Lecture 25:

Addressing the Memory Wall

Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming
CMU 15-418/15-618, Spring 2017
Bomba Estéreo
Fiesta
(Amanecer)

“Carnival!”
- Simón Mejía
Announcements

- Students are not allowed to work on 418/618 on Thursday or Friday
- Exercise 6 (the final one!) will be released next Wed, due next Thurs
- Reminder: project checkpoint is coming up (next Tuesday)
Today’s topic: moving data is costly!

Data movement limits performance
Many processing elements...
  = higher overall rate of memory requests
  = need for more memory bandwidth
(result: bandwidth-limited execution)

Data movement has high energy cost
~ 0.9 pJ for a 32-bit floating-point math op *
~ 5 pJ for a local SRAM (on chip) data access
~ 640 pJ to load 32 bits from LPDDR memory

* Source: [Han, ICLR 2016], 45 nm CMOS assumption
Well written programs exploit locality to avoid redundant data transfers between CPU and memory

(Key idea: place frequently accessed data in caches/buffers near processor)

- Modern processors have high-bandwidth (and low latency) access to on-chip local storage
  - Computations featuring data access locality can reuse data in this storage

- Common software optimization technique: reorder computation so that cached data is accessed many times before it is evicted (“blocking”, “loop fusion”, etc.)

- Performance-aware programmers go to great effort to improve the cache locality of programs
  - What are good examples from this class?
Example 1: restructuring loops for locality

### Program 1

```c
void add(int n, float* A, float* B, float* C) {
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}

void mul(int n, float* A, float* B, float* C) {
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        C[i] = A[i] * B[i];
}


// assume arrays are allocated here

// compute E = D + ((A + B) * C)
add(n, A, B, tmp1);
mul(n, tmp1, C, tmp2);
add(n, tmp2, D, E);
```

Two loads, one store per math op (arithmetic intensity = 1/3)

Two loads, one store per math op (arithmetic intensity = 1/3)

Overall arithmetic intensity = 1/3

### Program 2

```c
void fused(int n, float* A, float* B, float* C, float* D, float* E) {
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
        E[i] = D[i] + (A[i] + B[i]) * C[i];
}

// compute E = D + (A + B) * C
fused(n, A, B, C, D, E);
```

Four loads, one store per 3 math ops (arithmetic intensity = 3/5)

The transformation of the code in program 1 to the code in program 2 is called “loop fusion”
Example 2: restructuring loops for locality

Program 1

```c
int WIDTH = 1024;
int HEIGHT = 1024;
float input[(WIDTH+2) * (HEIGHT+2)];
float tmp_buf[WIDTH * (HEIGHT+2)];
float output[WIDTH * HEIGHT];
float weights[] = {1.0/3, 1.0/3, 1.0/3};

// blur image horizontally
for (int j=0; j<HEIGHT; j++)
    for (int i=0; i<WIDTH; i++)
        tmp_buf[j*WIDTH + i] = 0.f;
    for (int ii=0; ii<3; ii++)
        for (int jj=0; jj<3; jj++)
            tmp_buf[j*WIDTH + i] += input[(j+ii)*(WIDTH+2) + i+jj] * weights[ii];
for (int j=0; j<HEIGHT; j++)
    for (int i=0; i<WIDTH; i++)
        output[j*WIDTH + i] = tmp_buf[j*WIDTH + i];
```

Program 2

```c
int WIDTH = 1024;
int HEIGHT = 1024;
float input[(WIDTH+2) * (HEIGHT+2)];
float tmp_buf[WIDTH * (CHUNK_SIZE+2)];
float output[WIDTH * HEIGHT];
float weights[] = {1.0/3, 1.0/3, 1.0/3};

// blur region of image horizontally
for (int j2=0; j2<HEIGHT; j2++)
    for (int i=0; i<WIDTH; i++)
        tmp_buf[j2*WIDTH + i] = 0.f;
    for (int ii=0; ii<3; ii++)
        for (int jj=0; jj<3; jj++)
            tmp_buf[j2*WIDTH + i] += tmp_buf[(j2+jj)*WIDTH + i] * weights[ii];
for (int j=0; j<HEIGHT; j++)
    for (int i=0; i<WIDTH; i++)
        output[(j+j2)*WIDTH + i] = tmp_buf[(j2+jj)*WIDTH + i];
```
Example 3: restructuring loops for locality

