Abstract

The size of deep neural networks has grown exponentially in recent years. Unfortunately, hardware devices have not kept pace with the rapidly increasing memory requirements. To cope with this, researchers have turned to techniques such as spilling and recomputation, which increase training time, or reduced precision and model pruning, which can affect model accuracy.

We present OLLA, an algorithm that optimizes the lifetime and memory location of the tensors used to train neural networks. Our method reduces the memory usage of existing neural networks, without needing any modification to the models or their training procedures.

We formulate the problem as a joint integer linear program (ILP). We present several techniques to simplify the encoding of the problem, and enable our approach to scale to the size of state-of-the-art neural networks using an off-the-shelf ILP solver. We experimentally demonstrate that OLLA only takes minutes if not seconds to allow the training of neural networks using one-third less memory on average. OLLA is available at https://github.com/facebookresearch/OLLA.

1. Introduction

Scale is a major force behind the accuracy improvements of machine-learning-based solutions [9], and both the depth and width of deep neural networks (DNN) are expanding exponentially [66] (Figure 1). This inflation in size increases the memory needed to store the weights of the neural network and the intermediate results (e.g., activations and gradients) generated during the training process. Compounding the problem, researchers are training neural networks on larger inputs, such as high-resolution images [22, 71], video [28], three dimensional point-clouds [14], long natural language sequences [75, 15, 21], and using larger batch sizes to increase efficiency [69].

Unfortunately, due to the slowing of Moore’s law, the memory capacity of hardware has only increased linearly over the last decade (Figure 2). Thus, the amount of memory available on the hardware used to train DNNs has not kept pace with the needs of deep learning. Furthermore, features powered by machine learning, such as automatic speech recognition [63] or keyboard suggestions [35], are being personalized by fine tuning models on-device. This means that model training is increasingly being pushed to even more memory constrained edge devices such as smartphones. As a result, memory is increasingly becoming a bottleneck that hinders progress, and researchers frequently mention memory scarcity as a limiting factor that impacts their work [47, 36, 12, 18, 15].

The research community has proposed several solutions to mitigate the problem. Data spilling [54] and recomputation of intermediate results [43] relieve memory pressure. Novel neural network architectures [40] use memory more sparingly. Strategies such as reduced precision training [76, 78, 45] and weight pruning [56, 24, 37] decrease memory requirements. However, these all come at the cost of decreasing the accuracy of the model, or increasing the time it takes to train it, or both [49, 7, 57].

Popular deep learning frameworks such as PyTorch [61] and TensorFlow [1] do not fully utilize the limited memory available. Similar to traditional dynamic memory allocators such as tcmalloc [32] and jemalloc [26], these frameworks maintain a pool of free blocks of memory at runtime. To serve memory requests, they look for a large enough memory block in the memory pool, or allocate it from the physical memory if none is available. This results in memory fragmentation when free memory blocks do not exactly match the size of an allocation request, which occurs frequently.

![Figure 1: The number of deep neural network parameters has increased by 100,000 fold over the last 10 years, starting to grow exponentially around 2016. The x-axis is plotted on a log scale.](https://example.com/figure1.png)
Figure 2: The memory capacity of NVidia datacenter GPUs (in gigabytes) has only increased tenfold over the last decade, which has not kept pace with the rapidly increasing size of deep neural networks. The x-axis is plotted on a linear scale.

Furthermore, DNN frameworks do not optimize tensor lifetimes. PyTorch [61] executes operations in the order in which they are defined in the program. TensorFlow [1] keeps a queue of operators that are ready to run, and executes them on a first-come, first-served basis. As a result, tensors can be allocated earlier than required, or freed later than necessary, wasting valuable memory.

Our method overcomes these two limitations of existing deep learning frameworks. We model the computations performed to train a deep neural network as a dataflow graph. We analyze this graph to find a topological ordering of the nodes that adjusts the lifetime of the tensors generated by these operations to minimize the peak amount of memory that needs to be allocated (Figure 3). Furthermore, we find an optimal packing of these tensors, which minimizes memory fragmentation (Figure 4). We encode these two objectives as an integer linear program (ILP) that can be solved quickly by commodity solvers, and present OLLA (Optimization of the Lifetime and Location of Arrays), our algorithm for memory-optimal training of neural networks.

In addition to significantly reducing memory usage, our solution has four key strengths. First, it does not impact the accuracy of the predictions of the neural networks. Second, it requires no modification to the neural network or the training procedure. Third, it doesn’t increase training time. Fourth, it is orthogonal to and can be combined with other memory reductions techniques to further reduce the memory needs of a neural network.

Our work makes the following novel contributions:

- We formulate the problem of finding the lifetime and memory location of tensors that minimizes the peak memory required to train neural networks as a joint integer linear program.
- We demonstrate how to leverage domain knowledge to simplify the ILP formulation, which enables off-the-shelf solvers to quickly reduce the memory usage of large DNNs.
- We study empirically the practicality and effectiveness of our solution on a wide variety of DNNs, which achieves average memory savings exceeding 30% in a median time of less than 10 seconds.
- We provide an open source implementation of OLLA, which is available at https://github.com/facebookresearch/OLLA.

2. Background

2.1. Representing Neural Networks as Dataflow Graphs

Deep neural networks can be represented using dataflow graphs, as pioneered by TensorFlow [1]. The nodes of the graph encode the computations to be performed (e.g. matrix multiplications, convolutions, activation functions), while the edges represent the data (aka tensor or array) that is produced by an operation and transferred to consumer nodes.

Due to the producer-consumer relation between connected nodes, edges are oriented. Each edge has exactly one source, which is the operator that generated the corresponding tensor. Since a tensor can be consumed by more than one node, edges can have multiple sinks.

Operators can have multiple incoming (aka fanin) edges. Typically, one of these incoming edges will be the tensor generated by the previous layer, and another one will be a weight tensor. Similarly, operators can have multiple outgoing (aka fanout) edges: while most operations generate a single output tensor, some may create two or more. Operators with no fanout edges are used to model the final outputs of the neural network. Operators without fanin edges can model random
number generators, constants, weights, or initial inputs to the neural network.

In the remainder of this paper, we assume that the graphs are acyclic. In practice, this is not a significant limitation since recurrent neural networks such as LSTM [39] have been eclipsed by transformers [75]. Furthermore, their loops can be unrolled to avoid the problem altogether.

2.2. Optimizing Tensor Lifetimes

In order for an operator to run, all its input tensors must be resident in memory, and its output tensors must have been allocated so that they can be written to while the node executes. Additionally, to avoid recomputing tensors, once a tensor is generated it must be preserved in memory until all its consumers have been run.

