

IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux,
V9.0



Programming Guide

IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux,
V9.0



Programming Guide

Note!

Before using this information and the product it supports, be sure to read the general information under “Notices” on page 75.

First Edition

This edition applies to IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux on System p, V9.0 and IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux on x86 Systems, V9.0. (Programs 5724-T42 & 5724-T43)

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About this document

This guide discusses advanced topics related to the use of the IBM® XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux®, V9.0 compiler, with a particular focus on program portability and optimization. The guide provides both reference information and practical tips for getting the most out of the compiler's capabilities, through recommended programming practices and compilation procedures.

Who should read this document

This document is addressed to programmers building complex applications, who already have experience compiling with XL C/C++, and would like to take further advantage of the compiler's capabilities for program optimization and tuning, support for advanced programming language features, and add-on tools and utilities.

How to use this document

This document uses a "task-oriented" approach to presenting the topics, by concentrating on a specific programming or compilation problem in each section. Each topic contains extensive cross-references to the relevant sections of the reference guides in the IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 documentation set, which provide detailed descriptions of compiler options and pragmas, and specific language extensions.

How this document is organized

This guide includes these topics:

- Chapter 1, "Using 32-bit and 64-bit modes," on page 1 discusses common problems that arise when porting existing 32-bit applications to 64-bit mode, and provides recommendations for avoiding these problems.
- Chapter 2, "Aligning data," on page 5 discusses the different compiler options available for controlling the alignment of data in aggregates, such as structures and classes, on all platforms.
- Chapter 3, "Handling floating point operations," on page 13 discusses options available for controlling the way floating-point operations are handled by the compiler.
- Chapter 4, "Using C++ templates," on page 17 discusses the different options for compiling programs that include C++ templates.
- Chapter 5, "Constructing a library," on page 23 discusses how to compile and link static and shared libraries, and how to specify the initialization order of static objects in C++ programs.
- Chapter 6, "Optimizing your applications," on page 29 discusses the various options provided by the compiler for optimizing your programs, and provides recommendations for use of the different options.
- Chapter 8, "Coding your application to improve performance," on page 49 discusses recommended programming practices and coding techniques for enhancing program performance and compatibility with the compiler's optimization capabilities.

Conventions used in this document

Typographical conventions

The following table explains the typographical conventions used in this document.

Table 1. *Typographical conventions*

| Typeface | Indicates | Example |
|----------------|--|--|
| bold | Lowercase commands, executable names, compiler options and directives. | If you specify -O3 , the compiler assumes -qhot=level=0 . To prevent all HOT optimizations with -O3 , you must specify -qnohot . |
| <i>italics</i> | Parameters or variables whose actual names or values are to be supplied by the user. Italics are also used to introduce new terms. | Make sure that you update the <i>size</i> parameter if you return more than the <i>size</i> requested. |
| monospace | Programming keywords and library functions, compiler built-in functions, examples of program code, command strings, or user-defined names. | If one or two cases of a <code>switch</code> statement are typically executed much more frequently than other cases, break out those cases by handling them separately before the <code>switch</code> statement. |

Icons

All features described in this document apply to both C and C++ languages. Where a feature is exclusive to one language, or where functionality differs between languages, the following icons are used:



The text describes a feature that is supported in the C language only; or describes behavior that is specific to the C language.



The text describes a feature that is supported in the C++ language only; or describes behavior that is specific to the C++ language.

Syntax diagrams

Throughout this document, diagrams illustrate XL C/C++ syntax. This section will help you to interpret and use those diagrams.

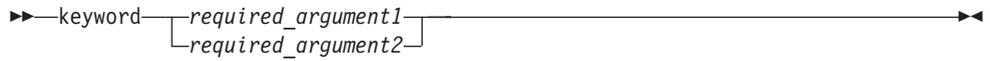
- Read the syntax diagrams from left to right, from top to bottom, following the path of the line.
 - The  symbol indicates the beginning of a command, directive, or statement.
 - The  symbol indicates that the command, directive, or statement syntax is continued on the next line.
 - The  symbol indicates that a command, directive, or statement is continued from the previous line.
 - The  symbol indicates the end of a command, directive, or statement.
- Fragments, which are diagrams of syntactical units other than complete commands, directives, or statements, start with the  symbol and end with the  symbol.
- Required items are shown on the horizontal line (the main path):



- Optional items are shown below the main path:



- If you can choose from two or more items, they are shown vertically, in a stack. If you *must* choose one of the items, one item of the stack is shown on the main path.



If choosing one of the items is optional, the entire stack is shown below the main path.



- An arrow returning to the left above the main line (a repeat arrow) indicates that you can make more than one choice from the stacked items or repeat an item. The separator character, if it is other than a blank, is also indicated:



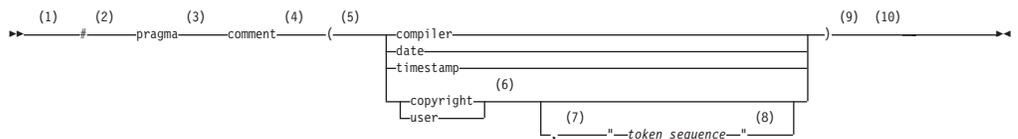
- The item that is the default is shown above the main path.



- Keywords are shown in nonitalic letters and should be entered exactly as shown.
- Variables are shown in italicized lowercase letters. They represent user-supplied names or values.
- If punctuation marks, parentheses, arithmetic operators, or other such symbols are shown, you must enter them as part of the syntax.

Sample syntax diagram

The following syntax diagram example shows the syntax for the **#pragma comment** directive.



Notes:

- 1 This is the start of the syntax diagram.

- 2 The symbol # must appear first.
- 3 The keyword pragma must appear following the # symbol.
- 4 The name of the pragma comment must appear following the keyword pragma.
- 5 An opening parenthesis must be present.
- 6 The comment type must be entered only as one of the types indicated: compiler, date, timestamp, copyright, or user.
- 7 A comma must appear between the comment type copyright or user, and an optional character string.
- 8 A character string must follow the comma. The character string must be enclosed in double quotation marks.
- 9 A closing parenthesis is required.
- 10 This is the end of the syntax diagram.

The following examples of the **#pragma comment** directive are syntactically correct according to the diagram shown above:

```
#pragma comment(date)
#pragma comment(user)
#pragma comment(copyright,"This text will appear in the module")
```

Examples

The examples in this document, except where otherwise noted, are coded in a simple style that does not try to conserve storage, check for errors, achieve fast performance, or demonstrate all possible methods to achieve a specific result.

Related information

The following sections provide information on documentation related to XL C/C++:

- “IBM XL C/C++ publications”
- “Standards and specifications documents” on page ix
- “Other IBM publications” on page x
- “Other publications” on page x

IBM XL C/C++ publications

XL C/C++ provides product documentation in the following formats:

- Installable man pages
Man pages are provided for the compiler invocations and all command-line utilities provided with the product. Instructions for installing and accessing the man pages are provided in the *XL C/C++ Installation Guide*.
- PDF documents
PDF documents are located by default in the `/opt/ibmcmp/xlc/cbe/9.0/doc/en_US/pdf/` directory.

The following files comprise the full set of XL C/C++ product manuals:

Table 2. XL C/C++ PDF files

| Document title | PDF file name | Description |
|---|---------------|--|
| <i>IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 Installation Guide, GC23-8520-00</i> | install.pdf | Contains information for installing XL C/C++ and configuring your environment for basic compilation and program execution. |
| <i>Getting Started with IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0, GC23-8518-00</i> | getstart.pdf | Contains an introduction to the XL C/C++ product, with information on setting up and configuring your environment, compiling and linking programs, and troubleshooting compilation errors. |
| <i>IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 Compiler Reference, SC23-8516-00</i> | compiler.pdf | Contains information about the various compiler options, pragmas, macros, environment variables, and built-in functions. |
| <i>IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 Language Reference, SC23-8519-00</i> | langref.pdf | Contains information about the C and C++ programming languages, as supported by IBM, including language extensions for portability and conformance to non-proprietary standards. |
| <i>IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 Programming Guide, SC23-8517-00</i> | proguide.pdf | Contains information on advanced programming topics, such as application porting, library development, application optimization, and the XL C/C++ high-performance libraries. |

To read a PDF file, use the Adobe® Reader. If you do not have the Adobe Reader, you can download it (subject to license terms) from the Adobe Web site at <http://www.adobe.com>.

More documentation related to XL C/C++ including redbooks, white papers, tutorials, and other articles, is available on the Web at:

<http://www.ibm.com/software/awdtools/xlcpp/library>

Standards and specifications documents

XL C/C++ is designed to support the following standards and specifications. You can refer to these standards for precise definitions of some of the features found in this document.

- *Information Technology – Programming languages – C, ISO/IEC 9899:1990, also known as C89.*
- *Information Technology – Programming languages – C, ISO/IEC 9899:1999, also known as C99.*
- *Information Technology – Programming languages – C++, ISO/IEC 14882:1998, also known as C++98.*
- *Information Technology – Programming languages – C++, ISO/IEC 14882:2003(E), also known as Standard C++.*
- *Information Technology – Programming languages – Extensions for the programming language C to support new character data types, ISO/IEC DTR 19769. This draft technical report has been accepted by the C standards committee, and is available at <http://www.open-std.org/JTC1/SC22/WG14/www/docs/n1040.pdf>.*

- *Draft Technical Report on C++ Library Extensions, ISO/IEC DTR 19768*. This draft technical report has been submitted to the C++ standards committee, and is available at <http://www.open-std.org/JTC1/SC22/WG21/docs/papers/2005/n1836.pdf>.
- *AltiVec Technology Programming Interface Manual*, Motorola Inc. This specification for vector data types, to support vector processing technology, is available at http://www.freescale.com/files/32bit/doc/ref_manual/ALTIVECPIM.pdf.

Other IBM publications

- *IBM C/C++ Language Extensions for Cell Broadband Engine Architecture*, available at <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/power/cell/documents.html>
- Specifications, white papers, and other technical documents for the Cell Broadband Engine™ architecture are available at http://www.ibm.com/chips/techlib/techlib.nsf/products/Cell_Broadband_Engine.
- The Cell Broadband Engine resource center, at <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/power/cell>, is the central repository for technical information, including articles, tutorials, programming guides, and educational resources.

Other publications

- *Using the GNU Compiler Collection* available at <http://gcc.gnu.org/onlinedocs>

How to send your comments

Your feedback is important in helping to provide accurate and high-quality information. If you have any comments about this document or any other XL C/C++ documentation, send your comments by e-mail to compinfo@ca.ibm.com.

Be sure to include the name of the document, the part number of the document, the version of XL C/C++, and, if applicable, the specific location of the text you are commenting on (for example, a page number or table number).

Chapter 1. Using 32-bit and 64-bit modes

Note: 64-bit mode is PPU only

You can use XL C/C++ to develop both 32-bit and 64-bit applications. To do so, specify **-q32** (the default) or **-q64**, respectively, during compilation.

However, porting existing applications from 32-bit to 64-bit mode can lead to a number of problems, mostly related to the differences in C/C++ long and pointer data type sizes and alignment between the two modes. The following table summarizes these differences.

Table 3. Size and alignment of data types in 32-bit and 64-bit modes

| Data type | 32-bit mode | | 64-bit mode (PPU only) | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| | Size | Alignment | Size | Alignment |
| long, unsigned long | 4 bytes | 4-byte boundaries | 8 bytes | 8-byte boundaries |
| pointer | 4 bytes | 4-byte boundaries | 8 bytes | 8-byte boundaries |
| size_t (system-defined unsigned long) | 4 bytes | 4-byte boundaries | 8 bytes | 8-byte boundaries |
| ptrdiff_t (system-defined long) | 4 bytes | 4-byte boundaries | 8 bytes | 8-byte boundaries |

The following sections discuss some of the common pitfalls implied by these differences, as well as recommended programming practices to help you avoid most of these issues:

- “Assigning long values” on page 2
- “Assigning pointers” on page 3
- “Aligning aggregate data” on page 4

When compiling in 32-bit or 64-bit mode, you can use the **-qwarn64** option to help diagnose some issues related to porting applications. In either mode, the compiler immediately issues a warning if undesirable results, such as truncation or data loss, have occurred.

For suggestions on improving performance in 64-bit mode, see “Optimize operations in 64-bit mode (PPU only)” on page 53.

Related information

- **-q32/-q64** and **-qwarn64** in *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Assigning long values

The limits of long type integers defined in the `limits.h` standard library header file are different in 32-bit and 64-bit modes, as shown in the following table.

Table 4. Constant limits of long integers in 32-bit and 64-bit modes

| Symbolic constant | Mode | Value | Hexadecimal | Decimal |
|--------------------------------------|--------|-------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| LONG_MIN (smallest signed long) | 32-bit | $-(2^{31})$ | 0x80000000L | -2,147,483,648 |
| | 64-bit | $-(2^{63})$ | 0x8000000000000000L | -9,223,372,036,854,775,808 |
| LONG_MAX (longest signed long) | 32-bit | $2^{31}-1$ | 0x7FFFFFFFL | +2,147,483,647 |
| | 64-bit | $2^{63}-1$ | 0x7FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFL | +9,223,372,036,854,775,807 |
| ULONG_MAX (longest unsigned long) | 32-bit | $2^{32}-1$ | 0xFFFFFFFFUL | +4,294,967,295 |
| | 64-bit | $2^{64}-1$ | 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFUL | +18,446,744,073,709,551,615 |

Implications of these differences are:

- Assigning a long value to a double variable can cause loss of accuracy.
- Assigning constant values to long-type variables can lead to unexpected results. This issue is explored in more detail in “Assigning constant values to long variables.”
- Bit-shifting long values will produce different results, as described in “Bit-shifting long values” on page 3.
- Using `int` and long types interchangeably in expressions will lead to implicit conversion through promotions, demotions, assignments, and argument passing, and can result in truncation of significant digits, sign shifting, or unexpected results, without warning.

In situations where a long-type value can overflow when assigned to other variables or passed to functions, you must:

- Avoid implicit type conversion by using explicit type casting to change types.
- Ensure that all functions that return long types are properly prototyped.
- Ensure that long parameters can be accepted by the functions to which they are being passed.

Assigning constant values to long variables

Although type identification of constants follows explicit rules in C and C++, many programs use hexadecimal or unsuffixed constants as “typeless” variables and rely on a two’s complement representation to exceed the limits permitted on a 32-bit system. As these large values are likely to be extended into a 64-bit long type in 64-bit mode, unexpected results can occur, generally at boundary areas such as:

- `constant >= UINT_MAX`
- `constant < INT_MIN`
- `constant > INT_MAX`

Some examples of unexpected boundary side effects are listed in the following table.

Table 5. Unexpected boundary results of constants assigned to long types

| Constant assigned to long | Equivalent value | 32 bit mode | 64 bit mode |
|---------------------------|------------------|----------------|----------------|
| -2,147,483,649 | INT_MIN-1 | +2,147,483,647 | -2,147,483,649 |
| +2,147,483,648 | INT_MAX+1 | -2,147,483,648 | +2,147,483,648 |
| +4,294,967,726 | UINT_MAX+1 | 0 | +4,294,967,296 |
| 0xFFFFFFFF | UINT_MAX | -1 | +4,294,967,295 |
| 0x100000000 | UINT_MAX+1 | 0 | +4,294,967,296 |
| 0xFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF | ULONG_MAX | -1 | -1 |

Unsuffix constants can lead to type ambiguities that can affect other parts of your program, such as when the results of `sizeof` operations are assigned to variables. For example, in 32-bit mode, the compiler types a number like 4294967295 (`UINT_MAX`) as an unsigned long and `sizeof` returns 4 bytes. In 64-bit mode, this same number becomes a signed long and `sizeof` will return 8 bytes. Similar problems occur when passing constants directly to functions.

You can avoid these problems by using the suffixes `L` (for long constants) or `UL` (for unsigned long constants) to explicitly type all constants that have the potential of affecting assignment or expression evaluation in other parts of your program. In the example cited above, suffixing the number as `4294967295U` forces the compiler to always recognize the constant as an unsigned int in 32-bit or 64-bit mode.

Bit-shifting long values

Left-bit-shifting long values will produce different results in 32-bit and 64-bit modes. The examples in the table below show the effects of performing a bit-shift on long constants, using the following code segment:

```
long l=valueL<<1;
```

Table 6. Results of bit-shifting long values

| Initial value | Symbolic constant | Value after bit shift | |
|---------------|-------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| | | 32-bit mode | 64-bit mode |
| 0x7FFFFFFFL | INT_MAX | 0xFFFFFFFFE | 0x00000000FFFFFFFFE |
| 0x80000000L | INT_MIN | 0x00000000 | 0x0000000100000000 |
| 0xFFFFFFFFFL | UINT_MAX | 0xFFFFFFFFE | 0x1FFFFFFFFE |

Assigning pointers

In 64-bit mode, pointers and `int` types are no longer the same size. The implications of this are:

- Exchanging pointers and `int` types causes segmentation faults.
- Passing pointers to a function expecting an `int` type results in truncation.
- Functions that return a pointer, but are not explicitly prototyped as such, return an `int` instead and truncate the resulting pointer, as illustrated in the following example.

Although code constructs such as the following are valid in 32-bit mode:

```
a=(char*) calloc(25);
```

Without a function prototype for `calloc`, when the same code is compiled in 64-bit mode, the compiler assumes the function returns an `int`, so `a` is silently truncated, and then sign-extended. Type casting the result will not prevent the truncation, as the address of the memory allocated by `calloc` was already truncated during the return. In this example, the correct solution would be to include the header file, `stdlib.h`, which contains the prototype for `calloc`.

To avoid these types of problems:

- Prototype any functions that return a pointer.
- Be sure that the type of parameter you are passing in a function (pointer or `int`) call matches the type expected by the function being called.
- For applications that treat pointers as an integer type, use type `long` or unsigned `long` in either 32-bit or 64-bit mode.

Aligning aggregate data

Structures are aligned according to the most strictly aligned member in both 32-bit and 64-bit modes. However, since `long` types and pointers change size and alignment in 64-bit, the alignment of a structure's strictest member can change, resulting in changes to the alignment of the structure itself.

Structures that contain pointers or `long` types cannot be shared between 32-bit and 64-bit applications. Unions that attempt to share `long` and `int` types, or overlay pointers onto `int` types can change the alignment. In general, you should check all but the simplest structures for alignment and size dependencies.

For detailed information on aligning data structures, including structures that contain bit fields, see Chapter 2, "Aligning data," on page 5.

Chapter 2. Aligning data

XL C/C++ provides many mechanisms for specifying data alignment at the levels of individual variables, members of aggregates, entire aggregates, and entire compilation units. If you are porting applications between different platforms, or between 32-bit and 64-bit modes, you will need to take into account the differences between alignment settings available in the different environments, to prevent possible data corruption and deterioration in performance. In particular, vector types have special alignment requirements which, if not followed, can produce incorrect results. That is, vectors need to be aligned according to a 16 byte boundary. For more information, see the *AltiVec Technology Programming Interface Manual*.

