SIMD Intrinsics on Managed Language Runtimes

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***Abstract*—Managed language runtimes such as the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) provide adequate performance for a wide range of applications, but at the same time, they lack much of the low-level control that performance-minded programmers appreciate in languages like `C/C++`. One important example is the *intrinsics* interface that exposes instructions of SIMD (Single Instruction Multiple Data) vector ISAs (Instruction Set Architectures). In this paper we present an automatic approach for including native intrinsics in the runtime of a managed language. Our implementation consists of two parts. First, for each vector ISA, we automatically generate the intrinsics API from the vendor-provided XML specification. Second, we employ a metaprogramming approach that enables programmers to generate and load native code at runtime. In this setting, programmers can use the entire high-level language as a kind of macro system to define new high-level vector APIs with zero overhead. As an example use case we show a variable precision API. We provide an end-to-end implementation of our approach in the HotSpot VM that supports all 5912 Intel SIMD intrinsics from `MMX` to `AVX-512`. Our benchmarks demonstrate that this combination of SIMD and metaprogramming enables developers to write high-performance, vectorized code on an unmodified JVM that outperforms the auto-vectorizing HotSpot just-in-time (JIT) compiler and provides tight integration between vectorized native code and the managed JVM ecosystem.**

I. Introduction

Managed high-level languages are designed to be portable and to support a broad range of applications. For the programmer, the price is reduced access to detailed and low-level performance optimizations. In particular, SIMD vector instructions on modern architectures offer significant parallelism, and thus potential speedup, but neither languages like Java, JavaScript, Python, or Ruby, nor their managed runtimes provide direct access to SIMD facilities. This means that SIMD optimizations, if available at all, are left to the virtual machine (VM) and the built-in just-in-time (JIT) compiler to carry out automatically, which often leads to suboptimal code. As a result, developers may be pushed to use low-level languages such as `C/C++` to gain access to the intrinsics API. But leaving the high-level ecosystem of Java or other languages also means to abandon many high-level abstractions that are key for the productive and efficient development of large-scale applications, including access to a large set of libraries.

To reap the benefits of both high-level and low-level languages, developers using managed languages may write low-level native `C/C++` functions, that are invoked by the managed runtime. In the case of Java, developers could use the Java Native Interface (JNI) to invoke `C` functions with specific naming conventions. However, this process of dividing the application logic between two languages creates a significant gap in the abstractions of the program, limits code reuse, and impedes clear separation of concerns. Further, the native code must be cross-compiled ahead of time, which is an error-prone process that requires complicated pipelines to support different operating systems and architectures, and thus directly affects code maintenance and refactoring.

To address these problems, we propose a systematic and automated approach that gives developers access to SIMD instructions in the managed runtime, eliminating the need to write low-level `C/C++` code. Our methodology supports the entire set of SIMD instructions in the form of embedded domain-specific languages (eDSLs) and consists of two parts. First, for each architecture, we automatically generate ISA-specific eDSLs from the vendor's XML specification of the SIMD intrinsics. Second, we provide the developer with the means to use the SIMD eDSL to develop application logic, which automatically generates native code inside the runtime. Instead of executing each SIMD intrinsic immediately when invoked by the program, the eDSLs provide a *staged* or *deferred* API, which accumulates intrinsic invocations along with auxiliary scalar operations and control flow, batches them together in a computation graph, and generates a native kernel that executes them all at once, when requested by the program. This makes it possible to interleave SIMD intrinsics with the generic language constructs of the host language without switching back and forth between native and managed execution, enabling programmers to build both high-level and low-level abstractions, while running SIMD kernels at full speed.

This paper makes the following contributions:

1) We present the first systematic and automated approach that supports the entire set of SIMD instructions, automatically generated from the vendor specification, in a managed high-level language. The approach is applicable to other low-level instructions, provided support for native code binding in the managed high-level language.
2) In doing so, we show how to use metaprogramming techniques and runtime code generation to give back low-level control to developers in an environment that typically hides architecture-specific details.
3) We provide an end-to-end implementation of our approach within the HotSpot JVM, which provides access to all Intel SIMD intrinsics from `MMX` to `AVX-512`.
4) We show how to use the SIMD eDSLs to build new abstractions using host language constructs. Program-

mers can use the entire managed language as a form of macro system to define new vectorized APIs with zero overhead. As an example, we present a "virtual ISA" for variable precision arithmetic.

5) We provide benchmarks that demonstrate significant performance gains of explicit SIMD code versus code auto-vectorized by the HotSpot JIT compiler.

Our work focuses on the JVM and Intel SIMD intrinsics functions, but would equally apply to other platforms. For the implementation of computation graphs and runtime code generation, we use the LMS (Lightweight Modular Staging) compiler framework [1].

II. Background

We provide background on intrinsics functions, JVMs, and the LMS metaprogramming framework that we use.

A. Intrinsics

Intrinsics are compiler-built-in functions that usually map into a single or a small number of assembly instructions. During compilation, they are inlined to remove calling overhead. This way they provide the programmer with assembly-like functionality, without having to worry about register allocation and instruction scheduling. SIMD intrinsics give access to data parallel instructions in vector ISAs, such as NEON on ARM processors, or the SSE and AVX families on Intel.

We focus on the x86 architecture and the associated SIMD intrinsics that are available in modern `C/C++` compilers, such as `GCC`, `Clang/LLVM`, and Intel `ICC`. Specifically, these include the following ISAs:

- `MMX` - operating on 64-bit wide registers; provides integer operations only.
- `SSE` / `SSE2` / `SSE3` / `SSSE3` / `SSE4.1` / `SSE4.2` - operating on 128-bit wide registers; provides integer, 32-bit, and 64-bit floating point operations, string operations and cache and memory management operations.
- `AVX` / `AVX2` - ISAs that expand the `SSE` operations to 256-bit wide registers and provide extra operations for manipulating non-contiguous memory locations.
- `FMA` - an extension to `SSE` and `AVX` ISAs to provide fused multiply add operations.
- `AVX-512` - extends `AVX` to operate on 512-bit registers and consists of multiple parts called `F` / `BW` / `CD` / `DQ` / `ER` / `IFMA52` / `PF` / `VBMI` / `VL`.
- `KNC` - the first production version of Intel's Many Integrated Core (MIC) architecture that provides operations on 512-bit registers.