We define the resident set \( RS(t) \) at a given time \( t \) as the set of tensors that need to be kept in memory at that point in the execution of the neural network. It comprises the tensors in the fanin and fanout of the operator that is scheduled for execution at timestep \( t \), as well as all the other tensors that were previously generated but need to be kept in memory to be able to run subsequent operators. The peak working set is the largest working set over the execution of the network.

The order in which nodes are executed impact the lifetime of the tensors, and therefore the peak working set. Figure 3 illustrates a simple example where changing the operator ordering noticeably improves memory usage.

Among all possible node orderings, those prioritizing the execution of nodes that free large amounts of data while generating little output data themselves, are likely to be more efficient. However, as demonstrated in prior works [5, 8], finding an optimal scheduling for a generic DAG is an NP-complete problem, which cannot be solved with a simple greedy approach.

2.3. Optimizing Tensor Locations in Memory

Similar to malloc-style memory allocators, the tensor allocation schemes used by typical deep learning frameworks operate online and suffers from fragmentation. Indeed, free memory is often segregated into small blocks and interspersed by memory allocated to live tensors. As a result, a significant fraction of the total memory is effectively unusable because it is divided into pieces that are not large enough to fit a tensor. Figure 4 illustrates this phenomenon, and demonstrates that planning the location of each tensor ahead of time can significantly reduce the overall peak memory usage.

3. Formulation

We propose to take advantage of the predictability of neural network computations to proactively Optimize the Lifetime and Location of Arrays (OLLA).

![Figure 4: Memory fragmentation can cause allocation to fail. A greedy allocator (top) would not leave any room between tensor A and B, thus making the space unusable for tensor C once A is freed. OLLA (bottom) leaves a gap between tensor A and B to enable the reuse of the memory freed by tensor A and fits all the tensors in memory.](image-url)
3.2. Encoding Tensor Lifetimes

We capture the execution of a neural network as a series of tensors being allocated or preserved over time. To do this, we use two sets of binary variables:

- A variable labeled $C_{e,t} \in \{0, 1\}$ indicates whether or not the tensor $e$ should be created (i.e. allocated) at timestep $t$ by running its source vertex.
- A variable named $P_{e,t} \in \{0, 1\}$ reflects whether tensor $e$ needs to be preserved in memory at timestep $t$ or whether it can be freed.

We leverage a set of linear constraints to ensure that the sequence of tensor creations and preservations reflects a valid execution sequence of the neural network corresponding to a feasible topological ordering of the DAG. Furthermore, they force the preservation in memory of each tensor from the time it is generated until the last timestep in which it is consumed.

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E, \forall t \in T \quad P_{e,t} + C_{e,t} \leq 1
\end{equation}

Second, a tensor $e$ can be preserved in memory at timestep $t$ if and only if it was created or preserved at the previous timestep (equation 2).

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E, \forall t \in T \quad P_{e,t} \leq P_{e,t-1} + C_{e,t-1}
\end{equation}

Third, to ensure that the solver does not simply avoid running any of the operators, we force every tensor $e$ to be created once through equation 3.

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E \quad \sum_{t \in T} C_{e,t} = 1
\end{equation}

Fourth, a tensor $e$ can only be created by running its source operator $v$. In order to do so, all the tensors in the fanin of $v$ must be present in memory (equation 4).

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E, \forall t \in T, \forall f \in fi(e) \quad C_{e,t} \leq P_{f,t}
\end{equation}

Last but not least, we also need to make sure that operators with multiple outputs create their output tensors at the same time. We achieve this by tying the values of the $C_{s,t}$ variables for all the siblings $s$ to a tensor $e$ in equation 5.

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E, \forall t \in T, \forall s \in sib(e) \quad C_{s,t} = C_{e,t}
\end{equation}

3.3. Encoding Tensor Locations

To let our solver also optimize the placement of tensors in memory, we assign an integer variable $A_e \in [0, M]$ to each tensor $e$ that encodes its base address. Here, $M = \sum S_e$, which corresponds to the worst case scenario where all the tensors reside concurrently in memory.

We also introduce two binary variables $a_{i,j} \in \{0, 1\}$ and $b_{i,j} \in \{0, 1\}$ for each pair of tensors $i$ and $j$. We constrain them through equation 6 in such a way that either $a_{i,j}$ or $b_{i,j}$ is equal to 1 if both tensors reside in memory concurrently at any point in time, but can be 0 otherwise.

\begin{equation}
\forall t \in T, \forall (i, j) \in E^2 \quad a_{i,j} + b_{i,j} \geq \text{live}_{i,t} + \text{live}_{j,t} - 1
\end{equation}

where \( \text{live}_{i,t} = C_{i,t} + P_{i,t} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{live}_{j,t} = C_{j,t} + P_{j,t} \)

We use these variables to prevent the overlap of tensors that reside in memory at the same time in equations 7a and 7b.

\begin{equation}
\forall (i, j) \in E^2 \quad A_i + S_i - A_j \leq (1 - a_{i,j}) \cdot M
\end{equation}

\begin{equation}
\forall (i, j) \in E^2 \quad A_i - A_j - S_j \geq (b_{i,j} - 1) \cdot M
\end{equation}

If $a_{i,j}$ takes the value 1, equation 7a degenerates into $A_i + S_i \leq A_j$. This forces tensor $i$ to reside below tensor $j$ in memory. Similarly, equation 7b degenerates into $A_i \geq A_j + S_j$ when $b_{i,j}$ takes the value 1, which forces tensor $i$ to be placed above tensor $j$. On the other hand, if $a_{i,j}$ and $b_{i,j}$ take the value 0, equations 7a and 7b hold for any value of $A_i$ and $A_j$ in the range $[0, M]$. In other words, they don’t impose further restrictions on the location of $e_i$ and $e_j$.

Put altogether, constraints 6, 7a, and 7b ensure that tensors can share the same memory space if and only if their lifetimes do not overlap.

3.4. Minimizing Peak Memory Usage

We track the peak memory usage by introducing a variable $\text{peak} \_\text{mem}$ that we constrain as follow:

\begin{equation}
\forall e \in E \quad A_e + S_e \leq \text{peak} \_\text{mem}
\end{equation}

We find the schedule of operators and memory location of tensors that optimizes the memory usage of the neural network by feeding program 9 to an ILP solver.

\begin{equation}
\text{arg min}_{C_{PA}} \text{peak} \_\text{mem}
\end{equation}

subject to (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), (7a), (7b), (8)

3.5. Decoding the ILP Result

Given a feasible solution to our ILP, we generate an optimized execution sequence of operations $ES = (s_1, \ldots, s_k)$ for the neural network using function 1.
Note that our algorithm may generate duplicate \( \text{execute}(v) \) statements in the case where a node \( v \) has multiple edges in its fanout. These redundant statements need to be removed to ensure the correctness of the final program.

