

# UCR

# Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)



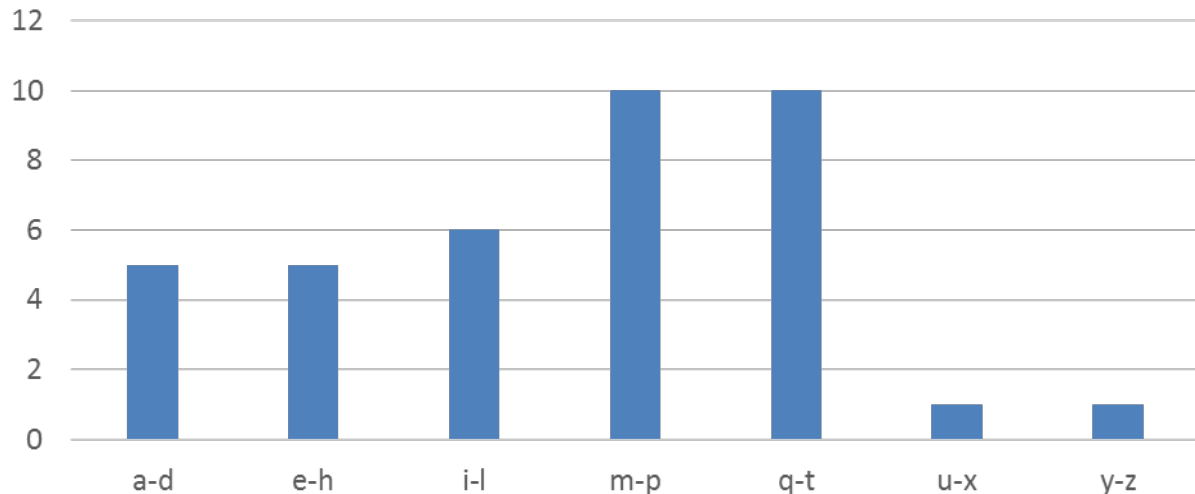
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, RIVERSIDE

# Histogram

- A method for extracting notable features and patterns from large data sets
  - Feature extraction for object recognition in images
  - Fraud detection in credit card transactions
  - Correlating heavenly object movements in astrophysics
  - ...
- Basic histograms - for each element in the data set, use the value to identify a “bin counter” to increment

# A Text Histogram Example

- Define the bins as four-letter sections of the alphabet: a-d, e-h, i-l, n-p, ...
- For each character in an input string, increment the appropriate bin counter.
- In the phrase “Programming Massively Parallel Processors” the output histogram is shown below:

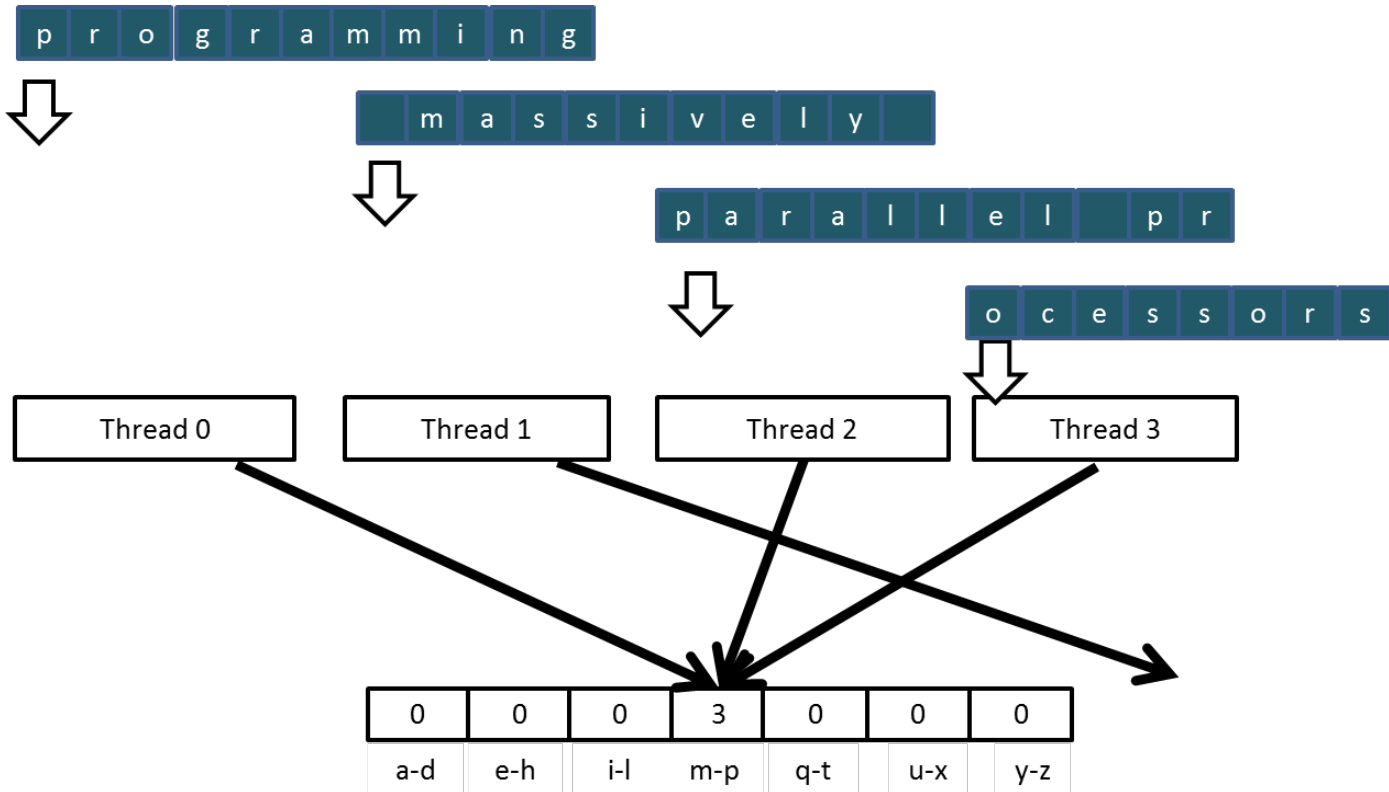


# A simple parallel histogram algorithm

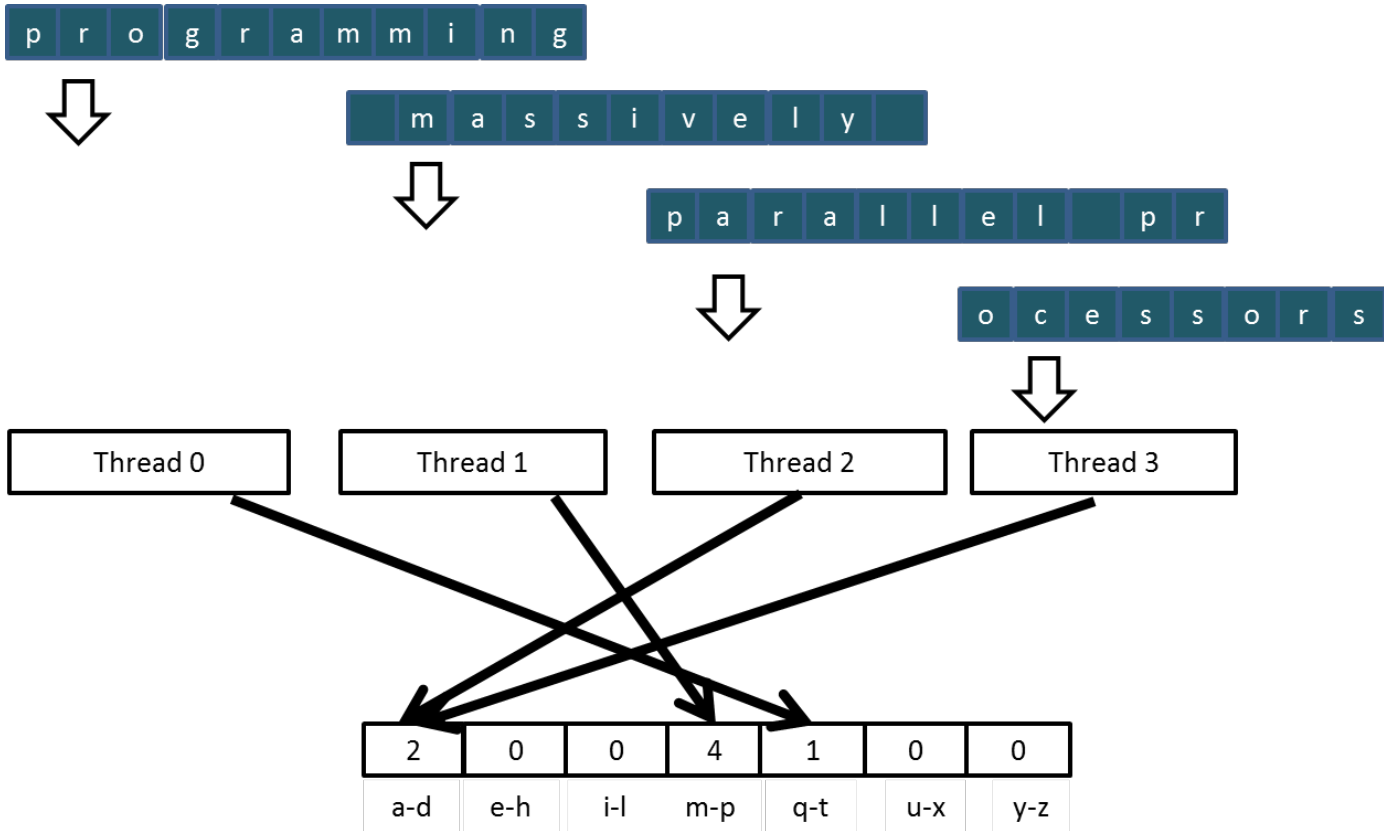


- Partition the input into sections
- Have each thread to take a section of the input
- Each thread iterates through its section.
- For each letter, increment the appropriate bin counter

# Sectioned Partitioning (Iteration #1)



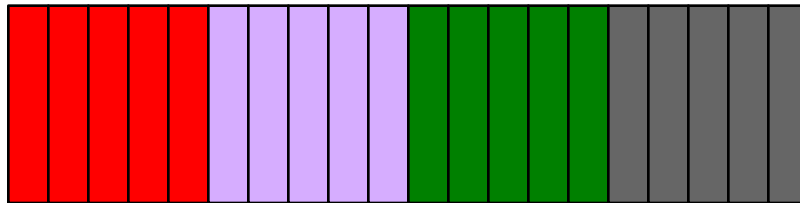
# Sectioned Partitioning (Iteration #2)



# Input Partitioning Affects Memory Access Efficiency



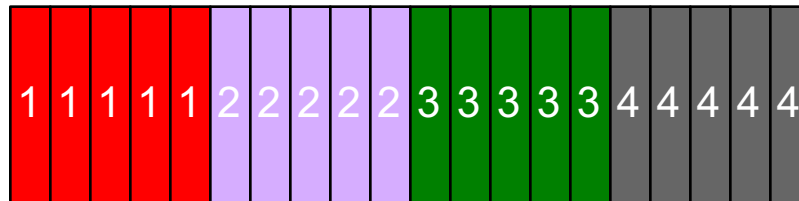
- Sectioned partitioning results in poor memory access efficiency
  - Adjacent threads do not access adjacent memory locations
  - Accesses are not coalesced
  - DRAM bandwidth is poorly utilized