Additionally, we also include:

- `SVML` - an intrinsics short vector math library, built on top of the ISAs mentioned above.
- Sets of smaller ISA extensions: `ADX` / `AES` / `BMI1` / `BMI2` / `CLFLUSHOPT` / `CLWB` / `FP16C` / `FSGSBASE` / `FXSR` / `INVPCID` / `LZCNT` / `MONITOR` / `MPX` / `PCLMULQDQ` / `POPCNT` / `PREFETCHWT1` / `RDPID` / `RDRAND` / `RDSEED` / `RDTSCP` / `RTM` / `SHA` / `TSC` / `XSAVE` / `XSAVEC` / `XSAVEOPT` / `XSS`

These ISAs yield a large number of associated intrinsics: arithmetics operations on both floating point and integer numbers, intrinsics that operate with logical and bitwise operations, statistical and cryptographic operations, comparison, string operations and many more. Table Ia gives a rough classification of the different classes of intrinsics. To ease the life of the developers, Intel provides an interactive tool called *Intel Intrinsics Guide* [2] where each available intrinsics is listed, including a detailed description of the underlying ISA instruction. Table Ib shows the number of available intrinsics: 5912 in total (of which 338 are shared between AVX-512 and KNC), classified into 24 groups.

B. Java Virtual Machines

There are many active implementations of the JVM including the open source IBM V9 [3], Jikes RVM [4], Maxine [5], JRockit [6], and the proprietary SAP JVM [7], CEE-J [8], JamaicaVM [9]. HotSpot remains the primary reference JVM implementation that is used by both Oracle Java and OpenJDK. Each of the JVM implementations provides support for Java Standard Edition or Micro Edition, tailored for a particular need: either a particular target machine or microarchitecture, embedded systems, operating system, provides additional garbage collector, resource control or parallelism model. However, none of the active JVM implementation provides any support for explicit vectorization nor intrinsics, nor permits inlining of assembly code directly in the Java source due to portability specifications.

The HotSpot JVM, which is the focus of this study, provides JIT compilation of Java bytecode as a black box. The developer has no control over, nor receives any feedback on the compilation phases except through coarse-grained command-line and debug options [10]. There are two flavors of the VM: a client mode focused on latency, and a server mode tuned for throughput. We only focus on the Server VM, as it is tuned to maximize peak operating speed. The Server VM offers a tiered compilation of bytecode using the `C1` and `C2` compilers. `C1` is a fast, lightly optimizing bytecode compiler, while `C2` performs more aggressive optimizations. When JVM applications are started, the HotSpot VM starts interpreting bytecode. It detects computation-intensive hot spots in the code via profiling, and proceeds to compile the bytecode of frequently used functions with `C1`. Once further thresholds are reached, functions may be compiled using `C2`. `C2` supports autovectorization, using Superword Level Parallelism (SLP) [11]. SLP detects groups of isomorphic instructions and replaces them with SIMD instructions, which results in a lightweight vectorization. The SLP approach is limited and cannot optimize across loop iterations, nor can it detect idioms such as reductions.

C. Lightweight Modular Staging

Lightweight Modular Staging (LMS) [1], [12] is a framework for runtime code generation and for building compilers for embedded DSLs in Scala. LMS makes pervasive use of operator overloading to make code generation blend in with nor-

TABLE I: Simplified classification of intrinsics (a) and instruction count (b) of the x86 SIMD Intrinsics set.

Arithmetics	Shuffles	Statistics	Loads
_mm256_add_pd	_mm256_permutevar_pd	_mm_avg_epu8	_mm_i32gather_epi32
_mm256_hadd_ps	_mm256_shufflehi_epi16	_mm256_cdfnorm_pd	_mm256_broadcast_ps
...	...	...	...
Compare	**String**	**Logical**	**Stores**
_mm_cmp_epi16_mask	_mm_cmpestrm	_mm256_or_pd	_mm512_storenrngo_pd
_mm_cmpeq_epi8	_mm_cmpistrz	_mm256_andnot_pd	_mm_store_pd1
...	...	...	...
Random	**Bitwise**	**Crypto**	**Conversion**
_rdrand16_step	_mm256_bslli_epi128	_mm_aesdec_si128	_mm256_castps_pd
_rdseed64_step	_mm512_rol_epi32	_mm_sha1msg1_epu32	_mm256_cvtps_epi32
...	...	...	...

(a)

ISA	Count
MMX	124
SSE	154
SSE2	236
SSE3	11
SSSE3	32
SSE41	61
SSE42	19
AVX	188
AVX2	191
AVX-512	3857
FMA	32
KNC	601
SVML	406

(b)

TABLE II: Type mappings between JVM and C/C++ types.

JVM Types ↔ C/C++ Types			
Float	↔ float	Char	↔ int16_t
Double	↔ double	Boolean	↔ bool
Byte	↔ int8_t	UByte	↔ uint8_t
Short	↔ int16_t	UShort	↔ uint16_t
Int	↔ int32_t	UInt	↔ uint32_t
Long	↔ int64_t	ULong	↔ uint64_t

mal programming. The core abstraction is a type constructor `Rep[T]` that marks code expressions. For example, executing `a + b` where `a` and `b` are two `Rep[Int]` expressions will create a program expression that represents the addition `a' + b'`, where `a'` and `b'` are the program expressions `a` and `b` evaluate to. This form of operator overloading is extended to `if/else` expressions and other built-in constructs [13], [14]. The combined program expression can be unparsed to source code, in this paper to C or LLVM code, compiled dynamically, and loaded into the running JVM.

III. Intrinsics in the JVM

In this section, we present our two-tier approach for making the Intel SIMD intrinsics available in the JVM. First we automatically generate SIMD eDSLs, each implemented as a Scala class that corresponds to one of the 13 vector ISAs in Figure Ib. Then, we show how to use these eDSLs to generate high-performance SIMD code with high-level language constructs inherited by the host language. We show examples of end-user code in Scala, but any other JVM language could be used. Before we start, we have to establish a corresponding type system between the JVM and the SIMD intrinsics functions to represent the SIMD vector types, that is required for the generation of the eDSLs and their usage.

