#### **Effective Use of Memory and Optimization - I**

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## 2<sup>nd</sup> Lab

Will be on 12<sup>th</sup> March Tuesday at 9:40 in A-212

Will be on memory (slides 58<sup>th</sup> onwards)



## 1<sup>st</sup> Quiz

- Will also be on 12th March, before we start the lab
- Please be on time, it will start exactly at 9:40. If you are late, you will not be compensated for late arrival
- The quiz questions will be from the contents of the slides up to the 58th slide, so please study these slides carefully



## **Compute Capability**

- The compute capability of a device is defined by a major revision number and a minor revision number.
- Devices with the same major revision number are of the same core architecture.
  - Pascal architecture is 6.x, Volta 7.x.
- The minor revision number corresponds to an incremental improvement to the core architecture, possibly including new features.
  - Pascal has versions 6.0, 6.1, 6.2
  - Turing architecture 7.5 (An increment on Volta core architecture)



# **Compute Capability- Feature Support**

Foatung ourmout (unlisted foatungs are ourmouted for all	Compute capability (version)				
Feature support (unlisted features are supported for all compute abilities)	1.0 1.1 1.2 1.3	2.x 3.0 3.2	3.5, 3.7, 5.0, 5.2	5.3 6.x	7.0/2 7.5 (Volta) (Turing)
Integer atomic functions operating on 32-bit words in global memory	No		Yes		
atomicExch() operating on 32-bit floating point values in global memory	NO		ics		
Integer atomic functions operating on 32-bit words in shared memory					
atomicExch() operating on 32-bit floating point values in shared memory	No		Yes		
Integer atomic functions operating on 64-bit words in global memory					
Warp vote functions					
Double-precision floating-point operations	No		Yes	3	
Atomic functions operating on 64-bit integer values in shared memory					
Floating-point atomic addition operating on 32-bit words in global and shared memory					
_ballot()	No		Y	es	
_threadfence_system()					
_syncthreads_count(), _syncthreads_and(), _syncthreads_or()					
Surface functions					
3D grid of thread block					
Warp shuffle functions	No			Yes	
Funnel shift	No	No Yes			
Dynamic parallelism	No	No Yes		es	
Half-precision floating-point operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, comparison, warp shuffle functions, conversion		No			Yes
Atomic addition operating on 64-bit floating point values in global memory and shared memory		No			Yes
Tensor core		No			Yes



# **Compute Capability – Tech Specs**

Technical specifications  1.0   1.1   1.2   1.3   2.x   3.0   3.2   3.5   3.7   5.0   5.2   5.3   6.0   6.1   6.2    Maximum number of resident grids per device (concurrent kernel execution)  Maximum dimensionality of grid of thread blocks  Maximum x-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum y-, or z-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per	7.0 128			
(concurrent kernel execution)  Maximum dimensionality of grid of thread blocks  Maximum x-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum y-, or z-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum x- or y-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per	128			
Maximum x-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum y-, or z-dimension of a grid of thread blocks  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum x- or y-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
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blocks  Maximum dimensionality of thread block  Maximum x- or y-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
Maximum x- or y-dimension of a block  Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
Maximum z-dimension of a block  Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
Maximum number of threads per block  Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
Warp size  Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor  Maximum number of resident warps per				
Maximum number of resident blocks per multiprocessor 8 16 32	1024			
multiprocessor  8 10 32  Maximum number of resident warps per	32			
Maximum number of resident warps per	16 32			
multiprocessor 24 32 48 64				
Maximum number of resident threads per multiprocessor 768 1024 1536 2048				
Number of 32-bit registers per multiprocessor 8 K 16 K 32 K 64 K 128 K 64 K				
Maximum number of 32-bit registers per thread block N/A 32 K 64 K 32 K 64 K 32 K	64 K			
Maximum number of 32-bit registers per thread 124 63 255				
Maximum amount of shared memory per multiprocessor 16 KB 48 KB 112 64 96 KB KB 64 KB KB	96 KB			
Maximum amount of shared memory per thread block 48 KB	48/96 KB			
Number of shared memory banks 16 32	16 32			
Amount of local memory per thread 16 KB 512 KB	16 KB 512 KB			
Constant memory size 64 KB	64 KB			

## **Optimize Algorithms for the GPU**



- Maximize independent parallelism
- Maximize arithmetic intensity
  - Aim for higher calculation/bandwidth ratio
- Sometimes it's better to recompute than to cache
  - GPU spends its transistors on ALUs, not memory
- Do more computation on the GPU to avoid costly data transfers
  - Even low parallelism computations can sometimes be faster than transferring back and forth to host



## **Optimize Memory Access**



- Coalesced vs. Non-coalesced
  - order of magnitude difference
- Global/Local device memory
- Optimize for spatial locality in cached texture memory
- In shared memory, avoid high-degree bank conflicts



#### Take Advantage of Shared Memory



Hundreds of times faster than global memory

- Threads can cooperate via shared memory
- Use one / a few threads to load, then compute data shared by all threads
- Use it to avoid non-coalesced access
  - Stage loads and stores in shared memory to re-order noncoalesceable addressing



## **Use Parallelism Efficiently**



- Partition your computation to keep the GPU multiprocessors equally busy
  - Many threads
  - Many thread blocks
- Keep resource usage low enough to support multiple active thread blocks per multiprocessor
  - Use registers and shared memory wisely



#### **Outline**



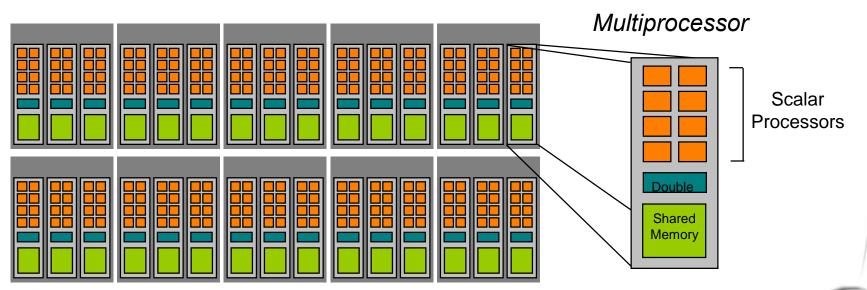
- Overview
- Hardware
- Memory Optimizations
  - Data transfers between host and device
  - Device memory optimizations
    - Measuring performance effective bandwidth
    - Coalescing
    - Shared Memory
    - Textures
- Summary



