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Abstract

We have designed Particle-in-Cell algorithms for emerging architectures. These algorithms share a common approach, using fine-grained tiles, but different implementations depending on the architecture. On the GPU, there were two different implementations, one with atomic operations and one with no data collisions, based on CUDA C. There was also an implementation for traditional multi-core processors using OpenMP which achieved high efficiency. We believe that this approach should work for other emerging architectures such as the Intel Phi.
1. Introduction

High Performance Computing (HPC) is going through a revolutionary phase with greatly increased parallelism on shared memory processors, but with different approaches. A number of these approaches make use of Single Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) vector processors, which introduces another level of parallelism. Graphical Processing Units (GPUs) were an early pioneer in this kind of computing, especially after NVIDIA introduced CUDA, a C-style programming language which substantially simplified programming their devices[1]. Intel is also introducing a similar architecture with the introduction of the Phi co-processor[2], but with a different programming model.

This paper will focus on how to implement Particle-in-Cell (PIC) codes on such emerging architectures. PIC codes model plasmas by integrating self-consistently the trajectories of many charged particles responding to the electromagnetic fields that they themselves generate [3-4]. They are widely used in plasma physics, and with domain-decomposition techniques [5] they have run in parallel on very large distributed memory supercomputers [6]. PIC codes have three major steps: depositing some quantity such as charge or current from particles onto a grid, solving a field equation to obtain the electromagnetic fields, and interpolating electric and magnetic fields to particles from a grid. They have two data structures, particles and fields, that need to efficiently communicate with one another.

A variety of PIC codes have been implemented on GPU platforms in recent years [7-15]. In an earlier paper [8], we described how we implemented a two dimensional (2D) electrostatic spectral PIC code on the NVIDIA GT200 class of GPUs. The fundamental approach we used was to divide space into small tiles (typically containing 2x3 grid points) and to keep particles in each tile stored together in memory. Each tile could then be processed independently in parallel and only a small amount of fast local memory was needed.

More tiles were used than actual processors. The deposit step is very critical because data collisions are possible when two threads attempt to write to the same memory location simultaneously. Because the GT200 series GPUs (such as the Tesla C1060) are very slow in resolving data collisions for floating point data, the algorithm we designed was collision-free. This was accomplished by assigning a different thread to each tile. Because tiles were very small, the cost of reordering particles moving between tiles was substantial.

With NVIDIA’s introduction of the Fermi architecture, several new features were added that had a substantial impact on optimal PIC algorithms: increased fast local memory, automatic cache, and native support for atomic adds for floating point data. The use of tiles was still optimal, but now it was preferable to assign a block of threads to a tile rather than one thread. We call this algorithm collision-resolving. This paper will describe the changes made to the earlier algorithm and the resulting performance of the new algorithm. Furthermore, we will show that the general tiling approach can also work well on conventional shared-memory multi-processors and this can be used as the basis for a portable approach to PIC codes on emerging architectures. Both electrostatic and electromagnetic spectral algorithms will be described.
2. Collision-Free GPU PIC Algorithm

An earlier version of this algorithm was described in [8]. Here we will summarize the main points and describe some changes. The algorithm is described in 2D space, but can be extended to 3D.

Space is divided into tiles which contain $m_x, m_y$ uniformly spaced grid points in $x$ and $y$, plus additional guard cells. If there are $n_x, n_y$ grid points in the computational regions, then there are $m_x1 \times m_y1$ tiles, where $m_x1 = (n_x-1)/m_x+1$ and $m_y1 = (n_y-1)/m_y+1$. Tiles at the edges can contain grid points which are not active. Figure 1 describes the partitioning.

![Figure 1. Partition of Grid space into tiles. Here $n_x=16$, $n_y=12$, $m_x=2$, $m_y=3$, so that the number of tiles is 32, with $m_x1=8$, $m_y1=4$. Additional guard cells for the tiles are not shown.](image)

To determine which tile a particle belongs to, one first determines the grid point $n, m$, that the particle belongs to. The tile number is then given by: $n/m_x$ and $m/m_y$. The same tiling is used in both the collision-free and collision-resolving algorithms.