A. Type System for SIMD Intrinsics in the JVM

The JVM has no notion of SIMD vector types, thus we build abstract classes to mark the type of DSL expressions that represent SIMD intrinsics functions in LMS:

```
Rep[__m64]   // MMX integer types
Rep[__m128]  // SSE 4x32-bit float
Rep[__m128d] // SSE 2x64-bit float
Rep[__m128i] // SSE 2x64/4x32/8x16/16x8-bit integer
Rep[__m256]  // AVX 8x32-bit float
Rep[__m256d] // AVX 4x64-bit float
Rep[__m256i] // AVX 4x64/84x32/16x16/32x8-bit integer
Rep[__m512]  // AVX512 16x32-bit float
Rep[__m512d] // AVX512 8x64-bit float
Rep[__m512i] // AVX512 8x64/16x32/32x16/64x8-bit integer
```

SIMD intrinsics functions take primitive arguments that correspond to low-level C/C++ primitive types. The primitive types in the JVM exhibit a fixed width, and therefore a direct mapping can be established with C/C++ primitives. Some intrinsics however, require the use of unsigned types that are not supported natively in the JVM:

```
unsigned int _mm_crc32_u16 (unsigned int, unsigned short)
```

To mitigate this problem, we use the Scala Unsigned [15] package, which implements unsigned types and operations on top of the signed types available in the JVM. Table II shows the type mapping between the 12 primitives, which in most cases is straight-forward, except for JVM `Char` that maps to `int16_t` to support UTF-8. Arrays of primitive types in the JVM and C/C++ code are isomorphic and both represent continuous memory space of a certain primitive type. Therefore `Array[T]` maps to a memory pointer `T*` in the low-level SIMD intrinsics.

B. Automatic Generation of ISA-specific eDSLs

LMS provides a relatively simple interface to define eDSLs, but adding more than 5000 functions by hand would be tedious and error prone. Our approach generates the LMS eDSLs automatically from the XML specification provided by the Intel Intrinsics Guide; these are then packed as a `jar` file that is later published in the Maven Central Repository [16] for deployment. At the time of writing, we use the latest version of the intrinsics specifications stored as `data-3.3.16.xml` file, and build the generator such that it anticipates future extensions in the specifications. Figure 1 shows a high-level overview of the generation process, which we explain step-by-step next.

a) Parse XML intrinsics specification.: The first step in the generation process extracts the information from the XML file. As shown in an example (Figure 2), for each intrinsics, the

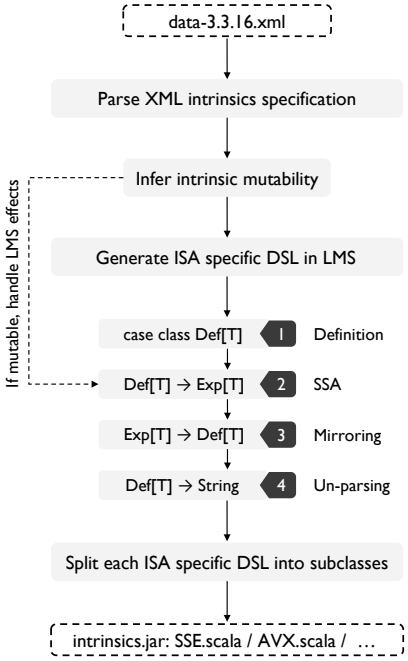


Fig. 1: Generating SIMD intrinsics eDSLs from vendor specification.

```
<intrinsic rettype='__m256d' name='_mm256_add_pd'>
  <type>Floating Point</type>
  <CPUID>AVX</CPUID>
  <category>Arithmetic</category>
  <parameter varname='a' type='__m256d'/>
  <parameter varname='b' type='__m256d'/>
  <description>
    Add packed double-precision (64-bit)
    floating-point elements in "a" and "b",
    and store the results in "dst".
  </description>
  <operation>
    FOR j := 0 to 3
          i := j*64
          dst[i+63:i] := a[i+63:i] + b[i+63:i]
    ENDFOR
    dst[MAX:256] := 0
  </operation>
  <instruction name='vaddpd' form='ymm, ymm, ymm'/>
  <header>immintrin.h</header>
</intrinsic>
```

Fig. 2: XML specification of the `_mm256_add_pd` intrinsic.

XML file contains a name that defines the intrinsics function, return type, ordered list of each argument of the function with the corresponding type, `CPUID` parameter, that correspond to the ISA set, and a category parameter.

b) Generate ISA-specific DSL in LMS.: For each intrinsic function we implement four building blocks that define the eDSL. These are represented in terms of implementation classes provided by the LMS framework. The classes `Def[T]` and `Exp[T]` together define a computation graph. Subclasses of `Def[T]` implement graph nodes that represent individual computations, e.g., `Plus(a,b)`. Here, `a` and `b` are values of type `Exp[T]`: either constants `Const(.)` or symbols `Sym(id)` that refer to other graph nodes through a numeric index `id`. The four necessary building blocks are as follows:

1) Definition of the intrinsic function represented as a subclass of `Def[T]`.
2) Implicit conversion from expression `Exp[T]` to definition `Def[T]`, looking up a computation node given a symbolic reference.
3) Mirroring function that converts a `Def[T]` into expression `Exp[T]`, potentially applying a transformation.
4) Unparsing routine that converts each `Def[T]` into `C/C++` string.

To complete the first part, we define `IntrinsicsDef[T]`, an abstract class that each intrinsics definition will inherit:

```
abstract class IntrinsicsDef[T:Manifest] extends Def[T] {
  val category: List[IntrinsicsCategory]
  val intrinsicType: List[IntrinsicsType]
  val performance: Map[MicroArchType, Performance]
  val header: String
}
```

Then for each intrinsic function, we define a Scala case class that corresponds to the intrinsics function's name, its input arguments and return type. Each case class contains the category, the type of the intrinsics and performance informations when available. Additionally, we also include the header where the `C/C++` intrinsics is defined:

```
case class MM256_ADD_PD(
  a: Exp[__m256d], b: Exp[__m256d]
) extends IntrinsicsDef[__m256d] {
  val category = List(Arithmetic)
  val intrinsicType = List(FloatingPoint)
  val performance = Map.empty[MicroArchType, Performance]
  val header = "immintrin.h"
}
```

With the current definition we allow a particular intrinsics to pertain to several categories. The header information gives us the control to include the correct header when unparsing the code to `C/C++` code. Performance information is included but is not used in the staging process.

