

CS 179: GPU Programming

LECTURE 4: GPU MEMORY SYSTEMS

Last time

- Thread block organization: a grid of blocks of threads
- Streaming multiprocessor (SM): CUDA cores and cache
 - A block is assigned to and executed on a single SM
- Warp: A group of up to 32 threads within a block
 - Threads in a single warp can only run 1 set of instructions at once
 - Performing different tasks can cause warp divergence and affect performance

This time

- Latency and Throughput
- GPU Memory Systems

Latency & Throughput

Latency is the delay caused by the physical speed of the hardware

Throughput is the maximum rate of production/processing

CPU = low latency, low throughput

- CPU clock = 3 GHz (3 clocks/ns)
- CPU main memory latency: ~100+ ns
- CPU arithmetic instruction latency: ~1+ ns

GPU = high latency, high throughput

- GPU clock = 1 GHz (1 clock/ns)
- GPU main memory latency: ~300+ ns
- GPU arithmetic instruction latency: ~10+ ns

Above numbers were for Kepler GPUs (e.g. GTX 700 series)

For Fermi, latencies tend to be double that of Kepler GPUs

Compute & IO Throughput

GeForce GTX Titan Black (GK110 based)

Compute throughput	5 TFLOPS (single precision)
Global memory bandwidth	336 GB/s (84 Gfloat/s)

- GPU is very IO limited! IO is very often the throughput bottleneck, so its important to be smart about IO.
- If you want to get beyond ~900 GFLOPS, need to do multiple FLOPs per shared memory load.

Cache

A **cache** is a chunk of memory that sits in between a larger pool of memory and the processor

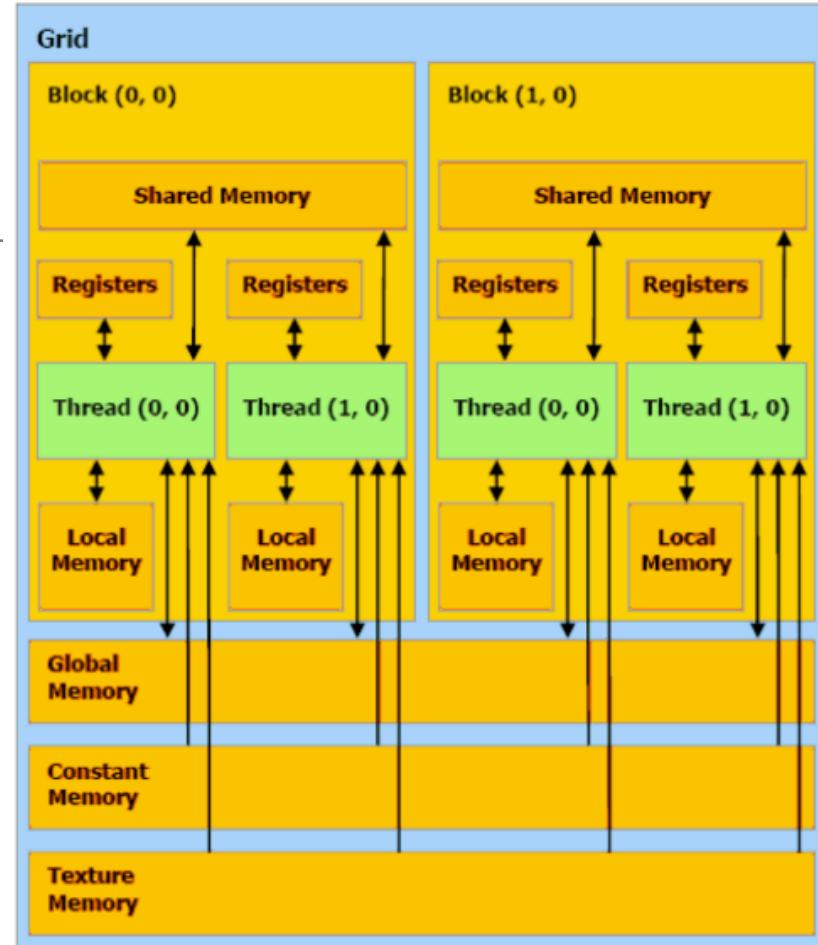
- Often times implemented at hardware level
- Has much faster access speed than the larger pool of memory