Both GPUs as well as other high performing processors make use of SIMD processors, which perform $nvec$ vector operations in lockstep. The value of $nvec$ varies from 4 on the Intel SSE to 32 on NVIDIA Fermi devices. These SIMD processors also read data in large blocks, such as 128 bytes on the Fermi device. It is thus advantageous that adjacent memory locations needed by a vector operation are stored in adjacent memory locations. On the GPU, each vector operation is performed by a group of threads (called a thread block in CUDA).
For the collision-free algorithm, each vector element (thread) is responsible for one tile, and the particle data is stored in an array where adjacent threads in a thread block read adjacent memory locations. Such data layout for the particles is described by the following Fortran declaration:

\[
\text{real dimension partc(lvect, idimp, nppmx, mbxy1)}
\]

where \( \text{lvect} \) is the blocksize on the GPU, \( \text{idimp} \) is the number of particle co-ordinates (2 positions plus 2 or 3 velocities), \( \text{nppmx} \) is the maximum number of particles expected in a tile, and \( \text{mbxy1} \) the number of independent blocks given by: \( (\text{mx1} \times \text{my1} - 1)/\text{lvect} + 1 \). An auxiliary array \( \text{kpic} \) is used to store the number of actual particles in \( \text{partc} \). It is declared as follows:

\[
\text{integer kpic(mx1*my1)}
\]

Normally, the code initializes the particle co-ordinates on the host computer in the usual way, then rearranges them by tile into the new data structure and copies them to the GPU.

Advancing particles is now easily and efficiently parallelized. The input to the push procedure is a global field array, which for linear interpolation is declared as follows:

\[
\text{real dimension fxye(idimp-2, nx+1, ny+1)}
\]

Each thread block copies the fields it requires from global memory into a small local (shared) memory array which can be read much faster than the global array. For linear interpolation this is declared as follows:

\[
\text{real dimension sfxy(idimp-2, mx+1, my+1, lvect)}
\]

Each thread processes different tiles and different particles independently, and there are no data collisions. Shared memory is not actually shared among threads currently.

The structure of the deposit step is similar to that of the particle push. For example, the charge density is first accumulated to a local (shared) array, declared as:

\[
\text{real dimension sq(mx+1, my+1, lvect)}
\]

Then it is copied to a tiled global array \( \text{qs} \), declared as follows:

\[
\text{real dimension qs(lvect, mx+1, my+1, mbxy1)}
\]

The current deposit is similar. After the deposit, the guard cells in the charge or current array need to be added up. This is done by a separate procedure where each thread is responsible for a different grid point and some threads may read (but not write) data which belong to different tiles. The output goes to a different global array. The output charge density has the declaration:
This also avoids any data collisions in the deposit. The push and deposit procedures do not need to know how the tiles are ordered in memory, but the guard cell procedure does. We have stored the tiles as one would a two dimensional array with Fortran ordering, but other orderings are possible. Two features which were described in [8], allowing a thread to process more than one tile and allowing the tile sizes to vary, were not helpful and are not currently supported.

3. Particle Reordering with one thread per tile

Implementing the push and deposit procedures on the GPU was relatively straightforward and performed well, as we show below. However, particles need to be reordered at each time step as they move between tiles, and this is a challenge, since reordering is highly irregular and does not fit the GPU architecture well. The procedure we use now is simpler than the procedure described in [8]. It has three steps. In the first step, a list of the locations of the particles leaving a tile and their direction indices is written to an array nhole. The sum of the number of particles going to each of the 8 possible neighboring tiles is also written to an array ncl. They are declared as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{integer dimension nhole(lvect,2,ntmax+1,mbxy1)} \\
\text{integer dimension ncl(8,mxl*my1)}
\end{align*}
\]

where ntmax is the maximum number of particles expected to leave a tile. The total number of particles leaving a tile is also stored in the nhole array.

In the second step, the particles leaving a tile are copied into an ordered global buffer pbuff, where all the particles going in a particular direction are stored together in memory. This ordering is achieved by first performing a running sum (sometimes called a prefix scan or prefix sum) of ncl for each tile, which gives the offset into the pbuff array where to start copying the outgoing particles going in a particular direction. The declaration of the buffer is as follows:

\[
\text{real dimension pbuff(lvect,idimp,ntmax,mbxy1)}
\]

In the third step, the thread controlling each tile reads the ncl array for each of the 8 directions to determine how many particles it needs from each direction, and where they are located in the pbuff array. (Since ncl contains a running sum, the number for each direction is just the difference between two neighboring directions.) The buffer data is then written into the particle array. First any holes left by departing particles are filled. Any additional particles are written at the end of the particle array. If holes remain after all incoming particles are processed, then the holes are filled with particles from the bottom, so that the particles in each tile are stored contiguously. The auxiliary array kpic is also updated. During processing, the global array ncl is copied to shared memory in the first and second steps and then written back to global memory. No data collisions occur in any of these steps, since each thread always
controls its own write buffers. An OpenMP version of the entire reordering scheme in Fortran77 is listed in Appendix A.