Recall Apache Spark:
Programs are sequences of operations on collections (called RDDs)

```java
var lines = spark.textFile("hdfs://15418log.txt");
var lower = lines.map(_.toLower());
var mobileViews = lower.filter(x => isMobileClient(x));
var howMany = mobileViews.count();
```

Actual execution order of computation for the above lineage is similar to this...

```java
int count = 0;
while (inputFile.eof()) {
    string line = inputFile.readLine();
    string lower = line.toLower;
    if (isMobileClient(lower))
        count++;
}
```
Example 4: restructuring loops for locality

Recall blocked matrix-matrix multiplication:

```c
float A[M][K];
float B[K][N];
float C[M][N];

// compute C += A * B
#pragma omp parallel for
for (int jblock2=0; jblock2<M; jblock2+=L2_BLOCKSIZE_J)
    for (int iblock2=0; iblock2<N; iblock2+=L2_BLOCKSIZE_I)
        for (int kblock2=0; kblock2<K; kblock2+=L2_BLOCKSIZE_K)
            for (int jblock1=0; jblock1<L1_BLOCKSIZE_J; jblock1+=L1_BLOCKSIZE_J)
                for (int iblock1=0; iblock1<L1_BLOCKSIZE_I; iblock1+=L1_BLOCKSIZE_I)
                    for (int kblock1=0; kblock1<L1_BLOCKSIZE_K; kblock1+=L1_BLOCKSIZE_K)
                        for (int j=0; j<BLOCKSIZE_J; j++)
                            for (int i=0; i<BLOCKSIZE_I; i++)
                                for (int k=0; k<BLOCKSIZE_K; k++)
                                    ...
```
Accessing DRAM
(a basic tutorial on how DRAM works)
The memory system

- CPU
  - 64 bit memory bus
  - Core
  - Last-level cache (LLC)
  - Issues memory requests to memory controller
- Memory Controller
  - Sends commands to DRAM
- DRAM

Issues loads and store instructions
DRAM array

1 transistor + capacitor per “bit” (Recall: a capacitor stores charge)

2 Kbits per row

Row buffer (2 Kbits)

Data pins (8 bits)

(to memory controller…)

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DRAM operation (load one byte)

1. Precharge: ready bit lines (~10 ns)
2. Row activation (~10 ns)
3. Column selection (~10 ns)
4. Transfer data onto bus

DRAM array

2 Kbits per row

Row buffer (2 Kbits)

Data pins (8 bits)

(to memory controller...)

We want to read this byte

Estimated latencies are in units of memory clocks:
DDR3-1600 (Kayvon's laptop)
Load next byte from (already active) row

Lower latency operation: can skip precharge and row activation steps

---

1. Column selection
2. Transfer data onto bus

\~9 cycles

Row buffer (2 Kbits)

Data pins (8 bits)

(to memory controller…)

2 Kbits per row
DRAM access latency is not fixed

- **Best case latency:** read from active row
  - Column access time (CAS)

- **Worst case latency:** bit lines not ready, read from new row
  - Precharge (PRE) + row activate (RAS) + column access (CAS)

  - Precharge readies bit lines and writes row buffer contents back into DRAM array (read was destructive)

- **Question 1:** when to execute precharge?
  - After each column access?
  - Only when new row is accessed?