#### **10-Series Architecture**



- 0
  - 240 Scalar Processor (SP) cores execute kernel threads
- 0
- 30 Streaming Multiprocessors (SMs) each contain
- 8 scalar processors
- 2 Special Function Units (SFUs)
- 1 double precision unit
- Shared memory enables thread cooperation





#### **Execution Model**



#### **Software**

#### **Hardware**

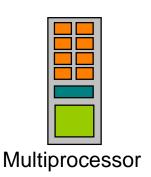




Threads are executed by scalar processors



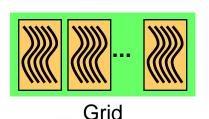
Thread Block

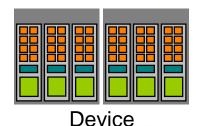


Thread blocks are executed on multiprocessors

Thread blocks do not migrate

Several concurrent thread blocks can reside on one multiprocessor - limited by multiprocessor resources (shared memory and register file)





A kernel is launched as a grid of thread blocks

Concurrent kernel execution is possible (with newer Fermi devices)



#### **Execution Model - Warps**

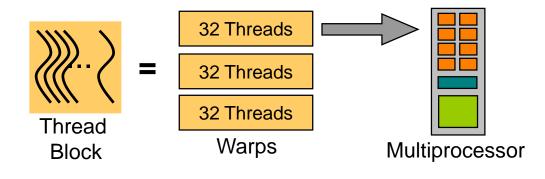


- Warp: a group of threads executed physically in parallel
  - Warp is the unit of thread scheduling in SMs
  - Each block is further divided into warps for execution
  - Each warp consists of 32 threads of consecutive threadIdx values
  - Threads 0-31 form the first warp, 32-63 second warp, and so on
  - If block has a size not multiple of 32, the last block will be padded, i.e. if the block has 48 threads, warp0 will have 32 threads and warp 1 will be padded with 16 threads to have 32 threads
- A SM executes all threads in a warp following SIMD model
  - All threads in a warp will apply the same instruction to different parts of the data and they will have the same execution timing.



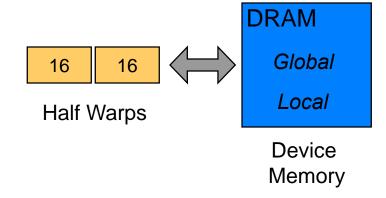
#### Warps and Half Warps





A thread block consists of 32-thread warps

A warp is executed physically in parallel (SIMD) on a multiprocessor



A half-warp of 16 threads can coordinate global memory accesses into a single transaction



#### **Latency Hiding**



Why do we need so many warps in an SM for better occupancy?

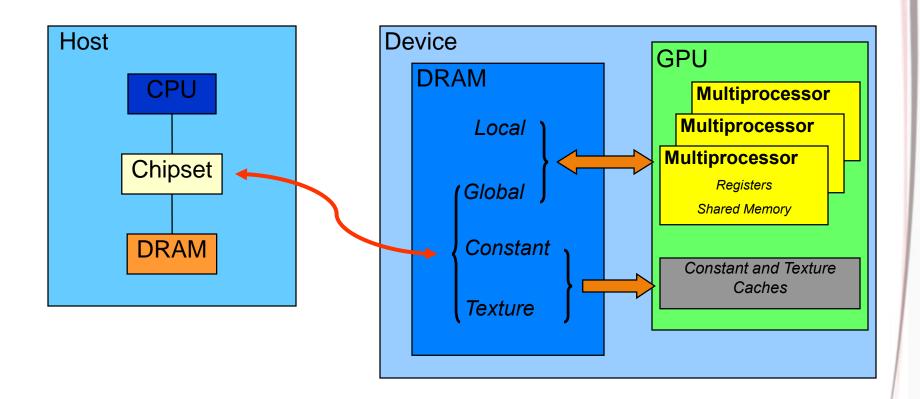
#### **Latency hiding**

- If an instruction executed by the threads in a warp needs to wait for the result of previously initiated long latency operation, the warp is not selected for execution.
- Another resident warp that is no longer waiting for the results will be selected for execution.



## **Memory Architecture**







## **Memory Architecture**



Memory	Location	Cached	Access	Scope	Lifetime
Register	On-chip	N/A	R/W	One thread	Thread
Shared	On-chip	N/A	R/W	All threads in a block	Block
Global	Off-chip	No	R/W	All threads + host	Application
Constant	Off-chip	Yes	R	All threads + host	Application
Texture	Off-chip	Yes	R	All threads + host	Application



#### Fermi Architecture

The same on-chip memory is used for both L1 and shared memory, and how much of it is dedicated to L1 versus shared memory is configurable for each kernel call. Experimentation is recommended to find out the best combination for a given kernel

- Program configurable:
  - 16KB shared / 48 KB L1
  - 48KB shared / 16KB L1
- cudaDeviceSetCacheConfig()

```
cudaFuncCachePreferNone
no preference for shared memory or L1 (default)
cudaFuncCachePreferShared
prefer larger shared memory and smaller L1 cache
cudaFuncCachePreferL1
prefer larger L1 cache and smaller shared memory
```



#### **Maxwell Architecture**

- With Fermi and Kepler, shared memory and the L1 cache shared the same on-chip storage.
- Maxwell, by contrast, provides dedicated space to the shared memory of each SMM, since the functionality of the L1 and texture caches have been merged in SMM.
- This increases the shared memory space available per SMM as compared to SMX
  - GM107 provides 64 KB shared memory per SMM
  - GM204 further increases this to 96 KB shared memory per SMM.
- Applications no longer need to select a preference of the L1/shared split.
  - the preference will be ignored on Maxwell and shared memory will always be 64 KB per SMM



