references only the name of the main program to be executed. The loader examines that program to determine what subroutines are required, then searches the library for those routines without further programmer references.

This last alternative is described in detail in this section. While the small routines GETACC, GENTAB, and INTERP might be more easily handled in card deck format, the principles they illustrate are essential for efficient handling of source programs and frequently used routines.

\section*{USER LIBRARIES}

A user library is a file of binary modules in a special format constructed by a library-creating utility. In general, a library file contains, in addition to the modules, a directory and tables that can be used by the loader to quickly locate any module. Some of the information in the tables includes lists of entry points, lists of external references within a module, and field length information. The specific format of the library depends on the operating system it is associated with and, in general, is not of concern to the user.

A user library is similar to a system library that is associated with the operating system. It differs from a system library in that it is created and maintained by an individual programmer and also must be explicitly referenced and attached by any job that uses the library.

Because the procedures and control statements needed to create and maintain a user library differ substantially between NOS on the one hand and NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 on the other, they are described separately here.

For FORTRAN programs, a user library can only contain one main program, unless the main programs are compiled using the SYSEDIT parameter on the FTN control statement (see the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual). This parameter is necessary because otherwise, multiple references to the same file name in different main programs cause duplicate entry points.

\section*{NOS/BE AND SCOPE 2 USER LIBRARIES}

The utility called to create a library differs between NOS/BE and SCOPE 2, but the general procedure is the same, as shown in figure 6-1. Under the NOS/BE operating system, the utility EDITLIB is called; under the SCOPE 2 operating system, LIBEDT is called. Creating a user library involves the following steps:
1. The routines to be made a part of the library must exist in compiled form. They can be on one or more files stored on tape, cards, or mass storage. They can be routines in any language and need not all be FORTRAN routines. The control statement that creates the proper binary format for each routine is a compiler or assembler call.
2. Detailed instructions, known as directives, must be available to EDITLIB or LIBEDT at the time the utility is called. The file containing the directives is identified by the I parameter in the EDITLIB or LIBEDT control statement.
3. The EDITLIB or LIBEDT utility is called to create a user library.
4. The file on which the user library is created should be a permanent file. The control statements that make a file permanent are the REQUEST control statement before the library is created, and the CATALOG control statement after the file exists (described in section 5). If the library is changed in a later run, the EXTEND control statement (section 5) is then necessary, to make the changes permanent.


Figure 6-1. NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 User Library Creation

\section*{Directives in General}

Directives are the supplementary control information for EDITLIB or LIBEDT. They indicate the library to be manipulated, the program on a sequential input file (or old user library) to be made part of the library, and whether a new library is to be created or an existing library is to be modified. Directives must exist on a sequential file in the form of punch cards or punch card images.

The format of a directive is similar to control statement format. Directives can begin in any card column; they can contain embedded blanks. Any parameters on the directive must appear within a set of parentheses, however.

In both EDITLIB and LIBEDT directives, the proglist parameter can reference a single program or a set of programs; it can take any of the following formats:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
name & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Reference a single program \\
by name.
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}

Reference several programs by name in any order.

Reference an inclusive interval of programs to be included in the directive processing by the names of the first and last programs in the interval.

Reference an exclusive interval of programs to be omitted from the directive processing by the names of the first and last programs in the interval.

Reference an inclusive interval of programs to be included in the directive processing by the name of the first program in the interval through end-ofpartition or end-of-information.

Reference an exclusive interval of programs to be excluded from the directive processing by the name of the first program in the interval through end-ofpartition or end-of-information.

Reference an interval of programs to be included (+) or excluded (-) from the directive processing with the interval beginning at the current file position and extending through the named program.

Reference an interval of programs that consists of all programs starting at the present file position and continuing through end-ofpartition or end-of-information.

Any interval must be specified such that the beginning of the interval occurs before the end of the interval when LIBEDT or EDITLIB searches the file in a forward direction. The search is end-around; that is, the search begins at the current position of the specified file, continues until end-ofinformation, then resumes at beginning-of-information if necessary. A search stops when the entire file has been examined once and the specified programs have not been found, or when the end of the specified interval occurs. The programs that indicate the interval range are included in that interval. Once the beginning of the interval is found, searching continues only until end-of-information; an interval cannot wrap around the end of a file.

Directives for EDITLIB and LIBEDT are shown separately below, because they differ in some respects.

\section*{NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 Sample User Library Creation}

The sample job deck shown in figure 6-2 illustrates the general structure of a job that creates a user library. This example uses a program with main program GETACC and subroutines GENTAB and INTERP.

The EDITLIB and LIBEDT control statements shown in figure 6-2 indicate that the directives are part of the job deck (IINPUT). Directives in the example have these functions:

The LIBRARY directive identifies the library to be manipulated (MYLIB).

The NEW parameter on the LIBRARY directive indicates a new library is to be created as opposed to a modification of an existing library.

All directives between the LIBRARY directive and the FINISH directive refer to the library named.

The ADD directive specifies that all programs on file LGO are to be incorporated in the library (because * appears as the proglist parameter). File LGO was created by the FTN control statement, which has a default \(B=\) LGO parameter for binary output.

The ENDRUN directive terminates directive execution.

\section*{job statement}

ACCOUNT control statement (if required)
FTN.
REQUEST,MYLIB,*PF.
EDITLIB,USER,I=INPUT. NOS/BE
LIBEDT,I=INPUT, \(M=1\). SCOPE 2
CATALOG,MYLIB,ID=MINE.
7/8/9
Routines GETACC, GENTAB, INTERP
7/8/9
LIBRARY(MYLIB,NEW)
REWIND(LGO)
ADD(*,LGO)
FINISH.
ENDRUN.
6/7/8/9

Figure 6-2. Sample User Library
Creation (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)

The library name specified in the LIBRARY directive is the same as the file name specified on the permanent file control statements. In subsequent loader control statements (described in section 7), the library is always identified by the name of the file on which it resides.

Output from EDITLIB and LIBEDT includes the user library and a listing that shows operations performed and the contents of the library. By default, the listing is written to file OUTPUT. Figure 6-3 shows output from the deck in figure 6-2 when EDITLIB is called. Information listed includes:
1. A list of the directives as read from the directive file and as interpreted by EDITLIB. (An error in directive format might cause a different interpretation.)
2. Status information resulting from execution; in particular, detailed information about each program added to the library, such as:
a. Contents of the prefix table (a loader table).
b. Octal number of words in the routine excluding the prefix table. Execution field length is zero for relocatable programs, because the loader determines length at load time.
c. Access level and field length, which refer to status bits explained in the NOS/BE Reference Manual.
d. A list of all entry points in the program. Entry points include the program unit names specified on the PROGRAM and SUBROUTINE statements. File names referenced in the PROGRAM statement are entry points for the main program and external references in any subprogram (such as GENTAB) performing input/output on these files.
e. A list of external references within the program. In program GENTAB, for example, external references shown refer to FORTRAN library routines required to execute the READ and WRITE statements, as well as to the EOF function called by the program, and the file names referenced in the program (unless the program was compiled with the SYSEDIT parameter).

\section*{NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 Sample User Library Modification}

An existing user library can be changed under NOS/BE or SCOPE 2 using the EDITLIB or LIBEDT utility that originally created the library (figure 6-4). A program on the library can be deleted or replaced by another version of the program, and new programs can be added.

Figure 6-5 shows a sample job deck that deletes program GENTAB, adds program NEWTAB, and replaces program GETACC with a new version. In this example, the new version of GETACC is within the deck and is compiled and written by default to file LGO. The new routine NEWTAB was compiled in a previous job and stored as a permanent file with the name NEWONE.

The existing user library was stored in figure 6-2 as a file with the permanent file name MYLIB. In the present job, it is attached with the logical file name MOD. Consequently, the LIBRARY directive must identify the library as MOD, not MYLIB.

The ADD and REPLACE directives identify the names of the programs and the files on which they reside. The REWIND directive is not required (since files are searched endaround), but it makes searching more efficient when the program in question is known to be before the current file position.

After library operations are complete, the LISTLIB directive lists the names of the programs on the library. LISTLIB output is shown in figure 6-6.

\section*{NOS/BE EDITLIB Control Statement and Directives}

The EDITLIB control statement (figure 6-7) creates and maintains a user library that the CYBER loader can use in satisfying externals and name call references under NOS/BE.

In addition to the directives shown in table 6-2, other directives exist for EDITLIB. They allow field length and access status bits to be set in the directory of the library. The ADD and REPLACE directives have additional parameters for these same items. See the NOS/BE Reference Manual for information about these other directives. The directives shown in table 6-2 are sufficient for creating and modifying a user library using sequential files with type REL relocatable programs.

The user library produced by EDITLIB execution is in random format; consequently, the library cannot be copied by any of the copy utilities without losing its integrity. If it is necessary to copy the library to a tape for backup purposes, the RANTOSEQ directive must be used. To restore the library to mass storage in a format that can be used by the loader, the SEQTORAN directive must be used.

\section*{SCOPE 2 LIBEDT Control Statement and Directives}

The LIBEDT control statement (figure 6-8) creates and maintains a user library that the SCOPE 2 loader can use in satisfying externals and name call references under SCOPE 2.

Directives for LIBEDT are shown in table 6-3. Other directives exist to allow a library to be copied to a sequential file, rearrange a library, or otherwise update the library and control other types of records in the file. See the SCOPE 2 Reference Manual for information about these other directives. Those directives shown in table 6-3 are sufficient for creating and modifying a library using a sequential file of type REL programs.

The column of table 6-3 entitled Required Position refers to the location a directive must occupy in respect to a run. A run is defined as a group of operations with a particular library. (More than one library can be manipulated through a single call to LIBEDT even though only one is shown in the examples in this section.) A run begins with a LIBRARY directive and ends with a FINISH directive. Thus, table 6-3 indicates that the ADD directive must appear between LIBRARY and FINISH, but that the LISTLIB directive cannot appear between LIBRARY and FINISH directives, and that it does not matter whether ERROR appears between them or not.

Under SCOPE 2, a library has a format recognizable by SCOPE 2 Record Manager as FO=LB. A library file contains a number of partitions, the first being a directory used by the loader.


Figure 6-3. Output from Sample User Library Creation

\section*{NOS USER LIBRARIES}

The utility called to create a user library under NOS is LIBGEN. Creating a user library involves the following steps:
1. The routines to be made part of the library must exist in compiled form. They can be routines in any language and need not all be FORTRAN routines. All routines must be relocatable, however. The control statement that creates the proper binary format for each routine is a compiler or assembler call.
2. All routines must be on the same sequential format file. The COPYBR control statement can be used to copy separately compiled routines to one file, if necessary.


Figure 6-4. NOS/BE and SCOPE 2 User Library Modification
```

job statement
ACCOUNT control statement
FTN.
ATTACH,MOD,MYLIB,ID=MINE.
ATTACH,NEWONE,ID=MINE.
EDITLIB or LIBEDT control statement
EXTEND,MOD.
7/8/9

```
    new version of routine GETACC
7/8/9
LIBRARY(MOD,OLD)
DELETE(GENTAB)
REWIND(LGO)
REPLACE(GETACC,LGO)
ADD(NEWTAB,NEWONE)
FINISH.
LISTLIB(*,MOD)
ENDRUN.
6/7/8/9

Figure 6-5. Sample User Library Modification (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)
3. The LIBGEN utility is called to create a user library.
4. The file on which the user library was created should be made a permanent file. Direct access is preferable for library files. The control statement that makes a file permanent is DEFINE (described in section 5). Libraries can be kept on tape and copied to disk before use, but they must be on disk while in use.

The general use of LIBGEN is shown in figure 6-9.

