Lecture 8:
Parallel Programming
Case Studies

Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming
CMU 15-418/15-618, Spring 2017
Tunes

Beyoncé
(featuring Jack White)
Don’t Hurt Yourself
(Lemonade)

“I suggest 418 students get started on Assignment 2 before it's too late...”
- Beyoncé
Modern multi-core chip architectures: multi-core + SIMD execution + HW multi-threading

Ways to think about parallelism and communication
  At the abstraction level -- programming models: shared memory, message passing, data parallelism
  At the hardware level -- machine organizations and implementation

How to write and optimize parallel programs
  
  
  

Today

Case studies and example techniques

Evaluating system performance

Shared address space hardware implementation details (memory coherence and consistency)
  
  
  
Exam I
Today: case studies!

- Several parallel application examples
  - Ocean simulation
  - Galaxy simulation (Barnes-Hut algorithm)
  - Parallel scan
  - Data-parallel segmented scan (Bonus material!)
  - Ray tracing (Bonus material!)

- Will be describing key aspects of the implementations
  - Focus on: optimization techniques, analysis of workload characteristics
Assumption: shared address space

- For the purposes of today’s lecture I encourage you to think about the example applications in the context of a large NUMA shared address space machine.
  (single address space, but each processor can access a local region of the address space more quickly)

- But issues we discuss certainly also arise in a distributed address space setting.
Simulation of Ocean Currents (grid-based solver)
Simulating of ocean currents

- Discretize 3D ocean volume into slices represented as 2D grids
- Discretize time evolution of ocean: $\Delta t$
- High accuracy simulation requires small $\Delta t$ and high resolution grids

Figure credit: Culler, Singh, and Gupta
Where are the dependencies?

Dependencies in one time step of ocean simulation

Parallelism within a grid (data-parallelism) and across operations on the different grids.

The implementation only leverages data-parallelism (for simplicity)

Boxes correspond to computations on grids

Lines express dependencies between computations on grids

The “grid solver” example corresponds to these parts of the application

Figure credit: Culler, Singh, and Gupta
Ocean implementation details

Recall shared-memory implementation discussed in previous classes:

- **Decomposition:**
  - Spatial partitioning of grid: each processor receives 2D tile of grid

- **Assignment**
  - Static assignment of tiles to processors

- **Synchronization**
  - Barriers (separate each pass over grid is a different phase of computation)
  - Locks for mutual exclusion when updating shared variables (atomic update of ‘diff’)
Another question to ask: what are the critical working sets?

1. Local neighborhood for cell
2. Three rows of a processor’s local partition of grid
3. Processor’s local partition of grid
Recall: two layouts of 2D grid in address space

(Blue lines indicate consecutive memory addresses)

2D, row-major array layout

4D array layout (block-major)
Observations:

- Static assignment is sufficient (approximately equal busy time per thread)
- 4D blocking of grid reduces time spent on communication (reflected on graph as data wait time)
- Synchronization cost is largely due to waiting at barriers
Galaxy Evolution using Barnes Hut

Image credit: http://www.lsw.uni-heidelberg.de/users/mcamenzi/images/Universe_Box.gif
Example taken from: Culler, Singh, and Gupta, Chapter 3
Galaxy evolution

Barnes-Hut algorithm

- Represent galaxy as a collection of $N$ particles (think: particle = star)
- Compute forces on each particle due to gravity
  - Naive algorithm is $O(N^2)$ — all particles interact with all others (gravity has infinite extent)
  - Magnitude of gravitational force falls off with distance (algorithm approximates forces from far away stars to gain performance)
  - Result is an $O(N \log N)$ algorithm for computing gravitational forces between all stars
Barnes-Hut tree

