

ABS-Normal Form

An Implementation in CUDA C++

Matthias Mitterreiter
matthias.mitterreiter@uni-jena.de



Friedrich Schiller Universität Jena

July 2017

This project report of the implementation of abs-normal form in CUDA C++ was created as part of the
course

Seminar Rechnerarchitektur - Grafikkarten

supervised by

Prof. Dr. Martin Bucker

i

Dipl-Inf. Ralf Seidler

ii

Dr. Torsten Bosse^{2cm}

Abstract

blablabla

Contents

1	Introduction	3
1.1	The ABS-Normal Form	3
1.2	Problems	4
1.3	Tasks	4
1.4	Outline	4
2	Evaluation of the ABSNF	5
2.1	Problem Specification	5
2.2	Implementation	5
2.3	Performance Experiments	5
3	Gradient	9
3.1	Problem Specification	9
3.2	Implementation	9
3.3	Performance Experiments	9
3.4	Analysis	9
4	Gridsize and Blocksize	13
4.1	Choosing the right blocksize and gridsize	13
4.2	Performance	14
4.3	Notes	14
5	Solve - The modulus iteration algorithm	15
5.1	Deducing a solution	15
5.2	Implementation	16
5.3	Performance Experiment	16
5.4	Analysis and Notes	17
A	Software Libraries	18
B	Devices	18
C	Notation and Symbols	18
C.1	Symbols	18
C.2	Abbreviation	18
D	Project structure	19

1 Introduction

TODO

- in jedem kapitel bezug auf introduction fragen nehmen
- double vs singleprecision with the gtx
- Header + Footer
- Titlepage with graphics
- Double and No float
- speichermangaer
- multidevice
- sparsity
- C++ SYNTAX HIGHLIGHTING
- Project structure
- Additional information in den Anhang
- FLIPS for Double Precision
- Plot of eval where mismeasured
- Literaturverzeichnis

This is an documentation and project review. blabla

1.1 The ABS-Normal Form

The abs-normal form is a representation of piecewise linear (PL) functions. Any PL function can be transformed and represented within this form. The process of transforming a PL function into abs-normal form is described in [2] and [3]. Applications and properties of the abs-normal form is not subject of this document but can be found in [3].

Definition. ABS-Normal Form

For a PL function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ the abs-normal representation takes the following form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \Delta z \\ \Delta y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} Z & L \\ J & Y \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} \Delta x \\ |\Delta z| \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

where:

$$n, m, s \in \mathbb{R}, \Delta x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \Delta z \in \mathbb{R}^s, \Delta y \in \mathbb{R}^m, a \in \mathbb{R}^s, b \in \mathbb{R}^m, Z \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times n}, L \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times s}, J \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

and

$$|\Delta z|$$

is the element-wise absolute vector of Δz . L is a lower triangular matrix.

Note that this representation is almost a linear system of equations. The non-linear parts of the function are all captured in $|\Delta z|$.

1.2 Problems

Given a PL function in abs-normal form. The following problems were given:

1. Evaluate a function in abs-normal form:
 - Given: $a, b, Z, L, J, Y, \Delta x$
 - Wanted: $\Delta z, \Delta y$
2. Calculate the gradient of a function in abs-normal form:
 - Given: $a, b, Z, L, J, Y, \Delta z$
 - Wanted: Gradient γ, Γ
3. Solve the system of equations of a function in abs-normal form:
 - Given: $a, b, Z, L, J, Y, \Delta y$
 - Wanted: $\Delta x, \Delta Z$

1.3 Tasks

The aim of this project was to solve each of these problems by using parallel computing with CUDA C++ to boost performance. In particular, for each of the problems the following questions had to be answered:

- (I) How can the problem be solved theoretically?
- (II) How can the problems be implemented with CUDA C++?
- (III) Is there a benefit of using parallel computing?
- (IV) How does the implementation perform on different devices?

1.4 Outline

In the following sections we answer each question for all of the given problems. Section 2 deals with the evaluation of functions in abs-normal form, where we show that a parallel implementation might not be beneficial. In section 3 we address the problem of calculating the gradient. Those results were quite promising. In section 5 we show one possibility of solving a function in abs-normal form. Additionally in section 4 we describe our approach of choosing the optimal gridsize and blocksize for our self-written CUDA kernels.

Last but not least we discuss our solution and give some final thoughts and possible improvements and further questions.