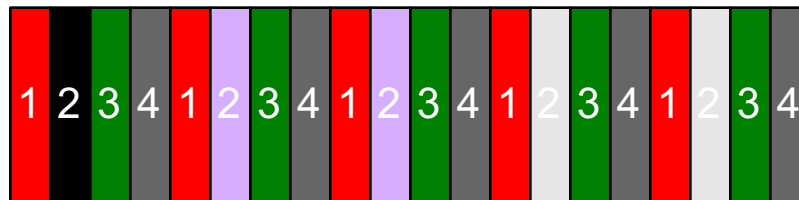
# Input Partitioning Affects Memory Access Efficiency



- Sectioned partitioning results in poor memory access efficiency
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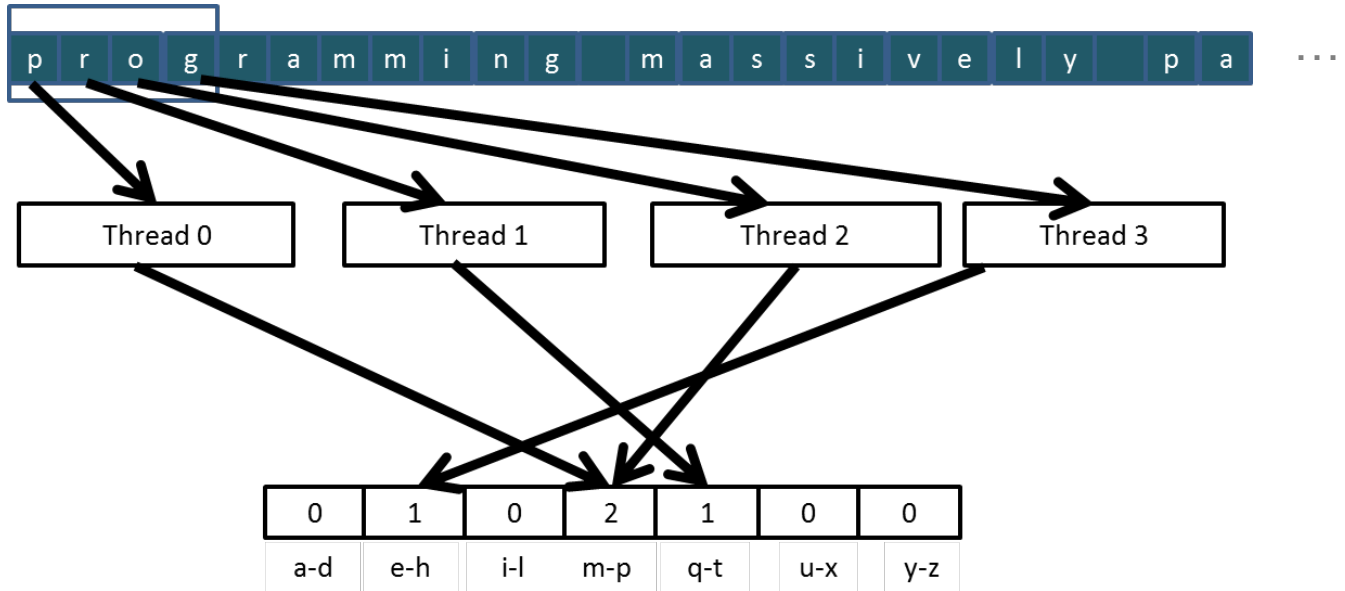
- Change to interleaved partitioning
  - All threads process a contiguous section of elements
  - They all move to the next section and repeat
  - The memory accesses are coalesced