The overall scheme, illustrated in Figure 2, is similar to that used in message-passing on distributed memory computers, except that one ordered buffer is used for sending particles instead of separate buffers for each direction. This simplified reordering scheme was relatively straightforward to implement, compared to the previous scheme.

![GPU Particle Reordering Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.** Particle reordering. Particles leaving a tile are first written into an ordered GPU buffer by one procedure. A separate procedure copies particles coming into a tile from 8 different buffers.

The first step is the most time-consuming, because all the particles need to be read into memory. The remaining two steps only read the particles which are leaving from or arriving into a tile, which is normally a small subset of the total particles. We do not allow particles to cross more than one tile in a time step, but this is possible by executing the reordering scheme more than once.
In the collision-free algorithm, the first step was incorporated into the particle push. This avoids reading all the particles again just to determine which particles need to be moved. In the electromagnetic (EM) code, the push advances the position only half a time step and the current deposit step advances it the remaining half step. This keeps both current and charge deposits properly time-centered. As a result, two reorderings are performed each time step (but fewer particles need to be moved). As in the push, the first step of the second reordering is incorporated into the current deposit.

4. Benchmark results with Collision-Free Algorithm on GT200 Architecture GPUs

With this algorithm, we have implemented both a 2D electrostatic (ES) spectral code, as in [8], as well as a 2-1/2D relativistic, EM spectral code, which calculates electric and magnetic fields from the full set of Maxwell’s equation, as in [16]. Both codes solve the field equations using Fast Fourier Transforms (FFTs) with periodic boundary conditions, 3 FFTs per time step for the ES code and 10 for the EM code. Spectral EM codes deposit both charge and current density. The GPU routines were implemented in CUDA C, but the main programs and initialization procedures were written in Fortran90 and Fortran77, using gfortran. The benchmark program (Table I) had a grid of 1024x1024 with 37,748,730 particles (36 particles per cell) and was run on an NVIDIA Tesla S1070 device, in single precision. A CUDA blocksize=32 gave the best results. The original serial CPU code used a 2.67 GHz Intel i7 processor. Time reported is per particle per time step. The GPU field solver time is not shown, but was about 6% of the total time for the ES case, and 11% in the EM case. A thermal plasma was run for 100 steps in the ES case and 250 steps in the EM case.

Electrostatic Code, mx=2,my=3, with dt = 0.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPU: Intel i7</th>
<th>GPU: S1070</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Push</td>
<td>19.9 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposit</td>
<td>9.0 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorder</td>
<td>0.3 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Particle</td>
<td>29.2 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total speedup was about 17.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Electromagnetic Code, mx=1,my=2, with dt = 0.04, c/vth = 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CPU: Intel i7</th>
<th>GPU: S1070</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Push</td>
<td>67.0 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposit</td>
<td>38.3 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorder</td>
<td>0.2 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Particle</td>
<td>105.5 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total speedup was about 28.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table I: Benchmarks of collision-free algorithm on GT200 GPUs.

About 30-40% of the total time was spent in reordering particles. The average number of particles leaving a tile per time step was 6.5% for the ES case and 1.5% for the EM case. The
The major limitation of this algorithm is that each thread needs its own copy of the shared memory arrays, and thus the amount of shared memory needed by a thread block is large. Since shared memory is a scarce resource, small tile sizes are required and this leads to a relatively large percentage of particles moving between tiles each time step. The optimal tile size for the EM case was smaller because the shared memory requirements were larger.

5. Collision-resolving GPU PIC Algorithm

The introduction of the NVIDIA Fermi architecture added several new features that had a substantial impact on optimal PIC algorithms, the most important being hardware support for atomic adds for floating point data. (Atomic adds treat the add as an uninterruptible operation.) If atomic operations work well, then it is possible to assign a block of threads to a tile, and the total amount of shared memory per block is greatly reduced, allowing larger tile sizes. Atomic operations are needed in the deposit step if multiple threads are used in a tile because two threads might be attempting to update the same grid point at the same time. In order for adjacent threads to access adjacent memory locations, a new data structure is needed for particles, declared as:

\[
\text{real dimension ppart(nppmx,idimp,mx1*my1)}
\]

