Lecture 1: an introduction to CUDA

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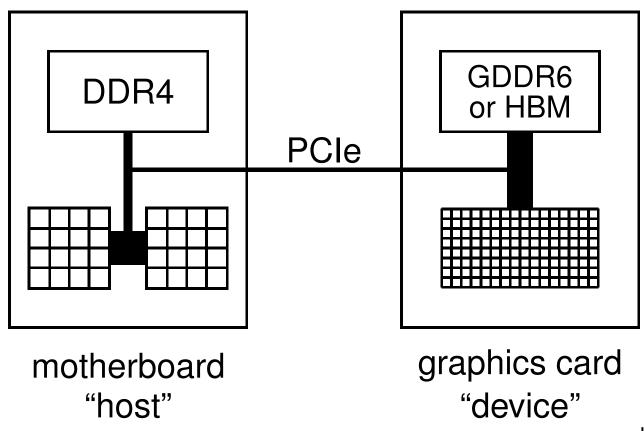
Overview

- hardware view
- software view
- CUDA programming
- first practical

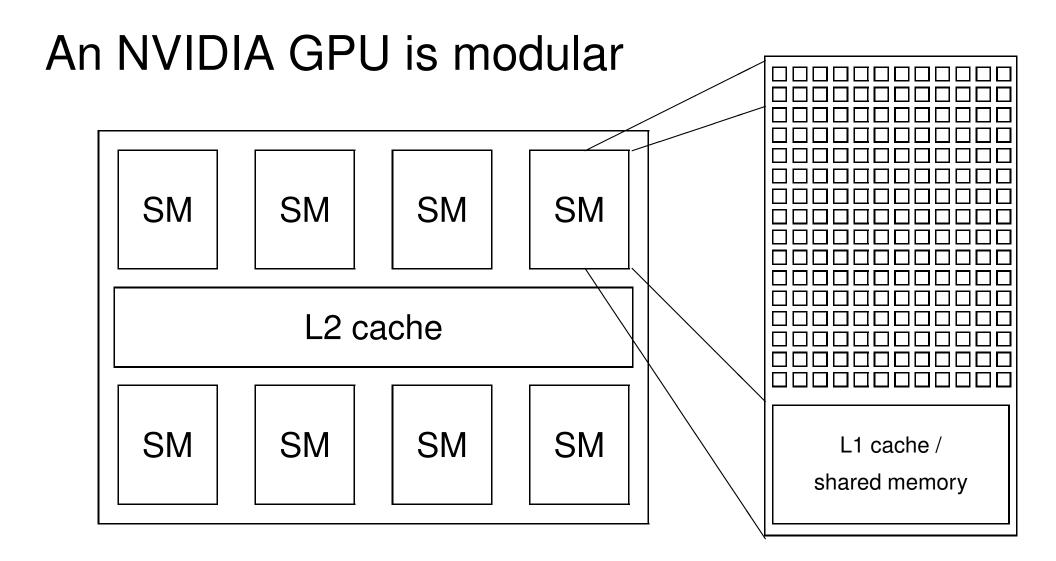
Course materials are available at:

https://people.maths.ox.ac.uk/gilesm/cuda/index.html

At the top-level, a PCIe graphics card with a many-core GPU and high-speed graphics "device" memory sits inside a standard PC/server with one or two multicore CPUs:



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SM = Streaming Multiprocessor – there can be many more than shown here!

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New HPC & professional graphics cards every 2 years, roughly. HPC cards have excellent double precision (DP) capabilities – both have special "tensor cores" for AI/ML

- Ampere (compute capability 8.0):
 - A100 released in 2020, smaller A30 later
 - A2, A10, A16, A40 (compute capability 8.6, poor DP)
- Hopper (compute capability 9.0):
 - H100 released in 2023, H200 in 2024
 - L4, L40, L40S (compute capability 8.9, poor DP) for inference and Virtual Desktop Infrastructure
- Blackwell (compute capability 10.0):
 - B100 announced early 2024, shipping in early 2025 to select customers?