## **Declaration of memory types**

- Variable decleration by <u>device</u>
  - Variable reside in global memory
  - Slow access while the latency and throughput have been improved with caches in newer devices
  - It will be a global variable visible to all threads of all kernels.
  - Can be used to make threads collaborate across blocks: Often used to pass information from one kernel invocation to another kernel invocation



## **Declaration of memory types**

- Variable decleration preceded by <u>shared</u>
  - Variable reside in shared memory
  - Scope is within a thread block all threads in a block see the same version of the shared variable
  - When kernel exits, the contents of its shared memory cease to exist
- Variable decleration preceded by \_\_constant\_\_
  - It must be declared outside any function body!
  - Scope is the whole grid all threads in a grid see the same version of the constant variable
  - Stored in the global memory but cached for efficient access
  - Total size is limited to 65536 bytes
- Both could be preceded with \_\_device\_\_, it will have the same effect.



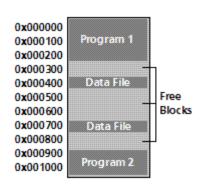
#### **Host-Device Data Transfers**

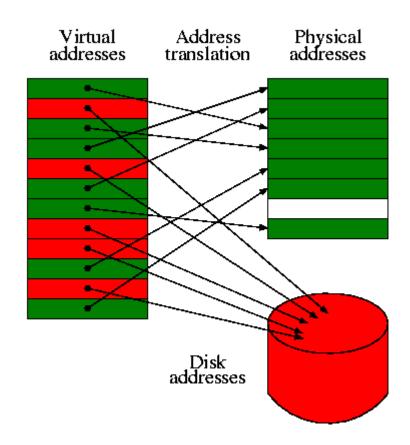


- Device to host memory bandwidth much lower than device to device bandwidth
  - 8 GB/s peak (PCI-e x16 Gen 2) (Device to Host)
  - 141 GB/s peak (GTX 280) (Device to Device)
- Minimize transfers
  - Intermediate data can be allocated, operated on, and deallocated without ever copying them to host memory
- Group transfers
  - One large transfer much better than many small ones



# **Virtual Memory and Paging**







#### Page-Locked Data Transfers

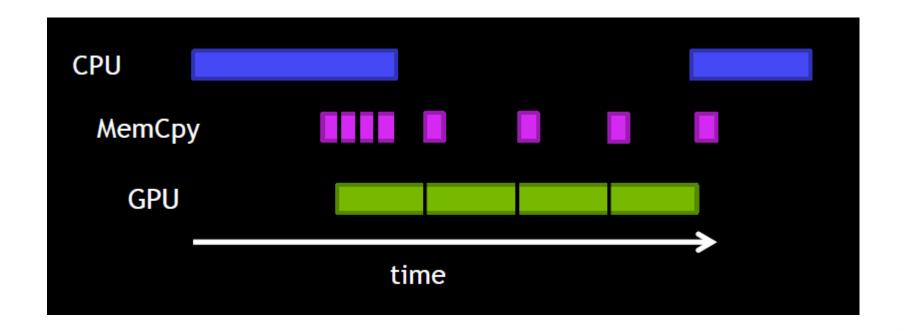


- cudaMallocHost() allows allocation of page-locked ("pinned") host memory
- Enables highest cudaMemcpy performance
  - 3.2 GB/s on PCI-e x16 Gen1
  - 5.2 GB/s on PCI-e x16 Gen2
- See the "bandwidthTest" CUDA SDK sample
- Use with caution!!
  - Allocating too much page-locked memory can reduce overall system performance
  - Test your systems and apps to learn their limits



# Overlapping Data Transfers and Computation







# Overlapping Data Transfers and Computation



- Async and Stream APIs allow overlap of H2D or D2H data transfers with computation
  - CPU computation can overlap data transfers on all CUDA capable devices
  - Kernel (GPU) computation can overlap data transfers on devices with "Concurrent copy and execution" (roughly compute capability >= 1.1)
- Stream = sequence of operations that execute in order on GPU
  - Operations from different streams can be interleaved
  - Stream ID used as argument to async calls and kernel launches



#### **Asynchronous Data Transfers**



- Asynchronous host-device memory copy returns control immediately to CPU
  - cudaMemcpyAsync(dst, src, size, dir, stream);
  - requires *pinned* host memory (allocated with "cudaMallocHost")
- Overlap CPU computation with data transfer
  - 0 = default stream



#### Overlapping kernel and data transfer



- "Concurrent copy and execute"
  - deviceOverlap field of a cudaDeviceProp variable
- Kernel and transfer use different, non-zero streams
  - A CUDA call to stream-0 blocks until all previous calls complete and cannot be overlapped

## Example:

```
cudaStream_t stream1, stream2;
cudaStreamCreate(&stream1);
cudaStreamCreate(&stream2);
cudaMemcpyAsync(dst, src, size, dir, stream1);
kernel<<<grid, block, 0, stream2>>>(...);
```



## Overlapping kernel and data transfer



- cudaHostAlloc(void\*\* pHost, size\_t size, int flags)
  (or use cudaMallocHost, it is effectively the same)
- cudaFree(void \* pHost)
  - deallocates pinned (page-locked) CPU memory
- cudaHostRegister(void\* pHost, size\_t size, int flags)
- cudaHostUnregister(void\* pHost)
  - pins/unpins previously allocated memory



## **GPU/CPU Synchronization**



- Context based
  - cudaDeviceSynchronize()
    - Blocks until all previously issued CUDA calls from a CPU thread complete
- Stream based
  - cudaStreamSynchronize(stream)
    - Blocks until all CUDA calls issued to given stream complete
  - cudaStreamQuery(stream)
    - Indicates whether stream is idle
    - Returns cudaSuccess, cudaErrorNotReady, ...
    - Does not block CPU thread