Next we generate Scala code for the implicit conversion from intrinsics expressions to definitions. This routine is essential in LMS, as it provides automatic conversion of the staged code into static single assignment (SSA) form. In most cases it is sufficient to rely on the Scala compiler to automatically perform the implicit conversion:

```
def _mm256_add_pd(a: Exp[__m256d], b: Exp[__m256d])
  : Exp[__m256d] = MM256_ADD_PD(a, b)
```

The LMS framework supports DSL transformations by substitution. Once a substitution is defined, LMS creates new definitions. However, when no substitution is available, a definition has to be converted to an expression through a routine of mirroring that converts a `Def[T]` back to `Exp[T]`, potentially creating a new definitions for subexpressions as part of the transformation:

```
override def mirror[A:Typ](e: Def[A], f: Transformer)
  (implicit pos: SourceContext): Exp[A] = (e match {
  case MM256_ADD_PD (a, b) =>
    _mm256_add_pd(f(a), f(b))
  case MM256_ADD_PS (a, b) =>
    _mm256_add_ps(f(a), f(b))
```

```
  // ... a lot more patterns to match
  case _ => super.mirror(e, f)
}
```

Once code is generated for all these routines and for each intrinsic, the final step is to generate code to perform the unparsing of the DSL into C code. The unparsing routine is done similarly to the mirroring routine, by pattern matching each DSL definition to produce the corresponding C expression:

```
override def emitNode(s:Sym[Any], r:Def[Any]) = r match {
  case iDef@MM256_ADD_PD(a, b) =>
    headers += iDef.header
    emitValDef(sym, s"_mm256_add_pd(${a}, ${b})")
  // ... a lot more patterns to match
  case _ => super.emitNode(sym, rhs)
}
```

c) Infer intrinsic mutability: As mentioned before, when code is generated for the implicit conversion of an intrinsics expression to the intrinsics definition, we can rely on the Scala compiler to match the correct implicit method. This works correctly for immutable expressions, but not all intrinsics are immutable. For example, each intrinsics that loads and stores from/to memory creates effects that have to be handled by LMS. The semantic of these effects is essential in scheduling the DSL.

To resolve this problem, we use the category information of each intrinsics (see Figure 2), and implement a conservative heuristic to generate the effects:

- Each time an intrinsics is discovered with a load category, we generate a read effect on each argument that is a memory location.
- Each time an intrinsics is discovered with a store category, we generate a write effect on each argument that is a memory location.

For example, an AVX load of 4 doubles has the form of:

```
def _mm256_load_pd[A[_], U:Integral](
  mem_addr: Exp[A[Double]], mem_addrOffset: Exp[U]
)(implicit cont: Container[A]): Exp[__m256d] = {
  cont.read(mem_addr)
    (MM256_LOAD_PD(mem_addr, mem_addrOffset)
      (implicitly[Integral[U]], cont))
}
```

The heuristics is invoked on each intrinsics that performs loads, stores, maskstores, maskloads, gather, scatters and other intrinsics that perform memory-related operations.

d) Split each ISA specific DSL into subclasses: The JVM has a hard limit of 64KB on the size of each method, which is an obstacle in generating the unparsing and mirroring routines for large ISA, such as AVX-512 or KNC. To avoid this obstacle, and still keep the LMS design pattern, we decided to split the ISA specific DSLs into subclasses that inherit each other.

C. Developing Explicitly Vectorized Code in the JVM Using SIMD eDSLs

Figure 3 gives a high-level overview of how to use explicit vectorization in the JVM. The process consists of two parts: compile-time tasks, done by the high-performance code developer, and runtime tasks that are done automatically by LMS

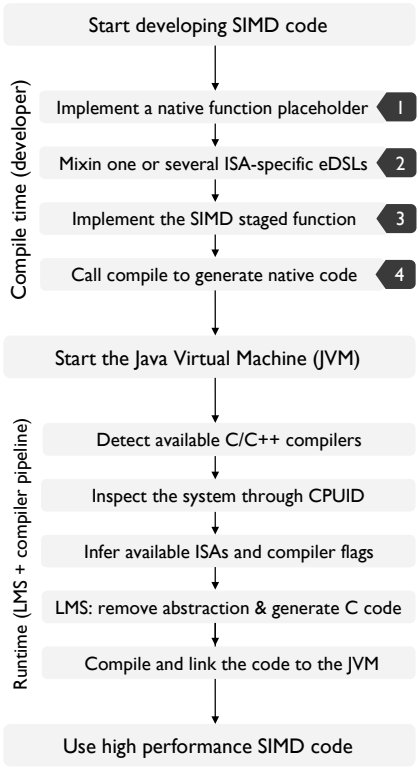


Fig. 3: Developing explicit vectorized code in the JVM using SIMD eDSLs.

and our compiler pipeline. Specifically, the compile-time tasks of the developer comprise four steps:

1) Implement a native function placeholder that will represent the vectorized code.
2) Create a DSL instance by instantiating one or mixing several ISA-specific eDSLs.
3) Implement the SIMD logic as a staged function.
4) Call the provided `compile` routine to generate, compile and link the code in the JVM.

After the four steps are completed, and the JVM program is started, the compiler pipeline is invoked with the `compile` routine. This will perform system inspection, search for available compilers and opportunistically pick the optimal compiler available on the system. In particular, it will attempt to find `icc`, `gcc` or `llvm/clang`. After a compiler is found, the runtime will determine the target CPU, as well as the underlying micro-architecture to derive available ISAs. This allows us to have full control over the system, as well as to be able to pick the best mix of compiler flags for each compiler.

