# Lecture 3: control flow and synchronisation

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### Warp divergence

This is not a new problem.

Old CRAY vector supercomputers had a logical merge vector instruction

```
z = p ? x : y;
```

which stored the relevant element of the input vectors  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{y}$  depending on the logical vector  $\mathbf{p}$ , equivalent to

```
for(i=0; i<I; i++) {
  if (p[i]) z[i] = x[i];
  else  z[i] = y[i];
}</pre>
```

### Warp divergence

Threads are executed in warps of 32, with all threads in the warp executing the same instruction at the same time.

What happens if different threads in a warp need to do different things?

```
if (x<0.0)
  z = x-2.0;
else
  z = sqrt(x);</pre>
```

This is called *warp divergence* – CUDA will generate correct code to handle this, but to understand the performance you need to understand what CUDA does with it

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### Warp divergence

Similarly, NVIDIA GPUs have *predicated* instructions which are carried out only if a logical flag is true.

```
p: a = b + c; // computed only if p is true
```

In the previous example, all threads compute the logical predicate and two predicated instructions

```
p = (x<0.0);

p: z = x-2.0; // single instruction

!p: z = sqrt(x);
```

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## Warp divergence

#### Note that:

- sqrt(x) would usually produce a NaN when x<0, but it's not really executed when x<0 so there's no problem
- all threads execute both conditional branches, so execution cost is sum of both branches
   potentially large loss of performance

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### Warp divergence

If the branches are big, nvcc compiler inserts code to check if all threads in the warp take the same branch (warp voting) and then branches accordingly.

```
p = ...
if (any(p)) {
p:         ...
p:         ...
}
if (any(!p)) {
!p:         ...
}
```

### Warp divergence

#### Another example:

```
if (n>=0)
  z = x[n];
else
  z = 0;
```

- x[n] is only read here if n>=0
- don't have to worry about illegal memory accesses when n is negative

### Warp divergence

#### Note:

- doesn't matter what is happening with other warps
   each warp is treated separately
- if each warp only goes one way that's very efficient
- warp voting costs a few instructions, so for very simple branches the compiler just uses predication without voting

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### Warp divergence

In some cases, can determine at compile time that all threads in the warp must go the same way

e.g. if case is a run-time argument

```
if (case==1)
  z = x*x;
else
  z = x+2.3;
```

In this case, there's no need to vote

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### Warp divergence

Another example: processing a long list of elements where, depending on run-time values, a few require very expensive processing

#### GPU implementation:

- first process list to build two sub-lists of "simple" and "expensive" elements
- then process two sub-lists separately

Note: none of this is new – this is what we did more than 30 years ago on CRAY and Thinking Machines systems.

What's important is to understand hardware behaviour and design your algorithms / implementation accordingly

### Warp divergence

Warp divergence can lead to a big loss of parallel efficiency – one of the first things I look out for in a new application.

In worst case, effectively lose factor  $32 \times$  in performance if one thread needs expensive branch, while rest do nothing

Typical example: PDE application with boundary conditions

- if boundary conditions are cheap, loop over all nodes and branch as needed for boundary conditions
- if boundary conditions are expensive, use two kernels: first for interior points, second for boundary points

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### **Synchronisation**

Already introduced \_\_syncthreads(); which forms a barrier – all threads wait until every one has reached this point.

When writing conditional code, must be careful to make sure that all threads do reach the syncthreads ();

Otherwise, can end up in deadlock

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# **Typical application**

```
// load in data to shared memory
...
...
// synchronisation to ensure this has finished
__syncthreads();
// now do computation using shared data
...
...
...
```

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### Warp voting

There are similar *warp voting* instructions which operate at the level of a warp:

- int \_\_all (predicate)
  returns non-zero (true) if all predicates in warp are true
- int \_\_any (predicate)
  returns non-zero (true) if any predicate is true
- unsigned int \_\_ballot(predicate) sets  $n^{th}$  bit based on  $n^{th}$  predicate

Again, I've never used these

### **Synchronisation**

There are other synchronisation instructions which are similar but have extra capabilities:

- int \_\_syncthreads\_count (predicate)
  counts how many predicates are true
- int \_\_syncthreads\_and(predicate)
  returns non-zero (true) if all predicates are true
- int \_\_syncthreads\_or(predicate)
  returns non-zero (true) if any predicate is true

I've not used these, and don't currently see a need for them

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### **Atomic operations**

Occasionally, an application needs threads to update a counter in shared memory.

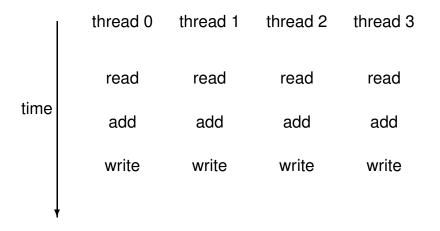
```
__shared__ int count;
...
if ( ... ) count++;
```

In this case, there is a problem if two (or more) threads try to do it at the same time

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### **Atomic operations**

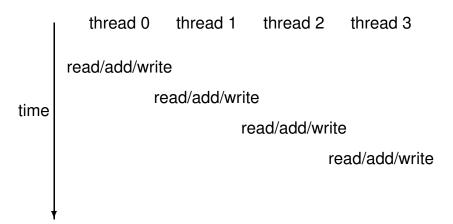
Using standard instructions, multiple threads in the same warp will only update it once.



