COSC 407 Intro to Parallel Computing

CUDA Memories and Performance Revisited

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Conclusion

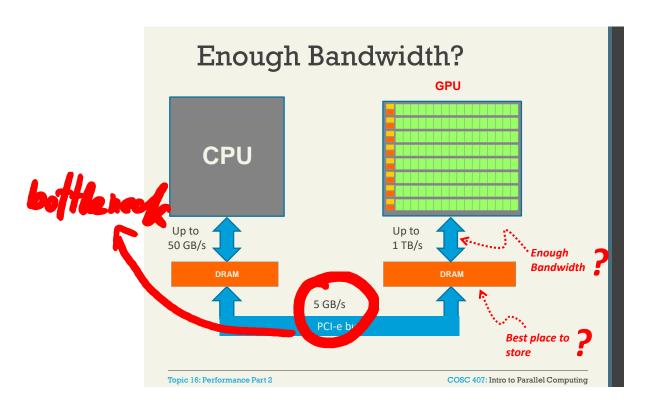
Last Lecture:

- Thread synchronization and barriers
- Atomic operations
- Memory Optimization
- Instruction Optimization
- Control Flow
- Example on Reduction

Today:

- Example: Improving Performance of Matrix Multiplication
- More optimizations
- Bandwidth
- iCLicker questions!

Topic 16: Performance Part 2



Timing can be done using CPU timers or GPU timers (1) Using CPU timers: cudaMemcpy(...); double t = clock(); kernel<<<...,..>>>(..); cudaDeviceSynchronize(); //block host till kernel finishes t = 1000 * (clock()-t) / CLOCKS_PER_SEC; //milliseconds cudaMemcpy(...);

Measuring Performance: Timing

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Measuring Performance: Timing

(2) Using GPU timers

```
cudaEvent_t start, stop;
                            //create two events
cudaEventCreate(&start);
cudaEventCreate(&stop);
cudaMemcpy(...);
cudaEventRecord(start);
                        //record start event
kernel<<<..,..>>>(..);
cudaEventRecord(stop);
                           //record stop event
cudaEventSynchronize(stop); //block host till 'stop' is recorded
cudaMemcpy(...);
float time = 0;
cudaEventElapsedTime(&time, start, stop); //time in milliseconds
cudaEventDestroy(start);
cudaEventDestroy(stop);
```

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Measuring Performance: Bandwidth (BW)

- Bandwidth (BW) the rate at which data can be transferred from/to GPU global memory.
- Theoretical Bandwidth:
 - Can be calculated based on GPU specifications
 - **Example**: Tesla: clock rate=1.85 GHz, memory interface width=384 bit, thus BW = (1.85 G) x ($\frac{384}{8}$ B) x (2 for double data rate) = **177.6** GB/s
- Effective Bandwidth:
 - Calculated for specific program

```
BW_{Effective} = (R_B + W_B) / time
```

 R_B (or W_B) is # of bytes read (or written) per kernel during time

- How? Time your kernel. Compute the effective bandwidth based on the amount
 of data the kernel reads and writes per unit of time.
- Example: for 1024 x 1024 float matrix copy, $R_B = W_B = 1024^2$ x 4 Bytes

```
BW_{effective} = 2 \times 1024^2 \times 4 / time
```

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CGMA

Compute to Global Memory Access: number of floating point calculations performed for each access to the global memory

max computation = CGMA * (Bandwidth / #bytes_per_memory_access)

$$CGMA = \frac{max \, computation}{max \, number \, of \, memory \, transactions}$$

- Units: (bandwidth/#bytes-per-mem-access)
- The highest achievable floating-point calculation throughput is limited by the rate at which the input data can be loaded from the global memory.

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Example

Consider Matrix Multiplication code

```
__global__ void MatrixMul(float* M, float* N, float* P, int width) {
    int x = blockIdx.x * TILE_WIDTH + threadIdx.x;
    int y = blockIdx.y * TILE_WIDTH + threadIdx.y;
    float value = 0;
    for (int k = 0; k < width; k++)
        value += M[y*width + k] * N[k*width + x];
    P[y*width+x] = value;
}

In the for loop, we have 2 Floating Point
    operations (FLOP) and 2 memory accesses

Let's compute their ratio:
```

CGMA ratio = 1.0 =red/ blue

Compute to Global Memory Access: number of floating point calculations performed for each access to the global memory

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Example

Problem!