- Leaf nodes are star particles
- Interior nodes store center of mass + aggregate mass of all child bodies
- To compute forces on each body, traverse tree... accumulating forces from all other bodies
  - Compute forces using aggregate interior node if $L/D < \Theta$, else descend to children
- Expected number of nodes touched $\sim \lg N / \Theta^2$
Barnes-Hut application structure

for each time step in simulation:
  build tree structure
  compute (aggregate mass, center-of-mass) for interior nodes
for each particle:
  traverse tree to accumulate gravitational forces
  update particle position based on gravitational forces

- Challenges:
  - Amount of work per body (innermost loop) is non-uniform, communication pattern is non-uniform (depends on the local density of bodies)
  - The bodies move: so costs and communication patterns change over time
  - Irregular, fine-grained computation

- But, there is a lot of locality in the computation (bodies that are near in space require similar data to compute forces — it seems smart to co-locate these computations!)
Work assignment

- **Challenge:**
  - Equal number of bodies per processor != equal work per processor
  - Want equal work per processor AND assignment should preserve locality

- **Observation:** spatial distribution of bodies evolves slowly

- **Use semi-static assignment**
  - Each time step, for each body, record number of interactions with other bodies (the application profiles itself)
    - Cheap to compute. Just increment local per-body counters
    - Use values to periodically recompute assignment
Assignment using cost zones

- Leverage locality inherent in tree
- Compute total work estimate $W$ for all bodies (computed by summing per-body costs)
- Each processor is assigned $W/P$ of the total work ($P =$ num processors)
- Each processor performs depth-first (post-order) traversal of tree (accumulates work seen so far)
- Processor $P_i$ responsible for processing bodies corresponding to work: $iW/P$ to $(i+1)W/P$
- Each processor can independently compute its assignment of bodies. (The only synchronization required is the sum reduction to compute total amount of work $= W$)

Figure credit: Culler, Singh, and Gupta
Barnes-Hut: working sets

- Working set 1: data needed to compute forces between body-body (or body-node) pairs
- Working set 2: data encountered in an entire tree traversal
  - Expected number of nodes touched for one body: $\sim \lg N / \Theta^2$
  - Computation has high locality: consecutively processed bodies are nearby, so processing touches almost exactly the same nodes!
Cost zones technique computes a good work assignment. What about data distribution?

Difficult to distribute data
- Work assignment changes with time: would have to dynamically redistribute all simulation data
- Data accessed at fine granularity (single tree node)

Luckily: high temporal locality
- Bodies assigned to same processor are nearby in space, so tree nodes accessed during force computations are very similar.
- Data for traversal already in cache (Barnes-Hut benefits from large caches, smaller cache line size)

Result: Unlike OCEAN, data distribution in Barnes-Hut does not significantly impact performance
- Implementation uses static distribution (interleave particles throughout the machine)
Barnes-hut: execution time
Execution on 32-processor SGI Origin 2000 (512K bodies)

- Load balance is good even with static assignment because of random assignment
  - On average, each processor does approximately the same amount of work
- But random assignment yields poor locality
  - Significant amount of inherent communication
  - Significant amount of artifactual communication (fine-grained accesses to tree nodes)
- Common tension: work balance vs. locality (cost-zones get us both!)
  (similar to work balance vs. synchronization trade-offs in “work distribution” lecture)

Figure credit: Culler, Singh, and Gupta
Summary

- Today so far: two examples of parallel program optimization
- Key issues when discussing the applications
  - How to balance the work?
  - How to exploit locality inherent in the problem?
  - What synchronization is necessary?
Parallel Scan
Data-parallel scan

let $A = [a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{n-1}]$

let $\oplus$ be an associative binary operator with identity element $I$

scan_inclusive($\oplus$, $A$) = $[a_0, a_0 \oplus a_1, a_0 \oplus a_1 \oplus a_2, \ldots]$

scan_exclusive($\oplus$, $A$) = $[I, a_0, a_0 \oplus a_1, \ldots]$

If operator is $+$, then scan_inclusive($+$, $A$) is a prefix sum

prefix_sum($A$) = $[a_0, a_0 + a_1, a_0 + a_1 + a_2, \ldots]$
Data-parallel inclusive scan
(Subtract original vector to get exclusive scan result: not shown)

