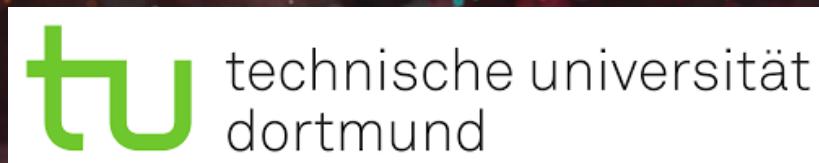


# HETEROGENEOUS COMPUTING: GPU PROGRAMMING

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Fast and Efficient Python Programming School  
August 2024  
Aachen, Germany



# INTRODUCTION

- Bachelor in Physics at Ferrara University (2015-2018)
- Master degree in Physics: double degree Ferrara – Paris Sud (2018-2020)



**Università  
degli Studi  
di Ferrara**

**UNIVERSITÉ  
PARIS  
SUD**

**SORBONNE  
UNIVERSITÉ**

**tu** technische universität  
dortmund

# OVERVIEW

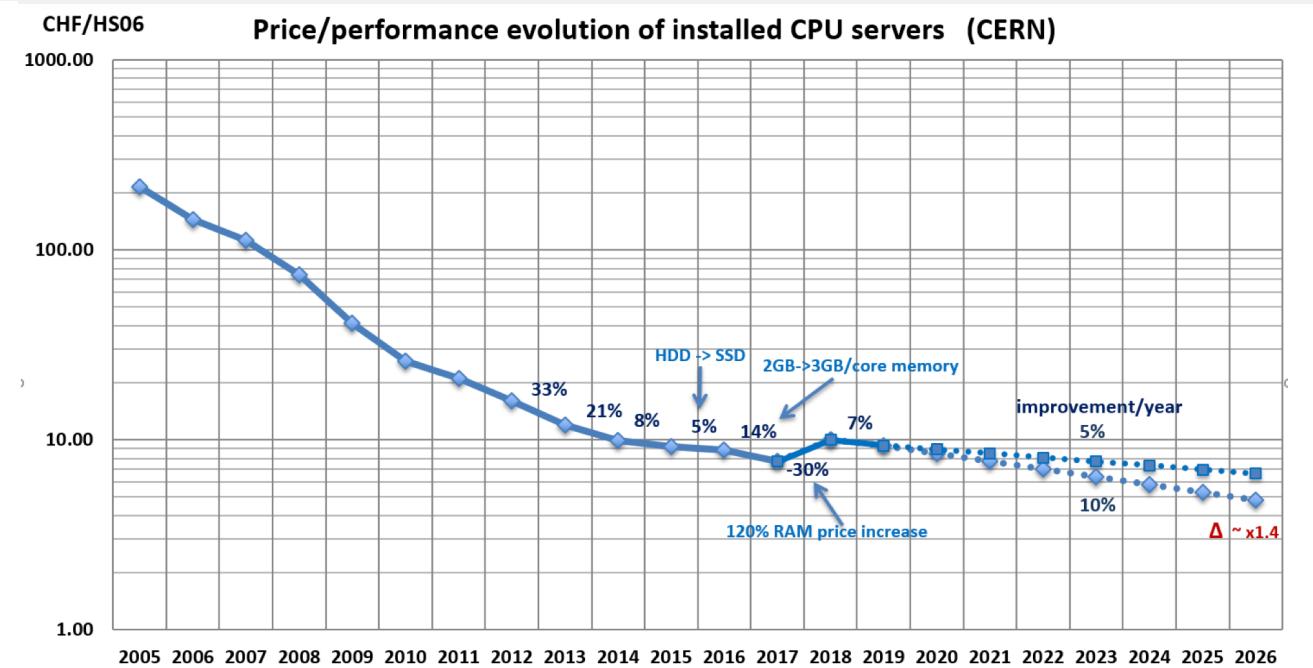
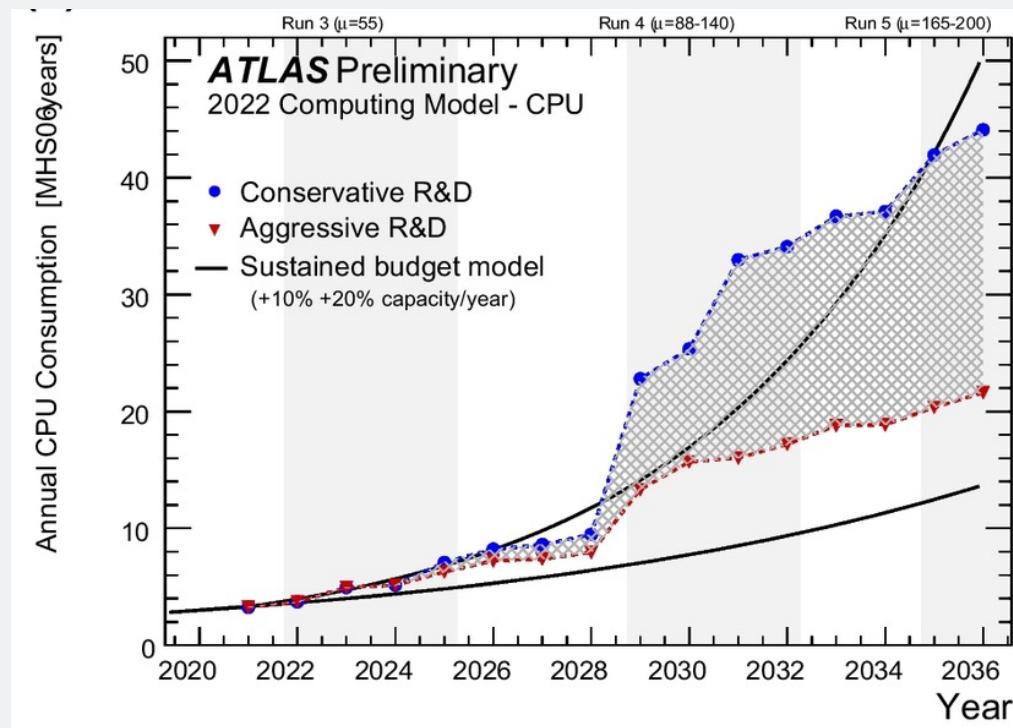
- Section 1: Heterogeneous architectures and their applications
- Section 2: GPU programming
- In Section 1:
  - What does heterogeneous mean?
  - Hardware accelerators
  - Multi-core vs many cores
  - Intro to Graphic Processing Units (GPU)
  - Comparison to other accelerators
  - Examples of GPU using in research

# HETEROGENEOUS?

- Systems which can use multiple types of computing cores or processors based on different computer architectures:
  - Central Processing Units (CPUs)
  - Graphic Processing Units (GPUs)
  - Application-Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs)
  - Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs)
  - Neural Processing Units (NPUs)
  - Tensor Processing Units (TPUs)
- Different processors specialized for specific purposes
- Goal is to optimise **computing performance** and **energy efficiency**

# COMPUTING PERFORMANCE

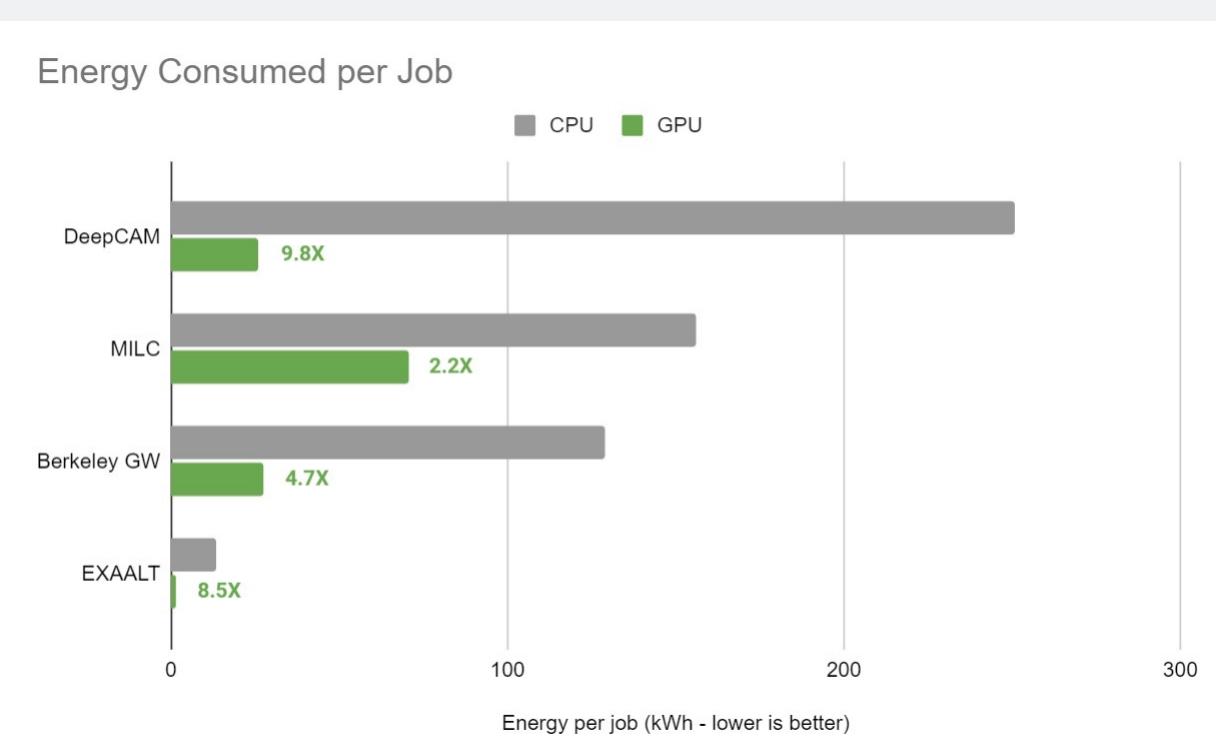
- Increasing performance as a function of time not sustainable as a function of price (exponential budget)
- Example showing ATLAS experiment CPU requirements at CERN
- Assuming a constant budget per year, only-CPU model is not sustainable
- Must exploit the “power” of heterogeneous systems in scientific applications



Courtesy Dr. Bernd Panzer-Steindel (CERN/IT, CTO)

# ENERGY EFFICIENCY

- More and more important to reduce electricity consumptions and environmental impacts
- Giving power to processors could be more expensive than buying them
- Heterogeneous computing can help improving energy efficiency
- We need to be careful of the definition of “power consumption” as many factors come into play (power delivered, cooling systems, average vs peak consumption, ...)



[Heterogeneous energy consumption comparison](#)

# HETEROGENEOUS SYSTEMS

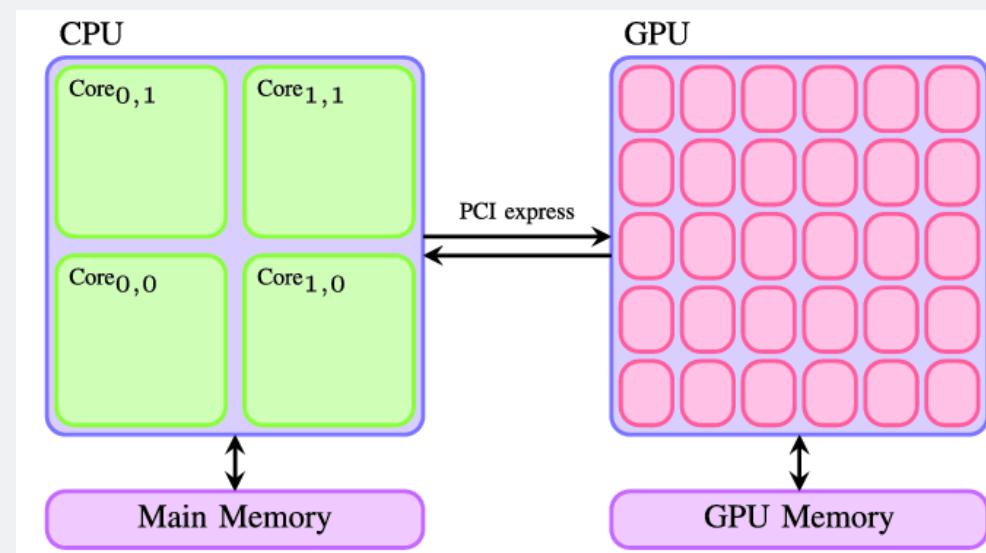
- Common in our daily life: video encoding and editing, graphics rendering, ...