- Let's say the global memory bandwidth = n GB/s
- Each access of a float is 4 Bytes.
- CGMA = 1.0 means each FLOP requires reading one float from global memory.
 This means GPU can only perform n/4 FLOPs per sec.
 - Example:
 - G80: Memory Bandwidth: 86.4 GB/s → only 21.6 GFLOPS
 - G80 processing rate is > 370 GFLOPS
 - This means, G80 will run at only 6% of its power due to the LOW CGMA
- The lower CGMA the lower the performance
- AIM: we should always try to increase CGMA
 - i.e. reduce the number of general memory accesses with respect to the number of FLOPs.

iclicker: fastest to slowest reg > shared > local(can be cached or not) > global 1. threads in the same block can access the blocks shared memory

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Poor Performance!

Need to drastically cut down global memory access to improve.

will be a conflict as whole row and whole column is accessed

```
__global___ void MatrixMul(float* M, float* N, float* P, int v_xith) {

int x = blockIdx.x * TILE_WIDTH + threadIdx.x;

int y = blockIdx.y * TILE_WIDTH + threadIdx.y;

float value = 0;

for (int k = 0; k < width; k++)

value += M[y*width + k] * N[k*width + x];

P[y*width+x] = value;
}

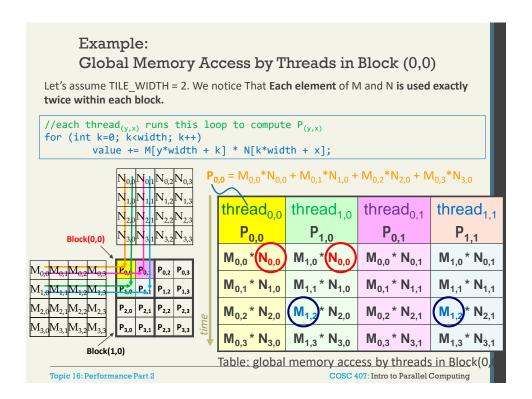
Why poor performance again?

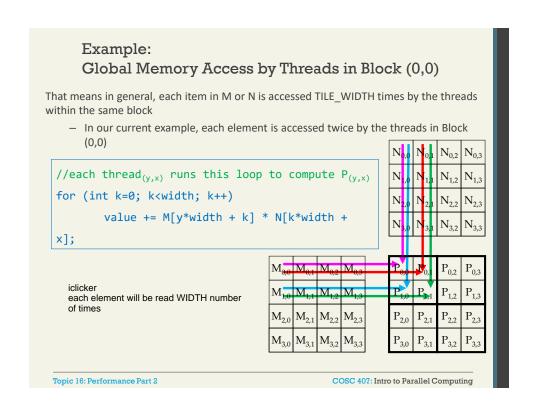
CGMA = 1.0 which limits GFLOPS.

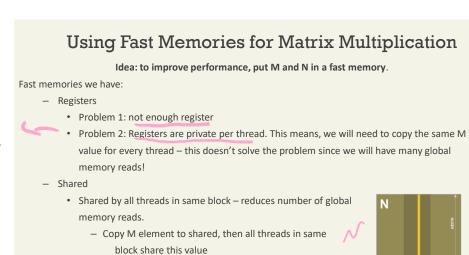
Actual ~22 GFLOPS

Card can do > 370 GFLOPS
```

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· Problem: not enough room for ALL M and N elements

Solution: use Tiling

 Tiling: put the data required by the current block in shared memory so that all threads use them



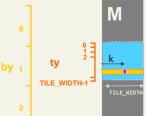
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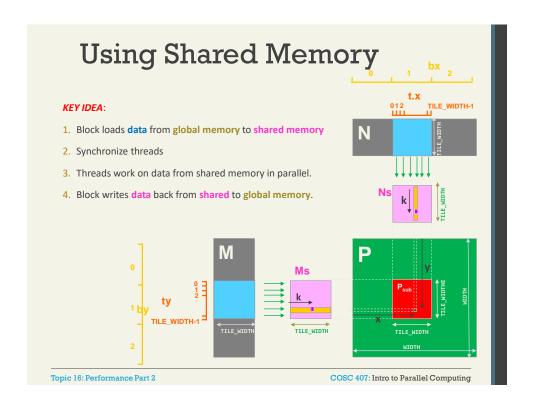
Using Shared Memory for Matrix Multiplication For simplicity, let's start by assuming the width of M and the height of N are equal to TILE WIDTH.