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccc}
  a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & a_{10} & a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\
  a_0 & a_{0-1} & a_{1-2} & a_{2-3} & a_{3-4} & a_{4-5} & a_{5-6} & a_{6-7} & a_{7-8} & a_{8-9} & a_{9-10} & a_{10-11} & a_{11-12} & a_{12-13} & a_{13-14} & a_{14-15} \\
  a_0 & a_{0-1} & a_{0-2} & a_{0-3} & a_{1-4} & a_{2-5} & a_{3-6} & a_{4-7} & a_{5-8} & a_{6-9} & a_{7-10} & a_{8-11} & a_{9-12} & a_{10-13} & a_{11-14} & a_{12-15} \\
  a_0 & a_{0-1} & a_{0-2} & a_{0-3} & a_{0-4} & a_{0-5} & a_{0-6} & a_{0-7} & a_{0-8} & a_{0-9} & a_{0-10} & a_{0-11} & a_{0-12} & a_{0-13} & a_{0-14} & a_{0-15} \\
\end{array} \]

* not showing all dependencies in last step

Work: \( O(N \lg N) \)  
Inefficient compared to sequential algorithm! 
Span: \( O(\lg N) \)  

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Work-efficient parallel exclusive scan (O(N) work)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$a_0$</th>
<th>$a_1$</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

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Work efficient exclusive scan algorithm
(with $\oplus = \text{"+"}$)

Up-sweep:
for $d = 0$ to $(\log_2 n - 1)$ do
  for all $k = 0$ to $n-1$ by $2^{d+1}$ do
    $a[k + 2^{d+1} - 1] = a[k + 2^d - 1] + a[k + 2^{d+1} - 1]$

Down-sweep:
$n-1] = 0$
for $d = (\log_2 n - 1)$ down to $0$ do
  for all $k = 0$ to $n-1$ by $2^{d+1}$ do
    tmp = $a[k + 2^d - 1]$
    $a[k + 2^d - 1] = a[k + 2^{d+1} - 1]$
    $a[k + 2^{d+1} - 1] = tmp + a[k + 2^{d+1} - 1]$

Work: $O(N)$ (but what is the constant?)
Span: $O(\lg N)$ (but what is the constant?)
Locality: ??
Now consider scan implementation on just two cores

```
| a0 | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | a6 | a7 |
| a0 | a0-1| a2 | a2-3| a4 | a4-5| a6 | a6-7|
| a0 | a0-1| a2 | a0-3| a4 | a4-5| a6 | a4-7|
| a0 | a0-1| a2 | a0-3| a4 | a4-5| a6 | a0-7|

| a0 | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | a6 | a7 |
| a8 | a9 | a10| a11| a12| a13| a14| a15|
| a8 | a8-9| a10| a10-11| a12| a12-13| a14| a14-15|
| a8 | a8-9| a10| a8-11| a12| a12-13| a14| a12-15|
| a8 | a8-9| a10| a8-11| a12| a12-13| a14| a8-15|

| a0 | a1 | a2 | a3 | a4 | a5 | a6 | a7 |
| a8 | a9 | a10| a11| a12| a13| a14| a0 |
| a8 | a8-9| a10| a8-11| a12| a12-13| a14| a0-7|
| a8 | a8-9| a10| a8-11| a12| a12-13| a14| a0-11|
| a8 | a0-7| a10| a0-7| a12| a12-13| a14| a0-11|
| a8 | a0-7| a10| a0-9| a12| a0-11| a14| a0-13|
| a8 | a0-7| a10| a0-9| a10| a0-11| a14| a0-13|
| a0 | a0 | a0-1| a0-2| a0-3| a0-4| a0-5| a0-6|
| a0-7| a0-8| a0-9| a0-10| a0-11| a0-12| a0-13| a0-14|

P1

P2
```
Exclusive scan: two processor implementation

| a₀ | a₁ | a₂ | a₃ | a₄ | a₅ | a₆ | a₇ | a₈ | a₉ | a₁₀ | a₁₁ | a₁₂ | a₁₃ | a₁₄ | a₁₅ |