INSTITUTE

#### **GPU/CPU Synchronization**



- Stream based using events
  - Events can be inserted into streams:

cudaEventRecord(event, stream)

- Event is recorded when GPU reaches it in a stream
  - Recorded = assigned a timestamp (GPU clocktick)
  - Useful for timing
- cudaEventSynchronize(event)
  - Blocks until given event is recorded
- cudaEventQuery(event)
  - Indicates whether event has recorded
  - Returns cudaSuccess, cudaErrorNotReady, ...
  - Does not block CPU thread



## GTX 280 Specs

CUDA Cores	240
Graphics Clock (MHz)	602 MHz
Processor Clock (MHz)	1296 MHz
Texture Fill Rate (billion/sec)	48.2

Memory Type	DDR2
Memory Clock (MHz)	1107 MHz
<b>Standard Memory Config</b>	1 GB
Memory Interface Width	<b>512-bit</b>

Memory Bandwidth (GB/sec) 141.7

DDRx: Double Data Rate (x2 throughput), x: version (no direct effect on throughput)



#### **Theoretical Bandwidth**



Device Bandwidth of GTX 280

- Specs report 141 GB/s
  - Use 10<sup>9</sup> B/GB conversion rather than 1024<sup>3</sup>
  - Whichever you use, be consistent

Memory Type	DDR2
Memory Clock (MHz)	1107 MHz
Standard Memory Config	1 GB
Memory Interface Width	512-bit
Memory Bandwidth (GB/sec)	141.7





#### **Effective Bandwidth**

Effective Bandwidth (for copying array of N floats)

N \* 4 B/element / 1024<sup>3</sup> \* 2 / (time in secs) = GB/s

Array size
(bytes)

Read and
write

B/GB
(or 10<sup>9</sup>)



## Coalescing



Coalasce: to unite so as to form one mass (Dictionary.com)
-Bir araya gelmek, birleşmek-

- Global memory access of 32, 64, or 128-bit (4B, 8B, or 16B) words by a half-warp of threads can result in as few as one (or two) transaction(s) if certain access requirements are met
- Depends on compute capability
  - 1.0 and 1.1 have stricter access requirements
- Float (32-bit) data example:

32-byte segments

64-byte segments

128-byte segments

Global Memory



## Coalescing



#### Compute capability 1.0 and 1.1

K-th thread must access k-th word in the segment (or k-th word in 2 contiguous
 128B segments for 128-bit words), not all threads need to participate

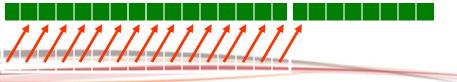
Coalesces – 1 transaction



Out of sequence – 16 transactions



Misaligned – 16 transactions





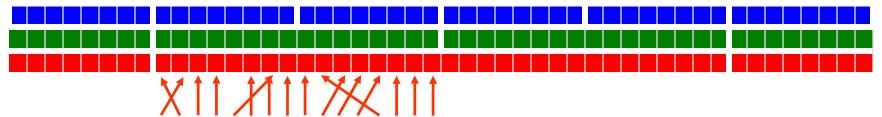
### Coalescing



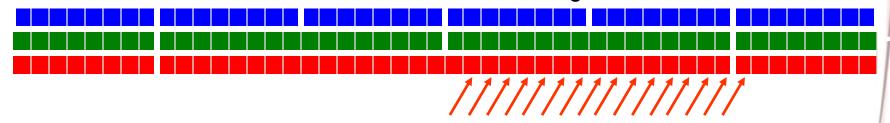
#### Compute capability 1.2 and higher

- Issues transactions for segments of 32B, 64B, and 128B
- Smaller transactions used to avoid wasted bandwidth

1 transaction - 64B segment



2 transactions - 64B and 32B segments



1 transaction - 128B segment



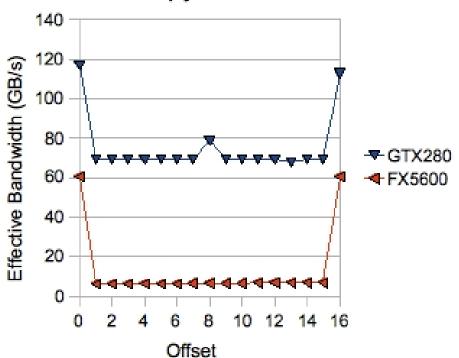


- Effective bandwidth of small kernels that copy data
  - Effects of offset and stride on performance
- Two GPUs
  - GTX 280
    - Compute capability 1.3
    - Peak bandwidth of 141 GB/s
  - FX 5600
    - Compute capability 1.0
    - Peak bandwidth of 77 GB/s





#### Copy with Offset

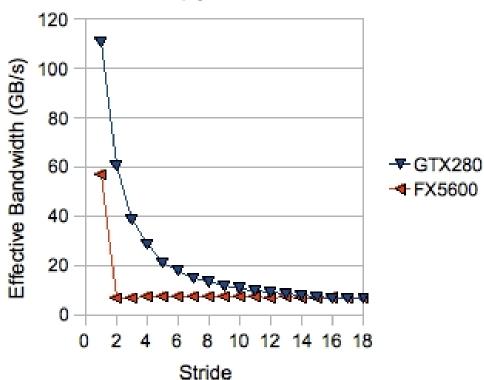






```
void strideCopy(float *odata, float *idata,
                         int stride)
int xid = (blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x)*stride;
odata[xid] = idata[xid]:
```

#### Copy with Stride





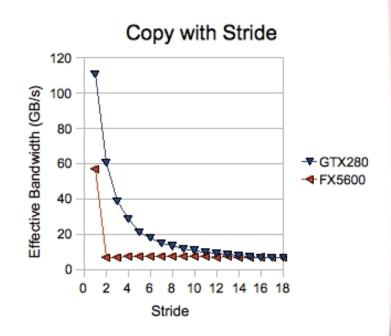


Strided memory access is inherent in many multidimensional problems

Stride is generally large (>> 18)



