

B4M36ESW: Efficient software

Lecture 7: Memory, caches, allocators

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Outline

1 Why is DRAM slow?

2 Caches

- Architecture
- Memory performance characteristics
- Data structures and dynamic memory allocations
- Matrix multiplications

3 Caches in multi-processor systems

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3 Caches in multi-processor systems

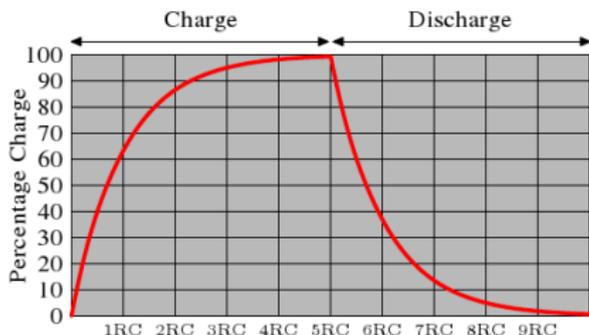
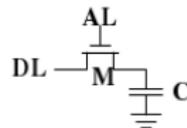
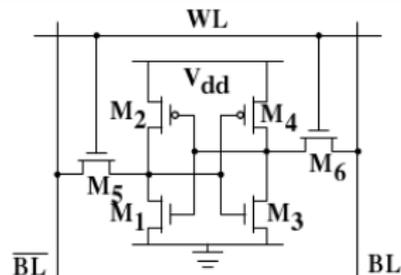
Types of RAM

■ Static RAM (SRAM)

- Fast but expensive
- 6 transistors per bit

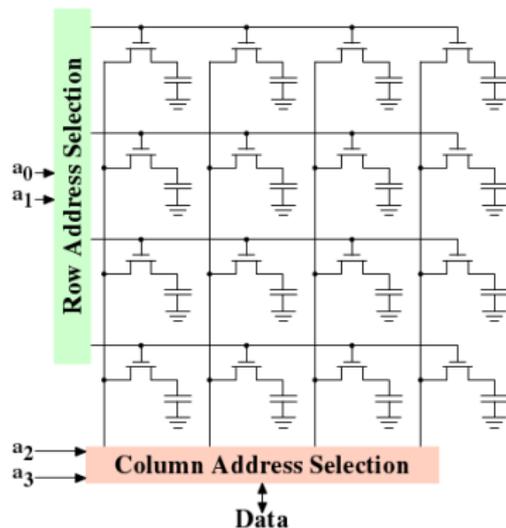
■ Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

- Capacitor – (Dis)Charging is not instantaneous
- Reading discharge capacitor (write after read)
- Compromise: capacity/size/power consumption



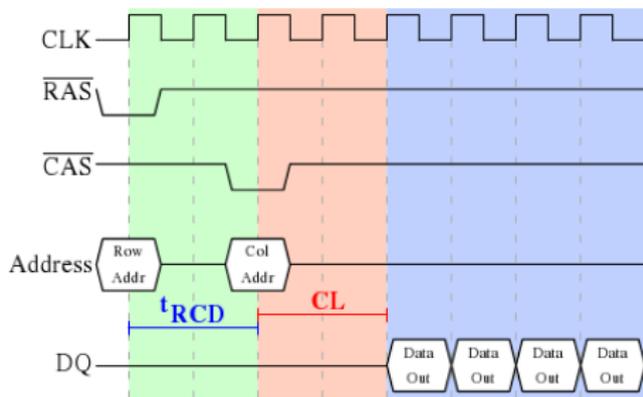
DRAM access

- Addressing individual cells is impractical (many wires)
- Chip is organized in rows and columns (and banks), address is multiplexed
- In the chip, row and column multiplexors select the proper lines according to address bits
- Operations happen in parallel in many chips to work with the whole data word (64 bits)
- Writing: New value is put on data, stored when RAS and CAS are selected
 - It takes some time to charge the capacitors



DRAM access details

- Access protocol is synchronous (SDRAM) – there is a clock signal,
- CLK provided by memory controller (FSB frequency – typ. 800–1600 MHz)
 - Double/Quad-pumped
- Max. speed: $64 \text{ bit} \times 8 \times 200 \text{ MHz} = 12.8 \text{ GB/s}$
 - Not reachable in reality
- Data sent in bursts!



JEDEC standard DDR4 module

Standard name	Memory clock (MHz)	I/O bus clock (MHz)	Data rate (MT/s)	Module name	Peak transfer rate (MB/s)	Timings, CL-tRCD-tRP	CAS latency (ns)
DDR4-1600J* DDR4-1600K DDR4-1600L	200	800	1600	PC4-12800	12800	10-10-10 11-11-11 12-12-12	12.5 13.75 15
DDR4-1866L* DDR4-1866M DDR4-1866N	233.33	933.33	1866.67	PC4-14900	14933.33	12-12-12 13-13-13 14-14-14	12.857 13.929 15
DDR4-2133N* DDR4-2133P DDR4-2133R	266.67	1066.67	2133.33	PC4-17000	17066.67	14-14-14 15-15-15 16-16-16	13.125 14.063 15
DDR4-2400P* DDR4-2400R DDR4-2400U	300	1200	2400	PC4-19200	19200	15-15-15 16-16-16 18-18-18	12.5 13.33 15

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Cache terminology

- **Spatial locality:** accessed memory objects are close to each other
 - Code: inner loops
 - Data: structures (reading of one field is often followed by of other files)
- **Temporal locality:** The same data will be used multiple times in a short period of time
 - Code: loops
 - Data: e.g. Digital filter coefficients are accessed every sampling period

Cache terminology

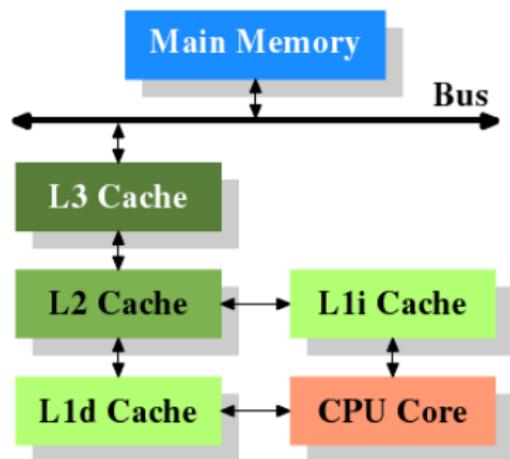
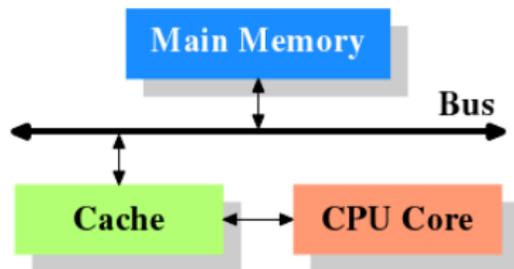
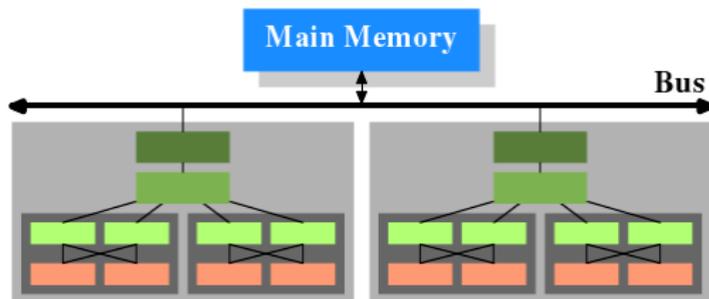
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- **Cache miss**: opposite of cache hit
 - cold miss, capacity miss, conflict miss
 - true sharing miss, false sharing miss