P1

Sequential scan on elements [0-7]

Let base = a₀-7

Add base to elements a₈ thru a₈-11

P2

Sequential scan on elements [8-15]

Add base to elements a₈-12 thru a₈-15

Work: O(N) (but constant is now only 1.5)

Data-access:
- Very high spatial locality (contiguous memory access)
- P1's access to a₈ through a₈-11 may be more costly on large NUMA system, but on small-scale system access likely same cost as from P2
Exclusive scan: SIMD implementation (in CUDA)

Example: perform exclusive scan on 32-element array: SPMD program, assume 32-wide SIMD execution

When `scan_warp` is run by a group of 32 CUDA threads, each thread returns the exclusive scan result for element `idx`
(also: upon completion `ptr[]` stores inclusive scan result)

```c
__device__ int scan_warp(volatile int *ptr, const unsigned int idx)
{
    const unsigned int lane = idx & 31; // index of thread in warp (0..31)

    if (lane >= 1) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 1] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 2) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 2] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 4) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 4] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 8) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 8] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 16) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 16] + ptr[idx];

    return (lane > 0) ? ptr[idx-1] : 0;
}
```

Work: ??
Exclusive scan: SIMD implementation (in CUDA)

```c
__device__ int scan_warp(volatile int *ptr, const unsigned int idx)
{
    const unsigned int lane = idx & 31; // index of thread in warp (0..31)

    if (lane >= 1) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 1] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 2) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 2] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 4) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 4] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 8) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 8] + ptr[idx];
    if (lane >= 16) ptr[idx] = ptr[idx - 16] + ptr[idx];

    return (lane > 0) ? ptr[idx-1] : 0;
}
```

Work: $N \log(N)$

Work-efficient formulation of scan is not beneficial in this context because it results in low SIMD utilization. It would require more than 2x the number of instructions as the implementation above!
Building scan on larger array

Example: 128-element scan using four-warp thread block

- length 32 SIMD scan warp 0
- length 32 SIMD scan warp 1
- length 32 SIMD scan warp 2
- length 32 SIMD scan warp 3

Base:

- $a_{0-31}$
- $a_{32-63}$
- $a_{64-95}$
- $a_{96-127}$

Add base[0] warp 1
Add base[1] warp 2
Add base[2] warp 3
Multi-threaded, SIMD implementation

Example: cooperating threads in a CUDA thread block perform scan

We provided similar code in assignment 2.
Code assumes length of array given by ptr is same as number of threads per block.

```c
__device__ void scan_block(volatile int *ptr, const unsigned int idx)
{
    const unsigned int lane = idx & 31; // index of thread in warp (0..31)
    const unsigned int warp_id = idx >> 5; // warp index in block

    int val = scan_warp(ptr, idx); // Step 1. per-warp partial scan
    // (Performed by all threads in block,
    // with threads in same warp communicating
    // through shared memory buffer ‘ptr’)

    if (lane == 31) ptr[warp_id] = ptr[idx]; // Step 2. thread 31 in each warp copies
    __syncthreads(); // partial-scan bases in per-block
    // shared mem

    if (warp_id == 0) scan_warp(ptr, idx); // Step 3. scan to accumulate bases
    __syncthreads(); // (only performed by warp 0)

    if (warp_id > 0)
        val = val + ptr[warp_id-1]; // Step 4. apply bases to all elements
    __syncthreads(); // (performed by all threads in block)

    ptr[idx] = val;
}
```
Building a larger scan
Example: one million element scan (1024 elements per block)

Exceeding 1 million elements requires partitioning phase two into multiple blocks
Scan implementation

- **Parallelism**
  - Scan algorithm features $O(N)$ parallel work
  - But efficient implementations only leverage as much parallelism as required to make good utilization of the machine
    - Goal is to reduce work and reduce communication/synchronization

