

Warp divergence

Lecture 3: control flow and synchronisation

Prof. Mike Giles

mike.giles@maths.ox.ac.uk

Oxford University Mathematical Institute

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);
```

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

Lecture 3 – p. 1/36

Lecture 3 – p. 2/36

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 x, y depending on the logical vector p , equivalent to

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

Lecture 3 – p. 3/36

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);
```

Lecture 3 – p. 4/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 5/36

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:   ...  
!p:   ...  
}
```

Lecture 3 – p. 7/36

Warp divergence

Another example:

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

- `x[n]` is only read here if $n \geq 0$
- don't have to worry about illegal memory accesses when n is negative

Lecture 3 – p. 6/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 8/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 9/36

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 35 years ago on CRAY and Thinking Machines systems.

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

Lecture 3 – p. 11/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 10/36

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*

Lecture 3 – p. 12/36

Typical application

```
// load in data to shared memory
...
...
...

// synchronisation to ensure this has finished

__syncthreads();

// now do computation using shared data
...
...
...
```

Lecture 3 – p. 13/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 15/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 14/36

Atomic operations

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

```
__shared__ int count;

...

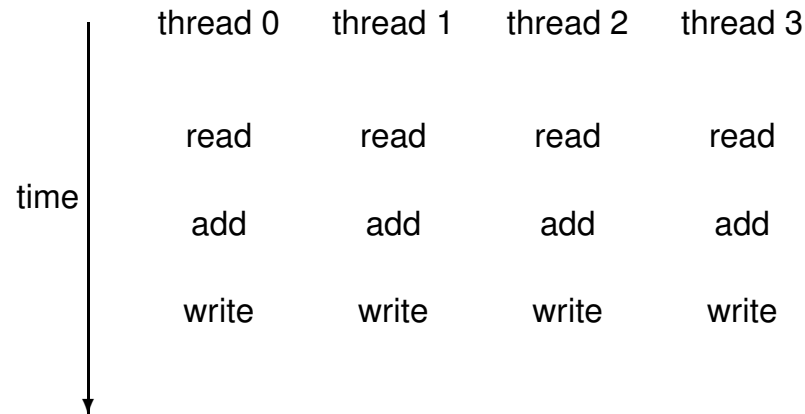
if ( ... ) count++;
```

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

Lecture 3 – p. 16/36

Atomic operations

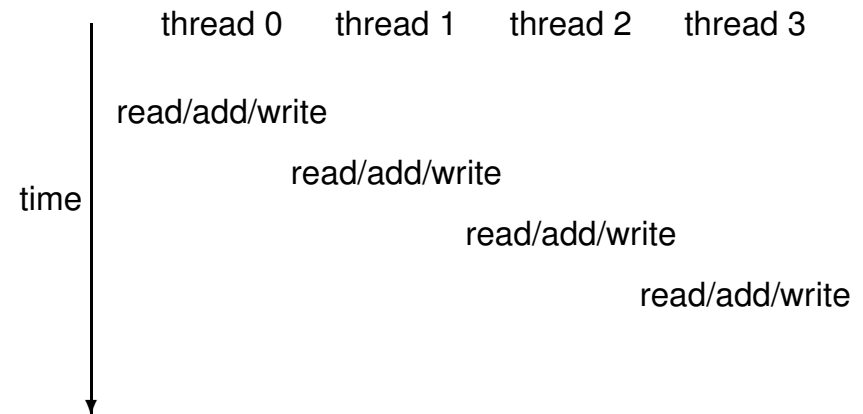
Using standard instructions, multiple threads in the same warp will only update it once.



Lecture 3 – p. 17/36

Atomic operations

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



Lecture 3 – p. 18/36

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)

Lecture 3 – p. 19/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 20/36

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;
    }
}
```