When memory is requested, extra memory near the requested memory is read into a cache

- Amount read is cache and memory pool specific
 - Regions of memory that will always be cached together are called **cache lines**
- This makes future accesses likely to be found in the cache
 - Such accesses are called **cache hits** and allow much faster access
 - If an access is not found in the cache, it's called a **cache miss** (and there is obviously no performance gain)

GPU Memory Breakdown

- Registers
- Local memory
- Global memory
- Shared memory
- L1/L2/L3 cache
- Constant memory
- Texture memory
- Read-only cache (CC 3.5+)



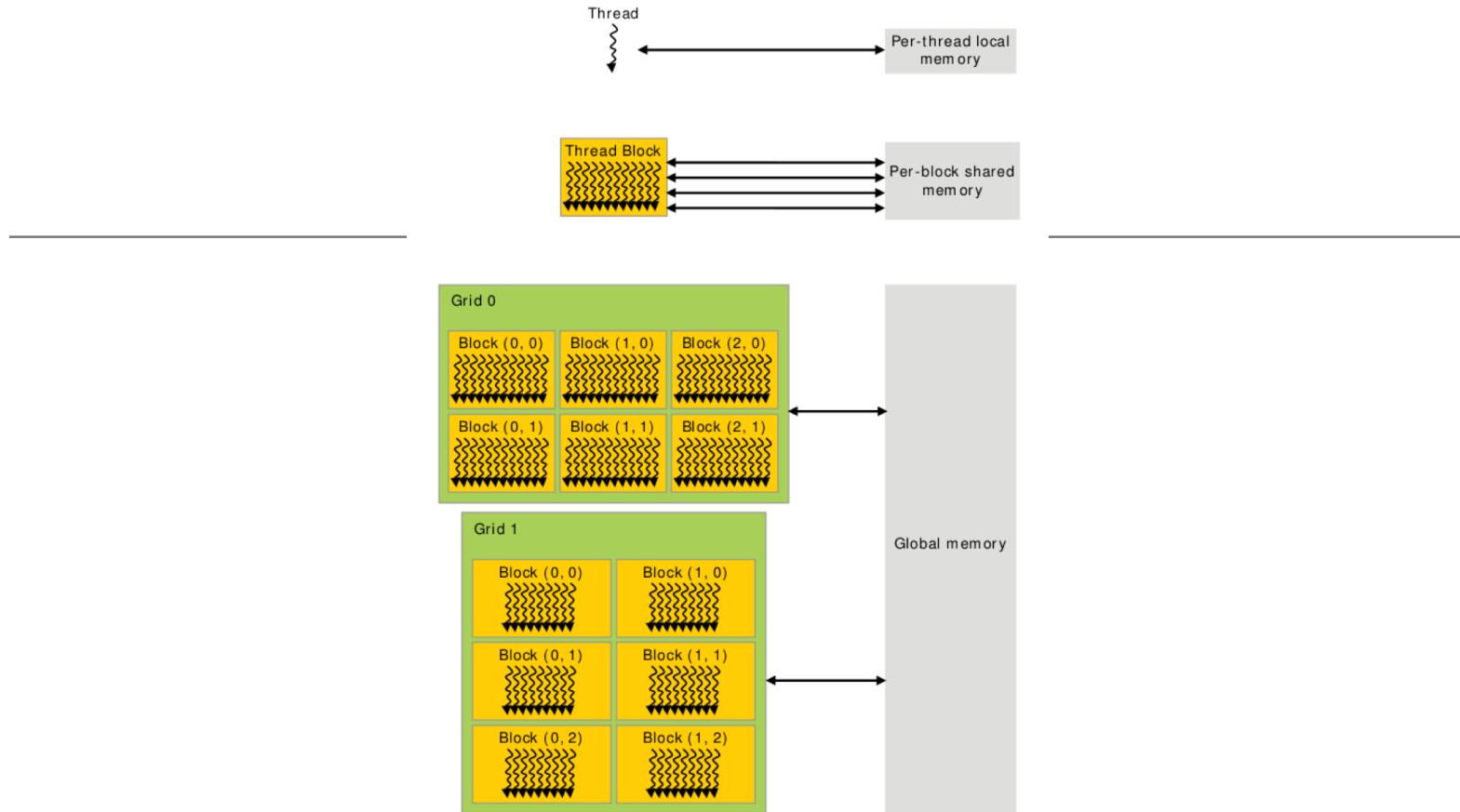
Part 1

Registers: The fastest form of memory on the multi-processor. Is only accessible by the thread. Has the lifetime of the thread.

Local memory: Resides in global memory and can be 150x slower than register or shared memory. Is only accessible by the thread. Has the lifetime of the thread.

Shared Memory: Can be as fast as a register when there are no bank conflicts or when reading from the same address. Accessible by any thread of the block from which it was created. Has the lifetime of the block.

Global memory: Potentially 150x slower than register or shared memory -- watch out for uncoalesced reads and writes. Accessible from either the host or device. Has the lifetime of the application—that is, it persistent between kernel launches.