**Function 1** GenerateExecutionSequence(\( C \))

\[ \triangleright \text{Converts the output of the ILP into an optimized} \]
\[ \triangleright \text{execution sequence of operations } \text{seq}. \]
\[ \text{seq} = [] \]
for \( t \) in \( T \) do
for \( e \) in \( E \) do
if \( C_{e,t} = 1 \) then
add execute(src(\( e \))) to \( \text{seq} \)
end if
end for
end for
\[ \text{return } \text{seq} \]

Tensors are stored in a shared preallocated buffer \( B \) sized to accommodate the peak memory usage. The value of each \( A_e \) variable represents the offset location of tensor \( e \) in \( B \).

We can map memory allocation requests to addresses over multiple iterations of the training loop as follow. We’ll assume that each operator generates a single output tensor for the sake of simplicity, but our approach generalizes to handle operators with multiple outputs. The \( k \)th memory allocation request corresponds to the tensor generated by the operator located at position \( k \mod |V| \) in the execution sequence \( ES \). This tensor \( e \) is to be located at address \( A_B + A_e \), where \( A_B \) is the base address of buffer \( B \). Memory deallocation requests are no-ops.

### 4. Scaling to Large Neural Networks

Our formulation requires \( 2 \ast |E| \ast |V| \) binary variables since we have one \( C \) and one \( P \) variable per tensor per timestep, as well as \( |A| \) integer variables to track tensor addresses. Additionally, we create \( \mathcal{O}(|V| + |E|) \) constraints to encode tensor precedence and life cycle requirements, and \( \mathcal{O}(|V| \ast |E| \ast 2) \) constraints to ensure that tensors never overlap in memory.

We develop five techniques to reduce the complexity of the ILP formulation and enable our approach to scale well. This permits **olla** to optimize the memory usage of neural networks with complex tensor computation graphs comprised of thousands of vertices and edges.

#### 4.1. Bounding Lifetime Ranges

All of the input tensors of a node must reside in memory for it to run at a given timestep. This means that all the operators in the immediate fanin of the node must have been run at least one timestep prior. As a result, we can identify the earliest timestep \( \text{ASAP}(v) \) (“as soon as possible”) during which a node \( v \) can run. \( \text{ASAP}(v) \) is the longest distance from \( v \) to an input of the neural network, which is computed in linear time using a simple depth first search traversal of the graph [3]. Using the same approach, we can also identify the latest timestep \( \text{ALAP}(v) \) (“as late as possible”) at which a node \( v \) can run, which is the longest distance from \( v \) to an output of the neural network.

A node \( v \) can only run within the span \( [\text{ASAP}(v), \text{ALAP}(v)] \). Since tensors are created when their source node is run, a variable \( C_{e,t} \) will always be false outside the span of their source node (Equation 10).

\[
\text{SPAN}(v) = [\text{ASAP}(v), \text{ALAP}(v)]
\]
\[
\forall e \in E, \forall t \notin \text{SPAN}(\text{src}(e)) \quad C_{e,t} = 0
\] (10)

Furthermore, a tensor only needs to be preserved in memory until all its sink operators have run. This enables us to define the Maximum Useful Lifetime (MUL) range of a tensor, and set the variable \( C_{e,t} \) for a tensor \( e \) to false outside of this range (Equation 11).

\[
\text{MUL}(e) = [\text{ASAP}(\text{src}(e)), \max_{s \in \text{snks}(e)} \text{ALAP}(s)]
\]
\[
\forall e \in E, \forall t \notin \text{MUL}(e) \quad P_{e,t} = 0
\] (11)

Additionally, tensors must be preserved in memory from the time they are created until their last sink node has run. Therefore, \( P_{e,t} \) must always be true from the last timestep at which \( e \) can be created until the earliest timestep at which its last sink can run (Equation 12).

\[
\text{PRES}(e) = [\text{ALAP}(\text{src}(e)) + 1, \max_{s \in \text{snks}(e)} \text{ASAP}(s)]
\]
\[
\forall e \in E, \forall t \in \text{PRES}(e) \quad P_{e,t} = 1
\] (12)

This enables us to reduce the number of timesteps to track for each tensor. In the best case scenario, where a neural network is a linear sequence of operators, the span of each node \( v \) is reduced to a single timestep, and we can derive the values of all the \( C_{e,t} \) and \( P_{e,t} \) purely from the structure of the graph. However, in the opposite extreme case where a neural network consists exclusively of operators that can run in parallel, we cannot infer any of the values of the \( C_{e,t} \) and \( P_{e,t} \) variable. The structure of real neural networks lies somewhere between these two extremes.

#### 4.2. Leveraging Precedence Constraints

We simplify our memory placement formulation by skipping constraints 67a and 7b whenever we can determine that two tensors can never reside in memory at the same time. We exploit two sufficient conditions to achieve this.

First, we leverage the Maximum Useful Lifetime ranges from our ASAP/ALAP analysis. If the MUL ranges of two tensors do not overlap, they will never be present concurrently in memory.
We complement this first condition with a precedence analysis. If a vertex $v_2$ is reachable from another vertex $v_1$ (i.e. if $v_1$ is in the transitive fanin of $v_2$), the corresponding operator $v_1$ must be run before operator $v_2$. Therefore, if all the sink vertices of an edge $e_1$ are in the transitive fanin of the source vertex of an edge $e_2$, $e_1$ and $e_2$ can only be present in memory if there is a vertex $v$ such that $e_1$ is one of the fanout edges of $v$ and $e_2$ is one of its fanin edges (Figure 5). We call this condition $\prec_{\text{prec}}$, and if either condition $e_1 \prec_{\text{prec}} e_2$ or $e_2 \prec_{\text{prec}} e_1$ holds $e_1$ and $e_2$ can never reside together in memory.

We use a simple depth-first search (Function 2) to determine whether a vertex $v_2$ is reachable from a vertex $v_1$. We leverage memoization to ensure that answering the query for a pair $(v_1, v_2)$ yields to constant time queries for all future queries $(v, v_2)$ that involve a vertex $v$ on a path from $v_1$ to $v_2$.

**Function 2** IsInTransitiveFanin($v_1$, $v_2$, cache)

\[ \text{\triangleright Returns true if } v_2 \text{ is reachable from } v_1. \]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if } (v_1, v_2) \text{ in cache then} & \\
\quad \text{return } \text{cache}[(v_1, v_2)] & \\
\text{end if} & \\
\text{for } f \text{ in } fi(v_2) \text{ do} & \\
\quad \text{if } src(f) = v_1 \text{ then} & \\
\quad \quad \text{cache($v_1, v_2$)} \leftarrow \text{true} & \\
\quad \text{return true} & \\
\text{end if} & \\
\text{if } \text{IsInTransitiveFanin($v_1$, src(f))} \text{ then} & \\
\quad \text{cache$[(v_1, v_2)] \leftarrow \text{true} & \\
\text{return true} & \\
\text{end if} & \\
\text{end for} & \\
\text{cache$[(v_1, v_2)] \leftarrow \text{false} & \\
\text{return false} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

### 4.3. Enforcing Early Memory Deallocations

Running a weight update operation enables the freeing of the corresponding gradient tensor. Applying these updates early reduces memory pressure, and conversely, there is no benefit to delaying their execution. To speed up the tensor lifetime optimization process, we prevent the solver from considering running these nodes late in the computation.

