NVIDIA TensorRT

Developer Guide | NVIDIA Docs

Table of Contents

Revision History

This is the revision history of the *NVIDIA TensorRT 8.4.1 Developer Guide*.

Chapter 1 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
May 23, 2022	Added a new Hardware Support Lifetime section.

Chapter 5 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
April 19, 2022	Documented different determinism implementations and other configuration options in the Determinism section.
May 26, 2022	Added how TensorRT measures the amount of memory in use before and after critical operations in builder and runtime in the The Runtime Phase section.

Chapter 7 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
April 7, 2022	Added a new Quantization Noise Reduction section.
May 13, 2022	Added how calibration batch size can affect the truncation error.
June 7, 2022	Added the quantization schema for activation tensors in the Introduction to Quantization section.

Chapter 9 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
May 23, 2022	Added a new <u>Best Practices for Custom Layers Plug-in</u> section.
May 26, 2022	Documented how to register plug-ins with the registry in the <u>Adding Custom Layers Using the C ++ API</u> section.
June 2, 2022	Documented how to add plug-ins in your application in the <u>Extending TensorRT with Custom Layers</u> section.

Chapter 12 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
April 19, 2022	▶ Added additional reference links for more information on certain topics. ▶ Rewrote the <u>Customizing DLA Memory Pools</u> section.
June 6, 2022	▶ Added documentation regarding inference on NVIDIA Orin - not specific to FP16. Refer to <u>Inference on NVIDIA Orin</u> for more information. ▶ Added additional learning resources for DLA in the <u>Working with DLA</u> section.

Chapter 13 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
May 16, 2022	Added Tensor Core usage in the <u>Optimizing for Tensor Cores</u> section.
May 23, 2022	▶ Added how to enable GPU metrics sampling in Nsight Systems. ▶ Added a new <u>Hardware/Software Environment for Performance Measurements</u> section.
May 24, 2022	▶ Added the <u>Deterministic Tactic Selection</u> section.

Date	Summary of Change
	▶ Added the <u>Transformers Performance</u> section.
	▶ Added the <u>Overhead of Shape Change and Optimization Profile Switching</u> section.
June 7, 2022	Added Convolution and Generic Activation to the <u>Types of Fusions</u> section.

Chapter 14 Updates

Date	Summary of Change
May 24, 2022	▶ Added the <u>Understanding Formats Printed in Logs</u> section.
	▶ Added the <u>Reporting TensorRT Issues</u> section.

Appendix Updates

Date	Summary of Change
April 19, 2022	Added DLA flags to the <u>Commonly Used Command-line Flags</u> section.

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter 1. Introduction

NVIDIA® TensorRT™ is an SDK that facilitates high-performance machine learning inference. It is designed to work in a complementary fashion with training frameworks such as TensorFlow, PyTorch, and MXNet. It focuses specifically on running an already-trained network quickly and efficiently on NVIDIA hardware.

Refer to the NVIDIA TensorRT Installation Guide for instructions on how to install TensorRT.

The *NVIDIA TensorRT Quick Start Guide* is for users who want to try out TensorRT SDK; specifically, you will learn how to construct an application to run inference on a TensorRT engine quickly.

1.1. Structure of This Guide

Chapter 1 provides information about how TensorRT is packaged and supported, and how it fits into the developer ecosystem.

Chapter 2 provides a broad overview of TensorRT capabilities.

Chapters three and four contain introductions to the C++ and Python APIs respectively.

Subsequent chapters provide more detail about advanced features.

The appendix contains a layer reference and answers to FAQs.

1.2. Samples

The *NVIDIA TensorRT Sample Support Guide* illustrates many of the topics discussed in this guide. Additional samples focusing on embedded applications can be found here.

1.3. Complementary GPU Features

Multi-Instance GPU, or MIG, is a feature of NVIDIA GPUs with NVIDIA Ampere Architecture or later architectures that enable user-directed partitioning of a single GPU into multiple smaller GPUs. The physical partitions provide dedicated compute and memory slices with QoS and independent execution of parallel workloads on fractions of the GPU. For TensorRT applications with low GPU utilization, MIG can produce higher throughput at small or no impact on latency. The optimal partitioning scheme is application-specific.

1.4. Complementary Software

The NVIDIA Triton™ Inference Server is a higher-level library providing optimized inference across CPUs and GPUs. It provides capabilities for starting and managing multiple models, and REST and gRPC endpoints for serving inference.

NVIDIA DALI® provides high-performance primitives for preprocessing image, audio, and video data. TensorRT inference can be integrated as a custom operator in a DALI pipeline. A working example of TensorRT inference integrated as a part of DALI can be found here.

TensorFlow-TensorRT (TF-TRT) is an integration of TensorRT directly into TensorFlow. It selects subgraphs of TensorFlow graphs to be accelerated by TensorRT, while leaving the rest of the graph to be executed natively by TensorFlow. The result is still a TensorFlow graph that you can execute as usual. For TF-TRT examples, refer to Examples for TensorRT in TensorFlow.

The PyTorch Quantization Toolkit provides facilities for training models at reduced precision, which can then be exported for optimization in TensorRT.

In addition, the PyTorch Automatic SParsity (ASP) tool provides facilities for training models with structured sparsity, which can then be exported and allows TensorRT to use the faster sparse tactics on NVIDIA Ampere Architecture GPUs.

TensorRT is integrated with NVIDIA's profiling tools, NVIDIA Nsight™ Systems and NVIDIA® Deep Learning Profiler (DLProf).

A restricted subset of TensorRT is certified for use in NVIDIA DRIVE® products. Some APIs are marked for use only in NVIDIA DRIVE and are not supported for general use.

1.5. ONNX

TensorRT's primary means of importing a trained model from a framework is through the ONNX interchange format. TensorRT ships with an ONNX parser library to assist in importing models. Where possible, the parser is backward compatible up to opset 7; the ONNX Model Opset Version Converter can assist in resolving incompatibilities.

The GitHub version may support later opsets than the version shipped with TensorRT refer to the ONNX-TensorRT operator support matrix for the latest information on the supported opset and operators.

The ONNX operator support list for TensorRT can be found here.

PyTorch natively supports ONNX export. For TensorFlow, the recommended method is tf2onnx.

A good first step after exporting a model to ONNX is to run constant folding using Polygraphy. This can often solve TensorRT conversion issues in the ONNX parser and generally simplify the workflow. For details, refer to this example. In some cases, it may be necessary to modify the ONNX model further, for example, to replace subgraphs with plug-ins or reimplement unsupported operations in terms of other operations. To make this process easier, you can use ONNX-GraphSurgeon.

1.6. Code Analysis Tools

For guidance using the valgrind and clang sanitizer tools with TensorRT, refer to the [Troubleshooting](#) chapter.

1.7. API Versioning

TensorRT version number (MAJOR.MINOR.PATCH) follows [Semantic Versioning 2.0.0](#) for its public APIs and library ABIs. Version numbers change as follows:

1. MAJOR version when making incompatible API or ABI changes
2. MINOR version when adding functionality in a backward compatible manner
3. PATCH version when making backward compatible bug fixes

Note that semantic versioning does not extend to serialized objects. To reuse plan files, and timing caches, version numbers must match across major, minor, patch, and build versions. Calibration caches can typically be reused within a major version but compatibility is not guaranteed.

1.8. Deprecation Policy

Deprecation is used to inform developers that some APIs and tools are no longer recommended for use. Beginning with version 8.0, TensorRT has the following deprecation policy:

▶ Deprecation notices are communicated in the release notes. Deprecated API elements are marked with the `TRT_DEPRECATED` macro where possible.

▶ TensorRT provides a 12-month migration period after the deprecation.

▶ APIs and tools continue to work during the migration period.

▶ After the migration period ends, APIs and tools are removed in a manner consistent with semantic versioning.

For any APIs and tools specifically deprecated in TensorRT 7.x, the 12-month migration period starts from the TensorRT 8.0 GA release date.

1.9. Hardware Support Lifetime

TensorRT 8.5 will be the last release supporting NVIDIA Kepler (SM 3.x) devices. Support for Maxwell (SM 5.x) devices will be dropped in TensorRT 9.0.

1.10.   Support

Support, resources, and information about TensorRT can be found online at https://developer.nvidia.com/tensorrt. This includes blogs, samples, and more.

In addition, you can access the NVIDIA DevTalk TensorRT forum at https://devtalk.nvidia.com/default/board/304/tensorrt/ for all things related to TensorRT. This forum offers the possibility of finding answers, making connections, and getting involved in discussions with customers, developers, and TensorRT engineers.

1.11.   Reporting Bugs

NVIDIA appreciates all types of feedback. If you encounter any problems, follow the instructions in the Reporting TensorRT Issues section to report the issues.

Chapter 2. TensorRT's Capabilities

This chapter provides an overview of what you can do with TensorRT. It is intended to be useful to all TensorRT users.

2.1. C++ and Python APIs

TensorRT's API has language bindings for both C++ and Python, with nearly identical capabilities. The Python API facilitates interoperability with Python data processing toolkits and libraries like NumPy and SciPy. The C++ API can be more efficient, and may better meet some compliance requirements, for example in automotive applications.

> **Note:** The Python API is not available for all platforms. For more information, refer to the NVIDIA TensorRT Support Matrix.

2.2. The Programming Model

TensorRT operates in two phases. In the first phase, usually performed offline, you provide TensorRT with a model definition, and TensorRT optimizes it for a target GPU. In the second phase, you use the optimized model to run inference.

2.2.1. The Build Phase

The highest-level interface for the build phase of TensorRT is the `Builder` (C++, Python). The builder is responsible for optimizing a model, and producing an `Engine`.

In order to build an engine, you must:

▶ Create a network definition.

▶ Specify a configuration for the builder.

▶ Call the builder to create the engine.

The `NetworkDefinition` interface (C++, Python) is used to define the model. The most common path to transfer a model to TensorRT is to export it from a framework in ONNX format, and use TensorRT's ONNX parser to populate the network definition. However, you can

also construct the definition step by step using TensorRT's *Layer* (C++, Python) and *Tensor* (C++, Python) interfaces.

Whichever way you choose, you must also define which tensors are the inputs and outputs of the network. Tensors that are not marked as outputs are considered to be transient values that can be optimized away by the builder. Input and output tensors must be named, so that at runtime, TensorRT knows how to bind the input and output buffers to the model.

The *BuilderConfig* interface (C++, Python) is used to specify how TensorRT should optimize the model. Among the configuration options available, you can control TensorRT's ability to reduce the precision of calculations, control the tradeoff between memory and runtime execution speed, and constrain the choice of CUDA® kernels. Since the builder can take minutes or more to run, you can also control how the builder searches for kernels, and cached search results for use in subsequent runs.

After you have a network definition and a builder configuration, you can call the builder to create the engine. The builder eliminates dead computations, folds constants, and reorders and combines operations to run more efficiently on the GPU. It can optionally reduce the precision of floating-point computations, either by simply running them in 16-bit floating point, or by quantizing floating point values so that calculations can be performed using 8-bit integers. It also times multiple implementations of each layer with varying data formats, then computes an optimal schedule to execute the model, minimizing the combined cost of kernel executions and format transforms.

The builder creates the engine in a serialized form called a *plan*, which can be deserialized immediately, or saved to disk for later use.

> **Note:**
> ▶ Engines created by TensorRT are specific to both the TensorRT version with which they were created and the GPU on which they were created.
> ▶ TensorRT's network definition does not deep-copy parameter arrays (such as the weights for a convolution). Therefore, you must not release the memory for those arrays until the build phase is complete. When importing a network using the ONNX parser, the parser owns the weights, so it must not be destroyed until the build phase is complete.
> ▶ The builder times algorithms to determine the fastest. Running the builder in parallel with other GPU work may perturb the timings, resulting in poor optimization.

2.2.2. The Runtime Phase

The highest-level interface for the execution phase of TensorRT is the *Runtime* (C++, Python).

When using the runtime, you will typically carry out the following steps:

▶ Deserialize a plan to create an engine.

▶ Create an execution context from the engine.

Then, repeatedly:

▶ Populate input buffers for inference.

▶ Call `enqueue()` or `execute()` on the execution context to run inference.

The *Engine* interface (C++, Python) represents an optimized model. You can query an engine for information about the input and output tensors of the network - the expected dimensions, data type, data format, and so on.

The *ExecutionContext* interface (C++, Python), created from the engine is the main interface for invoking inference. The execution context contains all of the state associated with a particular invocation - thus you can have multiple contexts associated with a single engine, and run them in parallel.

When invoking inference, you must set up the input and output buffers in the appropriate locations. Depending on the nature of the data, this may be in either CPU or GPU memory. If not obvious based on your model, you can query the engine to determine in which memory space to provide the buffer.

After the buffers are set up, inference can be invoked synchronously (`execute`) or asynchronously (`enqueue`). In the latter case, the required kernels are enqueued on a CUDA stream, and control is returned to the application as soon as possible. Some networks require multiple control transfers between CPU and GPU, so control may not return immediately. To wait for completion of asynchronous execution, synchronize on the stream using `cudaStreamSynchronize`.

2.3. Plug-ins

TensorRT has a *Plugin* interface to allow applications to provide implementations of operations that TensorRT does not support natively. Plug-ins that are created and registered with TensorRT's `PluginRegistry` can be found by the ONNX parser while translating the network.

TensorRT ships with a library of plug-ins, and source for many of these and some additional plug-ins can be found here.

Refer to the Extending TensorRT with Custom Layers chapter for more details.

2.4. Types and Precision

TensorRT supports computations using FP32, FP16, INT8, Bool, and INT32 data types.

When TensorRT chooses CUDA kernels to implement floating point operations in the network, it defaults to FP32 implementations. There are two ways to configure different levels of precision:

▶ To control precision at the model level, `BuilderFlag` options (C++, Python) can indicate to TensorRT that it may select lower-precision implementations when searching for the fastest (and because lower precision is generally faster, if allowed to, it typically will).

Therefore, you can easily instruct TensorRT to use FP16 calculations for your entire model. For regularized models whose input dynamic range is approximately one, this typically produces significant speedups with negligible change in accuracy.

▶ For finer-grained control, where a layer must run at higher precision because part of the network is numerically sensitive or requires high dynamic range, arithmetic precision can be specified for that layer.

Refer to the Reduced Precision section for more details.

2.5.   Quantization

TensorRT supports quantized floating point, where floating-point values are linearly compressed and rounded to 8-bit integers. This significantly increases arithmetic throughput while reducing storage requirements and memory bandwidth. When quantizing a floating-point tensor, TensorRT must know its dynamic range - that is, what range of values is important to represent - values outside this range are clamped when quantizing.

Dynamic range information can be calculated by the builder (this is called *calibration*) based on representative input data. Or you can perform quantization-aware training in a framework and import the model to TensorRT with the necessary dynamic range information.

Refer to the Working with INT8 chapter for more details.

2.6.   Tensors and Data Formats

When defining a network, TensorRT assumes that tensors are represented by multidimensional C-style arrays. Each layer has a specific interpretation of its inputs: for example, a 2D convolution will assume that the last three dimensions of its input are in CHW format - there is no option to use, for example a WHC format. Refer to the TensorRT Layers chapter for how each layer interprets its inputs.

Note that tensors are limited to at most 2^31-1 elements.

While optimizing the network, TensorRT performs transformations internally (including to HWC, but also more complex formats) to use the fastest possible CUDA kernels. In general, formats are chosen to optimize performance, and applications have no control over the choices. However, the underlying data formats are exposed at I/O boundaries (network input and output, and passing data to and from plug-ins) to allow applications to minimize unnecessary format transformations.

Refer to the I/O Formats section for more details.

2.7.   Dynamic Shapes

By default, TensorRT optimizes the model based on the input shapes (batch size, image size, and so on) at which it was defined. However, the builder can be configured to allow the input dimensions to be adjusted at runtime. In order to enable this, you specify one or more instances of `OptimizationProfile` (C++, Python) in the builder configuration, containing for each input a minimum and maximum shape, along with an optimization point within that range.

TensorRT creates an optimized engine for each profile, choosing CUDA kernels that work for all shapes within the [minimum, maximum] range and are fastest for the optimization point - typically different kernels for each profile. You can then select among profiles at runtime.

Refer to the Working with Dynamic Shapes chapter for more details.

2.8.   DLA

TensorRT supports NVIDIA's Deep Learning Accelerator (DLA), a dedicated inference processor present on many NVIDIA SoCs that supports a subset of TensorRT's layers. TensorRT allows you to execute part of the network on the DLA and the rest on GPU; for layers that can be executed on either device, you can select the target device in the builder configuration on a per-layer basis.

Refer to the Working with DLA chapter for more details.

2.9.   Updating Weights

When building an engine, you can specify that it may later have its weights updated. This can be useful if you are frequently updating the weights of the model without changing the structure, such as in reinforcement learning or when retraining a model while retaining the same structure. Weight updates are performed using the `Refitter` (C++, Python) interface.

Refer to the Refitting an Engine section for more details.

2.10.   `trtexec` Tool

Included in the `samples` directory is a command-line wrapper tool called `trtexec`. `trtexec` is a tool to use TensorRT without having to develop your own application. The `trtexec` tool has three main purposes:

▶   *benchmarking networks* on random or user-provided input data.

▶   *generating serialized engines* from models.

▶   *generating a serialized timing cache* from the builder.

Refer to the trtexec section for more details.

2.11.   Polygraphy

Polygraphy is a toolkit designed to assist in running and debugging deep learning models in TensorRT and other frameworks. It includes a Python API and a command-line interface (CLI) built using this API.

Among other things, with Polygraphy you can:

- ▶ Run inference among multiple backends, like TensorRT and ONNX-Runtime, and compare results (for example API,CLI).

- ▶ Convert models to various formats, for example, TensorRT engines with post-training quantization (for example API,CLI).

- ▶ View information about various types of models (for example CLI)

- ▶ Modify ONNX models on the command line:

    - ▶ Extract subgraphs (for example CLI).

    - ▶ Simplify and sanitize (for example CLI).

- ▶ Isolate faulty tactics in TensorRT (for example CLI).

For more details, refer to the Polygraphy repository.

Chapter 3. The C++ API

This chapter illustrates basic usage of the C++ API, assuming you are starting with an ONNX model. sampleOnnxMNIST illustrates this use case in more detail.

The C++ API can be accessed through the header `NvInfer.h`, and is in the `nvinfer1` namespace. For example, a simple application might begin with:

```
#include "NvInfer.h"

using namespace nvinfer1;
```

Interface classes in the TensorRT C++ API begin with the prefix `I`, for example `ILogger`, `IBuilder`, and so on.

A CUDA context is automatically created the first time TensorRT makes a call to CUDA, if none exists before that point. It is generally preferable to create and configure the CUDA context yourself before the first call to TensorRT.

In order to illustrate object lifetimes, code in this chapter does not use smart pointers; however, their use is recommended with TensorRT interfaces.

3.1. The Build Phase

To create a builder, you first must instantiate the `ILogger` interface. This example captures all warning messages but ignores informational messages:

```
class Logger : public ILogger
{
    void log(Severity severity, const char* msg) noexcept override
    {
        // suppress info-level messages
        if (severity <= Severity::kWARNING)
            std::cout << msg << std::endl;
    }
} logger;
```

You can then create an instance of the builder:

```
IBuilder* builder = createInferBuilder(logger);
```

3.1.1. Creating a Network Definition

After the builder has been created, the first step in optimizing a model is to create a network definition:

```
uint32_t flag = 1U <<static_cast<uint32_t>
    (NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag::kEXPLICIT_BATCH);
```

```
INetworkDefinition* network = builder->createNetworkV2(flag);
```

The kEXPLICIT_BATCH flag is required in order to import models using the ONNX parser. Refer to the Explicit Versus Implicit Batch section for more information.

3.1.2.   Importing a Model Using the ONNX Parser

Now, the network definition must be populated from the ONNX representation. The ONNX parser API is in the file NvOnnxParser.h, and the parser is in the nvonnxparser C++ namespace.

```
#include "NvOnnxParser.h"

using namespace nvonnxparser;
```

You can create an ONNX parser to populate the network as follows:

```
IParser*  parser = createParser(*network, logger);
```

Then, read the model file and process any errors.

```
parser->parseFromFile(modelFile,
    static_cast<int32_t>(ILogger::Severity::kWARNING));
for (int32_t i = 0; i < parser.getNbErrors(); ++i)
{
std::cout << parser->getError(i)->desc() << std::endl;
}
```

An important aspect of a TensorRT network definition is that it contains pointers to model weights, which are copied into the optimized engine by the builder. Since the network was created using the parser, the parser owns the memory occupied by the weights, and so the parser object should not be deleted until after the builder has run.

3.1.3.   Building an Engine

The next step is to create a build configuration specifying how TensorRT should optimize the model.

```
IBuilderConfig* config = builder->createBuilderConfig();
```

This interface has many properties that you can set in order to control how TensorRT optimizes the network. One important property is the maximum workspace size. Layer implementations often require a temporary workspace, and this parameter limits the maximum size that any layer in the network can use. If insufficient workspace is provided, it is possible that TensorRT will not be able to find an implementation for a layer. By default the workspace is set to the total global memory size of the given device; restrict it when necessary, for example, when multiple engines are to be built on a single device.

```
config->setMemoryPoolLimit(MemoryPoolType::kWORKSPACE, 1U << 20);
```

Once the configuration has been specified, the engine can be built.

```
IHostMemory*  serializedModel = builder->buildSerializedNetwork(*network, *config);
```

Since the serialized engine contains the necessary copies of the weights, the parser, network definition, builder configuration and builder are no longer necessary and may be safely deleted:

```
delete parser;
delete network;
delete config;
```

```
delete builder;
```

The engine can then be saved to disk, and the buffer into which it was serialized can be deleted.

```
delete serializedModel
```

> 📄 **Note:** Serialized engines are not portable across platforms or TensorRT versions. Engines are specific to the exact GPU model that they were built on (in addition to the platform and the TensorRT version).

3.2. Deserializing a Plan

Assuming you have previously serialized an optimized model and want to perform inference, you must create an instance of the `Runtime` interface. Like the builder, the runtime requires an instance of the logger:

```
IRuntime* runtime = createInferRuntime(logger);
```

Assuming you have read the model from into a buffer, you can then deserialize it to obtain an engine:

```
ICudaEngine* engine =
  runtime->deserializeCudaEngine(modelData, modelSize);
```

3.3. Performing Inference

The engine holds the optimized model, but to perform inference we must manage additional state for intermediate activations. This is done using the `ExecutionContext` interface:

```
IExecutionContext *context = engine->createExecutionContext();
```

An engine can have multiple execution contexts, allowing one set of weights to be used for multiple overlapping inference tasks. (A current exception to this is when using dynamic shapes, when each optimization profile can only have one execution context.)

To perform inference, you must pass TensorRT buffers for input and output, which TensorRT requires you to specify in an array of pointers. You can query the engine using the names you provided for input and output tensors to find the right positions in the array:

```
int32_t inputIndex = engine->getBindingIndex(INPUT_NAME);
int32_t outputIndex = engine->getBindingIndex(OUTPUT_NAME);
```

Using these indices, set up a buffer array pointing to the input and output buffers on the GPU:

```
void* buffers[2];
buffers[inputIndex] = inputBuffer;
buffers[outputIndex] = outputBuffer;
```

You can then call TensorRT's enqueue method to start inference asynchronously using a CUDA stream:

```
context->enqueueV2(buffers, stream, nullptr);
```

It is common to enqueue `cudaMemcpyAsync()` before and after the kernels to move data from the GPU if it is not already there. The final argument to `enqueueV2()` is an optional CUDA

event that is signaled when the input buffers have been consumed, and their memory can be safely reused.

To determine when the kernels (and possibly `memcpy()`) are complete, use standard CUDA synchronization mechanisms such as events or waiting on the stream.

If you prefer synchronous inference, use the `executeV2` method instead of `enqueueV2`.

Chapter 4. The Python API

This chapter illustrates basic usage of the Python API, assuming you are starting with an ONNX model. The onnx_resnet50.py sample illustrates this use case in more detail.

The Python API can be accessed through the `tensorrt` module:

```
import tensorrt as trt
```

4.1. The Build Phase

To create a builder, you must first create a logger. The Python bindings include a simple logger implementation that logs all messages preceding a certain severity to `stdout`.

```
logger = trt.Logger(trt.Logger.WARNING)
```

Alternatively, it is possible to define your own implementation of the logger by deriving from the `ILogger` class:

```
class MyLogger(trt.ILogger):
    def __init__(self):
        trt.ILogger.__init__(self)

    def log(self, severity, msg):
        pass # Your custom logging implementation here

logger = MyLogger()
```

You can then create a builder:

```
builder = trt.Builder(logger)
```

4.1.1. Creating a Network Definition in Python

After the builder has been created, the first step in optimizing a model is to create a network definition:

```
network = builder.create_network(1 << int(trt.NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag.EXPLICIT_BATCH))
```

The `EXPLICIT_BATCH` flag is required in order to import models using the ONNX parser. Refer to the Explicit Versus Implicit Batch section for more information.

4.1.2. Importing a Model Using the ONNX Parser

Now, the network definition must be populated from the ONNX representation. You can create an ONNX parser to populate the network as follows:

```
parser = trt.OnnxParser(network, logger)
```

Then, read the model file and process any errors:

```
success = parser.parse_from_file(model_path)
for idx in range(parser.num_errors):
    print(parser.get_error(idx))

if not success:
    pass # Error handling code here
```

4.1.3.   Building an Engine

The next step is to create a build configuration specifying how TensorRT should optimize the model:

```
config = builder.create_builder_config()
```

This interface has many properties that you can set in order to control how TensorRT optimizes the network. One important property is the maximum workspace size. Layer implementations often require a temporary workspace, and this parameter limits the maximum size that any layer in the network can use. If insufficient workspace is provided, it is possible that TensorRT will not be able to find an implementation for a layer:

```
config.set_memory_pool_limit(trt.MemoryPoolType.WORKSPACE, 1 << 20) # 1 MiB
```

After the configuration has been specified, the engine can be built and serialized with:

```
serialized_engine = builder.build_serialized_network(network, config)
```

It may be useful to save the engine to a file for future use. You can do that like so:

```
with open("sample.engine", "wb") as f:
    f.write(serialized_engine)
```

> **Note:** Serialized engines are not portable across platforms or TensorRT versions. Engines are specific to the exact GPU model that they were built on (in addition to the platform and the TensorRT version).

4.2.   Deserializing a Plan

To perform inference, deserialize the engine using the `Runtime` interface. Like the builder, the runtime requires an instance of the logger.

```
runtime = trt.Runtime(logger)
```

You can then deserialize the engine from a memory buffer:

```
engine = runtime.deserialize_cuda_engine(serialized_engine)
```

If you want, first load the engine from a file:

```
with open("sample.engine", "rb") as f:
    serialized_engine = f.read()
```

4.3.   Performing Inference

The engine holds the optimized model, but to perform inference requires additional state for intermediate activations. This is done using the `IExecutionContext` interface:

```
context = engine.create_execution_context()
```

An engine can have multiple execution contexts, allowing one set of weights to be used for multiple overlapping inference tasks. (A current exception to this is when using dynamic shapes, when each optimization profile can only have one execution context.)

To perform inference, you must pass TensorRT buffers for inputs and outputs, which TensorRT requires you to specify in a list of GPU pointers. You can query the engine using the names you provided for input and output tensors to find the right positions in the array:

```
input_idx = engine[input_name]
output_idx = engine[output_name]
```

Using these indices, set up GPU buffers for each input and output. Several Python packages allow you to allocate memory on the GPU, including, but not limited to, PyTorch, the Polygraphy CUDA wrapper, and PyCUDA.

Then, create a list of GPU pointers. For example, for PyTorch CUDA tensors, you can access the GPU pointer using the `data_ptr()` method; for Polygraphy `DeviceArray`, use the `ptr` attribute:

```
buffers = [None] * 2 # Assuming 1 input and 1 output
buffers[input_idx] = input_ptr
buffers[output_idx] = output_ptr
```

After populating the input buffer, you can call TensorRT's `execute_async` method to start inference asynchronously using a CUDA stream.

First, create the CUDA stream. If you already have a CUDA stream, you can use a pointer to the existing stream. For example, for PyTorch CUDA streams, that is `torch.cuda.Stream()`, you can access the pointer using the `cuda_stream` property; for Polygraphy CUDA streams, use the `ptr` attribute.

Next, start inference:

```
context.execute_async_v2(buffers, stream_ptr)
```

It is common to enqueue asynchronous `memcpy()` before and after the kernels to move data from the GPU if it is not already there.

To determine when the kernels (and possibly `memcpy()`) are complete, use the standard CUDA synchronization mechanisms such as events or waiting on the stream. For example, with Polygraphy, use:

```
stream.synchronize()
```

If you prefer synchronous inference, use the `execute_v2` method instead of `execute_async_v2`.

Chapter 5. How TensorRT Works

This chapter provides more detail on how TensorRT works.

5.1. Object Lifetimes

TensorRT's API is class-based, with some classes acting as factories for other classes. For objects owned by the user, the lifetime of a factory object must span the lifetime of objects it creates. For example, the `NetworkDefinition` and `BuilderConfig` classes are created from the builder class, and objects of those classes should be destroyed before the builder factory object.

An important exception to this rule is creating an engine from a builder. After you have created an engine, you may destroy the builder, network, parser, and build config and continue using the engine.

5.2. Error Handling and Logging

When creating TensorRT top-level interfaces (builder, runtime or refitter), you must provide an implementation of the `Logger` ([C++](), [Python]()) interface. The logger is used for diagnostics and informational messages; its verbosity level is configurable. Since the logger may be used to pass back information at any point in the lifetime of TensorRT, its lifetime must span any use of that interface in your application. The implementation must also be thread-safe, since TensorRT may use worker threads internally.

An API call to an object will use the logger associated with the corresponding top-level interface. For example, in a call to `ExecutionContext::enqueue()`, the execution context was created from an engine, which was created from a runtime, so TensorRT will use the logger associated with that runtime.

The primary method of error handling is the `ErrorRecorde` ([C++](), [Python]()) interface. You can implement this interface, and attach it to an API object to receive errors associated with that object. The recorder for an object will also be passed to any others it creates - for example, if you attach an error recorder to an engine, and create an execution context from that engine, it will use the same recorder. If you then attach a new error recorder to the execution context, it will receive only errors coming from that context. If an error is generated but no error recorder is found, it will be emitted through the associated logger.

Note that CUDA errors are generally asynchronous - so when performing multiple inferences or other streams of CUDA work asynchronously in a single CUDA context, an asynchronous GPU error may be observed in a different execution context than the one that generated it.

5.3. Memory

TensorRT uses considerable amounts of device memory, that is, memory directly accessible by the GPU, as opposed to the host memory attached to the CPU). Since device memory is often a constrained resource, it is important to understand how TensorRT uses it.

5.3.1. The Build Phase

During build, TensorRT allocates device memory for timing layer implementations. Some implementations can consume a large amount of temporary memory, especially with large tensors. You can control the maximum amount of temporary memory through the builder's `maxWorkspace` attribute. This defaults to the full size of device global memory but can be restricted when necessary. If the builder finds applicable kernels that could not be run because of insufficient workspace, it will emit a logging message indicating this.

Even with relatively little workspace however, timing requires creating buffers for input, output, and weights. TensorRT is robust against the operating system (OS) returning out-of-memory for such allocations. On some platforms the OS may successfully provide memory, which then the out-of-memory killer process observes that the system is low on memory, and kills TensorRT. If this happens free up as much system memory as possible before retrying.

During the build phase, there will typically be at least two copies of the weights in host memory: those from the original network, and those included as part of the engine as it is built. In addition, when TensorRT combines weights (for example convolution with batch normalization) additional temporary weight tensors will be created.

5.3.2. The Runtime Phase

At runtime, TensorRT uses relatively little host memory, but can use considerable amounts of device memory.

An engine, on deserialization, allocates device memory to store the model weights. Since the serialized engine is almost all weights, its size is a good approximation to the amount of device memory the weights require.

An `ExecutionContext` uses two kinds of device memory:

► Persistent memory required by some layer implementations - for example, some convolution implementations use edge masks, and this state cannot be shared between contexts as weights are, because its size depends on the layer input shape, which may vary across contexts. This memory is allocated on creation of the execution context, and lasts for its lifetime.

► Scratch memory, used to hold intermediate results while processing the network. This memory is used for intermediate activation tensors. It is also used for temporary storage required by layer implementations, the bound for which is controlled by `IBuilderConfig::setMaxWorkspaceSize()`.

You may optionally create an execution context without scratch memory using `ICudaEngine::createExecutionContextWithoutDeviceMemory()` and provide that memory yourself for the duration of network execution. This allows you to share it between multiple contexts that are not running concurrently, or for other uses while inference is not running. The amount of scratch memory required is returned by `ICudaEngine::getDeviceMemorySize()`.

Information about the amount of persistent memory and scratch memory used by the execution context is emitted by the builder when building the network, at severity `kINFO`. Examining the log, the messages look similar to the following:

```
[08/12/2021-17:39:11] [I] [TRT] Total Host Persistent Memory: 106528
[08/12/2021-17:39:11] [I] [TRT] Total Device Persistent Memory: 29785600
[08/12/2021-17:39:11] [I] [TRT] Total Scratch Memory: 9970688
```

By default, TensorRT allocates device memory directly from CUDA. However, you can attach an implementation of TensorRT's *IGpuAllocator* (C++, Python) interface to the builder or runtime and manage device memory yourself. This is useful if your application wants to control all GPU memory and suballocate to TensorRT instead of having TensorRT allocate directly from CUDA.

TensorRT's dependencies (cuDNN and cuBLAS) can occupy large amounts of device memory. TensorRT allows you to control whether these libraries are used for inference using the `TacticSources` (C++, Python) attribute in the builder configuration. Note that some layer implementations require these libraries, so that when they are excluded, the network may not compile.

The CUDA infrastructure and TensorRT's device code also consume device memory. The amount of memory varies by platform, device, and TensorRT version. You can use `cudaGetMemInfo` to determine the total amount of device memory in use.

TensorRT measures the amount of memory in use before and after critical operations in builder and runtime. These memory usage statistics are printed to TensorRT's information logger. For example:

```
[MemUsageChange] Init CUDA: CPU +535, GPU +0, now: CPU 547, GPU 1293 (MiB)
```

It indicates the memory use change by CUDA initialization. `CPU +535, GPU +0` is the increased amount of memory after running CUDA initialization. The content after `now:` is the CPU/GPU memory usage snapshot after CUDA initialization.

> 💬 **Note:** In a multi-tenant situation, the reported memory use by `cudaGetMemInfo` and TensorRT is prone to race conditions where a new allocation/free done by a different process or a different thread. Since CUDA is not in control of memory on unified-memory devices, the results returned by `cudaGetMemInfo` may not be accurate on these platforms.

5.4. Threading

In general, TensorRT objects are not thread safe; accesses to an object from different threads must be serialized by the client.

The expected runtime concurrency model is that different threads will operate on different execution contexts. The context contains the state of the network (activation values, and so

on) during execution, so using a context concurrently in different threads results in undefined behavior.

To support this model, the following operations are thread safe:

▶ Nonmodifying operations on a runtime or engine.

▶ Deserializing an engine from a TensorRT runtime.

▶ Creating an execution context from an engine.

▶ Registering and deregistering plug-ins.

There are no thread-safety issues with using multiple builders in different threads; however, the builder uses timing to determine the fastest kernel for the parameters provided, and using multiple builders with the same GPU will perturb the timing and TensorRT's ability to construct optimal engines. There are no such issues using multiple threads to build with different GPUs.

5.5.   Determinism

The TensorRT builder uses timing to find the fastest kernel to implement a given operator. Timing kernels is subject to noise - other work running on the GPU, fluctuations in GPU clock speed, and so on. Timing noise means that on successive runs of the builder, the same implementation may not be selected.

In general, different implementations will use a different order of floating point operations, resulting in small differences in the output. The impact of these differences on the final result is usually very small. However, when TensorRT is configured to optimize by tuning over multiple precisions, the difference between an FP16 and an FP32 kernel can be more significant, particularly if the network has not been well regularized or is otherwise sensitive to numerical drift.

Other configuration options that can result in a different kernel selection are different input sizes (for example, batch size) or a different optimization point for an input profile (refer to the Working with Dynamic Shapes section).

The `AlgorithmSelector` (C++, Python) interface allows you to force the builder to pick a particular implementation for a given layer. You can use this to ensure that the same kernels are picked by the builder from run to run. For more information, refer to the Algorithm Selection and Reproducible Builds section.

After an engine has been built, it is deterministic: providing the same input in the same runtime environment will produce the same output.

Chapter 6. Advanced Topics

6.1. The Timing Cache

To reduce the builder time, TensorRT creates a layer timing cache to keep the layer-profiling information during the builder phase. The information it contains is specific to the targeted builder devices, CUDA and TensorRT versions, and BuilderConfig parameters that can change the layer implementation such as `BuilderFlag::kTF32` or `BuilderFlag::kREFIT`.

If there are other layers with the same I/O tensor configuration and layer parameters, the TensorRT builder skips profiling and reuses the cached result for the repeated layers. If a timing query misses in the cache, the builder times the layer and updates the cache.

The timing cache can be serialized and deserialized. You can load a serialized cache from a buffer using `IBuilderConfig::createTimingCache`:

```
ITimingCache* cache =
 config->createTimingCache(cacheFile.data(), cacheFile.size());
```

Setting the buffer size to `0` creates a new empty timing cache.

You then attach the cache to a builder configuration before building.

```
config->setTimingCache(*cache, false);
```

During the build, the timing cache can be augmented with more information as a result of cache misses. After the build, it can be serialized for use with another builder.

```
IHostMemory* serializedCache = cache->serialize();
```

If there is no timing cache attached to a builder, the builder creates its own temporary local cache and destroys it when it is done.

The cache is incompatible with algorithm selection (refer to the Algorithm Selection and Reproducible Builds section). It can be disabled by setting the `BuilderFlag`.

```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kDISABLE_TIMING_CACHE);
```

> **Note:** The timing cache supports the most frequently used layer types: Convolution, Deconvolution, Pooling, SoftMax, MatrixMultiply, ElementWise, Shuffle, and tensor memory layout conversion. More layer types will be added in future releases.

6.2. Refitting an Engine

TensorRT can *refit* an engine with new weights without having to rebuild it, however, the option to do so must be specified when building:

```
...
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kREFIT)
builder->buildSerializedNetwork(network, config);
```

Later, you can create a `Refitter` object:

```
ICudaEngine* engine = ...;
IRefitter* refitter = createInferRefitter(*engine,gLogger)
```

Then update the weights. For example, to update the kernel weights for a convolution layer named "MyLayer":

```
Weights newWeights = ...;
refitter->setWeights("MyLayer",WeightsRole::kKERNEL,
                     newWeights);
```

The new weights should have the same count as the original weights used to build the engine. `setWeights` returns false if something went wrong, such as a wrong layer name or role or a change in the weights count.

Because of the way the engine is optimized, if you change some weights, you might have to supply some other weights too. The interface can tell you what additional weights must be supplied.

You can use `INetworkDefinition::setWeightsName()` to name weights at build time - the ONNX parser uses this API to associate the weights with the names used in the ONNX model. Then, later you can use `setNamedWeights` to update the weights:

```
Weights newWeights = ...;
refitter->setNamedWeights("MyWeights", newWeights);
```

`setNamedWeights` and `setWeights` can be used at the same time, that is, you can update weights with names using `setNamedWeights` and update those unnamed weights using `setWeights`.

This typically requires two calls to `IRefitter::getMissing`, first to get the number of weights objects that must be supplied, and second to get their layers and roles.

```
const int32_t n = refitter->getMissing(0, nullptr, nullptr);
std::vector<const char*> layerNames(n);
std::vector<WeightsRole> weightsRoles(n);
refitter->getMissing(n, layerNames.data(),
                     weightsRoles.data());
```

Alternatively, to get the names of all missing weights, run:

```
const int32_t n = refitter->getMissingWeights(0, nullptr);
std::vector<const char*> weightsNames(n);
refitter->getMissingWeights(n, weightsNames.data());
```

You can supply the missing weights, in any order:

```
for (int32_t i = 0; i < n; ++i)
    refitter->setWeights(layerNames[i], weightsRoles[i],
                         Weights{...});
```

The set of missing weights returned is complete, in the sense that supplying only the missing weights does not generate a need for any more weights.

Once all the weights have been provided, you can update the engine:

```
bool success = refitter->refitCudaEngine();
assert(success);
```

If refit returns false, check the log for a diagnostic, perhaps about weights that are still missing.

You can then delete the refitter:

```
delete refitter;
```

The updated engine behaves as if it had been built from a network updated with the new weights.

To view all refittable weights in an engine, use `refitter->getAll(...)` or `refitter->getAllWeights(...)`; similarly to how `getMissing` and `getMissingWeights` were used previously.

6.3. Algorithm Selection and Reproducible Builds

The default behavior of TensorRT's optimizer is to choose the algorithms that globally minimize the execution time of the engine. It does this by timing each implementation, and sometimes, and when implementations have similar timings, it is possible that system noise will determine which will be chosen on any particular run of the builder. Different implementations will typically use different order of accumulation of floating point values, and two implementations may use different algorithms or even run at different precisions. Thus, different invocations of the builder will typically not result in engines that return bit-identical results.

Sometimes it is important to have a deterministic build, or to recreate the algorithm choices of an earlier build. By providing an implementation of the `IAlgorithmSelector` interface and attaching it to a builder configuration with `setAlgorithmSelector`, you can guide algorithm selection manually.

The method `IAlgorithmSelector::selectAlgorithms` receives an *AlgorithmContext* containing information about the algorithm requirements for a layer, and a set of *Algorithm* choices meeting those requirements. It returns the set of algorithms which TensorRT should consider for the layer.

The builder selects from these algorithms the one that minimizes the global runtime for the network. If no choice is returned and `BuilderFlag::kREJECT_EMPTY_ALGORITHMS` is unset, TensorRT interprets this to mean that any algorithm may be used for this layer. To override this behavior and generate an error if an empty list is returned, set the `BuilderFlag::kREJECT_EMPTY_ALGORITHMSS` flag.

After TensorRT has finished optimizing the network for a given profile, it calls `reportAlgorithms`, which can be used to record the final choice made for each layer.

To build a TensorRT engine deterministically, return a single choice from `selectAlgorithms`. To replay choices from an earlier build, use `reportAlgorithms` to record the choices in that build, and return them in `selectAlgorithms`.

`sampleAlgorithmSelector` demonstrates how to use the algorithm selector to achieve determinism and reproducibility in the builder.

> **Note:**
>
> ▶ The notion of a "layer" in algorithm selection is different from `ILayer` in `INetworkDefinition`. The "layer" in the former can be equivalent to a collection of multiple network layers due to fusion optimizations.
>
> ▶ Picking the fastest algorithm in `selectAlgorithms` may not produce the best performance for the overall network, as it may increase reformatting overhead.
>
> ▶ The timing of an `IAlgorithm` is `0` in `selectAlgorithms` if TensorRT found that layer to be a no-op.
>
> ▶ `reportAlgorithms` does not provide the timing and workspace information for an `IAlgorithm` that are provided to `selectAlgorithms`.

6.4. Creating a Network Definition from Scratch

Instead of using a parser, you can also define the network directly to TensorRT using the Network Definition API. This scenario assumes that the per-layer weights are ready in host memory to pass to TensorRT during the network creation.

The following examples create a simple network with Input, Convolution, Pooling, MatrixMultiply, Shuffle, Activation, and SoftMax layers.

6.4.1. C++

Code corresponding to this section can be found in sampleMNISTAPI. In this example, the weights are loaded into a `weightMap` data structure used in the following code.

First create the builder and network objects. Note that in the following example, the logger is initialized using the logger.cpp file common to all C++ samples. The C++ sample helper classes and functions can be found in the common.h header file.

```
    auto builder =
 SampleUniquePtr<nvinfer1::IBuilder>(nvinfer1::createInferBuilder(sample::gLogger.getTRTLogger()));
    const auto explicitBatchFlag = 1U <<
 static_cast<uint32_t>(nvinfer1::NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag::kEXPLICIT_BATCH);
    auto network = SampleUniquePtr<nvinfer1::INetworkDefinition>(builder-
>createNetworkV2(explicitBatchFlag));
```

Refer to the [Explicit Versus Implicit Batch](#) section for more information about the `kEXPLICIT_BATCH` flag.

Add the Input layer to the network by specifying the name, datatype, and full dimensions of the input tensor. A network can have multiple inputs, although in this sample there is only one:

```
auto data = network->addInput(INPUT_BLOB_NAME, datatype, Dims4{1, 1, INPUT_H, INPUT_W});
```

Add the Convolution layer with hidden layer input nodes, strides, and weights for filter and bias.

```
auto conv1 = network->addConvolution(
*data->getOutput(0), 20, DimsHW{5, 5}, weightMap["conv1filter"], weightMap["conv1bias"]);
conv1->setStride(DimsHW{1, 1});
```

> 📝 **Note:** Weights passed to TensorRT layers are in host memory.

Add the Pooling layer; note that the output from the previous layer is passed as input.

```
auto pool1 = network->addPooling(*conv1->getOutput(0), PoolingType::kMAX, DimsHW{2, 2});
pool1->setStride(DimsHW{2, 2});
```

Add a Shuffle layer to reshape the input in preparation for a matrix multiplication:

```
int32_t const batch = input->getDimensions().d[0];
int32_t const mmInputs = input.getDimensions().d[1] * input.getDimensions().d[2] *
 input.getDimensions().d[3];
auto inputReshape = network->addShuffle(*input);
inputReshape->setReshapeDimensions(Dims{2, {batch, mmInputs}});
```

Now, add a MatrixMultiply layer. Here, the model exporter provided transposed weights, so the `kTRANSPOSE` option is specified for those.

```
IConstantLayer* filterConst = network->addConstant(Dims{2, {nbOutputs, mmInputs}},
 mWeightMap["ip1filter"]);
auto mm = network->addMatrixMultiply(*inputReshape->getOutput(0), MatrixOperation::kNONE,
 *filterConst->getOutput(0), MatrixOperation::kTRANSPOSE);
```

Add the bias, which will broadcast across the batch dimension.

```
auto biasConst = network->addConstant(Dims{2, {1, nbOutputs}}, mWeightMap["ip1bias"]);
auto biasAdd = network->addElementWise(*mm->getOutput(0), *biasConst->getOutput(0),
 ElementWiseOperation::kSUM);
```

Add the ReLU Activation layer:

```
auto relu1 = network->addActivation(*ip1->getOutput(0), ActivationType::kRELU);
```

Add the SoftMax layer to calculate the final probabilities:

```
auto prob = network->addSoftMax(*relu1->getOutput(0));
```

Add a name for the output of the SoftMax layer so that the tensor can be bound to a memory buffer at inference time:

```
prob->getOutput(0)->setName(OUTPUT_BLOB_NAME);
```

Mark it as the output of the entire network:

```
network->markOutput(*prob->getOutput(0));
```

The network representing the MNIST model has now been fully constructed. Refer to sections [Building an Engine](#) and [Deserializing a Plan](#) for how to build an engine and run inference with this network.

6.4.2. Python

Code corresponding to this section can be found in [network_api_pytorch_mnist](#).

This example uses a helper class to hold some of metadata about the model:

```
class ModelData(object):
    INPUT_NAME = "data"
    INPUT_SHAPE = (1, 1, 28, 28)
    OUTPUT_NAME = "prob"
    OUTPUT_SIZE = 10
    DTYPE = trt.float32
```

In this example, the weights are imported from the PyTorch MNIST model.

```
weights = mnist_model.get_weights()
```

Create the logger, builder, and network classes.

```
TRT_LOGGER = trt.Logger(trt.Logger.ERROR)
builder = trt.Builder(TRT_LOGGER)
EXPLICIT_BATCH = 1 << (int)(trt.NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag.EXPLICIT_BATCH)
network = builder.create_network(common.EXPLICIT_BATCH)
```

Refer to the Explicit Versus Implicit Batch section for more information about the `kEXPLICIT_BATCH` flag.

Next, create the input tensor for the network, specifying the name, datatype, and shape of the tensor.

```
input_tensor = network.add_input(name=ModelData.INPUT_NAME, dtype=ModelData.DTYPE,
 shape=ModelData.INPUT_SHAPE)
```

Add a convolution layer, specifying the inputs, number of output maps, kernel shape, weights, bias, and stride:

```
conv1_w = weights['conv1.weight'].numpy()
    conv1_b = weights['conv1.bias'].numpy()
    conv1 = network.add_convolution(input=input_tensor, num_output_maps=20, kernel_shape=(5,
 5), kernel=conv1_w, bias=conv1_b)
    conv1.stride = (1, 1)
```

Add a pooling layer, specifying the inputs (the output of the previous convolution layer), pooling type, window size, and stride:

```
pool1 = network.add_pooling(input=conv1.get_output(0), type=trt.PoolingType.MAX,
 window_size=(2, 2))
    pool1.stride = (2, 2)
```

Add the next pair of convolution and pooling layers:

```
    conv2_w = weights['conv2.weight'].numpy()
    conv2_b = weights['conv2.bias'].numpy()
    conv2 = network.add_convolution(pool1.get_output(0), 50, (5, 5), conv2_w, conv2_b)
    conv2.stride = (1, 1)

    pool2 = network.add_pooling(conv2.get_output(0), trt.PoolingType.MAX, (2, 2))
    pool2.stride = (2, 2)
```

Add a Shuffle layer to reshape the input in preparation for a matrix multiplication:

```
batch = input.shape[0]
mm_inputs = np.prod(input.shape[1:])
input_reshape = net.add_shuffle(input)
input_reshape.reshape_dims = trt.Dims2(batch, mm_inputs)
```

Now, add a MatrixMultiply layer. Here, the model exporter provided transposed weights, so the `kTRANSPOSE` option is specified for those.

```
filter_const = net.add_constant(trt.Dims2(nbOutputs, k), weights["fc1.weight"].numpy())
mm = net.add_matrix_multiply(input_reshape.get_output(0), trt.MatrixOperation.NONE,
 filter_const.get_output(0), trt.MatrixOperation.TRANSPOSE);
```

Add bias, which will broadcast across the batch dimension:

```
bias_const = net.add_constant(trt.Dims2(1, nbOutputs), weights["fc1.bias"].numpy())
```

```
bias_add = net.add_elementwise(mm.get_output(0), bias_const.get_output(0),
 trt.ElementWiseOperation.SUM)
```

Add the ReLU activation layer:

```
relu1 = network.add_activation(input=fc1.get_output(0), type=trt.ActivationType.RELU)
```

Add the final fully connected layer, and mark the output of this layer as the output of the entire network:

```
fc2_w = weights['fc2.weight'].numpy()
fc2_b = weights['fc2.bias'].numpy()
fc2 = network.add_fully_connected(relu1.get_output(0), ModelData.OUTPUT_SIZE, fc2_w,
 fc2_b)

fc2.get_output(0).name = ModelData.OUTPUT_NAME
network.mark_output(tensor=fc2.get_output(0))
```

The network representing the MNIST model has now been fully constructed. Refer to sections Building an Engine and Performing Inference for how to build an engine and run inference with this network.