\section*{Sample User Library Creation}

The sample job deck shown in figure 6-10 illustrates the general structure of a job that creates a user library. This example uses a program with main program GETACC and subroutines GENTAB and INTERP. The CATALOG control statement lists the contents of the file. In this example, the U parameter indicates that the file is a user library, and the R parameter specifies that the file is to be rewound before and after execution of CATALOG.

The LIBGEN control statement in figure 6-10 indicates that the routines to be made part of the library are found on file LGO, the default binary file from a call to FTN. The new library is to be created on permanent file LIBFILE. The name of the library is to be MYLIBN; this name appears in a listing of the file contents, as shown in figure 6-11.

\section*{Sample User Library Re-creation}

An existing user library cannot be modified under NOS. If any changes are to be made to an existing library, a new library must be created from a sequential source file containing all the binary modules to be on the library:

If the sequential source file originally used to create the library exists, it can be edited through the COPYL utility or the LIBEDIT utility (figure 6-12).

If the sequential source file does not exist, the GTR utility can be used to extract records from the existing library and the resulting file can be used as input to COPYL or LIBEDIT (figure 6-13).

In either case, the new library is then created through LIBGEN.

The choice of COPYL or LIBEDIT usually is governed by the type of changes to be made. If the only change is a replacement of records by records of the same name and type, either utility can be used. In this instance, control statement parameters identify the source file and the file containing replacement records, and all matching records are replaced.

If new programs are to be added, COPYL offers an advantage in a simplified deck structure. A control statement parameter can be used to indicate that records on the replacement file are to be added to the output file. To add programs using LIBEDIT, however, a directive record is required. Furthermore, knowledge about the structure of the file is required, because the location of the new records must be specified. LIBEDIT directives allow records to be added from more than one file, which can be an advantage.

If existing programs are to be deleted, the location of the program in the library affects which utility is easier to use. Records can be deleted from the end of a file through COPYL by specifying the name of the last record to be copied from the source file. Deletions elsewhere in the file require SKIPR or COPYBR control statements referencing
```

LISTING OF LIBRARY MOD
FOLLODMS
FOLLOWING PPDGRAM LISTED
PREFIX TABLE INFORMATION
pROGRAM NAME
INTERP
SYSTEM NAME NOSIPF 1.207/?.6/77 11.27.31 PROCESSOR NAME FTV 4.5 45?
DEDENNENCIES HARDWARF I INSTRUCTION 66 6X X
THIS IS A RFLOCATABIII PROGRAM.
BINARY LENSTH = 135 AND EXECUTION FIELD LENGTH = 0 COCTALI.
ACCESS LEVEL IS y
fiELD LENGTH may Not be increasfo.
ENTRY POINTS
INTERP
EXTERNAL PEFERENCES
muTfT.
nuTPUTミ

```
```

fOLLOWING PROGRAM LISTED
PREFIX TABLE INFORMATION
pROGRAM NAME
getar?

```

Figure 6-6. Typical LISTLIB Output

TABLE 6-2. EDITLIB DIRECTIVES
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Directive Format & Required Position & Function \\
\hline */ comment & Anywhere & Specify a comment to be listed in the print file. \\
\hline \[
\operatorname{LIBRARY}\left(\operatorname{Ifn},\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { NEW } \\
\text { OLD }
\end{array}\right\}\right)
\] & Beginning of run & Specify the library to be manipulated and whether it is to be created or modified. \\
\hline FINISH. & End of run & Indicate end-of-processing of the library specified by the preceding LIBRARY directive. \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
ADD (proglist, \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) ) \\
ADD (proglist, \(\operatorname{lfn}_{2}\), LIB)
\end{tabular} & In run & Add specified programs from the sequential file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or from library file \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\). \\
\hline REPLACE (proglist, lfn \({ }_{1}\), LIB) REPLACE (proglist, \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{\mathbf{2}}\), LIB) & In run & Replace the specified programs on the existing library with programs of the same name and type now residing on sequential file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or library file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\). \\
\hline DELETE (proglist) & In run & Remove the specified programs from the existing library. \\
\hline LISTLIB (proglist, lfn) & Outside run & List information about the specified programs from library file lfn. \\
\hline CONTENT (lfn) & Anywhere & List the contents of file lfn whether it is a sequential file or library file. \\
\hline REWIND ( \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1} / \ldots / \mathrm{ffn} \mathrm{n}^{\text {) }}\) & Anywhere & Rewind specified sequential files. \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SKIPF}(\{\operatorname{pron} g\}, \operatorname{lfn} 1) \\
& \operatorname{SKIPF}\left(\left\{\operatorname{pron}^{\mathrm{n}}\right\}, \mathrm{lfn}_{2}, F\right)
\end{aligned}
\] & Anywhere & Skip forward \(n\) sections on sequential file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or \(n\) partitions on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) or skip forward until a program of name prog is found. \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SKIPB}\left(\left\{\operatorname{prong}_{g}\right\}, \operatorname{lfn}_{1}\right) \\
& \operatorname{SKIPB}\left(\left\{\operatorname{prog}^{n_{g}}\right\}, \operatorname{lfn}_{2}, F\right)
\end{aligned}
\] & Anywhere & Skip backward \(n\) sections on sequential file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or \(n\) partitions on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\), or skip backward until a program of name prog is found. \\
\hline ENDRUN. & Outside run & Stop directive execution, but continue syntax checking of any following directives. \\
\hline RANTOSEQ ( \(\left.\mathrm{lfn}_{1}, 1 \mathrm{fn} \mathrm{n}_{2}\right)\) & Outside run & Copy the random library on file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) to a sequential file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\). \\
\hline SEQTORAN ( \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}, \mathrm{lfn}_{2}\) ) & Outside run & Copy sequential file \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) containing a dumped library to mass storage file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\) in a format the loader can use. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
the COPYL source file. Deleting records during LIBEDIT operations can be accomplished through directives by specifying the name of the record to be deleted.

\section*{LIBGEN Control Statement}

The LIBGEN control statement (figure 6-14) generates a user library that the CYBER loader can use in satisfying external references.

The file referenced by the F parameter is the source file which contains the program units that are to be incorporated into the library. In many instances, this file would be one created by the COPYL utility, although binary output from compilation can be used; all of the records in the library must be relocatable binary programs. If any other record types are on the source file, they are ignored by LIBGEN.

LIBGEN rewinds the source file before and after creating the user library. At the start of library creation, LIBGEN scans the source file, stopping at the first partition boundary or at end-of-information. Using the information on the source file, LIBGEN builds a directory of all entry points, program names, and external references on the file. LIBGEN then copies the directory to the file specified by the \(P\) parameter, copies all records from the source file to the library file, and follows the records with an index that gives the relative address of each record in the library.

The directory on the user library is listed as record type ULIB. Its name is that specified by the \(N\) parameter. The file index on the user library is listed as record type OPLD, with a name corresponding to the library name.

\section*{LIBEDIT Control Statement and Directives}

The LIBEDIT control statement (figure 6-15) creates and maintains a file of binary records.

A file created by LIBEDIT cannot be used during loading to selectively satisfy entry points from among its records. The entire file can be loaded and executed, however, if the file contains a main program. The file can also be used as input to LIBGEN.

Many different types of records, including overlays and text records, can be processed by LIBEDIT. Only relocatable programs (type REL) are described here, because only relocatable programs can be written to a user library under NOS.

Directives for LIBEDIT are shown in table 6-4. Other directives exist to change the contents of the prefix tables and otherwise control file contents. See the NOS Reference Manual for information about other directives.

The format of the LIBEDIT directives requires the character * to appear in column 1, with no embedded blanks. If a card or card image in the directive file does not begin with *, it is presumed to be a continuation of the previous card.

Directives are not needed if the only change to the source file is to replace records.

\section*{GTR Control Statement}

The GTR control statement (figure 6-16) extracts specified records from the named file. GTR operates with either a library file or a sequential file.
```

EDITLIB,USER,I=|f\mp@subsup{n}{1}{\prime},L=|f\mp@subsup{n}{2}{}}

```

USER Indicates a user library (default).
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) Logical file name of the file containing directives. The default file name is INPUT.

Ifn \(_{2}\) Logical file name of the file to which EDITLIB is to write listable output. The default file name is OUTPUT.

Figure 6-7. EDITLIB Control Statement Format
\[
\text { LIBEDT, I=|fn }, L=\mid f n_{2}, M=m .
\]
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) Logical file name of the file containing directives. The default file name is INPUT.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) Logical file name of the file to which printable output is to be written. The default file name is OUTPUT.
m Indicator of listing completeness: 0 for short listing (default); 1 for long listing.

Figure 6-8. LIBEDT Control Statement Format


Figure 6-9. NOS User Library Creation
```

job statement
USER control statement
FTN,OPT=2.
LIBGEN,F=LGO,P=LIBFILE,N=MYLIBN.
DEFINE,LIBFILE.
CATALOG,LIBFILE,U,R.
7/8/9
Routines GETACC, GENTAB, and INTERP

```
6/7/8/9

Figure 6-10. Sample User Library Creation (NOS)
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline REC & CATALOG NAME & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { OF LIBFILE } \\
& \text { TYPE }
\end{aligned}
\] & LENGTH & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { FILE } \\
& \text { CKSUH }
\end{aligned}
\] & \begin{tabular}{l}
1 \\
DATE
\end{tabular} & COMMENT: & \[
1 / 11 /
\] & \[
23 \text { • }
\] & 5.13 & .03. & page & & 1 \\
\hline 1 & MYLIBN & ULIB & 20 & 0603 & 77/11/23. & & & & & & & & \\
\hline 2 & GETACC & REL & 204 & 4626 & 77/11/23. & 15.12.59 & NOS & 1.2 & FTN & 4.6460 & 666x & 1 & PROGRAM \\
\hline & GETACC
INPUT & & & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline & INPUTE & & & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline & OUTPUTE & & & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline 3 & GENTAB & REL & 230 & 6324 & 77/11/23. & 15.12.59 & NOS & 1.2 & FTN & 4.6460 & 666X & 1 & SUBROUTINE \\
\hline & GENTAB & & & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline 4 & INTERP & REL & 164 & 6721 & 77/11/23. & 15.12.59 & NOS & 1.2 & FTN & 4.6460 & 666X & 1 & SUBROUTINE \\
\hline 5 & INTERP & 0 PL 0 & 11 & 7305 & 7711123 & & & & & & & & \\
\hline & NrLaN & OPLO & 18 & 7305 & 771123 & & & & & & & & \\
\hline 6 & - EOF \({ }^{\text {- }}\) & SUM \(=\) & 651 & & & & & & & & & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 6-11. Listing of NOS User Library

