GPU Teaching Kit

Accelerated Computing

Lecture 1.2 – Course Introduction

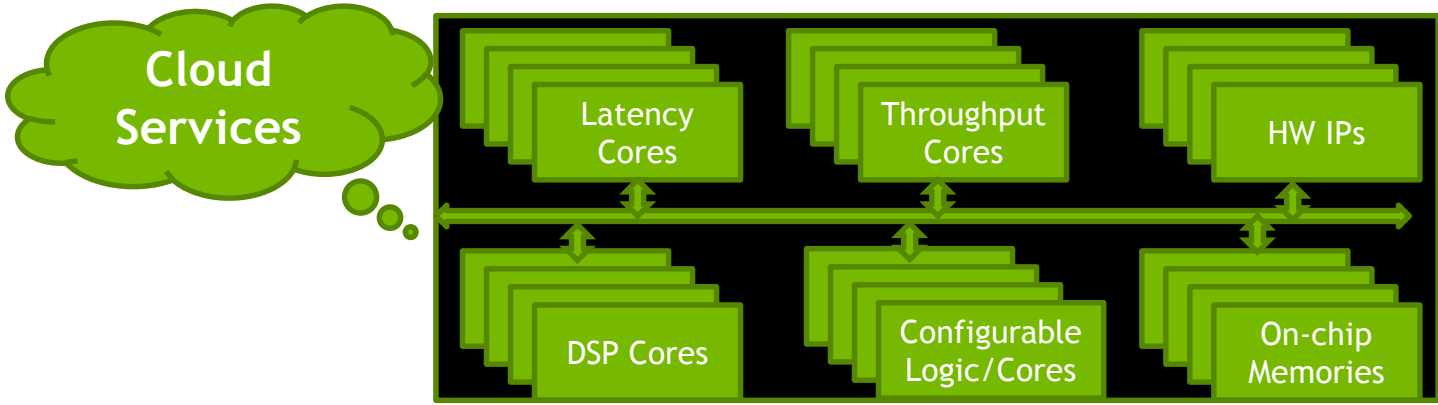
Introduction to Heterogeneous Parallel Computing

Objectives

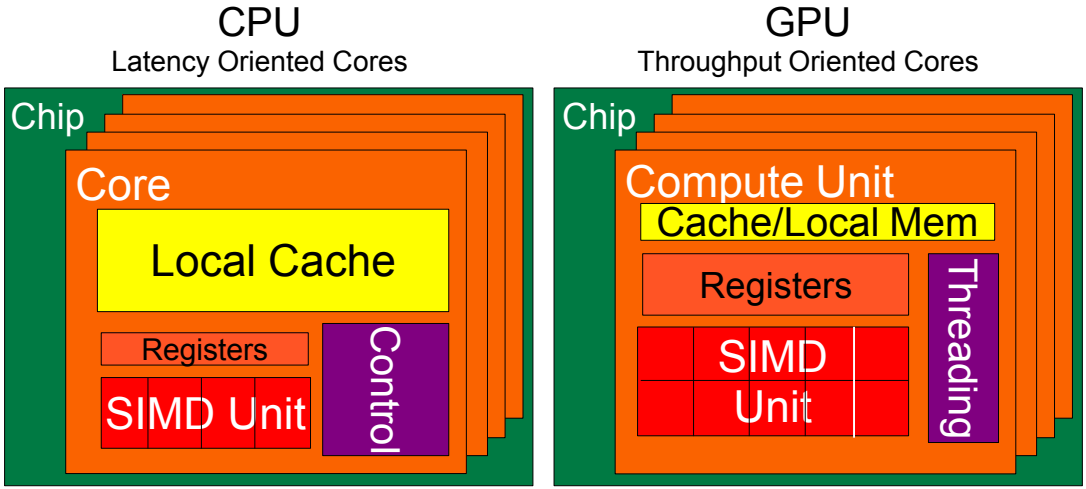
- To learn the major differences between latency devices (CPU cores) and throughput devices (GPU cores)
- To understand why winning applications increasingly use both types of devices

Heterogeneous Parallel Computing

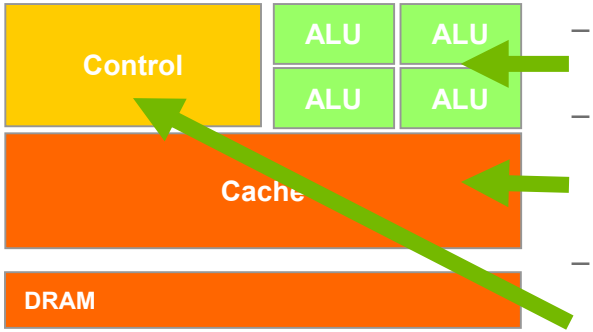
– Use the best match for the job (heterogeneity in mobile SOC)



CPU and GPU are designed very differently

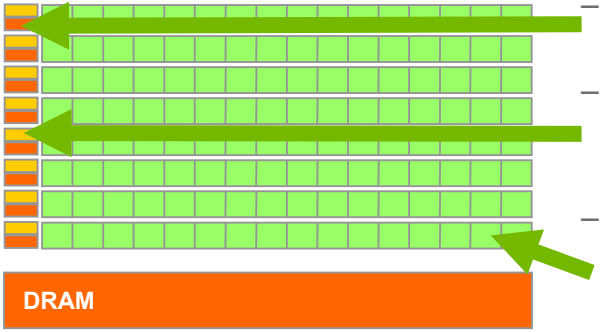


CPUs: Latency Oriented Design



- Powerful ALU
  - Reduced operation latency
- Large caches
  - Convert long latency memory accesses to short latency cache accesses
- Sophisticated control
  - Branch prediction for reduced branch latency
  - Data forwarding for reduced data latency

GPUs: Throughput Oriented Design

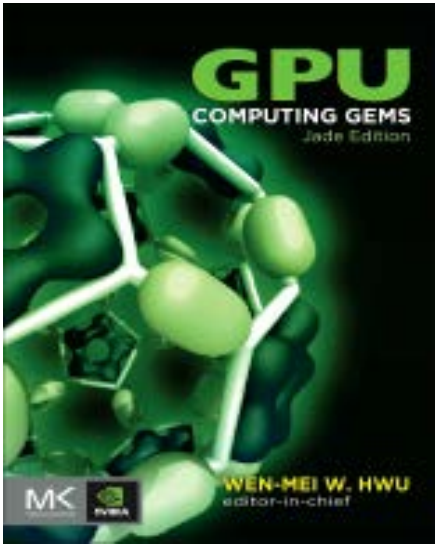


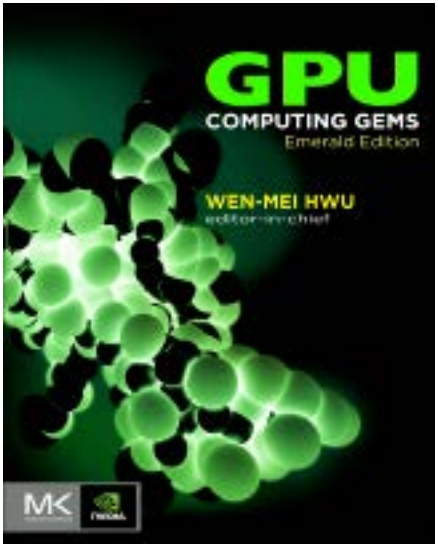
- Small caches
  - To boost memory throughput
- Simple control
  - No branch prediction
  - No data forwarding
- Energy efficient ALUs
  - Many, long latency but heavily pipelined for high throughput
- Require massive number of threads to tolerate latencies
  - Threading logic
  - Thread state

Winning Applications Use Both CPU and GPU

- CPUs for sequential parts where latency matters
  - CPUs can be 10X+ faster than GPUs for sequential code
- GPUs for parallel parts where throughput wins
  - GPUs can be 10X+ faster than CPUs for parallel code

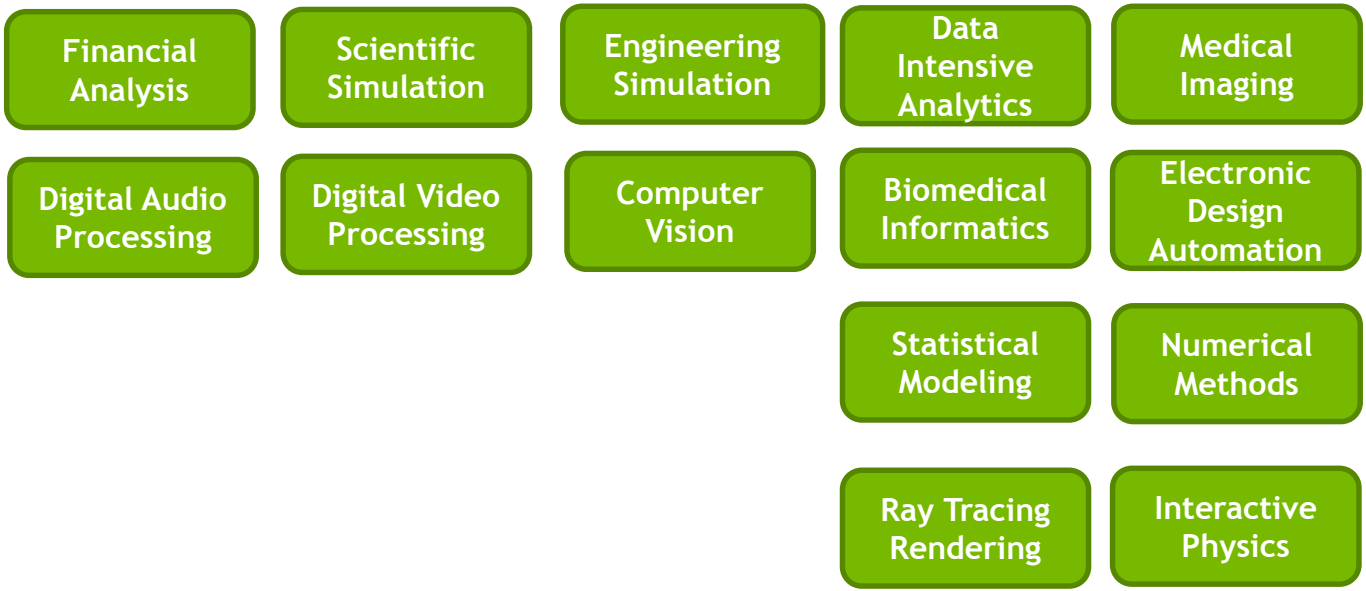
GPU computing reading resources





90 articles in two volumes

Heterogeneous Parallel Computing in Many Disciplines



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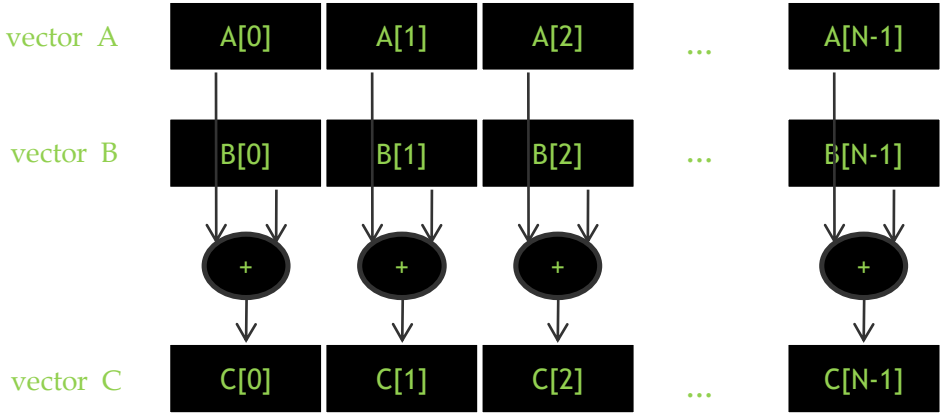
Lecture 2.2 - Introduction to CUDA C

Memory Allocation and Data Movement API Functions

Objective

- To learn the basic API functions in CUDA host code
  - Device Memory Allocation
  - Host-Device Data Transfer

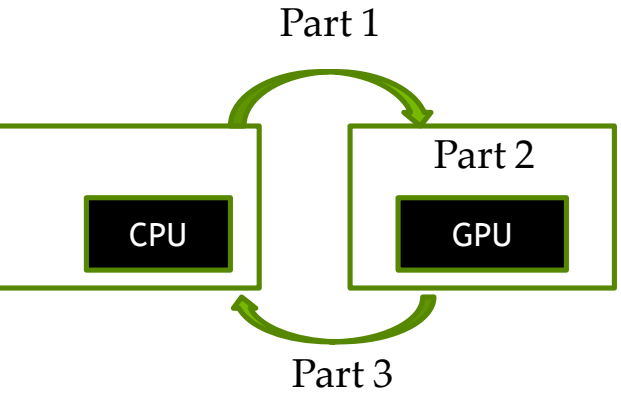
Data Parallelism - Vector Addition Example



Vector Addition – Traditional C Code

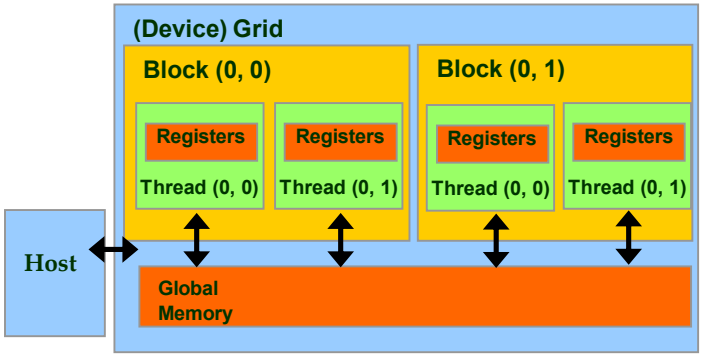
```
// Compute vector sum C = A + B
void vecAdd(float *h_A, float *h_B, float *h_C, int n)
{
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i<n; i++) h_C[i] = h_A[i] + h_B[i];
}

int main()
{
    // Memory allocation for h_A, h_B, and h_C
    // I/O to read h_A and h_B, N elements
    …
    vecAdd(h_A, h_B, h_C, N);
}
```

Heterogeneous Computing vecAdd CUDA Host Code




```
#include <cuda.h>
void vecAdd(float *h_A, float *h_B, float *h_C, int n)
{
    int size = n* sizeof(float);
    float *d_A, *d_B, *d_C;
    // Part 1
    // Allocate device memory for A, B, and C
    // copy A and B to device memory

    // Part 2
    // Kernel launch code – the device performs the actual vector addition

    // Part 3
    // copy C from the device memory
    // Free device vectors
}
```

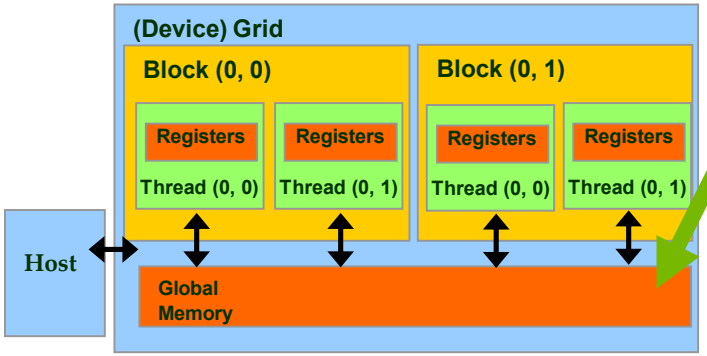
Partial Overview of CUDA Memories



- Device code can:
  - R/W per-thread registers
  - R/W all-shared global memory
- Host code can
  - Transfer data to/from per grid global memory

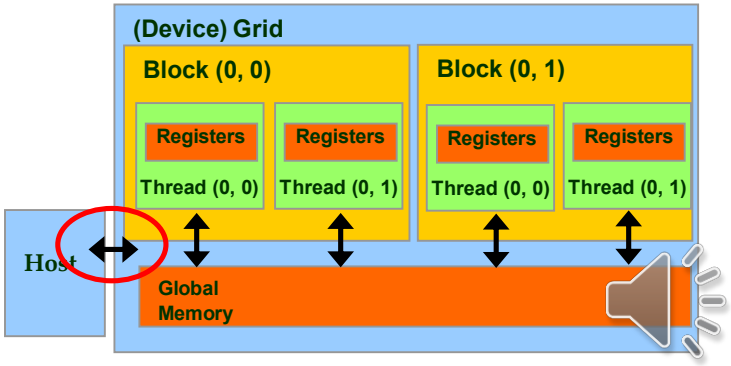
We will cover more memory types and more sophisticated memory models later.

CUDA Device Memory Management API functions



- cudaMalloc()
  - Allocates an object in the device global memory
  - Two parameters
    - **Address of a pointe**r to the allocated object
    - **Size of** allocated object in terms of bytes
- cudaFree()
  - Frees object from device global memory
  - One parameter
    - **Pointer** to freed object

Host-Device Data Transfer API functions



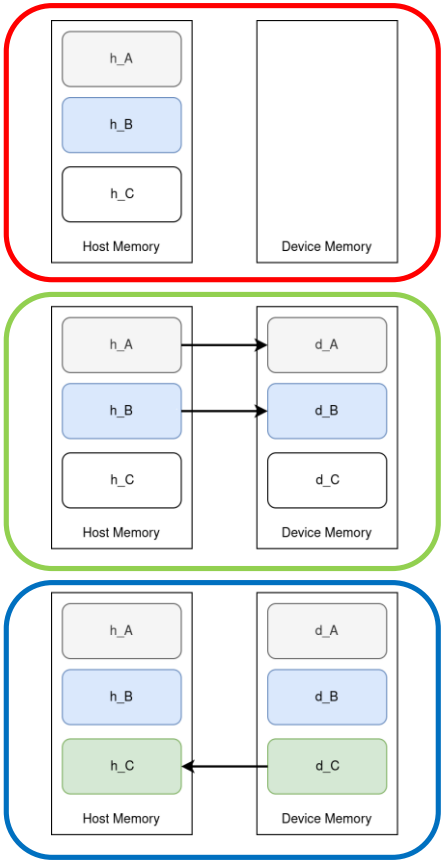
- cudaMemcpy()
  - memory data transfer
  - Requires four parameters
    - Pointer to destination
    - Pointer to source
    - Number of bytes copied
    - Type/Direction of transfer
  - Transfer to device is synchronous with respect to the host

Vector Addition, Explicit Memory Management

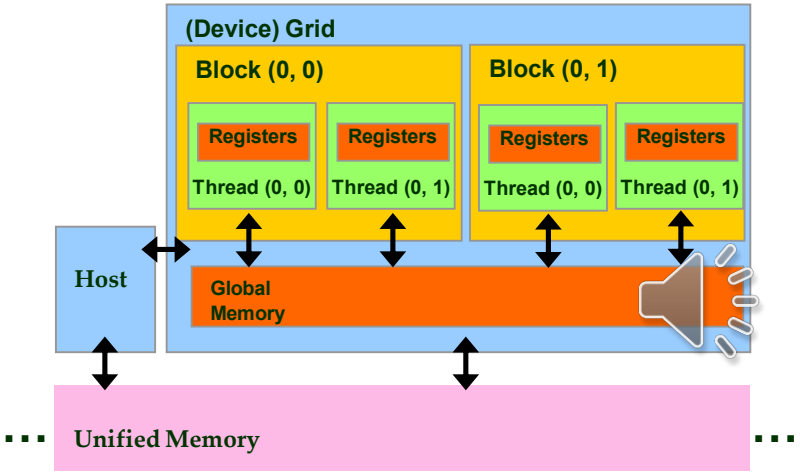
… Allocate h_A, h_B, h_C …

```
void vecAdd(float *h_A, float *h_B, float *h_C, int n)
{
    int size = n * sizeof(float); float *d_A, *d_B, *d_C;

    cudaMalloc((void **) &d_A, size);
    cudaMalloc((void **) &d_B, size);
    cudaMalloc((void **) &d_C, size);

    cudaMemcpy(d_A, h_A, size, cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);
    cudaMemcpy(d_B, h_B, size, cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);

    // Kernel invocation code – to be shown later

    cudaMemcpy(h_C, d_C, size, cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost);
    cudaFree(d_A); cudaFree(d_B); cudaFree (d_C);
}
```

… Free h_A, h_B, h_C …



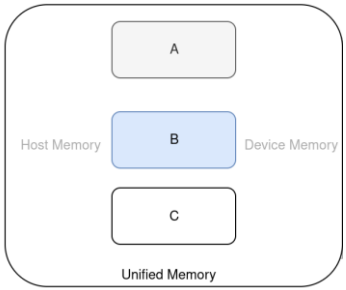
Unified Memory



- cudaMallocManaged(void** ptr, size_t size)
  - Single memory space for all CPUs/GPUs
    - Maintain single copy of data
  - CUDA-managed data
    - On-demand page migration
  - Compatible with cudaMalloc(), cudaFree()
  - Can be optimized
    - cudaMemAdvise(), cudaMemPrefetchAsync(),
    - cudaMemcpyAsync()

Vector Addition, Unified Memory

```
float *A, *B, *C
cudaMallocManaged(&A, n * sizeof(float));
cudaMallocManaged(&B, n * sizeof(float));
cudaMallocManaged(&C, n * sizeof(float));

// Initialize A, B

void vecAdd(float *A, float *B, float *C, int n)
{
 // Kernel invocation code – to be shown later
}

cudaFree(A);
cudaFree(B);
cudaFree(C);
```



In Practice, Check for API Errors in Host Code

```
cudaError_t  err = cudaMalloc((void **) &d_A, size);

if (err != cudaSuccess)  {
   printf("%s in %s at line %d\n",   cudaGetErrorString(err), __FILE__,
   __LINE__);
   exit(EXIT_FAILURE);
}
```

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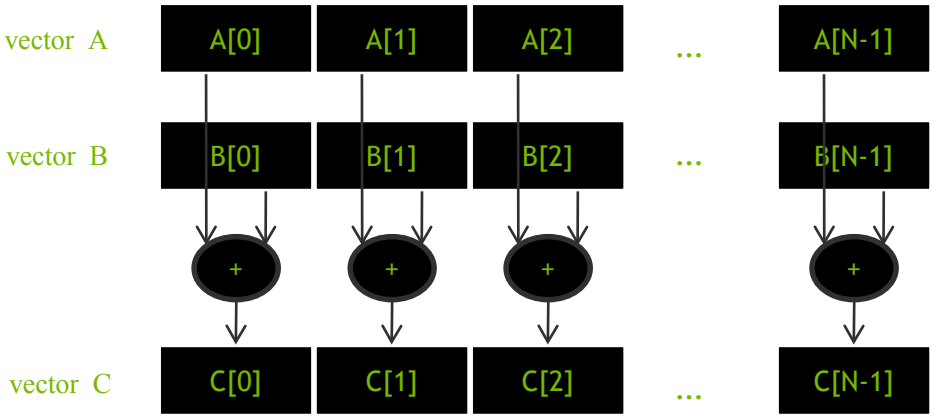
Lecture 2.3 – Introduction to CUDA C

Threads and Kernel Functions

Objective

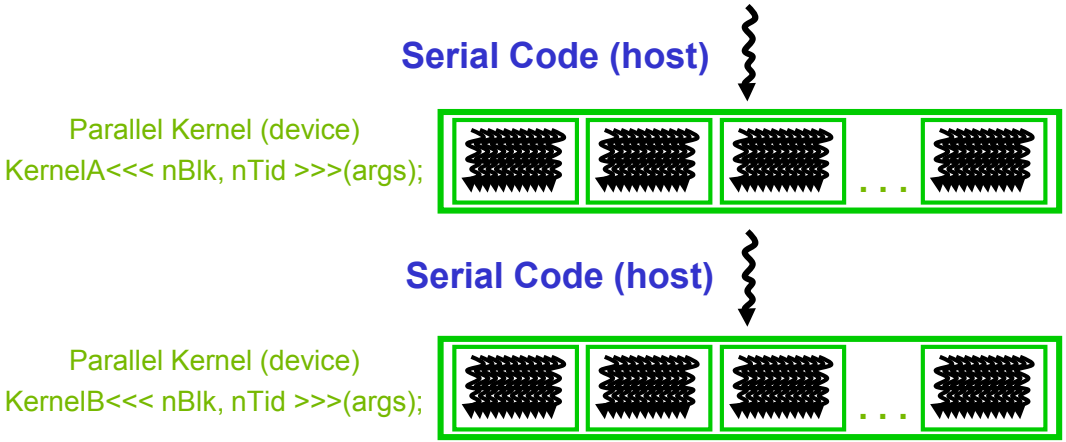
- To learn about CUDA threads, the main mechanism for exploiting of data parallelism
  - Hierarchical thread organization
  - Launching parallel execution
  - Thread index to data index mapping