6.5. Reduced Precision

6.5.1. Network-Level Control of Precision

By default, TensorRT works in 32-bit precision, but can also execute operations using 16-bit floating point, and 8-bit quantized floating point. Using lower precision requires less memory and enables faster computation.

Reduced precision support depends on your hardware (refer to the Hardware and Precision section in the *NVIDIA TensorRT Support Matrix*). You can query the builder to check the supported precision support on a platform:

C++

```
if (builder->platformHasFastFp16()) { … };
```

Python

```
if builder.platform_has_fp16:
```

Setting flags in the builder configuration informs TensorRT that it may select lower-precision implementations:

C++

```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kFP16);
```

Python

```
config.set_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.FP16)
```

There are three precision flags: FP16, INT8, and TF32, and they may be enabled independently. Note that TensorRT will still choose a higher-precision kernel if it results in overall lower runtime, or if no low-precision implementation exists.

When TensorRT chooses a precision for a layer, it automatically converts weights as necessary to run the layer.

sampleGoogleNet and sampleMNIST provide examples of using these flags.

While using FP16 and TF32 precisions is relatively straightforward, there is additional complexity when working with INT8. Refer to the Working with INT8 chapter for more details.

6.5.2.   Layer-Level Control of Precision

The builder flags provide permissive, coarse-grained control. However, sometimes part of a network requires higher dynamic range or is sensitive to numerical precision. You can constrain the input and output types per layer:

C++
```
layer->setPrecision(DataType::kFP16)
```
Python
```
layer.precision = trt.fp16
```

This provides a *preferred type* (here, `DataType::kFP16`) for the inputs and outputs.

You may further set preferred types for the layer's outputs:

C++
```
layer->setOutputType(out_tensor_index, DataType::kFLOAT)
```
Python
```
layer.set_output_type(out_tensor_index, trt.fp16)
```

The computation will use the same floating-point type as is preferred for the inputs. Most TensorRT implementations have the same floating-point types for input and output; however, Convolution, Deconvolution, and FullyConnected can support quantized INT8 input and unquantized FP16 or FP32 output, as sometimes working with higher-precision outputs from quantized inputs is necessary to preserve accuracy.

Setting the precision constraint hints to TensorRT that it should select a layer implementation whose inputs and outputs match the preferred types, inserting reformat operations if the outputs of the previous layer and the inputs to the next layer do not match the requested types. Note that TensorRT will only be able to select an implementation with these types if they are also enabled using the flags in the builder configuration.

By default, TensorRT chooses such an implementation only if it results in a higher-performance network. If another implementation is faster, TensorRT uses it and issues a warning. You can override this behavior by preferring the type constraints in the builder configuration.

C++
```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kPREFER_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS)
```
Python
```
config.set_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.PREFER_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS)
```

If the constraints are preferred, TensorRT obeys them unless there is no implementation with the preferred precision constraints, in which case it issues a warning and uses the fastest available implementation.

To change the warning to an error, use `OBEY` instead of `PREFER`:

C++
```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kOBEY_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS);
```
Python
```
config.set_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.OBEY_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS);
```

sampleINT8API illustrates the use of reduced precision with these APIs.

Precision constraints are optional - you can query to determine whether a constraint has been set using `layer->precisionIsSet()` in C++ or `layer.precision_is_set` in Python. If a

precision constraint is not set, then the result returned from `layer->getPrecision()` in C++, or reading the `precision` attribute in Python, is not meaningful. Output type constraints are similarly optional.

If no constraints are set using `ILayer::setPrecision` or `ILayer::setOutputType` API, then `BuilderFlag::kPREFER_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS` or `BuilderFlag::kOBEY_PRECISION_CONSTRAINTS` are ignored. A layer is free to choose from any precision or output types based on allowed builder precisions.

Note that there is a distinction between `layer->getOutput(i)->setType()` and `layer->setOutputType()` - the former is an optional type that constrains the implementation that TensorRT will choose for a layer. The latter is mandatory (defaulting to FP32) and specifies the type of a network output. If they are different, TensorRT will insert a cast to ensure that both specifications are respected. Thus if you are calling `setOutputType()` for a layer that produces a network output, you should in general also configure the corresponding network output to have the same type.

6.5.3. TF32

TensorRT allows the use of TF32 Tensor Cores by default. When computing inner products, such as during convolution or matrix multiplication, TF32 execution does the following:

▶ Rounds the FP32 multiplicands to FP16 precision but keeps the FP32 dynamic range.

▶ Computes an exact product of the rounded multiplicands.

▶ Accumulates the products in an FP32 sum.

TF32 Tensor Cores can speed up networks using FP32, typically with no loss of accuracy. It is more robust than FP16 for models that require an HDR (high dynamic range) for weights or activations.

There is no guarantee that TF32 Tensor Cores are actually used, and there is no way to force the implementation to use them - TensorRT can fall back to FP32 at any time and always falls back if the platform does not support TF32. However you can disable their use by clearing the TF32 builder flag.

C++
```
config->clearFlag(BuilderFlag::kTF32);
```
Python
```
config.clear_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.TF32)
```

Setting the environment variable `NVIDIA_TF32_OVERRIDE=0` when building an engine disables the use of TF32, despite setting `BuilderFlag::kTF32`. This environment variable, when set to `0`, overrides any defaults or programmatic configuration of NVIDIA libraries, so they never accelerate FP32 computations with TF32 Tensor Cores. This is meant to be a debugging

tool only, and no code outside NVIDIA libraries should change the behavior based on this environment variable. Any other setting besides 0 is reserved for future use.

> ⚠️ **WARNING: Setting the environment variable** `NVIDIA_TF32_OVERRIDE` **to a different value when the engine is run can cause unpredictable precision/performance effects. It is best left unset when an engine is run.**

> 💬 **Note:** Unless your application requires the higher dynamic range provided by TF32, FP16 will be a better solution since it almost always yields faster performance.

6.6.   I/O Formats

TensorRT optimizes a network using many different data formats. In order to allow efficient passing of data between TensorRT and a client application, these underlying data formats are exposed at network I/O boundaries, that is, for Tensors marked as network input or output, and when passing data to and from plug-ins. For other tensors, TensorRT picks formats that result in the fastest overall execution, and may insert reformats to improve performance.

You can assemble an optimal data pipeline by profiling the available I/O formats in combination with the formats most efficient for the operations preceding and following TensorRT.

To specify I/O formats, you specify one or more formats in the form of a bitmask.

The following example sets the input tensor format to `TensorFormat::kHWC8`. Note that this format only works for `DataType::kHALF`, so the data type must be set accordingly.

C++
```cpp
auto formats = 1U << TensorFormat::kHWC8;
network->getInput(0)->setAllowedFormats(formats);
network->getInput(0)->setType(DataType::kHALF);
```

Python
```python
formats = 1 << int(tensorrt.TensorFormat.HWC8)
network.get_input(0).allowed_formats = formats
network.get_input(0).dtype = tensorrt.DataType.HALF
```

It is possible to make TensorRT avoid inserting reformatting at the network boundaries, by setting the builder configuration flag `DIRECT_IO`. This flag is generally counter-productive for two reasons:

▶ The resulting engine might be slower than if TensorRT had been allowed to insert reformatting. Reformatting may sound like wasted work, but it can allow coupling of the most efficient kernels.

▶ The build will fail if TensorRT cannot build an engine without introducing such reformatting. The failure may happen only for some target platforms, because of what formats are supported by kernels for those platforms.

The flag exists for the sake of users who want full control over whether reformatting happens at I/O boundaries, such as to build engines that run solely on DLA without falling back to the GPU for reformatting.

sampleIOFormats illustrates how to specify I/O formats using C++.

The following table shows the supported formats.

Table 1.   Supported I/O Formats

Format	`kINT32`	`kFLOAT`	`kHALF`	`kINT8`
`kLINEAR`	Only for GPU	Supported	Supported	Supported
`kCHW2`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Not Applicable
`kCHW4`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Supported	Supported
`kHWC8`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Not Applicable
`kCHW16`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Supported	Not Applicable
`kCHW32`	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Only for GPU	Supported
`kDHWC8`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Not Applicable
`kCDHW32`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Only for GPU
`kHWC`	Not Applicable	Only for GPU	Not Applicable	Not Applicable
`kDLA_LINEAR`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for DLA	Only for DLA
`kDLA_HWC4`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for DLA	Only for DLA
`kHWC16`	Not Applicable	Not Applicable	Only for NVIDIA Ampere Architecture GPUs and later	Not Applicable

Note that for the vectorized formats, the channel dimension must be zero-padded to the multiple of the vector size. For example, if an input binding has dimensions of `[16,3,224,224]`, `kHALF` data type, and `kHWC8` format, then the actual-required size of the binding buffer would be `16*`**8**`*224*224*sizeof(half)` bytes, even though the `engine->getBindingDimension()` API will return tensor dimensions as `[16,3,224,224]`. The values in the padded part (that is, where `C=3,4,…,7` in this example) must be filled with zeros.

Refer to Data Format Descriptions for how the data are actually laid out in memory for these formats.

6.7.   Compatibility of Serialized Engines

Serialized engines are only guaranteed to work correctly when used with the same OS, CPU architectures, GPU models, and TensorRT versions used to serialize the engines.

TensorRT checks the following attributes of the engine and will fail to deserialize if they do not match the environment in which the engine was serialized:

▶ major, minor, patch, and build versions of TensorRT

▶ compute capability (major and minor versions)

This ensures that kernels selected during the build phase are present and can run. In addition, the APIs that TensorRT uses to select and configure kernels from cuDNN and cuBLAS do not

support cross-device compatibility, so disable the use of these tactic sources in the builder configuration.

TensorRT additionally checks the following properties and will issue a warning if they do not match:

▶ Global memory bus width

▶ L2 cache size

▶ Maximum shared memory per block and per multiprocessor

▶ Texture alignment requirement

▶ Number of multiprocessors

▶ Whether the GPU device is integrated or discrete

If GPU clock speeds differ between engine serialization and runtime systems, the chosen tactics from the serialization system may not be optimal for the runtime system and may incur some performance degradation.

If the device memory available during deserialization is smaller than the amount during serialization, deserialization may fail due to memory allocation failures.

When building small models on large devices, TensorRT may choose kernels that are less efficient but scale better across the available resources. Thus if optimizing a single TensorRT engine for use on multiple devices in the same architecture, the best approach is to run the builder on the smallest device. Alternatively, you can build the engine on the larger device with limited compute resources (refer to the Limiting Compute Resources section).

6.8. Explicit Versus Implicit Batch

TensorRT supports two modes for specifying a network: explicit batch and implicit batch.

In *implicit batch* mode, every tensor has an implicit batch dimension and all other dimensions must have constant length. This mode was used by early versions of TensorRT, and is now deprecated but continues to be supported for backwards compatibility.

In *explicit batch* mode, all dimensions are explicit and can be dynamic, that is their length can change at execution time. Many new features, such as dynamic shapes and loops, are available only in this mode. It is also required by the ONNX parser.

For example, consider a network that processes N images of size HxW with 3 channels, in NCHW format. At runtime, the input tensor has dimensions [N,3,H,W]. The two modes differ in how the `INetworkDefinition` specifies the tensor's dimensions:

▶ In explicit batch mode, the network specifies [N,3,H,W].

▶ In implicit batch mode, the network specifies only [3,H,W]. The batch dimension N is implicit.

Operations that "talk across a batch" are impossible to express in implicit batch mode because there is no way to specify the batch dimension in the network. Examples of inexpressible operations in implicit batch mode:

- ▶ reducing across the batch dimension

- ▶ reshaping the batch dimension

- ▶ transposing the batch dimension with another dimension

The exception is that a tensor can be *broadcast* across the entire batch, through the `ITensor::setBroadcastAcrossBatch` method for network inputs, and implicit broadcasting for other tensors.

Explicit batch mode erases the limitations - the batch axis is axis 0. A more accurate term for explicit batch would be "batch oblivious," because in this mode, TensorRT attaches no special semantic meaning to the leading axis, except as required by specific operations. Indeed in explicit batch mode there might not even be a batch dimension (such as a network that handles only a single image) or there might be multiple batch dimensions of unrelated lengths (such as comparison of all possible pairs drawn from two batches).

The choice of explicit versus implicit batch must be specified when creating the `INetworkDefinition`, using a flag. Here is the C++ code for explicit batch mode:

```
IBuilder* builder = ...;
INetworkDefinition* network = builder->createNetworkV2(1U <<
 static_cast<uint32_t>(NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag::kEXPLICIT_BATCH)))
```

For implicit batch, use `createNetwork` or pass a 0 to `createNetworkV2`.

Here is the Python code for explicit batch mode:

```
builder = trt.Builder(...)
builder.create_network(1 << int(trt.NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag.EXPLICIT_BATCH))
```

For implicit batch, omit the argument or pass a 0.

6.9. Sparsity

NVIDIA Ampere Architecture GPUs support <u>Structured Sparsity</u>. To make use of this feature to achieve higher inference performance, the convolution kernel weights and the fully connected weights must meet the following requirements:

For each output channel and for each spatial pixel in the kernel weights, every four input channels must have at least two zeros. In other words, assuming that the kernel weights have the shape `[K, C, R, S]` and `C % 4 == 0`, then the requirement is:

```
for k in K:
    for r in R:
        for s in S:
            for c_packed in range(0, C // 4):
                num_zeros(weights[k, c_packed*4:(c_packed+1)*4, r, s]) >= 2
```

To enable the sparsity feature, set the `kSPARSE_WEIGHTS` flag in the builder config and make sure that kFP16 and kINT8 modes are enabled. For example:

C++

```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kSPARSE_WEIGHTS);
```

Python

```
config.set_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.SPARSE_WEIGHTS)
```

At the end of the TensorRT logs when the TensorRT engine is built, TensorRT reports which layers contain weights that meet the structures sparsity requirement, and in which layers TensorRT selects tactics that make use of the structured sparsity. In some cases, tactics

with structured sparsity can be slower than normal tactics and TensorRT will choose normal tactics in these cases. The following output shows an example of TensorRT logs showing information about sparsity:

```
[03/23/2021-00:14:05] [I] [TRT] (Sparsity) Layers eligible for sparse math: conv1, conv2,
 conv3
[03/23/2021-00:14:05] [I] [TRT] (Sparsity) TRT inference plan picked sparse implementation
 for layers: conv2, conv3
```

Forcing kernel weights to have structured sparsity patterns can lead to accuracy loss. To recover lost accuracy with further fine-tuning, refer to the [Automatic SParsity tool in PyTorch](#).

To measure inference performance with structured sparsity using `trtexec`, refer to the [trtexec](#) section.

6.10. Empty Tensors

TensorRT supports empty tensors. A tensor is an empty tensor if it has one or more dimensions with length zero. Zero-length dimensions usually get no special treatment. If a rule works for a dimension of length L for an arbitrary positive value of L, it usually works for L=0 too.

For example, when concatenating two tensors with dimensions [x,y,z] and [x,y,w] along the last axis, the result has dimensions [x,y,z+w], regardless of whether x, y, z, or w is zero.

Implicit broadcast rules remain unchanged since only unit-length dimensions are special for broadcast. For example, given two tensors with dimensions [1,y,z] and [x,1,z], their sum computed by `IElementWiseLayer` has dimensions [x,y,z], regardless of whether x, y, or z is zero.

If an engine binding is an empty tensor, it still needs a non-null memory address, and different tensors should have different addresses.. This is consistent with the C++ rule that every object has a unique address, for example, `new float[0]` returns a non-null pointer. If using a memory allocator that might return a null pointer for zero bytes, ask for at least one byte instead.

Refer to [TensorRT Layers](#) for any per-layer special handling of empty tensors.

6.11. Reusing Input Buffers

TensorRT also includes an optional CUDA event as an argument to the `enqueue` method that is signaled once the input buffers are free to be reused. This allows the application to immediately start refilling the input buffer region for the next inference in parallel with finishing the current inference. For example:

C++
```
context->enqueueV2(&buffers[0], stream, &inputReady);
```
Python
```
context.execute_async_v2(buffers, stream_ptr, inputReady)
```

6.12. Engine Inspector

TensorRT provides the `IEngineInspector` API to inspect the information inside a TensorRT engine. Call the `createEngineInspector()` from a deserialized engine to create an engine inspector, and then call `getLayerInformation()` or `getEngineInformation()` inspector APIs to get the information of a specific layer in the engine or the entire engine, respectively. You can print out the information of the first layer of the given engine, as well as the overall information of the engine, as follows:

C++

```
auto inspector = std::unique_ptr<IEngineInspector>(engine->createEngineInspector());
inspector->setExecutionContext(context); // OPTIONAL
std::cout << inspector->getLayerInformation(0, LayerInformationFormat::kJSON); // Print
 the information of the first layer in the engine.
std::cout << inspector->getEngineInformation(LayerInformationFormat::kJSON); // Print the
 information of the entire engine.
```

Python

```
inspector = engine.create_engine_inspector();
inspector.execution_context = context; # OPTIONAL
print(inspector.get_layer_information(0, LayerInformationFormat.JSON); # Print the
 information of the first layer in the engine.
print(inspector.get_engine_information(LayerInformationFormat.JSON); # Print the
 information of the entire engine.
```

Note that the level of detail in the engine/layer information depends on the `ProfilingVerbosity` builder config setting when the engine is built. By default, `ProfilingVerbosity` is set to `kLAYER_NAMES_ONLY`, so only the layer names will be printed. If `ProfilingVerbosity` is set to `kNONE`, then no information will be printed; if it is set to `kDETAILED`, then detailed information will be printed.

Below are some examples of layer information printed by `getLayerInformation()` API depending on the `ProfilingVerbosity` setting:

kLAYER_NAMES_ONLY

```
"node_of_gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_1 + node_of_gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_bn_1 + node_of_gpu_0/
res4_0_branch2a_bn_2"
```

kDETAILED

```
{
  "Name": "node_of_gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_1 + node_of_gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_bn_1 +
 node_of_gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_bn_2",
  "LayerType": "CaskConvolution",
  "Inputs": [
  {
    "Name": "gpu_0/res3_3_branch2c_bn_3",
    "Dimensions": [16,512,28,28],
    "Format/Datatype": "Thirty-two wide channel vectorized row major Int8 format."
  }],
  "Outputs": [
  {
    "Name": "gpu_0/res4_0_branch2a_bn_2",
    "Dimensions": [16,256,28,28],
    "Format/Datatype": "Thirty-two wide channel vectorized row major Int8 format."
  }],
  "ParameterType": "Convolution",
  "Kernel": [1,1],
  "PaddingMode": "kEXPLICIT_ROUND_DOWN",
  "PrePadding": [0,0],
  "PostPadding": [0,0],
```

```
    "Stride": [1,1],
    "Dilation": [1,1],
    "OutMaps": 256,
    "Groups": 1,
    "Weights": {"Type": "Int8", "Count": 131072},
    "Bias": {"Type": "Float", "Count": 256},
    "AllowSparse": 0,
    "Activation": "RELU",
    "HasBias": 1,
    "HasReLU": 1,
    "TacticName":
 "sm80_xmma_fprop_implicit_gemm_interleaved_i8i8_i8i32_f32_nchw_vect_c_32kcrs_vect_c_32_nchw_vect_c_32_ti
    "TacticValue": "0x11bde0e1d9f2f35d"
}
```

In addition, when the engine is built with dynamic shapes, the dynamic dimensions in the engine information will be shown as -1 and the tensor format information will not be shown because these fields depend on the actual shape at inference phase. To get the engine information for a specific inference shape, create an `IExecutionContext`, set all the input dimensions to the desired shapes, and then call `inspector->setExecutionContext(context)`. After the context is set, the inspector will print the engine information for the specific shape set in the context.

The `trtexec` tool provides the `--profilingVerbosity`, `--dumpLayerInfo`, and `--exportLayerInfo` flags that can be used to get the engine information of a given engine. Refer to the [trtexec](#) section for more details.

Currently, only binding information and layer information, including the dimensions of the intermediate tensors, precisions, formats, tactic indices, layer types, and layer parameters, are included in the engine information. More information may be added into the engine inspector output as new keys in the output JSON object in future TensorRT versions. More specifications about the keys and the fields in the inspector output will also be provided.

In addition, some subgraphs are handled by a next-generation graph optimizer that is not yet integrated with the engine inspector. Therefore, the layer information within these layers is not currently shown. This will be improved in a future TensorRT version.

Chapter 7. Working with INT8

7.1. Introduction to Quantization

TensorRT supports the use of 8-bit integers to represent quantized floating point values. The quantization scheme is *symmetric uniform* quantization - quantized values are represented in signed INT8, and the transformation from quantized to unquantized values is simply a multiplication. In the reverse direction, quantization uses the reciprocal scale, followed by rounding and clamping.

The quantization schema for activation tensors are as follows: $s = \dfrac{\max(\mathrm{abs}(x_{\min}), \mathrm{abs}(x_{\max}))}{127}$ where $x_{\min}$ and $x_{\max}$ are floating point minimum and maximum values for the activation tensor.

$x_q = \mathrm{quantize}(x, s) = \mathrm{roundWithTiesToEven}(\mathrm{clip}(\frac{x}{s}, -128, 127))$ where:

▶ x_q is quantized value in range [-128,127].

▶ x is a floating point value of the activation.

▶ $\mathrm{roundWithTiesToEven}$ is described [here](#).

$x = \mathrm{dequantize}(x_q, s) = x_q * s$

For DLA, quantization schema is updated to use a different rounding mode:
$x_q = \mathrm{quantize}(x, s) = \mathrm{roundWithTiesAwayFromZero}(\mathrm{clip}(\frac{x}{s}, -128, 127))$ where $\mathrm{roundWithTiesAwayFromZero}$ is described [here](#).

To enable the use of any quantized operations, the INT8 flag must be set in the builder configuration.

7.1.1. Quantization Workflows

There are two workflows for creating quantized networks:

Post-training quantization (PTQ) derives scale factors after the network has been trained. TensorRT provides a workflow for PTQ, called *calibration*, where it measures the distribution of activations within each activation tensor as the network executes on representative input data, then uses that distribution to estimate a scale value for the tensor.

Quantization-aware training (QAT) computes scale factors during training. This allows the training process to compensate for the effects of the quantization and dequantization operations.

TensorRT's Quantization Toolkit is a PyTorch library that helps produce QAT models that can be optimized by TensorRT. You can also use the toolkit's PTQ recipe to perform PTQ in PyTorch and export to ONNX.

7.1.2.   Explicit Versus Implicit Quantization

Quantized networks can be represented in two ways:

In *implicitly quantized* networks, each quantized tensor has an associated scale. When reading and writing the tensor, the scale is used to implicitly quantize and dequantize values.

When processing implicitly quantized networks, TensorRT treats the model as a floating-point model when applying the graph optimizations, and uses INT8 opportunistically to optimize layer execution time. If a layer runs faster in INT8, then it executes in INT8. Otherwise, FP32 or FP16 is used. In this mode, TensorRT is optimizing for performance only, and you have little control over where INT8 is used - even if you explicitly set the precision of a layer at the API level, TensorRT may fuse that layer with another during graph optimization, and lose the information that it must execute in INT8. TensorRT's PTQ capability generates an implicitly quantized network.

In *explicitly quantized* networks, the scaling operations to transform between the quantized and unquantized values are represented explicitly by `IQuantizeLayer` (C++, Python) and `IDequantizeLayer` (C++, Python) nodes in the graph - these will henceforth be referred to as Q/DQ nodes. By contrast with implicit quantization, the explicit form specifies exactly where conversion to and from INT8 is performed, and the optimizer will perform only precision conversions that are dictated by the semantics of the model, even if:

▶ adding extra conversions could increase layer precision (for example, choosing an FP16 kernel implementation over an INT8 implementation)

▶ adding extra conversions results in an engine that executes faster (for example, choosing an INT8 kernel implementation to execute a layer specified as having float precision or vice versa)

ONNX uses an explicitly quantized representation - when a model in PyTorch or TensorFlow is exported to ONNX, each fake-quantization operation in the framework's graph is exported as Q followed by DQ. Since TensorRT preserves the semantics of these layers, you can expect task accuracy very close to that seen in the framework. While optimizations preserve the placement of quantization and dequantization, they may change the order of floating-point operations in the model, so results will not be bitwise identical.

Note that by contrast with TensorRT's PTQ, performing either QAT or PTQ in a framework and then exporting to ONNX will result in an explicitly quantized model.

Table 2.   Implicit Vs Explicit Quantization

	Implicit Quantization	Explicit Quantization
User control over precision	Little control: INT8 is used in all kernels for which it accelerates performance.	Full control over quantization/ dequantization boundaries.
Optimization criterion	Optimize for performance.	Optimize for performance while maintaining arithmetic precision (accuracy).
API	► Model + Scales (dynamic range API) ► Model + Calibration data	Model with Q/DQ layers.
Quantization scales	Weights: ► Set by TensorRT (internal) ► Range `[-127, 127]` Activations: ► Set by calibration or specified by the user ► Range `[-128, 127]`	Weights and activations: ► Specified using Q/DQ ONNX operators ► Range `[-128, 127]`

For more background on quantization, refer to the Integer Quantization for Deep Learning Inference: Principles and Empirical Evaluation paper.

7.1.3.   Per-Tensor and Per-Channel Quantization

There are two common quantization scale granularities:

► *Per-tensor quantization*: in which a single scale value (scalar) is used to scale the entire tensor.
► *Per-channel quantization*: in which a scale tensor is broadcast along the given axis - for convolutional neural networks, this is typically the channel axis.

With explicit quantization, weights can be quantized using per-tensor quantization or they can be quantized using per-channel quantization. In either case, the scale precision is FP32. Activations can only be quantized using per-tensor quantization.

When using per-channel quantization, the axis of quantization must be the output-channel axis. For example, when the weights of 2D convolution are described using `KCRS` notation, `K` is the output-channel axis, and the weights quantization can be described as:

```
For each k in K:
    For each c in C:
        For each r in R:
            For each s in S:
                output[k,c,r,s] := clamp(round(input[k,c,r,s] / scale[k]))
```

The scale is a vector of coefficients and must have the same size as the quantization axis. The quantization scale must consist of all positive float coefficients. The rounding method is rounding-to-nearest ties-to-even and clamping is in the range `[-128, 127]`.

Dequantization is performed similarly except for the pointwise operation that is defined as:

```
output[k,c,r,s] := input[k,c,r,s] * scale[k]
```

TensorRT supports only per-tensor quantization for activation tensors, but supports per-channel weight quantization for convolution, deconvolution, fully connected layers, and MatMul where the second input is constant and both input matrices are 2D.

7.2. Setting Dynamic Range

TensorRT provides APIs to set *dynamic range* (the range that must be represented by the quantized tensor) directly, to support implicit quantization where these values have been calculated outside TensorRT.

The API allows setting the dynamic range for a tensor using minimum and maximum values. Since TensorRT currently supports only symmetric range, the scale is calculated using `max(abs(min_float), abs(max_float))`. Note that when `abs(min_float) != abs(max_float)`, TensorRT uses a larger dynamic-range than configured, which may increase the rounding error.

Dynamic range is needed for all floating-point inputs and outputs of an operation that will execute in INT8.

You can set the dynamic range for a tensor as follows:

C++

```
tensor->setDynamicRange(min_float, max_float);
```

Python

```
tensor.dynamic_range = (min_float, max_float)
```

sampleINT8API illustrates the use of these APIs in C++.

7.3. Post-Training Quantization Using Calibration

In post-training quantization, TensorRT computes a scale value for each tensor in the network. This process, called *calibration,* requires you to supply representative input data on which TensorRT runs the network to collect statistics for each activation tensor.

The amount of input data required is application-dependent, but experiments indicate that about 500 images are sufficient for calibrating ImageNet classification networks.

Given the statistics for an activation tensor, deciding on the best scale value is not an exact science - it requires balancing two sources of error in the quantized representation: *discretization error* (which increases as the range represented by each quantized value becomes larger) and *truncation error* (where values are clamped to the limits of the representable range.) Thus, TensorRT provides multiple different calibrators that calculate the scale in different ways. Older calibrators also performed layer fusion for GPU to optimize away unneeded Tensors before performing calibration. This can be problematic when using DLA, where fusion patterns may be different, and can be overridden using the `kCALIBRATE_BEFORE_FUSION` quantization flag.

Calibration batch size can also affect the *truncation error* for `IInt8EntropyCalibrator2` and `IInt8EntropyCalibrator`. For example, calibrating using multiple small batches of calibration data may result in reduced histogram resolution and poor scale value. For each calibration step, TensorRT updates the histogram distribution for each activation tensor. If it encounters a value in the activation tensor, larger than the current histogram max, the histogram range is increased by a power of two to accommodate the new maximum value. This approach works well unless histogram reallocation occurs in the last calibration step, resulting in a final histogram with half the bins empty. Such a histogram can produce poor calibration scales. This also makes calibration susceptible to the order of calibration batches, that is, a different order of calibration batches can result in the histogram size being increased at different points, producing slightly different calibration scales. To avoid this issue, calibrate with as large a single batch as possible, and ensure that calibration batches are well randomized and have similar distribution.

`IInt8EntropyCalibrator2`
> Entropy calibration chooses the tensor's scale factor to optimize the quantized tensor's information-theoretic content, and usually suppresses outliers in the distribution. This is the current and recommended entropy calibrator and is required for DLA. Calibration happens before Layer fusion by default. Calibration batch size may impact the final result. It is recommended for CNN-based networks.

`IInt8MinMaxCalibrator`
> This calibrator uses the entire range of the activation distribution to determine the scale factor. It seems to work better for NLP tasks. Calibration happens before Layer fusion by default. This is recommended for networks such as NVIDIA BERT (an optimized version of Google's official implementation).

`IInt8EntropyCalibrator`
> This is the original entropy calibrator. It is less complicated to use than the LegacyCalibrator and typically produces better results. Calibration batch size may impact the final result. Calibration happens after Layer fusion by default.

`IInt8LegacyCalibrator`
> This calibrator is for compatibility with TensorRT 2.0 EA. This calibrator requires user parameterization and is provided as a fallback option if the other calibrators yield poor results. Calibration happens after Layer fusion by default. You can customize this calibrator to implement percentile max, for example, 99.99% percentile max is observed to have best accuracy for NVIDIA BERT and NeMo ASR model QuartzNet.

When building an INT8 engine, the builder performs the following steps:

1. Build a 32-bit engine, run it on the calibration set, and record a histogram for each tensor of the distribution of activation values.
2. Build from the histograms a calibration table providing a scale value for each tensor.
3. Build the INT8 engine from the calibration table and the network definition.

Calibration can be slow; therefore the output of step 2 (the calibration table) can be cached and reused. This is useful when building the same network multiple times on a given platform and is supported by all calibrators.

Before running calibration, TensorRT queries the calibrator implementation to see if it has access to a cached table. If so, it proceeds directly to step 3. Cached data is passed as a pointer and length. A sample calibration table can be found here.

The calibration cache data is portable across different devices as long as the calibration happens before layer fusion. Specifically, the calibration cache is portable when using the `IInt8EntropyCalibrator2` or `IInt8MinMaxCalibrator` calibrators, or when `QuantizationFlag::kCALIBRATE_BEFORE_FUSION` is set. This can simplify the workflow, for example by building the calibration table on a machine with a discrete GPU and then reusing it on an embedded platform. Fusions are not guaranteed to be the same across platforms or devices, so calibrating after layer fusion may not result in a portable calibration cache. The calibration cache is in general not portable across TensorRT releases.

As well as quantizing activations, TensorRT must also quantize weights. It uses symmetric quantization with a quantization scale calculated using the maximum absolute values found in the weight tensor. For convolution, deconvolution, and fully connected weights, scales are per-channel.

> **Note:** When the builder is configured to use INT8 I/O, TensorRT still expects calibration data to be in FP32. You can create FP32 calibration data by casting INT8 I/O calibration data to FP32 precision. Also ensure that FP32 cast calibration data is in the range `[-128.0F, 127.0F]` and so can be converted to INT8 data without any precision loss.

INT8 calibration can be used along with the dynamic range APIs. Setting the dynamic range manually overrides the dynamic range generated from INT8 calibration.

> **Note:** Calibration is deterministic - that is, if you provide TensorRT with the same input to calibration in the same order on the same device, the scales generated will be the same across different runs. The data in the calibration cache will be bitwise identical when generated using the same device with the same batch size when provided with identical calibration inputs. The exact data in the calibration cache is not guaranteed to be bitwise identical when generated using different devices, different batch sizes, or using different calibration inputs.

7.3.1.   INT8 Calibration Using C++

To provide calibration data to TensorRT, implement the `IInt8Calibrator` interface.

About this task

The builder invokes the calibrator as follows:

▶ First, it queries the interface for the batch size and calls `getBatchSize()` to determine the size of the input batch to expect.

▶ Then, it repeatedly calls `getBatch()` to obtain batches of input. Batches must be exactly the batch size by `getBatchSize()`. When there are no more batches, `getBatch()` must return `false`.

After you have implemented the calibrator, you can configure the builder to use it:

```
config->setInt8Calibrator(calibrator.get());
```

To cache the calibration table, implement the `writeCalibrationCache()` and `readCalibrationCache()` methods.

For more information about configuring INT8 calibrator objects, see sampleINT8.

7.3.2.   Calibration Using Python

The following steps illustrate how to create an INT8 calibrator object using the Python API.

Procedure

1. Import TensorRT:

```
import tensorrt as trt
```

2. Similar to test/validation datasets, use a set of input files as a calibration dataset. Make sure that the calibration files are representative of the overall inference data files. For TensorRT to use the calibration files, you must create a `batchstream` object. A `batchstream` object is used to configure the calibrator.

```
NUM_IMAGES_PER_BATCH = 5
batchstream = ImageBatchStream(NUM_IMAGES_PER_BATCH, calibration_files)
```

3. Create an `Int8_calibrator` object with input nodes names and batch stream:

```
Int8_calibrator = EntropyCalibrator(["input_node_name"], batchstream)
```

4. Set INT8 mode and INT8 calibrator:

```
config.set_flag(trt.BuilderFlag.INT8)
config.int8_calibrator = Int8_calibrator
```

7.3.3.   Quantization Noise Reduction

For networks with implicit quantization, TensorRT attempts to reduce quantization noise in the output by forcing some layers near the network outputs to run in FP32, even if INT8 implementations are available.

The heuristic attempts to ensure that INT8 quantization is smoothed out by summation of multiple quantized values. Layers considered to be "smoothing layers" are convolution, deconvolution, a fully connected layer, or matrix multiplication before reaching the network output. For example, if a network consists of a series of (convolution + activation + shuffle) subgraphs and the network output has type FP32, the last convolution will output FP32 precision, even if INT8 is allowed and faster.

The heuristic does not apply in the following scenarios:

▶ The network output has type INT8.

▶ An operation on the path (inclusively) from the last smoothing layer to the output is constrained by `ILayer::setOutputType` or `ILayer::setPrecision` to output INT8.

▶ There is no smoothing layer with a path to the output, or said that path has an intervening plug-in layer.

▶ The network uses explicit quantization.

7.4.   Explicit Quantization

When TensorRT detects the presence of Q/DQ layers in a network, it builds an engine using explicit-precision processing logic.

A Q/DQ network must be built with the INT8-precision builder flag enabled:

```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kINT8);
```

In explicit-quantization, network changes of representation to and from INT8 are explicit, therefore, INT8 must not be used as a type constraint.

7.4.1. Quantized Weights

Weights of Q/DQ models must be specified using FP32 data type. The weights are quantized by TensorRT using the scale of the `IQuantizeLayer` that operates on the weights. The quantized weights are stored in the `Engine` file. Prequantized weights can also be used but must be specified using FP32 data-type. The scale of the Q node must be set to `1.0F`, but the DQ node must be the real scale value.

7.4.2. ONNX Support

When a model trained in PyTorch or TensorFlow using Quantization Aware Training (QAT) is exported to ONNX, each fake-quantization operation in the framework's graph is exported as a pair of <u>QuantizeLinear</u>and <u>DequantizeLinear</u> ONNX operators.

When TensorRT imports ONNX models, the ONNX `QuantizeLinear` operator is imported as an `IQuantizeLayer` instance, and the ONNX `DequantizeLinear` operator is imported as an `IDequantizeLayer` instance. ONNX using opset 10 introduced support for QuantizeLinear/ DequantizeLinear, and a quantization-axis attribute was added in opset 13 (required for per-channel quantization). PyTorch 1.8 introduced support for exporting PyTorch models to ONNX using opset 13.

> ⚠️ **WARNING: The ONNX GEMM operator is an example that can be quantized per channel. PyTorch** `torch.nn.Linear` **layers are exported as an ONNX GEMM operator with** `(K, C)` **weights layout and with the** `transB` **GEMM attribute enabled (this transposes the weights before performing the GEMM operation). TensorFlow, on the other hand, pretransposes the weights** `(C, K)` **before ONNX export:**
>
> ▶ **PyTorch:** $y = xW^T$
> ▶ **TensorFlow:** $y = xW$

PyTorch weights are therefore transposed by TensorRT. The weights are quantized by TensorRT before they are transposed, so GEMM layers originating from ONNX QAT models that were exported from PyTorch use dimension `0` for per-channel quantization (axis `K = 0`); while models originating from TensorFlow use dimension `1` (axis `K = 1`).

TensorRT does not support prequantized ONNX models that use INT8 tensors or quantized operators. Specifically, the following ONNX quantized operators are *not* supported and generates an import error if they are encountered when TensorRT imports the ONNX model:

▶ <u>QLinearConv</u>/<u>QLinearMatmul</u>

▶ <u>ConvInteger</u>/<u>MatmulInteger</u>

## 7.4.3. TensorRT Processing of Q/DQ Networks

When TensorRT optimizes a network in Q/DQ-mode, the optimization process is limited to optimizations that do not change the arithmetic correctness of the network. Bit-level

accuracy is rarely possible since the order of floating-point operations can produce different results (for example, rewriting $a * s + b * s$ as $(a + b) * s$ is a valid optimization). Allowing these differences is fundamental to backend optimization in general, and this also applies to converting a graph with Q/DQ layers to use INT8 computation.

Q/DQ layers control the compute and data precision of a network. An `IQuantizeLayer` instance converts an FP32 tensor to an INT8 tensor by employing quantization, and an `IDequantizeLayer` instance converts an INT8 tensor to an FP32 tensor by means of dequantization. TensorRT expects a Q/DQ layer pair on each of the inputs of quantizable-layers. Quantizable-layers are deep-learning layers that can be converted to quantized layers by fusing with `IQuantizeLayer` and `IDequantizeLayer` instances. When TensorRT performs these fusions, it replaces the quantizable-layers with quantized layers that actually operate on INT8 data using INT8 compute operations.

For the diagrams used in this chapter, green designates INT8 precision and blue designates floating-point precision. Arrows represent network activation tensors and squares represent network layers.

Figure 1.   A quantizable `AveragePool` layer (in blue) is fused with a DQ layer and a Q layer. All three layers are replaced by a quantized `AveragePool` layer (in green).
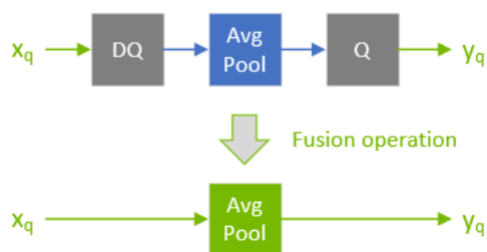
During network optimization, TensorRT moves Q/DQ layers in a process called Q/DQ propagation. The goal in propagation is to maximize the proportion of the graph that can be processed at low precision. Thus, TensorRT propagates Q nodes backwards (so that quantization happens as early as possible) and DQ nodes forward (so that dequantization happens as late as possible). Q-layers can swap places with layers that commute-with-Quantization and DQ-layers can swap places with layers that commute-with-Dequantization.

A layer Op commutes with quantization if $Q\left(Op\left(x\right)\right) == Op\left(Q\left(x\right)\right)$

Similarly, a layer Op commutes with dequantization if $Op\left(DQ\left(x\right)\right) == DQ\left(Op\left(x\right)\right)$

The following diagram illustrates DQ forward-propagation and Q backward-propagation. These are legal rewrites of the model because Max Pooling has an INT8 implementation and because Max Pooling commutes with DQ and with Q.

Figure 2.   An illustration depicting a DQ forward-propagation and Q
            backward-propagation.
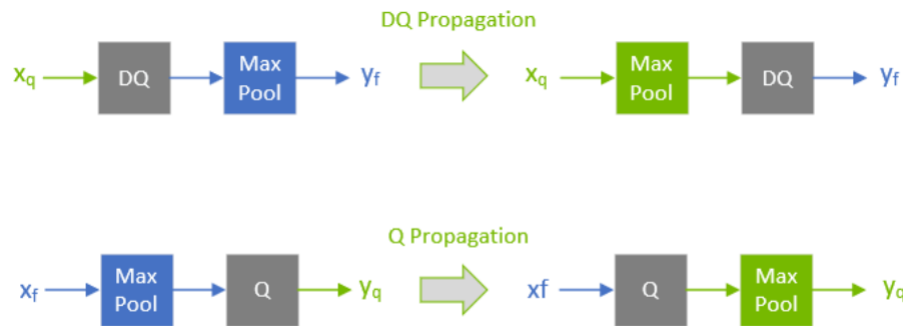
> **Note:**
>
> To understand Max Pooling commutation, let us look at the output of the maximum-pooling operation applied to some arbitrary input. Max Pooling is applied to groups of input coefficients and outputs the coefficient with the maximum value. For group `i` composed of coefficients: $\{x_0 .. x_m\}$:
>
> $$\text{output}_i := \max\left(\{x_0,\ x_1,\ ... x_m\}\right) = \max\left(\{\max(\{\max(\{x_0,\ x_1\}),\ x_2\}),\ ... x_m\}\right)$$
>
> It is therefore enough to look at two arbitrary coefficients without loss of generality (WLOG):
>
> $$x_j = \max\left(\{x_j,\ x_k\}\right) \text{ for } x_j >= x_k$$
>
> For quantization function $Q(a,\ \text{scale},\ x_{\max},\ x_{\min}) := \text{truncate}(\text{round}(a/\text{scale}),\ x_{\max},\ x_{\min})$, with $\text{scale} > 0$, note that (without providing proof, and using simplified notation):
>
> $$Q(x_j,\ \text{scale}) >= Q(x_k,\ \text{scale}) \text{ for } x_j >= x_k$$
>
> Therefore:
>
> $$\max\left(\{Q(x_j,\ \text{scale}),\ Q(x_k,\ \text{scale})\}\right) = Q(x_j,\ \text{scale}) \text{ for } x_j >= x_k$$
>
> However, by definition:
>
> $$Q\left(\max(\{x_j,\ x_k\}),\ \text{scale}\right) = Q(x_j,\ \text{scale}) \text{ for } x_j >= x_k$$
>
> Function max commutes-with-quantization and so does Max Pooling.
>
> Similarly for dequantization, function $DQ(a, \text{scale}) := a * \text{scale}$ with $\text{scale} > 0$ we can show that:
>
> $$\max\left(\{DQ(x_j,\ \text{scale}),\ DQ(x_k,\ \text{scale})\}\right) = DQ(x_j,\ \text{scale}) = DQ\left(\max(\{x_j,\ x_k\}),\ \text{scale}\right) \text{ for } x_j >= x_k$$

There is a distinction between how quantizable-layers and commuting-layers are processed. Both types of layers can compute in INT8, but quantizable-layers also fuse with DQ input layers and a Q output layer. For example, an `AveragePooling` layer (quantizable) does not

commute with either Q or DQ, so it is quantized using Q/DQ fusion as illustrated in the first diagram. This is in contrast to how Max Pooling (commuting) is quantized.

7.4.4.   Q/DQ Layer-Placement Recommendations

The placement of Q/DQ layers in a network affects performance and accuracy. Aggressive quantization can lead to degradation in model accuracy because of the error introduced by quantization. But quantization also enables latency reductions. Listed here are some recommendations for placing Q/DQ layers in your network.

Quantize all inputs of weighted-operations (Convolution, Transposed Convolution and GEMM). Quantization of the weights and activations reduces bandwidth requirements and also enables INT8 computation to accelerate bandwidth-limited and compute-limited layers.

SM75 and earlier devices may not have INT8 implementations for all layers. In this case, you will encounter a `could not find any implementation` error while building your engine. To resolve this, remove the Q/DQ nodes which quantize the failing layers.

Figure 3.   Two examples of how TensorRT fuses convolutional layers. On the left, only the inputs are quantized. On the right, both inputs and output are quantized.
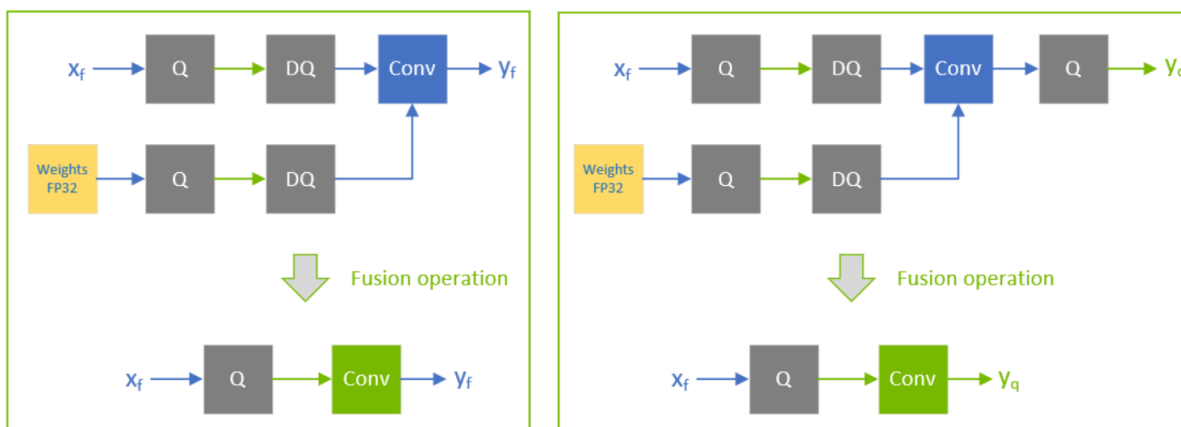
By default, do not quantize the outputs of weighted-operations. It is sometimes useful to preserve the higher-precision dequantized output. For example, if the linear operation is followed by an activation function (SiLU, in the following diagram) that requires higher precision input to produce acceptable accuracy.

Figure 4.   Example of a linear operation followed by an activation function.
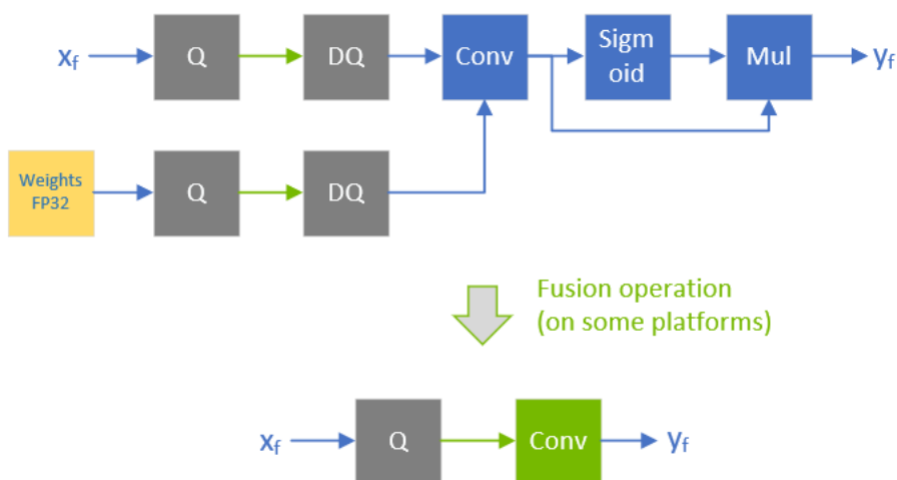
Do not simulate batch-normalization and ReLU fusions in the training framework because TensorRT optimizations guarantee to preserve the arithmetic semantics of these operations.

Figure 5.   Batch normalization is fused with convolution and ReLU while keeping the same execution order as defined in the pre-fusion network. There is no need to simulate BN-folding in the training network.
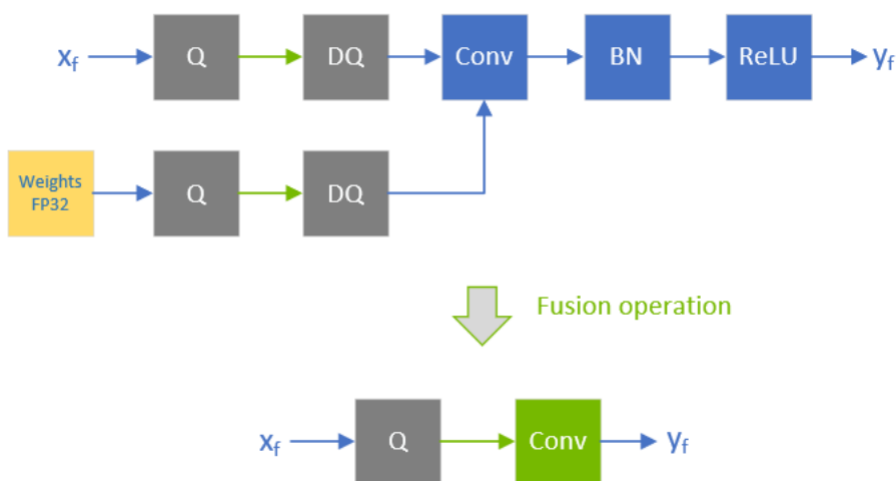
TensorRT can fuse element-wise addition following weighted layers, which are useful for models with skip connections like ResNet and EfficientNet. The precision of the first input to the element-wise addition layer determines the precision of the output of the fusion.