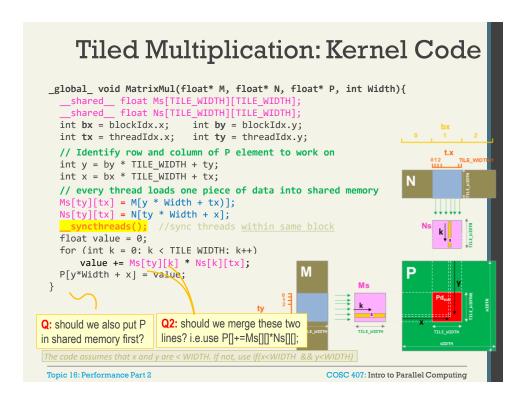
- TILE_WIDTH = blockDim.x = blockDim.y
- Each thread in the tile (i.e., block) will multiply a row from M by a column from N.
 - All threads in the 'red' block will require the same 'blue' input data in M and N.

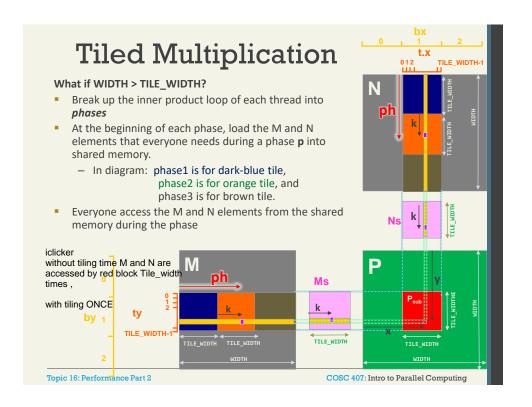




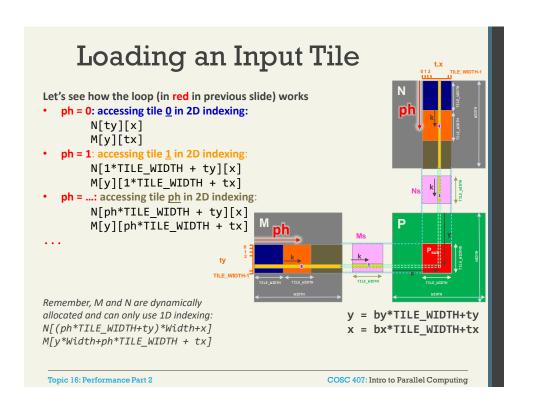
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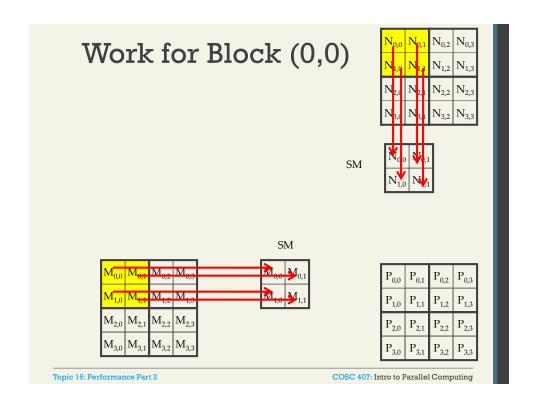


