

**Lecture 7:**

# **GPU Architecture & CUDA Programming**

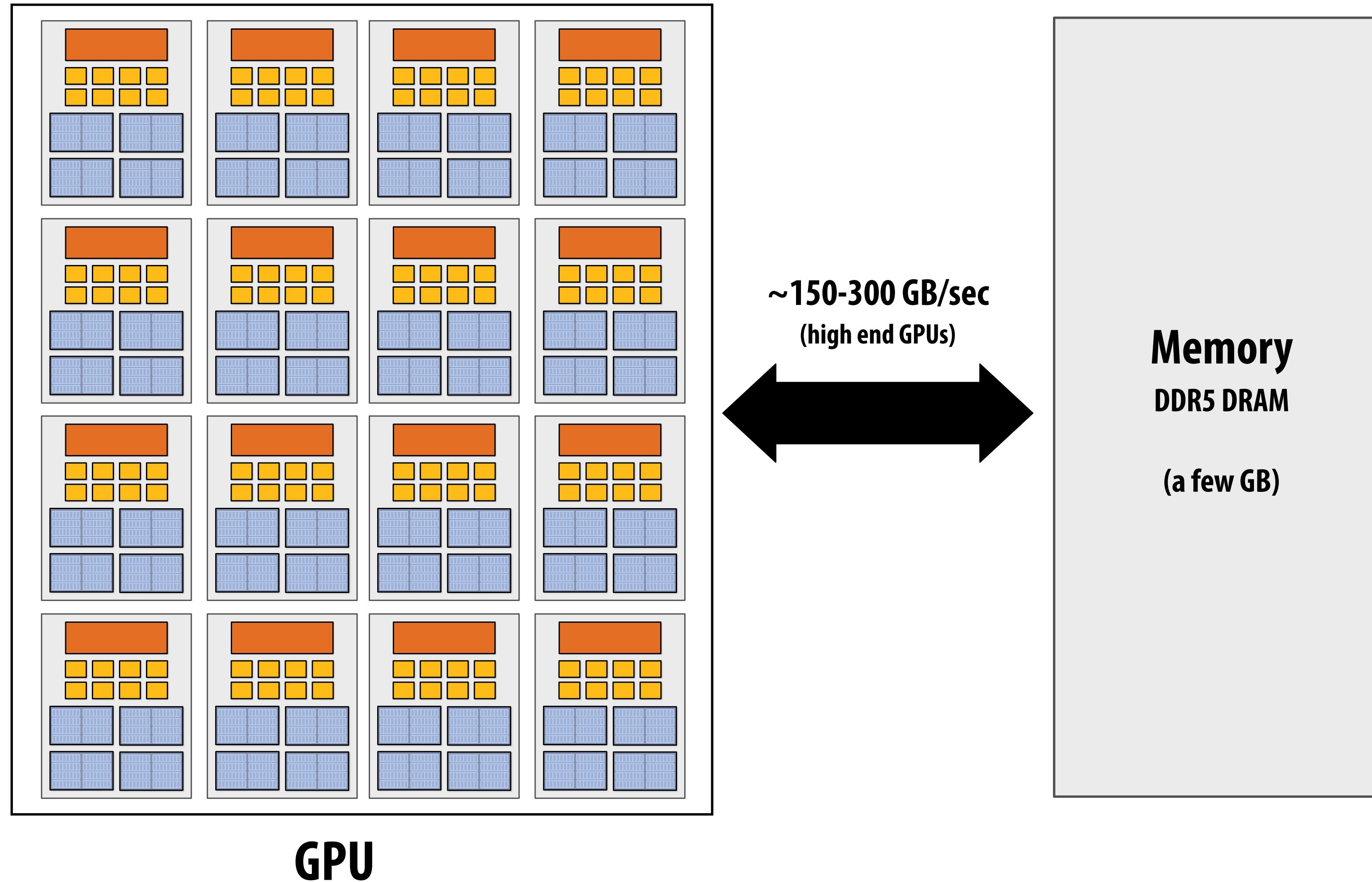
---

**Parallel Computing  
Stanford CS149, Fall 2025**

# Today

- **History: how graphics processors, originally designed to accelerate 3D games, evolved into highly parallel compute engines for a broad class of applications like:**
  - deep learning
  - computer vision
  - scientific computing
- **Programming GPUs using the CUDA language**
- **A more detailed look at GPU architecture**

# Basic GPU architecture (from lecture 2)



**Multi-core chip**

**SIMD execution within a single core (many execution units performing the same instruction)**

**Multi-threaded execution on a single core (multiple threads executed concurrently by a core)**

# **Graphics 101 + GPU history**

**(for fun)**

# What GPUs were originally designed to do: 3D rendering

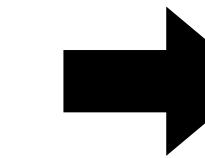
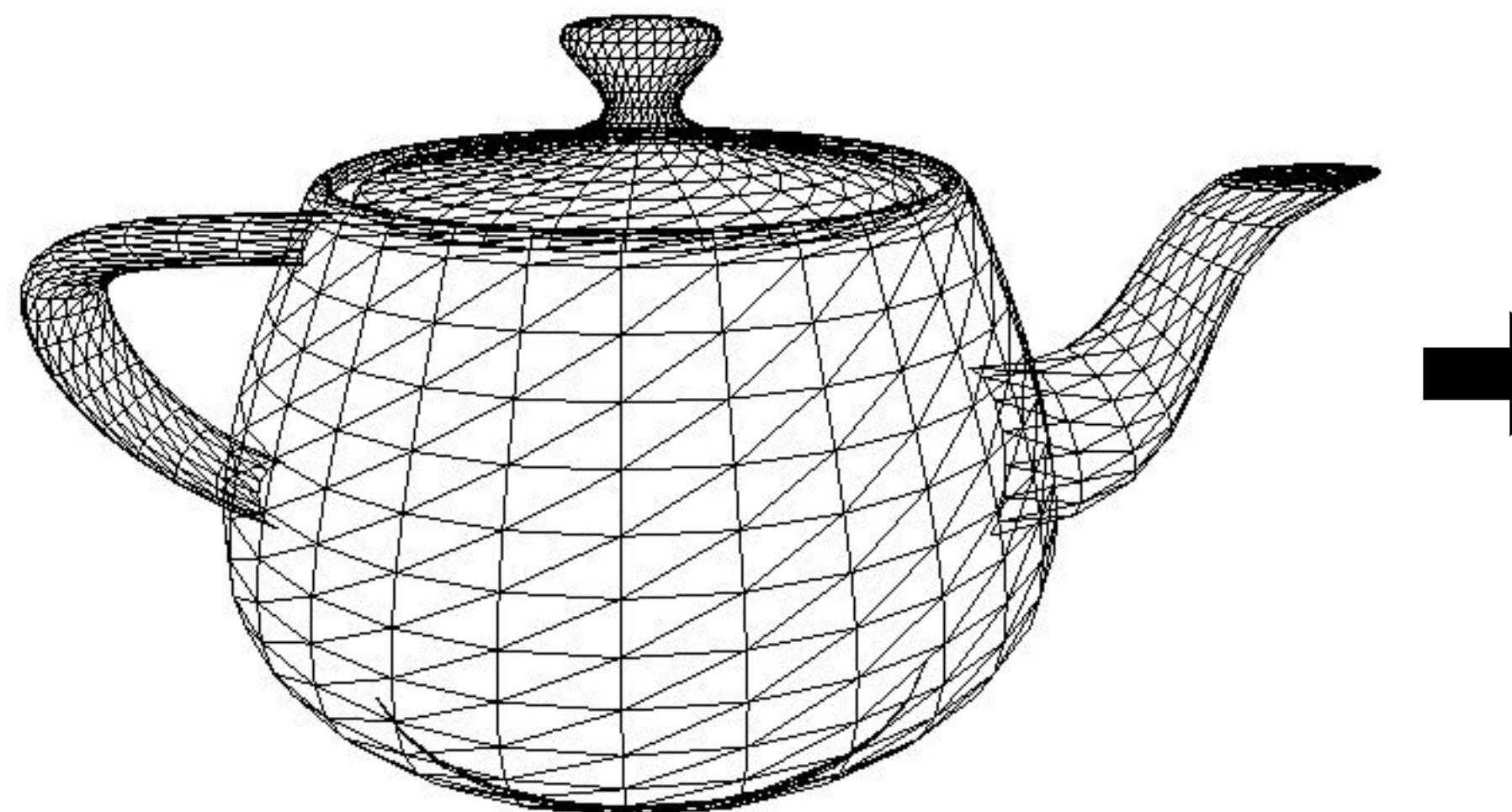


Image credit: Henrik Wann Jensen

**Input: description of a scene:**

3D surface geometry (e.g., triangle mesh)  
surface materials, lights, camera, etc.

**Output: image of the scene**

**Simple definition of rendering task: computing how each triangle in 3D mesh contributes to appearance of each pixel in the image?**

# What GPUs were originally designed to do



# Render high complexity 3D scenes, in real-time

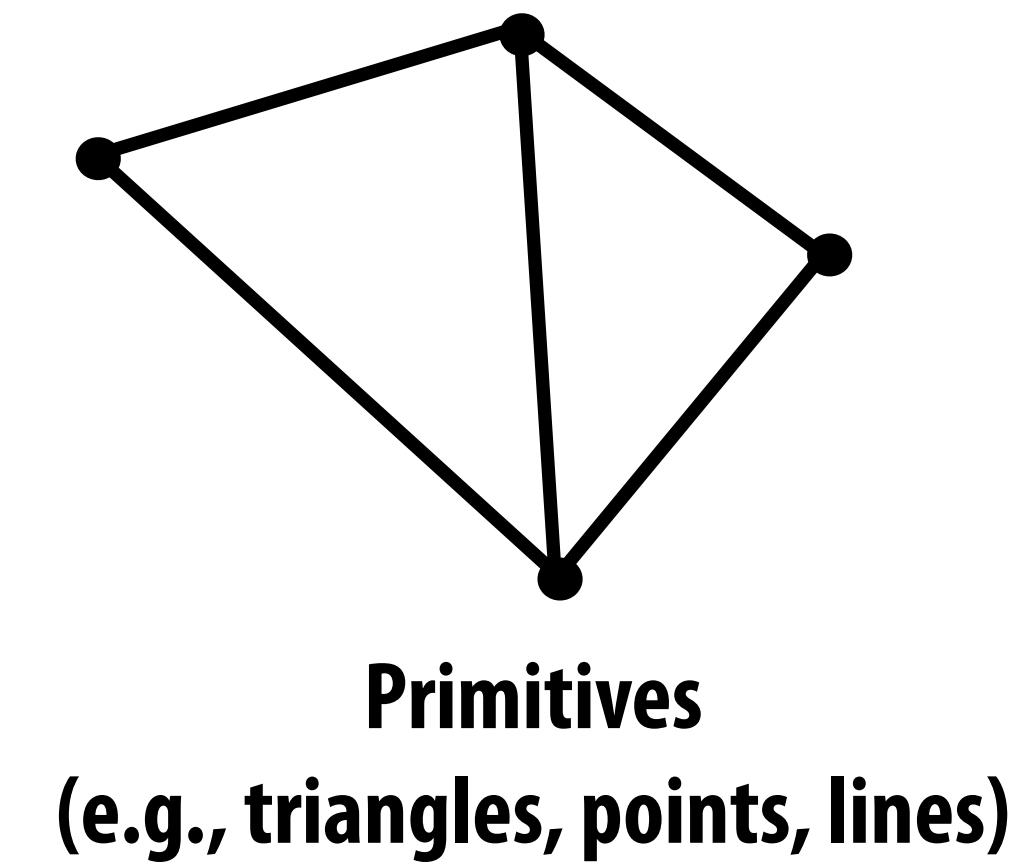
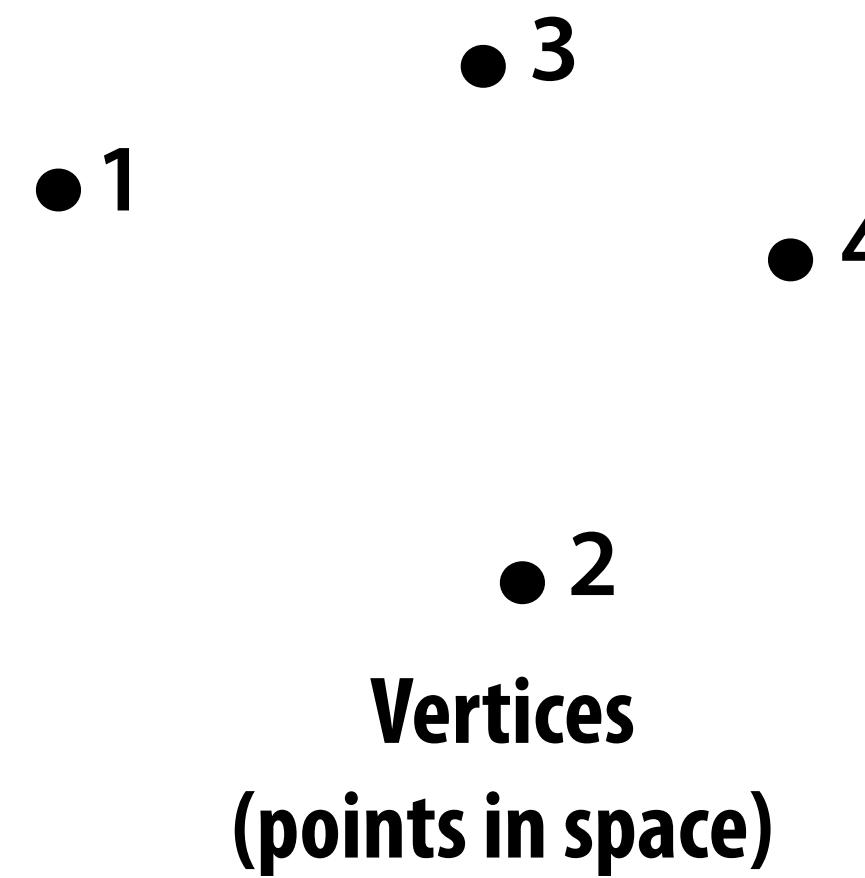
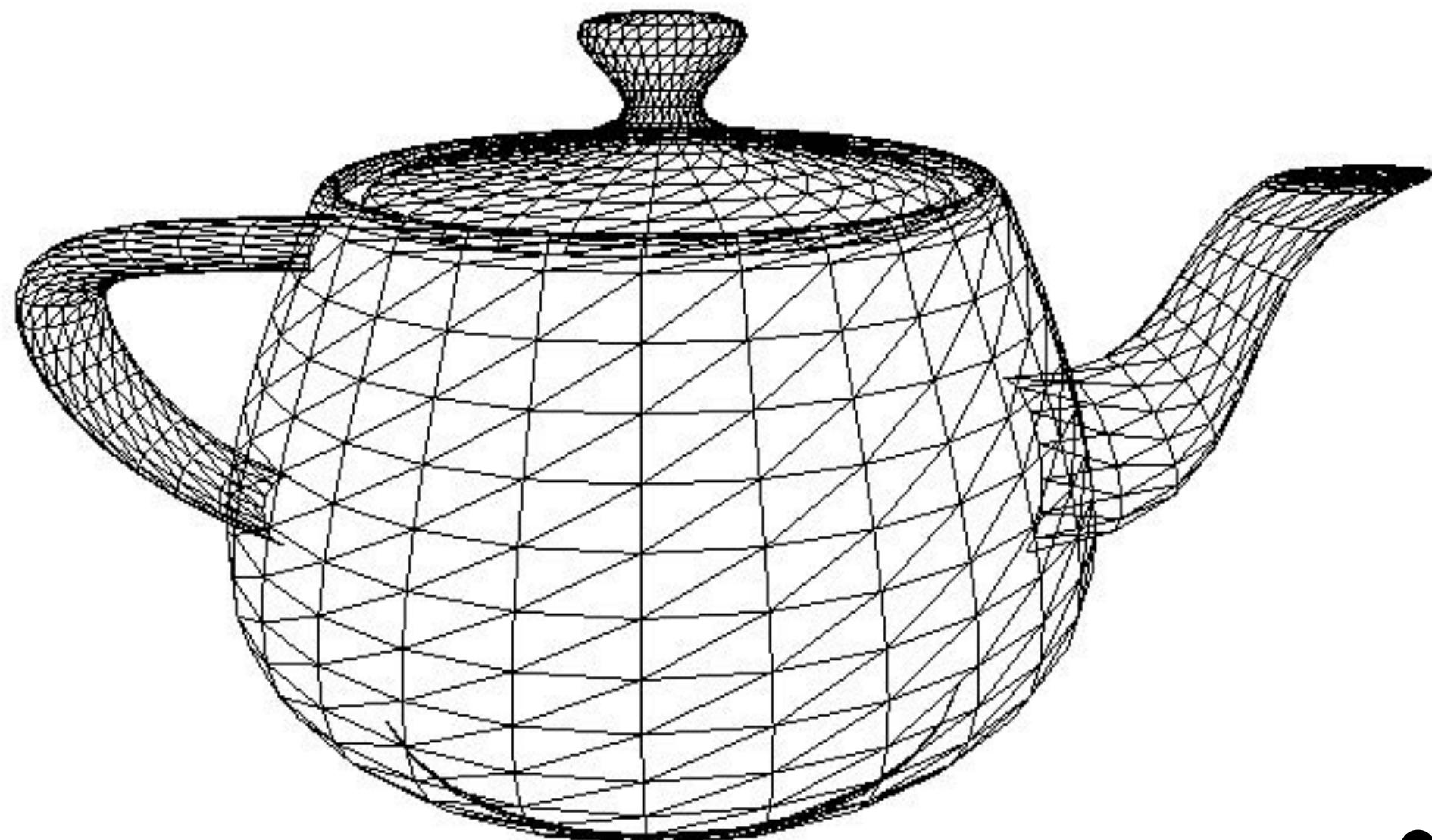


Epic Nanite Demo

# The 3D graphics workload

# Real-time graphics primitives (entities)

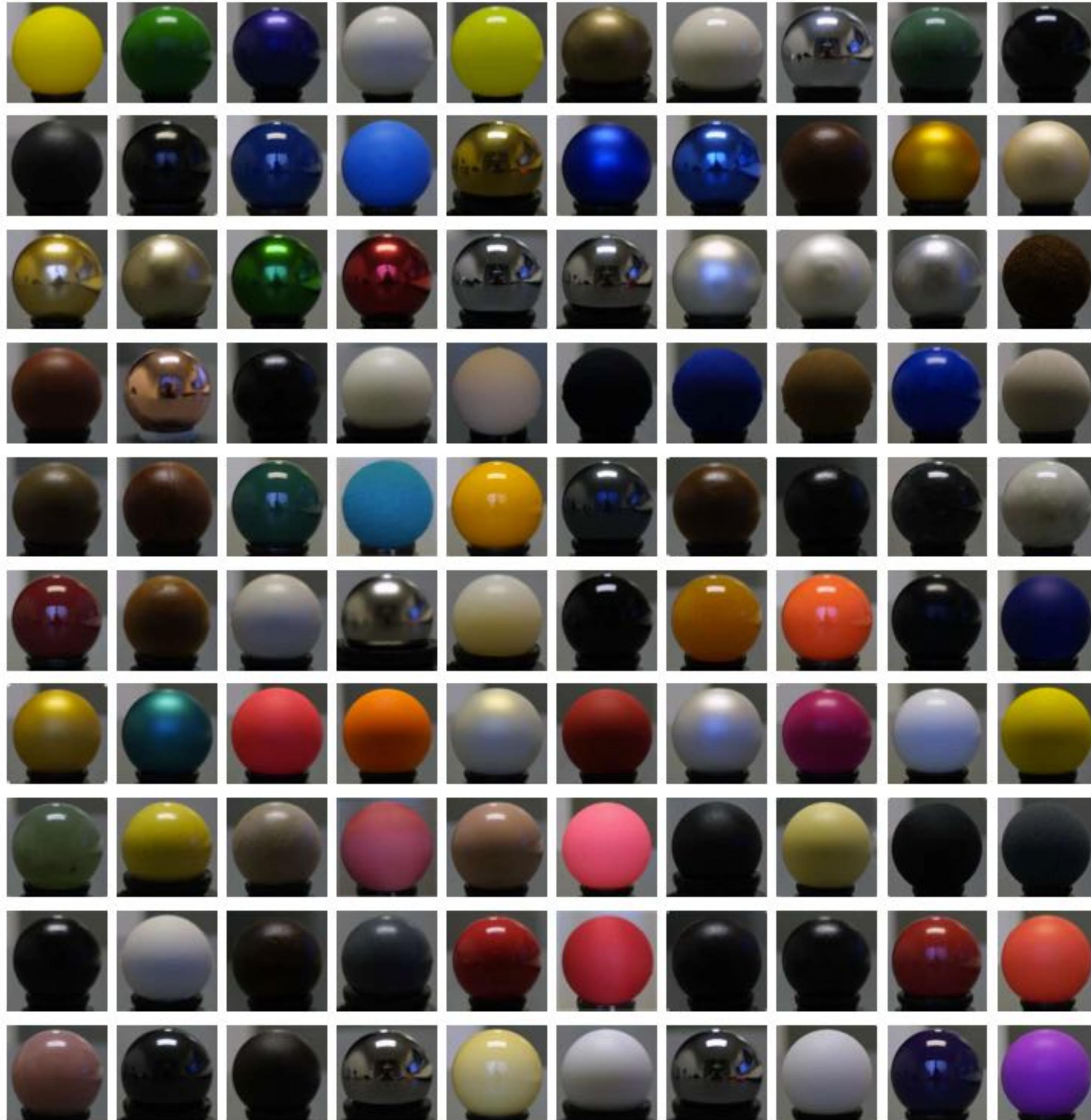
Represent surfaces as 3D triangle meshes



# Workload in one slide

- Given a triangle, determine where it lies on screen given the position of a virtual camera
- For all output image pixels covered by the triangle, compute the color of the surface at that pixel.

# What does the surface look like at a point?



# Great diversity of materials and lights in the world!



# Example “shader program” \*

Run once per fragment (per pixel covered by a triangle)

OpenGL shading language (GLSL) shader program:  
defines behavior of fragment processing stage

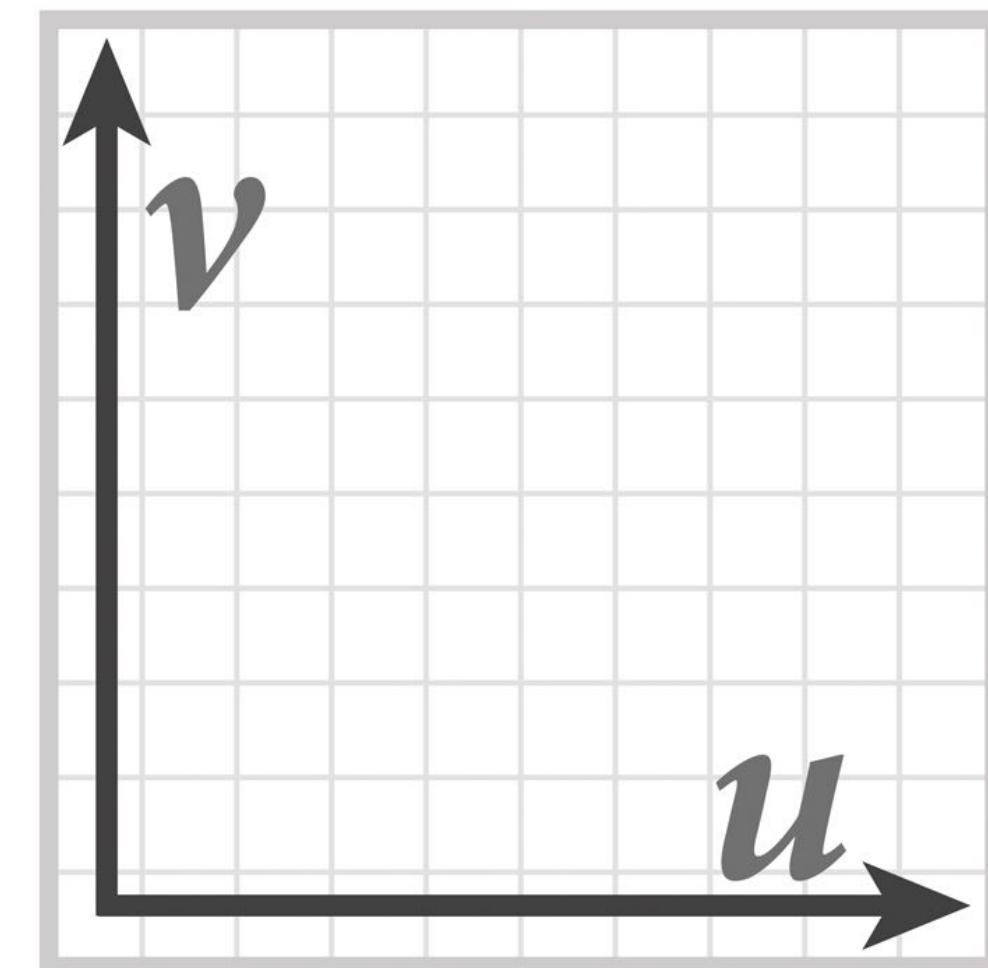
```
uniform sampler2D myTexture;           ] read-only global variables
uniform float3 lightDir;               ]
varying vec3 norm;                     ] Inputs whose value changes per pixel: think
varying vec2 uv;                      ] of these as shader function parameters

void myShader()
{
    vec3 kd = texture2D(myTexture, uv);
    kd *= clamp(dot(lightDir, norm), 0.0, 1.0);
    return vec4(kd, 1.0);
}
```

“Shader” function  
(a.k.a function invoked to compute the color of the pixel)

per-pixel output: RGBA surface color at pixel

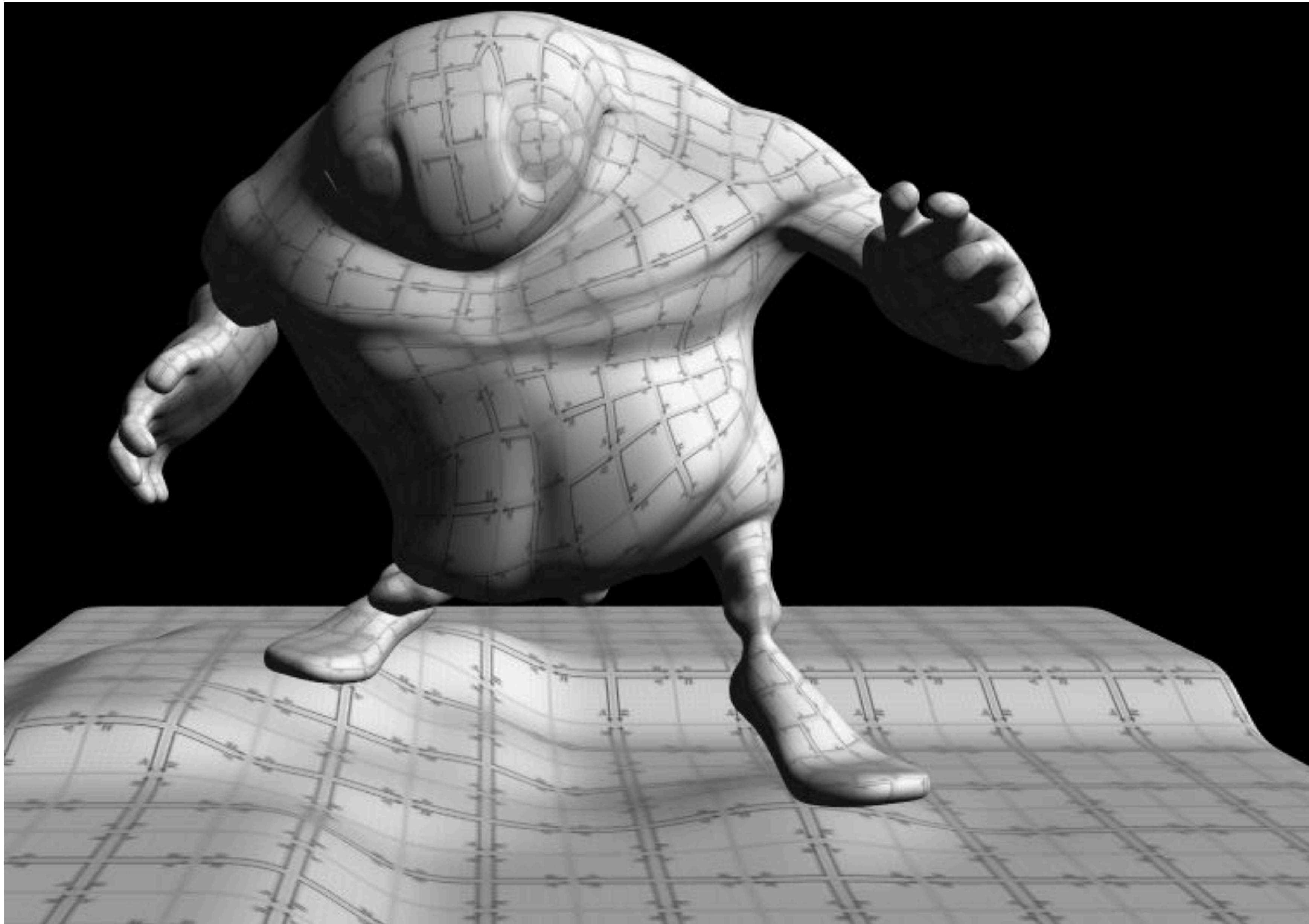
myTexture is a texture map



\* Syntax/details of this code not important to CS149

What is important is that a shader is a pure function invoked on a stream of inputs.