TABLE 6-3. LIBEDT DIRECTIVES
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Directive Format & Required Position & Function \\
\hline */ comment & Anywhere & Specify a comment to be listed on the print file. \\
\hline \[
\operatorname{LIBRARY}\left(\operatorname{lfn},\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\text { NEW } \\
\text { OLD }
\end{array}\right\}\right)
\] & Beginning of run & Specify the library to be manipulated and whether it is to be created or modified. \\
\hline FINISH. & End of run & Indicate end-of-processing of the library specified by the preceding LIBRARY directive. \\
\hline \[
\operatorname{ERROR}\left(\left\{\begin{array}{c}
\mathrm{STOP} \\
\text { ABORT } \\
\mathrm{SKIP}
\end{array}\right\}\right)
\] & Anywhere & Indicate whether LIBEDT is to abort its execution immediately (STOP), continue the run until the directory is listed and then abort (ABORT), or list the directory at end-ofrun (SKIP) after a warning level message is written to the listing file. \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ADD (proglist, } \operatorname{lfn}_{1} \text { ) } \\
& \text { ADD (proglist, } \mathrm{lfn}_{2} \text {, LIB) }
\end{aligned}
\] & In run & Add the specified programs from the sequential file with logical file name \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or from the library on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\). \\
\hline REPLACE (proglist, \(1 \mathrm{lf} n_{1}\) ) REPLACE (proglist, \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\), LIB) & In run & Replace the specified programs on the existing library with programs of the same name and type residing on file \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}\) or library \(\mathrm{lfn}_{2}\). \\
\hline DELETE (proglist) & In run & Remove the specified programs from the existing library. \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
LISTLIB (proglist, Ifn) \\
LISTLIB (proglist, Ifn, \(N=1\) )
\end{tabular} & Outside run & List information about the specified programs from library file lfn, showing information about the directory and each program. \(N=1\) specifies a more detailed list. \\
\hline CONTENT (lfn) & Anywhere & List the contents of sequential file lfn. \\
\hline REWIND ( \(\mathrm{lfn}_{1}, \ldots . .1 \mathrm{fn}_{\mathrm{n}}\) ) & Anywhere & Rewind the specified sequential files. \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { SKIPF }(\{\operatorname{pr} 8 \mathrm{~g}\}, \mathrm{Ifn}) \\
& \operatorname{SKIPF}(\{\mathrm{prOng}\}, \mathrm{Ifn}, \mathrm{P})
\end{aligned}
\] & Anywhere & On sequential file lfn, skip forward \(n\) sections; or skip forward until a program of name prog is found. P indicates partitions are to be skipped. \\
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{SKIPB}(\{\text { prõ̃ }\}, \operatorname{lfn}) \\
& \operatorname{SKIPB}(\{\operatorname{pron} g\}, \text { lfn, P. })
\end{aligned}
\] & Anywhere & On sequential file lfn, skip backward \(n\) sections; or skip backward until program of name prog is found. \(P\) indicates partitions are to be skipped. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

GTR differs from other utilities that require directives in that the GTR directives must appear on the control statement. No blank characters can appear between the terminator of the control statement and the directive.

A logical deletion can be achieved using GTR because records to be copied to the output file are specified by name or interval of records in the source file. Records are deleted when their names are omitted.

The output file produced by GTR is in sequential format. To re-create it in user library format, it must be used as a source file for LIBGEN, even when the source of records is an existing library file. The output file is rewound after GTR processing.

\section*{COPYL Control Statement}

The COPYL control statement (figure 6-17) maintains a file of binary records.

The types of binary records COPYL can process include relocatable records (type REL), level 0,0 overlays with named entry points (type ABS), and overlays of other than level 0,0 without named entry points (type OVL). COPYL determines record types by examining the tables produced by the compiler for loader use.

A binary file is one in which each record is presumed to begin with a prefix table. A prefix table is constructed by the compiler for each program unit compiled, in a format required by the loader. The information in the prefix table documents the status and characteristics of the program and


Figure 6-12. COPYL Use in Re-creating a User Library (NOS)
includes the system on which the program was compiled, the program name, and the type of system for which the program is optimized. The contents of the prefix table and the tables following it are used by COPYL to determine the record name and type.


Figure 6-13. GTR and LIBEDIT Use in Re-creating a User Library (NOS)

LIBGEN, \(F=1 \mathrm{fn}_{1}, \mathrm{P}=1 \mathrm{In}_{2}, \mathrm{~N}=\) libname.
Ifn \(_{1}\) Logical file name of the file containing relocatable program units to be made into a user library. The default file name is LGO.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) Logical file name of the file to contain the user library. The default file name is ULIB.
libname Name of the user library being created. The default library name is the logical file name specified by the \(P\) parameter.

Figure 6-14. LIBGEN Control Statement Format

The format of the file produced by COPYL is sequential, with each binary record being a section. This file is identical in format to one created by compilations that write to the same file, or by copy operations that copy several records to a single file. No directory or index exists for the file.

Once a file of binary records exists, COPYL can maintain it by adding new records and replacing an existing record with
```

LIBEDIT,I=|fn

```

Ifn 1 Logical file name of directives. The default file name is INPUT. If no directives exist, \(\mathrm{I}=0\) must be specified.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) Logical file name of the existing file to be edited. The default file name is OLD.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{3}\) Logical file name of the file to be produced by LIBEDIT. The default file name is NEW.

Ifn \(_{4}\) Logical file name of the file containing new or replacement records. The default file name is LGO. If a replacement file does not exist, \(B=0\) should be specified.

Figure 6-15. LIBEDIT Control Statement Format TABLE 6-4. LIBEDIT DIRECTIVES
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Directive Format & Function \\
\hline *TYPE,REL & Indicate that all subsequent directives refer to type REL, relocatable records. \\
\hline *FILE, Ifn
*FILE,* & Specify the file containing replacement directives by name or by \({ }^{*}\) to indicate the file specified on the LIBEDIT control statement. \\
\hline *BEFORE, \({ }^{\text {rec, }}\), \(\mathrm{rep}_{1}-\mathrm{rep}_{2}\) & Specify that the replacement record rep or group of records rep \({ }_{1}\) through \(\mathrm{rep}_{2}\) are to be placed before rec, the name of a record on the source file. \\
\hline *AFTER,rec, rep \({ }_{1}\)-rep 2 & Specify that the replacement record rep or group of records rep \({ }_{1}\) through \(\mathrm{rep}_{2}\) are to be placed after rec, the name of a record on the source file. \\
\hline *DELETE, \({ }^{\text {rec }}{ }_{1}-\mathrm{rec}_{2}\) & Specify the name of the record or the group of records to be deleted. \\
\hline *REPLACE, \(\mathrm{rec}_{1}-\mathrm{rec}_{2}\) & Specify the name of the record or group of records to be replaced by records of the same name on the replacement file. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
another record of the same name. Deletion of records is also possible when the records to be deleted are at the end of the existing file, but when records are to be deleted elsewhere in the existing file, one of the copy or skip utilities must be used to produce a new output file.

When COPYL executes, it begins by rewinding the existing old file if so indicated by the \(R\) parameter. It rewinds the file of replacement records, then compares the contents of the old file with the replacement file. Each record from the old file is copied to the new output file as it is encountered, unless a record with the same name exists on the replacement file. If so, the record on the replacement file is copied
```

GTR,Ifn
Ifn_ Logical file name of the file to be
searched. The default file name is OLD.
|fn}2\mathrm{ Logical file name of the file to which selected records are to be written. The default file name is LGO.
directives Directives identifying the records to be copied. More than one directive can appear, separated by commas. Directive format can be:

| REL/name,-name 2 | Name of the record <br> or interval of records <br> to be copied. Only <br> type REL is shown. |
| :--- | :--- |
| REL/* | All records of type <br> REL are to be copied <br> to the file Ifn |

```

Figure 6-16. GTR Control Statement Format

COPYL, \(\mathrm{Ifn} n_{1}, \mathrm{lfn}_{2}, \mathrm{lfn}_{3}\), lastrec,opts.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) Logical file name of the existing file to be maintained. The default file name is OLD.

Ifn \(_{2}\) Logical file name of the file containing new binary records to be added or new versions of binary records that are to replace existing records of the same name. The default file name is LGO.

Ifn \({ }_{3}\) Logical file name of the updated version of \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\). The default file name is NEW.
lastrec Name of the last record on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) that is to be processed. If this parameter is omitted, all records on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) are processed.
opts Characters R or A or both, which specify processing options:

R Rewind \(I f n_{1}\) and \(I f n_{3}\) before processing
A Add all records from \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) that do not match the type and name of a record on \(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\).
instead. It does not matter what order records exist on the replacement file in relation to the records on the old file, because COPYL manipulates the replacement file as necessary to process all of its records. If a partition boundary is encountered on the old file, copying stops. Copying might stop sooner if the COPYL statement has a nonblank fourth (lastrec) parameter. If the fourth parameter specifies the name of a record on the old file, COPYL stops processing after that record is copied to the new file.

If, after all records on the replacement file have been substituted for records of the same name, unprocessed records remain on the replacement file, COPYL checks the A parameter to determine their disposition. If the \(A\) parameter has been specified, uncopied records on the replacement file are copied to the output file; but if the A parameter has been omitted, uncopied records are ignored. By this technique, new records always become the last records of the new file. The new file is rewound or left at its current position, depending on the \(R\) parameter of the COPYL control statement.

\section*{UPDATE SOURCE FILE MAINTENANCE}

UPDATE is a utility that allows card images to be stored on mass storage without sacrificing the ability to change those cards. In fact, UPDATE is specifically designed for maintaining or updating card image files; it cannot be used for binary files.

Two types of operations can be performed by UPDATE. The first is called a creation run; the second is called a correction run. They are diagrammed in figures 6-18 and 6-19.


Figure 6-18. UPDATE Program Library Creation Run


Figure 6-19. UPDATE Program Library Correction Run

The format in which the source lines are maintained is called a program library. The creation run creates the program library from a file of card images. A program library cannot be directly altered; however, during a correction run, a modified version of the program library can be written to another file. In this case, the original version is known as an old program library, and the modified version is known as the new program library. Both of these files are in UPDATE format, which is not suitable as input to a compiler or assembler. Therefore, a third file, known as the compile file, can be produced during either a creation or correction run. The compile file consists of specified portions of the program library, restored to their original format.

To ensure unique identification of the cards in an UPDATE file, three units are used: deck, correction set, and card. A deck is a group of cards identified by a DECK directive. Since no group smaller than a deck can be written to the compile file, the FORTRAN programmer should ensure that only program units to be used together should be in the same deck. Each card in a deck is identified uniquely as follows:

\section*{name.seqnum}
where name is the name given to the deck, and seqnum is the order of the card within the deck.

A correction set is a group of text cards and directives introduced during a correction run by an IDENT directive. If a card is added to a deck as part of a correction set, it is identified by the correction set name rather than by the deck name. The form of identification is as follows:
ident.seqnum
where ident is the name of the correction set, and seqnum is the order of the card within the set.

UPDATE requires an input stream during its execution. The input stream consists of two types of cards:

Text cards of the source programs
Directives to provide detailed instructions for UPDATE.
These cards are interspersed in the input stream. Several input streams can be used in a single run, but this section assumes only one is used. A run is all operations on a program library that result from a single call to UPDATE.

\section*{UPDATE DIRECTIVES}

The directives for UPDATE specify detailed processing. A directive must begin with a master control character in column 1 , with the name of the directive following immediately. Any number of blanks, or a comma, can separate the directive name from the directive parameters. No other blanks are allowed within the directive. No terminating punctuation should appear.

The directives shown in table 6-5 are limited to those that create a program library and perform insertions and deletions by individual cards, decks, or correction sets. More than two dozen other directives exist. See the UPDATE Reference Manual for a full description of all UPDATE processing.

\section*{UPDATE CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The UPDATE control statement shown in figure 6-20 is limited to the parameters required to create a program library and use it as described in this section. More than two dozen parameters exist, nevertheless, to control output listing contents, change the file from random to sequential format, merge file contents, and change the characteristics of input or output files.

\section*{CREATION RUN}

A creation run is the original conversion of a card file to a mass storage file of card images called a program library. During the creation run, UPDATE examines each card, compresses blank columns to minimize space occupied by the card image, and assigns a unique identifier to the card. Each card receives an identifier that identifies the deck it belongs to and its sequence number within that deck. The card identifier is a permanent one: no other card throughout the history of the file will receive the same identifier. The format of the card identifier is:

\section*{deck.seqnum}
where deck is a one through nine character deck name, and seqnum is a decimal number 1 through 131071 assigned by UPDATE.