For example, in the following diagram, the precision of xf1 is floating point, so the output of the fused convolution is limited to floating-point, and the trailing Q-layer cannot be fused with the convolution.

Figure 6. The precision of x_f^1 is floating point, so the output of the fused convolution is limited to floating-point, and the trailing Q-layer cannot be fused with the convolution.
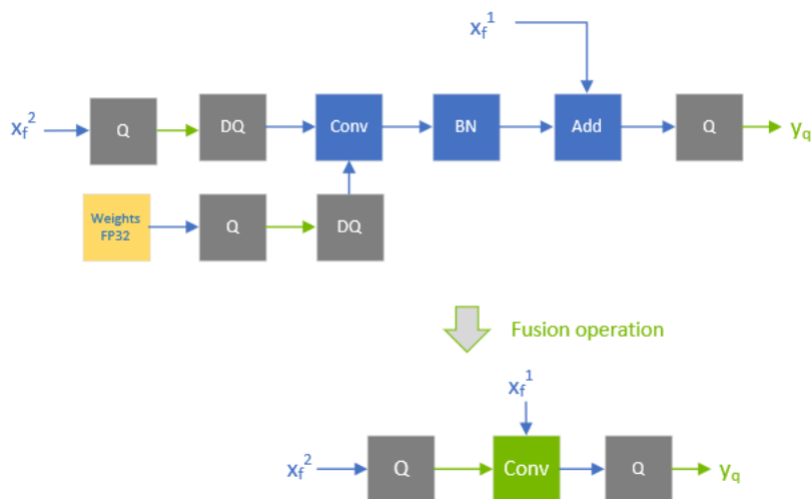
In contrast, when x_f^1 is quantized to INT8, as depicted in the following diagram, the output of the fused convolution is also INT8, and the trailing Q-layer is fused with the convolution.

Figure 7. When x_f^1 is quantized to INT8, the output of the fused convolution is also INT8, and the trailing Q-layer is fused with the convolution.
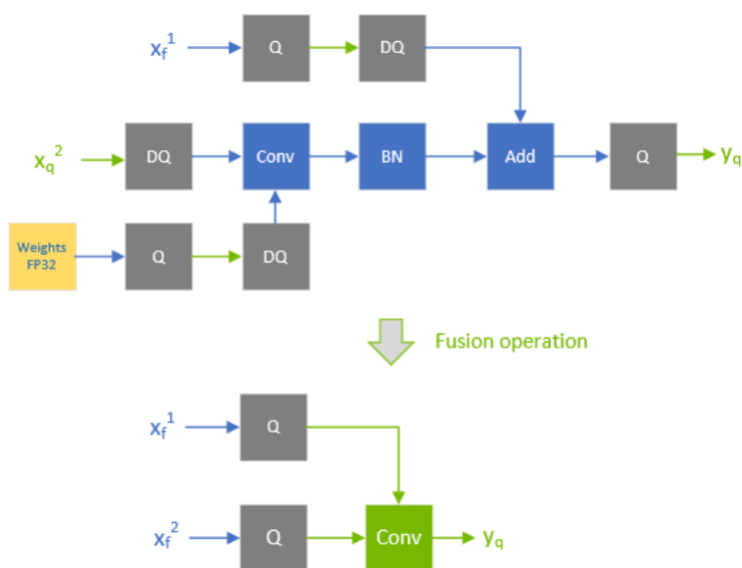
For extra performance, **try quantizing layers that do not commute with Q/DQ**. Currently, non-weighted layers that have INT8 inputs also require INT8 outputs, so quantize both inputs and outputs.

Figure 8. An example of quantizing a quantizable operation. An element-wise addition is fused with the input DQs and the output Q.
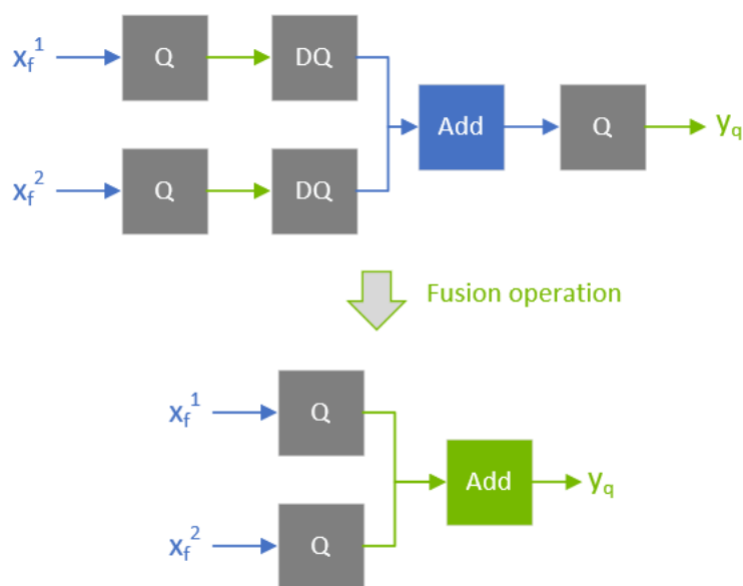
Performance can decrease if TensorRT cannot fuse the operations with the surrounding Q/DQ layers, so **be conservative when adding Q/DQ nodes and experiment with accuracy and TensorRT performance** in mind.

The following figure is an example of suboptimal fusions (the highlighted light green background rectangles) that can result from extra Q/DQ operations. Contrast the following figure with Figure 7, which shows a more performant configuration. The convolution is fused separately from the element-wise addition because each of them is surrounded by Q/DQ pairs. The fusion of the element-wise addition is shown in Figure 8.

Figure 9.   An example of suboptimal quantization fusions: contrast the suboptimal fusion in A and the optimal fusion in B. The extra pair of Q/DQ operations (highlighted with a glowing-green border) forces the separation of the convolution from the element-wise addition.
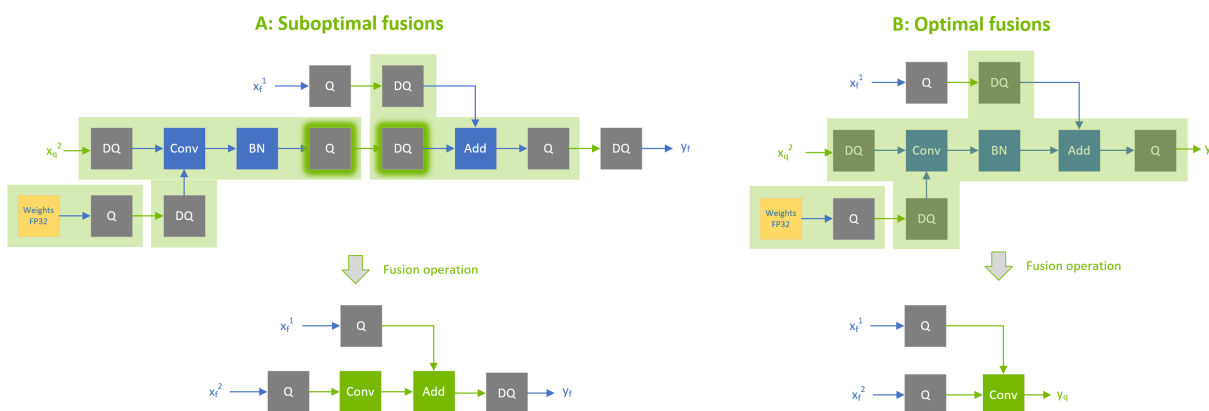
Use per-tensor quantization for activations; and per-channel quantization for weights. This configuration has been demonstrated empirically to lead to the best quantization accuracy.

You can further optimize engine latency by enabling FP16. TensorRT attempts to use FP16 instead of FP32 whenever possible (this is not currently supported for all layer types).

7.4.5.   Q/DQ Limitations

A few of the Q/DQ graph-rewrite optimizations that TensorRT performs compare the values of quantization scales between two or more Q/DQ layers and only perform the graph-rewrite if the compared quantization scales are equal. When a refittable TensorRT engine is refitted, the scales of Q/DQ nodes can be assigned new values. During the refitting operation of Q/DQ engines, TensorRT checks if Q/DQ layers that participated in scale-dependent optimizations are assigned new values that break the rewrite optimizations and throws an exception if true.

Figure 10.   *An example showing scales of Q1 and Q2 are compared for equality, and if equal, they are allowed to propagate backward. If the engine is refitted with new values for Q1 and Q2 such that* `Q1 != Q2`*, then an exception aborts the refitting process.*
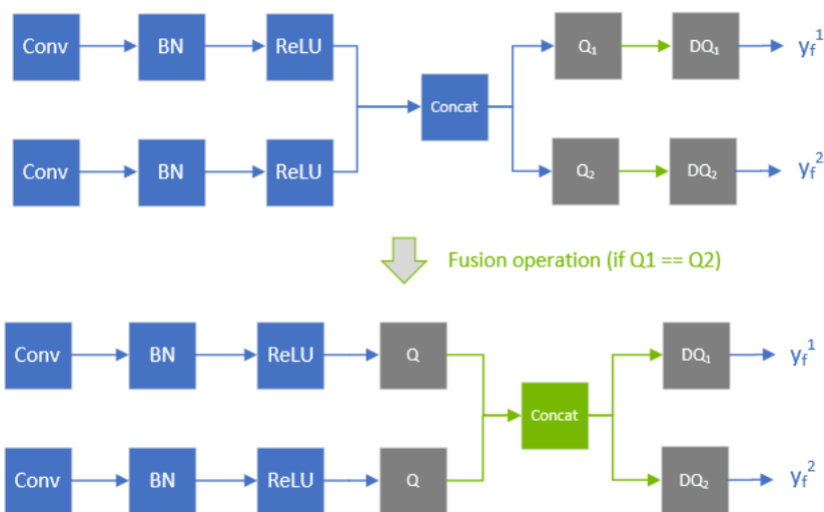
7.4.6.   QAT Networks Using TensorFlow

Currently, there is no TensorFlow quantization toolkit for TensorRT, however, there are several recommended methodologies:

▶ TensorFlow 2 introduced a new API to perform fake-quantization in QAT (Quantization Aware Training): `tf.quantization.quantize_and_dequantize_v2`

 This operator uses symmetric quantization that is consistent with TensorRT's quantization scheme. We recommend this API over TensorFlow 1 `tf.quantization.quantize_and_dequantize` API.

 When exporting to ONNX, the `quantize_and_dequantize_v2` operator can be converted to a pair of QuantizeLinear and DequantizeLinear operators (Q/DQ operators) by using the tf2onnx converter. Refer to quantization_ops_rewriter to understand how this conversion is being performed.

▶ By default, TensorFlow places `tf.quantization.quantize_and_dequantize_v2` operators (Q/DQ nodes after export to ONNX) on operator outputs while TensorRT recommends placing Q/DQ at layer inputs. Refer to Q/DQ Layer-Placement Recommendations for detailed information.

▶ TensorFlow 1 does not support per-channel quantization (PCQ). PCQ is recommended for weights in order to preserve the accuracy of the model.

7.4.7.   QAT Networks Using PyTorch

PyTorch 1.8.0 and forward support ONNX QuantizeLinear/DequantizeLinear support per channel scales. You can use pytorch-quantization to do INT8 calibration, run quantization

aware fine-tuning, generate ONNX and finally use TensorRT to run inference on this ONNX model. More detail can be found in PyTorch-Quantization Toolkit User Guide.

7.5.   INT8 Rounding Modes

Backend	Compute Kernel Quantization (FP32 to INT8)	Weights Quantization (FP32 to INT8)	
		Quantized Network (QAT)	Dynamic Range API / Calibration
GPU	round-to-nearest-with-ties-to-even	round-to-nearest-with-ties-to-even	round-to-nearest-with-ties-to-positive-infinity
DLA	round-to-nearest-with-ties-away-from-zero	Not Applicable	round-to-nearest-with-ties-away-from-zero

Chapter 8. Working with Dynamic Shapes

Dynamic Shapes is the ability to defer specifying some or all tensor dimensions until runtime. Dynamic shapes can be used through both the C++ and Python interfaces.

The following sections provide greater detail; however, here is an overview of the steps for building an engine with dynamic shapes:

1. The network definition must not have an implicit batch dimension.
   C++
   Create the `INetworkDefinition` by calling
   ```
   IBuilder::createNetworkV2(1U <<
           static_cast<int>(NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag::kEXPLICIT_BATCH))
   ```
   Python
   Create the `tensorrt.INetworkDefinition` by calling
   ```
   create_network(1 <<
           int(tensorrt.NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag.EXPLICIT_BATCH))
   ```
   These calls request that the network not have an implicit batch dimension.

2. Specify each runtime dimension of an input tensor by using `-1` as a placeholder for the dimension.

3. Specify one or more *optimization profiles* at build time that specify the permitted range of dimensions for inputs with runtime dimensions, and the dimensions for which the auto-tuner will optimize. For more information, refer to [Optimization Profiles](#).

4. To use the engine:

   a). Create an execution context from the engine, the same as without dynamic shapes.

   b). Specify one of the optimization profiles from step 3 that covers the input dimensions.

   c). Specify the input dimensions for the execution context. After setting input dimensions, you can get the output dimensions that TensorRT computes for the given input dimensions.

   d). Enqueue work.

To change the runtime dimensions, repeat steps 4b and 4c, which do not have to be repeated until the input dimensions change.

8.1. Specifying Runtime Dimensions

When building a network, use -1 to denote a runtime dimension for an input tensor. For example, to create a 3D input tensor named `foo` where the last two dimensions are specified at runtime, and the first dimension is fixed at build time, issue the following.

C++
```
networkDefinition.addInput("foo", DataType::kFLOAT, Dims3(3, -1, -1))
```
Python
```
network_definition.add_input("foo", trt.float32, (3, -1, -1))
```

At run time, you must set the input dimensions after choosing an optimization profile (refer to Optimization Profiles). Let the `bindingIndex` of input `foo` be 0, and the input have dimensions [3,150,250]. After setting an optimization profile for the previous example, you would call:

C++
```
context.setBindingDimensions(0, Dims3(3, 150, 250))
```
Python
```
context.set_binding_shape(0, (3, 150, 250))
```

At runtime, asking the engine for binding dimensions returns the same dimensions used to build the network, meaning, you get a -1 for each runtime dimension. For example:

C++
```
engine.getBindingDimensions(0) returns a Dims with dimensions {3, -1, -1}.
```
Python
```
engine.get_binding_shape(0) returns (3, -1, -1).
```

To get the actual dimensions, which are specific to each execution context, query the execution context:

C++
```
context.getBindingDimensions(0) returns a Dims with dimensions {3, 150, 250}.
```
Python
```
context.get_binding_shape(0) returns (3, 150, 250).
```

> **Note:** The return value of `setBindingDimensions` for an input only indicates consistency with respect to the optimization profile set for that input. After all input binding dimensions are specified, you can check whether the entire network is consistent with respect to the dynamic input shapes by querying the dimensions of the output bindings of the network.
>
> ```
> nvinfer1::Dims out_dim = context->getBindingDimensions(out_index);
>
> if (out_dim.nbDims == -1) {
> gLogError << "Invalid network output, this might be caused by inconsistent input
>  shapes." << std::endl;
> // abort inference
> }
> ```

8.2. Optimization Profiles

An *optimization profile* describes a range of dimensions for each network input and the dimensions that the auto-tuner will use for optimization. When using runtime dimensions, you

must create at least one optimization profile at build time. Two profiles can specify disjoint or overlapping ranges.

For example, one profile might specify a minimum size of `[3,100,200]`, a maximum size of `[3,200,300]`, and optimization dimensions of `[3,150,250]` while another profile might specify min, max and optimization dimensions of `[3,200,100]`, `[3,300,400]`, and `[3,250,250]`.

To create an optimization profile, first construct an `IOptimizationProfile`. Then set the min, optimization, and max dimensions, and add it to the network configuration. The shapes defined by the optimization profile must define valid input shapes for the network. Here are the calls for the first profile mentioned previously for an input `foo`:

C++

```
IOptimizationProfile* profile = builder.createOptimizationProfile();
profile->setDimensions("foo", OptProfileSelector::kMIN, Dims3(3,100,200);
profile->setDimensions("foo", OptProfileSelector::kOPT, Dims3(3,150,250);
profile->setDimensions("foo", OptProfileSelector::kMAX, Dims3(3,200,300);

config->addOptimizationProfile(profile)
```

Python

```
profile = builder.create_optimization_profile();
profile.set_shape("foo", (3, 100, 200), (3, 150, 250), (3, 200, 300))
config.add_optimization_profile(profile)
```

At runtime, you must set an optimization profile before setting input dimensions. Profiles are numbered in the order that they were added, starting at `0`. Note that each execution context must use a separate optimization profile.

To choose the first optimization profile in the example, use:

C++

call `context.setOptimizationProfileAsync(0, stream)`

where `stream` is the CUDA stream that is used for the subsequent `enqueue()` or `enqueueV2()` invocation in this context.

Python

set `context.set_optimization_profile_async(0, stream)`

If the associated CUDA engine has dynamic inputs, the optimization profile must be set at least once with a unique profile index that is not used by other execution contexts that are not destroyed. For the first execution context that is created for an engine, profile 0 is chosen implicitly.

`setOptimizationProfileAsync()` can be called to switch between profiles. It must be called after any `enqueue()` or `enqueueV2()` operations finish in the current context. When multiple execution contexts run concurrently, it is allowed to switch to a profile that was formerly used but already released by another execution context with different dynamic input dimensions.

`setOptimizationProfileAsync()` function replaces the now deprecated version of the API `setOptimizationProfile()`. Using `setOptimizationProfile()` to switch between optimization profiles can cause GPU memory copy operations in the subsequent `enqueue()` or `enqueueV2()` operations. To avoid these calls during enqueue, use `setOptimizationProfileAsync()` API instead.

In an engine built from multiple profiles, there are separate binding indices for each profile. The names of I/O tensors for the Kth profile have `[profile K]` appended to

them, with *K* written in decimal. For example, if the `INetworkDefinition` had the name "`foo`", and `bindingIndex` refers to that tensor in the optimization profile with index 3, `engine.getBindingName(bindingIndex)` returns "`foo [profile 3]`".

Likewise, if using `ICudaEngine::getBindingIndex(name)` to get the index for a profile *K* beyond the first profile (*K=0*), append "`[profile K]`" to the name used in the `INetworkDefinition`. For example, if the tensor was called "`foo`" in the `INetworkDefinition`, then `engine.getBindingIndex("foo [profile 3]")` returns the binding index of Tensor "`foo`" in optimization profile 3.

Always omit the suffix for *K=0*.

8.2.1.　Bindings For Multiple Optimization Profiles

Consider a network with four inputs, one output, with three optimization profiles in the `IBuilderConfig`. The engine has 15 bindings, five for each optimization profile, conceptually organized as a table:

Figure 11.　Optimization profile

Each row is a profile. Numbers in the table denote binding indices. The first profile has binding indices 0..4, the second has 5..9, and the third has 10..14.

The interfaces have an "auto-correct" for the case that the binding belongs to the *first* profile, but another profile was specified. In that case, TensorRT warns about the mistake and then chooses the correct binding index from the same column.

For the sake of backward semi-compatibility, the interfaces have an "auto-correct" in the scenario where the binding belongs to the *first* profile, but another profile was specified. In this case, TensorRT warns about the mistake and then chooses the correct binding index from the same column.

8.3.　Layer Extensions For Dynamic Shapes

Some layers have optional inputs that allow specifying dynamic shape information, and there is a new layer `IShapeLayer` for accessing the shape of a tensor at runtime. Furthermore, some layers allow calculating new shapes. The next section goes into semantic details and

restrictions. Here is a summary of what you might find useful in conjunction with dynamic shapes.

`IShapeLayer` outputs a 1D tensor containing the dimensions of the input tensor. For example, if the input tensor has dimensions `[2,3,5,7]`, the output tensor is a four-element 1D tensor containing `{2,3,5,7}`. If the input tensor is a scalar, it has dimensions `[]`, and the output tensor is a zero-element 1D tensor containing `{}`.

`IResizeLayer` accepts an optional second input containing the desired dimensions of the output.

`IShuffleLayer` accepts an optional second input containing the reshape dimensions before the second transpose is applied. For example, the following network reshapes a tensor `Y` to have the same dimensions as `X`:

C++
```
auto* reshape = networkDefinition.addShuffle(Y);
reshape.setInput(1, networkDefintion.addShape(X)->getOutput(0));
```
Python
```
reshape = network_definition.add_shuffle(y)
reshape.set_input(1, network_definition.add_shape(X).get_output(0))
```

`ISliceLayer` accepts an optional second, third, and fourth input containing the start, size, and stride.

```
IConcatenationLayer, IElementWiseLayer, IGatherLayer, IIdentityLayer, and
       IReduceLayer
```
can be used to do calculations on shapes and create new shape tensors.

8.4.   Restrictions For Dynamic Shapes

The following layer restrictions arise because the layer's weights have a fixed size:

▶   `IConvolutionLayer` and `IDeconvolutionLayer` require that the channel dimension be a build time constant.

▶   `IFullyConnectedLayer` requires that the last three dimensions be build-time constants.

▶   `Int8` requires that the channel dimension be a build time constant.

▶   Layers accepting additional shape inputs (`IResizeLayer`, `IShuffleLayer`, `ISliceLayer`) require that the additional shape inputs be compatible with the dimensions of the minimum and maximum optimization profiles as well as with the dimensions of the runtime data input; otherwise, it can lead to either a build-time or runtime error.

Values that must be build-time constants do not have to be constants at the API level. TensorRT's shape analyzer does element by element constant propagation through layers that do shape calculations. It is sufficient that the constant propagation discovers that a value is a build time constant.

8.5. Execution Tensors Versus Shape Tensors

Engines using dynamic shapes employ a two-phase execution strategy.

1. Compute the shapes of all tensors
2. Stream work to the GPU.

Phase 1 is implicit and driven by demand, such as when output dimensions are requested. Phase 2 is the same as in prior versions of TensorRT. The two-phase execution puts some limits on dynamism that are important to understand.

The key limits are:

▶ The rank of a tensor must be determinable at build time.

▶ A tensor is either an *execution tensor*, *shape tensor*, or both. Tensors classified as shape tensors are subject to limits.

An *execution tensor* is a traditional TensorRT tensor. A *shape tensor* is a tensor that is related to shape calculations. It must be 0D or 1D, have type `Int32`, `Float`, or `Bool`, and its shape must be determinable at build time. Refer to Shape Tensor I/O (Advanced) for additional restrictions for shape tensors at network I/O boundaries. For example, there is an `IShapeLayer` whose output is a 1D tensor containing the dimensions of the input tensor. The output is a shape tensor. `IShuffleLayer` accepts an optional second input that can specify reshaping dimensions. The second input must be a shape tensor.

Some layers are "polymorphic" with respect to the kinds of tensors that they handle. For example, `IElementWiseLayer` can sum two INT32 execution tensors or sum two INT32 shape tensors. The type of tensor depends on its ultimate use. If the sum is used to reshape another tensor, then it is a "shape tensor."

8.5.1. Formal Inference Rules

The formal inference rules used by TensorRT for classifying tensors are based on a type-inference algebra. Let `E` denote an execution tensor and `S` denote a shape tensor.

`IActivationLayer` has the signature:

`IActivationLayer: E → E`

since it takes an execution tensor as an input and an execution tensor as an output.

`IElementWiseLayer` is polymorphic in this respect, with two signatures:

`IElementWiseLayer: S × S → S, E × E → E`

For brevity, let us adopt the convention that t is a variable denoting either class of tensor, and all t in a signature refers to the same class of tensor. Then, the two previous signatures can be written as a single polymorphic signature:

`IElementWiseLayer: t × t → t`

The two-input `IShuffleLayer` has a shape tensor as the second input and is polymorphic with respect to the first input:

`IShuffleLayer (two inputs): t × S → t`

`IConstantLayer` has no inputs, but can produce a tensor of either kind, so its signature is:

`IConstantLayer: → t`

The signature for `IShapeLayer` allows all four possible combinations E→E, E→S, S→E, and S→S, so it can be written with two independent variables:

`IShapeLayer: t₁ → t₂`

Here is the complete set of rules, which also serves as a reference for which layers can be used to manipulate shape tensors:

```
IAssertionLayer: S →
IConcatenationLayer: t × t × ...→ t
IIfConditionalInputLayer: t → t
IIfConditionalOutputLayer: t → t
IConstantLayer: → t
IActivationLayer: t → t
IElementWiseLayer: t × t → t
IFillLayer: S → t
IFillLayer: S × E × E → E
IGatherLayer: t × t → t
IIdentityLayer: t → t
IReduceLayer: t → t
IResizeLayer (one input): E → E
IResizeLayer (two inputs): E × S → E
ISelectLayer: t × t × t → t
IShapeLayer: t₁ → t₂
IShuffleLayer (one input): t → t
IShuffleLayer (two inputs): t × S → t
ISliceLayer (one input): t → t
ISliceLayer (two inputs): t × S → t
ISliceLayer (three inputs): t × S × S → t
ISliceLayer (four inputs): t × S × S × S → t
IUnaryLayer: t → t
all other layers: E × ... → E × ...
```

Because an output can be the input of more than one subsequent layer, the inferred "types" are not exclusive. For example, an `IConstantLayer` might feed into one use that requires an execution tensor and another use that requires a shape tensor. The output of `IConstantLayer` is classified as both and can be used in both phase 1 and phase 2 of the two-phase execution.

The requirement that the rank of a shape tensor is known at build time limits how `ISliceLayer` can be used to manipulate a shape tensor. Specifically, if the third parameter, which specifies the size of the result, is not a build time constant, the length of the resulting shape tensor would no longer be known at build time, breaking the restriction of shape tensors to build-time shapes. Worse, it might be used to reshape another tensor, breaking the restriction that tensor ranks must be known at build time.

TensorRT's inferences can be inspected using methods `ITensor::isShapeTensor()`, which returns true for a shape tensor, and `ITensor::isExecutionTensor()`, which returns true for an execution tensor. Build the entire network first before calling these methods because their answer can change depending on what uses of the tensor have been added.

For example, if a partially built network sums two tensors, *T1* and *T2,* to create tensor *T3*, and none are yet needed as shape tensors, `isShapeTensor()` returns false for all three tensors. Setting the second input of `IShuffleLayer` to *T3* would cause all three tensors to become shape tensors because `IShuffleLayer` requires that its second optional input be a shape tensor, and if the output of `IElementWiseLayer` is a shape tensor, its inputs are too.

8.6.   Shape Tensor I/O (Advanced)

Sometimes the need arises to use a shape tensor as a network I/O tensor. For example, consider a network consisting solely of an `IShuffleLayer`. TensorRT infers that the second input is a shape tensor. `ITensor::isShapeTensor` returns true for it. Because it is an input shape tensor, TensorRT requires two things for it:

▶ At build time: the optimization profile *values* of the shape tensor.

▶ At run time: the *values* of the shape tensor.

The shape of an input shape tensor is always known at build time. It is the values that must be described since they can be used to specify the dimensions of execution tensors.

The optimization profile values can be set using `IOptimizationProfile::setShapeValues`. Analogous to how min, max, and optimization dimensions must be supplied for execution tensors with runtime dimensions, min, max, and optimization values must be provided for shape tensors at build time.

The corresponding runtime method is `IExecutionContext::setInputShapeBinding`, which sets the values of the shape tensor at runtime.

Because the inference of "execution tensor" vs "shape tensor" is based on ultimate use, TensorRT cannot infer whether a network output is a shape tensor. You must tell it using the method `INetworkDefinition::markOutputForShapes`.

Besides letting you output shape information for debugging, this feature is useful for composing engines. For example, consider building three engines, one each for sub-networks A, B, C, where a connection from A to B or B to C might involve a shape tensor. Build the networks in reverse order: C, B, and A. After constructing network C, you can use `ITensor::isShapeTensor` to determine if an input is a shape tensor, and use `INetworkDefinition::markOutputForShapes` to mark the corresponding output tensor in network B. Then check which inputs of B are shape tensors and mark the corresponding output tensor in network A.

Shape tensors at network boundaries must have type `Int32`. They cannot have type `Float` or `Bool`. A workaround for `Bool` is to use `Int32` for the I/O tensor, with zeros and ones, and:

▶ Convert to `Bool` using `ElementWiseOperation::kGREATER`, that is, x > 0.

▶ Convert from `Bool` using `ISelectLayer`, that is, y ? 1 : 0.

8.7.   INT8 Calibration with Dynamic Shapes

To run INT8 calibration for a network with dynamic shapes, a calibration optimization profile must be set. Calibration is performed using kOPT values of the profile. Calibration input data size must match this profile.

To create a calibration optimization profile, first, construct an `IOptimizationProfile` the same way as it is done for a general optimization profile. Then set the profile to the configuration:

C++

```
config->setCalibrationProfile(profile)
```

Python

```
config.set_calibration_profile(profile)
```

The calibration profile must be valid or be `nullptr`. `kMIN` and `kMAX` values are overwritten by `kOPT`. To check the current calibration profile, use `IBuilderConfig::getCalibrationProfile`.

This method returns a pointer to the current calibration profile or nullptr if the calibration profile is unset. `getBatchSize()` calibrator method must return `1` when running calibration for a network with dynamic shapes.

> **Note:** If the calibration optimization profile is not set, the first network optimization profile is used as a calibration optimization profile.

Chapter 9. Extending TensorRT with Custom Layers

NVIDIA TensorRT supports many types of layers and its functionality is continually extended; however, there can be cases in which the layers supported do not cater to the specific needs of a model. In such cases, TensorRT can be extended by implementing custom layers, often referred to as plug-ins.

TensorRT contains plug-ins that can be loaded into your application. For a list of open-source plug-ins, refer to GitHub: TensorRT plugins.

To use TensorRT plug-ins in your application, the `libnvinfer_plugin.so` (`nvinfer_plugin.dll` on Windows) library must be loaded, and all plug-ins must be registered by calling `initLibNvInferPlugins` in your application code. For more information about these plug-ins, refer to the NvInferPlugin.h file for reference.

If these plug-ins do not meet your needs, you can write and add your own.

9.1. Adding Custom Layers Using the C++ API

You can implement a custom layer by deriving from one of TensorRT's plug-in base classes.

Derive your plug-in class from one of the base classes for plug-ins. They have varying expressive power with respect to supporting I/O with different types/formats or networks with dynamic shapes. The following table summarizes the base classes, ordered from least expressive to most expressive.

> **Note:** If a plug-in is intended for general use, provide an FP32 implementation in order to allow it to properly operate with any network.

Table 3.   Base classes, ordered from least expressive to most expressive

	Introduced in TensorRT version?	Mixed I/O formats/types	Dynamic shapes?	Supports implicit/explicit batch mode?
IPluginV2Ext	5.1	Limited	No	Both implicit and explicit batch modes
IPluginV2IOExt	6.0.1	General	No	Both implicit and explicit batch modes
IPluginV2DynamicExt	6.0.1	General	Yes	Explicit batch mode only

In order to use a plug-in in a network, you must first register it with TensorRT's `PluginRegistry` (C++, Python). Rather than registering the plug-in directly, you register an instance of a factory class for the plug-in, derived from `PluginCreator` (C++, Python). The plug-in creator class also provides other information about the plug-in: its name, version, and plug-in field parameters.

There are two ways that you can register plug-ins with the registry:

▶ TensorRT provides a macro `REGISTER_TENSORRT_PLUGIN` that statically registers the plug-in creator with the registry. Note that `REGISTER_TENSORRT_PLUGIN` always registers the creator under the default namespace ("").

▶ Dynamically register by creating your own entry-point similar to `initLibNvInferPlugins` and calling `registerCreator` on the plug-in registry. This is preferred over static registration as it offers a potentially lower memory footprint and allows plug-ins to be registered under a unique namespace. This ensures that there are no name collisions during build time across different plug-in libraries.

Calling `IPluginCreator::createPlugin()` returns a plug-in object of type `IPluginV2`. You can add a plug-in to the TensorRT network using addPluginV2(), which creates a network layer with the given plug-in.

For example, you can add a plug-in layer to your network as follows:

```
// Look up the plugin in the registry
auto creator = getPluginRegistry()->getPluginCreator(pluginName, pluginVersion);
const PluginFieldCollection* pluginFC = creator->getFieldNames();
// Populate the fields parameters for the plugin layer
// PluginFieldCollection *pluginData = parseAndFillFields(pluginFC, layerFields);
// Create the plugin object using the layerName and the plugin meta data
IPluginV2 *pluginObj = creator->createPlugin(layerName, pluginData);
// Add the plugin to the TensorRT network
auto layer = network.addPluginV2(&inputs[0], int(inputs.size()), pluginObj);
… (build rest of the network and serialize engine)
// Destroy the plugin object
pluginObj->destroy()
… (free allocated pluginData)
```

> 💬 **Note:** The `createPlugin` method described previously creates a new plug-in object on the heap and returns a pointer to it. Ensure you destroy the `pluginObj`, as shown previously, to avoid a memory leak.

During serialization, the TensorRT engine internally stores the plug-in type, plug-in version, and namespace (if it exists) for all `IPluginV2` type plug-ins. During deserialization, TensorRT looks up the plug-in creator from the plug-in registry and calls `IPluginCreator::deserializePlugin()`. When the engine is deleted, the clone of the plug-in object, created during engine build, is destroyed by the engine by calling the `IPluginV2::destroy()` method. It is your responsibility to ensure the plug-in object you created is freed after it is added to the network.

> **Note:**
>
> ▶ Do not serialize all plug-in parameters: only those required for the plug-in to function correctly at runtime. Build time parameters can be omitted.
>
> ▶ Serialize and deserialize plug-in parameters in the same order. During deserialization, verify that plug-in parameters are either initialized to a default value or to the deserialized value. Uninitialized parameters result in undefined behavior.

9.1.1. Example: Adding a Custom Layer with Dynamic Shape Support Using C++

To support dynamic shapes, your plug-in must be derived from `IPluginV2DynamicExt`.

About this task

`BarPlugin` is a plug-in with two inputs and two outputs where:

▶ The first output is a copy of the second input.

▶ The second output is the concatenation of both inputs, along the first dimension, and all types/formats must be the same and be linear formats.

`BarPlugin` must be derived as follows:

```
class BarPlugin : public IPluginV2DynamicExt
{
 ...override virtual methods inherited from IPluginV2DynamicExt.
};
```

The four methods that are affected by dynamic shapes are:

▶ `getOutputDimensions`

▶ `supportsFormatCombination`

▶ `configurePlugin`

▶ `enqueue`

The override for `getOutputDimensions` returns symbolic *expressions* for the output dimensions in terms of the input dimensions. You can build the expressions from the expressions for the inputs, using the `IExprBuilder` passed into `getOutputDimensions`. In the example, no new expression has to be built for case 1 because the dimensions of the second output are the same as the dimensions of the first input.

```
DimsExprs BarPlugin::getOutputDimensions(int outputIndex,
    const DimsExprs* inputs, int nbInputs,
    IExprBuilder& exprBuilder)
```

```
{
    switch (outputIndex)
    {
    case 0:
    {
        // First dimension of output is sum of input
        // first dimensions.
        DimsExprs output(inputs[0]);
        output.d[0] =
            exprBuilder.operation(DimensionOperation::kSUM,
                inputs[0].d[0], inputs[1].d[0]);
    return output;
    }
    case 1:
        return inputs[0];
    default:
        throw std::invalid_argument("invalid output");
}
```

The override for `supportsFormatCombination` must indicate whether a format combination is allowed. The interface indexes the inputs/outputs uniformly as "connections," starting at 0 for the first input, then the rest of the inputs in order, followed by numbering the outputs. In the example, the inputs are connections 0 and 1, and the outputs are connections 2 and 3.

TensorRT uses `supportsFormatCombination` to ask whether a given combination of formats/types is okay for a connection, given formats/types for lesser indexed connections. So the override can assume that lesser indexed connections have already been vetted and focus on the connection with index `pos`.

```
bool BarPlugin::supportsFormatCombination(int pos, const PluginTensorDesc* inOut, int
 nbInputs, int nbOutputs) override
{
    assert(0 <= pos && pos < 4);
    const auto* in = inOut;
    const auto* out = inOut + nbInputs;
    switch (pos)
    {
    case 0: return in[0].format == TensorFormat::kLINEAR;
    case 1: return in[1].type == in[0].type &&
                   in[1].format == TensorFormat::kLINEAR;
    case 2: return out[0].type == in[0].type &&
                   out[0].format == TensorFormat::kLINEAR;
    case 3: return out[1].type == in[0].type &&
                   out[1].format == TensorFormat::kLINEAR;
    }
    throw std::invalid_argument("invalid connection number");
}
```

The local variables `in` and `out` here allow inspecting `inOut` by input or output number instead of connection number.

> **Important:** The override inspects the format/type for a connection with an index less than `pos`, but must never inspect the format/type for a connection with an index greater than `pos`. The example uses `case 3` to check connection 3 against connection 0, and not use `case 0` to check connection 0 against connection 3.

TensorRT uses `configurePlugin` to set up a plug-in at runtime. This plug-in does not need `configurePlugin` to do anything, so it is a no-op:

```
void BarPlugin::configurePlugin(
```

```
    const DynamicPluginTensorDesc* in, int nbInputs,
    const DynamicPluginTensorDesc* out, int nbOutputs) override
{
}
```

If the plug-in needs to know the minimum or maximum dimensions it might encounter, it can inspect the field `DynamicPluginTensorDesc::min` or `DynamicPluginTensorDesc::max` for any input or output. Format and build-time dimension information can be found in `DynamicPluginTensorDesc::desc`. Any runtime dimensions appear as -1. The actual dimension is supplied to `BarPlugin::enqueue`.

Finally, the override `BarPlugin::enqueue` has to do the work. Since shapes are dynamic, enqueue is handed a `PluginTensorDesc` that describes the actual dimensions, type, and format of each input and output.

9.1.2. Example: Adding a Custom Layer with INT8 I/O Support Using C++

`PoolPlugin` is a plug-in to demonstrate how to extend INT8 I/O for the custom-pooling layer. The derivation is as follows:

```
class PoolPlugin : public IPluginV2IOExt
{
    ...override virtual methods inherited from IPluginV2IOExt.
};
```

Most of the pure virtual methods are common to plug-ins. The main methods that affect INT8 I/O are:

▶ `supportsFormatCombination`

▶ `configurePlugin`

▶ `enqueue`

The override for `supportsFormatCombination` must indicate which INT8 I/O combination is allowed. The usage of this interface is similar to Example: Adding a Custom Layer with Dynamic Shape Support Using C++. In this example, the supported I/O tensor format is linear CHW with FP32, FP16, or INT8 data type, but the I/O tensor must have the same data type.

```
bool PoolPlugin::supportsFormatCombination(int pos, const PluginTensorDesc* inOut, int
 nbInputs, int nbOutputs) const override
{
    assert(nbInputs == 1 && nbOutputs == 1 && pos < nbInputs + nbOutputs);
    bool condition = inOut[pos].format == TensorFormat::kLINEAR;
    condition &= ((inOut[pos].type == DataType::kFLOAT) ||
                  (inOut[pos].type == DataType::kHALF) ||
                  (inOut[pos].type == DataType::kINT8));
    condition &= inOut[pos].type == inOut[0].type;
    return condition;
}
```

> 💬 **Important:**
>
> ▶ If INT8 calibration must be used with a network with INT8 I/O plug-ins, the plug-in must support FP32 I/O as TensorRT uses FP32 to calibrate the graph.
>
> ▶ If the FP32 I/O variant is not supported or INT8 calibration is not used, all required INT8 I/O tensors scales must be set explicitly.

> ► Calibration cannot determine the dynamic range of a plug-in internal tensor. Plug-ins that operate on quantized data must calculate their own dynamic range for internal tensors.

TensorRT invokes `configurePlugin` method to pass the information to the plug-in through `PluginTensorDesc`, which are stored as member variables, serialized and deserialized.

```
void PoolPlugin::configurePlugin(const PluginTensorDesc* in, int nbInput, const
 PluginTensorDesc* out, int nbOutput)
{
    ...
    mPoolingParams.mC = mInputDims.d[0];
    mPoolingParams.mH = mInputDims.d[1];
    mPoolingParams.mW = mInputDims.d[2];
    mPoolingParams.mP = mOutputDims.d[1];
    mPoolingParams.mQ = mOutputDims.d[2];
    mInHostScale = in[0].scale >= 0.0F ? in[0].scale : -1.0F;
    mOutHostScale = out[0].scale >= 0.0F ? out[0].scale : -1.0F;
}
```

Where INT8 I/O scales per tensor can be obtained from `PluginTensorDesc::scale`.

Finally, the override `UffPoolPluginV2::enqueue` has to do the work. It includes a collection of core algorithms to execute the custom layer at runtime by using the actual batch size, inputs, outputs, cuDNN stream, and the information configured.

```
int PoolPlugin::enqueue(int batchSize, const void* const* inputs, void** outputs, void*
 workspace, cudaStream_t stream)
{
    ...
    CHECK(cudnnPoolingForward(mCudnn, mPoolingDesc, &kONE, mSrcDescriptor, input, &kZERO,
 mDstDescriptor, output));
    ...
    return 0;
}
```

9.2. Adding Custom Layers Using the Python API

Although the C++ API is the preferred language to implement custom layers, due to accessing libraries like CUDA and cuDNN, you can also work with custom layers in Python applications.

You can use the C++ API to create a custom layer, package the layer using `pybind11` in Python, then load the plug-in into a Python application. For more information, refer to Creating a Network Definition in Python.

The same custom layer implementation can be used for both C++ and Python.

9.2.1. Example: Adding a Custom Layer to a TensorRT Network Using Python

Custom layers can be added to any TensorRT network in Python using plug-in nodes.

The Python API has a function called `add_plugin_v2` that enables you to add a plug-in node to a network. The following example illustrates this. It creates a simple TensorRT network and adds a leaky ReLU plug-in node by looking up the TensorRT plug-in registry.

```
import tensorrt as trt
import numpy as np
```

```
TRT_LOGGER = trt.Logger()

trt.init_libnvinfer_plugins(TRT_LOGGER, '')
PLUGIN_CREATORS = trt.get_plugin_registry().plugin_creator_list

def get_trt_plugin(plugin_name):
        plugin = None
        for plugin_creator in PLUGIN_CREATORS:
            if plugin_creator.name == plugin_name:
                lrelu_slope_field = trt.PluginField("neg_slope", np.array([0.1],
 dtype=np.float32), trt.PluginFieldType.FLOAT32)
                field_collection = trt.PluginFieldCollection([lrelu_slope_field])
                plugin = plugin_creator.create_plugin(name=plugin_name,
 field_collection=field_collection)
        return plugin

def main():
    builder = trt.Builder(TRT_LOGGER)
    network = builder.create_network()
    config = builder.create_builder_config()
    config.max_workspace_size = 2**20
    input_layer = network.add_input(name="input_layer", dtype=trt.float32, shape=(1, 1))
    lrelu = network.add_plugin_v2(inputs=[input_layer], plugin=get_trt_plugin("LReLU_TRT"))
    lrelu.get_output(0).name = "outputs"
    network.mark_output(lrelu.get_output(0))
```

9.3. Using Custom Layers When Importing a Model with a Parser

The ONNX parser automatically attempts to import unrecognized nodes as plug-ins. If a plug-in with the same `op_type` as the node is found in the plug-in registry, the parser forwards the attributes of the node to the plug-in creator as plug-in field parameters in order to create the plug-in. By default, the parser uses "1" as the plug-in version and "" as the plug-in namespace. This behavior can be overridden by setting a `plugin_version` and `plugin_namespace` string attribute in the corresponding ONNX node.

In some cases, you might want to modify an ONNX graph before importing it into TensorRT. For example, to replace a set of ops with a plug-in node. To accomplish this, you can use the ONNX GraphSurgeon utility. For details on how to use ONNX-GraphSurgeon to replace a subgraph, refer to this example.

For more examples, refer to the onnx_packnet sample.

9.4. Plug-in API Description

All new plug-ins should derive classes from both `IPluginCreator` and one of the plug-in base classes described in Adding Custom Layers Using the C++ API. In addition, new plug-ins should also call the `REGISTER_TENSORRT_PLUGIN(...)` macro to register the plug-in with the TensorRT plug-in registry or create an `init` function equivalent to `initLibNvInferPlugins()`.

9.4.1. Migrating Plug-ins from TensorRT 6.x or 7.x to TensorRT 8.x.x

`IPluginV2` and `IPluginV2Ext` are still supported for backward compatibility with TensorRT 5.1 and 6.0.x respectively. However, new plug-ins should target the `IPluginV2DynamicExt` or `IPluginV2IOExt` interfaces, and old ones refactored to use these interfaces.

The new features in `IPluginV2DynamicExt` are as follows:

```
virtual DimsExprs getOutputDimensions(int outputIndex, const DimsExprs* inputs, int nbInputs,
 IExprBuilder& exprBuilder) = 0;

virtual bool supportsFormatCombination(int pos, const PluginTensorDesc* inOut, int nbInputs,
 int nbOutputs) = 0;

virtual void configurePlugin(const DynamicPluginTensorDesc* in, int nbInputs, const
 DynamicPluginTensorDesc* out, int nbOutputs) = 0;

virtual size_t getWorkspaceSize(const PluginTensorDesc* inputs, int nbInputs, const
 PluginTensorDesc* outputs, int nbOutputs) const = 0;

virtual int enqueue(const PluginTensorDesc* inputDesc, const PluginTensorDesc* outputDesc,
 const void* const* inputs, void* const* outputs, void* workspace, cudaStream_t stream) = 0;
```

The new features in `IPluginV2IOExt` are as follows:

```
virtual void configurePlugin(const PluginTensorDesc* in, int nbInput, const PluginTensorDesc*
 out, int nbOutput) = 0;

virtual bool supportsFormatCombination(int pos, const PluginTensorDesc* inOut, int nbInputs,
 int nbOutputs) const = 0;
```

Guidelines for migration to `IPluginV2DynamicExt` or `IPluginV2IOExt`:

▶ `getOutputDimensions` implements the expression for output tensor dimensions given the inputs.

▶ `supportsFormatCombination` checks if the plug-in supports the format and datatype for the specified I/O.

▶ `configurePlugin` mimics the behavior of equivalent `configurePlugin` in `IPluginV2Ext` but accepts tensor descriptors.

▶ `getWorkspaceSize` and `enqueue` mimic the behavior of equivalent APIs in `IPluginV2Ext` but accept tensor descriptors.

Refer to the API description in IPluginV2 API Description for more details about the API.

9.4.2. **IPluginV2** API Description

The following section describes the functions of the `IPluginV2` class. To connect a plug-in layer to neighboring layers and set up input and output data structures, the builder checks for the number of outputs and their dimensions by calling the following plug-ins methods.

getNbOutputs

Used to specify the number of output tensors.

getOutputDimensions

Used to specify the dimensions of output as a function of the input dimensions.

supportsFormat

Used to check if a plug-in supports a given data format.

getOutputDataType

Used to get the data type of the output at a given index. The returned data type must have a format that is supported by the plug-in.

Plug-in layers can support four data formats, for example:

▶ NCHW single (FP32), half-precision (FP16), and integer (INT32) tensors

▶ NC/2HW2 and NHWC8 half-precision (FP16) tensors

The formats are counted by PluginFormatType.

Plug-ins that do not compute all data in place and need memory space in addition to input and output tensors can specify the additional memory requirements with the getWorkspaceSize method, which is called by the builder to determine and preallocate scratch space.

During both build and inference time, the plug-in layer is configured and executed, possibly multiple times. At build time, to discover optimal configurations, the layer is configured, initialized, executed, and terminated. After the optimal format is selected for a plug-in, the plug-in is once again configured, then it is initialized once and executed as many times as needed for the lifetime of the inference application, and finally terminated when the engine is destroyed. These steps are controlled by the builder and the engine using the following plug-in methods:

configurePlugin

Communicates the number of inputs and outputs, dimensions, and datatypes of all inputs and outputs, broadcast information for all inputs and outputs, the chosen plug-in format, and maximum batch size. At this point, the plug-in sets up its internal state and selects the most appropriate algorithm and data structures for the given configuration.

> ▤ **Note:** Resource allocation is not allowed in this API because it causes a resource leak.

initialize

The configuration is known at this time, and the inference engine is being created, so the plug-in can set up its internal data structures and prepare for execution.

enqueue

Encapsulates the actual algorithm and kernel calls of the plug-in and provides the runtime batch size, pointers to input, output, and scratch space, and the CUDA stream to be used for kernel execution.

terminate

The engine context is destroyed, and all the resources held by the plug-in must be released.

clone

This is called every time a new builder, network, or engine is created that includes this plug-in layer. It must return a new plug-in object with the correct parameters.

destroy

> Used to destroy the plug-in object and other memory allocated each time a new plug-in object is created. It is called whenever the builder or network or engine is destroyed.

set/getPluginNamespace

> This method is used to set the library namespace that this plug-in object belongs to (default can be ""). All plug-in objects from the same plug-in library should have the same namespace.

`IPluginV2Ext` supports plug-ins that can handle broadcast inputs and outputs. The following methods must be implemented for this feature:

canBroadcastInputAcrossBatch

> This method is called for each input whose tensor is semantically broadcast across a batch. If `canBroadcastInputAcrossBatch` returns `true` (meaning the plug-in can support broadcast), TensorRT does not replicate the input tensor. There is a single copy that the plug-in should share across the batch. If it returns `false`, TensorRT replicates the input tensor so that it appears like a nonbroadcasted tensor.

isOutputBroadcastAcrossBatch

> This is called for each output index. The plug-in should return true the output at the given index and is broadcast across the batch.

IPluginV2IOExt

> This is called by the builder before `initialize()`. It provides an opportunity for the layer to make algorithm choices on the basis of I/O `PluginTensorDesc` and the maximum batch size.

> 📱 **Note:** Plug-ins based on `IPluginV2` are shared at the engine level, not the execution context level, and thus such plug-ins that may be used simultaneously by multiple threads must manage their resources in a thread-safe manner. Plug-ins based on `IPluginV2Ext` and derivative interfaces are cloned when an `ExecutionContext` is created, so this is not required.