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- **Cache line eviction:** cache line is removed from the cache to make space for new data
- **Cache replacement policy:** LRU, pseudo LRU, random

CPU caches – big picture

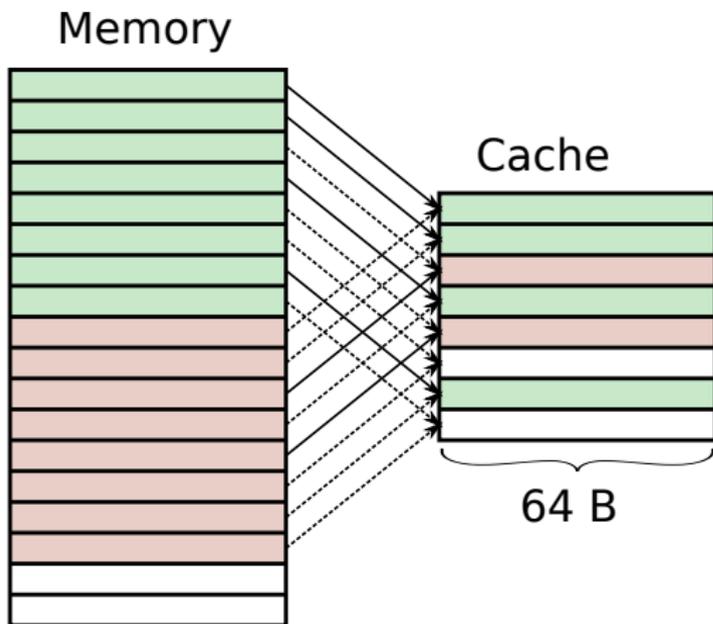
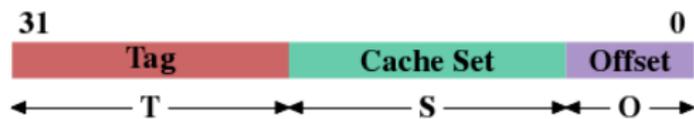
- All loads/stores go through cache
- CPU \longleftrightarrow Cache: fast connection
- Cache \longleftrightarrow Main memory: FSB Bus
- It is advantage to have separate caches for instructions and data



Cache associativity

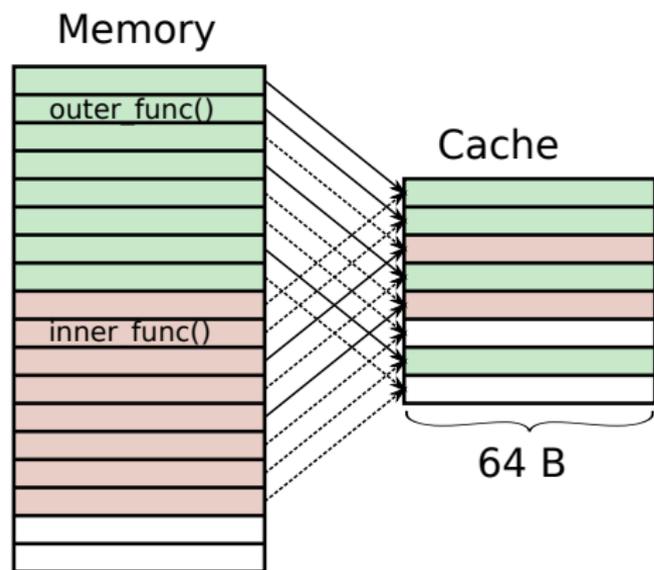
- Direct-mapped cache
 - simple
- Fully associative cache
 - ideal
- Set associative cache
 - compromise

Direct-mapped cache



- Each memory location has just one cache line associated.
- Memory locations at multiples of cache size always collide!

Self-evicting of code

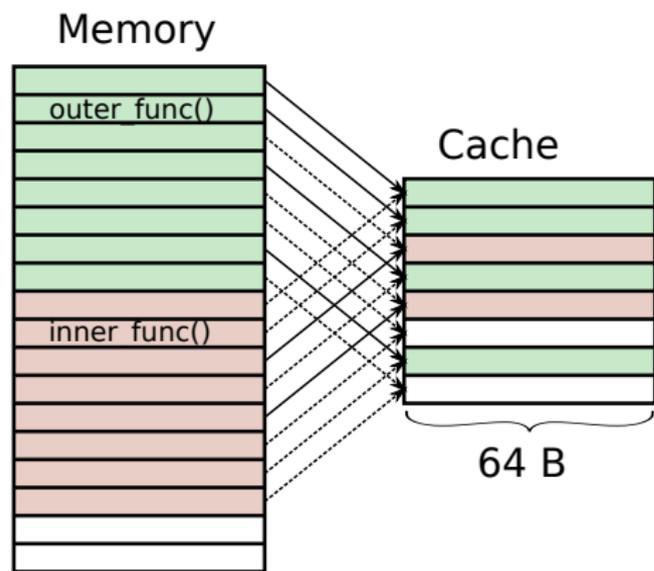


```

void outer_func() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++)
        inner_func();
}
void inner_func() {
    // do something
}

```

Self-evicting of code



```
void outer_func() {
    for (int i = 0; i < 1000; i++)
        inner_func();
}
void inner_func() {
    // do something
}
```

- Two cache misses every iteration (instruction fetches)!
- Solution: Improve code layout by putting related (and hot) functions together.

```
__attribute__((hot)) void outer_func();
__attribute__((hot)) void inner_func();
```

Cache write policies

Write-back “Common” case. Written data is cached for later reuse.

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Write-through Written data bypass the cache and therefore never evicts other data from the cache. Useful when we know the data will not be needed soon.

```
#include <emmintrin.h>
void _mm_stream_si32(int *p, int a);
void _mm_stream_si128(int *p, __m128i a);
void _mm_stream_pd(double *p, __m128d a);
#include <xmmintrin.h>
void _mm_stream_pi(__m64 *p, __m64 a);
void _mm_stream_ps(float *p, __m128 a);
#include <ammintrin.h>
void _mm_stream_sd(double *p, __m128d a);
void _mm_stream_ss(float *p, __m128 a);
```

