Using GPU Shaders for Visualization, Part 3

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GPU shaders aren’t just for glossy special effects. Parts 1 and 2 of this discussion looked at using them for point clouds, cutting planes, line integral convolution, and terrain bump-mapping.1,2 Here, I cover compute shaders and shader storage buffer objects (SSBOs), which are new features of OpenGL (Open Graphics Library).

Originally, OpenGL was for graphics only. But practitioners soon gazed longingly at the GPU’s power and wanted to use it for nongraphics data-parallel computing. This led to the general-purpose GPU (GPGPU) approach.3 This approach was quite effective and produced some amazing results. However, it was still an awkward workaround that required first recasting the data-parallel problem as a pixel-parallel problem.

True mainstream GPGPU emerged with Nvidia’s CUDA (Compute Unified Device Architecture).4 CUDA treats the GPU as a real compute engine without any need to include graphics remnants. Later, OpenCL (Open Computing Language) was developed to create a multivendor GPU-programming standard.5,6

OpenGL 4.3 introduced SSBOs, which support compute shaders and make getting data into and out of them much easier. This means that, finally, using GPUs for data-parallel visualization computing is a first-class feature of OpenGL. This will greatly assist real-time visualization techniques such as particle advection and isosurfaces.

Compute Shaders

Using compute shaders looks much like standard two-pass rendering (see Figure 1). The GPU gets invoked at least twice, once for the compute operation and once or more for the graphics operation. The compute shader manipulates GPU-based data. The OpenGL rendering pipeline creates a scene based on those new data values.

At this point, I’ll dive down into details and assume you have knowledge of OpenGL7 and GLSL (OpenGL Shading Language) shaders,8,9 including how to write, compile, and link them.

A compute shader is a single-stage GLSL program that has no direct role in the graphics rendering pipeline. It sits outside the pipeline and manipulates data it finds in the OpenGL buffers. Except for a handful of dedicated built-in GLSL variables, compute shaders look identical to all other GLSL shader types. The programming syntax is the same. They access the same data that’s found in the OpenGL readable data types, such as textures, buffers, image textures, and atomic counters. They output the same OpenGL writeable data types, such as some buffer types, image textures, and atomic counters. But they have no previous-pipeline-stage inputs or next-pipeline-stage outputs because to them there’s no pipeline and therefore no other stages.

A Comparison with OpenCL

Compute shaders look much like OpenCL programs. Both manipulate GPU-based data in a round-robin fashion with the rendering. The programming languages look similar. (Most of the language differences are superficial; for example, OpenCL uses SIMD [single instruction, multiple data] variables called float[2-4], whereas GLSL uses vec[2-4].) But some important differences do exist:

- OpenCL is its own entity. Using OpenCL requires a several-step setup process in the application program.
- OpenCL requires separate drivers and libraries.
- Compute shaders use the same context as OpenGL rendering. OpenCL requires a context switch before and after invoking its data-parallel compute functions.
- OpenCL has more extensive computational support.
So, you should continue to use OpenCL for large GPU data-parallel computing applications. But for many simpler applications, compute shaders will slide more easily into your existing shader-based program.

What’s Different about Using a Compute Shader?
For the most part, writing and using a compute shader looks and feels like writing and using any other GLSL shader type, with these exceptions:

- The compute shader program must contain no other shader types.
- When creating a compute shader, use GL_COMPUTE_SHADER as the shader type in the glCreateShader( ) function call.
- A compute shader has no concept of in or out variables.
- A compute shader must declare the number of work items in each of its work groups in a special GLSL layout statement.

This last item is worth further discussion. GLSL 3 introduced the layout qualifier to tell the GLSL compiler and linker about the storage of your data. This qualifier has been used for such things as telling geometry shaders what their input and output topology types are, what symbol table locations certain variables will occupy, and the binding points of indexed buffers. OpenGL 4.3 expanded layout's use to declare the local data dimensions, like this:

```glsl
layout( local_size_x = 128 ) in;
```

I look at this in more detail later.

SSBOs
Often, the tricky part of using GLSL shaders for visualization is getting large amounts of data in and out of them. OpenGL has created several ways of doing this over the years, but each seems to have had something that made it cumbersome for visualization use. For example, textures and uniform buffer objects can only be read from, not written to. Image textures can be both read from and written to but are backed by textures, which aren’t as data-flexible as buffer objects.

In a CPU-only data-parallel application, the most convenient data structure often is an array of structures in which each array element holds one instance of all the data variables. But none of these GLSL storage methods have allowed using this familiar storage scheme in shader programming.

SSBOs aim to fix all that. They cleanly map to arrays of structures, which makes them convenient and familiar for data-parallel computing. Rather than talk about them, it’s easiest to show their use in actual code. The following example shows a simple particle system that uses SSBOs and compute shaders. Figure 2 shows the CPU code for setting up the required position and velocity SSBOs.