Lecture 3 – p. 21/36

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;
    }
}
```

Lecture 3 – p. 22/36

__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

Lecture 3 – p. 23/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 24/36

Key reading

CUDA C++ Programming Guide:

- Section 5.4.2: control flow and predicates
- Section 5.4.3: synchronization
- Section 7.5: `__threadfence()` and variants
- Section 7.6: `__syncthreads()` and variants
- Section 7.14: atomic functions
- Section 7.19: warp voting

Lecture 3 – p. 25/36

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

Lecture 3 – p. 27/36

2D Laplace solver

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

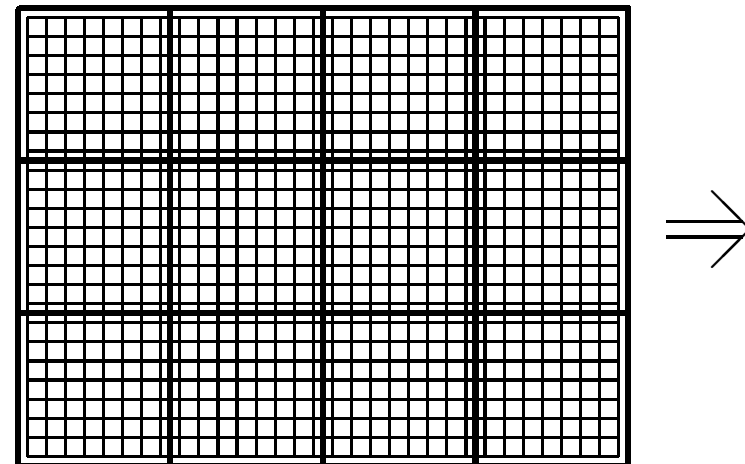
```
for (int j=0; j<J; j++) {
    for (int i=0; i<I; i++) {

        id = i + j*I;    // 1D memory location

        if (i==0 || i==I-1 || j==0 || j==J-1)
            u2[id] = u1[id];
        else
            u2[id] = 0.25*( u1[id-1] + u1[id+1]
                            + u1[id-I] + u1[id+I] );
    }
}
```

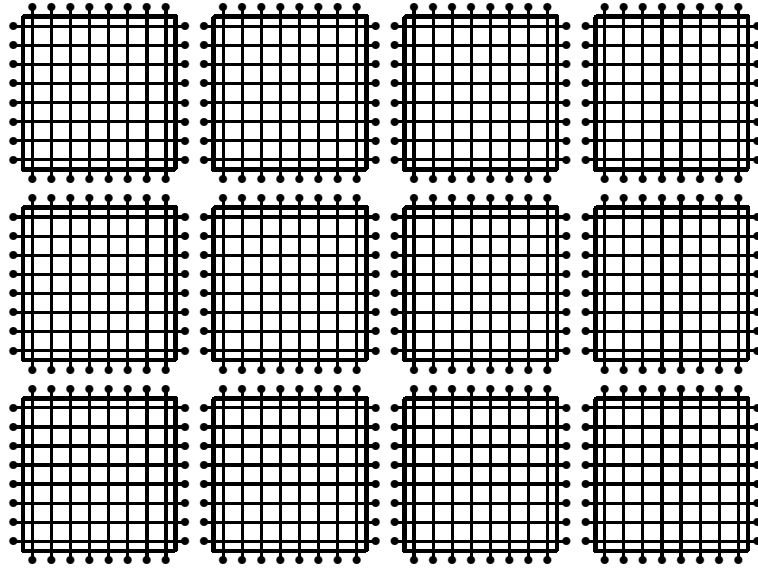
Lecture 3 – p. 26/36

2D Laplace solver



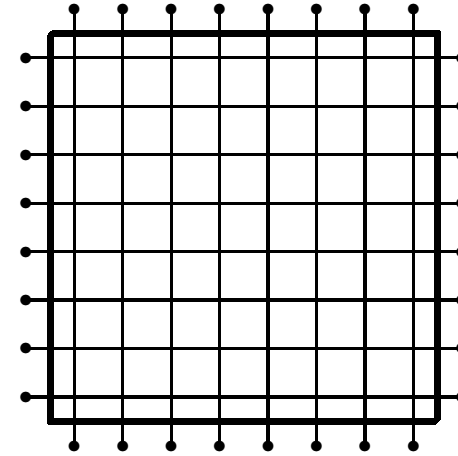
Lecture 3 – p. 28/36

2D Laplace solver



Lecture 3 – p. 29/36

2D Laplace solver



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

Lecture 3 – p. 30/36

2D Laplace solver