Cache write policies

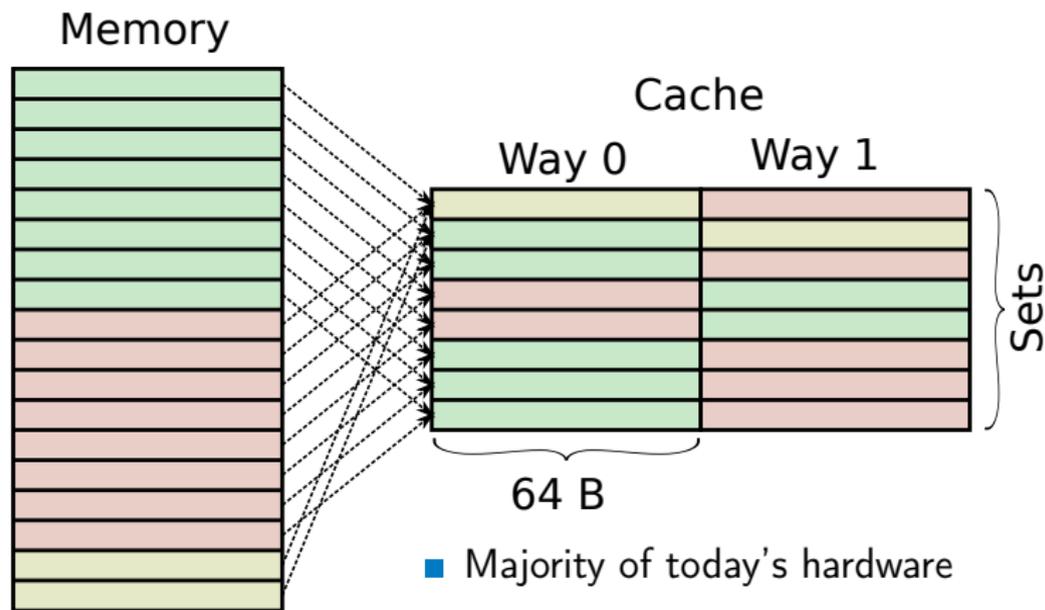
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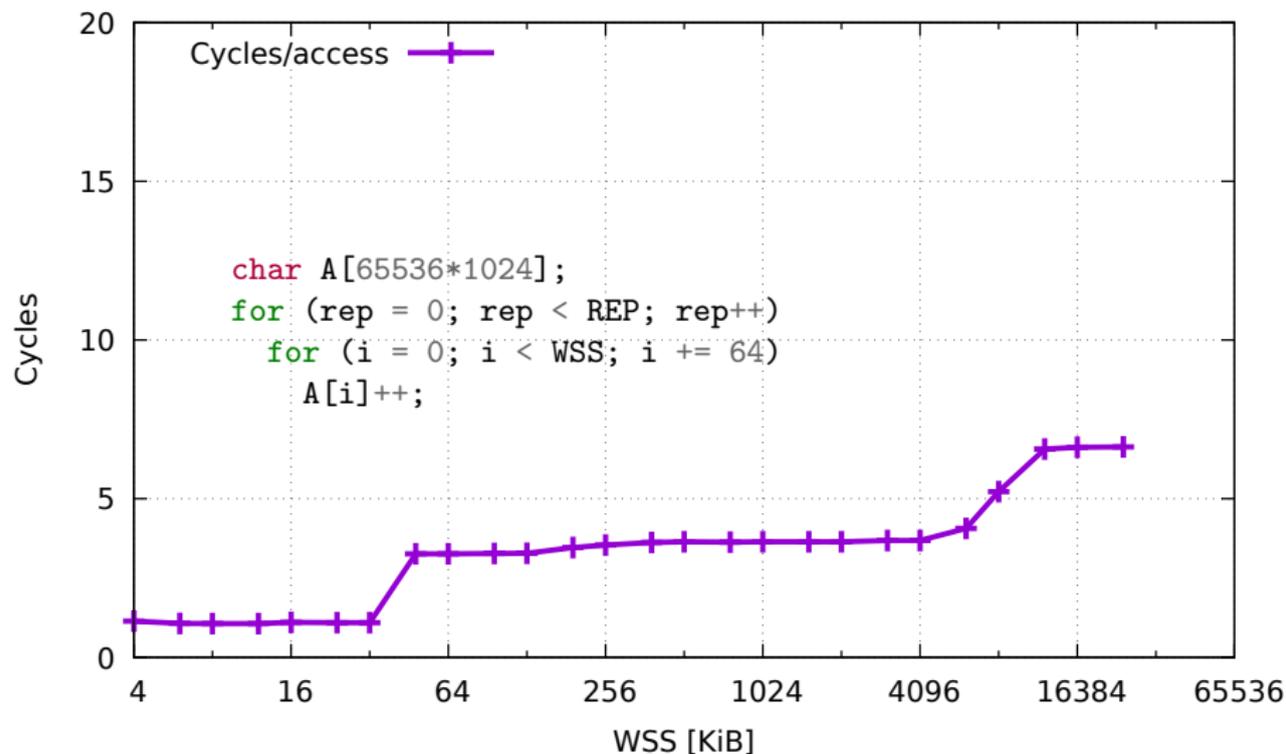
Write-Combining All writes to the cache line are combined together and written at once. This avoids one memory read, because when the cache line is fully overwritten, there is no point in reading the old value. Write combining is often used for frame buffer memory (e.g. filling screen with a color).

Set associative caches



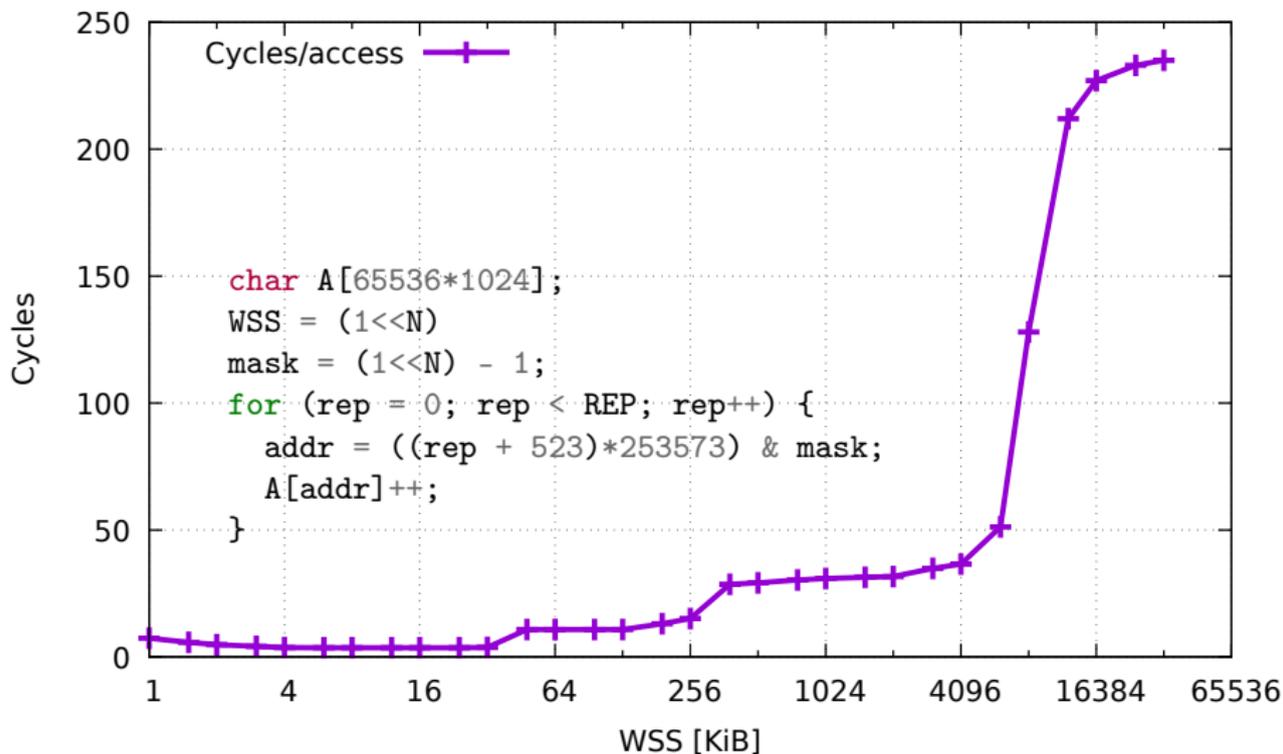
- Majority of today's hardware
- Typically 8–16 ways
- Cache replacement policy