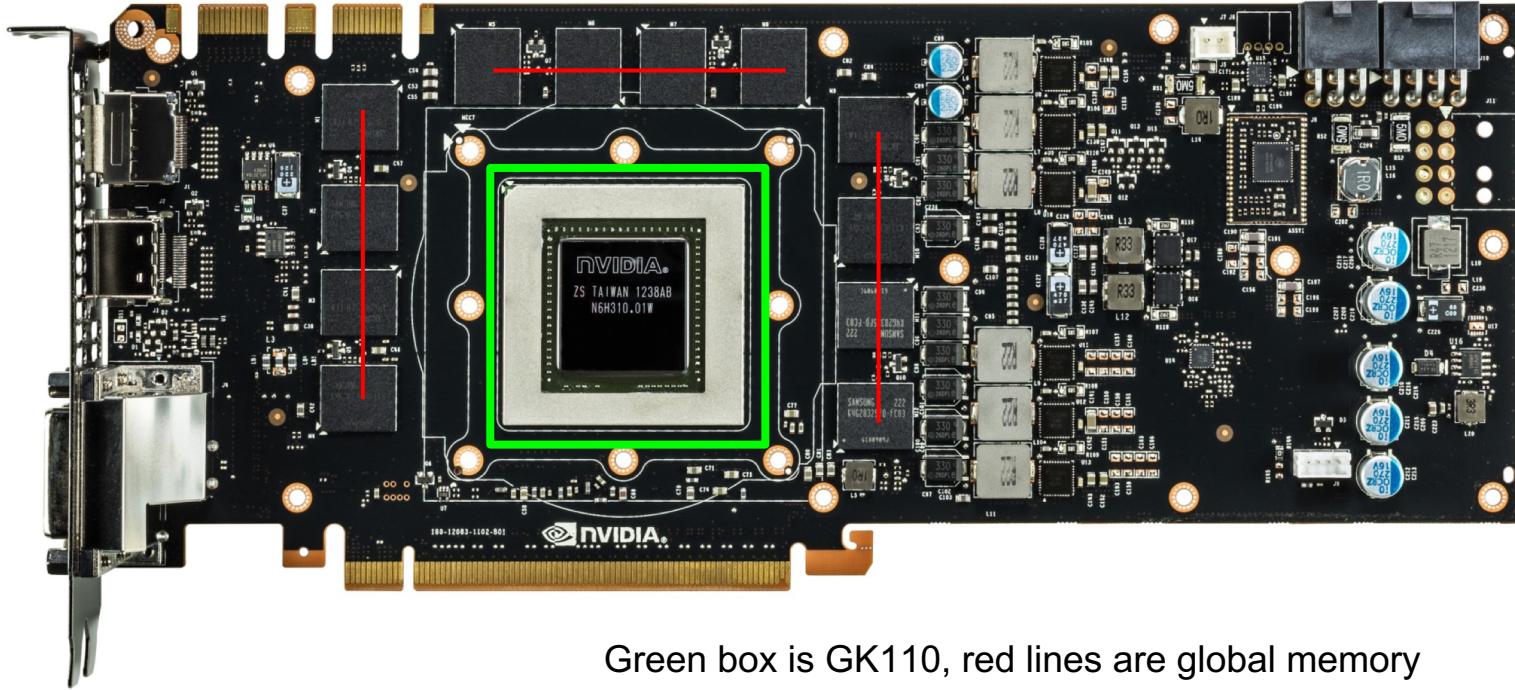
Memory Scope

Global Memory

Global memory is separate hardware from the GPU core (containing SM's, caches, etc).

- The vast majority of memory on a GPU is global memory
- If data doesn't fit into global memory, you are going to have process it in chunks that do fit in global memory.
- GPUs have .5 - 24GB of global memory, with most now having ~2GB.

Global memory latency is ~300ns on Kepler and ~600ns on Fermi



Green box is GK110, red lines are global memory

Nvidia GeForce GTX 780

Accessing global memory efficiently

Global memory IO is the slowest form of IO on GPU

- except for accessing host memory (duh...)

Because of this, we want to access global memory as little as possible