In the appendix we listed all devices, that we used to benchmark our implementation B. Used software libraries are described in A and the structure of software project is listed in D.

In C we documented our notation as well as the abbreviations and symbols.

2 Evaluation of the ABSNF

2.1 Problem Specification

Given is a PL function in abs-normal form. The evaluation of it means calculating the vectors Δy and Δz :

$$\Delta y = b + (J \times \Delta x) + (Y \times |\Delta z|) \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta z = a + (Z \times \Delta x) + (L \times |\Delta z|) \quad (3)$$

where the following structures are given:

$$a, b, Z, L, J, Y, m, n, s, \Delta x$$

In (3) Δz depends on the element-wise absolute function of its own and therefore it cannot be calculated with a simple matrix vector dot product. The matrix L is lower triangular and therefore the vector Δz can be iteratively calculated, by taking the row-wise dot product of L and $|\Delta z|$.

To illustrate the process, consider:

$$k = a + Z \times \Delta x$$

Now we calculate Δz element-wise:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta z_1 &= \underbrace{L_1 \times |\Delta z|}_{=0} + k_1 = k_1 \\ \Delta z_2 &= L_2 \times |\Delta z| + k_2 \\ &= L_{2,1} \times |\Delta z_1| + k_2 \\ \Delta z_3 &= L_3 \times |\Delta z| + k_3 \\ &= L_{3,1} \times |\Delta z_1| + L_{3,2} \times |\Delta z_2| + k_3 \\ \Delta z_4 &= L_4 \times |\Delta z| + k_4 \\ &= L_{4,1} \times |\Delta z_1| + L_{4,2} \times |\Delta z_2| + L_{4,3} \times |\Delta z_3| + k_4 \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Implementation

Our implementation is focused on speed and demands the device to hold all the required data structures in global memory simultaneously.

Given this premise, the calculation of (2) and (3) is a series of dot products and therefore is highly parallelizable. For this we relied mainly on CUBLAS routines. A simplified version of our implementation can be found in fig. 1.

2.3 Performance Experiments

For our experiments and the subsequent analysis, we equalized the dimensions of given data-structures:

$$m = n = s$$

2.3.1 Single Execution of the evaluation function

In this experiment, we executed the serial python- as well as the parallel CUDA implementations for different dimensions of s and measured the runtime (fig. 2). Since the results were not as expected in favor of the CUDA implementation, we also dismantled the runtime on the parallel devices and measured the "data-upload-time" and the "execution-only-time" separately (fig. 3).

```

1 template <typename T>
2 void eval(T *a, T *b, T *Z, T *L, T *J, T *Y, T *dx,
3          int m, int n, int s, T *dz, T *dy, T *abs_dz)
4 {
5     // dz = a
6     cudaMemcpy(dz, a, ., cudaMemcpyDeviceToDevice));
7     // dz = Z * dx + dx
8     cublasDgemv(., Z, ., dx, . dz, .)
9     // dz[i] = L[i]_i * |dz|_i
10    for(int i=0; i<s; i++)
11    {
12        cublasDgemv(., &L[i * s], ., abs_dz, ., &dz[i],.);
13        abs <<<1,1>>>(&dz[i], &abs_dz[i], 1);
14    }
15    // dy = b
16    cudaMemcpy(dy, b, ., cudaMemcpyDeviceToDevice);
17    // dy = dy + J*dx
18    cublasDgemv(., J, ., dx, ., dy, .);
19    // dy = dy + Y * |dz|
20    cublasDgemv(., Y, ., abs_dz, ., dy, .);
21 }

```

Figure 1: Simplified version of the evaluation implementation

2.3.2 Multiple Executions of the evaluation function

Since the scenario of evaluating the function just once is not quite realistic, we did a second experiment, where we uploaded data onto the devices and executed the evaluation routine a 1000 times. Here we only measured the pure execution time without the data-transfer, since the upload time should be marginal with a high enough number of executions. The results can be found in fig. 4.

2.3.3 Experiment Analysis

Here we can clearly see, that the transfer time, which is the time that it takes to upload the required data structures onto the device is extremely significant and takes a disproportional high share of the total time.

The results of the experiment are heavy in favor of the serial implementation.