Alignment *modes* allow you to set alignment defaults for all data types for a compilation unit (or subsection of a compilation unit), by specifying a predefined suboption. Alignment *modifiers* allow you to set the alignment for specific variables or data types within a compilation unit, by specifying the exact number of bytes that should be used for the alignment.

“Using alignment modes” discusses the default alignment modes for all data types on the different platforms and addressing models; the suboptions and pragmas you can use to change or override the defaults; and rules for the alignment modes for simple variables, aggregates, and bit fields.

“Using alignment modifiers” on page 8 discusses the different specifiers, pragmas, and attributes you can use in your source code to override the alignment mode currently in effect, for specific variable declarations. It also provides the rules governing the precedence of alignment modes and modifiers during compilation.

Related information

- *AltiVec Technology Programming Interface Manual*, available at http://www.freescale.com/files/32bit/doc/ref_manual/ALTIVECPIM.pdf
- `-qaltivec` in *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- *IBM C/C++ Language Extensions for Cell Broadband Engine Architecture*, available at <http://www.ibm.com/developerworks/power/cell/documents.html>

Using alignment modes

Each data type supported by XL C/C++ is aligned along byte boundaries according to platform-specific default alignment *modes*. On Linux, the default alignment mode is `linuxppc`.

You can change the default alignment mode, by using any of the following mechanisms:

Set the alignment mode for all variables in a single file or multiple files during compilation

To use this approach, you specify the `-qalign` compiler option during compilation, with one of the suboptions listed in Table 7 on page 6.

Set the alignment mode for all variables in a section of source code

To use this approach, you specify the `#pragma align` or `#pragma options align` directives in the source files, with one of the suboptions listed in

Table 7. Each directive changes the alignment mode in effect for all variables that follow the directive until another directive is encountered, or until the end of the compilation unit.

Each of the valid alignment modes is defined in Table 7, which provides the alignment value, in bytes, for scalar variables, for all data types. Where there are differences between 32-bit and 64-bit modes, these are indicated. Also, where there are differences between the first (scalar) member of an aggregate and subsequent members of the aggregate, these are indicated.

Table 7. Alignment settings (values given in bytes)

| Data type | Storage | Alignment setting | |
|---|---------|-------------------|------------|
| | | linuxppc | bit_packed |
| _Bool (C), bool (C++) | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| char, signed char, unsigned char | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| wchar_t (32-bit mode) | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| wchar_t (64-bit mode) | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| int, unsigned int | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| short int, unsigned short int | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| long int, unsigned long int (32-bit mode) | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| long int, unsigned long int (64-bit mode) | 8 | 8 | 1 |
| long long | 8 | 8 | 1 |
| float | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| double | 8 | 8 | 1 |
| long double (SPU) | 8 | 8 | 1 |
| long double (PPU) | 16 | 16 | 1 |
| pointer (32-bit mode) | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| pointer (64-bit mode) | 8 | 8 | 1 |
| vector types | 16 | 16 | 1 |

If you generate data with an application on one platform and read the data with an application on another platform, it is recommended that you use the **bit_packed** mode, which results in equivalent data alignment on all platforms.

Note: Vectors in a bit-packed structure may not be correctly aligned unless you take extra action to ensure their alignment.

“Alignment of aggregates” discusses the rules for the alignment of entire aggregates and provide examples of aggregate layouts. “Alignment of bit fields” on page 7 discusses additional rules and considerations for the use and alignment of bit fields, and provides an example of bit-packed alignment.

Related information

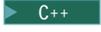
- **-qalign** and **#pragma align** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Alignment of aggregates

The data contained in Table 7 apply to scalar variables, and variables which are members of aggregates such as structures, unions, and classes. In addition, the

following rules apply to aggregate variables, namely structures, unions or classes, as a whole (in the absence of any modifiers):

- For all alignment modes, the *size* of an aggregate is the smallest multiple of its alignment value that can encompass all of the members of the aggregate.
-  Empty aggregates are assigned a size of 0 bytes.
-  Empty aggregates are assigned a size of 1 byte. Note that static data members do not participate in the alignment or size of an aggregate; therefore a structure or class containing only a single static data member has a size of 1 byte.
- For all alignment modes, the *alignment* of an aggregate is equal to the largest alignment value of any of its members. With the exception of packed alignment modes, members whose natural alignment is smaller than that of their aggregate's alignment are padded with empty bytes.
- Aligned aggregates can be nested, and the alignment rules applicable to each nested aggregate are determined by the alignment mode that is in effect when a nested aggregate is declared.

Note:  The C++ compiler might generate extra fields for classes that contain base classes or virtual functions. Objects of these types might not conform to the usual mappings for aggregates.

For rules on the alignment of aggregates containing bit fields, see “Alignment of bit fields.”

Alignment of bit fields

You can declare a bit field as a `_Bool` (C), `bool` (C++), `char`, signed `char`, unsigned `char`, `short`, unsigned `short`, `int`, unsigned `int`, `long`, unsigned `long`, `long long`, or unsigned `long long` data type. The alignment of a bit field depends on its base type and the compilation mode (32-bit or 64-bit).

 The length of a bit field cannot exceed the length of its base type. In extended mode, you can use the `sizeof` operator on a bit field. The `sizeof` operator on a bit field always returns the size of the base type.

 The length of a bit field can exceed the length of its base type, but the remaining bits will be used to pad the field, and will not actually store any value.

However, alignment rules for aggregates containing bit fields are different depending on the alignment mode in effect. These rules are described below.

Rules for Linux PowerPC® alignment

- Bit fields are allocated from a bit field container. The size of this container is determined by the declared type of the bit field. For example, a `char` bit field uses an 8-bit container, an `int` bit field uses 32 bits, and so on. The container must be large enough to contain the bit field, as the bit field will not be split across containers.
- Containers are aligned in the aggregate as if they start on a natural boundary for that type of container. Bit fields are not necessarily allocated at the start of the container.
- If a zero-length bit field is the first member of an aggregate, it has no effect on the alignment of the aggregate and is overlapped by the next data member. If a

zero-length bit field is a non-first member of the aggregate, it pads to the next alignment boundary determined by its base declared type but does not affect the alignment of the aggregate.

- Unnamed bit fields do not affect the alignment of the aggregate.

Rules for bit-packed alignment

- Bit fields have an alignment of 1 byte, and are packed with no default padding between bit fields.
- A zero-length bit field causes the next member to start at the next byte boundary. If the zero-length bit field is already at a byte boundary, the next member starts at this boundary. A non-bit field member that follows a bit field is aligned on the next byte boundary.

Example of bit-packed alignment

For:

```
#pragma options align=bit_packed
struct {
    int a : 8;
    int b : 10;
    int c : 12;
    int d : 4;
    int e : 3;
    int : 0;
    int f : 1;
    char g;
} A;
```

```
pragma options align=reset
```

The size of A is 7 bytes. The alignment of A is 1 byte. The layout of A is:

| Member name | Byte offset | Bit offset |
|-------------|-------------|------------|
| a | 0 | 0 |
| b | 1 | 0 |
| c | 2 | 2 |
| d | 3 | 6 |
| e | 4 | 2 |
| f | 5 | 0 |
| g | 6 | 0 |

Using alignment modifiers

XL C/C++ also provides alignment *modifiers*, which allow you to exercise even finer-grained control over alignment, at the level of declaration or definition of individual variables. Available modifiers are:

#pragma pack(...)

Valid application:

The entire aggregate (as a whole) immediately following the directive.

Effect: Sets the maximum alignment of the members of the aggregate to which it applies, to a specific number of bytes. Also allows a bit-field to cross a container boundary. Used to reduce the effective alignment of the selected aggregate.

Valid values:

1, 2, 4, 8, 16, **nopack**, **pop**, and empty parentheses. The use of empty parentheses has the same functionality as **nopack**.

__attribute__((aligned(n)))**Valid application:**

As a *variable* attribute, it applies to a single aggregate (as a whole), namely a structure, union, or class; or to an individual member of an aggregate.¹ As a *type* attribute, it applies to all aggregates declared of that type. If it is applied to a typedef declaration, it applies to all instances of that type.²

Effect:

Sets the minimum alignment of the specified variable (or variables), to a specific number of bytes. Typically used to increase the effective alignment of the selected variables.

Valid values:

n must be a positive power of 2, or NIL. NIL can be specified as either `__attribute__((aligned()))` or `__attribute__((aligned))`; this is the same as specifying the maximum system alignment (16 bytes on all UNIX[®] platforms).

__attribute__((packed))**Valid application:**

As a *variable* attribute, it applies to simple variables, or individual members of an aggregate, namely a structure, union or class.¹ As a *type* attribute, it applies to all members of all aggregates declared of that type.

Effect: Sets the maximum alignment of the selected variable, or variables, to which it applies, to the smallest possible alignment value, namely one byte for a variable and one bit for a bit field.

__align(n)

Effect: Sets the minimum alignment of the variable or aggregate to which it applies to a specific number of bytes; also effectively increases the amount of storage occupied by the variable. Used to increase the effective alignment of the selected variables.

Valid application:

Applies to simple static (or global) variables or to aggregates as a whole, rather than to individual members of aggregates, unless these are also aggregates.

Valid values:

n must be a positive power of 2. XL C/C++ also allows you to specify a value greater than the system maximum.

Notes:

1. In a comma-separated list of variables in a declaration, if the modifier is placed at the beginning of the declaration, it applies to all the variables in the declaration. Otherwise, it applies only to the variable immediately preceding it.
2. Depending on the placement of the modifier in the declaration of a struct, it can apply to the definition of the type, and hence applies to *all* instances of that type; or it can apply to only a single instance of the type. For details, see "Type Attributes" in the *XL C/C++ Language Reference*.

When you use alignment modifiers, the interactions between modifiers and modes, and between multiple modifiers, can become complex. The following sections outline precedence guidelines for alignment modifiers, for the following types of variables:

- simple, or scalar, variables, including members of aggregates (structures, unions or classes) and user-defined types created by typedef statements.
- aggregate variables (structures, unions or classes)

Related information

- "The aligned variable attribute", "The packed variable attribute", "The aligned type attribute", "The packed type attribute", and "The `__align` specifier" in the *XL C/C++ Language Reference*
- `#pragma pack` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Guidelines for determining alignment of scalar variables

The following formulas use a "top-down" approach to determining the alignment, given the presence of alignment modifiers, for both *non-embedded* (stand-alone) scalar variables and *embedded* scalars (variables declared as members of an aggregate):

Alignment of variable = maximum(*effective type alignment* , *modified alignment value*)

where *effective type alignment* = maximum(maximum(aligned type attribute value, `__align` specifier value) , minimum(*type alignment*, packed type attribute value))

and *modified alignment value* = maximum(aligned variable attribute value, packed variable attribute value)

and where *type alignment* is the alignment mode currently in effect when the variable is declared, or the alignment value applied to a type in a typedef statement.

In addition, for embedded variables, which can be modified by the `#pragma pack` directive, the following rule applies:

Alignment of variable = minimum(`#pragma pack` value , maximum(*effective type alignment* , *modified alignment value*))

Note: If a type attribute and a variable attribute of the same kind are both specified in a declaration, the second attribute is ignored.

Guidelines for determining alignment of aggregate variables

The following formulas determine the alignment for aggregate variables, namely structures, unions, and classes:

Alignment of variable = maximum(*effective type alignment* , *modified alignment value*)

where *effective type alignment* = maximum(maximum(aligned type attribute value, `__align` specifier value) , minimum(*aggregate type alignment*, packed type attribute value))

and *modified alignment value* = maximum (aligned variable attribute value , packed variable attribute value)

and where *aggregate type alignment* = maximum (alignment of all members)

Note: If a type attribute and a variable attribute of the same kind are both specified in a declaration, the second attribute is ignored.

Chapter 3. Handling floating point operations

The following sections provide reference information, portability considerations, and suggested procedures for using compiler options to manage floating-point operations:

- “Floating-point formats”
- “Handling multiply-add operations”
- “Compiling for strict IEEE conformance”
- “Handling floating-point constant folding and rounding” on page 15
- “Handling floating-point exceptions” on page 16

Floating-point formats

XL C/C++ supports the following floating-point formats:

- 32-bit single precision, with an approximate normalized range, including 0, of 10^{-38} to 10^{+38} and precision of about 7 decimal digits
- 64-bit double precision, with an approximate normalized range, including 0, of 10^{-308} to 10^{+308} and precision of about 16 decimal digits
- 128-bit extended precision, with the same range as double-precision values, but with a precision of about 29 decimal digits

Note: On the SPU, double and long double are both 64 bits. On the PPU, double is 64 bits and long double is 128 bits.

Handling multiply-add operations

By default, the compiler generates a single non-IEEE 754 compatible multiply-add instruction for binary floating-point expressions such as $a+b*c$, partly because one instruction is faster than two. Because no rounding occurs between the multiply and add operations, this may also produce a more precise result. However, the increased precision might lead to different results from those obtained in other environments, and may cause $x*y-x*y$ to produce a nonzero result. To avoid these issues, you can suppress the generation of multiply-add instructions by using the `-qfloat=nomaf` option.

Related information

- `-qfloat` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Compiling for strict IEEE conformance

By default, XL C/C++ follows most, but not all of the rules in the IEEE standard. If you compile with the `-qnostrict` option, which is enabled by default at optimization level `-O3` or higher, some IEEE floating-point rules are violated in ways that can improve performance but might affect program correctness. To avoid this issue, and to compile for strict compliance with the IEEE standard, do the following:

- Use the `-qfloat=nomaf` compiler option.
- If the program changes the rounding mode at runtime, use the `-qfloat=rrm` option.

- If the data or program code contains signaling NaN values (NaNs), use the `-qfloat=nans` option. (A signaling NaN is different from a quiet NaN; you must explicitly code it into the program or data or create it by using the `-qinitauto` compiler option.)
- If you compile with `-O3`, `-O4`, or `-O5`, include the option `-qstrict` after it.

Related information

- “SPU single-precision differences from IEEE 754”
- “Advanced optimization” on page 32
- `-qfloat` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- `-qinitauto` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- `-qstrict` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- `-qinitauto` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

SPU single-precision differences from IEEE 754

SPU single-precision arithmetic differs from that specified by the IEEE 754 standard. The differences are listed below:

- Non-zero magnitude range is from 2^{-126} to $(2 - 2^{-23}) * 2^{128}$. That is, the largest exponent (128) is used to represent numbers, not Inf or NaN in the IEEE standard.
- Zero results from arithmetic operations are always +0, never -0.
- Denormal inputs from 2^{-149} to 2^{-126} to arithmetic operations are treated as zero with the same sign. Arithmetic operations never produce denormal results, but produce +0 instead.
- Arithmetic operations do not support IEEE Inf or NaN. These bit patterns represent valid numbers. Overflow results produce the maximum magnitude value of appropriate sign.
- Arithmetic operations use only the round-to-zero (chop, truncate) rounding mode, regardless of the setting of the rounding mode in the Floating-Point Status and Control Register (FPSCR), which affects only double-precision arithmetic operations.
- The rules for conversion between single-precision and double-precision are different from those for arithmetic operations.
- Conversion behaves as though both single-precision and double-precision were IEEE compliant (even though single-precision is not) . That is, a single-precision number with the IEEE +/-Inf or NaN bit pattern converts to the corresponding double-precision +/-Inf or NaN, and vice versa. Bits in the significand of the single-precision NaN are preserved when converting to double-precision, but when converting to single-precision, only the default NaN (0x7FC00000) is produced.
- single-precision denorms and signed 0 are recognized by conversions in either direction.
- Conversion in both directions follows the rounding mode set in the FPSCR.

For more information see *Synergistic Processor Unit Instruction Set Architecture* available at <http://www-01.ibm.com/chips/techlib/techlib.nsf/techdocs/76CA6C7304210F3987257060006F2C44>

Handling floating-point constant folding and rounding

By default, the compiler replaces most operations involving constant operands with their result at compile time. This process is known as constant folding. Additional folding opportunities may occur with optimization or with the `-qnostrict` option. The result of a floating-point operation folded at compile-time normally produces the same result as that obtained at execution time, except in the following cases:

- The compile-time rounding mode is different from the execution-time rounding mode. By default, both are round-to-nearest; however, if your program changes the execution-time rounding mode, to avoid differing results, do either of the following:
 - Change the compile-time rounding mode to match the execution-time mode, by compiling with the appropriate `-y` option. For more information, and an example, see “Matching compile-time and runtime rounding modes.”
 - Suppress folding, by compiling with the `-qfloat=nofold` option.
- Expressions like $a+b*c$ are partially or fully evaluated at compile-time. The results might be different from those produced at execution time, because $b*c$ might be rounded before being added to a , while the runtime multiply-add instruction does not use any intermediate rounding. To avoid differing results, do either of the following:
 - Suppress the use of multiply-add instructions, by compiling with the `-qfloat=nomaf` option.
 - Suppress folding, by compiling with the `-qfloat=nofold` option.
- An operation produces an infinite or NaN result. Compile-time folding prevents execution-time detection of an exception, even if you compile with the `-qfltrap` option. To avoid missing these exceptions, suppress folding with the `-qfloat=nofold` option.

Related information

- “Handling floating-point exceptions” on page 16
- `-qfloat` and `-qstrict` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Matching compile-time and runtime rounding modes

The default rounding mode used at compile-time and runtime is round-to-nearest, ties even. If your program changes the rounding mode at runtime, the results of a floating-point calculation might be slightly different from those that are obtained at compile-time. The following example illustrates this:

Note: For single-precision floats on the SPU, the only rounding mode is round-toward-zero.

```
#include <float.h>
#include <fenv.h>
#include <stdio.h>

int main ( )
{
    volatile double one = 1.f, three = 3.f; /* volatiles are not folded */
    double one_third;

    one_third = 1. / 3.; /* folded */
    printf ("1/3 with compile-time rounding = %.17f\n", one_third);

    fesetround (FE_TOWARDZERO);
    one_third = one / three; /* not folded */
}
```

```

printf ("1/3 with execution-time rounding to zero = %.17f\n", one_third);

fesetround (FE_TONEAREST);
one_third = one / three; /* not folded */
printf ("1/3 with execution-time rounding to nearest = %.17f\n", one_third);

fesetround (FE_UPWARD);
one_third = one / three; /* not folded */
printf ("1/3 with execution-time rounding to +infinity = %.17f\n", one_third);

fesetround (FE_DOWNWARD);
one_third = one / three; /* not folded */
printf ("1/3 with execution-time rounding to -infinity = %.17f\n", one_third);

return 0;
}

```

When compiled with the default options, this code produces the following results:

```

1/3 with compile-time rounding = 0.3333333333333331
1/3 with execution-time rounding to zero = 0.3333333333333331
1/3 with execution-time rounding to nearest = 0.3333333333333331
1/3 with execution-time rounding to +infinity = 0.3333333333333337
1/3 with execution-time rounding to -infinity = 0.3333333333333331

```

Because the fourth computation changes the rounding mode to round-to-infinity, the results are slightly different from the first computation, which is performed at compile-time, using round-to-nearest. If you do not use the **-qfloat=nofold** option to suppress all compile-time folding of floating-point computations, it is recommended that you use the **-y** compiler option with the appropriate suboption to match compile-time and runtime rounding modes. In the previous example, compiling with **-yp** (round-to-infinity) produces the following result for the first computation:

```

1/3 with compile-time rounding = 0.3333333333333337

```

In general, if the rounding mode is changed to +infinity or -infinity, it is recommended that you also use the **-qfloat=rrm** option.