In addition there are consumer/gaming cards with excellent single precision (SP) capabilities, ray tracing support, and "tensor cores" for AI/ML, but much poorer on DP

- Blackwell (compute capability 12.0?):
- GeForce RTX 5070 / 5070 Ti
- GeForce RTX 5080
- GeForce RTX 5090

Just started shipping – additional lower-end models to be announced later

The key building block in an NVIDIA GPUs is a "streaming multiprocessor" (SM) – the A100 has 108 of them each with:

- 32 FP64 cores + 64 FP32 cores + 64 INT32 cores
- 64k registers
- 192KB of shared memory/L1 cache
- up to 2K threads per SM

In addition the A100 has:

- 40MB of L2 cache
- bandwidth of 1.6TB/s to external HBMe memory
- optional 600GB/s NVlink to other GPUs

Multithreading

Key hardware feature is that the cores in a SM are SIMT (Single Instruction Multiple Threads) cores:

- groups of 32 cores execute the same instructions simultaneously, but with different data
- similar to AVX vectorisation on Intel Xeons
- 32 threads all doing the same thing at the same time
- natural for graphics processing and much scientific computing
- SIMT is also a natural choice for many-core chips to simplify each core

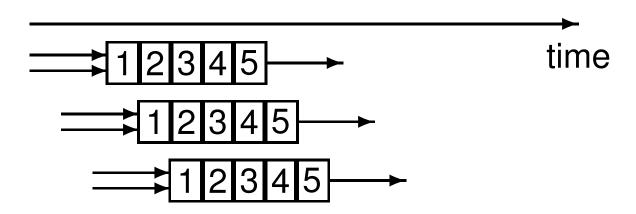
Multithreading

Lots of active threads is the key to high performance:

- no "context switching"; each thread has its own registers (up to 255 of them), which limits the number of active threads
- threads on each SM execute in groups of 32 called "warps" – execution alternates between "active" warps, with warps becoming temporarily "inactive" when waiting for data

Multithreading

 originally, each thread completed one operation before the next started to avoid complexity of pipeline overlaps



however, NVIDIA have now relaxed this, so each thread can have multiple independent instructions overlapping

memory access from device memory has a delay of 200-400 cycles; with 40 active warps this is equivalent to 5-10 operations, so enough to hide the latency?

Software view

At the top level, we have a main process which runs on the CPU and performs the following steps:

- 1. initialises card
- 2. allocates memory in host and on device
- copies data from host to device memory
- launches multiple instances of execution "kernel" on device
- 5. copies data from device memory to host
- 6. repeats 3-5 as needed
- 7. de-allocates all memory and terminates

Software view

At a lower level, within the GPU:

- each instance (or copy) of the kernel executes on a SM
- if the number of instances exceeds the number of SMs, then more than one will run at a time on each SM if there are enough registers and shared memory, and the others will wait in a queue (on the GPU) and run later
- all threads within one instance can access local shared memory but can't see what the other instances are doing (even if they are on the same SM)
- there are no guarantees on the order in which the instances execute

CUDA

CUDA is NVIDIA's program development environment:

- based on C/C++ with some extensions
- Fortran support also available
- lots of sample codes and good documentation
 - fairly short learning curve

AMD has developed HIP, a CUDA lookalike:

- compiles to CUDA for NVIDIA hardware
- compiles to ROCm for AMD hardware

CUDA Components

Installing CUDA on a system, there are 2 components:

- Driver
 - low-level software that controls the graphics card
- Toolkit (currently on version 12.8)
 - nvcc CUDA compiler
 - Nsight plugin for Eclipse or Visual Studio
 - profiling and debugging tools
 - lots of libraries

In addition, NVIDIA makes available lots of sample codes in a GitHub repository:

https://github.com/NVIDIA/cuda-samples

Already explained that a CUDA program has two pieces:

- host code on the CPU which interfaces to the GPU
- kernel code which runs on the GPU

At the host level, there is a choice of 2 APIs (Application Programming Interfaces):

- run-time
 - simpler, more convenient
- driver
 - much more verbose, more flexible (e.g. allows run-time compilation)

We will only use the run-time API in this course, and that is all I use in my own research.