For data, that completely fits into the global memory of the device, we couldn't measure any performance gains through the CUDA implementation on given devices (fig 2 and fig. 4). The simplistic and serial numpy version even outperforms the cuda version running on the tesla device.

If the data structures get that big, such that they don't fit into the global memory of the device, we can expect the parallel versions' performance to be even worse, since the data-transfer time takes a disproportional high share of the overall runtime (fig. 3).

The complexity of the evaluation function is $O(s^2)$. The memory also grows quadratic depending on the variable s and therefore we get a memory complexity of $O(s^2)$, which may explain the bad results of the experiment.

We therefore come to the conclusion, that the considerable effort of implementing a parallel version of the evaluation function is not worth the effort.

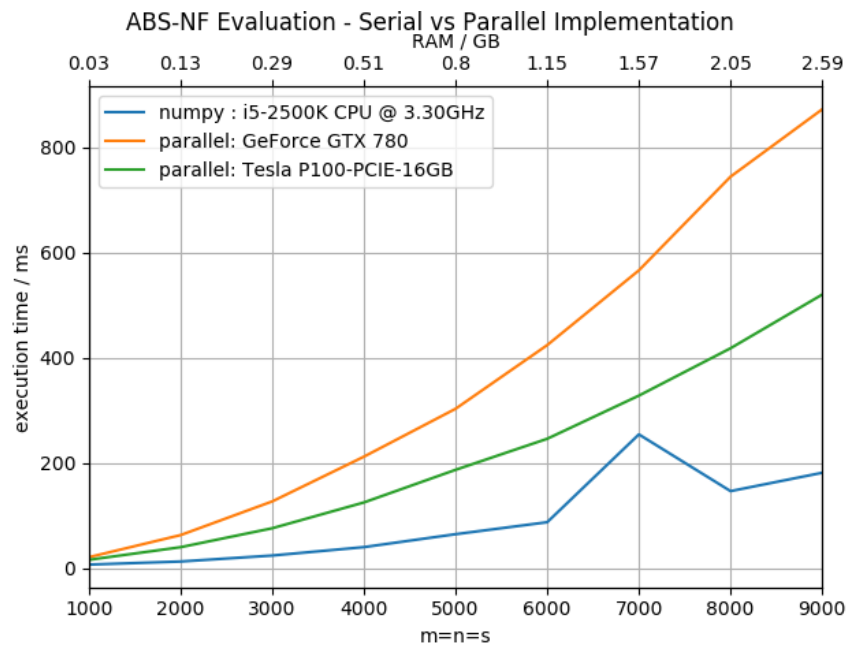


Figure 2: Single execution of the evaluation function on different devices.