[GPU accelerated rendering](#)

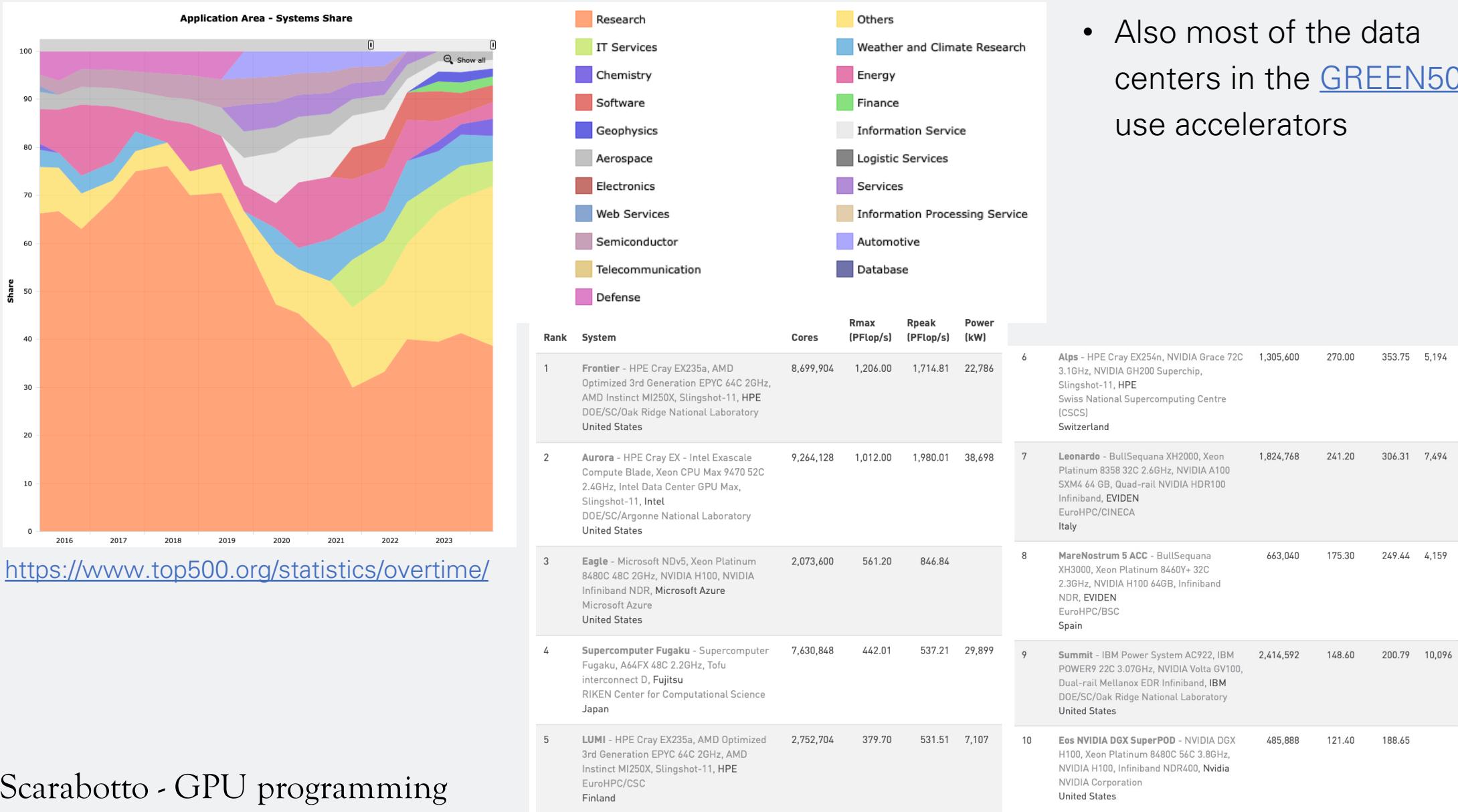
# HETEROGENEOUS SYSTEMS

- Common in our daily life
- Used also by the top data centers in the world in many different areas
- You can take a tour in [top500.org](http://top500.org) showing the top500 computing systems in the world
- Most of them use NVIDIA or AMD GPU accelerators showing the need of heterogeneous systems for top performance



Multi-core vs many cores?

# HETEROGENEOUS SYSTEMS



# HARDWARE ACCELERATORS IN RESEARCH

- Tradeoffs between flexibility and single-task optimised performance

## General purpose

Graphic Processing Units (GPUs)

Vendors: NVIDIA, AMD, Intel



## Dedicated

Neural Processing Units (NPUs)

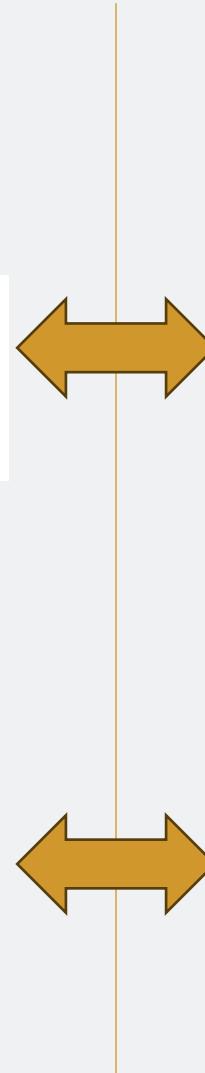
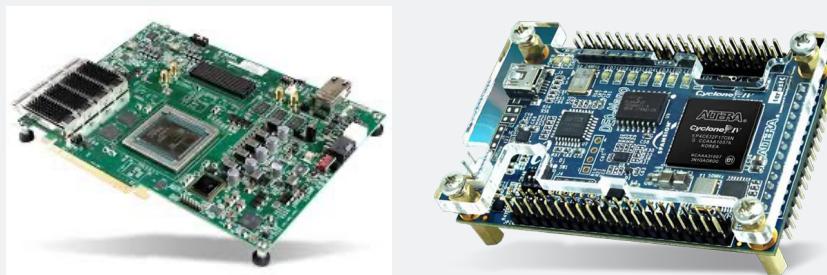
Vendors: AMD, Intel, ...

Processor specialised in AI and ML



Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGAs)

Vendors: Xilinx, Altera



Tensor Processing Units (TPUs)

Vendor: Google

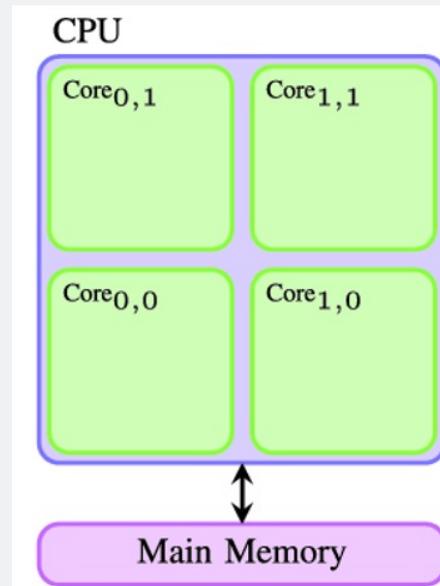
ASIC specialised in NN machine learning



# MULTI-CORE VS MANY CORES

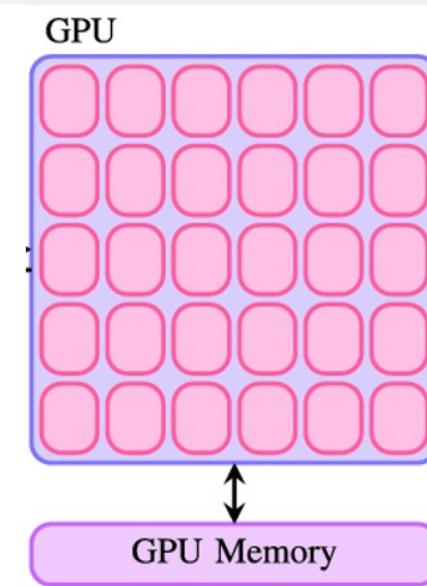
## Multi-core CPU

- O(10) cores
- Flexibility of sequential and parallel code programming
- Large caches (fast memory storage)
- Focused on single-thread high performance



## GPU with many cores

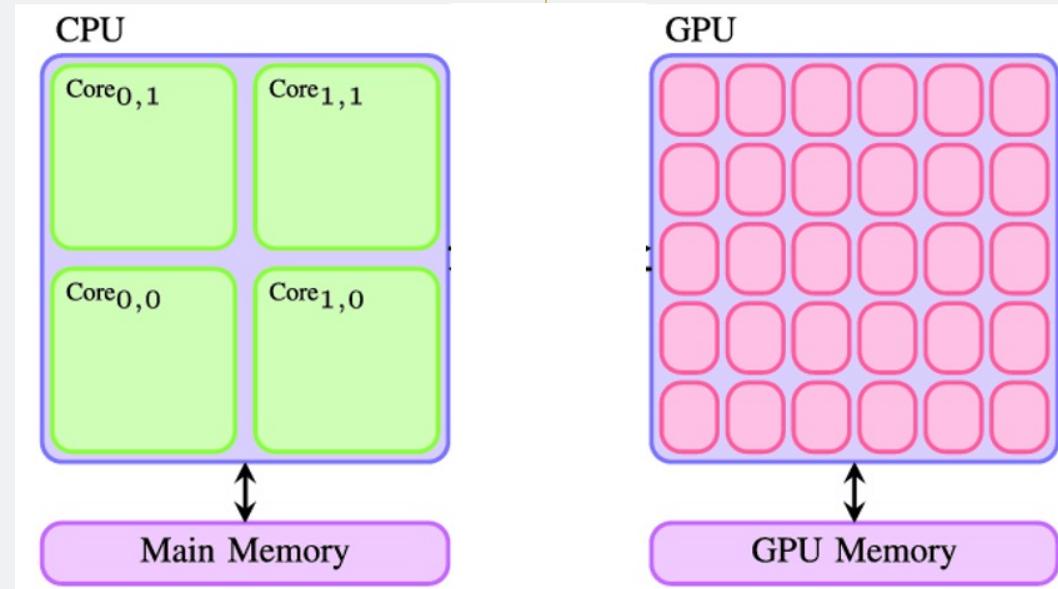
- O(1000) cores
- Designed for parallel code programming
- Small caches
- Focused on operation of simpler calculations per single-thread



# WORKLOAD: MULTI-CORE VS MANY CORES

## Multi-core CPU

- Typically the main processor
- Best sequential performance
- Multi-threading optimisation needed in parallelizable problems

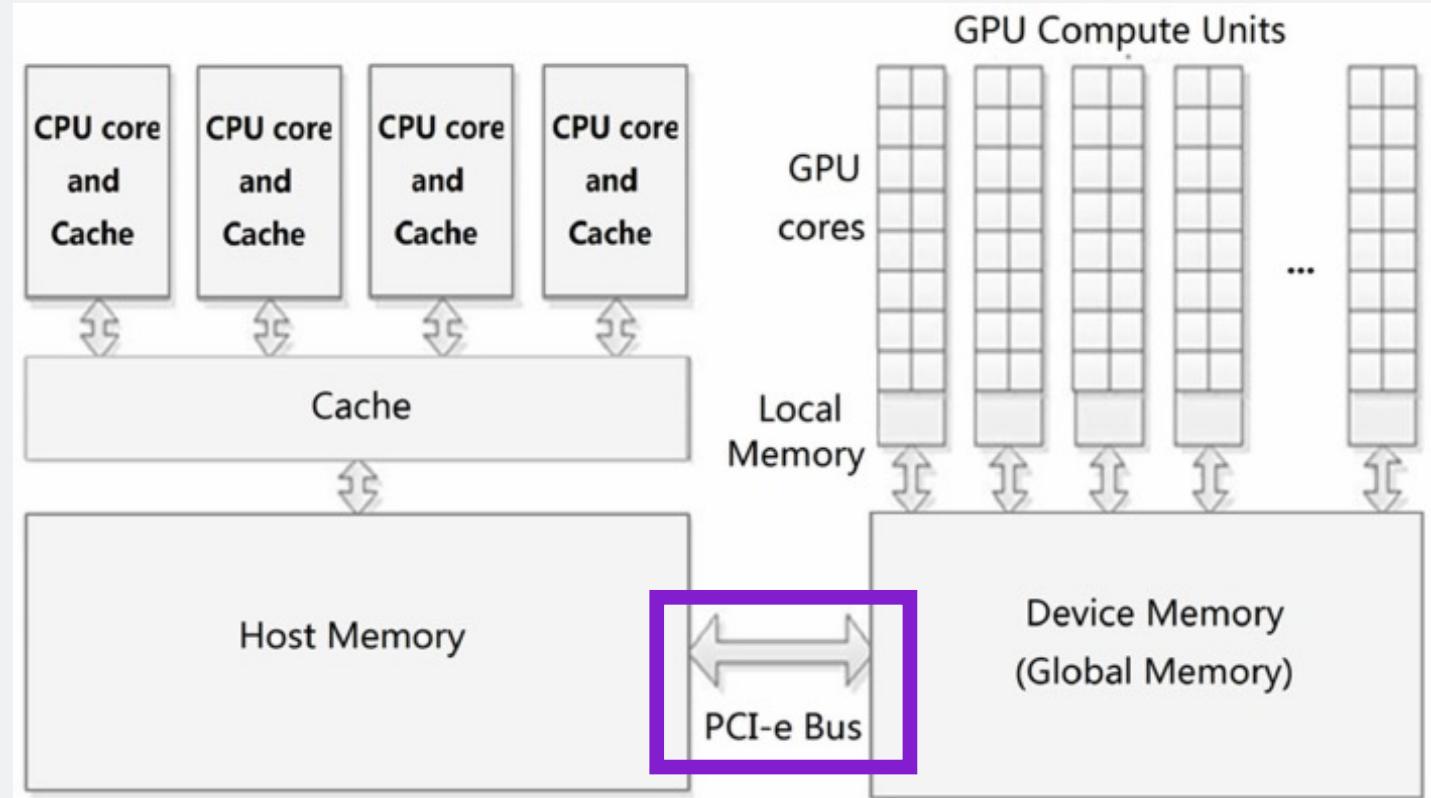


## GPU with many cores

- Usually paired with a CPU
- Algorithms optimised to profit from the many cores of the accelerator
- Only highly parallelizable problems