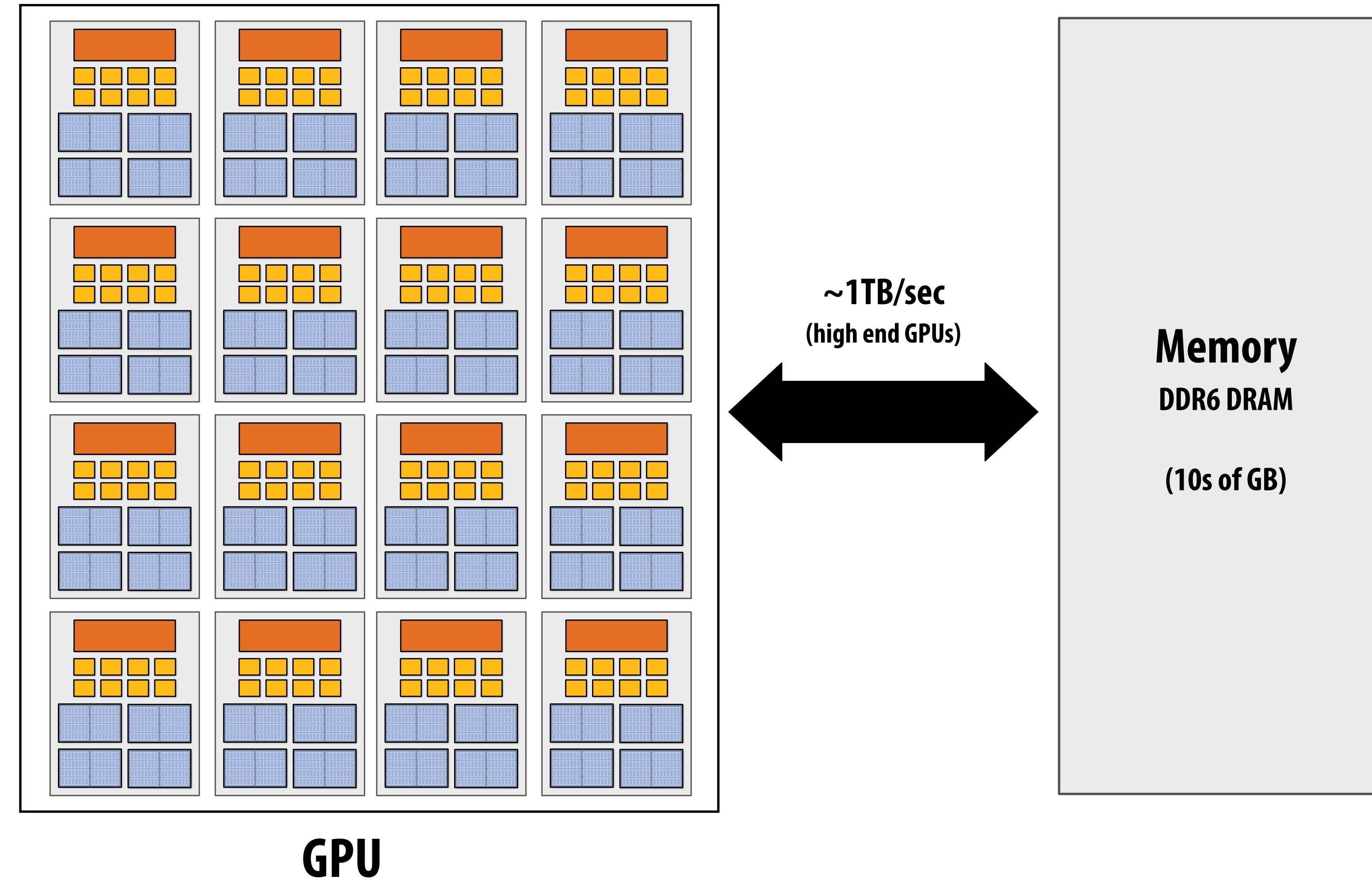
# Shaded result



**Image contains output of  
myShader() for each pixel  
covered by surface  
(pixels covered by multiple  
surfaces contain output from  
surface closest to camera)**

# Why do GPU's have many high-throughput cores?

Many SIMD, multi-threaded cores provide efficient execution of shader programs

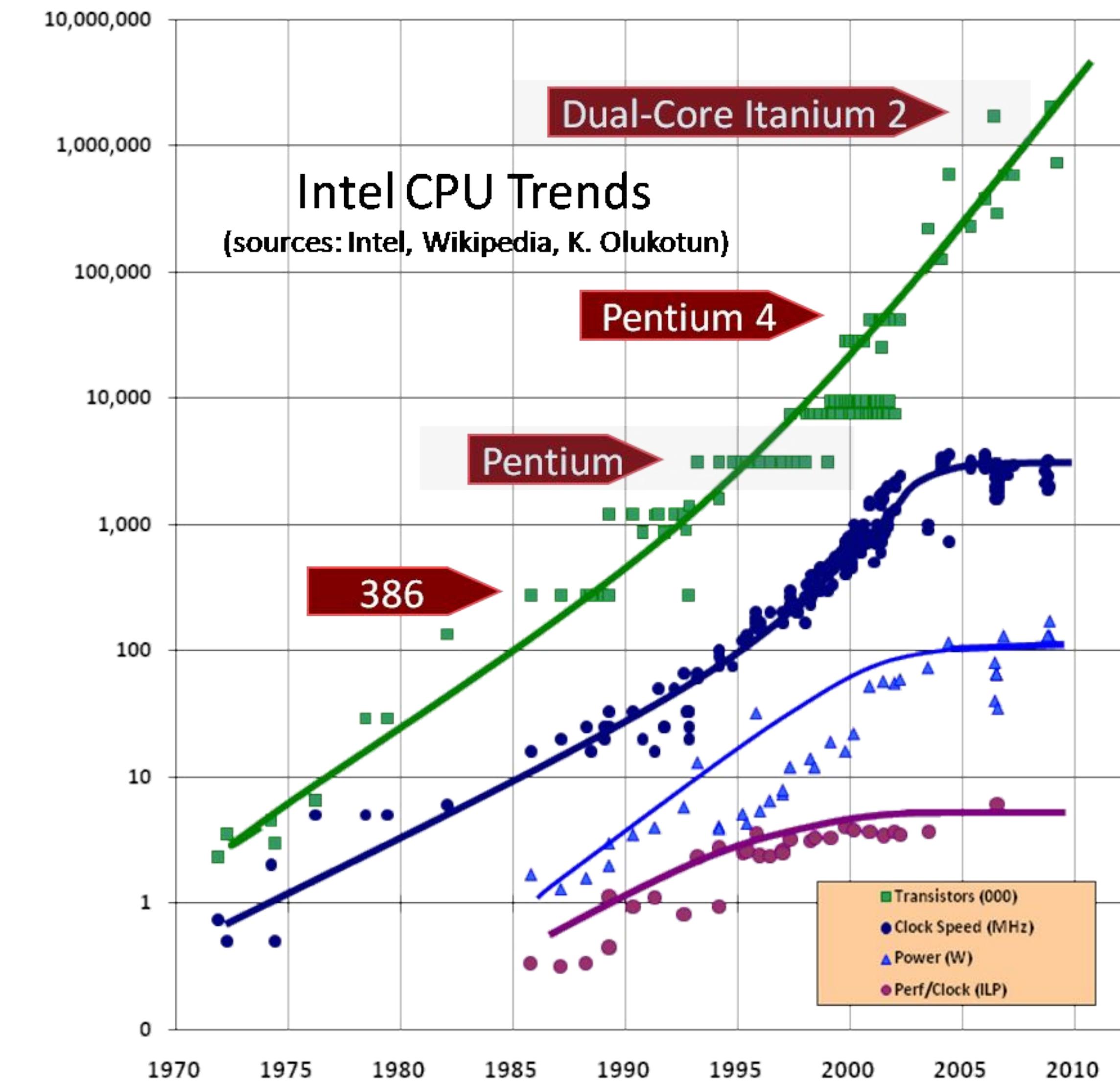


# Observation circa 2001-2003

GPUs are very fast processors for performing the same computation (shader programs) in parallel on large collections of data (streams of vertices, fragments, and pixels)

Wait a minute! That sounds a lot like data-parallelism to me! I remember data-parallelism from exotic supercomputers in the 90s.

And every year GPUs are getting faster because more transistors = more parallelism.



# Hack! early GPU-based scientific computation

**Say you want to run a function on all elements of a 512x512 array**

**Set output image size to be array size (512 x 512)**

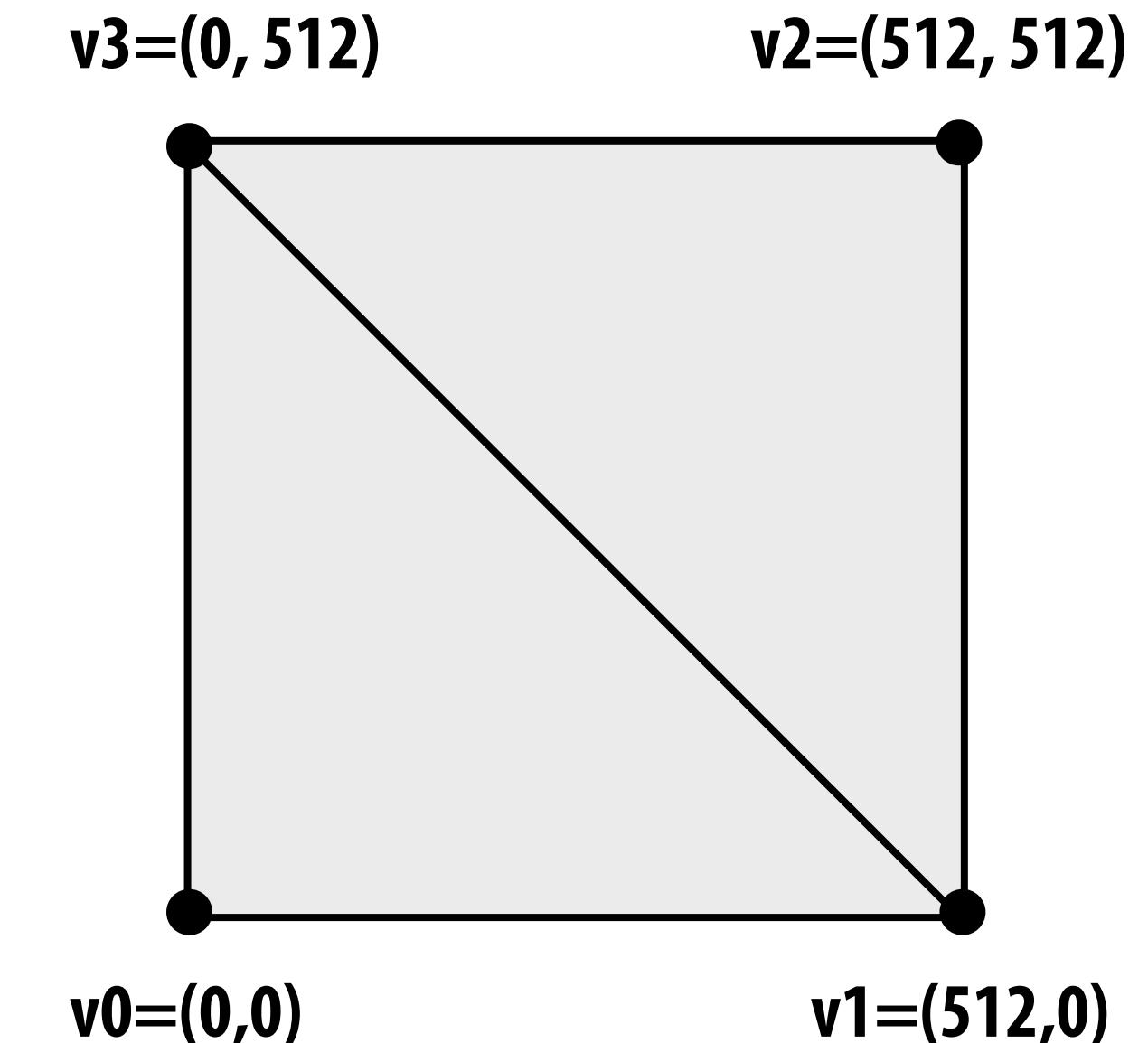
**Render two triangles that exactly cover screen**

**(one shader computation per pixel = one shader computation output image element)**

**We now can use the GPU like a data-parallel  
programming system.**

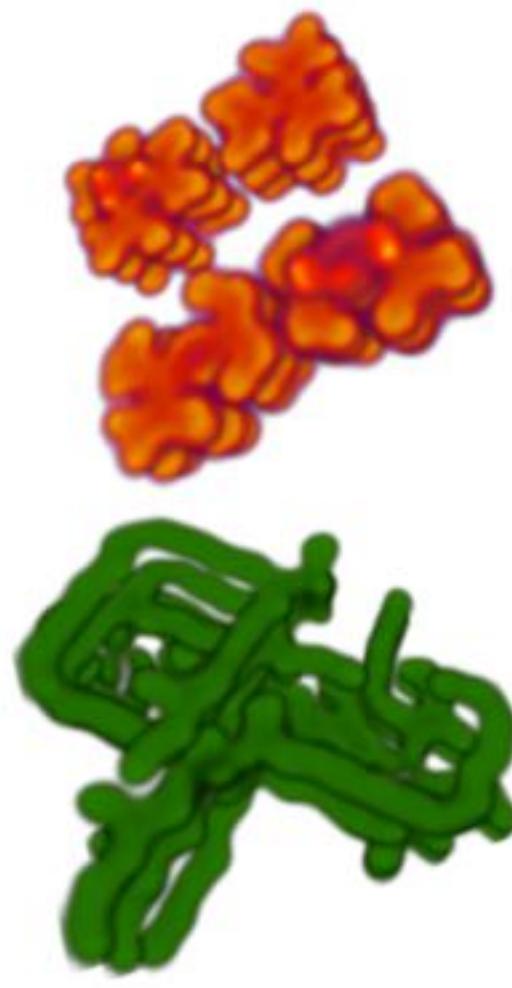
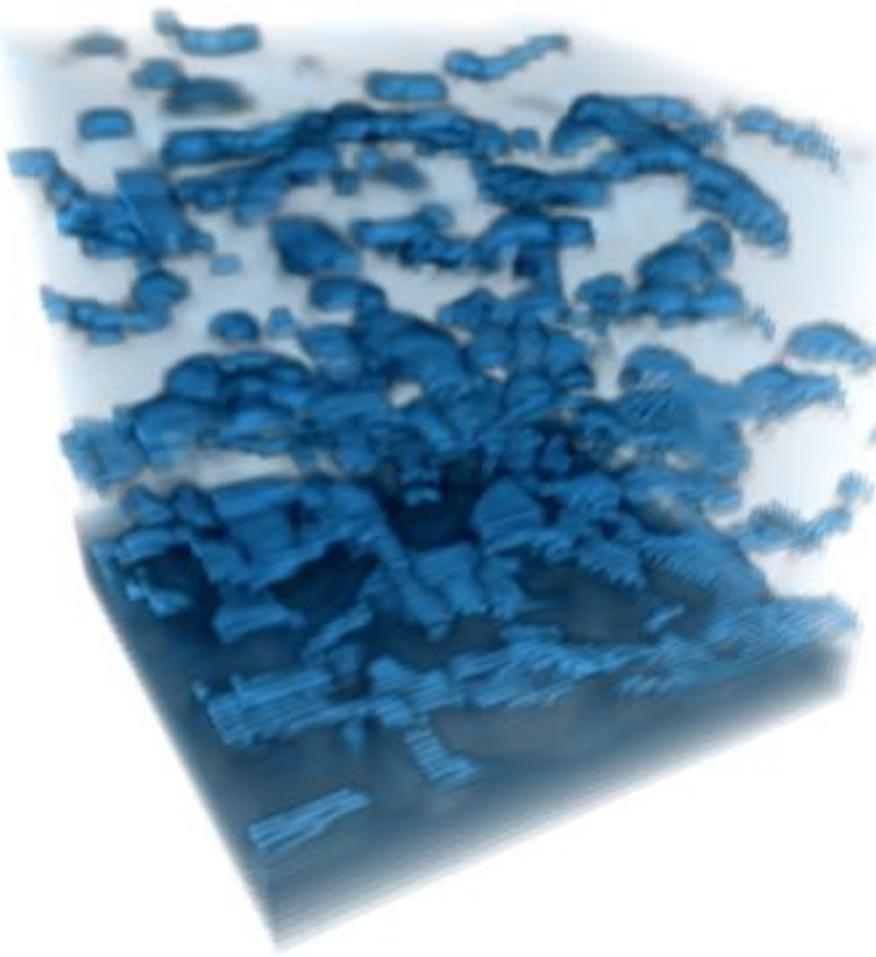
**Fragment shader function is mapped over 512 x 512  
element collection.**

**Hack!**

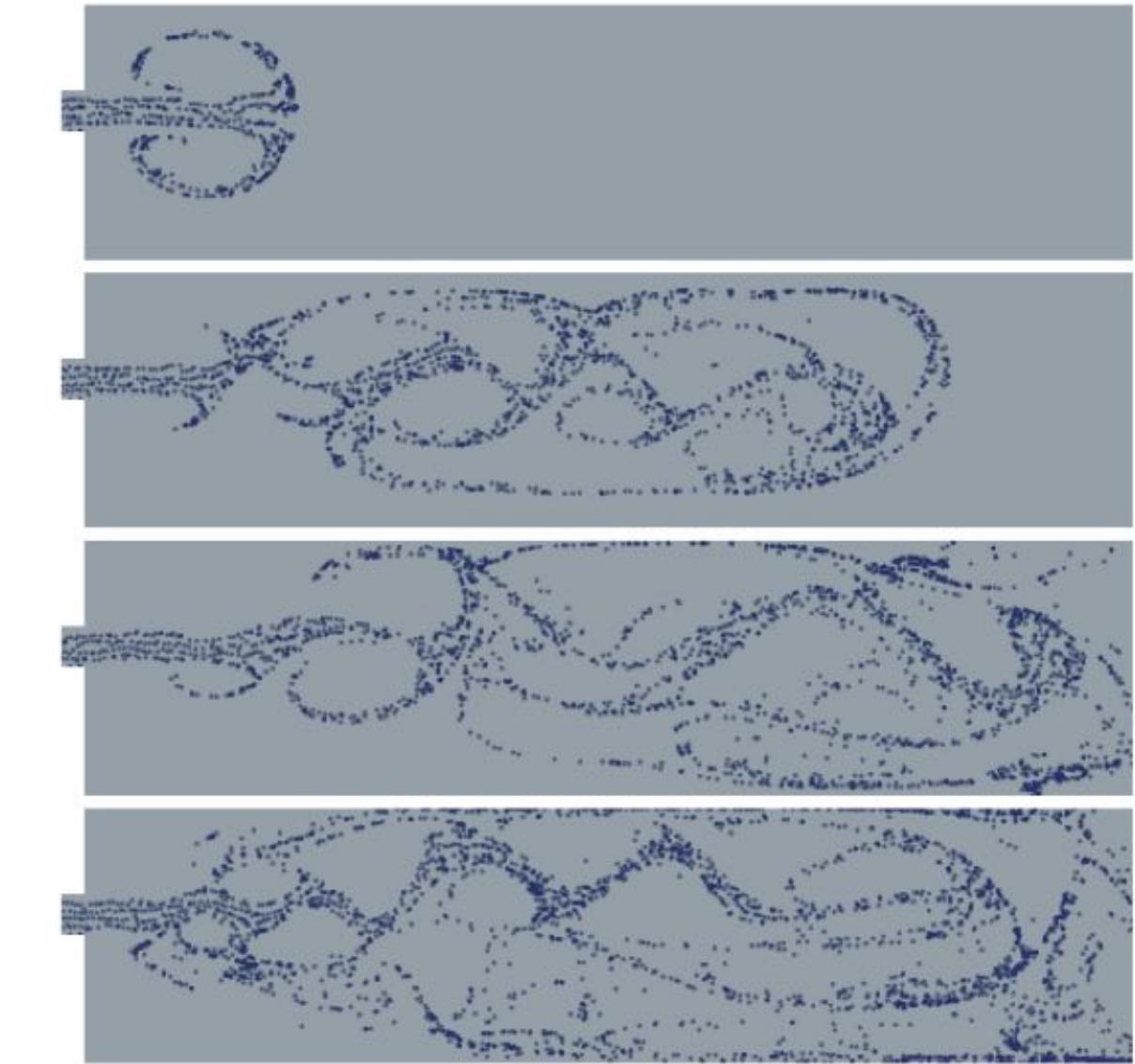


# “GPGPU” 2002-2003

GPGPU = “general purpose” computation on GPUs



Coupled Map Lattice Simulation [Harris 02]



Sparse Matrix Solvers [Bolz 03]



Ray Tracing on Programmable Graphics Hardware [Purcell 02]

# Brook stream programming language (2004)

[Buck 2004]

- Stanford graphics lab research project
- Abstract GPU hardware as data-parallel processor

```
kernel void scale(float amount, float a<>, out float b<>)
{
    b = amount * a;
}

float scale_amount;
float input_stream<1000>;    // stream declaration
float output_stream<1000>;   // stream declaration

// omitting stream element initialization...

// map kernel function onto streams
scale(scale_amount, input_stream, output_stream);
```

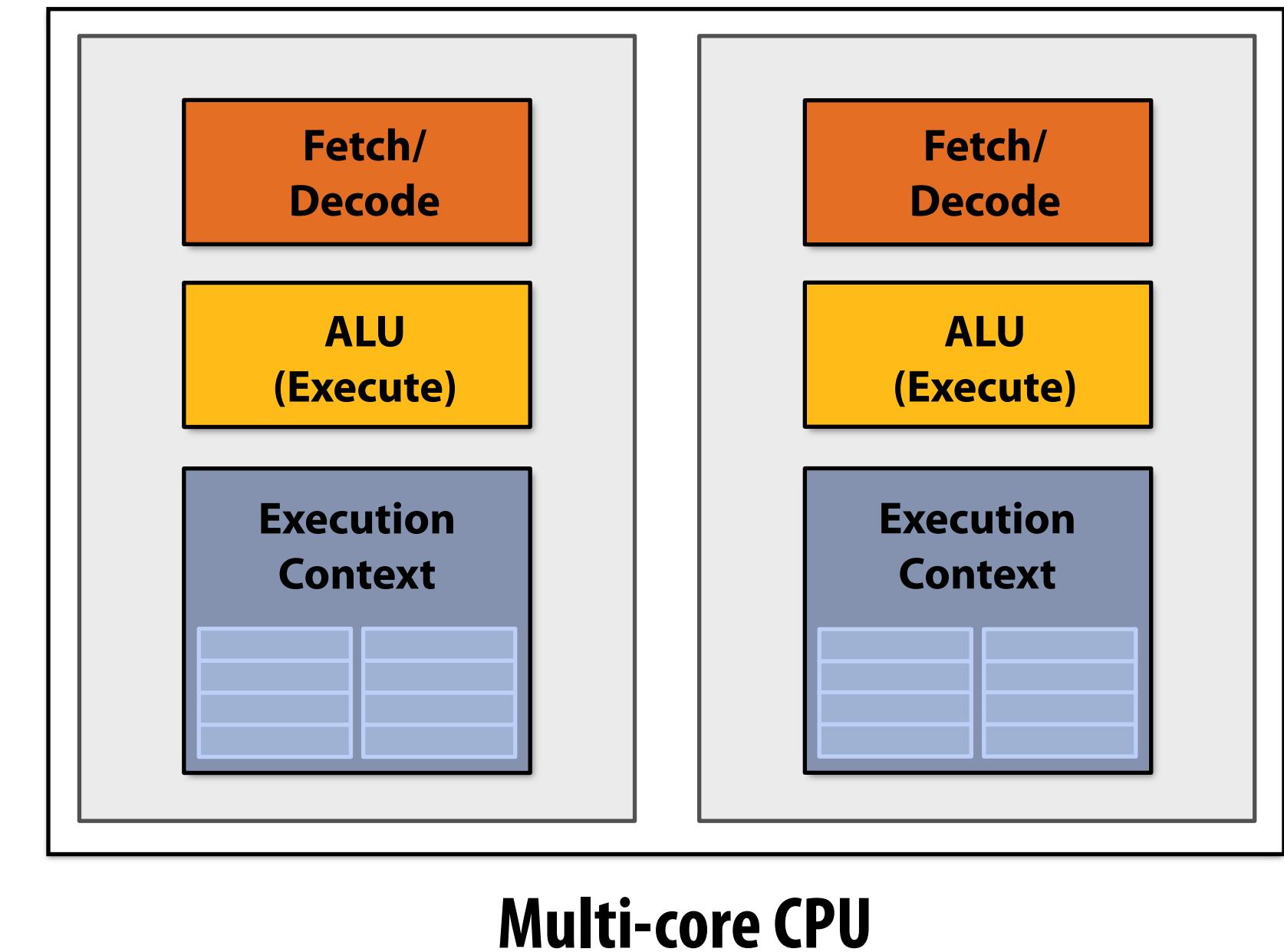
- Brook compiler translated generic stream program into graphics commands (such as `drawTriangles`) and a set of graphics shader programs that could be run on GPUs of the day.