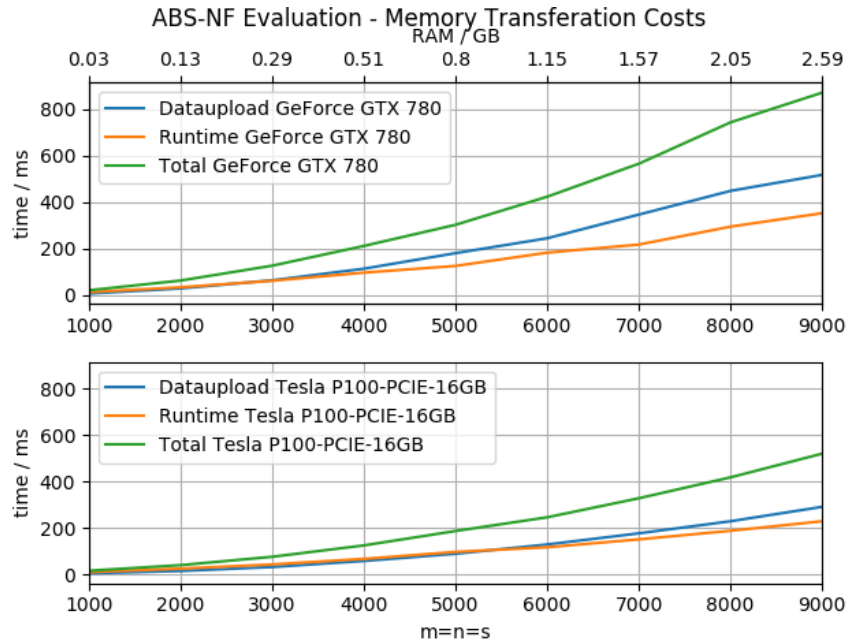


Figure 3: Data-transfer and execution time of the parallel implementation

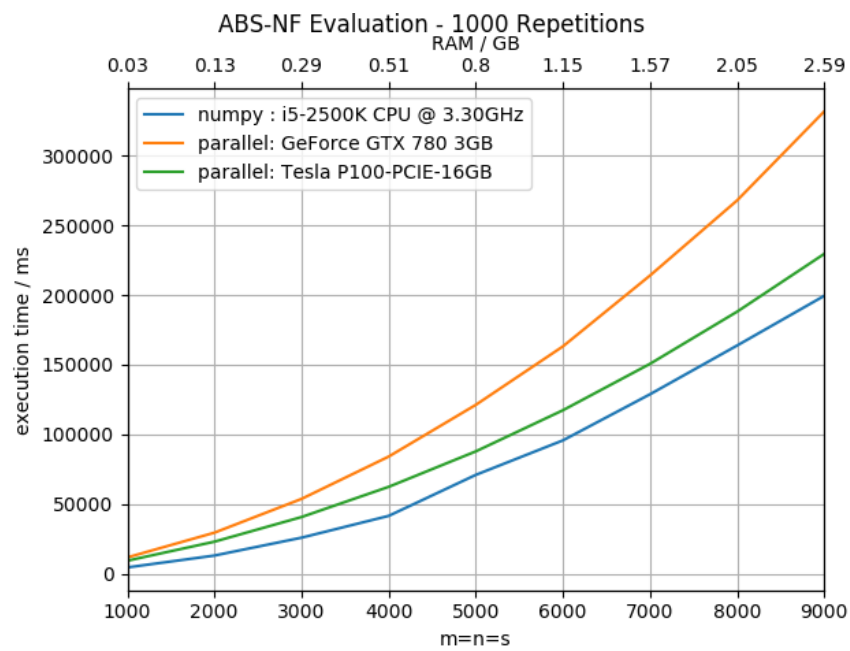


Figure 4: Multiple executions of the evaluation function on different devices

3 Gradient

3.1 Problem Specification

The problem here is to calculate the gradient of a PL function f in abs-normal form, given the following structures:

$$a, b, Z, L, J, Y, m, n, s, \Delta z$$

Deducing a closed formula for the gradient is quite simple:

$$\Sigma = \text{diag}(\text{sign}(\Delta z))$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta z &= a + Z\Delta x + L\Sigma\Delta z \\ &= (I - L\Sigma)^{-1}(a + Z\Delta x) \\ \Delta y &= b + J\Delta x + Y|\Delta z| \\ &= b + J\Delta x + Y\Sigma((I - L\Sigma)^{-1}(a + Z\Delta x)) \\ &= b + Y\Sigma(I - L\Sigma)^{-1}a + (J + Y\Sigma(I - L\Sigma)^{-1}Z)\Delta x \end{aligned}$$

$$\gamma = b + Y\Sigma(I - L\Sigma)^{-1}a \tag{4}$$

$$\Gamma = J + Y\Sigma(I - L\Sigma)^{-1}Z \tag{5}$$

The gradient can now be calculated as:

$$\Delta f(\Delta x) = \gamma + \Gamma\Delta x$$

3.2 Implementation

For the implementation we heavily relied on CUBLAS routines. A simplified version of the core-function can be found in fig. 5. The attentive reader might note that gridsize and blocksize are fixed for all the kernels. We discuss our approach of choosing these parameters in section 4. Like in the implementation of the evaluate function, we require the the device to hold all the data-structures in global memory.

3.3 Performance Experiments

3.3.1 Single execution of the gradient function

In this experiment we executed the gradient implementation on the GTX- as well as on the Tesla device once and measured the data-upload time as well as the execution time of the function (fig. 6).

3.3.2 Multiple executions of the gradient function

In this experiment we measured the runtime of the serial numpy implementation as well as the runtime of the parallel version for a 100 executions of the gradient function. Data-transfer on and from the device was not included. The results can be found in fig. 7. Since the graphs are not quite detailed, we took some of the results into table 1.

Additionally we profiled a 100 executions of the gradient function with nvprof (table. 2).