Sequential access



Intel i7-2600

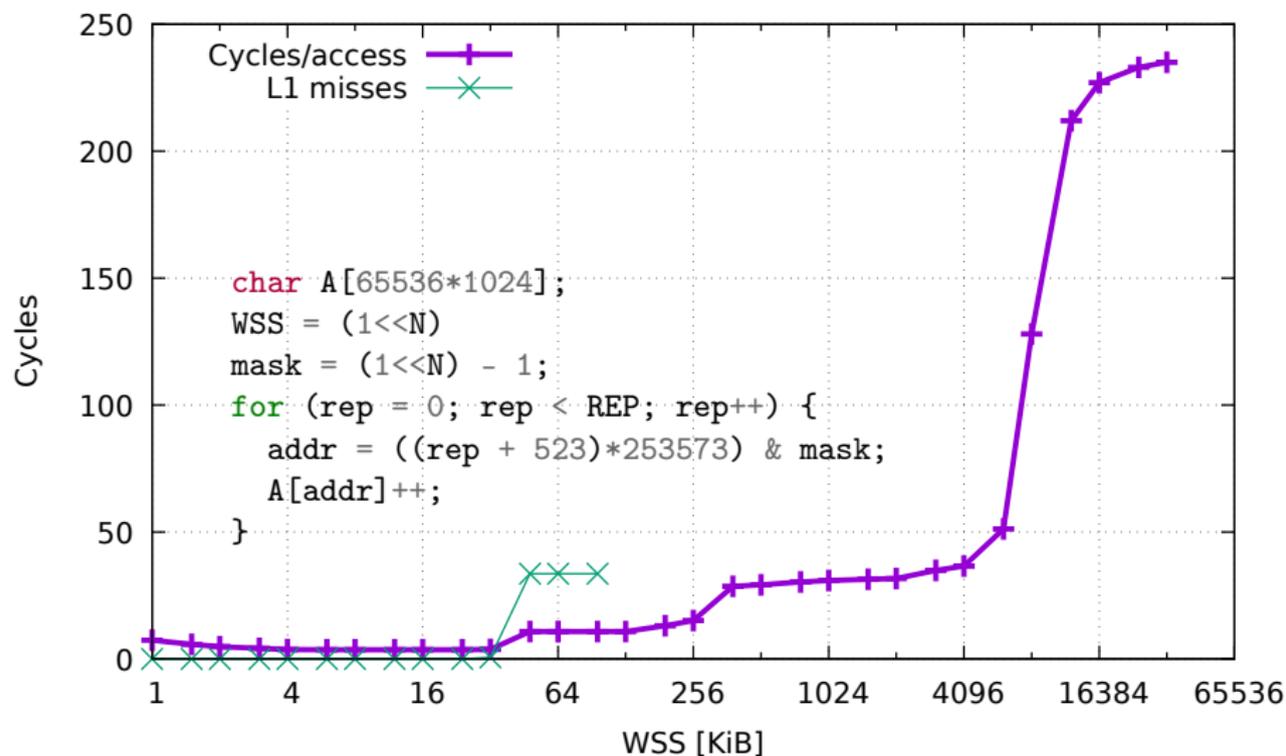
Random access



Core i7-2600

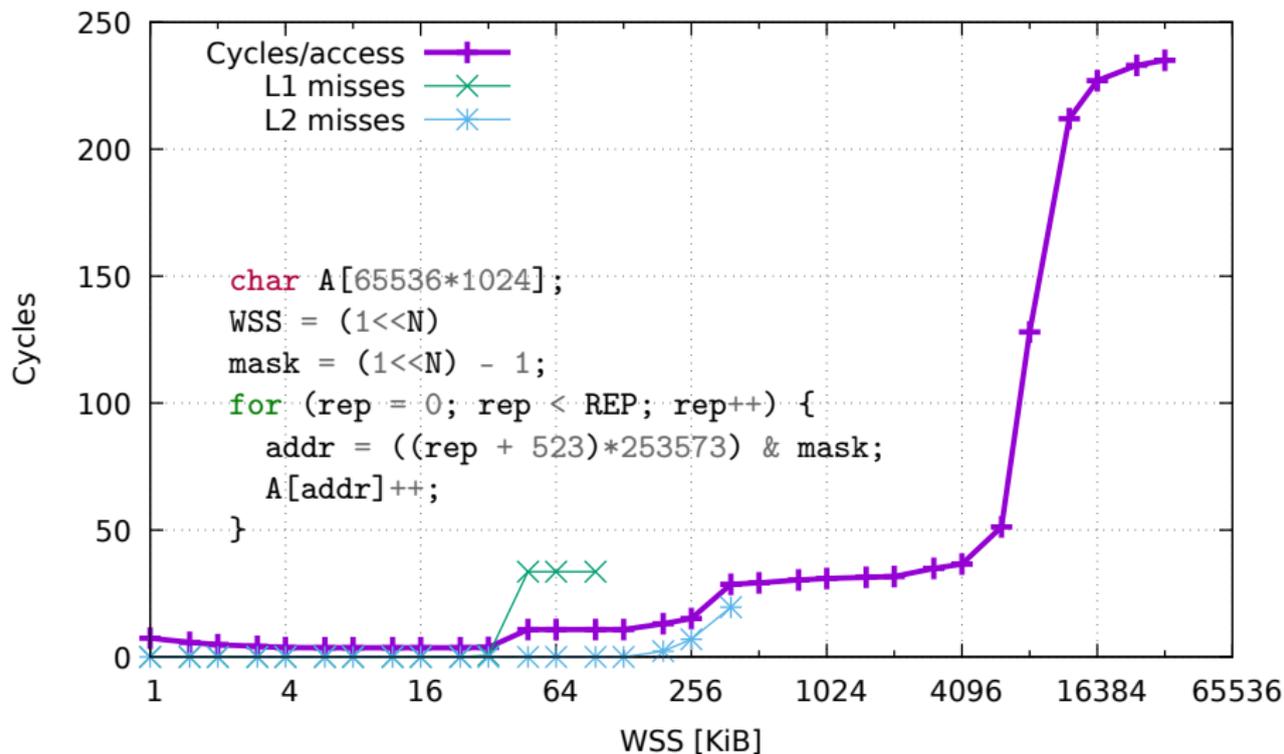
Int

Random access



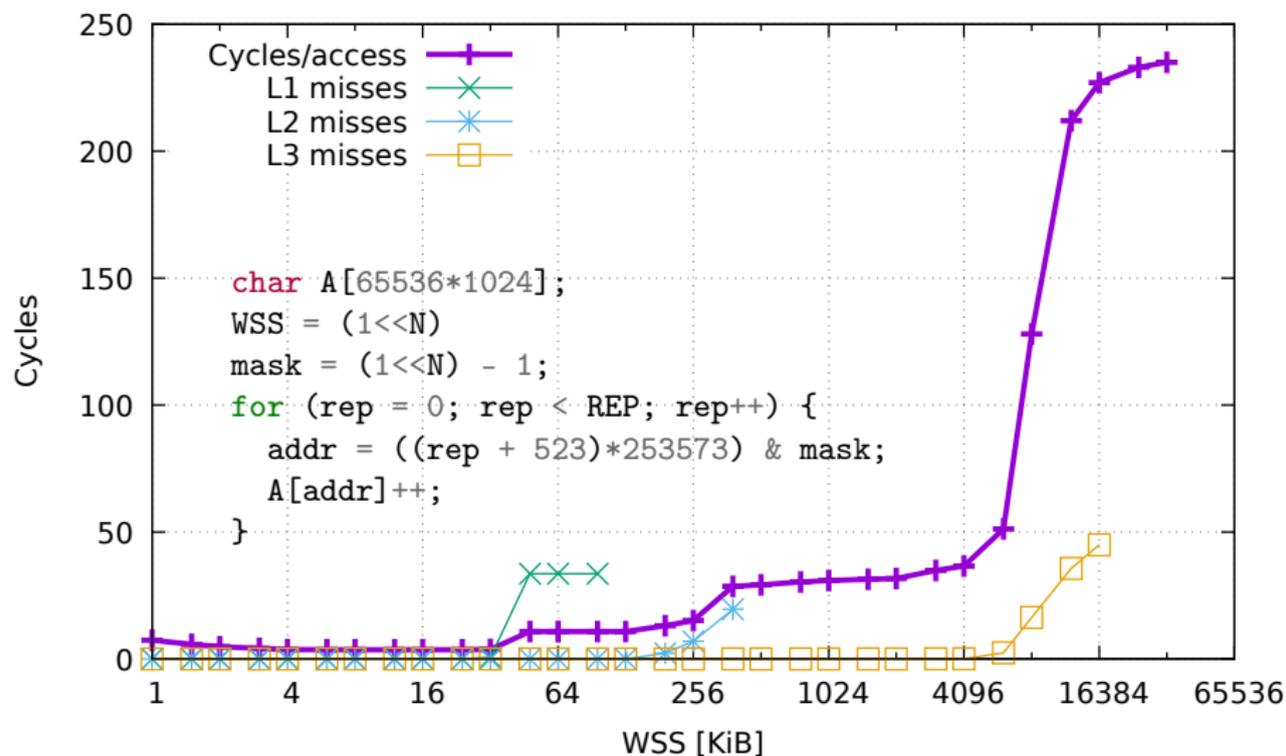
Core i7-2600, (perf counters not in scale)

Random access



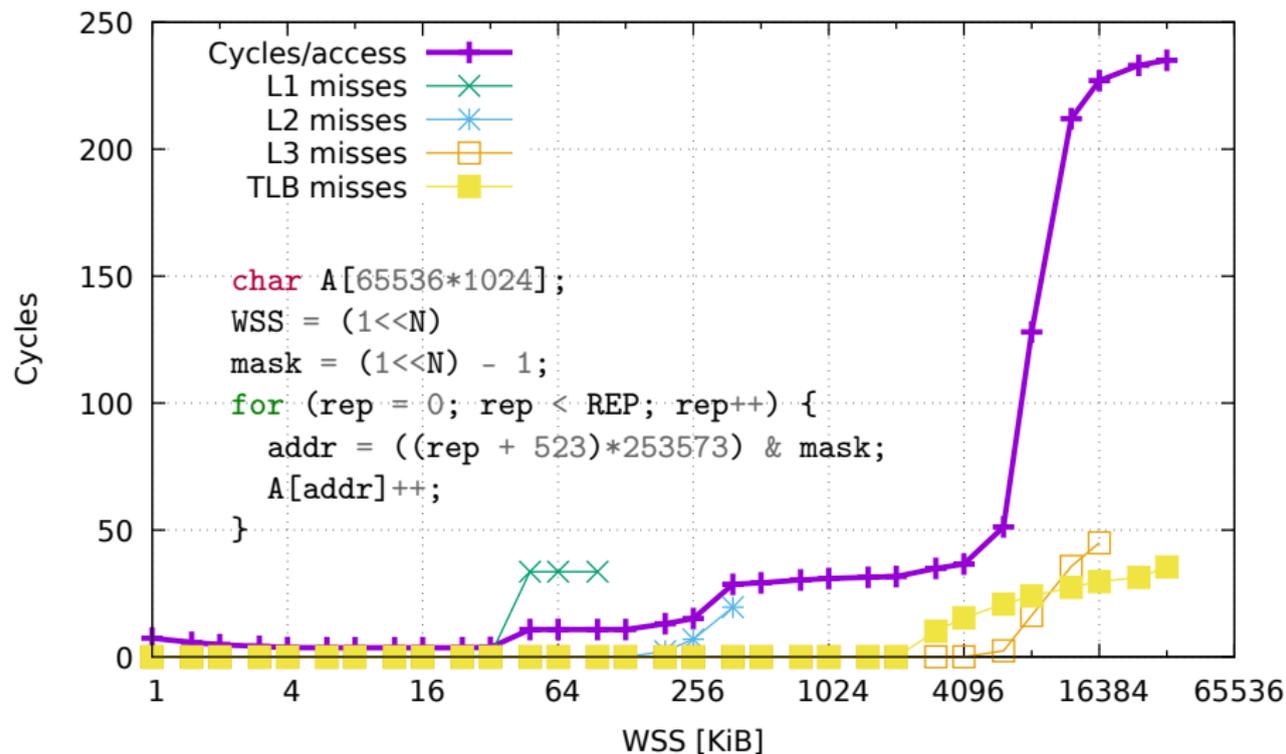
Core i7-2600, (perf counters not in scale)

Random access



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Random access



Core i7-2600, (perf counters not in scale)

Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)

- Caches translation of virtual to physical address
- On TLB miss, page walk has to be performed (2 to 5 levels)
- Intel i7-2600 has 512 L2 TLBs $\Rightarrow 512 \times 4 \text{ kB} = 2 \text{ MB}$