- **Question 2:** how to handle latency of DRAM access?
Problem: low pin utilization due to latency of access

Data pins in use only a small fraction of time (red = data pins busy)

Very bad since they are the scarcest resource!
DRAM burst mode

Idea: amortize latency over larger transfers
Each DRAM command describes bulk transfer
Bits placed on output pins in consecutive clocks
DRAM chip consists of multiple banks

- All banks share same pins (only one transfer at a time)
- Banks allow for pipelining of memory requests
  - Precharge/activate rows/send column address to one bank while transferring data from another
  - Achieves high data pin utilization
Organize multiple chips into a DIMM

Example: Eight DRAM chips (64-bit memory bus)

Note: DIMM appears as a single, higher capacity, wider interface DRAM module to the memory controller. Higher aggregate bandwidth, but minimum transfer granularity is now 64 bits.
Reading one 64-byte (512 bit) cache line (the wrong way)

Assume: consecutive physical addresses mapped to same row of same chip
Memory controller converts physical address to DRAM bank, row, column
Reading one 64-byte (512 bit) cache line (the wrong way)

All data for cache line serviced by the same chip
Bytes sent consecutively over same pins
Reading one 64-byte (512 bit) cache line (the wrong way)

All data for cache line serviced by the same chip
Bytes sent consecutively over same pins
Reading one 64-byte (512 bit) cache line

Memory controller converts physical address to DRAM bank, row, column

Here: physical addresses are **interleaved** across DRAM chips at byte granularity

DRAM chips transmit first 64 bits in parallel
Reading one 64-byte (512 bit) cache line

DRAM controller requests data from new column *
DRAM chips transmit next 64 bits in parallel

* Recall modern DRAM’s support burst mode transfer of multiple consecutive columns, which would be used here
Memory controller is a memory request scheduler

- Receives load/store requests from LLC
- Conflicting scheduling goals
  - Maximize throughput, minimize latency, minimize energy consumption
  - Common scheduling policy: FR-FCFS (first-ready, first-come-first-serve)
    - Service requests to currently open row first (maximize row locality)
    - Service requests to other rows in FIFO order
  - Controller may coalesce multiple small requests into large contiguous requests (take advantage of DRAM “burst modes”)

![Diagram of memory controller](image)
Dual-channel memory system

- Increase throughput by adding memory channels (effectively widen bus)
- Below: each channel can issue independent commands
  - Different row/column is read in each channel
  - Simpler setup: use single controller to drive same command to multiple channels
DDR4 memory in our GHC lab machines

Processor: Xeon E5-E5-1660 v4

Memory system details from Intel’s site:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Memory Specifications</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Max Memory Size (dependent on memory type)</td>
<td>1.54 TB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory Types</td>
<td>DDR4 1600/1866/2133/2400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max # of Memory Channels</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max Memory Bandwidth</td>
<td>76.8 GB/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Address Extensions</td>
<td>46-bit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECC Memory Supported ‡</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DDR4 2400**

- 64-bit memory bus x 1.2GHz x 2 transfers per clock* = 19.2GB/s per channel
- 4 channels = 76.8 GB/sec
- ~13 nanosecond CAS

* DDR stands for “double data rate”
DRAM summary

- DRAM access latency can depend on many low-level factors
  - Discussed today:
    - State of DRAM chip: row hit/miss? is recharge necessary?
    - Buffering/reordering of requests in memory controller

- Significant amount of complexity in a modern multi-core processor has moved into the design of memory controller
  - Responsible for scheduling ten’s to hundreds of outstanding memory requests
  - Responsible for mapping physical addresses to the geometry of DRAMs
  - Area of active computer architecture research
Decrease distance data must move: locate memory closer to processing (enables shorter, but wider interfaces)
Embedded DRAM (eDRAM): another level of the memory hierarchy

Some Intel Broadwell/Skylake processors feature 128 MB of embedded DRAM (eDRAM) in the CPU package
- 50 GB/sec read + 50 GB/sec write

IBM Power 7 server CPUs feature eDRAM
GPU in XBox 360 had 10 MB of embedded DRAM to store the frame buffer
Attractive in mobile SoC setting

Image credit: Intel
Increase bandwidth, reduce power by chip stacking

Enabling technology: 3D stacking of DRAM chips

- DRAMs connected via through-silicon-vias (TSVs) that run through the chips
- TSVs provide highly parallel connection between logic layer and DRAMs
- Base layer of stack “logic layer” is memory controller, manages requests from processor
- Silicon “interposer” serves as high-bandwidth interconnect between DRAM stack and processor