3.4 Analysis

In contrast to the evaluate function, the parallel CUDA version of the gradient function was magnitudes faster than the serial numpy version fig. (7). Here it is important to note, that the numpy version is not optimized but rather a quick and dirty implementation to establish a baseline and should therefore not be

```

1 template <typename T>
2 void gradient(T *a, T *b, T *Z, T *L, T *J, T *Y,
3             T *dz, T *Tss, T *I, T *K, int m, int n, int s,
4             int gridsize, int blocksize, T *gamma, T *Gamma)
5 // d_Tss = diag(1) - L * diag(sign(dz))
6 initTss <<<gridsize, blocksize >>>(d_Tss,d_L, d_dz, s, s*s);
7 // d_I = diag(1)
8 initIdentity <<<gridsize, blocksize >>> (d_I, s);
9 // d_I = d_Tss * X
10 getTriangularInverse(handle, d_Tss, d_I, s);
11 // d_I = d_I * diag(sign(dz))
12 multWithDz <<<gridsize, blocksize >>>(d_I, d_dz, s);
13 // d_K = d_Y * d_I
14 cublasDgemm(.,d_Y,.,d_I,d_K,);
15 // d_gamma = d_b
16 // d_Gamma = J
17 cudaMemcpy(d_gamma, d_b,.);
18 cudaMemcpy(d_Gamma, d_J,.);
19 // d_gamma = d_gamma + K*a
20 cublasDgemv(.,d_K,., d_a,., d_gamma,.);
21 // d_Gamma = d_Gamma + K*Z
22 cublasDgemm(.,d_K,d_Z,d_Gamma,m));
23 }

```

Figure 5: Simplified Implementation of the gradient function

$s = m = s$	numpy (ms)	GTX (ms)	Tesla (ms)
1000	20008	3372	282
2000	144644	23122	1223
4000	1155222	173604	7947

Table 1: Runtime of executing the gradient function a 100 times of different devices

Time(%)	Time	Calls	Avg	Min	Max	Name
47.67%	11.8009s	900	13.112ms	358.57us	90.166ms	dgemm_sm_heavy_ldg_nn
32.04%	7.93153s	100	79.315ms	77.982ms	93.386ms	dgemm_sm_heavy_ldg_nt
5.77%	1.42887s	900	1.5876ms	95.107us	10.248ms	dgemm_sm35_ldg_nn_128x8x64x16x16
4.24%	1.05012s	800	1.3126ms	397.74us	1.7257ms	void kernel_trsm_L_mul32
3.37%	835.25ms	200	4.1763ms	142.89us	9.6000ms	dgemm_sm35_ldg_nn_64x8x128x8x32
3.32%	820.79ms	100	8.2079ms	6.1753ms	9.5876ms	dgemm_sm35_ldg_nt_128x8x64x16x16
3.26%	806.34ms	100	8.0634ms	6.1730ms	8.6610ms	dgemm_sm35_ldg_nt_64x8x128x8x32
0.12%	29.230ms	200	146.15us	1.8560us	294.63us	[CUDA memcpy DtoD]
0.09%	22.342ms	8	2.7927ms	1.1850us	5.7200ms	[CUDA memcpy HtoD]
0.06%	15.472ms	100	154.72us	152.81us	165.99us	void gemv2N_kernel_val
0.06%	13.796ms	200	68.981us	18.880us	136.90us	void trsm_left_kernel
0.00%	1.1163ms	100	11.162us	10.848us	14.016us	void absnf::initTss
0.00%	1.0580ms	100	10.579us	10.304us	12.320us	void absnf::multWithDz
0.00%	557.88us	100	5.5780us	5.4400us	7.3600us	void absnf::initIdentity