Access patterns that play nicely with GPU hardware are called **coalesced memory accesses**.

Memory Coalescing

Memory accesses are done in large groups setup as **Memory Transactions**

- Done per warp
- Fully utilizes the way IO is setup at the hardware level

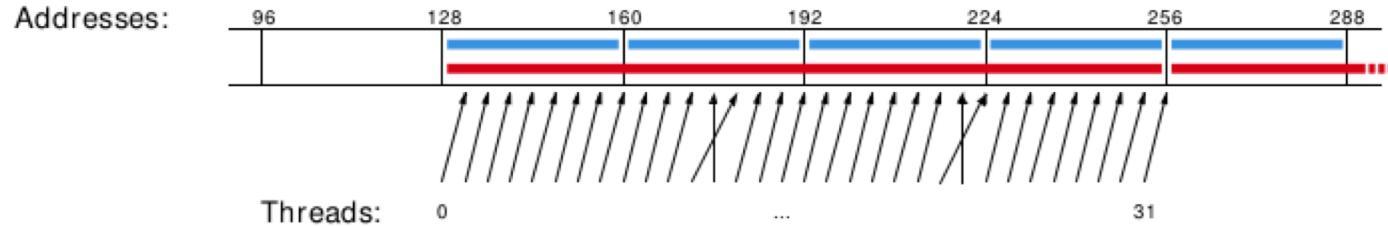
Coalesced memory accesses minimize the number of cache lines read in through these memory transactions

- GPU cache lines are 128 bytes and are aligned

Memory coalescing is much more complicated in reality

- See Ch 5 of the textbook for more detail if you're interested but it's not required (will be emailed out to the class late tonight.)

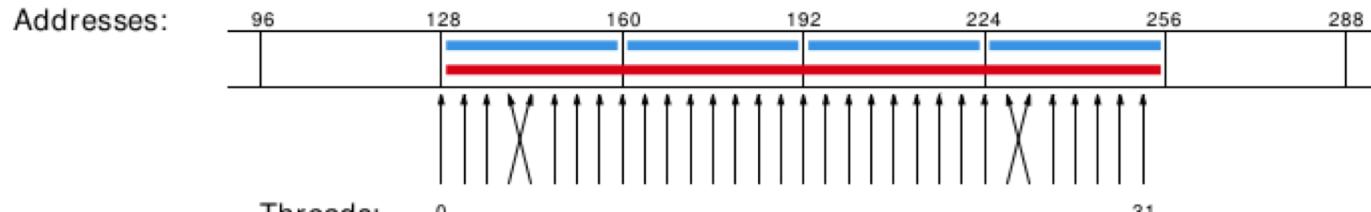
Mis-aligned accesses (sequential/ non- sequential)