\section*{Decks}

A deck, in UPDATE terminology, is a grouping of cards made in response to programmer instructions specified by a DECK directive. A DECK directive specifies a name to be associated with all the cards that follow it in the input stream until a deck-ending directive (DECK, COMDECK) or the end of the input stream occurs. UPDATE decks can be arbitrary designations, but for programmer convenience each routine that can be separately compiled is usually given a separate deck name. A group of routines often forms a single deck when recompilation of one routine forces recompilation of the others. Routines GETACC, INTERP, and GENTAB, for example, could be created as a program library with any number of decks, but three decks allow each routine to be considered independent of the others.

A deck is the only unit that can be extracted from the program library and written to a file (called the compile file) in a form corresponding to the original card or card image.

Decks written to the program library can be regular decks or common decks. These differ in that common decks can be called from within a regular deck. By using a common deck, a programmer can ensure that a set of statements required in several routines never deviates among routines. One physical copy of the statements exists as a common deck, but that common deck can be inserted into any number of decks when these decks are extracted from the program

TABLE 6-5. UPDATE DIRECTIVES
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline Directive Format & Use \\
\hline *CALL deck & Write a common deck to the compile file. \\
\hline *COMDECK deck & Define a common deck. \\
\hline *COMPILE deck \(_{1}, \ldots .\). deck \(_{n}\) & Write the specified decks to the compile file and new program library. \\
\hline *COMPILE deck \(_{1}\). deck \(_{2}\) & Write the inclusive range of decks to these files. \\
\hline *DECK deck & Define a deck to be included in the program library. \\
\hline *DELETE ident \({ }_{1}\),seqnum, ident \({ }_{2}\),seqnum & Deactivate the inclusive range of cards. \\
\hline *DELETE ident.seqnum & Deactivate the specified card. \\
\hline *IDENT idname & Define a correction set. \\
\hline *INSERT ident.seqnum & Write subsequent text cards after the card identified. \\
\hline *PURDECK deck \(_{1}, \ldots\), deck \(_{n}\) & Permanently remove the specified decks from the program library. \\
\hline *PURDECK deck \(_{1}\). \({ }^{\text {deck }}{ }_{2}\) & Permanently remove the inclusive range of decks \\
\hline *PURGE idname \(_{1}, \ldots\), idname \({ }_{n}\) & Permanently remove the specified correction sets from the program library. \\
\hline *PURGE idname \(_{1}\). idname \(_{2}\) & Permanently remove the inclusive range of correction sets. \\
\hline *YANK idname \(_{1}, \ldots\), idname \(_{\mathrm{n}}\) & Temporarily remove the specified correction sets from the program library. \\
\hline *YANK idname \(_{1}\). idname \(_{2}\) & Temporarily remove the inclusive range of correction sets. \\
\hline *YANKDECK deck \(_{1}, \ldots\), deck \(_{n}\) & Temporarily deactivate the decks specified. \\
\hline */ comment & Copy text to the listable output file. \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
library. A typical use of a common deck involves a set of DATA statements, COMMON statements, and a DIMENSION statement applicable to several routines, or a set of useful arithmetic statement functions. Assume the following statements:

COMMON /BLOCKA/ ARYAA (50), ARYBB (26) DATA ARYAA/ 1,2. . .50/, ARYBB/1HA, 1HB, . . . , 1HZ/

These statements could be made into a common deck callable from subroutines SUB1 and SUB2 in decks SUB1 and SUB2 by using the cards shown in figure 6-2l.
```

UPDATE,I=|f\mp@subsup{n}{1}{},P=|f\mp@subsup{n}{2}{},N=|f\mp@subsup{n}{3}{},C=If\mp@subsup{n}{4}{},\mathrm{ mode.}
Ifn1 Logical file name of the file containing the input
stream. The default file name is INPUT.
Ifn}2\mathrm{ Logical file name of the file containing an exist-
ing program library to be used or corrected.
The default file name is OLDPL.
Ifn}3\mathrm{ Logical file name of the file to which a new
program library is to be written. The default file
name is NEWPL. N=0 suppresses new program
library generation.
Ifn4 Logical file name of the file to which decks are
to be written in the original format. The default
file name is COMPILE. C=0 suppresses compile
file generation.
mode UPDATE mode, which affects the decks written
to the compile file and to the new program
library:
Q Only decks specified by COMPILE
directives are written
F All decks in the old program library
are written whether they are modified
or not
omitted All decks are written to new program
library; corrected decks and decks
specified by COMPILE directives are
written to compile file

```

Figure 6-20. UPDATE Control Statement Format


Figure 6-21. Input Stream Cards

In response to the cards shown in figure 6-21, one physical copy of the COMMON statement and the DATA statement exist in the program library. The copy of deck SUBI in the program library includes a directive *CALL ARYDEF. As a result of the CALL directive, any copy of the deck SUBI written to the compile file includes the COMMON and DATA statements between the statement SUBROUTINE SUBI and the READ statement shown above; that is, subroutine SUBl would expand to:

SUBROUTINE SUBI
COMMON /BLOCKA/. . .
DATA ARYAA/. . .
READ. . .

\section*{Sample Creation Run}

The sample job deck shown in figure 6-22 illustrates the general structure of a job that creates a program library from a file of source language programs. This example uses the program of figure 4-7, with main program GETACC and subroutines GENTAB and INTERP.

The UPDATE control statement shown in figure 6-22 indicates that the directives supplying detailed instructions for UPDATE are part of the job deck, with the default I=INPUT. Directives in the figure have these functions:

The DECK directive specifies a deck name for the cards that follow. UPDATE assigns a sequence number within the deck for each card.

The cards of source language programs become text in the program library.

Output from UPDATE includes the program library with three decks and a listing that shows the results of execution. The program library is saved as a permanent file with the name PL2.

The call to the FORTRAN compiler is made in figure 6-22 in order to provide a listing of the card identifiers assigned by UPDATE. These identifiers must be known to the programmer before cards can be added to or deleted from a program library through a correction run. The listing can be made in the same job that creates the library or in any subsequent job. Part of the listing from the compiler call is shown in figure 6-23. The text cards added to the program library are also listed as part of the UPDATE output.
```

job statement
ACCOUNT control statement
REQUEST,NEWPL,*PF. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
UPDATE,I=INPUT,N=NEWPL,C=COMPILE.
CATALOG,NEWPL,PL2,ID=MINE. NOS/BE,SCOPE 2
SAVE,NEWPL=PL2. NOS
FTN,I=COMPILE,R=0,TS, PW=72.
7/8/9
*DECK DGETACC
GETACC source program
*DECK DGENTAB
GENTAB source program
*DECK DINTERP
INTERP source program
6/7/8/9

```

Figure 6-22. Sample Program Library Creation

\section*{CORRECTION RUN}

A correction run is a run that uses an existing program library rather than one that creates a program library. During a correction run, new cards can be added and existing cards can be deleted. Changes can be made on the basis of individual cards, a range of cards, or all the cards of a particular correction set identifier. These changes become part of a new program library. Any run that simply extracts a deck from the existing program library and copies it to the compile file, such as shown in figure 6-24, is also a correction run.

Any correction run that makes a change to a program library must begin with an IDENT directive that gives a name to all the following changes. For the rest of the life of the program library, any card that is added to the library is identified by a card identifier that has the format:

\section*{ident.seqnum}
where ident is the correction set identifier, and seqnum is a number assigned by UPDATE.

\section*{Sample Correction Runs}

The sample job decks in figures 6-25 and 6-26 illustrate correction runs. The examples differ in that the first deck uses an existing program library, but does not update the entire program library as the second example does. Both examples presume the existence of the program library created in figure 6-22 and cataloged as a permanent file with the name PL2.

The example in figure 6-25 illustrates a procedure useful when changes are to be made to an existing routine. The input stream contains directives that add a new card to the deck DGETACC. In this particular example, the card added is merely a comment for illustration purposes, but could have easily been many cards that substantially change the


Figure 6-24. Using a Routine on a Program Library


Figure 6-23. Listing of Card Identifiers
program GETACC. In order to be sure that the new cards did not introduce an error into a successfully running routine, the entire routine is then extracted from the program library and compiled. Once the program has executed successfully, UPDATE should be run once more, this time writing a new program library and making it a permanent file.

A new program library can be written and preserved as a permanent file each time UPDATE executes. If errors are subsequently found, another correction run is needed to change the newly inserted cards or to delete erroneous cards. Each subsequent correction run must specify a unique correction set identifier, and as a result, one fix might ultimately appear in the program library with several different correction sets as card identifiers. Consequently, the technique of trial runs is often useful.

The UPDATE control statement of figure 6-25 contains only a \(Q\) parameter, which instructs UPDATE to write only decks identified on EOMPILE directives to the compile file, in the original format. When this parameter is used, no new program library is generated when the N parameter is omitted.

Directives in figure 6-25 have the following functions:
1. The IDENT directive provides a correction set identifier name. All subsequent cards in the input stream, until a PURGE directive or an IDENT directive appears, are part of the set and are sequenced by UPDATE within that set.
```

job statement
ACCOUNT control statement
ATTACH,OLDPL,PL2,ID=MINE. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
GET,OLDPL=PL2. NOS
UPDATE,Q.
FTN,B=0,I=COMPILE,TS.
7/8/9
*IDENT TRYIT
*INSERT DGETACC. }1
C.C.C. THIS IS NEW, INSERTED BY TRYIT .C.C.C
*DELETE DGETACC.7,DGETACC. }
*COMPILE DGETACC
6/7/8/9

```

Figure 6-25. Sample Use of Program Library
```

job statement
ACCOUNT control statement
ATTACH,OLDPL,PL2,ID=MINE. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
GET,OLDPL=PL2. NOS
REQUEST,PL3,*PF. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
UPDATE,F,N=PL3,C=0.
CATALOG,PL3,ID=MINE. NOS/BE, SCOPE 2
SAVE,PL3. NOS
PURGE,OLDPL.
7/8/9
*IDENT TRYIT
*INSERT DGETACC. }1
C.C.C THIS IS NEW ...
*DELETE DGETACC.7,DGETACC.9
6/7/8/9

```

Figure 6-26. Sample Correction Run Creating a New Program Library
2. The INSERT directive identifies the location at which following text cards are to be inserted; namely, after the card identified as DGETACC.18.
3. The card that begins with C is not recognized by UPDATE as one of its directives. Any card that is not recognized as an UPDATE directive is treated as a text card to be inserted.
4. The DELETE directive causes three comment cards to be removed from the deck. When two card identifiers are separated by a comma as shown in the figure, a range of cards is indicated. Both cards specified, and all those between, are deleted.
5. The COMPILE directive ensures that deck DGETACC is written to the compile file and the new program library.

The FORTRAN compiler call tests whether the corrected routine compiles correctly. Because execution is not planned, \(\mathrm{B}=0\) is specified to suppress executable binary code. The TS parameter calls for quick compilation with little optimization. The source for compilation is the file COMPILE, the default file name when a \(C\) parameter is not specified on the UPDATE call. The compile file contains only deck DGETACC (the main program GETACC), because \(Q\) mode is specified on the UPDATE control statement. No decks appear on the compile file in the absence of COMPILE directives under \(Q\) mode.

The source listing produced by the FORTRAN compiler is shown, in part, in figure 6-27. Notice that the deleted cards do not appear on the compile file, although they still exist on the program library and can be reactivated by a YANK directive that references the correction set identifier. The new card added appears with a card identifier corresponding to the correction set identifier and sequence number in that set.

In the second correction run example (figure 6-26), the changes made to the existing program library are incorporated into a new program library.

The UPDATE control statement, in the absence of a \(P\) parameter, assumes the existing program library is on the file OLDPL. The new program library is to be written to the file PL3. Because the changes to the program library were checked out in the previous example, there is no need for the compile file and it is suppressed by the \(\mathrm{C}=0\) parameter. The new program library, PL3, is made a permanent file before the old program library is purged. If the CATALOG or SAVE control statement fails for any reason, the old program library is preserved.