# GRAPHIC PROCESSING UNIT (GPU)

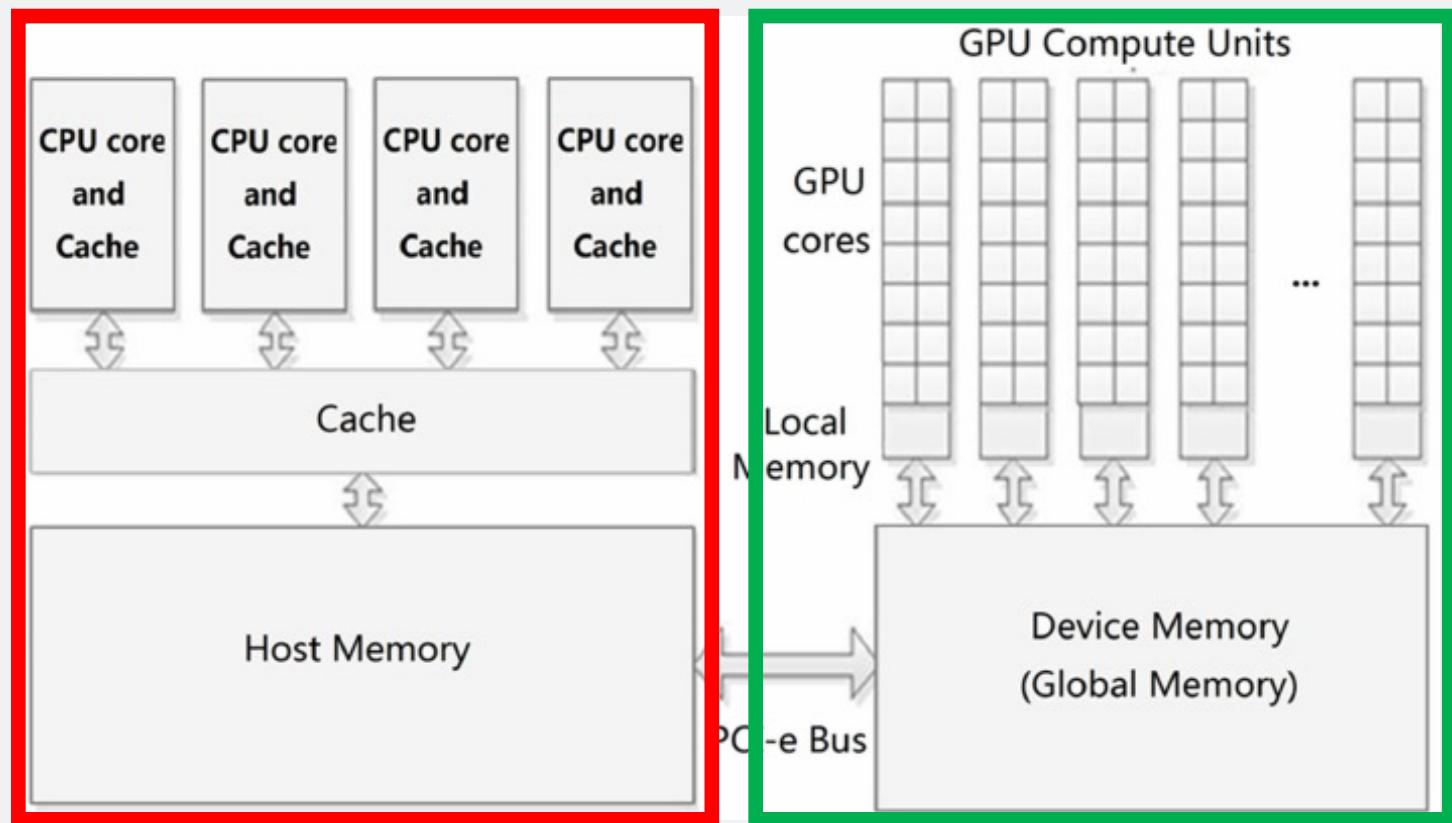
- GPU were first developed for graphics pipelines only
- Now general purpose processors (often used for AI applications)
- Programmed with high-level language
- Usually, **CPU is the main processor** with **GPU as accelerator**
- **PCIe connection** allows high throughput (up to 16 GB/s per lane)



[PLOS ONE 8\(5\): e62789](#)

# HETEROGENEOUS SYSTEM

- **CPU core**, latency optimised (= low delay in transferring data):
  - Low number of cores
  - Complex control units
  - Large caches
- **GPU accelerators**, throughput optimised (= high fraction of data transferred simultaneously):
  - High number of cores
  - No complex control units
  - Small caches



[PLOS ONE 8\(5\): e62789](#)

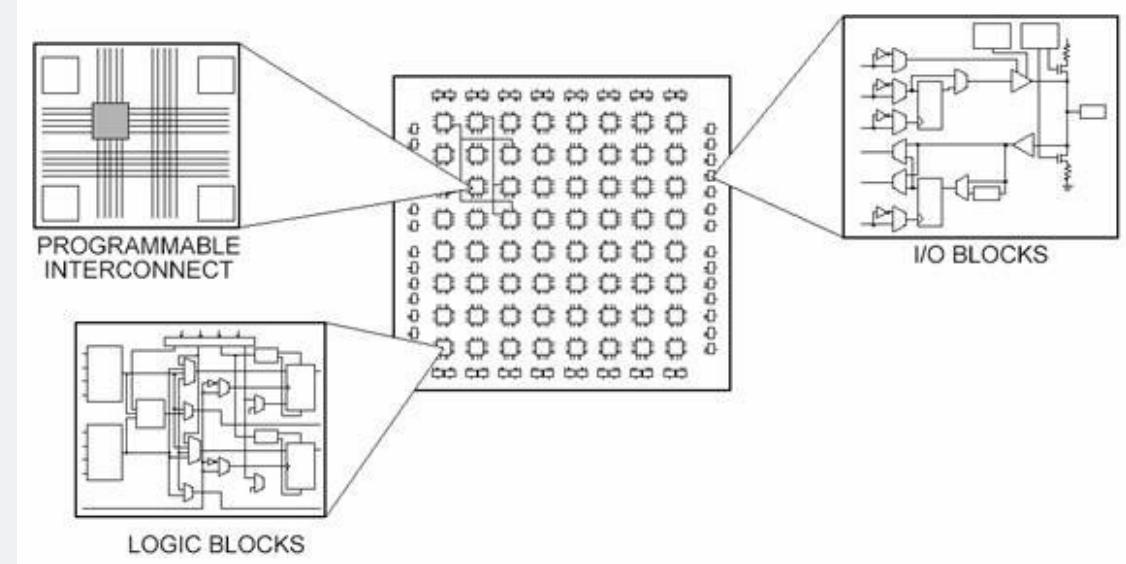
# GPU VS CPU: SPECIFICATIONS EXAMPLE

- GPUs provide higher data transfer speed (bandwidth), meaning also a higher number of floating points operations per second (FLOPS)
- CPUs compute more instructions per second (frequency) exploiting a larger memory capacity

	Core count	Bandwidth	Peak Compute performance	Frequency	Memory capacity	Transistor count	Price
CPU <u>AMD</u> <u>Ryzen 5</u> <u>5600G</u>	6	48 GB/s	1.7 TFLOPS	3900 MHz	64 GB	10.7 M	260 \$
GPU <u>NVIDIA</u> <u>RTX 3090</u>	10496	936 GB/s	35.5 TFLOPS (single precision)	1395 MHz	24 GB	28.3 M	1500 \$

# FIELD PROGRAMMABLE GATE ARRAYS (FPGA)

- Thousands of logic blocks connected via programmable interconnect
- Hardware implementation of an algorithm
- Advantages:
  - Fast integer computations (low latency)
  - Does not require a CPU (any data source)
  - High bandwidth
- Disadvantages:
  - Medium floating point operations performance
  - High engineering cost
  - Not easy backward compatibility with other processors types



[National Instruments](#)

# ACCELERATORS COMPARISON

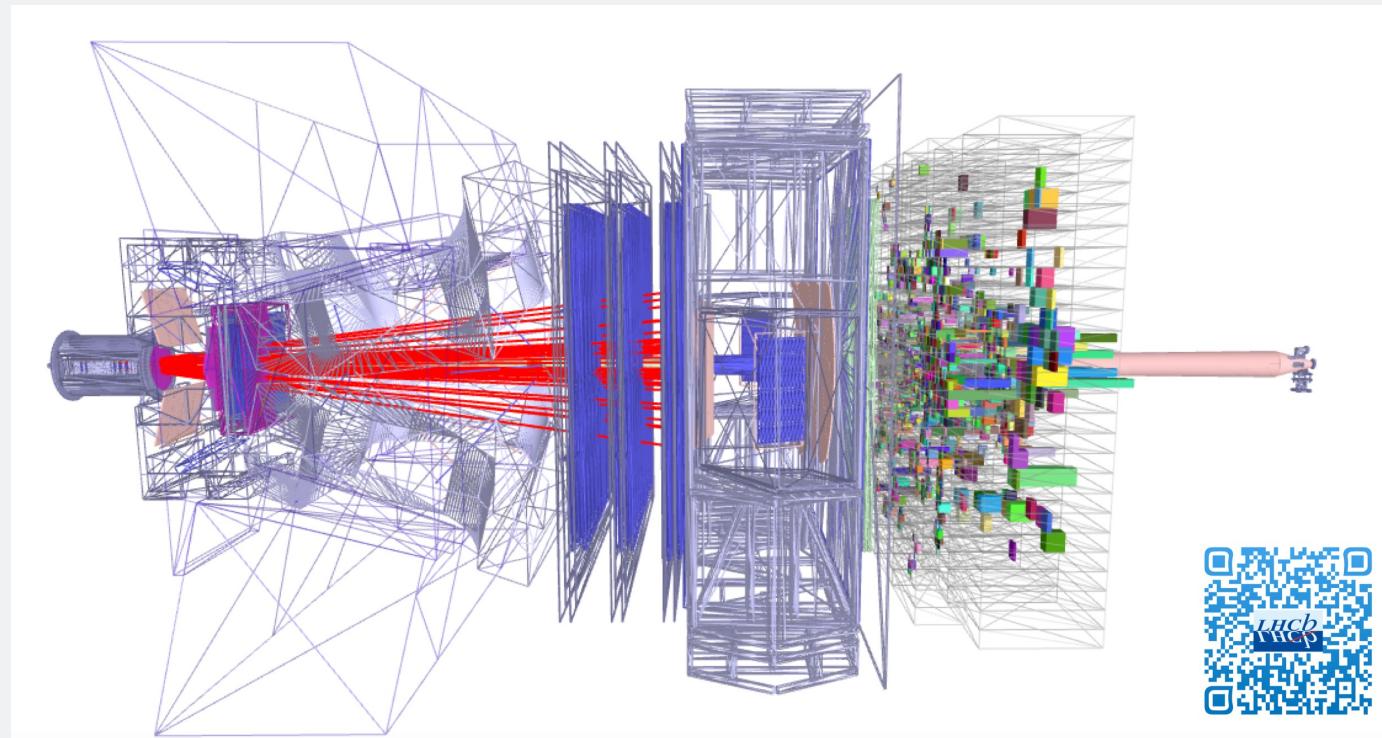
	CPU	GPU	FPGA
Latency	$\mathcal{O}(10)$ $\mu\text{s}$	$\mathcal{O}(100)$ $\mu\text{s}$	Deterministic, $\mathcal{O}(100)$ ns
I/O with processor	Ethernet, USB, PCIe	PCIe, Nvlink	Connectivity to any data source via printed circuit board (PCB)
Engineering cost	Low entry level (programmable with c++, python, etc.)	Low entry level (programmable with CUDA, OpenCL, etc.)	Some high-level syntax available, traditionally VHDL, Verilog (specialized engineer)
Single precision floating point performance	$\mathcal{O}(10)$ TFLOPs	$\mathcal{O}(10)$ TFLOPs	Optimized for fixed point performance
Serial / parallel	Optimized for serial performance, increasingly using vector processing	Optimized for parallel performance	Optimized for parallel performance
Memory	$\mathcal{O}(100)$ GB RAM	$\mathcal{O}(10)$ GB	$\mathcal{O}(10)$ MB (on the FPGA itself, not the PCB)
Backward compatibility	Compatible, except for vector instruction sets	Compatible, except for specific features only available on modern GPUs	Not easily backward compatible

# CHALLENGES WITH HETEROGENEOUS COMPUTING

- Different challenges may arise when exploiting the heterogeneous computing:
  1. Instruction sets can produce results which are bit-wise not reproducible
    - Check in advance minimum required resolution (integer, floating point, ...)
  2. Slow interconnects can cause bandwidth bottlenecks:
    - Try to minimize copies between devices
  3. Data layout might not be suitable for all devices architectures or memory structures:
    - Minimize transformations between data layouts
  4. Different compilers and/or programming interfaces:
    - Use programming environments for heterogeneous computing

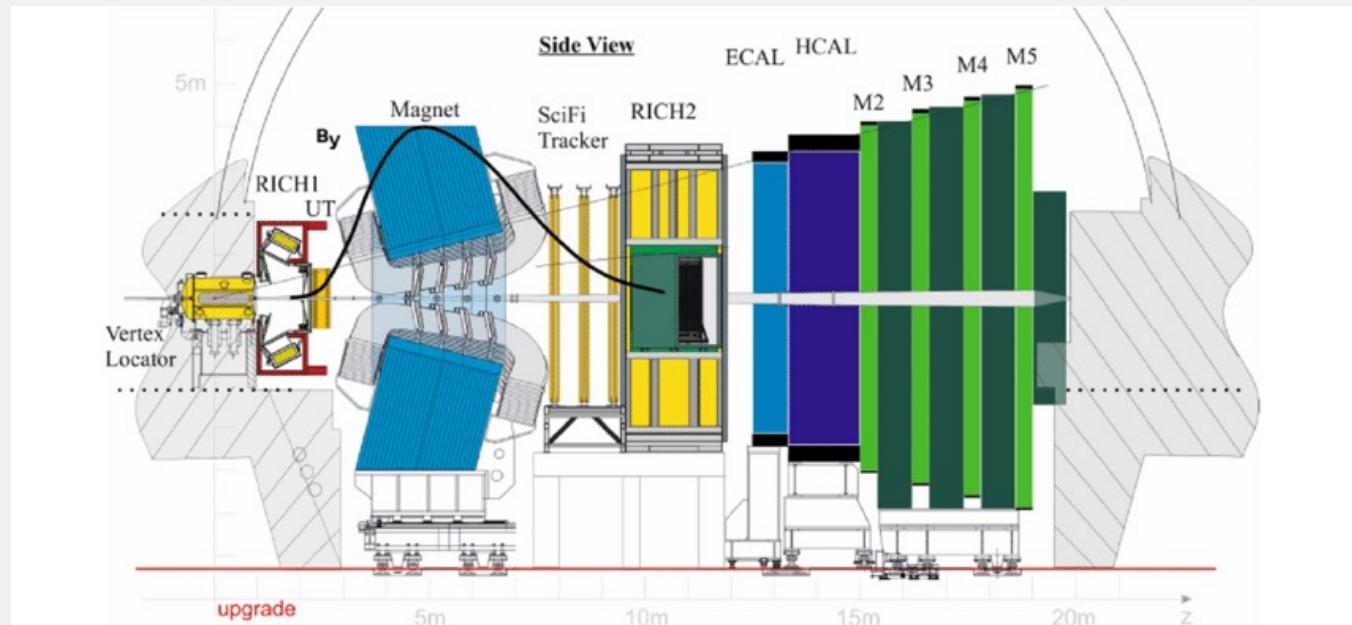
# EXAMPLES OF GPU USAGE IN RESEARCH

- Trigger at high energy physics experiments
- The LHCb experiment is taking data with fully-software trigger: first-level based on GPUs (HLT1)
- Why trigger? And why GPUs?