Related information

- **-qfloat** and **-y** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Handling floating-point exceptions

By default, invalid operations such as division by zero, division by infinity, overflow, and underflow are ignored at runtime. However, you can use the **-qflttrap** (PPU only) option to detect these types of exceptions. In addition, you can add suitable support code to your program to allow program execution to continue after an exception occurs, and to modify the results of operations causing exceptions.

Because, however, floating-point computations involving constants are usually folded at compile-time, the potential exceptions that would be produced at runtime will not occur. To ensure that the **-qflttrap** option traps all runtime floating-point exceptions, consider using the **-qfloat=nofold** option to suppress all compile-time folding.

Related information

- **-qfloat** and **-qflttrap** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Chapter 4. Using C++ templates

In C++, you can use a template to declare a set of related:

- Classes (including structures)
- Functions
- Static data members of template classes

Within an application, you can instantiate the same template multiple times with the same arguments or with different arguments. If you use the same arguments, the repeated instantiations are redundant. These redundant instantiations increase compilation time, increase the size of the executable, and deliver no benefit.

There are four basic approaches to the problem of redundant instantiations:

Code for unique instantiations

Organize your source code so that the object files contain only one instance of each required instantiation and no unused instantiations. This is the least usable approach, because you must know where each template is defined and where each template instantiation is required.

Instantiate at every occurrence

Use the **-qnotempinc** and **-qnotemplateregistry** compiler options (these are the default settings). The compiler generates code for every instantiation that it encounters. With this approach, you accept the disadvantages of redundant instantiations.

Have the compiler store instantiations in a template include directory

Use the **-qtempinc** compiler option. If the template definition and implementation files have the required structure, each template instantiation is stored in a template include directory. If the compiler is asked to instantiate the same template again with the same arguments, it uses the stored version instead. This approach is described in "Using the **-qtempinc** compiler option."

Have the compiler store instantiation information in a registry

Use the **-qtemplateregistry** compiler option. Information about each template instantiation is stored in a template registry. If the compiler is asked to instantiate the same template again with the same arguments, it points to the instantiation in the first object file instead. The **-qtemplateregistry** compiler option provides the benefits of the **-qtempinc** compiler option but does not require a specific structure for the template definition and implementation files. This approach is described in "Using the **-qtemplateregistry** compiler option" on page 20.

Note: The **-qtempinc** and **-qtemplateregistry** compiler options are mutually exclusive.

Related information

- **-qtmplinst**

Using the **-qtempinc** compiler option

To use **-qtempinc**, you must structure your application as follows:

1. Declare your class templates and function templates in template header files, with a `.h` extension.
2. For each template declaration file, create a template implementation file. This file must have the same file name as the template declaration file and an extension of `.c` or `.t`, or the name must be specified in a **#pragma implementation** directive. For a class template, the implementation file defines the member functions and static data members. For a function template, the implementation file defines the function.
3. In your source program, specify an `#include` directive for each template declaration file.
4. Optionally, to ensure that your code is applicable for both **-qtempinc** and **-qnotempinc** compilations, in each template declaration file, conditionally include the corresponding template implementation file if the `__TEMPINC__` macro is *not* defined. (This macro is automatically defined when you use the **-qtempinc** compilation option.)

This produces the following results:

- Whenever you compile with **-qnotempinc**, the template implementation file is included.
- Whenever you compile with **-qtempinc**, the compiler does not include the template implementation file. Instead, the compiler looks for a file with the same name as the template implementation file and extension `.c` the first time it needs a particular instantiation. If the compiler subsequently needs the same instantiation, it uses the copy stored in the template include directory.

Related information

- **-qtempinc** and **#pragma implementation** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Example of -qtempinc

This example includes the following source files:

- A template declaration file: `stack.h`.
- The corresponding template implementation file: `stack.c`.
- A function prototype: `stackops.h` (not a function template).
- The corresponding function implementation file: `stackops.cpp`.
- The main program source file: `stackadd.cpp`.

In this example:

1. Both source files include the template declaration file `stack.h`.
2. Both source files include the function prototype `stackops.h`.
3. The template declaration file conditionally includes the template implementation file `stack.c` if the program is compiled with **-qnotempinc**.

Template declaration file: `stack.h`

This header file defines the class template for the class `Stack`.

```
#ifndef STACK_H
#define STACK_H

template <class Item, int size> class Stack {
public:
    void push(Item item); // Push operator
    Item pop();          // Pop operator
    int isEmpty(){
        return (top==0); // Returns true if empty, otherwise false
    }
};
```

```

    }
    Stack() { top = 0; } // Constructor defined inline
private:
    Item stack[size]; // The stack of items
    int top; // Index to top of stack
};

#ifdef __TEMPINC__ // 3
#include "stack.c" // 3
#endif // 3
#endif

```

Template implementation file: stack.c

This file provides the implementation of the class template for the class Stack.

```

template <class Item, int size>
void Stack<Item,size>::push(Item item) {
    if (top >= size) throw size;
    stack[top++] = item;
}

template <class Item, int size>
Item Stack<Item,size>::pop() {
    if (top <= 0) throw size;
    Item item = stack[--top];
    return(item);
}

```

Function declaration file: stackops.h

This header file contains the prototype for the add function, which is used in both stackadd.cpp and stackops.cpp.

```
void add(Stack<int, 50>& s);
```

Function implementation file: stackops.cpp

This file provides the implementation of the add function, which is called from the main program.

```

#include "stack.h" // 1
#include "stackops.h" // 2

void add(Stack<int, 50>& s) {
    int tot = s.pop() + s.pop();
    s.push(tot);
    return;
}

```

Main program file: stackadd.cpp

This file creates a Stack object.

```

#include <iostream.h>
#include "stack.h" // 1
#include "stackops.h" // 2

main() {
    Stack<int, 50> s; // create a stack of ints
    int left=10, right=20;
    int sum;

    s.push(left); // push 10 on the stack
    s.push(right); // push 20 on the stack
    add(s); // pop the 2 numbers off the stack
            // and push the sum onto the stack

    sum = s.pop(); // pop the sum off the stack
}

```

```
cout << "The sum of: " << left << " and: " << right << " is: " << sum << endl;
return(0);
}
```

Regenerating the template instantiation file

The compiler builds a template instantiation file in the TEMPINC directory corresponding to each template implementation file. With each compilation, the compiler can add information to the file but it never removes information from the file.

As you develop your program, you might remove template function references or reorganize your program so that the template instantiation files become obsolete. You can periodically delete the TEMPINC destination and recompile your program.

Using `-qtempinc` with shared libraries

In a traditional application development environment, different applications can share both source files and compiled files. When you use templates, applications can share source files but cannot share compiled files.

If you use `-qtempinc`:

- Each application must have its own TEMPINC destination.
- You must compile all of the source files for the application, even if some of the files have already been compiled for another application.

Using the `-qtemplateregistry` compiler option

Unlike `-qtempinc`, the `-qtemplateregistry` compiler option does not impose specific requirements on the organization of your source code. Any program that compiles successfully with `-qnotempinc` will compile with `-qtemplateregistry`.

The template registry uses a "first-come first-served" algorithm:

- When a program references a new instantiation for the first time, it is instantiated in the compilation unit in which it occurs.
- When another compilation unit references the same instantiation, it is not instantiated. Thus, only one copy is generated for the entire program.

The instantiation information is stored in a template registry file. You must use the same template registry file for the entire program. Two programs cannot share a template registry file.

The default file name for the template registry file is `templateregistry`, but you can specify any other valid file name to override this default. When cleaning your program build environment before starting a fresh or scratch build, you must delete the registry file along with the old object files.

Related information

- `-qtemplateregistry` and `-qtemplaterecompile` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Recompiling related compilation units

If two compilation units, A and B, reference the same instantiation, the `-qtemplateregistry` compiler option has the following effect:

- If you compile A first, the object file for A contains the code for the instantiation.

- When you later compile B, the object file for B does not contain the code for the instantiation because object A already does.
- If you later change A so that it no longer references this instantiation, the reference in object B would produce an unresolved symbol error. When you recompile A, the compiler detects this problem and handles it as follows:
 - If the **-qtemplaterecompile** compiler option is in effect, the compiler automatically recompiles B during the link step, using the same compiler options that were specified for A. (Note, however, that if you use separate compilation and linkage steps, you need to include the compilation options in the link step to ensure the correct compilation of B.)
 - If the **-qnotemplaterecompile** compiler option is in effect, the compiler issues a warning and you must manually recompile B.

Switching from **-qtempinc** to **-qtemplateregistry**

Because the **-qtemplateregistry** compiler option does not impose any restrictions on the file structure of your application, it has less administrative overhead than **-qtempinc**. You can make the switch as follows:

- If your application compiles successfully with both **-qtempinc** and **-qnotempinc**, you do not need to make any changes.
- If your application compiles successfully with **-qtempinc** but not with **-qnotempinc**, you must change it so that it will compile successfully with **-qnotempinc**. In each template definition file, conditionally include the corresponding template implementation file if the `__TEMPINC__` macro is not defined. This is illustrated in “Example of **-qtempinc**” on page 18.

Chapter 5. Constructing a library

You can include static and shared libraries in your C and C++ applications.

“Compiling and linking a library” describes how to compile your source files into object files for inclusion in a library, how to link a library into the main program, and how to link one library into another.

“Initializing static objects in libraries (C++)” on page 24 describes how to use priorities to control the order of initialization of objects across multiple files in a C++ application.

Compiling and linking a library

Compiling a static library

To compile a static library:

1. Compile each source file into an object file, with no linking. For example:

```
ppuxlc -c bar.c example.c
```
2. Use the **ppu-ar** command to add the generated object files to an archive library file. For example:

```
ppu-ar -rv libfoo.a bar.o example.o
```

Compiling a shared library (PPU only)

To compile a shared library:

1. Compile your source files into an object file, with no linking. Note that in the case of compiling a shared library, the **-qp** compiler option is also used. For example:

```
ppuxlc -qp -c foo.c
```
2. Use the **-qmshrobj** compiler option to create a shared object from the generated object files. For example:

```
ppuxlc -qmshrobj -o libfoo.so foo.o
```

Related information

- **-qmshrobj** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Linking a library to an application

You can use the same command string to link a static or shared library to your main program. For example:

```
ppuxlc -o myprogram main.c -Ldirectory [-Rdirectory] -lfoo
```

where *directory* is the path to the directory containing the library.

By using the **-l** option, you instruct the linker to search in the directory specified via the **-L** option (and, for a shared library, the **-R** option) for `libfoo.so`; if it is not found, the linker searches for `libfoo.a`. For additional linkage options, including options that modify the default behavior, see the operating system **ld** documentation.

Linking a shared library to another shared library

Just as you link modules into an application, you can create dependencies between shared libraries by linking them together. For example:

```
ppuxlc -qmksrobj -o mylib.so myfile.o -Ldirectory -lfoo
```

Related information

- `-qmksrobj`, `-I`, `-R` and `-L` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Initializing static objects in libraries (C++)

The C++ language definition specifies that, before the main function in a C++ program is executed, all objects with constructors, from all the files included in the program must be properly constructed. Although the language definition specifies the order of initialization for these objects *within* a file (which follows the order in which they are declared), it does not specify the order of initialization for these objects *across* files and libraries. You might want to specify the initialization order of static objects declared in various files and libraries in your program.

To specify an initialization order for objects, you assign relative *priority* numbers to objects. The mechanisms by which you can specify priorities for entire files or objects within files are discussed in “Assigning priorities to objects.” The mechanisms by which you can control the initialization order of objects across modules are discussed in “Order of object initialization across libraries” on page 26.

Assigning priorities to objects

You can assign a priority number to objects and files within a single library, and the objects will be initialized at runtime according to the order of priority. However, because of the differences in the way modules are loaded and objects initialized on the different platforms, the levels at which you can assign priorities vary among the different platforms, as follows:

Set the priority level for an entire file

To use this approach, you specify the `-qpriority` compiler option during compilation. By default, all objects within a single file are assigned the same priority level, and are initialized in the order in which they are declared, and terminated in reverse declaration order.

Set the priority level for objects within a file

To use this approach, you include `#pragma priority` directives in the source files. Each `#pragma priority` directive sets the priority level for all objects that follow it, until another pragma directive is specified. Within a file, the first `#pragma priority` directive must have a higher priority number than the number specified in the `-qpriority` option (if it is used), and subsequent `#pragma priority` directives must have increasing numbers. While the relative priority of objects *within* a single file will remain the order in which they are declared, the pragma directives will affect the order in which objects are initialized *across* files. The objects are initialized according to their priority, and terminated in reverse priority order.

Set the priority level for individual objects

To use this approach, you use `init_priority` variable attributes in the source files. The `init_priority` attribute takes precedence over `#pragma priority` directives, and can be applied to objects in any declaration order. On Linux, the objects are initialized according to their priority and terminated in reverse priority *across* compilation units.

Related information

- "The `init_priority` variable attribute" in the *XL C/C++ Language Reference*

Using priority numbers

Priority numbers can range from 101 to 65535. The smallest priority number that you can specify, 101, is initialized first. The largest priority number, 65535, is initialized last. If you do not specify a priority level, the default priority is 65535.

The examples below show how to specify the priority of objects within a single file, and across two files. "Order of object initialization across libraries" on page 26 provides detailed information on the order of initialization of objects.

Example of object initialization within a file

The following example shows how to specify the priority for several objects within a source file.

```
...
#pragma priority(2000) //Following objects constructed with priority 2000
...

static Base a ;

House b ;
...
#pragma priority(3000) //Following objects constructed with priority 3000
...

Barn c ;
...
#pragma priority(2500) // Error - priority number must be larger
                       // than preceding number (3000)
...
#pragma priority(4000) //Following objects constructed with priority 4000
...

Garage d ;
...
```

Example of object initialization across multiple files

The following example describes the initialization order for objects in two files, `farm.C` and `zoo.C`. Both files are contained in the same shared module, and use the `-qpriority` compiler option and `#pragma priority` directives.

```
farm.C -qpriority=1000          zoo.C -qpriority=2000
...
Dog a ;                          ...
Dog b ;                          Bear m ;
...
#pragma priority(6000)           ...
...                               #pragma priority(5000)
...                               ...
Cat c ;                          Zebra n ;
Cow d ;                          Snake s ;
...                               ...
#pragma priority(7000)           #pragma priority(8000)
Mouse e ;                        Frog f ;
...                               ...
```

At runtime, the objects in these files are initialized in the following order:

| Sequence | Object | Priority value | Comment |
|----------|---------|----------------|--|
| 1 | Dog a | 1000 | Takes option priority (1000). |
| 2 | Dog b | 1000 | Follows with the same priority. |
| 3 | Bear m | 2000 | Takes option priority (2000). |
| 4 | Zebra n | 5000 | Takes pragma priority (5000). |
| 5 | Snake s | 5000 | Follows with same priority. |
| 6 | Cat c | 6000 | Next priority number. |
| 7 | Cow d | 6000 | Follows with same priority. |
| 8 | Mouse e | 7000 | Next priority number. |
| 9 | Frog f | 8000 | Next priority number (initialized last). |

Order of object initialization across libraries

Each static library and shared library is loaded and initialized at runtime in *reverse* link order, once all of its dependencies have been loaded and initialized. Link order is the order in which each library was listed on the command line during linking into the main application. For example, if library A calls library B, library B is loaded before library A.

As each module is loaded, objects are initialized in order of priority, according to the rules outlined in “Assigning priorities to objects” on page 24. If objects do not have priorities assigned, or have the same priorities, object files are initialized in reverse link order — where link order is the order in which the files were given on the command line during linking into the library — and the objects within the files are initialized according to their declaration order. Objects are terminated in reverse order of their construction.

Example of object initialization across libraries

In this example, the following modules are used:

- main.out, the executable containing the main function
- libS1 and libS2, two shared libraries
- libS3 and libS4, two shared libraries that are dependencies of libS1
- libS5 and libS6, two shared libraries that are dependencies of libS2

The source files are compiled into object files with the following command strings:

```
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=101 -c fileA.C -o fileA.o
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=150 -c fileB.C -o fileB.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileC.C -o fileC.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileD.C -o fileD.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileE.C -o fileE.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileF.C -o fileF.o
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=300 -c fileG.C -o fileG.o
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=200 -c fileH.C -o fileH.o
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=500 -c fileI.C -o fileI.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileJ.C -o fileJ.o
ppuxlc++ -c fileK.C -o fileK.o
ppuxlc++ -qpriority=600 -c fileL.C -o fileL.o
```

The dependent libraries are created with the following command strings:

```

ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS3.so fileE.o fileF.o
ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS4.so fileG.o fileH.o
ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS5.so fileI.o fileJ.o
ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS6.so fileK.o fileL.o

```

The dependent libraries are linked with their parent libraries using the following command strings:

```

ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS1.so fileA.o fileB.o -L. -R. -lS3 -lS4
ppuxlc++ -qmkshrobj -o libS2.so fileC.o fileD.o -L. -R. -lS5 -lS6

```

The parent libraries are linked with the main program with the following command string:

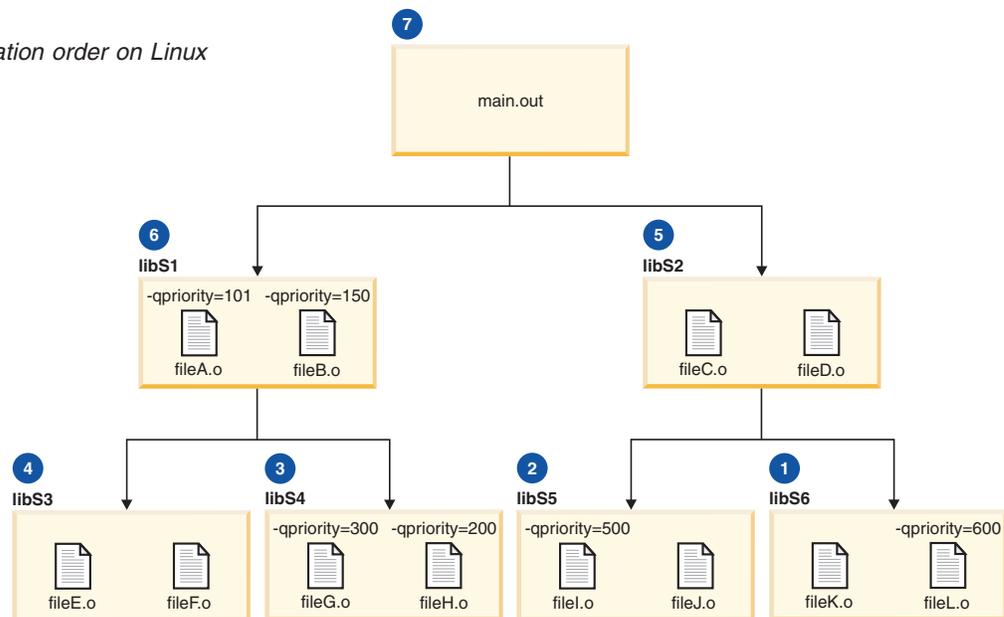
```

ppuxlc++ main.C -o main.out -L. -R. -lS1 -lS2

```

The following diagram shows the initialization order of the shared libraries.