Implementing the particle advance with one thread block per tile was relatively easy. Instead of a loop over particles as we had in the collision-free algorithm:

\[
\text{do j = 1, npp}
\text{...}
\text{enddo}
\]

where \(npp\) is the number of particles in a tile, one uses the following construct in PGI CUDA Fortran:

\[
\text{j = threadIdx%x}
\text{do while (j <= npp)}
\text{...}
\text{j = j + blockDim%x}
\text{enddo}
\]

with similar expressions in CUDA C. When copying the field arrays to shared memory, each thread copies part of the data and the shared memory is actually shared. The declarations for the shared arrays are now:

\[
\text{real dimension sfxy(idimp-2,mx+1,my+1)}
\]
\[
\text{real dimension sq(mx+1,my+1)}
\]

Implementing the deposit procedure is similar. The major additional change is the use of the atomicAdd function. Instead of operations such as:
\[
\text{sq}(n) = \text{sq}(n) + \text{amx*amy},
\]

one writes:

\[
\text{old} = \text{atomicAdd(\text{sq}(n), \text{amx*amy})}
\]

where \text{old} will contain the old value of \text{sq}(n). In CUDA C the expression is similar. When the particles have been processed, the charge density can be copied to a tiled global array \text{qp}, declared as follows:

\[
\text{real dimension qp(mx+1,my+1,mxy1)}
\]

Then guard cells can be added and the result written to the global array \text{q}, as in the collision-free case. Alternatively, the charge density and guard cells can be added in the deposit step directly to the global array \text{q} using \text{atomicAdd}s. Since most of the time in the deposit is spent in accumulating the charge density in the shared memory, and not writing to global memory, it does not make much difference which deposit method is chosen. Current deposit is handled the same way.

6. Particle Reordering with multiple threads per tile

To implement the particle reordering scheme shown in Appendix A using a vector or group of threads per tile, on the other hand, is much more challenging to implement than with one thread per tile. It requires a different data structure for the array describing the particles leaving a tile, as follows:

\[
\text{integer dimension ihole(2,ntmax+1,mxy1)}
\]

To avoid complex if tests (warp divergence in CUDA), data parallel algorithms using masking operations and prefix scans are effective here. As an example of how a masking operation is used, consider the first step of the reordering, where \text{ist} represents the direction a particle is going (\(0 \leq \text{ist} \leq 8\)), and \(j\) is its location in the particle array. The OpenMP version has the following construct:

\[
\text{if (ist.gt.0) then}
\text{  ncl(ist,k) = ncl(ist,k) + 1}
\text{  ih = ih + 1}
\text{  ihole(1,ih+1,k) = j}
\text{  ihole(2,ih+1,k) = ist}
\text{endif}
\]

When multiple threads, each responsible for a different particle, are executing this in parallel, one can use \text{atomicAdd}s to sum \text{ncl}. However, the remaining steps of the reordering are much simpler if the particle locations \(j\) stored in the array \text{ihole} at location \text{ih} are monotonically increasing. In that case, we cannot use \text{atomicAdd}s to increment \text{ih} because different threads
will place the values of $j$ in unpredictable locations $i_h$. Instead we use data parallel programming techniques [17], as shown in the following pseudo code, where $mask$ is an integer array, and $i$ refers to the thread index:

```plaintext
mask(i) = 0
if (ist > 0) mask(i) = 1
prefixscan(mask)
ih = mask(i)
ip = 0
if (i > 1) ip = mask(i-1)
if (ih > ip) then
    ihole(1,ih+1,k) = j
    ihole(2,ih+1,k) = ist
endif
```

One sets $mask$ to 1 if $ist > 0$, otherwise 0. After the prefix scan (running sum), the $mask(i)$ array value for thread $i$ will jump by one compared to the previous value for the thread where $ist > 0$, and the value of $mask$ for that thread is the required $ih$ value. For example, suppose we have a vector length (thread block) of 6, and threads 2 and 5 have $ist > 0$. In that case, $mask = [0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]$. The prefix sum gives $mask = [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2 \ 2 \ 2]$. For thread 2, we have $ih = mask(2) = 1$, and for thread 5, we have $ih = mask(5) = 2$. For threads where $ist = 0$, $mask(i) = mask(i-1)$ and $ih = mask(i)$ is not used.

In the third step of the reordering, the code (shown in Appendix A) has a double loop over directions and the number of particles in each direction.

```plaintext
do ii = 1, 8
    ip = ...
do j = 1, ip
    ...
```

where the index $ii$ refers to the number of directions, and $ip$ is the number of incoming particles from that direction. Multiple (segmented) prefix scans are used to find the addresses in the $pbuff$ array for incoming particles in order to read from all directions simultaneously. Prefix scans are also used to load the addresses to determine how to fill any leftover holes if there are more holes than incoming particles.