- Improvement: use so called huge pages (1 page = 2 MB, PS=1)

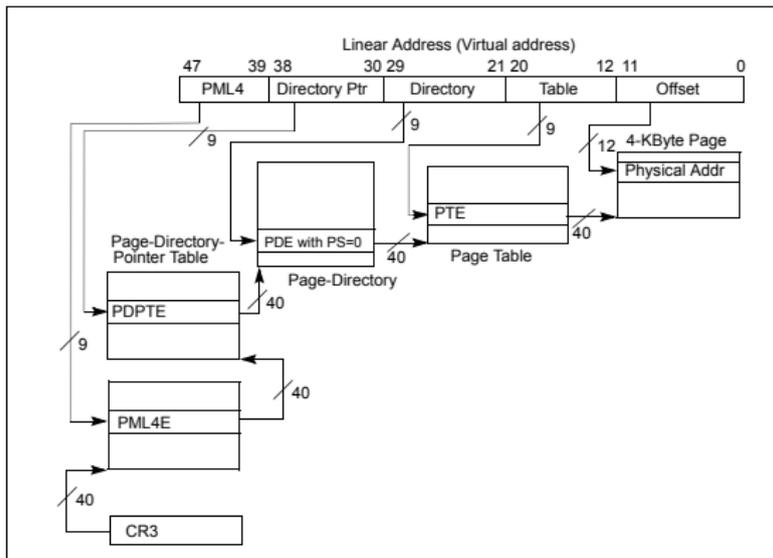


Figure 4-8. Linear-Address Translation to a 4-KByte Page using IA-32e Paging

Cache-related preemption delay

- When a thread is preempted by another thread, it likely evicts some data from the cache.
- After preemption ends, the threads experiences a lot of cache misses!
- Certain (older) architectures has to flush TLBs when switching address spaces (processes).
 - Modern architectures allow tagging TLBs with address space identifier (ASID, PCID, ...)
- High-performance software tries to limit preemptions.
 - Beware – limiting preemption increases response time!