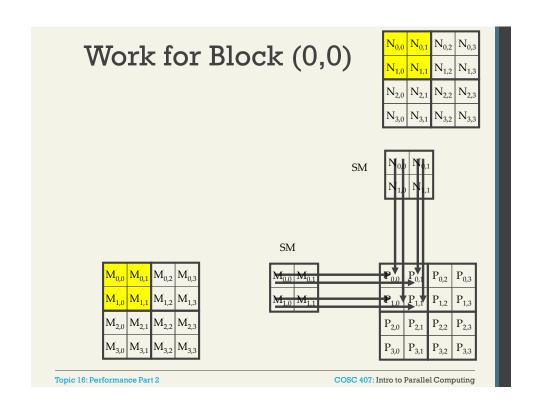


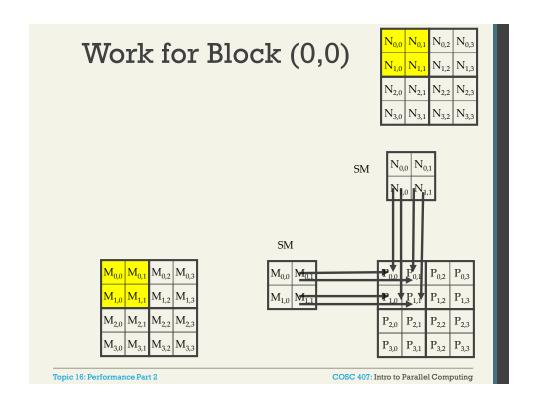


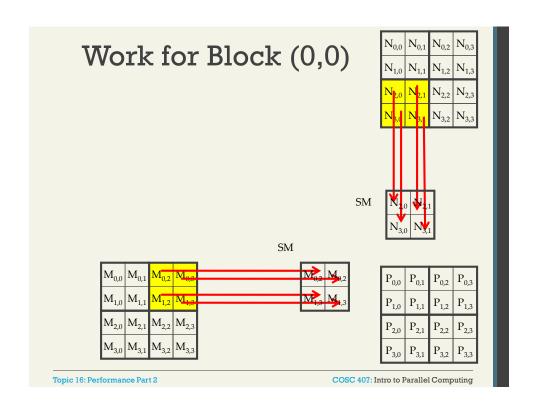
```
Tiled Multiplication: Kernel Code
_global_ void MatrixMul(float* M, float* N, float* P, int Width){
  __shared__ float Ms[TILE_WIDTH][TILE_WIDTH];
__shared__ float Ns[TILE_WIDTH][TILE_WIDTH];
  int bx = blockIdx.x;
                               int by = blockIdx.y;
  int tx = threadIdx.x;
                              int ty = threadIdx.y;
  // Identify the row and column of the P element to work on
  int y = by * TILE_WIDTH + ty;
                                                    we still need
  int x = bx * TILE_WIDTH + tx;
                                                    if(x<width && y<width){...}
  float value = 0;
  // Loop over M and N tiles required to compute the P element
  int num_phases = Width/TILE_WIDTH;
  for (int ph = 0; ph < num_phases; p++) {</pre>
     // load tile m into shared memory
     Ms[ty][tx] = M[y * Width + (ph *TILE_WIDTH + tx)];
     Ns[ty][tx] = N[(ty + ph *TILE_WIDTH) * Width + x];
      _syncthreads();
     for (int k = 0; k < TILE_WIDTH; k++)</pre>
        value += Ms[ty][k] * Ns[k][tx];
      synchthreads();
  P[y*Width + x] = value;
```

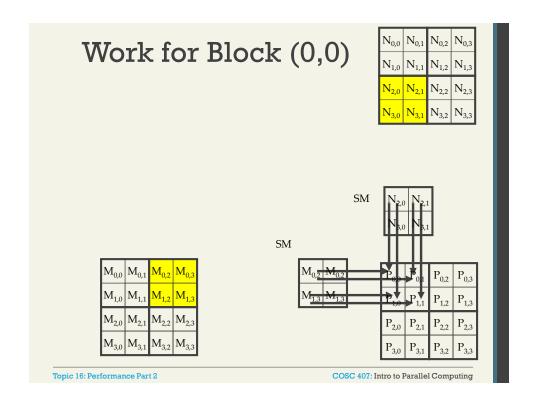






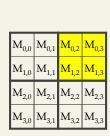




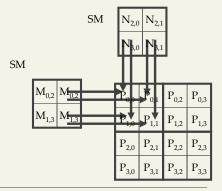


Work for Block (0,0)

N _{0,0}	N _{0,1}	N _{0,2}	N _{0,3}
N _{1,0}	N _{1,1}	N _{1,2}	N _{1,3}
N _{2,0}	N _{2,1}	N _{2,2}	N _{2,3}
N _{3,0}	N _{3,1}	N _{3,2}	N _{3,3}



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Tiled Multiplication: Execution Configuration

- Setup the execution configuration:
 - dim3 blockSize(TILE_WIDTH, TILE_WIDTH);
 - dim3 gridSize(Width/TILE_WIDTH, Width/TILE_WIDTH);
- Above assumes width is divisible by TILE_WIDTH. If not, you should:
 - Use the general formula we learned before, i.e.
 - int nblk_x = (WIDTH 1) / TILE_WIDTH + 1;
 - int nblk_y = (HEIGHT 1)/ TILE_HEIGHT + 1;
 - dim3 gridSize(nblk_x, nblk_y);
 - Use an if statement to disable threads operating in ranges outside the array
 - E.g. if(x<WIDTH && y<HEIGHT)

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Computing CGMA when Tiling is used

Each thread block should have many threads. For example:

- TILE WIDTH of 16 gives 16*16 = 256 threads
- TILE WIDTH of 32 gives 32*32 = 1024 threads
- With TILE_WIDTH = 16, each block performs
 - 2*256 = 512 float loads from global memory
 - 256 threads, each loading 2 floats (one from M and one from N)
 - 256 * (2*16) = 8,192 mul/add operations
 - · 256 threads, each performs one multiplication and one addition in a loop that runs 16 times
 - Hence, **CGMA** = 8,192/512 = **16**, which means,
 - Using 16x16 tiling, we reduce the accesses to the global memory by a factor of
 - The 86.4GB/s bandwidth can now support (86.4/4)*16 = 347.6 GFLOPS!