There are five things to note in the code. First, generating and binding an SSBO happens the same as with any other buffer object type, except for its GL_SHADER_STORAGE_BUFFER identifier.

Second, these SSBOs are specified with NULL as the data pointer. The data could have been filled here from precreated arrays of data. However, it’s often more convenient to create the data on the fly and fill the buffers rather than allocate large arrays first. So, in this case, data values are filled a moment later using buffer mapping.

Third, the glBufferData( ) call uses the hint GL_STATIC_DRAW. The OpenGL books say to use GL_DYNAMIC_DRAW when the values in the buffer will be changed often. With compute shaders, that advice is incomplete. Instead, you should use GL_DYNAMIC_DRAW when the values in the buffer will be changed often from the CPU. When the data values will be changed from the GPU, GL_STATIC_DRAW causes them to be kept in GPU memory, which is what you want.

Fourth, the expected call to glMapBuffer( ) has been replaced with a call to glMapBufferRange( ). This allows a parameter specifying that the buffer will be entirely discarded and replaced, thus hinting to the driver that it should remain in the memory (GPU) where it currently lives.

Finally, the calls to glBindBufferBase( ) allow these buffers to be indexed. This means that they’re assigned integer indices that can be referenced from the shader using a layout qualifier.

Figure 1. Compute shaders involve round-robin execution between the application’s compute and rendering pieces.
Figure 3 shows how the compute shader accesses the SSBOs. Here, there are three things to note. First, the shader code uses the same set of structures to access the data as the C code did, with the data types changed to match GLSL syntax. Second, the SSBO layout statements provide the binding indices so that the shader knows which SSBO to point to. Finally, the open brackets in the SSBO layout statements show how the new GLSL syntax can define an array of structures. The definition can contain more items than just that open-bracketed array, but the open-bracketed item must be the final variable in the list.

Calling the Compute Shader

A compute shader is invoked from the application with this function:
where the arguments are the number of work groups in \( x \), \( y \), and \( z \), respectively. A compute shader expects you to treat your data-parallel problem as a 3D array of work groups to process. (Although, for a 2D problem, \( n_{\text{numgz}} \) will be 1, and for a 1D problem, \( n_{\text{numg}} \) and \( n_{\text{numy}} \) will both be 1.) Figure 4 shows the grid of work groups. Figure 5 shows the code for invoking the compute shader.

Each work group consists of some number of work items to process. The number of groups times the number of items per group gives the total number of elements to compute. How you divide your problem into work groups is up to you. However, it’s important to experiment with this because some combinations will starve the GPU processors of work to do and some combinations will overwhelm them. (Also, there are some OpenGL driver-imposed limits on the number of work groups and work group size.) I experimented with the local work group size for one particular application; I discuss the results later.

**Compute Shader Built-In Variables**

Compute shaders have several built-in read-only variables, which aren’t accessible from any other shader types:

```cpp
in uvec3 gl_NumWorkGroups ;
const uvec3 gl_WorkGroupSize ;
in uvec3 gl_WorkGroupID ;
in uvec3 gl_LocalInvocationID ;
in uvec3 gl_GlobalInvocationID ;
in uint gl_LocalInvocationIndex ;
```

- \( \text{gl_NumWorkGroups} \) is the number of work groups in all three dimensions. It’s the same number used in the \( \text{glDispatchCompute()} \) call.
- \( \text{gl_WorkGroupSize} \) is the size of the work groups in all three dimensions. It’s the same number used in the layout call.
- \( \text{gl_WorkGroupID} \) is the work group numbers in all three dimensions that the compute shader’s current instantiation is in.
- \( \text{gl_LocalInvocationID} \) is where, in all three dimensions, the compute shader’s current instantiation is in its work group.
- \( \text{gl_GlobalInvocationID} \) is where, in all three dimensions, the compute shader’s current instantiation is within all instantiations.
- \( \text{gl_LocalInvocationIndex} \) is a 1D abstraction of \( \text{gl_LocalInvocationID} \). It allocates

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### Figure 3. How the shader storage buffer objects look in the shader. The shader code uses the same set of structures to access the data as the C code did, with the data types changed to match GLSL (OpenGL Shading Language) syntax.

```cpp
#version 430 compatibility
#extension GL_ARB_compute_shader : enable
#extension GL_ARB_shader_storage_buffer_object : enable;
layout( std140, binding=4 ) buffer Pos {
  vec4 Positions[ ]; // array of vec4 structures
};
layout( std140, binding=5 ) buffer Vel {
  vec4 Velocities[ ]; // array of vec4 structures
};
layout( std140, binding=5 ) buffer Col {
  vec4 Colors[ ]; // array of structures
};
```