Once this process is completed, the user-defined staged function is executed, which assembles a computation graph of SIMD instructions. From this computation graph, LMS generates vectorized C code. This code is then automatically compiled as a dynamic library with the set of derived compiler flags, and linked back into the JVM. To link the native code into the JVM, JNI requires the C functions header to contain the `Java_` prefix, followed by package name, class name and

```
import ch.ethz.acl.commons.cir.IntrinsicsIR
import com.github.dwickern.macros.NameOf._

class NSaxpy {

  // Step 1: Placeholder for the SAXPY native function
  @native def apply (
    a      : Array[Float],
    b      : Array[Float],
    scalar : Float,
    n      : Int
  ): Unit

  // Step 2: DSL instance of the intrinsics
  val cIR = new IntrinsicsIR
  import cIR._

  // Step 3: Staged SAXPY function using AVX + FMA
  def saxpy_staged(
    a_imm  : Rep[Array[Float]],
    b      : Rep[Array[Float]],
    scalar : Rep[Float],
    n      : Rep[Int]
  ): Rep[Unit] = { import ImplicitLift._
    // make array `a` mutable
    val a_sym = a_imm.asInstanceOf[Sym[Array[Float]]]
    val a = reflectMutableSym(a_sym)
    // start with the computation
    val n0 = (n >> 3) << 3
    val vec_s = _mm256_set1_ps(scalar)
    forloop(0, n0, fresh[Int], 8, (i : Rep[Int]) => {
      val vec_a = _mm256_loadu_ps(a, i)
      val vec_b = _mm256_loadu_ps(b, i)
      val res = _mm256_fmadd_ps(vec_b, vec_s, vec_a)
      _mm256_storeu_ps(a, res, i)
    })
    forloop(n0, n, fresh[Int], 1, (i : Rep[Int]) => {
      a(i) = a(i) + b(i) * scalar
    })
  }

  // Step 4: generate the saxpy function,
  // compile it and link it to the JVM
  compile(saxpy_staged _, this, nameOf(apply _))
}
```

Fig. 4: A complete implementation of the BLAS 1 routine `SAXPY` in the JVM using `AVX` and `FMA` SIMD intrinsics.

name of the native function. The `compile` routine automates this process using JVM reflection and some lightweight use of Scala macros. By this automation, we ensure the interoperability between the native function and the staged function, creating code robust to modifications and refactoring and eliminate the need for the developer to recompile the native code each time major code revision are performed on the low-level code or the class container.

Figure 4 illustrates a complete and self-contained implementation of a BLAS 1 routine called `SAXPY` [17], which computes $y = y + \alpha x$ for given vectors x, y and scalar α. The expression `forloop(...)` creates a staged loop in the LMS computation graph.

D. Evaluation

To assess the viability of our approach we consider two ubiquitous kernel functions: the aforementioned `SAXPY` and matrix multiplication.

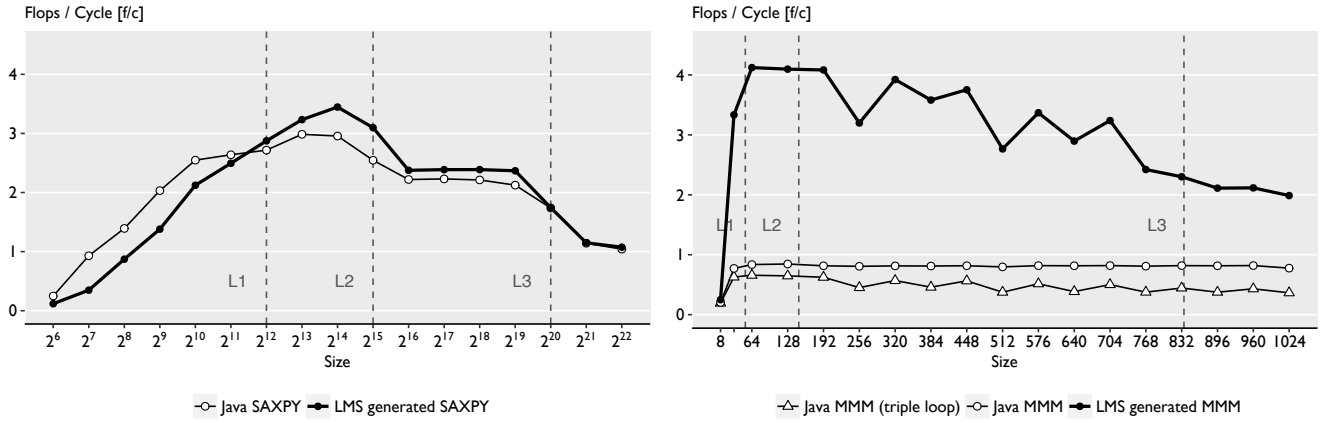
a) Experimental setup.: We perform the tests on a Haswell enabled processor Intel Xeon CPU E3-1285L v3 3.10GHz with 32GB of RAM, running Debian GNU/Linux

```
1  // take 8 __m256 vector types, transpose their
2  // values, returning 8 __m256 vectors.
3  def transpose(row: Seq[Exp[__m256]]) = {
4    val __tt = row.grouped(2).toSeq.flatMap({
5      case Seq(a, b) => Seq (
6        _mm256_unpacklo_ps(a, b),
7        _mm256_unpackhi_ps(a, b)
8      )
9    }).grouped(4).toSeq.flatMap({
10     case Seq(a, b, c, d) => Seq(
11       _mm256_shuffle_ps(a, c, 68),
12       _mm256_shuffle_ps(a, c, 238),
13       _mm256_shuffle_ps(b, d, 68),
14       _mm256_shuffle_ps(b, d, 238)
15     )
16   })
17   val zip = __tt.take(4) zip __tt.drop(4)
18   val f = _mm256_permute2f128_ps _
19   zip.map({ case (a, b) => f(a, b, 0x20) }) ++
20   zip.map({ case (a, b) => f(a, b, 0x31) })
21 }
22 // Perform Matrix-Matrix-Multiplication
23 def staged_mmm_blocked (
24   a     : Rep[Array[Float]],
25   b     : Rep[Array[Float]],
26   c_imm : Rep[Array[Float]],
27   n     : Rep[Int]           // assume n == 8k
28 ): Rep[Unit] = {
29   val c_sym = c_imm.asInstanceOf[Sym[Array[Float]]]
30   val c = reflectMutableSym(c_sym)
31   forloop(0, n, fresh[Int], 8, (kk: Exp[Int]) => {
32     forloop(0, n, fresh[Int], 8, (jj: Exp[Int]) => {
33       // Load the block of matrix B and transpose it
34       val blockB = transpose((0 to 7).map { i =>
35         _mm256_loadu_ps(b, (kk + i) * n + jj)
36       })
37       // Multiply all the vectors of a of the
38       // corresponding block column with the running
39       // block and store the result in matrix C
40       forloop(0, n, fresh[Int], 1, (i: Exp[Int]) => {
41         val rowA  = _mm256_loadu_ps(a, i * n + kk)
42         val mulAB = transpose(
43           blockB.map(_mm256_mul_ps(rowA, _))
44         )
45         def f(l: Seq[Exp[__m256]]): Exp[__m256] =
46           l.size match {
47             case 1 => l.head
48             case s =>
49               val lhs = f(l.take(s/2))
50               val rhs = f(l.drop(s/2))
51               _mm256_add_ps(lhs, rhs)
52         }
53         val rowC = _mm256_loadu_ps(c, i * n + jj)
54         val accC = _mm256_add_ps(f(mulAB), rowC)
55         _mm256_storeu_ps(c, accC, i * n + jj)
56       })
57     })
58   })
59 }
```

