Lecture 15
CUDA
EEC 171 Parallel Architectures
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Credits

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• This lecture is primarily derived from a tutorial at ASPLOS 2008 (March 2008) by David Luebke (NVIDIA Research), Michael Garland (NVIDIA Research), John Owens (UC Davis), and Kevin Skadron (NVIDIA Research/University of Virginia), with additional material from Mark Harris (NVIDIA Ltd.).
Performance beyond single thread ILP

- There can be much higher natural parallelism in some applications (e.g., database or scientific codes)

- Explicit **Thread Level Parallelism** or **Data Level Parallelism**

- **Thread**: process with own instructions and data
  - Thread may be a subpart of a parallel program (“thread”), or it may be an independent program (“process”)
  - Each thread has all the state (instructions, data, PC, register state, and so on) necessary to allow it to execute

- **Data Level Parallelism**: Perform identical operations on data, and (possibly) lots of data

- Today is going to be a little confusing about the word “thread”. Sorry.
Continuum of Granularity

- “Coarse”
  - Each processor is more powerful
  - Usually fewer processors
  - Communication is more expensive between processors
  - Processors are more loosely coupled
  - Tend toward MIMD

- “Fine”
  - Each processor is less powerful
  - Usually more processors
  - Communication is cheaper between processors
  - Processors are more tightly coupled
  - Tend toward SIMD
“If you were plowing a field, which would you rather use? Two strong oxen or 1024 chickens?”
—Seymour Cray
ILP vs. DLP

- “SIMD is about exploiting parallelism in the data stream, while superscalar SISD is about exploiting parallelism in the instruction stream.”

- What we learned last week:
  - SIMD instructions in microprocessors (MMX, SSE, etc.)
  - Vector and massively parallel machines

- Today: NVIDIA GPUs as a data-parallel processor
  - NVIDIA G80 (GeForce 8000 family)
  - NVIDIA CUDA (programming environment)
Motivation for Today

- SIMD instructions in microprocessors are good ... but they’re only 4 wide
- Some applications have more data parallelism than 4
- How do we design hardware and software to take advantage of massive data parallelism?
Why is data-parallel computing fast?

- The GPU is specialized for compute-intensive, highly parallel computation (exactly what graphics rendering is about)

- So, more transistors can be devoted to data processing rather than data caching and flow control
Recent GPU Performance Trends

Programmable 32-bit FP operations per second

Early data courtesy Ian Buck; from Owens et al. 2007 [CGF]
Successes on NVIDIA GPUs

146X
Interactive visualization of volumetric white matter connectivity

36X
Ionic placement for molecular dynamics simulation on GPU

19X
Transcoding HD video stream to H.264

17X
Fluid mechanics in Matlab using .mex file CUDA function

100X
Astrophysics N-body simulation

149X
Financial simulation of LIBOR model with swaptions

47X
GLAME@lab: an M-script API for GPU linear algebra

20X
Ultrasound medical imaging for cancer diagnostics

24X
Highly optimized object oriented molecular dynamics

30X
Cmatch exact string matching to find similar proteins and gene sequences

[courtesy David Luebke, NVIDIA]
Programming Model: A Massively Multi-threaded Processor

- Move data-parallel application portions to the GPU
- Differences between GPU and CPU threads
  - Lightweight threads
  - GPU supports 1000s of threads
- Today:
  - GPU hardware
  - CUDA programming environment
Big Idea #1

- One thread per data element.
- Doesn’t this mean that large problems will have millions of threads?
Big Idea #2

• Write one program.
• That program runs on ALL threads in parallel.
• Terminology here is “SIMT”: single-instruction, multiple-thread.
  • Roughly: SIMD means many threads run in lockstep; SIMT means that some divergence is allowed
CUDA Kernels and Threads

- Parallel portions of an application are executed on the device as kernels
  - One SIMT kernel is executed at a time
  - Many threads execute each kernel
- Differences between CUDA and CPU threads
  - CUDA threads are extremely lightweight
    - Very little creation overhead
    - Instant switching
  - CUDA *must* use 1000s of threads to achieve efficiency
    - Multi-core CPUs can use only a few

Definitions:
- Device = GPU; Host = CPU
- Kernel = function that runs on the device
Graphics Programs

Features

- Millions of instructions
- Full integer and bit instructions
- No limits on branching, looping

Thread Program

- Texture (read only)
- Constants
- Registers

OutputRegisters
General-Purpose Programs

Features

• 1D, 2D, or 3D thread ID allocation
• Fully general load/store to GPU memory: Scatter/Gather
• Programmer flexibility on how memory is accessed
• Untyped, not limited to fixed texture types
• Pointer support
Parallel Data Cache