# TRIGGER: REAL TIME ANALYSIS

- At CERN, the Large Hadron Collider (LHC) provides the LHCb experiment 40 million proton-proton beams collisions per second → 4 TB of data per second
- Trigger = filtering and selection of the events (= beam-beam collisions)
- Select decay of particles containing b- and c- quark, signatures: displaced vertices, momentum, particle type
- Sub-detectors which allow tracking and particle identification, which needs to be done “live”: Real-Time Analysis (RTA)



[R. Aaij et al 2024 JINST 19 P05065](#)

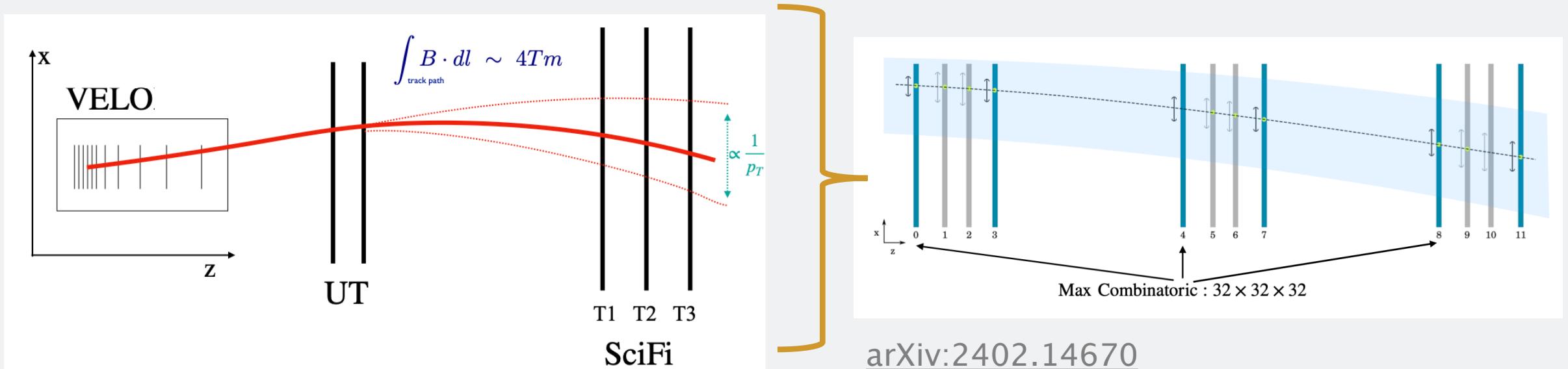
# THE LHCb TRIGGER:GPUS

- Goal: perform the reconstruction for each of the events in the 4 TB/s and reduce it of a factor ~40 reaching 100 GB/s (HLT1)
- Architecture optimised on throughput → GPUs

The LHCb trigger	GPUs
Huge data load	High throughput Many FLOPS
Parallel problems: pp collisions (event) Within one event: tracks	Highly parallelizable
Small raw event data (~100KB)	PCIe connection -> limited I/O ~1000 events fit in GPU memory O(10)GB

# RECONSTRUCTION ALGORITHM

- How to fully exploit the parallelization power of GPUs?
- Goal: reconstruct tracks traversing the whole LHCb detector, fundamental for triggering
- Parallelization levels:
  1. Over events, independent p-p collisions
  2. Over input tracks, extrapolate straight tracks in VELO+UT into the magnetic field reaching the SciFi
  3. Over hits in SciFi, meaning possible extrapolations segments



[arXiv:2402.14670](https://arxiv.org/abs/2402.14670)

# MACHINE LEARNING

- The training of machine learning (ML) methods require large amounts of data to handle → high throughput of GPUs
  - Many ML methods, for example neural networks, use very parallelizable methods: matrix multiplication
  - Can be trained using reduced precision
- Artificial intelligence (AI) uses neural networks for fast training and inference from input data
- GPU performance has increased around 7000 times since 2003, also in terms of price per performance

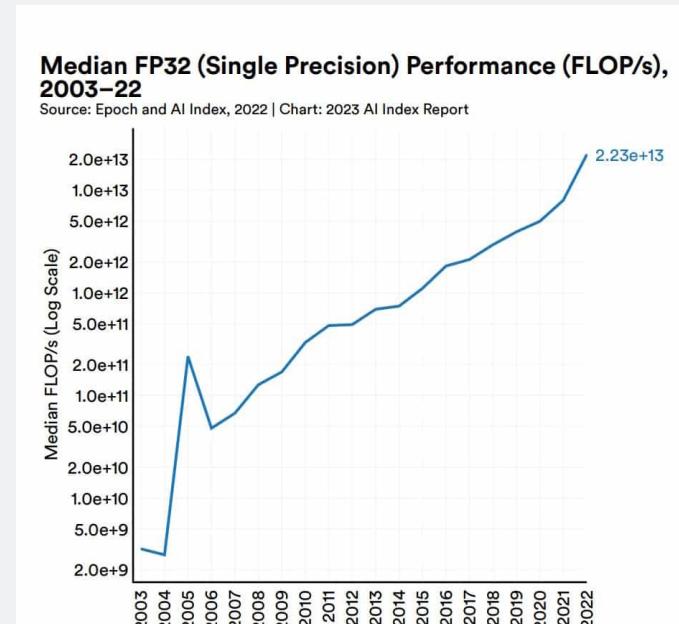


Figure 2.7.8

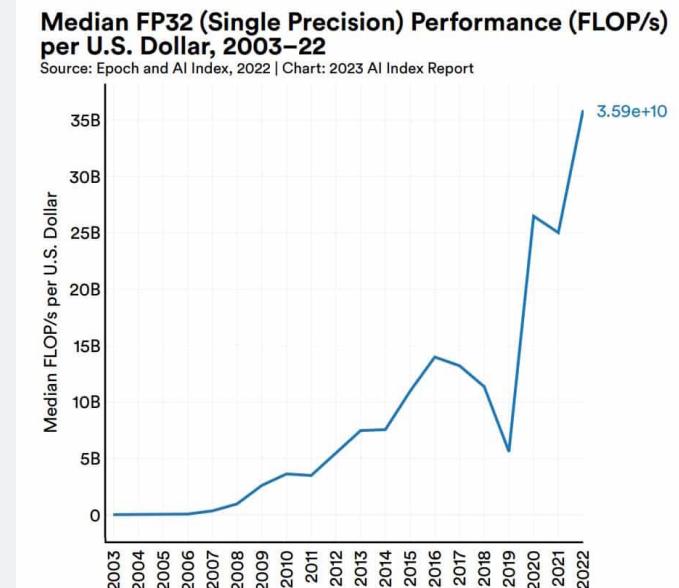


Figure 2.7.10

# SUMMARY OF FIRST PART

- Heterogeneous computing is critical to improve performance and energy efficiency of our code system
- Commonly used in our day-by-day life (video/graphics) but also by top computing clusters in the world
- Using heterogeneous computing in research: General Purpose GPU
- GPUs are throughput-optimised processors vs CPU which are latency-optimised
- Examples of research applications: high energy physics trigger system, machine learning, ...

END OF FIRST PART  
ANY QUESTIONS?  
BREAK?

LET'S DIVE INTO GPU PROGRAMMING

BUT BEFORE...  
REGISTER TO THE VISPA CLUSTER:

<https://vispa.physik.rwth-aachen.de>

Just need username and email

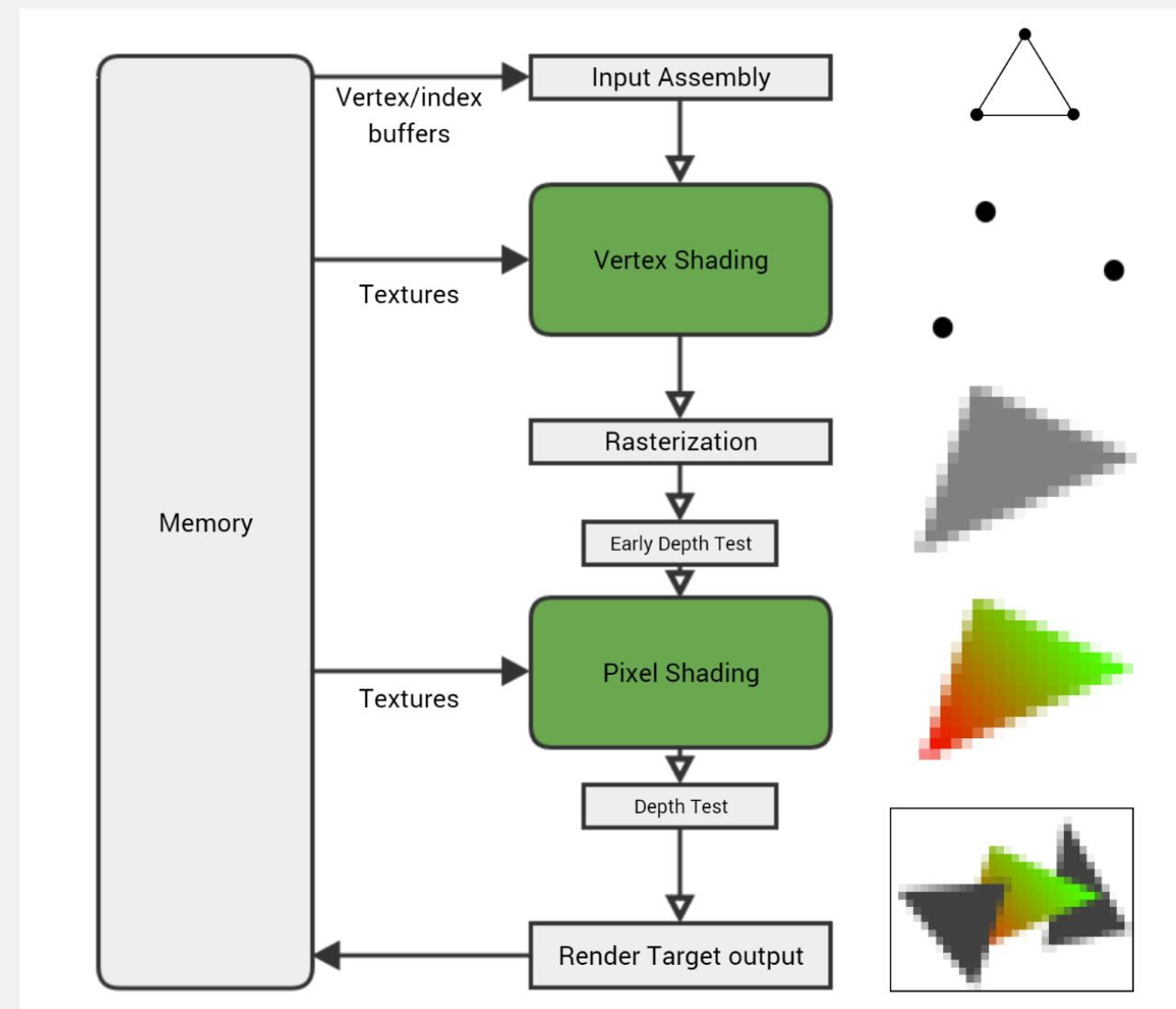
# OVERVIEW

- Section 1: Heterogeneous architectures and their applications
- Section 2: GPU programming
- In Section 2:
  - GPU for graphics
  - GPU for general purpose
  - Composition and parallelization
  - Memory layout
  - Functions declaration and a first CUDA kernel
  - Parallelization in CUDA and memory management