To achieve this, we look for a good anchor node, and add an edge of size 0 (which we call a control edge) from the gradient update node to this anchor node. The control edge forces the ALAP time of the gradient node to be less than that of the anchor node, but has no impact on memory usage since its size is 0. The anchor node must meet two criteria:

- Its level must be greater than that of the weight update node in the graph levelization [17]. This prevents the introduction of a loop through the control edge in the graph.
- A good anchor candidate must be scheduled early in the computation itself. We determine this by running the levelization on a copy of the DAG in which the directions of all the edges are reversed, and looking for a node with a high backward level.

We start the search for anchor nodes in the immediate fanin of the weight update vertex, and progressively expands the search radius until we find a suitable node as detailed in Functions 3 and 4.
Function 4 FindCandidate(v, fwd_lvl, bwd_lvl, min_fwd_lvl, visited)

▷ Find a candidate anchor node starting the search from ▷ node v.
if v in visited then
    return visited[v]
end if
best_fwd_level ← −1
best_candidate ← none
for f in fo(v) do
    for snk in snks(f) do
        if fwd_lvl[snk] ≤ best_fwd_level then
            continue
        end if
        if fwd_lvl[snk] ≤ min_fwd_level then
            candidate, level ← FindCandidate(snk, fwd_lvl, bwd_lvl, min_fwd_level, visited)
            if level > best_fwd_lvl then
                best_fwd_level ← level
                best_candidate ← candidate
            end if
        else
            best_fwd_level ← fwd_lvl[snk]
            best_candidate ← snk
        end if
    end for
visited[v] ← (best_candidate, best_fwd_level)
return (best_candidate, best_fwd_level)

4.4. Splitting the Problem

We noticed empirically that OLLA is always able to fully eliminate memory fragmentation. Therefore, without loosing optimality, we can divide the problem in two subproblems that are faster to solve sequentially.

We first look for the schedule of operations that leads to the smallest peak memory usage under the assumption that we will be able to locate tensors in memory later on without introducing any fragmentation. We compute this peak memory usage metric, peak_mem_no_frag, by leveraging the C and P variables in equation 13:

\[ \forall t \in T \sum_{e \in E} (C_{e,t} + P_{e,t}) \times S_e \leq \text{peak\_mem\_no\_frag} \quad (13) \]

The problem of optimizing the lifetime of tensors without considering fragmentation is then formulated in equation 14:

\[ \arg \min_{E,P} \text{peak\_mem\_no\_frag} \quad (14) \]

subject to (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (13)

4.5. Finding Suitable Memory Locations for Activations

DNN gradients are computed in reverse order of the activations. Since an activation is preserved in memory until the corresponding gradient computation takes place, the earlier an activation tensor is allocated the later it is freed. We place these tensors in memory in a manner that maximizes the usability of the unallocated memory. After determining the tensor lifetimes with equation 14, we order them by decreasing SPAN (equation 10), and place them at increasing memory addresses to form what looks like a pyramid as illustrated in Figure 6. This process is detailed in algorithm 5. The ILP solver assigns addresses to the remaining tensors.

This speeds up the ILP solver in two ways. First, the number of tensors it needs to place in memory is decreased significantly. Second, the address space available for these tensors is noticeably reduced.

Although it is a heuristic, this memory preplacement approach does not compromise OLLA’s ability to eliminate fragmentation as we will show in section 5.4.

5. Experiments

We measured the impact of OLLA on the memory usage of DNN training. We tried to answer the following questions:

• How effective are our two strategies of node reordering and address generation at reducing memory usage?
• How applicable is our approach? Can one reasonably expect to benefit from it on their use case, or is it more effective in some scenarios than others?
• How practical are our algorithms? Can they be applied to large neural networks in a reasonable amount of time?
We included the ResNet [36] and Transformer [75] models. We evaluated OLLA in a comprehensive set of neural networks. To validate the scalability of our solution, we tested it on neural networks as small as AlexNet [47] (118 operators) and as large as XLM-R [16] (2007 operators). In addition to these models that were designed to run on datacenter hardware, we also evaluated our approach on EfficientNet [73] and MobileNet [40]. These two neural networks were tailored to run in resource constrained environments such as edge devices. Additionally, we trained the neural networks at batch size 1 and 32. Batch size 1 is commonly used when training a model on devices with limited memory capacity, while batch size 32 is used often when running in datacenters.

To be representative of the evolution of DNN designs over time, we made sure our models cover almost a decade of machine learning research, starting with AlexNet [47] which was published back in 2012 and ending with VIT [23] which was released in 2020. We also tested our approach on MNASNet [72], a model designed by a computer using an automated process called neural architecture search [25].

To evaluate the impact of our tensor lifetime optimization, we compared the peak memory necessary to run various neural networks when using the PyTorch node ordering and the node ordering determined by algorithm 14. In our measurements, we eliminated the impact of memory fragmentation by recording the peak memory PyTorch operators need to request to run as large as XLM-R [16] (2007 operators).

We find that OLLA reduces peak memory usage by up to 38% compared to PyTorch (Figure 7). On average, our solution since they are ubiquitous and used in many downstream tasks: the former introduced the concept of residual connection, and the later popularized the attention mechanism. We also included neural networks designed for specific tasks, such as computer vision (AlexNet [47], VGG [68], GoogleNet [70]), video understanding (ResNet3D [74]), and language modeling (XLM-R [16]).

In addition to these models that were designed to run on datacenter hardware, we also evaluated our approach on EfficientNet [73] and MobileNet [40]. These two neural networks were tailored to run in resource constrained environments such as edge devices. Additionally, we trained the neural networks at batch size 1 and 32. Batch size 1 is commonly used when training a model on devices with limited memory capacity, while batch size 32 is used often when running in datacenters.

To be representative of the evolution of DNN designs over time, we made sure our models cover almost a decade of machine learning research, starting with AlexNet [47] which was published back in 2012 and ending with VIT [23] which was released in 2020. We also tested our approach on MNASNet [72], a model designed by a computer using an automated process called neural architecture search [25].

To validate the scalability of our solution, we tested it on neural networks as small as AlexNet [47] (118 operators) and as large as XLM-R [16] (2007 operators).