The UPDATE mode is specified as \(F\). As a result, all decks on the old program library are written to the new program library. If the \(Q\) mode was specified, only the deck DGETACC would have been written to the new library.

The PURGE control statement eliminates the previous version of the program library.

\section*{UPDATE Listing}

Figure 6-28 shows the output listing from figure 6-25. Information printed includes the following:
1. Identification of the run as a creation run (CREATION RUN) or correction run (OLDPL).
2. A copy of the input stream.
3. The full text of cards modified, with the card identifiers (3a) and an indication whether the card was inserted (I), deleted (D), or added as a result of a YANK directive (A).
4. A list of correction set identifiers. Notice that all deck names are also considered to be correction set names. The order of identifiers is significant when the YANK or PURGE directives specify a range of identifiers, because the range specified must be in the same chronological order in which the identifiers were inserted into the program library.
5. A list of decks already on the old program library, plus any decks added in the current run. All program libraries contain a deck YANK \(\$ \$ \$\) that is used internally by UPDATE to track YANK operations.
6. A list of decks written to the new program library. The UPDATE mode and COMPILE directives control the decks written to the new program library.
7. A list of decks written to the compile file. The UPDATE mode and COMPILE directives control the decks written to the new program library. The decks on the compile file can be compiled by FORTRAN Extended.
```

        PROGRAM GETACC (INPUT, TAPE4=INPUT, OUTPUT)
                        gGETACC
        OIMENSIJN TIME(100), ATAB(100)
    =
        N=0
        NMAX = 1:00
        jall GENTAG (NMAX, TIME, ATAB, NTIMES, IER)
        IF (IER .NE. O) GO TO 900
    2
    C....read a caro containing a time value
    %
100 PEAD (4,*) T
IF (FOF(4) .NE. 0) GO TO 900
c
S....INTERP INTERPOLATES FOR ACCELERATION
C.O.C. THIS IS NEW, INSERTED BY TRYIT .C.C.C
C
CALL INTERP (NTIMES, TIME, ATAB, T, ACC, IER)
IF IIER.NE. OI GOTO 100
DGETACC

```


After a FORTRAN program has been compiled, it must be put in the proper format and placed in memory before execution can take place. These functions are performed by an operating system utility called the loader. For NOS and NOS/BE, the loader is called the CYBER Loader; for SCOPE 2, the loader is called the SCOPE 2 Loader. These two loaders have many common features, and some incompatibilities, which are pointed out where necessary.

In the simplest type of loading, the binary object code for an executable program, consisting of a main program and its associated subprograms, is written to a file. The program is then loaded and executed by a control statement containing the name of the file (LGO is the default file name from a call to the FORTRAN Extended compiler). Use of more advanced features of the loader can provide the following advantages for the user:
- Reduction of field length requirements by dividing large programs into smaller portions that need not all be in memory at the same time. This can be accomplished with overlays or segments.
- Increased code modularity by grouping frequently used routines into libraries that can be referenced by more than one program. Creation of user libraries is described in section 6.
- Faster execution time for repeatedly executed programs by eliminating the necessity for relocation each time the program is executed.
- More information for program debugging by requesting a detailed load map.

Which loader features to use is a decision that can only be made based on the requirements of a given application. In particular, segments and overlays, while reducing field length requirements, can increase execution time because of the time required to move programs into and out of memory. Three types of loading are of particular interest to the FORTRAN user:
- Basic loading. This is accomplished through control statements, and consists of loading all the necessary object code into memory at the same time. This is the commonest type of loading, because most programs are small compared to the amount of central memory available.
- Segment loading. This is accomplished by the SEGLOAD control statement in conjunction with segmentation directives. Programs are divided into units called segments; the segments are linked into any number of tree structures. At execution time, when a segment not already in memory is required, it is loaded automatically.
- Overlay loading. This is accomplished by OVERLAY directives in the source program. Programs are divided into smaller units called overlays. At execution time, the overlays are loaded as specified by the user through the OVERLAY subroutine. Because overlays are fully described in the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual, they are not described further here.

Overlays and segments have comparative advantages and disadvantages. Segments provide more flexibility in the type of structure that can be constructed; overlay structure is restricted to a single tree. Furthermore, segments are loaded automatically, while overlays must be loaded explicitly. On the other hand, segmentation poses certain problems related to interprogram communication, especially for the FORTRAN user. (These problems are described below.) Also, overlays are generally faster to load than segments, and segments cannot be put into libraries.
Several processes take place for any kind of loading; one of these processes is relocation. When a program unit is compiled, the object code is produced in relocatable format. The addresses of variables and instructions are only temporary, and are defined relative to the beginning of the program unit, or of a common block. Before the program can be executed, the addresses must be made absolute; that is, defined relative to the beginning of the user's field length. Relocation is the function of the loader, and takes place in different ways depending on the type of load. One of the advantages of overlays and segmentation is that relocation is performed only once, reducing the time required for subsequent loads of the same program.

Another process that takes place during loading is the satisfaction of external references. An external reference is a reference by one program unit to an entry point in another program unit. In a FORTRAN program, external references include names of referenced subprograms, whether user-defined subprograms or library subprograms. In addition, input/output statements generate references to FORTRAN Common Library and Record Manager routines, as well as to the file information tables for all files used. Although the user is not concerned with these external references when specifying the simplest types of loads, some situations that can arise in more advanced types of loading require the user to be aware of the existence of these external references.

When a file is loaded, external references are satisfied by matching them with entry points on the file whenever possible. If unsatisfied externals remain after this process, they are satisfied by searching library files until a matching entry point is found. The library files associated with a job are called the library set. When the same entry point occurs on more than one file, or more than once on the same file, the loader must use the search order that has been established to determine which entry point to use to satisfy the external reference. The order in which libraries are searched is defined below, under Library Search Order.

\section*{BASIC LOADING}

A basic load is a load that does not involve dividing the object code into smaller units. All the object code for an execution is present in memory at the same time. A basic load is accomplished entirely through control statements, without the need for special loader directives or subroutine calls.
The control statements that define the processing for one complete load operation are referred to as a load sequence. The control statements in a load sequence are recognized by the system as loader control statements, and cannot be interrupted by any other control statements (except for

MAP and REDUCE). A load sequence ends with a completion statement (EXECUTE, NOGO, or a name call statement). The simplest example of a load sequence is a single name call statement (such as LGO).

When the first loader control statement is encountered, the loading process begins. This process involves the following sequence of events:

All control statements in the load sequence are read.
The control statements are processed in order.
Libraries are searched to satisfy externals.
Execution field length is determined.
The load map is written.
Program execution is initiated (unless the sequence is terminated by NOGO).

For execution of a FORTRAN program to begin, one and only one main program must be loaded. Additionally, labeled and blank common blocks and any number of subprograms can be loaded. The main program need not be loaded first. Normally, the only subprograms loaded are those referred to by the main program or by other loaded subprograms; however, other subprograms can be explicitly loaded by the SLOAD control statement.

Because the actual arrangement of code in memory is determined by the operating system capability called the Common Memory Manager (CMM), the order in which subprograms and common blocks occur in memory cannot be determined in advance. Even when the user knows the order in which code is loaded, it is not good practice to make a program dependent on this ordering. In particular, the practice of over-indexing blank common on the assumption that blank common is loaded last is not necessarily valid when CMM manages memory, and it might lead to incorrect results when the optimizing facility is used.

\section*{NAME CALLSTATEMENT}

The name call statement (figure 7-1) always terminates a load sequence and causes execution to begin. The other actions taken depend on whether the name is the name of a file or of an entry point.

If the name is a file name, the file is rewound and its contents loaded into memory. If the file contains end-of-partition boundaries, only the first partition is loaded.

If the name is not a file name, the loader assumes that it is an entry point name. (This feature is not supported under NOS.) The loader searches the library set until a matching entry point is found, and loads the program
name \(\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{n}\right)\)
name Logical file name of the file to be loaded and executed, or name of the main program to be loaded and executed.
p Alternate file names for execution time file name substitution

Figure 7-1. Name Call Statement Format
containing the entry point. In either case, the loader then satisfies all external references and begins execution.

The FORTRAN programmer must ensure that one and only one main program is loaded before execution begins.

The file name call is the commonest call and is usually used for the simple case in which the object code is written by default to the file LGO. The entry point name call is useful when a frequently executed program is kept on a library. In this case, the entry point used in the call is the name of the main program.

Parameters can be included on the name call statement. The parameters applicable to FORTRAN Extended are the print limit specification (described in the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual) and the alternate file name specification.

File name parameters on the name call statement are used to override the file names specified on the PROGRAM statement when the program was compiled; thus, an already compiled program can perform input/output on any file. The file name parameters are positional; the first parameter corresponds to the first file name in the PROGRAM statement, and so on. If a file name is to be substituted, but another file name to the left is to be unchanged, the parameter for the earlier file name is omitted (with the omission indicated by two adjacent commas). File equivalencing specifications in the PROGRAM statement are not counted in marking position, nor is the PL parameter in the name call statement (as defined in the FORTRAN Extended Reference Manual).

Examples of alternate file name specification are shown in figure 7-2.

\section*{EXECUTE CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The EXECUTE control statement (figure 7-3) completes the loading process and begins execution. EXECUTE can only be used when the main program has already been loaded in the same load sequence. Before beginning execution, EXECUTE satisfies any external references not already satisfied, writes the load map, and sets the execution field length. EXECUTE is used to complete a load sequence and begin execution whenever loading is more complicated than that performed by a simple name call statement. In particular, EXECUTE is used whenever individual program units have been loaded from a file by means of SLOAD.

\section*{SLOAD CONTROL STATEMENT}

The SLOAD control statement (figure 7-4) explicitly loads only the named program units from the named file. It does not load programs to satisfy external references; this can be accomplished by an EXECUTE control statement in the same load sequence. (EXECUTE only satisfies references to programs in the library set.)

Although SLOAD can be used to load program units from a single file, a more likely use is to load program units from several files. SLOAD is the simplest way to load routines from more than one non-library file, because a name call statement can only load routines from one file. When SLOAD is used, the user must be sure to explicitly load all needed routines that are not on library files, since there is no other way to satisfy external references.

The following load sequence explicitly loads a main program (MAIN) and four subprograms (SUB1 through SUB4) from two different files, and initiates execution:
```

SLOAD(FILE1,MAIN,SUB1,SUB2)
SLOAD(FILE2,SUB3,SUB4)
EXECUTE.

```

\section*{LOAD CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The LOAD control statement (figure 7-5) loads the entire contents of a file. Loading stops when an end-of-partition or end-of-information is encountered. External references are not satisfied.

\section*{Example 1}

\section*{PROGRAM statement:}

PROGRAM FOIST (INPUT, OUTPUT, TAPE3)
Name call statement:
LGO(FIRST, SECOND)
File names actually used:
FIRST
SECOND
TAPE3

\section*{Example 2}

\section*{PROGRAM statement:}

PROGRAM NEXT (TAPE1,TAPE2,INPUT,OUTPUT)
Name call statement:
BIN(, , FILEX)
File names actually used:
TAPE1
TAPE2
INPUT
FILEX

\section*{Example 3}

\section*{PROGRAM statement:}

PROGRAM LAST (INPUT,OUTPUT,TAPE1= *INPUT,TAPE2=OUTPUT)

Name call statement:
PROG(,AAA,BBB)
File names actually used:
INPUT (also used for references to TAPE1)
AAA (also used for references to TAPE2)

Parameter BBB is ignored because it does not correspond to any file specification.

LOAD is more convenient than SLOAD when the entire contents of more than one file are to be loaded. As usual, one and only one main program must be loaded.

\section*{NOGO CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The NOGO control statement (figure 7-6) is similar to the EXECUTE statement, except that execution is not initiated. The loader satisfies external references, generates absolute addresses and writes the load map, and then writes the absolute binary code to the named file. This file can subsequently be loaded and executed.