Fig. 5: Implementation of MMM in the JVM using `AVX` intrinsics

8 (jessie), kernel 3.16.43-2+deb8u3. The available compilers are `gcc` 4.9.2-10 and Intel `icc` 17.0.0. The installed JVM is HotSpot 64-Bit Server 25.144-b01, supporting Java 1.8. To avoid the effects of frequency scaling and resource sharing on the measurements, Turbo Boost and Hyper-Threading are disabled.

We use ScalaMeter [18] to perform the benchmarks. To obtain precise results, we select a pre-configured benchmark that forks a new JVM virtual machine and performs measurements inside the clean instance. The new instance has a compilation threshold of 100 (`-XX:CompileThreshold=100`) and we perform at least 100 warm-up runs on all test cases to trigger



(a) SAXPY

(b) Matrix-Matrix-Multiplication

Fig. 6: Performance analysis: Java implementation vs LMS intrinsics generated code.

the JIT compiler. Each test case is performed on a warm cache. Tests are repeated 30 times, and the median of the runtime is taken. We show the results as performance, measured in flops per cycle.

To inspect the JIT compilation of the HotSpot JVM, we use `-XX:UnlockDiagnosticVMOptions` that unlocks the diagnostic JVM options and `-XX:CompileCommand=print` to output the generated assembly. In all test cases we observe the full-tiered compilation starting from the `C1` compiler to the last phase of the `C2` compiler. For a fair comparison between the JVM and our generated intrinsics code, we consider the `C2` compiled version of the bytecode only, excluding the JIT warm-up time and the LMS generation overhead.

b) SAXPY: We compare the generated `SAXPY` vector code, shown in Figure 4, against an equivalent Java implementation:

```
public class JSaxpy {
  public void apply(float[] a, float[] b, float s, int n){
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i += 1)
        a[i] += b[i] * s;
  }
}
```

Figure 6a shows the performance comparison. First we note the similarity in performance, which is not surprising since SAXPY has low operational intensity and the simplicity of the code enables efficient autovectorization. Indeed, the assembly diagnostics confirms this but reveals that the JVM only uses `SSE` whereas our staged version uses `AVX` and `FMA`, which explains the better performance for larger sizes.

For small sizes that are L1 cache resident the Java implementation does better. This is because JNI methods are not inlined and incur additional cost to be invoked.

c) Matrix-matrix multiplication (MMM).: For the second benchmark we chose MMM, which has a high operational intensity and is known to benefit from various optimizations such as blocking and vectorization [19]. We consider three versions. The first is a standard Java implementation of a triple MMM loop. The two other versions are a blocked version of MMM, with block size of 8, the first implemented in Java, and the second implemented using `AVX` intrinsics in Scala. For simplicity, we assume that the matrix has size $n = 8k$, and provide the implementation in Figure 5.

Our Scala implementation uses the SIMD intrinsics with high level constructs of the Scala language, including pattern matching (lines 5, 10, 19, 20, etc), lambdas (lines 4, 10, 34), Scala collections (lines 4, 34, etc), closures (line 45) and others that are not available in low-level `C` code. Once LMS removes the abstraction overhead, the MMM function results in a high-performance implementation. The performance comparison in Figure 6b shows that the use of explicit vectorization through SIMD intrinsics can offer improvements up to 5x over the blocked Java implementation, and over 7.8x over the baseline triple loop implementation.

The assembly analysis shows that the `C2` compiler will unroll the hot loops in both Java versions, but does generate SIMD instructions, which explains the low performance.

d) Automatic SIMD eDSL generator.: The predecessor of the Intel Intrinsics Guide web application was a Java application sharing the same name. The older versions of both Java and the web application contained older version of the intrinsics specifications, e.g., without AVX-512. However, Intel does not offer these versions, and continuously updates the XML specifications, improving the description / performance of each intrinsic function.

Using tools such as the Wayback Machine, a digital archive that mirrors web-site states at a given date, we were able to salvage older, pre-captured iterations of the intrinsics specifications, shown in Table III. Then we instructed our eDSL generator to re-generate each ISA-specific eDSL.

Our results show that our eDSL generator is robust towards minor changes on the XML specifications, being able to retrospectively generate eDSLs for recent years. We believe that if Intel uses the same XML schema for new releases, our generator should be robust to new ISA updates, as long as the

TABLE III: Intel Intrinsics Guide XML specifications.

Specification	Date	Specification	Date
data-3.2.2.xml	03.09.2014	data-3.3.14.xml	12.01.2016
data-3.3.1.xml	17.10.2014	data-3.3.16.xml	26.01.2016
data-3.3.11.xml	27.07.2015	data-3.4.xml	07.09.2017

new ISA has similar properties than its predecessor.

E. Limitations

Our approach provides low-level control for performance optimizations to the Java developer but comes at a price. We discuss a number of technical issues that would be good to resolve to further improve ease-of-use and maintainability.

Currently, there is no mechanism to ensure the isomorphism between the native function placeholder and the staged function. As a result, it is the responsibility of the developer to define this isomorphic relation upon compile time. The current use of Scala macros makes the code robust in terms of refactoring and modifications, which is quite convenient compared to manually maintaining isomorphism between native C/C++ and JVM code. A more diligent use of Scala macros could potentially resolve this problem and ensure complete isomorphic binding of JNI and staged functions.