Data structures and cache friendliness

- Arrays + sequential access – nice
- Dynamically allocated linked lists – depends on memory allocator (probably like random access)
- Search trees – random access

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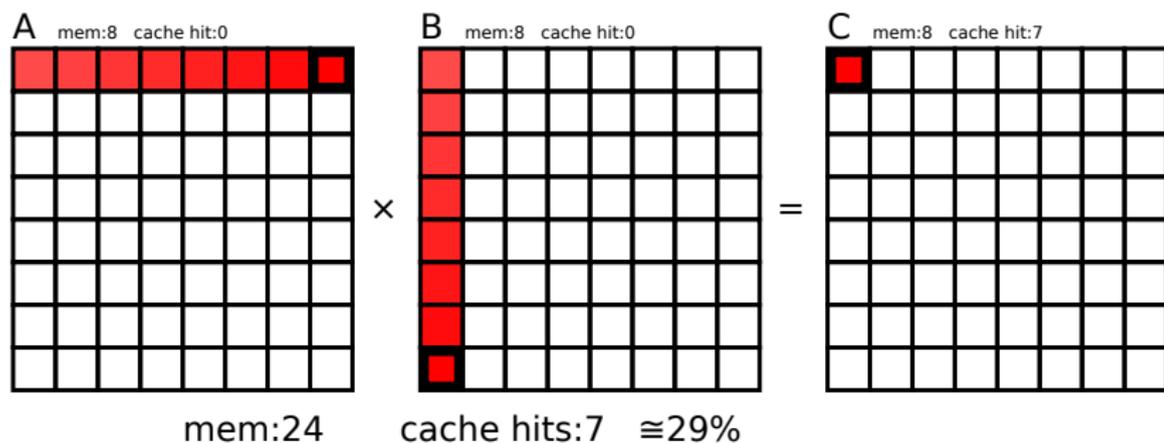
- For most data structures/algorithms, there exist cache-optimized variants.
- These are more tricky than textbook examples.

Dynamic memory allocator (malloc(), new)

- Memory allocators try to maintain spacial locality
- Hard to achieve when heap is fragmented
 - after many new/delete operations

Matrix multiplication

Naive implementation

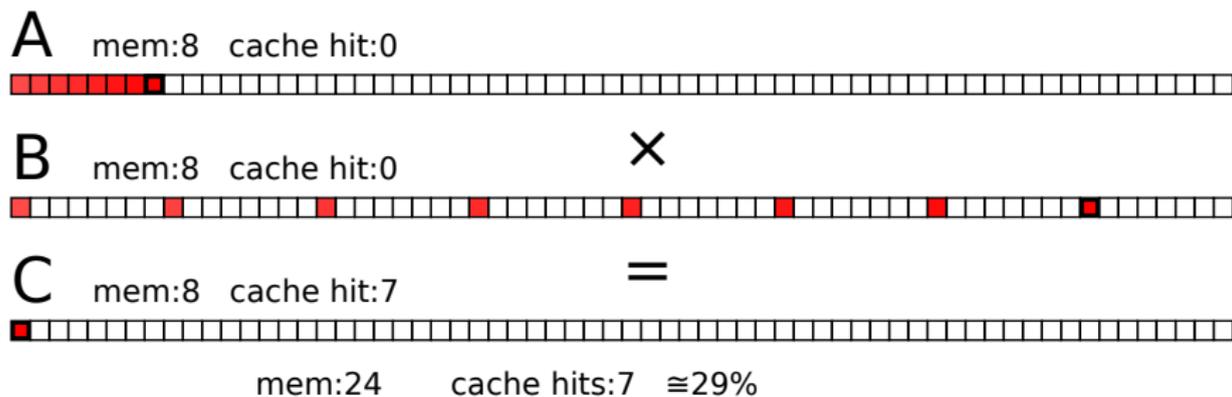


```

for (i = 0; i < N; ++i)
  for (j = 0; j < N; ++j)
    for (k = 0; k < N; ++k)
      C[i][j] = A[i][k] * B[k][j];
  
```

Matrix multiplication

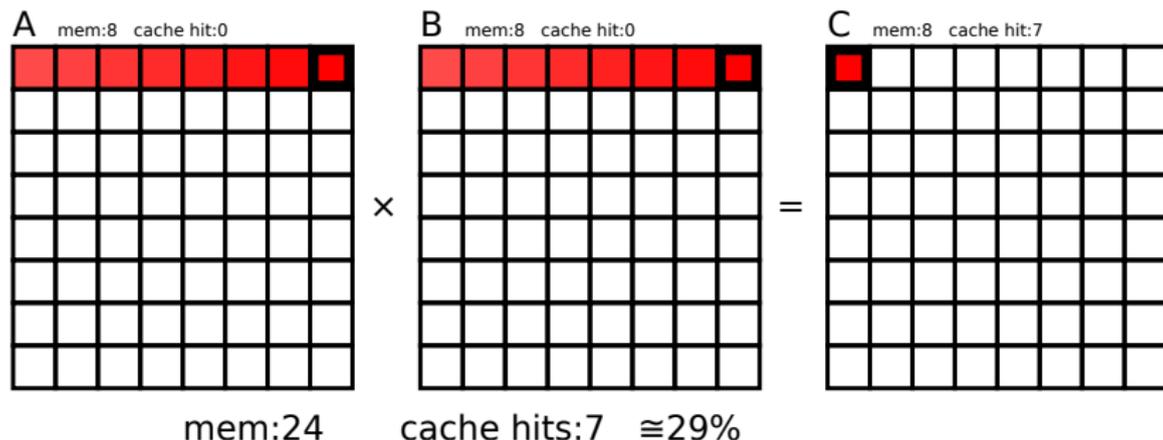
Naive implementation, memory layout



```

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      C[i][j] = A[i][k] * B[k][j];
  