One could implement the particle reordering scheme more simply using one thread per tile as before. However, it would be less efficient, because the particle data structure $ppart$ used with one thread block per tile for the push and deposit, is not optimal when using one thread per tile for the reordering, making that scheme less efficient here.
7. Field Solvers

Both the collision-free and collision-resolving algorithms use the same field solvers. The 2D ES code solves Poisson’s equation in Fourier space as described in [8]. At the time that paper was written, NVIDIA’s real to complex (R2C) FFT was not optimized and performed poorly. The R2C transforms now perform well and as a result, we use an algorithm which uses multiple 1D R2C transforms in x, followed by a transpose, then multiple 1D complex to complex (C2C) transforms in y. This performed better than using NVIDIA’s 2D R2C transform and is also more compatible with a future MPI version. The ES code first transforms the charge density, calculates a 2 component electric field in Fourier space, and then performs a 2 component FFT, where both components are transformed at the same time. For the 2-1/2D EM code, the particles have three velocity co-ordinates and 2 spatial co-ordinates. The field solver separates the vector quantities into longitudinal (curl-free) and transverse (divergence-free) quantities. The Poisson equation is solved as in the ES code. In addition, Maxwell’s equation for the transverse quantities are updated. The transverse quantities for current, electric and magnetic fields each have 3 components and 3 component FFTs are performed. The ES and EM electric fields are combined in Fourier space before transforming to real space. The output of the FFT are global arrays, such as the following for the electric field:

\[
\text{real dimension } fxy(nx, idimp-2, ny)
\]

This array is then copied, with guard cells added, to the array \( fxye \), described in section 2. The magnetic field is treated similarly.

8. Porting the GPU algorithms to multi-core processors

During the development of the GPU codes, it was helpful to develop serial versions of all the subroutines as an aid in debugging. The procedure shown in Appendix A was an example. After this was done, we realized that the loops over tiles could be easily parallelized with OpenMP, and we could obtain a library of procedures which could run in parallel on current generation multi-core processors. Since these procedures had the same dummy arguments as the GPU procedures, it was possible to use the same main program with either multi-core processors or GPUs and just link with different libraries. With the OpenMP version only the loop over tiles was parallelized, so there were never any collisions within a tile for either the collision-free or collision-resolving algorithm. We implemented the collision-resolving algorithm because it was simpler. The only change was that the particle array with OpenMP was transposed relative to the GPU version, as follows:

\[
\text{real, dimension } ppart(idimp, nppmx, mx1*my1)
\]

This gave better cache performance on traditional architectures.
9. Benchmark results with Collision-Resolving Algorithm on Fermi Architecture GPUs

We ran the collision-resolving algorithm on the NVIDIA Fermi M2090 (Table II). For the ES case and the OpenMP cases it was beneficial to move step one of the reordering scheme (calculating \( i_{hole} \) and \( n_{cell} \)) into the push procedure (and into the current deposit for the EM code). However, for the EM code on the GPU, it was better to keep all three steps in the reordering scheme. This was due to the increased use of registers and shared memory when extra calculations were included, which reduced the number of independent blocks which can run simultaneously (occupancy). The Fermi GPU has fewer registers than the GT200. Due to its larger memory, we increased the benchmark size to a larger grid of 2048x2048 with 150,994,944 particles (36 particles per cell). We used single precision, and a CUDA blocksize=128 gave the best results. Shared Memory was set to 48KB. The GPU field solver time is not shown, but was about 6% of the total time for the ES case, and 10% in the EM case.

Electrostatic Code, \( mx=16, my=16 \), with \( dt = 0.1 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPU: Intel i7</th>
<th>GPU: M2090</th>
<th>OpenMP (12 CPUs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Push</td>
<td>22.1 ns.</td>
<td>0.532 ns.</td>
<td>1.678 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposit</td>
<td>8.5 ns.</td>
<td>0.227 ns.</td>
<td>0.818 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorder</td>
<td>0.4 ns.</td>
<td>0.115 ns.</td>
<td>0.113 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Particle</td>
<td>31.0 ns.</td>
<td>0.874 ns.</td>
<td>2.608 ns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total speedup was about 35 compared to 1 CPU, and about 3 compared to 12 CPUs.