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### **Atomic operations**

With atomic instructions, the read/add/write becomes a single operation, and they happen one after the other



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### **Atomic operations**

Several different atomic operations are supported:

- addition / subtraction atomicAdd, atomicSub
- minimum / maximum atomicMin, atomicMax
- increment / decrement atomicInc, atomicDec
- exchange / compare-and-swap atomicExch, atomicCAS
- bitwise AND / OR / XOR atomicAnd, atomicOr, atomicXor

Fast for variables in shared memory, only slightly slower for variables in device global memory (operations performed in L2 cache)

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## **Atomic operations**

#### Compare-and-swap:

int atomicCAS(int\* address,int compare,int val);

- if compare equals old value stored at address then val is stored instead
- in either case, routine returns the value of old
- seems a bizarre routine at first sight, but can be very useful for atomic locks

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### Global atomic lock

```
// global variable: 0 unlocked, 1 locked
__device__ int lock=0;

__global__ void kernel(...) {
    ...

if (threadIdx.x==0) {
    // set lock
    do {} while(atomicCAS(&lock,0,1));

    ...

    // free lock
    lock = 0;
}
```

### threadfence

\_\_threadfence\_block();

wait until all global and shared memory writes are visible to

- all threads in block
- \_\_threadfence();

wait until all global and shared memory writes are visible to

- all threads in block
- all threads, for global data

### Global atomic lock

Problem: when a thread writes data to device memory the order of completion is not guaranteed, so global writes may not have completed by the time the lock is unlocked

```
__global__ void kernel(...) {
    ...
    if (threadIdx.x==0) {
        do {} while(atomicCAS(&lock,0,1));
        ...
        __threadfence(); // wait for writes to finish
        // free lock
        lock = 0;
    }
}
```

### **Summary**

- lots of esoteric capabilities don't worry about most of them
- essential to understand warp divergence can have a very big impact on performance
- \_\_syncthreads() is vital will see another use of it in next lecture
- the rest can be ignored until you have a critical need

   then read the documentation carefully and look for relevant NVIDIA sample codes

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## **Key reading**

#### **CUDA Programming Guide:**

- Section 5.4.2: control flow and predicates
- Section 5.4.3: synchronization
- Appendix B.5: \_\_threadfence() and variants
- Appendix B.6: \_\_syncthreads() and variants
- Appendix B.14: atomic functions
- Appendix B.19: warp voting

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### **2D** Laplace solver

#### How do we tackle this with CUDA?

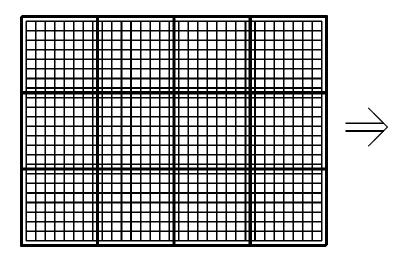
- each thread responsible for one grid point
- each block of threads responsible for a block of the grid
- conceptually very similar to data partitioning in MPI distributed-memory implementations, but much simpler
- (also similar to blocking techniques to squeeze the best cache performance out of CPUs)
- great example of usefulness of 2D blocks and 2D "grid"s

### **2D** Laplace solver

Jacobi iteration to solve discrete Laplace equation on a uniform grid:

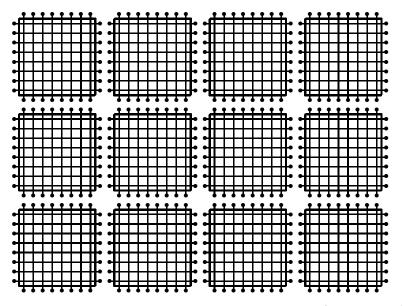
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### **2D Laplace solver**



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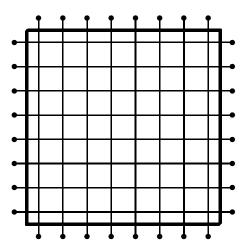
### **2D** Laplace solver



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### **2D** Laplace solver

### **2D** Laplace solver



Each block of threads processes one of these grid blocks, reading in old values and computing new values

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### **2D** Laplace solver

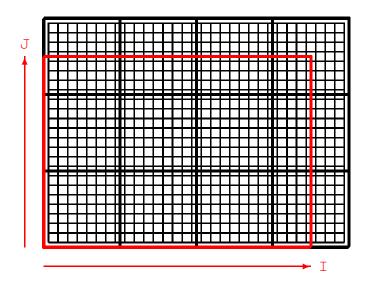
#### Assumptions:

- I is a multiple of blockDim.x
- J is a multiple of blockDim.y
- hence grid breaks up perfectly into blocks

Can remove these assumptions by testing whether  $\mathtt{i},\ \mathtt{j}$  are within grid

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### **2D** Laplace solver



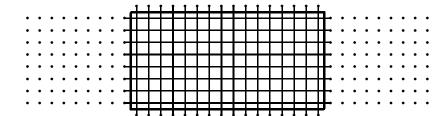
threads

real grid

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### **2D** Laplace solver

How does cache function in this application?



- if block size is a multiple of 32 in x-direction, then interior corresponds to set of complete cache lines
- "halo" points above and below are full cache lines too
- "halo" points on side are the problem each one requires the loading of an entire cache line
- optimal block shape has aspect ratio of roughly 32:1 (or 8:1 if cache line is 32 bytes)
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### **2D Laplace solver**

### **3D Laplace solver**

- practical 3
- each thread does an entire line in z-direction
- $m{y}$  dimensions cut up into blocks in the same way as 2D application
- laplace3d.cu and laplace3d\_kernel.cu follow same approach described above
- this used to give the fastest implementation, but a new version uses 3D thread blocks, with each thread responsible for just 1 grid point
- the new version has lots more integer operations, but is still faster, perhaps due to many more active threads

   in either case the application is probably bandwidth-limited