Figure 1. Object initialization order on Linux



Objects are initialized as follows:

| Sequence | Object | Priority value | Comment |
|----------|--------|----------------|--|
| 1 | libS6 | n/a | libS2 was entered last on the command line when linked with main, and so is initialized before libS1. However, libS5 and libS6 are dependencies of libS2, so they are initialized first. Since it was entered last on the command line when linked to create libS2, libS6 is initialized first. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 2 | fileL | 600 | The objects in fileL are initialized next (lowest priority number in this module). |
| 3 | fileK | 65535 | The objects in fileK are initialized next (next priority number in this module (default priority of 65535)). |

| Sequence | Object | Priority value | Comment |
|----------|----------|----------------|---|
| 4 | libS5 | n/a | libS5 was entered before libS6 on the command line when linked with libS2, so it is initialized next. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 5 | fileI | 500 | The objects in fileI are initialized next (lowest priority number in this module). |
| 6 | fileJ | 65535 | The objects in fileJ are initialized next (next priority number in this module (default priority of 65535)). |
| 7 | libS4 | n/a | libS4 is a dependency of libS1 and was entered last on the command line when linked to create libS1, so it is initialized next. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 8 | fileH | 200 | The objects in fileH are initialized next (lowest priority number in this module). |
| 9 | fileG | 300 | The objects in fileG are initialized next (next priority number in this module). |
| 10 | libS3 | n/a | libS3 is a dependency of libS1 and was entered first on the command line during the linking with libS1, so it is initialized next. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 11 | fileF | 65535 | Both fileF and fileE are assigned a default priority of 65535. However, because fileF was listed last on the command line when the object files were linked into libS3, fileF is initialized first. |
| 12 | fileE | 65535 | Initialized next. |
| 13 | libS2 | n/a | libS2 is initialized next. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 14 | fileD | 65535 | Both fileD and fileC are assigned a default priority of 65535. However, because fileD was listed last on the command line when the object files were linked into libS2, fileD is initialized first. |
| 15 | fileC | 65535 | Initialized next. |
| 16 | libS1 | | libS1 is initialized next. The objects in this library are initialized according to their priority. |
| 17 | fileA | 101 | The objects in fileA are initialized next (lowest priority number in this module). |
| 18 | fileB | 150 | The objects in fileB are initialized next (next priority number in this module). |
| 19 | main.out | n/a | Initialized last. The objects in main.out are initialized according to their priority. |

Chapter 6. Optimizing your applications

The XL compilers enable development of high performance 32-bit and 64-bit applications by offering a comprehensive set of performance enhancing techniques that exploit the Cell Broadband Engine architecture. These performance advantages depend on good programming techniques, thorough testing and debugging, followed by optimization, and tuning.

Distinguishing between optimization and tuning

You can use optimization and tuning separately or in combination to increase the performance of your application. Understanding the difference between them is the first step in understanding how the different levels, settings and techniques can increase performance.

Optimization

Optimization is a compiler driven process that searches for opportunities to restructure your source code and give your application better overall performance at runtime, without significantly impacting development time. The XL compiler optimization suite, which you control using compiler options and directives, performs best on well-written source code that has already been through a thorough debugging and testing process. These optimization transformations can:

- Reduce the number of instructions your application executes to perform critical operations.
- Restructure your object code to make optimal use of the Cell Broadband Engine architecture.
- Improve memory subsystem usage.
- Exploit the ability of the architecture to handle large amounts of shared memory parallelization.

Consider that although not all optimizations benefit all applications, even basic optimization techniques can result in a performance benefit. Consult the Steps in the optimization process for an overview of the common sequence of steps you can use to increase the performance of your application.

Tuning

Where optimization applies increasingly aggressive transformations designed to improve the performance of any application in any supported environment, tuning offers you opportunities to adjust characteristics of your application to improve performance, or to target specific execution environments. Even at low optimization levels, tuning for your application and target architecture can have a positive impact on performance. With proper tuning the compiler can:

- Select more efficient machine instructions.
- Generate instruction sequences that are more relevant to your application.

Steps in the optimization process

As you begin the optimization process, consider that not all optimization techniques suit all applications. Trade-offs sometimes occur between an increase in compile time, a reduction in debugging capability, and the improvements that optimization can provide. Learning about, and experimenting with different

optimization techniques can help you strike the right balance for your XL compiler applications while achieving the best possible performance. Also, though it is unnecessary to hand-optimize your code, compiler-friendly programming can be extremely beneficial to the optimization process. Unusual constructs can obscure the characteristics of your application and make performance optimization difficult. Use the steps in this section as a guide for optimizing your application.

1. The Basic optimization step begins your optimization processes at levels 0 and 2.
2. The Advanced optimization step exposes your application to more intense optimizations at levels 3 through 5.
3. The Using high-order loop analysis and transformations step can help you limit loop execution time.
4. The Using interprocedural analysis, step can optimize your entire application at once.
5. The Using profile-directed feedback (PPU only) step focuses optimizations on specific characteristics of your application.
6. The Debugging high-performance code step can help you identify issues and problems that can occur with optimized code.

Note: When compiling and linking code targeting the SPU, we recommend that you use the **-O5** or **-qopt=5** compiler options to get the maximum performance from your application

Basic optimization

The XL compiler supports several levels of optimization, with each option level building on the levels below through increasingly aggressive transformations, and consequently using more machine resources. Ensure that your application compiles and executes properly at low optimization levels before trying more aggressive optimizations. This section discusses two optimizations levels, listed with complementary options in the *Basic optimizations* table. The table also includes a column for compiler options that can have a performance benefit at that optimization level for some applications.

Table 8. Basic optimizations

| Optimization level | Additional options implied by default | Complementary options | Other options with possible benefits |
|--------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------------|
| -O0 | None | -qarch | -g |
| -O2 | -qmaxmem=8192 | -qarch -qtune | -qmaxmem=-1 -qhot=level=0 |

Optimizing at level 0

Benefits at level 0

- Minimal performance improvement, with minimal impact on machine resources.
- Exposes some source code problems, helping in the debugging process.

Begin your optimization process at **-O0** which the compiler already specifies by default. This level performs basic analytical optimization by removing obviously

redundant code, and can result in better compile time, while ensuring your code is algorithmically correct so you can move forward to more complex optimizations. **-O0** also includes constant folding. The option **-qfloat=nofold** can be used to suppress folding floating-point operations. Optimizing at this level accurately preserves all debug information and can expose problems in existing code, such as uninitialized variables and bad casting.

Additionally, specifying **-qarch** at this level targets your application for a particular machine and can significantly improve performance by ensuring your application takes advantage of all applicable architectural benefits.

Optimizing at level 2

Benefits at level 2

- Eliminates redundant code
- Basic loop optimization
- Can structure code to take advantage of **-qarch** and **-qtune** settings

After successfully compiling, executing, and debugging your application using **-O0**, recompiling at **-O2** opens your application to a set of comprehensive low-level transformations that apply to subprogram or compilation unit scopes and can include some inlining. Optimizations at **-O2** are a relative balance between increasing performance while limiting the impact on compilation time and system resources. You can increase the memory available to some of the optimizations in the **-O2** portfolio by providing a larger value for the **-qmaxmem** option. Specifying **-qmaxmem=-1** allows the optimizer to use memory as needed without checking for limits but does not change the transformations the optimizer applies to your application at **-O2**.

In C, compile with **-qlibansi** unless your application defines functions with names identical to those of library functions. If you encounter problems with **-O2**, consider using **-qalias=noansi** rather than turning off optimization.

Also, ensure that pointers in your C code follow these type restrictions:

- Generic pointers can be `char*` or `void*`
- Mark all shared variables and pointers to shared variables `volatile`

Starting to tune at O2

Choosing the right hardware architecture target or family of targets becomes even more important at **-O2** and higher. Targeting the proper hardware allows the optimizer to make the best use of the hardware facilities available. If you choose a family of hardware targets, the **-qtune** option can direct the compiler to emit code consistent with the architecture choice, but will execute optimally on the chosen tuning hardware target. This allows you to compile for a general set of targets but have the code run best on a particular target.

The **-O2** option can perform a number of additional optimizations, including:

- Common subexpression elimination: Eliminates redundant instructions.
- Constant propagation: Evaluates constant expressions at compile-time.
- Dead code elimination: Eliminates instructions that a particular control flow does not reach, or that generate an unused result.
- Dead store elimination: Eliminates unnecessary variable assignments.

- Graph coloring register allocation: Globally assigns user variables to registers.
- Value numbering: Simplifies algebraic expressions, by eliminating redundant computations.
- Instruction scheduling for the target machine.
- Loop unrolling and software pipelining.
- Moves invariant code out of loops.
- Simplifies control flow.
- Strength reduction and effective use of addressing modes.

Even with **-O2** optimizations, some useful information about your source code is made available to the debugger if you specify **-g**. Conversely, higher optimization levels can transform code to an extent to which debug information is no longer accurate. Use that information with discretion.

Advanced optimization

After applying basic optimizations and successfully compiling and executing your application, you can apply more powerful optimization tools. Higher optimization levels can have a tremendous impact on performance, but some trade-offs can occur in terms of code size, compilation time, resource requirements and numeric or algorithmic precision. The XL compiler optimization portfolio includes many options for directing advanced optimization, and the transformations your application undergoes are largely under your control. The discussion of each optimization level in Table 9 on page 32 includes information on not only the performance benefits, and the possible trade-offs as well, but information on how you can help guide the optimizer to find the best solutions for your application.

Table 9. Advanced optimizations

| Optimization Level | Additional options implied | Complementary options | Options with possible benefits |
|--------------------|--|--|--------------------------------|
| -O3 | -qnostrict -qmaxmem=-1 -qhot=level=0 | -qarch -qtune | -qpdf (PPU only) |
| -O4 | -qnostrict -qmaxmem=-1 -qhot -qipa -qarch=auto -qtune=auto -qcache=auto | -qarch -qtune -qcache | -qpdf (PPU only) |
| -O5 | All of -O4 -qipa=level=2 | -qarch -qtune -qcache | -qpdf (PPU only) |

Optimizing at level 3

Benefits at level 3

- In-depth memory access analysis
- Better loop scheduling
- High-order loop analysis and transformations (**-qhot=level=0**)
- Inlining of small procedures within a compilation unit by default
- Eliminating implicit compile-time memory usage limits
- Widening, which merges adjacent load/stores and other operations
- Pointer aliasing improvements to enhance other optimizations

Specifying **-O3** initiates more intense low-level transformations that remove many of the limitations present at **-O2**. For instance, the optimizer no longer checks for memory limits, by defaulting to **-qmaxmem=-1**. Additionally, optimizations encompass larger program regions and attempt more in-depth analysis. While not all applications contain opportunities for the optimizer to provide a measurable increase in performance, most applications can benefit from this type of analysis.

Potential trade-offs at level 3

With the in-depth analysis of **-O3** comes a trade-off in terms of compilation time and memory resources. Also, since **-O3** implies **-qnostrict**, the optimizer can alter certain floating-point semantics in your application to gain execution speed. This typically involves precision trade-offs as follows:

- Reordering of floating-point computations.
- Reordering or elimination of possible exceptions, such as division by zero or overflow.

You can still gain most of the **-O3** benefits while preserving precise floating-point semantics by specifying **-qstrict**. Compiling with **-qstrict** is necessary if you require the same absolute precision in floating-point computational accuracy as you get with **-O0**, **-O2**, or **-qnoopt** results. The **-qstrict** compiler option also ensures adherence to all IEEE semantics for floating-point operations. If your application is sensitive to floating-point exceptions or the order of evaluation for floating-point arithmetic, compiling with **-qstrict** will help assure accurate results. Without **-qstrict**, the difference in computation for any one source-level operation is very small in comparison to basic optimization. Though a small difference can compound if the operation is in a loop structure where the difference becomes additive, most applications are not sensitive to the changes that can occur in floating-point semantics.

An intermediate step: adding -qhot suboptions at level 3

At **-O3**, the optimization includes minimal **-qhot** loop transformations at **level=0** to increase performance. You can further increase your performance benefit by increasing the level and therefore the aggressiveness of **-qhot**. Try specifying **-qhot** without any suboptions, or **-qhot=level=1**.

For more information on **-qhot**, see [Using high-order loop analysis and transformations](#) .

Optimizing at level 4

Benefits at level 4

- Propagation of global and parameter values between compilation units
- Inlining code from one compilation unit to another
- Reorganization or elimination of global data structures
- An increase in the precision of aliasing analysis

Optimizing at **-O4** builds on **-O3** by triggering **-qipa=level=1** which performs interprocedural analysis (IPA), optimizing your entire application as a unit. This option is particularly pertinent to applications that contain a large number of frequently used routines.

To make full use of IPA optimizations, you must specify **-O4** on the compilation and link steps of your application build as interprocedural analysis occurs in stages at both compile and link time.

The IPA process

1. At compilation time optimizations occur on a file-by-file basis, as well as preparation for the link stage. IPA writes analysis information directly into the object files the compiler produces.
2. At the link stage, IPA reads the information from the object files and analyzes the entire application.
3. This analysis guides the optimizer on how to rewrite and restructure your application and apply appropriate **-O3** level optimizations.

The Using interprocedural analysis section contains more information on IPA including details on IPA suboptions.

Beyond **-qipa**, **-O4** enables other optimization options:

- **-qhot**

Enables more aggressive HOT transformations to optimize loop constructs and array language.

- **-qarch=auto** and **-qtune=auto**

Optimizes your application to execute on a hardware architecture identical to your build machine. If the architecture of your build machine is incompatible with your application's execution environment, you must specify a different **-qarch** suboption after the **-O4** option. This overrides **-qarch=auto**. These options are set by the invocation command to optimize for either PPU or SPU.

- **-qcache=auto**

Optimizes your cache configuration for execution on specific hardware architecture. The auto suboption assumes that the cache configuration of your build machine is identical to the configuration of your execution architecture. Specifying a cache configuration can increase program performance, particularly loop operations by blocking them to process only the amount of data that can fit into the data cache.

If you will be executing your application on a different machine, specify correct cache values.

Potential trade-offs at level 4

In addition to the trade-offs already mentioned for **-O3**, specifying **-qipa** can significantly increase compilation time, especially at the link step.

Optimizing at level 5

Benefits at level 5

- Most aggressive optimizations available
- Makes full use of loop optimizations and IPA

As the highest optimization level, **-O5** includes all **-O4** optimizations and deepens whole program analysis by increasing the **-qipa** level to 2. Compiling with **-O5** also increases how aggressively the optimizer pursues aliasing improvements. Additionally, if your application contains a mix of XL C/C++ and Fortran code that you compile using XL compilers, you can increase performance by compiling and linking your code with the **-O5** option.

Note: When compiling code targeting the SPU, we recommend that you use the **-O5** or **-qopt=5** compiler options to get the maximum performance from your application

Potential trade-offs at level 5

Compiling at **-O5** requires more compilation time and machine resources than any other optimization level, particularly if you include **-O5** on the IPA link step. Compile at **-O5** as the final phase in your optimization process after successfully compiling and executing your application at **-O4**.

Using high-order loop analysis and transformations

High-order transformations are optimizations that specifically improve the performance of loops through techniques such as interchange, fusion, and unrolling. The goals of these loop optimizations include:

- Reducing the costs of memory access through the effective use of caches and translation look-aside buffers.
- Overlapping computation and memory access through effective utilization of the data prefetching capabilities provided by the hardware.
- Improving the utilization of microprocessor resources through reordering and balancing the usage of instructions with complementary resource requirements.
- Generating VMX vector instructions for the PPU and native vector instructions for the SPU.

To enable high-order loop analysis and transformations, you use the **-qhot** option, which implies an optimization level of **-O2**. The following table lists the suboptions available for **-qhot**.

Table 10. **-qhot** suboptions

| Suboption | Behavior |
|-----------|--|
| level=1 | This is the default suboption if you specify -qhot with no suboptions. This level is also automatically enabled if you compile with -O4 or -O5 . This is equivalent to specifying -qhot=vector and -qhot=simd . |

Table 10. **-qhot** suboptions (continued)

| Suboption | Behavior |
|-----------|--|
| level=0 | Instructs the compiler to perform a subset of high-order transformations that enhance performance by improving data locality. This suboption implies -qhot=novector , -qhot=noarraypad and -qhot=nosimd . This level is automatically enabled if you compile with -O3 . |
| vector | When specified with -qnostrict and -qignernno , or -O3 or a higher optimization level, instructs the compiler to transform some loops to use the optimized versions of various math functions contained in the MASS libraries, rather than use the system versions. The optimized versions make different trade-offs with respect to accuracy and exception-handling versus performance. This suboption is enabled by default if you specify -qhot with no suboptions. Also, specifying -qhot=vector with -O3 implies -qhot=level=1 . |
| arraypad | Instructs the compiler to pad any arrays where it infers there might be a benefit and to pad by whatever amount it chooses. |
| simd | Instructs the compiler to attempt automatic SIMD vectorization; that is, converting certain operations in a loop that apply to successive elements of an array into a call to a vector processing instruction. This call calculates several results at one time, which is faster than calculating each result sequentially. |

Getting the most out of **-qhot**

Here are some suggestions for using **-qhot**:

- Try using **-qhot** along with **-O3** for all of your code. It is designed to have a neutral effect when no opportunities for transformation exist.
- If the runtime performance of your code can significantly benefit from automatic inlining and memory locality optimizations, try using **-O4** with **-qhot=level=0** or **-qhot=novector**.
- If you encounter unacceptably long compile times (this can happen with complex loop nests), try **-qhot=level=0**.
- If your code size is unacceptably large, try using **-qcompact** along with **-qhot**.
- If necessary, deactivate **-qhot** selectively, allowing it to improve some of your code.
- Use **-qreport** along with **-qhot=simd** to generate a loop transformation listing. The listing file identifies how loops were transformed in a section marked LOOP TRANSFORMATION SECTION. Use the listing information as feedback about how the loops in your program are being transformed. Based on this information, you may want to adjust your code so that the compiler can transform loops more effectively.

Related information

- **-qhot** and **-qstrict** in *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Using interprocedural analysis

Interprocedural analysis (IPA) enables the compiler to optimize across different files (whole-program analysis), and can result in significant performance improvements. You can specify interprocedural analysis on the compile step only or on both compile and link steps in “whole program” mode . Whole program mode expands the scope of optimization to an entire program unit, which can be

an executable or shared object. As IPA can significantly increase compilation time, you should limit using IPA to the final performance tuning stage of development.

You enable IPA by specifying the **-qipa** option. The most commonly used suboptions and their effects are described in the following table. The full set of suboptions and syntax is described in the **-qipa** section of the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*.