# GPU AS GRAPHIC PROCESSORS

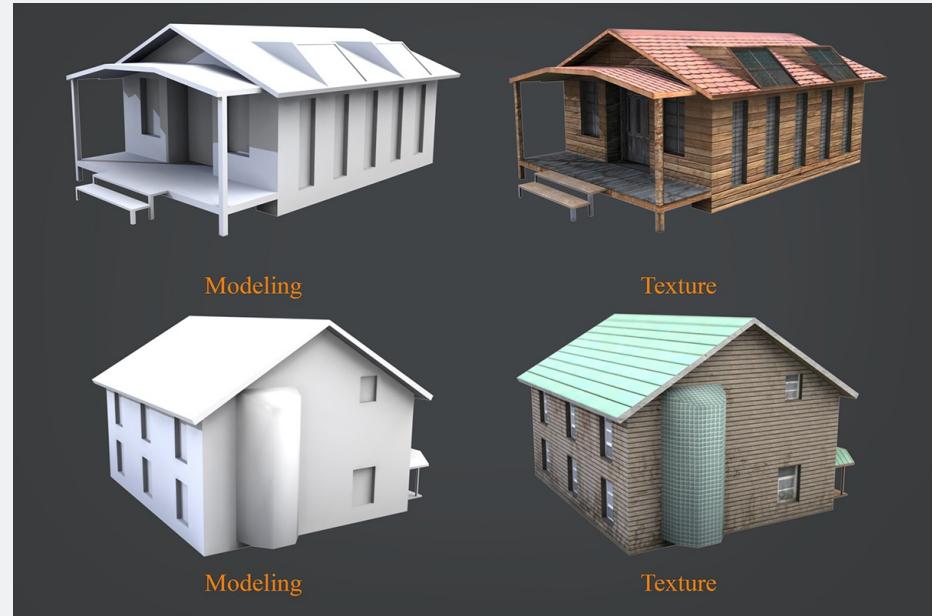
Step by step of how to produce graphics:

1. **Vertex and index inputs:** description of the images using vertices and edges to triangles
2. **Vertex shading:** calculate the final position on the screen of each vertex
3. **Rasterization:** get pixel-by-pixel colors
4. **Pixel shading:** transform color of the pixels based on the textures (material, light, ...). This is usually the most GPU expensive step
5. **Rendering:** write output to final render target



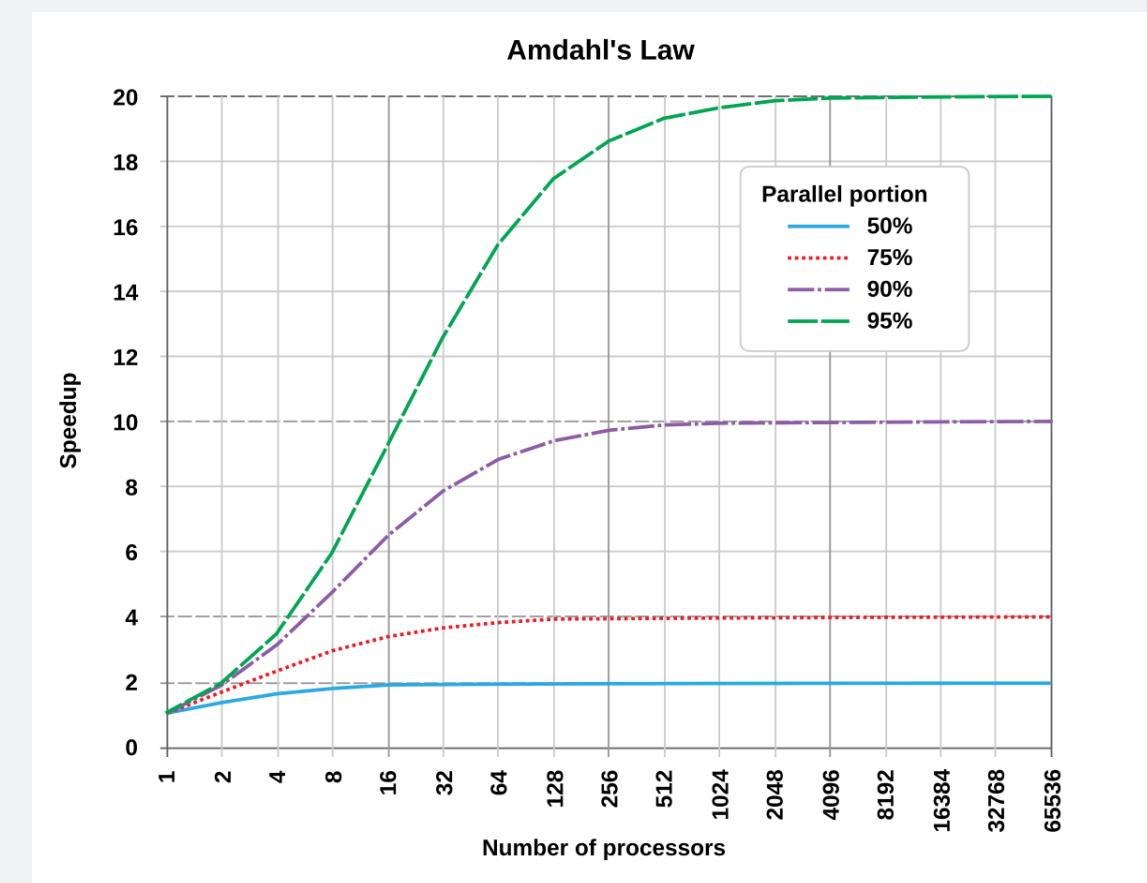
# GRAPHICS REQUIREMENTS

- Graphics pipelines compute a huge amount of simple arithmetics on independent data
  - Transforming positions, get pixel colors, apply texture properties, ...
- Hardware-wise:
  - Memory should be accessed simultaneously and contiguously (no need of huge memory capacity)
  - Bandwidth and throughput far more important than latency
  - Floating-point precision needed
- GPU processors have the perfect requirements!



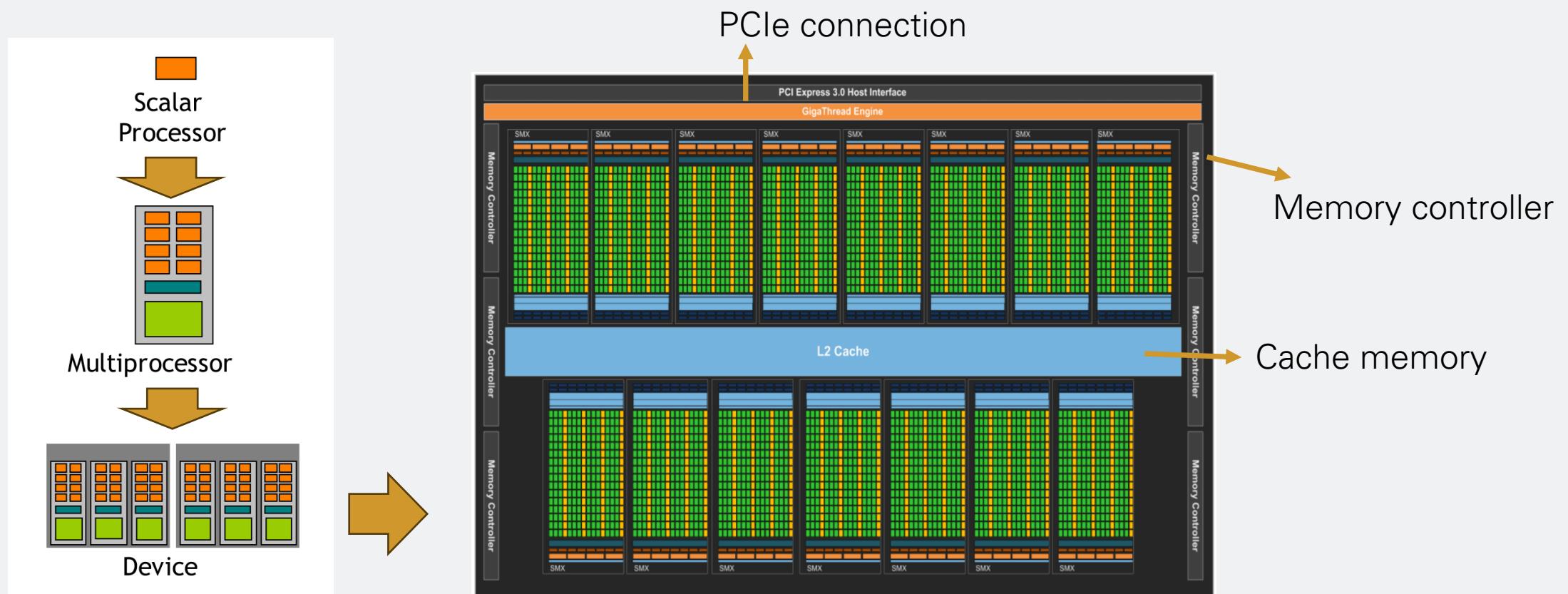
# USING GPUS FOR GENERAL PURPOSE

- Starting from around 2000s, with advent of programmable shaders and floating point operation support, GPU processors became popular also as General Purpose (GPGPU) systems
- When is it beneficial? **Amdahl's law**
- Speedup =  $1/(S + P/N)$ 
  - S: sequential part
  - P: parallel component
  - N: number of processors
- One must consider how much of the algorithmic problem can be parallelized
- Example: if 95% of the algorithm can be parallelized the gain could be up to 20 times



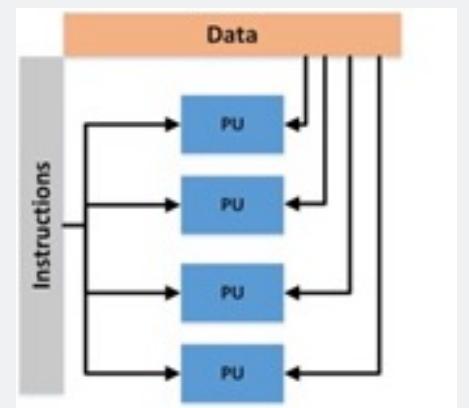
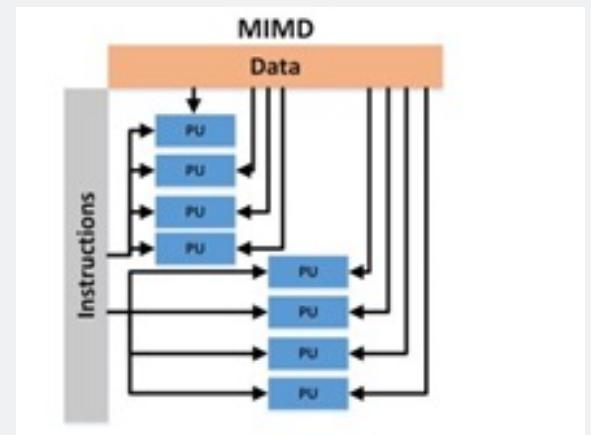
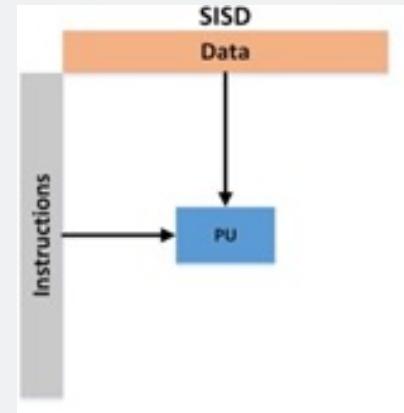
# GPU COMPOSITION: HARDWARE

- GPU consists in elements which can perform Single Instruction in Multiple Threads (SIMT)



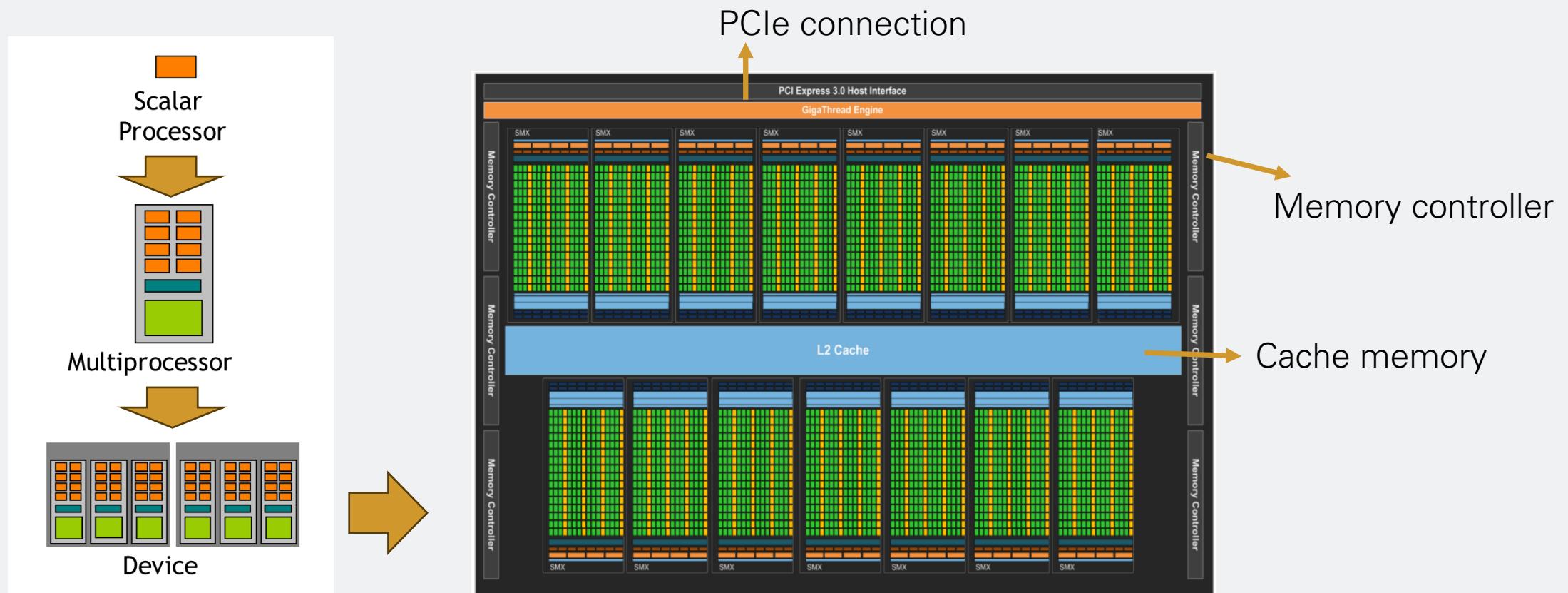
# SISD, MIMD AND SIMT

- SISD: Single Instruction Single Data → Uniprocessors machines
- MIMD: Multiple Instructions Multiple Data → Multi-core or grid processors
  - Vectorised instructions, as in modern CPUs
- SIMT: Single Instruction Multiple Threads → GPUs
  - Each thread performs the same instruction but on different data
  - Synchronization steps are needed