\section*{EXECUTE \(\left(, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}\right)\)}
p Optional file name specification, identical in format and effect to the same specification in the name call statement.

A comma must occur between the left parenthesis and the first file name unless the entry point parameter (discussed in the loader reference manual) is used.

Figure 7-3. EXECUTE Control Statement Format

SLOAD (Ifn, name \({ }_{1}, \ldots\), name \(_{n}\) )
Ifn Logical file name of the file from which to load. The file is or is not rewound, depending on the absence or presence of the no rewind indicator:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Ifn & The file is rewound before loading \\
Ifn/NR & \begin{tabular}{l} 
The file is not rewound before \\
loading
\end{tabular}
\end{tabular}
name. Name of the program unit to be loaded.

Figure 7-4. SLOAD Control Statement Format

LOAD (Ifn \(n_{1}, \ldots\), Ifn \(\left._{n}\right)\)
Ifn Logical file name of the file to be loaded. The file is or is not rewound, depending on the absence or presence of the no rewind indicator:

Ifn The file is rewound before loading
Ifn/NR The file is not rewound before loading

Figure 7-5. LOAD Control Statement Format

\section*{NOGO(Ifn)}

Ifn Name of the file on which absolute binary is to be written.

Figure 7-2. Alternate File Name Examples

The primary use of NOGO is for a program that is to be executed several times. By saving the absolute binary on a permanent file, the time required to load the program in subsequent jobs is reduced.

The following control statements compile a program and write the relocatable binary code to LGO; LGO is then loaded and written as an absolute program to the file BINS, which is subsequently executed and also saved as a permanent file for future execution.
```

REQUEST,BINS,*PF. (NOS/BE,SCOPE 2)
FTN.
LOAD(LGO)
NOGO(BINS)
BINS.
CATALOG,BINS, ... (NOS/BE, SCOPE 2)
or
SAVE(BINS) (NOS)

```

\section*{LIBRARY CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The LIBRARY control statement (figure 7-7) establishes a global library set to be used for satisfying external references. It cannot be used within a load sequence. The library set established remains in effect (regardless of any loading procedures that take place) until another LIBRARY control statement is encountered. The second LIBRARY control statement either establishes a new global library set or (if it is specified with no parameters) deletes the global library set altogether; LIBRARY control statements are not cumulative under NOS/BE and NOS. Under SCOPE 2, LIBRARY control statements can be cumulative; see the SCOPE 2 Loader Reference Manual.

Libraries can be created through the EDITLIB utility under NOS/BE, the LIBEDT utility under SCOPE 2, or the LIBGEN utility under NOS. These utilities are discussed in section 6.

\section*{LDSET CONTROLSTATEMENT}

The LDSET control statement (figure 7-8) performs several different types of operations. Presetting unused memory, selectively loading or omitting routines, setting the default rewind indicator, and controlling the load map are all possible through LDSET. The loader reference manuals describe these capabilities; only two parameters are described here.

The LIB option of the LDSET statement establishes a local library set, which remains in effect only during the load sequence of which the LDSET statement is a part. Establishing a local library set has no effect on the global library set. LDSET can be specified with the LIB option more than once in a load sequence; if LIB is specified with no file names, the local library set is cleared.

LIBRARY \(\left(1 \mathrm{If}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{Ifn}_{n}\right)\)
Ifn Logical file name of a library-format file to become part of the global library set. Maximum number is 2 user and 2 system libraries, 1 user and 13 system libraries, or 0 user and 24 system libraries. If LIBRARY is specified with no parameters, the global library set is cleared.

The ERR option is used to change the default conditions under which a job is aborted if loader errors occur. The most likely parameter to be used is ALL; this provides that nonfatal errors, as well as catastrophic and fatal errors, abort the job. In the absence of this option, a program might begin execution and then abort because of a condition diagnosed by the loader as nonfatal. This is particularly undesirable for a program that takes a long time to execute, or that changes the contents of files in a manner difficult to reconstruct. In situations like this, the ALL option catches the error condition before the job starts executing. The option can also be used to simplify debugging by aborting the job at the earliest possible point.

Although most nonfatal loader errors are not likely to affect program execution, some can have adverse effects. For example, the existence of an unsatisfied external is a nonfatal error. Whether this would cause the program to abort depends on whether the external is actually referenced during execution.

\section*{LIBRARY SEARCH ORDER}

In the process of satisfying externals or locating an entry point for the name call statement, ambiguity can arise when the same entry point or program name occurs twice within the libraries available to the job step. For this reason, a rigorous search order has been established so that it is always possible to determine how each external is satisfied.

The search order for external references is as follows:
Global library set
Local library set
SYSLIB (the default system library); NOS, NOS/BE only
The search order for the name call statement is as follows:
Local files
Global library set
Local library set
NUCLEUS (system library; NOS/BE, SCOPE 2 only)

LDSET,LIB \(=1 f n_{1} / \ldots / / f_{n}, E R R=p\).
Ifn Logical file name of the file to become part of the local library set.
p Specifies the type of loader error for which a job is to be aborted. The default is an installation option. Must be one of the following:

ALL Job is aborted for catastrophic, fatal, and nonfatal errors
FATAL Job is aborted for catastrophic and fatal errors

NONE Job is aborted only for catastrophic errors

Figure 7-7. LIBRARY Control Statement Format

Within each library set, libraries are searched in the order that they were defined.

If the loading of programs from libraries produces new external references that must be satisfied from the library set, these references are satisfied the next time the appropriate entry point is encountered. If the end of all the library sets is encountered, and unsatisfied references remain, the search is begun again from the beginning. This circular search continues until either all references have been satisfied, or until the entire library set has been searched once with no new satisfaction of references.

\section*{FIELD LENGTH CONTROL}

The amount of memory needed to execute a job step is normally calculated and requested by the loader. However, the user can control this procedure by using the CM parameter on the job statement, as well as the REDUCE and RFL control statements.

The format of the REDUCE control statement is shown in figure 7-9; the format of the RFL control statement is shown in figure 7-10. The effect of the CM parameter depends on the operating system:
- Under NOS/BE, the CM parameter establishes a maximum field length available to the job, and assigns that field length to the job initially. This parameter should not in general be used, since it inhibits dynamic adjustment of field length.
- Under SCOPE 2, the CM parameter can only be overridden by a request from within a program; this can occur during a FORTRAN compilation. Otherwise, its action is the same as under NOS/BE.
- Under NOS, the CM parameter can be overridden by the MFL control statement (see the Loader Reference Manual). Otherwise, it establishes a maximum value for field length.

\section*{To inhibit reduce mode:}

REDUCE(-) NOS
REDUCE(OFF) NOS/BE INTERCOM
(CM parameter or RFL under NOS/BE batch, SCOPE 2)

To restore reduce mode:
REDUCE. NOS/BE batch, NOS, and SCOPE 2

REDUCE(ON) NOS/BE INTERCOM

Figure 7-9. REDUCE Control Statement Format

RFL( n )
\(n \quad\) Number of words of central memory field length, in octal.

Under NOS/BE and SCOPE 2, all jobs begin in reduce mode in the absence of the CM parameter. Under NOS, all jobs begin in reduce mode regardless of the CM parameter. In reduce mode, the loader sets the field length for every job step before execution begins; therefore, only the amount of memory actually needed is allocated. If a REDUCE(OFF) control statement (NOS/BE INTERCOM), a REDUCE(-) control statement (NOS), or an RFL control statement (NOS/BE batch and SCOPE 2) is encountered, reduce mode is turned off. In the case of an RFL control statement, the field length specified becomes the execution field length until another RFL control statement is encountered or reduce mode is reestablished by a REDUCE control statement (NOS/BE batch, NOS, and SCOPE 2) or a REDUCE(ON) control statement (NOS/BE INTERCOM). Under NOS, REDUCE(-) must be preceded or followed by an RFL control statement because otherwise the field length is reduced to zero.

FORTRAN users are not usually required to manage their own field length because the compiler tries to assure that adequate field length is always available; however, under some circumstances, compilation speed can be improved by providing an RFL control statement prior to compilation. This is particularly true when compiling with the TS option or the OPT=2 option. Although both these compilation modes control their own field length by requesting more central memory when necessary, providing an initial value greater than the default can reduce compilation time.

An RFL control statement does not improve execution time of a compiled program, because execution field length is calculated by the loader. Reduce mode should be reestablished before execution begins.

\section*{BASIC LOAD EXAMPLES}

The control statements shown in figure 7-11 illustrate the use of global and local library sets. The example applies to NOS and NOS/BE; under SCOPE 2, there is no default system library.

When the file LGOl is loaded, the library set is empty except for the default system library, SYSLIB; therefore, SYSLIB is the only library searched to satisfy externals for LGO1.

LGO1.
LIBRARY(ALGOL)
LDSET(LIB=USER/AX)
LGO2.
LGO3.
LIBRARY.
LGO4.

Figure 7-10. RFL Control Statement Format

The LIBRARY(ALGOL) control statement specifies that the global library set is to consist of ALGOL. The LDSET(LIB=USER/AX) loader control statement specifies that the current load sequence is to use local libraries named USER and AX; thus, when the file LGO2 is loaded, the libraries ALGOL, USER, AX, and SYSLIB are searched (in that order) to satisfy externals.

When LGO3 is loaded, only ALGOL and SYSLIB are searched to satisfy externals, because USER and AX were local to the load sequence completed by LGO2. The next LIBRARY statement clears the global library set, so that the only library searched to satisfy externals for LGO4 is SYSLIB.

As another example, consider compilation of a program with an OPT=2 parameter on the compiler call. Assume the following message was listed in the output listing:

\section*{\(63000 B\) CM USED}

After the user made some minor modifications, the program was recompiled and executed with the following control statements:
```

RFL,63000.
FTN,OPT=2.
REDUCE.

```
LGO.

The RFL control statement eliminates the necessity for the compiler to request additional field length. The REDUCE control statement restores reduce mode so that no more field length than necessary is used for execution of the program.

\section*{SEGMENT LOADING}

Segmentation allows the user to decrease the execution time field length requirements of a program by dividing it into smaller portions called segments, which are loaded and unloaded as needed, rather than all being in memory at the same time, as for a basic load. Segments (each of which contains one or more program units) are grouped into structures called trees, and the trees are grouped into one or more levels. One particular segment, called the root segment, stays in memory at all times.

Segments are built whenever a SEGLOAD control statement is encountered. The building takes place according to the segment directives provided by the user. The segmented program is saved on a file and can be executed in the same load sequence, or at a later time.

Execution of a segmented program always begins with the root segment. A segmented FORTRAN program contains one and only one main program, which must be in the root segment. Whenever a subprogram is referenced, the segment containing the subprogram is automatically loaded. This segment might overwrite a previously loaded segment.

Compared to overlays, which is the other method of dividing large programs into smaller units, segmentation provides several advantages. The structures that can be created are more varied; whereas overlays allow only one tree with at most three levels of branching, segments can be grouped into any number of independent levels, each containing any number of trees. Furthermore, segments can be built from previously compiled programs; with overlays, the structure must be specified at the time the program is compiled. Finally, loading of segments is automatic and takes place whenever a program unit in a segment is referenced; overlays must be loaded explicitly.

Segments have some disadvantages, however, especially for the FORTRAN user. For one thing, segmented programs cannot be put into libraries. Also, the treatment of labeled common blocks requires the FORTRAN user to explicitly specify the blocks used by the FORTRAN Common Library (as explained below). However, neither of these disadvantages should be considered as a conclusive objection to the use of segmentation.

One additional disadvantage applies both to segments and overlays: the increase in execution time resulting from moving programs into and out of memory during execution. Whether this outweighs the savings in field length provided by these two methods can only be decided based on a specific application.