The steps to use IPA are:

1. Do preliminary performance analysis and tuning before compiling with the **-qipa** option, because the IPA analysis uses a two-pass mechanism that increases compile and link time. You can reduce some compile and link overhead by using the **-qipa=noobject** option.
2. Specify the **-qipa** option on both the compile and the link steps of the entire application, or as much of it as possible. Use suboptions to indicate assumptions to be made about parts of the program *not* compiled with **-qipa**.

Table 11. Commonly used **-qipa** suboptions

| Suboption | Behavior |
|---------------------------|--|
| level=0 | <p>Program partitioning and simple interprocedural optimization, which consists of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Automatic recognition of standard libraries. • Localization of statically bound variables and procedures. • Partitioning and layout of procedures according to their calling relationships. (Procedures that call each other frequently are located closer together in memory.) • Expansion of scope for some optimizations, notably register allocation. |
| level=1 | <p>Inlining and global data mapping. Specifically:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedure inlining. • Partitioning and layout of static data according to reference affinity. (Data that is frequently referenced together will be located closer together in memory.) <p>This is the default level if you do not specify any suboptions with the -qipa option.</p> |
| level=2 | <p>Global alias analysis, specialization, interprocedural data flow:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whole-program alias analysis. This level includes the disambiguation of pointer dereferences and indirect function calls, and the refinement of information about the side effects of a function call. • Intensive intraprocedural optimizations. This can take the form of value numbering, code propagation and simplification, moving code into conditions or out of loops, and elimination of redundancy. • Interprocedural constant propagation, dead code elimination, pointer analysis, code motion across functions, and interprocedural strength reduction. • Procedure specialization (cloning). • Whole program data reorganization. |
| inline= <i>suboptions</i> | Allows precise control over function inlining. |
| <i>fine_tuning</i> | Other values for -qipa provide the ability to specify the behavior of library code, tune program partitioning, read commands from a file, etc. |

Getting the most from `-qipa`

It is not necessary to compile everything with `-qipa`, but try to apply it to as much of your program as possible. Here are some suggestions:

- Specify the `-qipa` option on both the compile and link steps of the entire application. Although you can also use `-qipa` with libraries, shared objects, and executable files, be sure to use `-qipa` to compile the main and exported functions.
- When compiling and linking separately, use `-qipa=noobject` on the compile step for faster compilation.
- When specifying optimization options in a makefile, remember to use the compiler driver (`ppuxlc`) to link, and to include all compiler options on the link step.
- As IPA can generate significantly larger object files than traditional compilations, ensure that there is enough space in the `/tmp` directory (at least 200 MB). You can use the `TMPDIR` environment variable to specify a directory with sufficient free space.
- Try varying the `level` suboption if link time is too long. Compiling with `-qipa=level=0` can still be very beneficial for little additional link time.
- Use `-qipa=list=long` to generate a report of functions that were inlined. If too few or too many functions are inlined, consider using `-qipa=inline` or `-qipa=noinline`. To control inlining of specific functions, use `-qipa=[no]inline=function_name`.

Note: While IPA's interprocedural optimizations can significantly improve performance of a program, they can also cause incorrect but previously functioning programs to fail. Here are examples of programming practices that can work by accident without aggressive optimization but are exposed with IPA:

- Relying on the allocation order or location of automatic variables, such as taking the address of an automatic variable and then later comparing it with the address of another local variable to determine the growth direction of a stack. The C language does not guarantee where an automatic variable is allocated, or its position relative to other automatic variables. Do not compile such a function with IPA.
- Accessing a pointer that is either invalid or beyond an array's bounds. Because IPA can reorganize global data structures, a wayward pointer which might have previously modified unused memory might now conflict with user-allocated storage.

Related information

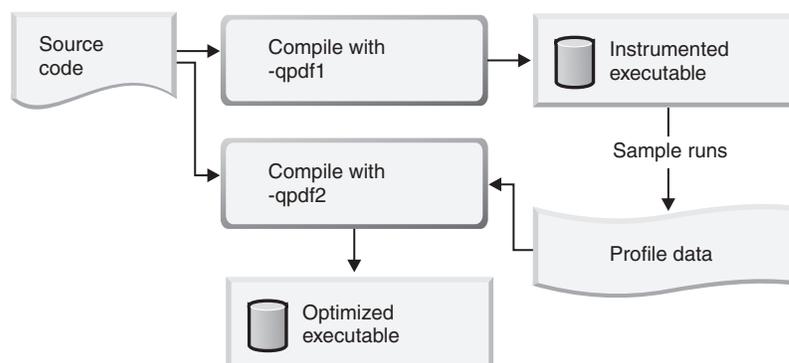
- `-qipa` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Using profile-directed feedback (PPU only)

You can use profile-directed feedback (PDF) to tune the performance of your application for a typical usage scenario. The compiler optimizes the application based on an analysis of how often branches are taken and blocks of code are executed. The PDF process is intended to be used after other debugging and tuning is finished, as one of the last steps before putting the application into production. Other optimizations such as `-qipa` and optimization levels `-O4` and `-O5` can also benefit when used in conjunction with PDF.

The following diagram illustrates the PDF process.

Figure 2. Profile-directed feedback



You first compile the program with the **-qpdf1** option (with a minimum optimization level of **-O2**), which generates profile data by using the compiled program in the same ways that users will typically use it. You then compile the program again, with the **-qpdf2** option. This optimizes the program based on the profile data. Alternatively, if you want to save considerable time by avoiding a full recompilation in the **-qpdf2** step, you can simply relink the object files produced by the **-qpdf1** step.

Note: XL C/C++ is a cross-compiler. The **-qpdf1** and **-qpdf2** steps below are carried out on the machine where you compile your application (compilation host). The step in which you run your application to generate profile information is carried out on the machine with the target environment (execution host).

To use PDF, follow these steps:

1. On the compilation host machine, compile some or all of the source files in a program with the **-qpdf1** option. You need to specify at least the **-O2** optimizing option and you also need to link with at least **-O2** in effect. Note the compiler options that you use to compile the files; you will need to use the same options later.

For example, compile your source using a command like this:

```
ppux1c test.c -qpdf1 -O2
```

Note: Optionally use the **-qipa=pdfname** option to specify the full path name for the profile instrumentation file that will be generated on the execution host machine when the application is run. Without this option, the default name of the file is `._pdf`. You can also use the `PDFDIR` environment variable if you want to use the default name but change the location where the file will be written.

2. On the execution host machine, run the program all the way through using data that is representative of the data that will be used during a normal run of your finished program. The program records profiling information when it finishes. You can run the program multiple times with different data sets, and the profiling information is accumulated to provide a count of how often branches are taken and blocks of code are executed, based on the input data used. When the application exits, by default, it writes profiling information to the PDF file in the current working directory or the directory specified by the

PDFDIR environment variable. The default name for the instrumentation file is `._pdf`. To override the defaults, use the `-qipa=pdfname` option in the `-qpdf1` step.

3. Copy the instrumentation file created on the execution host back to the compilation host machine.
4. On the compilation host machine, recompile your program using the same compiler options as before, but change `-qpdf1` to `-qpdf2`. In this second compilation, the accumulated profiling information is used to fine-tune the optimizations. The resulting program contains no profiling overhead and runs at full speed.

For example, compile your source using a command like this:

```
ppuxlc test.c -qpdf2 -O2
```

If you used the `-qipa=pdfname` option earlier, use it here as well to indicate the location and name of the instrumentation file on the compilation host.

Note: The options `-L`, `-l`, and some others are linker options, and you can change them at this point.

As an intermediate step, you can use `-qpdf2` to link the object files created by the `-qpdf1` pass without recompiling the source on the `-qpdf2` pass. This can save considerable time and help fine tune large applications for optimization. You can create and test different flavors of PDF optimized binaries by using different options on the `-qpdf2` pass.

Notes:

- You do not need to compile all of the application's code with the `-qpdf1` option to benefit from the PDF process. In a large application, you might want to concentrate on those areas of the code that can benefit most from optimization.
- When compiling your program with `-qpdf1` or `-qpdf2`, by default, the `-qipa` option is also invoked with `level=0`
- To avoid wasting compilation and execution time, make sure that the PDFDIR environment variable is set to an absolute path. Otherwise, you might run the application from the wrong directory, and it will not be able to locate the profile data files. When that happens, the program may not be optimized correctly or may be stopped by a segmentation fault. A segmentation fault might also happen if you change the value of the PDFDIR variable and execute the application before finishing the PDF process.
- You must use the same set of compiler options at all compilation steps for a particular program. Otherwise, PDF cannot optimize your program correctly and may even slow it down. All compiler settings must be the same, including any supplied by configuration files.
- If you compile a program with `-qpdf1`, remember that it will generate profiling information when it runs, which involves some performance overhead. This overhead goes away when you recompile with `-qpdf2` or with no PDF at all.

You can take more control of the PDF file generation, as follows:

1. Compile some or all of the source files in the application with `-qpdf1` and a minimum of `-O2`.
2. Run the application using a typical data set or several typical data sets. By default, this produces a PDF file in the current directory. The default name of the PDF file is `._pdf`.

3. Change the PDF file location specified by the PDFDIR environment variable or the **-qipa=pdfname** option to produce a PDF file in a different location.
4. Recompile or relink the application with **-qpdf1** and a minimum of **-O2**.
5. Repeat steps 3 and 4 as often as you want.
6. Recompile or relink the application with **-qpdf2** and a minimum of **-O**.

To erase the information in the PDF directory, use the **cleanpdf** utility or the **resetpdf** utility.

Object level profile-directed feedback (PPU only)

In addition to optimizing entire executables, profile-directed feedback (PDF) can also be applied to specific objects. This can be an advantage in applications where patches or updates are distributed as object files or libraries rather than as executables. Also, specific areas of functionality in your application can be optimized without you needing to go through the process of relinking the entire application. In large applications, you can save the time and trouble that otherwise would have been spent relinking the application.

The process for using object level PDF is essentially the same as the standard PDF process but with a small change to the **-qpdf2** step. For object level PDF, compile your application using **-qpdf1**, execute the application with representative data, compile the application again with **-qpdf2** but now also use the **-qnoipa** option so that the linking step is skipped.

The steps below outline this process:

1. Compile your application using **-qpdf1**. For example:

```
ppux1c -c -O3 -qpdf1 file1.c file2.c file3.c
```

In this example, we are using the option **-O3** to indicate that we want a moderate level of optimization.

2. Link the object files to get an instrumented executable.

```
ppux1c -O3 -qpdf1 file1.o file2.o file3.o
```

Note: you must use the same optimization options. In this example, the optimization option **-O3**.

3. Run the instrumented executable with sample data that is representative of the data you want to optimize for.

```
a.out < sample_data
```

4. Compile the application again using **-qpdf2**. Specify the **-qnoipa** option so that the linking step is skipped and PDF optimization is applied to the object files rather than to the entire executable. **Note:** you must use the same optimization options as in the previous steps. In this example, the optimization option **-O3**.

```
ppux1c -c -O3 -qpdf2 -qnoipa file1.c file2.c file3.c
```

The resulting output of this step are object files optimized for the sample data processed by the original instrumented executable. In this example, the optimized object files would be `file1.o`, `file2.o`, and `file3.o`. These can be linked using the system loader **ld** or by omitting the **-c** option in the **-qpdf2** step.

Notes:

- If you want to specify a file name for the profile that is created, use the **pdfname** suboption in both the **-qpdf1** and **-qpdf2** steps. For example:

```
ppux1c -O3 -qpdf1=pdfname=myprofile file1.c file2.c file3.c
```

Without the **pdfname** suboption, by default the file name will be `._pdf`; the location of the file will be the current working directory or whatever directory you have set using the `PDFDIR` environment variable.

- You must use the same optimization options in each compilation and linking step.
- Because **-qnoipa** needs to be specified in the **-qpdf2** step so that linking of your object files is skipped, you will not be able to use interprocedural analysis (IPA) optimizations and object level PDF at the same time.

Other optimization options

The following options are available to control particular aspects of optimization. They are often enabled as a group or given default values when you enable a more general optimization option or level. For more information on these options, see the heading for each option in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*.

Table 12. Selected compiler options for optimizing performance

| Option | Description |
|--|---|
| -qignerrno | Allows the compiler to assume that <code>errno</code> is not modified by library function calls, so that such calls can be optimized. Also allows optimization of square root operations, by generating inline code rather than calling a library function. (For processors that support <code>sqrt</code> .) |
| -qsmallstack (PPU only) | Instructs the compiler to compact stack storage. Doing so may increase heap usage. |
| -qinline | Controls inlining by the low-level optimizer. |
| -qunroll | Independently controls loop unrolling. -qunroll is implicitly activated under -O3 . |
| -qtbtable | Controls the generation of traceback table information. 64-bit mode only. |
|  -qnoeh (PPU only) | Informs the compiler that no C++ exceptions will be thrown and that cleanup code can be omitted. If your program does not throw any C++ exceptions, use this option to compact your program by removing exception-handling code. |
| -qnounwind (PPU only) | Informs the compiler that the stack will not be unwound while any routine in this compilation is active. This option can improve optimization of non-volatile register saves and restores. In C++, the -qnounwind option implies the -qnoeh option. |
| -qnostrict | Allows the compiler to reorder floating-point calculations and potentially excepting instructions. A potentially excepting instruction is one that might raise an interrupt due to erroneous execution (for example, floating-point overflow, a memory access violation). -qnostrict is used by default for optimization levels -O3 and higher. |

Chapter 7. Debugging optimized code

Debugging optimized programs presents special usability problems. Optimization can change the sequence of operations, add or remove code, change variable data locations, and perform other transformations that make it difficult to associate the generated code with the original source statements. For example:

Data location issues

With an optimized program, it is not always certain where the most current value for a variable is located. For example, a value in memory may not be current if the most current value is being stored in a register. Most debuggers are incapable of following the removal of stores to a variable, and to the debugger it appears as though that variable is never updated, or possibly even set. This contrasts with no optimization where all values are flushed back to memory and debugging can be more effective and usable.

Instruction scheduling issues

With an optimized program, the compiler may reorder instructions. That is, instructions may not be executed in the order the programmer would expect based on the sequence of lines in their original source code. Also, the sequence of instructions may not be contiguous. As the user steps through their program with a debugger, it may appear as if they are returning to a previously executed line in their code (interleaving of instructions).

Consolidating variable values

Optimizations can result in the removal and consolidation of variables. For example, if a program has two expressions that assign the same value to two different variables, the compiler may substitute a single variable. This can inhibit debug usability because a variable that a programmer is expecting to see is no longer available in the optimized program.

There are a couple of different approaches you can take to improve debug capabilities while also optimizing your program:

Debug non-optimized code first

Debug a non-optimized version of your program first, then recompile it with your desired optimization options. See “Debugging before optimization” on page 44 for some compiler options that are useful in this approach.

Use `-qoptdebug`

When compiling with `-O3` optimization or higher, use the compiler option `-qoptdebug` to generate a pseudocode file that more accurately maps to how instructions and variable values will operate in an optimized program. With this option, when you load your program into a debugger, you will be debugging the pseudocode for the optimized program. See “Using `-qoptdebug` to help debug optimized programs” on page 45 for more information.

Understanding different results in optimized programs

Here are some reasons why an optimized program might produce different results from one that has not undergone the optimization process:

- Optimized code can fail if a program contains code that is not valid. The optimization process relies on your application conforming to language standards.
- If a program that works without optimization fails when you optimize, check the cross-reference listing and the execution flow of the program for variables that are used before they are initialized. Compile with the `-qinitauto=hex_value` option to try to produce the incorrect results consistently. For example, using `-qinitauto=FF` gives variables an initial value of "negative not a number" (-NAN). Any operations on these variables will also result in NAN values. Other bit patterns (*hex_value*) may yield different results and provide further clues as to what is going on. Programs with uninitialized variables can appear to work properly when compiled without optimization, because of the default assumptions the compiler makes, but can fail when you optimize. Similarly, a program can appear to execute correctly after optimization, but fails at lower optimization levels or when run in a different environment.
- A variation on uninitialized storage. Referring to an automatic-storage variable by its address after the owning function has gone out of scope leads to a reference to a memory location that can be overwritten as other auto variables come into scope as new functions are called.

Use with caution debugging techniques that rely on examining values in storage. The compiler might have deleted or moved a common expression evaluation. It might have assigned some variables to registers, so that they do not appear in storage at all.

Debugging before optimization

First debug your program, then recompile it with your desired optimization options, and test the optimized program before placing the program into production. If the optimized code does not produce the expected results, you can attempt to isolate the specific optimization problems in a debugging session.

The following list presents options that provide specialized information, which can be helpful during the development of optimized code:

- qkeepparam** Ensures that procedure parameters are stored on the stack even during optimization. This can negatively impact execution performance. The `-qkeepparam` option then provides access to the values of incoming parameters to tools, such as debuggers, simply by preserving those values on the stack.
- qlist** Instructs the compiler to emit an object listing. The object listing includes hex and pseudo-assembly representations of the generated instructions, traceback tables, and text constants.
- qreport** Instructs the compiler to produce a report of the loop transformations it performed and how the program was parallelized. For `-qreport` to generate a listing, the options `-qhot` should also be specified.
- qinitauto** Instructs the compiler to emit code that initializes all automatic variables to a given value.
- qipa=list** Instructs the compiler to emit an object listing that provides information for IPA optimization.

You can also use the `snapshot` pragma to ensure to that certain variables are visible to the debugger at points in your application.

Using `-qoptdebug` to help debug optimized programs

Note: The `-qoptdebug` option can be used with both SPU and PPU programs.

The purpose of the `-qoptdebug` compiler option is to aid the debugging of optimized programs. It does this by creating pseudocode that maps more closely to the instructions and values of an optimized program than the original source code. When a program compiled with this option is loaded into a debugger, you will be debugging the pseudocode rather than your original source. By making optimizations explicit in pseudocode, you can gain a better understanding of how your program is really behaving under optimization. Files containing the pseudocode for your program will be generated with the file suffix `.optdbg`. Only line debugging is supported for this feature.

Compile your program as in the following example:

```
spuxlc myprogram.c -O3 -qhot -g -qoptdebug
```

In this example, your source file will be compiled to `a.out`. The pseudocode for the optimized program will be written to a file called `myprogram.optdbg` which can be referred to while debugging your program.

Notes:

- The invocation example and debugger listings show compiling and debugging for the SPU. That is, the compiler is invoked with `spuxlc` and the program is debugged with `spu-gdb`. For the PPU, the compiler invocation would be `ppuxlc` and the debugger is `ppu-gdb`.
- The `-g` or the `-qlinedebug` option must also be specified in order for the compiled executable to be debuggable. However, if neither of these options are specified, the pseudocode file `<output_file>.optdbg` containing the optimized pseudocode will still be generated.
- The `-qoptdebug` option only has an effect when one or more of the optimization options `-qhot`, `-qipa`, or `-qpdf` are specified, or when the optimization levels that imply these options are specified; that is, the optimization levels `-O3`, `-O4`, and `-O5`. The example shows the optimization options `-qhot` and `-O3`.

Debugging the optimized program

See the figures below as an aid to understanding how the compiler may apply optimizations to a simple program and how debugging it would differ from debugging your original source.