Electromagnetic Code, \( mx=16, my=16 \), with \( dt = 0.04, c/v_{th} = 10 \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CPU: Intel i7</th>
<th>GPU: M2090</th>
<th>OpenMP (12 CPUs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Push</td>
<td>66.5 ns.</td>
<td>0.426 ns.</td>
<td>5.645 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposit</td>
<td>36.7 ns.</td>
<td>0.918 ns.</td>
<td>3.362 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reorder</td>
<td>0.4 ns.</td>
<td>0.698 ns.</td>
<td>0.056 ns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Particle</td>
<td>103.6 ns.</td>
<td>2.042 ns.</td>
<td>9.062 ns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total speedup was about 51 compared to 1 CPU, and about 4 compared to 12 CPUs.

Table II: Benchmarks of collision-resolving algorithm on Fermi GPUs.

Note that the OpenMP code is better than 95% efficient. On the GPU, about 15-30% of the time was spent in reordering particles. The average number of particles leaving a tile per time step was 1.0% for the ES case and 0.3% for the EM case. The performance on the M2090 was nearly twice that of the S1070. For the ES case, the reordering time using OpenMP with 12 cores is similar to the time with the GPU. For the EM case, reordering with OpenMP appears much faster than on the GPU, but this is deceptive, because in this case the GPU did not incorporate the first part of the reordering into the push. One important advantage of the OpenMP version of the code is that particles are now ordered, so that additional interactions (such as particle collisions) which need to know the location of nearby particles are much easier and less costly to implement.
10. Discussion

It is possible to run the collision-free algorithm on Fermi architectures. Results show that the collision-resolving algorithm is about twice as fast as the collision-free algorithm. On the GT200 architectures, it is not possible to run the collision-resolving algorithm as written because floating point atomic updates are not supported. However, if we use the less efficient atomic CAS (Compare and Swap) operations to implement atomic updates, then the collision-free algorithm is about 10% faster than the collision-resolving algorithm on the GT200.

The optimal tile size was determined empirically. As the tile size increases, fewer particles need to be reordered, and the reordering time decreases. However, the push and deposit run more slowly since more shared memory is required and therefore the number of independent blocks which can run simultaneously (occupancy) goes down.

The simple skeleton codes described here use linear interpolation. The use of higher order interpolation requires more shared memory, which tends to slow the code down. However, the computational intensity (more operations per memory access) is higher, so overall one expects the speedups to be higher.

The GPU hardware consists of a collection of vector processors with small amounts of fast memory, coupled by slow global memory. So it is not surprising that programming GPUs makes use of algorithms familiar to scientific programmers from past architectures. In these PIC codes we have made use of vector algorithms similar to those used on the Cray for particle pushing and field solvers. We made use of data parallel algorithms similar to those used on the Connection Machine [17-18] in the reordering scheme. Blocking techniques were used in the overall tiling design as well as in other procedures such as the data transpose used in the FFT. Message-passing algorithms were also used in the reordering to send and receive particle buffers.

One new element, however, is that programming GPUs favors designs where there are many more threads than physical processors, due to the extremely fast thread switching in the hardware. This helps to hide memory latency. We can also use this feature to assign work to threads for load-balancing, either manually or automatically with the master-slave paradigm. Originally, it was thought that very fine-grained parallelism would be very difficult or impossible to load-balance, since the number of particles in small regions would fluctuate a great deal. But using a large number of threads can avoid this problem.

One would think that with the introduction of cache memory in the Fermi architecture, shared memory might be unnecessary and redundant. However, shared memory is useful because the data there cannot be evicted by the hardware, whereas data in cache could be.

We have determined that fine-grain tiling with reordering every time step is an efficient approach to emerging architectures. We have written two versions, one collision-free for architectures where atomic updates are inefficient, and another collision-resolving where atomic updates work well. We have also implemented a multi-core version which works with high efficiency on current multi-core architectures. One of our goals is to develop a portable approach to PIC codes on other emerging architectures, such as the Intel PHI. We do not expect that one
source code will be possible in the near term, because expressing parallelism is still evolving. However, creating different implementations that utilize the same algorithms and similar data structures looks feasible now. Modifying our procedures to support multiple GPUs with MPI also appears to be relatively straightforward. This will be the subject of a future paper.

We have experimented with both CUDA C and PGI CUDA Fortran, created by the Portland Group, but our final code was in CUDA C with a Fortran main program. One reason is that it was difficult to have multiple dynamic shared variables in a GPU (kernel) function in CUDA Fortran, and impossible if they were of different types.