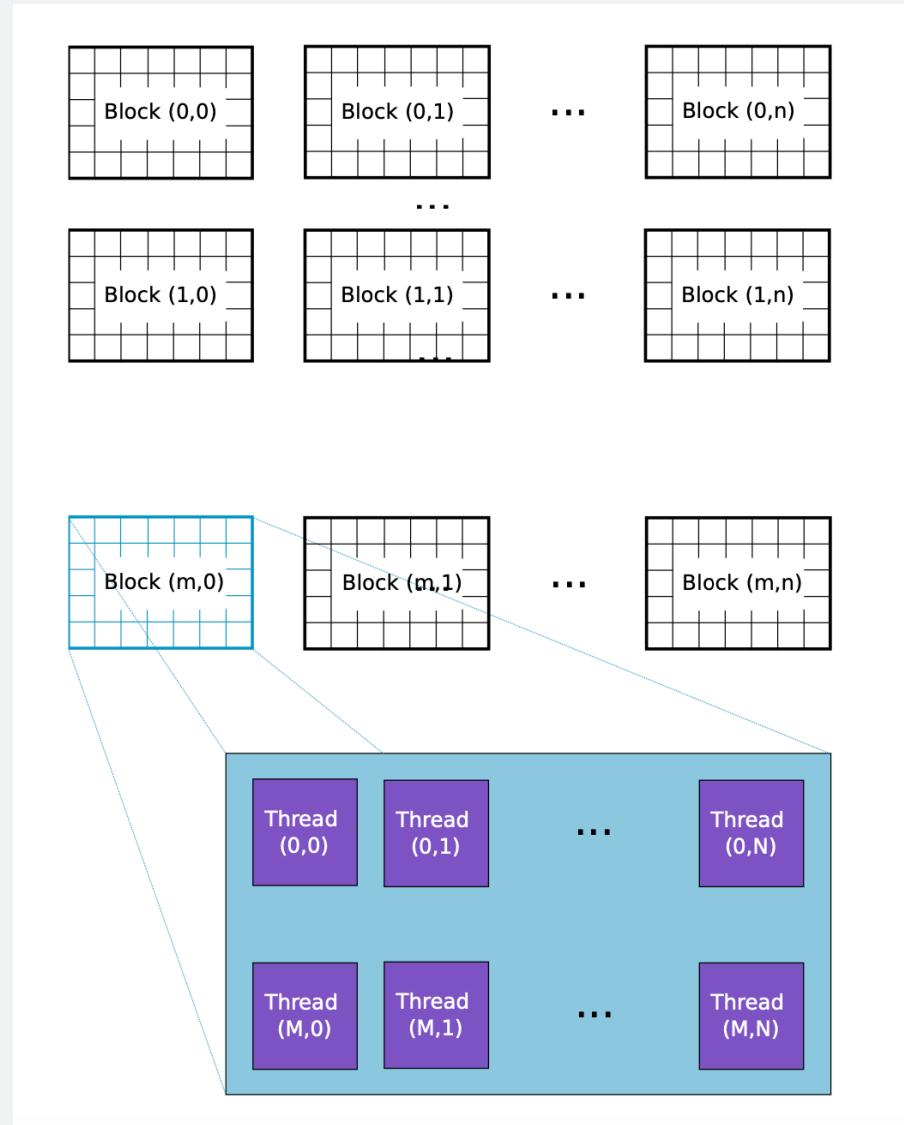
# GPU COMPOSITION: HARDWARE

- Processors (= SIMT cores) are organised in streaming multiprocessors (SM) which compose the GPU
- How does the parallelization work? How is it assigned in the hardware?
- What kind of memory we have available?



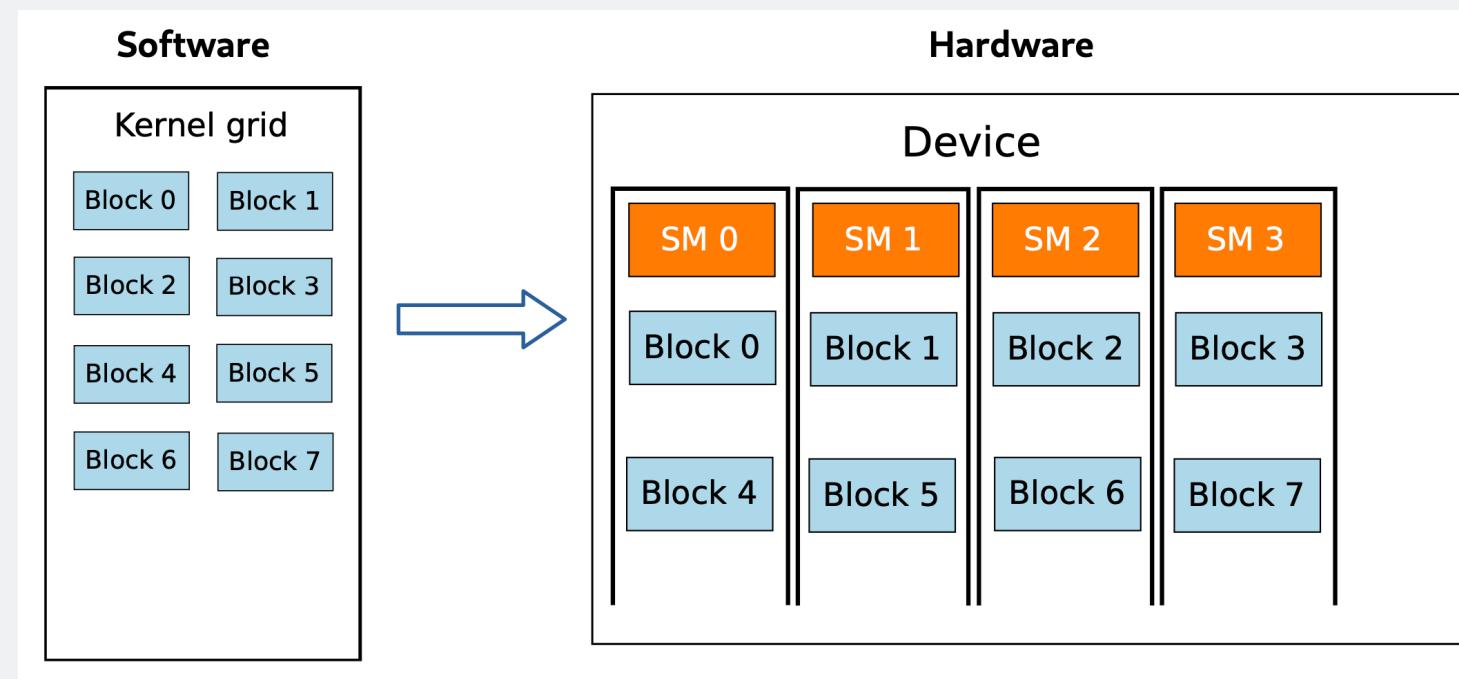
# PARALLELIZATION

- The GPU code (**kernel**) is executed in many **threads**
- The total number of threads are split into **blocks** (fixed set of threads, generally maximum of 1024)
- Each thread processes the same instruction, the kernel, each one on different data
- We can go up to 3 dimensions both in blocks and threads



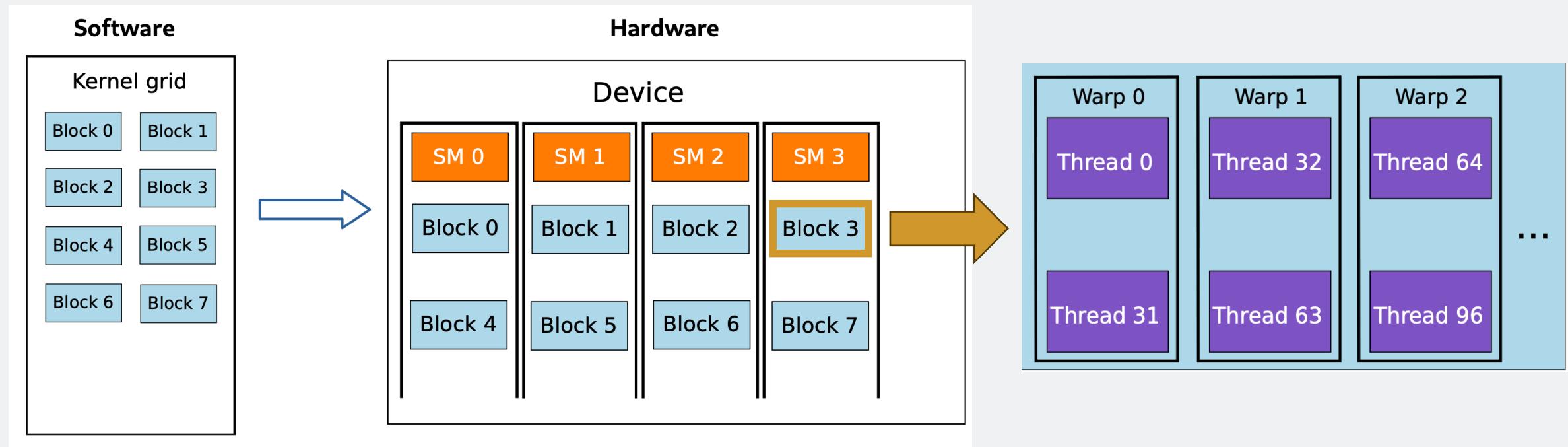
# ASSIGNMENT TO STREAMING MULTIPROCESSORS

- Once the kernel is defined, the processes are divided into blocks and scheduled to the streaming multiprocessors (SM) of the GPU according to resource usage (memory, registers, ...)
- The execution of the blocks is arbitrary



# WARPS ASSIGNMENT

- Within a block, threads are processed in **warps** (= 32 threads in Nvidia GPUs)
- Warps are the smallest entity, meaning block size should be chosen as multiple of 32 (or warp\_size)
- This ensures no threads are inherently in idle state



# MEMORY LAYOUT AND USAGE

- The GPU has 3 main kind of memory:

1. **Global memory**: high latency, GBs of space

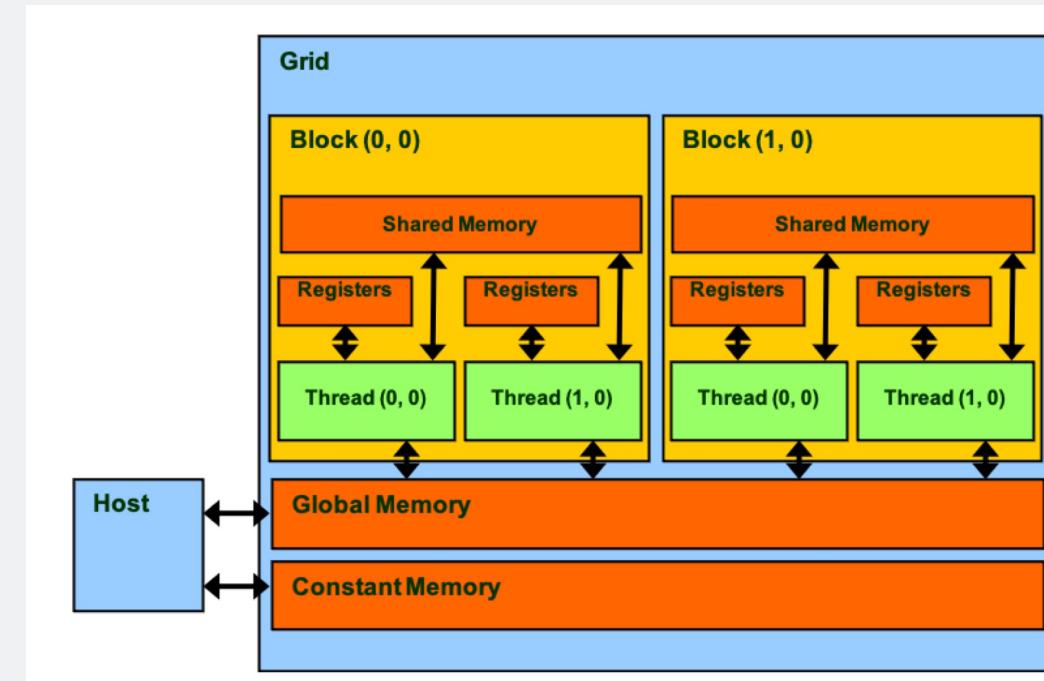
- Main memory
- Communication with the CPU (host)

2. **Caches**: lower latency, KBs of space

- Shared memory**: allows communication among threads in one block
- Constant memory**: read-only memory (only write from host), used to store constants