9.4.3. `IPluginCreator` API Description

The following methods in the `IPluginCreator` class are used to find and create the appropriate plug-in from the plug-in registry:

getPluginName
> This returns the plug-in name and should match the return value of `IPluginExt::getPluginType`.

getPluginVersion
> Returns the plug-in version. For all internal TensorRT plug-ins, this defaults to `1`.

getFieldNames
> To successfully create a plug-in, it is necessary to know all the field parameters of the plug-in. This method returns the `PluginFieldCollection` struct with the `PluginField` entries populated to reflect the field name and `PluginFieldType` (the data should point to `nullptr`).

createPlugin

    This method is used to create the plug-in using the `PluginFieldCollection` argument. The data field of the `PluginField` entries should be populated to point to the actual data for each plug-in field entry.

> 📝 **Note:** The data passed to the `createPlugin` function should be allocated by the caller and eventually freed by the caller when the program is destroyed. The ownership of the plug-in object returned by the `createPlugin` function is passed to the caller and must be destroyed as well.

deserializePlugin

    This method is called internally by the TensorRT engine based on the plug-in name and version. It should return the plug-in object to be used for inference. The plug-in object created in this function is destroyed by the TensorRT engine when the engine is destroyed.

set/getPluginNamespace

    This method is used to set the namespace that this creator instance belongs to (default can be "").

9.5.   Best Practices for Custom Layers Plug-in

9.5.1.   Coding Guidelines for Plug-ins

Memory Allocation

Memory allocated in the plug-in must be freed to ensure no memory leak. If resources are acquired in the `initialize()` function, they must be released in the `terminate()` function. All other memory allocations should be freed, preferably in the plug-in class destructor or in the `destroy()` method. Adding Custom Layers Using the C++ API outlines this in detail and also provides some notes for best practices when using plug-ins.

Add Checks to Ensure Proper Configuration and Validate Inputs

A common source for unexpected plug-in behavior is improper configuration (for example, invalid plug-in attributes) and invalid inputs. As such, it is good practice to add checks/ assertions during the initial plug-in development for cases where the plug-in is not expected to work. The following are places where checks could be added:

▶   `createPlugin`: Plug-in attributes checks

▶   `configurePlugin`: Input dimension checks

▶   `enqueue`: Input value checks

Return Null at Errors for Methods That Creates a New Plug-in Object

`createPlugin`, `clone`, and `deserializePlugin` are expected to create and return new plug-in objects. In these methods, make sure a null object (`nullptr` in C++) is returned in case of any error or failed check. This ensures that non-null plug-in objects are not returned when the plug-in is incorrectly configured.

Avoid Device Memory Allocations in `clone()`

Since `clone` is called multiple times in the builder, device memory allocations could be significantly expensive. A good practice is to do persistent memory allocations in `initialize`, copy to device when the plug-in is ready-to-use (for example, in `configurePlugin`), and release in `terminate`.

9.5.2.   Using Plug-ins in Implicit/Explicit Batch Networks

TensorRT allows for a network to be created in either implicit batch mode or explicit batch mode (refer to Explicit Versus Implicit Batch). It is useful to remember the following regarding plug-in behavior in implicit/explicit batch mode networks:

▶ Plug-ins implementing `IPluginV2DynamicExt` can only be added to a network configured in explicit batch mode.

▶ Non-`IPluginV2DynamicExt` plug-ins can be added to a network configured in either implicit or explicit batch mode.

> **Important:** Even though non-`IPluginV2DynamicExt` plug-ins are compatible with explicit batch mode networks, their implementation must be independent of the type of network (implicit/explicit batch mode) in which it is expected to be used. As such, when using such plug-ins in explicit batch mode networks:
>
> ▶ The leading dimension of the first input (before being passed to the plug-in) is inferred to be the batch dimension.
>
> ▶ TensorRT pops this first dimension identified above before inputs are passed to the plug-in, and pushes it to the front of any outputs emitted by the plug-in. This means that the batch dimension must not be specified in `getOutputDimensions`.

9.5.3.   Communicating Shape Tensors to Plug-ins

The TensorRT plug-in API does not support direct input of shape tensors to plug-in, nor direct output. However, this limitation can be worked around with empty tensors. Use a dummy input tensor with the dimensions of interest and a zero dimension, so that the input occupies practically no space.

For example, suppose a plug-in must know a 2-element 1D shape tensor *value* [*P,Q*] to calculate the shape of its outputs, for example, to implement `IPluginV2DynamicExt::getOutputDimensions`. Instead of passing in the shape tensor [*P,Q*], design the plug-in to have a dummy input that is an execution tensor with *dimensions*

[0,*P*,*Q*]. TensorRT will tell the plug-in dimensions of the dummy input, from which the plug-in can extract [*P*,*Q*]. Because the tensor is empty, it will occupy a tiny amount of space, just enough to give it a distinct address.

In the network, create the dummy input tensor by using a zero-stride slice, or by reshaping an empty tensor. Here are the mechanics using a zero-stride slice:

```
// Shape tensor of interest. Assume it has the value [P,Q].
ITensor* pq = ...;

// Create an empty-tensor constant with dimensions [0,1,1].
// Since it's empty, the value of x doesn't matter.
// The type doesn't matter either, but let's assume float.
static float const x = 0.0F;
ITensor* c011 = network.addConstant({3, {0, 1, 1}}, {DataType::kFLOAT, &x, 0})->getOutput(0);

// Create shape tensor that has the value [0,P,Q]
static int32_t const intZero = 0.0F;
ITensor* z = network.addConstant({1, {1}}, {DataType::kINT32, &intZero, 1})->getOutput(0);
ITensor* concatInputs[] = {z, pq};
IConcatenationLayer* zpq = network.addConcatenation(concatInputs, 2);
zpq->setAxis(0);

// Create zero-stride slice with output size [0,P,Q]
Dims z3{3, {0, 0, 0}};
ISliceLayer* slice = network.addSlice(*c011, z3, z3, z3);
slice->setInput(2, *zpq->getOutput(0));
```

Use `slice->getOutput(0)` as the dummy input to the plug-in.

If using `IShuffleLayer` to create the empty tensor, be sure to turn off special interpretation of zeros in the reshape dimensions, that is, be sure to call `setZeroIsPlaceholder(false)`.

Chapter 10. Working with Loops

NVIDIA TensorRT supports loop-like constructs, which can be useful for recurrent networks. TensorRT loops support scanning over input tensors, recurrent definitions of tensors, and both "scan outputs" and "last value" outputs.

10.1. Defining a Loop

A loop is defined by *loop boundary layers*.

▶ `ITripLimitLayer` specifies how many times that the loop iterates.

▶ `IIteratorLayer` enables a loop to iterate over a tensor.

▶ `IRecurrenceLayer` specifies a recurrent definition.

▶ `ILoopOutputLayer` specifies an output from the loop.

Each of the boundary layers inherits from class `ILoopBoundaryLayer`, which has a method `getLoop()` for getting its associated `ILoop`. The `ILoop` object identifies the loop. All loop boundary layers with the same `ILoop` belong to that loop.

Figure 12 depicts the structure of a loop and data flow at the boundary. Loop-invariant tensors can be used inside the loop directly, such as shown for FooLayer.

Figure 12. A TensorRT loop is set by loop boundary layers. Dataflow can leave the loop only by `ILoopOutputLayer`. The only back edges allowed are the second input to `IRecurrenceLayer`.
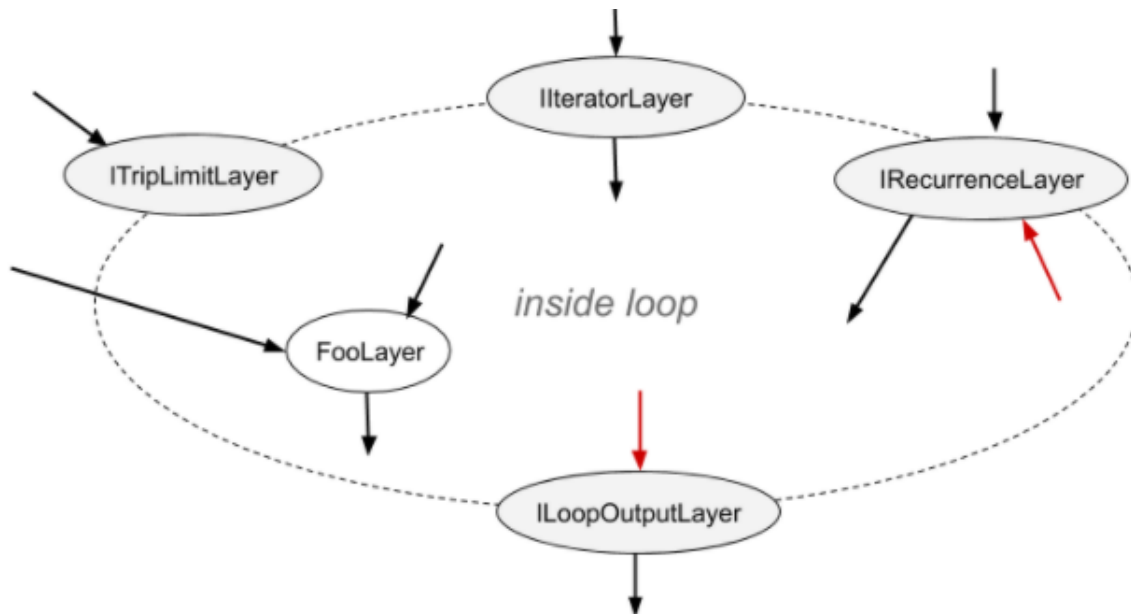
A loop can have multiple `IIteratorLayer`, `IRecurrenceLayer`, and `ILoopOutputLayer`, and at most two `ITripLimitLayers` as explained later. A loop with no `ILoopOutputLayer` has no output and is optimized by TensorRT.

The Layers For Flow-Control Constructs section in the *NVIDIA TensorRT Support Matrix* describes the TensorRT layers that may be used in the loop interior.

Interior layers are free to use tensors defined inside or outside the loop. The interior can contain other loops (refer to Nested Loops) and other conditional constructs (refer to Conditionals Nesting).

To define a loop, first, create an `ILoop` object with the method `INetworkDefinition::addLoop`. Then add the boundary and interior layers. The rest of this section describes the features of the boundary layers, using *loop* to denote the `ILoop*` returned by `INetworkDefinition::addLoop`.

`ITripLimitLayer` supports both counted loops and while-loops.

▶ *loop*->addTripLimit(*t*,TripLimit::kCOUNT) creates an `ITripLimitLayer` whose input *t* is a 0D INT32 tensor that specifies the number of loop iterations.

▶ *loop*->addTripLimit(*t*,TripLimit::kWHILE) creates an `ITripLimitLayer` whose input *t* is a 0D Bool tensor that specifies whether an iteration should occur. Typically *t* is either the output of an `IRecurrenceLayer` or a calculation based on said output.

A loop can have at most one of each kind of limit.

`IIteratorLayer` supports iterating forwards or backward over any axis.

▶ *loop*->addIterator(*t*) adds an `IIteratorLayer` that iterates over axis 0 of tensor *t*. For example, if the input is the matrix:

```
2 3 5
4 6 8
```

the output is the 1D tensor {2, 3, 5} on the first iteration and {4, 6, 8} for the second iteration. It is invalid to iterate beyond the tensor's bounds.

▶ `loop->addIterator(t,axis)` is similar, but the layer iterates over the given axis. For example, if axis=1 and the input is a matrix, each iteration delivers a column of the matrix.

▶ `loop->addIterator(t,axis,reverse)` is similar, but the layer produces its output in reverse order if *reverse*=true.

`ILoopOutputLayer` supports three forms of loop output:

▶ `loop->addLoopOutput(t,LoopOutput::kLAST_VALUE)` outputs the last value of *t*, where t must be the output of a `IRecurrenceLayer`.

▶ `loop->addLoopOutput(t,LoopOutput::kCONCATENATE,axis)` outputs the concatenation of each iteration's input to *t*. For example, if the input is a 1D tensor, with value {a,b,c} on the first iteration and {d,e,f} on the second iteration, and *axis*=0, the output is the matrix:

```
a b c
d e f
```

If *axis*=1, the output is:

```
a d
b e
c f
```

▶ `loop->addLoopOutput(t,LoopOutput::kREVERSE,axis)` is similar, but reverses the order.

Both the kCONCATENATE and kREVERSE forms of `ILoopOutputLayer` require a second input, which is a 0D INT32 shape tensor specifying the length of the new output dimension. When the length is greater than the number of iterations, the extra elements contain arbitrary values. The second input, for example *u*, should be set using `ILoopOutputLayer::setInput(1,u)`.

Finally, there is `IRecurrenceLayer`. Its first input specifies the initial output value, and its second input specifies the next output value. The first input must come from outside the loop; the second input usually comes from inside the loop. For example, the TensorRT analog of this C++ fragment:

```
for (int32_t i = j; ...; i += k) ...
```

could be created by these calls, where j and k are `ITensor*`.

```
ILoop* loop = n.addLoop();
IRecurrenceLayer* iRec = loop->addRecurrence(j);
ITensor* i = iRec->getOutput(0);
ITensor* iNext = addElementWise(*i, *k,
    ElementWiseOperation::kADD)->getOutput(0);
iRec->setInput(1, *iNext);
```

The second input to `IRecurrenceLayer` is the only case where TensorRT allows a back edge. If such inputs are removed, the remaining network must be acyclic.

10.2. Formal Semantics

TensorRT has applicative semantics, meaning there are no visible side effects other than engine inputs and outputs. Because there are no side effects, intuitions about loops from

imperative languages do not always work. This section defines formal semantics for TensorRT's loop constructs.

The formal semantics is based on *lazy sequences* of tensors. Each iteration of a loop corresponds to an element in the sequence. The sequence for a tensor *x* inside the loop is denoted #*X*0, *X*1, *X*2, ...#. Elements of the sequence are evaluated lazily, meaning, as needed.

The output from `IIteratorLayer(X)` is #X[0], X[1], X[2], ...# where X[i] denotes subscripting on the axis specified for the `IIteratorLayer`.

The output from `IRecurrenceLayer(X,Y)` is #X, Y0, Y1, Y2, ...#.

The input and output from an `ILoopOutputLayer` depend on the kind of `LoopOutput`.

▶ `kLAST_VALUE`: Input is a single tensor X, and output is X_n for an n-trip loop.

▶ `kCONCATENATE`: The first input is a tensor X, and the second input is a scalar shape tensor Y. The result is the concatenation of X0, X1, X2, ... Xn−1 with post padding, if necessary, to the length specified by Y. It is a runtime error if Y < n. Y is a build time constant. Note the inverse relationship with `IIteratorLayer`. `IIteratorLayer` maps a tensor to a sequence of subtensors; `ILoopOutputLayer` with `kCONCATENATE` maps a sequence of sub tensors to a tensor.

▶ `kREVERSE`: Similar to `kCONCATENATE`, but the output is in the reverse direction.

The value of n in the definitions for the output of `ILoopOutputLayer` is determined by the `ITripLimitLayer` for the loop:

▶ For counted loops, it is the iteration count, meaning the input to the `ITripLimitLayer`.

▶ For while loops, it is the least n such that X_n is false, where X is the sequence for the `ITripLimitLayer`'s input tensor.

The output from a non-loop layer is a sequence-wise application of the layer's function. For example, for a two-input non-loop layer $F(X,Y) = \#f(X_0,Y_0), f(X_1,Y_1), f(X_2,Y_2)...\#$. If a tensor comes from outside the loop, that is, a loop invariant, then the sequence for it is created by replicating the tensor.

10.3. Nested Loops

TensorRT infers the nesting of the loops from the data flow. For instance, if loop B uses values defined *inside* loop A, then B is considered to be nested inside of A.

TensorRT rejects networks where the loops are not cleanly nested, such as if loop A uses values defined in the interior of loop B and vice versa.

10.4. Limitations

A loop that refers to more than one dynamic dimension can take an unexpected amount of memory.

In a loop, memory is allocated as if all dynamic dimensions take on the maximum value of any of those dimensions. For example, if a loop refers to two tensors with dimensions `[4,x,y]` and `[6,y]`, memory allocation for those tensors is as if their dimensions were `[4,max(x,y),max(x,y)]` and `[6,max(x,y)]`.

The input to a `LoopOutputLayer` with `kLAST_VALUE` must be the output from an `IRecurrenceLayer`.

The loop API supports only FP32 and FP16 precision.

10.5. Replacing **IRNNv2Layer** with Loops

`IRNNv2Layer` was deprecated in TensorRT 7.2.1 and will be removed in TensorRT 9.0. Use the loop API to synthesize a recurrent sub network. For an example, refer to `sampleCharRNN`, method `SampleCharRNNLoop::addLSTMCell`. You can express general recurrent networks instead of being limited to the prefabricated cells in `IRNNLayer` and `IRNNv2Layer` using the loop API.

Refer to [sampleCharRNN](#) for more information.

Chapter 11. Working with Conditionals

NVIDIA TensorRT supports conditional if-then-else flow control. TensorRT conditionals are used to implement conditional execution of network subgraphs.

11.1. Defining a Conditional

An if-conditional is defined by conditional boundary layers:

▶ `IConditionLayer` represents the predicate and specifies whether the conditional should execute the true-branch (then-branch) or the false-branch (else-branch).

▶ `IIfConditionalInputLayer` specifies an input to one of the two conditional branches.

▶ `IIfConditionalOutputLayer` specifies an output from a conditional.

Each of the boundary layers inherits from class `IIfConditionalBoundaryLayer`, which has a method `getConditional()` for getting its associated `IIfConditional`. The `IIfConditional` instance identifies the conditional. All conditional boundary layers with the same `IIfConditional` belong to that conditional.

A conditional must have exactly one instance of `IConditionLayer`, zero, or more instances of `IIfConditionalInputLayer`, and at least one instance of `IIfConditionalOutputLayer`.

`IIfConditional` implements an if-then-else flow-control construct that provides conditional-execution of a network subgraph based on a dynamic boolean input. It is defined by a boolean scalar predicate `condition`, and two branch subgraphs: a `trueSubgraph` which is executed when `condition` evaluates to `true`, and a `falseSubgraph` which is executed when `condition` evaluates to `false`:

```
If condition is true then:
 output = trueSubgraph(trueInputs);
Else
 output = falseSubgraph(falseInputs);
Emit output
```

Both the true-branch and the false-branch must be defined, similar to the ternary operator in many programming languages.

To define an if-conditional, create an `IIfConditional` instance with the method `INetworkDefinition::addIfConditional`, then add the boundary and branch layers.

```
IIfConditional* simpleIf = network->addIfConditional();
```

The `IIfConditional::setCondition` method takes a single argument: the condition tensor. This 0D boolean tensor (scalar) can be computed dynamically by earlier layers in the network.

It is used to decide which of the branches to execute. An `IConditionLayer` has a single input (the condition) and no outputs since it is used internally by the conditional implementation.

```
// Create a condition predicate that is also a network input.
auto cond = network->addInput("cond", DataType::kBOOL, Dims{0});
IConditionLayer* condition = simpleIf->setCondition(*cond);
```

TensorRT does not support a subgraph abstraction for implementing conditional branches and instead uses `IIfConditionalInputLayer` and `IIfConditionalOutputLayer` to define the boundaries of conditionals.

▶ An `IIfConditionalInputLayer`abstracts a single input to one or both of the branch subgraphs of an `IIfConditional`. The output of a specific `IIfConditionalInputLayer`can feed both branches.

```
// Create an if-conditional input.
// x is some arbitrary Network tensor.
IIfConditionalInputLayer* inputX = simpleIf->addInput(*x);
```

Inputs to the then-branch and the else-branch must not be of the same type and shape, each branch can independently include zero or more inputs.

`IIfConditionalInputLayer`is optional and is used to control which layers will be part of the branches (refer to Conditional Execution). If all of a branch's outputs do not depend on an `IIfConditionalInputLayer`instance, that branch is empty. An empty else-branch can be useful when there are no layers to evaluate when the condition is `false`, and the network evaluation should proceed following the conditional (refer to Conditional Examples).

▶ An `IIfConditionalOutputLayer`abstracts a single output of the if-conditional. It has two inputs: an output from the true-subgraph (input index 0) and an output from the false-subgraph (input index 1). The output of an `IIfConditionalOutputLayer` can be thought of as a placeholder for the final output that will be determined during runtime.

`IIfConditionalOutputLayer` serves a role similar to that of a Φ (Phi) function node in traditional SSA control-flow graphs. Its semantics are: choose either the output of the true-subgraph or the false-subgraph.

```
// trueSubgraph and falseSubgraph represent network subgraphs
IIfConditionalOutputLayer* outputLayer = simpleIf->addOutput(
    *trueSubgraph->getOutput(0),
    *falseSubgraph->getOutput(0));
```

All outputs of an `IIfConditional` must be sourced at an `IIfConditionalOutputLayer` instance.

An if-conditional without outputs has no effect on the rest of the network, therefore, it is considered ill-formed. Each of the two branches (subgraphs) must also have at least one output. The output of an if-conditional can be marked as the output of the network, unless that if-conditional is nested inside another if-conditional or loop.

The diagram below provides a graphical representation of the abstract model of an if-conditional. The green rectangle represents the interior of the conditional, which is limited to the layer types listed in Layers For Flow-Control Constructs section in the *NVIDIA TensorRT Support Matrix*.

Figure 13.   An if-conditional construct abstract model
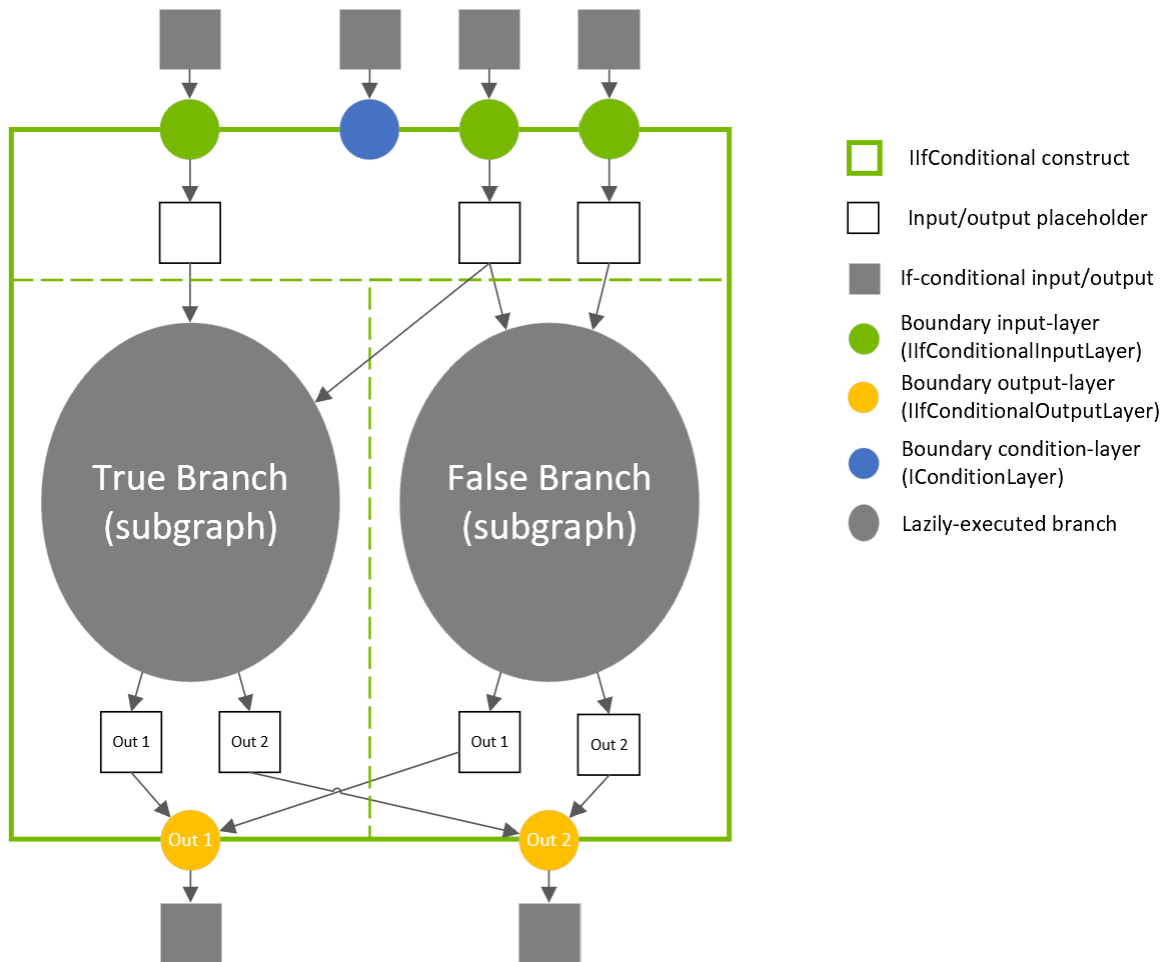
11.2. Conditional Execution

Conditional execution of network layers is a network evaluation strategy in which branch-layers (the layers belonging to a conditional subgraph) are executed only if the values of the branch outputs are needed. In conditional-execution, either the true-branch or the false-branch is executed and allowed to change the network state.

In contrast, in predicated-execution, both the true-branch and the false-branch are executed and only one of these is allowed to change the network evaluation state, depending on the value of the condition predicate (that is, only the outputs of one of the subgraphs is fed into the following layers).

Conditional execution is sometimes called *lazy evaluation*, and predicated-execution is sometimes referred to as *eager evaluation*.

Instances of `IIfConditionalInputLayer` can be used to specify which layers are invoked eagerly and which are invoked lazily. This is done by tracing the network layers

backwards, starting with each of the conditional outputs. Layers that are data-dependent on the output of at least one `IIfConditionalInputLayer` are considered internal to the conditional and are therefore evaluated lazily. In the extreme case that no instances of `IIfConditionalInputLayer` are added to the conditional, all of the layers are executed eagerly, similarly to `ISelectLayer`.

The three diagrams below depict how the choice of `IIfConditionalInputLayer` placement controls execution scheduling.

Figure 14.   Controlling conditional-execution using `IIfConditionalInputLayer` placement
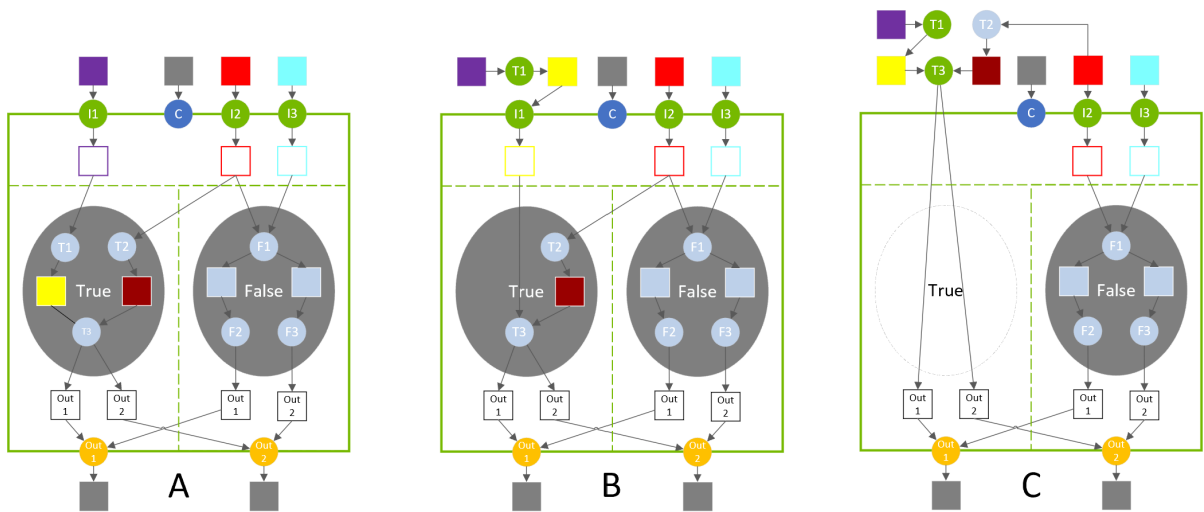
In diagram A, the true-branch is composed of three layers (T1, T2, T3). These layers execute lazily when the condition evaluates to `true`.

In diagram B, input-layer I1 is placed after layer T1, which moves T1 out of the true-branch. Layer T1 executes eagerly before evaluating the if-construct.

In diagram C, input-layer I1 is removed altogether, which moves T3 outside the conditional. T2's input is reconfigured to create a legal network, and T2 also moves out of the true-branch. When the condition evaluates to `true`, the conditional does not compute anything since the outputs have already been eagerly computed (but it does copy the conditional relevant inputs to its outputs).

11.3. Nesting and Loops

Conditional branches may nest other conditionals and may also nest loops. Loops may nest conditionals. As in loop nesting, TensorRT infers the nesting of the conditionals and loops from the data flow. For example, if conditional B uses a value defined inside loop A, then B is considered to be nested inside of A.

There can be no cross-edges connecting layers in the true-branch to layers in the false-branch, and vice versa. In other words, the outputs of one branch cannot depend on layers in the other branch.

For example, refer to Conditional Examples for how nesting can be specified.

11.4. Limitations

The number of output tensors in both true/false subgraph branches must be the same. The type and shape of each output tensor from the branches must be the same.

Note that this is more constrained than the ONNX specification, which requires that the true/false subgraphs have the same number of outputs and use the same outputs data-types, but allows for different output shapes.

11.5. Conditional Examples

11.5.1. Simple If-Conditional

The following example shows how to implement a simple conditional that conditionally performs an arithmetic operation on two tensors.

Conditional

```
condition = true
If condition is true:
        output = x + y
Else:
        output = x - y
```

Example

```
ITensor* addCondition(INetworkDefinition& n, bool predicate)
{
    // The condition value is a constant int32 input that is cast to boolean because TensorRT
 doesn't support boolean constant layers.

    static const Dims scalarDims = Dims{0, {}};
    static float constexpr zero{0};
    static float constexpr one{1};

    float* const val = predicate ? &one : &zero;

    ITensor* cond =
        n.addConstant(scalarDims, DataType::kINT32, val, 1})->getOutput(0);

    auto* cast = n.addIdentity(cond);
    cast->setOutputType(0, DataType::kBOOL);
    cast->getOutput(0)->setType(DataType::kBOOL);

    return cast->getOutput(0);
}

IBuilder* builder = createInferBuilder(gLogger);
```

```
INetworkDefinition& n = *builder->createNetworkV2(0U);
auto x = n.addInput("x", DataType::kFLOAT, Dims{1, {5}});
auto y = n.addInput("y", DataType::kFLOAT, Dims{1, {5}});
ITensor* cond = addCondition(n, true);

auto* simpleIf = n.addIfConditional();
simpleIf->setCondition(*cond);

// Add input layers to demarcate entry into true/false branches.
x = simpleIf->addInput(*x)->getOutput(0);
y = simpleIf->addInput(*y)->getOutput(0);

auto* trueSubgraph = n.addElementWise(*x, *y, ElementWiseOperation::kSUM)->getOutput(0);
auto* falseSubgraph = n.addElementWise(*x, *y, ElementWiseOperation::kSUB)->getOutput(0);

auto* output = simpleIf->addOutput(*trueSubgraph, *falseSubgraph)->getOutput(0);
n.markOutput(*output);
```

11.5.2. Exporting from PyTorch

The following example shows how to export scripted PyTorch code to ONNX. The code in function `sum_even` performs an if-conditional nested in a loop.

```python
import torch.onnx
import torch
import tensorrt as trt
import numpy as np

TRT_LOGGER = trt.Logger(trt.Logger.WARNING)
EXPLICIT_BATCH = 1 << (int)(trt.NetworkDefinitionCreationFlag.EXPLICIT_BATCH)

@torch.jit.script
def sum_even(items):
    s = torch.zeros(1, dtype=torch.float)
    for c in items:
        if c % 2 == 0:
            s += c
    return s

class ExampleModel(torch.nn.Module):
    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__()

    def forward(self, items):
        return sum_even(items)

def build_engine(model_file):
    builder = trt.Builder(TRT_LOGGER)
    network = builder.create_network(EXPLICIT_BATCH)
    config = builder.create_builder_config()
    parser = trt.OnnxParser(network, TRT_LOGGER)

    with open(model_file, 'rb') as model:
        assert parser.parse(model.read())
        return builder.build_engine(network, config)

def export_to_onnx():
    items = torch.zeros(4, dtype=torch.float)
    example = ExampleModel()
    torch.onnx.export(example, (items), "example.onnx", verbose=False, opset_version=13,
 enable_onnx_checker=False, do_constant_folding=True)

export_to_onnx()
build_engine("example.onnx")
```

Chapter 12. Working with DLA

NVIDIA DLA (Deep Learning Accelerator) is a fixed-function accelerator engine targeted for deep learning operations. DLA is designed to do full hardware acceleration of convolutional neural networks. DLA supports various layers such as convolution, deconvolution, fully connected, activation, pooling, batch normalization, and so on. DLA does not support Explicit Quantization. For more information about DLA support in TensorRT layers, refer to DLA Supported Layers and Restrictions.

DLA is useful for offloading CNN processing from the iGPU, and is significantly more power-efficient for these workloads. In addition, it can provide an independent execution pipeline in cases where redundancy is important, for example in mission-critical or safety applications.

For more information about DLA, refer to the DLA developer page and the DLA tutorial Getting started with the Deep Learning Accelerator on NVIDIA Jetson Orin.

When building a model for DLA, the TensorRT builder parses the network and calls the DLA compiler to compile the network into a DLA loadable. Refer to Using trtexec to see how to build and run networks on DLA.

Figure 15.   Workflow for the Building and Runtime Phases of DLA
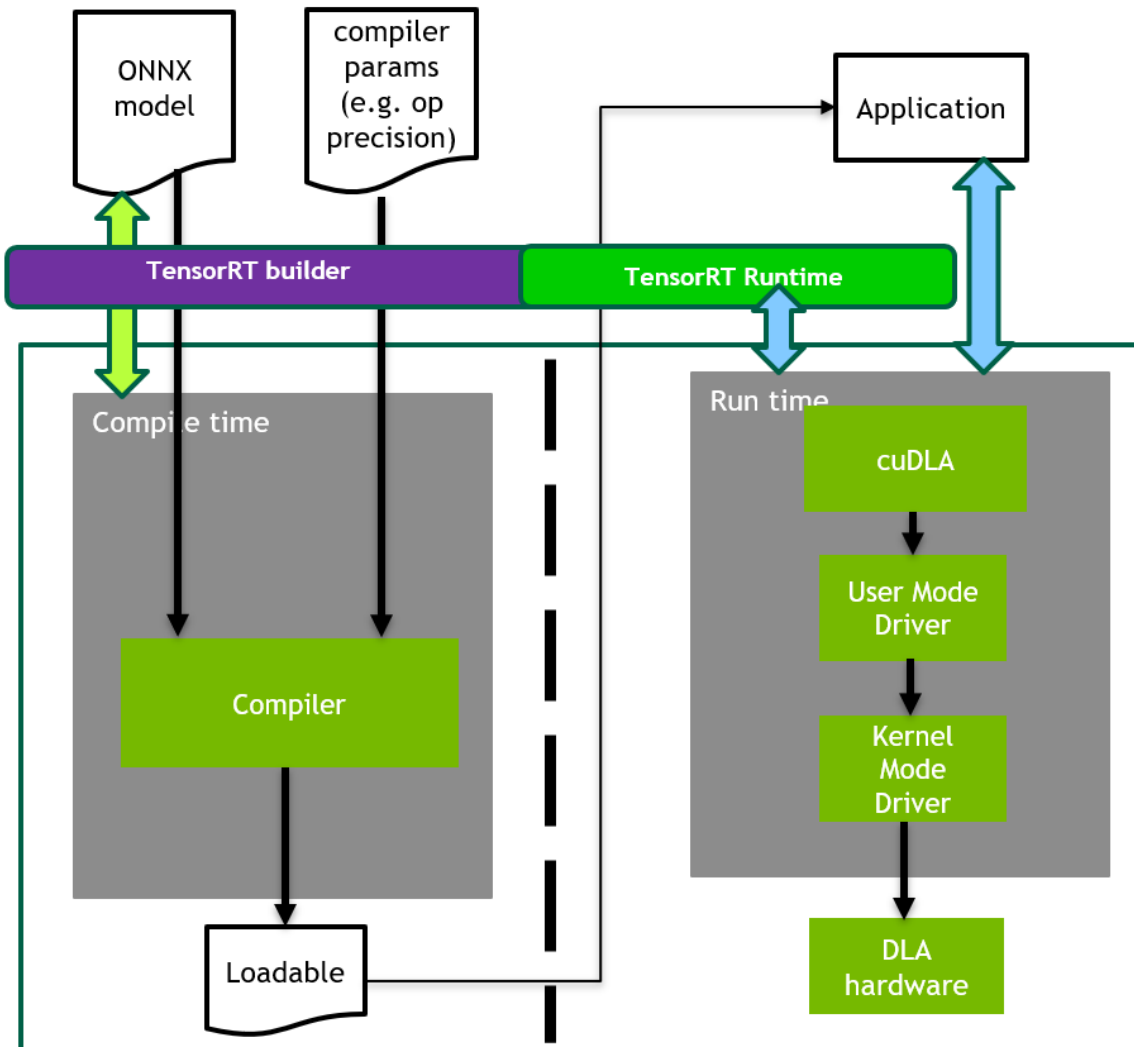
12.1.   Building and Launching the Loadable

There are several different ways to build and launch a DLA loadable, either embedded in a TensorRT engine or in standalone form.

For generating a standalone DLA loadable to be used outside TensorRT, refer to DLA Standalone Mode.

12.1.1.   Using `trtexec`

To allow `trtexec` to use the DLA, you can use the `–useDLACore` flag. For example, to run the ResNet-50 network on DLA core 0 in FP16 mode, with GPU Fallback Mode for unsupported layers, issue:

```
./trtexec --onnx=data/resnet50/ResNet50.onnx --useDLACore=0 --fp16 --allowGPUFallback
```

The `trtexec` tool has additional arguments to run networks on DLA. For more information, refer to Command-Line Programs.

12.1.2. Using the TensorRT API

You can use the TensorRT API to build and run inference with DLA and to enable DLA at layer level. The relevant APIs and samples are provided in the following sections.

12.1.2.1. Running on DLA during TensorRT Inference

The TensorRT builder can be configured to enable inference on DLA. DLA support is currently limited to networks running in FP16 and INT8 mode. The `DeviceType` enumeration is used to specify the device that the network or layer executes on. The following API functions in the `IBuilderConfig` class can be used to configure the network to use DLA:

setDeviceType(ILayer* layer, DeviceType deviceType)
This function can be used to set the `deviceType` that the layer must execute on.

getDeviceType(const ILayer* layer)
This function can be used to return the `deviceType` that this layer executes on. If the layer is executing on the GPU, this returns `DeviceType::kGPU`.

canRunOnDLA(const ILayer* layer)
This function can be used to check if a layer can run on DLA.

setDefaultDeviceType(DeviceType deviceType)
This function sets the default `deviceType` to be used by the builder. It ensures that all the layers that can run on DLA runs on DLA unless `setDeviceType` is used to override the `deviceType` for a layer.

getDefaultDeviceType()
This function returns the default `deviceType` which was set by `setDefaultDeviceType`.

isDeviceTypeSet(const ILayer* layer)
This function checks whether the `deviceType` has been explicitly set for this layer.

resetDeviceType(ILayer* layer)
This function resets the `deviceType` for this layer. The value is reset to the `deviceType` that is specified by `setDefaultDeviceType` or `DeviceType::kGPU` if none is specified.

allowGPUFallback(bool setFallBackMode)
This function notifies the builder to use GPU if a layer that was supposed to run on DLA cannot run on DLA. For more information, refer to GPU Fallback Mode.

reset()
This function can be used to reset the `IBuilderConfig` state, which sets the `deviceType` for all layers to be `DeviceType::kGPU`. After reset, the builder can be reused to build another network with a different DLA config.

The following API functions in `IBuilder` class can be used to help configure the network for using the DLA:

getMaxDLABatchSize()
This function returns the maximum batch size DLA can support.

> 📄 **Note:** For any tensor, the total volume of index dimensions combined with the requested batch size must not exceed the value returned by this function.

getNbDLACores()

This function returns the number of DLA cores available to the user.

If the builder is not accessible, such as in the case where a plan file is being loaded online in an inference application, then the DLA to be used can be specified differently by using DLA extensions to the `IRuntime`. The following API functions in the `IRuntime` class can be used to configure the network to use DLA:

getNbDLACores()

This function returns the number of DLA cores that are accessible to the user.

setDLACore(int dlaCore)

The DLA core to execute on. Where `dlaCore` is a value between `0` and `getNbDLACores() - 1`. The default value is `0`.

getDLACore()

The DLA core that the runtime execution is assigned to. The default value is 0.

12.1.2.2. Example: sampleMNIST with DLA

This section provides details on how to run a TensorRT sample with DLA enabled.

sampleMNIST demonstrates how to import a trained model, build the TensorRT engine, serialize, and deserialize the engine and finally use the engine to perform inference.

The sample first creates the builder:

```
auto builder = SampleUniquePtr<nvinfer1::IBuilder>(nvinfer1::createInferBuilder(gLogger));
if (!builder) return false;
builder->setMaxBatchSize(batchSize);
config->setMaxWorkspaceSize(16_MB);
```

Then, enable `GPUFallback` mode:

```
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kGPU_FALLBACK);
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kFP16); or config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kINT8);
```

Enable execution on DLA, where `dlaCore` specifies the DLA core to execute on:

```
config->setDefaultDeviceType(DeviceType::kDLA);
config->setDLACore(dlaCore);
```

With these additional changes, sampleMNIST is ready to execute on DLA. To run sampleMNIST with DLA Core 1, use the following command:

```
 ./sample_mnist --useDLACore=0 [--int8|--fp16]
```

12.1.2.3. Example: Enable DLA Mode for a Layer during Network Creation

In this example, let us create a simple network with Input, Convolution, and Output.

Procedure

1. Create the builder, builder configuration, and the network:

   ```
   IBuilder* builder = createInferBuilder(gLogger);
   IBuilderConfig* config = builder.createBuilderConfig();
   INetworkDefinition* network = builder->createNetworkV2(0U);
   ```

2. Add the Input layer to the network, with the input dimensions.

   ```
   auto data = network->addInput(INPUT_BLOB_NAME, dt, Dims3{1, INPUT_H, INPUT_W});
   ```

3. Add the Convolution layer with hidden layer input nodes, strides, and weights for filter and bias.

```
auto conv1 = network->addConvolution(*data->getOutput(0), 20, DimsHW{5, 5},
 weightMap["conv1filter"], weightMap["conv1bias"]);
conv1->setStride(DimsHW{1, 1});
```

4. Set the convolution layer to run on DLA:

```
if(canRunOnDLA(conv1))
{
config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kFP16); or config->setFlag(BuilderFlag::kINT8);
builder->setDeviceType(conv1, DeviceType::kDLA);

}
```

5. Mark the output:

```
network->markOutput(*conv1->getOutput(0));
```

6. Set the DLA core to execute on:

```
config->setDLACore(0)
```

12.1.3. Using the cuDLA API

cuDLA is an extension of the CUDA programming model that integrates DLA runtime software with CUDA. This integration makes it possible to launch DLA loadables using CUDA programming constructs such as streams and graphs.

Managing shared buffers as well as synchronizing the tasks between GPU and DLA is transparently handled by cuDLA. Refer to the cuDLA documentation on how the cuDLA APIs can be used for these use cases while writing a cuDLA application.

Refer to the DLA Standalone Mode section for more information on how to use TensorRT to build a standalone DLA loadable usable with cuDLA.

12.2. DLA Supported Layers and Restrictions

This section lists the layers supported by DLA along with the constraints associated with each layer.

12.2.1. General Restrictions

The following restrictions apply to all layers while running on DLA:

▶ The maximum supported batch size is 4096.

▶ DLA does not support dynamic dimensions. Thus, for wildcard dimensions, the min, max, and opt values of the profile must be equal.

▶ The runtime dimension(especially the batch size) must be the same as the dimension used for building.

▶ TensorRT may split a network into multiple DLA loadables if any intermediate layers cannot run on DLA and $GPUFallback$ is enabled. Otherwise, TensorRT can emit an error and fallback. For more information, refer to GPU Fallback Mode.

▶ At most 16 DLA loadables can be in use concurrently due to hardware and software memory limitations.

> **Note:** Batch size for DLA is the product of all index dimensions except the `CHW` dimensions. For example, if input dimensions are `NPQRS`, the effective batch size is `N*P`.

12.2.2. Layer Support and Restrictions

The following list provides layer support and restrictions to the specified layers while running on DLA:

Convolution and Fully Connected layers

▶ Only two spatial dimension operations are supported.

▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.

▶ Each dimension of the kernel size must be in the range `[1, 32]`.

▶ Padding must be in the range `[0, 31]`.

▶ Dimensions of padding must be less than the corresponding kernel dimension.

▶ Dimensions of stride must be in the range `[1, 8]`.

▶ Number of output maps must be in the range `[1, 8192]`.

▶ Number of groups must be in the range `[1, 8192]` for operations using the formats `TensorFormat::kLINEAR`, `TensorFormat::kCHW16`, and `TensorFormat::kCHW32`.

▶ Number of groups must be in the range `[1, 4]` for operations using the formats `TensorFormat::kDLA_HWC4`.

▶ Dilated convolution must be in the range `[1, 32]`.

▶ Operations are not supported if the CBUF size requirement `wtBanksForOneKernel + minDataBanks` exceeds the `numConvBufBankAllotted` limitation `16`, where CBUF is the internal convolution cache that stores input weights and activation before operating on them, `wtBanksForOneKernel` is the minimum banks for one kernel to store the minimum weight/kernel elements needed for convolution, and `minDataBanks` is the minimum banks to store the minimum activation data needed for convolution. The pseudo code details are as follows:

  ▶ ```
wtBanksForOneKernel = uint32(ceil(roundUp(inputDims_c * kernelSize_h *
 kernelSize_w * (INT8
        ? 1 : 2), 128) / 32768.0))
```

  ▶ ```
minDataBanks = uint32(ceil(float(entriesPerDataSlice * dilatedKernelHt) /
        256.0))
```
  where
  ```
entriesPerDataSlice = uint32(ceil(ceil(inputDims_c * (INT8 ? 1 : 2) / 32.0) *
 inputDims_w /
        4.0))
```
  and `dilatedKernelHt = (kernelSize_h - 1) * dilation_h + 1`

  ▶ `FAIL` if `wtBanksForOneKernel + minDataBanks > 16`, `PASS` otherwise.

Deconvolution layer

- ▶ Only two spatial dimensions are supported.
- ▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.
- ▶ Dimensions of the kernel must be in the range `[1, 32]`, in addition to `1x[64, 96, 128]` and `[64, 96, 128]x1`.
- ▶ TensorRT has disabled deconvolution square kernels and strides in the range `[23 – 32]` on DLA as they significantly slow down compilation.
- ▶ Padding must be `0`
- ▶ Grouped deconvolution must be `1`.
- ▶ Dilated deconvolutions must be `1`.
- ▶ Number of input channels must be in the range `[1, 8192]`.
- ▶ Number of output channels must be in the range `[1, 8192]`.

Pooling layer

- ▶ Only two spatial dimension operations are supported.
- ▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.
- ▶ Operations supported: `kMAX`, `kAVERAGE`.
- ▶ Dimensions of the window must be in the range `[1, 8]`.
- ▶ Dimensions of padding must be in the range `[0, 7]`.
- ▶ Dimensions of stride must be in the range `[1, 16]`.
- ▶ With INT8 mode, input and output tensor scales must be the same.

Activation layer

- ▶ Only two spatial dimension operations are supported.
- ▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.
- ▶ Functions supported: `ReLU`, `Sigmoid`, `TanH`, `Clipped ReLU` and `Leaky ReLU`.
  - ▶ Negative slope is not supported for `ReLU`.
  - ▶ `Clipped ReLU` only supports values in the range `[1, 127]`.
  - ▶ `TanH`, `Sigmoid` INT8 support is supported by auto-upgrading to FP16.

Parametric ReLU layer

- ▶ Slopes input must be a build time constant.

ElementWise layer

- ▶ Only two spatial dimension operations are supported.
- ▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.

▶ Operations supported: `Sum`, `Sub`, `Product`, `Max`, and `Min`.

> 📝 **Note:** On Xavier, TensorRT concatenates a DLA `Scale` layer and a DLA `ElementWise` layer with the operation `Sum` to support the `Sub` operation, which is not supported by a single Xavier DLA `ElementWise` layer.

Scale layer

▶ Only two spatial dimension operations are supported.

▶ Both FP16 and INT8 are supported.

▶ Mode supported: `Uniform`, `Per-Channel`, and `ElementWise`.

▶ Only `scale` and `shift` operations are supported.

LRN (Local Response Normalization) layer

▶ Allowed window sizes are 3, 5, 7, or 9.

▶ Normalization region supported is `ACROSS_CHANNELS`.

▶ `LRN` INT8 is supported by auto-upgrading to FP16.

Concatenation layer

▶ DLA supports concatenation only along the channel axis.

▶ Concat must have at least two inputs.

▶ All the inputs must have the same spatial dimensions.

▶ With INT8 mode, the dynamic range of all the inputs must be the same.

▶ With INT8 mode, the dynamic range of output must be equal to each of the inputs.

Resize layer

▶ The number of scales must be exactly 4.

▶ The first two elements in scales must be exactly 1 (for unchanged batch and channel dimensions).

▶ The last two elements in scales, representing the scale values along height and width dimensions, respectively, must be integer values in the range of `[1, 32]` in nearest-neighbor mode and `[1, 4]` in bilinear mode.

Unary layer

▶ Only the ABS operation is supported.

Slice layer

▶ Only supports FP16 precision.

▶ Supports batch sizes up to general DLA maximum.

▶ All input non-batch dimensions must be in the range `[1, 8192]`.

▶ Only supports 4-D inputs and slicing at CHW dimensions.

▶ Only supports static slicing, so slice parameters have to be provided statically either using TensorRT `ISliceLayer` setter APIs or as constant input tensors.

SoftMax layer

▶ Only supported on NVIDIA Orin™, not Xavier™.

▶ All input non-batch dimensions must be in the range `[1, 8192]`.

▶ Only supports FP16 precision.