Figure 3 on page 46 **Original code:** Represents the original non-optimized code for a simple program. It presents a couple of optimization opportunities to the compiler. For example, the two array elements for `z` are both assigned by equivalent values for `x + y`. Therefore, `x + y` can be consolidated in the optimized source. Also, the loop can be unrolled. In the optimized source, you would see iterations of the loop listed explicitly.

Figure 4 on page 46 **spu-gdb debugger listing:** Represents a listing of the optimized source as shown in the debugger. Note the unrolled loop and the consolidation of values assigned by the `x + y` expression.

Figure 5 on page 47 **Stepping through optimized source:** Shows an example of stepping through the optimized source using the debugger. Note, there is no

longer a correspondence between the line numbers for these statements in the optimized source as compared to the line numbers in the original source.

```
#include "stdio.h"

void foo(int x, int y, char* w)
{
    char* s = w+1;
    char* t = w+1;
    int z = x + y;
    int d = x + y;
    int a = printf("TEST\n");

    for (int i = 0; i < 4; i++)
        printf("%d %d %d %s %s\n", a, z, d, s, t);
}

int main()
{
    char d[] = "DEBUG";
    foo(3, 4, d);
    return 0;
}
```

Figure 3. Original code

```
spu-gdb ./a.out
...
...
This GDB was configured as "--host=powerpc64-unknown-linux-gnu --target=spu"...
(gdb) list -21
1 3 | void foo(long x, long y, char * w)
2 4 | {
3 9 | a = printf("TEST/n");
4 12 | $.CSE0 = x + y;
5 printf("%d %d %d %s %s/n",a,$.CSE0,$.CSE0,((char *)w + 1),((char *)w + 1));
6 printf("%d %d %d %s %s/n",a,$.CSE0,$.CSE0,((char *)w + 1),((char *)w + 1));
7 printf("%d %d %d %s %s/n",a,$.CSE0,$.CSE0,((char *)w + 1),((char *)w + 1));
8 printf("%d %d %d %s %s/n",a,$.CSE0,$.CSE0,((char *)w + 1),((char *)w + 1));
9 13 | return;
10 } /* function */
(gdb) list
11
12
13 15 | long main()
14 16 | {
15 17 | d$init$0 = "DEBUG";
16 18 | foo(3,4,&d)
17 19 | rstr = 0;
18 return rstr;
19 20 | } /* function */
20
```

Figure 4. spu-gdb debugger listing

```

spu-gdb ./a.out
...
...
This GDB was configured as "--host=powerpc64-unknown-linux-gnu --target=spu"...
(gdb) break *foo
Breakpoint 1 at 0x240: file myprogram.o.optdbg, line 3.
(gdb) run
Starting program: a.out

Breakpoint 1, foo (x=262096, y=262096, w=0x3ffd0 "") at myprogram.o.optdbg:3
3 9 | a = printf("TEST/n");
(gdb) step
1 3 | void foo(long x, long y, char * w)
(gdb) step
3 9 | a = printf("TEST/n");
(gdb) step
1 3 | void foo(long x, long y, char * w)
(gdb) step
3 9 | a = printf("TEST/n");
(gdb) cont
Continuing.
TEST
5 7 7 EBUG EBUG

Program exited normally.
(gdb)

```

Figure 5. Stepping through optimized source

Chapter 8. Coding your application to improve performance

Chapter 6, “Optimizing your applications,” on page 29 discusses the various compiler options that XL C/C++ provides for optimizing your code with minimal coding effort. If you want to take your application a step further, to complement and take the most advantage of compiler optimizations, the following sections discuss C and C++ programming techniques that can improve performance of your code:

- “Find faster input/output techniques”
- “Reduce function-call overhead”
- “Manage memory efficiently” on page 51
- “Optimize variables” on page 51
- “Manipulate strings efficiently” on page 52
- “Optimize expressions and program logic” on page 53
- “Optimize operations in 64-bit mode (PPU only)” on page 53

Note: For more information on programming for the Cell Broadband Engine, see the *IBM Software Development Kit for Multicore Acceleration Version 3.0 Programmer’s Guide*.

Find faster input/output techniques

There are a number of ways to improve your program’s performance of input and output:

- Use binary streams instead of text streams. In binary streams, data is not changed on input or output.
- Use the low-level I/O functions, such as `open` and `close`. These functions are faster and more specific to the application than the stream I/O functions like `fopen` and `fclose`. You must provide your own buffering for the low-level functions.
- If you do your own I/O buffering, make the buffer a multiple of 4K, which is the size of a page.
- When reading input, read in a whole line at once rather than one character at a time.
- If you know you have to process an entire file, determine the size of the data to be read in, allocate a single buffer to read it to, read the whole file into that buffer at once using `read`, and then process the data in the buffer. This reduces disk I/O, provided the file is not so big that excessive swapping will occur. Consider using the `mmap` function to access the file.
- Instead of `scanf` and `fscanf`, use `fgets` to read in a string, and then use one of `atoi`, `atol`, `atof`, or `_atold` to convert it to the appropriate format.
- Use `sprintf` only for complicated formatting. For simpler formatting, such as string concatenation, use a more specific string function.

Reduce function-call overhead

When you write a function or call a library function, consider the following guidelines:

- Call a function directly, rather than using function pointers.

- Pass a value to a function as an argument, rather than letting the function take the value from a global variable.
- Use constant arguments in inlined functions whenever possible. Functions with constant arguments provide more opportunities for optimization.
- Use the `#pragma expected_value` preprocessor directive so that the compiler can optimize for common values used with a function.
- Use the `#pragma isolated_call` preprocessor directive to list functions that have no side effects and do not depend on side effects.
- Use `#pragma disjoint` within functions for pointers or reference parameters that can never point to the same memory.
- Declare a nonmember function as static whenever possible. This can speed up calls to the function.
-  Usually, you should not declare all your virtual functions inline. If all virtual functions in a class are inline, the virtual function table and all the virtual function bodies will be replicated in each compilation unit that uses the class.
-  When declaring functions, use the `const` specifier whenever possible.
-  Fully prototype all functions. A full prototype gives the compiler and optimizer complete information about the types of the parameters. As a result, promotions from unwidened types to widened types are not required, and parameters can be passed in appropriate registers.
-  Avoid using unprototyped variable argument functions.
- Design functions so that the most frequently used parameters are in the leftmost positions in the function prototype.
- Avoid passing by value structures or unions as function parameters or returning a structure or a union. Passing such aggregates requires the compiler to copy and store many values. This is worse in C++ programs in which class objects are passed by value because a constructor and destructor are called when the function is called. Instead, pass or return a pointer to the structure or union, or pass it by reference.
- Pass non-aggregate types such as `int` and `short` by value rather than passing by reference, whenever possible.
- If your function exits by returning the value of another function with the same parameters that were passed to your function, put the parameters in the same order in the function prototypes. The compiler can then branch directly to the other function.
- Use the built-in functions, which include string manipulation, floating-point, and trigonometric functions, instead of coding your own. Intrinsic functions require less overhead and are faster than a function call, and often allow the compiler to perform better optimization.
 -  Your functions are automatically mapped to built-in functions if you include the XL C/C++ header files.
 -  Your functions are mapped to built-in functions if you include `math.h` and `string.h`.
- Selectively mark your functions for inlining, using the `inline` keyword. An inlined function requires less overhead and is generally faster than a function call. The best candidates for inlining are small functions that are called frequently from a few places, or functions called with one or more compile-time constant parameters, especially those that affect `if`, `switch` or `for` statements. You might also want to put these functions into header files, which allows automatic inlining across file boundaries even at low optimization levels. Be sure

to inline all functions that only load or store a value, or use simple operators such as comparison or arithmetic operators. Large functions and functions that are called rarely might not be good candidates for inlining.

- Avoid breaking your program into too many small functions. If you must use small functions, seriously consider using the **-qipa** compiler option, which can automatically inline such functions, and uses other techniques for optimizing calls between functions.
- **C++** Avoid virtual functions and virtual inheritance unless required for class extensibility. These language features are costly in object space and function invocation performance.

Related information

- **#pragma isolated_call**, **#pragma disjoint**, and **-qipa** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Manage memory efficiently

Because C++ objects are often allocated from the heap and have limited scope, memory use affects performance more in C++ programs than it does in C programs. For that reason, consider the following guidelines when you develop C++ applications:

- In a structure, declare the largest members first.
- In a structure, place variables near each other if they are frequently used together.
- **C++** Ensure that objects that are no longer needed are freed or otherwise made available for reuse. One way to do this is to use an *object manager*. Each time you create an instance of an object, pass the pointer to that object to the object manager. The object manager maintains a list of these pointers. To access an object, you can call an object manager member function to return the information to you. The object manager can then manage memory usage and object reuse.
- Storage pools are a good way of keeping track of used memory (and reclaiming it) without having to resort to an object manager or reference counting.
- **C++** Avoid copying large, complicated objects.
- **C++** Avoid performing a *deep copy* if a *shallow copy* is all you require. For an object that contains pointers to other objects, a shallow copy copies only the pointers and not the objects to which they point. The result is two objects that point to the same contained object. A deep copy, however, copies the pointers and the objects they point to, as well as any pointers or objects contained within that object, and so on.
- **C++** Use virtual methods only when absolutely necessary.

Optimize variables

Consider the following guidelines:

- Use local variables, preferably automatic variables, as much as possible. The compiler must make several worst-case assumptions about a global variable. For example, if a function uses external variables and also calls external functions, the compiler assumes that every call to an external function could change the value of every external variable. If you know that a global variable is

not affected by any function call, and this variable is read several times with function calls interspersed, copy the global variable to a local variable and then use this local variable.

- If you must use global variables, use static variables with file scope rather than external variables whenever possible. In a file with several related functions and static variables, the optimizer can gather and use more information about how the variables are affected.
- If you must use external variables, group external data into structures or arrays whenever it makes sense to do so. All elements of an external structure use the same base address.
- The **#pragma isolated_call** preprocessor directive can improve the runtime performance of optimized code by allowing the compiler to make less pessimistic assumptions about the storage of external and static variables. Isolated call functions with constant or loop-invariant parameters can be moved out of loops, and multiple calls with the same parameters can be replaced with a single call.
- Avoid taking the address of a variable. If you use a local variable as a temporary variable and must take its address, avoid reusing the temporary variable. Taking the address of a local variable inhibits optimizations that would otherwise be done on calculations involving that variable.
- Use constants instead of variables where possible. The optimizer will be able to do a better job reducing runtime calculations by doing them at compile-time instead. For instance, if a loop body has a constant number of iterations, use constants in the loop condition to improve optimization (for (i=0; i<4; i++) can be better optimized than for (i=0; i<x; i++)).
- Use register-sized integers (long data type) for scalars. For large arrays of integers, consider using one- or two-byte integers or bit fields.
- Use the smallest floating-point precision appropriate to your computation.

Related information

- **#pragma isolated_call** in *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Manipulate strings efficiently

The handling of string operations can affect the performance of your program.

- When you store strings into allocated storage, align the start of the string on an 8-byte boundary.
- Keep track of the length of your strings. If you know the length of a string, you can use mem functions instead of str functions. For example, memcpy is faster than strcpy because it does not have to search for the end of the string.
- If you are certain that the source and target do not overlap, use memcpy instead of memmove. This is because memcpy copies directly from the source to the destination, while memmove might copy the source to a temporary location in memory before copying to the destination (depending on the length of the string).
- When manipulating strings using mem functions, faster code will be generated if the *count* parameter is a constant rather than a variable. This is especially true for small count values.
- Make string literals read-only, whenever possible. This improves certain optimization techniques and reduces memory usage if there are multiple uses of the same string. You can explicitly set strings to read-only by using **#pragma strings (readonly)** in your source files or **-qro** (this is enabled by default) to avoid changing your source files.

Related information

- `#pragma strings (readonly)` and `-qro` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Optimize expressions and program logic

Consider the following guidelines:

- If components of an expression are used in other expressions, assign the duplicated values to a local variable.
- Avoid forcing the compiler to convert numbers between integer and floating-point internal representations. For example:

```
float array[10];
float x = 1.0;
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 9; i++) {      /* No conversions needed */
    array[i] = array[i]*x;
    x = x + 1.0;
}
for (i = 0; i < 9; i++) {      /* Multiple conversions needed */
    array[i] = array[i]*i;
}
```

When you must use mixed-mode arithmetic, code the integer and floating-point arithmetic in separate computations whenever possible.

- Avoid goto statements that jump into the middle of loops. Such statements inhibit certain optimizations.
- Improve the predictability of your code by making the fall-through path more probable. Code such as:

```
if (error) {handle error} else {real code}
```

should be written as:

```
if (!error) {real code} else {error}
```

- If one or two cases of a switch statement are typically executed much more frequently than other cases, break out those cases by handling them separately before the switch statement.
-  Use try blocks for exception handling only when necessary because they can inhibit optimization.
- Keep array index expressions as simple as possible.

Optimize operations in 64-bit mode (PPU only)

The ability to handle larger amounts of data directly in physical memory rather than relying on disk I/O is perhaps the most significant performance benefit of 64-bit machines. However, some applications compiled in 32-bit mode perform better than when they are recompiled in 64-bit mode. Some reasons for this include:

- 64-bit programs are larger. The increase in program size places greater demands on physical memory.
- 64-bit long division is more time-consuming than 32-bit integer division.
- 64-bit programs that use 32-bit signed integers as array indexes might require additional instructions to perform sign extension each time the array is referenced.

Some ways to compensate for the performance liabilities of 64-bit programs include:

- Avoid performing mixed 32- and 64-bit operations. For example, adding a 32-bit data type to a 64-bit data type requires that the 32-bit type be sign-extended to clear the upper 32 bits of the register. This slows the computation.
- Use long types instead of signed, unsigned, and plain int types for variables which will be frequently accessed, such as loop counters and array indexes. Doing so frees the compiler from having to truncate or sign-extend array references, parameters during function calls, and function results during returns.

Chapter 9. Using the high performance libraries

IBM XL C/C++ for Multicore Acceleration for Linux, V9.0 is shipped with a set of libraries for high-performance mathematical computing:

- The Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem (MASS) is a set of libraries of tuned mathematical intrinsic functions that provide improved performance over the corresponding standard system math library functions. MASS is described in “Using the Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem libraries (MASS).”

Using the Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem libraries (MASS)

The MASS libraries consist of a library of scalar functions described in “Using the scalar library (PPU only)”; a set of vector libraries tuned for the Cell Broadband Engine architecture described in “Using the vector libraries” on page 58; and a SIMD library with functions tuned for SPU programs described in “Using the SIMD library for SPU programs” on page 63.

“Compiling and linking a program with MASS” on page 65 describes how to compile and link a program that uses the MASS libraries, and how to selectively use the MASS scalar library and SIMD library functions in conjunction with the regular system libraries.

Note: On Linux, 32-bit and 64-bit objects cannot be combined in the same library, so two versions of the scalar and vector libraries are shipped with the compiler: `libmass.a` and `libmassv.a` for 32-bit applications and `libmass_64.a` and `libmassv_64.a` for 64-bit applications.

Related information

- Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem Web site at <http://www.ibm.com/software/awdtools/mass/>

Using the scalar library (PPU only)

The MASS scalar libraries `libmass.a` (32-bit) and `libmass_64.a` (64-bit) contain an accelerated set of frequently used math intrinsic functions that provide improved performance over the corresponding standard system library functions. The MASS scalar functions are used when explicitly linking `libmass.a` or `libmass_64.a`, but are also available automatically when you compile programs with any of the following options:

- `-qhot -qignerrno -qnostrict`
- `-qhot -O3`
- `-O4`
- `-O5`

With these options, the compiler automatically uses the faster MASS functions for most math library functions. In fact, the compiler first tries to “vectorize” calls to math library functions by replacing them with the equivalent MASS vector functions; if it cannot do so, it uses the MASS scalar functions. When the compiler performs this automatic replacement of math library functions, it uses versions of the MASS functions contained in the system library `libxlopt.a`. You do not need to add any special calls to the MASS functions in your code, or to link to the `libxlopt` library.

If you are not using any of the optimization options listed above, and want to explicitly call the MASS scalar functions, you can do so as follows:

1. Provide the prototypes for the functions (except `anint`, `cosisin`, `dnint`, `sincos`, and `rsqrt`), by including `math.h` in your source files.
2. Provide the prototypes for `anint`, `cosisin`, `dnint`, `sincos`, and `rsqrt`, by including `mass.h` in your source files.
3. Link the MASS scalar library `libmass.a` (or the 64-bit version, `libmass_64.a`) with your application. For instructions, see “Compiling and linking a program with MASS” on page 65.

The MASS scalar functions accept double-precision parameters and return a double-precision result, or accept single-precision parameters and return a single-precision result, except `sincos` which gives 2 double-precision results. They are summarized in Table 13.