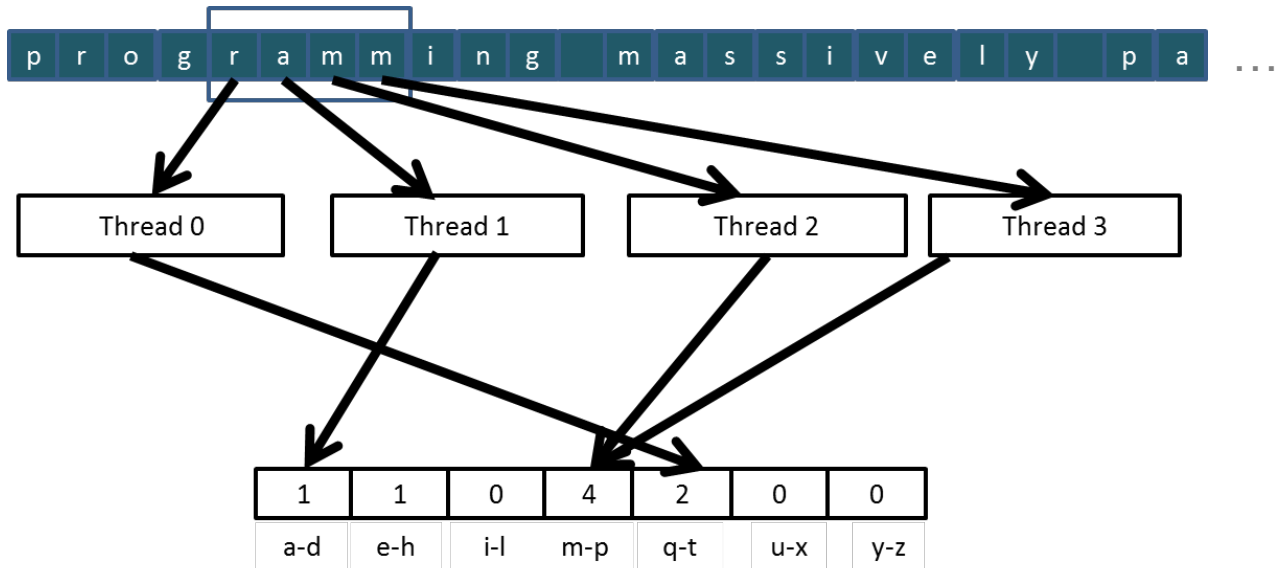


# Interleaved Partitioning of Input

- For coalescing and better memory access performance



# Interleaved Partitioning (Iteration 2)



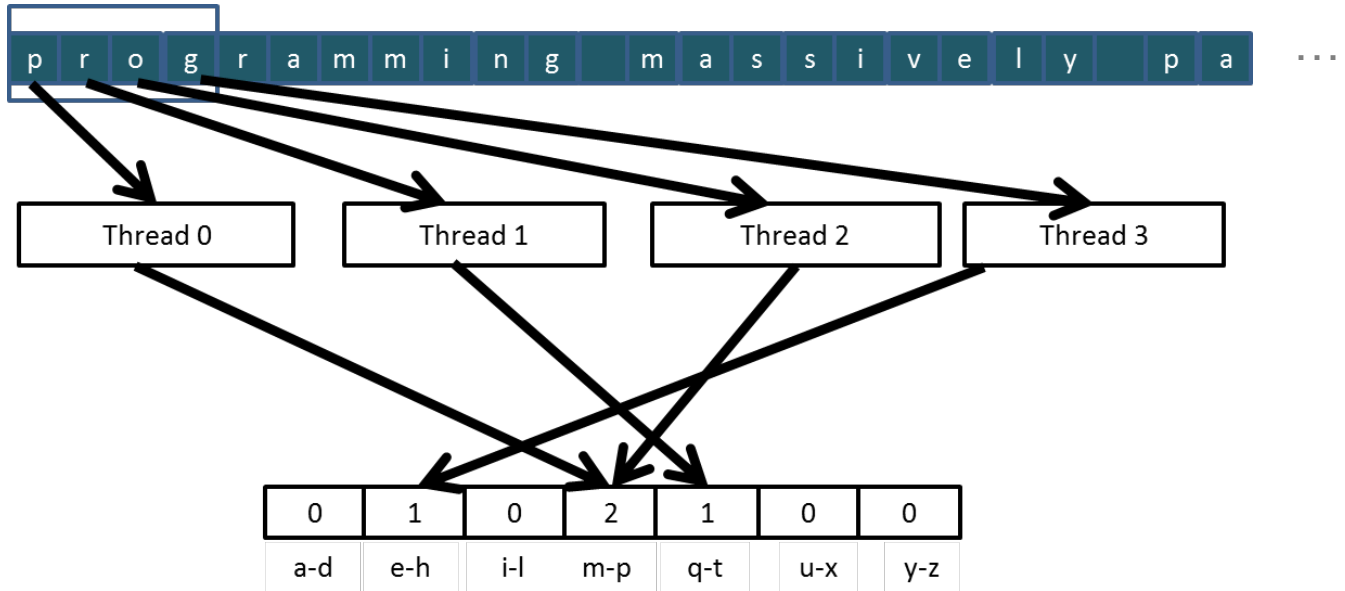
# DATA RACES

# Objective

- To understand data races in parallel computing
  - Data races can occur when performing read-modify-write operations
  - Data races can cause errors that are hard to reproduce
  - Atomic operations are designed to eliminate such data races

# Read-modify-write in the Text Histogram Example

- For coalescing and better memory access performance



# Read-Modify-Write Used in Collaboration Patterns



- For example, multiple bank tellers count the total amount of cash in the safe
- Each grab a pile and count
- Have a central display of the running total
- Whenever someone finishes counting a pile, read the current running total (read) and add the subtotal of the pile to the running total (modify-write)
- A bad outcome
  - Some of the piles were not accounted for in the final total

# A Common Arbitration Pattern



- For example, multiple customers booking airline tickets in parallel
- Each
  - Brings up a flight seat map (read)
  - Decides on a seat
  - Updates the seat map and marks the selected seat as taken (modify-write)
- A bad outcome
  - Multiple passengers ended up booking the same seat

# Data Race in Parallel Thread Execution

thread1:  $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$   
 $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$   
 $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$

thread2:  $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$   
 $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$   
 $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$

Old and New are per-thread register variables.

Question 1: If  $\text{Mem}[x]$  was initially 0, what would the value of  $\text{Mem}[x]$  be after threads 1 and 2 have completed?



# Data Race in Parallel Thread Execution

thread1: Old  $\leftarrow$  Mem[x]  
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Question 2: What does each thread get in their Old variable?

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Old and New are per-thread register variables.

Question 1: If  $\text{Mem}[x]$  was initially 0, what would the value of  $\text{Mem}[x]$  be after threads 1 and 2 have completed?

Question 2: What does each thread get in their Old variable?

Unfortunately, the answers may vary according to the relative execution timing between the two threads, which is referred to as a **data race**.