- **Locality**
  - Multi-level implementation to match memory hierarchy
    (CUDA example: per-block implementation carried out in local memory)

- **Heterogeneity: different strategy at different machine levels**
  - CUDA example: Different algorithm for intra-warp scan than inter-thread scan
  - Low core count CPU example: based largely on sequential scan
Parallel Segmented Scan
Segmented scan

- Common problem: operating on sequence of sequences
- Examples:
  - For each vertex in a graph:
    - For each edge incoming to vertex:
  - For each particle in simulation
    - For each particle within cutoff radius
- There are two levels of parallelism in the problem that a programmer might want to exploit
- But its irregular: the size of edge lists, particle neighbor lists, etc, may be very different from vertex to vertex (or particle to particle)
Segmented scan

- Generalization of scan
- Simultaneously perform scans on arbitrary contiguous partitions of input collection

```
let A = [[[1,2],[6]],[1,2,3,4]]
let ⊕ = +
segmented_scan_exclusive(⊕, A) = [[[0,1],[0],[0,1,3,6]]
```

We’ll assume a simple “head-flag” representation:

```
A = [[[1,2,3],[4,5,6,7,8]]
flag: 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
data: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
```
Work-efficient segmented scan (with $\oplus = \"+\")

Up-sweep:
for d=0 to ($\log_2 n - 1$) do:
    forall k=0 to n-1 by $2^{d+1}$ do:
        if flag[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] == 0:
            data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] = data[$k + 2^d - 1$] + data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$]
            flag[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] = flag[$k + 2^d - 1$] || flag[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$]

Down-sweep:
data[n-1] = 0
for d=($\log_2 n - 1$) down to 0 do:
    forall k=0 to n-1 by $2^{d+1}$ do:
        tmp = data[$k + 2^d - 1$]
        data[$k + 2^d - 1$] = data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$]
        if flag_original[$k + 2^d$] == 1: # must maintain copy of original flags
            data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] = 0 # start of segment
        else if flag[$k + 2^d - 1$] == 1:
            data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] = tmp
        else:
            data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$] = tmp + data[$k + 2^{d+1} - 1$]
        flag[$k + 2^d - 1$] = 0
Segmented scan
Sparse matrix multiplication example

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
y_0 \\
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
\vdots \\
y_{n-1}
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 4 & \cdots & 0 \\
\vdots \\
0 & 2 & 6 & \cdots & 8
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
x_0 \\
x_1 \\
x_2 \\
\vdots \\
x_{n-1}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

- Most values in matrix are zero
  - Note: logical parallelization is across per-row dot products
  - But different amounts of work per row (complicates wide SIMD execution)

- Example sparse storage format: compressed sparse row

values = [ [3,1], [2], [4], ..., [2,6,8] ]
cols = [ [0,2], [1], [2],...., ]
row_starts = [0, 2, 3, 4, ... ]
Sparse matrix multiplication with scan

values = [ [3,1], [2], [4], [2,6,8] ]
cols = [ [0,2], [1], [2], [1,2,3] ]
row_starts = [0, 2, 3, 4]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
y_0 \\
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\
0 & 2 & 6 & 8 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
x_0 \\
x_1 \\
x_2 \\
x_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

1. Map over all non-zero values: products[i] = values[i] * x[cols[i]]
   
   \[
   \text{products} = [3x_0, x_2, 2x_1, 4x_2, 2x_1, 6x_2, 8x_3]
   \]

2. Create flags vector from row_starts: flags = [1,0,1,1,0,0]

3. Inclusive segmented-scan on (multiples, flags) using addition operator
   
   \[
   [3x_0, 3x_0+x_2, 2x_1, 4x_2, 2x_1, 2x_1+6x_2, 2x_1+6x_2+8x_2]
   \]

4. Take last element in each segment:
   
   \[
   y = [3x_0+x_2, 2x_1, 4x_2, 2x_1+6x_2+8x_2]
   \]
Scan/segmented scan summary