Features
- Dedicated on-chip memory
- Shared between threads for inter-thread communication
- Explicitly managed
- As fast as registers

Thread Number

Thread Program

Output Registers

Texture

Constants

Registers

Global Memory

Parallel Data Cache
Parallel Data Cache

Addresses a fundamental problem of stream computing

Bring the data closer to the ALU

Stage computation for the parallel data cache

Minimize trips to external memory

Share values to minimize overfetch and computation

Increases arithmetic intensity by keeping data close to the processors

User managed generic memory, threads read/write arbitrarily

Parallel execution through cache
GPU Computing

- Processors execute computing threads
- Thread Execution Manager issues threads
- 128 Thread Processors
- Parallel Data Cache accelerates processing
SM Multithreaded Multiprocessor

- Each SM runs a block of threads
- SM has 8 SP Thread Processors
  - 32 GFLOPS peak at 1.35 GHz
  - IEEE 754 32-bit floating point
- Scalar ISA
- Up to 768 threads, hardware multithreaded
- 16KB Shared Memory
  - Concurrent threads share data
  - Low latency load/store
Big Idea #3

- Latency hiding.
  - It takes a long time to go to memory.
  - So while one set of threads is waiting for memory ...
  - ... run another set of threads during the wait.
  - In practice, 32 threads run in a “warp” and an efficient program usually has 128–256 threads in a block.
Scaling the Architecture

- Same program
- Scalable performance
HW Goal: Scalability

- Scalable execution
  - Program must be insensitive to the number of cores
  - Write one program for any number of SM cores
  - Program runs on any size GPU without recompiling

- Hierarchical execution model
  - Decompose problem into sequential steps (kernels)
  - Decompose kernel into computing parallel blocks
  - Decompose block into computing parallel threads

- Hardware distributes independent blocks to SMs as available

This is very important.
Programming Model: A Highly Multi-threaded Coprocessor

- The GPU is viewed as a compute device that:
  - Is a coprocessor to the CPU or host
  - Has its own DRAM (device memory)
  - Runs many threads in parallel
- Data-parallel portions of an application execute on the device as *kernels* that run many cooperative threads in parallel
- Differences between GPU and CPU threads
  - GPU threads are extremely lightweight
    - Very little creation overhead
  - GPU needs 1000s of threads for full efficiency
    - Multi-core CPU needs only a few
Compiling CUDA for GPUs

C/C++ CUDA Application

NVCC

CPU Code

PTX Code

Generic

PTX to Target Translator

GPU ...

Target device code

Specialized

GPU
Programming Model (SPMD + SIMD): Thread Batching

- A kernel is executed as a grid of thread blocks
- A thread block is a batch of threads that can cooperate with each other by:
  - Efficiently sharing data through shared memory
  - Synchronizing their execution
    - For hazard-free shared memory accesses
- Two threads from two different blocks cannot cooperate
  - Blocks are independent
Execution Model

- Kernels are launched in grids
  - One kernel executes at a time
- A block executes on one multiprocessor
  - Does not migrate
- Several blocks can reside concurrently on one multiprocessor (SM)
  - Control limitations (of G8X/G9X GPUs):
    - At most 8 concurrent blocks per SM
    - At most 768 concurrent threads per SM
  - Number is further limited by SM resources
    - Register file is partitioned among all resident threads
    - Shared memory is partitioned among all resident thread blocks
Execution Model

Multiple levels of parallelism

- Thread block
  - Up to 512 threads per block
  - Communicate through shared memory
  - Threads guaranteed to be resident
  - threadIdx, blockIdx
  - __syncthreads()

- Grid of thread blocks
  - f<<<nbblocks, nthreads>>>(a,b,c)
Divergence in Parallel Computing

- Removing divergence pain from parallel programming
- SIMD Pain
  - User required to SIMD-ify
  - User suffers when computation goes divergent
- GPUs: Decouple execution width from programming model
  - Threads can diverge freely
  - Inefficiency only when divergence exceeds native machine width
  - Hardware managed
  - Managing divergence becomes performance optimization
  - Scalable
CUDA Design Goals

- Scale to 100’s of cores, 1000’s of parallel threads
- Let programmers focus on parallel algorithms
  - *not* mechanics of a parallel programming language
- Enable heterogeneous systems (i.e., CPU+GPU)
  - CPU & GPU are separate devices with separate DRAMs
Key Parallel Abstractions in CUDA

- Hierarchy of concurrent threads
- Lightweight synchronization primitives
- Shared memory model for cooperating threads
Hierarch of concurrent threads