Technologies:
Micron/Intel Hybrid Memory Cube (HBC)
High-bandwidth memory (HBM) - 1024 bit interface to stack

Image credit: AMD
GPUs are adopting HBM technologies

**AMD Radeon Fury GPU (2015)**
- 4096-bit interface: 4 HBM chips x 1024 bit interface per chip
- 512 GB/sec BW

**NVIDIA P100 GPU (2016)**
- 4096-bit interface: 4 HBM2 chips x 1024 bit interface per chip
- 720 GB/sec peak BW
- 4 x 4 GB = 16 GB capacity
Xeon Phi (Knights Landing) MCDRAM

- 16 GB in package stacked DRAM
- Can be treated as a 16 GB last level cache
- Or as a 16 GB separate address space (“flat mode”)
- Intel’s claims:
  - ~ same latency at DDR4
  - ~5x bandwidth of DDR4
  - ~5x less energy cost per bit transferred

```c
// allocate buffer in MCDRAM ("high bandwidth" memory malloc)
float* foo = hbw_malloc(sizeof(float) * 1024);
```
So far... describing distance between processing and memory by moving memory closer to processing.

What about moving the computation to the data?
Reduce data movement by moving computation to the data

Consider a simple example of a web application that makes SQL query against large user database.

Would you transfer the database contents to the client so that the client can perform the query?
Consider memcpy: data movement through entire processor cache hierarchy

Bits move from DRAM, over bus, through cache hierarchy, into register file, and then retraces steps back out to DRAM (and no computation is ever performed!)
Idea: perform copy without processor [Seshadri 13]

Modify memory system to support loads, stores, and **bulk copy**.

1. Activate row A
2. Transfer row
3. Activate row B
4. Transfer row

**DRAM array**

**Row Buffer (2 Kbits)**

**Data pins (8 bits)**

**Memory Bus**
Hardware accelerated data compression
Upconvert/downconvert instructions

- **Example**: `__mm512_extload_ps`
  - Load 8-bit values from memory, convert to 32-bit float representation for storage in 32-bit register

- Very common processor functionality for graphics/image processing
Cache compression

- Idea: increase cache’s effective capacity by compressing data resident in cache
  - Idea: expend computation (compression/decompression) to save bandwidth
  - More cache hits = fewer transfers

- A hardware compression/decompression scheme must
  - Be simple enough to implement in HW
  - Be fast: decompression is on critical path of loads
    - Should not notably increase cache hit latency
One proposed example: BΔI compression [Pekhimenko 12]

- Observation: data that falls within cache line often has low dynamic range (use base + offset to encode chunks of bits in a line)

![Diagram of 32-byte Uncompressed Cache Line with Base and Saved Space]

- How does implementation quickly find a good base?
  - Use first word in line
  - Compression/decompression of line is data-parallel
Does this pattern compress well?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4 bytes</th>
<th>4 bytes</th>
<th>32-byte Uncompressed Cache Line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0x00000000</td>
<td>0x09A40178</td>
<td>0x0000000B 0x00000001 0x09A4A838 0x0000000A 0x0000000B 0x09A4C2F0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5: Cache line from mcf in C. In many cases, this leads to the mixing of wide (e.g., small integers) and narrow values with low dynamic range (e.g., pointers) with narrow values (e.g., small integers). A first arbitrary base helps to compress wide values with low dynamic range using base+delta encoding, while narrow values can replace the first base.

In order to answer this question, we conduct an experiment how compression algorithm with one base. As a result, the entire cache line data can be represented using 19 bytes: 8 bytes for two bases (zero and repeated values). These patterns are simple to compress with a single base using B* mechanism that can get the benefit of compression with two bases with minimal complexity.