Strided access to global memory can be avoided by using shared memory





#### **Shared Memory**



- ~Hundred times faster than global memory
- Cache data to reduce global memory accesses
- Threads can cooperate via shared memory
- Use it to avoid non-coalesced access
  - Stage loads and stores in shared memory to re-order noncoalesceable addressing



#### **Shared Memory Architecture**



- Many threads accessing memory
  - Therefore, memory is divided into banks
  - Successive 32-bit words assigned to successive banks
- Each bank can service one address per cycle
  - A memory can service as many simultaneous accesses as it has banks
- Multiple simultaneous accesses to a bank result in a bank conflict
  - Conflicting accesses are serialized

Bank 0

Bank 1

Bank 2

Bank 3

Bank 4

Bank 5

Bank 6

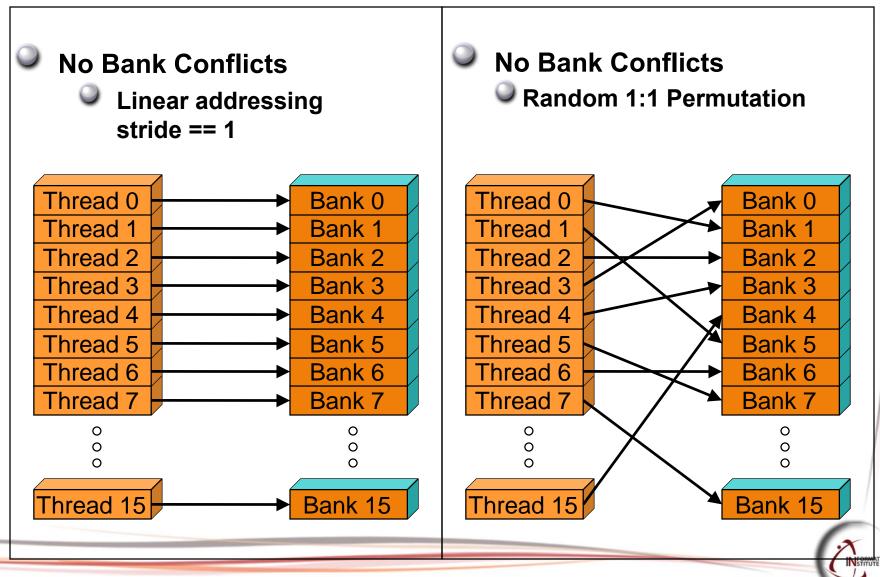
Bank 7

0

1. 45

#### **Bank Addressing Examples**





#### **Bank Addressing Examples**





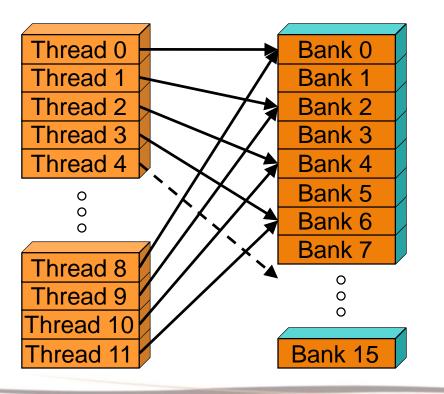
#### 2-way Bank Conflicts

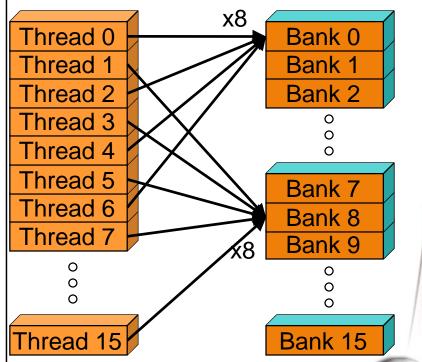
Linear addressing stride == 2

•

8-way Bank Conflicts

Linear addressing stride == 8





#### Shared memory bank conflicts



- Shared memory is ~ as fast as registers if there are no bank conflicts
- warp\_serialize profiler signal reflects conflicts
- The fast case:
  - If all threads of a half-warp access different banks, there is no bank conflict
  - If all threads of a half-warp read the identical address, there is no bank conflict (broadcast)
- The slow case:
  - Bank Conflict: multiple threads in the same half-warp access the same bank
  - Must serialize the accesses
  - Cost = max # of simultaneous accesses to a single bank



# Shared Memory Multi-cast Fermi and Newer Architectures

- Devices of compute capability 2.0 and higher have the additional ability to multicast shared memory accesses
- Multiple accesses to the same location by any number of threads within a warp are served simultaneously.



# **Shared Memory Bank Conflicts Fermi and Kepler Architectures**

- Shared memory has 32 banks
  - Successive 32-bit words are assigned to successive banks
- Bandwidth:
  - Fermi: Each bank 32-bits per two clock cycles
  - Kepler: Each bank 64-bits per clock cycle



# **Shared Memory Configuration Kepler Architecture**

- Has 32-bit and 64-bit modes
  - Changes the bank conflict behaviour accordingly
- Set shared memory configuration for a device function:

```
__host__ cudaError_t CUDARTAPI cudaFuncSetSharedMemConfig const char * func,
enum cudaSharedMemConfig config
```

- cudaSharedMemBankSizeFourByte shared memory bank width is four bytes (32-bit).
- cudaSharedMemBankSizeEightByte shared memory bank width is eight bytes (64-bit).