# Timing Scenario #1

Time	Thread 1	Thread 2
1	(0) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$	
2	(1) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$	
3	(1) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$	
4		(1) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$
5		(2) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$
6		(2) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$

- › Thread 1 Old = 0
- › Thread 2 Old = 1
- ›  $\text{Mem}[x] = 2$  after the sequence

# Timing Scenario #2

Time	Thread 1	Thread 2
1		(0) Old $\leftarrow$ Mem[x]
2		(1) New $\leftarrow$ Old + 1
3		(1) Mem[x] $\leftarrow$ New
4	(1) Old $\leftarrow$ Mem[x]	
5	(2) New $\leftarrow$ Old + 1	
6	(2) Mem[x] $\leftarrow$ New	

- › Thread 1 Old = 1
- › Thread 2 Old = 0
- › Mem[x] = 2 after the sequence

# Timing Scenario #3

Time	Thread 1	Thread 2
1	(0) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$	
2	(1) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$	
3		(0) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$
4	(1) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$	
5		(1) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$
6		(1) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$

- Thread 1 Old = 0
- Thread 2 Old = 0
- $\text{Mem}[x] = 1$  after the sequence

# Timing Scenario #4

Time	Thread 1	Thread 2
1		(0) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$
2		(1) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$
3	(0) $\text{Old} \leftarrow \text{Mem}[x]$	
4		(1) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$
5	(1) $\text{New} \leftarrow \text{Old} + 1$	
6	(1) $\text{Mem}[x] \leftarrow \text{New}$	

- Thread 1 Old = 0
- Thread 2 Old = 0
- $\text{Mem}[x] = 1$  after the sequence

# Purpose of Atomic Operations

## – To Ensure Good Outcomes

thread1: Old  $\leftarrow$  Mem[x]  
New  $\leftarrow$  Old + 1  
Mem[x]  $\leftarrow$  New

thread2: Old  $\leftarrow$  Mem[x]  
New  $\leftarrow$  Old + 1  
Mem[x]  $\leftarrow$  New

Or

thread1: Old  $\leftarrow$  Mem[x]  
New  $\leftarrow$  Old + 1  
Mem[x]  $\leftarrow$  New

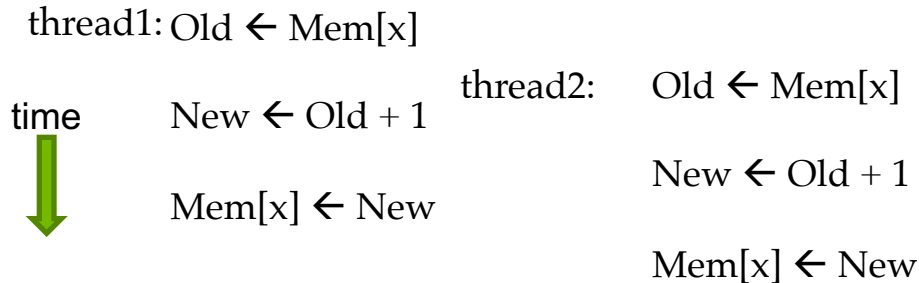
thread2: Old  $\leftarrow$  Mem[x]  
New  $\leftarrow$  Old + 1  
Mem[x]  $\leftarrow$  New

# ATOMIC OPERATIONS IN CUDA



# Data Race without Atomic Operations

Mem[x] initialized to 0



- Both threads receive 0 in Old
- Mem[x] becomes 1

# Key Concepts of Atomic Operations

- A read-modify-write operation performed by a single hardware instruction on a memory location *address*
  - Read the old value, calculate a new value, and write the new value to the location
- The hardware ensures that no other threads can perform another read-modify-write operation on the same location until the current atomic operation is complete
  - Any other threads that attempt to perform an atomic operation on the same location will typically be held in a queue
  - All threads perform their atomic operations **serially** on the same location

# Atomic Operations in CUDA



- Performed by calling functions that are translated into single instructions (a.k.a. *intrinsic functions* or *intrinsics*)
  - Atomic add, sub, inc, dec, min, max, exch (exchange), CAS (compare and swap)
  - Read CUDA C programming Guide 4.0 or later for details
- Atomic Add
  - ```
int atomicAdd(int* address, int val);
```
  - reads the 32-bit word **old** from the location pointed to by **address** in global or shared memory, computes (**old** + **val**), and stores the result back to memory at the same address. The function returns **old**.

# More Atomic Adds in CUDA

- Unsigned 32-bit integer atomic add

```
unsigned int atomicAdd(unsigned int* address,  
    unsigned int val);
```

- Unsigned 64-bit integer atomic add

```
unsigned long long int atomicAdd(unsigned long long  
    int* address, unsigned long long int val);
```

- Single-precision floating-point atomic add (capability > 2.0)

```
– float atomicAdd(float* address, float val);
```

# A Basic Text Histogram Kernel

- The kernel receives a pointer to the input buffer of byte values
- Each thread process the input in a strided pattern

```
__global__ void histo_kernel(unsigned char *buffer,
                             long size, unsigned int *histo)
{
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;

    // stride is total number of threads
    int stride = blockDim.x * gridDim.x;

    // All threads handle blockDim.x * gridDim.x
    // consecutive elements
    while (i < size) {
        int alphabet_position = buffer[i] - "a";
        if (alphabet_position >= 0 && alphabet_position < 26)
            atomicAdd(&(histo[alphabet_position/4]), 1);
        i += stride;
    }
}
```