```
__global__ void lap(int I, int J,
    const float* __restrict__ u1,
    float* __restrict__ u2) {

    int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x*blockDim.x;
    int j = threadIdx.y + blockIdx.y*blockDim.y;
    int id = i + j*I;

    if (i==0 || i==I-1 || j==0 || j==J-1) {
        u2[id] = u1[id];    // Dirichlet b.c.'s
    }
    else {
        u2[id] = 0.25 * ( u1[id-1] + u1[id+1]
            + u1[id-I] + u1[id+I] );
    }
}
```

Lecture 3 – p. 31/36

2D Laplace solver

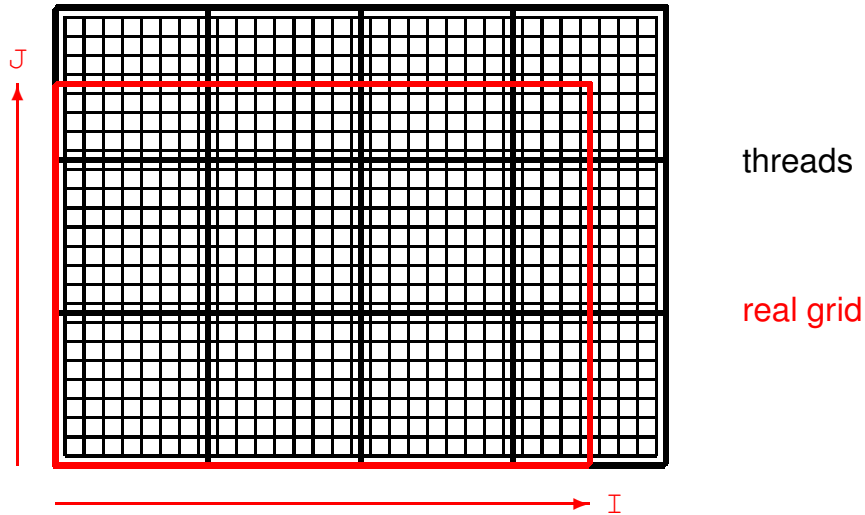
Assumptions:

- 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 i, j are within grid

Lecture 3 – p. 32/36

2D Laplace solver



Lecture 3 – p. 33/36

2D Laplace solver

```

__global__ void lap(int I, int J,
                   const float* __restrict__ u1,
                   float* __restrict__ u2) {

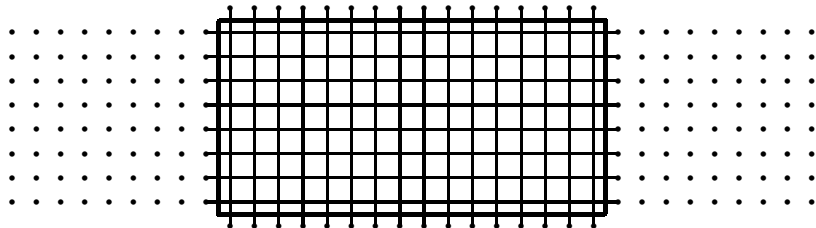
    int i = threadIdx.x + blockIdx.x*blockDim.x;
    int j = threadIdx.y + blockIdx.y*blockDim.y;
    int id = i + j*I;

    if (i==0 || i==I-1 || j==0 || j==J-1) {
        u2[id] = u1[id]; // Dirichlet b.c.'s
    }
    else if (i<I && j<J) {
        u2[id] = 0.25f * ( u1[id-1] + u1[id+1]
                          + u1[id-I] + u1[id+I] );
    }
}
    
```

Lecture 3 – p. 34/36

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 8:1 if cache line is 32 bytes == 8 floats

Lecture 3 – p. 35/36

3D Laplace solver

- practical 3
- each thread does an entire line in z -direction
- x, 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

Lecture 3 – p. 36/36