5.3. Memory Reduction Resulting from Node Reordering

To evaluate the impact of our tensor lifetime optimization, we compared the peak memory necessary to run various neural networks when using the PyTorch node ordering and the node ordering determined by algorithm 14. In our measurements, we eliminated the impact of memory fragmentation by recording the peak memory PyTorch operators need to request to run these models under both node orderings instead of the actual memory usage.

We find that OLLA reduces peak memory usage by up to 38% compared to PyTorch (Figure 7). On average, our solution

![Figure 7: Peak memory reduction (in %) compared to PyTorch as a result of our node reordering.](image-url)
achieves a reduction of 22.5% at batch size 1 and 10.1% at batch size 32.

The activations generated during the forward pass are preserved in memory for the backward pass of the training. As a result, OLLA has little to no ability to decrease the memory usage of the forward pass. On the other hand, the order of the computation and application of the gradients with respect to the weights offers a great deal of flexibility, which OLLA leverages to decrease the memory usage of the backward pass. However, the gradients are are roughly smaller than the activations by a factor of batch size. Therefore, at larger batch sizes, most of the memory is used to store activations, while at smaller batch size gradients represent a larger fraction of the total. This explains why our approach is more effective at small batch sizes.

5.4. Memory Savings Coming from Address Generation

We define the fragmentation of a memory allocator as the difference between the memory the allocator needs to reserve from the hardware $MR$ and the size of the resident set $RS$. We measure it when $MR$ reaches its peak value using the ratio $(MR - RS)/MR$.

In all scenarios our address generator can completely eliminate memory fragmentation. By contrast, PyTorch suffered from an average fragmentation of 7.9% at batch size 1, and 26.1% at batch size 32 (Figure 8). The PyTorch memory allocator uses a different strategy for small and large objects, which could explain why fragmentation is significantly worse for the larger batch size. However it is unclear whether it could be modified to better handle large tensors without introducing other drawbacks.

5.5. Node Ordering Time

Solving for equation 14 to optimize node orderings takes a median of 1.4 ± 0.2 seconds. Excluding the outlier EfficientNet, the worst case optimization time is 5.2 seconds, and the best case is 100 milliseconds (Figure 9). For EfficientNet, OLLA needs 2 minutes to find the optimal node ordering at batch size 1 and 5 minutes to find a solution that is within 1% of optimal at batch size 32 (Figure 10).

OLLA only needs a small fraction of the time it takes to train a neural network to optimize the lifetime of tensors and significantly reduce the peak memory usage.

5.6. Address Generation Time

Leveraging equation 15, OLLA eliminates fragmentation in a median time of 5.7 ± 0.6 seconds (Figure 11). While it takes significant effort to find optimal solutions for GoogleNet and EfficientNet, OLLA reduced fragmentation to less than 1% in 5 minutes or less for these two models. We plot the evolution of the memory fragmentation over time in these two cases in Figure 12.

5.7. Practical Use

Since our optimizer runs ahead of time, it’s important that it completes its task in a short amount of time to avoid negatively impacting the user friendliness of the overall system. We achieved a balance between memory savings and usability.
by enforcing a 5 minute time limit on both the lifetime and location optimizations. Figure 13 shows the overall reduction in peak memory usage achieved within these time limits. OLLA achieves an average improvement of 30.4% at batch size 1, and 36.1% at batch size 32.

PyTorch relies on dynamic memory allocation, which introduces some runtime overhead with each tensor allocation and deallocation. We compared the initial runtime penalty of our approach against the time the PyTorch allocator takes to manage memory while training neural networks at batch size 32. We assume that 1,000,000 iterations through the training loop are required to train a neural network, which is equivalent to processing the entire ImageNet [20] dataset 25 times, and corresponds to 8 training epochs on the IWSLT2017 dataset [10]. Our approach proved to be slightly more runtime efficient overall, saving an average of 5 minutes (Figure 14).

Note that we didn’t directly measure the total training time under both memory management schemes to reduce the noise in the measurements. Additionally, we didn’t report our estimated runtime savings at batch size 1 since the premises of this use case, typically encountered on-device, are very different: while each user would only perform a few training iterations, our optimizations would be applied before shipping the application.

6. Related Work

Various approaches, complementary to ours, have been proposed to break the “memory wall” and train larger networks. The first technique distributes the computation for a single forward-backward iteration over several hardware devices, thus making more memory available overall. However, this approach, known as model parallelism [46], significantly increases the financial cost of training deep neural networks since it requires access to additional expensive compute accelerators and fast networks. Furthermore, partitioning a deep neural network efficiently to balance communication and computation remains an open problem still actively researched [31, 44, 55].

In parallel, the research community has developed numerous solutions to reduce the memory footprint of deep neural networks:
• Novel neural network architectures reduce the number of parameters needed to achieve a given level of accuracy [41, 73]. Furthermore, automated search techniques known as neural architecture search [72] have been proposed to automatically design memory efficient models. The main drawbacks of these methods are that they are time consuming to deploy, and fail to match the result quality of state of the art DNNs.

• Model compression methods [6] prune [53, 29, 56, 24, 37] or share [19] weights to improve the efficiency of the model parameterization. However, the majority of these techniques require training the unpruned neural network first, and are therefore most useful for inference.

• Training using reduced precision arithmetic on 16-bit floating point or even quantized representations [76, 78, 45] significantly reduces memory [27, 50]. However, these techniques can compromise the accuracy of the neural networks, make training unstable, and require careful implementation to be deployed successfully [59, 51].

Several efforts have looked at the problem from a systems perspective, and presented solutions to reduce pressure on the memory subsystem. These techniques encompass:

• In-memory tensor compression, which can result in minimal accuracy loss in many DNN applications [11, 42]. However, this comes with a runtime penalty, since the data must be compressed and uncompressed on the fly.

• Rematerialization, also known as checkpointing, discards activations in the forward pass to save memory, and recomputes those values as needed when computing the gradients. Numerous strategies to identify which activations to discard have been proposed [43, 77, 13, 33, 67]. While effective at reducing memory usage, these techniques add extra computations, which increases the training time.

• Paging, aka spilling, consists of moving data between a small but high bandwidth and low latency memory pool, and a large but slow external memory. This has been demonstrated to effectively offload the data stored on a GPU device onto the host memory [64, 38, 54], but again increases training time due to extra memory transfers.

• More recently, combining several of these techniques has been proposed to increase their effectiveness and mitigate their drawbacks [4, 62] without fully eliminating them.

Additionally, some techniques developed primarily to increase execution speed are also beneficial for memory:

• Operator fusion can reduce memory footprint by avoiding the need to materialize large intermediate buffers and keep them around for backpropagation [58].

• Machine learning frameworks such as PyTorch [61] and TensorFlow [1] allow some of their operators to store the data they generate in one of their input tensors, thus avoiding the need to allocate an output tensor. This is known as in-place update, and saves memory. However, users must manually modify their neural networks to leverage this capability, and it can lead to correctness issues if used indiscriminately [60].