## **Shared Memory Configuration**

- Kepler SMX introduced an optional 8-byte shared memory banking mode, which had the potential to increase shared memory bandwidth per SM over Fermi for shared memory accesses of 8 or 16 bytes. However, applications could only benefit from this when storing these larger elements in shared memory (i.e., integers and fp32 values saw no benefit), and only when the developer explicitly opted into the 8-byte bank mode via the API.
- To simplify this, Maxwell returns to the Fermi style of shared memory banking, where banks are always four bytes wide.
   Aggregate shared memory bandwidth across the chip remains comparable to that of corresponding Kepler chips, given increased SM count.
- Read more at: <a href="http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/maxwell-tuning-guide/index.html#ixzz3GgCvZVnB">http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/maxwell-tuning-guide/index.html#ixzz3GgCvZVnB</a>

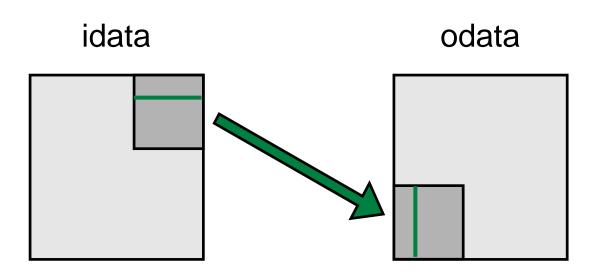


## **Shared Memory Example:**



#### **Transpose**

- Each thread block works on a tile of the matrix
- Naive implementation exhibits strided access to global memory



Elements transposed by a half-warp of threads



#### **Naïve Transpose**



Loads are coalesced, stores are not (strided by height)

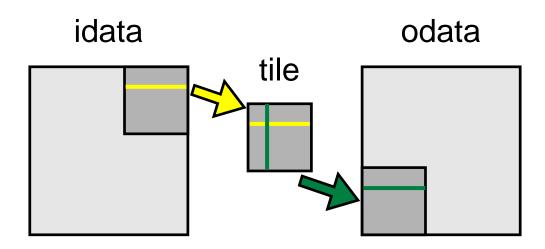
```
global void transposeNaive(float *odata, float *idata,
                             int width, int height)
int xIndex = blockIdx.x * TILE DIM + threadIdx.x;
int yIndex = blockIdx.y * TILE DIM + threadIdx.y;
int index in = xIndex + width * yIndex;
int index out = yIndex + height * xIndex;
odata[index out] = idata[index in];
              idata
                                  odata
```



### Coalescing through shared memory



- Access columns of a tile in shared memory to write contiguous data to global memory
- Requires \_\_syncthreads() since threads access data in shared memory stored by other threads



Elements transposed by a half-warp of threads



#### Coalescing through shared memory



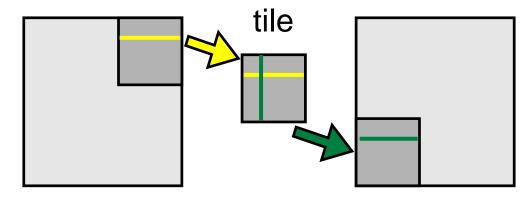
```
global void transposeCoalesced(float *odata, float *idata,
                                 int width, int height)
  shared float tile[TILE DIM][TILE DIM];
int xIndex = blockIdx.x * TILE DIM + threadIdx.x;
int yIndex = blockIdx.y * TILE DIM + threadIdx.y;
int index in = xIndex + (yIndex) *width;
xIndex = blockIdx.y * TILE DIM + threadIdx.x;
yIndex = blockIdx.x * TILE DIM + threadIdx.y;
int index out = xIndex + (yIndex)*height;
tile[threadIdx.y][threadIdx.x] = idata[index in];
 syncthreads();
odata[index out] = tile[threadIdx.x][threadIdx.y];
```



### **Bank Conflicts in Transpose**



- 16x16 shared memory tile of floats
  - Data in columns are in the same bank
  - 16-way bank conflict reading columns in tile
- Solution pad shared memory array
  - o \_\_shared\_\_ float
    tile[TILE\_DIM][TILE\_DIM+1];
  - Data in anti-diagonals are in same bank idata odata





#### **Effective Use of Memory and Optimization - II**

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Zero Copy is a way to map host memory and access it directly over PCIe without doing an explicit memory transfer. It allows CUDA kernels to directly access host memory.

Instead of reading data from global memory (limit ~200GB/s), data would be read over PCIe and be limited by PCIe bandwidth (upto 16GB/s). Hence there was no real performance advantage for most applications.



- However, this could be advantageous with integrated devices and devices like Jetson TK1/TX1/TX2.
- The Jetson boards have physical memory (8GB in TX2) that is shared by the ARM CPU and the CUDA GPU.
- If a cudaMemcpy Host->Device is done on the Jetson, the memory is simply being copied to a new location on the same physical memory and retrieving a CUDA pointer from it.





Zero copy will always be a win for integrated devices that utilize CPU memory, you can check this:

integrated cudaDeviceProp

- Potentially easier and faster alternative to using cudaMemcpyAsync
  - For example, can both read and write CPU memory from within one kernel
- Note that most devices use pointers that are 32-bit so there is a limit of 4GB per context
- But we now have Unified Memory feature as well!



- Check canMapHostMemory field of cudaDeviceProp variable
- See the example simpleZeroCopy in SDK

```
cudaSetDeviceFlags(cudaDeviceMapHost);
...
cudaHostAlloc((void **)&a_h, nBytes,cudaHostAllocMapped);
cudaHostGetDevicePointer((void **)&a_d, (void *)a_h, 0);
for (i=0; i<N; i++) a_h[i] = i;
increment<<<grid, block>>>(a d, N)
```



### **Constant Memory**



- Available since compute capability 1.0.
- Data in constant memory:
  - Resides in a 64KB partition of device memory
  - Is accessed through an 8KB cache on each SM(X)
  - Is intended to be broadcast to all threads in a warp



### **Constant Memory**



- If all the threads in the warp request the same value, that value is delivered to all threads in a single cycle.
- If the threads in a warp request N different values, the request is serialized and the N values are delivered one at a time over N clock cycles.
- Make sure that your indexes into constant memory arrays are not functions of threadIdx.x.



## **Read Only Cache**



- The read-only data cache was introduced with Compute Capability 3.5 architectures (e.g. Tesla K20c/K20X and GeForce GTX Titan/780 GPUs).
- Similar functionality has been available since Compute Capability 1.0 devices - although you needed to use the textures to take advantage of it.