Data Parallelism - Vector Addition Example

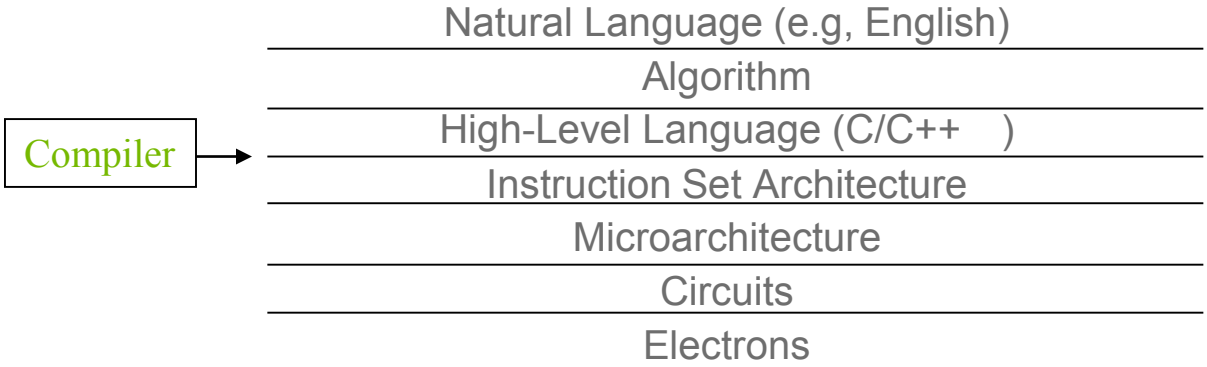


CUDA Execution Model

- Heterogeneous host (CPU) + device (GPU) application C program
  - Serial parts in **host** C code
  - Parallel parts in **device** SPMD kernel code



From Natural Language to Electrons



©Yale Patt and Sanjay Patel, *From bits and bytes to gates and beyond*

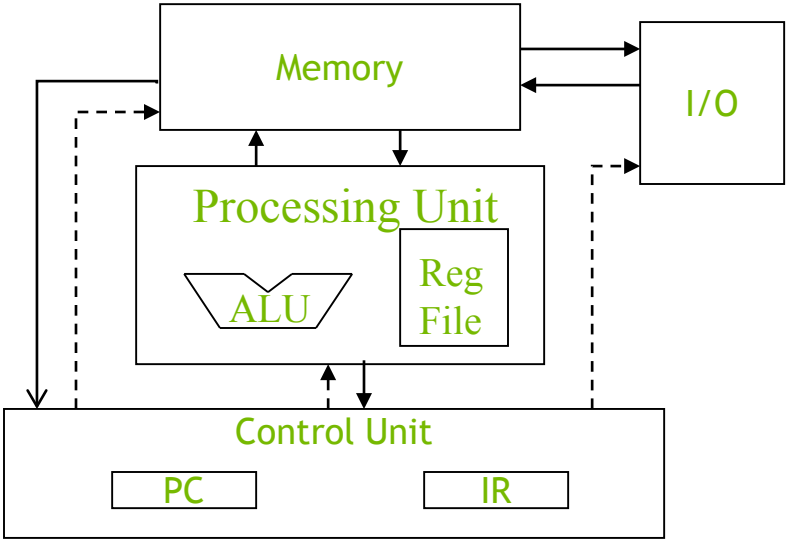
A program at the ISA level

- A program is a set of instructions stored in memory that can be read, interpreted, and executed by the hardware.
  - Both CPUs and GPUs are designed based on (different) instruction sets

- Program instructions operate on data stored in memory and/or registers.

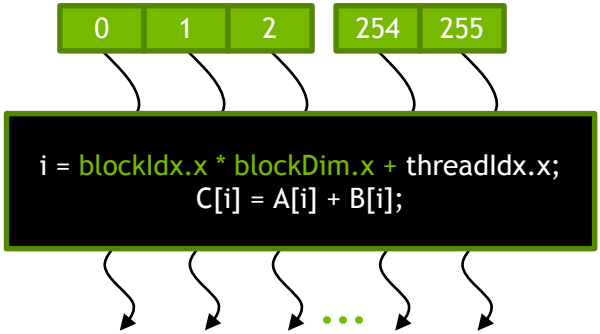
A Thread as a Von-Neumann Processor

A thread is a “virtualized” or
“abstracted”
Von-Neumann Processor

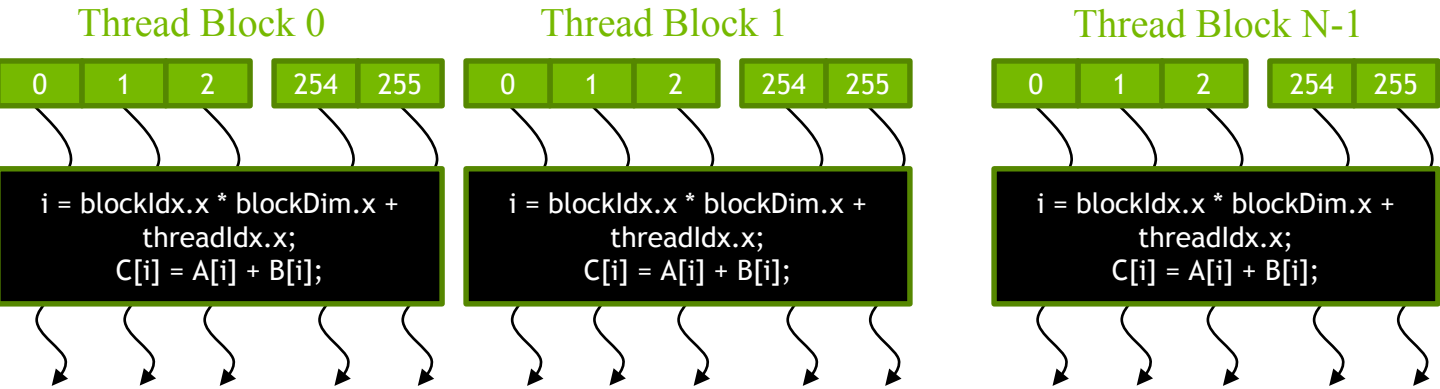


Arrays of Parallel Threads

- A CUDA kernel is executed by a grid (array) of threads
  - All threads in a grid run the same kernel code (Single Program Multiple Data)
  - Each thread has indexes that it uses to compute memory addresses and make control decisions



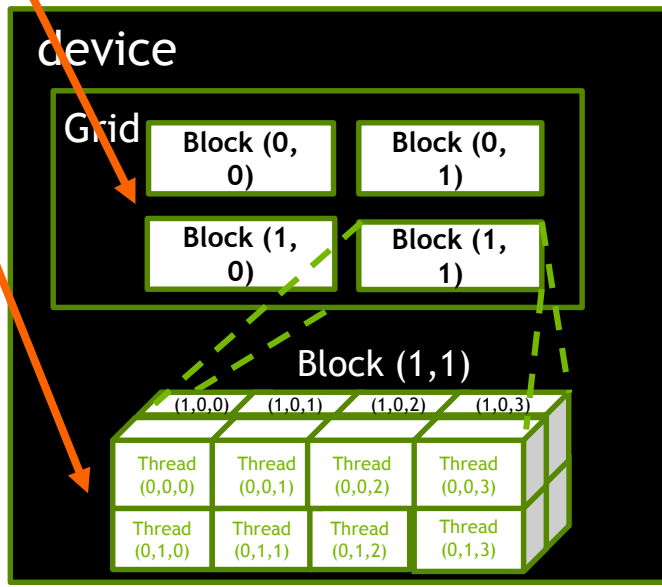
Thread Blocks: Scalable Cooperation



- Divide thread array into multiple blocks
  - Threads within a block cooperate via **shared memory, atomic operations** and **barrier synchronization**
  - Threads in different blocks do not interact

blockIdx and threadIdx

- Each thread uses indices to decide what data to work on
  - blockIdx: 1D, 2D, or 3D (CUDA 4.0)
  - threadIdx: 1D, 2D, or 3D
- Simplifies memory addressing when processing multidimensional data
  - Image processing
  - Solving PDEs on volumes
  -



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Lecture 2.4 – Introduction to CUDA C

Introduction to the CUDA Toolkit

Objective

- To become familiar with some valuable tools and resources from the CUDA Toolkit
  - Compiler flags
  - Debuggers
  - Profilers

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GPU Programming Languages

Numerical analytics	MATLAB, Mathematica, LabVIEW
Python	PyCUDA, Numba
Fortran	CUDA Fortran, OpenACC
C	CUDA C, OpenACC
C++	CUDA C++, Thrust
C#	Hybridizer

CUDA - C

Easy to use
Most Performance

Easy to use
Portable code

Most Performance
Most Flexibility

NVCC Compiler

- NVIDIA provides a CUDA-C compiler
  - nvcc
- NVCC compiles device code then forwards code on to the host compiler (e.g. g++)
- Can be used to compile & link host only applications

Example 1: Hello World

```
#include <cstdio>

int main() {
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Instructions:

1. Build and run the hello world code
2. Modify Makefile to use nvcc instead of g++
3. Rebuild and run

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CUDA Example 1: Hello World

```
#include <cstdio>

__global__ void mykernel(void) {
}

int main(void) {
    mykernel<<<1,1>>>();
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Instructions:

1. Add kernel and kernel launch to main.cc
2. Try to build

CUDA Example 1: Build Considerations

- Build failed
  - Nvcc only parses .cu files for CUDA
- Fixes:
  - Rename main.cc to main.cu

  OR
  - nvcc –x cu
    - Treat all input files as .cu files

Instructions:
1. Rename main.cc to main.cu
2. Rebuild and Run

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Hello World! with Device Code

```
#include <cstdio>

__global__ void mykernel(void) {
}

int main(void) {
    mykernel<<<1,1>>>();
    printf("Hello World!\n");
    return 0;
}
```

Output:

```
$ nvcc main.cu
$ ./a.out
Hello World!
```

- `mykernel` (does nothing, somewhat anticlimactic!)

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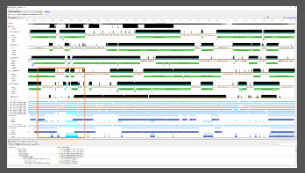
Developer Tools - Debuggers

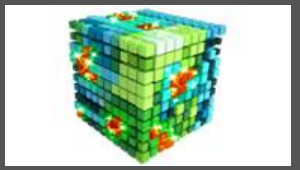
Nsight

Nsight Systems



CUDA-GDB

CUDA MEMCHECK



NVIDIA Provided

arm FORGE

TotalView®

3rd Party

https://developer.nvidia.com/debugging-solutions

Compiler Flags

- Remember there are two compilers being used
  - NVCC: Device code
  - Host Compiler: C/C++ code
- NVCC supports some host compiler flags
  - If flag is unsupported, use –Xcompiler to forward to host
    - e.g. –Xcompiler –fopenmp
- Debugging Flags
  - -g: Include host debugging symbols
  - -G: Include device debugging symbols
  - -lineinfo: Include line information with symbols

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CUDA-MEMCHECK

- Memory debugging tool
  - No recompilation necessary

    %> cuda-memcheck ./exe
- Can detect the following errors
  - Memory leaks
  - Memory errors (OOB, misaligned access, illegal instruction, etc)
  - Race conditions
  - Illegal Barriers
  - Uninitialized Memory
- For line numbers use the following compiler flags:
  - -Xcompiler -rdynamic -lineinfo

http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-memcheck

Example 2: CUDA-MEMCHECK

Instructions:

1. Build & Run Example 2
   Output should be the numbers 0-9
   Do you get the correct results?
2. Run with cuda-memcheck
   %> cuda-memcheck ./a.out
3. Add nvcc flags "–Xcompiler –rdynamic –lineinfo"
4. Rebuild & Run with cuda-memcheck
5. Fix the illegal write

http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-memcheck

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CUDA-GDB

- cuda-gdb is an extension of GDB
  - Provides seamless debugging of CUDA and CPU code
- Works on Linux and Macintosh
  - For a Windows debugger use NVIDIA Nsight Eclipse Edition or Visual Studio Edition

http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-gdb

Example 3: cuda-gdb

Instructions:

1. Run exercise 3 in cuda-gdb

   %> cuda-gdb --args ./a.out

2. Run a few cuda-gdb commands:

```
(cuda-gdb) b main              //set break point at main
(cuda-gdb) r                       //run application
(cuda-gdb) l                       //print line context
(cuda-gdb) b foo                   //break at kernel foo
(cuda-gdb) c                       //continue
(cuda-gdb) cuda thread         //print current thread
(cuda-gdb) cuda thread 10      //switch to thread 10
(cuda-gdb) cuda block          //print current block
(cuda-gdb) cuda block 1        //switch to block 1
(cuda-gdb) d                       //delete all break points
(cuda-gdb) set cuda memcheck on     //turn on cuda memcheck
(cuda-gdb) r                       //run from the beginning
```

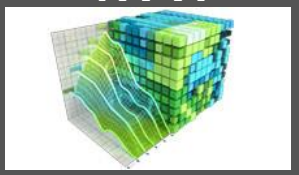
3. Fix Bug

http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-gdb

Developer Tools - Profilers

NSIGHT

NVVP

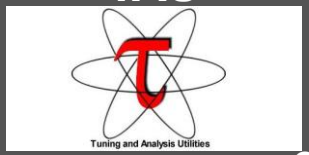


NVPROF

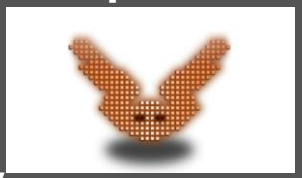
```
==20561== Profiling result:
Time(%)      Time     Calls       Avg       Min       Max  Name
 49.88%  866.69ms    504758  1.7170us  1.5040us  2.0160us  void th
int, thrust::detail::device_generate_functor<thrust::detail::fill_
 25.33%  440.05ms    252662  1.7410us  1.5360us  2.3680us  void th
t, thrust::detail::device_generate_functor<thrust::detail::fill_fu
 17.07%  296.60ms       200  1.4830ms  1.2040ms  1.7253ms  kerComp
  2.98%  51.819ms       200  259.09us  246.97us  264.83us  kerMake
  1.16%  20.173ms       501  40.265us     928ns  17.677ms  [CUDA m
  0.93%  16.198ms       200  80.991us  71.840us  90.751us  kerColl
  0.73%  12.636ms       400  31.589us  14.720us  50.432us  [CUDA m
  0.69%  12.075ms       200  60.376us  59.680us  62.304us  kerRema
  0.63%  10.993ms       200  54.963us  52.608us  58.208us  kerMake
  0.32%  5.5524ms       200  27.761us  22.559us  33.152us  [CUDA m
  0.12%  2.1342ms         1  2.1342ms  2.1342ms  2.1342ms  void th
```

NVIDIA Provided

TAU



VampirTrace



3rd Party

https://developer.nvidia.com/performance-analysis-tools

NVPROF

Command Line Profiler

- Compute time in each kernel
- Compute memory transfer time
- Collect metrics and events
- Support complex process hierarchy's
- Collect profiles for NVIDIA Visual Profiler
- No need to recompile

Example 4: nvprof

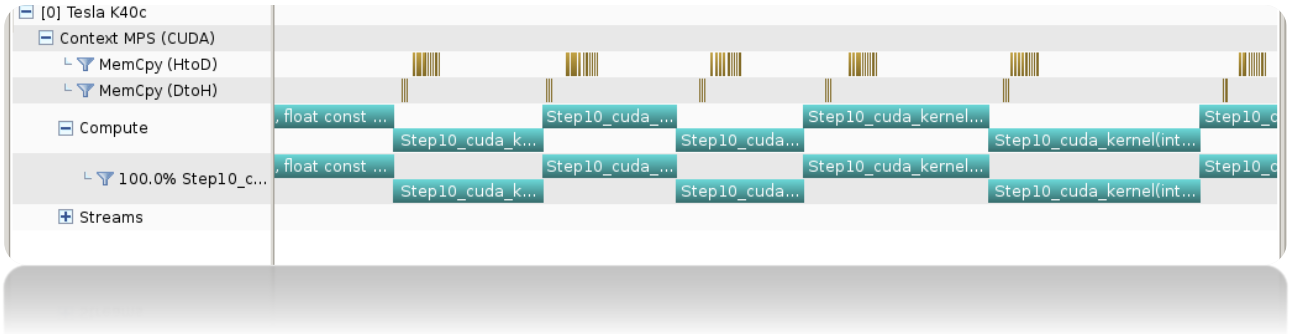
Instructions:

1. Collect profile information for the matrix add example
   %> nvprof ./a.out
2. How much faster is add_v2 than add_v1?
3. View available metrics
   %> nvprof --query-metrics
4. View global load/store efficiency
   %> nvprof --metrics gld_efficiency,gst_efficiency ./a.out
5. Store a timeline to load in NVVP
   %> nvprof -o profile.timeline ./a.out
6. Store analysis metrics to load in NVVP
   %> nvprof -o profile.metrics --analysis-metrics ./a.out

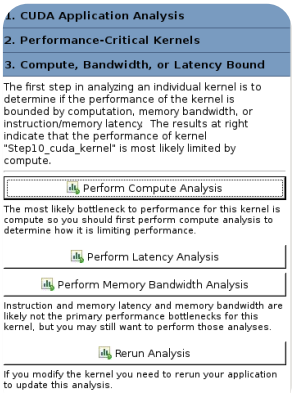
NVIDIA ILLINOIS

NVIDIA's Visual Profiler (NVVP)

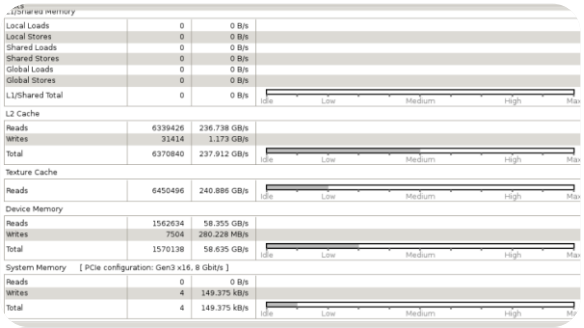
Timeline

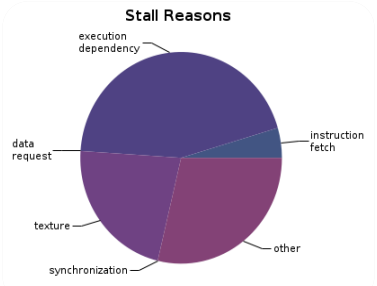


Guided System



Analysis





Example 4: NVVP

Instructions:

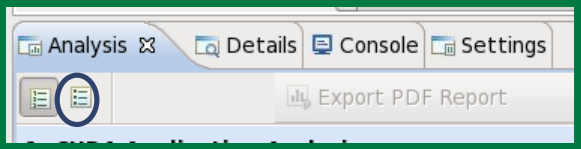
1. Import nvprof profile into NVVP
   - Launch nvvp
   - Click File/ Import/ Nvprof/ Next/ Single process/ Next / Browse
     - Select profile.timeline
   - Add Metrics to timeline
     - Click on 2nd Browse
     - Select profile.metrics
   - Click Finish
2. Explore Timeline
   - Control + mouse drag in timeline to zoom in
   - Control + mouse drag in measure bar (on top) to measure time

NVIDIA ILLINOIS

Example 4: NVVP

Instructions:

1. Click on a kernel
2. On Analysis tab click on the unguided analysis



2. Click Analyze All

   Explore metrics and properties

   What differences do you see between the two kernels?

Note:

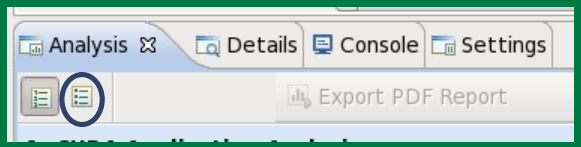
If kernel order is non-deterministic you can only load the timeline or the metrics but not both.

If you load just metrics the timeline looks odd but metrics are correct.

Example 4: NVVP

Let's now generate the same data within NVVP

1. Click File / New Session / Browse
   Select Example 4/a.out
   Click Next / Finish



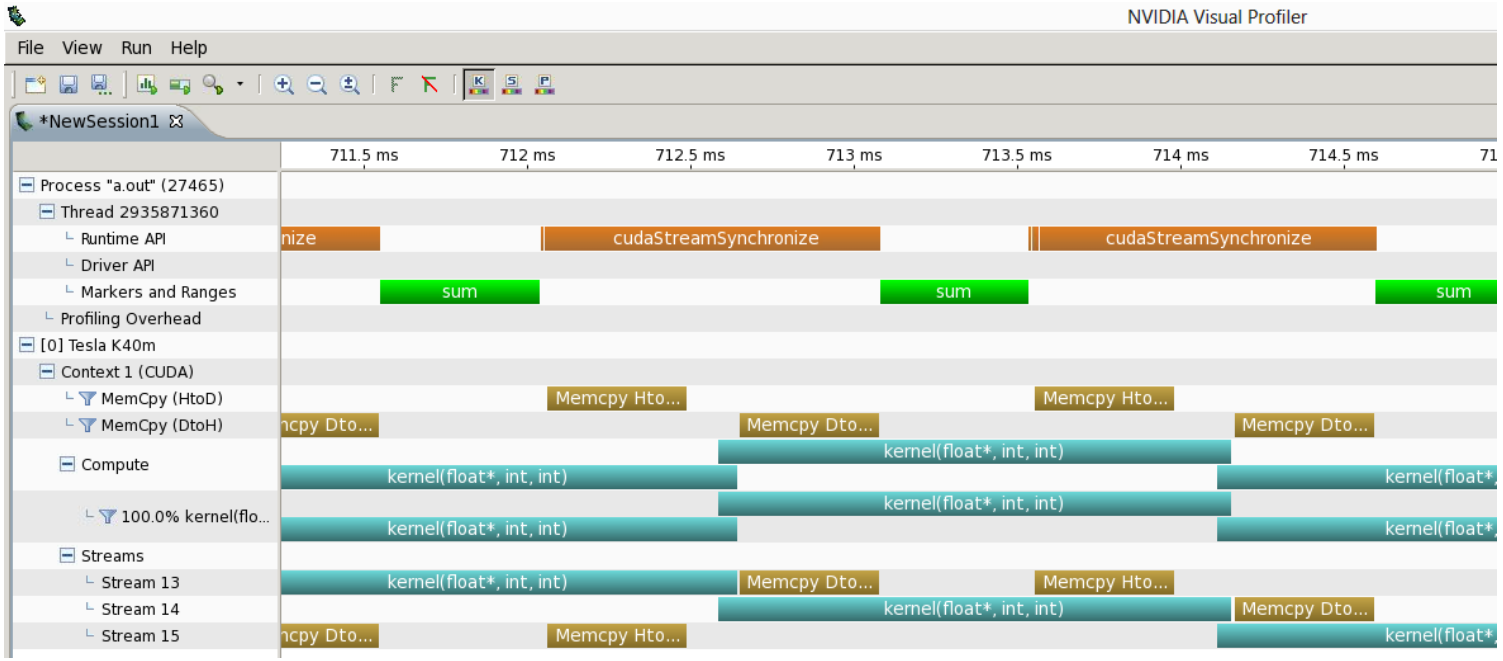
2. Click on a kernel
   Select Unguided Analysis
   Click Analyze All

NVTX

- Our current tools only profile API calls on the host
  - What if we want to understand better what the host is doing?
- The NVTX library allows us to annotate profiles with ranges
  - Add: #include <nvToolsExt.h>
  - Link with: -lnvToolsExt
- Mark the start of a range
  - nvtxRangePushA(“description”);
- Mark the end of a range
  - nvtxRangePop();
- Ranges are allowed to overlap

http://devblogs.nvidia.com/parallelforall/cuda-pro-tip-generate-custom-application-profile-timelines-nvtx/