- **Scan**
  - Parallel implementation of (intuitively sequential application)
  - Theory: parallelism in problem is linear in number of elements
  - Practice: exploit locality, use only as much parallelism as necessary to fill the machine
    - Great example of applying different strategies at different levels of the machine

- **Segmented scan**
  - Express computation and operate on irregular data structures (e.g., list of lists) in a regular, data parallel way
Parallel Ray Tracing on SIMD Architectures

(since many students always ask about parallel ray tracing)
Ray tracing

Problem statement:
Given a “ray”, find closest intersection with scene geometry

Simplest ray tracer:
For each image pixel, shoot ray from camera through pixel into scene. Color pixel according to first surface hit.
Accelerating ray-scene intersection

Preprocess scene to build data structure that accelerates finding “closest” geometry along ray

Idea: group objects with spatial proximity (like quad-tree in Barnes-Hut)

- Hierarchical grouping adapts to non-uniform density of scene objects

Bounding Volume Hierarchy (BVH)
(Binary tree organizing the scene)

Scene objects (in 2D)
Parallelize across rays

- Simultaneously intersect multiple rays with scene

- Different cores trace different rays in parallel
  - Trivial “embarrassingly parallel” implementation

- But how to leverage SIMD parallelism within a core?

- Today: we’ll discuss one approach: ray packets
  - Code is explicitly written to trace N rays at a time, not 1 ray
Simple ray tracer (using a BVH)

// stores information about closest hit found so far
struct ClosestHitInfo {
    Primitive primitive;
    float distance;
};

trace(Ray ray, BVHNode node, ClosestHitInfo hitInfo) {
    if (!intersect(ray, node.bbox) || (closest point on box is farther than hitInfo.distance))
        return;

    if (node.leaf) {
        for (each primitive in node) {
            (hit, distance) = intersect(ray, primitive);
            if (hit && distance < hitInfo.distance) {
                hitInfo.primitive = primitive;
                hitInfo.distance = distance;
            }
        }
    } else {
        trace(ray, node.leftChild, hitInfo);
        trace(ray, node.rightChild, hitInfo);
    }
}
Ray packet tracing

Program explicitly intersects a collection of rays against BVH at once

RayPacket
{
    Ray rays[PACKET_SIZE];
    bool active[PACKET_SIZE];
};

trace(RayPacket rays, BVHNode node, ClosestHitInfo packetHitInfo)
{
    if (!ANY_ACTIVE_intersect(rays, node.bbox) ||
        (closest point on box (for all active rays) is farther than hitInfo.distance))
        return;

    update packet active mask

    if (node.leaf) {
        for (each primitive in node) {
            for (each ACTIVE ray r in packet) {
                (hit, distance) = intersect(ray, primitive);
                if (hit && distance < hitInfo.distance) {
                    hitInfo[r].primitive = primitive;
                    hitInfo[r].distance = distance;
                }
            }
        }
    } else {
        trace(rays, node.leftChild, hitInfo);
        trace(rays, node.rightChild, hitInfo);
    }
}
Ray packet tracing

Blue = active rays after node box test

Note: r6 does not pass node F box test due to closest-so-far check, and thus does not visit F
Advantages of packets

- Map packet operations to wide SIMD execution
  - One vector lane per ray

- Amortize BVH data fetch: all rays in packet visit node at same time
  - Load BVH node once for all rays in packet (not once per ray)
  - Note: there is value to making packets bigger than SIMD width! (e.g., size = 64)

- Amortize work (packets are hierarchies over rays)
  - Use interval arithmetic to conservatively test entire set of rays against node bbox (e.g., think of a packet as a beam)
  - Further arithmetic optimizations possible when all rays share origin
  - Note: there is value to making packets much bigger than SIMD width!
Disadvantages of packets

- If any ray must visit a node, it drags all rays in the packet along with it.
- Loss of efficiency: node traversal, intersection, etc. amortized over less than a packet’s worth of rays.
- Not all SIMD lanes doing useful work.
When rays are incoherent, benefit of packets can decrease significantly. This example: packet visits all tree nodes. (So all eight rays visit all tree nodes! No culling benefit!)
Incoherence is a property of both the rays and the scene.