Table 2: Results of nvprof on the gradient function with 100 executions

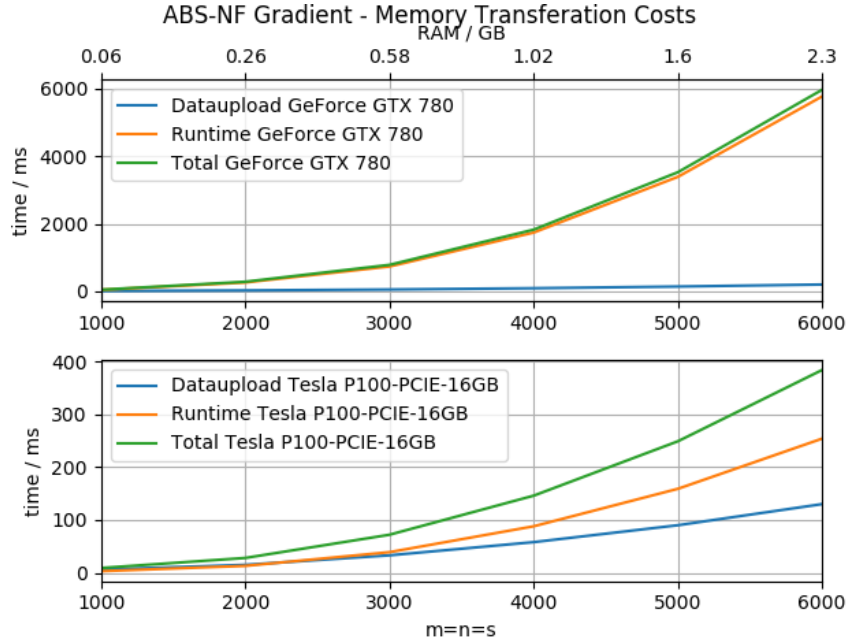


Figure 6: Single execution of the gradient function on different devices

considered as the fastest serial approach.

We can also see that the Tesla device here operates much faster than the GTX which can be deduced to the better double precision support.

In figure 6 a much better data-transfer to runtime ratio for both the GTX, as well as the Tesla are perceptible. This is important, since a batched version for data structures of bigger sizes than the global device memory may be worthwhile.

The profile in table 2 shows, that the majority of the runtime goes into the calculation of matrix-matrix products. The self-implemented kernels "initTss", "multWithDz" and "initIdentity" do not preponderate.

We therefore conclude that the parallel version of the gradient function payed off quite nicely. Yet a optimized serial version, running on a CPU of comparable class like the Tesla should be done.

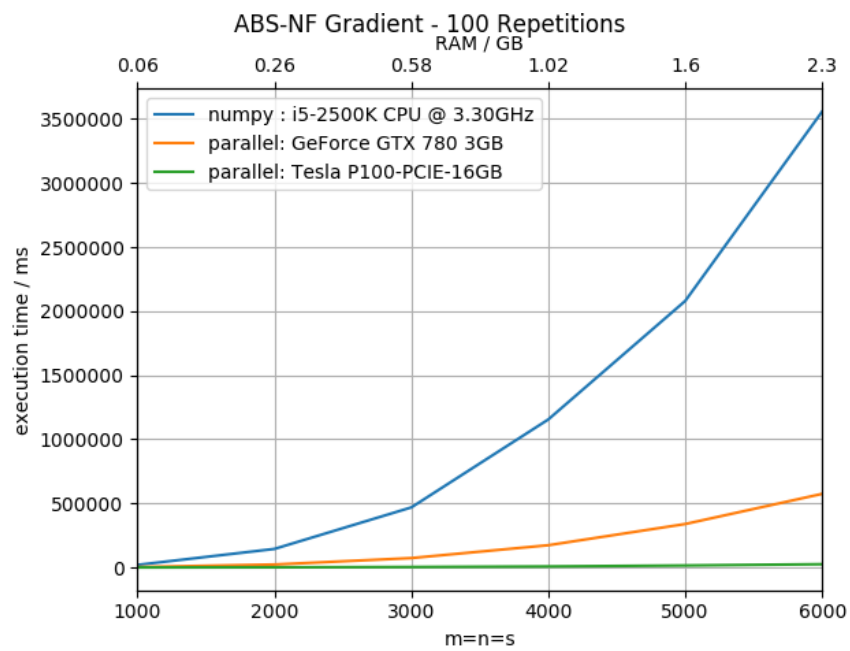


Figure 7: Multiple executions of the gradient function on different devices

4 Gridsize and Blocksize

All of our self written kernels have to operate on matrices and vectors. Usually the single entries of the structures do not depend on the others and can be independently and therefore in parallel calculated.

EXAMPLE + MORE EXAMPLE LISTS

The questions while implementing this operation were:

1. How to step through the data-structures in order to minimize cache-misses?
2. How to choose the grid-size?
3. How to choose the block-size?

Obviously the most efficient and preferment answer to this question is to decide problem specific and device specific. Unfortunately this is also the most time consuming approach.

In our case we tried to find a generic solution, that performs well enough to not deteriorate the overall performance.