NVTX Profile



NSIGHT

- CUDA enabled Integrated Development Environment
  - Source code editor: syntax highlighting, code refactoring, etc
  - Build Manger
  - Visual Debugger
  - Visual Profiler
- Linux/Macintosh
  - Editor = Eclipse
  - Debugger = cuda-gdb with a visual wrapper
  - Profiler = NVVP
- Windows
  - Integrates directly into Visual Studio
  - Profiler is NSIGHT VSE

Example 4: NSIGHT

Let's import an existing Makefile project into NSIGHT

Instructions:

1. Run nsight
   Select default workspace
2. Click File / New / Makefile Project With Existing CodeTest
3. Enter Project Name and select the Example15 directory
4. Click Finish
5. Right Click On Project / Properties / Run Settings / New / C++ Application
6. Browse for Example 4/a.out
7. In Project Explorer double click on main.cu and explore source
8. Click on the build icon
9. Click on the run icon
10. Click on the profile icon

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Profiler Summary

- Many profile tools are available
- NVIDIA Provided
  - NVPROF: Command Line
  - NVVP: Visual profiler
  - NSIGHT: IDE (Visual Studio and Eclipse)
- 3rd Party
  - TAU
  - VAMPIR

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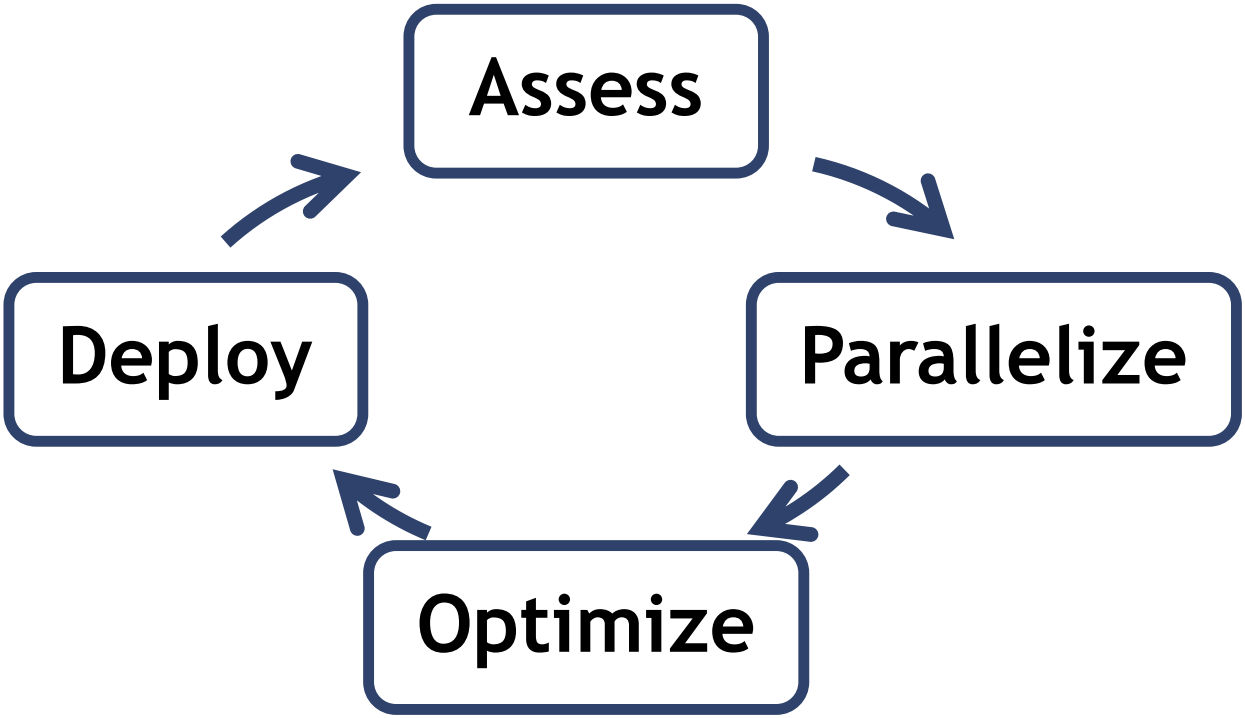
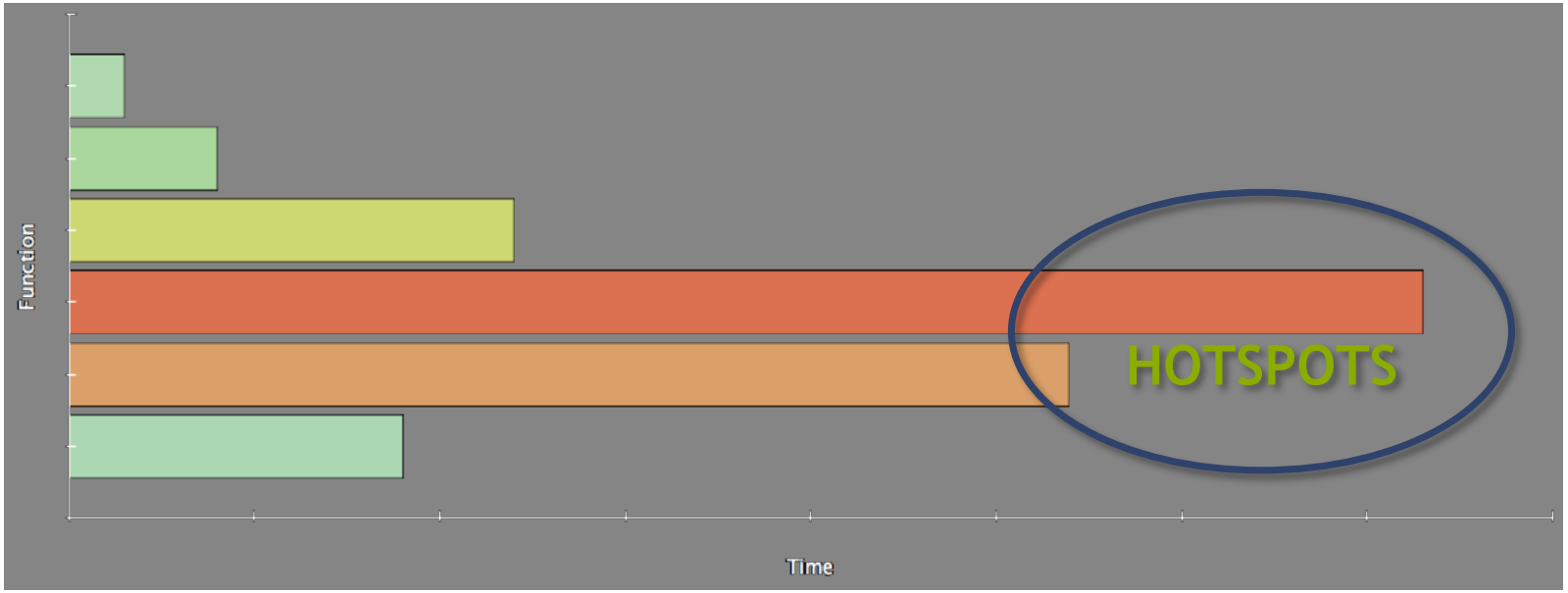
Optimization



Assess

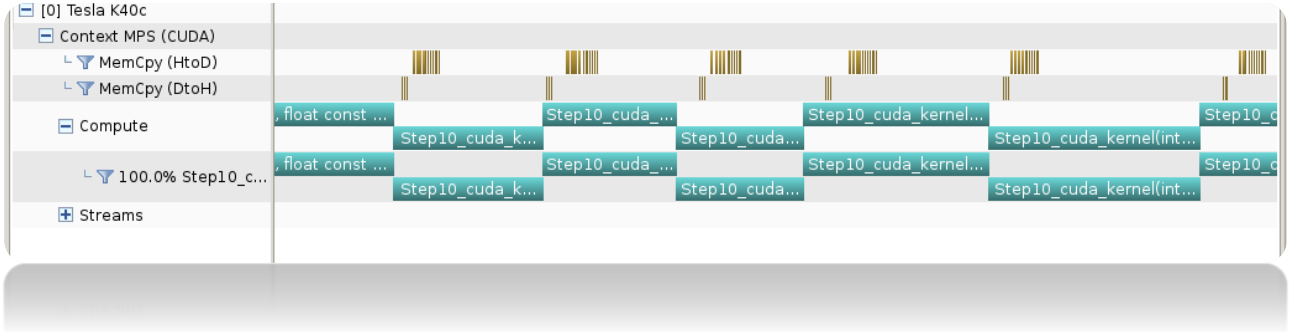


- Profile the code, find the hotspot(s)
- Focus your attention where it will give the most benefit

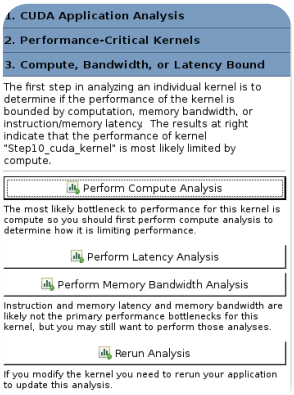
Parallelize

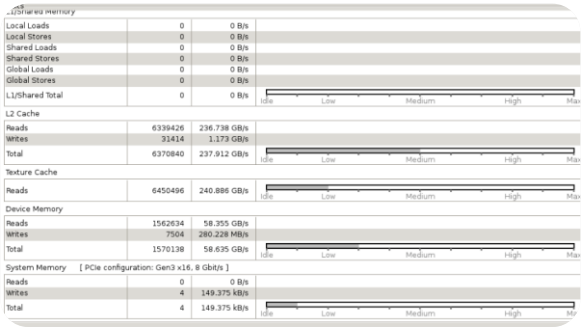
Optimize

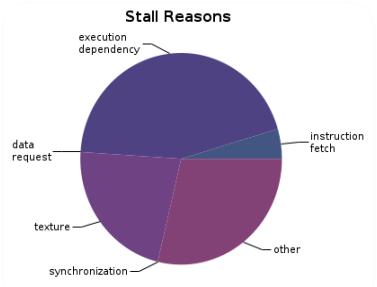
Timeline



Guided System Analysis







Bottleneck Analysis

- Don’t assume an optimization was wrong
- Verify if it was wrong with the profiler

129 GB/s → 84 GB/s

gpuTranspose_kernel(int, int, float const *, float*)	
Start	547.303 ms (5
End	547.716 ms (5
Duration	413.872 µs
Grid Size	[64,64,1]
Block Size	[32,32,1]
Registers/Thread	10
Shared Memory/Block	4 KiB
▾ Efficiency	
Global Load Efficiency	100%
Global Store Efficiency	100%
Shared Efficiency	⚠ 5.9%
Warp Execution Efficiency	100%
Non-Predicated Warp Execution Efficien	97.1%
▾ Occupancy	
Achieved	86.7%
Theoretical	100%
▾ Shared Memory Configuration	
Shared Memory Requested	48 KiB
Shared Memory Executed	48 KiB

L1/Shared Memory

Local Loads	0	0 B/s	
Local Stores	0	0 B/s	
Shared Loads	2097152	1,351.979 GB/s	
Shared Stores	131072	84.499 GB/s	
Global Loads	131072	42.249 GB/s	
Global Stores	131072	42.249 GB/s	
Atomic	0	0 B/s	
L1/Shared Total	2490368	1,520.977 GB/s	Idle Low Medium

⚠ Shared Memory Alignment and Access Pattern

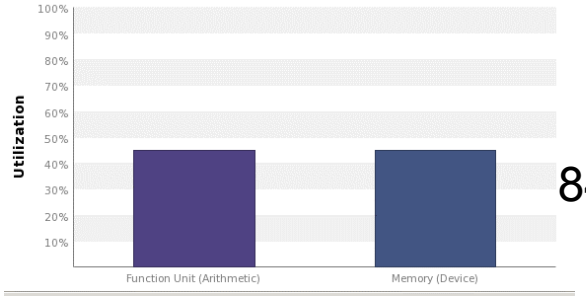
Memory bandwidth is used most efficiently when each shared memory load and store has proper alignment and access pattern.

Optimization: Select each entry below to open the source code to a shared load or store within the kernel with an inefficient alignment or access pattern. For each access pattern of the memory access.

▾ Line / File	main.cu - /home/jluitjens/code/CudaHandsOn/Example19
49	Shared Load Transactions/Access = 16, Ideal Transactions/Access = 1 [2097152 transactions for 131072 total executions]

Performance Analysis

gpuTranspose_kernel(int, int, float const *, float*	
Start	770.067
End	770.324
Duration	256.714
Grid Size	[64,64,1
Block Size	[32,32,1
Registers/Thread	10
Shared Memory/Block	4.125 KiB
Efficiency	
Global Load Efficiency	100%
Global Store Efficiency	100%
Shared Efficiency	50%
Warp Execution Efficiency	100%
Non-Predicated Warp Execution Efficien	97.1%
Occupancy	
Achieved	87.7%
Theoretical	100%
Shared Memory Configuration	
Shared Memory Requested	48 KiB
Shared Memory Executed	48 KiB



84 GB/s ➡ 137 GB/s

L1/Shared Memory			
Local Loads	0	0 B/s	
Local Stores	0	0 B/s	
Shared Loads	131072	138.433 GB/s	
Shared Stores	131720	139.118 GB/s	
Global Loads	131072	69.217 GB/s	
Global Stores	131072	69.217 GB/s	
Atomic	0	0 B/s	
L1/Shared Total	524936	415.984 GB/s	Idle Low Medium
L2 Cache			
L1 Reads	524288	69.217 GB/s	
L1 Writes	524288	69.217 GB/s	
Texture Reads	0	0 B/s	
Atomic	0	0 B/s	
Noncoherent Reads	0	0 B/s	
Total	1048576	138.433 GB/s	Idle Low Medium
Texture Cache			
Reads	0	0 B/s	Idle Low Medium
Device Memory			
Reads	524968	69.306 GB/s	
Writes	524289	69.217 GB/s	
Total	1049257	138.523 GB/s	Idle Low Medium

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Module 3.1 - CUDA Parallelism Model

Kernel-Based SPMD Parallel Programming

Objective

- To learn the basic concepts involved in a simple CUDA kernel function
  - Declaration
  - Built-in variables
  - Thread index to data index mapping

Example: Vector Addition Kernel

Device Code

```
// Compute vector sum C = A + B
// Each thread performs one pair-wise addition

__global__
void vecAddKernel(float* A, float* B, float* C, int n)
{
    int i = threadIdx.x+blockDim.x*blockIdx.x;
    if(i<n) C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}
```

Example: Vector Addition Kernel Launch (Host Code)

Host Code

```
void vecAdd(float* h_A, float* h_B, float* h_C, int n)
{
 // d_A, d_B, d_C allocations and copies omitted
 // Run ceil(n/256.0) blocks of 256 threads each
  vecAddKernel<<<ceil(n/256.0),256>>>(d_A, d_B, d_C, n);
}
```

The ceiling function makes sure that there are enough threads to cover all elements.

More on Kernel Launch (Host Code)

Host Code

```
void vecAdd(float* h_A, float* h_B, float* h_C, int n)
{
  dim3 DimGrid((n-1)/256 + 1, 1, 1);
  dim3 DimBlock(256, 1, 1);
  vecAddKernel<<<DimGrid,DimBlock>>>(d_A, d_B, d_C, n);
}
```

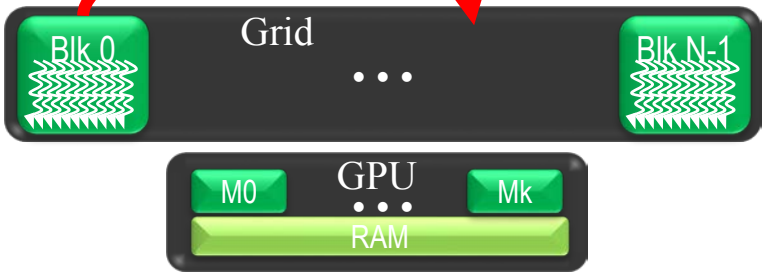
This is an equivalent way to express the ceiling function.

Kernel execution in a nutshell

```
__host__
void vecAdd(…)
{
  dim3 DimGrid(ceil(n/256.0),1,1);
  dim3 DimBlock(256,1,1);
vecAddKernel<<<DimGrid,DimBlock>>>(d_A,d_B
,d_C,n);
}
```

```
__global__
void vecAddKernel(float *A,
     float *B, float *C, int n)
{
   int i = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x
         + threadIdx.x;

   if( i<n ) C[i] = A[i]+B[i];
}
```

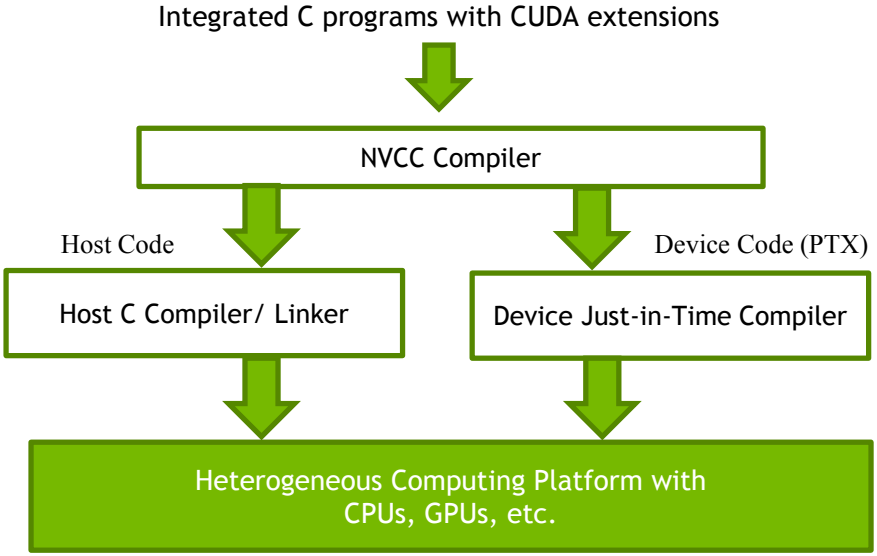


More on CUDA Function Declarations

	Executed on the:	Only callable from the:
`__device__ float DeviceFunc()`	device	device
`__global__ void KernelFunc()`	device	host
`__host__ float HostFunc()`	host	host

- `__global__` defines a kernel function
  - Each "__" consists of two underscore characters
  - A kernel function must return `void`
- `__device__` and `__host__` can be used together
- `__host__` is optional if used alone

Compiling A CUDA Program



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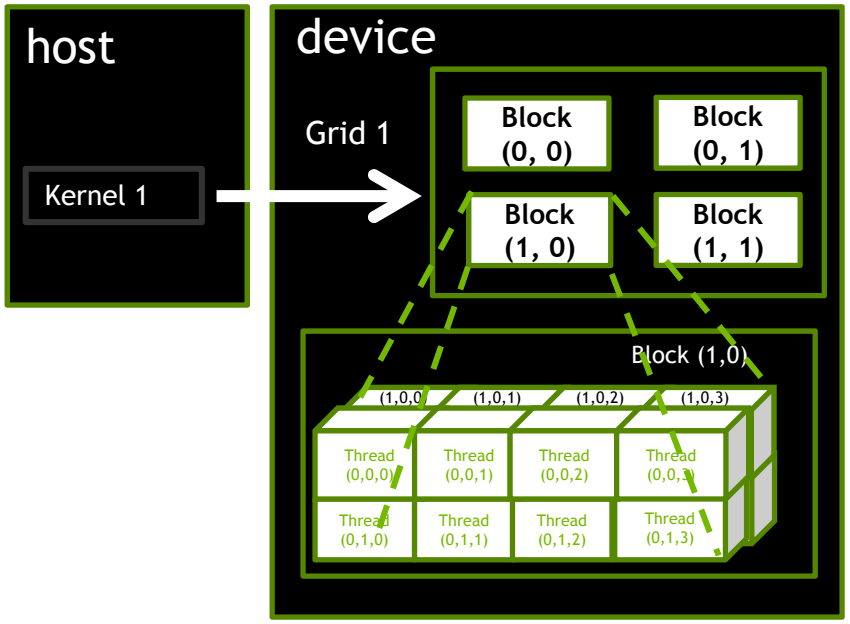
Lecture 3.2 – CUDA Parallelism Model

Multidimensional Kernel Configuration

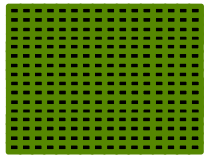
Objective

- To understand multidimensional Grids
  - Multi-dimensional block and thread indices
  - Mapping block/thread indices to data indices

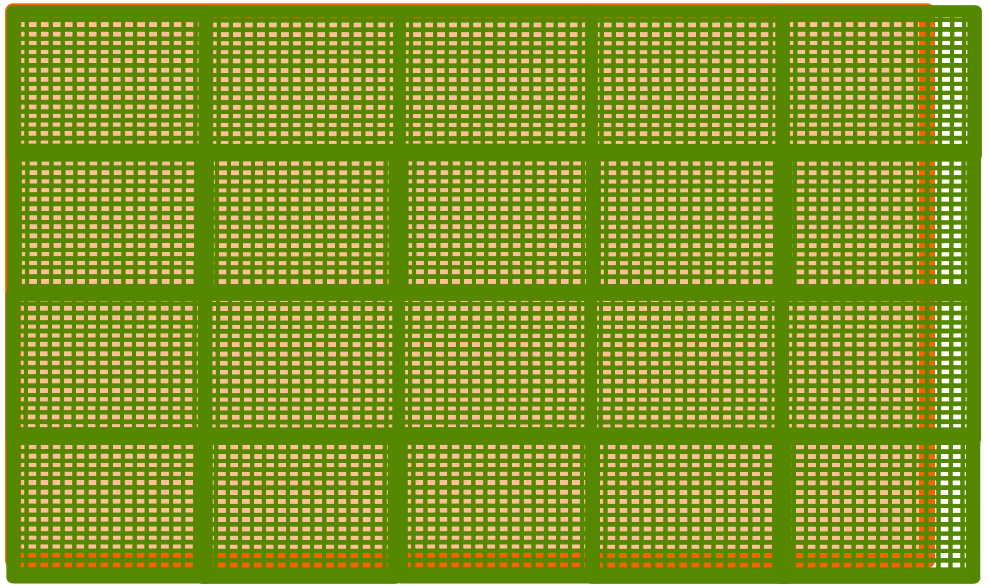
A Multi-Dimensional Grid Example



Processing a Picture with a 2D Grid

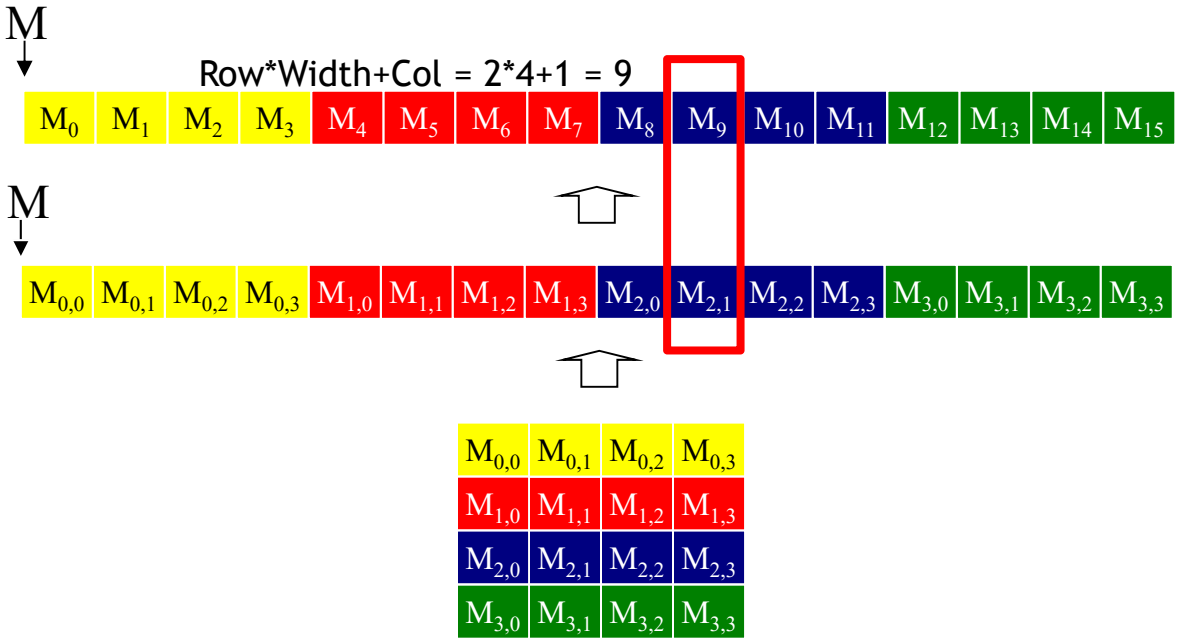


16×16 blocks



62×76 picture

Row-Major Layout in C/C++



Source Code of a PictureKernel

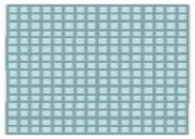
```
__global__ void PictureKernel(float* d_Pin, float* d_Pout,
                              int height, int width)
{

  // Calculate the row # of the d_Pin and d_Pout element
  int Row = blockIdx.y*blockDim.y + threadIdx.y;

  // Calculate the column # of the d_Pin and d_Pout element
  int Col = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;

  // each thread computes one element of d_Pout if in range
  if ((Row < height) && (Col < width)) {
    d_Pout[Row*width+Col] = 2.0*d_Pin[Row*width+Col];
  }
}
```

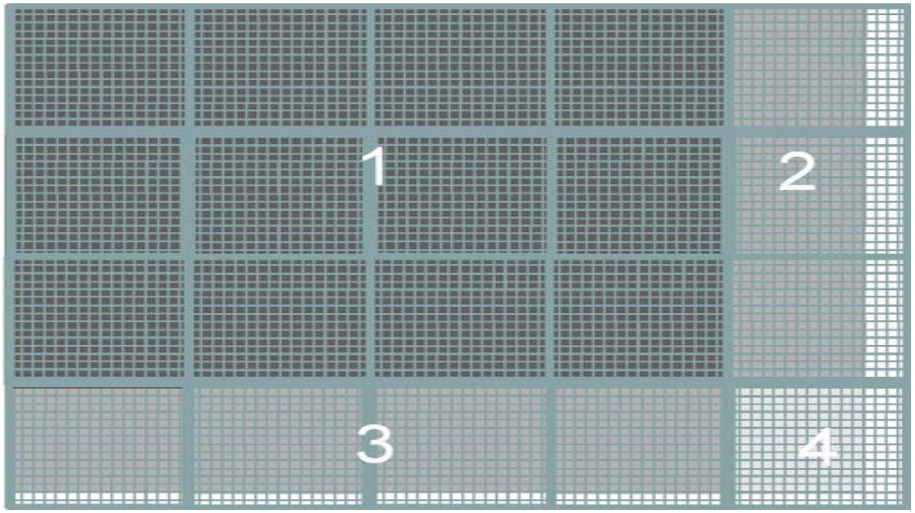
Scale every pixel value by 2.0

Host Code for Launching PictureKernel

```
// assume that the picture is m × n,
// m pixels in y dimension and n pixels in x dimension
// input d_Pin has been allocated on and copied to device
// output d_Pout has been allocated on device
...
dim3 DimGrid((n-1)/16 + 1, (m-1)/16+1, 1);
dim3 DimBlock(16, 16, 1);
PictureKernel<<<DimGrid,DimBlock>>>(d_Pin, d_Pout, m, n);
...
```

Covering a 62×76 Picture with 16×16 Blocks





Not all threads in a Block will follow the same control flow path.