It is our intention to make compact skeleton codes for various parallel architectures available on the UCLA IDRE web site at: https://idre.ucla.edu/hpc/parallel-plasma-pic-codes. Some are available now.

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subroutine PPORDER2L(ppart,ppbuff,kpic,ncl,ihole,idimp,nppmx,nx,
    lny,mx,my,mxl,myl,npbmx,ntmax,irc)
c this subroutine sorts particles by x,y grid in tiles of mx, my
c linear interpolation, with periodic boundary conditions
c tiles are assumed to be arranged in 2D linear memory
c algorithm has 3 steps. first, one finds particles leaving tile and
c stores their number in each direction, location, and destination
c in ncl and ihole. second, a prefix scan of ncl is performed and
c departing particles are buffered in ppbuff in direction order.
c finally, we copy the incoming particles from other tiles into ppart.
c input: all except ppbuff, ncl, ihole, irc
c output: ppart, ppbuff, kpic, ncl, ihole, irc
c ppart(1,n,k) = position x of particle n in tile k
c ppart(2,n,k) = position y of particle n in tile k
c ppbuff(i,n,k) = i co-ordinate of particle n in tile k
c kpic(k) = number of particles in tile k
c ncl(i,k) = number of particles going to destination i, tile k
c ihole(1,:,k) = location of hole in array left by departing particle
c ihole(2,:,k) = direction destination of particle leaving hole
c all for tile k
c ihole(1,1,k) = ih, number of holes left (error, if negative)
c idimp = size of phase space = 4
c nppmx = maximum number of particles in tile
c nx/ny = system length in x/y direction
c mx/my = number of grids in sorting cell in x/y
c mx1 = (system length in x direction - 1)/mx + 1
c my1 = (system length in y direction - 1)/my + 1
c npbmx = size of buffer array ppbuff
c ntmax = size of hole array for particles leaving tiles
c irc = maximum overflow, returned only if error occurs, when irc > 0
c written by viktor k. decyk, ucla
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implicit none
integer idimp, nppmx, nx, ny, mx, my, mx1, my1, npbmx, ntmax
integer irc
real ppart, ppbuff
integer kpic, ncl, ihole
dimension ppart(idimp,nppmx,mx1*my1)
dimension ppbuff(idimp,npbmx,mx1*my1)
dimension kpic(mx1*my1), ncl(8,mx1*my1)
dimension ihole(2,ntmax+1,mx1*my1)
c local data
integer mxyl, noff, moff, npp, ncoff
integer i, j, k, ii, kx, ky, ih, nh, ist, nn, mm, isum
integer ip, j1, j2, kxl, kxr, kk, kl, kr
real anx, any, edgelx, edgely, edgerx, edgery, dx, dy
integer ks
dimension ks(8)
mxy1 = mx1*my1
anx = real(nx)
any = real(ny)
c find and count particles leaving tiles and determine destination
c update ppart, ihole, ncl
c loop over tiles
!$OMP PARALLEL DO
!$OMP& PRIVATE(j,k,noff,moff,npp,nn,mm,ih,nh,ist,dx,dy,edgelx,edgely,
!$OMP& edgerx,edgery)
   do 30 k = 1, mxy1
      noff = (k - 1)/mx1
      moff = my*noff
      noff = mx*(k - mx1*noff - 1)
npp = kpic(k)
nn = min(mx,nx-noff)
mm = min(my,ny-moff)
   ih = 0
   nh = 0
   edgelx = noff
   edgerx = noff + nn
   edgely = moff
   edgery = moff + mm
   c clear counters
   do 10 j = 1, 8
      ncl(j,k) = 0
   10 continue
c loop over particles in tile
do 20 j = 1, npp
dx = ppart(1,j,k)
dy = ppart(2,j,k)
c find particles going out of bounds
ist = 0
c count how many particles are going in each direction in ncl
c save their address and destination in ihole
c use periodic boundary conditions and check for roundoff error
c ist = direction particle is going
   if (dx.ge.edgerx) then
      if (dx.ge.anx) ppart(1,j,k) = dx - anx
      ist = 2
   else if (dx.lt.edgelx) then
      if (dx.lt.0.0) then
         dx = dx + anx
      if (dx.lt.anx) then
         ist = 1
      else
         dx = 0.0
      endif
   endif
   ppart(1,j,k) = dx
else
  ist = 1
endif
endif
if (dy.ge.edgery) then
  if (dy.ge.any) ppart(2,j,k) = dy - any
  ist = ist + 6
else if (dy.lt.edgely) then
  if (dy.lt.0.0) then
    dy = dy + any
    if (dy.lt.any) then
      ist = ist + 3
    else
      dy = 0.0
    endif
    ppart(2,j,k) = dy
  else
    ist = ist + 3
  endif
endif
if (ist.gt.0) then
  ncl(ist,k) = ncl(ist,k) + 1
  ih = ih + 1
  if (ih.le.ntmax) then
    ihole(1,ih+1,k) = j
    ihole(2,ih+1,k) = ist
  else
    nh = 1
  endif
endif
20 continue