▶ Internally, there are two modes, and the mode is selected based on the given input tensor shape.

  ▶ The accurate mode is triggered when all non-batch, non-axis dimensions are `1`.

  ▶ The optimized mode allows the non-batch, non-axis dimensions to be greater than `1` but restricts the axis dimension to 1024 and involves an approximation that may cause a small error in the output. The magnitude of the error increases as the size of the axis dimension approaches 1024.

12.2.3.   Inference on NVIDIA Orin

Due to the difference in hardware specifications between NVIDIA Orin and Xavier DLA, an increase up to 2x in latency may be observed for FP16 convolution operations on NVIDIA Orin.

On NVIDIA Orin, DLA stores weights for non-convolution operations (FP16 and INT8) inside a loadable as FP19 values (which use 4 byte containers). The channel dimensions are padded to multiples of either 16 (FP16) or 32 (INT8) for those FP19 values. Especially in the case of large per-element `Scale`, `Add`, or `Sub` operations, this can inflate the size of the DLA loadable, inflating the engine containing such a loadable. Graph optimization may unintentionally trigger this behavior by changing the type of a layer, for example, when an ElementWise multiplication layer with a constant layer as weights is fused into a scale layer.

12.3.   GPU Fallback Mode

The `GPUFallbackMode` sets the builder to use GPU if a layer that was marked to run on DLA could not run on DLA. A layer cannot run on DLA due to the following reasons:

1. The `layer` operation is not supported on DLA.
2. The parameters specified are out of the supported range for DLA.
3. The given batch size exceeds the maximum permissible DLA batch size. For more information, refer to DLA Supported Layers and Restrictions.
4. A combination of layers in the network causes the internal state to exceed what the DLA is capable of supporting.
5. There are no DLA engines available on the platform.

When GPU fallback is disabled, an error is emitted if a layer could not be run on DLA.

12.4.   I/O Formats on DLA

DLA supports formats that are unique to the device and have constraints on their layout due to vector width byte requirements.

For DLA input tensors, `kDLA_LINEAR`(FP16, INT8), `kDLA_HWC4`(FP16, INT8), `kCHW16`(FP16), and `kCHW32`(INT8) are supported. For DLA output tensors, only `kDLA_LINEAR`(FP16, INT8), `kCHW16`(FP16), and `kCHW32`(INT8) are supported. For `kCHW16` and `kCHW32` formats, if C is not an integer multiple, then it must be padded to the next 32-byte boundary.

For `kDLA_LINEAR` format, the stride along the W dimension must be padded up to 64 bytes. The memory format is equivalent to a C array with dimensions `[N][C][H][roundUp(W, 64/elementSize)]` where `elementSize` is 2 for FP16 and 1 for Int8, with the tensor coordinates `(n, c, h, w)` mapping to array subscript `[n][c][h][w]`.

For `kDLA_HWC4` format, the stride along the W dimension must be a multiple of 32 bytes on Xavier and 64 bytes on NVIDIA Orin.

▶ When C == 1, TensorRT maps the format to the native grayscale image format.

▶ When C == 3 or C == 4, it maps to the native color image format. If C == 3, the stride for stepping along the W axis must be padded to 4 in elements.

   In this case, the padded channel is located at the 4th-index. Ideally, the padding value does not matter because the 4th channel in the weights is padded to zero by the DLA compiler; however, it is safe for the application to allocate a zero-filled buffer of four channels and populate three valid channels.

▶ When C is {1, 3, 4}, then padded C' is {1, 4, 4} respectively, the memory layout is equivalent to a C array with dimensions `[N][H][roundUp(W, 32/C'/elementSize)][C']` where `elementSize` is 2 for FP16 and 1 for Int8. The tensor coordinates `(n, c, h, w)` mapping to array subscript `[n][h][w][c]`, `roundUp` calculates the smallest multiple of `64/elementSize` greater than or equal to W.

When using `kDLA_HWC4` as DLA input format, it has the following requirements:

▶ C must be 1, 3, or 4

▶ The first layer must be convolution.

▶ The convolution parameters must meet DLA requirements. Refer to DLA Supported Layers and Restrictions for more information.

When GPU fallback is enabled, TensorRT may insert reformatting layers to meet the DLA requirements. Otherwise, the input and output formats must be compatible with DLA. In all cases, the strides that TensorRT expects data to be formatted with can be obtained by querying `IExecutionContext::getStrides`.

12.5.   DLA Standalone Mode

If you must run inference outside of TensorRT, you can use
`EngineCapability::kDLA_STANDALONE` to generate a DLA loadable instead of a TensorRT
engine.This loadable can then be used with an API like Using the cuDLA API.

12.6.   Customizing DLA Memory Pools

You can customize the size of the memory pools allocated to each DLA loadable
in a network using the `IBuilderConfig::setMemoryPoolLimit` C++ API or the
`IBuilderConfig.set_memory_pool_limit` Python API. There are three types of DLA
memory pools (refer to the `MemoryPoolType` enum for details):

Managed SRAM

▶ Behaves like a cache and larger values may improve performance.

▶ If no SRAM is available, DLA can still run by falling back to Local DRAM.

▶ On NVIDIA Orin, each DLA core has 1 MiB of SRAM available. On Xavier, 4 MiB of SRAM
is shared across all DLA cores.

Local DRAM

Used to store intermediate tensors in the network. Larger values may allow larger
subgraphs to be offloaded to DLA.

Global DRAM

Used to store weights in the network. Larger values may allow larger subgraphs to be
offloaded to DLA.

The amount of memory required for each loadable may be less than the pool size, in which
case the smaller amount will be allocated. The pool size serves only as an upper bound.

Note that all DLA memory pools require sizes that are powers of 2, with a minimum of 4 KiB.
Violating this requirement results in a DLA loadable compilation failure.

In multi-subgraph situations, it is important to keep in mind that the pool sizes apply per DLA
subgraph, not for the whole network.

12.7.   Sparsity on DLA

DLA on the NVIDIA Orin platform supports structured sparsity (SS) that offers the opportunity
to minimize latency and maximize throughput in production.

12.7.1.   Structured Sparsity

Structured sparsity (SS) accelerates a 2:4 sparsity pattern along the C dimension. In each
contiguous block of four values, two values must be zero along C. Generally, SS provides the

most benefit for INT8 convolutions that are math-bound, have a channel dimension that is a multiple of 128.

Structured Sparsity has several requirements and limitations.

Requirements

▶ Only available for INT8 convolution for formats other than NHWC.

▶ Channel size must be larger than 64.

Limitations

▶ Only convolutions whose quantized INT8 weights are at most 256K can benefit from SS–in practice, the limitation may be more restrictive.

▶ Only convolutions with K % 64 in {0, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32}, where K is the number of kernels (corresponding to the number of output channels), can benefit from SS in this release.

Chapter 13. Performance Best Practices

13.1. Measuring Performance

Before starting any optimization effort with TensorRT, it is essential to determine what should be measured. Without measurements, it is impossible to make reliable progress or measure whether success has been achieved.

Latency

A performance measurement for network inference is how much time elapses from an input being presented to the network until an output is available. This is the *latency* of the network for a single inference. Lower latencies are better. In some applications, low latency is a critical safety requirement. In other applications, latency is directly visible to users as a quality-of-service issue. For bulk processing, latency may not be important at all.

Throughput

Another performance measurement is how many inferences can be completed in a fixed unit of time. This is the *throughput* of the network. Higher throughput is better. Higher throughputs indicate a more efficient utilization of fixed compute resources. For bulk processing, the total time taken will be determined by the throughput of the network.

Another way of looking at latency and throughput is to fix the maximum latency and measure throughput at that latency. A quality-of-service measurement like this can be a reasonable compromise between the user experience and system efficiency.

Before measuring latency and throughput, you must choose the exact points at which to start and stop timing. Depending on the network and application, it might make sense to choose different points.

In many applications, there is a processing pipeline, and the overall system performance can be measured by the latency and throughput of the entire processing pipeline. Because the pre- and post-processing steps depend so strongly on the particular application, this section considers the latency and throughput of the network inference only.

13.1.1. Wall-clock Timing

Wall-clock time (the elapsed time between the start of a computation and its end) can be useful for measuring the overall throughput and latency of the application, and for placing inference times in context within a larger system. C++11 provides high precision timers in the `<chrono>` standard library. For example, `std::chrono::system_clock` represents system-wide wall-clock time, and `std::chrono::high_resolution_clock` measures time in the highest precision available.

The following example code snippet shows measuring network inference host time:

```
#include <chrono>

auto startTime = std::chrono::high_resolution_clock::now();
context->enqueueV2(&buffers[0], stream, nullptr);
cudaStreamSynchronize(stream);
auto endTime = std::chrono::high_resolution_clock::now();
float totalTime = std::chrono::duration<float, std::milli>
(endTime - startTime).count();
```

If there is only one inference happening on the device at one time, then this can be a simple way of profiling the time-various operations take. Inference is typically asynchronous, so ensure you add an explicit CUDA stream or device synchronization to wait for results to become available.

13.1.2. CUDA Events

One problem with timing on the host exclusively is that it requires host/device synchronization. Optimized applications may have many inferences running in parallel on the device with overlapping data movement. In addition, the synchronization itself adds some amount of noise to timing measurements.

To help with these issues, CUDA provides an Event API. This API allows you to place events into CUDA streams that will be time-stamped by the GPU as they are encountered. Differences in timestamps can then tell you how long different operations took.

The following example code snippet shows computing the time between two CUDA events:

```
cudaEvent_t start, end;
cudaEventCreate(&start);
cudaEventCreate(&end);

cudaEventRecord(start, stream);
context->enqueueV2(&buffers[0], stream, nullptr);
cudaEventRecord(end, stream);

cudaEventSynchronize(end);
float totalTime;
cudaEventElapsedTime(&totalTime, start, end);
```

13.1.3. Built-In TensorRT Profiling

Digging deeper into the performance of inference requires more fine-grained timing measurements within the optimized network.

TensorRT has a *Profiler* (C++, Python) interface, which you can implement in order to have TensorRT pass profiling information to your application. When called, the network will run in a profiling mode. After finishing inference, the profiler object of your class is called to report

the timing for each layer in the network. These timings can be used to locate bottlenecks, compare different versions of a serialized engine, and debug performance issues.

The profiling information can be collected from a regular inference `enqueueV2()` launch or a CUDA graph launch. Refer to `IExecutionContext::setProfiler()` and `IExecutionContext::reportToProfiler()` (C++, Python) for more information.

Layers inside a loop compile into a single monolithic layer, therefore, separate timings for those layers are not available.

An example showing how to use the `IProfiler` interface is provided in the common sample code (`common.h`).

You can also use `trtexec` to profile a network with TensorRT given an input network or plan file. Refer to the trtexec section for details.

13.1.4.   CUDA Profiling Tools

The recommended CUDA profiler is NVIDIA Nsight™ Systems. Some CUDA developers may be more familiar with nvprof and nvvp, however, these are being deprecated. In any case, these profilers can be used on any CUDA program to report timing information about the kernels launched during execution, data movement between host and device, and CUDA API calls used.

Nsight Systems can be configured in various ways to report timing information for only a portion of the execution of the program or to also report traditional CPU sampling profile information together with GPU information.

Profile Only the Inference Phase

When profiling a TensorRT application, you should enable profiling only after the engine has been built. During the build phase, all possible tactics are tried and timed. Profiling this portion of the execution will not show any meaningful performance measurements and will include all possible kernels, not the ones actually selected for inference. One way to limit the scope of profiling is to:

▶ **First phase:** Structure the application to build and then serialize the engines in one phase.

▶ **Second phase:** Load the serialized engines and run inference in a second phase and profile this second phase only.

If the application cannot serialize the engines, or if the application must run through the two phases consecutively, you can also add `cudaProfilerStart()`/`cudaProfilerStop()` CUDA APIs around the second phase and add `-c cudaProfilerApi` flag to Nsight Systems command to profile only the part between `cudaProfilerStart()` and `cudaProfilerStop()`.

Use the NVTX Tracing in Nsight Systems

Enabling NVIDIA Tools Extension SDK (NVTX) tracing allows Nsight Compute and Nsight Systems to collect data generated by TensorRT applications. NVTX is a C-based API for marking events and ranges in your applications.

Decoding the kernel names back to layers in the original network can be complicated. Because of this, TensorRT uses NVTX to mark a range for each layer, which then allows the CUDA profilers to correlate each layer with the kernels called to implement it. In TensorRT, NVTX helps to correlate the runtime engine layer execution with CUDA kernel calls. Nsight Systems supports collecting and visualizing these events and ranges on the timeline. Nsight Compute also supports collecting and displaying the state of all active NVTX domains and ranges in a given thread when the application is suspended.

In TensorRT, each layer may launch one or more kernels to perform its operations. The exact kernels launched depend on the optimized network and the hardware present. Depending on the choices of the builder, there may be multiple additional operations that reorder data interspersed with layer computations; these reformat operations may be implemented as either device-to-device memory copies or as custom kernels.

For example, the following screenshots are from Nsight Systems.

Figure 16.   The layer execution and the kernel being launched on the CPU side.
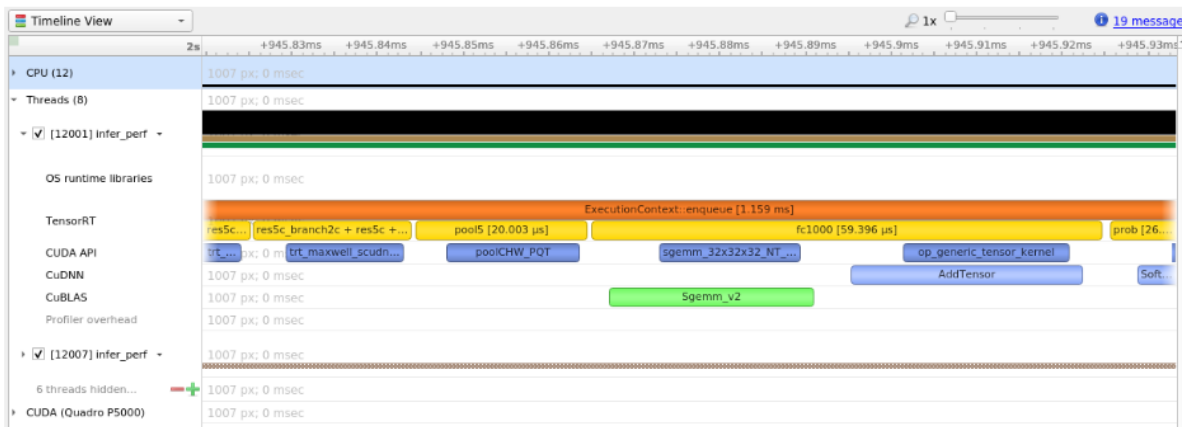
Figure 17. The kernels actually run on the GPU, in other words, it shows the correlation between the layer execution and kernel launch on the CPU side and their execution on the GPU side.

Control the Level of Details in NVTX Tracing

By default, TensorRT only shows layer names in the NVTX markers, while users can control the level of details by setting the ProfilingVerbosity in the `IBuilderConfig` when the engine is built. For example, to disable NVTX tracing, set the ProfilingVerbosity to `kNONE`:

C++

```
builderConfig->setProfilingVerbosity(ProfilingVerbosity::kNONE);
```

Python

```
builder_config.profilling_verbosity = trt.ProfilingVerbosity.NONE
```

On the other hand, you can choose to allow TensorRT to print more detailed layer information in the NVTX markers, including input and output dimensions, operations, parameters, tactic numbers, and so on, by setting the `ProfilingVerbosity` to `kDETAILED`:

C++

```
builderConfig->setProfilingVerbosity(ProfilingVerbosity::kDETAILED);
```

Python

```
builder_config.profilling_verbosity = trt.ProfilingVerbosity.DETAILED
```

Run Nsight Systems with `trtexec`

Below is an example of the commands to gather Nsight Systems profiles using trtexec tool:

```
trtexec --onnx=foo.onnx --profilingVerbosity=detailed --saveEngine=foo.plan
nsys profile -o foo_profile --capture-range cudaProfilerApi trtexec --loadEngine=foo.plan --
warmUp=0 --duration=0 --iterations=50
```

The first command builds and serializes the engine to `foo.plan`, and the second command runs the inference using `foo.plan` and generates a `foo_profile.qdrep` file that can then be opened in the Nsight Systems user interface for visualization.

The `--profilingVerbosity=detailed` flag allows TensorRT to show more detailed layer information in the NVTX marking, and the `--warmUp=0 --duration=0 --iterations=50` flags allow you to control how many inference iterations to run. By default, `trtexec` runs inference for three seconds, which may result in a very large output `qdrep` file.

(Optional) Enable GPU Metrics Sampling in Nsight Systems

On dGPU systems, add the `--gpu-metrics-device all` flag to the `nsys` command to sample GPU metrics, including GPU clock frequencies, DRAM bandwidth, Tensor Core utilization, and so on. If the flag is added, these GPU metrics appear in the Nsight Systems web interface.

13.1.4.1. Profiling for DLA

To profile DLA, add the `--accelerator-trace nvmedia` flag when using the NVIDIA Nsight Systems CLI or enable **Collect other accelerators trace** when using the user interface. For example, the following command can be used with the NVIDIA Nsight Systems CLI:

```
nsys profile -t cuda,nvtx,nvmedia,osrt --accelerator-trace=nvmedia  --show-output=true  /usr/
src/tensorrt/bin/trtexec --loadEngine=alexnet_int8.plan --iterations=20
```

Below is an example report.

▶ `NvMediaDLASubmit` submits a DLA task for each DLA subgraph. The runtime of the DLA task can be found in the DLA timeline under **Other accelerators trace**.

▶ Because GPU fallback was allowed, some CUDA kernels were added by TensorRT automatically, like `permutationKernelPLC3` and `copyPackedKernel`, which are used for data reformatting.

▶ EGLStream APIs were executed because TensorRT usesEGLStreams for data transfer between GPU memory and DLA.

Figure 18.   Sample DLA profiling report. To maximize GPU utilization, `trtexec` enqueues the queries one batch ahead of time.
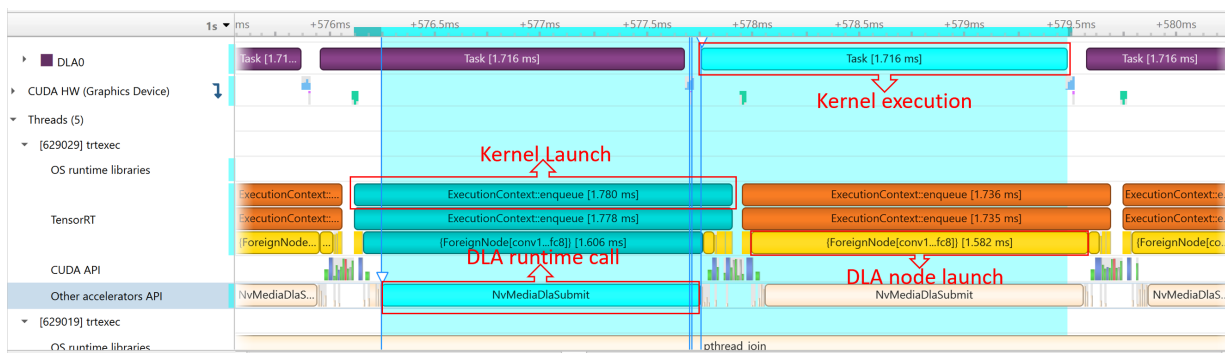
Figure 19. Sample DLA Profiling report. The runtime of the DLA task can be found under *Other accelerator API*. Some CUDA kernels and EGLStream API are called for interaction between GPU and DLA.
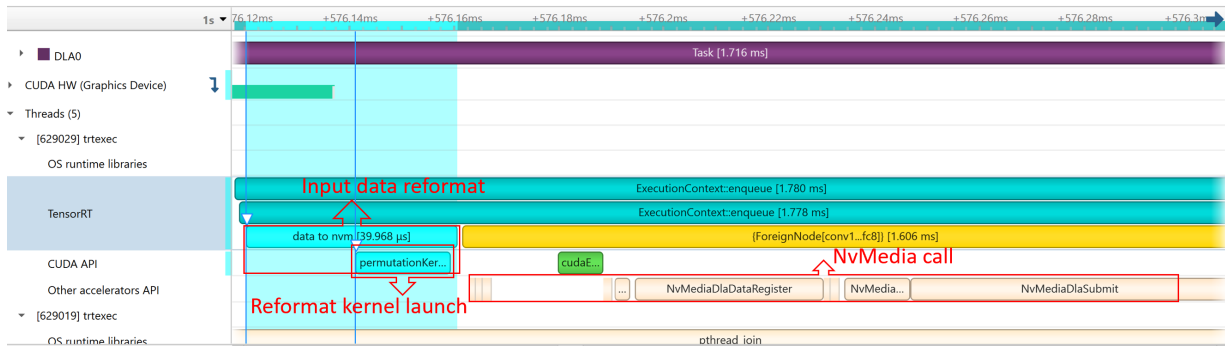
13.1.5. Tracking Memory

Tracking memory usage can be as important as execution performance. Usually, the memory will be more constrained on the device than on the host. To keep track of device memory, the recommended mechanism is to create a simple custom GPU allocator that internally keeps some statistics then uses the regular CUDA memory allocation functions `cudaMalloc` and `cudaFree`.

A custom GPU allocator can be set for the builder `IBuilder` for network optimizations, and for `IRuntime` when deserializing engines using the `IGpuAllocator` APIs. One idea for the custom allocator is to keep track of the current amount of memory allocated, and to push an allocation event with a timestamp and other information onto a global list of allocation events. Looking through the list of allocation events allows profiling memory usage over time.

On mobile platforms, GPU memory and CPU memory share the system memory. On devices with very limited memory size, like Nano, system memory might run out with large networks; even the required GPU memory is smaller than system memory. In this case, increasing the system swap size could solve some problems. An example script is:

```
echo "######alloc swap######"
if [ ! -e /swapfile ];then
    sudo fallocate -l 4G /swapfile
    sudo chmod 600 /swapfile
    sudo mkswap /swapfile
    sudo /bin/sh -c 'echo  "/swapfile \t none \t swap \t defaults \t 0 \t 0" >> /etc/fstab'
    sudo swapon -a
fi
```

13.2. Hardware/Software Environment for Performance Measurements

Performance measurements are influenced by many factors, including hardware environment differences like cooling capability of the machine and software environment differences like GPU clock settings. This section summarizes a few items that may affect performance measurements.

Note that the items involving nvidia-smi are only supported on dGPU systems and not on the mobile systems.

13.2.1.   GPU Information Query and GPU Monitoring

While measuring performance, it is recommended that you record and monitor the GPU status in parallel to the inference workload. Having the monitoring data allows you to identify possible root causes when you see unexpected performance measurements results.

Before the inference starts, call the `nvidia-smi -q` command to get the detailed information of the GPU, including the product name, power cap, clock settings, and so on. Then, while the inference workload is running, run the `nvidia-smi dmon -s pcu -f <FILE> -c <COUNT>` command in parallel to print out GPU clock frequencies, power consumption, temperature, and utilization to a file. Call `nvidia-smi dmon --help` for more options about the nvidia-smi device monitoring tool.

13.2.2.   GPU Clock Locking and Floating Clock

By default, the GPU clock frequency is floating, meaning that the clock frequency sits at the idle frequency when there is no active workload, and it boosts to the boost clock frequency when the workload starts. This is usually the desired behavior in general since it allows the GPU to generate less heat at idle and to run at maximum speed when there is active workload.

Alternatively, you can lock the clock at a specific frequency by calling the `sudo nvidia-smi -lgc <freq>` command (and conversely, you can let the clock float again with the `sudo nvidia-smi -rgc` command). The supported clock frequencies can be found by the `sudo nvidia-smi -q -d SUPPORTED_CLOCKS` command. After the clock frequency is locked, it should stay at that frequency unless power throttling or thermal throttling take place, which will be explained in next sections. When the throttling kicks in, the device behaves as if the clock were floating.

Running TensorRT workloads with floating clocks or with throttling taking place can lead to more non-determinism in tactic selections and unstable performance measurements across inferences because every CUDA kernel may run at slightly different clock frequencies, depending on which frequency the driver boosts or throttles the clock to at that moment. On the other hand, running TensorRT workloads with locked clocks allows more deterministic tactic selections and consistent performance measurements, but the average performance will not be as good as when the clock is floating or is locked at maximum frequency with throttling taking place.

There is no definite recommendation on whether the clock should be locked or which clock frequency to lock the GPU at while running TensorRT workloads. It depends on whether the deterministic and stable performance or the best average performance is desired.

13.2.3.   GPU Power Consumption and Power Throttling

Power throttling occurs when the average GPU power consumption reaches the power limit, which can be set by the `sudo nvidia-smi -pl <power_cap>` command. When this happens, the driver has to throttle the clock to a lower frequency to keep the average power consumption below the limit. The constantly changing clock frequencies may lead to unstable

performance measurements if the measurements are taken within a short period of time, such as within 20ms.

Power throttling happens by design and is a natural phenomenon when the GPU clock is not locked or is locked at a higher frequency, especially for the GPUs with lower power limits such as NVIDIA T4 and NVIDIA A2 GPUs. To avoid performance variations caused by power throttling, you can lock the GPU clock at a lower frequency so that the performance numbers become more stable. However, the average performance numbers will be lower than the performance numbers with floating clocks or with the clock locked at a higher frequency even though power throttling would happen in this case.

Another issue with power throttling is that it may skew the performance numbers if there are gaps between inferences in your performance benchmarking applications. For example, if the application synchronizes at each inference, there will be periods of time when the GPU is idle between the inferences. The gaps cause the GPU to consume less power on average such that the clock is throttled less and the GPU can run at higher clock frequencies on average. However, the throughput numbers measured in this way are not accurate because when the GPU is fully loaded with no gaps between inference, the actual clock frequency will be lower and the actual throughput will not reach the throughput numbers measured using the benchmarking application.

To avoid this, the `trtexec` tool is designed to maximize GPU execution by leaving nearly no gaps between GPU kernel executions so that it can measure the true throughput of a TensorRT workload. Therefore, if you see performance gaps between your benchmarking application and what trtexec reports, check if the power throttling and the gaps between inferences are the cause.

13.2.4. GPU Temperature and Thermal Throttling

Thermal throttling happens when the GPU temperature reaches a predefined threshold, which is around 85 degrees Celsius for most GPUs, and the driver has to throttle the clock to a lower frequency to prevent the GPU from overheating. You can tell this by seeing the temperature logged by the `nvidia-smi dmon` command gradually increasing while the inference workload is running, until it reaches ~85C and the clock frequency starts to drop.

If thermal throttling happens on actively cooled GPUs like Quadro A8000, then it is possible that the fans on the GPU are broken, or there are obstacles blocking the airflow.

If thermal throttling happens on passively cooled GPUs like NVIDIA A10, then it is likely that the GPUs are not properly cooled. Passively cooled GPUs require external fans or air conditioning to cool down the GPUs, and the airflow must go through the GPUs for effective cooling. Common cooling problems include installing GPUs in a server that is not designed for the GPUs or installing wrong numbers of GPUs into the server. In some cases, the air flows through the "easy path" (that is, the path with the least friction) around the GPUs instead of going through them. Fixing this requires examination of the airflow in the server and installation of airflow guidance if necessary.

Note that higher GPU temperature also leads to more leakage current in the circuits, which increases the power consumed by the GPU at a specific clock frequency. Therefore, for GPUs that are more likely to be power throttled like NVIDIA T4, poor cooling can lead to lower stabilized clock frequency with power throttling, and thus worse performance, even if the GPU clocks have not been thermally throttled yet.

On the other hand, ambient temperature, that is, the temperature of the environment around the server, does not usually affect GPU performance so long as the GPUs are properly cooled, except for GPUs with lower power limit whose performance may be slightly affected.

13.2.5. H2D/D2H Data Transfers and PCIe Bandwidth

On dGPU systems, often the input data must be copied from the host memory to the device memory (H2D) before an inference starts, and the output data must be copied back from device memory to host memory (D2H) after the inference. These H2D/D2H data transfers go through PCIe buses, and they can sometimes influence the inference performance or even become the performance bottleneck. The H2D/D2H copies can also be seen in the Nsight Systems profiles, appearing as `cudaMemcpy()` or `cudaMemcpyAsync()` CUDA API calls.

To achieve maximum throughput, the H2D/D2H data transfers should run in parallel to the GPU executions of other inferences so that the GPU does not sit idle when the H2D/D2H copies take place. This can be done by running multiple inferences in different streams in parallel, or by launching H2D/D2H copies in a different stream than the stream used for GPU executions and using CUDA events to synchronize between the streams. The trtexec tool shows as an example for the latter implementation.

When the H2D/D2H copies run in parallel to GPU executions, they can interfere with the GPU executions especially if the host memory is pageable, which is the default case. Therefore, it is recommended that you allocate pinned host memory for the input and output data using `cudaHostAlloc()` or `cudaMallocHost()` CUDA APIs.

To check whether the PCIe bandwidth becomes the performance bottleneck, you can check the Nsight Systems profiles and see if the H2D or D2H copies of an inference query have longer latencies than the GPU execution part. If PCIe bandwidth becomes the performance bottleneck, here are a few possible solutions.

First, check whether the PCIe bus configuration of the GPU is correct in terms of which generation (for example, Gen3 or Gen4) and how many lanes (for example, x8 or x16) are used. Next, try reducing the amount of data that must be transferred using the PCIe bus. For example, if the input images have high resolutions and the H2D copies become the bottleneck, then you can consider transmitting JPEG-compressed images over the PCIe bus and decode the image on the GPUs before the inference workflow, instead of transmitting raw pixels. Finally, you can consider using NVIDIA GPUDirect technology to load data directly from/to the network or the filesystems without going through the host memory.

In addition, if your system has AMD x86_64 CPUs, check the NUMA (Non-Uniform Memory Access) configurations of the machine with `numactl --hardware` command. The PCIe bandwidth between a host memory and a device memory located on two different NUMA nodes is much more limited than the bandwidth between the host/device memory located on the same NUMA node. Allocate the host memory on the NUMA node on which the GPU that the data will be copied to resides. Also, pin the CPU threads that will trigger the H2D/D2H copies on that specific NUMA node.

Note that on mobile platforms, the host, and the device share the same memory, so the H2D/D2H data transfers are not required if the host memory is allocated using CUDA APIs and is pinned instead of being pageable.

By default, the `trtexec` tool measures the latencies of the H2D/D2H data transfers that tell the user if the TensorRT workload may be bottlenecked by the H2D/D2H copies. However,

if the H2D/D2H copies affect the stability of the GPU Compute Time, you can add the `--noDataTransfers` flag to disable H2D/D2H transfers to measure only the latencies of the GPU execution part.

13.2.6. TCC Mode and WDDM Mode

On Windows machines, there are two driver modes: you can configure the GPU to be in the TCC mode and the WDDM mode. The mode can be specified by calling the `sudo nvidia-smi -dm [0|1]` command, but a GPU connected to a display shall not be configured into TCC mode Refer to the TCC mode documentation for more information and limitations about TCC mode.

In TCC mode, the GPU is configured to focus on computation work and the graphics support like OpenGL or monitor display are disabled. This is the recommended mode for GPUs that run TensorRT inference workloads. On the other hand, the WDDM mode tends to cause GPUs to have worse and unstable performance results when running inference workloads using TensorRT.

This is not applicable to Linux-based OS.

13.2.7. Enqueue-Bound Workloads and CUDA Graphs

The `enqueue()` function of `IExecutionContext` is asynchronous, that is, it returns immediately after all the CUDA kernels are launched without waiting for the completion of CUDA kernel executions. However, in some cases, the `enqueue()` time can take longer than the actual GPU executions, causing the latency of `enqueue()` calls to become the performance bottleneck. We say that this type of workload is "enqueue-bound." There are two reasons that may cause a workload to be enqueue-bound.

First, if the workload is very tiny in terms of the amount of computations, such as containing convolutions with small I/O sizes, matrix multiplications with small GEMM sizes, or mostly element-wise operations throughout the network, then the workload tends to be enqueue-bound. This is because most CUDA kernels take the CPU and the driver around 5-15 microseconds to launch per kernel, so if each CUDA kernel execution time is only several microseconds long on average, the kernel launching time becomes the main performance bottleneck.

To solve this, try to increase the amount of the computation per CUDA kernel, such as by increasing the batch size. Or you can use CUDA Graphs to capture the kernel launches into a graph and launch the graph instead of calling `enqueue()`.

Second, if the workload contains operations that require device synchronizations, such as loops or if-else conditions, then the workload is naturally enqueue-bound. In this case, increasing the batch size may help improve the throughput without increasing the latency much.

In `trtexec`, you can tell that a workload is enqueue-bound if the reported `Enqueue Time` is close to or longer than the reported `GPU Compute Time`. In this case, it is recommended that you add the `--useCudaGraph` flag to enable CUDA graphs in `trtexec`, which will reduce the `Enqueue Time` as long as the workload does not contain any synchronization operations.

13.2.8. **BlockingSync** and **SpinWait** Synchronization Modes

If the performance is measured with `cudaStreamSynchronize()` or `cudaEventSynchronize()`, the variations in synchronization overhead may lead to variations in performance measurements. This section describes the cause of the variations and how to avoid them.

When `cudaStreamSynchronize()` is called, there are two ways in which the driver waits until the completion of the stream. If the `cudaDeviceScheduleBlockingSync` flag has been set with `cudaSetDeviceFlags()` calls, then the `cudaStreamSynchornize()` uses the blocking-sync mechanism. Otherwise, it uses the spin-wait mechanism.

The similar idea applies to CUDA events. If a CUDA event is created with the `cudaEventDefault` flag, then the `cudaEventSynchronize()` call uses the spin-wait mechanism; and if a CUDA event is created with the `cudaEventBlockingSync` flag, then the `cudaEventSynchronize()` call will use the blocking-sync mechanism.

When the blocking-sync mode is used, the host thread yields to another thread until the device work is done. This allows the CPUs to sit idle to save power or to be used by other CPU workloads when the device is still executing. However, the blocking-sync mode tends to result in relatively unstable overheads in stream/event synchronizations in some OS, which in terms lead to variations in latency measurements.

On the other hand, when the spin-wait mode is used, the host thread is constantly polling until the device work is done. Using spin-wait makes the latency measurements more stable due to shorter and more stable overhead in stream/event synchronizations, but it consumes some CPU computation resources and leads to more power consumption by the CPUs.

Therefore, if you want to reduce CPU power consumption, or if you do not want the stream/event synchronizations to consume CPU resources (for example, you are running other heavy CPU workloads in parallel), use the blocking-sync mode. If you care more about stable performance measurements, use the spin-wait mode.

In `trtexec`, the default synchronization mechanism is blocking-sync mode. Add the `--useSpinWait` flag to enable synchronizations using the spin-wait mode for more stable latency measurements, at the cost of more CPU utilizations and power consumptions.

13.3. Optimizing TensorRT Performance

The following sections focus on the general inference flow on GPUs and some of the general strategies to improve performance. These ideas are applicable to most CUDA programmers but may not be as obvious to developers coming from other backgrounds.

13.3.1. Batching

The most important optimization is to compute as many results in parallel as possible using batching. In TensorRT, a *batch* is a collection of inputs that can all be processed uniformly.

Each instance in the batch has the same shape and flows through the network in exactly the same way. Each instance can, therefore, be trivially computed in parallel.

Each layer of the network will have some amount of overhead and synchronization required to compute forward inference. By computing more results in parallel, this overhead is paid off more efficiently. In addition, many layers are performance-limited by the smallest dimension in the input. If the batch size is one or small, this size can often be the performance-limiting dimension. For example, the FullyConnected layer with `V` inputs and `K` outputs can be implemented for one batch instance as a matrix multiply of an `1xV` matrix with a `VxK` weight matrix. If `N` instances are batched, this becomes an `NxV` multiplied by the `VxK` matrix. The vector-matrix multiplier becomes a matrix-matrix multiplier, which is much more efficient.

Larger batch sizes are almost always more efficient on the GPU. Extremely large batches, such as `N > 2^16`, can sometimes require extended index computation and so should be avoided if possible. But generally, increasing the batch size improves total throughput. In addition, when the network contains MatrixMultiply layers or FullyConnected layers, batch sizes of multiples of 32 tend to have the best performance for FP16 and INT8 inference because of the utilization of Tensor Cores, if the hardware supports them.

Sometimes batching inference work is not possible due to the organization of the application. In some common applications, such as a server that does inference per request, it can be possible to implement opportunistic batching. For each incoming request, wait for a time `T`. If other requests come in during that time, batch them together. Otherwise, continue with a single instance inference. This type of strategy adds fixed latency to each request but can improve the maximum throughput of the system by orders of magnitude.

Using batching

If the explicit batch mode is used when the network is created, then the batch dimension is part of the tensor dimensions, and you can specify the range of the batch sizes and the batch size to optimize the engine for by adding optimization profiles. Refer to the Working with Dynamic Shapes section for more details.

If the implicit batch mode is used when the network is created, the `IExecutionContext::execute` (`IExecutionContext.execute` in Python) and `IExecutionContext::enqueue` (`IExecutionContext.execute_async` in Python) methods take a batch size parameter. The maximum batch size should also be set for the builder when building the optimized network with `IBuilder::setMaxBatchSize` (`Builder.max_batch_size` in Python). When calling `IExecutionContext::execute` or `enqueue`, the bindings passed as the `bindings` parameter are organized per tensor and not per instance. In other words, the data for one input instance is not grouped together into one contiguous region of memory. Instead, each tensor binding is an array of instance data for that tensor.

Another consideration is that building the optimized network optimizes for the given maximum batch size. The final result will be tuned for the maximum batch size but will still work correctly for any smaller batch size. It is possible to run multiple build operations to create multiple optimized engines for different batch sizes, then choose which engine to use based on the actual batch size at runtime.

13.3.2. Streaming

In general, CUDA programming streams are a way of organizing asynchronous work. Asynchronous commands put into a stream are guaranteed to run in sequence but may execute out of order with respect to other streams. In particular, asynchronous commands in two streams may be scheduled to run concurrently (subject to hardware limitations).

In the context of TensorRT and inference, each layer of the optimized final network will require work on the GPU. However, not all layers will be able to fully use the computation capabilities of the hardware. Scheduling requests in separate streams allows work to be scheduled immediately as the hardware becomes available without unnecessary synchronization. Even if only some layers can be overlapped, overall performance will improve.

Using streaming

1. Identify the batches of inferences that are independent.
2. Create a single engine for the network.
3. Create a CUDA stream using `cudaStreamCreate` for each independent batch and an `IExecutionContext` for each independent batch.
4. Launch inference work by requesting asynchronous results using `IExecutionContext::enqueue` from the appropriate `IExecutionContext` and passing in the appropriate stream.
5. After all the work has been launched, synchronize with all the streams to wait for results. The execution contexts and streams can be reused for later batches of independent work.

Multiple streams

Running multiple concurrent streams often leads to situations where several streams share compute resources at the same time. This means that the network may have less compute resources available during inference than when the TensorRT engine was being optimized. This difference in resource availability can cause TensorRT to choose a kernel that is suboptimal for the actual runtime conditions. In order to mitigate this effect, you can limit the amount of available compute resources during engine creation to more closely resemble actual runtime conditions. This approach generally promotes throughput at the expense of latency. For more information, refer to Limiting Compute Resources.

It is also possible to use multiple host threads with streams. A common pattern is incoming requests dispatched to a pool of waiting for worker threads. In this case, the pool of worker threads will each have one execution context and CUDA stream. Each thread will request work in its own stream as the work becomes available. Each thread will synchronize with its stream to wait for results without blocking other worker threads.

13.3.3. CUDA Graphs

CUDA graphs are a way to represent a sequence (or more generally a graph) of kernels in a way that allows their scheduling to be optimized by CUDA. This can be particularly useful when your application performance is sensitive to the CPU time taken to enqueue the kernels.

TensorRT's `enqueuev2()` method supports CUDA graph capture for models that require no CPU interaction mid-pipeline. For example:

C++

```
// Call enqueueV2() once after an input shape change to update internal state.
context->enqueueV2(buffers, stream, nullptr);

// Capture a CUDA graph instance
cudaGraph_t graph;
cudaGraphExec_t instance;
cudaStreamBeginCapture(stream, cudaStreamCaptureModeGlobal);
context->enqueueV2(buffers, stream, nullptr);
cudaStreamEndCapture(stream, &graph);
cudaGraphInstantiate(&instance, graph, NULL, NULL, 0);

// To run inferences:
cudaGraphLaunch(instance, stream);
cudaStreamSynchronize(stream);
```

Models for which graphs are not supported include those with loops or conditionals. In this case, `cudaStreamEndCapture()` will return `cudaErrorStreamCapture*` errors, indicating that the graph capturing has failed, but the context can continue to be used for normal inference without CUDA graphs.

When capturing a graph, it is important to account for the two-phase execution strategy used in the presence of dynamic shapes.

1. Update internal state of the model to account for any changes in input size.
2. Stream work to the GPU

For models where input size is fixed at build time, the first phase requires no per-invocation work. Otherwise, if the input sizes have changed since the last invocation, some work may be required to update derived properties.

The first phase of work is not designed to be captured, and even if the capture is successful may increase model execution time. Therefore, after changing the shapes of inputs or the values of shape tensors, call `enqueueV2()` once to flush deferred updates before capturing the graph.

Graphs captured with TensorRT are specific to the input size for which they were captured, and also to the state of the execution context. Modifying the context from which the graph was captured will result in undefined behavior when executing the graph - in particular, if the application is providing its own memory for activations using `createExecutionContextWithoutDeviceMemory()`, the memory address is also captured as part of the graph. Binding locations are also captured as part of the graph.

`trtexec` allows you to check whether the built TensorRT engine is compatible with CUDA graph capture. Refer to the trtexec section for more information.

13.3.4. Enabling Fusion

13.3.4.1. Layer Fusion

TensorRT attempts to perform many different types of optimizations in a network during the build phase. In the first phase, layers are fused together whenever possible. Fusions transform the network into a simpler form but preserve the same overall behavior. Internally, many layer implementations have extra parameters and options that are not directly accessible when creating the network. Instead, the fusion optimization step detects supported patterns of operations and fuses multiple layers into one layer with internal options set.

Consider the common case of a convolution followed by ReLU activation. To create a network with these operations, it involves adding a Convolution layer with `addConvolution`, following it with an Activation layer using `addActivation` with an `ActivationType` of `kRELU`. The unoptimized graph will contain separate layers for convolution and activation. The internal implementation of convolution supports computing the ReLU function on the output in one step directly from the convolution kernel without requiring a second kernel call. The fusion optimization step will detect the convolution followed by ReLU. Verify that the operations are supported by the implementation, then fuse them into one layer.

To investigate which fusions have happened, or have not happened, the builder logs its operations to the logger object provided during construction. Optimization steps are at the `kINFO` log level. To see these messages, ensure you log them in the `ILogger` callback.

Fusions are normally handled by creating a new layer with a name containing the names of both of the layers, which were fused. For example, in MNIST, a FullyConnected layer (InnerProduct) named `ip1` is fused with a ReLU Activation layer named `relu1` to create a new layer named `ip1 + relu1`.

13.3.4.2. Types of Fusions

The following list describes the types of supported fusions.

Supported Layer Fusions

ReLU Activation

An Activation layer performing ReLU followed by an activation performing ReLU will be replaced by a single activation layer.

Convolution and ReLU Activation

The Convolution layer can be of any type and there are no restrictions on values. The Activation layer must be ReLU type.

Convolution and GELU Activation

The precision of input and output should be the same; with both of them FP16 or INT8. The Activation layer must be GELU type. TensorRT should be running on an NVIDIA Turing or later device with CUDA version 10.0 or later.

Convolution and Clip Activation

The Convolution layer can be any type and there are no restrictions on values. The Activation layer must be Clip type.

Scale and Activation

The Scale layer followed by an Activation layer can be fused into a single Activation layer.

Convolution and ElementWise Operation

A Convolution layer followed by a simple sum, min, or max in an ElementWise layer can be fused into the Convolution layer. The sum must not use broadcasting, unless the broadcasting is across the batch size.

Padding and Convolution/Deconvolution

Padding followed by a Convolution or Deconvolution can be fused into a single Convolution/Deconvolution layer if all the padding sizes are non-negative.

Shuffle and Reduce

A Shuffle layer without reshape, followed by a Reduce layer can be fused into a single Reduce layer. The Shuffle layer can perform permutations but cannot perform any reshape operation. The Reduce layer must have a `keepDimensions` set of dimensions.

Shuffle and Shuffle

Each Shuffle layer consists of a transpose, a reshape, and a second transpose. A Shuffle layer followed by another Shuffle layer can be replaced by a single Shuffle (or nothing). If both Shuffle layers perform reshape operations, this fusion is only allowed if the second transpose of the first shuffle is the inverse of the first transpose of the second shuffle.

Scale

A Scale layer that adds `0`, multiplied by `1`, or computes powers to the `1` can be erased.

Convolution and Scale

A Convolution layer followed by a Scale layer that is `kUNIFORM` or `kCHANNEL` can be fused into a single convolution by adjusting the convolution weights. This fusion is disabled if the scale has a non-constant `power` parameter.

Convolution and Generic Activation

This fusion happens after the pointwise fusion mentioned below. A pointwise with one input and one output can be called as a generic activation layer. A convolution layer followed by a generic activation layer can be fused into a single convolution layer.

Reduce

A Reduce layer that performs average pooling will be replaced by a Pooling layer. The Reduce layer must have a `keepDimensions` set, reduced across `H` and `W` dimensions from `CHW` input format before batching, using the `kAVG` operation.

Convolution and Pooling

The Convolution and Pooling layers must have the same precision. The Convolution layer may already have a fused activation operation from a previous fusion.

Depthwise Separable Convolution

A depthwise convolution with activation followed by a convolution with activation may sometimes be fused into a single optimized DepSepConvolution layer. The precision of both convolutions must be INT8 and the device's computes capability must be 7.2 or later.

SoftMax and Log

It can be fused into a single SoftMax layer if the SoftMax has not already been fused with a previous log operation.

SoftMax and TopK

Can be fused into a single layer. The SoftMax may or may not include a Log operation.

FullyConnected

The FullyConnected layer will be converted into the Convolution layer. All fusions for convolution will take effect.

Supported Reduction Operation Fusions

GELU

A group of Unary layer and ElementWise layer that represents the following equations can be fused into a single GELU reduction operation.

$$0.5x \times \left(1 + \tanh\left(2 \middle/ \pi\left(x + 0.044715x^3\right)\right)\right)$$

Or the alternative representation:

$$0.5x \times \left(1 + \operatorname{erf}\left(x \middle/ \sqrt{2}\right)\right)$$

L1Norm

A Unary layer `kABS` operation followed by a Reduce layer `kSUM` operation can be fused into a single L1Norm reduction operation.

Sum of Squares

A product ElementWise layer with the same input (square operation) followed by a `kSUM` reduction can be fused into a single square Sum reduction operation.

L2Norm

A sum of squares operation followed by a `kSQRT` UnaryOperation can be fused into a single L2Norm reduction operation.

LogSum

A Reduce layer `kSUM` followed by a `kLOG` UnaryOperation can be fused into a single LogSum reduction operation.

LogSumExp

A Unary `kEXP` ElementWise operation followed by a LogSum fusion can be fused into a single LogSumExp reduction.

13.3.4.3. PointWise Fusion

Multiple adjacent PointWise layers can be fused into a single PointWise layer, to improve performance.

The following types of PointWise layers are supported, with some limitations:

`Activation`

Every `ActivationType` is supported.

`Constant`

Only constant with a single value (size == 1).

`ElementWise`

Every `ElementWiseOperation` is supported.

`PointWise`

`PointWise` itself is also a PointWise layer.

`Scale`

Only support `ScaleMode::kUNIFORM`.

Unary

Every `UnaryOperation` is supported.

The size of the fused PointWise layer is not unlimited, therefore, some PointWise layers may not be fused.

Fusion creates a new layer with a name consisting of both of the layers, which were fused. For example, an ElementWise layer named `add1` is fused with a ReLU Activation layer named `relu1` with a new layer name: `fusedPointwiseNode(add1, relu1)`.

13.3.4.4. Q/DQ Fusion

Quantized INT8 graphs generated from QAT tools like [NVIDIA's Quantization Toolkit for PyTorch](#) consists of `onnx::QuantizeLinear` and `onnx::DequantizeLinear` pair of nodes (Q/DQ) with scales and zero-points. Starting in TensorRT 7.0, it is required that `zero_point` is `0`.

Q/DQ nodes help convert from FP32 values to INT8 and vice versa. Such a graph would still have weights and bias in FP32 precision.

Weights are followed by a Q/DQ node pair so that they can be quantized/dequantized if required. Bias quantization is performed using scales from activations and weights, thus no extra Q/DQ node pair is required for bias input. Assumption for bias quantization is that $S\_weights * S\_input = S\_bias$.

Fusions related to Q/DQ nodes include quantizing/dequantizing weights, commutating Q/DQ nodes without changing the mathematical equivalence of the model, and erasing redundant Q/DQ nodes. After applying Q/DQ fusions, the rest of the builder optimizations would be applied to the graph.

Fuse Q/DQ with weighted node (Conv, FC, Deconv)

If we have a

```
[DequantizeLinear (Activations), DequantizeLinear (weights)] > Node >
        QuantizeLinear
```
(`[DQ, DQ] > Node > Q`) sequence, then it is fused to the quantized node (`QNode`).

Supporting Q/DQ node pairs for `weights` requires weighted nodes to support more than one input. Thus we support adding a second input (for weights tensor) and third input (for bias tensor). Additional inputs can be set using `setInput(index, tensor)` API for Convolution, Deconvolution, and FullyConnected layers where index = 2 for weights tensor and index = 3 for bias tensor.

During fusion with weighted nodes, we would quantize FP32 weights to INT8 and fuse it with the corresponding weighted node. Similarly, FP32 bias would be quantized to INT32 and fused.

Fuse Q/DQ with non-weighted node

If we have a `DequantizeLinear > Node > QuantizeLinear` (`DQ > Node > Q`) sequence, then it is fused to the quantized node (`QNode`).

Commutate Q/DQ nodes

`DequantizeLinear` commutation is allowed when $\Phi\big(DQ(x)\big) == DQ\big(\Phi(x)\big)$.