Unfortunately, B* with two bases has a serious drawback: the necessity of finding a second arbitrary base value (even a sub-optimal one) can add significant complexity to the compression hardware. This opens the question of minimal complexity. We observe that setting the second base to zero gains most of the benefit of having an arbitrary second base value. Why is this the case?

In order to evaluate this tradeoff, we compare in Figure 7 compression design should be based on the refined idea of B* algorithm with one base. As a result, the entire cache line of only zeros compressed to 4 bytes, and for 4-byte delta 6 bytes, e.g., a cache line of only zeros compressed to 4 bytes, and for 4-byte delta 6 bytes, e.g., a cache line of only zeros compressed to 4 bytes, and for 4-byte delta 6 bytes.

There is a tradeoff involved in using B* Compression Ratio

- 1.2
- 1.4
- 1.8

In order to answer this question, we conduct an experiment in C. In many cases, this leads to the mixing of wide (e.g., small integers) and narrow values with low dynamic range (e.g., pointers) with narrow values (e.g., small integers). A first arbitrary base helps to compress wide values with low dynamic range using base+delta encoding, while narrow values can replace the first base.

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Does this pattern compress well?

- **Idea:** use multiple bases for more robust compression

- **Challenge:** how to efficiently choose the two bases?
  - Solution: always use 0 as one of the bases (added benefit: don’t need to store the 2nd base)
  - Algorithm:
    1. Attempt to compress with 0 base
    2. Compress remaining elements using first uncompressed element as base
Effect of cache compression

- Minimal Complexity
- Base-Delta-Immediate
- FVC

On average: ~ 1.5x compression ratio

Translates into ~ 10% performance gain, up to 18% on cache sensitive workloads
Frame buffer compression in GPUs

- All modern GPUs have hardware support for losslessly compressing frame buffer contents before transfer to/from memory
  - On cache line load: transfer compressed data from memory and decompress into cache
  - On evict: compress cache line and only transfer compressed bits to memory

- For example: anchor encoding (domain specific compression scheme)
  - Compress 2D tiles of screen
  - Store value of “anchor pixel” \( p \) and compute \( \Delta x \) and \( \Delta y \) of adjacent pixels (fit a plane to the data)
  - Predict color of other pixels in tile based on offset from anchor
    - \( \text{value}(i,j) = p + i\Delta x + j\Delta y \)
  - Store “correction” \( c_i \) on prediction at each pixel
  - Consider encoding single channel image:
    - Store anchor at full resolution (e.g., 8 bits)
    - Store \( \Delta x, \Delta y \), and correction at low bit depth

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{\( p \)} & \Delta x & c_0 & c_1 \\
\Delta y & c_2 & c_3 & c_4 \\
c_5 & c_6 & c_7 & c_8 \\
c_9 & c_{10} & c_{11} & c_{12}
\end{array}
\]
"Memory transaction elimination" in ARM GPUs

- Writing pixels in output image is a bandwidth-heavy operation
- Idea: skip output image write if it is unnecessary
  - Frame 1:
    - Render frame tile at a time
    - Compute hash of pixels in each tile on screen
  - Frame 2:
    - Render frame tile at a time
    - Before storing pixel values for tile to memory, compute hash and see if tile is the same as last frame
      - If yes, skip memory write

Slow camera motion: 96% of writes avoided
Fast camera motion: ~50% of writes avoided

[Source: Tom Olson  http://community.arm.com/groups/arm-mali-graphics/blog/2012/08/17/how-low-can-you-go-building-low-power-low-bandwidth-arm-mali-gpus]
Summary: the memory bottleneck is being addressed in many ways

- By the application programmer
  - Schedule computation to maximize locality (minimize required data movement)

- By new hardware architectures
  - Intelligent DRAM request scheduling
  - Bringing data closer to processor (deep cache hierarchies, eDRAM)
  - Increase bandwidth (wider memory systems, 3D memory stacking)
  - Ongoing research in locating limited forms of computation “in” or near memory
  - Ongoing research in hardware accelerated compression

- General principles
  - Locate data storage near processor
  - Move computation to data storage
  - Data compression (trade-off extra computation for less data transfer)