- Parallel *kernels* composed of many threads
  - all threads execute the same sequential program
  - (This is “SIMT”)
- Threads are grouped into *thread blocks*
  - threads in the same block can cooperate
- Threads/blocks have unique IDs
  - Each thread knows its “address” (thread/block ID)
CUDA: Programming GPU in C

- Philosophy: provide minimal set of extensions necessary to expose power

- Declaration specifiers to indicate where things live
  
  ```c
  __global__ void KernelFunc(...);  // kernel callable from host
  __device__ void DeviceFunc(...);  // function callable on device
  __device__ int GlobalVar;        // variable in device memory
  __shared__ int SharedVar;        // shared within thread block
  ```

- Extend function invocation syntax for parallel kernel launch
  
  ```c
  KernelFunc<<<500, 128>>>(...);  // launch 500 blocks w/ 128 threads each
  ```

- Special variables for thread identification in kernels
  
  ```c
  dim3 threadIdx;  dim3 blockIdx;  dim3 blockDim;  dim3 gridSize;
  ```

- Intrinsics that expose specific operations in kernel code
  
  ```c
  __syncthreads();  // barrier synchronization within kernel
  ```
CUDA: Features available on GPU

- Standard mathematical functions
  \[ \text{sinf}, \text{powf}, \text{atanf}, \text{ceil}, \text{min}, \text{sqrtf}, \text{etc.} \]

- Atomic memory operations (not in the class hw)
  \[ \text{atomicAdd}, \text{atomicMin}, \text{atomicAnd}, \text{atomicCAS}, \text{etc.} \]

- Texture accesses in kernels
  \[ \text{texture<float,2>} \ \text{my\_texture}; \quad \text{// declare texture reference} \]

  \[ \text{float4}\ \text{texel} = \text{texfetch}(\text{my\_texture}, u, v); \]
Example: Vector Addition Kernel

- Compute vector sum $C = A + B$ means:
- $n = \text{length}(C)$
- for $i = 0$ to $n-1$:
  - $C[i] = A[i] + B[i]$
Example: Vector Addition Kernel

// Compute vector sum C = A+B

// Each thread performs one pair-wise addition

__global__ void vecAdd(float* A, float* B, float* C)
{
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockDim.x * blockIdx.x;
    C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}

int main()
{
    // Run N/256 blocks of 256 threads each
    vecAdd<<< N/256, 256>>> (d_A, d_B, d_C);
}
Example: Vector Addition Kernel

// Compute vector sum C = A+B

// Each thread performs one pair-wise addition
__global__ void vecAdd(float* A, float* B, float* C)
{
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockDim.x * blockIdx.x;
    C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}

int main()
{
    // Run N/256 blocks of 256 threads each
    vecAdd<<< N/256, 256>>>(d_A, d_B, d_C);

    Host Code
Synchronization of blocks

- Threads within block may synchronize with barriers

  ... Step 1 ...
  __syncthreads();
  ... Step 2 ...

- Blocks coordinate via atomic memory operations
  - e.g., increment shared queue pointer with atomicInc()

- Implicit barrier between dependent kernels

  vec_minus<<<nblocks, blksize>>>(a, b, c);
  vec_dot<<<nblocks, blksize>>>(c, c);
What is a thread?

- Independent thread of execution
  - has its own PC, variables (registers), processor state, etc.
  - no implication about how threads are scheduled
- CUDA threads might be *physical* threads
  - as on NVIDIA GPUs
- CUDA threads might be *virtual* threads
  - might pick 1 block = 1 physical thread on multicore CPU
- Very interesting recent research on this topic
What is a thread block?

- Thread block = *virtualized multiprocessor*
  - freely choose processors to fit data
  - freely customize for each kernel launch
- Thread block = a (data) *parallel task*
  - all blocks in kernel have the same entry point
  - but may execute any code they want
- Thread blocks of kernel must be *independent* tasks
  - program valid for *any interleaving* of block executions
Blocks must be independent

- Any possible interleaving of blocks should be valid
  - presumed to run to completion without pre-emption
  - can run in any order
  - can run concurrently OR sequentially
- Blocks may coordinate but not synchronize
  - shared queue pointer: OK
  - shared lock: BAD ... can easily deadlock
- Independence requirement gives scalability
Big Idea #4

- Organization into independent blocks allows scalability / different hardware instantiations
- If you organize your kernels to run over many blocks ...
- ... the same code will be efficient on hardware that runs one block at once and on hardware that runs many blocks at once
Levels of parallelism

- **Thread parallelism**
  - each thread is an independent thread of execution

- **Data parallelism**
  - across threads in a block
  - across blocks in a kernel