# GPU compute mode

# Review: how to run code on a CPU

Lets say a user wants to run a program on a multi-core CPU...

- OS loads program text into memory
- OS selects CPU execution context
- OS interrupts processor, prepares execution context (sets contents of registers, program counter, etc. to prepare execution context)
- Go!
- Processor begins executing instructions from within the environment maintained in the execution context.



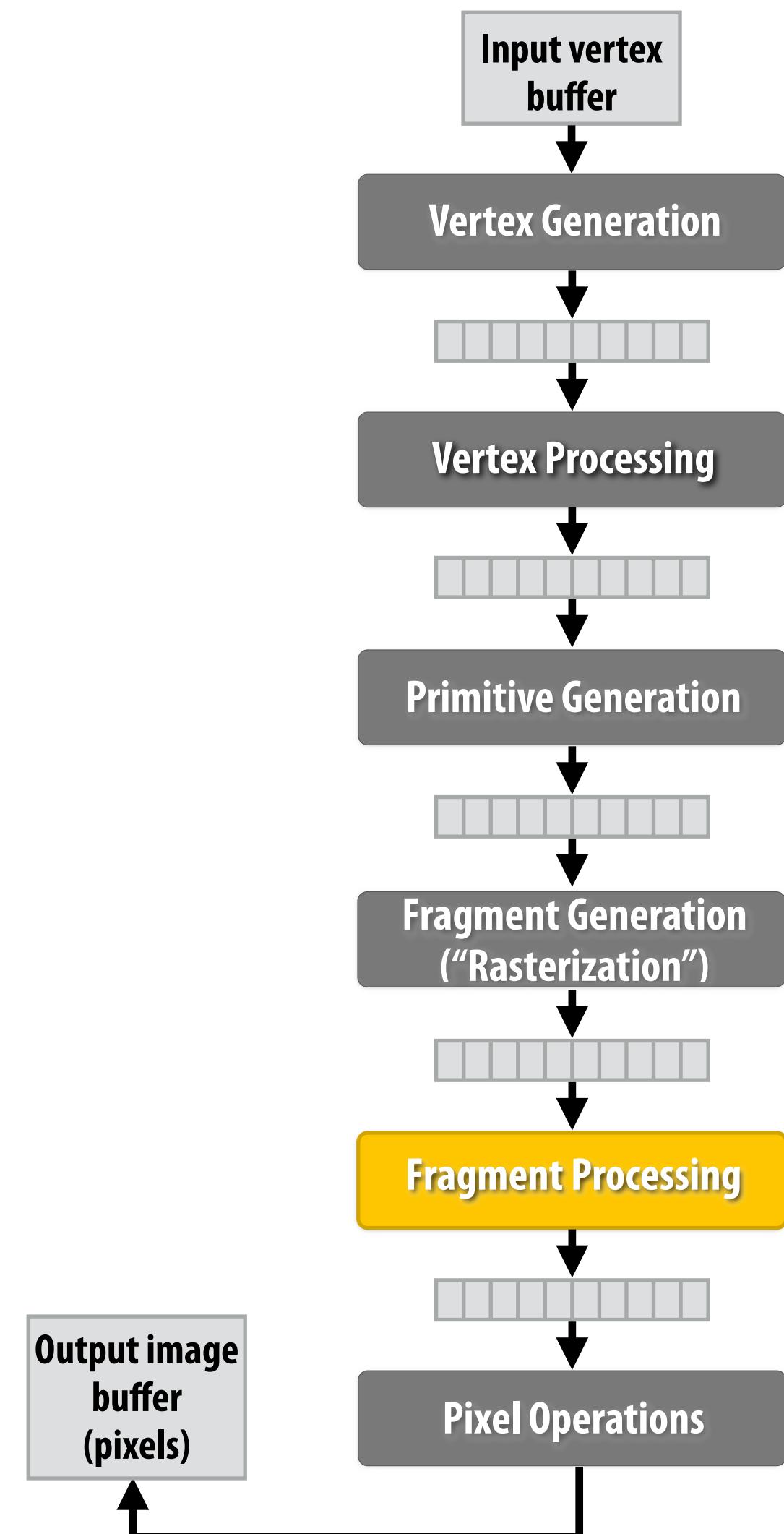
# How to run code on a GPU (prior to 2007)

Let's say a user wants to draw a picture using a GPU...

- Application (via graphics driver) provides GPU shader program binaries
- Application sets graphics pipeline parameters (e.g., output image size)
- Application provides GPU a buffer of vertices
- Application sends GPU a “draw” command:  
`drawPrimitives(vertex_buffer)`

This was the only interface to GPU hardware.

GPU hardware could only execute graphics pipeline computations.

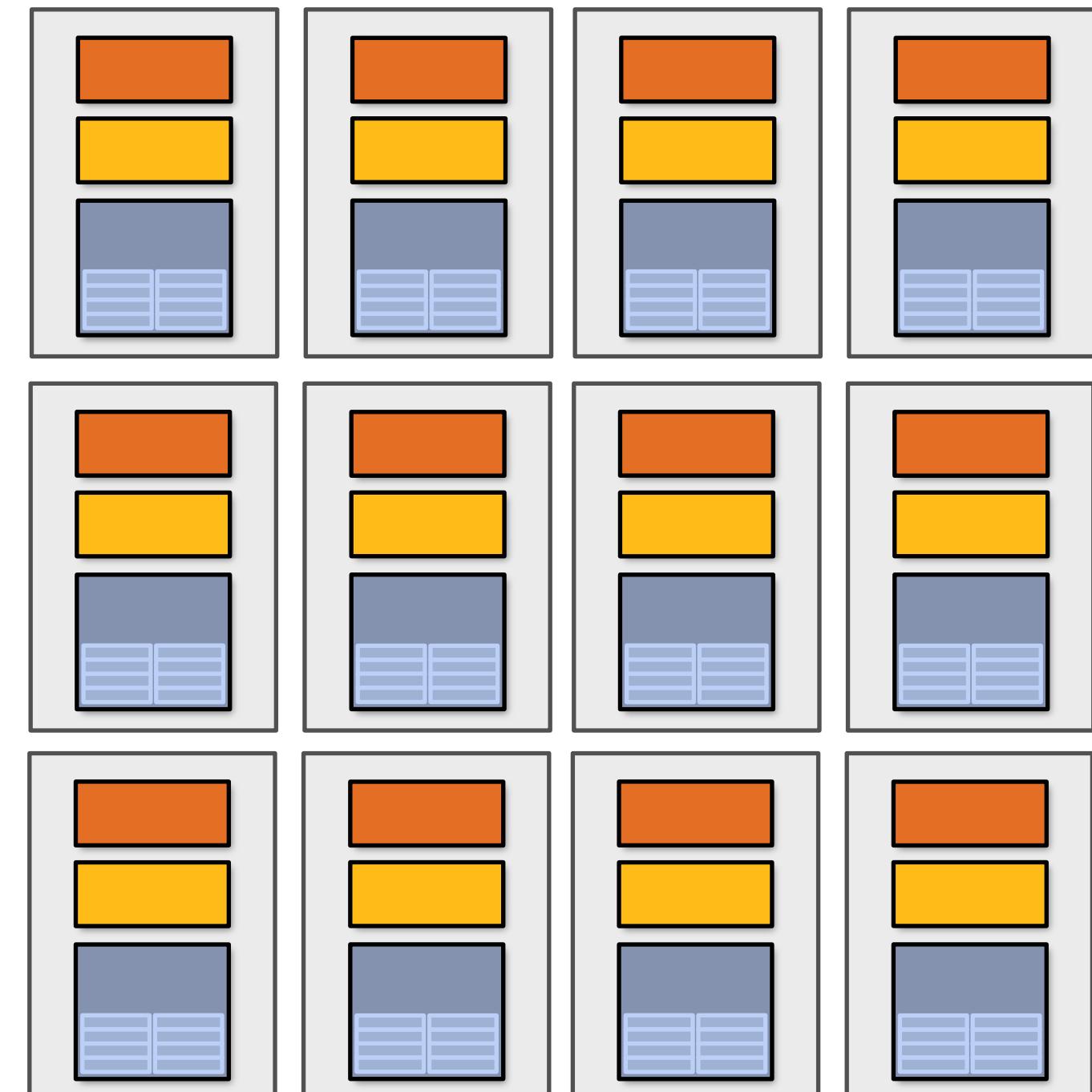


# NVIDIA Tesla architecture (2007)

First alternative, non-graphics-specific (“compute mode”) interface to GPU hardware

Let's say a user wants to run a non-graphics program on the GPU's programmable cores...

- Application can allocate buffers in GPU memory and copy data to/from buffers
- Application (via graphics driver) provides GPU a single kernel program binary
- Application tells GPU to run the kernel in an SPMD fashion (“run N instances of this kernel”)  
`launch(myKernel, N)`



Interestingly, this is a far simpler operation than the graphics operation `drawPrimitives()`

# CUDA programming language

- Introduced in 2007 with NVIDIA Tesla architecture
- “C-like” language to express programs that run on GPUs using the compute-mode hardware interface
- Relatively low-level: CUDA’s abstractions closely match the capabilities/performance characteristics of modern GPUs  
(design goal: maintain low abstraction distance)

# The plan

- 1. CUDA programming abstractions**
- 2. CUDA implementation on modern GPUs**
- 3. More detail on GPU architecture**

## Things to consider throughout this lecture:

- Is CUDA a data-parallel programming model?**
- Is CUDA an example of the shared address space model?**
- Or the message passing model?**
- Can you draw analogies to ISPC instances and tasks? What about pthreads?**

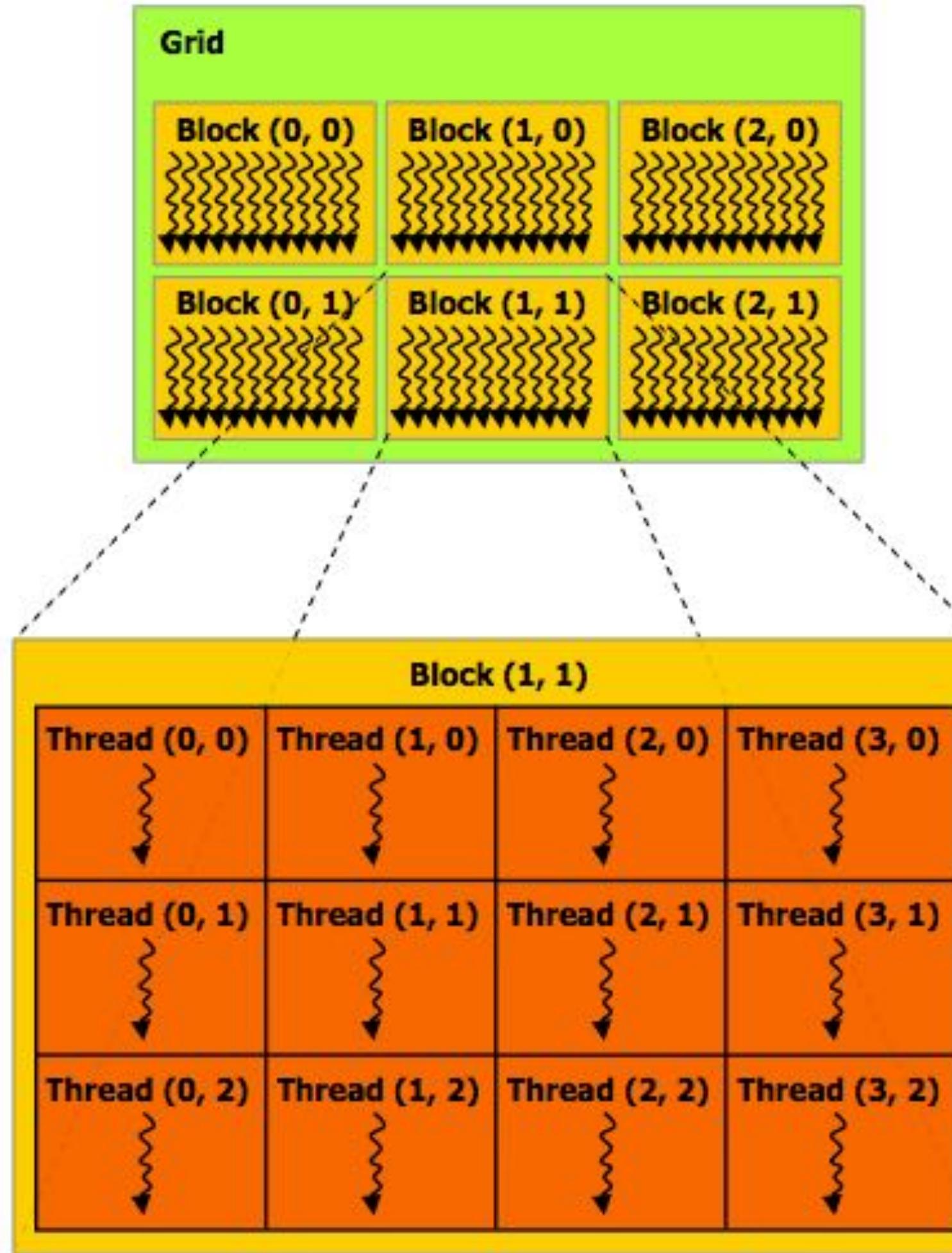
# Clarification (here we go again...)

- I am going to describe CUDA abstractions using CUDA terminology
- Specifically, be careful with the use of the term “CUDA thread”. A CUDA thread presents a similar abstraction as a pthread in that both correspond to logical threads of control, but the implementation of a CUDA thread is very different
- We will discuss these differences at the end of the lecture

# CUDA programs consist of a hierarchy of concurrent threads

Thread IDs can be up to 3-dimensional (2D example below)

Multi-dimensional thread ids are convenient for problems that are naturally N-D



Regular application thread running on CPU (the "host")

```
const int Nx = 12;
const int Ny = 6;

dim3 threadsPerBlock(4, 3);
dim3 numBlocks(Nx/threadsPerBlock.x, Ny/threadsPerBlock.y);

// assume A, B, C are allocated Nx x Ny float arrays

// this call will launch 72 CUDA threads:
// 6 thread blocks of 12 threads each
matrixAdd<<<numBlocks, threadsPerBlock>>>(A, B, C);
```

# Basic CUDA syntax

“Host” code : serial execution

Running as part of normal C/C++ application on CPU

Bulk launch of many CUDA threads

“launch a grid of CUDA thread blocks”

Call returns when all threads have terminated

Regular application thread running on CPU (the “host”)

```
const int Nx = 12;
const int Ny = 6;

dim3 threadsPerBlock(4, 3);
dim3 numBlocks(Nx/threadsPerBlock.x, Ny/
threadsPerBlock.y);

// assume A, B, C are allocated Nx x Ny float arrays

// this call will launch 72 CUDA threads:
// 6 thread blocks of 12 threads each
matrixAdd<<<numBlocks, threadsPerBlock>>>(A, B, C);
```

## SPMD execution of device kernel function:

“CUDA device” code: kernel function (\_\_global\_\_ denotes a CUDA kernel function) runs on GPU

Each thread computes its overall grid thread id from its position in its block (threadIdx) and its block’s position in the grid (blockIdx)

CUDA kernel definition

```
// kernel definition (runs on GPU)
__global__ void matrixAdd(float A[Ny][Nx],
                         float B[Ny][Nx],
                         float C[Ny][Nx])
{
    int i = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
    int j = blockIdx.y * blockDim.y + threadIdx.y;

    C[j][i] = A[j][i] + B[j][i];
}
```

# Clear separation of host and device code

Separation of execution into host and device code is performed statically by the programmer

“Host” code : serial execution on CPU

```
const int Nx = 12;
const int Ny = 6;

dim3 threadsPerBlock(4, 3);
dim3 numBlocks(Nx/threadsPerBlock.x, Ny/threadsPerBlock.y);

// assume A, B, C are allocated Nx x Ny float arrays

// this call will cause execution of 72 threads
// 6 blocks of 12 threads each
matrixAddDoubleB<<<numBlocks, threadsPerBlock>>>(A, B, C);
```

“Device” code (SPMD execution on GPU)

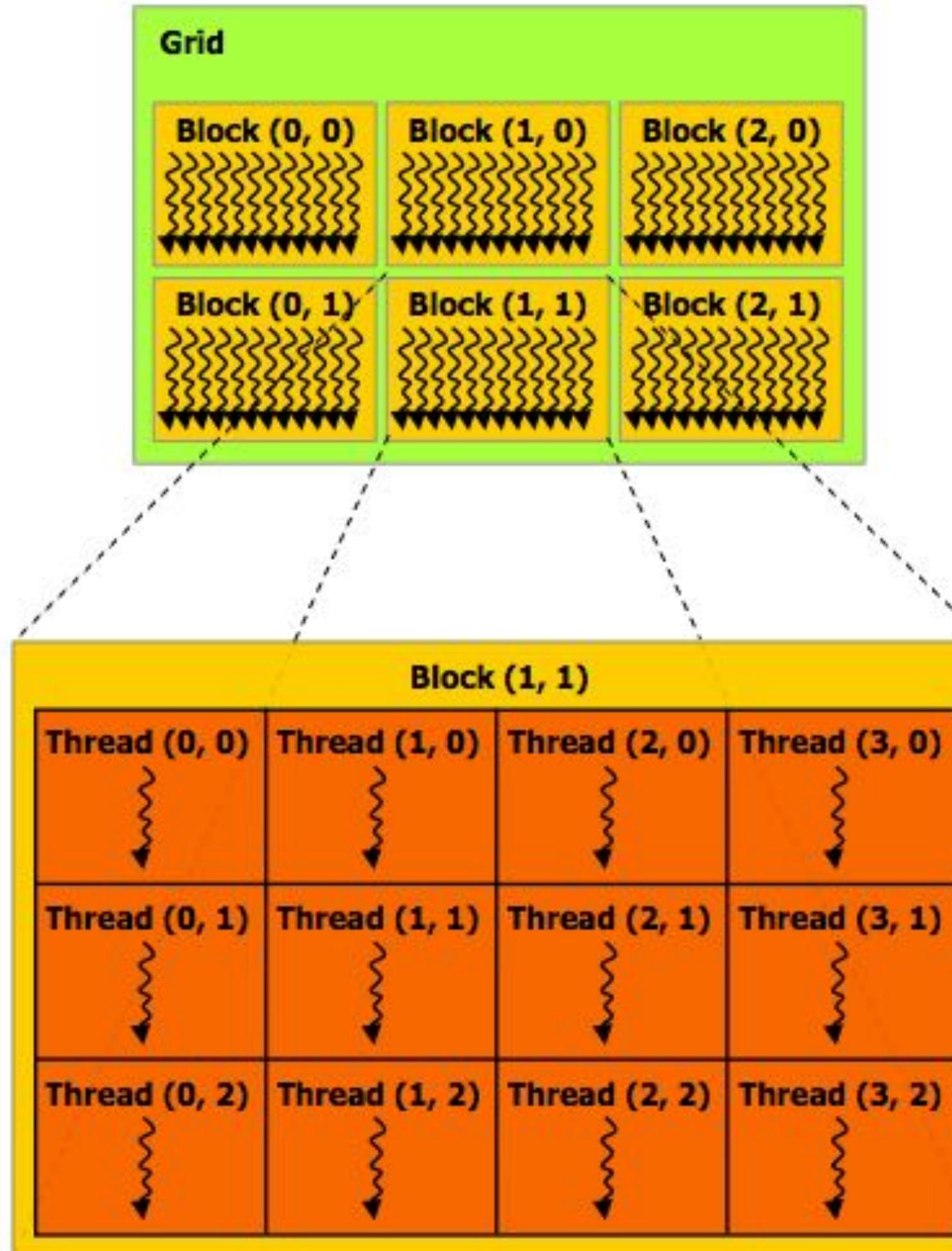
```
__device__ float doubleValue(float x)
{
    return 2 * x;
}

// kernel definition
__global__ void matrixAddDoubleB(float A[Ny][Nx],
                                    float B[Ny][Nx],
                                    float C[Ny][Nx])
{
    int i = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
    int j = blockIdx.y * blockDim.y + threadIdx.y;

    C[j][i] = A[j][i] + doubleValue(B[j][i]);
}
```

# Number of SPMD “CUDA threads” is explicit in the program

Number of kernel invocations is not determined by size of data collection  
(a kernel launch is not specified by `map(kernel, collection)` as was the case with graphics shader programming)



Regular application thread running on CPU (the “host”)

```
const int Nx = 11; // not a multiple of threadsPerBlock.x
const int Ny = 5; // not a multiple of threadsPerBlock.y

dim3 threadsPerBlock(4, 3);
dim3 numBlocks((Nx+threadsPerBlock.x-1)/threadsPerBlock.x,
               (Ny+threadsPerBlock.y-1)/threadsPerBlock.y);

// assume A, B, C are allocated Nx x Ny float arrays

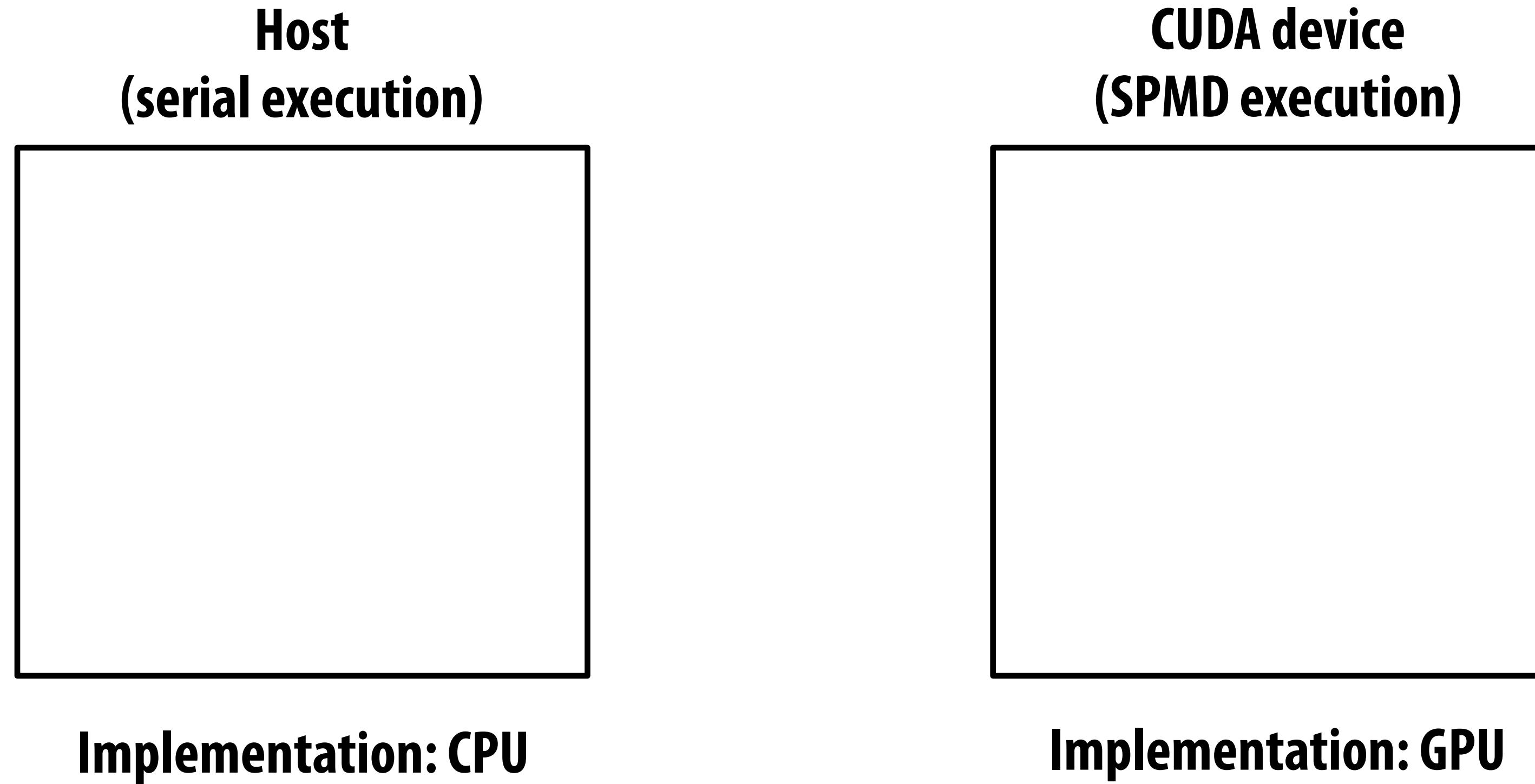
// this call will cause execution of 72 threads
// 6 blocks of 12 threads each
matrixAdd<<<numBlocks, threadsPerBlock>>>(A, B, C);
```