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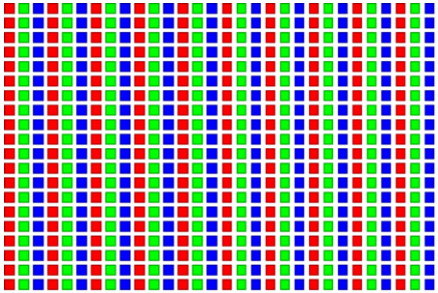
Lecture 3.3 – CUDA Parallelism Model

Color-to-Grayscale Image Processing Example

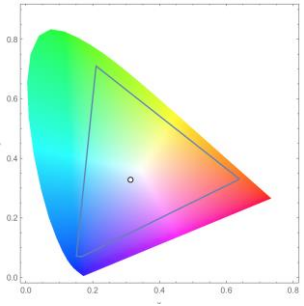
Objective

– To gain deeper understanding of multi-dimensional grid kernel configurations through a real-world use case

RGB Color Image Representation



- Each pixel in an image is an RGB value
- The format of an image's row is
  (r g b) (r g b) … (r g b)
- RGB ranges are not distributed uniformly
- Many different color spaces, here we show the constants to convert to AdobeRGB color space
  - The vertical axis (y value) and horizontal axis (x value) show the fraction of the pixel intensity that should be allocated to G and B. The remaining fraction (1-y–x) of the pixel intensity that should be assigned to R
  - The triangle contains all the representable colors in this color space

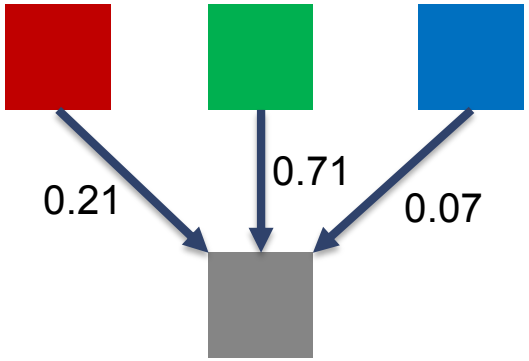


RGB to Grayscale Conversion

A grayscale digital image is an image in which the value of each pixel carries only intensity information.

Color Calculating Formula

- For each pixel (r g b) at (I, J) do:
  grayPixel[I,J] = 0.21*r + 0.71*g + 0.07*b
- This is just a dot product <[r,g,b],[0.21,0.71,0.07]> with the constants being specific to input RGB space



RGB to Grayscale Conversion Code

```
#define CHANNELS 3 // we have 3 channels corresponding to RGB
// The input image is encoded as unsigned characters [0, 255]
__global__ void colorConvert(unsigned char * grayImage,
                             unsigned char * rgbImage,
                             int width, int height) {
 int x = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;
 int y = threadIdx.y + blockIdx.y * blockDim.y;

 if (x < width && y < height) {




 }
}
```

RGB to Grayscale Conversion Code

```
#define CHANNELS 3 // we have 3 channels corresponding to RGB
// The input image is encoded as unsigned characters [0, 255]
__global__ void colorConvert(unsigned char * grayImage,
                             unsigned char * rgbImage,
                             int width, int height) {
 int x = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;
 int y = threadIdx.y + blockIdx.y * blockDim.y;

 if (x < width && y < height) {
   // get 1D coordinate for the grayscale image
   int grayOffset = y*width + x;
   // one can think of the RGB image having
   // CHANNEL times columns than the gray scale image
   int rgbOffset = grayOffset*CHANNELS;
   unsigned char r =  rgbImage[rgbOffset     ]; // red value for pixel
   unsigned char g = rgbImage[rgbOffset + 1]; // green value for pixel
   unsigned char b = rgbImage[rgbOffset + 2]; // blue value for pixel



 }
}
```

RGB to Grayscale Conversion Code

```
#define CHANNELS 3 // we have 3 channels corresponding to RGB
// The input image is encoded as unsigned characters [0, 255]
__global__ void colorConvert(unsigned char * grayImage,
                             unsigned char * rgbImage,
                             int width, int height) {
 int x = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x;
 int y = threadIdx.y + blockIdx.y * blockDim.y;

 if (x < width && y < height) {
   // get 1D coordinate for the grayscale image
   int grayOffset = y*width + x;
   // one can think of the RGB image having
   // CHANNEL times columns than the gray scale image
   int rgbOffset = grayOffset*CHANNELS;
   unsigned char r =  rgbImage[rgbOffset     ]; // red value for pixel
   unsigned char g = rgbImage[rgbOffset + 2]; // green value for pixel
   unsigned char b = rgbImage[rgbOffset + 3]; // blue value for pixel
   // perform the rescaling and store it
   // We multiply by floating point constants
   grayImage[grayOffset] = 0.21f*r + 0.71f*g + 0.07f*b;
 }
}
```

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Module 4.1 – Memory and Data Locality

CUDA Memories

Objective

- To learn to effectively use the CUDA memory types in a parallel program
  - Importance of memory access efficiency
  - Registers, shared memory, global memory
  - Scope and lifetime

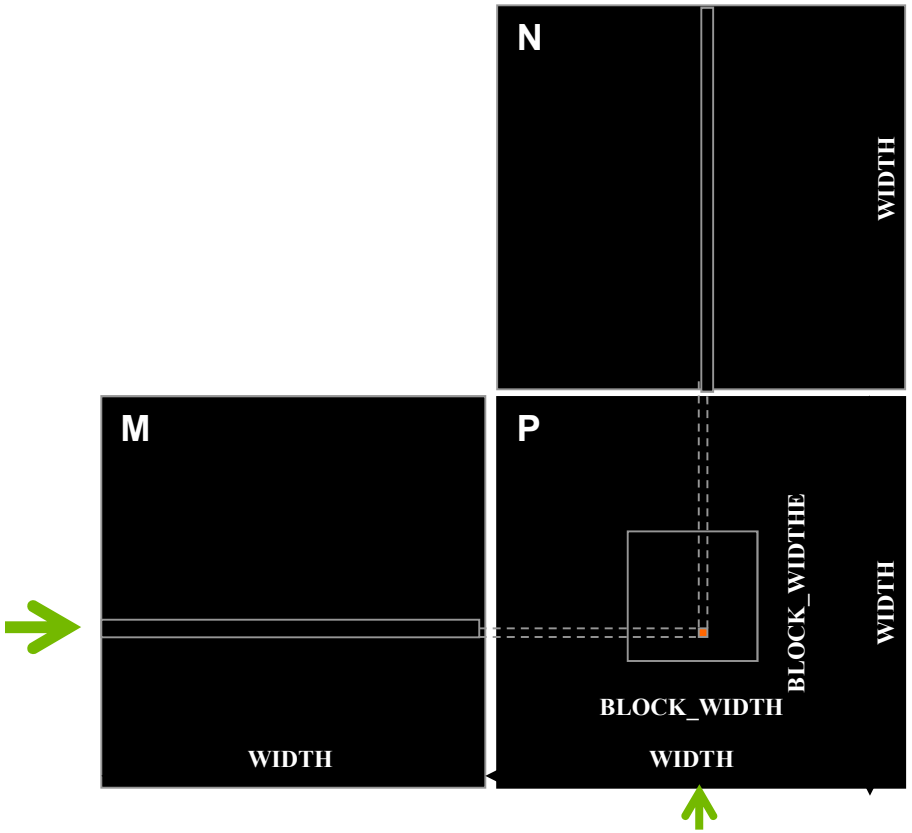
Review: Image Blur Kernel.

```
// Get the average of the surrounding 2xBLUR_SIZE x 2xBLUR_SIZE box
for(int blurRow = -BLUR_SIZE; blurRow < BLUR_SIZE+1; ++blurRow) {
  for(int blurCol = -BLUR_SIZE; blurCol < BLUR_SIZE+1; ++blurCol) {

    int curRow = Row + blurRow;
    int curCol = Col + blurCol;
    // Verify we have a valid image pixel
    if(curRow > -1 && curRow < h && curCol > -1 && curCol < w) {
      pixVal += in[curRow * w + curCol];
      pixels++; // Keep track of number of pixels in the accumulated total
    }
  }
}

// Write our new pixel value out
out[Row * w + Col] = (unsigned char)(pixVal / pixels);
```

How about performance on a GPU

- All threads access global memory for their input matrix elements
  - One memory accesses (4 bytes) per floating-point addition
  - 4B/s of memory bandwidth/FLOPS
- Assume a GPU with
  - Peak floating-point rate 1,600 GFLOPS with 600 GB/s DRAM bandwidth
  - 4*1,600 = 6,400 GB/s required to achieve peak FLOPS rating
  - The 600 GB/s memory bandwidth limits the execution at 150 GFLOPS
- This limits the execution rate to 9.3% (150/1600) of the peak floating-point execution rate of the device!
- Need to drastically cut down memory accesses to get close to the1,600 GFLOPS

Example – Matrix Multiplication



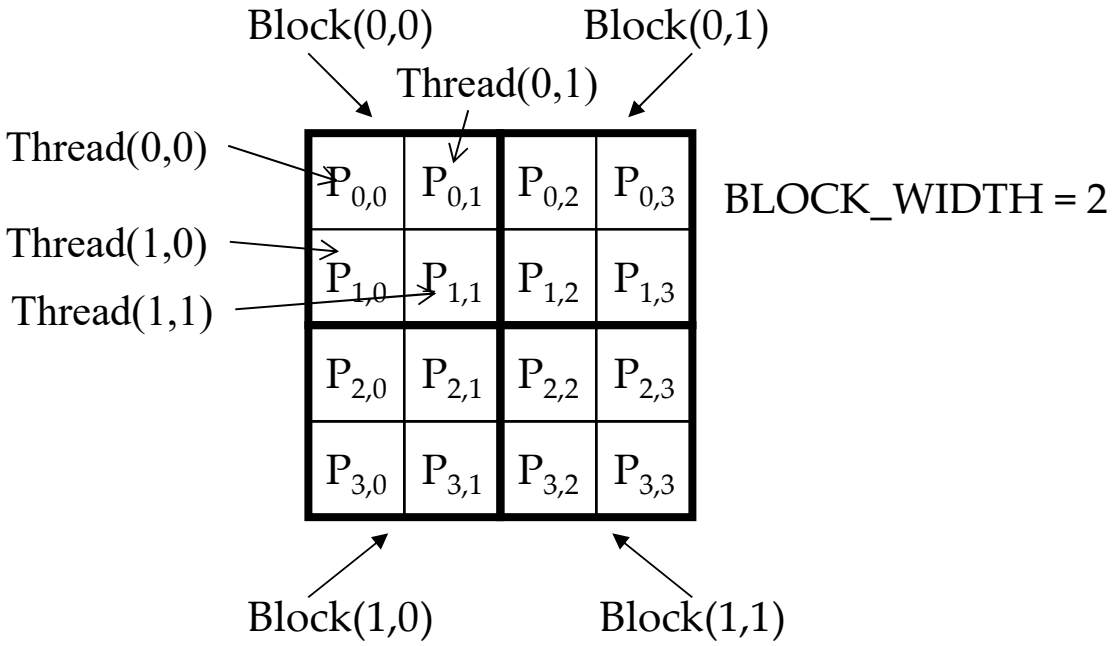
A Basic Matrix Multiplication

```
__global__ void MatrixMulKernel(float* M, float* N, float* P, int Width) {
  // Calculate the row index of the P element and M
  int Row = blockIdx.y*blockDim.y+threadIdx.y;

  // Calculate the column index of P and N
  int Col = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x+threadIdx.x;

  if ((Row < Width) && (Col < Width)) {
    float Pvalue = 0;
    // each thread computes one element of the block sub-matrix
    for (int k = 0; k < Width; ++k) {
      Pvalue += M[Row*Width+k]*N[k*Width+Col];
    }
    P[Row*Width+Col] = Pvalue;
  }

}
```

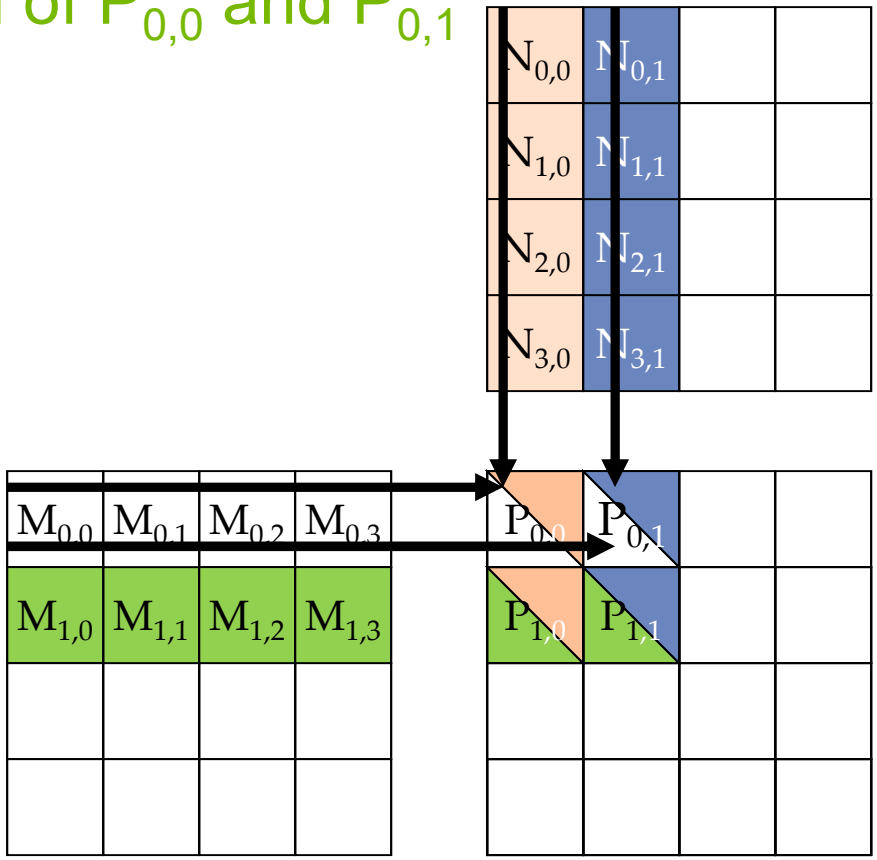
Example – Matrix Multiplication

```
__global__ void MatrixMulKernel(float* M, float* N, float* P, int Width) {

  // Calculate the row index of the P element and M
  int Row = blockIdx.y*blockDim.y+threadIdx.y;

  // Calculate the column index of P and N
  int Col = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x+threadIdx.x;

  if ((Row < Width) && (Col < Width)) {
    float Pvalue = 0;
    // each thread computes one element of the block sub-matrix
    for (int k = 0; k < Width; ++k) {
      Pvalue += M[Row*Width+k]*N[k*Width+Col];
    }
    P[Row*Width+Col] = Pvalue;
  }

}
```

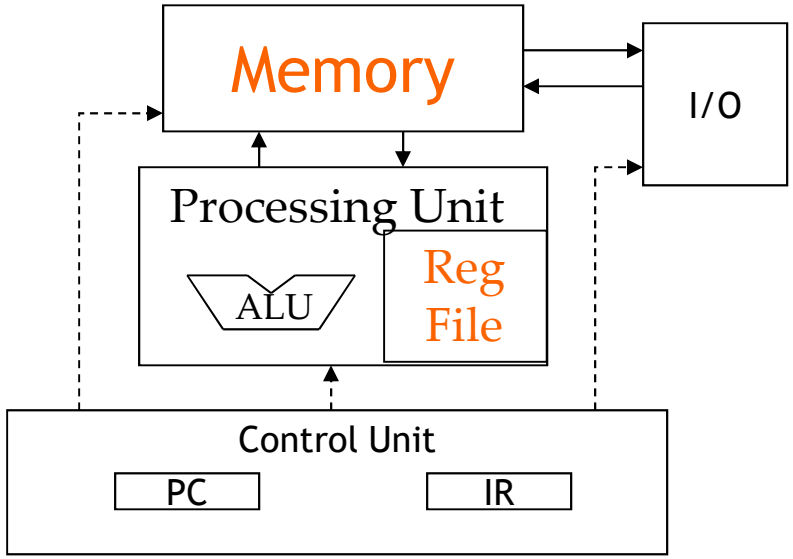
A Toy Example: Thread to P Data Mapping



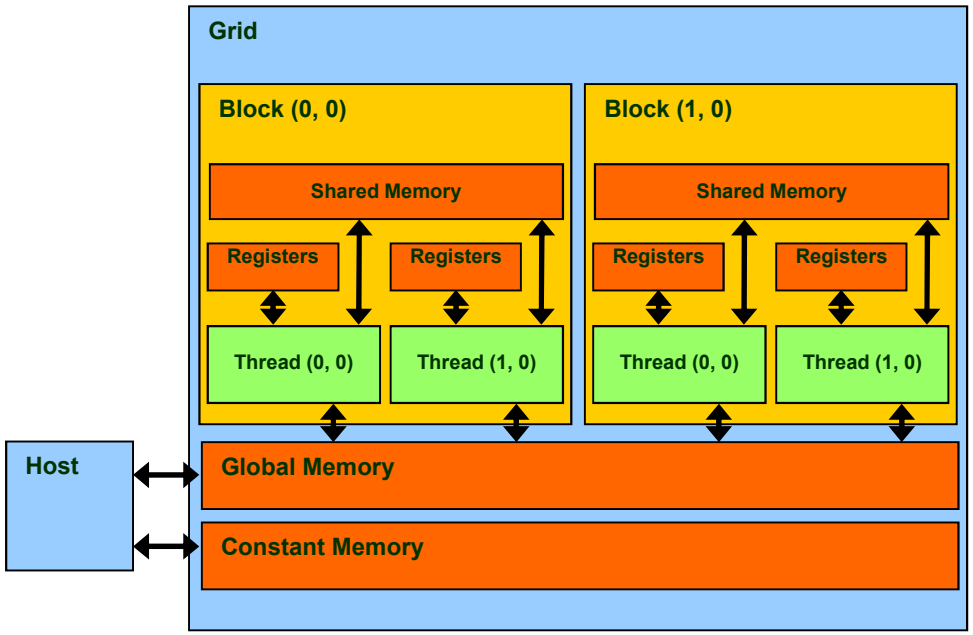
Calculation of $P_{0,0}$ and $P_{0,1}$



Memory and Registers in the Von-Neumann Model



Programmer View of CUDA Memories



Declaring CUDA Variables

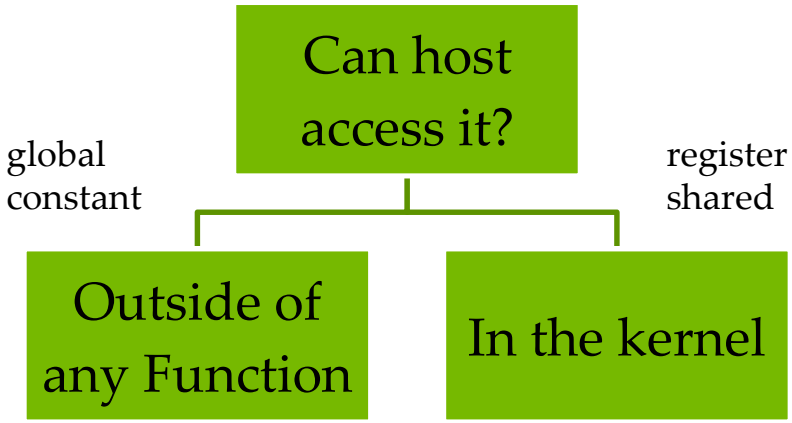
Variable declaration	Memory	Scope	Lifetime
int LocalVar;	register	thread	thread
__device__ __shared__ int SharedVar;	shared	block	block
__device__ int GlobalVar;	global	grid	application
__device__ __constant__ int ConstantVar;	constant	grid	application

- **`__device__`** is optional when used with **`__shared__`**, or **`__constant__`**
- Automatic variables reside in a register
  - Except per-thread arrays that reside in global memory

Example:
Shared Memory Variable Declaration

```
void blurKernel(unsigned char * in, unsigned char * out, int w, int h)
{
   __shared__ float ds_in[TILE_WIDTH][TILE_WIDTH];

  …
}
```

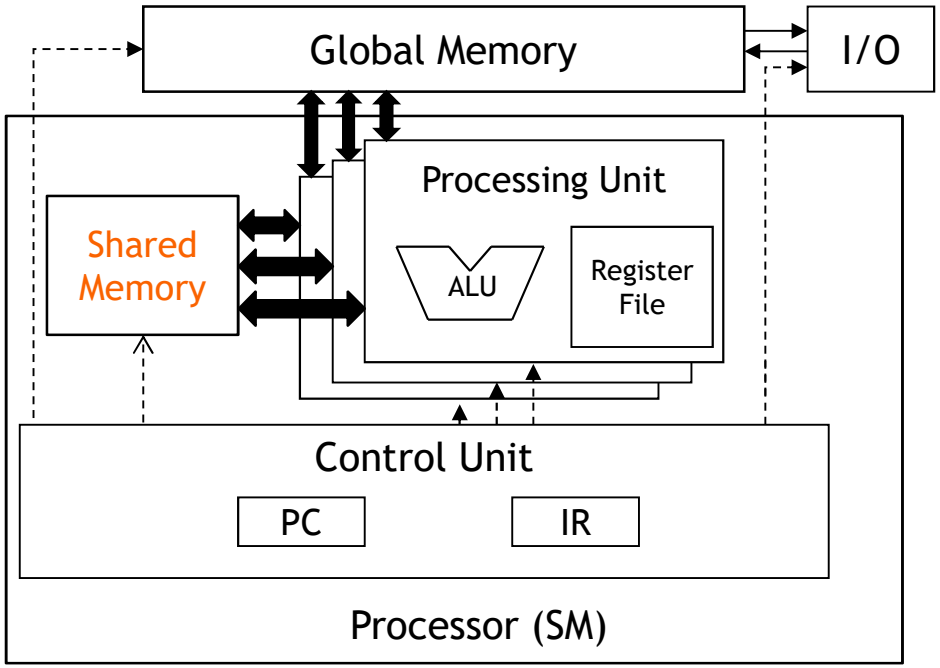
Where to Declare Variables?