```

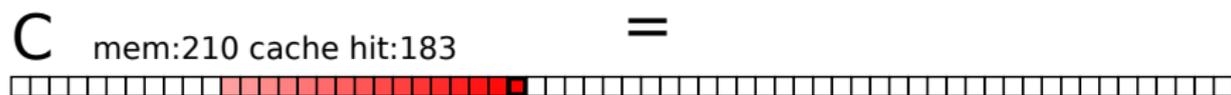
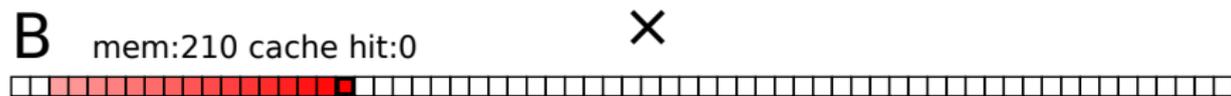
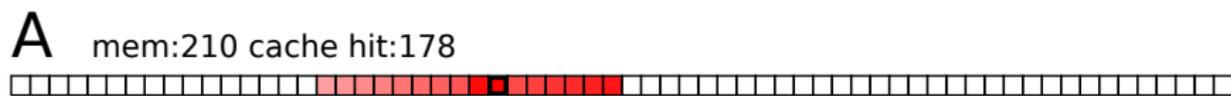
Implementation with transposition



```
double B[N][N];
for (i = 0; i < N; ++i)
  for (j = 0; j < N; ++j)
    B[i][j] = Bsrc[j][i];
```

```
for (i = 0; i < N; ++i)
  for (j = 0; j < N; ++j)
    for (k = 0; k < N; ++k)
      C[i][j] = A[i][k] * B[k][j];
```

Implementation with transposition



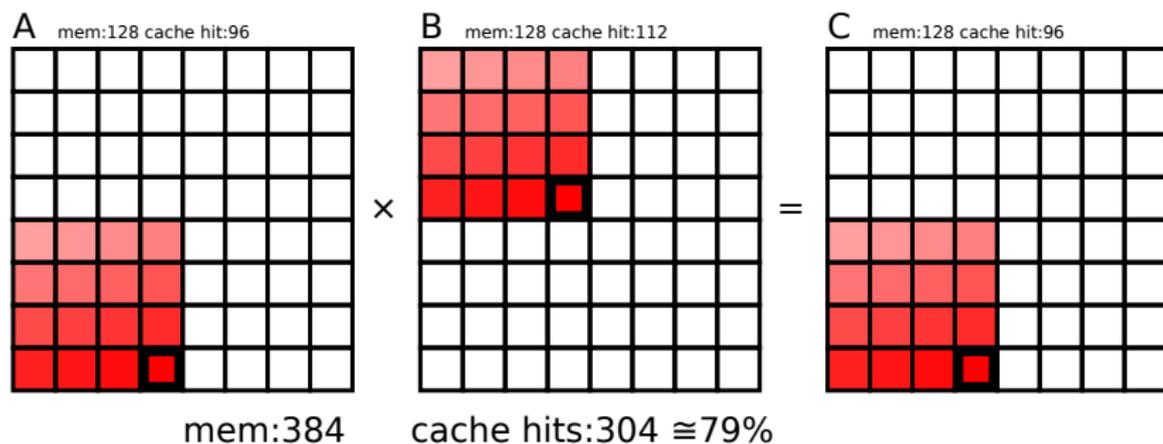
mem:630 cache hits:361 \cong 57%

```
double B[N][N];
for (i = 0; i < N; ++i)
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for (i = 0; i < N; ++i)
    for (j = 0; j < N; ++j)
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            C[i][j] = A[i][k] * B[k][j];
```

Performance: naive: 100%, transposed: 23,4%

Tiled implementation



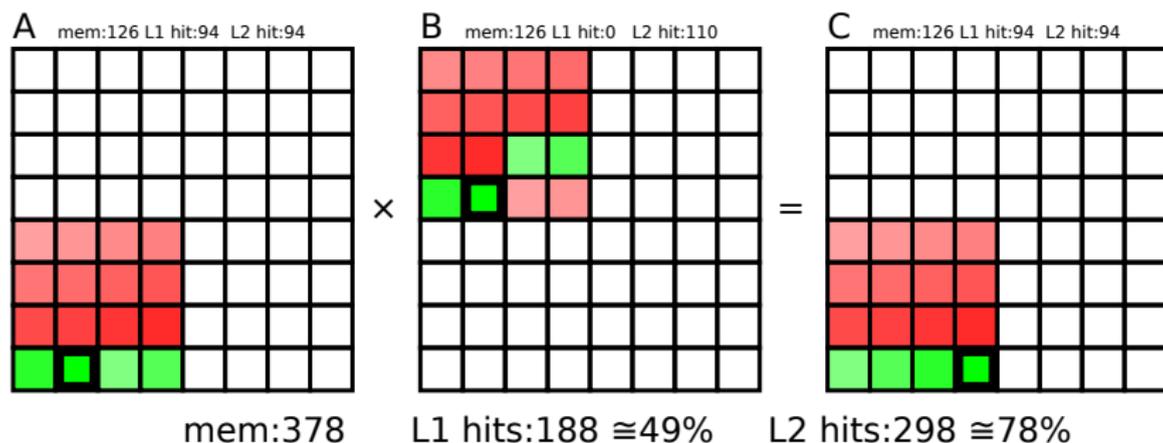
```

for (k1 = 0; k1 < N; k1 += tile)
  for (j1 = 0; j1 < N; j1 += tile)
    for (i1 = 0; i1 < N; i1 += tile)
      for (i = i1; i < i1 + tile; ++i)
        for (j = j1; j < j1 + tile; ++j)
          for (k = k1; k < k1 + tile; ++k)
            C[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];

```

- Each “tile” fits into the cache
- Performance: 17.3% of naive implementation (9.5% with vectorized operations)

Tiled implementation and L1 cache



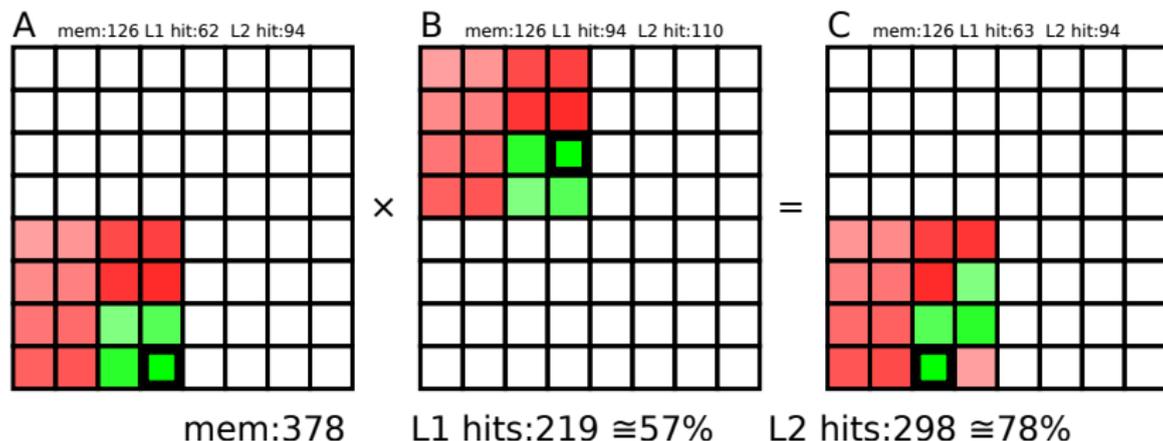
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    for (i1 = 0; i1 < N; i1 += tile)
      for (i = i1; i < i1 + tile; ++i)
        for (j = j1; j < j1 + tile; ++j)
          for (k = k1; k < k1 + tile; ++k)
            C[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];

```

- No L1 cache hit in B

Two-level tiled implementation