# A Basic Histogram Kernel (cont.)

- The kernel receives a pointer to the input buffer of byte values
- Each thread process the input in a strided pattern

```
__global__ void histo_kernel(unsigned char *buffer,
                             long size, unsigned int *histo)
{
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;

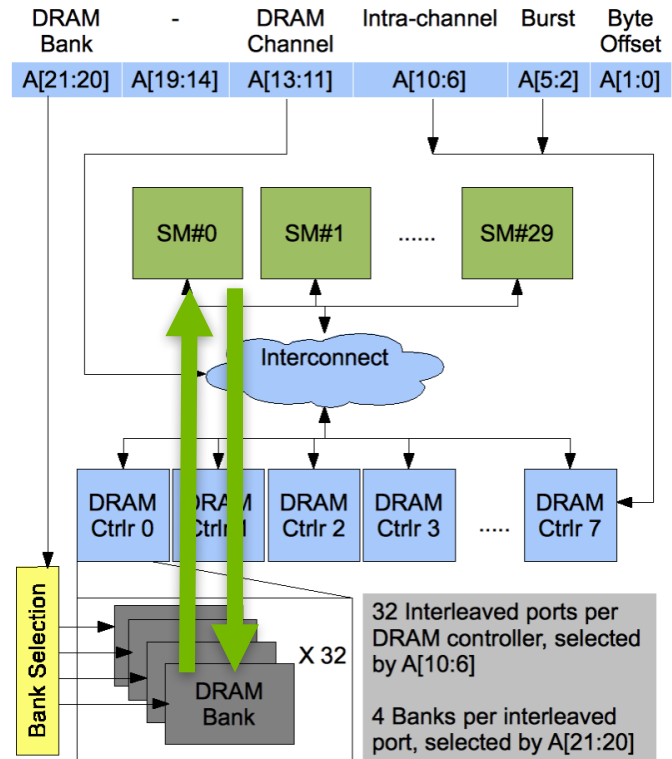
    // stride is total number of threads
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        int alphabet_position = buffer[i] - "a";
        if (alphabet_position >= 0 && alphabet_position < 26)
            atomicAdd(&(histo[alphabet_position/4]), 1);
        i += stride;
    }
}
```

# **ATOMIC OPERATION PERFORMANCE**

# Atomic Operations on Global Memory (DRAM)

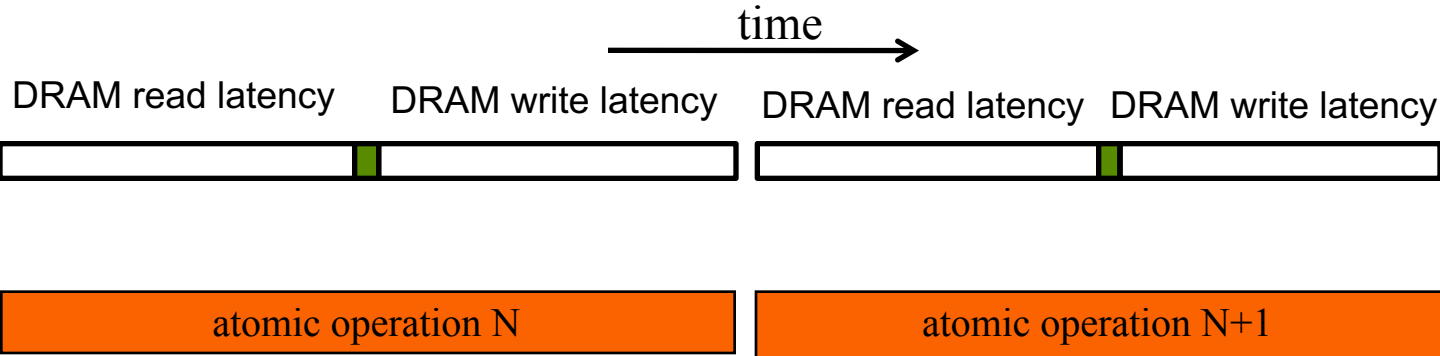
- › An atomic operation on a DRAM location starts with a read, which has a latency of a few hundred cycles
- › The atomic operation ends with a write to the same location, with a latency of a few hundred cycles
- › During this whole time, no one else can access the location





# Atomic Operations on DRAM

- Each Read-Modify-Write has two full memory access delays
  - All atomic operations on the same variable (DRAM location) are serialized



# Latency determines throughput

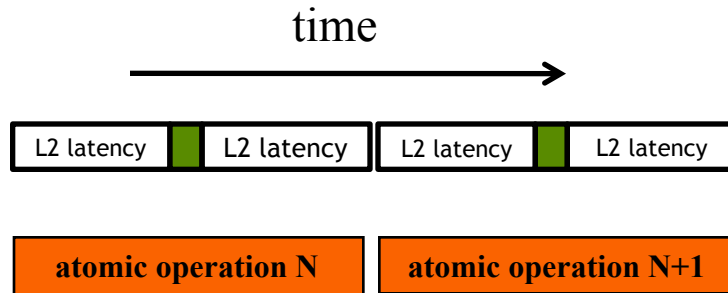
- Throughput of atomic operations on the same DRAM location is the rate at which the application can execute an atomic operation.
- The rate for atomic operation on a particular location is limited by the total latency of the read-modify-write sequence, typically more than 1000 cycles for global memory (DRAM) locations.
- This means that if many threads attempt to do atomic operation on the same location (contention), the memory throughput is reduced to  $< 1/1000$  of the peak bandwidth of one memory channel!

# You may have a similar experience in supermarket checkout

- Some customers realize that they missed an item after they started to check out
- They run to the isle and get the item while the line waits
  - The rate of checkout is drastically reduced due to the long latency of running to the isle and back.
- Imagine a store where every customer starts the check out before they even fetch any of the items
  - The rate of the checkout will be  $1 / (\text{entire shopping time of each customer})$

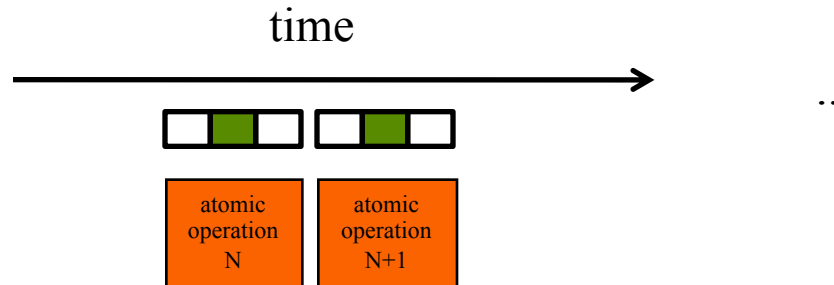
# Hardware Improvements

- Atomic operations on Fermi L2 cache
  - Medium latency, about 1/10 of the DRAM latency
  - Shared among all blocks
  - “Free improvement” on Global Memory atomics