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### Figure 4. The 3D grid of work groups allows the data to be dimensioned in a way that’s convenient to the application. It’s important to experiment with dividing a problem into work groups because some combinations will starve the GPU processors of work to do and other combinations will overwhelm them.

```cpp
glUseProgram( MyComputeShaderProgram );
glDispatchCompute( NUM_PARTICLES / WORK_GROUP_SIZE, 1, 1 );
glMemoryBarrier( GL_SHADER_STORAGE_BARRIER_BIT );
```

---

### Figure 5. Invoking the compute shader. This is how the application runs the compute shader so that the buffers get changed before rendering begins.
work group shared data arrays (which I don’t cover here).

The variables have these size ranges:

\[ 0 \leq gl\_WorkGroupID \leq gl\_NumWorkGroups - 1 \]

\[ 0 \leq gl\_LocalInvocationID \leq gl\_WorkGroupSize - 1 \]

\[ gl\_GlobalInvocationID = gl\_WorkGroupID \times gl\_WorkGroupSize + gl\_LocalInvocationID \]

\[ gl\_LocalInvocationIndex = gl\_LocalInvocationID.x \times gl\_WorkGroupSize.y \times gl\_WorkGroupSize.x + gl\_LocalInvocationID.y \times gl\_WorkGroupSize.x + gl\_LocalInvocationID.x \]

Particle System Physics

Figure 6 shows the code to perform particle system physics for one particle. A layout statement declares the work group size to be \( 128 \times 1 \times 1 \). The code defines gravity \((G)\) and the time step \((DT)\). \(G\) is a \texttt{vec3} (3D vector) so that it can be used in a single line of code to produce the particle’s next position. The code runs once for each particle. The variable \(gid\) is the global ID—that is, the particle’s number in the entire list of particles. \(gid\) indexes into the array of structures. Figure 7 shows visualization results for this code.

Particle Advection

Figure 8 shows how to turn the particle system into a first-order visualization of particle advection, being fed by a velocity equation as a function of particle location.

Here, there are six things to notice:

- The code uses \texttt{#defines} to simulate typedefs. GLSL doesn’t yet support typedefs, which, I think, are necessary to enhance the code’s readability. In this case, even though both points and velocities are really \texttt{vec3}s, it helps the code’s readability when you can distinguish using a coordinate from using a vector.
- As with the code for particle physics, this code runs once for each particle. Again, the variable \(gid\) is the particle’s number in the entire list of particles, and \(gid\) indexes into the array of structures.
- The \texttt{Velocity()} function computes \((vx, vy, vz)\) as a function of position.
- The equation is defined for \(x, y, \) and \(z\) between -1 and 1. If a point has moved out of bounds, it’s reset to its original position.
- The line \texttt{pp = p + DT \* vel;} performs a first-order particle step.
- The particle’s color is set from the three velocity components, to keep track of each particle direction. You could easily color it to show other quantities.

However, most 3D flow field data isn’t given as an equation. Figure 9 shows how you would hide...
the velocity field values in a 3D texture, using the r, g, and b texture components for the x, y, and z velocity components. The only trick is that you must convert the position from its coordinate values in the range \([-1.\, 1.\) to the texture lookup range of \([0., 1.\). The code line

\[
\text{vec3 stp = ( pos + 1. ) / 2.;}
\]

does that.

Figure 10 shows the visualization results.

Performance
I tested the code with 1,048,576 (1,024\(^2\)) particles on an Nvidia GeForce GTX 480 GPU, using different work group sizes. Figure 11 shows the compute speeds.

The top performance was 1.3 gigaparticles per second, for a work group size of 64. On the GeForce GTX 480, each streaming multiprocessor has 32 SIMD units to perform data-parallel particle advection. A work group size smaller than 32 leaves some of those units unused. With a work group size of 32, anytime the execution blocks (for a memory access, for instance), the units have nothing to do. So, it makes sense that a work group size of 64 or more would produce better performance. However, Figure 11 shows that a size greater than 64 didn’t help and even hurt some. This result is application dependent. Different shader applications behave differently, so it’s best to benchmark rather than assume.

After years of using GPUs for data-parallel visualization computing by employing various hacks and workarounds, I’m relieved to finally have all the pieces become first-class citizens of the GLSL shader language. Now we can realize the full potential of GPGPU using C-like arrays of structures and fine-grained data-parallel computing, all within the comfortable confines of OpenGL.

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References
Figure 10. A visualization of particle advection. The second image is a magnification of the first image’s upper-right corner. This shows just how incredibly high the particle count can get while still allowing interactive performance.

Figure 11. Compute shader performance as a function of work group size. These results are application-dependent.


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