Random rays are “coherent” with respect to the BVH if the scene is one big triangle!
Incoherence is a property of both the rays and the scene.

Camera rays become “incoherent” with respect to lower nodes in the BVH if a scene is overly detailed.

(Side note: this suggests the importance of choosing the right geometric level of detail)
Improving packet tracing with ray reordering

Idea: when packet utilization drops below threshold, resort rays and continue with smaller packet
  - Increases SIMD utilization
  - Amortization benefits of smaller packets, but not large packets

Example: consider 8-wide SIMD processor and 16-ray packets
(2 SIMD instructions required to perform each operation on all rays in packet)

16-ray packet: 7 of 16 rays active

Reorder rays
Recompute intervals/bounds for active rays

Continue tracing with 8-ray packet:
7 of 8 rays active

[Boulos et al. 2008]
Giving up on packets

- Even with reordering, ray coherence during BVH traversal will diminish
  - Diffuse bounces result in essentially random ray distribution
  - High-resolution geometry encourages incoherence near leaves of tree

- In these situations there is little benefit to packets (can even decrease performance compared to single ray code)
Packet tracing best practices

- Use large packets for eye/reflection/point light shadow rays or higher levels of BVH
  - Ray coherence always high at the top of the tree
  [Wald et al. 2007]

- Switch to single ray (intra-ray SIMD) when packet utilization drops below threshold
  - For wide SIMD machine, a branching-factor-4 BVH works well for both packet traversal and single ray traversal
  [Benthin et al. 2011]

- Can use packet reordering to postpone time of switch
  - Reordering allows packets to provide benefit deeper into tree
  - Not often used in practice due to high implementation complexity
  [Boulos et al. 2008]
Summary

- Today we looked at several different parallel programs

- Key questions:
  - What are the dependencies?
  - What synchronization is necessary?
  - How to balance the work?
  - How to exploit locality inherent in the problem?

- Trends
  - Only need enough parallelism to keep all processing elements busy (e.g., data-parallel scan vs. simple multi-core scan)
  - Different parallelization strategies may be applicable under different workloads (packets vs. no packets) or different locations in the machine (different implementations of scan internal and external to warp)
Brute force nearest neighbor search
Task: find most similar images to query

Evaluate features

Compare to DB

Query image

Similar images from database

* Trajectory shown on image is movement of camera, not part of image
Find most similar images to a query

Brute force computation:

```c
#define NUM_DB_IMAGES 50000
#define FEATURE_LEN 9216

float compute_distances(float* a, float* b) {
    float result = 0.f;
    for (int i=0; i<FEATURE_LEN; i++)
        result += a[i] * b[i];
    return result;
}

float features[NUM_DB_IMAGES][FEATURE_LEN]; // ~1.7 GB

forall queries i:
    forall images j in database:
        results[i][j] = compute_distance(features[i], features[j]);
```
Batching queries

Increase arithmetic intensity: amortize load of DB data across eight queries

```c
#define NUM_DB_IMAGES 50000
#define FEATURE_LEN 9216

float compute_distances_batched(float* results, float* a, float* b) {
    for (int ii=0; ii<8; ii++)
        results[ii] = 0.0
    for (int i=0; i<FEATURE_LEN; i++)
        for (int ii=0; ii<8; ii++)
            results[ii] += a[(ii*FEATURE_LEN)+i] * b[i];
}

float features[NUM_DB_IMAGES][FEATURE_LEN]; // ~1.7 GB

forall queries i (by 8):
    forall images j in database:
        for (int ii=0; ii<8; ii++)
            compute_distance_batched(results[i], features[i+ii], features[j]);
```
Performance

Throughput

Speedup

Queries/sec

Relative to 1 thread