- **Task parallelism**
  - different blocks are independent
  - independent kernels
Memory model

Thread

Per-thread Local Memory

Block

Per-block Shared Memory
Using per-block shared memory

- Variables shared across block
  ```
  __shared__ int *begin, *end;
  ```

- Scratchpad memory
  ```
  __shared__ int scratch[blocksize];
  scratch[threadIdx.x] = begin[threadIdx.x];
  // ... compute on scratch values ...
  begin[threadIdx.x] = scratch[threadIdx.x];
  ```

- Communicating values between threads
  ```
  scratch[threadIdx.x] = begin[threadIdx.x];
  __syncthreads();
  int left = scratch[threadIdx.x - 1];
  ```
Memory model

Kernel 0

Kernel 1

Per-device Global Memory

Sequential Kernels
Memory model

Host memory

Device 0 memory

Device 1 memory

cudaMemcpy()
CUDA: Runtime support

- Explicit memory allocation returns pointers to GPU memory
  
  `cudaMalloc()`, `cudaFree()`

- Explicit memory copy for host ↔ device, device ↔ device
  
  `cudaMemcpy()`, `cudaMemcpy2D()`, ...

- Texture management
  
  `cudaBindTexture()`, `cudaBindTextureToArray()`, ...

- OpenGL & DirectX interoperability
  
  `cudaGLMapBufferObject()`, `cudaD3D9MapVertexBuffer()`, ...
Example: Vector Addition Kernel

// Compute vector sum $C = A + B$
// Each thread performs one pair-wise addition
__global__ void vecAdd(float* A, float* B, float* C){
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockDim.x * blockIdx.x;
    C[i] = A[i] + B[i];
}

int main(){
    // Run $N/256$ blocks of $256$ threads each
    vecAdd<<< N/256, 256>>>(d_A, d_B, d_C);
}
Example: Host code for vecAdd

// allocate and initialize host (CPU) memory
float *h_A = ..., *h_B = ...;

// allocate device (GPU) memory
float *d_A, *d_B, *d_C;

cudaMalloc((void**) &d_A, N * sizeof(float));
cudaMalloc((void**) &d_B, N * sizeof(float));
cudaMalloc((void**) &d_C, N * sizeof(float));

// copy host memory to device
cudaMemcpy(d_A, h_A, N * sizeof(float), cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);
cudaMemcpy(d_B, h_B, N * sizeof(float), cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);

// execute the kernel on N/256 blocks of 256 threads each
vecAdd<<<N/256, 256>>>(d_A, d_B, d_C);
Example: Parallel Reduction

- Summing up a sequence with 1 thread:
  
  ```
  int sum = 0;
  for(int i=0; i<N; ++i)  sum += x[i];
  ```

- Parallel reduction builds a summation tree
  
  - each thread holds 1 element
  - stepwise partial sums
  - $n$ threads need $\log n$ steps
  - one possible approach: Butterfly pattern
Example: Parallel Reduction

• Summing up a sequence with 1 thread:

```java
int sum = 0;
for(int i=0; i<N; ++i)  sum += x[i];
```

• Parallel reduction builds a summation tree
  • each thread holds 1 element
  • stepwise partial sums
  • $n$ threads need log $n$ steps
  • one possible approach: Butterfly pattern
// INPUT: Thread i holds value x_i
int i = threadIdx.x;
__shared__ int sum[blocksize];

// One thread per element
sum[i] = x_i; __syncthreads();

for(int bit=blocksize/2; bit>0; bit/=2)
{
    int t=sum[i]+sum[i^bit]; __syncthreads();
    sum[i]=t; __syncthreads();
}

// OUTPUT: Every thread now holds sum in sum[i]
Example: Serial SAXPY routine

**Serial program:** compute \( y = \alpha x + y \) with a loop

```c
void saxpy_serial(int n, float a, float *x, float *y)
{
    for(int i = 0; i<n; ++i)
        y[i] = a*x[i] + y[i];
}
```

**Serial execution:** call a function

```c
saxpy_serial(n, 2.0, x, y);
```
Example: Parallel SAXPY routine

**Parallel program:** compute with 1 thread per element

```c
__global__
void saxpy_parallel(int n, float a, float *x, float *y)
{
    int i = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
    if( i<n )  y[i] = a*x[i] + y[i];
}
```