Optimizing the location of tensors in memory to reduce fragmentation, also known as the dynamic storage allocation problem, is NP-hard [30]. This problem has been studied in the context of deep learning by other researchers [65] who proposed an exact formulation to minimize the memory fragmentation of deep neural networks. However, their approach scaled poorly and only succeeded in optimizing two small neural networks in inference mode. As a result, they ultimately advocated for a heuristics based approach.

Improving the lifetime of tensors has also been studied before. Liberis et al. [48] and Serenity [2] looked for a memory-optimal execution schedule by enumerating the topological orders of the DNN graph and calculating their peak memory usage. To speed things up, they both proposed dynamic programming based optimizations to prune the number of orderings they needed to consider. However, the complexity of their algorithms remains prohibitive at $O(|V| \times 2^{|V|})$ in both cases, and they only managed to make them work for inference on tiny graphs. Lin et al. [52] also mentioned reordering computations as a way to enable operator fusion and reduce the peak memory footprint while training. Unfortunately, they didn’t describe the algorithm they used to find a suitable node ordering.

7. Conclusion

The limited memory capacity of the hardware used by deep learning practitioners is one of the main challenges to train state-of-the-art neural networks. This “memory wall” limits the size of the neural networks that can be trained, and ultimately impacts the quality of their predictions. Furthermore, as memory needs increase much faster than memory capacity, we expect this memory bottleneck to worsen over time.

To alleviate memory scarcity, we proposed to optimize both the lifetime and location of tensors in memory. We presented an ILP formulation of the problem, and extended it with ad-hoc simplifications to ensure that our approach scales to large neural networks.

We tested our solution, OLLA, on a wide variety of neural networks. We demonstrated experimentally that it can locate tensors optimally in memory, thus eliminating the problem of memory fragmentation. Furthermore, we showed that it further decreases the peak memory usage of deep neural networks by optimizing the lifetime of the tensors, and, by combining these 2 techniques, OLLA reduced peak memory usage by more than 30% on average.

We also emphasized the practicality of OLLA. We established empirically that it scales well and can handle large DNNs. We showed that it finds memory plans that are within 1% of optimal in less than 10 minutes (and often in mere seconds), and measured that OLLA’s optimization time is more than compensated for by eliminating the runtime overhead of dynamic allocation during training.
8. Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Ana Klimovic and Foteini Strati, whose insightful comments and feedback helped improve the paper.

References

[1] Martín Abadi, Paul Barham, Jianmin Chen, Zhifeng Chen, Andy Davis, Jeffrey Dean, Matthieu Devin, Sanjay Ghemawat, Geoffrey Irving, Michael Isard, et al. Tensorflow: A system for large-scale machine learning. In 12th USENIX Symposium on Operating Systems Design and Implementation (OSDI 16), pages 265–283, 2016.

[2] Byung Hoon Ahn, Jinwon Lee, Jamie Menjil Lin, Hsin-Pai Cheng, Jilei Hou, and Hadi Esmaeilzadeh. Ordering chaos: Memory-aware scheduling of irregularly wired neural networks for edge devices, 2020.

[3] Zoltan Baruch. Scheduling algorithms for high-level synthesis. ACM Scientific Journal, 5(2):48–57, 1996.

[4] Olivier Beaumont, Lionel Eyraud-Dubois, and Alena Shilova. Efficient Combination of Rematerialization and Offloading for Training DNNs. In NeurIPS 2021 - Thirty-Fifth Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems, Virtual-only Conference, France, December 2021.

[5] David Bernstein, Michael Rodeh, and Lidor Gertner. On the complexity of scheduling problems for parallel/pipelined machines. IEEE Transactions on Computers, 38:1308–1313, 1989.

[6] Davis Blalock, Jose Javier Gonzalez Ortiz, Jonathan Frankle, and John Guttag. What is the state of neural network pruning? In I. Dhillon, D. Papailiopoulos, and V. Sze, editors, Proceedings of Machine Learning and Systems, volume 2, pages 129–146, 2020.

[7] Yelysea Bondarenko, Markus Nagel, and Tijmen Blankevoort. Understanding and overcoming the challenges of efficient transformer quantization. In Proceedings of the 2021 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing, pages 7947–7969, 2021.

[8] John Bruno and Ravi Sethi. Code generation for a one-register machine. ACM Journal, 23(3):502–510, jul 1976.

[9] Sébastien Bubeck and Mark Sellke. A universal law of robustness via isoperimetry. In NeurIPS 2021, December 2021.

[10] Mauro Cettolo, Marcello Federico, Luisa Bentivogli, Jan Niehues, Sebastian Stüker, Katsuhito Sudoh, Koichiro Yoshino, and Christian Federmann. Overview of the WSLT 2017 evaluation campaign. In Proceedings of the 14th International Conference on Spoken Language Translation, pages 2–14, Tokyo, Japan, December 14-15 2017. International Workshop on Spoken Language Translation.

[11] Jianfei Chen, Lianmin Zheng, Zhewei Yao, Dequan Wang, Ion Stoica, Michael Mahoney, and Joseph Gonzalez. Actnn: Reducing training isoperimetry. In Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth International Conference on Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems, pages 1803–1813. PMLR, 18–24 Jul 2021.

[12] Liang-Chieh Chen, George Papandreou, Iasonas Kokkinos, Kevin P. Murphy, and Alan Lodden Yuiile. Semantic image segmentation with deep convolutional nets and fully connected crfs. CoRR, abs/1412.7062, 2015.

[13] Tzuqi Chen, Bing Xu, Chijuan Zhang, and Carlos Guestrin. Training deep nets with sublinear memory cost. ArXiv, abs/1604.06174, 2016.

[14] Xaozhui Chen, Huimin Ma, Ji Wan, Bo Li, and Tian Xia. Multiview 3d object detection network for autonomous driving. 2017 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 6526–6534, 2017.

[15] Rewon Child, Scott Gray, Alec Radford, and Ilya Sutskever. Generating long sequences with sparse transformers. ArXiv, abs/1904.10509, 2019.

[16] Alexis Conneau, Kartikay Khandelwal, Naman Goyal, Vishrav Chaudhary, Guillaume Wenzek, Francisco Guzmán, Edouard Grave, Sylvain Gelly, Jakob Uszkoreit, and Neil Houlsby. A model is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale, 2020.

[17] Wikipedia contributors. Level structure. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Level_structure, 2022. [Online; accessed 10-Oct-2022].

[18] Zihang Dai, Zihlin Yang, Yiming Yang, Jaime Carbonell, Quoc V. Le, and Ruslan Salakhutdinov. Transformer-xl: Attentive language models at scale. CoRR, abs/1911.02116, 2019.