Compute capability:	2.x, 3.x, 5.x	
	Uncached	Cached
	1x 32B at 128	1x 128B at 128
	1x 32B at 160	1x 128B at 256
	1x 32B at 192	
	1x 32B at 224	
	1x 32B at 256	

Misalignment can cause non-coalesced access

Aligned accesses (sequential/ non- sequential)



Compute capability:	2.x, 3.x, 5.x	
Memory transactions:	Uncached	Cached
	1x 32B at 128 1x 32B at 160 1x 32B at 192 1x 32B at 224	1x 128B at 128

A coalesced access!

Shared Memory

- Very fast memory located in the SM
- Same hardware as L1 cache (will discuss later)
 - ~5ns of latency
- Maximum size of ~48KB (varies per GPU)
- Scope of shared memory is the block

Remember

SM = streaming multiprocessor

SM \neq shared memory

Shared memory syntax

Can allocate shared memory statically (size known at compile time) or dynamically (size not known until runtime)

Static allocation syntax:

- `__shared__ float data[1024];`
- Declared in the kernel, nothing in host code

Dynamic allocation syntax

- Host:
 - `kernel<<<grid_dim, block_dim, numBytesShMem>>>(args);`
- Device (in kernel):
 - `extern __shared__ float s[];`
- For multiple dynamically sized variables, see [this blog post](#)
 - Little bit more complicated and there are easy alternatives

A shared memory application

Task: Compute byte frequency counts

Input: array of bytes of length n

Output: 256 element array of integers containing number of occurrences of each byte

Naive: build output in global memory, n global stores

Smart: build output in shared memory, copy to global memory at end, 256 global stores

Computational Intensity

Computational intensity is a representation of how many operations must be done on a single data point (FLOPs / IO)

- Vaguely similar to the big O notation in concept and usage
- e.X.
 - Matrix multiplication: $n^3 / n^2 = n$
 - n-body simulation: $n^2 / n = n$

If computational intensity is > 1 , then same data used in more than 1 computation

- Do as few global loads and as many shared loads as possible

A common pattern in kernels

- (1) copy from global memory to shared memory
- (2) `__syncthreads()`
- (3) perform computation, incrementally storing output in shared memory, `__syncthreads()` as necessary
- (4) copy output from shared memory to output array in global memory