# Hardware Improvements

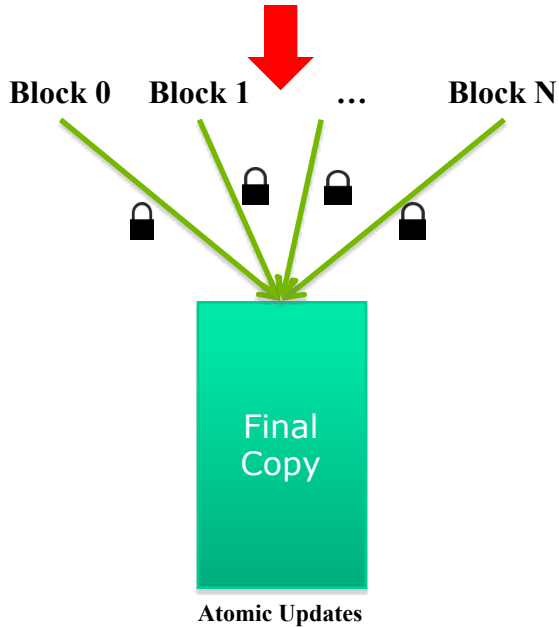
- Atomic operations on Shared Memory
  - Very short latency
  - Private to each thread block
  - Need algorithm work by programmers (more later)