**Parallel execution:** launch a kernel

```c
uint size   = 256;  // threads per block
uint blocks = (n + size-1) / size;  // blocks needed
saxpy_parallel<<<blocks, size>>>(n, 2.0, x, y);
```
SAXPY in PTX 1.0 ISA

cvt.u32.u16 $blockid, %ctaid.x; // Calculate i from thread/block IDs
cvt.u32.u16 $blocksize, %ntid.x;
cvt.u32.u16 $tid, %tid.x;
mad24.lo.u32 $i, $blockid, $blocksize, $tid;
ld.param.u32 $n, [N]; // Nothing to do if n ≤ i
setp.le.u32 $p1, $n, $i;
@$p1 bra $L_finish;
mul.lo.u32 $offset, $i, 4; // Load y[i]
ld.param.u32 $yaddr, [Y];
add.u32 $yaddr, $yaddr, $offset;
ld.global.f32 $y_i, [$yaddr+0];
ld.param.u32 $xaddr, [X]; // Load x[i]
add.u32 $xaddr, $xaddr, $offset;
ld.global.f32 $x_i, [$xaddr+0];

ld.param.f32 $alpha, [ALPHA]; // Compute and store alpha*x[i] + y[i]
mad.f32 $y_i, $alpha, $x_i, $y_i;
st.global.f32 [$yaddr+0], $y_i;

$L_finish: exit;
Sparse matrix-vector multiplication

- Sparse matrices have relatively few non-zero entries
- Frequently $O(n)$ rather than $O(n^2)$
- Only store & operate on these non-zero entries

**Example: Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) Format**

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 4 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

- **Non-zero values** $A_v[7] = \{ 3, 1, 2, 4, 1, 1, 1 \}$
- **Column indices** $A_j[7] = \{ 0, 2, 1, 2, 3, 0, 3 \}$
- **Row pointers** $A_p[5] = \{ 0, 2, 2, 5, 7 \}$
Sparse matrix-vector multiplication

```c
float multiply_row(uint rowsize, // number of non-zeros in row
    uint *Aj,     // column indices for row
    float *Av,    // non-zero entries for row
    float *x)     // the RHS vector
{
    float sum = 0;

    for(uint column=0; column<rowsize; ++column)
        sum += Av[column] * x[Aj[column]];

    return sum;
}
```

Non-zero values

```
Av[7] = { 3, 1, 2, 4, 1, 1, 1 }
```

Column indices

```
Aj[7] = { 0, 2, 1, 2, 3, 0, 3 }
```

Row pointers

```
Ap[5] = { 0, 2, 2, 5, 7 }
```
Sparse matrix-vector multiplication

float multiply_row(uint size, uint *Aj, float *Av, float *x);

void csrmul_serial(uint *Ap, uint *Aj, float *Av, uint num_rows, float *x, float *y)
{
    for(uint row=0; row<num_rows; ++row)
    {
        uint row_begin = Ap[row];
        uint row_end    = Ap[row+1];

        y[row] = multiply_row(row_end-row_begin,
                              Aj+row_begin,
                              Av+row_begin,
                              x);
    }
}
Sparse matrix-vector multiplication

```c
float multiply_row(uint size, uint *Aj, float *Av, float *x);

__global__
void csrmul_kernel(uint *Ap, uint *Aj, float *Av, uint num_rows, float *x, float *y)
{
    uint row = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;

    if( row<num_rows )
    {
        uint row_begin = Ap[row];
        uint row_end   = Ap[row+1];

        y[row] = multiply_row(row_end-row_begin, Aj+row_begin, Av+row_begin, x);
    }
}
```
Adding a simple caching scheme

```
__global__ void csrmul_cached(... ... ... ... ... ...) {
    uint begin = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x,  end = begin+blockDim.x;
    uint row = begin + threadIdx.x;

    __shared__ float cache[blocksize]; // array to cache rows
    if ( row<num_rows )  cache[threadIdx.x] = x[row];  // fetch to cache
    __syncthreads();

    if( row<num_rows ) {
        uint row_begin = Ap[row],  row_end = Ap[row+1];  float sum = 0;

        for(uint col=row_begin; col<row_end; ++col) {
            uint j = Aj[col];

            // Fetch from cached rows when possible
            float x_j = (j>=begin && j<end) ? cache[j-begin] : x[j];
            sum += Av[col] * x_j;
        }
        y[row] = sum;
    }
}
```
Basic Efficiency Rules

- Develop algorithms with a data parallel mindset
- Minimize divergence of execution within blocks
- Maximize locality of global memory accesses
- Exploit per-block shared memory as scratchpad
- Expose enough parallelism
Summing Up

- CUDA = C + a few simple extensions
  - makes it easy to start writing basic parallel programs

- Three key abstractions:
  - hierarchy of parallel threads
  - corresponding levels of synchronization
  - corresponding memory spaces

- Supports massive parallelism of manycore GPUs