The basic idea is:

- Chose and fix blocksize and gridsize depending on the device properties
- Start kernel with given blocksize and gridsize
- Each thread can be responsible for multiple tasks and chooses its next task after the current one is done or terminates

The basic algorithm for kernels of this type is listed in ??

```
1 template <typename T>
2 void _global_row_wise_traversal(T *matrix, int s)
3 {
4     int i = blockIdx.x;
5     int j = threadIdx.x;
6     int global_id = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
7     int id = i*s + j;
8     int size = s*s;
9     while(id < size && i < s)
10    {
11        matrix[id] = doSomething();
12        j += blockDim.x;
13        if (j>=s)
14        {
15            j = j % s;
16            i = i + gridDim.x;
17        }
18        id = i*s+j;
19    }
20 }
```

Here each block is assigned a row of the matrix. Threads operate on these rows and calculate autonomously their next task.

4.1 Choosing the right blocksize and gridsize

Ideally we want to achieve the following objectives:

1. Utilize all the MPUs to capacity
2. Minimizing cache misses

We can minimize cache misses by assigning threads of the same block and the same warp adjacent matrix entries. This is automatically achieved by assigning matrix rows to blocks. To ensure that each Core of the MPU runs on maximal capacity, we start at least as many threads as a MPU can execute in parallel. This obviously finds its limit with the constant `max_threads_per_block`.

TABLE WHITEPAPERg

4.2 Performance

GRAPHICS

GRAPHICS 2

4.3 Notes

Our approach obviously lacks. Device specifications are not taken in consideration. SP, DP.

5 Solve - The modulus iteration algorithm

The last function, that had to be implemented was a solver for a PL function in abs-normal form. Given:

$$a, b, Z, L, J, Y, m, n, \Delta y$$

We want to calculate:

$$\Delta x, \Delta z$$

5.1 Deducing a solution

In [3] Multiple solutions with different properties in convergence and complexity have been suggested. Here we focus on the algorithm that in [3] is called modulus iteration algorithm.

For deducing this algorithm we first and foremost assume:

$$\Delta y = 0$$

If this is not the case, we can replace b with b' :

$$b' = b - \Delta y$$

and replace Δy with the zero-vector O_m . Now we can rearrange the equation system:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta y &= b + J\Delta x + Y|\Delta z| \\ 0 &= b + J\Delta x + Y|\Delta z| \\ -b - Y|\Delta z| &= J\Delta x \\ b + Y|\Delta z| &= J\Delta x(-1) \\ J^{-1}(b + Y|\Delta z|) &= -\Delta x\end{aligned}$$

and obtain:

$$\Delta x = -J^{-1}(b + Y|\Delta z|) \tag{6}$$

For calculating Δz we can now use (6):

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta z &= a + Z\Delta x + L|\Delta z| \\ &= a + Z\left(-J^{-1}(b + Y|\Delta z|)\right) + L|\Delta z| \\ &= a + Z\left(-J^{-1}b - J^{-1}Y|\Delta z|\right) + L|\Delta z| \\ &= a - ZJ^{-1}b - ZJ^{-1}Y|\Delta z| + L|\Delta z| \\ &= a - ZJ^{-1}b - (ZJ^{-1}Y - L)|\Delta z|\end{aligned}$$

Summarized:

$$\Delta z = c + S|\Delta z| \tag{7}$$

$$c = a - ZJ^{-1}b \tag{8}$$

$$S = L - ZJ^{-1}Y \tag{9}$$

We can use this result to construct a fix-point iteration algorithm where we recalculate Δz in each step until convergence. In the following we focus onto the implementation of this algorithm.

5.2 Implementation

Implementing this algorithms means calculating (8) and (9) once and using these to repeatedly calculate (7). The key problem here is the calculation of J^{-1} , since this is the most expensive Operation. We decided to do a QR-decomposition of $J = QR$ and solving the linear equation system instead of calculating J^{-1} directly. E.g. calculating c is done in the following way:

1. $J = QR$

2. Solve $b = QRx$

$$QRx = b$$

$$x = \text{solve}(Rx = Qb)$$

3. Calculate c :

$$c = a - Zx$$

The calculation of S follows the same pattern. After convergence Δx can be calculated according to (6).