[19] Mostafa Dehghani, Stephan Gouws, Oriol Vinyals, Jakob Uszkoreit, and Łukasz Kaiser. Universal transformers, 2019.

[20] Jia Deng, Wei Dong, Richard Socher, Li-Jia Li, Kai Li, and Li Fei-Fei. Imagenet: A large-scale hierarchical image database. In 2009 IEEE conference on computer vision and pattern recognition, pages 248–255. Ieee, 2009.

[21] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding, 2018.

[22] H.-Chao Dong, Chen Chang Loy, Kaiming He, and Xiaoou Tang. Image super-resolution using deep convolutional networks. IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence, 38:295–307, 2016.

[23] Alexey Dosovitskiy, Lucas Beyer, Alexander Kolesnikov, Dirk Weissenborn, Xiaohua Zhai, Thomas Unterthiner, Mostafa Dehghani, Matthias Minderer, Georg Heigold, Sylvain Gelly, Jakob Uszkoreit, and Neil Houlsby. An image is worth 16x16 words: Transformers for image recognition at scale, 2020.

[24] Sara Elkerdawy, Mostafa Elhoushi, Hong Zhang, and Nilanjan Ray. Fire together wire together: A dynamic pruning approach with self-supervised mask prediction. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), June 2022.

[25] Thomas Elsken, Jan Hendrik Metzen, and Frank Hutter. Neural architecture search: A survey. Journal of Machine Learning Research, 20(55):1–21, 2019.

[26] Jason Evans. jemalloc. https://github.com/jemalloc/jemalloc.

[27] Angela Fan, Pierre Stock, Benjamin Graham, Edouard Grave, Rémi Gribonval, Herve Jegou, and Armand Joulin. Training with quantization noise for extreme model compression. ArXiv preprint arXiv:2004.07320, 2020.

[28] Christoph Feichtenhofer, Haoqi Fan, Jitendra Malik, and Kaiming He. Slowfast networks for video recognition. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF International Conference on Computer Vision (ICCV), October 2019.

[29] Jonathan Frankle and Michael Carbin. The lottery ticket hypothesis: Finding sparse, trainable neural networks, 2018. cite arxiv:1803.03635Comment: ICLR camera ready.

[30] Michael R. Garey and David S. Johnson. Computers and intractability: A guide to the theory of np-completeness. Journal of Symbolic Logic, 1979.

[31] Amir Gholami, Ariful Azad, Peter H. Jin, Kurt Keutzer, and Aydn Buluçu. Integrated model, batch, and domain parallelism in training neural networks. Proceedings of the 30th on Symposium on Parallelism in Algorithms and Architectures, 2018.

[32] Google. Tcmalloc. https://github.com/google/tcmalloc.

[33] Andreas Griewank and Andrea Walther. Algorithm 799: revolve: an implementation of checkpointing for the reverse or adjoint mode of computational differentiation. ACM Trans. Math. Softw., 26:19–45, 2000.

[34] Gurobi Optimization, LLC. Gurobi Optimizer Reference Manual, 2022.

[35] Andrew Hard, Kanishka Rao, Rajiv Mathews, François Beaufays, Sean Augenstein, Hubert Eichner, Chloé Kiddon, and Daniel Rauber. Federated learning for mobile keyboard prediction. ArXiv, abs/1811.03604, 2018.

[36] Kaiming He, Xiangyu Zhang, Shaoqing Ren, and Jian Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In 2016 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 770–778, 2016.

[37] Yang He, Yuhang Ding, Ping Liu, Linchao Zhu, Hanwang Zhang, and Yi Yang. Learning filter pruning criteria for deep convolutional neural networks acceleration. In Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), June 2020.

[38] Mark Hildebrand, Jawad Khan, Sanjeev Trika, Jason Lowe-Power, and Venkatesh Akella. Autotmn: Automatic tensor movement in heterogeneous memory systems using integer linear programming. In Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth International Conference on Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems, ASPLOS ’20, page 875–890, New York, NY, USA, 2020. Association for Computing Machinery.

[39] Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. Long short-term memory. Neural computation, 9(8):1735–1780, 1997.

[40] Andrew G. Howard, Menglong Zhu, Bo Chen, Dmitry Kalenichenko, Weijun Wang, Tobias Weyand, Marco Andreetto, and Hartwig Adam. Mobilenets: Efficient convolutional neural networks for mobile vision applications. Arxiv, abs/1704.04861, 2017.

[41] Forrest N. Islanda, Song Han, Matthew W. Moskewicz, Khalid Ashraf, William J. Dally, and Kurt Keutzer. SqueezeNet: Alexnet-level accuracy with 50x fewer parameters and <0.5MB model size, 2017.
NVIDIA. Mixed precision training.

Markus Nagel, Marios Fournarakis, Yelysei Bondarenko, and Tijmen Wei Niu, Jiexiong Guan, Yanzhi Wang, Gagan Agrawal, and Bin Christos Louizos, Max Welling, and Diederik P. Kingma. Learning Ji Lin, Ligeng Zhu, Wei-Ming Chen, Wei-Chen Wang, Chuang Gan, Darryl Lin, Sachin Talathi, and Sreekanth Annapureddy. Fixed point Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. Imagenet Can Karakus, Rahul Huilgol, Fei Wu, Anirudh Subramanian, Cade Daniel, Derya Duyan, Teng Xu, Haosheng Chen, Arush Rahamah, and Luis Quintela. Amazon sagemaker model parallelism: A general and flexible framework for large model training. CoRR, abs/2111.05972, 2021.

Alex Krizhevsky, Ilya Sutskever, and Geoffrey E. Hinton. ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. Communications of the ACM, 60:84–90, 2012.

Edgar Liberis and Nicholas D. Lane. Neural networks on microcontrollers: saving memory at inference via operator reordering, 2020.

Lucas Liebenwein, Cenk Baykal, Brandon Carter, David Gifford, and Daniela Rus. Lost in pruning: The effects of pruning neural networks beyond test accuracy. In A. Smola, A. Dimakis, and I. Stoica, editors, Proceedings of Machine Learning and Systems, volume 3, pages 93–138, 2021.

Darryl Lin, Sachin Talathi, and Sreekanth Annappareddy. Fixed point quantization of deep convolutional networks. In International conference on machine learning, pages 2849–2858. PMLR, 2016.

Darryl Dexu Lin and Sachin S. Talathi. Overcoming challenges in fixed point training of deep convolutional networks. ArXiv, abs/1607.02241, 2016.

Ji Lin, Ligeng Zhu, Wei-Ming Chen, Wei-Chen Wang, Chuang Gan, and Song Han. On-device training under 256kb memory, 2022.

Christos Louizos, Max Welling, and Diederik P. Kingma. Learning sparse neural networks through 0 regularization, 2018.