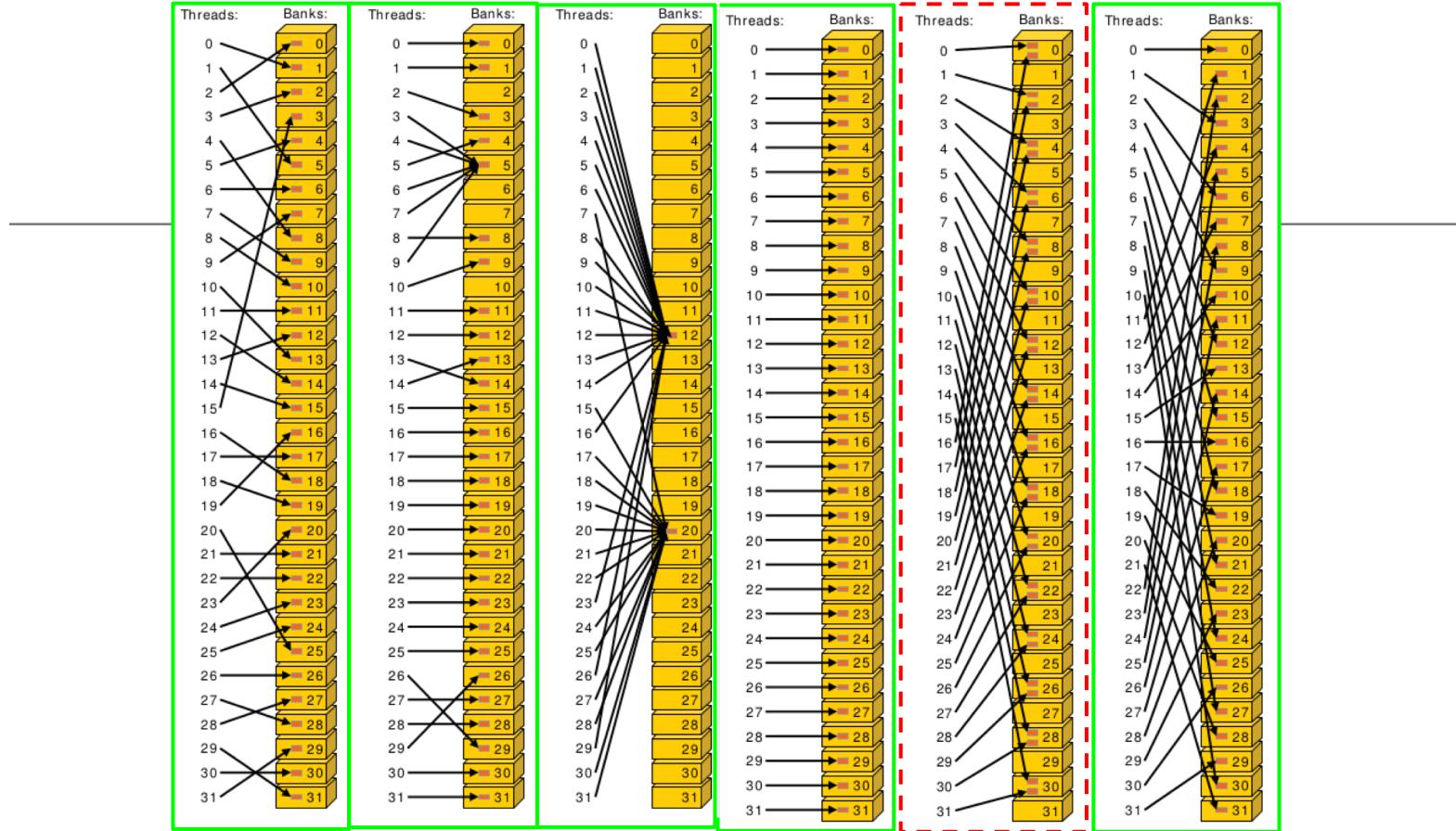
Bank Conflicts

Shared memory is setup as **32 banks**

- If you divide the shared memory into 4 byte-long elements, element i lies in bank $i \% 32$.

A **bank conflict** occurs when 2 threads in a warp access different elements in the same bank.

- Bank conflicts cause serial memory accesses rather than parallel
 - Serial *anything* in GPU programming = bad for performance



Bank conflict examples

Bank conflicts and strides

Stride is the distance from thread i access to thread $i + 1$ access

Stride 1 \Rightarrow 32 x 1-way “bank conflicts” (so conflict-free)

Stride 2 \Rightarrow 16 x 2-way bank conflicts

Stride 3 \Rightarrow 32 x 1-way “bank conflicts” (so conflict-free)

Stride 4 \Rightarrow 8 x 4-way bank conflicts

...

Stride 32 \Rightarrow 1 x 32-way bank conflict :(

Padding to avoid bank conflicts

To fix the stride 32 case, we'll waste a byte on padding and make the stride 33 :)

Don't store any data in slots 32, 65, 98,

Now we have

thread 0 \Rightarrow index 0 (bank 0)

thread 1 \Rightarrow index 33 (bank 1)

thread $i \Rightarrow$ index $33 * i$ (bank i)

Registers

A **Register** is a piece of memory used directly by the processor

- Fastest “memory” possible, about 10x faster than shared memory
- There are tens of thousands of registers in each SM
 - Generally works out to a maximum of 32 or 64 32-bit registers per thread

Most stack variables declared in kernels are stored in registers

- example: `float x; (duh...)`

Statically indexed arrays stored on the stack are sometimes put in registers

Local Memory

Local memory is everything on the stack that can't fit in registers

The scope of local memory is just the thread.