At the host code level, there are library routines for:

- memory allocation on graphics card
- data transfer to/from device memory
 - constants
 - ordinary data
- error-checking
- timing

There is also a special syntax for launching multiple instances of the kernel process on the GPU.

In its simplest form it looks like:

```
kernel_routine<<<gridDim, blockDim>>>(args);
```

- gridDim is the number of instances of the kernel
 (the "grid" size)
- blockDim is the number of threads within each instance (the "block" size)
- args is a limited number of arguments, usually mainly pointers to arrays in graphics memory, and some constants which get copied by value

The more general form allows gridDim and blockDim to be 2D or 3D to simplify application programs

At the lower level, when one instance of the kernel is started on a SM it is executed by a number of threads, each of which knows about:

- some variables passed as arguments
- pointers to arrays in device memory (also arguments)
- global constants in device memory
- shared memory and private registers/local variables
- some special variables:
 - gridDim size (or dimensions) of grid of blocks
 - blockDim size (or dimensions) of each block
 - blockIdx index (or 2D/3D indices) of block
 - threadIdx index (or 2D/3D indices) of thread
 - warpSize always 32 so far, but could change

1D grid with 4 blocks, each with 64 threads:

- gridDim = 4
- blockDim = 64
- blockIdx ranges from 0 to 3
- threadIdx ranges from 0 to 63

blockIdx.x=1, threadIdx.x=44

The kernel code looks fairly normal once you get used to two things:

- code is written from the point of view of a single thread
 - quite different to OpenMP multithreading
 - similar to MPI, where you use the MPI "rank" to identify the MPI process
 - all local variables are private to that thread
- need to think about where each variable lives (more on this in the next lecture)
 - any operation involving data in the device memory forces its transfer to/from registers in the GPU

Host code

```
int main(int argc, char **argv) {
float *h_x, *d_x; // h=host, d=device
 int nblocks=2, nthreads=8, nsize=2 * 8;
h_x = (float *) malloc(nsize*sizeof(float));
cudaMalloc((void **)&d_x,nsize*sizeof(float));
my_first_kernel << nblocks, nthreads >>> (d_x);
cudaMemcpy(h_x,d_x,nsize*sizeof(float),
            cudaMemcpyDeviceToHost);
 for (int n=0; n < n \le ize; n++)
  printf(" n, x = %d %f \n", n, h_x[n]);
cudaFree(d_x); free(h_x);
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```

Kernel code