# **Read Only Cache**



- Each SMX has a 48KB read-only cache.
- The CUDA compiler automatically accesses data via the readonly cache when it can determine that data is read-only for the lifetime of your kernel.
- In practice, you need to qualify pointers as const and \_\_restrict\_\_ before the compiler can satisfy this condition.
- You can also specify a read-only data cache access with the \_\_\_ldg() intrinsic function.



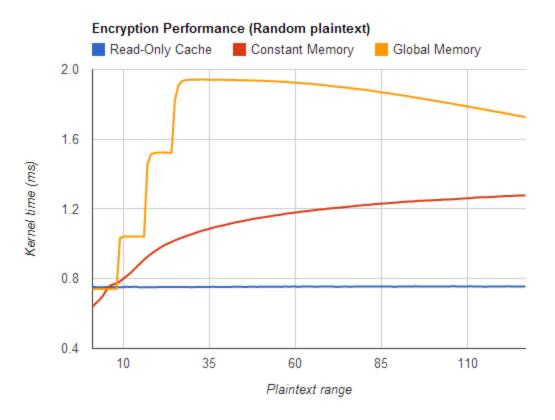
http://acceleware.com/blog/constant-cache-vs-read-only-cache-part-2?source=cuda-newsletter-1013

```
global void SubstitutionEncrypt ReadOnlyCache(const int * restrict
plaintext, const int * restrict substTable,
               int * restrict ciphertext)
   const int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
   ciphertext[index] = ldg(&substTable[plaintext[index]]);
 global void SubstitutionEncrypt ConstantMemory(const int * restrict
plaintext, int * restrict ciphertext)
   const int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
   ciphertext[index] = substTable c[plaintext[index]];
 global void SubstitutionEncrypt GlobalMemory(int * plaintext, int *
substTable, int * ciphertext)
   const int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
   ciphertext[index] = substTable[plaintext[index]];
```



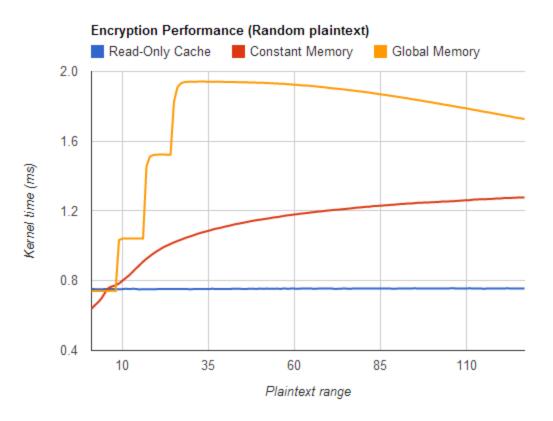
- It is important to note that the memory access pattern to the substitution table is data-dependent. By varying the range of 'letters' [M] in the plaintext, we can examine differences in performance between the three memory spaces.
- The kernels were compiled for Compute Capability 3.5, using the CUDA 5.5 compiler.
- Results were collected on a Tesla K20c GPU.
- The average of 5 iterations (ignoring initial CUDA module load time) for various plaintext ranges (M = 1 to 16384) on a plaintext of length 10 240 000 are recorded.





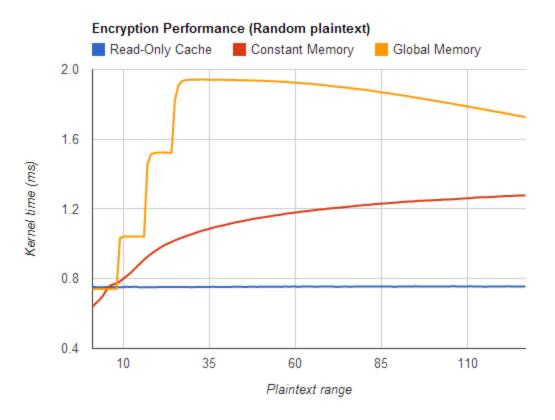
•For M = 1, all threads read the same value from memory, and the broadcast mechanism on the constant memory outperforms both the read-only cache and global memory.





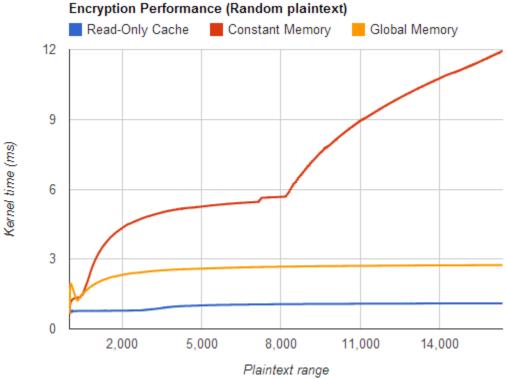
•Constant memory performs faster than both the read-only cache and global memory up to M = 5 inclusively, after which the serialized access to the constant memory elements hinders performance.





•The important piece of information to take away from this is that constant memory should still considered an option even if the memory access pattern is not a pure broadcast -as long as the access is limited to a small range of addresses-.





- •For sequential plaintext, larger values of M exhibit a repetitive pattern that repeats every multiple of 128, however kernel times remain stable, averaging at about 3.5 ms.
- •For randomized plaintext, larger values of M show a dramatic performance decrease compared to the sequential input, and kernel times continue to increase as M increases.