\section*{SEGMENTED PROGRAM STRUCTURE}

A segmented program consists of one or more levels, each of which contains one or more trees.

A tree consists of a root segment and zero or more branch segments, each of which in turn can have zero or more branches of its own. An example of a tree is shown in figure 7-12; \(A\) is the root segment and \(B\) and \(C\) are its branches. C in turn has one branch, D.

Trees can be grouped into levels. The lowest level can only contain one tree; the root segment of this tree is the root segment of the whole program. An example of a segmented program containing three levels is shown in figure 7-13. The first level contains one tree, the second level contains two trees (one of these trees contains only one segment), and the third level contains one tree. Segment \(A\) is the root segment of the whole structure.

If segment \(y\) is in the same tree as segment \(x\) and can be reached from \(x\) by branching upward, \(x\) is called the ancestor of \(y\). For example, in figure 7-13, segments \(A\) and \(C\) are ancestors of segment \(D\). Neither \(B\) nor \(C\) is an ancestor of the other.

The structure of a segmented program determines which segments can be in memory at the same time. Such segments are called compatible, and fall into two categories:
- Segments in different levels, which are always compatible
- Segments in the same level, which are compatible only if they are in the same tree, and only if one of the segments is an ancestor of the other segment. In figure 7-13, \(C\) is compatible with \(D\) but not with \(B ; E\) and \(F\) are not compatible.

Any two segments have a nearest common ancestor, determined as follows:
- If the segments are in different trees, the root segment of the whole structure is their nearest common ancestor.


Figure 7-12. Sample Tree Structure
- If one of the segments is the ancestor of the other segment in the same tree, it is the nearest common ancestor of the two segments.
- If the segments are in the same tree, but neither is the ancestor of the other, then the nearest common ancestor is the highest segment from which both segments can be reached by branching. Another way to put this is that the nearest common ancestor is the root of the smallest subtree containing both segments.

This process is repeated for more than two segments. For example, in figure \(7-13\), segment \(A\) is the nearest common ancestor of segments \(H\) and \(G\), segment \(C\) is the nearest common ancestor of segments \(C\) and \(D\) (note that a segment can be its own ancestor), and segment \(H\) is the nearest common ancestor of segments I and J.

\section*{BUILDING A SEGMENTED PROGRAM}

When a SEGLOAD control statement is encountered, the loader creates a segmented program. All the control statements in the same load sequence as the SEGLOAD control statement are used in the segmentation process. However, these statements take on a different meaning than in a basic load.

Instead of causing loading, LOAD, SLOAD, and the name call statement specify files (or programs on files, in the case of SLOAD) from which relocatable program units and common blocks are to be read during the creation of segments. EXECUTE and the name call statement signal the end of the load sequence and the execution of the segmented program, but execution always begins at the main entry point in the root segment. This entry point can come from any file, not just the file specified in the name call statement. NOGO terminates the load sequence and causes the segmented program to be written to the file specified in the SEGLOAD control statement; the program is not executed. No file name can be specified in the NOGO control statement in a segmented load.


Figure 7-13. Segmented Program with Three Levels

For example, a load sequence consists of the following control statements:
```

LOAD(ABC)
SLOAD(DEF,GHI,JKL,MNO)
SEGLOAD, B=PQR.
LDSET(LIB=MYLIB)
LGO.

```

All program units from the files ABC and LGO are included in the segmented program, and the program units GHI, JKL, and MNO from the file DEF are also included. External references are satisifed from these files, from the global library set, and from the local library MYLIB. After the segmented program is built, the binaries are written to the file PQR, the root segment is loaded, and execution begins at the main entry point in the root segment.

To build a segmented program, the loader collects all the information in the control statements in the load sequence and in the segment directives, and then builds the program based on that information. When building segments, the loader reads program units from the load files and divides them into fixed programs and movable programs. Fixed programs are those explicitly assigned to segments by the user through TREE and INCLUDE directives. Movable programs are those encountered by the loader while either loading other programs or satisfying external references. External references are satisfied from load files and from the global and local library sets. The loader then assigns each movable program to the nearest common ancestor of all the segments that reference the program.

When a program unit is present on a load file (unless the file was specified by SLOAD), but is not referenced by any segment, the loader includes it in the root segment. Because such a program is not referenced in any standard way by the FORTRAN program units (or else it would be loaded to satisfy an external reference), its inclusion in the segmented program is of no value, and is wasteful of field length; therefore, the user should ensure that the load files contain only program units that are actually used in the segmented program.

The treatment of common blocks differs from that of program units. Blank common is always loaded after the highest address in the highest level of segmentation. The location of a labeled common block depends on whether or not the block is specified in a GLOBAL directive. If the block is declared global, a single copy of the block is kept in the specified segment. If the block is not declared global, a separate copy is made for each segment that references the block. In this case, data placed in the block by a program unit in one segment cannot be accessed by a program unit in a different segment. Therefore, any block used for communication between program units in different segments should be declared global by the user. A global block can only be preset from the segment containing it.

After all program units and common blocks have been assigned to segments, the loader converts addresses into absolute addresses. The space allocated for a non-global common block is the same for each copy, and is the greatest length declared for it by any program unit. The space allocated for a level is the length of the longest tree in that level. Blank common is allocated after all segments.

As the segmented program is built, it is written to a file (either the file specified on the SEGLOAD control statement, or the file ABS if none was specified). If the completion statement of the load sequence is EXECUTE or a name call statement, the program is then executed, beginning at the main entry point in the root segment. If the completion statement is NOGO, execution does not take
place. In either case, the file is normally saved by the user and executed again at a later time (since segmentation is unlikely to be used for a program executed only once).

\section*{SEGMENT DIRECTIVES}

The segment directives are found on the file indicated by the I parameter on the SEGLOAD control statement (figure 7-14). SEGLOAD directives have three fields: label, verb, and specification. The label field begins in column 1 and ends with one or more blanks. The verb field begins after the label field, and ends with one or more blanks. The specification field begins after the verb field. The contents of each of these fields depend on the directive.

The directives can be in any order except for LEVEL, TREE, and END. END must be the last directive. If the segmentation structure is to contain more than one level, LEVEL directives are used to separate the levels. Between each pair of LEVEL directives, TREE directives define the trees that constitute the level. Within a particular level, TREE directives can be in any order.

The format of the TREE directive is shown in figure 7-15. The label field contains the tree name, which is not needed if it is not referenced elsewhere in the directives. The specification field contains an expression that defines the root of the tree and its branching structure. This expression consists of tree segment names, separated by the characters - , ( and ). The character - indicates that the segment or tree name to the left of the minus sign is the parent of the expression to the right of the minus sign. This expression is either another segment or tree name or a subexpression enclosed in parentheses. The character , indicates that the segments, tree names, or subexpressions separated by the comma are on the same level, branching from a common parent. Examples of tree expressions are shown in figure 7-16.

When writing a tree expression, it is always necessary to ensure that the tree specified is a valid tree. For example, the following pair of TREE directives does not generate a valid tree:
```

A TREE B-(C,D)
TREE A-(E,F)

```

SEGLOAD \(\left(l=\left|\mathrm{fn}_{1}, B=\right| f n_{2}\right)\)
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{1}\) Logical file name of file containing segment directives. The default is INPUT.
\(\mathrm{Ifn}_{2}\) Logical file name of the file to which a segmented program is to be written. The default is ABS.

Figure 7-14. SEGLOAD Control Statement Format
\begin{tabular}{|l|c|c|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline tname & TREE & exp \\
tname & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Optional tree name. \\
exp
\end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{l} 
Tree expression. The format is described in \\
the text.
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-15. TREE Directive Format

The INCLUDE directive (figure 7-17) forces inclusion of object programs into a specific segment, thus overriding the rules that place an object program into the nearest common ancestor of all referencing segments. Using INCLUDE, duplicate copies of a program unit can be placed in more than one segment.

The INCLUDE directive can sometimes be used to decrease the maximum field length required by a segmented program. For example, in figure 7-13, suppose that both segments B and E reference the subroutine SUB1. This subroutine would normally be included in the root segment \(A\). Because \(A\) is always present in memory, this subroutine is always loaded, even when neither \(B\) nor \(E\) is loaded. If the length of segments \(C\) and \(D\) is greater than the length of \(B\), the total space allocated for level 0 is greater than the space actually
1. The expression \(A \cdot(B, C)\) can be diagrammed as follows:

2. The expression \(\mathrm{A}-((\mathrm{B}-(\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D})), \mathrm{E})\) can be diagrammed as follows:

3. When one of the names in an expression is a tree name, the entire tree is substituted in the generated structure. For example, if the following two TREE directives appear:

F TREE B-(C,D)
TREE A-( \(F, E\) )
the resulting tree would appear as follows:


Figure 7-16. TREE Directive Examples
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline segname & INCLUDE & \begin{tabular}{l} 
program \(_{1} \ldots \ldots\) \\
program
\end{tabular} \\
segname & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Name of the segment in which program units \\
are to be included. If omitted, all program \\
units named in the directive are included in \\
the root segment.
\end{tabular} \\
program & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Name of the program unit to be included \\
in the segment.
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-17. INCLUDE Directive Format
needed at any time. By forcing copies of SUBl into \(B\) and \(E\), the length of level 0 can be reduced. The directives to do this are shown in figure 7-18.

The fixed programs contained in a segment are defined by the TREE and INCLUDE directives. When a segment name appears in a TREE directive, the loader searches for a program unit with that name and includes it in the segment with the same name. However, the INCLUDE directive overrides the TREE directive. If a segment name appears in an INCLUDE directive, the programs specified in the INCLUDE directive are forced into the segment; so is the program with the same name as the segment.

The primary value of INCLUDE for the FORTRAN user is to help avoid CALL-RETURN conflicts, such as those described below. Care must be taken in using INCLUDE that extra copies of common blocks are not created, unless each such block is referenced only by program units in the segment it is forced into; otherwise, each segment will use the copy of the block contained in that segment, and information stored in one segment will not be available to other segments.

The LEVEL directive (figure 7-19) delimits levels within the directive sequence. As each LEVEL directive is encountered, a new level is begun. Thus, the trees included in any given level are those defined by TREE directives occurring between the LEVEL directives.

The GLOBAL directive (figure 7-20) ensures that only one copy of a labeled common block is created. If a segment
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline B & INCLUDE & SUB1 \\
E & INCLUDE & SUB1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-18. INCLUDE Directive Example


Figure 7-19. LEVEL Directive Format
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Label & Verb & \multicolumn{1}{|c|}{ Specification \(^{\text {segname }}\)} \\
\hline GLOBAL & \begin{tabular}{l} 
bname \(_{1}, \ldots\), \\
bname \(_{\mathrm{n}}\)-SAVE
\end{tabular} \\
segname & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Name of the segment in which labeled \\
common blocks are to be included. If \\
omitted, all blocks named are included \\
in the root segment.
\end{tabular} \\
bname & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Name of the labeled common block to \\
be included in the segment.
\end{tabular} \\
-SAVE & \begin{tabular}{l} 
Optional parameter indicating that the \\
contents of common blocks are to be \\
saved whenever the block is not loaded.
\end{tabular} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-20. GLOBAL Directive Format
name is present in the label field, the block is kept in that segment; otherwise, the block is kept in the root segment of the whole structure. When a block is kept in a segment other than the root, it is overwritten whenever an incompatible segment is loaded unless the -SAVE parameter is used. -SAVE specifies that the contents of the block are to be written to a file whenever the segment is overwritten, and restored when the segment is reloaded. -SAVE is unnecessary for a block kept in the root segment. ECS common blocks can be specified by the GLOBAL directive, but because these blocks are never overwritten, -SAVE is also unnecessary for them.