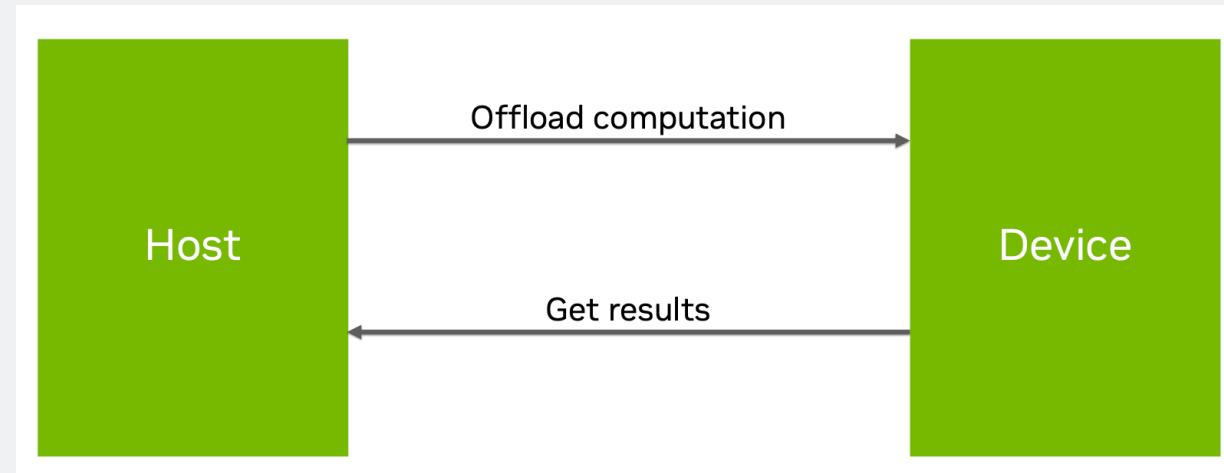
3. **Registers**: lowest latency configurable (usually 255 registers per thread)

- Accessible only from single thread
- All variables defined are stored in registers
- If exceeded, can result in performance penalty



# CPU-GPU COMMUNICATION

- The CPU is required to launch the applications as the **host**
- The host offloads some of the work in the GPU as the **device**
- The host takes care of the application at all times (stopping, pausing, ...)
- All input data start from the **host** which populates the **global memory** and all data must return to the **host** when the process is finished
- Once in the global memory, data can be stored in constant, shared memory or registers based on the need (all their contents are flushed once the kernel function terminates)



# GPU PROGRAMMING ENVIRONMENTS

- NVIDIA programming interface: CUDA
  - Works only with NVIDIA GPUs
  - Well documented, many tutorials
- AMD ROCm (HIP): open source platform
  - Support AMD and NVIDIA GPUs
  - Newer development, less documentation
- OpenCL: framework for heterogeneous platforms
  - CPU, GPU, FPGA, ...
- SYCL: C++ heterogeneous platform based on OpenCL
  - Intel GPUs



# A FIRST CUDA KERNEL

- Let's have a first look at a simple CUDA kernel:
  - Identifier: `__global__`
  - Indices: `blockIdx.x` and `threadIdx.x`
  - No `std::cout` allowed in the device, using `printf`

```
__global__ void hello_world_gpu() {

    /* blockIdx.x: Accesses index of block within grid in x direction
       threadIdx.x: Accesses index of thread within block in x direction
    */
    if ( blockIdx.x < 100 && threadIdx.x < 100 )
        printf("Hello World from the GPU at block %u, thread %u \n", blockIdx.x, threadIdx.x);

}
```

# FUNCTION DECLARATION

- We have different identifiers which can be used in CUDA:
  1. `__global__` : function called from host and executed on device
  2. `__device__`: function called from device and executed on device
  3. `__host__` : function called from host and executed on host



# INDICES AND PARALLELIZATION

- Inside a CUDA kernel, **indices** help identify single threads
- One-dimensional example of 3 blocks with 4 threads each:
  - `gridDim.x = 3`, number of blocks in the grid
  - `blockIdx.x` identifies the current block number
  - `blockDim.x = 4`, refers to the number of threads in the block
  - `threadIdx.x` identifies the current thread number
- This means that the formula `blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x` uniquely identifies one thread
- Example: `blockIdx.x = 1` and `threadIdx.x = 2` → data index = 6

	threadIdx.x = 0	threadIdx.x = 1	threadIdx.x = 2	threadIdx.x = 3	
gridDim.x = 3	0	1	2	3	blockIdx.x = 0
	4	5	6	7	blockIdx.x = 1
	8	9	10	11	blockIdx.x = 2

blockDim.x = 4

Diagram illustrating the mapping of indices for 3 blocks (gridDim.x=3) with 4 threads each (blockDim.x=4). The indices are arranged in a 3x4 grid:

- Row 1: 0, 1, 2, 3 (blockIdx.x = 0)
- Row 2: 4, 5, 6, 7 (blockIdx.x = 1)
- Row 3: 8, 9, 10, 11 (blockIdx.x = 2)

A yellow bracket on the left indicates 3 blocks (gridDim.x=3). A horizontal yellow bar at the bottom indicates 4 threads per block (blockDim.x=4). A red arrow points to the value 2 in the third column of the second row, representing the unique index (blockIdx.x=1, threadIdx.x=2) which is 6.

# INDICES CONFIGURATIONS

- Grid and block sizes can be defined up to 3 dimensions, which can help in the parallelization process
- This mean we can have x, y, z:
  - `gridDim.x, gridDim.y, gridDim.z`
  - `blockIdx.x, blockIdx.y , blockIdx.z`
  - `blockDim.x, blockDim.y, blockDim.z`
  - `threadIdx.x, threadIdx.y, threadIdx.z`
- The maximum number of threads per block is 1024, which cannot be exceeded (multiplication of the 3 dimensions)
- The maximum number of blocks varies per hardware, usually 65535 per dimension

# RUNNING A FIRST CUDA KERNEL

- We need to define **grid size** and **block size**
- dim3 is a CUDA specific variable taking up to 3 input variables defining the sizes in 3 dimensions
- cudaDeviceSynchronize() waits for all requested tasks on device to be finished (here waiting for the printf to print out values)

```
dim3 grid_dim(n_blocks);
dim3 block_dim(n_threads);

hello_world_gpu<<<grid_dim, block_dim>>>();

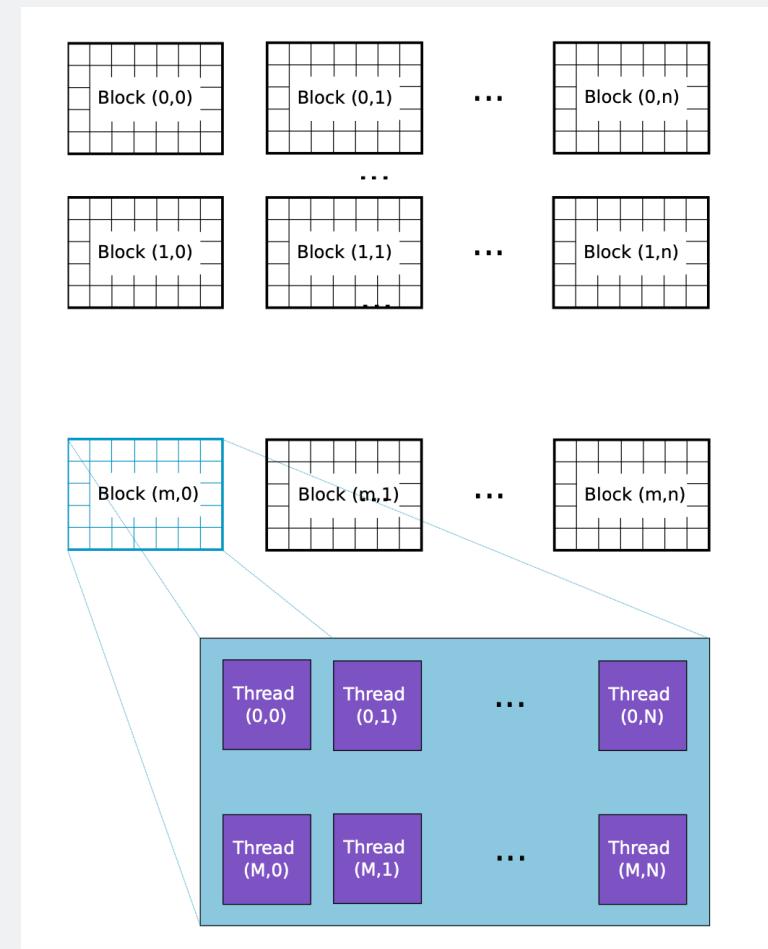
cudaDeviceSynchronize();
```

Any parameters to be passed in the kernel can be added in ()

# SYNCHRONIZATION

- The execution of **blocks** and **threads** is arbitrary
- If we want to ensure all work has finished, synchronization is needed
- It can be done at grid- and block-level:
  - `cudaDeviceSynchronize()` waits for all work on the device to be finished, meaning all blocks and also memory copies
  - `__syncthreads()` waits for all threads inside one block to finish their work, can be written within the kernel code (for example when having 2 consecutive loops)

```
for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < N+1; i++) {  
    variable[threadIdx.x] = ...  
}  
  
__syncthreads();  
  
for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < N+1; i++) {  
    Use variable[threadIdx.x]  
}
```



# FOR LOOP AND PARALLELIZATION: EXAMPLE

- Example: writing an vector addition kernel, with  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  of size  $N$

X	1	4	7	2	3	1
+						
y	2	0	2	6	4	2
=						
Z	3	4	9	8	7	3

- How would you do it in CPU?

```
void vector_addition_cpu(int *X, int *Y, int *Z, int N) {
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) {
        Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];
    }
}
```

## FOR LOOP AND PARALLELIZATION: EXAMPLE

- Running on a single block using size N as number of threads
- Making the loop in this way forces the block dimension to be N, otherwise we lead to incorrect results or out bounds accesses → how to avoid this?

```
__global__ void vector_addition_gpu(int *X, int *Y, int *Z) {  
    const int i = threadIdx.x; ——————  
    Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];  
}  
  
int main(){  
    ...  
    vector_addition_gpu<<<1, N>>>( X, Y, Z);  
    ...  
}
```

Index value different  
for each of the N  
threads in the block

Grid dimension 1 and  
block dimension N

## FOR LOOP AND PARALLELIZATION: EXAMPLE

- Making a block-dimension strided loop: block-dimension can be any number  $n$ 
  - $\text{Stride} = \text{blockDim.x} = n$
  - If  $n \geq N$ : the loop will be the same as previous slide
  - If  $n < N$ : some or all threads will make more than 1 iteration

```
__global__ void vector_addition_gpu(int *X, int *Y, int *Z, int N) {
    for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < N; i += blockDim.x) { ——————>
        Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];
    }
}

int main(){
    ...
    vector_addition_gpu<<<1, n>>>( X, Y, Z, N);
    ...
}
```

Block-dimension strided

Grid dimension 1 and block dimension n

## FOR LOOP AND PARALLELIZATION: EXAMPLE

- Making a block-dimension strided loop: block-dimension can be any number n

```
for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < N; i += blockDim.x) {  
    Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];  
}
```

- Example: N = 6

- If n = 8, first 6 go in each thread, last 2 do not satisfy  $i < N$  in loop
- If n = blockDim.x = 4, first 4 go in first iteration of the loop (4 threads), then 2 calculation go in second iteration  $i += blockDim.x$

```
__global__ void vector_addition_gpu(int *X, int *Y, int *Z, int N) {  
    for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < N; i += blockDim.x) {  
        Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];  
    }  
}  
  
int main(){  
    ...  
    vector_addition_gpu<<<1, n>>>( X, Y, Z, N);  
    ...  
}
```

	0	1	2	3	4	5
X	1	4	7	2	3	1

## FOR LOOP AND PARALLELIZATION: EXAMPLE

- Making a grid- and block-dimension strided loop: with grid-dimension  $m$  and block-dimension  $n$ 
  - Stride =  $\text{blockDim.x} * \text{gridDim.x}$
  - Start =  $\text{threadIdx.x} + \text{blockIdx.x} * \text{blockDim.x}$
  - Iterating in this way in all threads across all blocks, profiting from maximum parallelization

```
__global__ void vector_addition_gpu(int *X, int *Y, int *Z, int N) {
    for (int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x * blockDim.x; i < N; i += blockDim.x * gridDim.x) {
        Z[i] = X[i] + Y[i];
    }
}

int main(){
    ...
    vector_addition_gpu<<<m, n>>>( X, Y, Z, N);
    ...
}
```



Grid dimension m and  
block dimension n

# GLOBAL MEMORY MANAGEMENT

- Vector addition example, how to handle memory for our vectors from host to device?

```
int main(){
    int *x_d, *y_d, *z_d;
    cudaMalloc( (void**)&x_d, size * sizeof(int) );
    cudaMalloc( (void**)&y_d, size * sizeof(int) );
    cudaMalloc( (void**)&z_d, size * sizeof(int) );

    cudaMemcpy( x_d, X, size * sizeof(int), cudaMemcpyHostToDevice );
    cudaMemcpy( y_d, Y, size * sizeof(int), cudaMemcpyHostToDevice );
    cudaMemcpy( z_d, Z, size * sizeof(int), cudaMemcpyHostToDevice );

    vector_addition_gpu<<<m, n>>>( X, Y, Z, N);

    cudaDeviceSynchronize();

    cudaMemcpy( Z, z_d, size * sizeof(int), cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost );

    cudaFree( x_d );
    cudaFree( y_d );
    cudaFree( z_d );
}
```

1. Allocate global memory in device of size N with **cudaMalloc**
2. Populate global memory with data using **cudaMemcpy**:  
**cudaMemcpyHostToDevice**
3. Run kernel
4. Synchronize after kernel completion
5. Read inputs back in host:  
**cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost**
6. Pointer to global memory to be freed with **cudaFree**

## A WORD ON SHARED MEMORY

- It is useful to define allocate shared memory from the kernel for much faster data usage, knowing its limited size
- If its size is known in advance, it is better to allocate the correct size:
  - `__shared__ float variable_sh[N];`
- Otherwise shared memory could also be allocated dynamically, but size must be known in the host by passing an additional argument in the kernel call
  - `__shared__ float variable_sh[];`
  - `kernel_name<<m,n, N * sizeof(float)>>();`

# ATOMIC OPERATIONS AND RACE CONDITIONS

- We need to be cautious when modifying a value in memory and reading it again in different threads:
  - Timing of threads can be different
  - Three main operations: read, modify and write
- Use atomic operations:
  - Makes the read-write-modify as a single operation = cannot be interrupted
  - `atomicAdd()`, `atomicSub()`, ...
  - Usual use-cases: counting elements, searching elements in array, histogramming, ...