!$OMP END PARALLEL DO

!$OMP PARALLEL DO
!$OMP& PRIVATE(i,j,k,isum,ist,nh,ip,j1,ii)
do 70 k = 1, mxy1

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!$OMP END PARALLEL DO

!$OMP& PRIVATE(i,j,k,isum,ist,nh,ip,j1,ii)
do 70 k = 1, mxy1
do 40 j = 1, 8
   ist = ncl(j,k)
   ncl(j,k) = isum
   isum = isum + ist
40 continue

nh = ihole(1,1,k)
ip = 0

c loop over particles leaving tile
   do 60 j = 1, nh
      c buffer particles that are leaving tile, in direction order
      j1 = ihole(1,j+1,k)
      ist = ihole(2,j+1,k)
      ii = ncl(ist,k) + 1
      if (ii.le.npbmx) then
         do 50 i = 1, idimp
            ppbuff(i,ii,k) = ppart(i,j1,k)
50      continue
      else
         ip = 1
      endif
      ncl(ist,k) = ii
60 continue

c set error
   if (ip.gt.0) irc = ncl(8,k)
70 continue
!

!$OMP END PARALLEL DO

c ppbuff overflow
   if (irc.gt.0) return

c copy incoming particles from buffer into ppart: update ppart, kpic

c loop over tiles
!$OMP PARALLEL DO
!$OMP& PRIVATE(i,j,k,ii,kk,npp,kx,ky,kl,kr,kxl,kxr,ih,nh,ncoff,ist,jl,
!$OMP& j2,ip,ks)
do 130 k = 1, mxy1
   npp = kpic(k)
   ky = (k - 1)/mx1 + 1

c loop over tiles in y, assume periodic boundary conditions
   kk = (ky - 1)*mx1

c find tile above
   kl = ky - 1
   if (kl.lt.1) kl = kl + my1
   kl = (kl - 1)*mx1

c find tile below
   kr = ky + 1
   if (kr.gt.my1) kr = kr - my1
   kr = (kr - 1)*mx1

c loop over tiles in x, assume periodic boundary conditions
   kx = k - (ky - 1)*mx1
kxl = kx - 1
if (kxl.lt.1) kxl = kxl + mx1
kxr = kx + 1
if (kxr.gt.mx1) kxr = kxr - mx1

c find tile number for different directions
ks(1) = kxr + kk
ks(2) = kxl + kk
ks(3) = kx + kr
ks(4) = kxr + kr
ks(5) = kxl + kr
ks(6) = kx + kl
ks(7) = kxr + kl
ks(8) = kxl + kl

c loop over directions
nh = ihole(1,1,k)
ncoff = 0
ih = 0
ist = 0
j1 = 0
do 100 ii = 1, 8
if (ii.gt.1) ncoff = ncl(ii-1,ks(ii))
c ip = number of particles coming from direction ii
ip = ncl(ii,ks(ii)) - ncoff
do 90 j = 1, ip
ih = ih + 1

c insert incoming particles into holes
if (ih.le.nh) then
j1 = ihole(1,ih+1,k)
c place overflow at end of array
else
j1 = npp + 1
npp = j1
endif
if (j1.le.nppmx) then
do 80 i = 1, idimp
ppart(i,j1,k) = ppbuff(i,j+ncoff,ks(ii))
80 continue
else
ist = 1
endif
90 continue
100 continue
c set error
if (ist.gt.0) irc = j1

c fill up remaining holes in particle array with particles from bottom
if (ih.lt.nh) then
ip = nh - ih
do 120 j = 1, ip
j1 = npp - j + 1
120 continue
j2 = ihole(1,nh-j+2,k)
if (j1.gt.j2) then
  c move particle only if it is below current hole
  do 110 i = 1, idimp
    ppart(i,j2,k) = ppart(i,j1,k)
  110       continue
  endif
  120    continue
npp = npp - ip
endif
  kpic(k) = npp
  130 continue
!$OMP END PARALLEL DO
return
end
References