Global common blocks can be freely referenced or defined by the owning segment, or by any segment that is known to be in memory at the same time as the owning segment. In particular, this includes all descendants of the owning segment, because if a descendant is loaded, the ancestor is automatically loaded. Other compatible segments can reference the block whenever the user is sure that the owning segment is already loaded, but such references do not force loading of the owning segment, and no check is made by the loader. If the owning segment is not loaded, the results of a reference to the block are not valid.

The common blocks used by Record Manager and the FORTRAN Common Library are treated the same by the segment loader as user-declared common blocks; that is, local copies are made for each segment declaring them unless they are declared global. When multiple copies exist, it is almost certain that input/output will not function properly. To avoid this problem, the FORTRAN Common Library common blocks (as a minimum) should be declared global by the user. The names of these blocks are:

\section*{Q8.IO. \\ FCL.C.}

\section*{STP.END}
(The periods are a part of the names.)

Declaration of these blocks as global is usually sufficient to ensure correct operation of input/output. Under unusual circumstances, however, it might be also necessary to declare some Record Manager common blocks as global.

The END directive (figure 7-21) is required as the last segment directive. Examples of sequences of segment directives are shown in figures 7-22 and 7-23. The segmented program shown in figure 7-13 can be defined with the segment directives shown in figure 7-22. In the segment directives shown in figure 7-23, the user has placed all the FORTRAN Common Library labeled common blocks in the root segment to ensure correct communication between segments. In addition, the function RANF has been included in each segment in which it is called; this was done so that the sequence of values produced by successive calls is the same, regardless of the order in which the segments are loaded.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline & END & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-21. END Directive Format

\section*{LOADING AND EXECUTING A SEGMENTED PROGRAM}

A segmented program is brought into execution in one of two ways. If an EXECUTE or name call statement terminates the load sequence that creates the segmented program, the program is loaded and executed after it is created. The name call statement must not specify the file containing the segmented program. At any other time, the program is loaded and executed by a name call statement specifying the name of the file containing the program. In either case, any file name parameters on the name call or EXECUTE control statement are passed to the program just as for a basic load.

When execution begins, the resident segment control program, which occupies approximately 1000 words, is loaded first, and then the root segment is loaded. Execution begins with the main program, which must be unique and must be in the root segment. When a segmented program is built, all intersegment external references are replaced with calls to the resident segment routines. During execution of a call to an entry point, the segment resident routines regain control and load the required segment unless it is already loaded. Any ancestors of the segment (in the same tree) are also loaded. Control is then returned to the specified entry point.

Because of the way in which external references are trapped, several restrictions are imposed on segmented programs that do not apply to basic loads. One of these is that subprogram names cannot be passed as actual parameters.

A more complicated restriction results from the fact that the CALL statement is implemented through the return jump (RJ) instruction, as described in the COMPASS Reference Manual. As part of its operation, the return jump instruction stores, in the entry point of the routine being called, a branch back to the calling routine. When the RETURN control statement in the called routine is executed, a branch takes place to the entry point of the routine, which in turn causes a branch back to the calling routine. In a segmented program, the branch that is stored in the entry point is not trapped by the loader (since it does not exist at load time) and, therefore, cannot result in segment loading. This can lead to invalid results in cases like the one illustrated in figure 7-24.

In this example, root segment \(A\) branches to two incompatible segments, B and C . Bl, one of the subprograms in segment \(B\), calls \(A l\), a subprogram in segment \(A\). When the
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline BRANCH & TREE & C-D \\
& TREE & A-(B,BRANCH) \\
& LEVEL & \\
& TREE & E \\
& TREE & F-G \\
& LEVEL & \\
& TREE & H-(1, \()\) \\
& END & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Figure 7-22. Segment Directives Example 1
call is executed, the return jump stores into the entry point of Al a branch back to Bl. However, Al calls Cl, a routine in segment \(C\), before returning; therefore, \(C\) is loaded, overwriting B . When the RETURN control statement in A1 is executed, the branch that is stored in the entry point attempts to return to Bl. Because the segment resident routines are unaware of the existence of this branch, segment B is not loaded, and a branch to some meaningless address in segment C is executed instead.

To summarize, if a routine in one segment calls a routine in another segment, the calling segment must be loaded at the time control is returned from the called segment. This problem does not arise when the calling segment is either the root segment or an ancestor of the called segment, because the calling segment is then always loaded at the same time as the called segment.

There is no automatic way to avoid conflicts of this type. Frequently, they can be avoided by careful planning when the program is designed. In addition, the C\$ CALLS and C\$ FUNCS statements of the FORTRAN debugging facility can be used to trace program flow while the program is being debugged.
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline Label & Verb & Specification \\
\hline & GLOBAL & Q8.IO.,FCL.C.,STP.END \\
FRUIT & TREE & APPLE-(PLUM,LEMON) \\
& TREE & ALDER-(FRUIT,CONIFER) \\
& TREE & FIR-(PINE,SPRUCE) \\
& LEVEL & \\
PINE & TREE & MAPLE-OAK-(BIRCH,ASPEN) \\
FIR & INCLUDE & RANF \\
OAK & INCLUDE & RANF \\
& END &
\end{tabular}

This tree can be diagrammed as follows:


Figure 7-23. Segment Directives Example 2


Figure 7-24. CALL-RETURN Conflict

Control Data operating systems offer the following variations of a basic character set:

CDC 64-character set
CDC 63-character set
ASCII 64-character set
ASCII 63-character set
The set in use at a particular installation was specified when the operating system was installed.

Depending on another installation option, the system assumes an input deck has been punched either in 026 or in 029 mode (regardless of the character set in use). Under NOS/BE, the alternate mode can be specified by a 26 or 29 punched in columns 79 and 80 of the job statement or any

7/8/9 card. The specified mode remains in effect through the end of the job unless it is reset by specification of the alternate mode on a subsequent 7/8/9 card.

Under NOS, the alternate mode can be specified by a 26 or 29 punched in columns 79 and 80 of any 6/7/9 card, as described above for a 7/8/9 card. In addition, 026 mode can be specified by a card with 5/7/9 multipunched in column 1 , and 029 mode can be specified by a card with \(5 / 7 / 9\) multipunched in column 1 and a 9 punched in column 2.

Graphic character representation appearing at a terminal or printer depends on the installation character set and the terminal type. Characters shown in the CDC Graphic column of the standard character set table are applicable to BCD terminals; ASCII graphics characters are applicable to ASCII-CRT and ASCII-TTY terminals.
STANDARD CHARACTER SETS



BASIC LOAD - Loading and executing a program by means of control statements, with all the absolute code in central memory at the same time.

BEGINNING-OF-INFORMATION - The first record in a file. Occurs after header labels on a tape.

BINARY MODULE - A compiled program suitable for use by the loader.

COMPILATION TIME - The time during which a source language program is changed into a binary module by the FORTRAN Extended compiler. Contrast with EXECUTION TIME and LOAD TIME.

CYBER LOADER - The loader associated with the NOS and NOS/BE operating systems.

DAYFILE - A job history log maintained by the system during execution of the job and printed upon termination of the job.

DEBUGGING - The identification and correction of errors in an applications program.

DEBUGGING FACILITY - A special set of statements, inserted by the user into a source program and processed by the compiler, which provides useful debugging information.

DESK CHECKING - Visual inspection of applications program for errors.

DMPX - A system-produced printout of the exchange package, hardware register contents, and 200 words of memory centered on the p-counter, produced when a user's program terminates abnormally due to an execution time error.

DIRECT ACCESS - Under NOS, a type of permanent file for which all changes are made directly to the only copy of the file.

EDITLIB - A utility routine that creates and maintains a user library of binary modules. EDITLIB operates under the NOS/BE operating system.

END-OF-INFORMATION - The end of the last record of a file. On a tape, trailer labels are past the end-ofinformation.

EXECUTION TIME - The time during which a loaded binary program is executed. Contrast with COMPILATION TIME and LOAD TIME.

EXTERNAL REFERENCE - A reference in one program unit to an entry point in another program unit.

FIELD LENGTH - The number of memory words assigned to a program.

FILE - A collection of information that begins at beginning-of-information and ends at end-of-information. A file is referenced by its logical file name.

FUNCTIONAL UNIT - One of the components of the central processor of a 6600, 6700, CYBER 70 Models 74 and 76, and CYBER 170 Models 175 and 176 Computer Systems. A specialized unit that can process operands in parallel with other units.

INDIRECT ACCESS - Under NOS, a type of permanent file for which a local copy, separate from the permanent copy, is supplied on each access. Changes are made to the local copy.

INTERMEDIATE LANGUAGE - A temporary form of the generated code for a FORTRAN compilation, similar to assembly language but without specific addresses or register names.

ITEMIZE - A utility routine that produces a listing of the contents of a file or library. ITEMIZE operates under the NOS, NOS/BE, and SCOPE 2 operating systems.

LIBGEN - A utility routine that creates a user library of binary modules. LIBGEN operates under the NOS operating system.

LOAD MAP - A listing that shows how memory was allocated by the loader during a load operation.

LOAD TIME - The time during which a binary module is loaded into memory and linked with other routines needed before execution can begin.

LOADER - The system capability that loads a compiled program into memory and prepares it for execution. See CYBER LOADER and SCOPE 2 LOADER.

MODE ERROR - An execution time error which causes the executing program to abort. Possible mode errors are:
MODE 0 - Zero value in p-counter
MODE 1 - Address out of range
MODE 2 - Infinite operand
MODE 4 - Indefinite operand.
OBJECT CODE - Binary code produced by the compiler and input to the loader.

OBJECT LISTING - A compiler-generated listing of the object code produced for a program, represented as COMPASS code.

OPTIMIZATION - The process of rearranging or rewriting code to produce the same results in a more efficient way.

OPTIMIZING MODE - One of the compilation modes of the FORTRAN Extended compiler as indicated by the control statement options OPT=0, 1, 2, or by omission of the TS option.

OVERLAY - One or more relocatable programs that were relocated and linked together into a single absolute program.

PARTITION - A division of a file that ends with a tape mark on a magnetic tape file or with a zero-length level 17 marker on a mass storage file.

On a listing from ITEMIZE, a partition boundary is listed as *EOF.

PERMANENT FILE - A mass storage file, saved by the system between jcbs.

PROGRAM LIBRARY - A file in a format produced by the UPDATE utility.

REDUCE MODE - A job execution mode in which the loader automatically sets the field length for executing a program.

REFERENCE MAP - List of all symbols appearing in a program, with the properties of each symbol and references to each symbol listed by source line number; produced by the FORTRAN Extended compiler.

SCOPE 2 LOADER - The loader associated with the SCOPE 2 operating system.

SECTION - A logical division of a file; a section contains one or more records and a partition contains one or more sections.

SEGMENT - An absolute subdivision of a segment program that is automatically called into memory as needed (except for the root segment).

SOURCE LISTING - A listing of a source program, produced by the compiler.

TOP-DOWN PROGRAMMING - A technique of program development in which the program is developed in successively more detailed stages.

UPDATE - A utility routine that allows source language programs to be maintained in compressed format on a mass storage file. UPDATE operates under the NOS, NOS/BE, and SCOPE 2 operating systems.

USER LIBRARY - A file of binary modules that can be used by the loader to load routines and satisfy externals. The utilities that create user libraries are: EDITLIB (NOS/BE), LIBEDT (SCOPE 2), and LIBGEN (NOS).

W TYPE RECORD - A Record Manager record type in which each record is prefixed by a control word.

6/7/8/9 card - A card with the characters \(6,7,8\), and 9 multipunched in column \(\mathbf{l}\); acts as end-of-information in a card deck.

7/8/9 CARD - A card with the characters 7, 8, and 9 multipunched in column l; acts as end-of-partition for a card deck.

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