LMS does not provide any mechanism to deal with exceptions such as segfaults from generated code. Therefore it is the responsibility of the developer to write valid SIMD code. LMS is also not optimized for fast code generation, which might result in an overhead surpassing the HotSpot interpretation speed when used to generate functions that are computationally light.

Another limitation is a consequence of the complex memory model in the HotSpot JVM. Once arrays are used in the native code, `GetPrimitiveArrayCritical` must be invoked to obtain the memory space of the array. Depending on the state of the garbage collector (GC), the array might end up on different segments on the heap, which could result in a copy once the native code tries to access the memory space, or the JVM could decide to temporary disable the GC. Although we did not experience an array copy in any test case performed, we believe that the use of LMS intrinsics is best suited for compute-bound problems, where the copy overhead can be leveraged by the fast runtime of SIMD instructions upon each JNI invocation. Some of the issues with JVM arrays can be avoided by using Java NIO buffers or off-heap memory allocated with the `sun.misc.Unsafe` package.

IV. Build Your Own Virtual ISA

In the previous section, we demonstrated the use of SIMD intrinsics in developing high performance code, based on high-level constructs of the Scala language. However, with the use of metaprogramming and staging provided by LMS, we can also use the SIMD intrinsics to build new low-level abstractions and provide a functionality similar to the `SVML` short vector math library that is typically implemented by low-level C/C++ compilers. As an example, we build abstractions for low-precision arithmetic and, in particular, building blocks for the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) algorithm.

SGD is currently among the most popular algorithms in machine learning, used for training neural networks [20], [21]. It consists of two main building blocks: a dot-product operator and a scale-and-add operator. The use of low precision is an important optimization in SGD for deep learning as it reduces both computation time and data movement for increased performance and efficiency [22].

In this section we build a virtual variable-precision ISA that implements the dot product operator, operating on arrays of 32, 16, 8 and 4-bit precision. For 32 and 16-bit we use floating point, which is natively supported by the hardware; for the lower precision formats, we use quantized arrays [22]. Quantization is a lossy compression technique that maps continuous values to a finite set of fixed bit-width numbers. For a given vector v of size n and precision of b bits, we first derive a factor s_v that scales the vector elements v_i into the representable range:

$$s_v = \frac{2^{b-1} - 1}{\max_{i \in [1,n]} |v_i|}.$$

The scaled v_i are then quantized stochastically:

$$v_i \rightarrow \lfloor v_i \cdot s_v + \mu \rfloor$$

where μ is drawn uniformly from the interval $(0, 1)$. With this, a quantized array consists of one scaling factor and an array of quantized b-bit values.

A. Implementation

a) 32-bit.: For the 32-bit version, we use the built-in hardware support for floating point. In Java, we can only express scalar (non-vectorized) code to multiply / add values; using our LMS intrinsics we have access to `AVX2` and `FMA`.

b) 16-bit.: For the 16-bit version we use a half-precision floating point format, available as a separate ISA extension called `FP16C` that provides instructions to convert a 32-bit float into 16-bit float, and vice-versa. We use these instructions to load and store the data in 16-bit format, and perform computations on the 32-bit format. In Java, there is no access to half-precision floating point; thus, instead, we quantize the values as shown before to type `short`.

c) 8-bit.: We base our 8-bit version on Buckwild! [23]. Both LMS intrinsics and the Java implementation operate on quantized values, using a scaling factor and an array of type `byte` to hold the 8-bit two's complements values.

d) 4-bit.: We base this version on the analysis in the ZipML framework [24]. The values are not two's complement, but sign-bit followed by the base in binary format, and stored as pairs inside the 8-bit values of a `byte` array.

e) Scala implementation.: In Scala, we can abstract the precision as a number that reflects the bit length of the format, and provide two virtual intrinsics functions:

```
int    dot_ps_step (int bits);
__m256 dot_ps      (int bits, void* x, void* y);
```

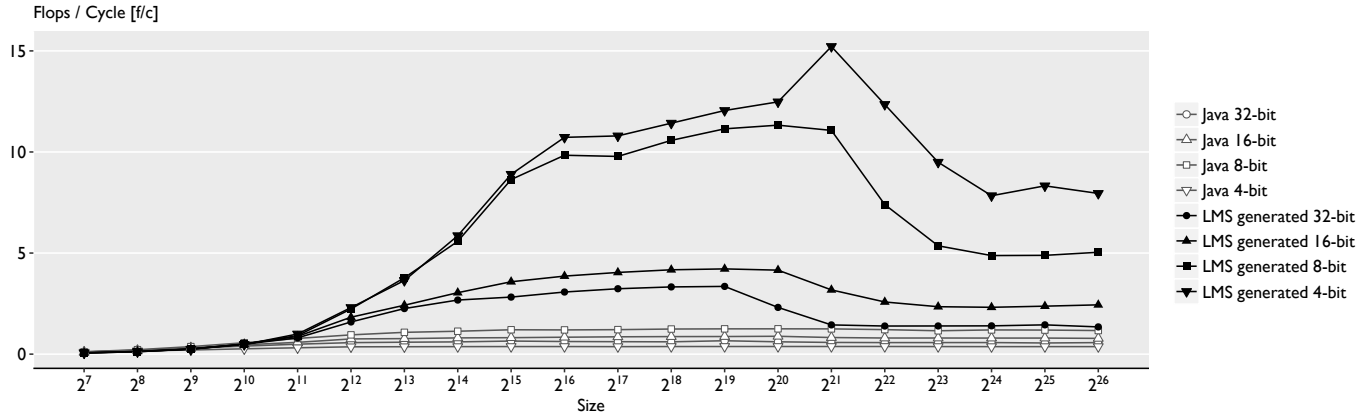


Fig. 7: Performance analysis: Variable Precision.