Table 13. MASS scalar functions

| Double-precision function | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype | Single-precision function prototype |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|---|
| <code>acos</code> | <code>acosf</code> | Returns the arccosine of x | <code>double acos (double x);</code> | <code>float acosf (float x);</code> |
| <code>acosh</code> | <code>acoshf</code> | Returns the hyperbolic arccosine of x | <code>double acosh (double x);</code> | <code>float acoshf (float x);</code> |
| | <code>anint</code> | Returns the rounded integer value of x | | <code>float anint (float x);</code> |
| <code>asin</code> | <code>asinf</code> | Returns the arcsine of x | <code>double asin (double x);</code> | <code>float asinf (float x);</code> |
| <code>asinh</code> | <code>asinhf</code> | Returns the hyperbolic arcsine of x | <code>double asinh (double x);</code> | <code>float asinhf (float x);</code> |
| <code>atan2</code> | <code>atan2f</code> | Returns the arctangent of x/y | <code>double atan2 (double x, double y);</code> | <code>float atan2f (float x, float y);</code> |
| <code>atan</code> | <code>atanf</code> | Returns the arctangent of x | <code>double atan (double x);</code> | <code>float atanf (float x);</code> |
| <code>atanh</code> | <code>atanhf</code> | Returns the hyperbolic arctangent of x | <code>double atanh (double x);</code> | <code>float atanhf (float x);</code> |
| <code>cbrt</code> | <code>cbrtf</code> | Returns the cube root of x | <code>double cbrt (double x);</code> | <code>float cbrtf (float x);</code> |
| <code>copysign</code> | <code>copysignf</code> | Returns x with the sign of y | <code>double copysign (double x, double y);</code> | <code>float copysignf (float x);</code> |
| <code>cos</code> | <code>cosf</code> | Returns the cosine of x | <code>double cos (double x);</code> | <code>float cosf (float x);</code> |
| <code>cosh</code> | <code>coshf</code> | Returns the hyperbolic cosine of x | <code>double cosh (double x);</code> | <code>float coshf (float x);</code> |
| <code>cosisin</code> | | Returns a complex number with the real part the cosine of x and the imaginary part the sine of x . | <code>double_Complex cosisin (double);</code> | |
| <code>dnint</code> | | Returns the nearest integer to x (as a double) | <code>double dnint (double x);</code> | |
| <code>erf</code> | <code>erff</code> | Returns the error function of x | <code>double erf (double x);</code> | <code>float erff (float x);</code> |

Table 13. MASS scalar functions (continued)

| Double-precision function | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype | Single-precision function prototype |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| erfc | erfcf | Returns the complementary error function of x | double erfc (double x); | float erfcf (float x); |
| exp | expf | Returns the exponential function of x | double exp (double x); | float expf (float x); |
| expm1 | expm1f | Returns (the exponential function of x) - 1 | double expm1 (double x); | float expm1f (float x); |
| hypot | hypotf | Returns the square root of $x^2 + y^2$ | double hypot (double x, double y); | float hypotf (float x, float y); |
| lgamma | lgammaf | Returns the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the Gamma function of x | double lgamma (double x); | float lgammaf (float x); |
| log | logf | Returns the natural logarithm of x | double log (double x); | float logf (float x); |
| log10 | log10f | Returns the base 10 logarithm of x | double log10 (double x); | float log10f (float x); |
| log1p | log1pf | Returns the natural logarithm of $(x + 1)$ | double log1p (double x); | float log1pf (float x); |
| pow | powf | Returns x raised to the power y | double pow (double x, double y); | float powf (float x, float y); |
| rsqrt | | Returns the reciprocal of the square root of x | double rsqrt (double x); | |
| sin | sinf | Returns the sine of x | double sin (double x); | float sinf (float x); |
| sincos | | Sets $*s$ to the sine of x and $*c$ to the cosine of x | void sincos (double x, double* s, double* c); | |
| sinh | sinhf | Returns the hyperbolic sine of x | double sinh (double x); | float sinhf (float x); |
| sqrt | | Returns the square root of x | double sqrt (double x); | |
| tan | tanf | Returns the tangent of x | double tan (double x); | float tanf (float x); |
| tanh | tanhf | Returns the hyperbolic tangent of x | double tanh (double x); | float tanhf (float x); |

Notes:

- The trigonometric functions (sin, cos, tan) return NaN (Not-a-Number) for large arguments (where the absolute value is greater than $2^{50}\pi$).
- In some cases, the MASS functions are not as accurate as the libm.a library, and they might handle edge cases differently (sqrt(Inf), for example).
- See the Mathematical Acceleration Subsystem Web site at <http://www.ibm.com/software/awdtools/mass/> for accuracy comparisons with libm.a.

Using the vector libraries

When you compile programs with any of the following options:

- `-qhot -qignerrno -qnostrict`
- `-qhot -O3`
- `-O4`
- `-O5`

for PPU programs, the compiler automatically attempts to vectorize calls to system math functions by calling the equivalent MASS vector functions (with the exceptions of functions `vdnint`, `vdint`, `vsincos`, `vssincos`, `vcosisin`, `vsccosin`, `vqdrft`, `vsqdrft`, `vrqdrft`, `vsrqdrft`, `vpopcnt4`, and `vpopcnt8`). For automatic vectorization, the compiler uses versions of the MASS functions contained in the system library `libxlopt.a`. You do not need to add any special calls to the MASS functions in your code, or to link to the `libxlopt` library.

For PPU and SPU programs, if you are not using any of the optimization options listed above, and want to explicitly call any of the MASS vector functions, you can do so by including the XL C/C++ header `massv.h` file in your source files and linking your application with the appropriate vector library. (Information on linking is provided in “Compiling and linking a program with MASS” on page 65.)

Vector libraries

`libmassv.a` (SPU and PPU) and `libmassv_64.a` (PPU only)

The single-precision and double-precision floating-point functions contained in the vector libraries are summarized in Table 14 on page 59. The integer functions contained in the vector libraries are summarized in Table 15 on page 62. Note that in C and C++ applications, only call by reference is supported, even for scalar arguments.

With the exception of a few functions (described below), all of the floating-point functions in the vector libraries accept three parameters:

- A double-precision (for double-precision functions) or single-precision (for single-precision functions) vector output parameter
- A double-precision (for double-precision functions) or single-precision (for single-precision functions) vector input parameter
- An integer vector-length parameter. Note that for SPU programs, this parameter must be a multiple of 4.

The functions are of the form

function_name (*y,x,n*)

where *y* is the target vector, *x* is the source vector, and *n* is the vector length. The parameters *y* and *x* are assumed to be double-precision for functions with the prefix `v`, and single-precision for functions with the prefix `vs`. As examples, the following code:

```
#include <massv.h>

double x[500], y[500];
int n;
n = 500;
...
vexp (y, x, &n);
```

outputs a vector *y* of length 500 whose elements are `exp(x[i])`, where `i=0,...,499`.

The functions `vdiv`, `vsincos`, `vpow`, and `vatan2` (and their single-precision versions, `vsdiv`, `vssincos`, `vspow`, and `vsatan2`) take four parameters. The functions `vdiv`, `vpow`, and `vatan2` take the parameters (z,x,y,n) . The function `vdiv` outputs a vector z whose elements are $x[i]/y[i]$, where $i=0,\dots,*n-1$. The function `vpow` outputs a vector z whose elements are $x[i]^{y[i]}$, where $i=0,\dots,*n-1$. The function `vatan2` outputs a vector z whose elements are $\text{atan}(x[i]/y[i])$, where $i=0,\dots,*n-1$. The function `vsincos` takes the parameters (y,z,x,n) , and outputs two vectors, y and z , whose elements are $\sin(x[i])$ and $\cos(x[i])$, respectively.

In `vcosisin(y,x,n)` and `vscosisin(y,x,n)`, x is a vector of n elements and the function outputs a vector y of n complex elements of the form $(\cos(x[i]),\sin(x[i]))$.

Table 14. MASS floating-point vector functions

| Double-precision function (PPU only) | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype (PPU only) | Single-precision function prototype (Note: for SPU programs, n must be a multiple of 4.) |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|--|
| <code>vacos</code> | <code>vsacos</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the arc cosine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vacos (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsacos (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vacosh</code> | <code>vsacosh</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic arc cosine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vacosh (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsacosh (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vasin</code> | <code>vsasin</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the arc sine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vasin (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsasin (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vasinh</code> | <code>vsasinh</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic arc sine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vasinh (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsasinh (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| | <code>vsatan (SPU only)</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the arc tangent of $x[i]$, $i=1,\dots,*n$ | | <code>void vsatan(float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vatan2</code> | <code>vsatan2</code> | Sets $z[i]$ to the arc tangent of $x[i]/y[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vatan2 (double z[], double x[], double y[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsatan2 (float z[], float x[], float y[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vatanh</code> | <code>vsatanh</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic arc tangent of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vatanh (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsatanh (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vcbrt</code> | <code>vsqrt</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the cube root of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vcbrt (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vsqrt (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vcos</code> | <code>vscos</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the cosine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vcos (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vscos (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |
| <code>vcosh</code> | <code>vscosh</code> | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic cosine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | <code>void vcosh (double y[], double x[], int *n);</code> | <code>void vscosh (float y[], float x[], int *n);</code> |

Table 14. MASS floating-point vector functions (continued)

| Double-precision function (PPU only) | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype (PPU only) | Single-precision function prototype (Note: for SPU programs, n must be a multiple of 4.) |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| vcosisin | | Sets the real part of $y[i]$ to the cosine of $x[i]$ and the imaginary part of $y[i]$ to the sine of $x[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vcosisin (double _Complex y[], double x[], int *n); | |
| | vscoisinh | Sets $y[2*i]$ to the cosine of $x[i]$ and $y[2*i+1]$ to the sine of $x[i]$ for $i=0, \dots, *n$ | | void vscoisinh(float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vdint | | Sets $y[i]$ to the integer truncation of $x[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vdint (double y[], double x[], int *n); | |
| vdiv | vsdiv | Sets $z[i]$ to $x[i]/y[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vdiv (double z[], double x[], double y[], int *n); | void vsdiv (float z[], float x[], float y[], int *n); |
| | vserf (SPU only) | Sets $y[i]$ to the error function of $x[i]$, $i=1,..,*n$ | | void vs erf(float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| | vserfc (SPU only) | Sets $y[i]$ to the complementary error function of $x[i]$, $i=1,..,*n$ | | void vs erfc(float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vdnint | | Sets $y[i]$ to the nearest integer to $x[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vdnint (double y[], double x[], int *n); | |
| vexp | vsexp | Sets $y[i]$ to the exponential function of $x[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vexp (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vs exp (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vexpm1 | vsexpm1 | Sets $y[i]$ to (the exponential function of $x[i]$)-1, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vexpm1 (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vs expm1 (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| | vshypot (SPU only) | Sets $z[i]$ to $\sqrt{x[i]^2+y[i]^2}$, $i=1,..,*n$ | | void vs hypot (float z[], float x[], float y[], int *n); |
| | vslgamma (SPU only) | Sets $y[i]$ to the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the Gamma function of $x[i]$, $i=1,..,*n$ | | void vs lgamma(float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vlog | vslog | Sets $y[i]$ to the natural logarithm of $x[i]$, for $i=0,..,*n-1$ | void vlog (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vs log (float y[], float x[], int *n); |

Table 14. MASS floating-point vector functions (continued)

| Double-precision function (PPU only) | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype (PPU only) | Single-precision function prototype (Note: for SPU programs, n must be a multiple of 4.) |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| vlog10 | vslog10 | Sets $y[i]$ to the base-10 logarithm of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vlog10 (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vslog10 (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vlog1p | vslog1p | Sets $y[i]$ to the natural logarithm of $(x[i]+1)$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vlog1p (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vslog1p (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| | vslog2 (SPU only) | Sets $y[i]$ to the base-2 logarithm of $x[i]$, $i=1, \dots, *n$ | | void vslog2(float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vpow | vspow | Sets $z[i]$ to $x[i]$ raised to the power $y[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vpow (double z[], double x[], double y[], int *n); | void vspow (float z[], float x[], float y[], int *n); |
| vqdrft | vsqdrft | Sets $y[i]$ to the fourth root of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vqdrft (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vsqdrft (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vrcbrt | vsrbrt | Sets $y[i]$ to the reciprocal of the cube root of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vrcbrt (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vsrbrt (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vrec | vsrec | Sets $y[i]$ to the reciprocal of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vrec (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vsrec (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vrqdrft | vsrqdrft | Sets $y[i]$ to the reciprocal of the fourth root of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vrqdrft (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vsrqdrft (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vrsqrt | vsrsqrt | Sets $y[i]$ to the reciprocal of the square root of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vrsqrt (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vsrsqrt (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vsin | vssin | Sets $y[i]$ to the sine of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vsin (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vssin (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vsincos | vssincos | Sets $y[i]$ to the sine of $x[i]$ and $z[i]$ to the cosine of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vsincos (double y[], double z[], double x[], int *n); | void vssincos (float y[], float z[], float x[], int *n); |
| vsinh | vssinh | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic sine of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vsinh (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vssinh (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vsqrt | vssqrt | Sets $y[i]$ to the square root of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vsqrt (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vssqrt (float y[], float x[], int *n); |
| vtan | vstan | Sets $y[i]$ to the tangent of $x[i]$, for $i=0, \dots, *n-1$ | void vtan (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vstan (float y[], float x[], int *n); |

Table 14. MASS floating-point vector functions (continued)

| Double-precision function (PPU only) | Single-precision function | Description | Double-precision function prototype (PPU only) | Single-precision function prototype (Note: for SPU programs, n must be a multiple of 4.) |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--|
| vtanh | vstanh | Sets $y[i]$ to the hyperbolic tangent of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$ | void vtanh (double y[], double x[], int *n); | void vstanh (float y[], float x[], int *n); |

Integer functions are of the form *function_name* ($x[]$, $*n$), where $x[]$ is a vector of 4-byte (for vpopcnt4) or 8-byte (for vpopcnt8) numeric objects (integral or floating-point), and $*n$ is the vector length.

Table 15. MASS integer vector library functions

| Function | Description | Prototype |
|----------|--|---|
| vpopcnt4 | Returns the total number of 1 bits in the concatenation of the binary representation of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$, where x is a vector of 32-bit objects. | unsigned int vpopcnt4 (void *x, int *n) |
| vpopcnt8 | Returns the total number of 1 bits in the concatenation of the binary representation of $x[i]$, for $i=0,\dots,*n-1$, where x is a vector of 64-bit objects. | unsigned int vpopcnt8 (void *x, int *n) |

Overlap of input and output vectors

In most applications, the MASS vector functions are called with disjoint input and output vectors; that is, the two vectors do not overlap in memory. Another common usage scenario is to call them with the same vector for both input and output parameters (for example, `vsin (y, y, &n)`). Other kinds of overlap (where input and output vectors are neither disjoint nor identical) should be avoided, since they may produce unexpected results:

- For calls to vector functions that take one input and one output vector (for example, `vsin (y, x, &n)`):
The vectors $x[0:n-1]$ and $y[0:n-1]$ must be either disjoint or identical, or unexpected results may be obtained.
- For calls to vector functions that take two input vectors (for example, `vatan2 (y, x1, x2, &n)`):
The previous restriction applies to both pairs of vectors $y,x1$ and $y,x2$. That is, $y[0:n-1]$ and $x1[0:n-1]$ must be either disjoint or identical; and $y[0:n-1]$ and $x2[0:n-1]$ must be either disjoint or identical.
- For calls to vector functions that take two output vectors (for example, `vsincos (y1, y2, x, &n)`):
The above restriction applies to both pairs of vectors $y1,x$ and $y2,x$. That is, $y1[0:n-1]$ and $x[0:n-1]$ must be either disjoint or identical; and $y2[0:n-1]$ and $x[0:n-1]$ must be either disjoint or identical. Also, the vectors $y1[0:n-1]$ and $y2[0:n-1]$ must be disjoint.

Consistency of MASS vector functions

All the functions in the MASS vector libraries are consistent, in the sense that a given input value will always produce the same result, regardless of its position in the vector, and regardless of the vector length.

Using the SIMD library for SPU programs

The MASS SIMD library `libmass_simd.a` contains an accelerated set of frequently used math intrinsic functions that provide improved performance over the corresponding standard system library functions. If you want to use the MASS SIMD functions, you can do so as follows:

1. Provide the prototypes for the functions (except `qdrtf4`, `rcbrtf4`, and `rqdrtf4`), by including `simdmath.h` in your source files.
2. Provide the prototypes for `qdrtf4`, `rcbrtf4`, and `rqdrtf4` by including `mass_simd.h` in your source files.
3. Link the MASS scalar library `libmass_simd.a` with your application. For instructions, see “Compiling and linking a program with MASS” on page 65

The MASS SIMD functions accept single-precision parameters and return a single-precision results. They are summarized in Table 16. All the functions in the MASS SIMD library are also available in inlinable form. For more information see “Using the MASS SIMD inlineable functions” on page 64.

Table 16. SPU MASS SIMD functions

| Function | Description | Prototype |
|-----------------------|--|---|
| <code>acosf4</code> | Computes the arc cosine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float acosf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>acoshf4</code> | Computes the arc hyperbolic cosine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float acoshf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>asinf4</code> | Computes the arc sine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float asinf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>asinhf4</code> | Computes the arc hyperbolic sine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float asinhf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>atanf4</code> | Computes the arc tangent of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float atanf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>atan2f4</code> | Computes the arc tangent of each element of <code>vy/vx</code> . | <code>vector float atan2f4 (vector float vx, vector float vy);</code> |
| <code>atanhf4</code> | Computes the arc hyperbolic tangent of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float atanhf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>cbrtf4</code> | Computes the cube root of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float cbrtf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>cosf4</code> | Computes the cosine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float cosf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>coshf4</code> | Computes the hyperbolic cosine of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float coshf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>divf4</code> | Computes the quotient <code>vx/vy</code> . | <code>vector float divf4 (vector float vx, vector float vy);</code> |
| <code>erfcf4</code> | Computes the complementary error function of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float erfcf4(vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>erff4</code> | Computes the error function of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float erff4(vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>expf4</code> | Computes the exponential function of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float expf4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>expm1f4</code> | Computes the exponential function of each element of <code>vx - 1</code> . | <code>vector float expm1f4 (vector float vx);</code> |
| <code>hypotf4</code> | For each element of <code>vx</code> and the corresponding element of <code>vy</code> , computes $\sqrt{x^2+y^2}$. | <code>vector float hypotf4 (vector float vx, vector float vy);</code> |
| <code>lgammaf4</code> | Computes the natural logarithm of the absolute value of the Gamma function of each element of <code>vx</code> . | <code>vector float lgammaf4(vector float vx);</code> |

Table 16. SPU MASS SIMD functions (continued)

| Function | Description | Prototype |
|----------|---|---|
| logf4 | Computes the natural logarithm of each element of vx. | vector float logf4 (vector float vx); |
| log2f4 | Computes the base-2 logarithm of each element of vx. | vector float log2f4 (vector float vx); |
| log10f4 | Computes the base-10 logarithm of each element of vx. | vector float log10f4 (vector float vx); |
| log1pf4 | Computes the natural logarithm of each element of vx +1. | vector float log1pf4(vector float vx); |
| powf4 | Computes each element of vx raised to the power of the corresponding element of vy. | vector float powf4 (vector float vx, vector float vy); |
| qdrtf4 | Computes the quad root of each element of vx. | vector float qdrtf4 (vector float vx); |
| rcbrtf4 | Computes the reciprocal of the cube root of each element of vx. | vector float rcbrtf4 (vector float vx); |
| recipf4 | Computes the reciprocal of each element of vx. | vector float recipf4 (vector float vx); |
| rqdrtf4 | Computes the reciprocal of the quad root of each element of vx. | vector float rqdrtf4 (vector float vx); |
| rsqrtf4 | Computes the reciprocal of the square root of each element of vx. | vector float rsqrtf4 (vector float vx); |
| sincosf4 | Computes the sine and cosine of each element of vx. | void sincosf4(vector float vx, vector float *vs, vector float *vc); |
| sinf4 | Computes the sine of each element of vx. | vector float sinf4 (vector float vx); |
| sinhf4 | Computes the hyperbolic sine of each element of vx. | vector float sinhf4 (vector float vx); |
| sqrtf4 | Computes the square root of each element of vx. | vector float sqrtf4 (vector float vx); |
| tanf4 | Computes the tangent of each element of vx. | vector float tanf4 (vector float vx); |
| tanhf4 | Computes the hyperbolic tangent of each element of vx. | vector float tanhf4 (vector float vx); |

Related information

- “Using the MASS SIMD inlineable functions”
- “Compiling and linking a program with MASS” on page 65
- “Using libmass_simd.a with libsimdmath.a (SPU only)” on page 66

Using the MASS SIMD inlineable functions

All the functions in the MASS SIMD library are also available in inlinable form for including in your source program. The inlinable function name is the same as that of the library function, except with a leading underscore. For example, the inlinable version of the `sinf4` library function is called `_sinf4`. For instructions on how to include these functions, see “Including the MASS SIMD inlineable functions” on page 65.

Using the inlinable functions may provide better performance in some cases because the call overhead is eliminated and the compiler has the opportunity to interleave the function with the surrounding code. However, if you are calling the

function repeatedly in a loop, you can call the MASS vector library instead. This is more convenient, and may achieve better performance for non-trivial vector lengths.