#### **Textures in CUDA**



- Texture is an object for *reading* data
- Benefits:
  - Data is cached
    - Helpful when coalescing is a problem
  - Filtering
    - Linear / bilinear / trilinear interpolation
    - Dedicated hardware
  - Wrap modes (for "out-of-bounds" addresses)
    - Clamp to edge / repeat
  - Addressable in 1D, 2D, or 3D
    - Using integer or normalized coordinates



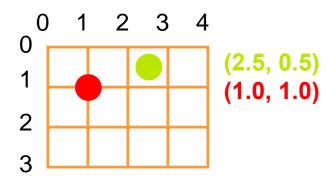
#### **Textures in CUDA**

- On devices of compute capability 1.x, some kernels can achieve a speedup when using (cached) texture fetches rather than regular global memory loads (e.g., when the regular loads do not coalesce well). Unless texture fetches provide other benefits such as address calculations or texture filtering
- This optimization can be counterproductive on devices of compute capability 2.x, however, since global memory loads are cached in L1 and the L1 cache has higher bandwidth than the texture cache



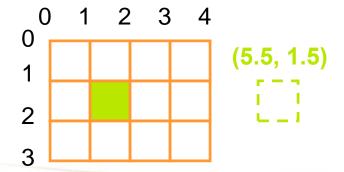
#### **Texture Addressing**





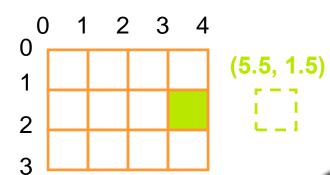
#### Wrap

Out-of-bounds coordinate is wrapped (modulo arithmetic)



#### Clamp

Out-of-bounds coordinate is replaced with the closest boundary



#### **CUDA Texture Types**



- Bound to linear memory
  - Global memory address is bound to a texture
  - Only 1D
  - Integer addressing
  - No filtering, no addressing modes
- Bound to CUDA arrays
  - Block linear CUDA array is bound to a texture
  - 1D, 2D, or 3D
  - Float addressing (size-based or normalized)
  - Filtering
  - Addressing modes (clamping, repeat)
- Bound to pitch linear (CUDA 2.2)
  - Global memory address is bound to a texture
  - 2D
  - Float/integer addressing, filtering, and clamp/repeat addressing modes similar to CUDA arrays



#### **CUDA Texturing Steps**



- Host (CPU) code:
  - Allocate/obtain memory
    - global linear/pitch linear, or CUDA array
  - Create a texture reference object
    - Currently must be at file-scope
  - Bind the texture reference to memory/array
  - When done:
    - Unbind the texture reference, free resources
- Device (kernel) code:
  - Fetch using texture reference
  - Linear memory textures: tex1Dfetch()
  - Array textures: tex1D() or tex2D() or tex3D()
  - Pitch linear textures: tex2D()

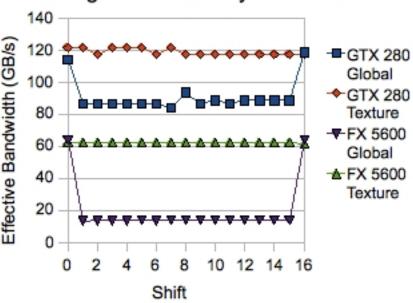


#### **Texture Example**



```
global void
shiftCopy(float *odata,
           float *idata,
           int shift)
                                              140
                                           Effective Bandwidth (GB/s)
  int xid = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x
                                              120
           + threadIdx.x;
                                              100
  odata[xid] = idata[xid+shift];
                                              80
                                              40
texture <float> texRef;
                                              20
  global void
textureShiftCopy(float *odata,
                   float *idata,
                   int shift)
  int xid = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x
           + threadIdx.x;
  odata[xid] = tex1Dfetch(texRef, xid+shift);
```

# Copy with Shift Using Global Memory and Textures





# An Example from SDK (main)

```
// #includes etc omitted
// declare texture at file scope
texture<float, 2, cudaReadModeElementType> mytex;
#include <simpleTexture kernel.cu>
int main( int argc, char *argv[])
// code to read image and set size, width, height & angle ommitted
// allocate CudaArray
cudaChannelFormatDesc channelDesc =
cudaCreateChannelDesc(32, 0, 0, 0, cudaChannelFormatKindFloat);
cudaArray* cu array;
cudaMallocArray( &cu array, &channelDesc, width, height );
```



## An Example from SDK (main)

```
// copy image to device array cu_array – used as texture mytex on device
cudaMemcpyToArray( cu array, 0, 0, h data, size,
  cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);
// set texture parameters
mytex.addressMode[0] = cudaAddressModeWrap;
mytex.addressMode[1] = cudaAddressModeWrap;
mytex.filterMode = cudaFilterModeLinear;
mytex.normalized = true; //NB coordinates in [0,1]
// Bind the array to the texture
cudaBindTextureToArray( mytex, cu array, channelDesc);
// allocate device memory for result
float* d data = NULL;
cudaMalloc( (void**) &d data, size);
```



# An Example from SDK (main)

```
// Invoke kernel
dim3 dimBlock(8, 8, 1);
dim3 dimGrid(width / dimBlock.x, height / dimBlock.y, 1);
transformKernel<<< dimGrid, dimBlock, 0 >>>( d data, width, height,
  angle);
// copy result from device to host
cudaMemcpy( h data, d data, size, cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost);
// free memory & exit
cudaFree(d_data);
cudaFreeArray(cu_array);
return 0;
} // end main
```

# An Example from SDK (kernel)

```
transformKernel( float* g_odata, int width, int height, float theta)
// calculate normalized texture coordinates
unsigned int x = blockldx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
unsigned int y = blockIdx.y*blockDim.y + threadIdx.y;
float u = x / (float) width;
float v = y / (float) height;
// transform coordinates – rotate about centre of image
u = 0.5f;
v = 0.5f:
float tu = u*cosf(theta) - v*sinf(theta) + 0.5f;
float tv = v*cosf(theta) + u*sinf(theta) + 0.5f;
// read from texture and write to global memory
g odata[y*width + x] = tex2D( mytex, tu, tv);
```



#### **Summary**



- GPU hardware can achieve great performance on data-parallel computations if you follow a few simple guidelines:
  - Use parallelism efficiently
  - Coalesce memory accesses if possible
  - Take advantage of shared memory
  - Explore other memory spaces
    - Texture
    - Constant
  - Reduce bank conflicts