Shared Memory in CUDA

- A special type of memory whose contents are explicitly defined and used in the kernel source code
  - One in each SM
  - Accessed at much higher speed (in both latency and throughput) than global memory
  - Scope of access and sharing - thread blocks
  - Lifetime – thread block, contents will disappear after the corresponding thread finishes terminates execution
  - Accessed by memory load/store instructions
  - A form of scratchpad memory in computer architecture

Hardware View of CUDA Memories



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Module 4.2 – Memory and Data Locality

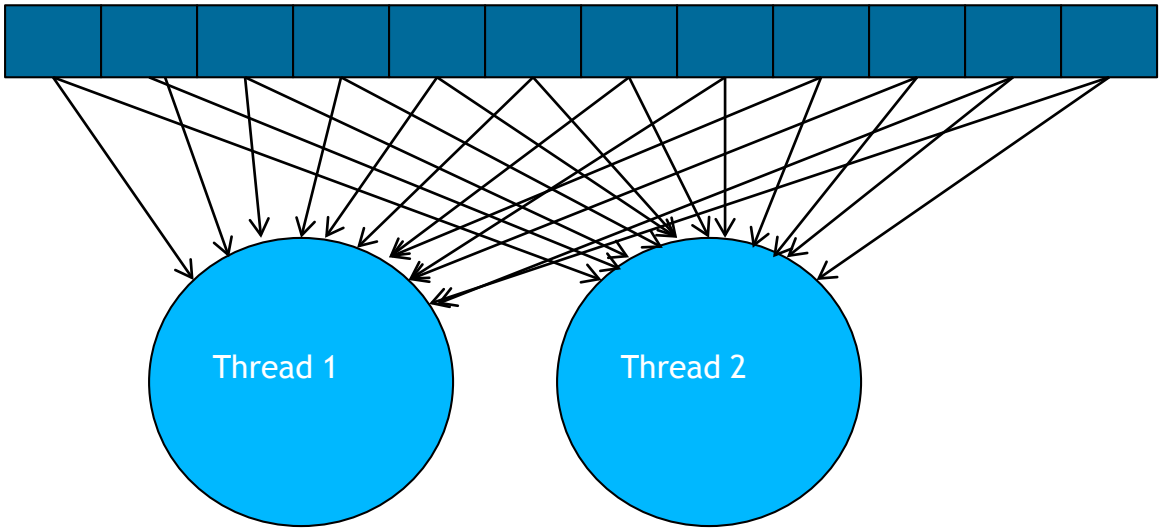
Tiled Parallel Algorithms

Objective

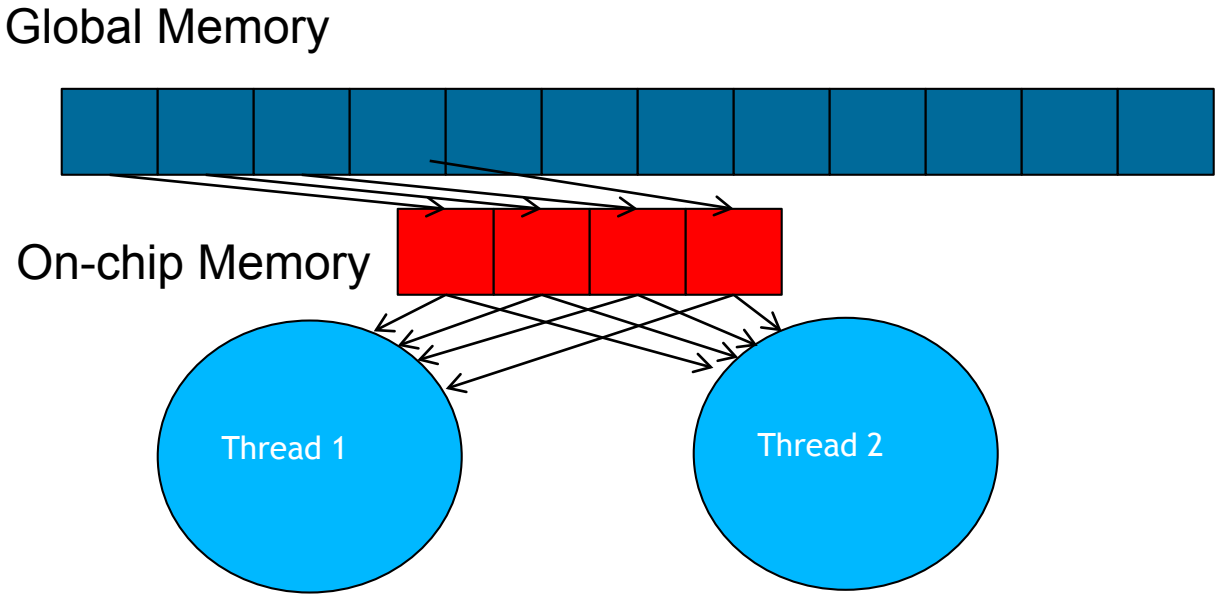
- To understand the motivation and ideas for tiled parallel algorithms
  - Reducing the limiting effect of memory bandwidth on parallel kernel performance
  - Tiled algorithms and barrier synchronization

Global Memory Access Pattern of the Basic Matrix Multiplication Kernel

Global Memory



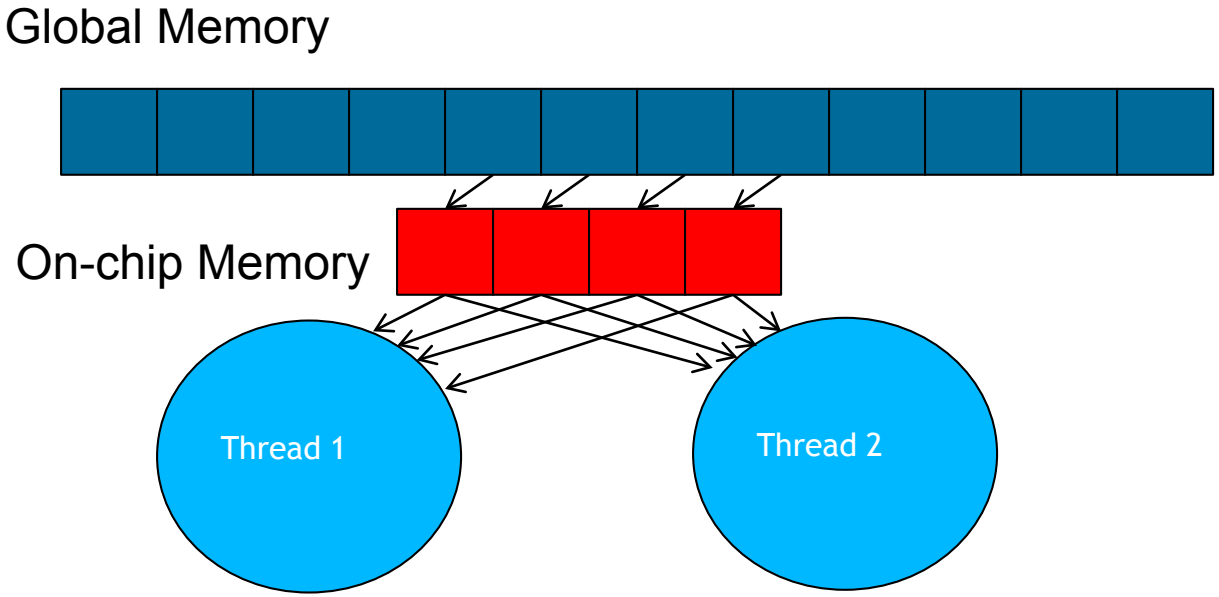
Tiling/Blocking - Basic Idea



Divide the global memory content into tiles

Focus the computation of threads on one or a small number of tiles at each point in time

Tiling/Blocking - Basic Idea



Basic Concept of Tiling

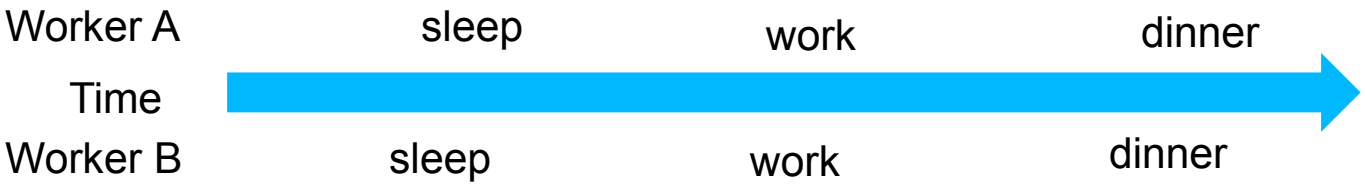
- In a congested traffic system, significant reduction of vehicles can greatly improve the delay seen by all vehicles
  - Carpooling for commuters
  - Tiling for global memory accesses
    - drivers = threads accessing their memory data operands
    - cars = memory access requests

Some Computations are More Challenging to Tile

- Some carpools may be easier than others
  - Car pool participants need to have similar work schedule
  - Some vehicles may be more suitable for carpooling
- Similar challenges exist in tiling

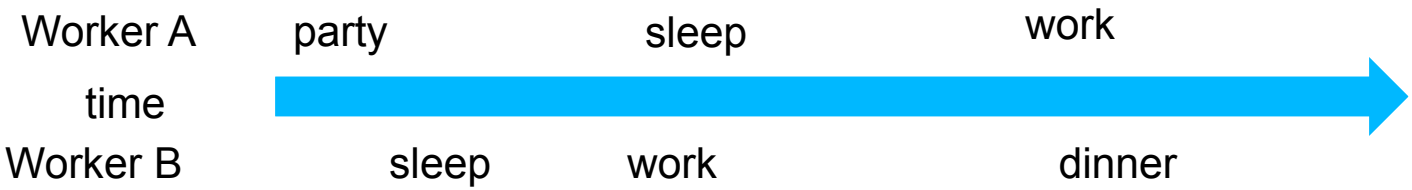
Carpools need synchronization.

– Good: when people have similar schedule



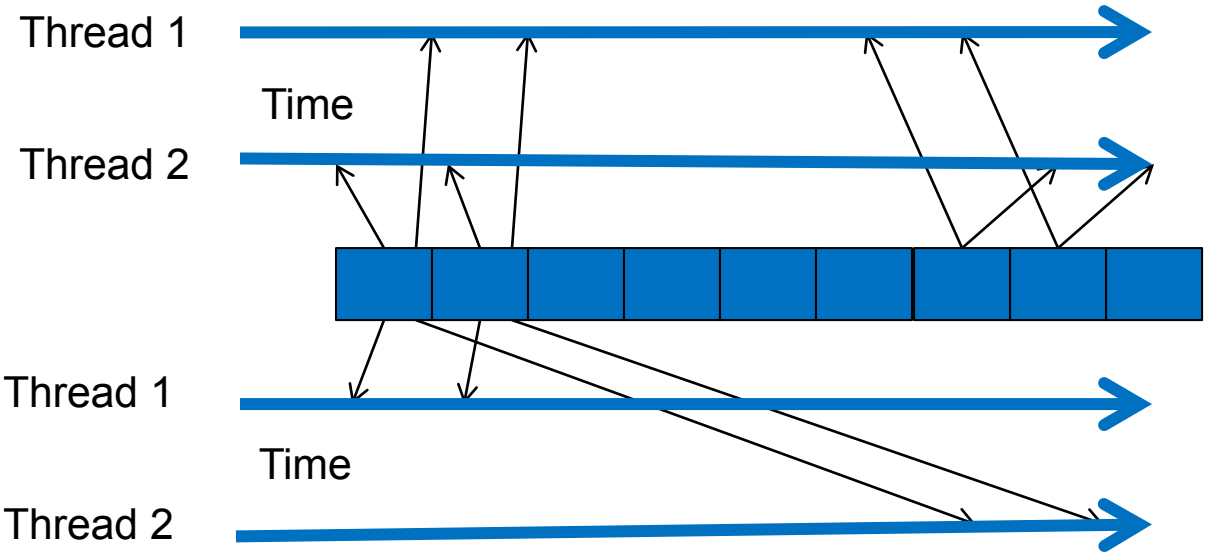
Carpools need synchronization.

– Bad: when people have very different schedule



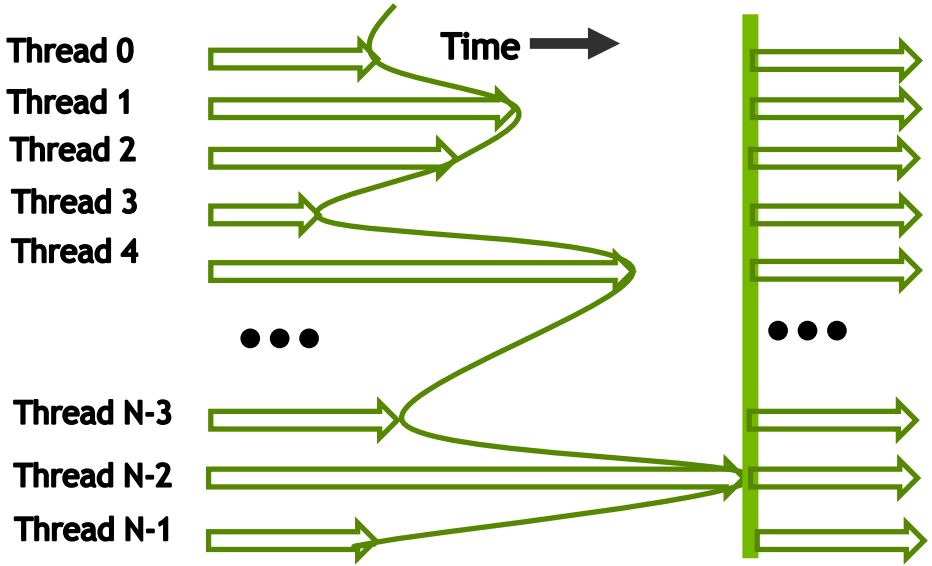
Same with Tiling

– Good: when threads have similar access timing



– Bad: when threads have very different timing

Barrier Synchronization for Tiling



Outline of Tiling Technique

- Identify a tile of global memory contents that are accessed by multiple threads
- Load the tile from global memory into on-chip memory
- Use barrier synchronization to make sure that all threads are ready to start the phase
- Have the multiple threads to access their data from the on-chip memory
- Use barrier synchronization to make sure that all threads have completed the current phase
- Move on to the next tile

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Module 4.3 - Memory Model and Locality

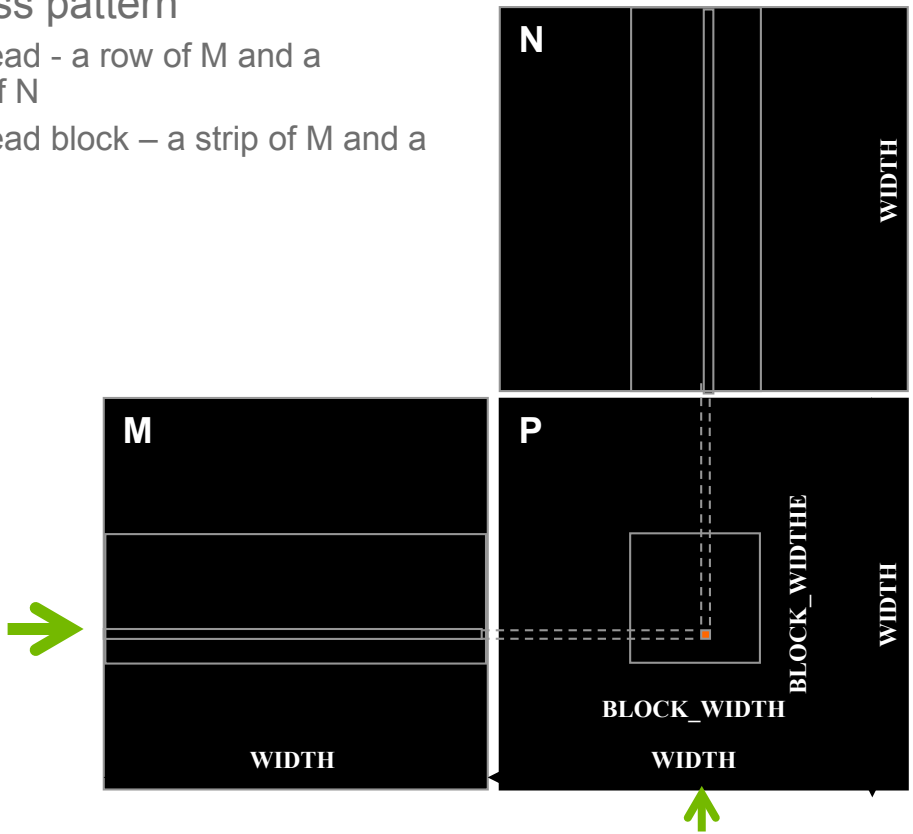
Tiled Matrix Multiplication

Objective

- To understand the design of a tiled parallel algorithm for matrix multiplication
  - Loading a tile
  - Phased execution
  - Barrier Synchronization

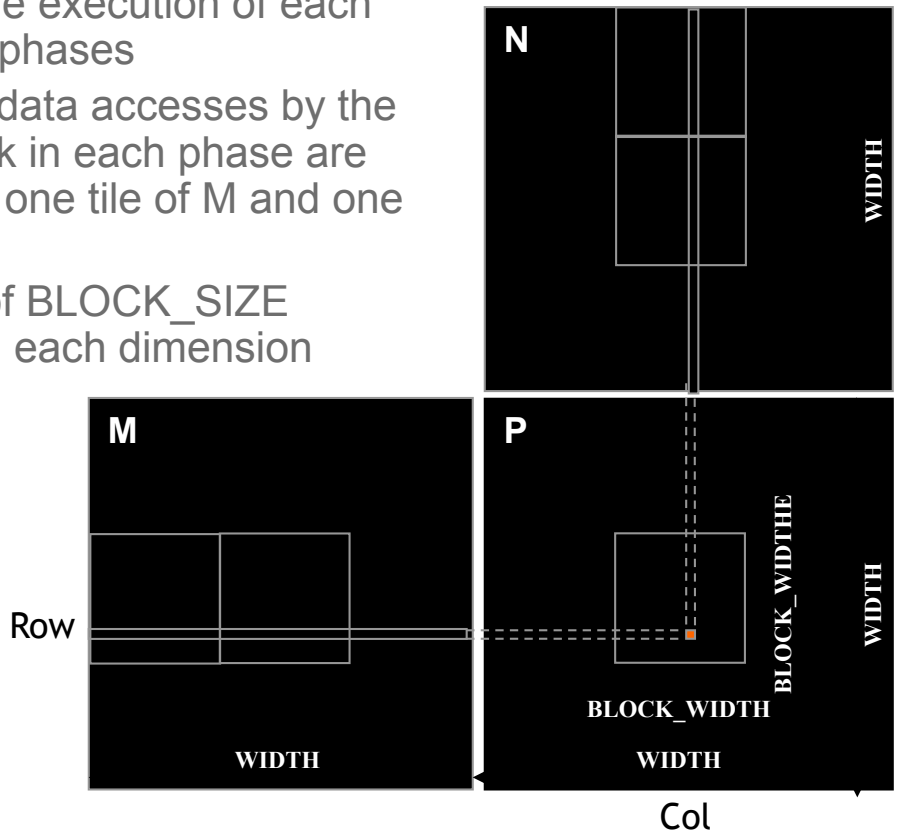
Matrix Multiplication

- Data access pattern
  - Each thread - a row of M and a column of N
  - Each thread block – a strip of M and a strip of N



Tiled Matrix Multiplication

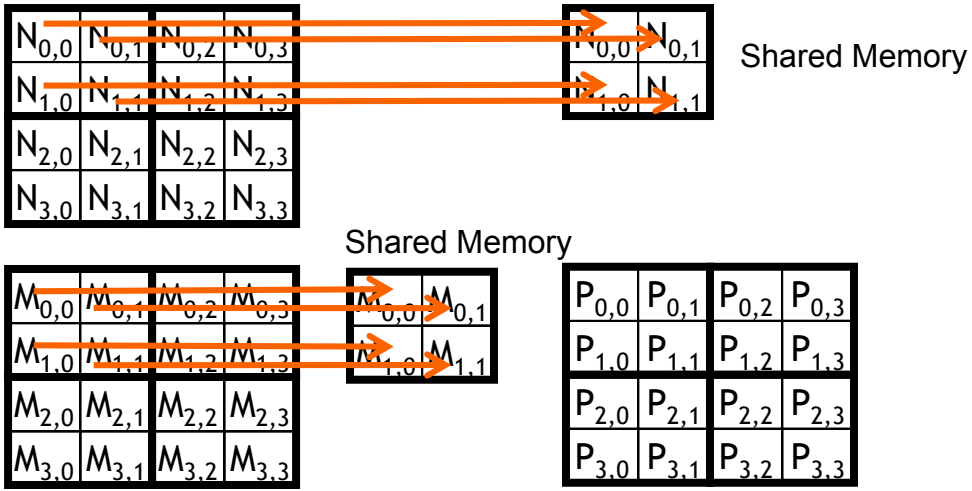
- Break up the execution of each thread into phases
- so that the data accesses by the thread block in each phase are focused on one tile of M and one tile of N
- The tile is of BLOCK_SIZE elements in each dimension



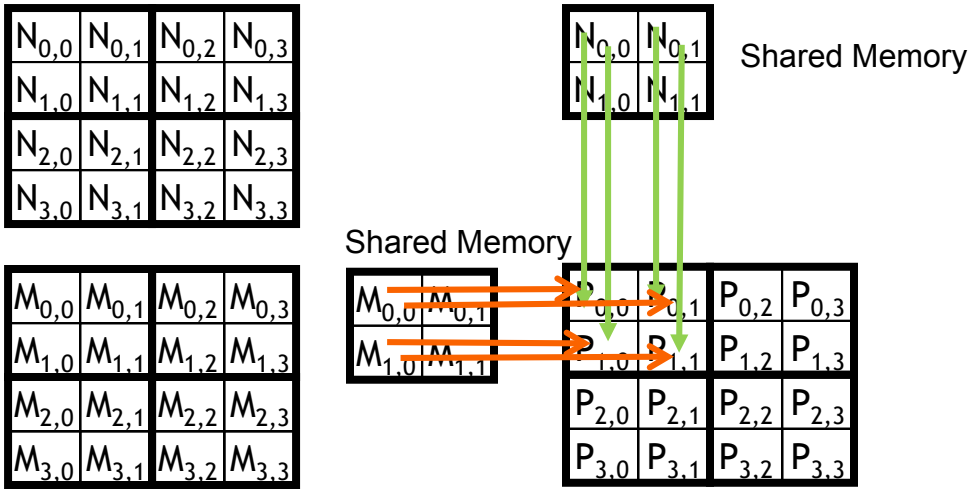
Loading a Tile

- All threads in a block participate
  - Each thread loads one M element and one N element in tiled code