5.3 Performance Experiment

We did an experiment to benchmark the performance of our implementation. Obviously this only made sense as long as the results were correct. To verify this, we preceded as follows:

1. Randomly generate a function in abs-normal form: $a, b, Z, L, J, Y, \Delta x$ according to (1).
2. Evaluate given function to obtain: Δy and Δz
3. Solve the system for Δx and Δz with the results of the previous step
4. Verify if resulting the Δx and Δz match the original ones.

We measured the runtime of the solve function in given context. To make sure, that each device works with the same data, we fixed the seed for the pseudo-random number generator. The results of this experiment can be found in fig 8.

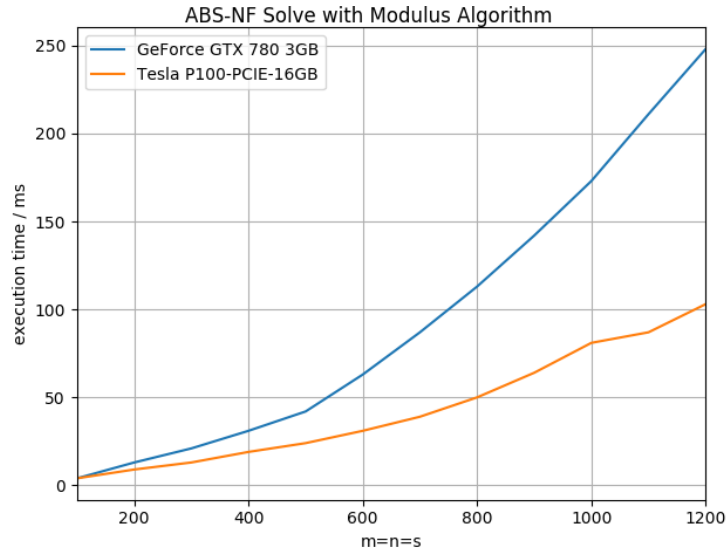


Figure 8: Runtime of the modulus solve implementation

5.4 Analysis and Notes

The implementation performs correctly and the runtime results in fig. 8 behave as expected. We did not include the runtime of the serial version on purpose. This was for two reasons:

1. The numpy implementation calculates the inverse of J directly, which behaves differently.
2. We had to make sure, that each version operates on the exact same data.

A Software Libraries

All the plots, prototypes and a serial implementations were done using Python 3.6 and the numpy library. For the CUDA C++ implementation, we used the following libraries:

- cuBLAS (cuda Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms)
 - Matrix Vector operations
 - Matrix Matrix operations
- cuSOLVER
 - Matrix factorization
 - Triangular solve
- C++ STL

B Devices

We tested our code on the following devices, which were also used for performance benchmarks:

- NVIDIA Tesla P100 16GB RAM
- NVIDIA Geforce GTX 780, 3GB RAM
- Intel Core i5-2500 CPU, 16GB RAM

The device specification of the Tesla P100 model can be found in [1]. Also the compute capability of different NVIDIA GPU architectures is listed there.

C Notation and Symbols

C.1 Symbols

Symbols	Description
m, n, s	Dimensions of the data structures of a function in abs-normal (1).
Δx	Vector $\Delta x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
Δz	Vector $\Delta z \in \mathbb{R}^s$
Δy	Vector $\Delta y \in \mathbb{R}^m$
a	Vector $a \in \mathbb{R}^s$
b	Vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$
Z	Matrix $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times n}$
L	Lower triangular matrix $L \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$
Y	$Y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times s}$
Z	$Y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times s}, J \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
$ \circ $	the absolute value of \circ if \circ is a scalar and the element-wise absolute vector if \circ is a vector.

C.2 Abbreviation

Abbreviation	Description
Tesla	NVIDIA Tesla P100 16GB RAM
GTX	NVIDIA Geforce GTX 780, 3GB RAM
i-5	Intel Core i5-2500 CPU, 16GB RAM

D Project structure

The code of the implementation as well as its corresponding unit-tests can be found ... Plots, Serial implementation, Performance tests, raw data of performance

References

- [1] N. Corporation. NVIDIA Tesla P100 whitepaper, 1999.
- [2] A. Griewank. On stable piecewise linearization and generalized algorithmic differentiation. *Optimization Methods Software*, 28(6):1139–1178, Dec. 2013.
- [3] A. Griewank, J. U. Bernt, M. Radons, and T. Streubel. Solving piecewise linear equations in abs-normal form. *ArXiv e-prints*, Jan. 2017.