`dot_ps_step` returns the number of elements processed by `dot_ps` for a given bit length. For example, in the case of 32, 16 and 8-bit versions, 32 elements are processed at a time and in the case of the 4-bit, 128 elements at a time. `dot_ps` takes the bit length and two memory addresses. According to the bit length, it will select the corresponding bit format, load from the array, compute the dot product and return the result. Assuming the arrays are padded with their corresponding `dot_ps_step` value, the two intrinsics allows us to easily build `for` loops with increment defined by the `dot_ps_step`, such that `dot_ps` is invoked at each iteration. Finally, the resulting dot product with variable precision is a sum reduction of 8 floats stored in the `acc` variable:

```
def dot_AVX2[T] (bits: Rep[Int],
  a: Rep[Array[T]], b: Rep[Array[T]], len: Rep[Int]
): Rep[Float] = {
  var acc = _mm256_setzero_ps();
  val increment = dot_ps_step(bits);
  forloop(0, len, fresh[Int], increment, i => {
    acc += dot_ps(bits, a + i, b + i)
  })
  reduce_sum(acc)
}
```

In the 16-bit version, we use the `_mm256_cvtph_ps` intrinsics to convert the half-precision format into 32-bit floating point number. In the 8-bit and 4-bit version we benefit from `_mm256_sign_epi8` and `_mm256_abs_epi8` combined with `_mm256_maddubs_epi16` and `_mm256_madd_epi16` to perform fast additions and multiplications, that result in a 32-bit values, without spending a single instruction to perform casts. Additionally, in the 4-bit version, we benefit from intrinsics to perform wide range of bit-wise manipulations to extract the base and the sign of the 4-bit values. Note that this version of dot product is implemented such that existence of `AVX2` and `FP16C` is assumed. It is possible to abstract the use of the dot operator to an ISA-agnostic implementation as shown in [25], and performance could be improved using methods as prefetching, particularly in the 8-bit [23] and 4-bit version, however we did not apply these techniques.

f) Java implementation.: We implement each case as a separate class corresponding to the 32, 16, 8 and 4 bit versions. The simplest dot product is the 32-bit version. Java does not support bit manipulation or numerical expression on types lower than 32-bits. Instead, 16-bit and 8-bit types are promoted to 32-bit integers before operations are performed. To provide a fair comparison, we write the 16, 8 and 4-bit versions of the dot product such that we block the loop, and accumulate into integer values, avoiding unnecessary type promotion as much as possible.

B. Evaluation

We use the same experimental setup as in section III-D. For each benchmark, we use the identical flop (or op for 8 and 4 bit) count of $2n$ for the dot-product, where n is the size of the quantized array.

Figure 7 shows the obtained results. Our 4-bit implementation outperforms HotSpot by a factor of up to 40x, the 8-bit up to 9x, the 16-bit up to 4.8x, and the 32-bit version up to 5.4x. There are several reasons for the speedups obtained with the use of SIMD intrinsics. In the 32-bit case, we see the limitation of SLP to detect and optimize reductions. In the 16-bit, there is no way to obtain access in Java to an ISA such as `FP16C`. And in the 8-bit and 4-bit case, Java is severely outperformed since it does type promotion when dealing with integers. However, the largest speedup of 40x in the 4-bit case is due to the domain knowledge used for the implementing the dot product, that the HotSpot compiler cannot synthesize with a lightweight autovectorization such as SLP.

V. Related Work

We review different lines of related work.

a) Explicit vectorization in the JVM.: The first approach to expose data parallelism was the implementation of the Java Vectorization Interface (JVI) as part of the Jitrino JIT compiler [26]. JVI is designed as a an abstract vector interface that provides set of methods as vector operators. This methods are later compiled to different vector instructions, such as SSE and AVX. The approach offers competitive results in

some case, but is limited in the SIMD instructions it supports and subsequent iterations of post-AVX ISAs. Similarly to JVI, Oracle has ongoing research developing cross-platform APIs that can leverage SIMD instructions. Implemented as part of an experimental JVM called Panama [27], SIMD instructions are used in immutable vector types, parameterized by element type and size. Similarly to JVI, Panama also suffers from limited support of vector ISAs, and requires a specific JVM. Both approaches abstract SIMD instructions, which limits the ability of a developer to tune the code to a particular microarchitecture.

b) Autovectorization in the JVM.: Initially introduced in the Jikes RVM [4], the HotSpot JVM uses SLP [11] based autovectorization. SLP is limited and is only able to vectorize basic blocks consisting of groups of isomorphic instructions, generating SSE and AVX code. Partial support of FMA and AVX-512 is only planned for Java 9 [27].

c) Support of low-level code in the JVM.: Sulong [28] is a system to execute low-level languages such as C/C++, Fortran, Ada, and Haskell in the JVM. Sulong is capable of handling low-level languages that compile to LLVM, using LLVM IR interpreter built on top of the Truffle framework [29], running on the Graal VM. While this approach can bring a support of low-level instructions in the JVM, it does not support SIMD instructions, as Graal does not provide sufficient analysis for vectorization. Furthermore, due to interpretation, Sulong is shown to be outperformed by native compilers such as gcc.

d) Automatic generation of DSLs in LMS.: DSLs have been generated into LMS before. Yin-Yang [30] automatically generates deep DSL embeddings from their shallow counterparts by reusing the core translation. Forge [31] generates DSLs from a declarative specification. None of the approaches have been challenged to generate DSLs of the scale imposed by the large amount of SIMD intrinsics, nor were they designed to automatically infer effects of mutability.

e) SIMD intrinsics in LMS.: A limited support of SIMD instructions has been introduced while abstracting vectors architectures [25]. This approach has been used in generating libraries for high-performance code, and integration with the JVM has not been demonstrated. On an even lower level, LMS has been used to define domain-specific ISAs by generate specialized hardware [32], [33].

VI. Conclusion

Our work shows how metaprogramming techniques can be used to bridge the gap between high-level managed languages and the need to access low-level instructions in high performance code development. Specifically, we showed how to provide access to SIMD intrinsics in the HotSpot JVM, thus eliminating the need to write C/C++ code. Two key techniques underlie our approach. First is the use of embedded DSLs to express intrinsics inside JVM languages such as Scala. These are generated directly from the vendor XML specification, which enables complete intrinsics support and fast updates in the future. Second is the use of staging to convert SIMD intrinsics interspersed with Scala code into high-performant C kernels, which are then compiled and linked via JNI. The challenge in our work is in the systematic handling of large sets of functions, converting them into sets of DSLs, automatically inferring their side effects, and creating a compiler and code generation pipeline for convenient and productive development. We show how the SIMD support in JVM can be used to build powerful high-level and low-level abstractions while offering significant, often manifold speedup over the autovectorizing HotSpot JIT compiler.

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