Local memory is stored in global memory

- much slower than registers

Register spilling example

When we have enough registers, this code does 4 loads from local memory and 0 stores.

Now assume we only have 3 free registers before any of this code is executed (but don't worry about z_0 and z_1)

$$x_0 = x[0];$$
$$y_0 = y[0];$$
$$x_1 = x[1];$$
$$y_1 = y[1];$$
$$z_0 = x_0 + y_0;$$
$$z_1 = x_1 + y_1;$$

Register spilling example

starting with only 3
free registers...

$x_0 = x[0];$

$y_0 = y[0];$

cannot load $y[1]$ until we
free a register. store x_1 to
make space.

$x_1 = x[1];$

$y_1 = y[1];$

Now we need to load x_1
again.

$z_0 = x_0 + y_0;$

$z_1 = x_1 + y_1;$

Register spilling cost:
1 extra load
1 extra store
2 extra pairs of consecutive
dependent instructions

Questions?

- Global memory
- Local memory
- Shared memory
- Registers

Part 2

- L1/L2/L3 cache
- Constant memory
- Texture memory
- read-only cache (CC 3.5)

L1 Cache

- Fermi - caches local & global memory
- Kepler, Maxwell - only caches local memory
- same hardware as shared memory
- Nvidia used to allow a configurable size (16, 32, 48KB), but dropped that in recent generations
- each SM has its own L1 cache

L2 cache

- caches all global & local memory accesses
- ~1MB in size
- shared by all SM's

L3 Cache

- Another level of cache above L2 cache
- Slightly slower (increased latency) than L2 cache but also larger.

Constant Memory

Constant memory is global memory with a special cache

- Used for constants that cannot be compiled into program
- Constants must be set from host before running kernel.

~64KB for user, ~64KB for compiler

- kernel arguments are passed through constant memory

Constant Cache

8KB cache on each SM specially designed to broadcast a single memory address to all threads in a warp (called static indexing)

- Can also load any statically indexed data through constant cache using “load uniform” (LDU) instruction
- Go to http://www.nvidia.com/object/sc10_cuda_tutorial.html for more details

Constant memory syntax

In global scope (outside of kernel, at top level of program):

```
__constant__ int foo[1024];
```

In host code:

```
cudaMemcpyToSymbol(foo, h_src, sizeof(int) * 1024);
```

Texture Memory

Complicated and only marginally useful for general purpose computation

Useful characteristics:

- 2D or 3D data locality for caching purposes through “CUDA arrays”. Goes into special texture cache.
- fast interpolation on 1D, 2D, or 3D array
- converting integers to “unitized” floating point numbers

Use cases:

- (1) Read input data through texture cache and CUDA array to take advantage of spatial caching. This is the most common use case.
- (2) Take advantage of numerical texture capabilities.
- (3) Interaction with OpenGL and general computer graphics

Texture Memory

And that's all we're going to say on texture memory.

It's a complex topic, you can learn everything you want to know about it from the textbook

Read-Only Cache (CC 3.5+)

Many CUDA programs don't use textures, but we should take advantage of the texture cache hardware.

CC ≥ 3.5 makes it much easier to use texture cache.

- Many `const restrict` variables will automatically load through texture cache (also called read-only cache).
- Can also force loading through cache with `__ldg` intrinsic function

Differs from constant memory because doesn't require static indexing

Questions?

- Registers
- Global memory
- Local memory
- Shared memory
- L1/L2/L3 cache
- Constant memory
- Texture memory
- Read-only cache (CC 3.5)

Next time....

Next lecture will be the last lecture focused on basic GPU knowledge

Few more optimization techniques

Synchronization

Will discuss GPU specific algorithms starting next week