CUDA kernel definition

```
__global__ void matrixAdd(float A[Ny][Nx],
                          float B[Ny][Nx],
                          float C[Ny][Nx])
{
    int i = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
    int j = blockIdx.y * blockDim.y + threadIdx.y;

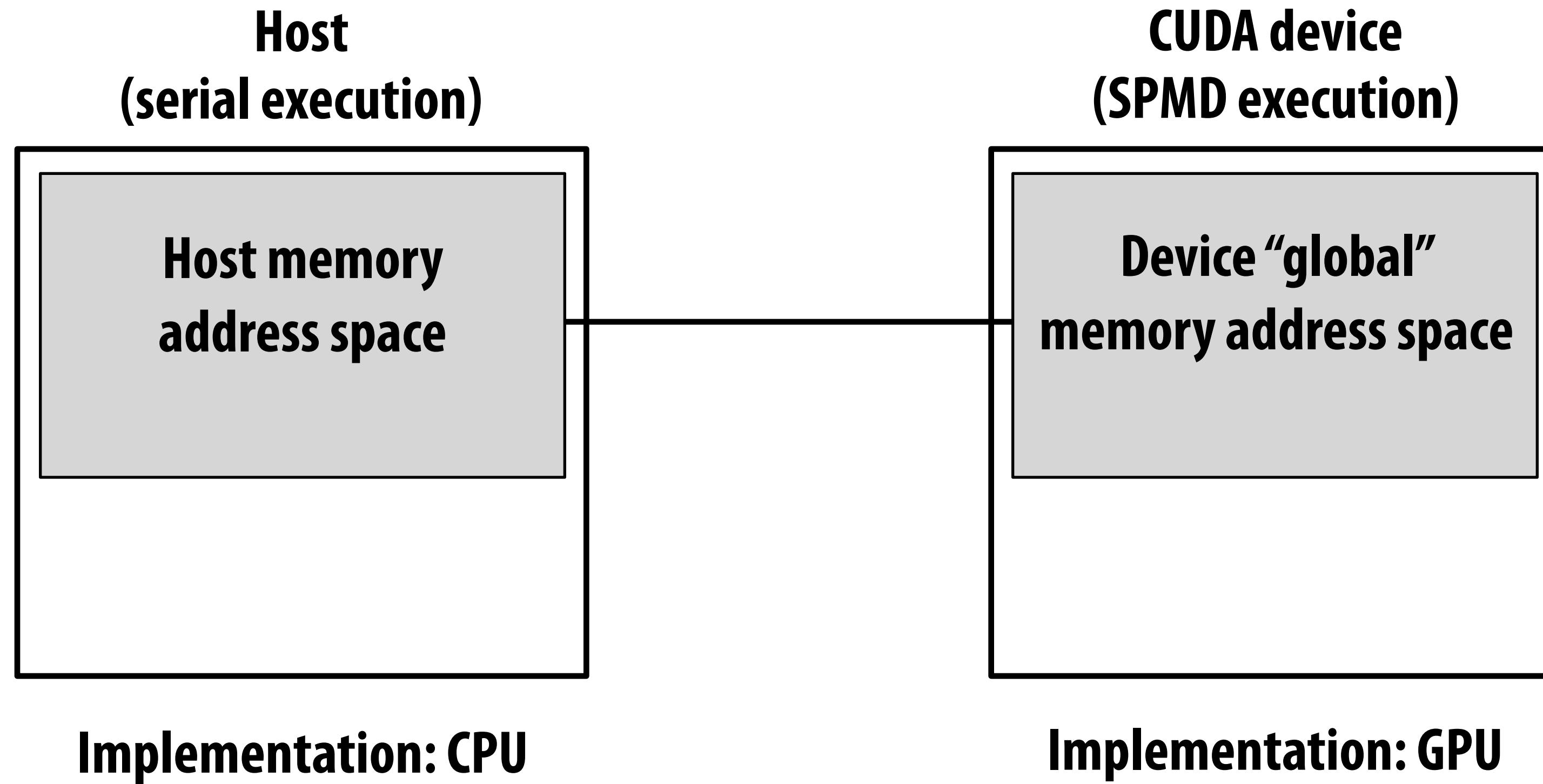
    // guard against out of bounds array access
    if (i < Nx && j < Ny)
        C[j][i] = A[j][i] + B[j][i];
}
```

# CUDA execution model



# CUDA memory model

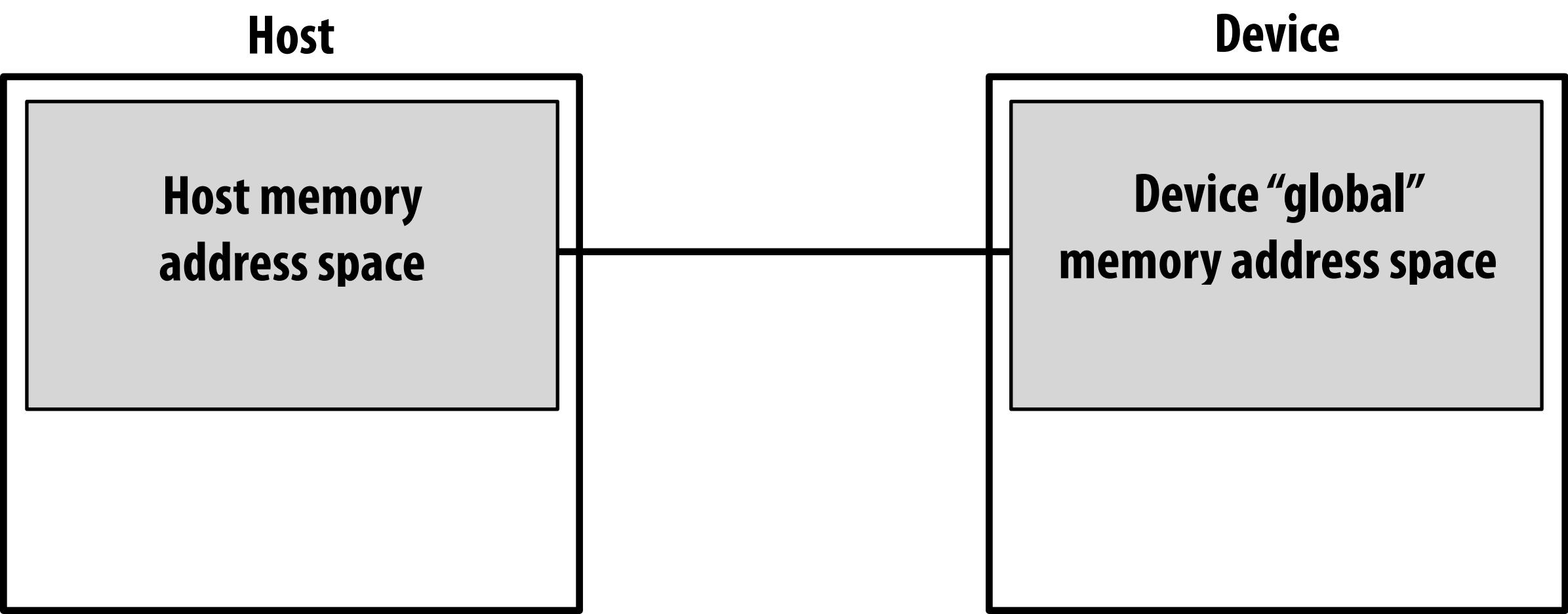
Distinct host and device address spaces



# memcpy primitive

## Move data between address spaces

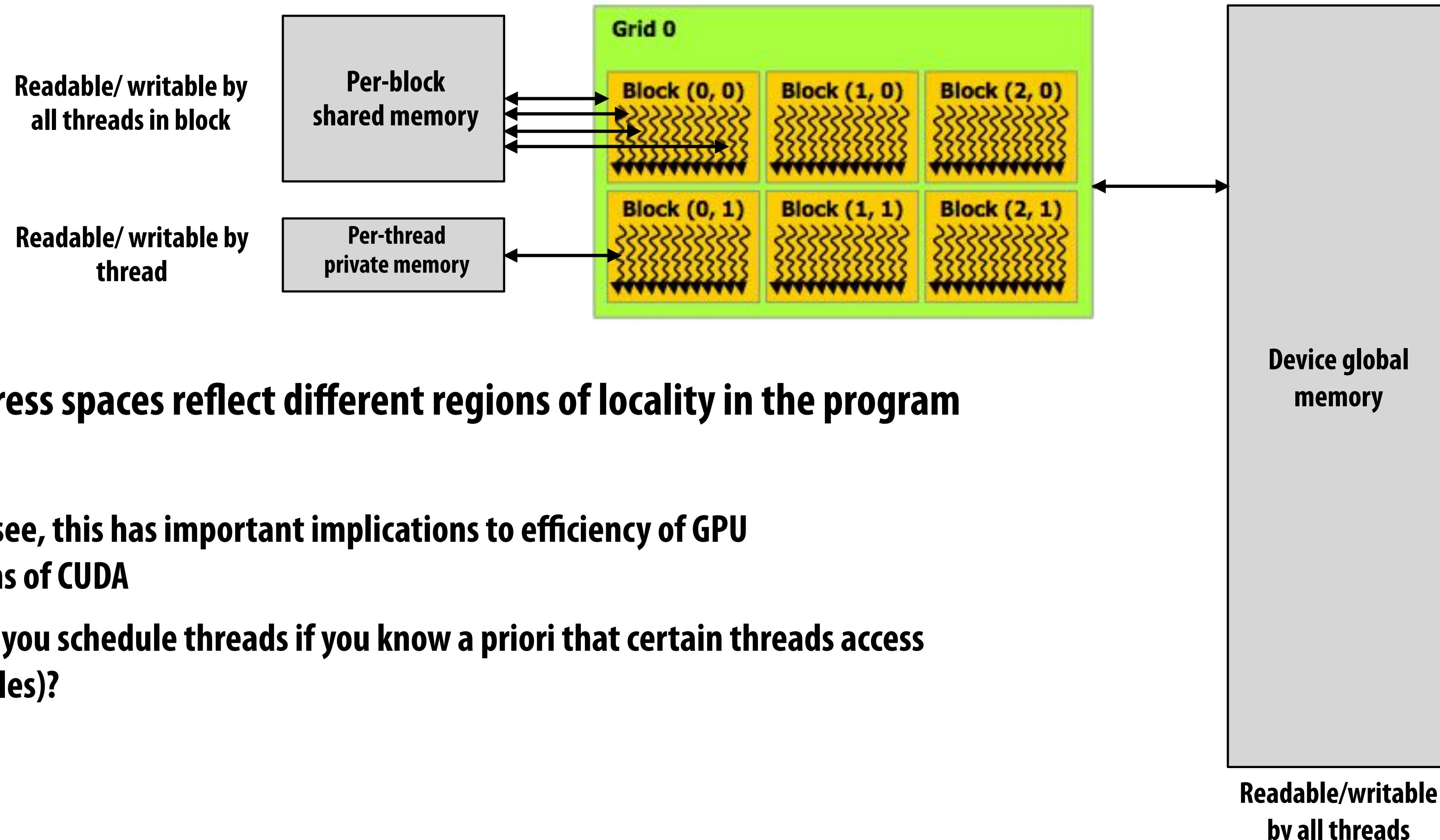
```
float* A = new float[N]; // allocate buffer in host mem  
  
// populate host address space pointer A  
for (int i=0 i<N; i++)  
    A[i] = (float)i;  
  
int bytes = sizeof(float) * N;  
float* deviceA; // allocate buffer in  
cudaMalloc(&deviceA, bytes); // device address space  
  
// populate deviceA  
cudaMemcpy(deviceA, A, bytes, cudaMemcpyHostToDevice);  
  
// note: directly accessing deviceA[i] is an invalid  
// operation here (cannot manipulate contents of deviceA  
// directly from host, since deviceA is not a pointer  
// into the host's address space)
```



**What does cudaMemcpy remind you of?**

# CUDA device memory model

Three distinct types of address spaces visible to kernels



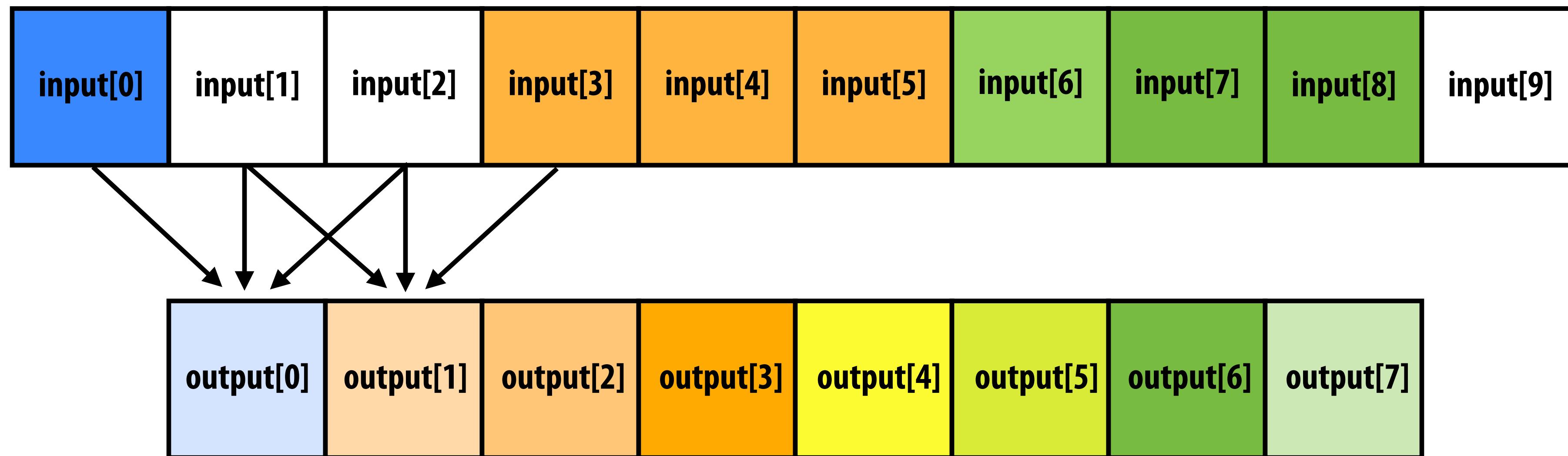
**Different address spaces reflect different regions of locality in the program**

As we will soon see, this has important implications to efficiency of GPU implementations of CUDA

e.g., how might you schedule threads if you know a priori that certain threads access the same variables?)

Readable/writable by all threads

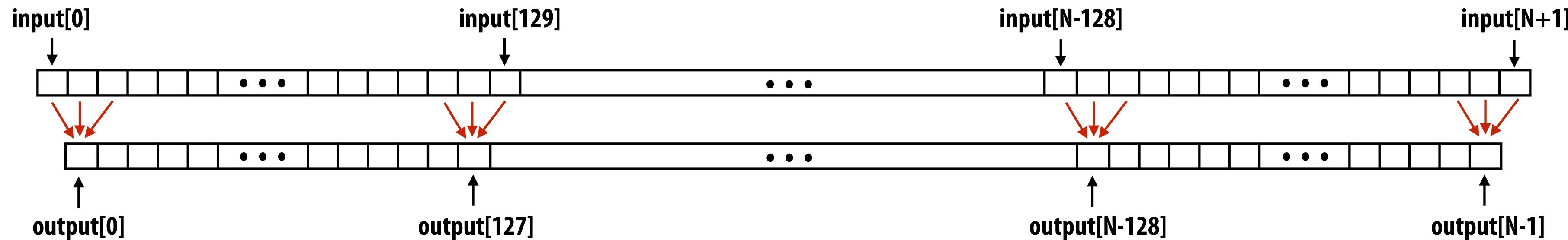
# CUDA example: 1D convolution



```
output[i] = (input[i] + input[i+1] + input[i+2]) / 3.f;
```

# 1D convolution in CUDA (version 1)

One thread per output element



## CUDA Kernel

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input, float* output) {

    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x; // thread local variable

    float result = 0.0f; // thread-local variable
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += input[index + i];

    output[index] = result / 3.f;
}
```

each thread computes result for one element

each thread writes result to global memory

## Host code

```
int N = 1024 * 1024;
cudaMalloc(&devInput, sizeof(float) * (N+2)); // allocate input array in device memory
cudaMalloc(&devOutput, sizeof(float) * N); // allocate output array in device memory

// properly initialize contents of devInput here ...

convolve<<<N/THREADS_PER_BLK, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, devInput, devOutput);
```

# 1D convolution in CUDA (version 2)

One thread per output element: stage input data in per-block shared memory

CUDA Kernel

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input, float* output) {

    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2];           // per-block allocation
    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;    // thread local variable

    support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
    if (threadIdx.x < 2) {
        support[THREADS_PER_BLK + threadIdx.x] = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];
    }

    __syncthreads();                                     barrier (all threads in block)

    float result = 0.0f;      // thread-local variable
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += support[threadIdx.x + i];            each thread computes result for one element

    output[index] = result / 3.f;                         write result to global memory
}
```

All threads cooperatively load block's support region from global memory into shared memory (total of 130 load instructions instead of  $3 * 128$  load instructions)

Host code

```
int N = 1024 * 1024
cudaMalloc(&devInput, sizeof(float) * (N+2) ); // allocate array in device memory
cudaMalloc(&devOutput, sizeof(float) * N);      // allocate array in device memory

// property initialize contents of devInput here ...

convolve<<<N/THREADS_PER_BLK, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, devInput, devOutput);
```

# CUDA synchronization constructs

## ■ \_\_syncthreads()

- **Barrier: wait for all threads in the block to arrive at this point**

## ■ **Atomic operations**

- e.g., `float atomicAdd(float* addr, float amount)`
- **CUDA provides atomic operations on both global memory addresses and per-block shared memory addresses**

## ■ **Host/device synchronization**

- **Implicit barrier across all threads at return of kernel**

# Summary: CUDA abstractions

- **Execution: thread hierarchy**
  - **Bulk launch of many threads (this is imprecise... I'll clarify later)**
  - **Two-level hierarchy: threads are grouped into thread blocks**
- **Distributed address space**
  - **Built-in memcpy primitives to copy between host and device address spaces**
  - **Three different types of device address spaces**
  - **Per thread, per block ("shared"), or per program ("global")**
- **Barrier synchronization primitive for threads in thread block**
- **Atomic primitives for additional synchronization (shared and global variables)**

# CUDA semantics

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input, float* output) {

    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2]; // per-block allocation
    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x; // thread local var

    support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
    if (threadIdx.x < 2) {
        support[THREADS_PER_BLK+threadIdx.x] = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];
    }

    __syncthreads();

    float result = 0.0f; // thread-local variable
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += support[threadIdx.x + i];

    output[index] = result / 3.f;
}

// host code /////////////////////////////////
int N = 1024 * 1024;
cudaMalloc(&devInput, N+2); // allocate array in device memory
cudaMalloc(&devOutput, N); // allocate array in device memory

// property initialize contents of devInput here ...

convolve<<<N/THREADS_PER_BLK, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, devInput, devOutput); —
```

Consider implementation of call to `pthread_create()` or `std::thread()`:

Allocate thread state:

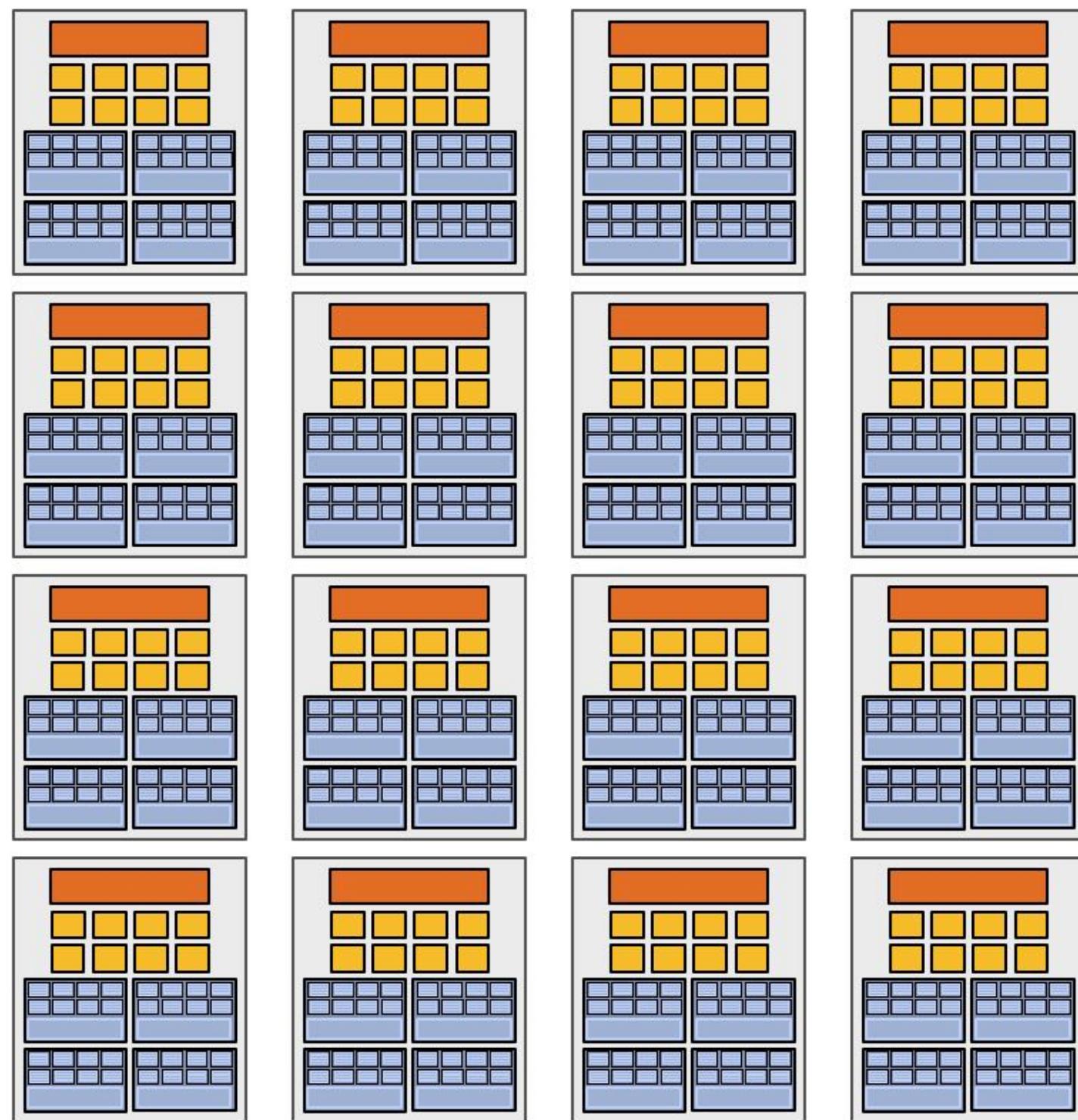
- Stack space for thread
- Allocate control block so OS can schedule thread

Will running this CUDA program create 1 million instances of local variables/per-thread stack?

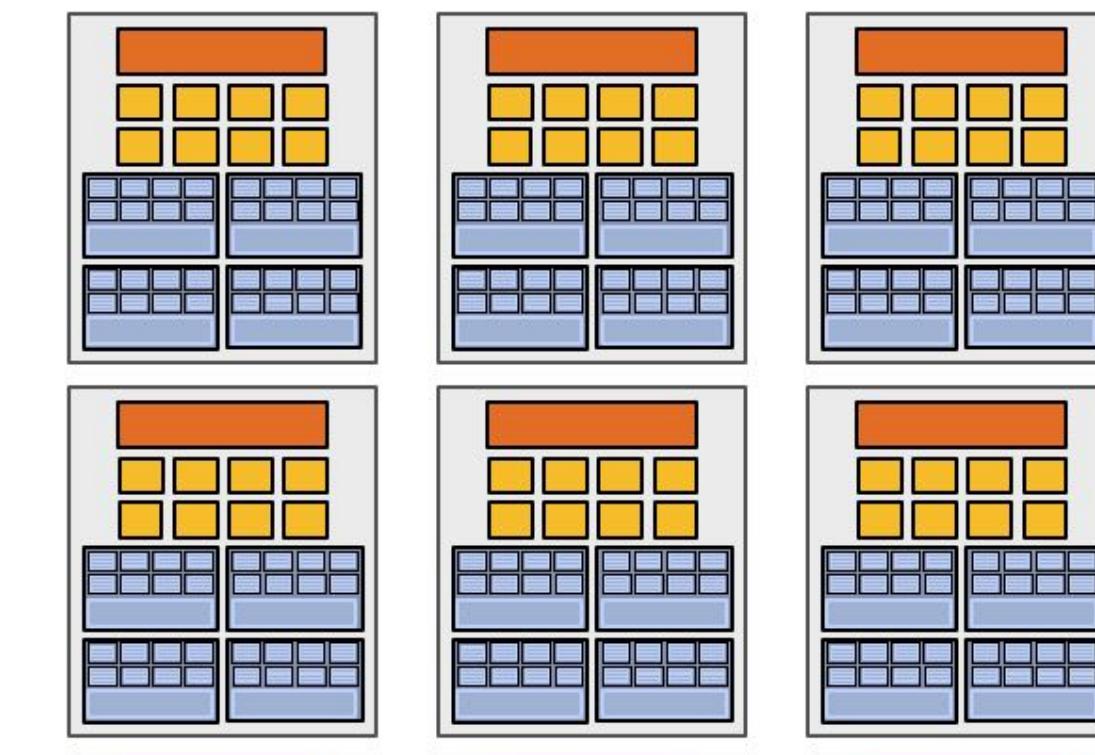
8K instances of shared variables? (support)

Launch over 1 million CUDA threads (over 8K thread blocks)

# Assigning work



**High-end GPU**  
(16 cores)



**Mid-range GPU**  
(6 cores)

**Desirable for CUDA program to run on all of these GPUs without modification**

**Note: there is no concept of num\_cores in the CUDA programs I have shown you. (CUDA thread launch is similar in spirit to a forall loop in data parallel model examples)**

# CUDA compilation

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input, float* output) {

    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2]; // per block allocation
    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x + threadIdx.x; // thread local var

    support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
    if (threadIdx.x < 2) {
        support[THREADS_PER_BLK+threadIdx.x] = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];
    }

    __syncthreads();

    float result = 0.0f; // thread-local variable
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += support[threadIdx.x + i];

    output[index] = result;
}
```

```
int N = 1024 * 1024;
cudaMalloc(&devInput, N+2); // allocate array in device memory
cudaMalloc(&devOutput, N); // allocate array in device memory

// property initialize contents of devInput here ...

convolve<<<N/THREADS_PER_BLK, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, devInput, devOutput);
```