# SATURATING GPU: DEBUGGING

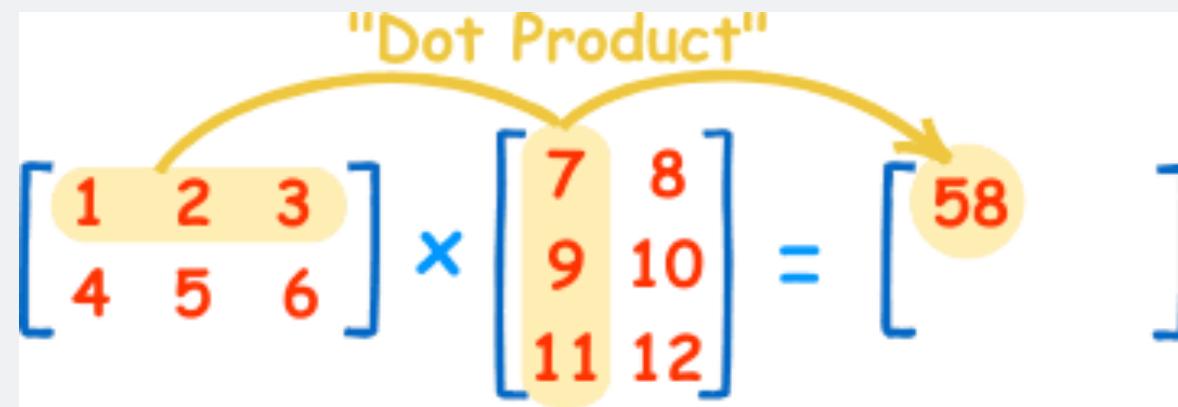
- We need to avoid saturating **shared memory** ( $O(KBs)$ ) and **registers** (255 per thread max) which can cause loss of performance
- Several ways to debug and profile (dynamic program analysis) GPU code:
  - nvprof: profiler built-in CUDA
  - cuda-gdb: command line debugger based of gdb
  - Nvidia nsight (ncu): debugger and profiler implemented in VS Code and usable from command line
  - nsys: command line profiler which produce analytics

seed_xz::seed_xz(seed_xz::Parameters, const char *) (500, 1, 1)x(128, 1, 1), Context 1, Stream 13, Device 0, CC 8.6		
<b>Section: GPU Speed Of Light Throughput</b>		
<hr/>		
Metric Name	Metric Unit	Metric Value
DRAM Frequency	cycle/nsecond	7.58
SM Frequency	cycle/nsecond	1.17
Elapsed Cycles	cycle	4,092,774
Memory Throughput	%	9.86
DRAM Throughput	%	1.40
Duration	msecond	3.50
L1/TEX Cache Throughput	%	26.88
L2 Cache Throughput	%	6.06
SM Active Cycles	cycle	1,501,520.95
Compute (SM) Throughput	%	9.86
<hr/>		
WRN This kernel exhibits low compute throughput and memory bandwidth utilization relative to the peak performance of this device. Achieved compute throughput and/or memory bandwidth below 60.0% of peak typically indicate latency issues. Look at Scheduler Statistics and Warp State Statistics for potential reasons.		
<b>Section: Launch Statistics</b>		
<hr/>		
Metric Name	Metric Unit	Metric Value
Block Size		128
Function Cache Configuration		CacheNone
Grid Size		500
Registers Per Thread	register/thread	118
Shared Memory Configuration Size	Kbyte	65.54
Driver Shared Memory Per Block	Kbyte/block	1.02
Dynamic Shared Memory Per Block	byte/block	0
Static Shared Memory Per Block	Kbyte/block	7.22
Threads	thread	64,000
Waves Per SM		1.95
<hr/>		
WRN A wave of thread blocks is defined as the maximum number of blocks that can be executed in parallel on the target GPU. The number of blocks in a wave depends on the number of multiprocessors and the theoretical occupancy of the kernel. This kernel launch results in 1 full waves and a partial wave of 244 thread blocks. Under the assumption of a uniform execution duration of all thread blocks, the partial wave may account for up to 50.8% of the total kernel runtime with a lower occupancy of 36.3%. Try launching a grid with no partial wave. The overall impact of this tail effect also lessens with the number of full waves executed for a grid. See the Hardware Model ( <a href="https://docs.nvidia.com/nsight-compute/ProfilingGuide/index.html#metrics-hw-model">https://docs.nvidia.com/nsight-compute/ProfilingGuide/index.html#metrics-hw-model</a> ) description for more details on launch configurations.		
<b>Section: Occupancy</b>		
<hr/>		
Metric Name	Metric Unit	Metric Value
Block Limit SM	block	16
Block Limit Registers	block	4
Block Limit Shared Mem	block	7
Block Limit Warps	block	12
Theoretical Active Warps per SM	warp	16
Theoretical Occupancy	%	33.33
Achieved Occupancy	%	21.23
Achieved Active Warps Per SM	warp	10.19
<hr/>		
WRN This kernel's theoretical occupancy (33.3%) is limited by the number of required registers. The difference between calculated theoretical (33.3%) and measured achieved occupancy (21.2%) can be the result of warp scheduling overheads or workload imbalances during the kernel execution. Load imbalances can occur between warps within a block as well as across blocks of the same kernel. See the CUDA Best Practices Guide ( <a href="https://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-c-best-practices-guide/index.html#occupancy">https://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-c-best-practices-guide/index.html#occupancy</a> ) for more details on optimizing occupancy.		

## OTHER EXAMPLE: MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

- We quickly introduce tiling and coalasced memory accesses

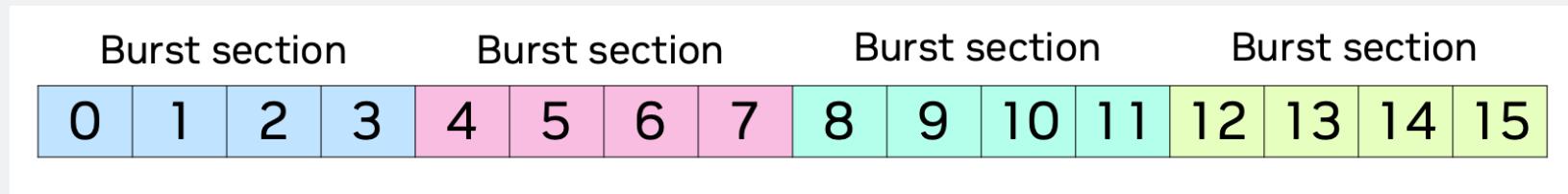
**"Dot Product"**

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 \\ 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 58 \end{bmatrix}$$


# TILING

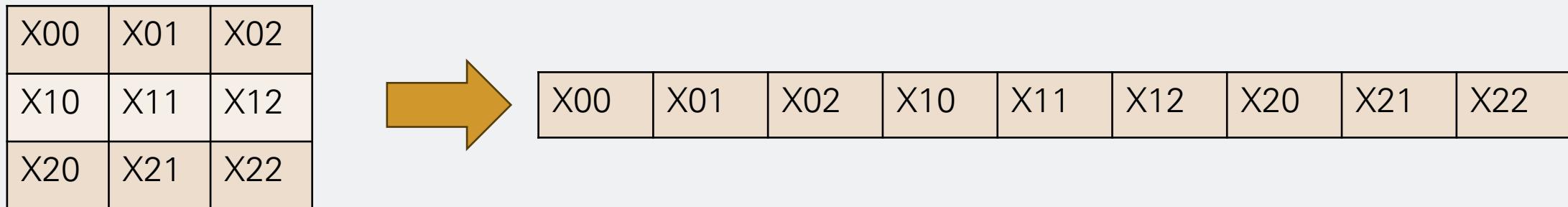
- Tiled data processing: dividing large datasets into many tiles which are processed at one time
- It is useful when data have similar patterns, such that threads can access memory in a tiled way
- Typical tiled-process:
  1. Load tile from global to shared memory
  2. Synchronize
  3. Multiple threads access the data in shared memory
  4. Synchronize
  5. Move to the next tile
- Example: multiply two arrays of any given size by dividing it into tiles

# COALESCED MEMORY ACCESS



- Global memory is organized into **bursts sections**, each cell representing a byte
- If threads make a memory request under the same **burst section**, the access is **coalesced**
- Non-coalesced memory access can significantly affect performance
- **Advice:**
  - Access index to an array X should have a part dependent and independent of `threadIdx.x`
  - Example: `X[ x0 + threadIdx.x ]` with `x0` independent of thread index

## OTHER EXAMPLE: MATRIX MULTIPLICATION



- Advice: always store higher order arrays into 1D array
- Matrix multiplication becomes a 1D array multiplication:
  - X of size  $m \times n$
  - Y of size  $n \times k$
  - Result is Z of size  $m \times k$

The diagram shows the calculation of the dot product between two 1D arrays. The first array, labeled "X", has elements 1, 2, 3 (highlighted in yellow) and 4, 5, 6 (highlighted in blue). The second array, labeled "Y", has elements 7, 8 (highlighted in yellow) and 9, 10, 11, 12 (highlighted in blue). A yellow bracket above the arrays is labeled "Dot Product". The result of the multiplication is shown as a third array [58], where the element 58 is highlighted in yellow.

## OTHER EXAMPLE: MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

- Matrix multiplication becomes a 1D array multiplication:

- X of size  $m \times n$

X00	X01	X02	X10	X11	X12	X20	X21	X22
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

- Y of size  $n \times k$

Y00	Y01	Y02	Y10	Y11	Y12	Y20	Y21	Y22
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

- Result is Z of size  $m \times k$
- With this method access to Y are coalesced while X accesses are not
- This can be improved using shared memory

```
__global__ void multiply_matrices(const float *X, const float *Y, float *Z, int m, int n, int k) {
    for (int row = threadIdx.x; row < n; row += blockDim.x) {
        for (int col = threadIdx.y; col < k; col += blockDim.y) {
            float element = 0.f;
            for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
                element += X[row * m + i] * Y[i * k + col];
            }
            Z[row * size + col] = element;
        }
    }
}
```

## OTHER EXAMPLE: MATRIX MULTIPLICATION

- This can be improved using shared memory, by preloading all elements of X and Y
- Only using coalesced accesses as all threads can access shared memory
- Example on how to load shared memory and using function of the previous slide to do  $16 \times 16$  matrix multiplication

```
__global__ void shared_matrix_multiply_16_16(float* X, float* Y, float* Z) {
    __shared__ float shared_X [256];
    __shared__ float shared_Y [256];
    // Coalesced loads
    for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < 256; i += blockDim.x)
        shared_X[i] = X[i];
    for (int i = threadIdx.x; i < 256; i += blockDim.x)
        shared_Y[i] = Y[i];
    __syncthreads();
    // Now shared_X and shared_Y are populated and can be used
    // instead of the original arrays to perform the multiplication
    multiply_arrays(shared_X , shared_Y , Z, 16, 16, 16);
}
```

# STREAM AND PIPELINES

- A **stream** is a sequence of commands to be executed in order, example, kernel invocations, memory transmissions and allocations, synchronizations, ...
- Any instructions run in a stream must complete before the next instruction is issued
- CUDA uses a default stream
- Non-default stream can be defined, but the default one will always have priority
- GPUs can actually perform in this way data transmissions while executing kernels = **pipeline**
- Typical pipeline with 3 streams:
  - Use SMs to perform computations
  - Transfer data from host to device
  - Transfer data from device to host (using `cudaMemcpyAsync` to transfer data asynchronously in a non-default stream)

# SUMMARY

- Starting from year ~2000, GPUs were starting to be used for general purpose
- It is important to understand how and how much of our algorithm can be parallelized
- GPUs are single instruction multiple threads (SIMT) devices
- Parallelization organised in blocks and threads
- The CPU-GPU communication is fundamental as the CPU is in charge of all time of the process and can offload some work to the GPU
- It is important to know and understand the memory layout of a GPU to achieve the best performance and use them in the best way

# RESOURCES USED IN THIS TALK

- Most of what I learned comes from Dorothea vom Bruch (physics researcher at CPPM in Marseille) and Daniel Campora (now Nvidia engineer)
- They do also amazing lectures, from which I took all the inspiration: [tCSC2023](#) and [tSCS2024](#)
- Where to find material:
  - <https://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-c-programming-guide>
  - D. B. Kirk, W. w. Hwu: “Programming Massively Parallel Processors”
  - J. Sanders, E. Kandrot: “CUDA by Example: An Introduction to General-Purpose GPU Programming”
  - N. Wilt: “The CUDA Handbook: A Comprehensive Guide to GPU Programming”