# **PRIVATIZATION TECHNIQUE FOR IMPROVED THROUGHPUT**

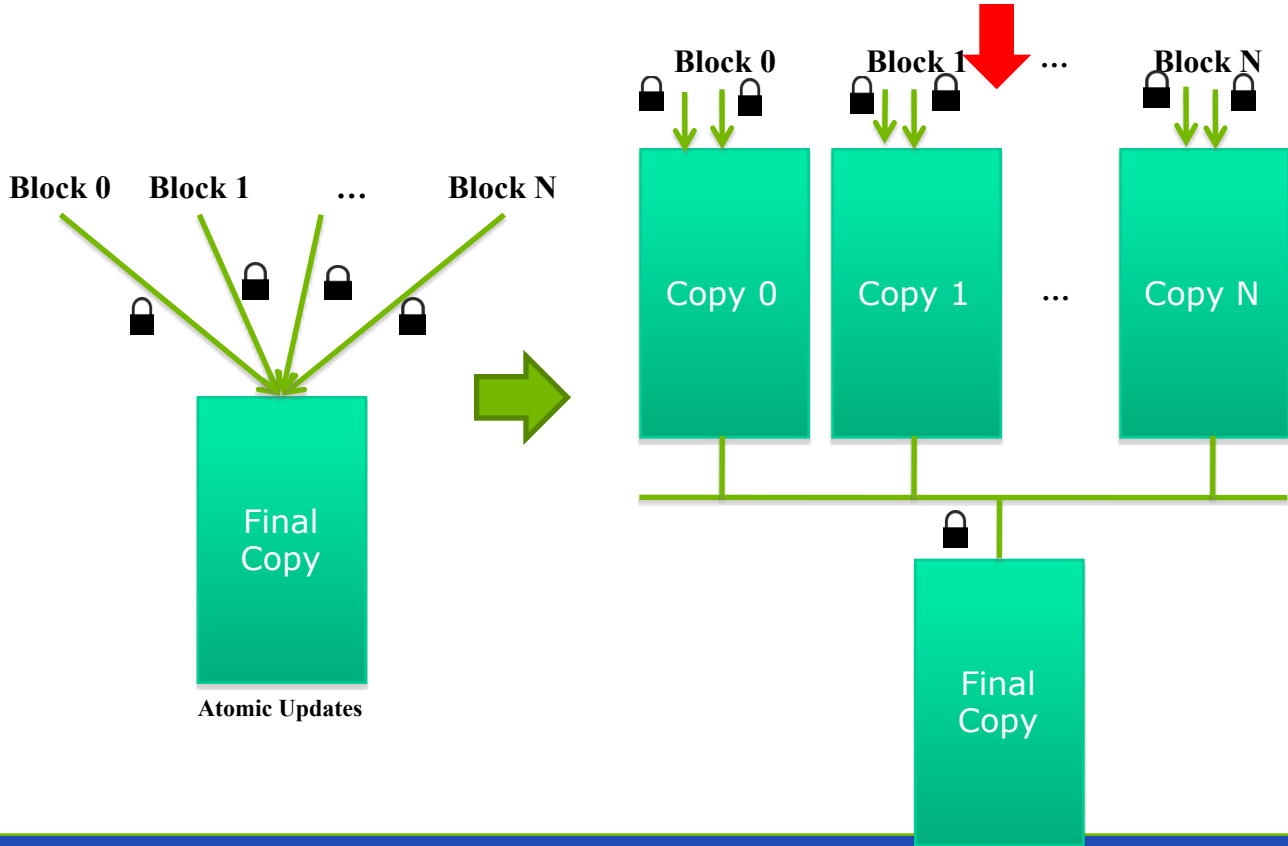
# Privatization

Heavy contention and  
serialization



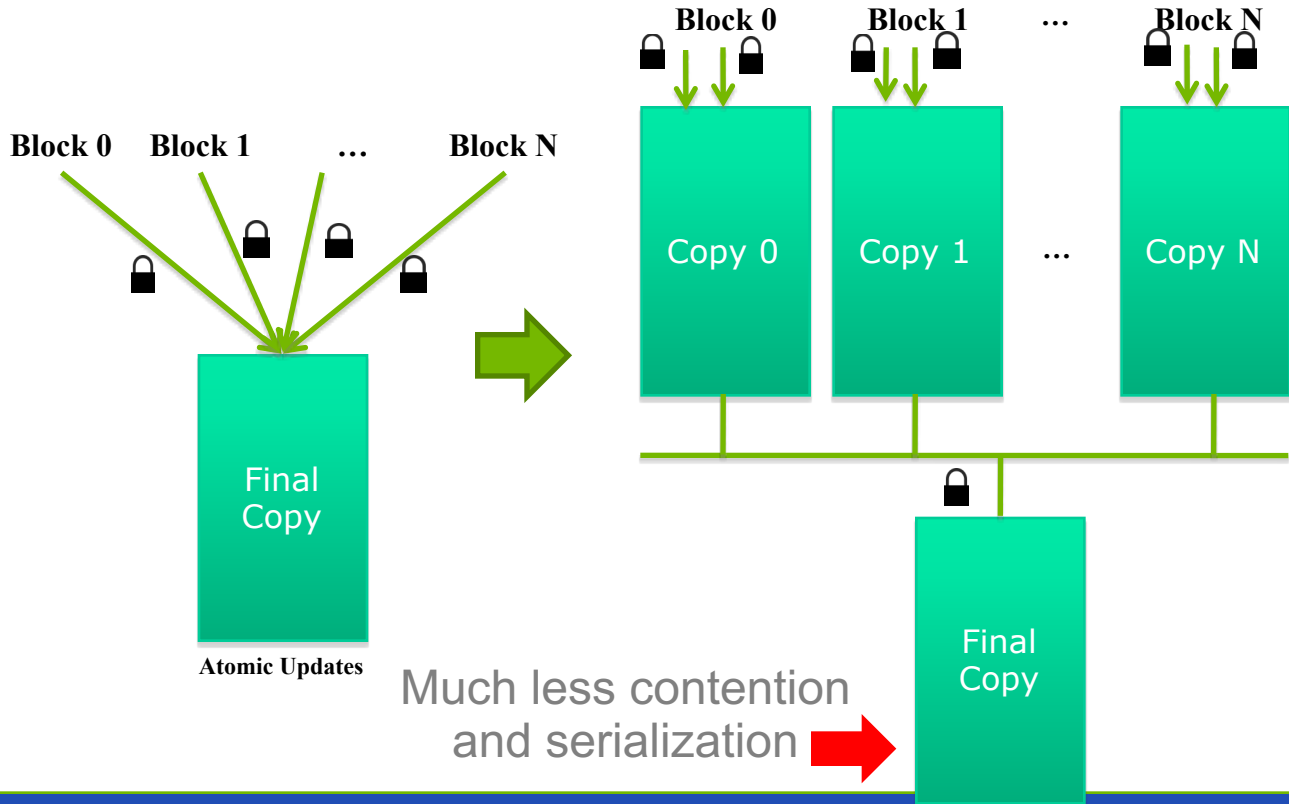
## Privatization (cont.)

Much less contention  
and serialization





# Privatization (cont.)



# Cost and Benefit of Privatization

- Cost

- Overhead for creating and initializing private copies
- Overhead for accumulating the contents of private copies into the final copy

- Benefit

- Much less contention and serialization in accessing both the private copies and the final copy
- The overall performance can often be improved more than 10x

# Shared Memory Atomics for Histogram



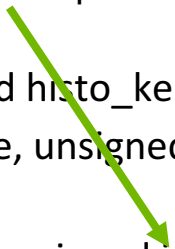
- Each subset of threads are in the same block
- Much higher throughput than DRAM (100x) or L2 (10x) atomics
- Less contention – only threads in the same block can access a shared memory variable
- This is a very important use case for shared memory!

# Shared Memory Atomics Requires Privatization



- Create private copies of the histo[] array for each thread block

```
__global__ void histo_kernel(unsigned char *buffer,  
    long size, unsigned int *histo)  
{  
    __shared__ unsigned int histo_private[7];
```

A green arrow originates from the text 'Create private copies of the histo[] array for each thread block' and points to the variable 'histo\_private' in the code, illustrating the privatization process.

# Shared Memory Atomics Requires Privatization



- Create private copies of the histo[] array for each thread block

```
__global__ void histo_kernel(unsigned char *buffer,  
                             long size, unsigned int *histo)  
{  
    __shared__ unsigned int histo_private[7];  
  
    if (threadIdx.x < 7) histo_private[threadIdx.x] = 0;  
    __syncthreads();
```

Initialize the bin counters in  
the private copies of histo[]

# Build Private Histogram

```
int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;
// stride is total number of threads
int stride = blockDim.x * gridDim.x;
while (i < size) {
    atomicAdd( &(amp;private_histo[buffer[i]/4), 1);
    i += stride;
}
```

# Build Final Histogram

```
// wait for all other threads in the block to finish
__syncthreads();

if (threadIdx.x < 7) {
    atomicAdd(&(histo[threadIdx.x]), private_histo[threadIdx.x] );
}

}
```

# More on Privatization

- Privatization is a powerful and frequently used technique for parallelizing applications
- The operation needs to be associative and commutative
  - Histogram add operation is associative and commutative
  - No privatization if the operation does not fit the requirement
- The private histogram size needs to be small
  - Fits into shared memory
- What if the histogram is too large to privatize?
  - Sometimes one can partially privatize an output histogram and use range testing to go to either global memory or shared memory