A compiled CUDA device binary includes:

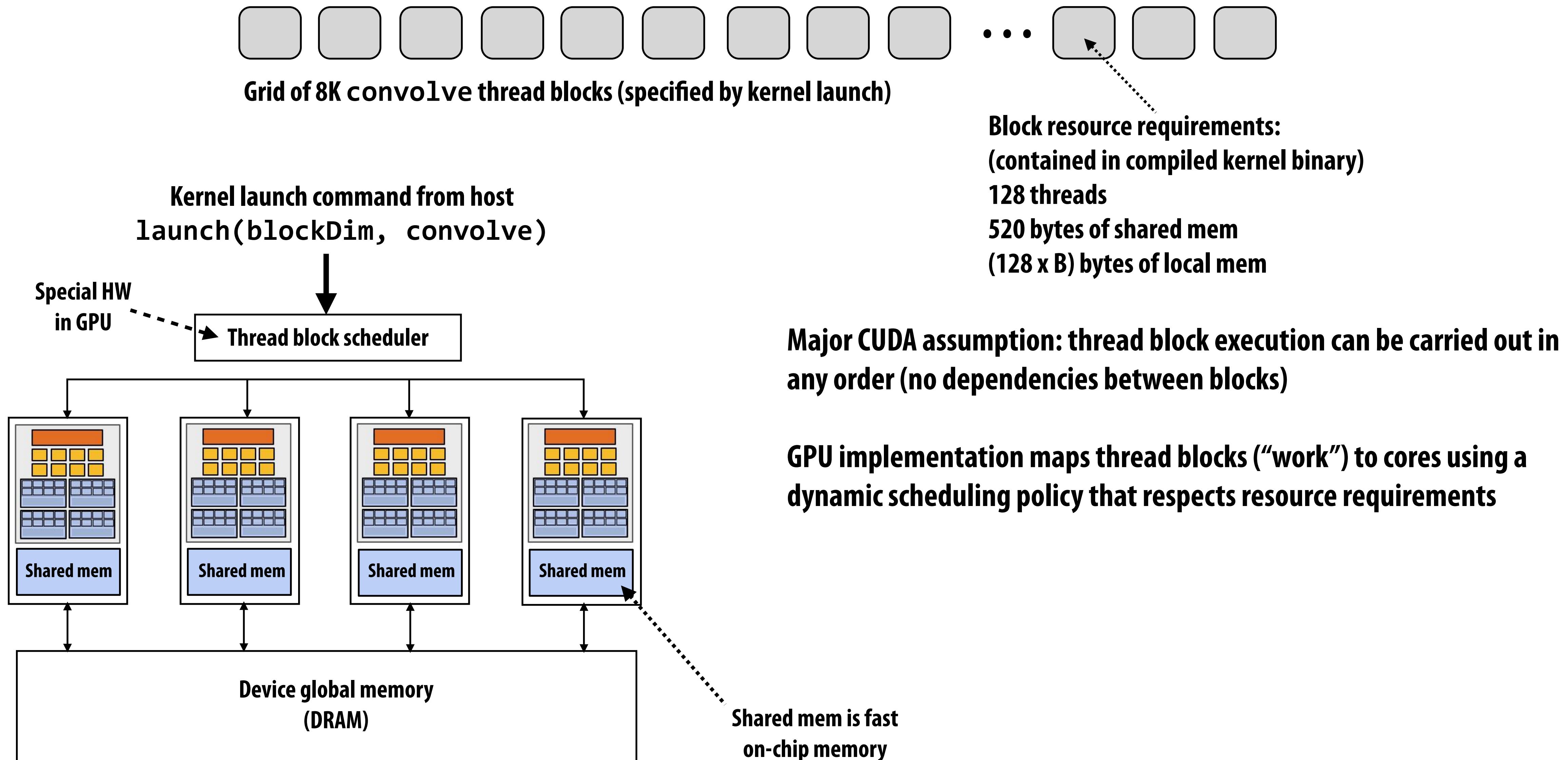
Program text (instructions)

Information about required resources:

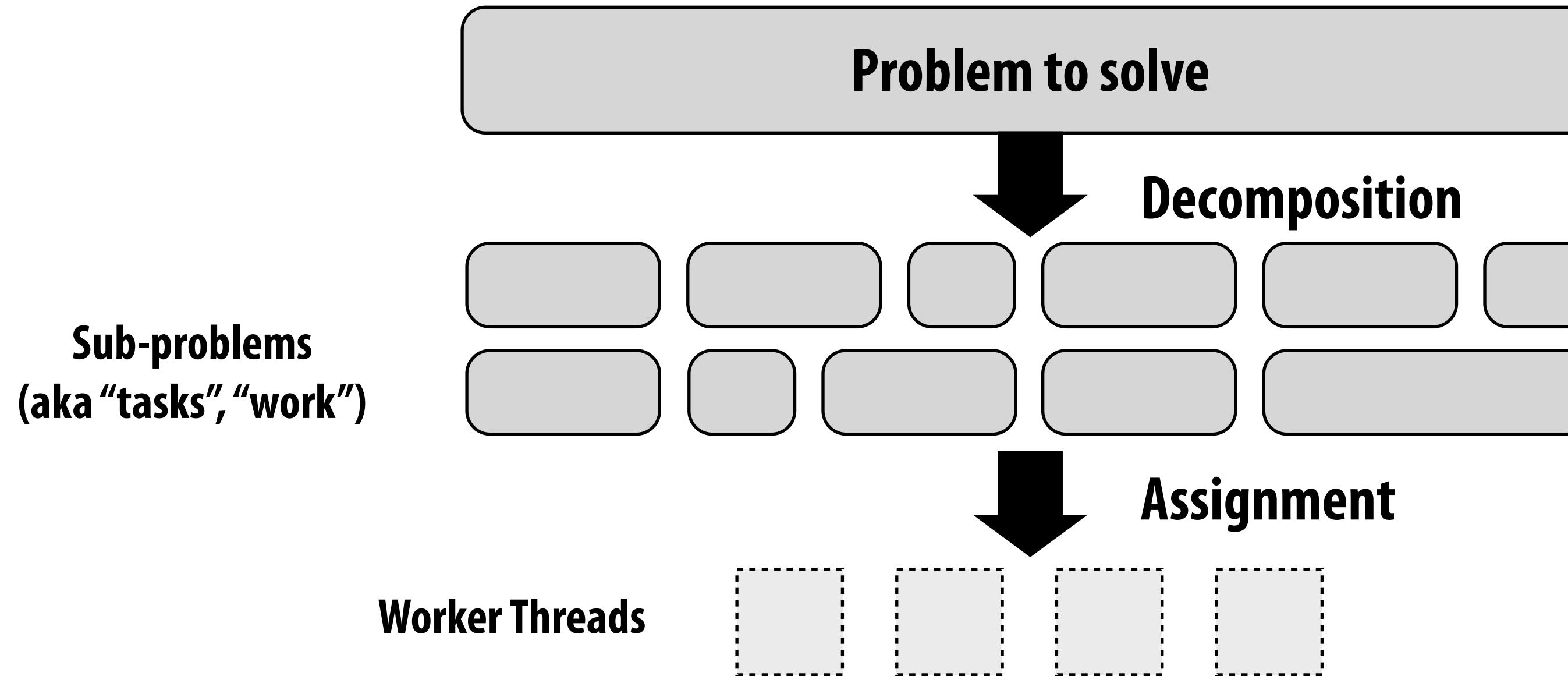
- 128 threads per block
- B bytes of local data per thread
- $128+2=130$  floats (520 bytes) of shared space per thread block

— launch 8K thread blocks

# CUDA thread-block assignment



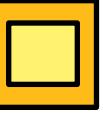
# Another instance of our common design pattern: a pool of worker “threads”



## Other examples:

- ISPC’s implementation of launching tasks
  - Creates one pthread for each hyper-thread on CPU. Threads kept alive for remainder of program
- Thread pool in a web server
  - Number of threads is a function of number of cores, not number of outstanding requests
  - Threads spawned at web server launch, wait for work to arrive

# NVIDIA V100 SM “sub-core”

 = SIMD fp32 functional unit,  
control shared across 16 units  
(16 x MUL-ADD per clock \*)

 = SIMD int functional unit,  
control shared across 16 units  
(16 x MUL/ADD per clock \*)

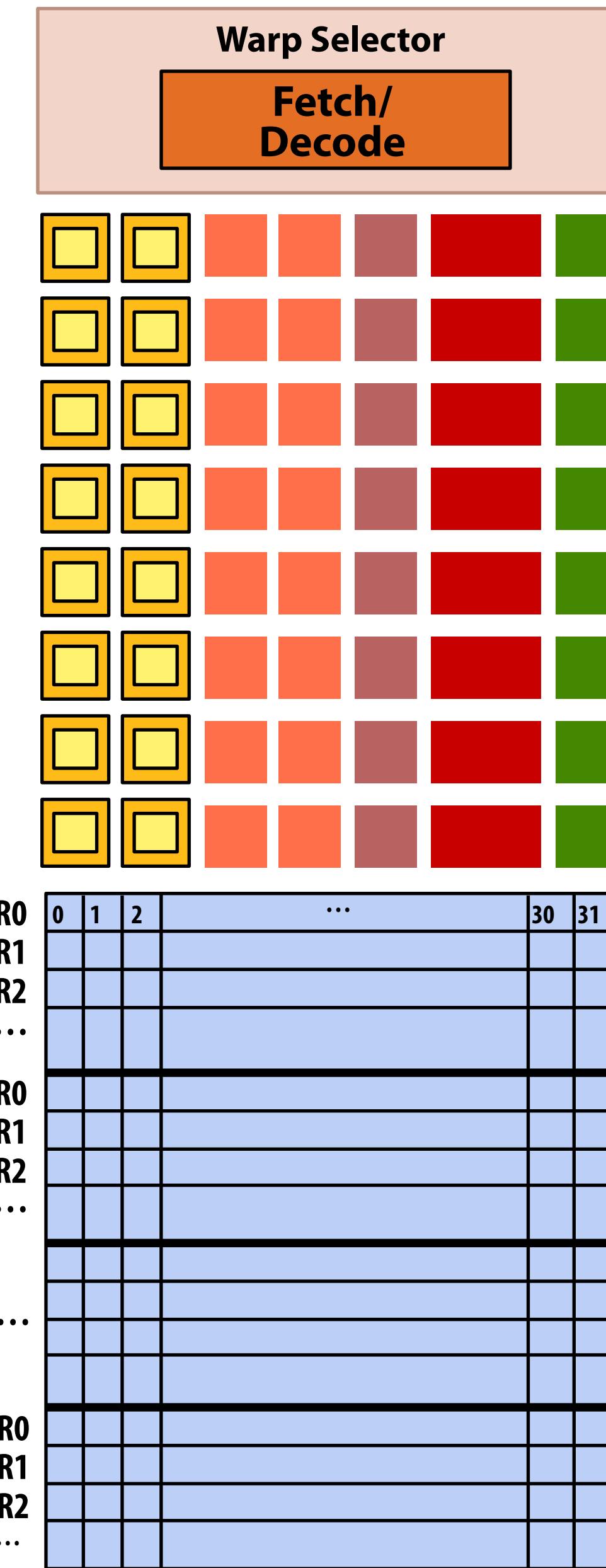
 = SIMD fp64 functional unit,  
control shared across 8 units  
(8 x MUL/ADD per clock \*\*)

 = Tensor core unit

 = Load/store unit

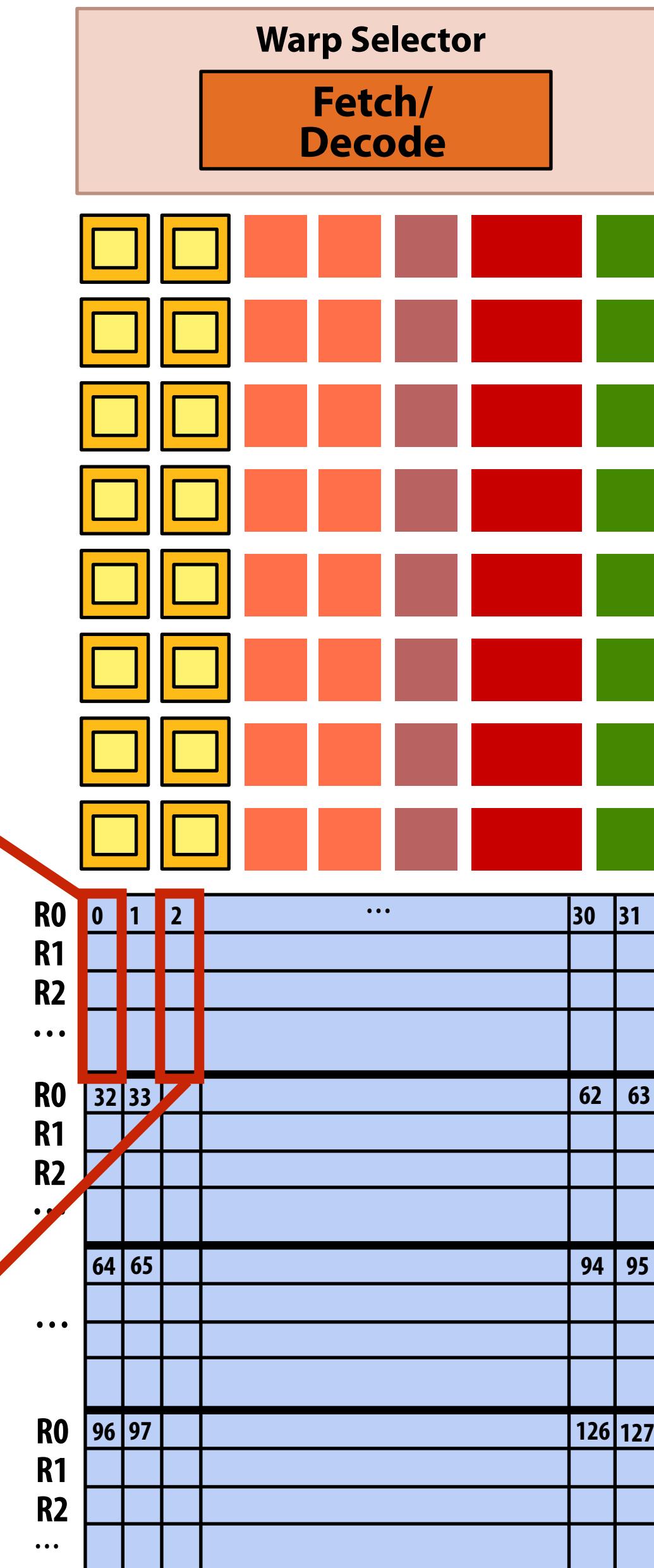
\* one 32-wide SIMD operation every two clocks

\*\* one 32-wide SIMD operation every four clocks



# NVIDIA V100 SM “sub-core”

Scalar registers for one CUDA thread: R0, R1, etc...



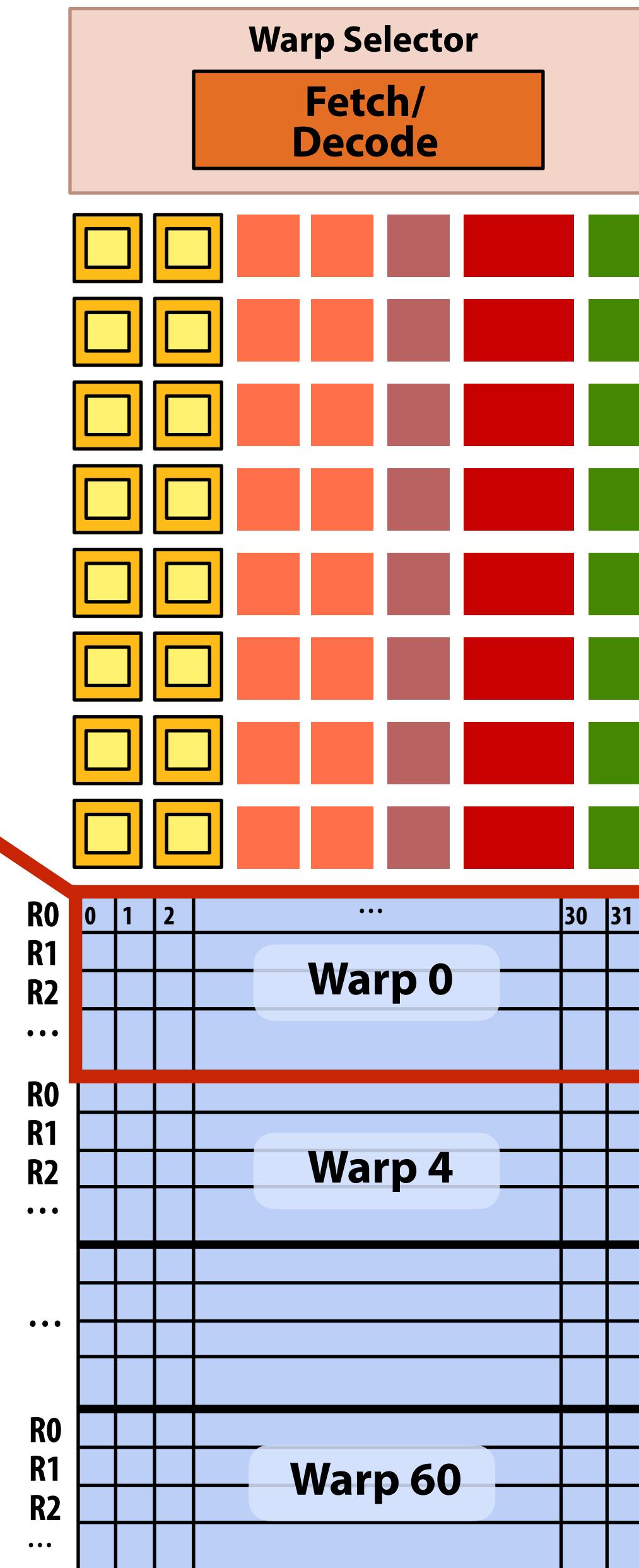
Scalar registers for another CUDA thread: R0, R1, etc...

# NVIDIA V100 SM “sub-core”

Scalar registers for 32 threads in the same “warp”

A group of 32 threads in thread block is called a warp.

- In a thread block, threads 0-31 fall into the same warp (so do threads 32-63, etc.)
- Therefore, a thread block with 256 CUDA threads is mapped to 8 warps.
- Each sub-core in the V100 is capable of scheduling and interleaving execution of up to 16 warps



# NVIDIA V100 SM “sub-core”

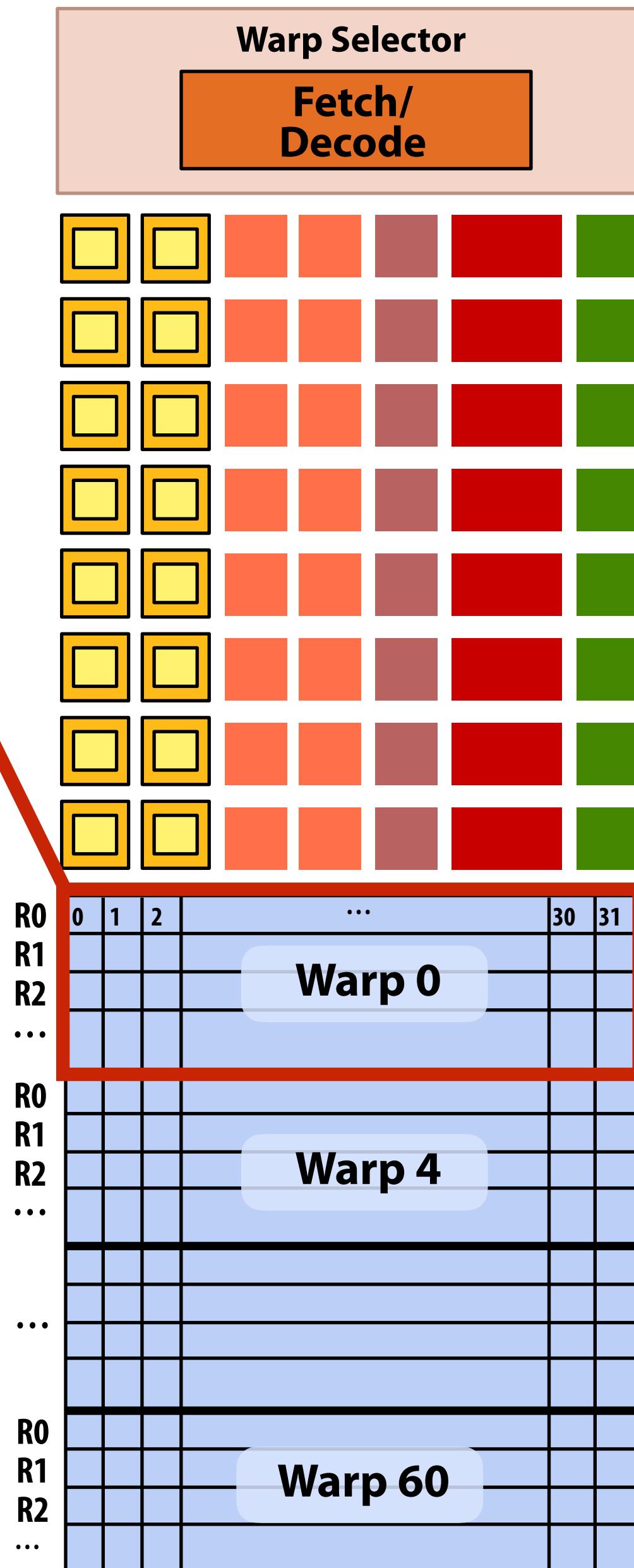
Scalar registers for 32 threads in the same “warp”

Threads in a warp are executed in a SIMD manner

*if they share the same instruction*

- NVIDIA calls this SIMT (single instruction multiple CUDA thread)
- If the 32 CUDA threads do not share the same instruction, performance can suffer due to divergent execution.
- This mapping is similar to how ISPC runs program instances in a gang \*

A warp is not part of CUDA, but is an important CUDA implementation detail on modern NVIDIA GPUs



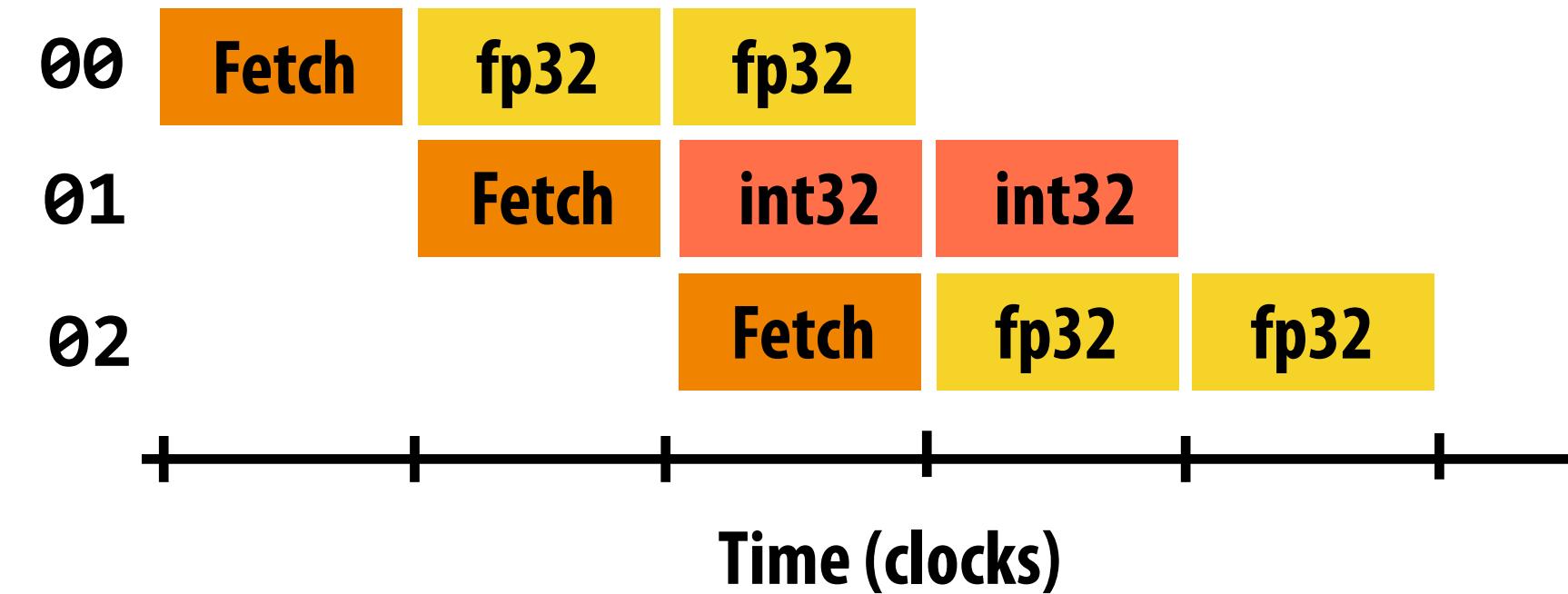
\* But GPU hardware is dynamically checking whether 32 independent CUDA threads share an instruction, and if this is true, it executes all 32 threads in a SIMD manner. The CUDA program is not compiled to SIMD instructions like ISPC gangs.