```
#include <helper_cuda.h>
__global__ void my_first_kernel(float *x)
{
  int tid = threadIdx.x + blockDim.x*blockIdx.x;
  x[tid] = (float) threadIdx.x;
}
```

- __global__ identifier says it's a kernel function
- ullet each thread sets one element of x array
- within each block of threads, threadIdx.x ranges from 0 to blockDim.x-1, so each thread has a unique value for tid

Suppose we have 1000 blocks, and each one has 128 threads – how does it get executed?

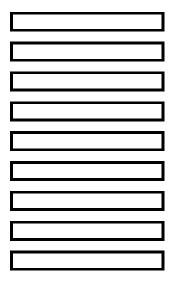
On current hardware, would probably get 8-12 blocks running at the same time on each SM, and each block has 4 warps \implies 32-48 warps running on each SM

Each clock tick, SM warp scheduler decides which warps to execute next, choosing from those not waiting for

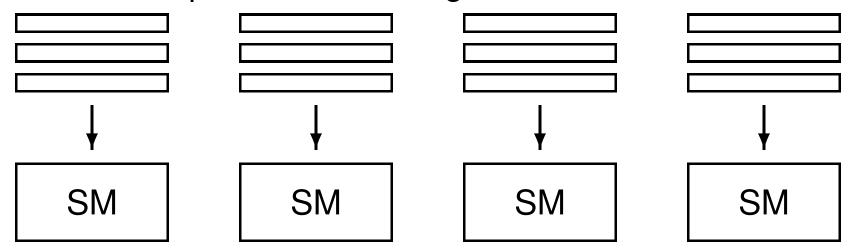
- data coming from device memory (memory latency)
- completion of earlier instructions (pipeline delay)

Programmer doesn't have to worry about this level of detail, just make sure there are lots of threads / warps

Queue of waiting blocks:



Multiple blocks running on each SM:



In this simple case, we had a 1D grid of blocks, and a 1D set of threads within each block.

If we want to use a 2D set of threads, then blockDim.x, blockDim.y give the dimensions, and threadIdx.x, threadIdx.y give the thread indices

and to launch the kernel we would use something like

```
dim3 nthreads(16,4);
my_new_kernel<<<nblocks,nthreads>>>(d_x);
```

where dim3 is a special CUDA datatype with 3 components .x, .y, .z each initialised to 1.

A similar approach is used for 3D threads and 2D / 3D grids; can be very useful in 2D / 3D finite difference applications.

How do 2D / 3D threads get divided into warps?

1D thread ID defined by

```
threadIdx.x +
threadIdx.y * blockDim.x +
threadIdx.z * blockDim.x * blockDim.y
```

and this is then broken up into warps of size 32.

- start from code shown above (but with comments)
- test error-checking and printing from kernel functions
- modify code to add two vectors together (including sending them over from the host to the device)
- if time permits, look at CUDA samples

Things to note:

memory allocation

```
cudaMalloc((void **)&d_x, nbytes);
```

data copying

- reminder: prefix h_ and d_ to distinguish between arrays on the host and on the device is not mandatory, just helpful labelling
- kernel routine is declared by __global__ prefix, and is written from point of view of a single thread

Second version of the code is very similar to first, but uses a header file for various safety checks – gives useful feedback in the event of errors.

check for error return codes:

```
checkCudaErrors( ... );
```

check for kernel failure messages:

```
getLastCudaError( ... );
```

One thing to experiment with is the use of printf within a CUDA kernel function:

- essentially the same as standard printf; minor difference in integer return code
- each thread generates its own output; use conditional code if you want output from only one thread
- output goes into an output buffer which is transferred to the host and printed later (possibly much later?)
- buffer has limited size (1MB by default), so could lose some output if there's too much
- need to use either cudaDeviceSynchronize(); or cudaDeviceReset(); at the end of the main code to make sure the buffer is flushed before termination

The practical also has a third version of the code which uses "managed memory" based on Unified Memory.

In this version

- there is only one array / pointer, not one for CPU and another for GPU
- the programmer is not responsible for moving the data to/from the GPU
- everything is handled automatically by the CUDA run-time system

This leads to simpler code, but it's important to understand what is happening because it may hurt performance:

- if the CPU initialises an array x, and then a kernel uses it, this forces a copy from CPU to GPU
- if the GPU modifies x and the CPU later tries to read from it, that triggers a copy back from GPU to CPU

Personally, I prefer to keep complete control over data movement, so that I know what is happening and I can maximise performance.

Key reading

CUDA C++ Programming Guide:

- Section 1: Introduction
- Section 2: Programming Model
- Section 5.4: performance of different GPUs
- Section 6: CUDA-enabled GPUs
- Sections 7.1 − 7.4: C language extensions
- Section 7.33: printf output
- Section 16: features of different GPUs

These are the section numbers for the HTML version of the document; add 3 when looking at the PDF version!