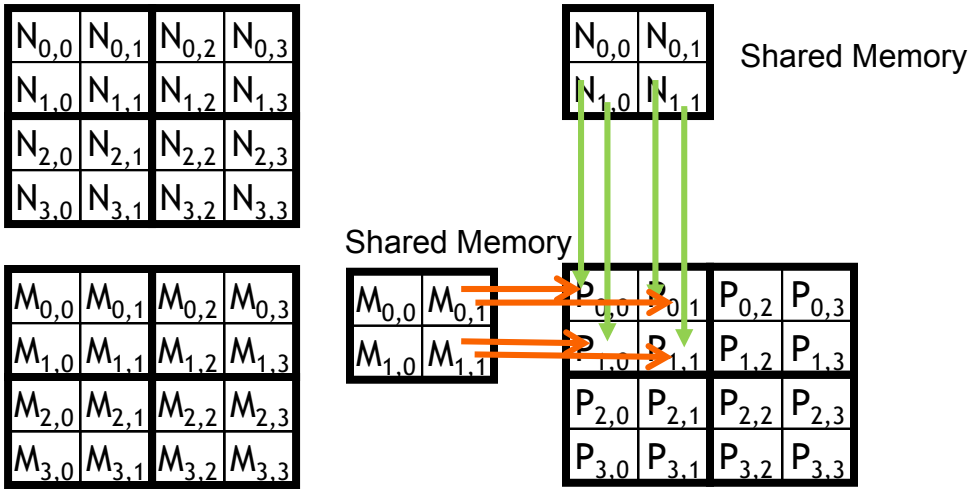
Phase 0 Load for Block (0,0)



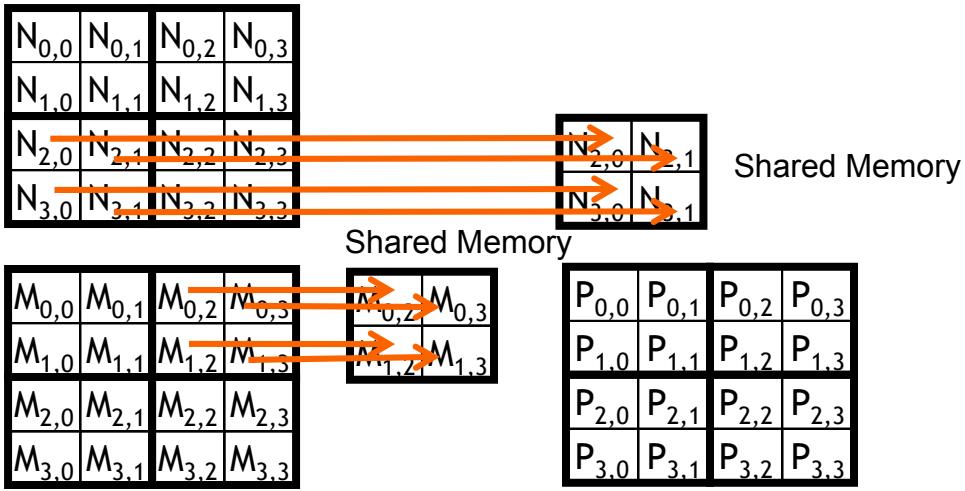
Phase 0 Use for Block (0,0) (iteration 0)



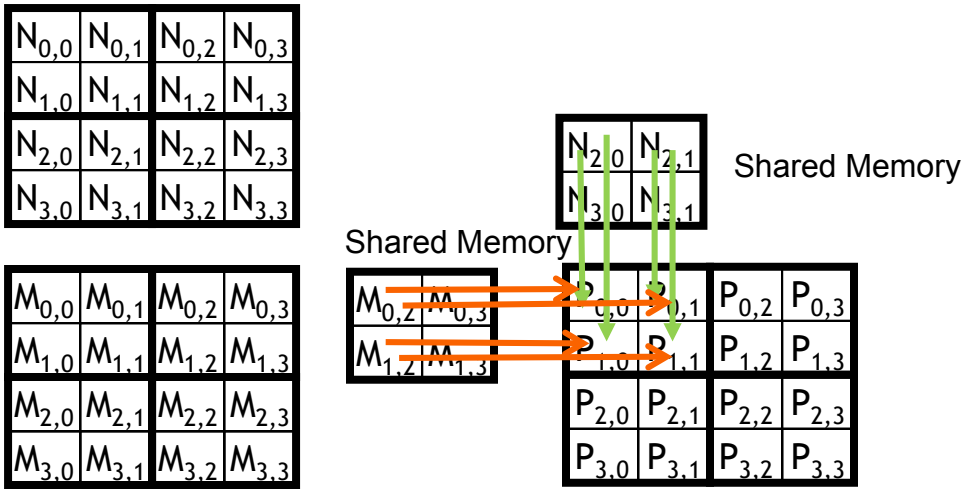
Phase 0 Use for Block (0,0) (iteration 1)



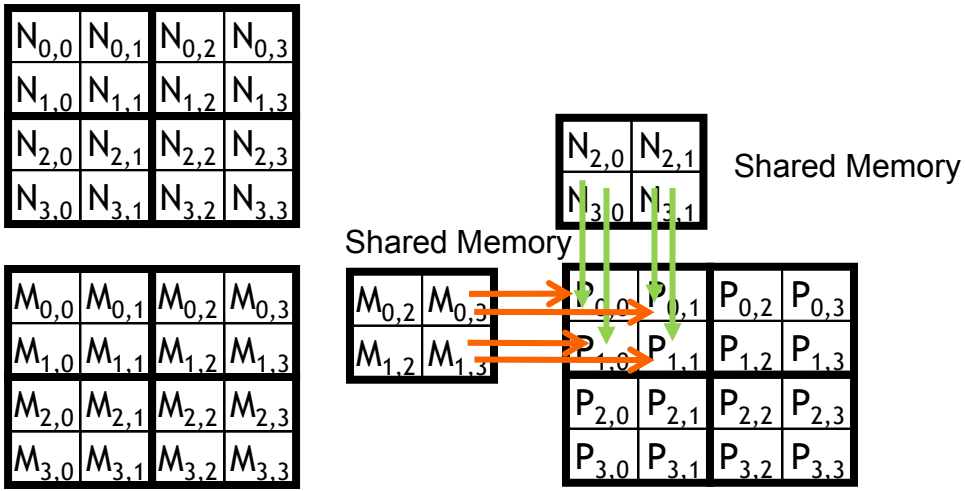
Phase 1 Load for Block (0,0)



Phase 1 Use for Block (0,0) (iteration 0)



Phase 1 Use for Block (0,0) (iteration 1)



Execution Phases of Toy Example

	Phase 0			Phase 1		
$thread_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,0}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{0,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,0}$	$PValue_{0,0}$ += $Mds_{0,0}*Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{0,1}*Nds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,2}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{2,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,0}$	$PValue_{0,0}$ += $Mds_{0,0}*Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{0,1}*Nds_{1,0}$
$thread_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,1}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{0,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{0,1}$ += $Mds_{0,0}*Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{0,1}*Nds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,3}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{2,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,1}$	$PValue_{0,1}$ += $Mds_{0,0}*Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{0,1}*Nds_{1,1}$
$thread_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,0}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{1,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{1,0}$ += $Mds_{1,0}*Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{1,1}*Nds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,2}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{3,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{1,0}$ += $Mds_{1,0}*Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{1,1}*Nds_{1,0}$
$thread_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,1}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{1,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,1}$	$PValue_{1,1}$ += $Mds_{1,0}*Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{1,1}*Nds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,3}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{3,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,1}$	$PValue_{1,1}$ += $Mds_{1,0}*Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{1,1}*Nds_{1,1}$

time →

Execution Phases of Toy Example (cont.)

	Phase 0			Phase 1		
$thread_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,0}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{0,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,0}$	$PValue_{0,0}$ += $Mds_{0,0}$*$Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{0,1}$*$Nds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,2}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{2,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,0}$	$PValue_{0,0}$ += $Mds_{0,0}$*$Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{0,1}$*$Nds_{1,0}$
$thread_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,1}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{0,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{0,1}$ += $Mds_{0,0}$*$Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{0,1}$*$Nds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{0,3}}$ ↓ $Mds_{0,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{2,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{0,1}$	$PValue_{0,1}$ += $Mds_{0,0}$*$Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{0,1}$*$Nds_{1,1}$
$thread_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,0}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{1,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{1,0}$ += $Mds_{1,0}$*$Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{1,1}$*$Nds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,2}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,0}$	$\mathbf{N_{3,0}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,0}$	$PValue_{1,0}$ += $Mds_{1,0}$*$Nds_{0,0}$ + $Mds_{1,1}$*$Nds_{1,0}$
$thread_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,1}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{1,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,1}$	$PValue_{1,1}$ += $Mds_{1,0}$*$Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{1,1}$*$Nds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{M_{1,3}}$ ↓ $Mds_{1,1}$	$\mathbf{N_{3,1}}$ ↓ $Nds_{1,1}$	$PValue_{1,1}$ += $Mds_{1,0}$*$Nds_{0,1}$ + $Mds_{1,1}$*$Nds_{1,1}$

time →

Shared memory allows each value to be accessed by multiple threads

Barrier Synchronization

- Synchronize all threads in a block
  - __syncthreads()
- All threads in the same block must reach the __syncthreads() before any of the them can move on
- Best used to coordinate the phased execution tiled algorithms
  - To ensure that all elements of a tile are loaded at the beginning of a phase
  - To ensure that all elements of a tile are consumed at the end of a phase

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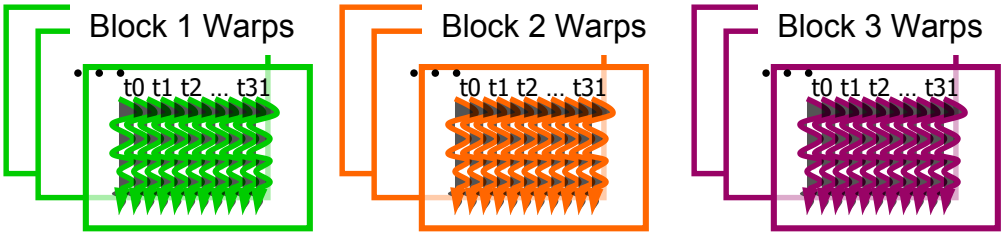
Module 5.1 – Thread Execution Efficiency

Warps and SIMD Hardware

Objective

- To understand how CUDA threads execute on SIMD Hardware
  - Warp partitioning
  - SIMD Hardware
  - Control divergence

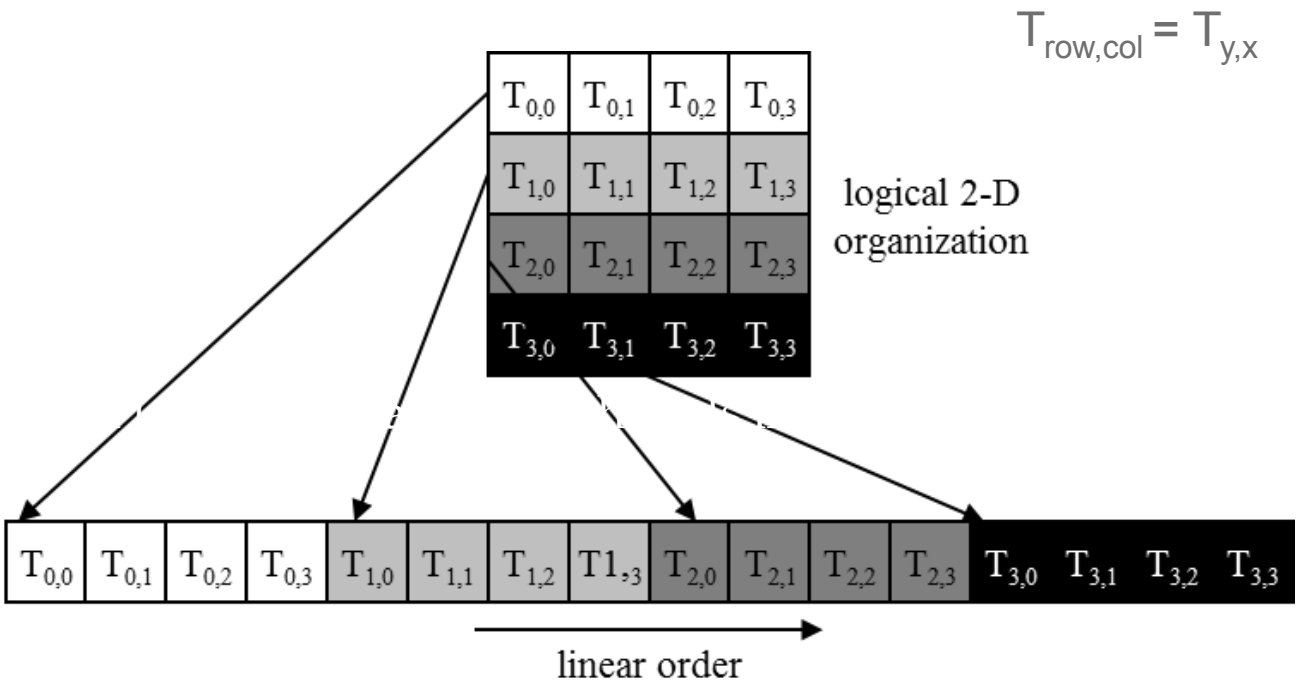
Warps as Scheduling Units



- Each block is divided into 32-thread warps
  - An implementation technique, not part of the CUDA programming model
  - Warps are scheduling units in SM
  - Threads in a warp execute in Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) manner
  - The number of threads in a warp may vary in future generations

Warps in Multi-dimensional Thread Blocks

- The thread blocks are first linearized into 1D in row major order
  - In x-dimension first, y-dimension next, and z-dimension last



Blocks are partitioned after linearization

- Linearized thread blocks are partitioned
  - Thread indices within a warp are consecutive and increasing
  - Warp 0 starts with Thread 0
- Partitioning scheme is consistent across devices
  - Thus you can use this knowledge in control flow
  - However, the exact size of warps may change from generation to generation
- DO NOT rely on any ordering within or between warps
  - If there are any dependencies between threads, you must __syncthreads() to get correct results (more later).

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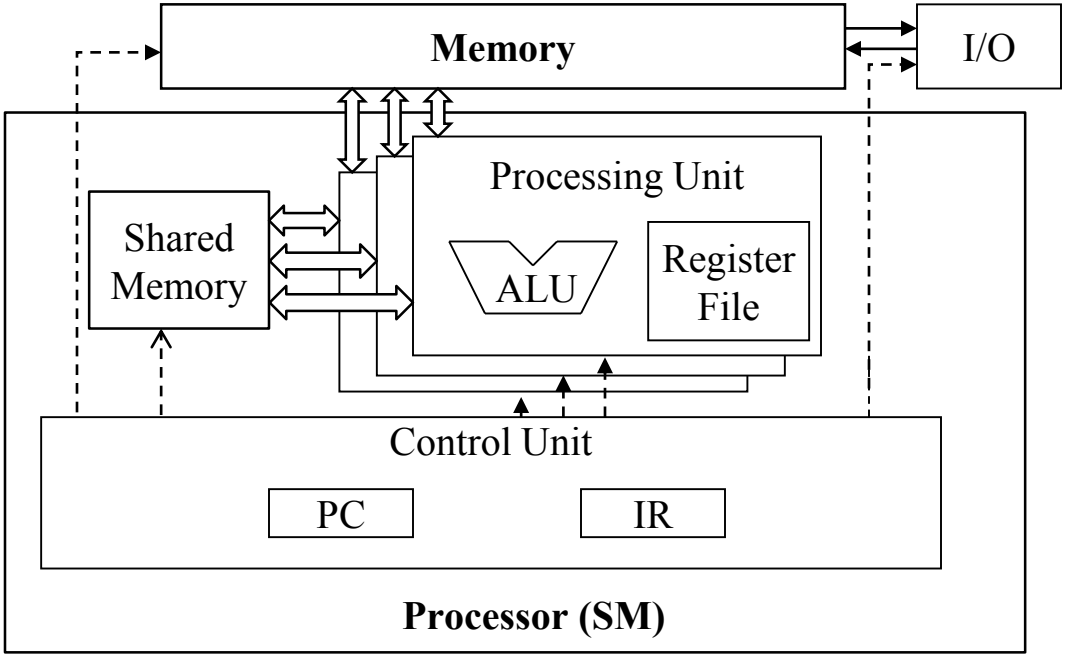
SMs are SIMD Processors

- Control unit for instruction fetch, decode, and control is shared among multiple processing units
  - Control overhead is minimized (Module 1)



SIMD Execution Among Threads in a Warp

- All threads in a warp must execute the same instruction at any point in time

- This works efficiently if all threads follow the same control flow path
  - All if-then-else statements make the same decision
  - All loops iterate the same number of times

Control Divergence

- Control divergence occurs when threads in a warp take different control flow paths by making different control decisions
  - Some take the then-path and others take the else-path of an if-statement
  - Some threads take different number of loop iterations than others

- The execution of threads taking different paths are serialized in current GPUs
  - The control paths taken by the threads in a warp are traversed one at a time until there is no more.
  - During the execution of each path, all threads taking that path will be executed in parallel
  - The number of different paths can be large when considering nested control flow statements

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Control Divergence Examples

- Divergence can arise when branch or loop condition is a function of thread indices
- Example kernel statement with divergence:
  - if (threadIdx.x > 2) { }
  - This creates two different control paths for threads in a block
  - Decision granularity < warp size; threads 0, 1 and 2 follow different path than the rest of the threads in the first warp
- Example without divergence:
  - If (blockIdx.x > 2) { }
  - Decision granularity is a multiple of blocks size; all threads in any given warp follow the same path

Example: Vector Addition Kernel

Device Code

```
// Compute vector sum C = A + B
// Each thread performs one pair-wise addition

__global__
void vecAddKernel(float* A, float* B, float* C,
  int n)
{
  int i = threadIdx.x + blockDim.x * blockIdx.x;
   if(i<n) C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}
```

Analysis for vector size of 1,000 elements

- Assume that block size is 256 threads
  - 8 warps in each block
- All threads in Blocks 0, 1, and 2 are within valid range
  - i values from 0 to 767
  - There are 24 warps in these three blocks, none will have control divergence
- Most warps in Block 3 will not control divergence
  - Threads in the warps 0-6 are all within valid range, thus no control divergence
- One warp in Block 3 will have control divergence
  - Threads with i values 992-999 will all be within valid range
  - Threads with i values of 1000-1023 will be outside valid range
- Effect of serialization on control divergence will be small
  - 1 out of 32 warps has control divergence
  - The impact on performance will likely be less than 3%

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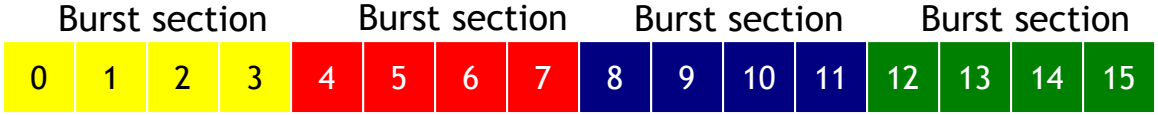
Lecture 6.2 – Performance Considerations

Memory Coalescing in CUDA

Objective

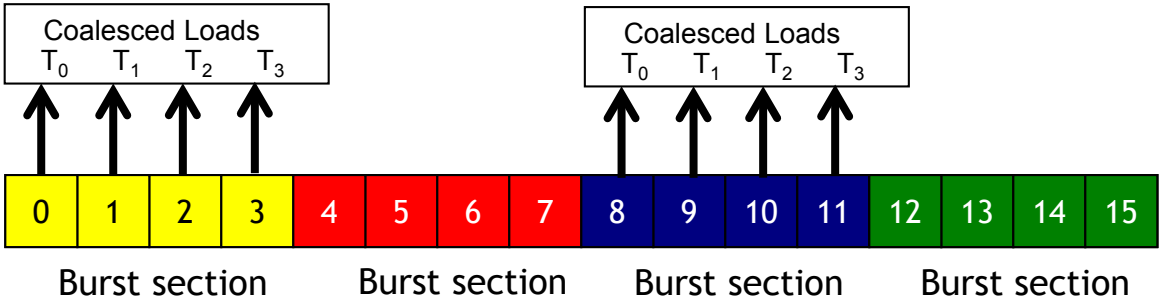
- To learn that memory coalescing is important for effectively utilizing memory bandwidth in CUDA
  - Its origin in DRAM burst
  - Checking if a CUDA memory access is coalesced
  - Techniques for improving memory coalescing in CUDA code

DRAM Burst – A System View



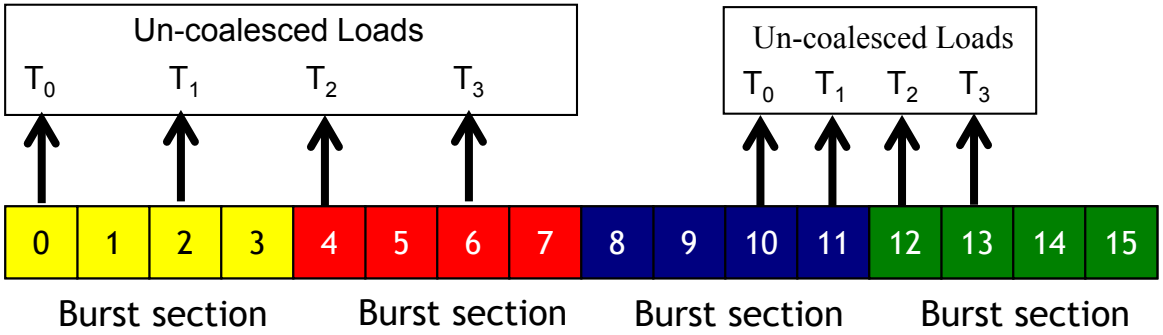
- Each address space is partitioned into burst sections
  - Whenever a location is accessed, all other locations in the same section are also delivered to the processor
- Basic example: a 16-byte address space, 4-byte burst sections
  - In practice, we have at least 4GB address space, burst section sizes of 128-bytes or more

Memory Coalescing



– When all threads of a warp execute a load instruction, if all accessed locations fall into the same burst section, only one DRAM request will be made and the access is fully coalesced.

Un-coalesced Accesses

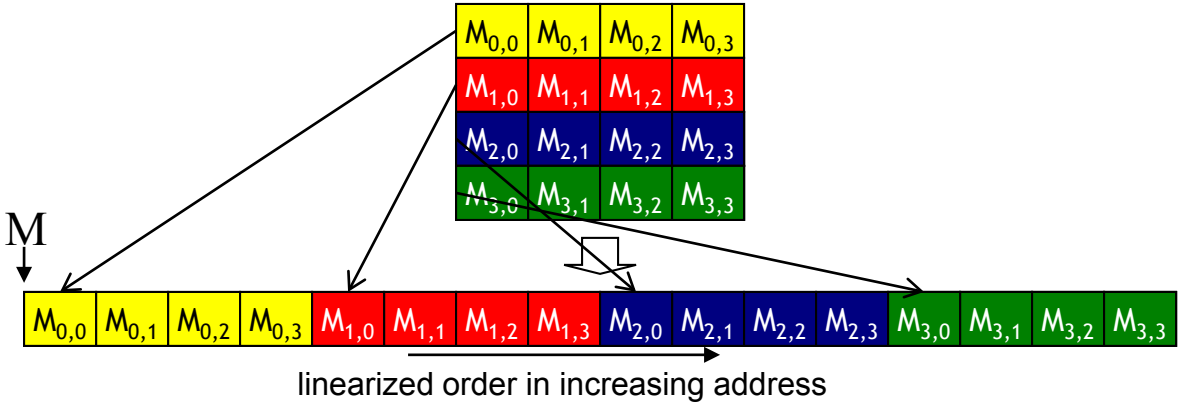


- When the accessed locations spread across burst section boundaries:
  - Coalescing fails
  - Multiple DRAM requests are made
  - The access is not fully coalesced.
- Some of the bytes accessed and transferred are not used by the threads

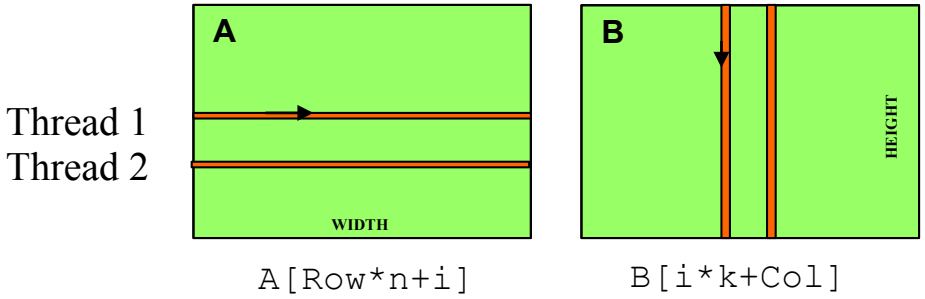
How to judge if an access is coalesced?