# Instruction execution

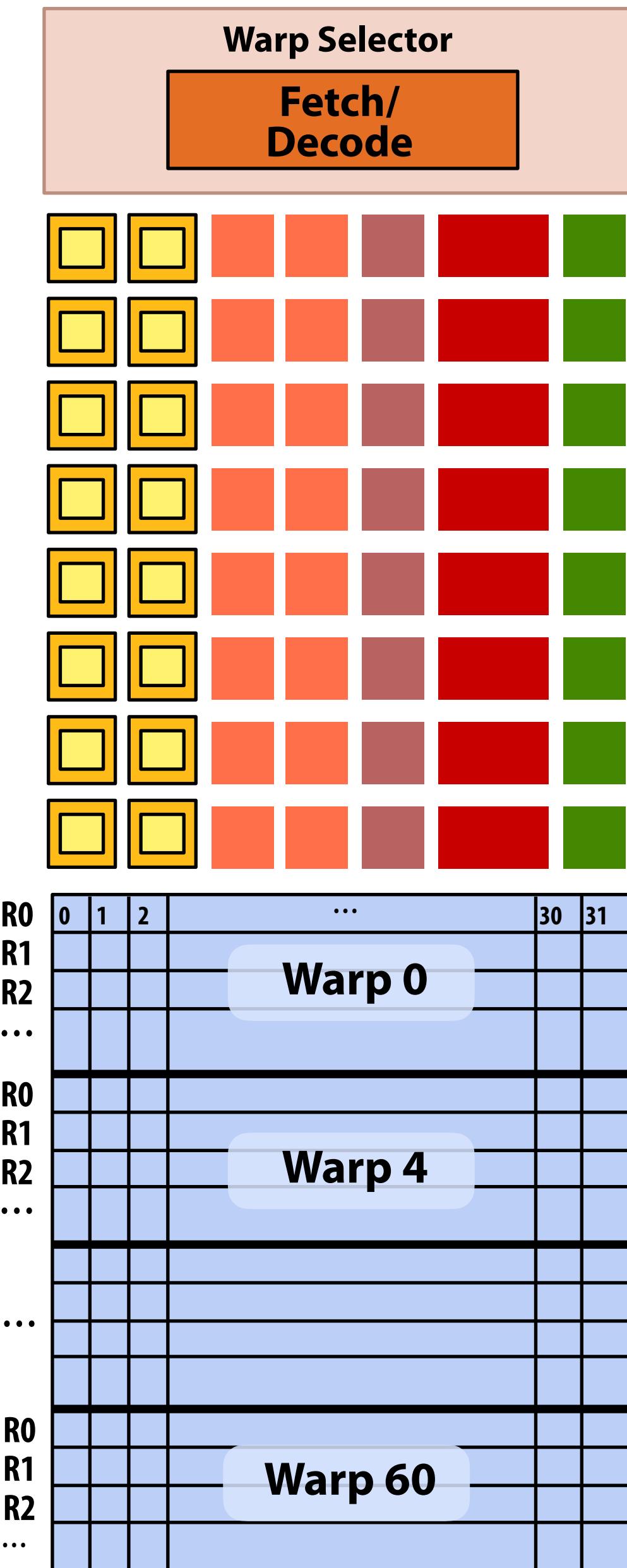
Instruction stream for CUDA threads in a warp...  
(note in this example all instructions are independent)

```
00  fp32  mul  r0  r1  r2
01  int32 add   r3  r4  r5
02  fp32  mul  r6  r7  r8
```

...

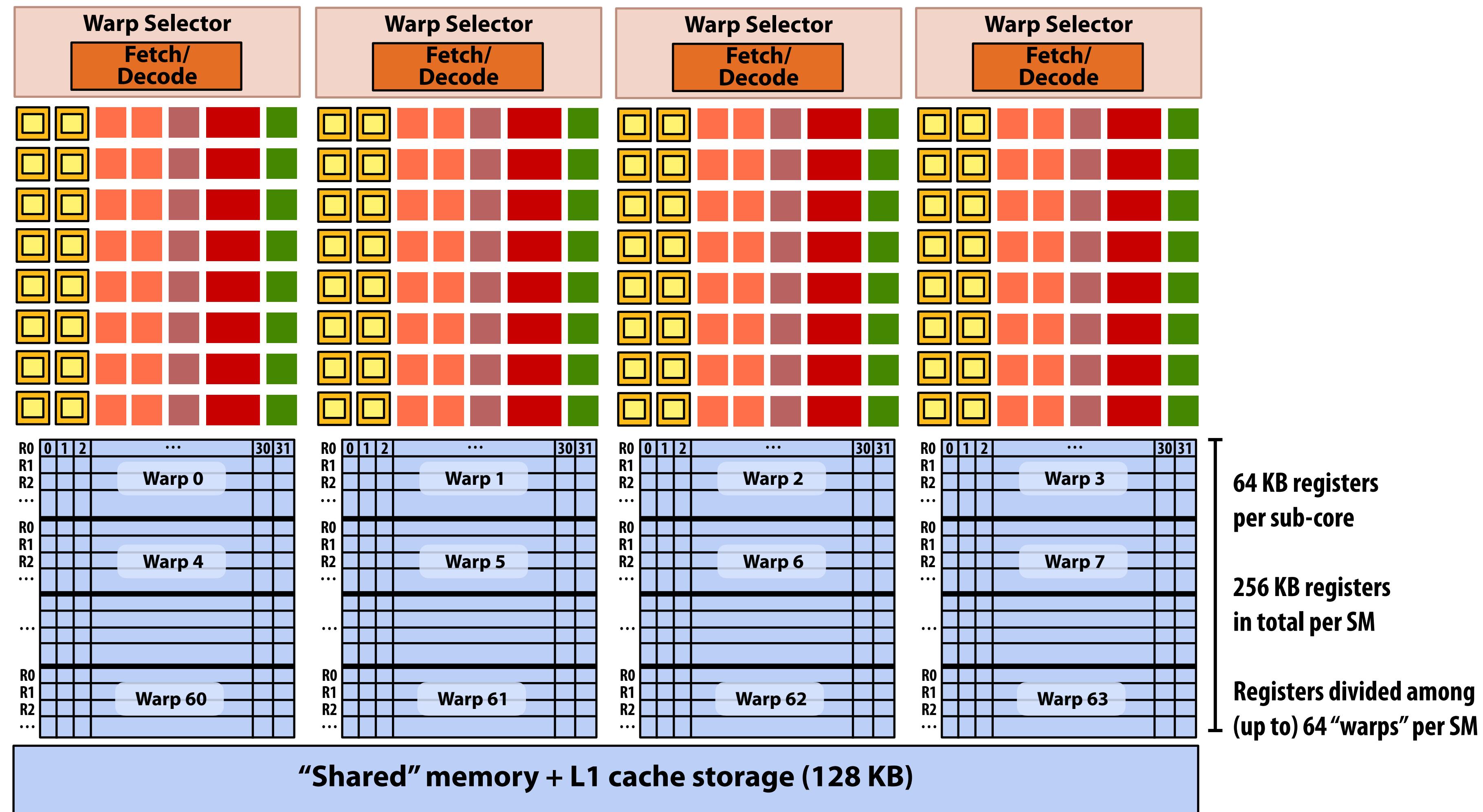


Remember, entire warp of CUDA threads is running this instruction stream.  
So each instruction is run by all 32 CUDA threads in the warp.  
Since there are 16 ALUs, running the instruction for the entire warp takes two clocks.



# NVIDIA V100 GPU SM

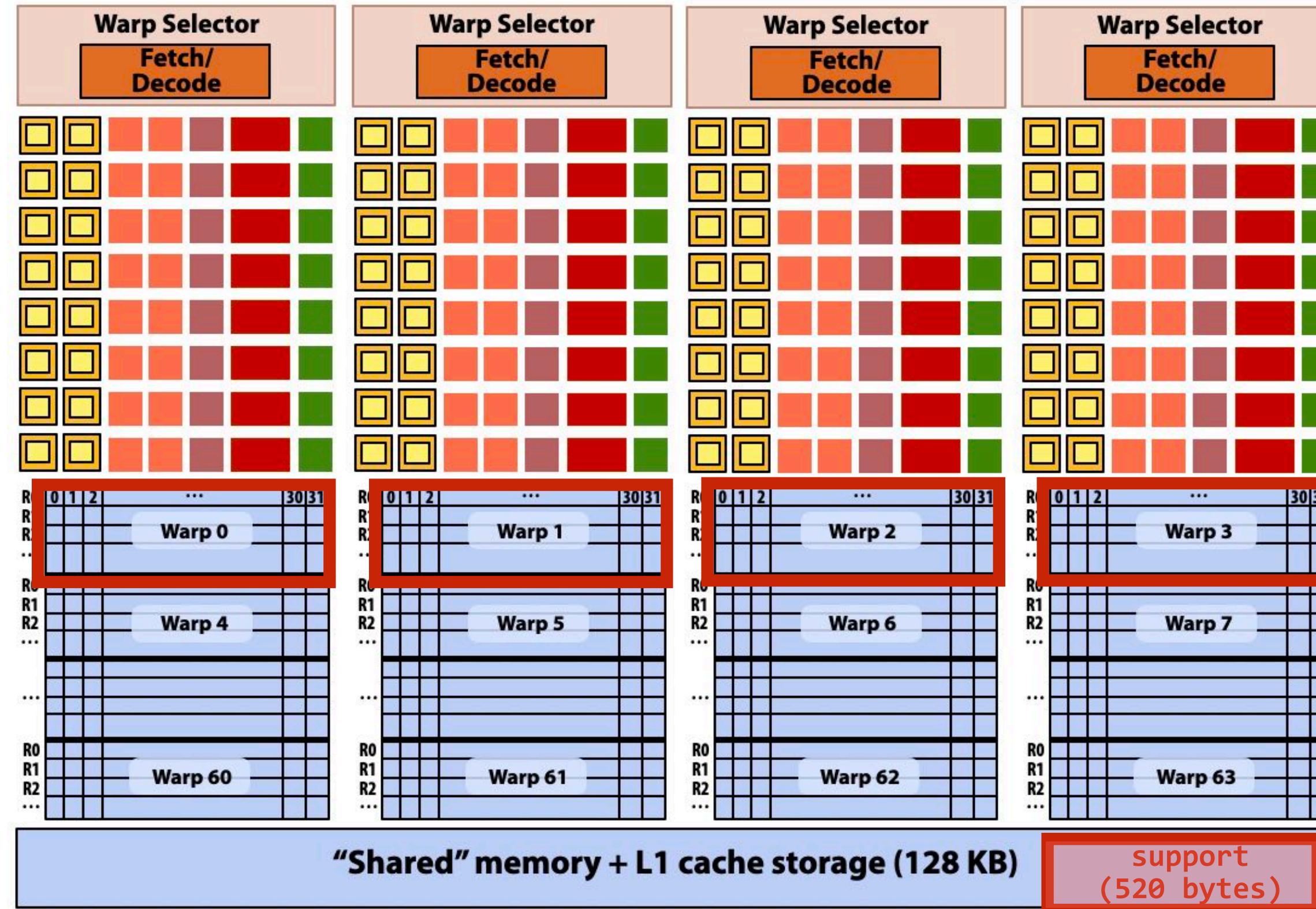
This is one NVIDIA V100 streaming multi-processor (SM) unit



\* one 32-wide SIMD operation every 2 clocks

\*\* one 32-wide SIMD operation every 4 clocks

# Running a thread block on a V100 SM



A **convolve** thread block is executed by 4 warps  
(4 warps x 32 threads/warp = 128 CUDA threads per block)

SM core operation each clock:

- Each sub-core selects one runnable warp (from the 16 warps in its partition)
- Each sub-core runs next instruction for the CUDA threads in the warp (this instruction may apply to all or a subset of the CUDA threads in a warp depending on divergence)

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input,
                        float* output)
{
    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2];
    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x +
                threadIdx.x;

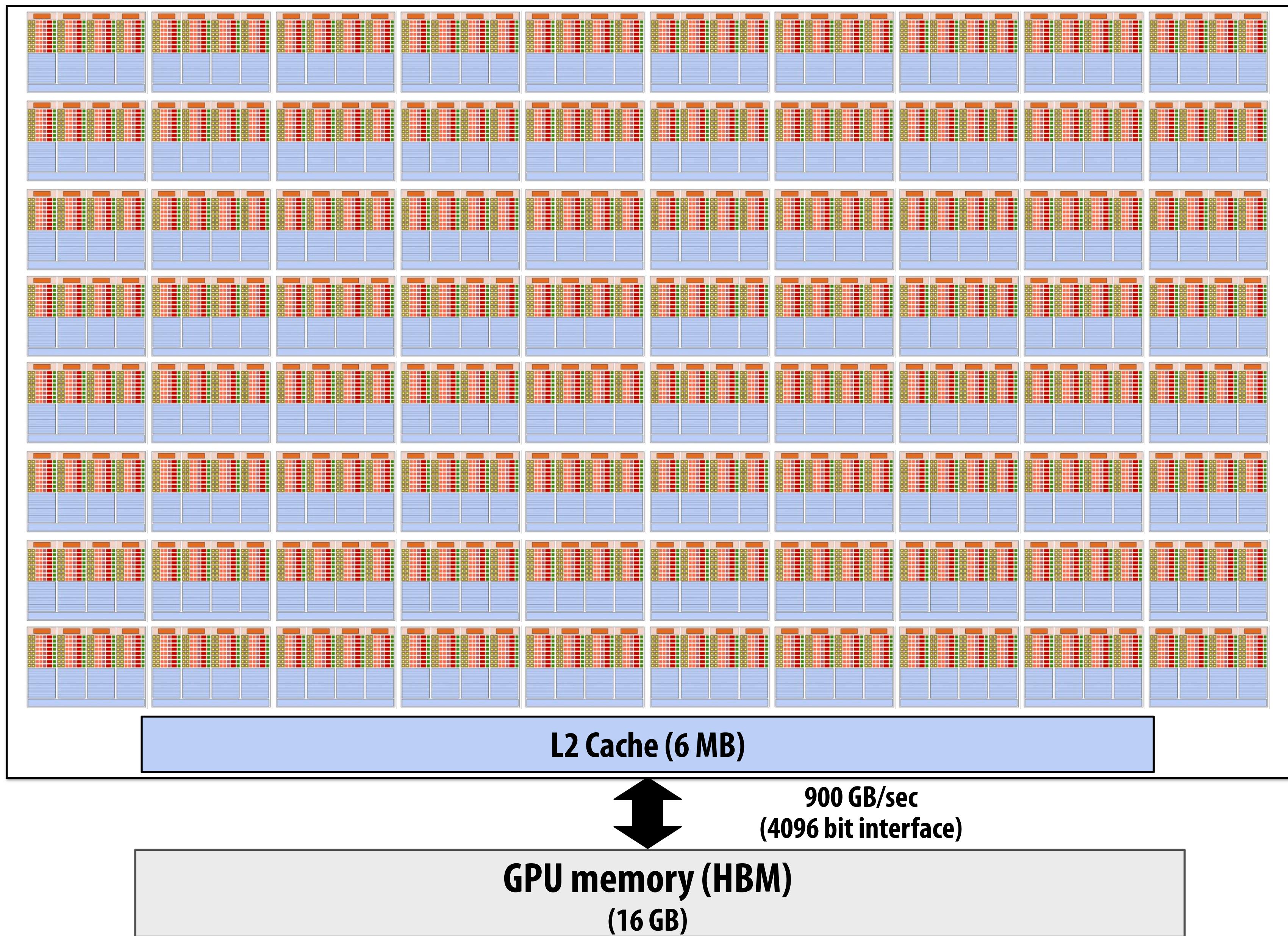
    support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
    if (threadIdx.x < 2) {
        support[THREADS_PER_BLK+threadIdx.x]
            = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];
    }

    __syncthreads();

    float result = 0.0f; // thread-local
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += support[threadIdx.x + i];

    output[index] = result;
}
```

# NVIDIA V100 GPU (80 SMs)



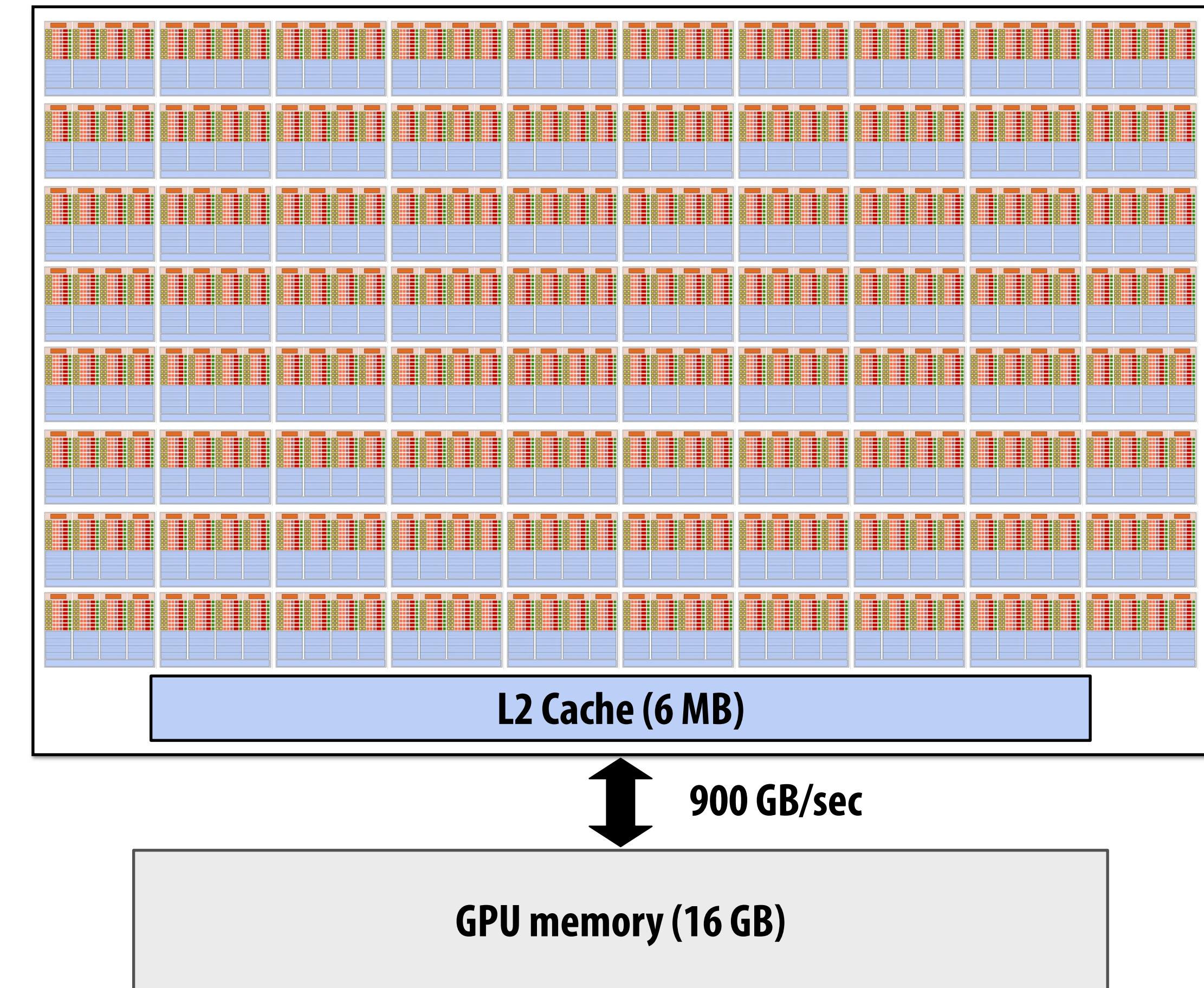
# Summary: geometry of the V100 GPU

1.245 GHz clock

80 SM cores per chip

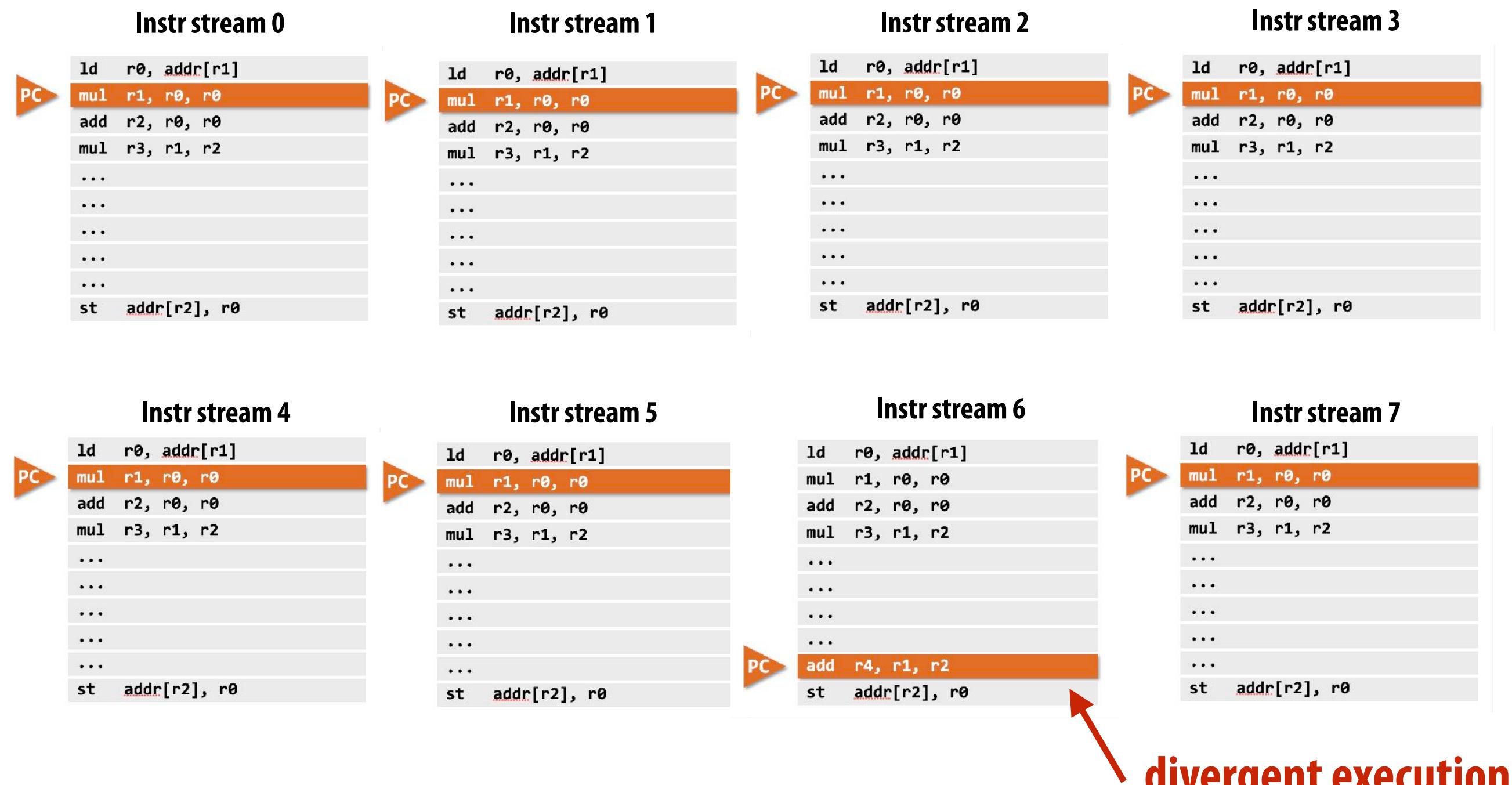
$80 \times 4 \times 16 = 5,120$  fp32 mul-add ALUs  
= 12.7 TFLOPs \*

Up to  $80 \times 64 = 5120$  interleaved warps per chip  
(163,840 CUDA threads/chip)



\* mul-add counted as 2 flops:

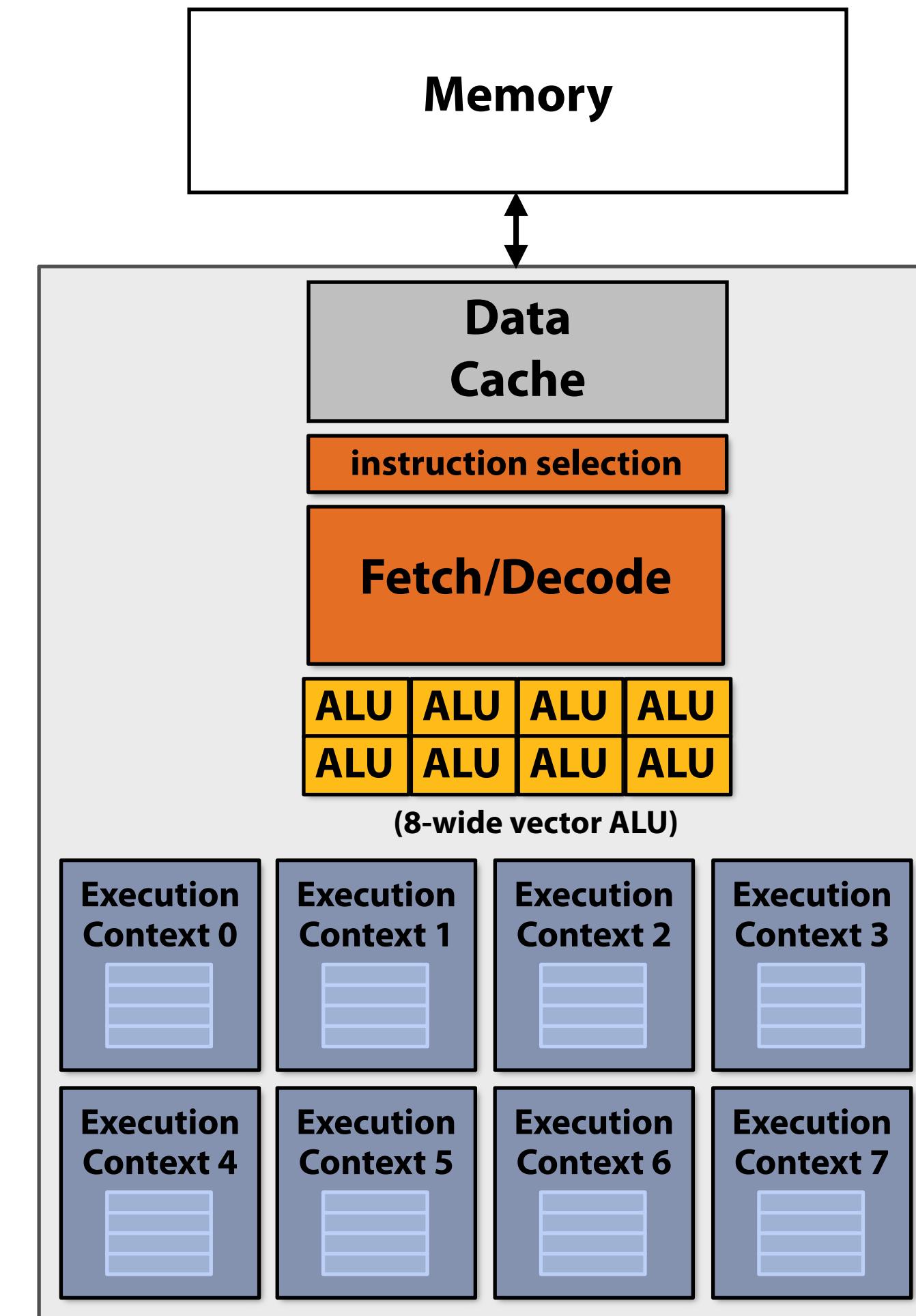
# Reminder: GPU “SIMT” (single instruction, multiple thread)



Many modern GPUs execute hardware threads that run instruction streams with only scalar instructions.

GPU cores detect when different hardware threads are executing the same instruction, and implement simultaneous execution of up to SIMD-width threads using SIMD ALUs.

Here ALU 6 would be “masked off” since thread 6 is not executing the same instruction as the other hardware threads.



# Running a CUDA program on a GPU

# Running the convolve kernel

convolve kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

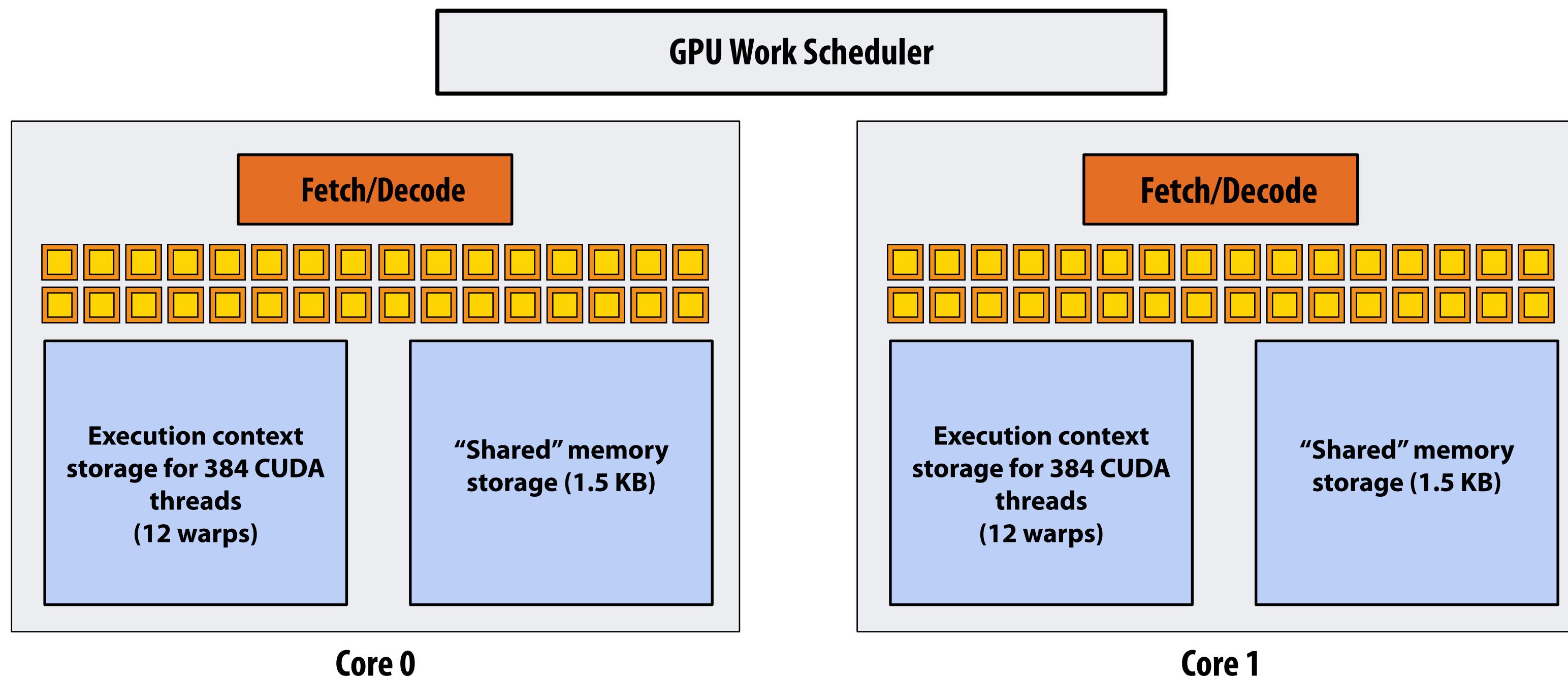
Each thread block requires  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

Let's assume array size N is very large, so the host-side kernel launch generates thousands of thread blocks.

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128
convolve<<<N/THREADS_PER_BLK, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, input_array, output_array);
```

Let's run this program on the fictitious two-core GPU below.