`QuantizeLinear` commutation is allowed when $Q\big(\Phi(x)\big) == \Phi\big(Q(x)\big)$.

Also, commutation logic also accounts for available kernel implementations such that mathematical equivalence is guaranteed.

Insert missing Q/DQ nodes

If a node has a missing Q/DQ nodes pair, and $\max\big(\text{abs}\big(\Phi(x)\big)\big) == \max\big(\text{abs}(x)\big)$ (for example, MaxPool), missing Q/DQ pairs would be inserted to run more node with INT8 precision.

Erase redundant Q/DQ nodes

It is possible that after applying all the optimizations, the graph still has Q/DQ node pairs that are in itself a no-op. Q/DQ node erasure fusion would remove such redundant pairs.

13.3.5.   Limiting Compute Resources

Limiting the number of compute resources available to TensorRT during engine creation is beneficial when the reduced amount better represents the expected conditions during runtime. For example, when the GPU is expected to be performing additional work in parallel to the TensorRT engine or when the engine is expected to be run on a different GPU with less resources (note that the recommended approach is to build the engine on the GPU that will be used for inference, but this may not always be feasible).

You can limit the number of available compute resources with the following steps:

1. Start the CUDA MPS control daemon.

    ```
    nvidia-cuda-mps-control -d
    ```

2. Set the number of compute resources to use with the `CUDA_MPS_ACTIVE_THREAD_PERCENTAGE` environment variable. For example, `export CUDA_MPS_ACTIVE_THREAD_PERCENTAGE=50`.

3. Build the network engine.

4. Stop the CUDA MPS control daemon.

    ```
    echo quit | nvidia-cuda-mps-control
    ```

The resulting engine is optimized to the reduced number of compute cores (50% in this example) and provides better throughput when using similar conditions during inference. You are encouraged to experiment with different amounts of streams and different MPS values to determine the best performance for your network.

For more details about `nvidia-cuda-mps-control`, refer to the nvidia-cuda-mps-control documentation and the relevant GPU requirements here.

13.3.6.   Deterministic Tactic Selection

In the engine building phase, TensorRT runs through all the possible tactics and selects the fastest ones. Since the selection is based on the latency measurements of the tactics, TensorRT may end up selecting different tactics across different runs if some tactics have very similar latencies. Therefore, different engines built from the same `INetworkDefinition` may behave slightly differently in terms of output values and performance. You can inspect the selected tactics of an engine by using the Engine Inspector or by turning on verbose logging while building the engine.

If deterministic tactic selection is desired, the following lists a few suggestions that may help improve the determinism of tactic selection.

Locking GPU Clock Frequency

By default, the clock frequency of the GPU is not locked, meaning that the GPU normally sits at the idle clock frequency and only boosts to the max clock frequency when there are active GPU workloads. However, there is a latency for the clock to be boosted from the idle frequency and that may cause performance variations while TensorRT is running through the tactics and selecting the best ones, resulting in non-deterministic tactic selections.

Therefore, locking the GPU clock frequency before starting to build a TensorRT engine may improve the determinism of tactic selection. You can lock the GPU clock frequency by calling the `sudo nvidia-smi -lgc <freq>` command, where `<freq>` is the desired frequency to lock at. You can call `nvidia-smi -q -d SUPPORTED_CLOCKS` to find the supported clock frequencies by the GPU.

Therefore, locking the GPU clock frequency before starting to build a TensorRT engine may improve the determinism of tactic selection. Refer to the Hardware/Software Environment for Performance Measurements section for more information about how to lock and monitor the GPU clock and the factors that may affect GPU clock frequencies.

Increasing Average Timing Iterations

By default, TensorRT runs each tactic for at least four iterations and takes the average latency. You can increase the number of iterations by calling the `setAvgTimingIterations()` API:

C++

```
builderConfig->setAvgTimingIterations(8);
```

Python

```
Builder_config.avg_timing_iterations = 8
```

Increasing the number of average timing iterations may improve the determinism of tactic selections, but the required engine building time will become longer.

Using TimingCache

The The Timing Cache records the latencies of each tactic for a specific layer configuration. The tactic latencies are reused if TensorRT encounters another layer with an identical configuration. Therefore, by reusing the same timing cache across multiple engine buildings runs with the same `INetworkDefinition` and builder config, you can make TensorRT select an identical set of tactics in the resulting engines.

Refer to The Timing Cache section for more information.

13.3.7.   Transformers Performance

There are several ways that you can run inference on NVIDIA GPUs with Transformer-based networks, including running native TensorRT (for example, using ONNX), running TensorRT OSS demoBERT sample with plug-ins, and running FasterTransformer. Each approach has its own benefit and suits different use cases.

Using native TensorRT gives you maximum flexibility to fine-tune the structure or the parameters of the network without changing code, while demoBERT and FasterTransformer focus on specific networks and may require manual updates in the config files or even the code for network changes. Also, using native TensorRT allows you to use Triton Inference Server to deploy the inference service seamlessly.

TensorRT accelerates transformer-based models (such as BERT, GPT, T5, and so on) using advanced graph compilation techniques that fuse operations within self-attention blocks and layer normalization blocks using aggressive pointwise fusions such as reduction fusion with power operations, scale fusion with SoftMax, and GEMM fusion with ReLU and GELU activations. Also, TensorRT optimizes the graph such that transpose ops are eliminated and all the GEMMs for Key, Value, and Query are fused into a single large GEMM.

As of TensorRT 8.4, only explicit quantization mode is accelerated by TensorRT for transformer-based models. In the case of implicit quantization models, TensorRT prefers using FP16 (if FP16 flag is enabled in `BuilderFlag`) or FP32 precision for the relevant compute intensive transformer layers. The only exception is on NVIDIA T4 GPUs where TensorRT prefers to keep GEMMs with INT8 precision when implicit quantization mode is enabled for transformers.

However, demoBERT and FasterTransformer have more aggressive performance optimizations that have not been added to TensorRT yet. For example, demoBERT and FasterTransformer support a variable sequence length feature that runs inference on concatenated input sequences to avoid wasted computation for the padded part, but this requires pre-processing in the application to concatenate the input sequences when preparing the input data. Also, FasterTransformer provides CUDA kernels for greedy search and beam search algorithms, and it also has the multi-GPU/multi-node support, while TensorRT does not yet have these.

If your Transformer model is not based on any of the common architectures, or if you have tweaked the network structure or parameters, you should consider running the network using TensorRT APIs directly. On the other hand, if you would like to achieve maximum possible performance and are willing to spend more engineering effort in deploying the model, then you can consider using demoBERT or FasterTransformer.

Table 4.   Differences Between Three Performance Approaches

	TensorRT with the ONNX Parser	TensorRT OSSdemoBERT sample	FasterTransformer
Model support	Most ONNX models	Only BERT	Only selected models
Usability with tweaked network structure or parameters	Simple, load from ONNX directly	No	Need manual updates to the code and the config files.
Uses TensorRT	Yes	Yes, with plug-ins	No
Supports full MHA fusion	No (will be improved in a future TensorRT version).	Yes	Yes

	TensorRT with the ONNX Parser	TensorRT OSSdemoBERT sample	FasterTransformer
Supports GEMM+GELU fusion	Yes	Yes	No
Support variable sequence length without padding	No	Yes	Yes
Support KV-cache for autoregressive transformers	No (will be improved in a future TensorRT version).	Not Applicable for BERT	Yes
Supports greedy/ beam search for autoregressive transformers	Usually done outside of TensorRT, such as using HuggingFace APIs	Not Applicable for BERT	Yes, natively
Supports multi-GPU/ multi-node inference	No	No	Yes
Supports INT8	Yes, but only explicit quantization mode (implicit quantization mode is functional but the performance is not guaranteed).	Yes	Yes, but only for some selected models

13.3.8. Overhead of Shape Change and Optimization Profile Switching

After the `IExecutionContext` switches to a new optimization profile, or the shapes of the input bindings change, TensorRT must recompute the tensor shapes throughout the network and recompute the resources needed by some tactics for the new shapes before the next inference can start. That means, the first `enqueue()` call after a shape/profile change may be longer than the subsequent `enqueue()` calls.

Optimizing the cost of shape/profile switching is an active area of development. However, there are still a few cases where the overhead can influence the performance of the inference applications. For example, some convolution tactics for NVIDIA Volta GPUs or older GPUs have much longer shape/profile switching overhead, even if their inference performance is the best among all the available tactics. In this case, disabling `kEDGE_MASK_CONVOLUTIONS` tactics from tactic sources when building the engine may help reduce the overhead of shape/profile switching.

13.4. Optimizing Layer Performance

The following descriptions detail how you can optimize the listed layers.

Concatenation Layer

> If using an implicit batch dimension, the main consideration with the Concatenation layer is that if multiple outputs are concatenated together, they cannot be broadcasted across the

batch dimension and must be explicitly copied. Most layers support broadcasting across the batch dimension to avoid copying data unnecessarily, but this will be disabled if the output is concatenated with other tensors.

Gather Layer

To get the maximum performance out of a Gather layer, use an `axis` of `0`. There are no fusions available for a Gather layer.

Reduce Layer

To get the maximum performance out of a Reduce layer, perform the reduction across the last dimensions (tail reduce). This allows optimal memory to read/write patterns through sequential memory locations. If doing common reduction operations, express the reduction in a way that will be fused to a single operation if possible.

RNN Layer

If possible, opt to use the newer RNNv2 interface in preference to the legacy RNN interface. The newer interface supports variable sequence lengths and variable batch sizes, as well as having a more consistent interface. To get maximum performance, larger batch sizes are better. In general, sizes that are multiples of 64 achieve highest performance. Bidirectional RNN-mode prevents wavefront propagation because of the added dependency, therefore, it tends to be slower.

In addition, the newly introduced Loop-based API provides a much more flexible mechanism to use general layers within recurrence without being limited to a small set of predefined RNNv2 interface. The `ILoopLayer` recurrence enables a rich set of automatic loop optimizations, including loop fusion, unrolling, and loop-invariant code motion, to name a few. For example, significant performance gains are often obtained when multiple instances of the same MatrixMultiply or FullyConnected layer are properly combined to maximize machine utilization after loop unrolling along the sequence dimension. This works best if you can avoid a MatrixMultiply or FullyConnected layer with a recurrent data dependence along the sequence dimension.

Shuffle

Shuffle operations that are equivalent to identity operations on the underlying data are omitted if the input tensor is only used in the shuffle layer and the input and output tensors of this layer are not input and output tensors of the network. TensorRT does not execute additional kernels or memory copies for such operations.

TopK

To get the maximum performance out of a TopK layer, use small values of `K` reducing the last dimension of data to allow optimal sequential memory accesses. Reductions along multiple dimensions at once can be simulated by using a Shuffle layer to reshape the data, then reinterpreting the index values appropriately.

For more information about layers, refer to [TensorRT Layers](#).

13.5.   Optimizing for Tensor Cores

Tensor Core is a key technology to deliver high-performance inference on NVIDIA GPUs. In TensorRT, Tensor Core operations are supported by all compute-intensive layers - MatrixMultiply, FullyConnected, Convolution, and Deconvolution.

Tensor Core layers tend to achieve better performance if the I/O tensor dimensions are aligned to a certain minimum granularity:

▶ In Convolution and Deconvolution layers the alignment requirement is on I/O channel dimension.

▶ In MatrixMultiply and FullyConnected layers the alignment requirement is on matrix dimensions `K` and `N` in a MatrixMultiply that is `M x K` times `K x N`

The following table captures the suggested tensor dimension alignment for better Tensor Core performance.

Table 5.   Types of Tensor Cores

Tensor Core Operation Type	Suggested Tensor Dimension Alignment in Elements
TF32	4
FP16	8 for dense math, 16 for sparse math
INT8	32

When using Tensor Core implementations in cases where these requirements are not met, TensorRT implicitly pads the tensors to the nearest multiple of alignment rounding up the dimensions in the model definition instead to allow for extra capacity in the model without increasing computation or memory traffic.

TensorRT always uses the fastest implementation for a layer, and thus in some cases may not use a Tensor Core implementation even if available.

To check if Tensor Core is used for a layer, run Nsight Systems with the `--gpu-metrics-device all` flag while profiling the TensorRT application. The Tensor Core usage rate can be found in the profiling result in the Nsight Systems user interface under the **SM instructions/ Tensor Active** row. Refer to the [CUDA Profiling Tools](#) for more information about how to use Nsight Systems to profile TensorRT applications.

Note that it is not practical to expect a CUDA kernel to reach 100% Tensor Core usage since there are other overheads such as DRAM reads/writes, instruction stalls, other computation units, and so on. In general, the more computation-intensive an operation is, the higher the Tensor Core usage rate the CUDA kernel can achieve.

Figure 20.   Example of Nsight Systems profiling result showing Tensor Core activities on A100 GPU running ResNet-50 with FP16 enabled.
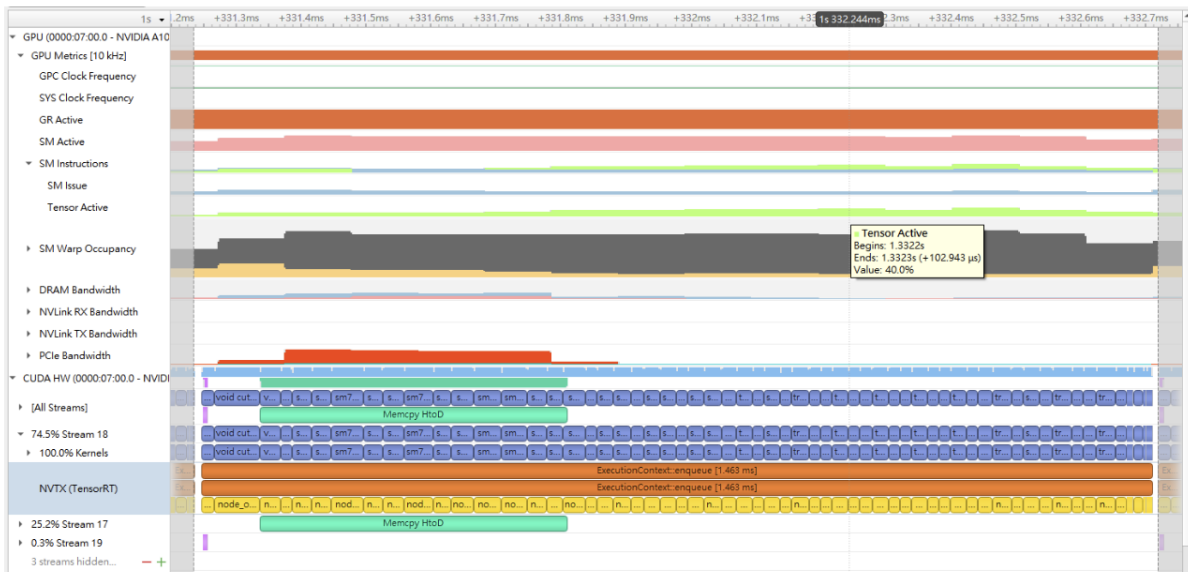
13.6.   Optimizing Plug-ins

TensorRT provides a mechanism for registering custom plug-ins that perform layer operations. After a plug-in creator is registered, you can look up the registry to find the creator and add the corresponding plug-in object to the network during serialization/deserialization.

All TensorRT plug-ins are automatically registered once the plug-in library is loaded. For more information about custom plug-ins, refer to Extending TensorRT with Custom Layers.

The performance of plug-ins depends on the CUDA code performing the plug-in operation. Standard CUDA best practices apply. When developing plug-ins, it can be helpful to start with simple standalone CUDA applications that perform the plug-in operation and verify correctness. The plug-in program can then be extended with performance measurements, more unit testing, and alternate implementations. After the code is working and optimized, it can be integrated as a plug-in into TensorRT.

To get the best performance possible, it is important to support as many formats as possible in the plug-in. This removes the need for internal reformat operations during the execution of the network. Refer to the Extending TensorRT with Custom Layers section for examples.

13.7.   Optimizing Python Performance

When using the Python API, most of the same performance considerations apply. When building engines, the builder optimization phase will normally be the performance bottleneck; not API calls to construct the network. Inference time should be nearly identical between the Python API and C++ API.

Setting up the input buffers in the Python API involves using `pycuda` or another CUDA Python library, like `cupy`, to transfer the data from the host to device memory. The details of how this works will depend on where the host data is coming from. Internally, `pycuda` supports the [Python Buffer Protocol](#) which allows efficient access to memory regions. This means that if the input data is available in a suitable format in `numpy` arrays or another type that also has support for the buffer protocol, this allows efficient access and transfer to the GPU. For even better performance, ensure that you allocate a page-locked buffer using `pycuda` and write your final preprocessed input there.

For more information about using the Python API, refer to [The Python API](#).

13.8.   Improving Model Accuracy

TensorRT can execute a layer in FP32, FP16, or INT8 precision depending on the builder configuration. By default, TensorRT chooses to run a layer in a precision that results in optimal performance. Sometimes this can result in poor accuracy. Generally, running a layer in higher precision helps improve accuracy with some performance hit.

There are several steps that we can take to improve model accuracy:

1. Validate layer outputs:

    a). Use [Polygraphy](#) to dump layer outputs and verify that there are no NaNs or Infs. The `--validate` option can check for NaNs and Infs. Also, we can compare layer outputs with golden values from, for example, ONNX runtime.

    b). For FP16, it is possible that a model might require retraining to ensure that intermediate layer output can be represented in FP16 precision without overflow/underflow.

    c). For INT8, consider recalibrating with a more representative calibration data set. If your model comes from PyTorch, we also provide [NVIDIA's Quantization Toolkit for PyTorch](#) for QAT in the framework besides PTQ in TensorRT. You can try both approaches and choose the one with more accuracy.

2. Manipulate layer precision:

    a). Sometimes running a layer in certain precision results in incorrect output. This can be due to inherent layer constraints (for example, LayerNorm output should not be INT8), model constraints (output gets diverged resulting in poor accuracy), or report a [TensorRT bug](#).

    b). You can control layer execution precision and output precision.

    c). An experimental [debug precision](#) tool can help automatically find layers to run in high precision.

3. Use an [Algorithm Selection and Reproducible Builds](#) to disable flaky tactics:

    a). When accuracy changes between build+run to build+run, it might be due to a selection of a bad tactic for a layer.

    b). Use an algorithm selector to dump tactics from both good and bad runs. Configure the algorithm selector to allow only a subset of tactics (that is, just allow tactics from a good run, and so on).

    c). You can use [Polygraphy](#) to [automate](#) this process.

Accuracy from run-to-run variation should not change; once the engine is built for a specific GPU, it should result in bit accurate outputs in multiple runs. If not, file a TensorRT bug.

Chapter 14. Troubleshooting

The following sections help answer the most commonly asked questions regarding typical use cases.

14.1. FAQs

This section is to help troubleshoot the problem and answer our most asked questions.

Q: How do I create an engine that is optimized for several different batch sizes?

A: While TensorRT allows an engine optimized for a given batch size to run at any smaller size, the performance for those smaller sizes cannot be as well optimized. To optimize for multiple different batch sizes, create optimization profiles at the dimensions that are assigned to `OptProfilerSelector::kOPT`.

Q: Are engines and calibration tables portable across TensorRT versions?

A: No. Internal implementations and formats are continually optimized and can change between versions. For this reason, engines and calibration tables are not guaranteed to be binary compatible with different versions of TensorRT. Applications must build new engines and INT8 calibration tables when using a new version of TensorRT.

Q: How do I choose the optimal workspace size?

A: Some TensorRT algorithms require additional workspace on the GPU. The method `IBuilderConfig::setMemoryPoolLimit()` controls the maximum amount of workspace that can be allocated and prevents algorithms that require more workspace from being considered by the builder. At runtime, the space is allocated automatically when creating an `IExecutionContext`. The amount allocated is no more than is required, even if the amount set in `IBuilderConfig::setMemoryPoolLimit()` is much higher. Applications should therefore allow the TensorRT builder as much workspace as they can afford; at runtime, TensorRT allocates no more than this and typically less.

Q: How do I use TensorRT on multiple GPUs?

A: Each `ICudaEngine` object is bound to a specific GPU when it is instantiated, either by the builder or on deserialization. To select the GPU, use `cudaSetDevice()` before calling the builder or deserializing the engine. Each `IExecutionContext` is bound to the same GPU as the engine from which it was created. When calling `execute()` or `enqueue()`, ensure that the thread is associated with the correct device by calling `cudaSetDevice()` if necessary.

Q: How do I get the version of TensorRT from the library file?

A: There is a symbol in the symbol table named `tensorrt_version_#_#_#_#` which contains the TensorRT version number. One possible way to read this symbol on Linux is to use the `nm` command like in the following example:

```
$ nm -D libnvinfer.so.* | grep tensorrt_version
00000000abcd1234 B tensorrt_version_#_#_#_#
```

Q: What can I do if my network is producing the wrong answer?

A: There are several reasons why your network can be generating incorrect answers. Here are some troubleshooting approaches that can help diagnose the problem:

- ▶ Turn on `VERBOSE` level messages from the log stream and check what TensorRT is reporting.
- ▶ Check that your input preprocessing is generating exactly the input format required by the network.
- ▶ If you are using reduced precision, run the network in FP32. If it produces the correct result, it is possible that lower precision has an insufficient dynamic range for the network.
- ▶ Try marking intermediate tensors in the network as outputs, and verify if they match what you are expecting.

> 💬 **Note:** Marking tensors as outputs can inhibit optimizations, and therefore, can change the results.

You can use [Polygraphy](#) to assist you with debugging and diagnosis.

Q: How do I implement batch normalization in TensorRT?

A: Batch normalization can be implemented using a sequence of `IElementWiseLayer` in TensorRT. More specifically:

```
adjustedScale = scale / sqrt(variance + epsilon)
batchNorm = (input + bias - (adjustedScale * mean)) * adjustedScale
```

Q: Why does my network run slower when using DLA compared to without DLA?

A: DLA was designed to maximize energy efficiency. Depending on the features supported by DLA and the features supported by the GPU, either implementation can be more performant. Which implementation to use depends on your latency or throughput requirements and your power budget. Since all DLA engines are independent of the GPU and each other, you could also use both implementations at the same time to further increase the throughput of your network.

Q: Is INT4 quantization or INT16 quantization supported by TensorRT?

A: Neither INT4 nor INT16 quantization is supported by TensorRT at this time.

Q: When will TensorRT support layer XYZ required by my network in the UFF parser?

A: UFF is deprecated. We recommend users switch their workflows to ONNX. The TensorRT ONNX parser is an open source project.

Q: Can I use multiple TensorRT builders to compile on different targets?

A: TensorRT assumes that all resources for the device it is building on are available for optimization purposes. Concurrent use of multiple TensorRT builders (for example, multiple `trtexec` instances) to compile on different targets (DLA0, DLA1 and GPU) can oversubscribe system resources causing undefined behavior (meaning, inefficient plans, builder failure, or system instability).

It is recommended to use `trtexec` with the `--saveEngine` argument to compile for different targets (DLA and GPU) separately and save their plan files. Such plan files can then be reused for loading (using `trtexec` with the `--loadEngine` argument) and submitting multiple inference jobs on the respective targets (DLA0, DLA1, GPU). This two-step process alleviates over-subscription of system resources during the build phase while also allowing execution of the plan file to proceed without interference by the builder.

Q: Which layers are accelerated by Tensor Cores?

A: Most math-bound operations will be accelerated with tensor cores - convolution, deconvolution, fully connected, and matrix multiply. In some cases, particularly for small channel counts or small group sizes, another implementation may be faster and be selected instead of a tensor core implementation.

Q: **Why are reformatting layers observed although there is no warning message `no implementation obeys reformatting-free rules ...`?**

A: Reformat-free network I/O does not mean that there are no reformatting layers inserted in the entire network. Only that the input and output network tensors have a possibility not to require reformatting layers. In other words, reformatting layers can be inserted by TensorRT for internal tensors to improve performance.

14.2. Understanding Error Messages

If an error is encountered during execution, TensorRT reports an error message that is intended to help in debugging the problem. Some common error messages that can be encountered by developers are discussed in the following sections.

UFF Parser Error Messages

The following table captures the common UFF parser error messages.

Error Message	Description
`The input to the Scale Layer is required to have a minimum of 3 dimensions.`	This error message can occur due to incorrect input dimensions. In UFF, input dimensions should always be specified with the implicit batch dimension *not* included in the specification.
`Invalid scale mode, nbWeights: <X>`	
`kernel weights has count <X> but <Y> was expected`	
`<NODE> Axis node has op <OP>, expected Const. The axis must be specified as a Const node.`	As indicated by the error message, the axis must be a build time constant in order for UFF to parse the node correctly.

ONNX Parser Error Messages

The following table captures the common ONNX parser error messages. For more information on specific ONNX node support, refer to the operators support document.

Error Message	Description
`<X> must be an initializer!`	These error messages signify that an ONNX node input tensor is expected to be an initializer in TensorRT. A possible fix is to run constant folding on the model using TensorRT's Polygraphy tool: `polygraphy surgeon sanitize model.onnx --fold-constants --output model_folded.onnx`
`!inputs.at(X).is_weights()`	
`getPluginCreator() could not find Plugin <operator name> version 1`	This is an error stating that the ONNX parser does not have an import function defined for a particular operator, and did not find a corresponding plug-in in the loaded registry for the operator.

TensorRT Core Library Error Messages

The following table captures the common TensorRT core library error messages.

	Error Message	Description
Installation Errors	`Cuda initialization failure with error <code>. Please check cuda installation:` http://docs.nvidia.com/cuda/cuda-installation-guide-linux/index.html.	This error message can occur if the CUDA or NVIDIA driver installation is corrupt. Refer to the URL for instructions on installing CUDA and the NVIDIA driver on your OS.
Builder Errors	`Internal error: could not find any implementation for node <name>. Try increasing the workspace size with IBuilderConfig::setMemoryPool` `Limit().`	This error message occurs because there is no layer implementation for the given node in the network that can operate with the given workspace size. This usually occurs because the workspace size is insufficient but could also indicate a bug. If increasing the workspace size as suggested does not help, report a bug (refer to Reporting TensorRT Issues).
	`<layer-name>: (kernel| bias) weights has non-zero count but null values` `<layer-name>: (kernel| bias) weights has zero count but non-null values`	This error message occurs when there is a mismatch between the values and count fields in a Weights data structure passed to the builder. If the count is `0`, then the values field must contain a null pointer; otherwise, the count must be non-zero, and values must contain a non-null pointer.
	`Builder was created on device different from current device.`	This error message can show up if you: 1. Created an `IBuilder` targeting one GPU, then 2. Called `cudaSetDevice()` to target a different GPU, then

	Error Message	Description
		3. Attempted to use the `IBuilder` to create an engine. Ensure you only use the `IBuilder` when targeting the GPU that was used to create the `IBuilder`.
	You can encounter error messages indicating that the tensor dimensions do not match the semantics of the given layer. Carefully read the documentation on NvInfer.h on the usage of each layer and the expected dimensions of the tensor inputs and outputs to the layer.	
INT8 Calibration Errors	`Tensor <X> is uniformly zero.`	This warning occurs and should be treated as an error when data distribution for a tensor is uniformly zero. In a network, the output tensor distribution can be uniformly zero under the following scenarios: 1. Constant tensor with all zero values; not an error. 2. Activation (ReLU) output with all negative inputs: not an error. 3. Data distribution is forced to all zero due to computation error in the previous layer; emit a warning here.[1] 4. User does not provide any calibration images; emit a warning here.[1]
	`Could not find scales for tensor <X>.`	This error message indicates that a calibration failure occurred with no scaling factors detected. This could be due to no INT8 calibrator or insufficient custom scales for network layers. For more

---

[1] It is recommended to evaluate the calibration input or validate the previous layer outputs.

	Error Message	Description
		information, refer to sampleINT8 located in the `opensource/ sampleINT8` directory in the GitHub repository to set up calibration correctly.
	The engine plan file is not compatible with this version of TensorRT, expecting (format|library) version <X> got <Y>, please rebuild.	This error message can occur if you are running TensorRT using an engine PLAN file that is incompatible with the current version of TensorRT. Ensure you use the same version of TensorRT when generating the engine and running it.
	The engine plan file is generated on an incompatible device, expecting compute <X> got compute <Y>, please rebuild.	This error message can occur if you build an engine on a device of a different compute capability than the device that is used to run the engine.
	Using an engine plan file across different models of devices is not recommended and is likely to affect performance or even cause errors.	This warning message can occur if you build an engine on a device with the same compute capability but is not identical to the device that is used to run the engine. As indicated by the warning, it is highly recommended to use a device of the same model when generating the engine and deploying it to avoid compatibility issues.
	GPU memory allocation failed during initialization of (tensor|layer): <name> GPU memory	These error messages can occur if there is insufficient GPU memory available to instantiate a given TensorRT engine. Verify that the GPU has sufficient available memory to contain the required layer weights and activation tensors.
	Allocation failed during deserialization of weights.	
	GPU does not meet the minimum memory requirements to run this engine …	
	Network needs native FP16 and platform does not have native FP16	This error message can occur if you attempt to deserialize

	Error Message	Description
		an engine that uses FP16 arithmetic on a GPU that does not support FP16 arithmetic. You either must rebuild the engine without FP16 precision inference or upgrade your GPU to a model that supports FP16 precision inference.
	`Custom layer <name> returned non-zero initialization`	This error message can occur if the `initialize()` method of a given plug-in layer returns a non-zero value. Refer to the implementation of that layer to debug this error further. For more information, refer to TensorRT Layers.

14.3. Code Analysis Tools

14.3.1. Compiler Sanitizers

Google sanitizers are a set of code analysis tools.

14.3.1.1. Issues with `dlopen` and Address Sanitizer

There is a known issue with sanitizers, documented here. When using `dlopen` on TensorRT under a sanitizer, there will be reports of memory leaks unless one of two solutions is adopted:

1. Do not call `dlclose` when running under the sanitizers.
2. Pass the flag `RTLD_NODELETE` to `dlopen` when running under sanitizers.

14.3.1.2. Issues with `dlopen` and Thread Sanitizer

The thread sanitizer can list errors when using `dlopen` from multiple threads. In order to suppress this warning, create a file called `tsan.supp` and add the following to the file:

```
race::dlopen
```

When running applications under thread sanitizer, set the environment variable using:

```
export TSAN_OPTIONS="suppressions=tsan.supp"
```

14.3.1.3. Issues with CUDA and Address Sanitizer

The address sanitizer has a known issue with CUDA applications documented here. In order to successfully run CUDA libraries such as TensorRT under the address sanitizer, add the option `protect_shadow_gap=0` to the `ASAN_OPTIONS` environment variable.

On CUDA 11.4, there is a known bug that can trigger mismatched allocation-and-free errors in the address sanitizer. Add `alloc_dealloc_mismatch=0` to `ASAN_OPTIONS` to disable these errors.

14.3.1.4. Issues with Undefined Behavior Sanitizer

UndefinedBehaviorSanitizer (UBSan) reports false positives with the -fvisibility=hidden option as documented here. Add the `-fno-sanitize=vptr` option to avoid UBSan reporting such false positives.

14.3.2. Valgrind

Valgrind is a framework for dynamic analysis tools that can be used to automatically detect memory management and threading bugs in applications.

Some versions of valgrind and glibc are affected by a bug, which causes false memory leaks to be reported when `dlopen` is used, which can generate spurious errors when running a TensorRT application under valgrind's `memcheck` tool. To work around this, add the following to a valgrind suppressions file as documented here:

```
{
   Memory leak errors with dlopen
   Memcheck:Leak
   match-leak-kinds: definite
   ...
   fun:*dlopen*
   ...
}
```

On CUDA 11.4, there is a known bug that can trigger mismatched allocation-and-free errors in valgrind. Add the option `--show-mismatched-frees=no` to the valgrind command line to suppress these errors.

14.3.3. Compute Sanitizer

When running a TensorRT application under compute-sanitizer, `cuGetProcAddress` can fail with error code 500 due to missing functions. This error can be ignored or suppressed with `--report-api-errors no` option. This is due to CUDA backward compatibility checking if a function is usable on the CUDA toolkit/driver combination. The functions are introduced in a later version of CUDA but are not available on the current platform.

14.4. Understanding Formats Printed in Logs

In logs from TensorRT, formats are printed as a type followed by stride and vectorization information. For example:

```
Half(60,1:8,12,3)
```

The `Half` indicates that the element type is `DataType::kHALF`, that is, 16-bit floating point. The `:8` indicates the format packs eight elements per vector, and that vectorization is along the second axis. The rest of the numbers are strides in units of vectors. For this tensor, the mapping of a coordinate (n,c,h,w) to an address is:

```
((half*)base_address) + (60*n + 1*floor(c/8) + 12*h + 3*w) * 8 + (c mod 8)
```

The `1:` is common to NHWC formats. For example, here is another example for an NCHW format:

```
Int8(105,15:4,3,1)
```

The INT8 indicates that the element type is `DataType::kINT8`,and the `:4` indicates a vector size of 4. For this tensor, the mapping of a coordinate (n,c,h,w) to an address is:

```
(int8_t*)base_address + (105*n + 15*floor(c/4) + 3*h + w) * 4 + (c mod 4)
```

Scalar formats have a vector size of 1. For brevity, printing omits the *:1*.

In general, the coordinates to address mappings have the following form:

```
(type*)base_address + (vec_coordinate · strides) * vec_size + vec_mod
```
where the dot denotes an inner product and:

▶   strides are the printed strides, that is, strides in units of vectors.

▶   `vec_size` is the number of elements per vectors.

▶   `vec_coordinate` is the original coordinate with the coordinate along the vectorized axis divided by `vec_size`.

▶   `vec_mod` is the original coordinate along the vectorized axis modulo `vec_size`.

14.5. Reporting TensorRT Issues

If you encounter issues when using TensorRT, first confirm that you have followed the instructions in this Developer Guide. Also, check the [FAQs](#) and the [Understanding Error Messages](#) sections to look for similar failing patterns. For example, many engine building failures can be solved by sanitizing and constant-folding the ONNX model using [Polygraphy](#) with the

```
polygraphy surgeon sanitize model.onnx --fold-constants --output
        model_folded.onnx
```
command.

In addition, it is highly recommended that you first try our latest TensorRT release before filing an issue if you have not done so, since your issue may have been fixed in the latest release.

14.5.1. Channels for TensorRT Issue Reporting

If none of the FAQs or the Understanding Error Messages work, there are two main channels where you can report the issue: NVIDIA Developer Forum or TensorRT GitHub Issue page. These channels are constantly monitored to provide feedback to the issues you encountered.

Here are the steps to report an issue on the NVIDIA Developer Forum:

1. Register for the NVIDIA Developer website.
2. Log in to the developer site.
3. Click on your name in the upper right corner.
4. Click **My account** > **My Bugs** and select **Submit a New Bug**.
5. Fill out the bug reporting page. Be descriptive and if possible, provide the steps to reproduce the problem.
6. Click **Submit a bug**.

When reporting an issue, provide setup details and include the following information:

▶ Environment information:

  ▶ OS or Linux distro and version

  ▶ GPU type

  ▶ NVIDIA driver version

  ▶ CUDA version

  ▶ cuDNN version

  ▶ Python version (if Python is used).

  ▶ TensorFlow, PyTorch, and ONNX version (if any of them is used).

  ▶ TensorRT version

  ▶ NGC TensorRT container version (if TensorRT container is used).

  ▶ Jetson (if used), include OS and hardware versions

▶ Thorough description of the issue.

▶ Steps to reproduce the issue:

  ▶ ONNX file (if ONNX is used).

  ▶ Minimal commands or scripts to trigger the issue

  ▶ Verbose logs by enabling `kVERBOSE` in `ILogger`

Depending on the type of the issue, providing more information listed below can expedite the response and debugging process.

14.5.2. Reporting a Functional Issue

When reporting functional issues, such as linker errors, segmentation faults, engine building failures, inference failures, and so on, provide the scripts and the commands to reproduce the

issue as well as the detailed description of the environment. Having more details helps us in debugging the functional issue faster.

Since the TensorRT engine is specific to a specific TensorRT version and a specific GPU type, do not build the engine in one environment and use it to run it in another environment with different GPUs or dependency software stack, such as TensorRT version, CUDA version, cuDNN version, and so on. Also, ensure that the application is linked to the correct TensorRT and cuDNN shared object files by checking the environment variable `LD_LIBRARY_PATH` (or `%PATH%` on Windows).

14.5.3. Reporting an Accuracy Issue

When reporting an accuracy issue, provide the scripts and the commands used to calculate the accuracy metrics. Describe what the expected accuracy level is and, if possible, share the steps to get the expected results using other frameworks like ONNX-Runtime.

The Polygraphy tool can be used to debug the accuracy issue and produce a minimal failing case. Refer to the Debugging TensorRT Accuracy Issues documentation for the instructions. Having a Polygraphy command that shows the accuracy issue or having the minimal failing case expedites the time it takes for us to debug your accuracy issue.

Note that it is not practical to expect bitwise identical results between TensorRT and other frameworks like PyTorch, TensorFlow, or ONNX-Runtime even in FP32 precision since the order of the computations on the floating-point numbers can result in slight differences in output values. In practice, small numeric differences should not significantly affect the accuracy metric of the application, such as the mAP score for object-detection networks or the BLEU score for translation networks. If you *do* see a significant drop in the accuracy metric between using TensorRT and using other frameworks such as PyTorch, TensorFlow, or ONNX-Runtime, it may be a genuine TensorRT bug.

If you are seeing NaNs or infinite values in TensorRT engine output when FP16 precision is enabled, it is possible that intermediate layer outputs in the network overflow in FP16. Some approaches to help mitigate this include:

▶ Ensuring that network weights and inputs are restricted to a reasonably narrow range (such as [-1, 1] instead of [-100, 100]). This may require making changes to the network and retraining.

  ▶ Consider pre-processing input by scaling or clipping it to the restricted range before passing it to the network for inference.

▶ Overriding precision for individual layers vulnerable to overflows (for example, Reduce and Element-Wise Power ops) to FP32.

Polygraphy can help you diagnose common problems with using reduced precision.

Refer to the Improving Model Accuracy section for some possible solutions to accuracy issues, and the Working with INT8 section for instructions about using INT8 precision.

14.5.4. Reporting a Performance Issue

If you are reporting a performance issue, share the full `trtexec` logs using this command:

```
trtexec --onnx=<onnx_file> <precision_and_shape_flags> --verbose --
profilingVerbosity=detailed --dumpLayerInfo --dumpProfile --separateProfileRun --useCudaGraph
 --noDataTransfers --useSpinWait --duration=60
```

The verbose logs help us to identify the performance issue. If possible, also share the Nsight Systems profiling files using these commands:

```
trtexec --onnx=<onnx_file> <precision_and_shape_flags> --verbose --
profilingVerbosity=detailed --dumpLayerInfo --saveEngine=<engine_path>
nsys profile -o <output_profile> trtexec --loadEngine=<engine_path>
 <precision_and_shape_flags> --noDataTransfers --useSpinWait --warmUp=0 --duration=0 --
iterations=20
```

Refer to the trtexec section for more instructions about how to use the `trtexec` tool and the meaning of these flags.

If you do not use `trtexec` to measure performance, provide the scripts and the commands that you use to measure the performance. If possible, compare the performance measurement from your script with that from the `trtexec` tool. If the two numbers differ, there may be some issues about the performance measurement methodology in your scripts.

Refer to the Hardware/Software Environment for Performance Measurements section for some environment factors that may affect the performance.

Appendix A. Appendix

A.1. TensorRT Layers

In TensorRT, layers represent distinct flavors of mathematical and programmatic operations. The following sections describe every layer that TensorRT supports. The minimum workspace required by TensorRT depends on the operators used by the network. A suggested minimum build-time setting is 16 MB. Regardless of the maximum workspace value provided to the builder, TensorRT will allocate at runtime no more than the workspace it requires. To view a list of the specific attributes supported by each layer, refer to the NVIDIA TensorRT API Reference documentation.

TensorRT can optimize performance by fusing layers. For information about how to enable layer fusion optimizations, refer to Types of Fusions. For information about optimizing individual layer performance, refer to Optimizing Layer Performance.

For details about the types of precision and features supported per layer, refer to the NVIDIA TensorRT Support Matrix.

A.1.1. `IActivationLayer`

The `IActivationLayer` implements element-wise activation functions.

Layer Description

Apply an activation function on an input tensor **A**, and produce an output tensor **B** with the same dimensions.

The Activation layer supports the following operations:

```
rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): B = ReLU(A)
Hyperbolic tangent: B = tanh(A)
"s" shaped curve (sigmoid): B = σ(A)
```

Refer to the C++ class `IActivationLayer` or the Python class `IActivationLayer` for further details.

A.1.2. `IAssertionLayer`

The `IAssertionLayer` causes the builder or runtime to report an error if its input tensor contains any false values.

Layer Description

The layer has a single boolean input tensor and no outputs. The input tensor must be a shape tensor. If the builder can prove that any element is always false at build time, a build time error is reported. Otherwise, the tensor is evaluated at runtime, and if any element is false, an error is reported.

Asserting equality of input dimensions may help the optimizer. For example, if a network has two inputs whose leading dimensions must be equal, extracting those dimensions with `IGatherLayer` (or `ISliceLayer`), comparing them with `ElementWiseOperation::kEQUAL`, and feeding the output to an `IAssertionLayer` lets TensorRT know the dimension must be equal.

Conditions and Limitations

The input tensor must be a boolean shape tensor.

Refer to the C++ class `IAssertionLayer` or the Python class `IAssertionLayer` for further details.

A.1.3. **IConcatenationLayer**

The `IConcatenationLayer` links together multiple tensors of the same non-channel sizes along the channel dimension.

Layer Description

The concatenation layer is passed in an array of m input tensors $\mathbf{A}^i$ and a channel axis c.

All dimensions of all input tensors must match in every axis except axis c. Let each input tensor have dimensions $\mathbf{a}^i$. The concatenated output tensor will have dimensions $\mathbf{b}$ such that

$$\mathbf{b}_j = \left\{ a_j \text{ if } j \neq c \text{ and } \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} a_c^i \text{ otherwise} \right\}.$$

Conditions and Limitations

The default channel axis is assumed to be the third from the last axis. If there are fewer than three axes, the default channel axis is the first axis (or the first non-batch axis if the implicit batch dimension mode is used). Concatenation cannot be done along the batch axis when the implicit batch dimension mode is used. All input tensors must be non-INT32 type, or all must be INT32 type.

Refer to the C++ class `IConcatenationLayer` or the Python class `IConcatenationLayer` for further details.

A.1.4. **IConditionLayer**

An `IConditionLayer` represents the condition boundary associated with a Conditional construct. It is created by TensorRT when using `IIfConditional::setCondition`. An if-conditional is defined by conditional boundary layers.

Layer Description

An `IConditionLayer` has exactly one input that accepts a boolean tensor that controls the evaluation flow of the Conditional associated with this `IConditionLayer`.

Conditions and Limitations

The input to `IConditionLayer` must be a boolean scalar (zero-dimensional tensor).

Refer to the C++ class `IConditionLayer` or the Python class `IConditionLayer` for further details.

A.1.5. **IConstantLayer**

The `IConstantLayer` outputs a tensor with values provided as parameters to this layer, enabling the convenient use of constants in computations.

Layer Description

Given dimensions **d** and weight vector **w**, the constant layer will output a tensor **B** of dimensions **d** with the constant values in **w**. This layer takes no input tensor. The number of elements in the weight vector **w** is equal to the volume of **d**.

Conditions and Limitations

The output can be a tensor of zero to seven dimensions. Boolean weights are not supported.

Refer to the C++ class `IConstantLayer` or the Python class `IConstantLayer` for further details.

A.1.6. **IConvolutionLayer**

The `IConvolutionLayer` computes a 2D (channel, height, and width) convolution or 3D (channel, depth, height, and width) convolution, with or without bias.

> 📝 **Note:** The operation that the `IConvolutionLayer` performs is actually a correlation. Therefore, it is a consideration if you are formatting weights to import using an API rather than using the parsers.

Layer Description: 2D convolution

Compute a cross-correlation with 2D filters on a 4D tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce a 4D tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**. The dimensions of **B** depend on the dimensions of **A**, the number of

output maps m, kernel size $\mathbf{k}$, symmetric padding $\mathbf{p}$, stride $\mathbf{s}$, dilation $\mathbf{d}$, and dilated kernel size $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{1})$, such that height and width are adjusted accordingly as follows:

- $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}_0\, m\, \mathbf{b}_2\, \mathbf{b}_3]$

- $\mathbf{b}_2 = \lfloor (\mathbf{a}_2 + 2\mathbf{p}_0 - \mathbf{t}_0)/\mathbf{s}_0 \rfloor + 1$

- $\mathbf{b}_3 = \lfloor (\mathbf{a}_3 + 2\mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{t}_1)/\mathbf{s}_1 \rfloor + 1$

The kernel weights $\mathbf{w}$ and bias weights $\mathbf{x}$ (optional) for the number of groups g are such that:

- $\mathbf{w}$ is ordered according to shape $[m\,\mathbf{a}_1/g\,\mathbf{r}_0\,\mathbf{r}_1]$

- $\mathbf{x}$ has length m

Let tensor $\mathbf{K}$ with dimensions $\mathbf{k} = [m\,\mathbf{a}_1/g\,\mathbf{t}_0\,\mathbf{t}_1]$ be defined as the zero-filled tensor, such that:

- $\mathbf{k}_{i,\,j,\,\text{hh},\,\text{ll}} = \mathbf{w}_{i,\,j,\,h,\,l}$

- $\text{hh} = \{0 \text{ if } h = 0,\ h + \mathbf{d}_0(h - 1) \text{ otherwise}\}$

- $\text{ll} = \{0 \text{ if } l = 0,\ l + \mathbf{d}_1(l - 1) \text{ otherwise}\}$

and tensor $\mathbf{C}$ the zero-padded copy of $\mathbf{A}$ with dimensions $[\mathbf{a}_0\,\mathbf{a}_1\,\mathbf{a}_2 + \mathbf{p}_0\,\mathbf{a}_3 + \mathbf{p}_1]$, then tensor $\mathbf{B}$ is defined as $\mathbf{B}_{i,\,j,\,k,\,l} = \Sigma\left(\mathbf{C}_{i,\,:,\,k:\text{kk},\,l:\text{ll}} \times \mathbf{K}_{j,\,:,\,:,\,:}\right) + \mathbf{x}_j$ where $\text{kk} = k + \mathbf{t}_0 - 1$ and $\text{ll} = l + \mathbf{t}_1 - 1$.

Layer Description: 3D convolution

Compute a cross-correlation with 3D filters on a 5D tensor $\mathbf{A}$, of dimensions $\mathbf{a}$, to produce a 5D tensor $\mathbf{B}$, of dimensions $\mathbf{b}$. The dimensions of $\mathbf{B}$ depend on the dimensions of $\mathbf{A}$, the number of output maps m, kernel size $\mathbf{k}$, symmetric padding $\mathbf{p}$, stride $\mathbf{s}$, dilation $\mathbf{d}$, and dilated kernel size $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{k} - \mathbf{1})$, such that height and width are adjusted accordingly as follows:

- $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}_0\, m\, \mathbf{b}_2\, \mathbf{b}_3\, \mathbf{b}_4]$

- $\mathbf{b}_2 = (\mathbf{a}_2 + 2\mathbf{p}_0 - \mathbf{t}_0)/\mathbf{s}_0 + 1$

- $\mathbf{b}_3 = (\mathbf{a}_3 + 2\mathbf{p}_1 - \mathbf{t}_1)/\mathbf{s}_1 + 1$

- $\mathbf{b}_4 = (\mathbf{a}_4 + 2\mathbf{p}_2 - \mathbf{t}_2)/\mathbf{s}_1 + 1$

The kernel weights $\mathbf{w}$ and bias weights $\mathbf{x}$ (optional) for the number of groups g, are such that:

- $\mathbf{w}$ is ordered according to shape $[m\,\mathbf{a}_1/g\,\mathbf{r}_0\,\mathbf{r}_1\,\mathbf{r}_2]$

- $\mathbf{x}$ has length m

Let tensor $\mathbf{K}$ with dimensions $\mathbf{k} = [m\,\mathbf{a}_1/g\,\mathbf{t}_0\,\mathbf{t}_1\,\mathbf{t}_2]$ be defined as the zero-filled tensor, such that:

- $\mathbf{k}_{i,\,j,\,\text{dd},\,\text{hh},\,\text{ll}} = \mathbf{w}_{i,\,j,\,d,\,h,\,l}$

- $dd = \{0 \text{ if } d = 0, \ d + \mathbf{d}_0(d\text{-}1) \text{ otherwise}\}$

- $hh = \{0 \text{ if } h = 0, \ h + \mathbf{d}_1(h\text{-}1) \text{ otherwise}\}$

- $ll = \{0 \text{ if } l = 0, \ l + \mathbf{d}_2(l\text{-}1) \text{ otherwise}\}$

and tensor **C** the zero-padded copy of **A** with dimensions $[\mathbf{a}_0\,\mathbf{a}_1\,\mathbf{a}_2 + \mathbf{p}_0\,\mathbf{a}_3 + \mathbf{p}_1\,\mathbf{a}_4 + \mathbf{p}_2]$, then tensor **B** is defined as $\mathbf{B}_{i,\,j,\,d,\,k,\,l} = \Sigma\big(\mathbf{C}_{i,:,\ d:dd,\ k:kk,\ l:ll} \times \mathbf{K}_{j,:,:,:,:}\big) + \mathbf{x}_j$ where $dd = d + \mathbf{t}_0\text{-}1$, $kk = k + \mathbf{t}_1\text{-}1$, and $ll = l + \mathbf{t}_2\text{-}1$.

Conditions and Limitations

The number of input kernel dimensions determine 2D or 3D. For 2D convolution, input and output may have more than four dimensions; beyond four, all dimensions are treated as multipliers on the batch size, and input and output are treated as 4D tensors. For 3D convolution, similar to 2D convolution, if input or output has more than 5 dimensions, all dimensions beyond five are treated as multipliers on the batch size. If groups are specified and INT8 data type is used, then the size of the groups must be a multiple of four for both input and output.

Empty Tensors

Convolution with zero input channels (for example, `[n, 0, h, w]`) results in a tensor of zeros with dimensions `[n, k, p, q]`, before adding the bias, because each element of the result is a sum over an empty set of products.

Refer to the C++ class `IConvolutionLayer` or the Python class `IConvolutionLayer` for further details.