Chen Meng, Minmin Sun, Jun Yang, Minhui Qiu, and Yang Gu. Training deeper models by gpu memory optimization on tensorflow. In NIPS 2017 Workshop on ML Systems, 2017.

Azalia Mirhoseini, Anna Goldie, Hieu Pham, Benoit Steiner, Quoc V. Le, and Jeff Dean. A hierarchical model for device placement. In ICLR, 2018.

Pavlo Molchanov, Arun Mallya, Stephen Tyree, Iuri Frolo, and Jan Kautz. Importance estimation for neural network pruning. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition, 2019.

Markus Nagel, Marios Fournarakis, Yelisei Bondarenko, and Tijmen Blankevoort. Overcoming oscillations in quantization-aware training. In Kamalika Chaudhuri, Stefanie Jegelka, Le Song, Csaba Szepesvari, GAN Niu, and Sivan Sabato, editors, Proceedings of the 39th International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 162 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pages 16318–16330. PMLR, 17–23 Jul 2022.

Wei Niu, Jie Xiong Guan, Yanzi Wang, Gagan Agrawal, and Bin Ren. DNFusion: Accelerating deep neural networks execution with advanced operator fusion. In Proceedings of the 42nd ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation, PLDI 2021, page 883–898, New York, NY, USA, 2021. Association for Computing Machinery.

NVidia. Mixed precision training. https://docs.nvidia.com/deeplearning/performance/mixed-precision-training/index.html (accessed 13-Oct-2022).

Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Soumith Chintala, Gregory Chanan, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Zeming Lin, Alban Desmaison, Luca Antiga, and Adam Lerer. Automatic differentiation in pytorch. In NIPS 2017 Workshop on Autodiff, 2017.

Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, Alban Desmaison, Andreas Kupf, Edward Yang, Zachary DeVito, Martin Raison, Alykhan Tejani, Sasan Chilamkurthy, Benoît Steiner, Lu Fang, Junjie Bai, and Soumith Chintala. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 32, pages 8024–8035. Curran Associates, Inc., 2019.

Shishir G. Patil, Paras Jain, Prabal Dutta, Ian Stoica, and Joseph Gonzalez. POET: Training neural networks on tiny devices with integrated reparameterization and pacing. In Kamalika Chaudhuri, Stefanie Jegelka, Le Song, Csaba Szepesvari, Gang Niu, and Sivan Sabato, editors, Proceedings of the 39th International Conference on Machine Learning, volume 162 of Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, pages 17573–17583. PMLR, 17–23 Jul 2022.

Matthias Pauklik, Matt Seigel, Henry Mason, Dominic Telaar, Joris Kuipers, Rogier van Dalen, Chi Wai Lau, Luke Carlson, Filip Granqvist, Chris Vandevelde, Sudeep Agarwal, Julian Freudiger, Andrew Byde, Abhishek Bhowmik, Gaurav Kapoor, So Beaumont, Aine Cahill, Dominic Hughes, Omid Javidbakht, Fei Dong, Rehan Rishi, and Stanley Hung. Federated evaluation and tuning for on-device personalization: System design and applications, 2021.

Xuan Peng, Xuanhuai Shi, Hulin Dai, Hai Jin, Weiliang Ma, Qian Xiong, Fan Yang, and Xuehai Qian. Capuchin: Tensor-based gpu memory management for deep learning. In Proceedings of the Twenty-Fifth International Conference on Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems, ASPLOS XVIII, pages 199–215, New York, NY, USA, 2020. Association for Computing Machinery.

Taro Sekiya, Takashi Imamichi, Haruki Imai, and Rudy Raymond. Profile-guided memory optimization for deep neural networks, 2018.

Jaime Sevilla, Lennart Heim, Anson Ho, Tamay Besiroglu, Marius Hobbhahn, and Pablo Villabobos. Compute trends across three eras of machine learning. 2022 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN), Jul 2022.

Aashaka Shah, Chao-Yuan Wu, Jayashree Mohan, Vijay Chidambaram, and Philipp Kraehenbuehl. Memory optimization for deep networks. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2021.

Karen Simonyan and Andrew Zisserman. Very deep convolutional networks for large-scale image recognition. In Yoshua Bengio and Yann LeCun, editors, 3rd International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2015, San Diego, CA, USA, May 7-9, 2015, Conference Track Proceedings, 2015.

Samuel L. Smith, Pieter-Jan Kindermans, and Quoc V. Le. Don’t decay the learning rate, increase the batch size. In International Conference on Learning Representations, 2018.

Christian Szegedy, Wei Liu, Yangqing Jia, Pierre Sermanet, Scott Reed, Dragomir Anguelov, Dumitru Erhan, Vincent Vanhoucke, and Andrew Rabinovich. Going deeper with convolutions. In 2015 IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 1–9, 2015.

Ying Tian, Jian Yang, and Xiaoming Liu. Image super-resolution via deep recursive residual network. In Proceedings of the IEEE Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), Jul 2017.

Mingxing Tan, Bo Chen, Ruoming Pang, Vijay Vasudevan, Mark Sandler, Andrew Howard, and Quoc V. Le. Mnasnet: Platform-aware neural architecture search for mobile, 2019.

Mingxing Tan and Quoc V. Le. Efficientnet: Rethinking model scaling for convolutional neural networks. ArXiv, abs/1905.12322, 2019.

Du Tran, Heng Wang, Lorenzo Torresani, Jamie Ray, Yann LeCun, and Manohar Paluri. A closer look at spatiotemporal convolutions for action recognition. In 2018 IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), pages 6450–6459, 2018.

Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, I. ukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. In I. Guyon, U. von Luxburg, S. Bengio, H. Wallach, R. Fergus, S. Vishwanathan, and Andrew Rabinovich, editors, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 30. Curran Associates, Inc., 2017.

Naigang Wang, Jungwook Choi, Daniel Brand, Chia-Yu Chen, and Kaishal Gopalakrishnan. Training deep neural networks with 8-bit floating point numbers. In S. Bengio, H. Wallach, H. Larochelle, K. Grauman, N. Cesa-Bianchi, and R. Garnett, editors, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, volume 31. Curran Associates, Inc., 2018.
[77] Bojian Zheng, Nandita Vijaykumar, and Gennady Pekhimenko. Echo: Compiler-based gpu memory footprint reduction for lstm rnn training. In 2020 ACM/IEEE 47th Annual International Symposium on Computer Architecture (ISCA), pages 1089–1102, 2020.

[78] Feng Zhu, Ruihao Gong, Fengwei Yu, Xianglong Liu, Yanfei Wang, Zhelong Li, Xiuqi Yang, and Junjie Yan. Towards unified int8 training for convolutional neural network. In IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition (CVPR), June 2020.