(Note: my fictitious cores are much "smaller" than the V100 SM cores discussed earlier in lecture: they have fewer execution units, support for fewer active warps, less shared memory, etc.)



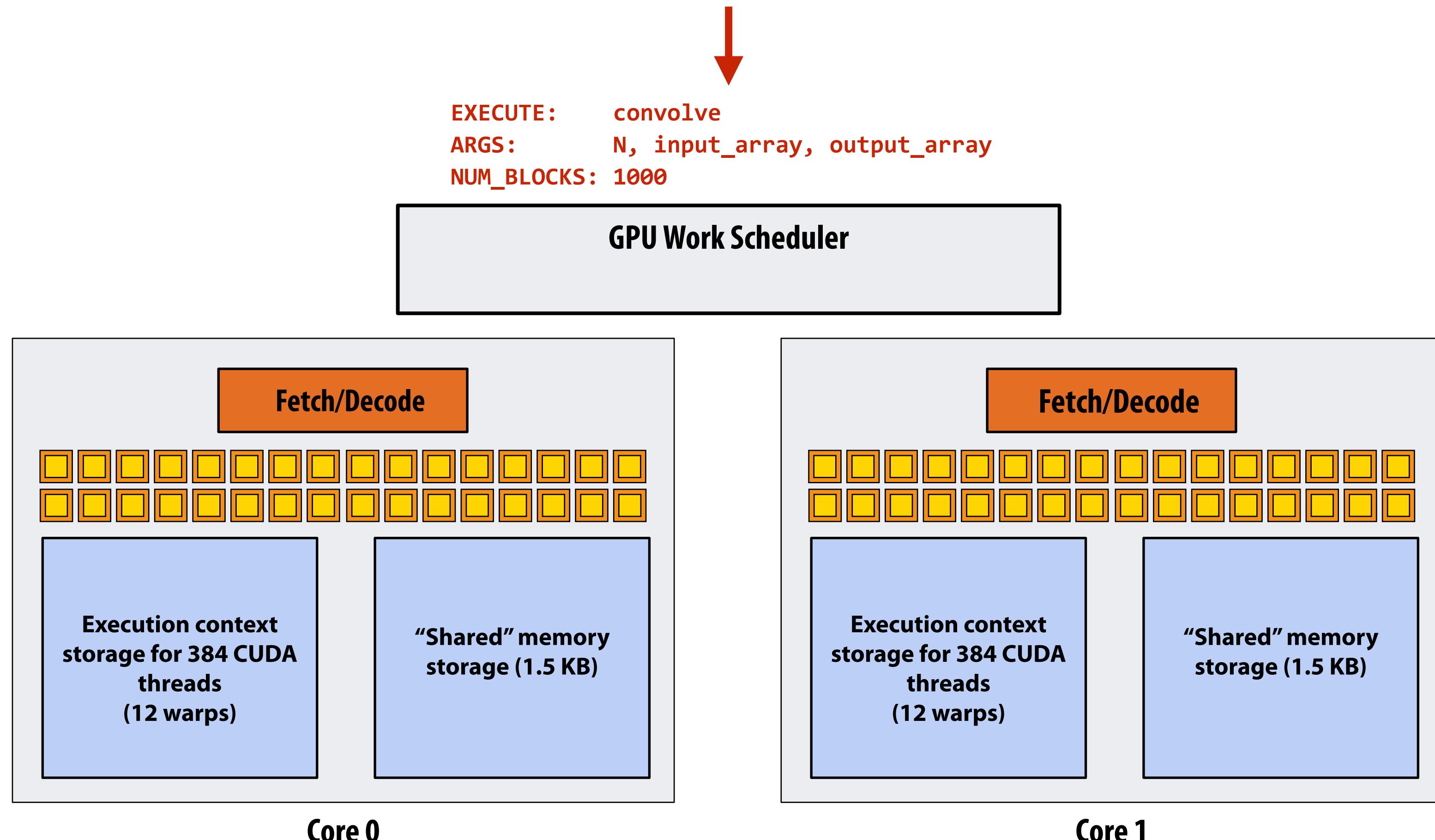
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

**Step 1: host sends CUDA device (GPU) a command ("execute this kernel")**



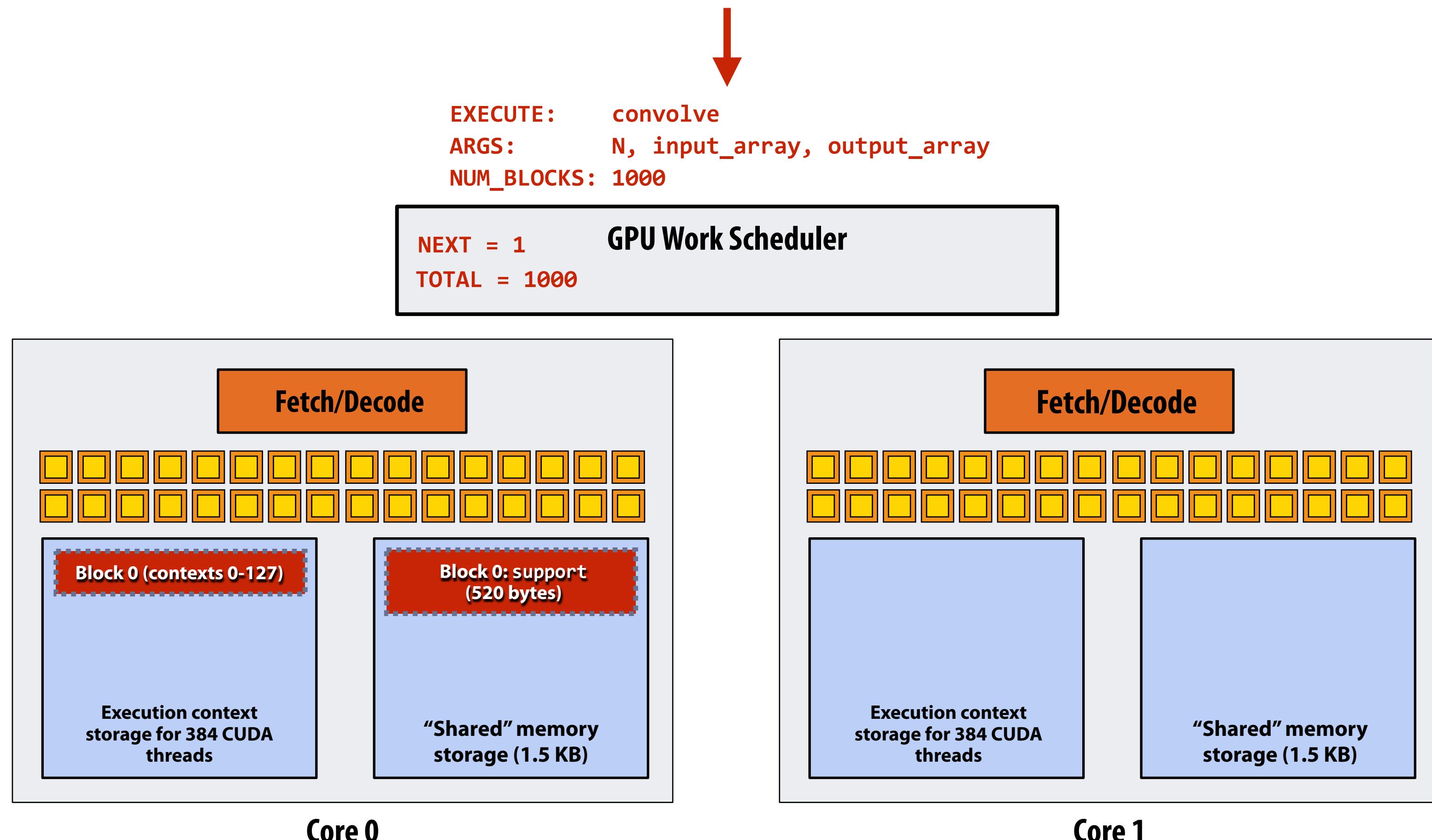
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

**Step 2: scheduler maps block 0 to core 0 (reserves execution contexts for 128 threads and 520 bytes of shared storage)**



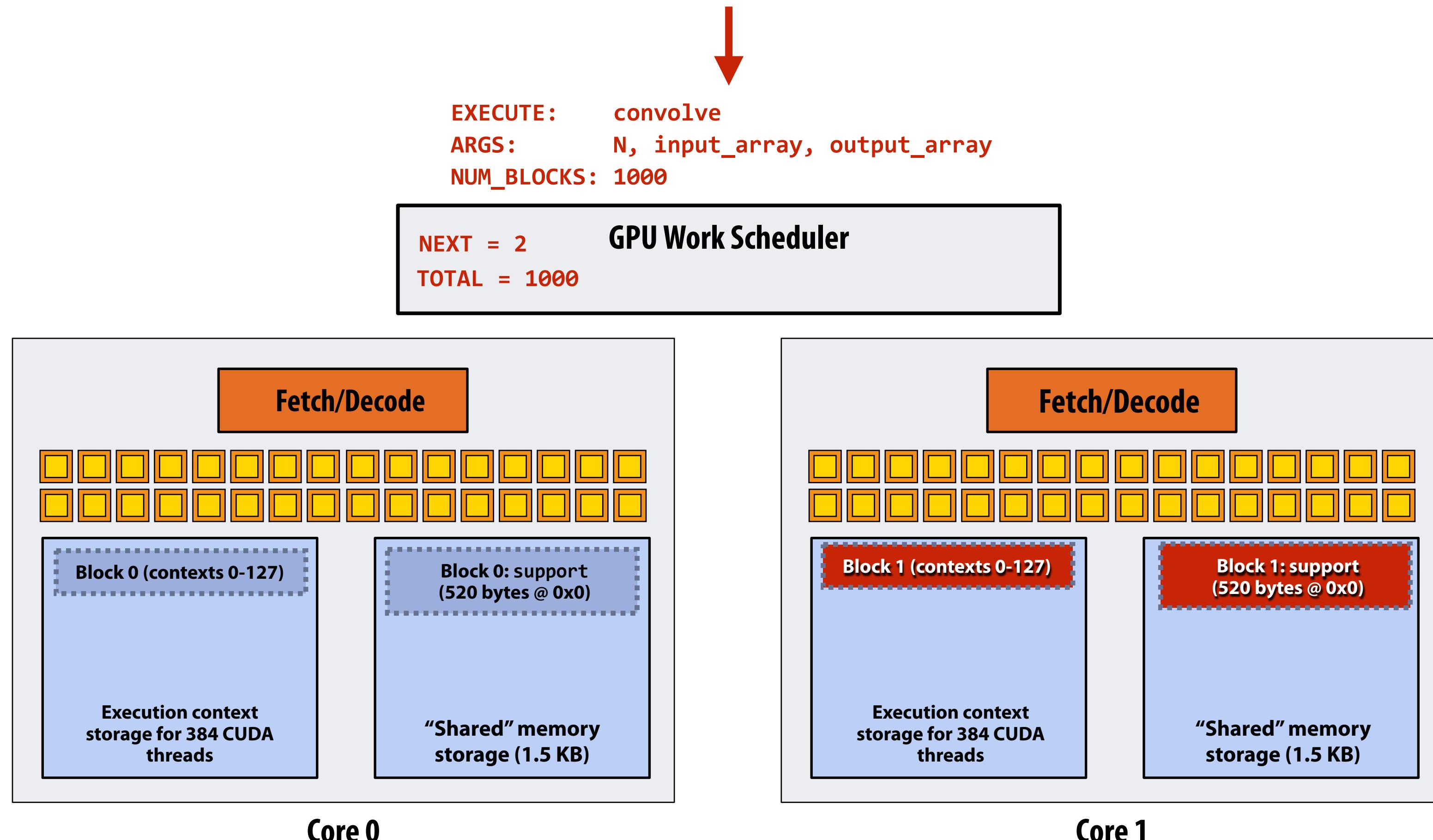
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

**Step 3: scheduler continues to map blocks to available execution contexts (interleaved mapping shown)**



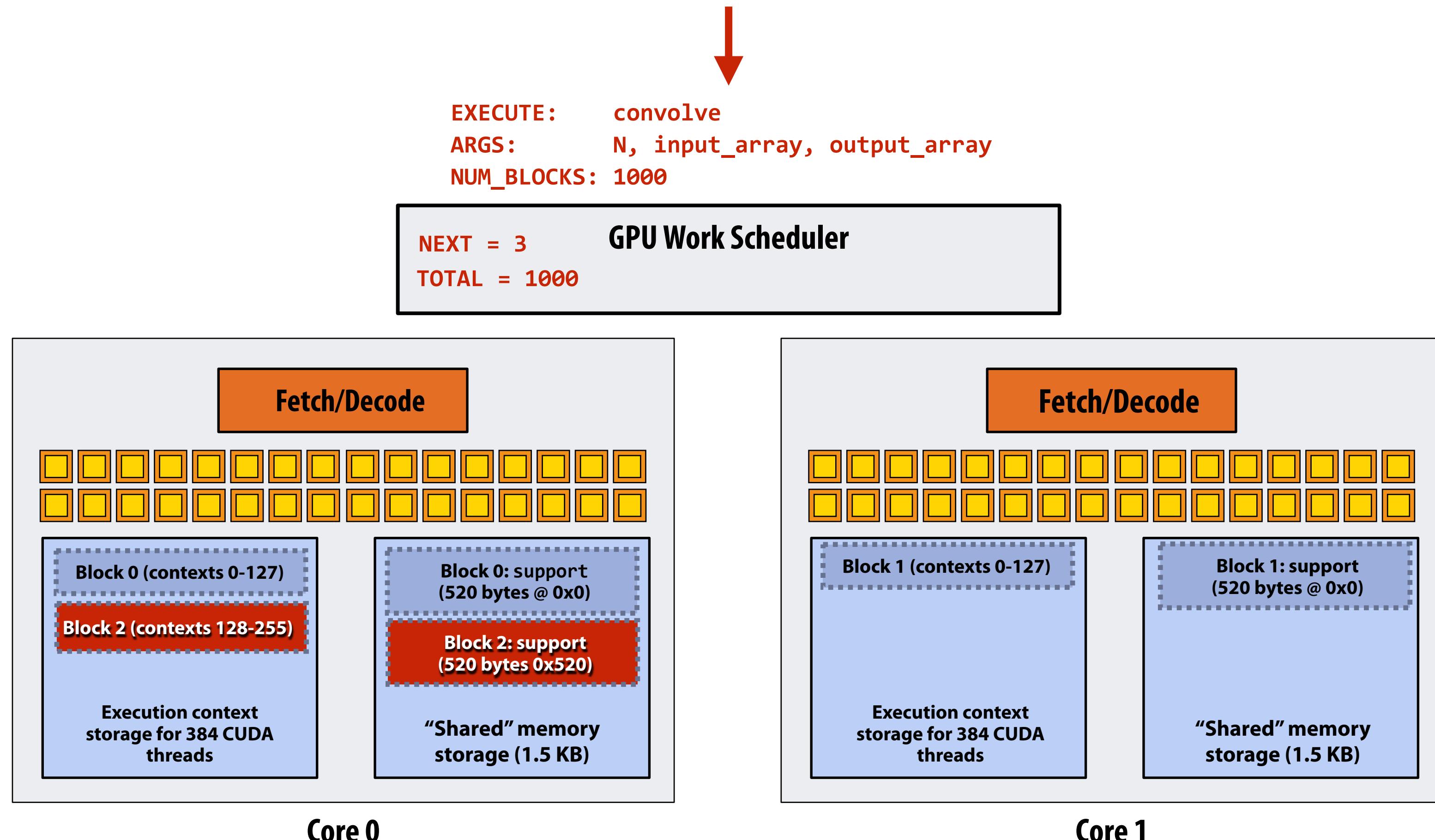
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

**Step 3: scheduler continues to map blocks to available execution contexts (interleaved mapping shown)**



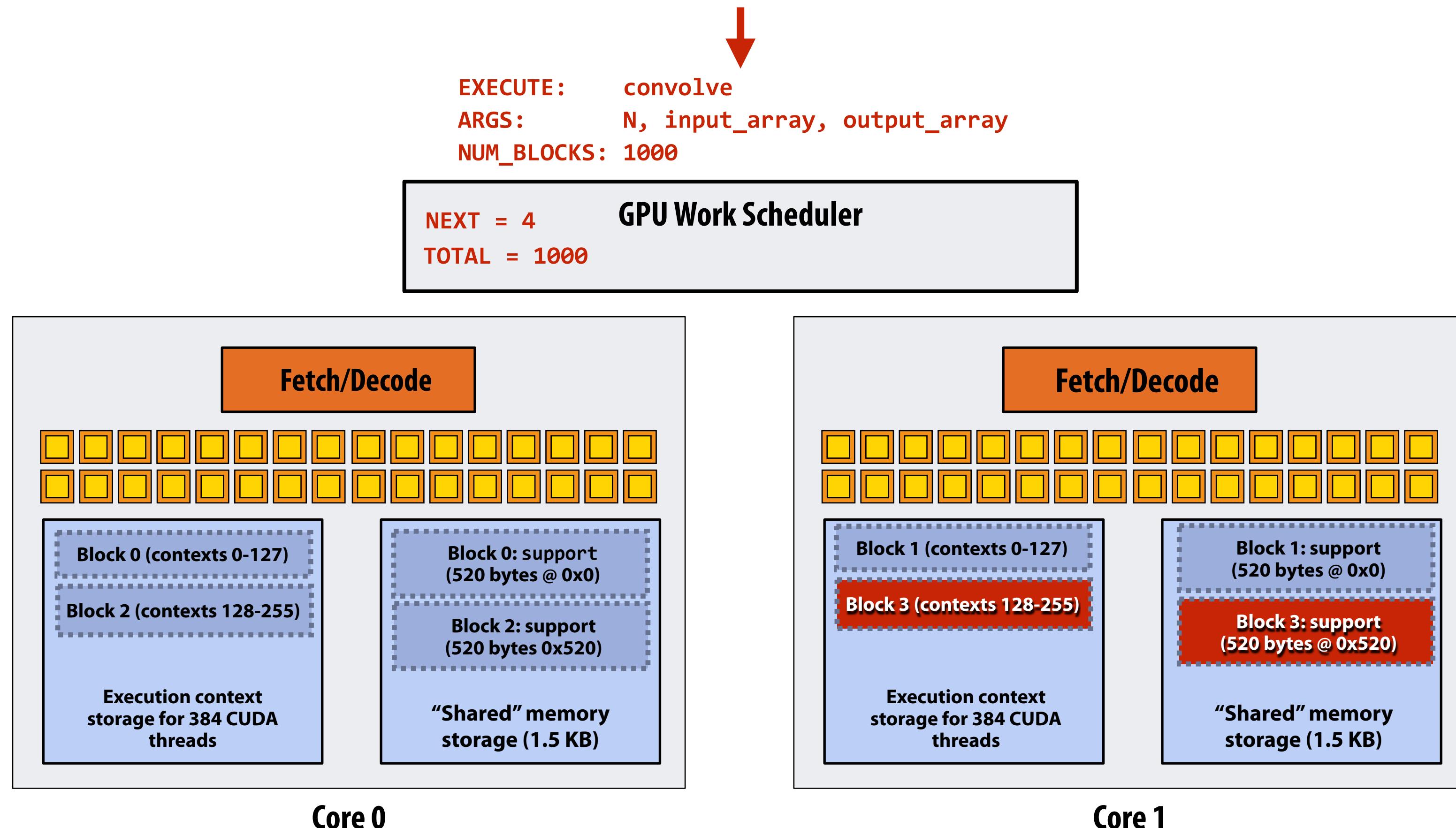
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

Step 3: scheduler continues to map blocks to available execution contexts (interleaved mapping shown). Only two thread blocks fit on a core (third block won't fit due to insufficient shared storage  $3 \times 520$  bytes  $> 1.5$  KB)



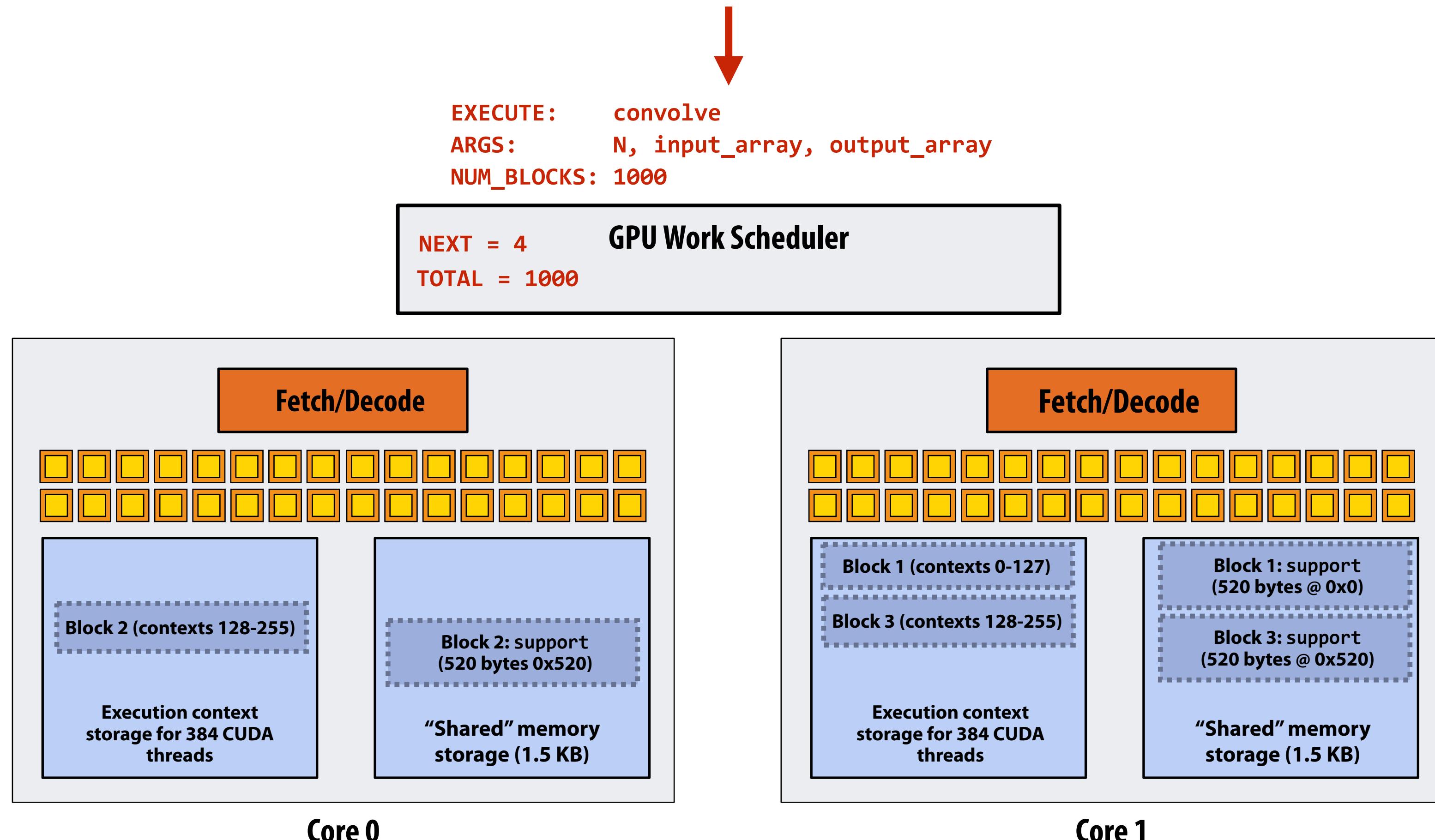
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