```

for (k2 = 0; k2 < N; k2 += tile2)
  for (j2 = 0; j2 < N; j2 += tile2)
    for (i2 = 0; i2 < N; i2 += tile2)
      for (k1 = k2; k1 < k2 + tile2; k += tile1)
        for (j1 = j2; j1 < j2 + tile2; j += tile1)
          for (i1 = i2; i1 < i2 + tile2; i += tile1)
            for (i = i1; i < i1 + tile1; ++i)
              for (j = j1; j < j1 + tile1; ++j)
                for (k = k1; k < k1 + tile1; ++k)
                  C[i][j] += A[i][k] * B[k][j];

```

- No L1 cache hit in B

Recursive matrix multiplication

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ \hline C_{21} & C_{22} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ \hline A_{21} & A_{22} \end{array} \right] \times \left[\begin{array}{c|c} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ \hline B_{21} & B_{22} \end{array} \right] =$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{11}B_{11} & A_{11}B_{12} \\ \hline A_{21}B_{11} & A_{21}B_{12} \end{array} \right] \times \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A_{12}B_{21} & A_{12}B_{22} \\ \hline A_{22}B_{21} & A_{22}B_{22} \end{array} \right]$$

$N \times N$ multiplication = 8 multiply-add of $(N/2) \times (N/2)$ multiplications

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Cache coherency

In symmetric multi-processor (SMP) systems, caches of the CPUs cannot work independently from each other.

- The maintaining of uniform view of memory for all processor is called “**cache coherency**”
- If some processor writes to a cache line, other processors have to clean the corresponding cache line from their caches.
- Cache synchronization protocol: MESI(F)
 - A dirty cache line is not present in any other processor's cache.
 - Clean copies of the same cache line can reside in arbitrarily many caches.

True sharing

- Program is slow because cache line with shared data travel from one core to another.

```
std::atomic_int32_t counter;
```

```
void thread_cpu0() {  
    while (true)  
        counter++;  
}
```

```
void thread_cpu1() {  
    while (true)  
        counter++;  
}
```

True sharing

- Program is slow because cache line with shared data travel from one core to another.
- Typically, each mutex is shared between CPUs.

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True sharing

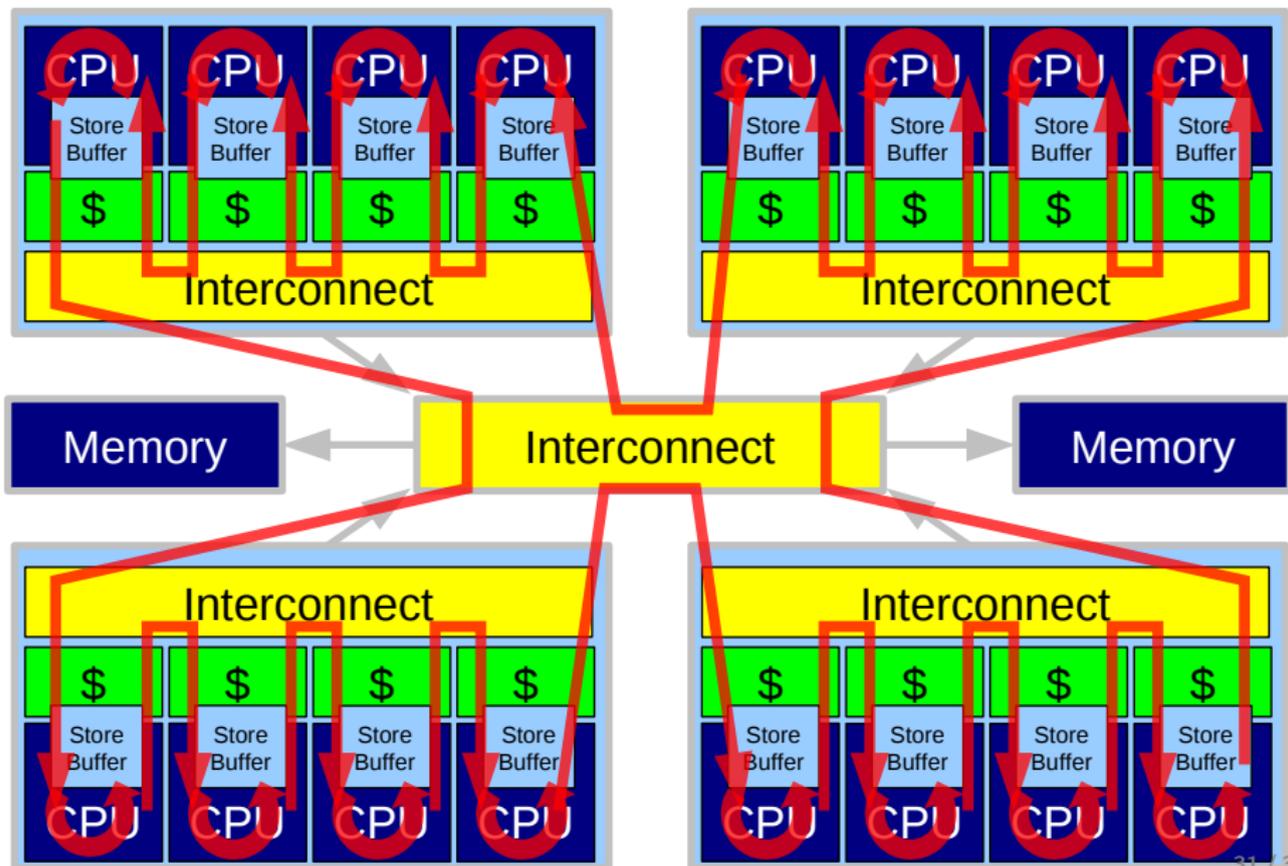
- Program is slow because cache line with shared data travel from one core to another.
- Typically, each mutex is shared between CPUs.
- When that is a problem (too much contention), make locking more fine-grained or change your data structure and/or algorithms to be more cache friendly.

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std::atomic_int32_t counter;
```

```
void thread_cpu0() {  
    while (true)  
        counter++;  
}
```

```
void thread_cpu1() {  
    while (true)  
        counter++;  
}
```

All CPUs executing atomic increment of global variable



False sharing

- Data accessed from different CPUs is not shared but happen to be stored in a single cache line.

```
// Per-CPU counters
```

```
std::atomic_int32_t counter_cpu0;
```

```
std::atomic_int32_t counter_cpu1;
```

```
void thread_cpu0() {
```

```
    while (true)
```

```
        counter_cpu0++;
```

```
}
```

```
void thread_cpu1() {
```

```
    while (true)
```

```
        counter_cpu1++;
```

```
}
```

False sharing

- Data accessed from different CPUs is not shared but happen to be stored in a single cache line.

```
// Per-CPU counters (FIXME: Do not hardcode cache line size)
std::atomic_int32_t counter_cpu0 __attribute__((align(64)));
std::atomic_int32_t counter_cpu1 __attribute__((align(64)));

void thread_cpu0() {
    while (true)
        counter_cpu0++;
}

void thread_cpu1() {
    while (true)
        counter_cpu1++;
}
```

Size matters

- Even though we have terabytes of memory, size of the data structures still matters.
- Only few kilobytes of memory is fast, the rest is slow!

References

- Ulrich Drepper, “What Every Programmer Should Know About Memory”, 2007/11 [online],
<http://people.redhat.com/drepper/cpumemory.pdf>