A.1.7.   `IDeconvolutionLayer`

The `IDeconvolutionLayer` computes a 2D (channel, height, and width) or 3D (channel, depth, height, and width) deconvolution, with or without bias.

> **Note:** This layer actually applies a 2D/3D transposed convolution operator over a 2D/3D input. It is also known as fractionally strided convolution or transposed convolution.

Layer Description: 2D deconvolution

Compute a cross-correlation with 2D filters on a 4D tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce a 4D tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**. The dimensions of **B** depend on the dimensions of **A**, the number of output maps m, kernel size **k**, symmetric padding **p**, stride **s**, dilation **d**, and dilated kernel size $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{d}(\mathbf{k}\text{-}\mathbf{1})$, such that height and width are adjusted accordingly as follows:

- $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}_0\,m\,\mathbf{b}_2\,\mathbf{b}_3]$

- $\mathbf{b}_2 = (\mathbf{a}_2\text{-}1) * \mathbf{s}_0 + t_0 - 2\mathbf{p}_0$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_3 = \left(\mathbf{a}_3 - 1\right) * \mathbf{s}_1 + t_1 - 2\mathbf{p}_1$

The kernel weights **w** and bias weights **x** (optional) for the number of groups g, are such that:

▶ **w** is ordered according to shape $\left[\mathbf{a}_1 / g\, m\, \mathbf{r}_0\, \mathbf{r}_1\right]$

▶ **x** has length m

Let tensor **K** with dimensions $\mathbf{k} = \left[m\, \mathbf{b}_1 / g\, \mathbf{t}_0\, \mathbf{t}_1\right]$ be defined as the zero-filled tensor, such that:

▶ $\mathbf{k}_{i,\,j,\,\text{hh},\,\text{ll}} = \mathbf{w}_{i,\,j,\,h,\,l}$

▶ $\text{hh} = \left\{0 \text{ if } h = 0,\ h + \mathbf{d}_0\left(h - 1\right) \text{otherwise}\right\}$

▶ $\text{ll} = \left\{0 \text{ if } l = 0,\ l + \mathbf{d}_1\left(l - 1\right) \text{otherwise}\right\}$

and tensor **C** the zero-padded copy of **A** with dimensions $\left[\mathbf{a}_0\, \mathbf{a}_1\, \mathbf{a}_2 + \mathbf{p}_0\, \mathbf{a}_3 + \mathbf{p}_1\right]$, then tensor **B** is defined as $\mathbf{B}_{i,\,j,\,k,\,l} = \Sigma_{u,\,v}\left(\mathbf{C}_{i,\,j,\,k\text{-}u,\,l\text{-}v}\, \mathbf{K}\right) + \mathbf{x}_j$ where u ranges from 0 to $\min\left(\mathbf{t}_0 - 1,\ k\right)$, and v ranges from 0 to $\min\left(\mathbf{t}_1 - 1,\ l\right)$.

Layer Description: 3D deconvolution

Compute a cross-correlation with 3D filters on a 5D tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce a 5D tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**. The dimensions of **B** depend on the dimensions of **A**, the number of output maps m, kernel size **k**, symmetric padding **p**, stride **s**, dilation **d**, and dilated kernel size $\mathbf{t} = 1 + \mathbf{d}\left(\mathbf{k} - 1\right)$, such that height and width are adjusted accordingly as follows:

▶ $\mathbf{b} = \left[\mathbf{a}_0\, m\, \mathbf{b}_2\, \mathbf{b}_3\right]$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_2 = \left(\mathbf{a}_2 - 1\right) * \mathbf{s}_0 + t_0 - 2\mathbf{p}_0$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_3 = \left(\mathbf{a}_3 - 1\right) * \mathbf{s}_1 + t_1 - 2\mathbf{p}_1$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_4 = \left(\mathbf{a}_4 - 1\right) * \mathbf{s}_2 + t_2 - 2\mathbf{p}_2$

The kernel weights **w** and bias weights **x** (optional) for the number of groups g, are such that:

▶ **w** is ordered according to shape $\left[\mathbf{a}_1 / g\, m\, \mathbf{r}_0\, \mathbf{r}_1\, \mathbf{r}_2\right]$

▶ **x** has length m

Let tensor **K** with dimensions $\mathbf{k} = \left[m\, \mathbf{b}_1 / g\, \mathbf{t}_0\, \mathbf{t}_1\, \mathbf{t}_2\right]$ be defined as the zero-filled tensor, such that:

▶ $\mathbf{k}_{i,\,j,\,\text{dd},\,\text{hh},\,\text{ll}} = \mathbf{w}_{i,\,j,\,d,\,h,\,l}$

▶ $\text{dd} = \left\{0 \text{ if } d = 0,\ d + \mathbf{d}_0\left(d - 1\right) \text{otherwise}\right\}$

▶ $\text{hh} = \left\{0 \text{ if } h = 0,\ h + \mathbf{d}_1\left(h - 1\right) \text{otherwise}\right\}$

▶ $\text{ll} = \left\{0 \text{ if } l = 0,\ l + \mathbf{d}_2\left(l - 1\right) \text{otherwise}\right\}$

and tensor **C** the zero-padded copy of **A** with dimensions $\left[\mathbf{a}_0\,\mathbf{a}_1\,\mathbf{a}_2+\mathbf{p}_0\,\mathbf{a}_3+\mathbf{p}_1\,\mathbf{a}_4+\mathbf{p}_2\right]$, then tensor **B** is defined as $\mathbf{B}_{i,j,k,l,m}=\Sigma_{u,v,w}\left(\mathbf{C}_{i,j,\,k\text{-}u,\,l\text{-}v,\,m\text{-}w}\,\mathbf{K}\right)+\mathbf{x}_j$ where u ranges from 0 to $\min\left(\mathbf{t}_0\text{-}1,\,k\right)$, and v ranges from 0 to $\min\left(\mathbf{t}_1\text{-}1,\,l\right)$, and w ranges from 0 to $\min\left(\mathbf{t}_2\text{-}1,\,m\right)$.

Conditions and Limitations

2D or 3D is determined by the number of input kernel dimensions. For 2D deconvolution, input and output may have more than 4 dimensions; beyond 4, all dimensions are treated as multipliers on the batch size, and input and output are treated as 4D tensors. For 3D deconvolution, similar to 2D deconvolution, dimensions beyond 5 are treated as multipliers on the batch size. If groups are specified and INT8 data type is used, then the size of the groups must be a multiple of four for both input and output.

Refer to the C++ class `IDeconvolutionLayer` or the Python class `IDeconvolutionLayer` for further details.

A.1.8. **IDequantizeLayer**

The `IDequantizeLayer` implements dequantization operators.

Layer Description

The `IDequantizeLayer` layer accepts a signed 8-bit integer input tensor, and uses the configured scale and zero-point inputs to dequantize the input according to:

```
output = (input - zeroPt) * scale
```

The first input (`index 0`) is the tensor to be quantized. The second input (`index 1`), and third input (`index 2`), are the scale and zero-point respectively.

Refer to the C++ class `IDequantizeLayer` or the Python class `IDequantizeLayer` for further details.

A.1.9. **IEinsumLayer**

The `IEinsumLayer` implements an Einsum operator.

Layer Description

The `IEinsumLayer` implements a summation over the elements of the inputs along dimensions specified by the equation parameter, based on the Einstein summation convention.

▶ The equation specifies ASCII lowercase letters for each dimension in the inputs in the same order as the dimensions, separated by a comma for each input.

▶ The equation is represented as `term1,term2…->output-term` where each term corresponds to an operand tensor and the characters within the terms correspond to operands dimensions.

▶ The dimensions labeled with the same subscript must match.

- ▶ Repeated subscript labels in one input take the diagonal.
- ▶ Repeating a label across multiple inputs means that those axes will be multiplied.
- ▶ Omitting a label from the output means that values along those axes will be summed.
- ▶ The output subscripts must appear at least once for some input operand and at most once for the output.
- ▶ In implicit mode, that is, if the equation does not contain ->, the indices that appear once in the expression will be part of the output in increasing alphabetical order.
- ▶ In explicit mode, the output can be controlled by specifying output subscript labels by adding an arrow (->) followed by subscripts for the output. For example, `ij,jk->ik` is equivalent to `ij,jk`.
- ▶ An empty string ("") is valid for scalar operands.
- ▶ The equation may contain spaces (SPC- 0x20) between the different elements (subscripts, ellipsis, arrow, and comma).

Conditions and Limitations

TensorRT does not support ellipsis, diagonal operations, or more than two inputs for Einsum. All the inputs must be of the same data type and that data type must be `DataType::kFLOAT` or `DataType::kHALF`.

Refer to the [C++ class `IEinsumLayer`](#) or the [Python class `IEinsumLayer`](#) for further details.

A.1.10. IElementWiseLayer

The `IElementWiseLayer`, also known as the Eltwise layer, implements per-element operations.

Layer Description

This layer computes a per-element binary operation between input tensor **A** and input tensor **B** to produce an output tensor **C**. For each dimension, their lengths must match, or one of them must be one. In the latter case, the tensor is broadcast along that axis. The output tensor has the same number of dimensions as the inputs. The output tensor has the same number of dimensions as the inputs. For each output dimension, its length is equal to the lengths of the corresponding input dimensions if they match; otherwise, it is equal to the corresponding input dimension that is not one.

The `IElementWiseLayer` supports the following operations:

```
Sum: C = A+B
Product: C = A*B
Minimum: C = min(A, B)
Maximum: C = max(A, B)
Subtraction: C = A-B
Division: C = A/B
Power: C = A^B
Floor division : C = floor(A/B)
And : C = A & B
Or : C = A | B
Xor : C = A xor B
```

```
Equal : C = (A == B)
Greater : C = A > B
Less: C = A < B
```

Conditions and Limitations

The length of each dimension of the two input tensors **A** and **B** must be equal or equal to one.

The `IElementWiseLayer` layer can accept different input datatypes depending on the operation that is used. The `IElementWiseLayer` supports the following types for each of these ops:

```
| Operation    | DataTypes                   |
| ---------- | -------------------------- |
| kSUM        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kPROD       | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kMAX        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kMIN        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kSUB        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kDIV        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kPOW        | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8        |
| kFLOOR\_DIV | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kAND        | kBOOL                       |
| kOR         | kBOOL                       |
| kXOR        | kBOOL                       |
| kEQUAL      | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kGREATER    | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kLESS       | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
```

Refer to the C++ class `IElementWiseLayer` or the Python class `IElementWiseLayer` for further details.

A.1.10.1. ElementWise Layer Setup

The ElementWise layer is used to execute the second step of the functionality provided by a FullyConnected layer. The output of the `fcbias` Constant layer and Matrix Multiplication layer are used as inputs to the ElementWise layer. The output from this layer is then supplied to the TopK layer. The code below demonstrates how to set up the layer:

```
auto fcbias = network->addConstant(Dims2(VOCAB_SIZE, 1), weightMap[FCB_NAME]);
auto addBiasLayer = network->addElementWise(
*matrixMultLayer->getOutput(0),
*fcbias->getOutput(0), ElementWiseOperation::kSUM);
assert(addBiasLayer != nullptr);
addBiasLayer->getOutput(0)->setName("Add Bias output");
```

For more information, refer to the *NVIDIA TensorRT API Reference*.

A.1.11. **IFillLayer**

The `IFillLayer` is used to generate an output tensor with the specified mode.

Layer Description

Given an output tensor size, the layer will generate data with the specified mode and fill the tensor. The alpha and beta perform as different parameters for different modes.

The `IFillLayer` supports the following operations:

▶ `LINSPACE`: Output = `alpha(scalar) + beta(different on each axis) * element_index`

▶ `RANDOM_UNIFORM`: Output = `Random(min = alpha, max = beta)`

Conditions and Limitations

The layer can only generate a 1D tensor if using static tensor size. When using the dynamic tensor size, the dimensions for alpha and beta should match each mode's requirement.

Refer to the C++ class `IFillLayer` or the Python class `IFillLayer` for further details.

A.1.12. **IFullyConnectedLayer**

The `IFullyConnectedLayer` implements a matrix-vector product, with or without bias.

Layer Description

The `IFullyConnectedLayer` expects an input tensor **A** of three or more dimensions. Given an input tensor **A** of dimensions $\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-1}]$, it is first reshaped into a tensor **A'** of dimensions $\mathbf{a'} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-4}(\mathbf{a}_{n-3} * \mathbf{a}_{n-2} * \mathbf{a}_{n-1})]$ by squeezing the last three dimensions into one dimension.

Then, the layer performs the operation $\mathbf{B'} = \mathbf{WA'} + \mathbf{X}$ where **W** is the weight tensor of dimensions $\mathbf{w} = [(\mathbf{a}_{n-3} * \mathbf{a}_{n-2} * \mathbf{a}_{n-1}) k]$, **X** is the bias tensor of dimensions $\mathbf{x} = (k)$ broadcasted along the other dimensions, and k is the number of output channels, configured using `setNbOutputChannels()`. If **X** is not specified, the value of the bias is implicitly `0`. The resulting **B'** is a tensor of dimensions $\mathbf{b'} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-4} k]$.

Finally, **B'** is reshaped again into the output tensor **B** of dimensions $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-4} k \, 1 \, 1]$ by inserting two lower dimensions each of size `1`.

In summary, for input tensor **A** of dimensions $\mathbf{a} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-1}]$, the output tensor **B** will have dimensions $\mathbf{b} = [\mathbf{a}_0 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-4} k \, 1 \, 1]$.

Conditions and Limitations

A must have three dimensions or more.

Refer to the C++ class `IFullyConnectedLayer` or the Python class `IFullyConnectedLayer` for further details.

A.1.13. **IGatherLayer**

The `IGatherLayer` implements three variants of the `gather` operation.

Layer Description

Default Gather Mode: The `kDEFAULT` mode of `IGatherLayer` gathers elements of each data tensor **A** along the specified axis x using indices tensor **B** of zero dimensions or more dimensions to produce output tensor **C** of dimensions **c**.

If **B** has zero dimensions and it is a scalar b, then $\mathbf{c_k} = \{\mathbf{a}_k \text{ if } k < x, \text{ and } \mathbf{a}_{k+1} \text{ if } k < x\}$ and **c** has a length equal to one less than the length of **a**. In this case, $\mathbf{C}_i = \mathbf{A}_j$ where

$$\mathbf{j}_k = \{b \text{ if } k = x, \ \mathbf{i}_k \text{ if } k < x, \text{ and } \mathbf{i}_{k-1} \text{ if } k > x\}.$$

If **B** is a tensor of dimensions **b** (with length b), then

$\mathbf{c}_k = \{\mathbf{a}_k \text{ if } k < x, \ \mathbf{b}_{k-x} \text{ if } k \geq x \text{ and } k < x + b, \text{ and } \mathbf{a}_{k-b+1} \text{ otherwise}\}$. In this case, $\mathbf{C}_i = \mathbf{A}_j$ where

$\mathbf{j}_k = \{\mathbf{B}_{X(i)} \text{ if } k = x, \ \mathbf{i}_k \text{ if } k < x, \text{ and } \mathbf{i}_{k-b} \text{ if } k > x\}$ and $X(\mathbf{i}) = \mathbf{i}_{x,..,x+b-1}$.

GatherND Mode: The `GatherMode::kND` mode of `IGatherLayer` gathers elements of the data tensor **A** of dimension **a** using indices tensor **B** of dimension **b** to produce output **C** of dimension **c**.

Let us denote the shape of the input tensors as follows:
$\text{shape}(\mathbf{A}) = [f_1, \ldots f_a]$, $\text{shape}(\mathbf{B}) = [g_1, \ldots g_{b-1}, k]$. Let us denote the number of elementwise dims as **n**. Then, $c = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} - k - 1 - \mathbf{n}$.

1. If $k = \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{n}$

    a). $\text{shape}(\mathbf{C}) = [g_1, \ldots g_{b-1}]$

    b). $\mathbf{C}(i_1 \ldots i_{n-1}, \ i_n \ldots i_{b-1}) = \mathbf{A}(i_1 \ldots i_{n-1}, \ \mathbf{B}(i_1, \ldots i_{b-1}))$

2. If $k < \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{n}$

    a). $\text{shape}(\mathbf{C}) = [g_1, \ldots g_{b-1}, f_{n+k+1}, \ldots f_{-a}]$

    b). $\mathbf{C}(i_1, \ldots i_{n-1}, \ i_n \ldots i_{a-1}, \ i_a \ldots i_{a+b-k-1-n}) = \mathbf{A}(i_1, \ldots i_{n-1}, \ \mathbf{B}(i_1, \ldots i_{b-1}), \ i_b, \ldots i_{a+b-k-1-n})$

    c). where $\mathbf{B}(i_1, \ldots i_{b-1})$ is a tensor with k dimensions, and $\text{shape}(\mathbf{B}(i_1, \ldots i_{b-1})) = [i_n, \ldots i_{n+k+1}]$.

3. If $k > \mathbf{a} - \mathbf{n}$

    a). This is a build time error.

GatherElements Mode: The `GatherMode::kELEMENT` mode of `IGatherLayer` gathers elements of the data tensor **A** of dimension **a** on a specified **axis** using indices tensor **B** of dimension **b** to produce output **C** of dimension **c**.

The output **C** has $\text{shape}(\mathbf{C}) = \text{shape}(\mathbf{B})$. The following pseudocode illustrates how **C** is computed.

```
For each element X of B:
Let J denote a sequence for the subscripts of X
Let K = sequence J with element [axis] replaced by X
C[J] = A[K]
```

Conditions and Limitations

▶ The indices tensor **B** must contain only INT32 values.

▶ If there are any invalid indices elements in the indices tensor, then zeros will be stored at the appropriate locations in the output tensor.

▶ If an axis of the data tensor **A** has a dynamic length, using a negative index for it has undefined behavior.

Default Gather Mode: Applicable to implicit batch mode:

▶ Elements cannot be gathered along the batch size dimension.

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least one non-batch dimension.

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least `axis` + 1 non-batch dimensions.

▶ The parameter `axis` is zero-indexed and starts at the first non-batch dimension of data tensor **A**.

Applicable to explicit batch mode:

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least one dimension.

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least `axis` + 1 dimensions.

▶ The parameter axis is zero-indexed and starts at the first dimension of data tensor **A**.

▶ `axis` must be larger than or equal to the number of element-wise dimensions set by `IGatherLayer::setNbElementWiseDimensions()`.

▶ The number of ElementWise dimensions can only be set to 0 or 1.

▶ If the number of ElementWise dimensions is set to 1, the behavior will be similar to implicit batch mode. The leading dimension will be treated like batch dimension in implicit batch mode, which is not part of the gather operation. For example, data tensor **A** has dimensions of `[N, C, H, W]`, and indices tensor **B** has the dimensions of `[N, K]`. If `nbElementWiseDimensions` is 1 and the *axis* is set to 1, the dimensions of the result will be `[N, K, H, W]`. If `nbElementWiseDimensions` is 0 and the `axis` is set to 1, the dimensions of the result will be `[N, N, K, H, W]`.

▶ ElementWise dimensions support broadcasts like `IElementWiseLayer`.

GatherND Mode:

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least one dimension.

▶ The indices tensor **B** must contain at least one dimension.

▶ The first **n** dimensions of **A** and **B** must be the equal, where **n** is the number of elementwise dimensions.

▶ **n** must be less than both the number of dimensions of **A** and the number of dimensions of **B**.

▶ The innermost dimension of **B** should have a value between 1 and **a−n**, inclusive.

GatherElements Mode:

▶ The data tensor **A** must contain at least one dimension.

▶ The indices tensor **B** must contain at least one dimension.

▶ `axis` must be between `0` and **a−1**, inclusive.

Refer to the C++ class `IGatherLayer` or the Python class `IGatherLayer` for further details.

A.1.14. **IIdentityLayer**

The `IIdentityLayer` implements the identity operation.

Layer Description

The output of the layer is mathematically identical to the input. This layer allows you to precisely control the precision of tensors and transform from one precision to another. If the input is at a different precision than the output, the layer will convert the input tensor into the output precision.

Conditions and Limitations

None

Refer to the C++ class `IIdentityLayer` or the Python class `IIdentityLayer` for further details.

A.1.15. **IIfConditionalBoundaryLayer**

`IIfConditionalBoundaryLayer` is the base class for the if-conditional-related layers, specifically `IConditionLayer`, `IIfConditionalOutputLayer`, and `IIfConditionalInputLayer`. An if-conditional is defined by conditional boundary layers.

Layer Description

Class `IIfConditionalBoundaryLayer` defines a virtual method `getConditional()` that returns a pointer to the associated `IIfConditional`.

Conditions and Limitations

None

For more information about the `IIfConditionalBoundaryLayer` , including how conditionals work and their limitations, refer to Working with Conditionals.

A.1.16. **IIfConditionalOutputLayer**

The `IfConditionalOutputLayer` specifies an output from an if-conditional. An if-conditional is defined by conditional boundary layers.

Layer Description

An if-conditional must have one or more outputs, each defined by a unique instance of `IfConditionalOutputLayer`. An `IfConditionalOutputLayer` has exactly two inputs, one from the true-branch (then-branch) and one from the false-branch (else-branch). When an if-conditional executes an `IfConditionalOutputLayer` it chooses which of the two inputs to copy to the output depending on the value of the condition associated with the if-conditional.

Conditions and Limitations

Must have exactly two inputs and one output.

For more information about the `IfConditionalOutputLayer`, including how conditionals work and their limitations, refer to Working with Conditionals.

A.1.17. **IIfConditionalInputLayer**

The `IfConditionalInputLayer` specifies an input to an if-conditional. An if-conditional is defined by conditional boundary layers.

Layer Description

The `IfConditionalInputLayer` is a placeholder for an input to an if-conditional that can be used by either or both of the if-conditional's branches. An `IfConditionalInputLayer` demarcates the input boundary of an if-conditional.

Conditions and Limitations

Must have exactly one input and one output.

For more information about the `IfConditionalOutputLayer`, including how conditionals work and their limitations, refer to Working with Conditionals.

A.1.18. **IIteratorLayer**

The `IIteratorLayer` enables a loop to iterate over a tensor. A loop is defined by *loop boundary layers*.

For more information about the `IIteratorLayer`, including how loops work and their limitations, refer to Working with Loops.

Refer to the C++ class `IIteratorLayer` or the Python class `IIteratorLayer` for further details.

A.1.19. **ILoopBoundaryLayer**

Class `ILoopBoundaryLayer`, derived from class `ILayer`, is the base class for the loop-related layers, specifically `ITripLimitLayer`, `ILoopIteratorLayer`, `IRecurrenceLayer`, and `ILoopOutputLayer`. Class `ILoopBoundaryLayer` defines a virtual method `getLoop()` that returns a pointer to the associated `ILoop`.

For more information about the `ILoopBoundaryLayer`, including how loops work and their limitations, refer to Working With Loops.

Refer to the C++ class `ILoopBoundaryLayer` or the Python class `ILoopBoundaryLayer` for further details.

A.1.20. **ILoopOutputLayer**

The `ILoopOutputLayer` specifies an output from the loop. A loop is defined by *loop boundary layers*.

For more information about the `ILoopOutputLayer`, including how loops work and their limitations, refer to Working with Loops.

Refer to the C++ class `ILoopOutputLayer` or the Python class `ILoopOutputLayer` for further details.

A.1.21. **ILRNLayer**

The `ILRNLayer` implements cross-channel Local Response Normalization (LRN).

Layer Description

Given an input **A**, the LRN layer performs a cross-channel LRN to produce output **B** of the same dimensions. The operation of this layer depends on four constant values: w is the size of the cross-channel window over which the normalization will occur, α, β, and k are normalization parameters. This formula shows the operation performed by the layer:

$$\mathbf{B}_I = \frac{A_I}{\left(k + \mathrm{a}\mathrm{A}_{j(I)}^2\right)\beta}$$

Where I represents the indexes of tensor elements, and $j(I)$ the indices where the channel dimension is replaced by j. For channel index c of C channels, index j ranges from $\max(0,\ c - w)$ and $\min(C - 1,\ c + w)$.

Conditions and Limitations

A must have three or more dimensions. The following list shows the possible values for the parameters:

$$W \in \{1,\ 3,\ 5,\ 7,\ 9,\ 11,\ 13,\ 15\}$$
$$\alpha \in [-1 \times 10^{20},\ 1 \times 10^{20}]$$
$$\beta \in [0.01,\ 1 \times 10^5]$$
$$k \in [1 \times 10^{-5},\ 1 \times 10^{10}]$$

Refer to the C++ class `ILRNLayer` or the Python class `ILRNLayer` for further details.

A.1.22. **IMatrixMultiplyLayer**

The `IMatrixMultiplyLayer` implements matrix multiplication for a collection of matrices.

Layer Description

The `IMatrixMultiplyLayer` computes the matrix multiplication of input tensors **A**, of dimensions **a**, and **B**, of dimensions **b**, and produces output tensor C, of dimensions **c**. **A**, **B**, and **C** all have the same rank $n \geq 2$. If $n > 2$, then **A**, **B**, and **C** are treated as collections of matrices; **A** and **B** may be optionally transposed (the transpose is applied to the last two dimensions). Let $\mathbf{A}^I$ and $\mathbf{B}^I$ be the input tensors after the optional transpose, then

$$\mathbf{C}_{i0,..,\text{ in-3},:,:} = \mathbf{A}^I_{i0,..,\text{ in-3},:,:} * \mathbf{B}^I_{i0,..,\text{ in-3},:,:}$$

Given the corresponding dimensions $\mathbf{a}^I$ and $\mathbf{b}^I$ of $\mathbf{A}^I$ and $\mathbf{B}^I$, then

$\mathbf{C}_i = \left\{ \max\left(\mathbf{a}_i, \mathbf{b}_i\right) \text{ if } i < n\text{-}2, \ \mathbf{a}^I_i \text{ if } i = n\text{-}2, \ \text{and } \mathbf{b}^I_i \text{ if } i = n\text{-}1 \right\}$; that is, the resulting collection has the same number of matrices as the input collections, and the rows and columns correspond to the rows in $\mathbf{A}^I$ and the columns in $\mathbf{B}^I$. Notice also the use of max in lengths, for the case of broadcast on a dimension.

Conditions and Limitations

Tensors A and B must have at least two dimensions and agree on the number of dimensions. The length of each dimension must be the same, assuming that dimensions of length one are broadcast to match the corresponding length.

Refer to the [C++ class `IMatrixMultiplyLayer`](#) or the [Python class `IMatrixMultiplyLayer`](#) for further details.

A.1.22.1. MatrixMultiply Layer Setup

The Matrix Multiplication layer is used to execute the first step of the functionality provided by a FullyConnected layer. As shown in the code below, a Constant layer must be used so that the FullyConnected weights can be stored in the engine. The output of the Constant and RNN layers are then used as inputs to the Matrix Multiplication layer. The RNN output is transposed so that the dimensions for the MatrixMultiply are valid.

```
weightMap["trt_fcw"] = transposeFCWeights(weightMap[FCW_NAME]);
auto fcwts = network->addConstant(Dims2(VOCAB_SIZE, HIDDEN_SIZE), weightMap["trt_fcw"]);
auto matrixMultLayer = network->addMatrixMultiply(
*fcwts->getOutput(0), false, *rnn->getOutput(0), true);
assert(matrixMultLayer != nullptr);
matrixMultLayer->getOutput(0)->setName("Matrix Multiplication output");
```

For more information, refer to the [TensorRT API documentation](#).

Empty Tensors

Multiplying matrices with dimensions `[m,0]` and `[0,n]` results in a matrix of zeros with dimensions `[m,n]`. It's zeros because each element of the result is the sum over an empty set of products.

`IFullyConnectedLayer` is fundamentally a matrix multiplication, so similar rules apply.

A.1.23. **IParametricReluLayer**

The `IParametricReluLayer` represents a parametric ReLU operation, meaning a leaky ReLU where the slopes for `x < 0` can be different for each element.

Layer Description

Users provide a data tensor **X** and a slope tensor **S**. At each element, the layer computes `y = x` if `x ≥ 0` and `y = x·s` if `x < 0`. The slope tensor may be broadcast to the size of the data tensor and vice versa.

Conditions and Limitations

Parametric ReLU is not supported in many fusions; therefore, the performance may be worse than with standard ReLU.

Refer to the C++ class `IParametricReluLayer` or the Python class `IParametricReluLayer` for further details.

A.1.24. **IPaddingLayer**

The `IPaddingLayer` implements spatial zero-padding of tensors along the two innermost dimensions.

> 🗩 **Note:** `IPaddingLayer` is deprecated in TensorRT 8.2 and will be removed in TensorRT 10.0. Use `ISliceLayer` to pad the tensor, which supports new non-constant, reflects padding mode and clamp, and supports padding output with dynamic shape.

Layer Description

The `IPaddingLayer` pads zeros to (or trims edges from) an input tensor **A** along each of the two innermost dimensions and gives the output tensor **B**. Padding can be different on each dimension, asymmetric, and can be either positive (resulting in expansion of the tensor) or negative (resulting in trimming). Padding at the beginning and end of the two dimensions is specified by 2D vectors **x** and **y** for pre and post-padding respectively.

For input tensor **A** of n dimensions **a,** the output **B** will have n dimensions **b** such that $\mathbf{b}_i = \left\{ \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{a}_{n-2} + \mathbf{y}_0 \text{ if } i = n-2; \ \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{a}_{n-1} + \mathbf{y}_1 \text{ if } i = n-1; \ \textbf{and } \mathbf{a}_i \text{ otherwise} \right\}$. Accordingly, the values of $\mathbf{B}_w$ are zeros if $\mathbf{w}_{n-2} < \mathbf{x}_0$ or $\mathbf{x}_0 + a_{n-2} \leq \mathbf{w}_{n-2}$ or $\mathbf{w}_{n-1} < \mathbf{x}_1$ or $\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{a}_{n-2} \leq \mathbf{w}_{n-1}$. Otherwise, $\mathbf{B}_w = \mathbf{A}_z$ where $\mathbf{z}_{n-2} = \mathbf{w}_{n-2} + \mathbf{x}_0$, $\mathbf{z}_{n-1} = \mathbf{w}_{n-1} + \mathbf{x}_1$ and $\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{w}_i$ for all other dimensions i.

Conditions and Limitations

- ▶ **A** must have three dimensions or more.
- ▶ The padding can only be applied along the two innermost dimensions.
- ▶ Only zero padding is supported.

Refer to the C++ class `IPaddingLayer` or the Python class `IPaddingLayer` for further details.

A.1.25. **`IPluginV2Layer`**

The `IPluginV2Layer` provides the ability to extend the functionalities of TensorRT by using custom implementations for unsupported layers.

Layer Description

The `IPluginV2Layer` is used to set up and configure the plug-in. Refer to the IPluginV2 API Description for more details on the API. TensorRT also has support for a plug-in registry, which is a single registration point for all plug-ins in the network. In order to register plug-ins with the registry, implement the `IPluginV2` class and the `IPluginCreator` class for your plug-in.

Conditions and Limitations

None

Empty Tensors

Plug-ins that handle empty tensors must be written with `IPluginV2Ext`, `IPluginV2IOExt`, or `IPluginV2DynamicExt`.

> ⚠️ **WARNING: Empty tensors can have properties not seen for non-empty tensors:**
>
> ▶ **a volume of zero**
>
> ▶ **one or more strides equal to zero**

The volume of zero can break kernel-launching logic since a common approach is to set the number of CUDA blocks proportional to the volume being processed. CUDA reports an error for launching a kernel with zero blocks. Hence, plug-ins should be careful about avoiding such launches.

Strides should be calculated the same as for non-empty tensors. For example, given a tensor with dimensions `[N,C,H,W]`, the stride of the memory representation corresponding to an increment along the `C` axis is `H*W`. It does not matter if `H` or `W` is zero. Though make sure that your code does not divide by a stride or dimension that could be zero. For example, the assertion in the following fragment risks dividing by zero in both divisions:

```
int volume = N*C*H*W;
int cStride = H*W;
...
assert(C == volume/N/cStride);
```

For some plug-ins, an effective strategy is to make the plug-in's method enqueue return early if all outputs are empty, and thereby not complicate the rest of the logic with consideration of zero-length dimensions.

Refer to the <u>C++ class `IPluginV2Layer`</u> or the <u>Python class `IPluginV2Layer`</u> for further details.

A.1.26. `IPoolingLayer`

The `IPoolingLayer` implements pooling within a channel. Supported pooling types are `maximum`, `average`, and `maximum-average blend`.

Layer Description: 2D pooling

Compute a pooling with 2D filters on a tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce a tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**. The dimensions of **B** depend on the dimensions of **A**, window size **r**, symmetric padding **p** and stride **s** such that:

▶ $\mathbf{b} = \left[\mathbf{a_0}\, \mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-3}\, \mathbf{b}_{n-2}\, \mathbf{b}_{n-1} \right]$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_{n-2} = \left(\mathbf{a}_{n-2} + 2\mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{r}_0 \right) / \mathbf{s}_0 + 1$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_{n-1} = \left(\mathbf{a}_{n-1} + 2\mathbf{p}_1 + \mathbf{r}_1 \right) / \mathbf{s}_1 + 1$

Let tensor **C** be the zero-padded copy of **A** with dimensions

$\left[\mathbf{a_0}\, \mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-2} + 2\mathbf{p}_0\, \mathbf{a}_{n-1} + 2\mathbf{p}_1 \right]$ then, $\mathbf{B}_{j \dots kl} = \mathbf{func}\left(\mathbf{C}_{j \dots k:kk\ l:ll} \right)$ where $kk = k + \mathbf{r}_0 - 1$ and $ll = l + \mathbf{r}_1 - 1$.

Where **func** is defined by one of the pooling types **t**:

`PoolingType::kMAX`
　Maximum over elements in window.

`PoolingType::kAVERAGE`
　Average over elements in the window.

`PoolingType::kMAX_AVERAGE_BLEND`
　Hybrid of maximum and average pooling. The results of the maximum pooling and the average pooling are combined with the blending factor as `(1-blendFactor)*maximumPoolingResult + blendFactor*averagePoolingResult` to yield the result. The **blendFactor** can be set to a value between 0 and 1.

By default, average pooling is performed on the overlap between the pooling window and the padded input. If the **exclusive** parameter is set to **true**, the average pooling is performed on the overlap area between the pooling window and unpadded input.

Layer Description: 3D pooling

Compute a pooling with 3D filters on a tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce a tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**. The dimensions of **B** depend on the dimensions of **A**, window size **r**, symmetric padding **p** and stride **s** such that:

▶ $\mathbf{b} = \left[\mathbf{a_0}\, \mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_{n-4}\, \mathbf{b}_{n-3}\, \mathbf{b}_{n-2}\, \mathbf{b}_{n-1} \right]$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_{n-3} = \left(\mathbf{a}_{n-3} + 2\mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{r}_0 \right) / \mathbf{s}_0 + 1$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_{n\text{-}2} = \left(\mathbf{a}_{n\text{-}2} + 2\mathbf{p}_1 + \mathbf{r}_1 \right) / \mathbf{s}_1 + 1$

▶ $\mathbf{b}_{n\text{-}1} = \left(\mathbf{a}_{n\text{-}1} + 2\mathbf{p}_2 + \mathbf{r}_2 \right) / \mathbf{s}_2 + 1$

Let tensor **C** be the zero-padded copy of **A** with dimensions

$\left[\mathbf{a}_0\, \mathbf{a}_1 ... \mathbf{a}_{n\text{-}3} + 2\mathbf{p}_0\, \mathbf{a}_{n\text{-}2} + 2\mathbf{p}_1\, \mathbf{a}_{n\text{-}1} + 2\mathbf{p}_2 \right]$ then, $\mathbf{B}_{j......klm} = \mathbf{func}\left(\mathbf{C}_{j.... k\text{kk}\ l\text{ll}\ m\text{mm}} \right)$ where kk $= k + \mathbf{r}_0 \text{-}1$, ll $= l + \mathbf{r}_1 \text{-}1$, and mm $= m + \mathbf{r}_2 \text{-}1$.

Where **func** is defined by one of the pooling types **t**:

`PoolingType::kMAX`

Maximum over elements in window.

`PoolingType::kAVERAGE`

Average over elements in the window.

`PoolingType::kMAX_AVERAGE_BLEND`

Hybrid of maximum and average pooling. The results of the maximum pooling and the average pooling are combined with the blending factor as `(1- blendFactor)*maximumPoolingResult + blendFactor*averagePoolingResult` to yield the result. The **blendFactor** can be set to a value between 0 and 1.

By default, average pooling is performed on the overlap between the pooling window and the padded input. If the **exclusive** parameter is set to **true**, the average pooling is performed on the overlap area between the pooling window and unpadded input.

Conditions and Limitations

The number of input kernel dimensions determine 2D or 3D. For 2D pooling, input and output tensors should have three or more dimensions. For 3D pooling, input and output tensors should have four or more dimensions.

If `PoolingType::kMAX` is used and the padding size is equal to or greater than the window size on any dimension, the boundaries of the output tensor (corresponding to the input windows that lie completely outside of the input tensor) will be filled with the lowest value of the output type.

Refer to the [C++ class `IPoolingLayer`](#) or the [Python class `IPoolingLayer`](#) for further details.

A.1.27. **`IQuantizeLayer`**

This `IQuantizeLayer` layer implements quantization operators.

Layer Description

The `IQuantizeLayer` layer accepts a floating-point data input tensor and uses the scale and zero-point inputs to quantize the data to an 8-bit signed integer according to:

```
output = clamp(round(input / scale) +  zeroPt)
```

Rounding type is <u>rounding-to-nearest ties-to-even</u>. Clamping is in the range `[-128, 127]`. The first input (`index 0`) is the tensor to be quantized. The second (`index 1`) and third (`index 2`) are the scale and zero-point respectively.

Refer to the <u>C++ class `IQuantizeLayer`</u> or the <u>Python class `IQuantizeLayer`</u> for further details.

A.1.28. **IRaggedSoftMaxLayer**

The `IRaggedSoftMaxLayer` applies the SoftMax function on an input tensor of sequences across the sequence lengths specified by the user.

Layer Description

This layer has two inputs: a 2D input tensor **A** of shape `zs` containing `z` sequences of data and a 1D bounds tensor **B** of shape `z` containing the lengths of each of the `z` sequences in **A**. The resulting output tensor **C** has the same dimensions as the input tensor **A**.

The SoftMax function `S` is defined on every `i` of the `z` sequences of data values $A_{i,0:Bi}$ like in the SoftMax layer.

Refer to the <u>C++ class `IRaggedSoftMaxLayer`</u> or the <u>Python class `IRaggedSoftMaxLayer`</u> for further details.

A.1.29. **IRecurrenceLayer**

The `IRecurrenceLayer` specifies a recurrent definition. A loop is defined by *loop boundary layers*.

For more information about the `IRecurrenceLayer`, including how loops work and their limitations, refer to <u>Working with Loops</u>.

Refer to the <u>C++ class `IRecurrenceLayer`</u> or the <u>Python class `IRecurrenceLayer`</u> for further details.

A.1.30. **IReduceLayer**

The `IReduceLayer` implements dimension reduction of tensors using reduce operators.

Layer Description

The `IReduceLayer` computes a reduction of input tensor **A**, of dimensions **a**, to produce an output tensor **B**, of dimensions **b**, over the set of reduction dimensions **r**. The reduction operator op is one of `max`, `min`, `product`, `sum`, and `average`. The reduction can preserve the number of dimensions of **A** or not. If the dimensions are kept, then $\mathbf{b}_i = \{1 \text{ if } i \in \mathbf{r}, \text{ and } \mathbf{a}_i \text{ otherwise}\}$; if the dimensions are not kept, then $\mathbf{b}_{j-m(j)} = \mathbf{a}_j$ where $j \in \mathbf{r}$ and $m(j)$ is the number of reduction indexes in **r** less than or equal to `j`.

With the sequence of indexes $\mathbf{i}$, $\mathbf{B}_i = \mathrm{op}\!\left(\mathbf{A}_j\right)$, where the sequence of indexes $\mathbf{j}$ is such that $\mathbf{j}_k = \left\{ : \text{ if } k \in \mathbf{r}, \text{ and } \mathbf{i}_k \text{ otherwise} \right\}$.

Conditions and Limitations

The input must have at least one non-batch dimension. The batch size dimension cannot be reduced.

Empty Tensors

If all inputs to a layer are empty, the output is usually empty, but there are exceptions. The exceptions arise from how reduction over an empty set is defined in mathematics: Reduction over an empty set yields the identity element for the operation.

The following table shows cases relevant to TensorRT:

Table 6.   Empty tensor exceptions

Reduction Operation	`kFLOAT` and `kHALF`	`kINT32`	`kINT8`
kSUM	0	0	0
kPROD	1	1	1
kMAX	∞	INT_MAX	-128
kMIN	-∞	INT_MIN	127
kAVG	NaN	0	-128

The average empty set is mathematically ill-defined. The obvious definition (sum of elements)/(number of elements) yields 0/0. It is represented by Not a Number (NaN) for floating-point. The 0 for `kAVG` over an empty set of `kINT32` has no mathematical justification and was chosen for compatibility with TensorFlow.

TensorRT usually performs reduction for `kINT8` using `kFLOAT` or `kHALF`. The `kINT8` values show the quantized *representations* of the floating-point values, not their dequantized values.

Refer to the C++ class `IReduceLayer` or the Python class `IReduceLayer` for further details.

A.1.31. **IResizeLayer**

The `IResizeLayer` implements the resize operation on an input tensor.

Layer Description

The `IResizeLayer` resizes input tensor A, of dimension a, to produce an output tensor B, of dimension b, using a given resize mode m. Output dimension b can either be provided directly or can be computed using resize scales s. If resize scales s are provided, $\mathrm{bi} = \left\{ \mathrm{floor}\!\left(\mathrm{ai} * \mathrm{si}\right) \right\}$.

Interpolation modes such as Nearest and Linear are supported for the resize operation. The nearest mode resizes innermost d dimensions of $N-D$ tensors, where $d \in (0,\ \min(8,\ N))$ and $N > 0$. The linear mode resizes innermost d dimensions of $N-D$ tensors, where $d \in (0,\ \min(3,\ N))$ and $N > 0$.

The coordinate transformation-mapping function, while interpolating, can be configured to align corners, asymmetric and half pixel. When resized to a single pixel, we support using either the coordinate transformation or using the upper left pixel. When resize mode is `Nearest`, we support different rounding modes like half down, half up, round to floor, and round to ceiling.

Conditions and Limitations

Either output dimension `b` or resize scales `s` must be known and valid. Number of scales must be equal to the number of input dimensions. Number of output dimensions must be equal to the number of input dimensions.

Refer to the [C++ class `IResizeLayer`](#) or the [Python class `IResizeLayer`](#) for further details.

A.1.32. `IRNNv2Layer`

The `IRNNv2Layer` implements recurrent layers such as Recurrent Neural Network (RNN), Gated Recurrent Units (GRU), and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM). Supported types are RNN, GRU, and LSTM. It performs a recurrent operation, where the operation is defined by one of several well-known recurrent neural network (RNN) "cells."

> 📝 **Note:** The `IRNNv2Layer` is deprecated in favor of the loop API; however, it is still available for backward compatibility. For more information about the loop API, refer to [sampleCharRNN](#) with the `--Iloop` option.

Layer Description

This layer accepts an input sequence **X**, initial hidden state $\mathbf{H}_0$, and if the cell is a long short-term memory (LSTM) cell, initial cell state $\mathbf{C}_0$, and produces an output **Y** which represents the output of the final RNN "sub-layer" computed across T timesteps (refer below). Optionally, the layer can also produce an output $\mathbf{h}_T$ representing the final hidden state, and, if the cell is an LSTM cell, an output $\mathbf{c}_T$ representing the final cell state.

Let the operation of the cell be defined as the function $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x},\ \mathbf{h},\ \mathbf{c})$. This function takes vector inputs **x**, **h**, and **c**, and produces up to two vector outputs **h'** and **c'**, representing the hidden and cell state after the cell operation has been performed.

In the default (unidirectional) configuration, the RNNv2 layer applies **G** as shown in the following diagram:
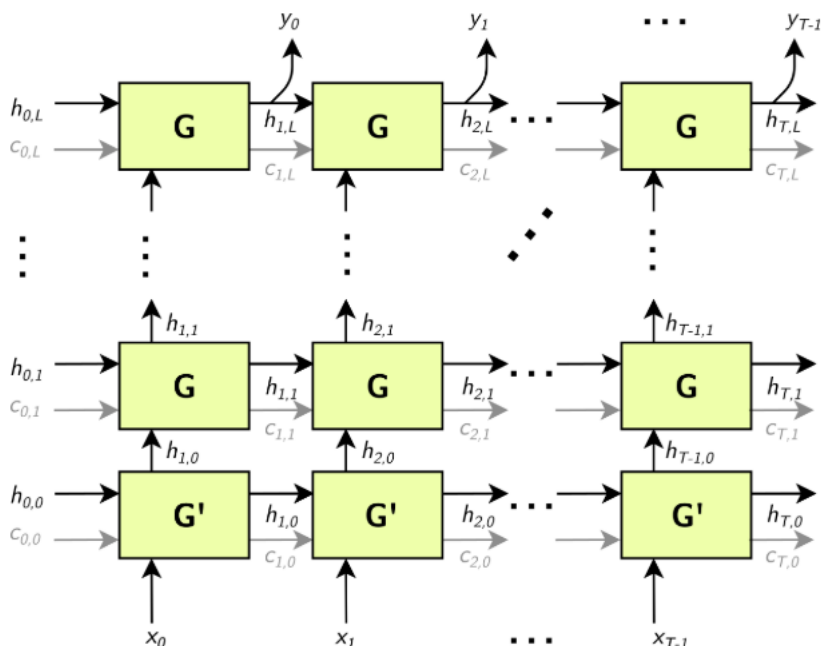
G' is a variant of G, .

Arrows leading into boxes are function inputs, and arrows leading away from boxes are function outputs.

- $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_0, & x_1, & ..., & x_T \end{bmatrix}$
- $Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_0, & y_1, & ..., & y_T \end{bmatrix}$
- $H_i = \begin{bmatrix} h_{i, 0}, & h_{i, 1}, & ..., & h_{i, L} \end{bmatrix}$
- $C_i = \begin{bmatrix} c_{i, 0}, & c_{i, 1}, & ..., & c_{i, L} \end{bmatrix}$

The gray c edges are only present if the RNN is using LSTM cells for G and G'.

> **Note:** The preceding construction has L "sub-layers" (horizontal rows of G), and the matrices H_i and C_i have dimensionality L.

Optionally, the sequence length T may be specified as an input to the RNNv2 layer, allowing the client to specify a batch of input sequences with different lengths.

Bidirectional RNNs (BiRNNs): The RNN can be configured to be bidirectional. In that case, each sub-layer consists of a "forward" layer and a "backward" layer. The forward layer iteratively applies G using x_i from 0 to T, and the backward layer iteratively applies G using x_i from T to 0, as shown in the following diagram:
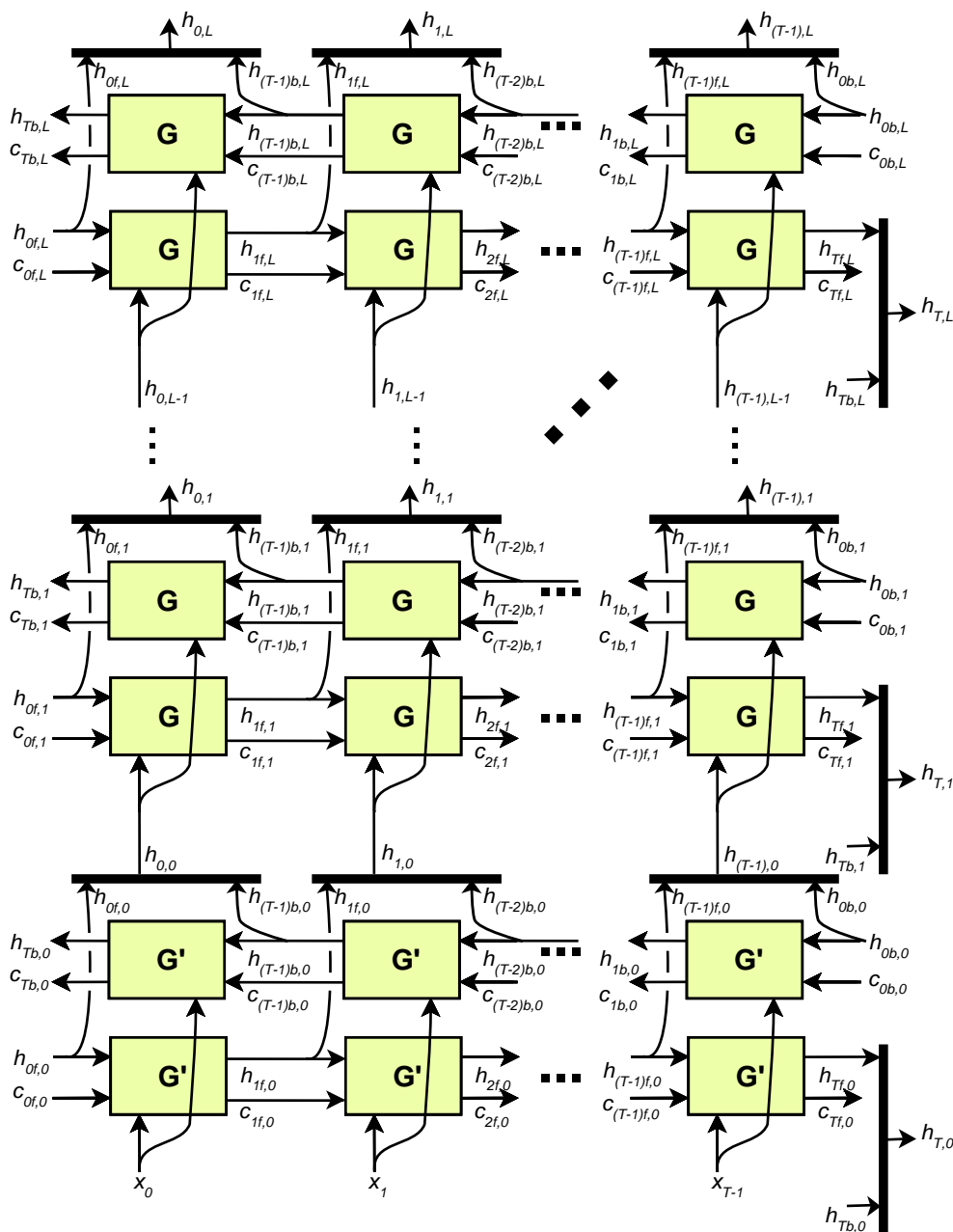
Black bars in the diagram above represent concatenation. The full hidden state $\mathbf{h}_t$ is defined by the concatenation of the forward hidden state $\mathbf{h_{tf}}$ and the backward hidden state $\mathbf{h_{tb}}$:

- $\mathbf{h}_{t,i} = \left[h_{\text{tf},i}, \ h_{\text{tb},i} \right]$

- $\mathbf{h_t} = \left[\mathbf{h}_{t,0}, \ \mathbf{h}_{t,1}, \ ..., \ \mathbf{h}_{t,L} \right]$

Similarly, for the cell state (not shown), each $\mathbf{ht,i}$ is used as input to the next sub-layer, as shown in the diagram.