- Accesses in a warp are to consecutive locations if the index in an array access is in the form of
  - A[(expression with terms independent of threadIdx.x) + threadIdx.x];

A 2D C Array in Linear Memory Space



Two Access Patterns of Basic Matrix Multiplication

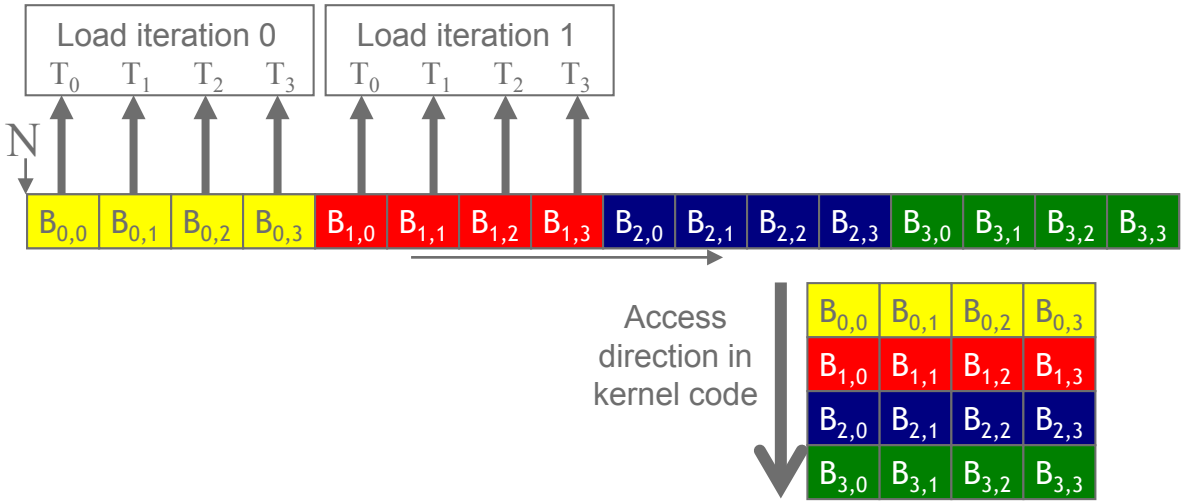


i is the loop counter in the inner product loop of the kernel code

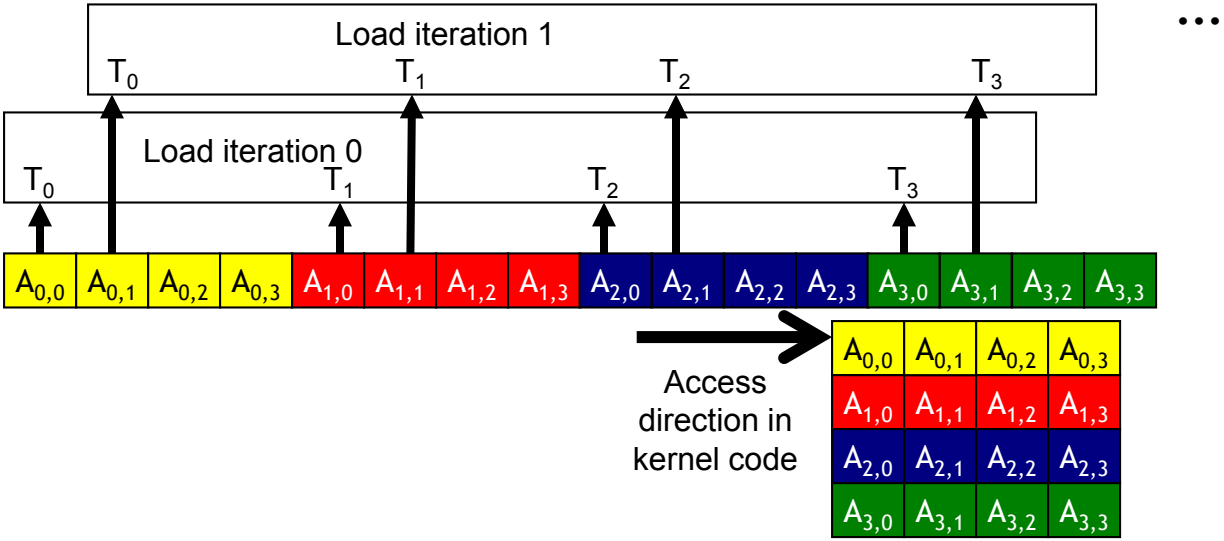
A is m × n, B is n × k

Col = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x

B accesses are coalesced



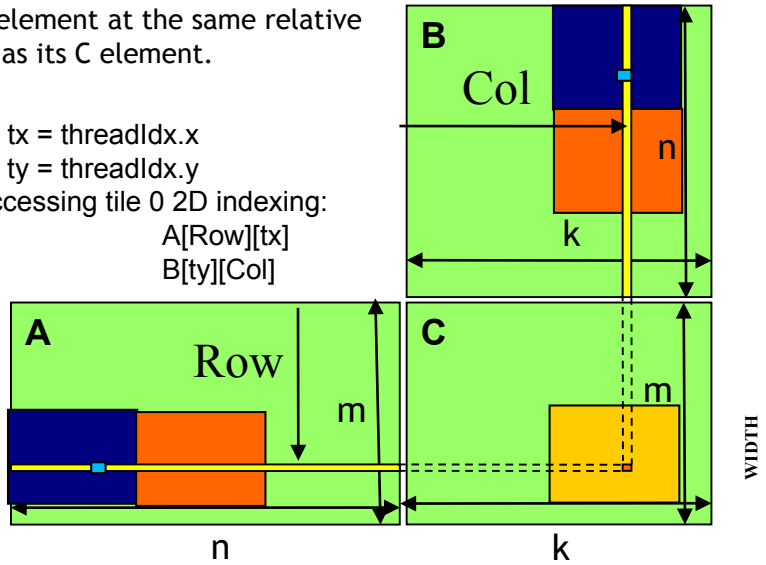
A Accesses are Not Coalesced



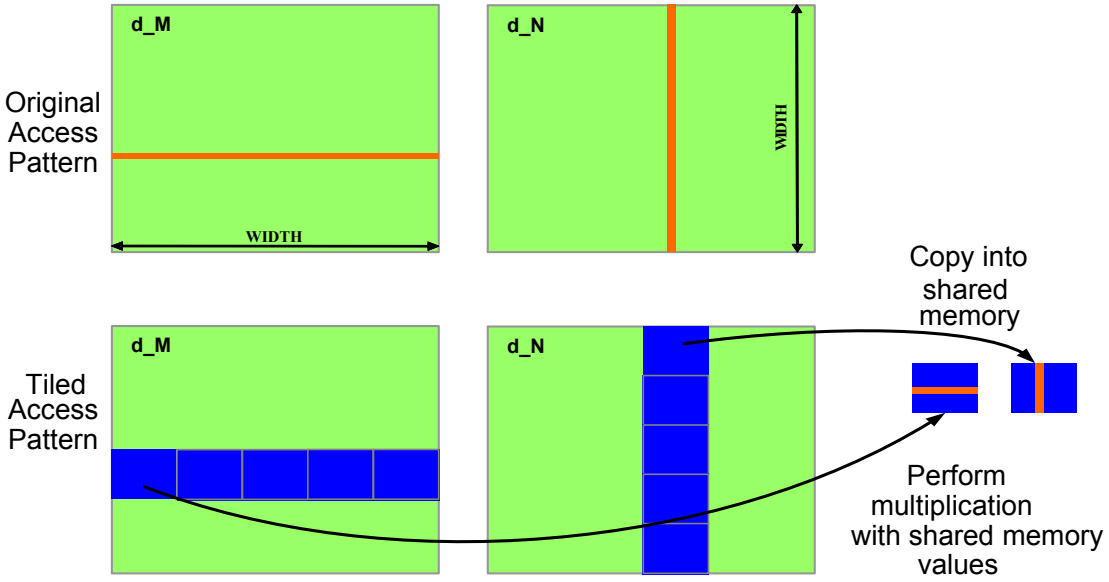
Loading an Input Tile

Have each thread load an A element and a B element at the same relative position as its C element.

int tx = threadIdx.x
int ty = threadIdx.y
Accessing tile 0 2D indexing:
A[Row][tx]
B[ty][Col]



Corner Turning



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Module 7.1 – Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)

Histogramming

Objective

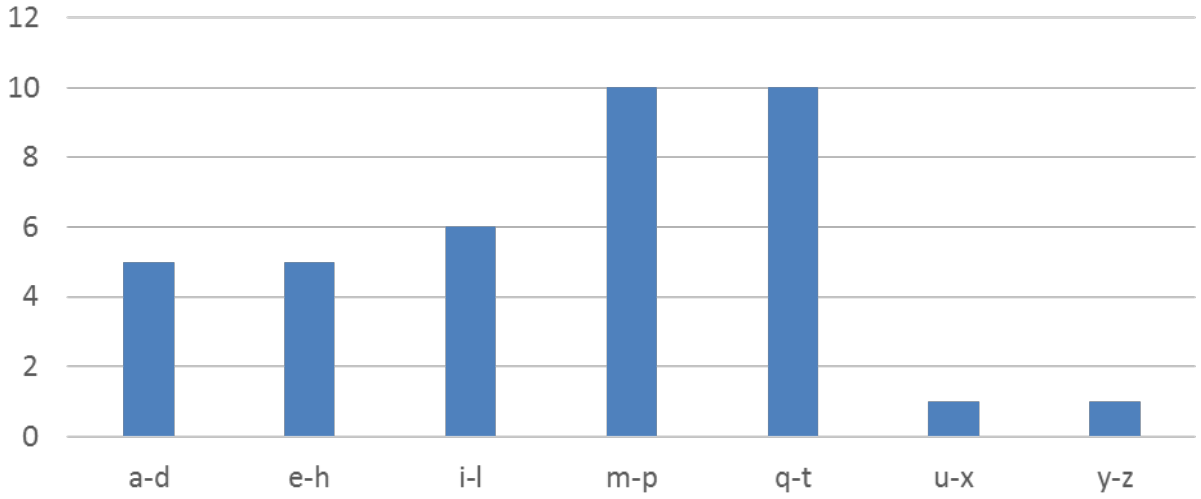
- To learn the parallel histogram computation pattern
  - An important, useful computation
  - Very different from all the patterns we have covered so far in terms of output behavior of each thread
  - A good starting point for understanding output interference in parallel computation

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

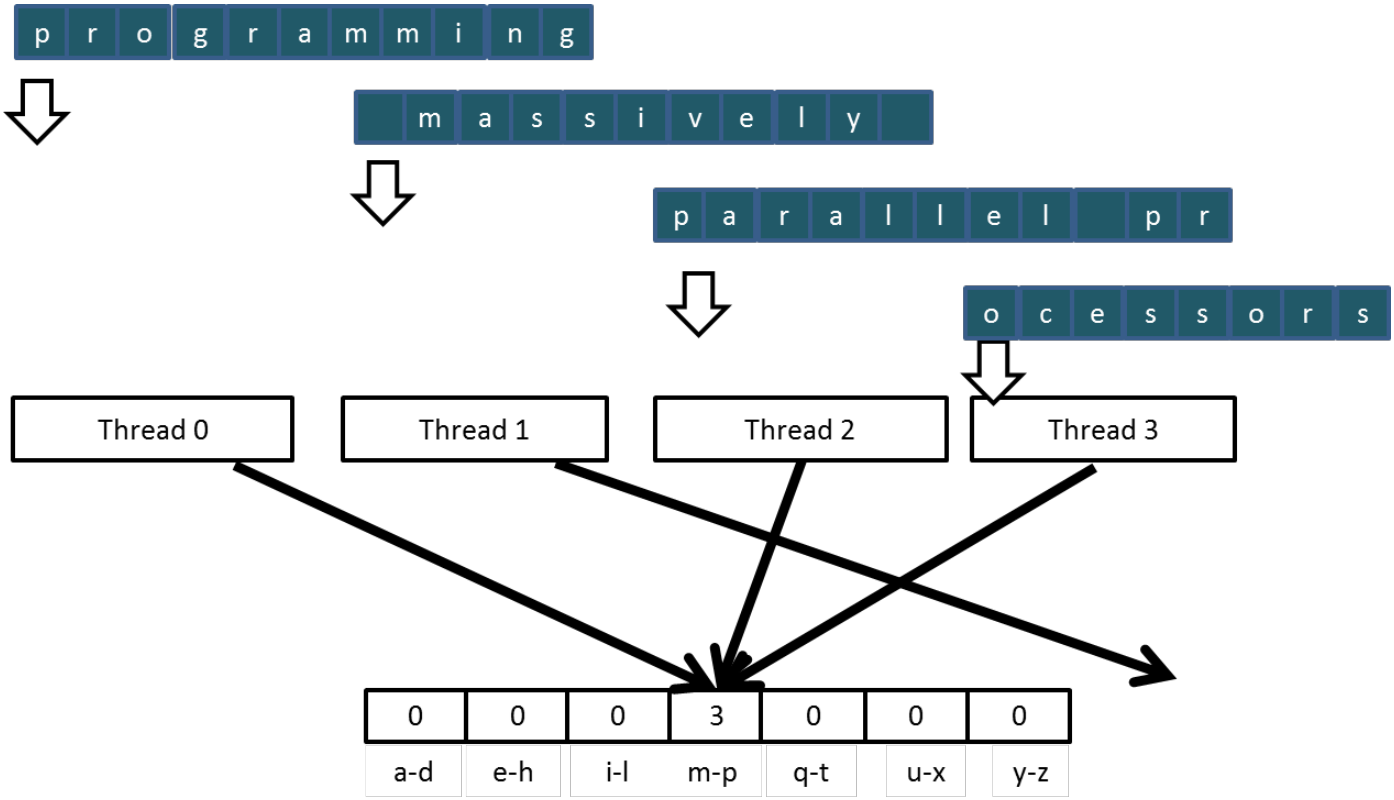
- Define the bins as four-letter sections of the alphabet: a-d, e-h, i-l, n-p, …
- For each character in an input string, increment the appropriate bin counter.
- In the phrase “Programming Massively Parallel Processors” the output histogram is shown below:



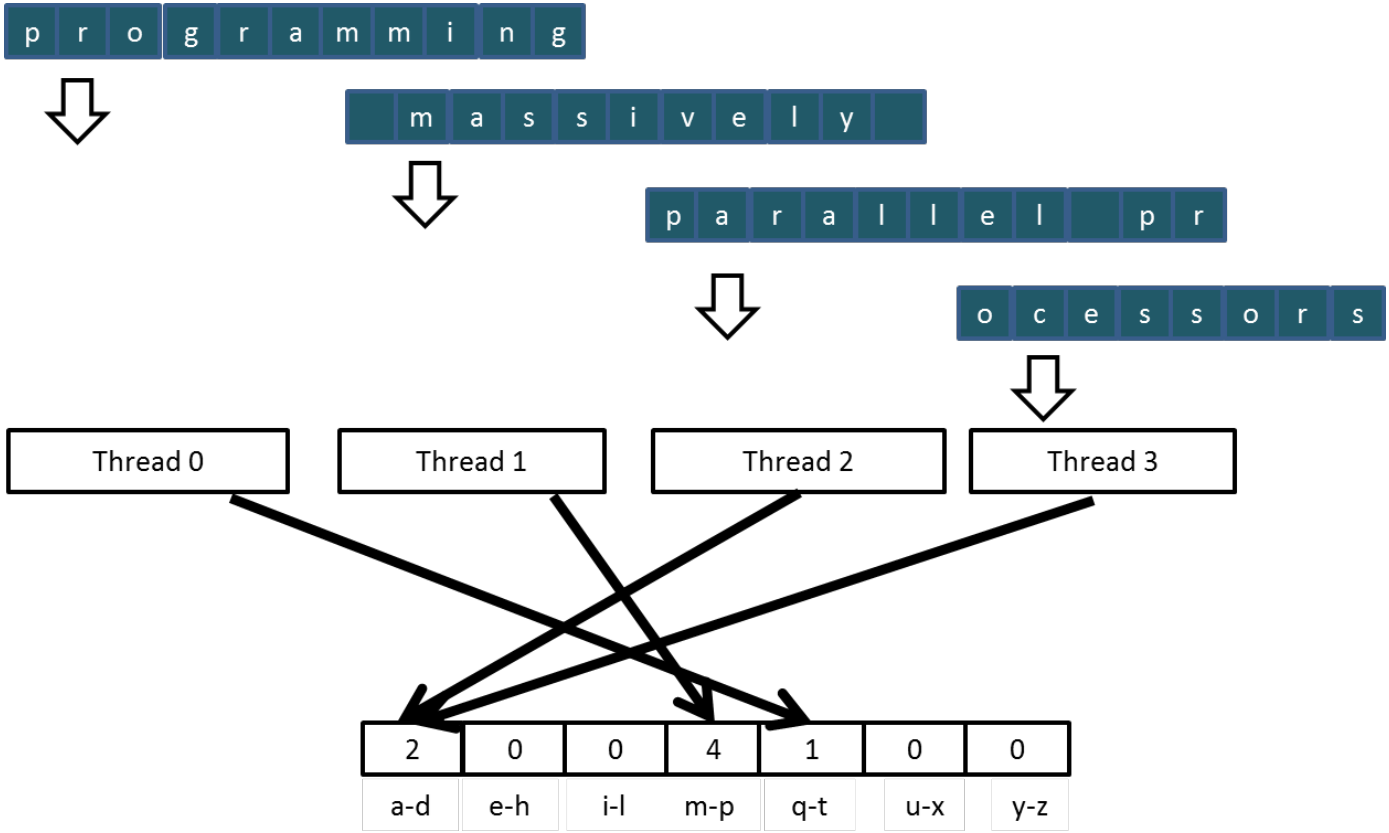
A simple parallel histogram algorithm

- 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

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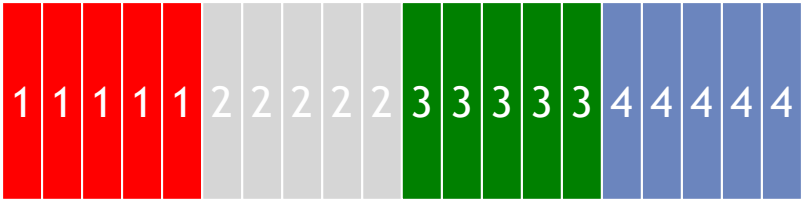
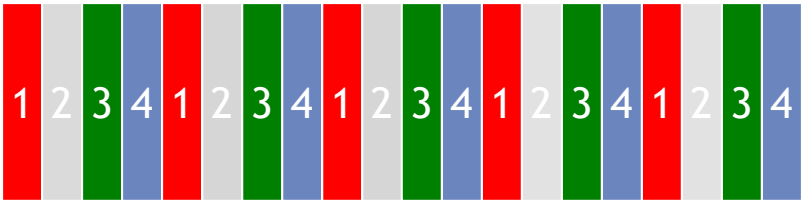
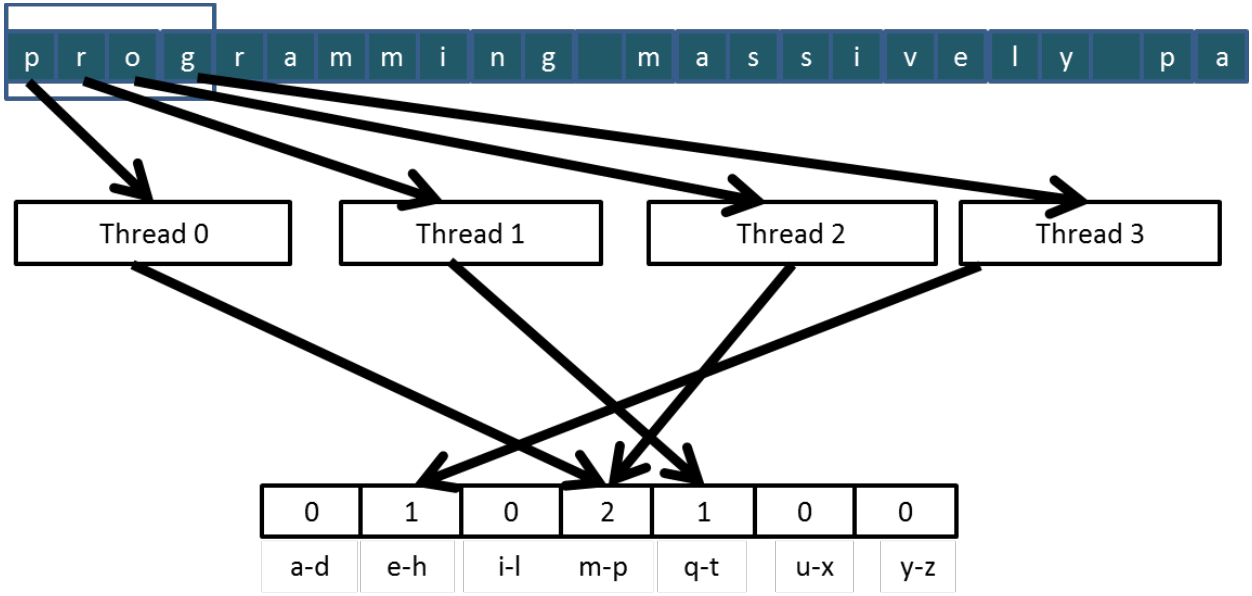


- Change to interleaved partitioning
  - All threads process a contiguous section of elements
  - They all move to the next section and repeat
  - The memory accesses are coalesced

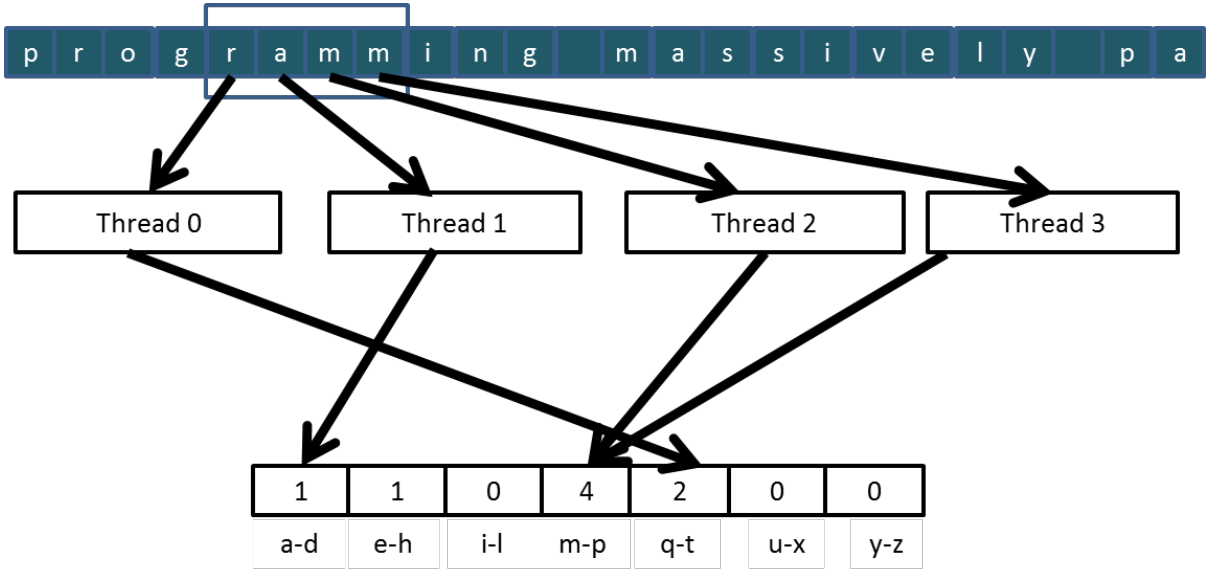


Interleaved Partitioning of Input

– For coalescing and better memory access performance



Interleaved Partitioning (Iteration 2)



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Module 7.2 – Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)

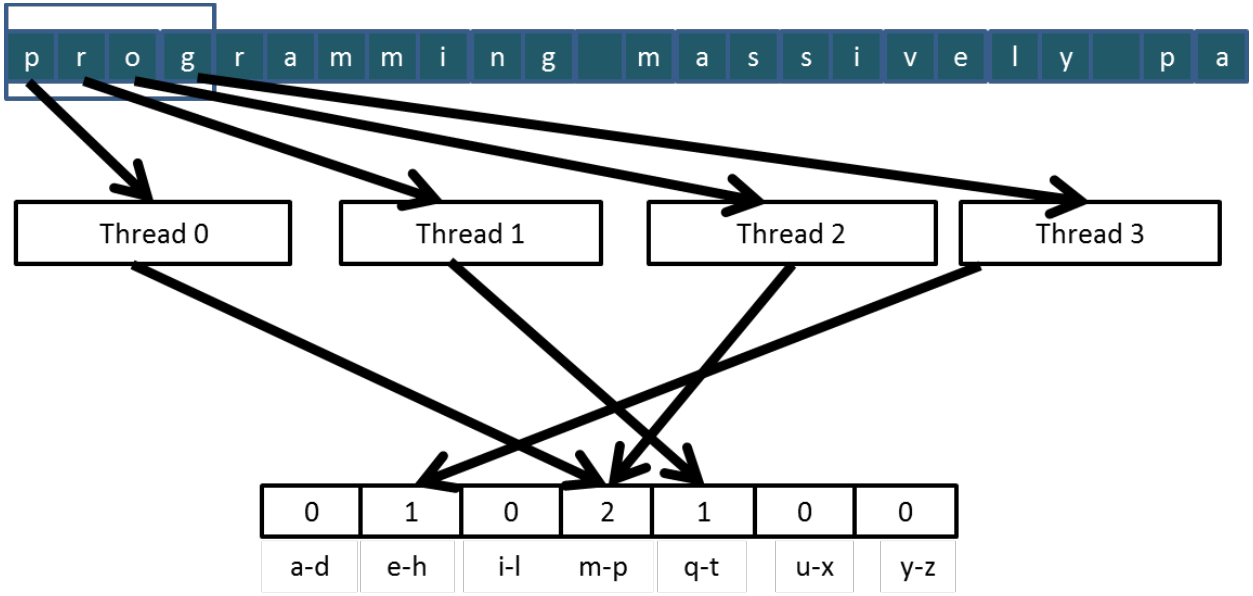
Introduction to Data Races

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 Parallel Service Pattern

- For example, multiple customer service agents serving waiting customers
- The system maintains two numbers,
  - the number to be given to the next incoming customer (I)
  - the number for the customer to be served next (S)
- The system gives each incoming customer a number (read I) and increments the number to be given to the next customer by 1 (modify-write I)
- A central display shows the number for the customer to be served next
- When an agent becomes available, he/she calls the number (read S) and increments the display number by 1 (modify-write S)
- Bad outcomes
  - Multiple customers receive the same number, only one of them receives service
  - Multiple agents serve the same number

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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: Old ← Mem[x]
New ← Old + 1
Mem[x] ← New

thread2: Old ← Mem[x]
New ← Old + 1
Mem[x] ← New

Old and New are per-thread register variables.

