

Introduction to CUDA Programming

Lecture 5: tackling a new application

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Initial planning

1) Has it been done before?

- check CUDA SDK examples
- check CUDA user forums
- check gpucomputing.net
- check with Google

Initial planning

2) Where is the parallelism?

- **efficient CUDA execution needs thousands of threads**
- **usually obvious, but if not**
 - go back to 1)
 - talk to an expert – they love a challenge
 - go for a long walk
- **may need to re-consider the mathematical algorithm being used, and instead use one which is more naturally parallel – but this should be a last resort**

Initial planning

Sometimes you need to think about “the bigger picture”

Already considered 3D finite difference example:

- lots of grid nodes so lots of inherent parallelism
- even for ADI method, a grid of 128^3 has 128^2 tri-diagonal solutions to be performed in parallel so OK to assign each one to a single thread
- but what if we have a 2D or even 1D problem to solve?

Initial planning

If we only have one such problem to solve, why use a GPU?

But in practice, often have many such problems to solve:

- **different initial data**
- **different model constants**

This adds to the available parallelism

Initial planning

2D:

- **48KB of shared memory == 12K float so grid of 64^2 could be held within shared memory**
 - one kernel for entire calculation
 - each block handles a separate 2D problem; almost certainly just one block per SM
- **for bigger 2D problems, would need to split each one across more than one block**
 - separate kernel for each timestep / iteration

Initial planning

1D:

- can certainly hold entire 1D problem within shared memory of one SM
- maybe best to use a separate block for each 1D problem, and have multiple blocks executing concurrently on each SM
- but for implicit time-marching need to solve single tri-diagonal system in parallel – how?

Initial planning

Parallel Cyclic Reduction (PCR): starting from

$$a_n x_{n-1} + x_n + c_n x_{n+1} = d_n, n = 0, \dots, N-1$$

with $a_m = 0$ for $m < 0, m \geq N$, subtract a_n times row $n-1$, and c_n times row $n+1$ and re-normalise to get

$$a_n^* x_{n-2} + x_n + c_n^* x_{n+2} = d_n^*$$

Repeating this $\log_2 N$ times gives the value for x_n (since $x_n - N = 0, x_n + N = 0$) and each step can be done in parallel. (Practical 7 implements it using shared memory, but if $N \leq 32$ so it fits in a single warp then on Kepler hardware it can be implemented using shuffles.)

Initial planning

3) Break the algorithm down into its constituent pieces

- each will probably lead to its own kernels
- do your pieces relate to the 7 dwarfs?
- re-check literature for each piece – sometimes the same algorithm component may appear in widely different applications
- check whether there are existing libraries which may be helpful

Initial planning

4) Is there a problem with warp divergence?

- GPU efficiency can be completely undermined if there are lots of divergent branches
- may need to implement carefully – lecture 3 example:
- processing a long list of elements where, depending on run-time values, a few involve expensive computation:
 - first process list to build two sub-lists of “simple” and “expensive” elements
 - then process two sub-lists separately
- . . . or again seek expert help

Initial planning

5) Is there a problem with host \leftrightarrow device bandwidth?

- usually best to move whole application onto GPU, so not limited by PCIe bandwidth (5GB/s)
- occasionally, OK to keep main application on the host and just off-load compute-intensive bits
- dense linear algebra is a good off-load example; data is $O(N^2)$ but compute is $O(N^3)$ so fine if N is large enough

Heart modelling

Heart modelling is another interesting example:

- keep PDE modelling (physiology, electrical field) on the CPU
- do computationally-intensive cellular chemistry on GPU (naturally parallel)
- minimal data interchange each timestep

Initial planning

6) is the application compute-intensive or data-intensive?

- **break-even point is roughly 20 operations (FP and integer) for each 32-bit device memory access (assuming full cache line utilisation)**
- **good to do a back-of-the-envelope estimate early on before coding \Rightarrow changes approach to implementation**

Initial planning

If compute-intensive:

- **don't worry (too much) about cache efficiency**
- **minimise integer index operations – surprisingly costly**
- **if using double precision, think whether it's needed**

If data-intensive:

- **ensure efficient cache use – may require extra coding**
- **may be better to re-compute some quantities rather than fetching them from device memory**

Initial planning

Need to think about how data will be used by threads, and therefore where it should be held:

- **registers (private data)**
- **shared memory (for shared access)**
- **device memory (for big arrays)**
- **constant arrays (for global constants)**
- **“local” arrays (efficiently cached)**

Initial planning

With complex applications, I increasingly worry about “register pressure”, i.e. coping with a maximum of 63 registers per thread (255 registers on K20/K40):

- split big kernels into two – may increase bandwidth requirements but probably reduces register count
- (Example: in Monte Carlo simulations, pre-compute random numbers or do them on-the-fly?)
- if any variables have same value for all threads, put them into shared memory, set by thread 0
- sometimes hard to predict what will work best, may need to experiment later

Initial planning

If you think you may need to use “exotic” features like atomic locks:

- look for SDK examples
- write some trivial little test problems of your own
- check you really understand how they work

Never use a new feature for the first time on a real problem!

Initial planning

Read NVIDIA documentation on performance optimization:

- **section 5 of CUDA Programming Guide**
- **CUDA C Best Practices Guide**
- **Kepler Tuning Guide**
- **Maxwell Tuning Guide**

Programming and debugging

Many of my comments here apply to all scientific computing

Though not specific to GPU computing, they are perhaps particularly important for GPU / parallel computing because

debugging can be hard!