Step 4: thread block 0 completes on core 0



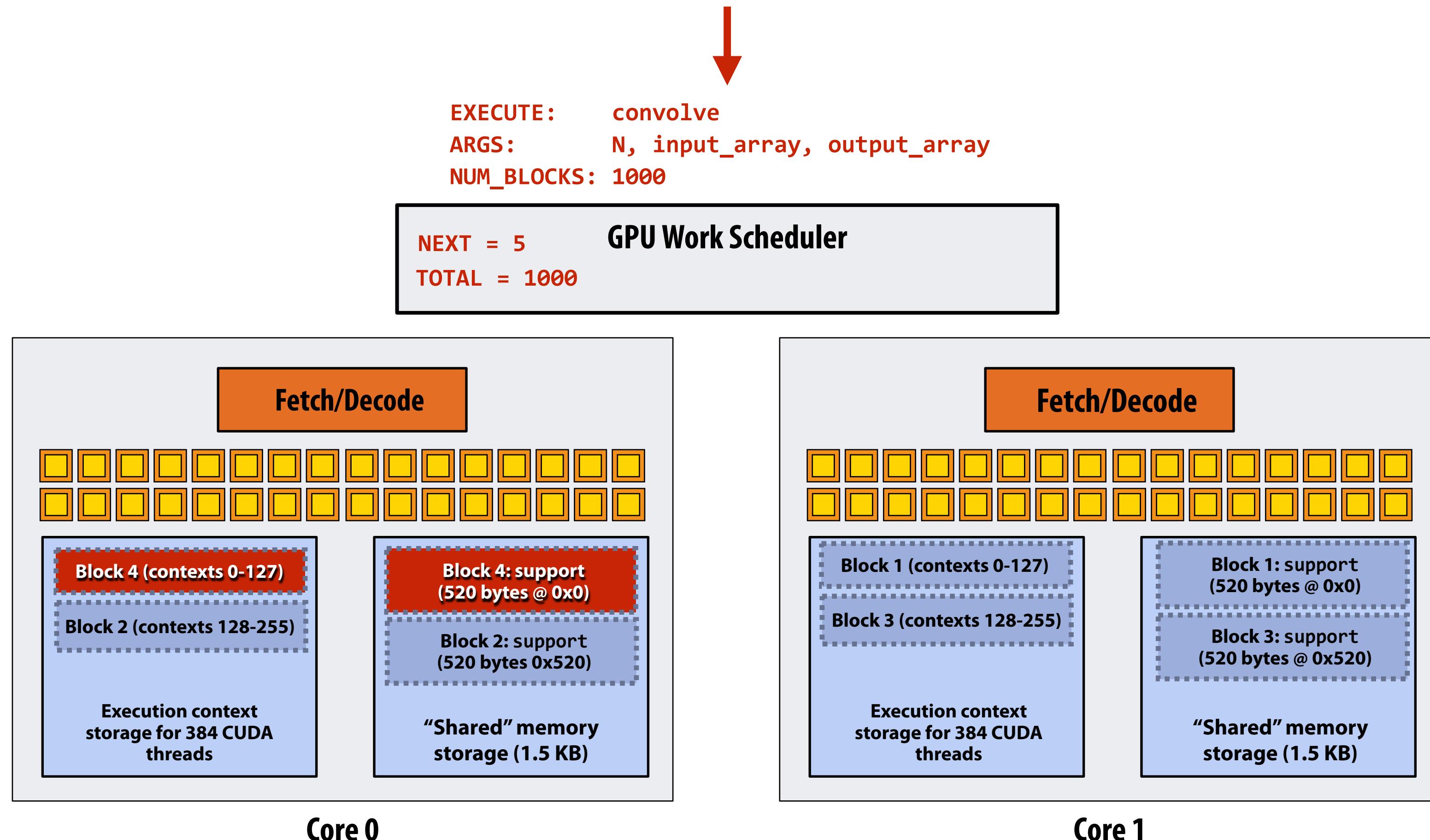
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

**Step 5: block 4 is scheduled on core 0 (mapped to execution contexts 0-127)**



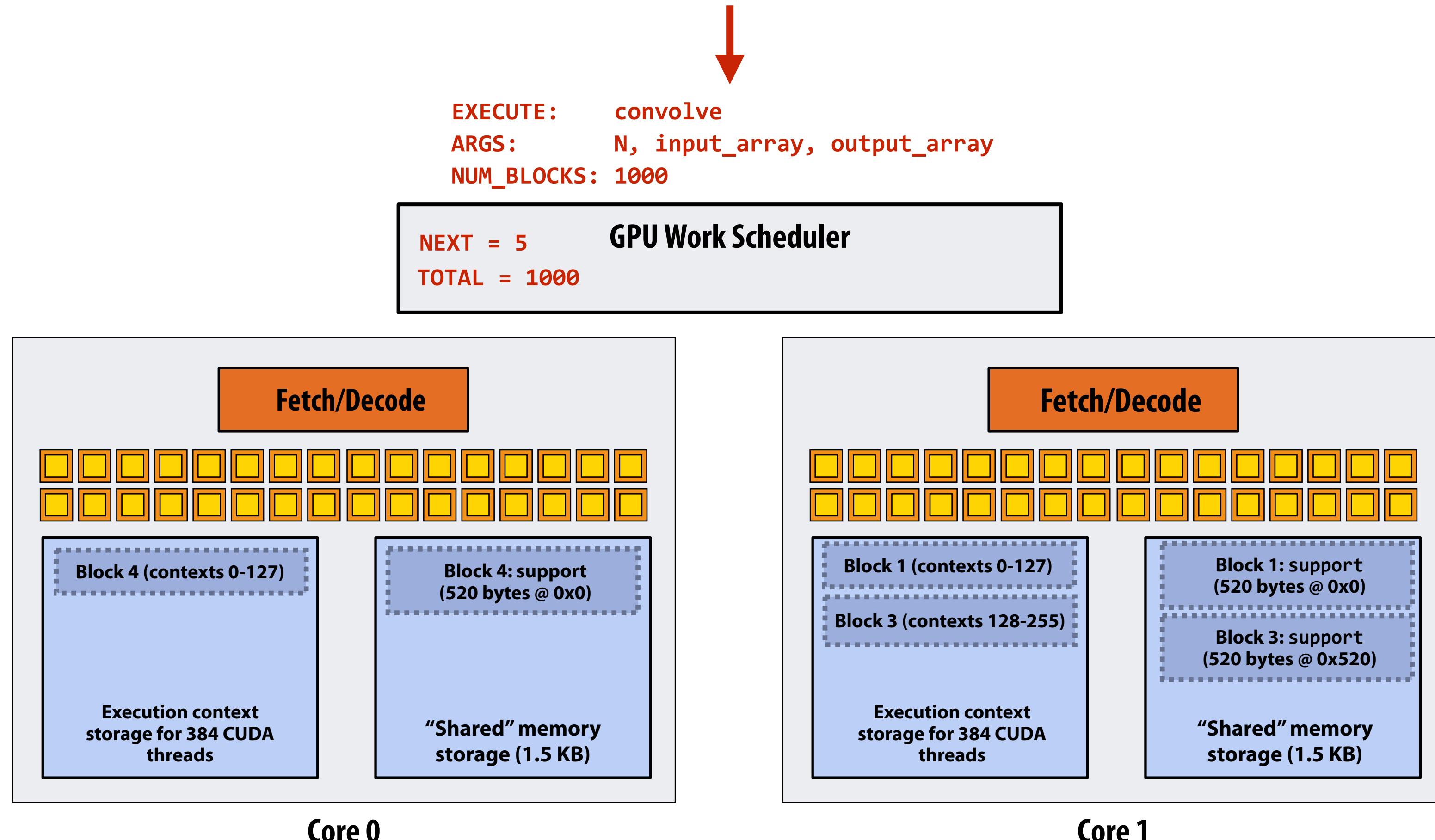
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

Step 6: thread block 2 completes on core 0



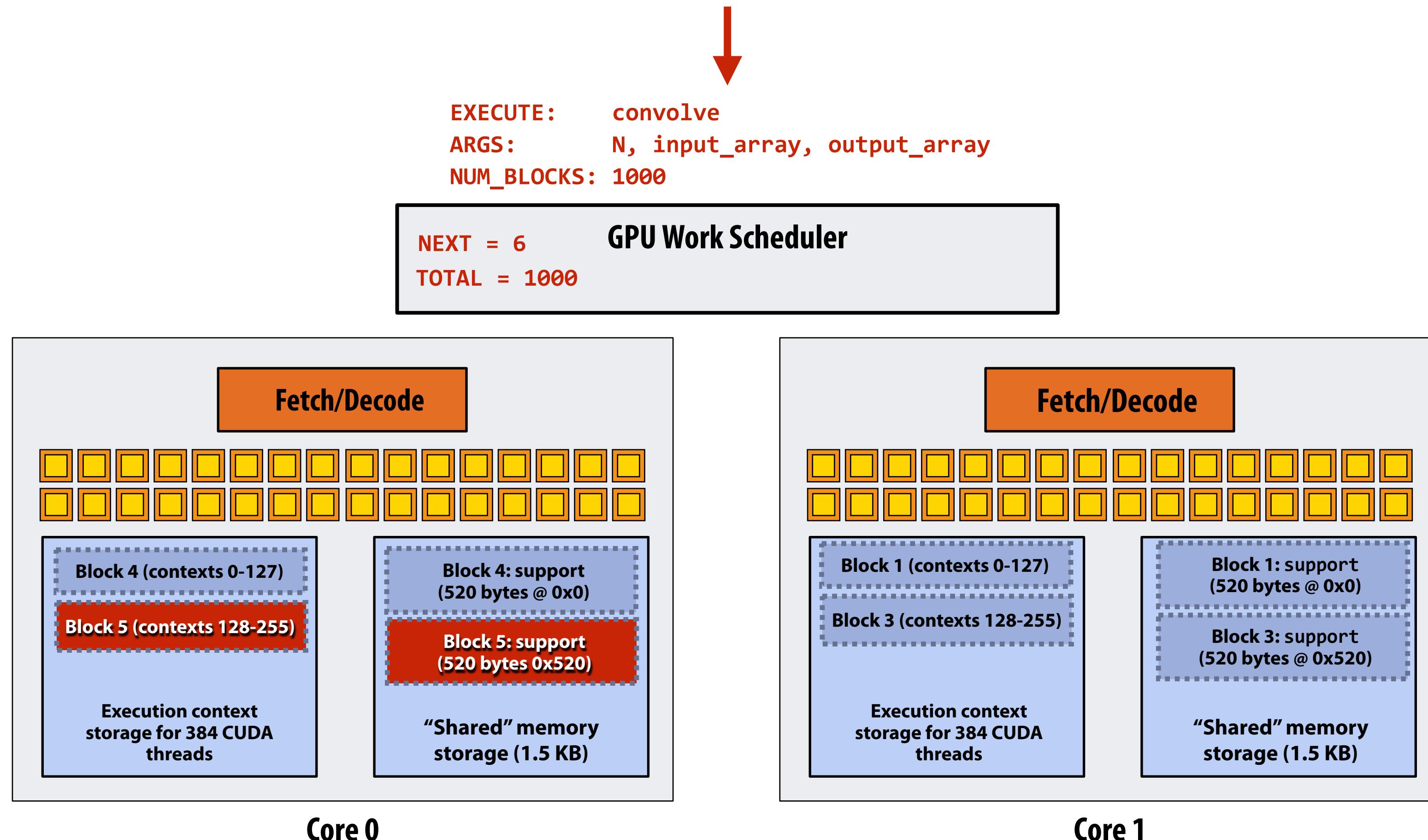
# Running the CUDA kernel

Kernel's execution requirements:

Each thread block must execute 128 CUDA threads

Each thread block must allocate  $130 \times \text{sizeof}(\text{float}) = 520$  bytes of shared memory

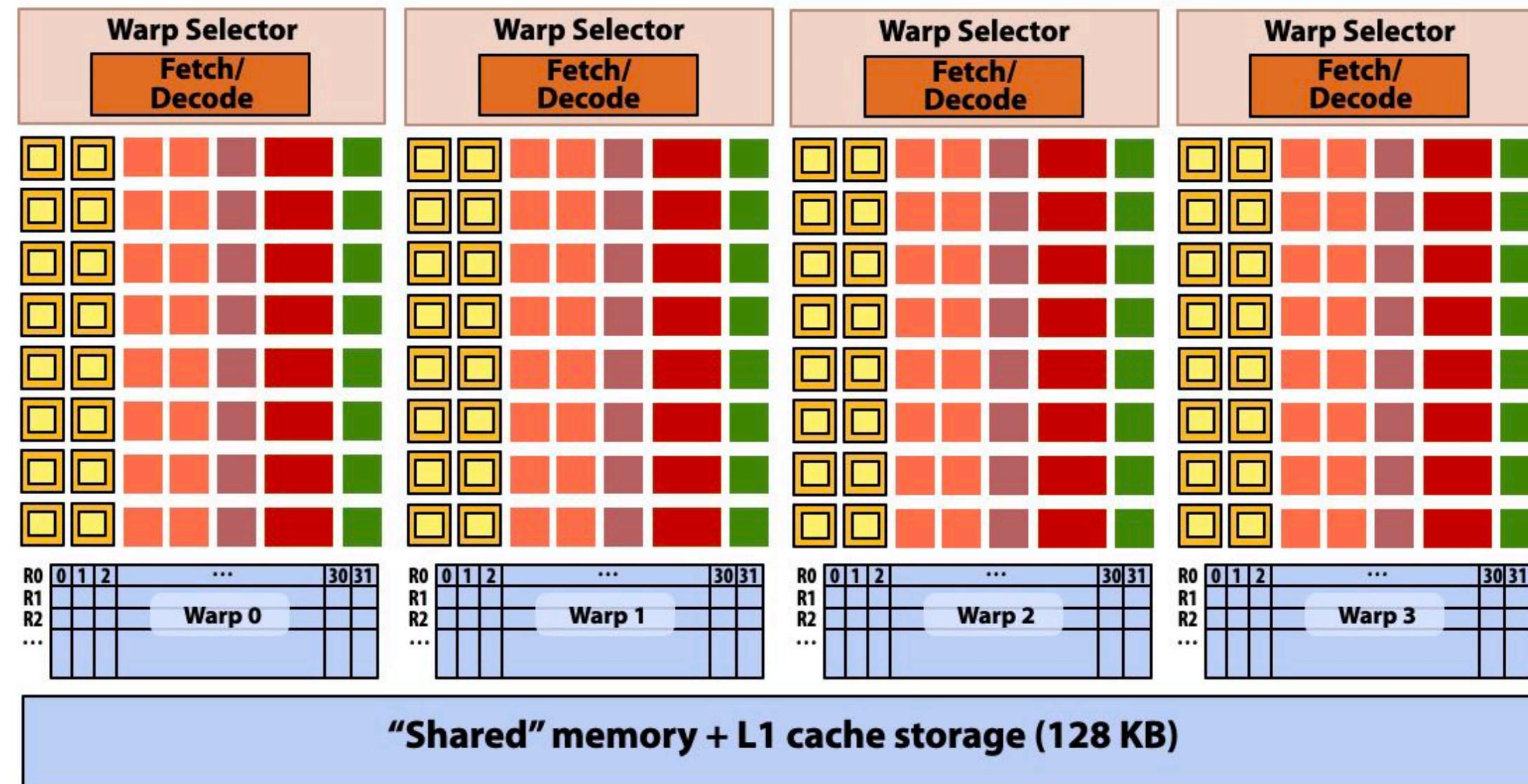
Step 7: thread block 5 is scheduled on core 0 (mapped to execution contexts 128-255)



# More advanced scheduling questions:

**(If you understand the following examples you really understand how CUDA programs run on a GPU, and also have a good handle on the work scheduling issues we've discussed in the course up to this point.)**

# Why must CUDA allocate execution contexts for all threads in a block?



Imagine a thread block with **256 CUDA threads**  
(see code, top-right)

Assume a fictitious SM core (shown above) with only 128 threads (four warps) worth of parallel execution in HW

Why not just run threads 0-127 to completion, then run threads 128-255 to completion in order to execute the entire thread block?

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 256

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input,
                        float* output)
{
    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2];
    int index = blockIdx.x * blockDim.x +
                threadIdx.x;

    support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
    if (threadIdx.x < 2) {
        support[THREADS_PER_BLK+threadIdx.x]
            = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];
    }

    __syncthreads();

    float result = 0.0f; // thread-local
    for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
        result += support[threadIdx.x + i];
    output[index] = result;
}
```

CUDA kernels may create dependencies between threads in a block

Simplest example is `__syncthreads()`

Threads in a block cannot be executed by the system in any order when dependencies exist.

CUDA semantics: threads in a block **ARE** running concurrently. If a thread in a block is runnable it will eventually be run! (no deadlock)

# Implementation of CUDA abstractions

## ■ Thread blocks can be scheduled in any order by the system

- System assumes no dependencies between blocks
- Logically concurrent
- A lot like ISPC tasks, right?

## ■ CUDA threads in same block run concurrently (live at same time)

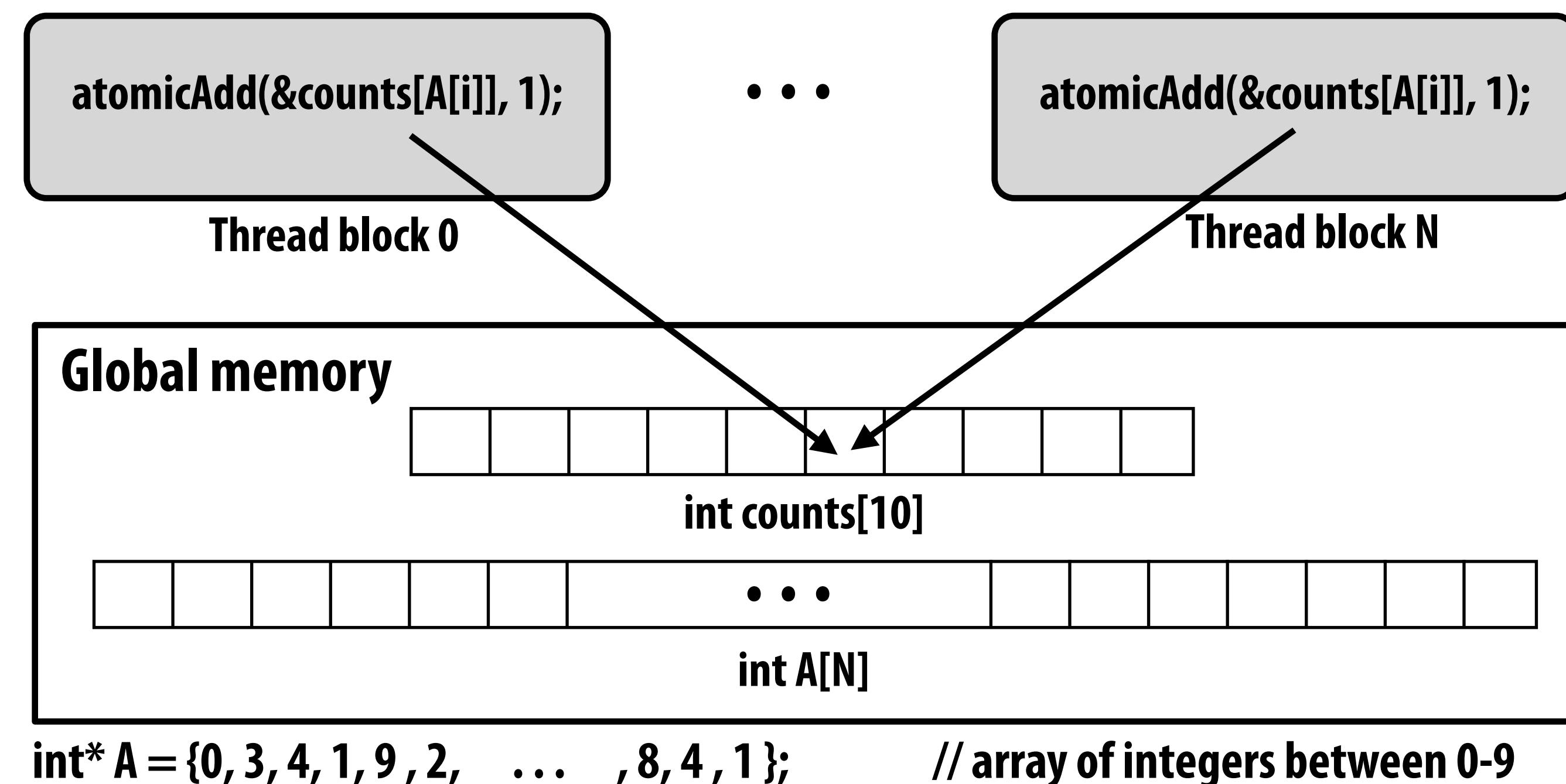
- When block begins executing, all threads exist and have register state allocated (these semantics impose a scheduling constraint on the system)
- A CUDA thread block is itself an SPMD program (like an ISPC gang of program instances)
- Threads in thread block are concurrent, cooperating “workers”

## ■ CUDA implementation:

- A NVIDIA GPU warp has performance characteristics akin to an ISPC gang of instances (but unlike an ISPC gang, the warp concept does not exist in the programming model\*)
- All warps in a thread block are scheduled onto the same SM, allowing for high-BW/low latency communication through shared memory variables
- When all threads in block complete, block resources (shared memory allocations, warp execution contexts) become available for next block

# Consider a program that creates a histogram:

- This example: build a histogram of values in an array
  - All CUDA threads atomically update shared variables in global memory
- Notice I have never claimed CUDA thread blocks were guaranteed to be independent. I only stated CUDA reserves the right to schedule them in any order.
- This is valid code! This use of atomics does not impact implementation's ability to schedule blocks in any order (atomics used for mutual exclusion, and nothing more)



# But is this reasonable CUDA code?

- Consider implementation of on a single SM GPU with resources for only one CUDA thread block per SM
  - What happens if the CUDA implementation runs block 0 first?
  - What happens if the CUDA implementation runs block 1 first?

```
// do stuff here
```

```
atomicAdd(&myFlag, 1);
```

Thread block 0

```
while(atomicAdd(&myFlag, 0) == 0)
```

```
{ }
```

```
// do stuff here
```

Thread block 1

Global memory

```
int myFlag
```

(assume myFlag is initialized to 0)

# Bonus slide: “persistent thread” CUDA programming style

```
#define THREADS_PER_BLK 128
#define BLOCKS_PER_CHIP 80 * (32*64/128) // specific to V100 GPU

__device__ int workCounter = 0; // global mem variable

__global__ void convolve(int N, float* input, float* output) {
    __shared__ int startIndex;
    __shared__ float support[THREADS_PER_BLK+2]; // shared across block
    while (1) {

        if (threadIdx.x == 0)
            startIndex = atomicInc(workCounter, THREADS_PER_BLK);
        __syncthreads();
        if (startIndex >= N)
            break;

        int index = startIndex + threadIdx.x; // thread local
        support[threadIdx.x] = input[index];
        if (threadIdx.x < 2)
            support[THREADS_PER_BLK+threadIdx.x] = input[index+THREADS_PER_BLK];

        __syncthreads();

        float result = 0.0f; // thread-local variable
        for (int i=0; i<3; i++)
            result += support[threadIdx.x + i];
        output[index] = result;

        __syncthreads();
    }

    // host code /////////////////////////////////
    int N = 1024 * 1024;
    cudaMalloc(&devInput, N+2); // allocate array in device memory
    cudaMalloc(&devOutput, N); // allocate array in device memory
    // properly initialize contents of devInput here ...

    convolve<<<BLOCKS_PER_CHIP, THREADS_PER_BLK>>>(N, devInput, devOutput);
}
```

Idea: write CUDA code that requires knowledge of the number of cores and blocks per core that are supported by underlying GPU implementation.

Programmer launches exactly as many thread blocks as will fill the GPU

(Program makes assumptions about GPU implementation: that GPU will in fact run all blocks concurrently. Ugg!)

Now, work assignment to blocks is implemented entirely by the application

(circumvents GPU's thread block scheduler)

Now the programmer's mental model is that **\*all\*** CUDA threads are concurrently running on the GPU at once.

# CUDA summary

- **Execution semantics**
  - **Partitioning of problem into thread blocks is in the spirit of the data-parallel model (intended to be machine independent: system schedules blocks onto any number of cores)**
  - **Threads in a thread block actually do run concurrently (they have to, since they cooperate)**
    - **Inside a single thread block: SPMD shared address space programming**
  - **There are subtle, but notable differences between these models of execution. Make sure you understand it. (And ask yourself what semantics are being used whenever you encounter a parallel programming system)**
- **Memory semantics**
  - **Distributed address space: host/device memories**
  - **Thread local/block shared/global variables within device memory**
    - **Loads/stores move data between them (so it is correct to think about local/shared/global memory as being distinct address spaces)**
- **Key implementation details:**
  - **Threads in a thread block are scheduled onto same GPU “SM” to allow fast communication through shared memory**
  - **Threads in a thread block are grouped into warps for SIMD execution on GPU hardware**

# One last point...

- In this lecture, we talked about writing CUDA programs for the programmable cores in a GPU
  - Work (described by a CUDA kernel launch) was mapped onto the cores via a hardware work scheduler
- Remember, there is also the graphics pipeline interface for driving GPU execution
  - And much of the interesting non-programmable functionality of the GPU exists to accelerate execution of graphics pipeline operations
  - It's more or less "turned off" when running CUDA programs
- How the GPU implements the graphics pipeline efficiently is a topic for a graphics class... \*

\* See CS248a or CS348K

# And...

- We didn't even talk about the hundreds of teraflops available in the "tensor cores" in the SM (for deep learning)
- A topic for later in the quarter