Question 1: If Mem[x] was initially 0, what would the value of 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) Old ← Mem[x]	
2	(1) New ← Old + 1	
3	(1) Mem[x] ← New	
4		(1) Old ← Mem[x]
5		(2) New ← Old + 1
6		(2) Mem[x] ← New

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

Timing Scenario #2

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

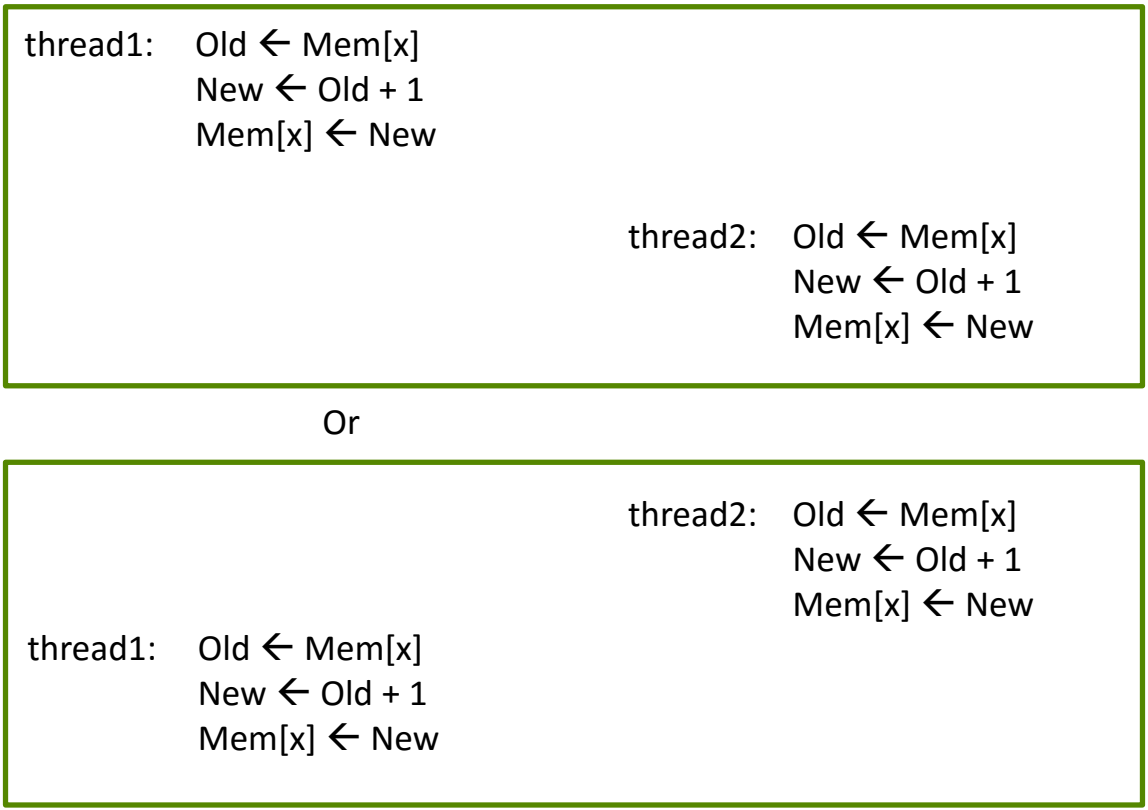
- Thread 1 Old = 0
- Thread 2 Old = 0
- Mem[x] = 1 after the sequence

Timing Scenario #4

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

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

Purpose of Atomic Operations – To Ensure Good Outcomes



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Module 7.3 – Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)

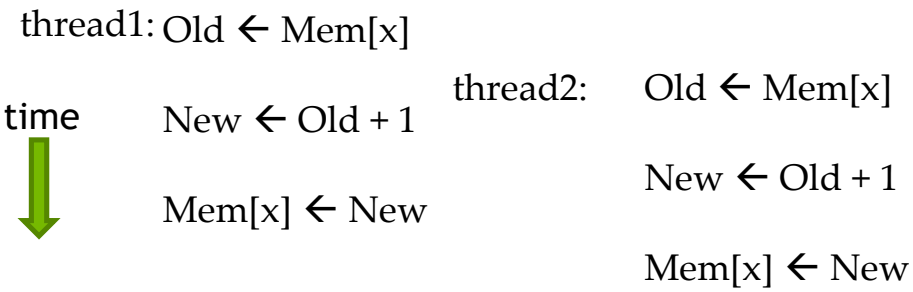
Atomic Operations in CUDA

Objective

- To learn to use atomic operations in parallel programming
  - Atomic operation concepts
  - Types of atomic operations in CUDA
  - Intrinsic functions
  - A basic histogram kernel

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 Arithmetic 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 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. These three operations are performed in one atomic transaction. 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 (Compute capability 2.x+)

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

- Double-precision floating-point atomic add (Compute capability 6.x+)

```
double atomicAdd(double* address, double val);
```

- 16-bit floating-point atomic add (Compute capability 7.x+)

```
__half atomicAdd(__half* address, __half 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) {
       atomicAdd( &(histo[buffer[i]]), 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
    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 && alpha_position < 26)
       atomicAdd(&(histo[alphabet_position/4]), 1);
       i += stride;
   }
}
```

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Module 7.4 – Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)

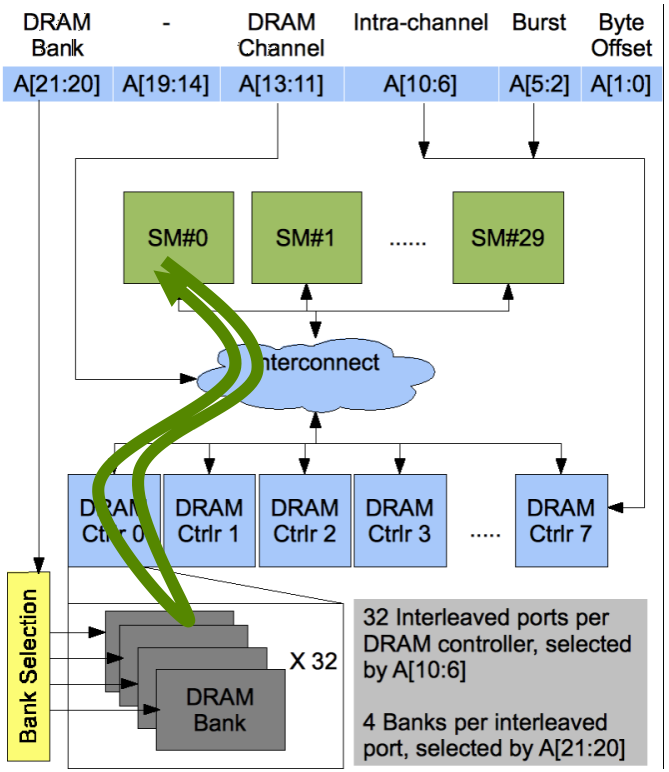
Atomic Operation Performance

Objective

- To learn about the main performance considerations of atomic operations
  - Latency and throughput of atomic operations
  - Atomic operations on global memory
  - Atomic operations on shared L2 cache
  - Atomic operations on shared memory

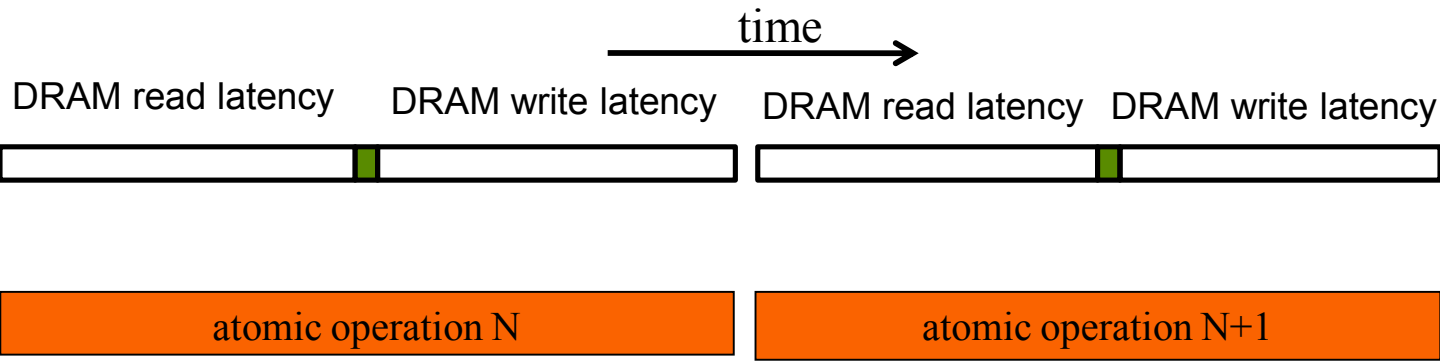
Atomic Operations on Global Memory (DRAM)

- 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!

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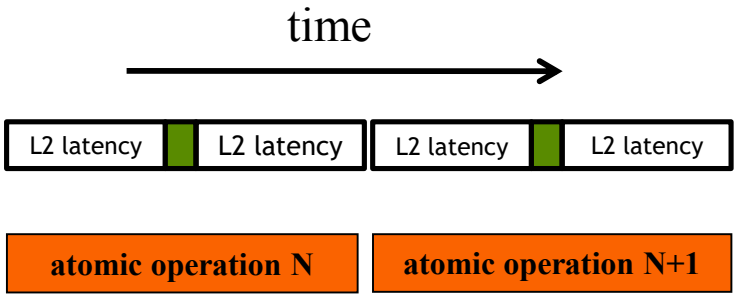
You may have a similar experience in supermarket checkout

- 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 / (entire shopping time of each customer)

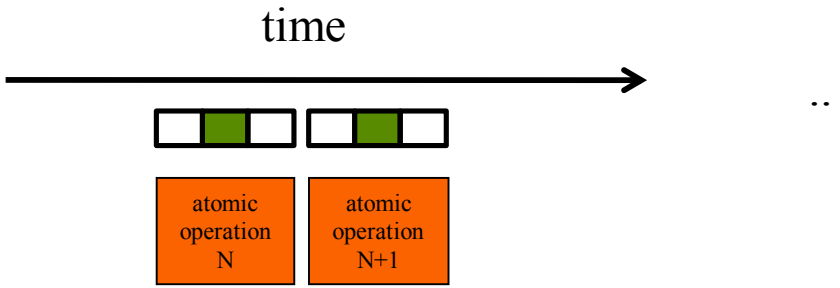
Hardware Improvements

- 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)



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Module 7.5 – Parallel Computation Patterns (Histogram)

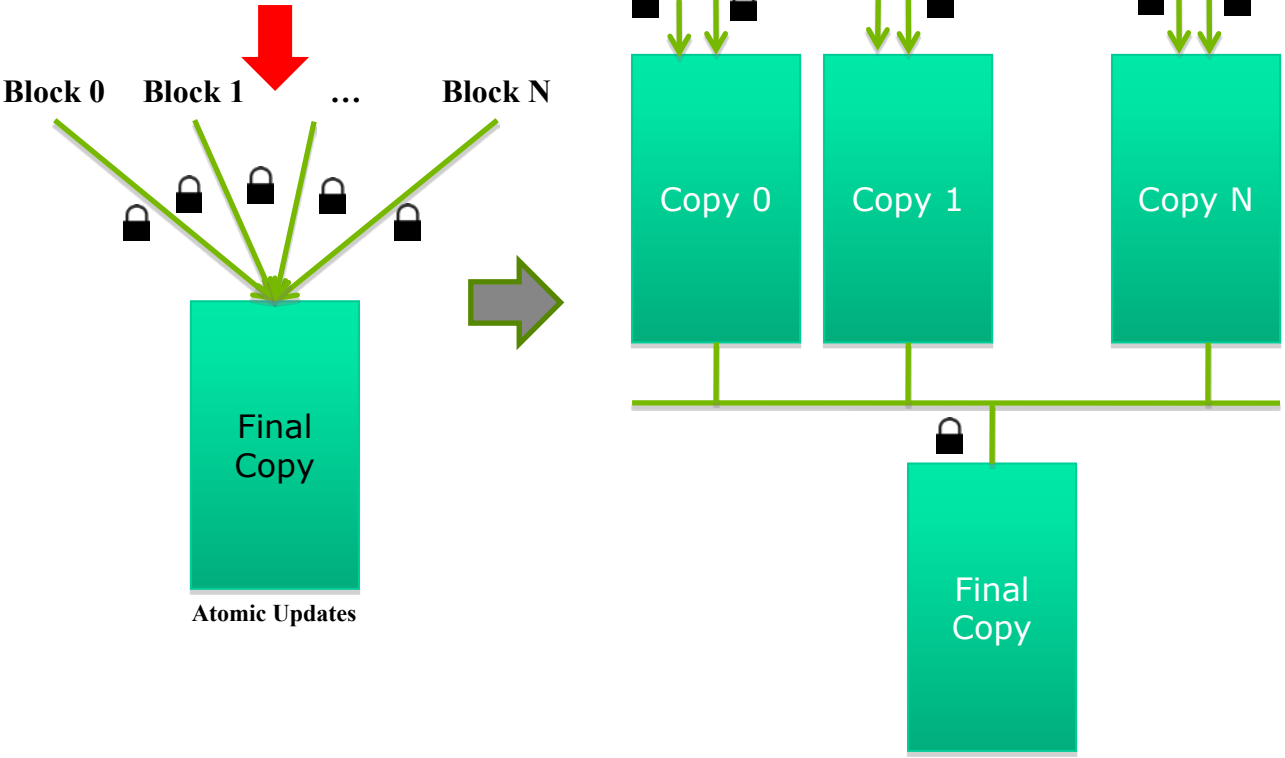
Privatization Technique for Improved Throughput

Objective

- Learn to write a high performance kernel by privatizing outputs
  - Privatization as a technique for reducing latency, increasing throughput, and reducing serialization
  - A high performance privatized histogram kernel
  - Practical example of using shared memory and L2 cache atomic operations

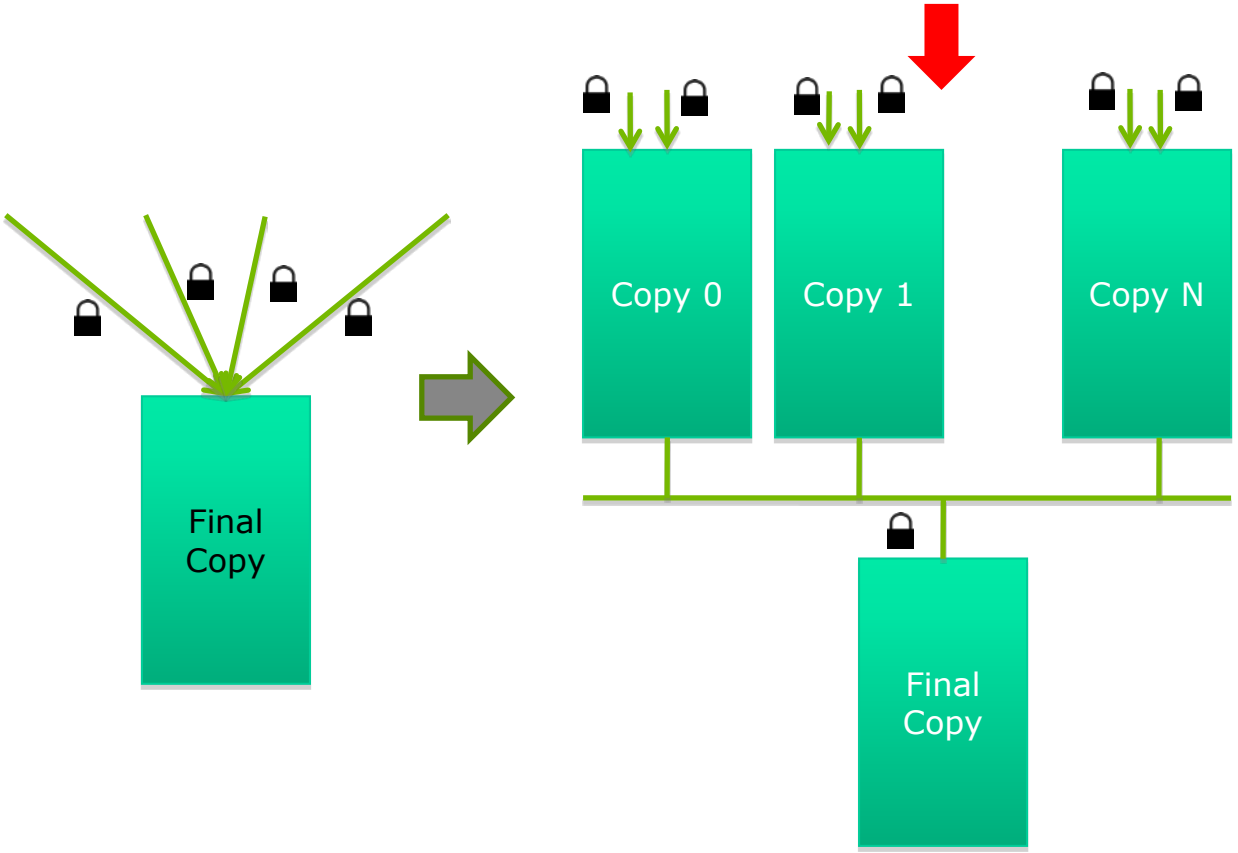
Privatization

Heavy contention and serialization

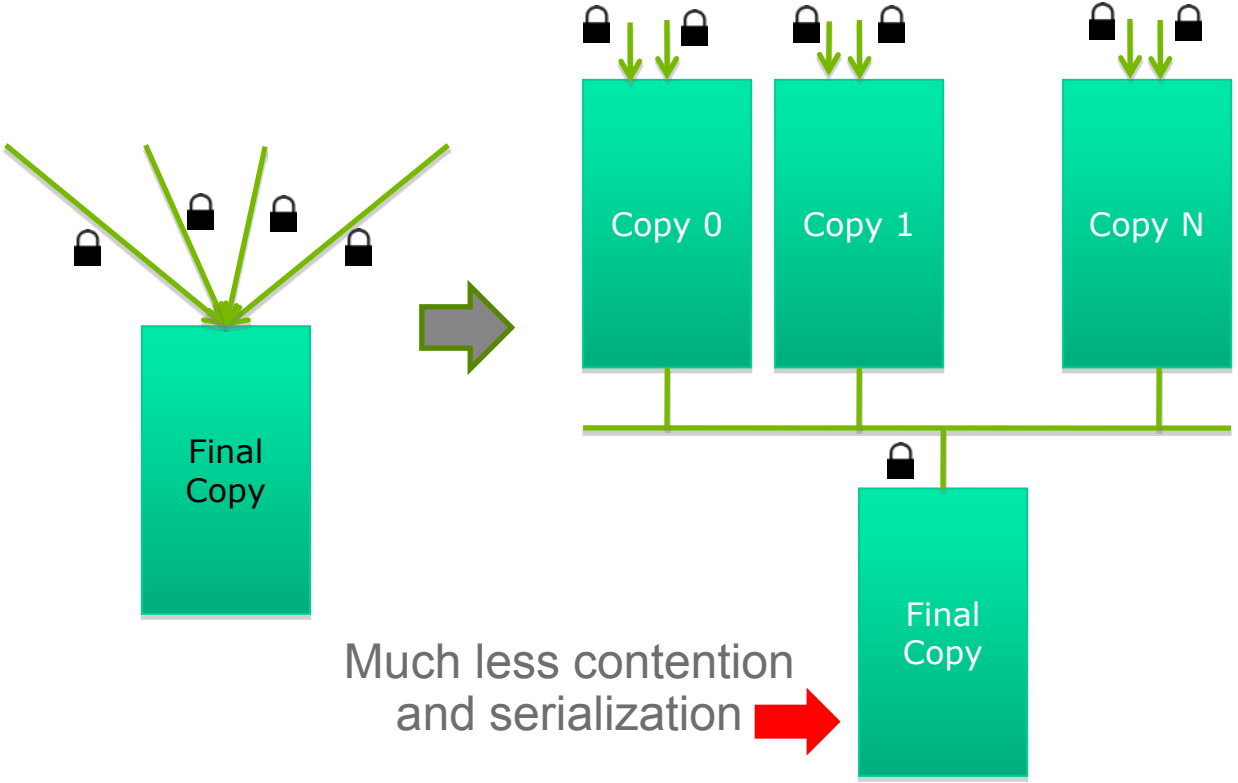


Privatization (cont.)

Much less contention and serialization



Privatization (cont.)



Cost and Benefit of Privatization

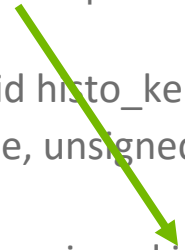
- Cost
  - Overhead for creating and initializing private copies
  - Overhead for accumulating the contents of private copies into the final copy
- Benefit
  - Much less contention and serialization in accessing both the private copies and the final copy
  - The overall performance can often be improved 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];
```

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( &(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

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