Above all, you don't want to be sitting in front of a 50,000 line code, producing lots of wrong results (very quickly!) with no clue where to look for the problem

Programming and debugging

- plan carefully, and discuss with an expert if possible
- code slowly, ideally with a colleague, to avoid mistakes but still expect to make mistakes!
- code in a modular way as far as possible, thinking how to validate each module individually
- build-in self-testing, to check that things which ought to be true, really are true (In my current project I have a flag `OP_DIAGS`; the larger the value the more self-testing the code does)
- overall, should have a clear debugging strategy to identify existence of errors, and then find the cause
- includes a sequence of test cases of increasing difficulty, testing out more and more of the code

Programming and debugging

When working with shared memory, be careful to think about thread synchronisation.

Very important!

Forgetting a

`__syncthreads();`

may produce errors which are unpredictable / rare — the worst kind.

Also, make sure all threads reach the synchronisation point — otherwise could get deadlock.

Reminder: can use `cuda-memcheck -tool racecheck` to check for race condition

Programming and debugging

In developing laplace3d, my approach was to

- first write CPU code for validation
- next check/debug CUDA code with printf statements as needed, with different grid sizes:
 - grid equal to 1 block with 1 warp (to check basics)
 - grid equal to 1 block and 2 warps (to check synchronisation)
 - grid smaller than 1 block (to check correct treatment of threads outside the grid)
 - grid with 2 blocks
- then turn on all compiler optimisations

Programming and debugging

The size of the thread blocks can have a big effect on performance:

- often hard to predict optimal size *a priori*
- optimal size can also vary significantly on different hardware
- optimal size for laplace3d with a 128^3 grid is
 - 128×2 on Fermi
 - 32×4 on Kepler

I think I know why now, but it was a surprise at the time

- we're not talking about just 1-2% improvement, can easily be a factor 2x by changing block size

Programming and debugging

- A number of numerical libraries (e.g. FFTW, ATLAS) now feature auto-tuning – optimal implementation parameters are determined when the library is installed on the specific hardware
- I think this is going to be important for GPU programming:
 - write parameterised code
 - use optimisation (possibly brute force exhaustive search) to find the optimal parameters
 - an Oxford student, Ben Spencer, has developed a simple flexible automated system to do this – can try it in one of the mini-projects

Programming and debugging

■ Use profiling to understand the application performance:

- where is the application spending most time?
- how much data is being transferred?
- are there lots of cache misses?
- there are a number of on-chip counters can provide this kind of information

■ The CUDA 6.5 profiler is great

- provides lots of information (a bit daunting at first)
- gives hints on improving performance

Going further

- **In some cases, a single GPU is not sufficient**
- **Shared-memory option:**
 - single system with up to 8 GPUs
 - single process with a separate host thread for each GPU, or use just one thread and switch between GPUs
 - can also transfer data directly between GPUs
- **Distributed-memory option:**
 - a cluster, with each node having 1 or 2 GPUs
 - MPI message-passing, with separate process for each GPU

Going further

Keep a eye on what is happening with new GPUS:

■ **Kepler came out in 2012**

- 3× improvement in performance per watt over Fermi
- PCIe gen 3 (2× improvement)

■ **Maxwell came out in 2014**

- first product is entry-level games card
- Another 3× improvement in performance per watt

■ **Pascal due in 2016**

- “stacked memory” → improved memory bandwidth
- Nvlink → improved CPU-GPU bandwidth
- <http://blogs.nvidia.com/blog/2014/03/25/gpu-roadmap-pascal/>
<http://devblogs.nvidia.com/parallelforall/nvlink-pascal-stacked-memory-feeding-appetite-big-data/#more-3097>

Going further

Intel:

■ latest “Haswell” CPU architecture

- some chips have built-in GPU, purely for graphics
- 4– 12 cores, each with a 256-bit AVX vector unit

■ Xeon Phi architecture

- Knights Corner: 50+ cores with a 512-bit vector unit
- Knights Landing: due in 2016?
- performance comparable to a GPU – 300 watts

ARM:

- already designed OpenCL GPUs for smart-phones
- will design much more powerful GPUs in the future
- also designing 64-bit CPUs

Going further

My current software assessment:

- **CUDA is dominant in HPC, because of ease-of-use and NVIDIA dominance of hardware**
 - PGI has developed a FORTRAN CUDA compiler
 - PGI also has capability to compile CUDA to generate AVX vector code for Intel CPUs
- **OpenCL is the multi-platform standard, but currently only used for low-end mass-market applications**
 - computer games
 - HD video codecs

Going further

- **Intel is promoting a confusing variety of alternatives for MIC and multicore CPUs with vector units**
 - vector operations
 - OpenCL
 - OpenMP 4.0 directives
 - Cilk Plus directives
 - auto-vectoring compiler

Final words

- **exciting times for HPC**
- **the fun will wear off, and the challenging coding will remain**
 - **computer science objective should be to simplify this for application developers through**
 - Libraries
 - domain-specific high-level languages
 - code transformation
 - better auto-vectorising compilers
- **confident prediction: GPUs and other accelerators / vector units will be dominant in HPC for next 5-10 years, so it's worth your effort to re-design and re-implement your algorithms**