RNN operations: The RNNv2 layer supports the following cell operations:

- **ReLU: $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{c}) := \max\left(\mathbf{W}_i\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_i\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_b + \mathbf{R}_b,\ 0\right)$** (**c** not used)

- **tanh: $G(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{c}) := \tanh\left(\mathbf{W}_i\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_i\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_b + \mathbf{R}_b\right)$** (**c** not used)

- **GRU: $\mathbf{Z} := \mathrm{sigmoid}\left(\mathbf{W}_z\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_z\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{bz} + \mathbf{R}_{bz}\right)$**

- **GRU: $\mathbf{M} := \mathrm{sigmoid}\left(\mathbf{W}_r\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_r\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{br} + \mathbf{R}_{br}\right)$**

- **GRU: $G(\mathbf{x},\ \mathbf{h},\ \mathbf{c}) := \tanh\left(\mathbf{W}_h\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{M}\left(\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{R}_{bh}\right) + \mathbf{W}_{bh}\right)$** (**c** not used)

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{I} := \mathrm{sigmoid}\left(\mathbf{W}_I\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_I\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{bi} + \mathbf{R}_{bi}\right)$**

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{F} := \mathrm{sigmoid}\left(\mathbf{W}_f\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_f\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{bf} + \mathbf{R}_{bf}\right)$**

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{O} := \mathrm{sigmoid}\left(\mathbf{W}_o\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_o\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{bo} + \mathbf{R}_{bo}\right)$**

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{C} := \tanh\left(\mathbf{W}_c\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{R}_c\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{W}_{bc} + \mathbf{R}_{bc}\right)$**

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{C'} := \mathbf{F} \times \mathbf{C}$**

- **LSTM: $\mathbf{H} := \mathbf{O} \times \tanh\left(\mathbf{C'}\right)$**

- **LSTM: $G(\mathbf{x},\ \mathbf{h},\ \mathbf{c}) := \left\{\mathbf{H},\ \mathbf{C'}\right\}$**

For GRU and LSTM, we refer to the intermediate computations for **Z**, **M**, **I**, **F**, for example, as "gates."

In the unidirectional case, the dimensionality of the **W** matrices is HxE for the first layer and HxH for subsequent layers (unless skip mode is set, refer below). In the bidirectional case, the dimensionality of the **W** matrices is HxE for the first forward/backward layer and $Hx2H$ for subsequent layers.

The dimensionality of the **R** matrices is always HxH. The biases $\mathbf{W}_{bx}$ and $\mathbf{R}_{bx}$ have dimensionality H.

Skip mode: The default mode used by RNNv2 is "linear mode." In this mode, the first sub-layer of the RNNv2 layer uses the cell $G'(\mathbf{x},\ \mathbf{h},\ \mathbf{c})$, which accepts a vector **x** of size E (embedding size), and vectors **h** and **c** of size H (hidden state size), and is defined by the cell operation formula. Subsequent layers use the cell $G(\mathbf{x},\ \mathbf{h},\ \mathbf{c})$, where **x**, **h**, and **c** are all vectors of size H, and are also defined by the cell operation formula.

Optionally, the RNN can be configured to run in "skip mode," which means the input weight matrices for the first layer are implicitly identity matrices, and **x** Is expected to be size H.

Conditions and Limitations

The data (**X**) input and initial hidden/cell state ($\mathbf{H_0}$ and $\mathbf{C_0}$) tensors have at least two non-batch dimensions. Additional dimensions are considered batch dimensions.

The optional sequence length input T is 0-dimensional (scalar) when excluding batch dimensions.

The data (**Y**) output and final hidden/cell state (**H$_T$** and **C$_T$**) tensors have at least two non-batch dimensions. Additional dimensions are considered batch dimensions. If the sequence length input is provided, each output in the batch is padded to the maximum sequence length $T_{\max}$.

The `IRNNv2Layer` supports:

▶ FP32 and FP16 data type for input and output, hidden, and cell tensors.

▶ INT32 data type only for the sequence length tensor.

After the network is defined, you can mark the required outputs. RNNv2 output tensors that are not marked as network outputs or used as inputs to another layer are dropped.

```
network->markOutput(*pred->getOutput(1));
pred->getOutput(1)->setType(DataType::kINT32);
rnn->getOutput(1)->setName(HIDDEN_OUT_BLOB_NAME);
network->markOutput(*rnn->getOutput(1));
if (rnn->getOperation() == RNNOperation::kLSTM)
{
rnn->getOutput(2)->setName(CELL_OUT_BLOB_NAME);
network->markOutput(*rnn->getOutput(2));
};
```

Refer to the C++ class `IRNNv2Layer` or the Python class `IRNNv2Layer` for further details.

A.1.32.1. RNNv2 Layer Setup

The first layer in the network is an RNN layer. This is added and configured in the `addRNNv2Layer()` function. This layer consists of the following configuration parameters.

Operation
This defines the operation of the RNN cell. Supported operations are currently `relu`, `LSTM`, `GRU`, and `tanh`.

Direction
This defines whether the RNN is unidirectional or bidirectional (Bi-RNN).

Input mode
This defines whether the first layer of the RNN carries out a matrix multiply (linear mode), or the matrix multiply is skipped (skip mode).

For example, in the network used in sampleCharRNN, we used a linear, unidirectional LSTM cell containing a `LAYER_COUNT` number of stacked layers. The code below shows how to create this RNNv2 layer.

```
auto rnn = network->addRNNv2(*data, LAYER_COUNT, HIDDEN_SIZE, SEQ_SIZE, RNNOperation::kLSTM);
```

> 📧 **Note:** For the RNNv2 layer, weights and bias must be set separately. For more information, refer to RNNv2 Layer - Optional Inputs.

For more information, refer to the TensorRT API documentation.

A.1.32.2. RNNv2 Layer - Optional Inputs

If there are cases where the hidden and cell states must be pre-initialized to a non-zero value, then you can pre-initialize them using the `setHiddenState` and `setCellState` calls. These are optional inputs to the RNN.

C++ code snippet

```
rnn->setHiddenState(*hiddenIn);
if (rnn->getOperation() == RNNOperation::kLSTM)
    rnn->setCellState(*cellIn);
```

Python code snippet

```
rnn.hidden_state = hidden_in
if rnn.op == trt.RNNOperation.LSTM:
rnn.cell_state = cell_in
```

Empty Tensors

`IRNNv2Layer` works for empty tensors but was deprecated in TensorRT 7.2.1 and removed in TensorRT 9.0. Use a loop to synthesize a recurrent sub-network as discussed in the Working with Loops section.

A.1.33. **IScaleLayer**

The `IScaleLayer` implements a per-tensor, per-channel, or per-element affine transformation and exponentiation by constant values.

Layer Description

Given an input tensor **A**, the `IScaleLayer` performs a per-tensor, per-channel, or per-element transformation to produce an output tensor **B** of the same dimensions. The transformations corresponding to each mode are:

`ScaleMode::kUNIFORM` tensor-wise transformation

$$B = \left(A * scale + \text{shift}\right)^{power}$$

`ScaleMode::kCHANNEL` channel-wise transformation

$$B_I = \left(A_I * scale_{c(I)} + shift_{c(I)}\right)^{power_{c(I)}}$$

`ScaleMode::kELEMENTWISE` element-wise transformation

$$B_I = \left(A_I * scale_I + shift_I\right)^{power_I}$$

Where I represents the indexes of tensor elements and $c_{(I)}$ is the channel dimension in I.

Conditions and Limitations

A must have at least three dimensions in implicit batch mode and at least four dimensions in explicit batch mode.

If an empty weight object is provided for `scale`, `shift`, or `power`, then a default value is used. By default, `scale` has a value of `1.0`, `shift` has a value of `0.0`, and power has a value of `1.0`.

Refer to the C++ class `IScaleLayer` or the Python class `IScaleLayer` for further details.

A.1.34. **IScatterLayer**

The `IScatterLayer` has three input tensors: Data *D*, Indices *I*, and Updates *U*, one output tensor *S*, and a scatter mode. An optional axis parameter is available when `kELEMENT` mode is used.

Layer Description

The D tensor is of rank $r > = 1$ and has the same shape as the S tensor. Generally, the layer writes to the S tensor either the D tensor or the U tensor depending on the I tensor. The interpretation of the I tensor and mode of operation depends on the scatter mode.

If `mode == kELEMENT`, for each value in updates, its output index is specified by its index in updates for dimension != axis and by the corresponding value in indices for dimension = axis.

```
Pseudocode:
output = data;
for (auto read_idx : Grid(data.extent))
{
 auto write_idx = read_idx[axis];
 write_idx[axis] = indices[read_idx];
 output[write_idx] = updates[read_idx];
}
return output;
```

If `mode == kND`, assume:

▶ tensor D of rank $r > = 1$ and $\text{shape}(D) = [k_1...k_r]$,

▶ indices tensor I of rank $q > = 1$ and $\text{shape}(I) = [k_1...k_q]$, and

▶ updates tensor U of rank $q + r - k_q - 1$

The output of the operation is a tensor G with rank r and $\text{shape}(G) = [k_1...k_r]$.

Mode of operation is defined by the following equations: $G = D$

1. If $k_q = r$, then $G\left(I\left(a_1 ... a_{q-1}\right)\right) = U\left(a_1 ... a_{q-1}\right)$

2. If $k_q < r$, then $G\left(I\left(a_1 ... a_{q-1}\right), a_{r-K_q} ... a_r\right) = U\left(a_1 ... a_{q-1}, a_{r-K_q}, ..., a_r\right)$

Conditions and Limitations

For both modes:

▶ repeated indices in I leads to undefined behavior,

▶ if dynamic shapes are used, using negative indices has undefined behavior,

▶ only data tensors can have dynamic shapes.

Refer to the C++ class `IScatterLayer` or the Python class `IScatterLayer` for further details.

A.1.35. **IScatterLayer**

The `ISelectLayer` returns either of the two inputs depending on the condition.

Layer Description

This layer returns the elements chosen from input tensor **B**(`thenInput`) or **C**(`elseInput`) depending on the condition tensor **A**.

Conditions and Limitations

All three input tensors must have the same number of dimensions; along each axis, each must have the same length or a length of one. If the length is one, the tensor is broadcast along that axis. The output tensor has the dimensions of the inputs after the broadcast rule is applied. The condition tensor is required to be of boolean type. The other two inputs may be FP32, FP16, or INT32.

Refer to the C++ class `ISelectLayer` or the Python class `ISelectLayer` for further details.

A.1.36. **IShapeLayer**

The `IShapeLayer` gets the shape of a tensor.

Layer Description

The `IShapeLayer` outputs the dimensions of its input tensor. The output is a 1D tensor of type INT32.

Conditions and Limitations

The input tensor must have at least one dimension. The output tensor is a "shape tensor," which can be used as an input only for layers that handle shape tensors. Refer to Execution Tensors Versus Shape Tensors for more information.

Refer to the C++ class `IShapeLayer` or the Python class `IShapeLayer` for further details.

A.1.37. **IShuffleLayer**

The `IShuffleLayer` implements a reshape and transpose operator for tensors.

Layer Description

The `IShuffleLayer` implements reshuffling of tensors to permute the tensor and reshape it. An input tensor **A** of dimensions **a** is transformed by applying a transpose, followed by a reshape operation with reshape dimensions **r**, and then followed by another transpose operation to produce an output data tensor **B** of dimensions **b**.

To apply the transpose operation to **A**, the permutation order must be specified. The specified permutation $p1$ is used to permute the elements of **A** in the following manner to produce output **C** of dimensions $c_i = a_{p1(i)}$ and $c_i = A_{p1(I)}$ for a sequence of indexes I. By default, the permutation is assumed to be an identity (no change to the input tensor).

The reshape operation does not alter the order of the elements and reshapes tensor **C** into tensor **R** of shape r^I, such that $r_i^I = \{r_i \text{ if } r_i > 0, \ c_i \text{ if } r_i = 0, \ \text{inferred if } r_i = -1\}$. Only one dimension can be inferred, such that $\prod r_i^I = \prod a_i$.

The special interpretation of $r_i = 0$ as a placeholder, and not the actual dimensions, can be turned off by calling the method `setZeroIsPlaceholder(false)` on the layer. If using dynamic shapes, it is strongly recommended to turn off the placeholder interpretation of 0 because it can interfere with the correct handling of empty tensors and can decrease optimization by TensorRT. For example, consider a tensor **C** with dimensions `[2,x]` that must be reshaped to a tensor **R** with dimensions `[x,2]`. With the placeholder interpretation, when `x=0`, the reshape dimensions expand to `[2,2]`, not `[0,2]` as intended.

The reshape dimensions can be specified as build-time constants in the layer or as runtime values by supplying a second input to the layer, which must be a 1D tensor of type INT32. A placeholder 0 or wildcard -1 occurring in the second input at runtime are interpreted identically to how they are interpreted if they are build-time constants.

The second transpose operation is applied after the reshape operation. It follows the same rules as the first transpose operation and requires a permutation (say $p2$) to be specified. This permutation produces an output tensor **B** of dimensions **b**, such that $\mathbf{b}_i = r_{p2(I)}$ and $\mathbf{B}_{p2(I)} = \mathbf{R}_I$ for a sequence of indexes I.

Conditions and Limitations

Product of dimensions $\mathbf{r}^I$ must be equal to the product of input dimensions **a**.

Empty Tensors

By default, `IShuffleLayer` treats a 0 in the reshape dimensions as a special placeholder, and *not meaning zero.* The placeholder means "copy the corresponding input dimension". This default behavior has been kept for compatibility with earlier versions of TensorRT, but is hazardous when working with empty tensors.

If you are reshaping to dimensions that might include a zero-length dimension, disable the placeholder treatment of zero with the `IShuffleLayer::setZeroIsPlaceholder` method.

```
IShuffleLayer* s = ...;
s->setZeroIsPlaceholder(false);
```

For example, consider the following code that intends to reshape a tensor input to dimensions specified by shape tensor `reshapeDims`.

```
IShuffleLayer* s = network.addShuffle(input);
s->setInput(1, reshapeDims);
#if CORRECT
s->setZeroIsPlaceholder(false);
#endif
output = *s->getOutput(0);
```

Suppose at runtime, the input has dimensions `[3,0]`, and the second input `reshapeDims` contains `[0,0]`. If the engine was built with `CORRECT==0`, the zeros in `reshapeDims` are interpreted as placeholders for input dimensions, and the output has dimensions `[3,0]`, not `[0,0]` as intended. Building the fragment with `CORRECT==1` ensures that the `IShuffleLayer` treats zero as zero. Unless you know that you need the placeholder feature, it is recommended that it be turned off with `setZeroIsPlaceholder(false)`.

Empty tensors also introduce the possibility of a new kind of error when using the -1 wildcard in reshape dimensions. The wildcard denotes an unknown dimension x that TensorRT solves using the equation: $x * \left(\text{volume of other reshape dimension}\right) = \text{volume}\left(\text{input tensor}\right)$

If the volume of the other reshape dimensions is zero, one of two errors occurs:

▶ The volume of the input tensor is zero. Then `x` is indeterminate.

▶ The volume of the input tensor is nonzero. Then `x` has no solution.

TensorRT reports an error in either case, possibly at build time or run time.

Refer to the C++ class `IShuffleLayer` or the Python class `IShuffleLayer` for further details.

A.1.38. `ISliceLayer`

The `ISliceLayer` implements five variants of the `slice` operations.

Layer Description

Given an input `n`-dimension tensor `A`, the Slice layer generates an output tensor `B` with elements extracted from `A`. Let us denote a, b, s, o, d, f as element coordinates in `A`, element coordinates in `B`, stride, starting offset, the extent of each dimension in `A` and constant value to fill, respectively. The stride can be positive, negative, or zero. The correspondence mapping between `A` and `B` are:

$$B[b_i] = \begin{cases} A[x_i] \ in \ default \ mode \\ A[mod(x_i, d_1)] \ in \ warp \ mode \\ A[y_i] \ where \ y_i = \begin{cases} 0, if \ x_i < 0 \\ d_i - 1, if \ x_i \geq d_i \ , in \ clamp \ mode \\ x_i, otherwise \end{cases} \\ \begin{cases} A[x_i], if \ 0 \leq x_i < d_i \\ f, otherwise \end{cases} , in \ fill \ mode \\ A[z_i], where \ z_i = \begin{cases} 2d_i - 2 - c_i, if \ c_i > d_i \\ c_i \end{cases} , c_i = mod(|x_i|, 2d_i - 2) \ in \ reflect \ mode \end{cases}$$

where $x_i = b_i * s_i + o_i$.

Conditions and Limitations

The corresponding `A` coordinates for every element in `B` must not be out of bounds.

Empty Tensors

The behavior of `ISliceLayer` for empty tensors follows a strict interpretation of its semantics. Specifically, consider slicing a dimension of length `L` with parameters start, size, and stride.

Constructing the output tensor requires subscripting the half-open interval `[0,L)` with generated indices of the form `start+i*stride` for all `i`, such that $0 \leq$ `i` $<$ `size`. All the generated indices must be in bounds. However, with `size=0`, no indices are generated, and

thus no bounds checking applies. So for `size=0`, the start and stride parameters do not matter and can be any values.

Conversely, if `L=0` and `size≠0`, then TensorRT reports an error since the half-open interval `[0,L)` becomes empty, and the generated indices are inherently out of bounds.

Refer to the C++ class `ISliceLayer` or the Python class `ISliceLayer` for further details.

A.1.39. **ISoftMaxLayer**

The `ISoftMaxLayer` applies the SoftMax function on the input tensor along an input dimension specified by the user.

Layer Description

Given an input tensor **A** of shape **a** and an input dimension `i`, this layer applies the SoftMax function on every slice $A_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1}$ along dimension `i` of **A**. The resulting output tensor **C** has the same dimensions as the input tensor **A**.

The SoftMax function **S** for a slice `x` is defined as $S(x) = \exp(x_j) / \sum \exp(x_j)$

The SoftMax function rescales the input such that every value in the output lies in the range `[0, 1]` and the values of every slice $C_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1}$ along dimension `i` of **C** sum up to `1`.

Conditions and Limitations

For `n` being the length of **a**, the input dimension `i` should be $i \in [0, n-1]$. If the user does not provide an input dimension, then $i = \max(0, n-3)$.

Refer to the C++ class `ISoftMaxLayer` or the Python class `ISoftMaxLayer` for further details.

A.1.40. **ITopKLayer**

The `ITopKLayer` finds the top K maximum (or minimum) elements along a dimension, returning a reduced tensor and a tensor of index positions.

Layer Description

For an input tensor **A** of dimensions **a**, given an axis `i`, an operator that is either *max* or *min*, and a value for k, produces a tensor of values **V** and a tensor of indices **I** of dimensions **v** such that $v_j = \{k \text{ if } i \neq j, \text{ and } a_i \text{ otherwise}\}$.

The output values are:

- $V_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1} = \text{sort}(A_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1})_{:K}$
- $I_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1} = \text{argsort}(A_{a0, ..., ai-1, :, ai+1, ..., an-1})_{:K}$

where `sort` is in descending order for operator *max* and ascending order for operator *min*.

Ties are broken during sorting with lower index considered to be larger for operator `max`, and lower index considered to be smaller for operator `min`.

Conditions and Limitations

The K value must be 3840 or less. Only one axis can be searched to find the top K minimum or maximum values; this axis cannot be the batch dimension.

Refer to the C++ class `ITopKLayer` or the Python class `ITopKLayer` for further details.

A.1.40.1. TopK Layer Setup

The TopK layer is used to identify the character that has the maximum probability of appearing next.

> 📄 **Note:** The layer has two outputs. The first output is an array of the top `K` values. The second, which is of more interest to us, is the index at which these maximum values appear.

The code below sets up the TopK layer and assigns the `OUTPUT_BLOB_NAME` to the second output of the layer.

```
auto pred =   network->addTopK(*addBiasLayer->getOutput(0),
    nvinfer1::TopKOperation::kMAX, 1, reduceAxis);
assert(pred != nullptr);
pred->getOutput(1)->setName(OUTPUT_BLOB_NAME);
```

For more information, refer to the *NVIDIA TensorRT API Reference*.

A.1.41. **ITripLimitLayer**

The `ITripLimitLayer` specifies how many times that the loop iterates. A loop is defined by *loop boundary layers*.

For more information about the `ITripLimitLayer`, including how loops work and their limitations, refer to Working with Loops.

Refer to the C++ class `ITripLayer` or the Python class `ITripLayer` for further details.

A.1.42. **IUnaryLayer**

The `IUnaryLayer` supports pointwise unary operations.

Layer Description

The `IUnaryLayer` performs pointwise operations on input tensor **A** resulting in output tensor **B** of the same dimensions. The following functions are supported:

▶ exp: $B = e^{\wedge}A$

▶ abs: $B = |A|$

▶ log: $B = \ln(A)$

▶ sqrt: $B = \sqrt{A} \left(\text{rounded to nearest even mode} \right)$

- neg : $B = -A$

- recip : $B = 1 / A$ (reciprocal) in rounded to nearest even mode

- sine : $B = \sin(A)$

- Cos : $B = \cos(A)$

- Tan : $B = \tan(A)$

- Tanh : $B = \tanh(A)$

- Sinh : $B = \sinh(A)$

- Cosh : $B = \cosh(A)$

- Asin : $B = \mathrm{asin}(A)$

- Acos : $B = \mathrm{acos}(A)$

- Atan : $B = \tan(A)$

- Asinh : $B = \mathrm{asinh}(A)$

- Acosh : $B = \mathrm{acosh}(A)$

- Atanh : $B = \mathrm{atanh}(A)$

- Ceil : $B = \mathrm{ceil}(A)$

- Floor : $B = \mathrm{floor}(A)$

- ERF : $B = \mathrm{erf}(A)$

- NOT : $B = {\sim} A$

- Sign : $B = $ If $A > 0$, 1; if $A < 0$, -1; if $A == 0$, 0.

- Round : $B = $ Round to nearest even(A)

Conditions and Limitations

Input and output can be zero to 7-dimensional tensors.

The `IUnaryLayer` layer can accept different input datatypes depending on the operation that is used. The `IUnaryLayer` supports the following types for each of these ops:

```
| Operation | DataTypes                  |
| --------- | -------------------------- |
| kEXP      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kLOG      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kSQRT     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kRECIP    | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kABS      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kNEG      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kSIN      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kCOS      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kTAN      | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kSINH     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kCOSH     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kASIN     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kACOS     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kATAN     | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
| kASINH    | kFLOAT,  kHALF,  kINT8     |
```

```
| kACOSH    | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
| kATANH    | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
| kCEIL     | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
| kFLOOR    | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
| kERF      | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
| kNOT      | kBOOL                         |
| kSIGN     | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8, kINT32 |
| kROUND    | kFLOAT, kHALF, kINT8          |
```

Refer to the C++ class `IUnaryLayer` or the Python class `IUnaryLayer` for further details.

A.2. Data Format Descriptions

TensorRT supports different data formats. There are two aspects to consider: data type and layout.

Data Type Format

The data type is the representation of each individual value. Its size determines the range of values and the precision of the representation, which are FP32 (32-bit floating point, or single precision), FP16 (16-bit floating point or half precision), INT32 (32-bit integer representation), and INT8 (8-bit representation).

Layout Format

The layout format determines the ordering in which values are stored. Typically, batch dimensions are the leftmost dimensions, and the other dimensions refer to aspects of each data item, such as C is channel, H is height, and W is width, in images. Ignoring batch sizes, which are always preceding these, C, H, and W are typically sorted as CHW (see Figure 21) or HWC (see Figure 22).

Figure 21.	Layout format for `CHW`: The image is divided into `HxW` matrices, one per channel, and the matrices are stored in sequence; all the values of a channel are stored contiguously.
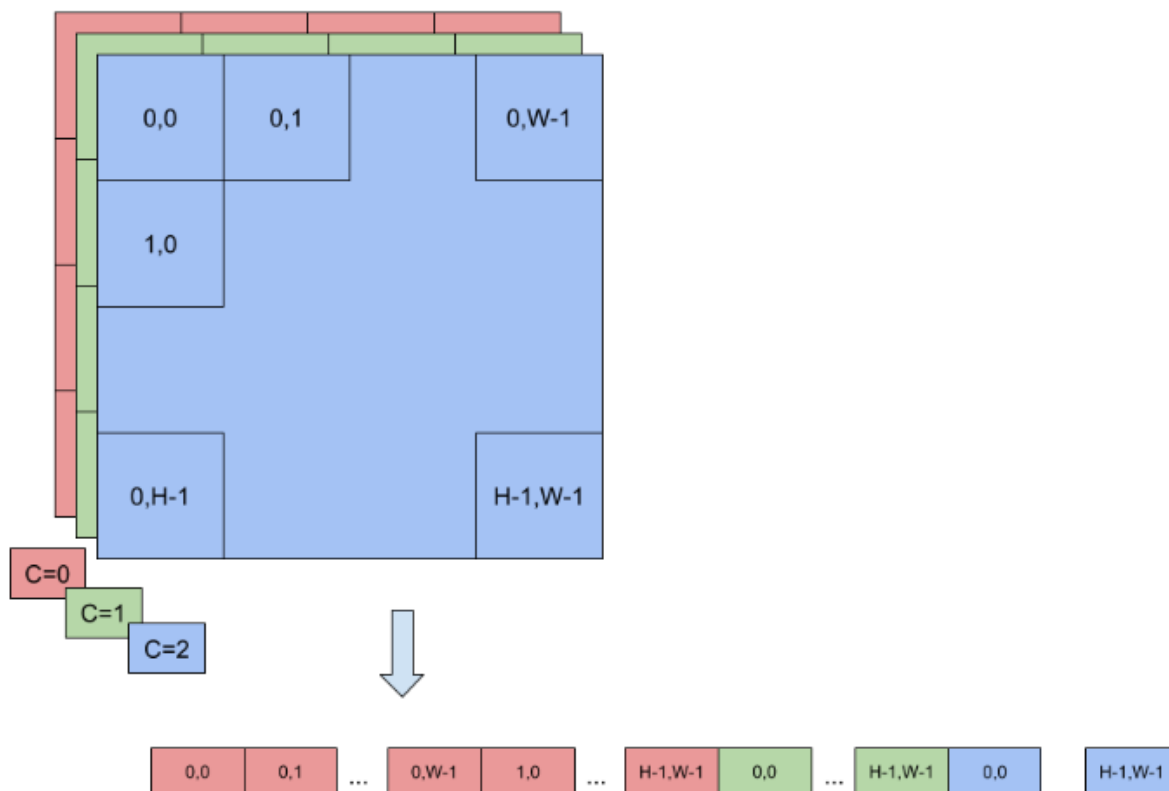
Figure 22.   Layout format for `HWC`: The image is stored as a single `HxW` matrix, whose value is actually C-tuple, with a value per channel; all the values of a point (pixel) are stored contiguously.
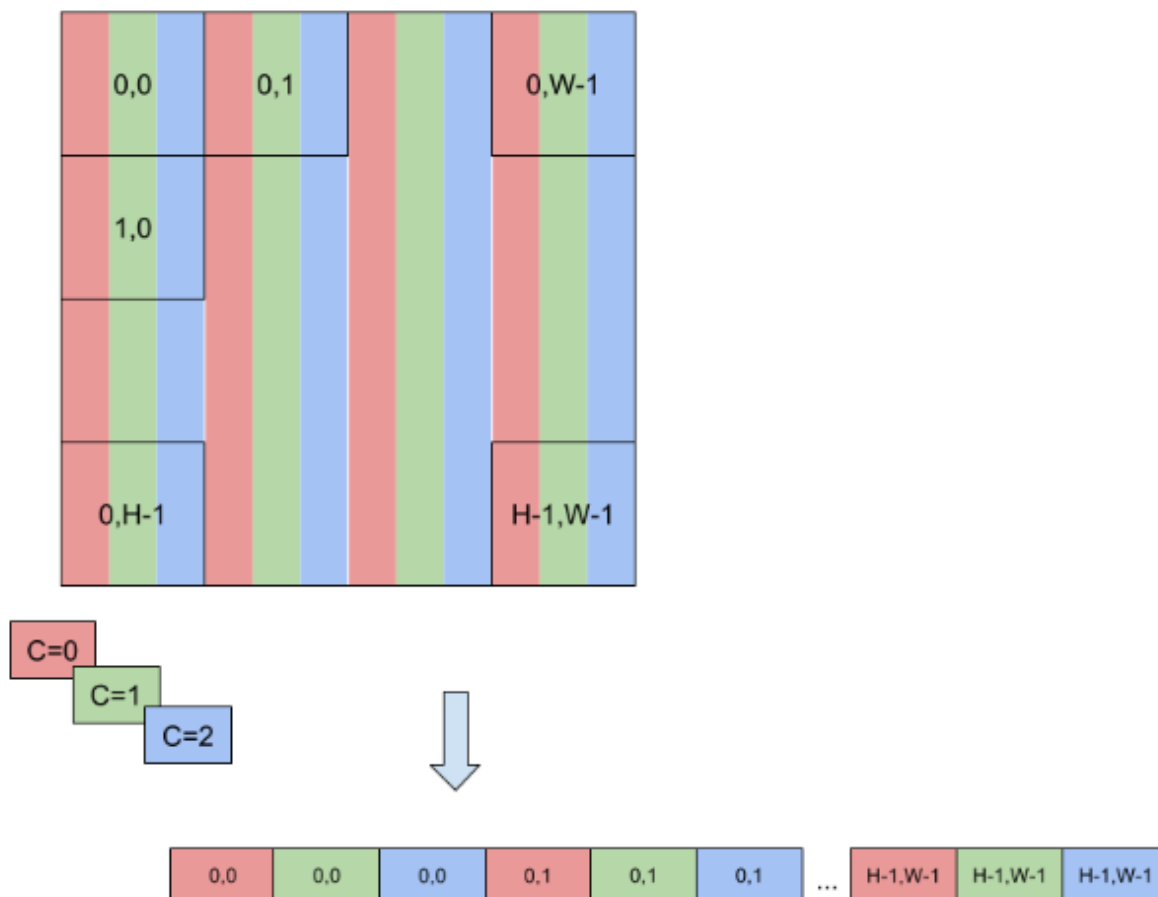
To enable faster computations, more formats are defined to pack together channel values and use reduced precision. For this reason, TensorRT also supports formats like `NC/2HW2` and `NHWC8`.

In `NC/2HW2` (`TensorFormat::kCHW2`), pairs of channel values are packed together in each `HxW` matrix (with an empty value in the case of an odd number of channels). The result is a format in which the values of `#C/2#HxW` matrices are pairs of values of two consecutive channels (see Figure 23); notice that this ordering interleaves dimension as values of channels that have stride 1 if they are in the same pair and stride `2xHxW` otherwise.

Figure 23.   A pair of channel values is packed together in each HxW matrix. The result is a format in which the values of [C/2] HxW matrices are pairs of values of two consecutive channels.
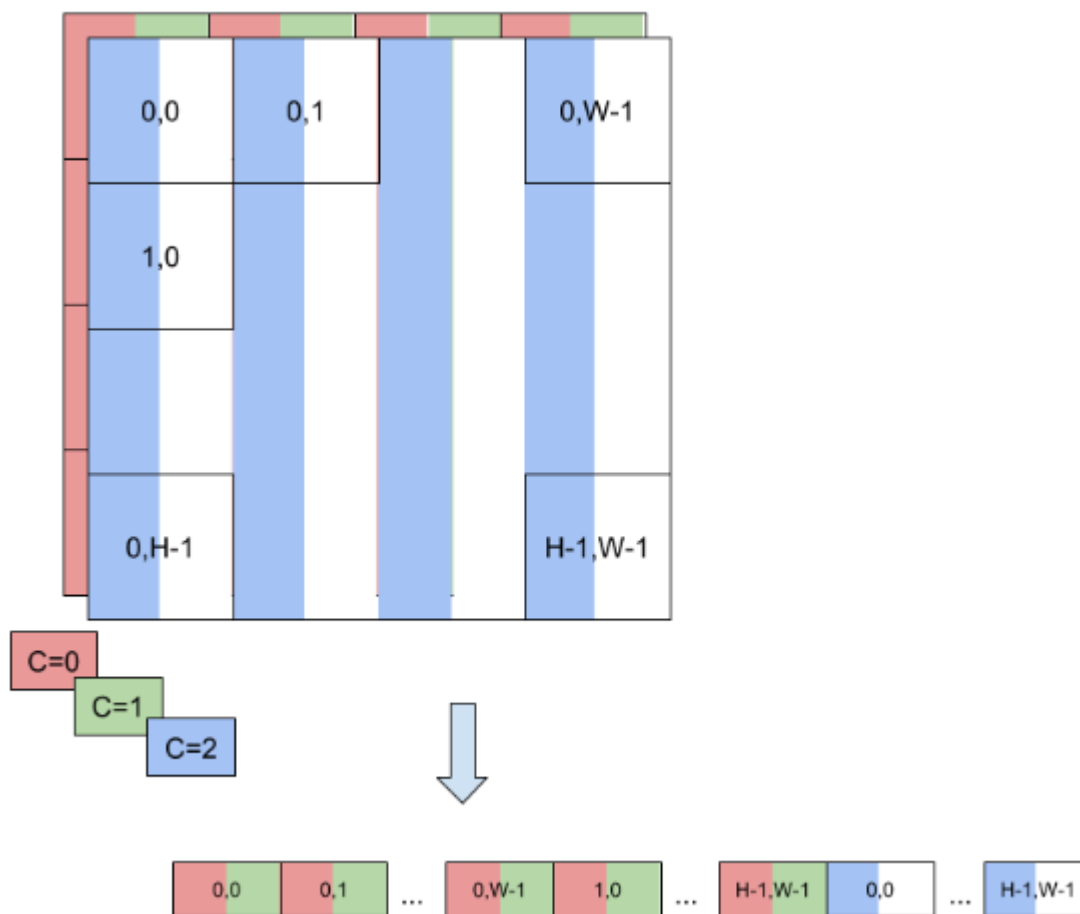
In NHWC8 (TensorFormat::kHWC8), the entries of an HxW matrix include the values of all the channels (see Figure 24). In addition, these values are packed together in #C/8# 8-tuples, and C is rounded up to the nearest multiple of 8.

Figure 24.   In this `NHWC8` format, the entries of an `HxW` matrix include the values of all the channels.
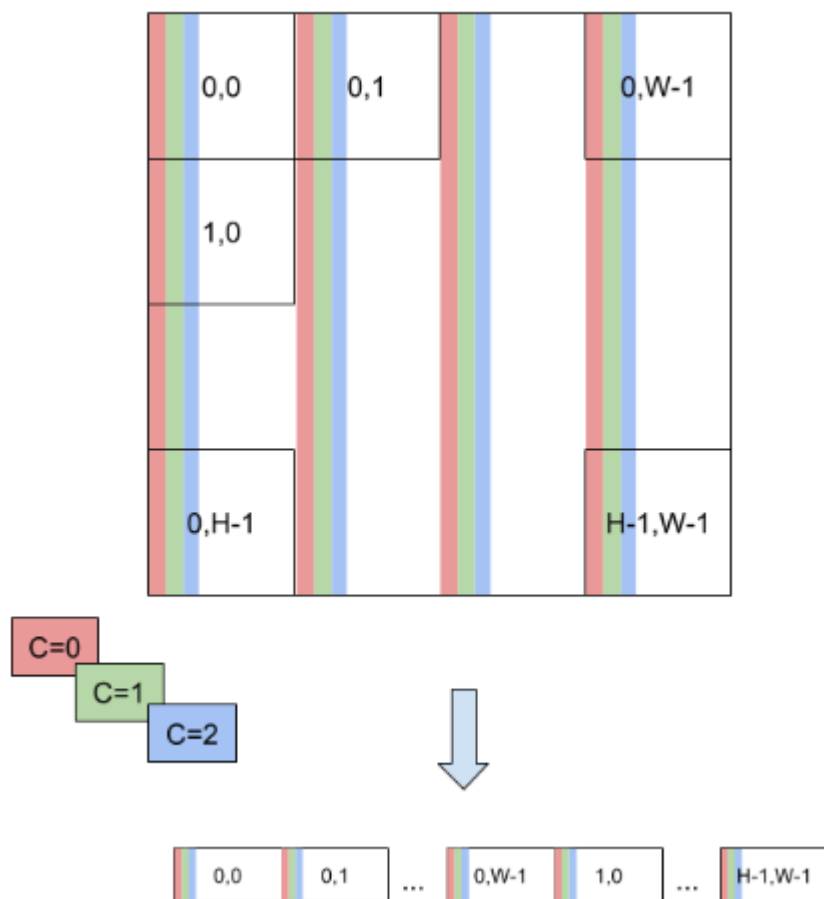
Other `TensorFormat` follow similar rules to `TensorFormat::kCHW2` and `TensorFormat::kHWC8` mentioned previously.

A.3.   Command-Line Programs

A.3.1.   `trtexec`

Included in the `samples` directory is a command-line wrapper tool called `trtexec`. `trtexec` is a tool to quickly utilize TensorRT without having to develop your own application. The `trtexec` tool has three main purposes:

▶ It is useful for *benchmarking networks* on random or user-provided input data.

▶ It is useful for *generating serialized engines* from models.

▶ It is useful for *generating serialized timing cache* from the builder.

A.3.1.1. Benchmarking Network

If you have a model saved as an ONNX file, UFF file, or if you have a network description in a Caffe prototxt format, you can use the `trtexec` tool to test the performance of running inference on your network using TensorRT. The `trtexec` tool has many options for specifying inputs and outputs, iterations for performance timing, precision allowed, and other options.

To maximize GPU utilization, `trtexec` enqueues the queries one batch ahead of time. In other words, it does the following:

```
enqueue batch 0 -> enqueue batch 1 -> wait until batch 0 is done -> enqueue batch 2 -> wait
 until batch 1 is done -> enqueue batch 3 -> wait until batch 2 is done -> enqueue batch 4 -
> ...
```

If multi-stream (`--streams=N` flag) is used, then `trtexec` follows this pattern on each stream separately.

The `trtexec` tool prints the following performance metrics. The following figure shows an example Nsight System profile of a `trtexec` run with markers showing what each performance metric means.

Throughput
   The observed throughput is computed by dividing the number of queries by the Total Host Walltime. If this is significantly lower than the reciprocal of GPU Compute Time, the GPU may be underutilized because of host-side overheads or data transfers. Using CUDA graphs (with `--useCudaGraph`) or disabling H2D/D2H transfers (with `--noDataTransfer`) may improve GPU utilization. The output log provides guidance on which flag to use when `trtexec` detects that the GPU is underutilized.

Host Latency
   The summation of H2D Latency, GPU Compute Time, and D2H Latency. This is the latency to infer a single query.

Enqueue Time
   The host latency to enqueue a query, including calling H2D/D2H CUDA APIs, running host-side heuristics, and launching CUDA kernels. If this is longer than GPU Compute Time, the GPU may be underutilized and the throughput may be dominated by host-side overhead. Using CUDA graphs (with `--useCudaGraph`) may reduce enqueue time.

H2D Latency
   The latency for host-to-device data transfers for input tensors of a single query. Add `--noDataTransfer` to disable H2D/D2H data transfers.

D2H Latency
   The latency for device-to-host data transfers for output tensors of a single query. Add `--noDataTransfer` to disable H2D/D2H data transfers.

GPU Compute Time
   The GPU latency to execute the CUDA kernels for a query.

Total Host Walltime
   The host walltime from when the first query (after warm-ups) is enqueued to when the last query was completed.

Total GPU Compute Time
   The summation of the GPU Compute Time of all the queries. If this is significantly shorter than Total Host Walltime, the GPU may be under utilized because of host-side overheads or data transfers.

Figure 25.   Performance metrics in a normal `trtexec` run under Nsight Systems (ShuffleNet, BS=16, best, TitanRTX@1200MHz)
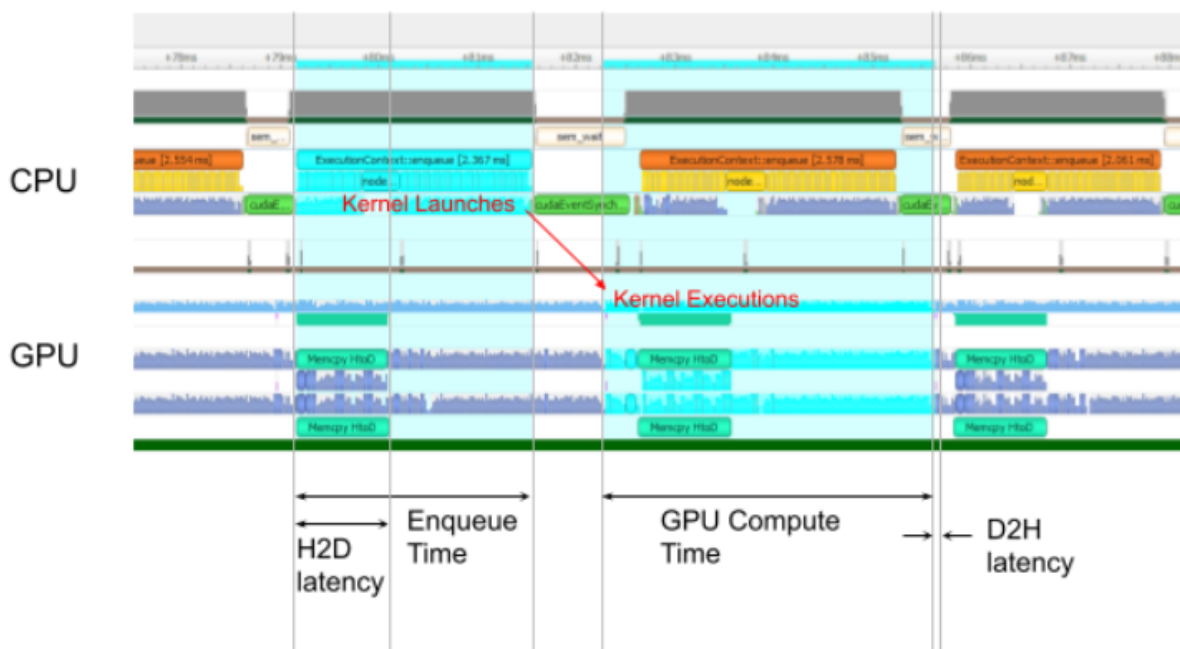
Host latency = (H2D latency) + (GPU Compute latency) + (D2H latency)

Throughput = (Total host wall time for N queries) / N

Add the `--dumpProfile` flag to `trtexec` to show per-layer performance profiles, which allows users to understand which layers in the network take the most time in GPU execution. The per-layer performance profiling works with launching inference as a CUDA graph as well (requires CUDA 11.1 onwards). In addition, build the engine with the `--profilingVerbosity=detailed` flag and add the `--dumpLayerInfo` flag to show detailed engine information, including per-layer detail and binding information. This allows you to understand which operation each layer in the engine corresponds to and their parameters.

A.3.1.2.   Serialized Engine Generation

If you generate a saved serialized engine file, you can pull it into another application that runs inference. For example, you can use the [Triton Inference Server](#) to run the engine with multiple execution contexts from multiple threads in a fully pipelined asynchronous way to test parallel inference performance. There are some caveats; for example, in INT8 mode, `trtexec` sets random dynamic ranges for tensors unless the calibration cache file is provided with the `--calib=<file>` flag, so the resulting accuracy will not be as expected.

A.3.1.3.   `trtexec`

If you provide a timing cache file to the `--timingCacheFile` option, the builder can load existing profiling data from it and add new profiling data entries during layer profiling. The

timing cache file can be reused in other builder instances to improve the builder execution time. It is suggested to reuse this cache only in the same hardware/software configurations (for example, CUDA/cuDNN/TensorRT versions, device model, and clock frequency); otherwise, functional or performance issues may occur.

A.3.1.4.   Commonly Used Command-line Flags

The section lists the commonly used `trtexec` command-line flags.

Flags for the Build Phase

▶ `--onnx=<model>`: Specify the input ONNX model.

▶ `--deploy=<caffe_prototxt>`: Specify the input Caffe prototxt model.

▶ `--uff=<model>`: Specify the input UFF model.

▶ `--output=<tensor>`: Specify output tensor names. Only required if the input models are in UFF or Caffe formats.

▶ `--maxBatch=<BS>`: Specify the maximum batch size to build the engine with. Only needed if the input models are in UFF or Caffe formats. If the input model is in ONNX format, use the `--minShapes`, `--optShapes`, `--maxShapes` flags to control the range of input shapes including batch size.

▶ `--minShapes=<shapes>`, `--optShapes=<shapes>`, `--maxShapes=<shapes>`: Specify the range of the input shapes to build the engine with. Only required if the input model is in ONNX format.

▶ `--workspace=<size in MB>`: Specify the maximum size of the workspace that tactics are allowed to use. This flag has been deprecated. You can use the `--memPoolSize=<pool_spec>` flag instead.

▶ `--memPoolSize=<pool_spec>`: Specify the maximum size of the workspace that tactics are allowed to use, as well as the sizes of the memory pools that DLA will allocate per loadable.

▶ `--saveEngine=<file>`: Specify the path to save the engine to.

▶ `--fp16`, `--int8`, `--noTF32`, `--best`: Specify network-level precision.

▶ `--sparsity=[disable|enable|force]`: Specify whether to use tactics that support structured sparsity.

    ▶ `disable`: Disable all tactics using structured sparsity. This is the default.

    ▶ `enable`: Enable tactics using structured sparsity. Tactics will only be used if the weights in the ONNX file meet the requirements for structured sparsity.

    ▶ `force`: Enable tactics using structured sparsity and allow trtexec to overwrite the weights in the ONNX file to enforce them to have structured sparsity patterns. Note that the accuracy is not preserved, so this is to get inference performance only.

▶ `--timingCacheFile=<file>`: Specify the timing cache to load from and save to.

▶ `--verbose`: Turn on verbose logging.

- ▶ `--buildOnly`: Build and save the engine without running inference.

- ▶ `--profilingVerbosity=[layer_names_only|detailed|none]`: Specify the profiling verbosity to build the engine with.

- ▶ `--dumpLayerInfo`, `--exportLayerInfo=<file>`: Print/Save the layer information of the engine.

- ▶ `--precisionConstraints=spec`: Control precision constraint setting.

  - ▶ `none`: No constraints.

  - ▶ `prefer`: Meet precision constraints set by `--layerPrecisions`/`--layerOutputTypes` if possible.

  - ▶ `obey`: Meet precision constraints set by `--layerPrecisions`/`--layerOutputTypes` or fail otherwise.

- ▶ `--layerPrecisions=spec`: Control per-layer precision constraints. Effective only when `precisionConstraints` is set to `obey` or `prefer`. The specs are read left to right, and later ones override earlier ones. "`*`" can be used as a `layerName` to specify the default precision for all the unspecified layers.

  - ▶ For example: `--layerPrecisions=*:fp16,layer_1:fp32` sets the precision of all layers to FP16 except for `layer_1`, which will be set to FP32.

- ▶ `--layerOutputTypes=spec`: Control per-layer output type constraints. Effective only when `precisionConstraints` is set to `obey` or `prefer`. The specs are read left to right, and later ones override earlier ones. "`*`" can be used as a `layerName` to specify the default precision for all the unspecified layers. If a layer has more than one output, then multiple types separated by "`+`" can be provided for this layer.

  - ▶ For example: `--layerOutputTypes=*:fp16,layer_1:fp32+fp16` sets the precision of all layer outputs to FP16 except for `layer_1`, whose first output will be set to FP32 and whose second output will be set to FP16.

- ▶ `-useDLACore=N`: Use the specified DLA core for layers that support DLA.

- ▶ `-allowGPUFallback`: Allow layers unsupported on DLA to run on GPU instead.

Flags for the Inference Phase

- ▶ `--loadEngine=<file>`: Load the engine from a serialized plan file instead of building it from input ONNX, UFF, or Caffe model.

- ▶ `--batch=<N>`: Specify the batch size to run the inference with. Only needed if the input models are in UFF or Caffe formats. If the input model is in ONNX format or if the engine is built with explicit batch dimension, use `--shapes` instead.

- ▶ `--shapes=<shapes>`: Specify the input shapes to run the inference with.

- ▶ `--warmUp=<duration in ms>`, `--duration=<duration in seconds>`, `--iterations=<N>`: Specify the minimum duration of the warm-up runs, the minimum duration for the inference runs, and the minimum iterations of the inference runs. For

example, setting `--warmUp=0 --duration=0 --iterations` allows users to control exactly how many iterations to run the inference for.

▶ `--useCudaGraph`: Capture the inference to a CUDA graph and run inference by launching the graph. This argument may be ignored when the built TensorRT engine contains operations that are not permitted under CUDA graph capture mode.

▶ `--noDataTransfers`: Turn off host to device and device-to-host data transfers.

▶ `--streams=<N>`: Run inference with multiple streams in parallel.

▶ `--verbose`: Turn on verbose logging.

▶ `--dumpProfile, --exportProfile=<file>`: Print/Save the per-layer performance profile.

Refer to `trtexec --help` for all the supported flags and detailed explanations.

Refer to GitHub: trtexec/README.md file for detailed information about how to build this tool and examples of its usage.

A.4.   Glossary

Device
A specific GPU. Two GPUs are considered identical devices if they have the same model name and same configuration.

Platform
A combination of architecture and OS. Example platforms are Linux on x86 and QNX Standard on Aarch64. Platforms with different architectures or different OS are considered different platforms.

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Boost Beast

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