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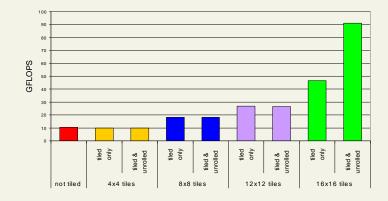
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float value = 0;

} P[y*Width + x] = value;

// Loop over M and N tiles required to coint num_phases = Width/TILE_WIDTH;
for (int ph = 0; ph < num_phases; p++) {

Tiling Size Effects



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Image Processing on CUDA

- Data parallel processing is a natural choice for image processing
 - Each pixel can be mapped to one threads
 - Lots of data is shared between threads
 - E.g. when you apply a blur filter, each pixel could become the average of the pixels around it.
- Examples:
 - Pixel based operations: desaturate, negative, hue shift, etc.
 - As in OpenMP assignment A3 can also be easily done in CUDA.
 - Convolution (e.g. blur, edge detection, etc)
 - As in CUDA assignment A7
 - Histogram operations
 - Image compression
 - Noise reduction
 - Image correlation

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One Last Thing...

- Global memory access includes using cache memory (L1 and L2). The way
 cache works is, when reading a byte from global memory, it is stored in the
 cache (for better performance) along with its neighbours (i.e. neighbouring
 data in the global)
 - Reads:
 - L1 and L2 cache memories are used.
 - If L1 is enabled, a load request is serviced by a 128-byte memory transaction
 - If L1 is disabled, L2 is used and a load request is serviced by memory transactions of one, two, or four 32-byte segments.
 - Writes
 - · Only L2 is used
 - Write requests are also serviced by memory transactions of one, two, or four 32-byte segments.

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Summary - Code Typical Structure of a CUDA Program Global variables declaration - Use __device__, __constant__, __host__ Kernel function: void kernel (args) variables declaration – auto (default), <u>shared</u> auto variables transparently assigned: primitives → registers. Arrays → local mem - Tiling (if needed)... - __syncthreads()... Other functions - float foo(args) {...} Use <u>__device__</u>, <u>__host__</u>, etc in their declaration. allocate memory space on the device – cudaMalloc transfer data from host to device – cudaMemCpy execution configuration setup - kernel call: kernel << execution configuration >>> (args...); transfer results from device to host – cudaMemCpy optional: compare against golden (host computed) solution as needed Topic 16: Performance Part 2 COSC 407: Intro to Parallel Computing

Summary: Tiling Technique

- Identify a block/tile of global memory content that are accessed by multiple threads
- · Load the block/tile from global memory into on-chip memory
- Have the multiple threads to access their data from the onchip memory
- Move on to the next block/tile

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Summary – other concepts

- Constant memory also resides in device memory (DRAM) much slower access than shared memory
 - But... cached!
 - Highly efficient access for read-only data
- Carefully divide data according to access patterns
 - R/Only → constant memory (very fast if in cache)
 - R/W shared within Block → shared memory (very fast)
 - R/W within each thread → registers (very very fast)
 - R/W inputs/results → global memory (very slow)

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Performance Improvement Guidelines

- Use many threads on the GPU
- Use # blocks > # SMs
 - to make sure all SMs are busy (balanced load)
- Choose block dimensions that, not only make sense to your problem, but also fully utilize the SM capabilities.
 - e.g., G80 can handle up to 8 blocks or 768 threads simultaneously.
 Using 256 threads/block (e.g., 16x16) will fully utilize the SM resources. 64 threads/block (e.g., 8x8) will be underutilization of the SM.
- Reduce global memory traffic by copying frequently accessed data to faster memory
 - E.g., using tiling technique

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Summary, cont'd

- To make best use of GPU computing, you need to:
 - Identify compute intensive parts of an application
 - Minimal data transfer GPU ← → CPU (data transfer is expensive)
 - Adopt scalable algorithms
 - Optimize data arrangements to maximize locality
 - Performance Tuning
 - Pay attention to code portability and maintainability

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Conclusion

Today:

- Example: Improving Performance of Matrix Multiplication
- More optimizations
- Bandwidth
- iCLicker questions!

Next Lecture:

Introduction to MPI

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