For example, the code:

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++ {  
y[i] = _sin4f (x[i]);  
}
```

can be replaced by:

```
vssin (y, x, &n);
```

Including the MASS SIMD inlineable functions

The name of the include file is the function name followed by .h. For example, the `_sin4f` function is available by specifying the following in your program:

```
#include <sinf4.h>
```

To obtain the MASS SIMD include files (rather than the system SIMDmath include files), set the include path on the compile line to point to MASS. For example, if the MASS libraries are installed in the default directory, you could specify:

```
spuxlc prog.c -o prog -I/opt/ibmcmp/xlmass/cbe/4.5/spu/include/mass
```

If you want to use some inline functions from MASS and some from SIMDmath, you can specify the full path in the include command in your program. For example, the statements below include `sinf4.h` from MASS and `cosf4.h` from SIMDmath. Note that depending on the platform or specific installation, these locations may be different.

```
#include "/opt/ibmcmp/xlmass/cbe/4.5/spu/include/mass/sinf4.h"  
#include "/usr/spu/include/simdmath/cosf4.h"
```

Compiling and linking a program with MASS

To compile a 32-bit application that calls the functions in the MASS libraries, specify `mass` and `massv` on the `-l` linker option. For 64-bit applications (PPU only), specify `mass_64` and `massv_64` on the `-l` linker option. To compile an SPU application that uses the SIMD library, specify `-lmass_simd` on the `-l` linker option.

For example, if the MASS libraries are installed in the default directory, you could specify one of the following:

Linking with scalar library `libmass.a` and vector library `libmassv.a` (32-bit code)

```
ppuxlc prog.c -o prog -lmass -lmassv
```

Linking with scalar library `libmass_64.a` and vector library `libmassv_64.a` (64-bit code)

```
ppuxlc prog.c -o prog -lmass_64 -lmassv_64 -q64
```

Link with SIMD library `libmass_simd.a` (SPU only)

```
spuxlc prog.c -o prog -lmass_simd
```

The MASS functions must run in the default rounding mode and floating-point exception trapping settings.

Using `libmass.a` with the math system library

If you wish to use the `libmass.a` scalar library for some functions and the normal math library `libm.a` for other functions, follow this procedure to compile and link your program:

1. Use the **ppu-ar** command to extract the object files of the desired functions from `libmass.a` or `libmass_64.a`. For most functions, the object file name is the function name followed by `.s32.o` (for 32-bit mode) or `.s64.o` (for 64-bit mode).¹ For example, to extract the object file for the `tan` function in 32-bit mode, the command would be:


```
ppu-ar -x tan.s32.o libmass.a
```
2. Archive the extracted object files into another library:


```
ppu-ar -qv libfasttan.a tan.s32.o
ppu-ranlib libfasttan.a
```
3. Create the final executable using `ppuxlc`, specifying **-lfasttan** instead of **-lmass**:


```
ppuxlc sample.c -o sample -Ldir_containing_libfasttan -lfasttan
```

This links only the `tan` function from MASS (now in `libfasttan.a`) and the remainder of the math functions from the standard system library.

Exceptions:

1. The `sin` and `cos` functions are both contained in the object files `sincos.s32.o` and `sincos.s64.o`. The `cosisin` and `sincos` functions are both contained in the object file `cosisin.s32.o`. The C/C++ `pow` function is contained in the object files `pow_p4.s32.o` and `pow_p4.s64.o`.

Note: The `cos` and `sin` functions will both be exported if either one is exported. `cosisin` and `sincos` will both be exported if either one is exported.

Using `libmass_simd.a` with `libsimdmath.a` (SPU only)

If you wish to use the MASS `libmass_simd.a` library for some functions and the SIMDmath library `libsimdmath.a` for other functions, follow this procedure to compile and link your program:

1. Use the **spu-ar** command to extract the object files of the desired functions from `libmass_simd.a`. The object file name is the function name followed by `.s.o`. For example, to extract the object file for the `tanf4` function, the command would be:


```
spu-ar -x libmass_simd.a tanf4.s.o
```
2. Archive the extracted object files into another library:


```
spu-ar -qv libfasttan.a tanf4.s.o
spu-ranlib libfasttan.a
```
3. Create the final executable using `spuxlc`, specifying **-lfasttan** ahead of **-lsimdmath**. (`libfasttandir` is the directory containing `libfasttan.a`.)


```
spuxlc sample.c -o sample -Llibfasttandir -lfasttan -L/usr/spu/lib -lsimdmath
```

This links only the `tanf4` function from MASS (now in `libfasttan.a`) and the remainder of the math functions from SIMDmath.

Using the Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms – BLAS (PPU only)

Four Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS) functions are shipped with XL C/C++ in the `libxlopt` library. The functions consist of the following:

- `sgemv` (single-precision) and `dgemv` (double-precision), which compute the matrix-vector product for a general matrix or its transpose
- `sgemm` (single-precision) and `dgemm` (double-precision), which perform combined matrix multiplication and addition for general matrices or their transposes

Because the BLAS routines are written in Fortran, all parameters are passed to them by reference, and all arrays are stored in column-major order.

Note: Some error-handling code has been removed from the BLAS functions in `libxlopt`, and no error messages are emitted for calls to these functions.

“BLAS function syntax” describes the prototypes and parameters for the XL C/C++ BLAS functions. The interfaces for these functions are similar to those of the equivalent BLAS functions shipped in IBM’s Engineering and Scientific Subroutine Library (ESSL); for more detailed information and examples of usage of these functions, you may wish to consult the *Engineering and Scientific Subroutine Library Guide and Reference*, available at <http://publib.boulder.ibm.com/clresctr/windows/public/esslbooks.html>.

“Linking the libxlopt library” on page 69 describes how to link to the XL C/C++ `libxlopt` library if you are also using a third-party BLAS library.

BLAS function syntax

The prototypes for the `sgemv` and `dgemv` functions are as follows:

```
void sgemv(const char *trans, int *m, int *n, float *alpha,
           void *a, int *lda, void *x, int *incx,
           float *beta, void *y, int *incy);
void dgemv(const char *trans, int *m, int *n, double *alpha,
           void *a, int *lda, void *x, int *incx,
           double *beta, void *y, int *incy);
```

The parameters are as follows:

trans

is a single character indicating the form of the input matrix *a*, where:

- 'N' or 'n' indicates that *a* is to be used in the computation
- 'T' or 't' indicates that the transpose of *a* is to be used in the computation

m represents:

- the number of rows in input matrix *a*
- the length of vector *y*, if 'N' or 'n' is used for the *trans* parameter
- the length of vector *x*, if 'T' or 't' is used for the *trans* parameter

The number of rows must be greater than or equal to zero, and less than the leading dimension of the matrix *a* (specified in *lda*)

n represents:

- the number of columns in input matrix *a*
- the length of vector *x*, if 'N' or 'n' is used for the *trans* parameter
- the length of vector *y*, if 'T' or 't' is used for the *trans* parameter

The number of columns must be greater than or equal to zero.

alpha

is the scaling constant for matrix *a*

a is the input matrix of float (for `sgemv`) or double (for `dgemv`) values

lda is the leading dimension of the array specified by *a*. The leading dimension must be greater than zero. The leading dimension must be greater than or equal to 1 and greater than or equal to the value specified in *m*.

x is the input vector of float (for `sgemv`) or double (for `dgemv`) values.

incx

is the stride for vector *x*. It can have any value.

beta

is the scaling constant for vector *y*

y is the output vector of float (for sgemv) or double (for dgemv) values.

incy

is the stride for vector *y*. It must not be zero.

Note: Vector *y* must have no common elements with matrix *a* or vector *x*; otherwise, the results are unpredictable.

The prototypes for the sgemm and dgemm functions are as follows:

```
void sgemm(const char *transa, const char *transb,
           int *l, int *n, int *m, float *alpha,
           const void *a, int *lda, void *b, int *ldb,
           float *beta, void *c, int *ldc);
void dgemm(const char *transa, const char *transb,
           int *l, int *n, int *m, double *alpha,
           const void *a, int *lda, void *b, int *ldb,
           double *beta, void *c, int *ldc);
```

The parameters are as follows:

transa

is a single character indicating the form of the input matrix *a*, where:

- 'N' or 'n' indicates that *a* is to be used in the computation
- 'T' or 't' indicates that the transpose of *a* is to be used in the computation

transb

is a single character indicating the form of the input matrix *b*, where:

- 'N' or 'n' indicates that *b* is to be used in the computation
- 'T' or 't' indicates that the transpose of *b* is to be used in the computation

l

represents the number of rows in output matrix *c*. The number of rows must be greater than or equal to zero, and less than the leading dimension of *c*.

n

represents the number of columns in output matrix *c*. The number of columns must be greater than or equal to zero.

m

represents:

- the number of columns in matrix *a*, if 'N' or 'n' is used for the *transa* parameter
- the number of rows in matrix *a*, if 'T' or 't' is used for the *transa* parameter

and:

- the number of rows in matrix *b*, if 'N' or 'n' is used for the *transb* parameter
- the number of columns in matrix *b*, if 'T' or 't' is used for the *transb* parameter

m must be greater than or equal to zero.

alpha

is the scaling constant for matrix *a*

a

is the input matrix *a* of float (for sgemm) or double (for dgemm) values

lda

is the leading dimension of the array specified by *a*. The leading dimension must be greater than zero. If *transa* is specified as 'N' or 'n', the leading

dimension must be greater than or equal to 1. If *transa* is specified as 'T' or 't', the leading dimension must be greater than or equal to the value specified in *m*.

b is the input matrix *b* of float (for sgemm) or double (for dgemm) values.

ldb is the leading dimension of the array specified by *b*. The leading dimension must be greater than zero. If *transb* is specified as 'N' or 'n', the leading dimension must be greater than or equal to the value specified in *m*. If *transa* is specified as 'T' or 't', the leading dimension must be greater than or equal to the value specified in *n*.

beta

is the scaling constant for matrix *c*

c is the output matrix *c* of float (for sgemm) or double (for dgemm) values.

ldc is the leading dimension of the array specified by *c*. The leading dimension must be greater than zero. If *transb* is specified as 'N' or 'n', the leading dimension must be greater than or equal to 0 and greater than or equal to the value specified in *l*.

Note: Matrix *c* must have no common elements with matrices *a* or *b*; otherwise, the results are unpredictable.

Linking the libxlopt library

By default, the `libxlopt` library is linked with any application you compile with XL C/C++. However, if you are using a third-party BLAS library, but want to use the BLAS routines shipped with `libxlopt`, you must specify the `libxlopt` library before any other BLAS library on the command line at link time. For example, if your other BLAS library is called `libblas.a`, you would compile your code with the following command:

```
ppuxlc app.c -lxlopt -lblas
```

The compiler will call the `sgemv`, `dgemv`, `sgemm`, and `dgemm` functions from the `libxlopt` library, and all other BLAS functions in the `libblas.a` library.

Chapter 10. Using automatic code overlays (SPU only)

Overview

Synergistic Processor Units (SPU) have a local store size of 256KB. This can be a limitation if a program and its working data set cannot fit in 256KB. One solution is to use code overlays. With code overlays you can write SPU programs that would normally be too large to fit in the local memory store. Overlays are coordinated by the linker by enabling two or more code segments to be loaded at the same physical address as they are needed. Because manually creating overlays can be complicated, the compiler provides options for the automatic generation of overlays.

Note: For more detailed background information on overlays and how they work, see the *IBM Software Development Kit for Multicore Acceleration Version 3.0 Programmer's Guide*. The SDK Programmer's Guide also documents how to manually create overlays.

Basic use: `-qipa=overlay`

Automatic overlays can be generated simply by using the `-qipa=overlay` suboption. For example, you can compile your code as in the following command:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay
```

In this example, the compiler will attempt to partition your program at a function level to produce overlay segments that can be loaded as necessary. Automatic code overlays are not enabled by default, but if you want to explicitly disable code overlays, use the `-qipa=nooverlay` option. If multiple `-qipa=overlay` and `-qipa=nooverlay` options are specified, the last option determines if automatic code overlays are enabled or not.

Controlling which functions are overlaid: `-qipa=overlayproc`

If there are specific functions that you want to be in overlays, use the `-qipa=overlayproc` suboption. In particular, you may decide to use this suboption if, based on your analysis of the program, there are functions that you want to be in the same overlay. To specify multiple functions, use this suboption with a comma separated list. For example, to tell the compiler that you prefer the functions `foo` and `bar` to be in the same overlay, you could compile your program as follows:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay:overlayproc=foo,bar
```

Multiple `overlayproc` suboptions may be used to specify multiple overlay groups. For example, if you wanted `foo` and `bar` to ideally be in the same overlay and `foo2` and `bar2` to be in another overlay, you could compile your program as follows:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay:overlayproc=foo,bar:overlayproc=foo2,bar2
```

overlayproc notes:

- Although multiple functions can be listed in the same `overlayproc` group, this does not guarantee that they will be in the same overlay. For example, if the functions you list together are too large for one overlay, they will be put in

separate overlays. However, functions that are listed in different **overlayproc** groups are guaranteed to be in separate overlays.

- C++ function names must be mangled. C/C++ static and nested functions are not supported.

Controlling which functions are not overlaid: **-qipa=nooverlayproc**

There may be functions that you always want to be in the local store; that is, functions that you do not want overlaid. As a generalization, functions that are called frequently by functions that may be in multiple overlays are useful to always have in the local store. To specify functions to not overlay, use the **-qipa=nooverlayproc** suboption. For example, to tell the compiler that you want the `main` function to never be overlaid, you could compile your program as follows:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay:nooverlayproc=main
```

To specify multiple functions to never be overlaid, use this suboption with a comma separated list. For example:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay:nooverlayproc=main,foo
```

Note: C++ function names must be mangled. C/C++ static and nested functions are not supported.

Controlling the size of the overlay buffer:

-qipa=partition={small | medium | large}

Use `-qipa=partition={small | medium | large}` to indicate to the compiler the preferred size of overlay buffer that you want to use. The actual size of the overlay buffer may differ from what you expect, though, because the minimum size of the overlay buffer will be the size of the largest overlaid function. If your preference is for the compiler to attempt to create several small overlays, try the **small** setting. If you prefer the compiler to create fewer but larger overlays if possible, try the **medium** and **large** settings accordingly. The following example shows compiling with automatic overlays using a small overlay buffer if possible:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay:partition=small
```

Options that may be useful for reducing the size of SPU programs

If there are difficulties keeping your programs small enough for the local store size, there are other options that may be useful. See Table 17 for some suggestions. Full documentation for these options is available in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*

Table 17. Options that may help reduce program size

| Option | Description |
|---|---|
| <code>-qcompact</code> | Optimizations that increase code size are avoided. |
| <code>-qnoinline</code> | The compiler does not attempt to inline functions. |
| <code>-qnounroll</code> and <code>(#pragma nounroll)</code> | Turns off loop unrolling. Unrolled loops can increase program size. |

Table 17. Options that may help reduce program size (continued)

| Option | Description |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Use a lower optimization level. | With higher levels of optimization, the compiler increasingly applies optimization techniques such as inlining, loop unrolling, and other changes that can increase program size. By using a lower optimization level such as -O3 instead of -O4 , you may be able to reduce the size of your SPU programs. |

Automatic overlay additional notes:

- The suboptions **-qipa=overlayproc** and **-qipa=nooverlayproc** have no effect if **-qipa=overlay** is not also specified.
- If a function is listed in multiple **overlayproc** groups, the policy is that the last option is used. That is, the function will go in the group that last mentions it on the command line.
- If contradictory information is given because a function is listed in **nooverlayproc** and an **overlayproc** group, **nooverlayproc** with override **overlayproc** for that function.
- If a function is so large that the generated SPU program will not fit in the local store, the linker error relocation does not fit will be issued. To address this problem, you can re-code your program to divide the large function into several smaller functions. Also, see Table 17 on page 72 for options that may be useful for reducing the size of SPU programs.
- If only one overlay segment is generated, overlay will not be used for the program. In the case of one segment, overlays would not be required as the program was small enough to fit in the local memory store.
- When using automatic overlay, only one overlay region is created within which multiple overlay segments and sections are managed. See the *IBM Software Development Kit for Multicore Acceleration Version 3.0 Programmer's Guide* for more information on the distinctions between overlay regions, segments, and sections.
- The suboption **-qipa=overlay** by itself will use the default values for the other **-qipa** suboptions. For example, the default value for **-qipa=level** is *1* and the default value for **-qipa=inline** is *auto*. If the size of your SPU programs is too large, adjusting the values for other **-qipa** suboptions may be helpful.

Related information

- **-qipa** in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- "Using custom linker scripts with overlays"
- *IBM Software Development Kit for Multicore Acceleration Version 3.0 Programmer's Guide*

Using custom linker scripts with overlays

Overview

Overlays are coordinated by the linker. If you want to use your own linker script with automatic code overlays, you will need to annotate your script with a comment token so that the compiler can add overlay information based on the overlay options you choose. You will also need to compile your program with the appropriate options so that your linker script is used.

Adding a comment token to your linker script

The comment token to add to your linker script is `/*__XL_OVERLAY_TOKEN__*/`. This is the same token that is in the default linker script that the compiler uses and compiler modifications to your script work the same way. That is, if you are using automatic overlays, the compiler looks for the section that has been marked with this token and adds the overlay information there. For example, the following is a section of a linker script:

```
.text      :
{
  *(.text .stub .text.* .gnu.linkonce.t.*)
  *(.gnu.warning)
} =0
```

If you wanted to use this script with automatic overlays, you could annotate it with `/*__XL_OVERLAY_TOKEN__*/` as follows:

```
/*__XL_OVERLAY_TOKEN__*/
.text      :
{
  *(.text .stub .text.* .gnu.linkonce.t.*)
  *(.gnu.warning)
} =0
```

If you compiled your program with `-qipa=overlay` and specified that the `foo` and `bar` functions should be in overlays with `overlayproc=foo:overlayproc=bar`, then your linker script will be modified by the compiler to be similar to the example below:

```
OVERLAY {
  .segment1 {./foo.o(.text)}
  .segment2 {./bar.o(.text)}
}
.text      :
{
  *(.text .stub .text.* .gnu.linkonce.t.*)
  *(.gnu.warning)
} =0
```

That is, `/*__XL_OVERLAY_TOKEN__*/` is replaced with the overlay information to indicate to the linker that `foo.o` and `bar.o` are in overlays.

Telling the compiler to use your linker script

Use the `-Wl` compiler option to indicate that there are additional options that you want to pass to the linker. Use the `-T` linker option to specify the name of your linker script. For example, if the name of the script that you have added the overlay tokens to is `myldscript`, use the `-Wl` and `-T` options as follows:

```
spuxlc foobar.c -qipa=overlay -Wl,-Tmyldscript
```

Related information

- `-qipa` in the *XL C/C++ Compiler Reference*
- Chapter 10, “Using automatic code overlays (SPU only),” on page 71
- **Linker Scripts** at: <http://sourceware.org/binutils/docs-2.17/ld/Scripts.html>

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