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#### *Lecture 7, Part b*

# **Throughput-Oriented Architectures**

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#### *Throughput-Oriented Architectures*

- The current trend in CPUs is to go from single-core to multi-core
- Aim: to deliver higher performance by exploiting modestly parallel workloads arising from the execution of
	- multiple independent programs
	- individual programs consisting of multiple parallel tasks
- A related architectural trend is the growing prominence of throughput-oriented microprocessor architectures.
	- Field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs)
	- Sun's Niagara
	- NVIDIA's graphics processing units (GPUs)
- When executing (massively) parallel workloads, focus on maximizing total throughput at the cost of serial performance

## *Improving Total Throughput*

- Trade-off in (parallel) computing:
	- Increase total throughput (i.e., amount of work done/unit time)
	- Decrease latency for a single task (i.e., time elapsed)
- Therefore, we have:
	- Latency-oriented designs: traditional CPUs
	- Throughput-oriented designs
- Applications: any problem where parallelism abounds
	- Real-time computer graphics (e.g., gaming, virtual reality)
	- Video processing
	- Medical-image analysis
	- Molecular dynamics, astrophysical simulation
- Andrea G. B. Tettamanzi, 2014 5 Gene sequencing

#### *Field-Programmable Gate Arrays*

- Two big players: Xilinx and Altera
- Semiconductor devices based around a matrix of configurable logic blocks (CLBs) connected via programmable interconnects
- Can be reprogrammed after manufacturing
- An alternative to Application-Specific Integrated Circuits (ASICs)
- Two types of FPGAs:
	- One-time programmable (OTP) FPGAs
	- SRAM-based FPGAs: can be reprogrammed at will the dominant type

## *FPGA Applications*

- Aerospace & Defense: image & signal proc., reconfiguration
- ASIC prototyping
- Audio, Video, Image processing, and Broadcast
- Automotive
- Industrial, scientific, and medical applications
- Consumer electronics
- Networking: high-badwidth, low latency devices for data centers
- Wired and wireless communication
- High-performance computing and data storage

#### *FPGA Block Structure*



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#### *Configurable Logic Block*





#### *FPGA Programming*

- Vendors provide integrated design suites (e.g., Xilinx ISE)
- FPGA "programs" take the form of register-transfer levels (RTLs)
- An RTL is a design abstraction which models a circuit in terms of
	- flow of data between registers
	- logical operations performed on those data
- The *de facto* standard for RTL is VHDL



#### *GP-GPUs*

- Graphics Processing Units (GPUs), aka graphics accelerators:
	- The leading exemplars of modern throughput-oriented architectures
	- Produced in high volumes, their price is accessible
- General-Purpose GPUs (GP-GPUs)
	- Primarily designed for graphics processing
	- Suitable for other tasks as well
	- Example: NVIDIA Tesla GPUs

#### *NVIDIA GPU Architecture*

- Beginning with the G80 processor released in late 2006, NVIDIA GPUs support the CUDA architecture for parallel computing
- Array of processors, called "streaming multiprocessors" (SM)
- Each SM
	- Supports on the order of 1000 co-resident threads
	- Is equipped with a large register file
	- Contains many scalar processing elements that execute the instructions issued by the running threads
	- Contains high-bandwidth, low-latency on-chip shared memory
	- Provides direct read/write access to off-chip DRAM
- Single-instruction, multiple-thread (SIMT) execution model
	- Threads executed in groups ("warps"), in a SIMD fashion

#### *NVIDIA GPU Architecture*



## *CUDA Programming Model*

- Minimalist set of abstractions for parallel programming on massively multithreaded architectures
- A CUDA program is organized into
	- one or more threads executing on a host processor (CPU)
	- one or more parallel kernels that can be executed by the host thread(s) on a parallel device (GPU)
- Kernels run a sequential program across a set of parallel threads.
- The programmer specifies for each kernel launch:
	- the number of blocks
	- The number of threads per block
- CUDA kernels are thus similar in style to a blocked form of the familiar SPMD paradigm, but somewhat more flexible

#### *CUDA Threads*

- Parallel portions of an application are executed on the device as kernels
	- One kernel is executed at a time
	- Many threads execute each kernel
- Differences between CUDA and CPU threads
	- CUDA threads are extremely lightweight
		- Very little creation overhead
		- Instant switching
	- CUDA uses 1000s of threads to achieve efficiency
		- Multi-core CPUs can use only a few

#### *Thread Blocks and the Grid*

- A kernel is executed as a grid of thread blocks
- A thread block is a batch of threads that can cooperate with each other by:
	- Sharing data through shared memory
	- Synchronizing their execution
- Threads from different blocks cannot cooperate!



#### *Thread Blocks and the Grid*

- Threads and blocks have IDs
	- So each thread can decide what data to work on
- Block ID: 1D or 2D
- Thread ID: 1D, 2D, or 3D
- Simplifies memory addressing when processing multidimensional data
	- Image processing
	- Solving PDEs on volumes



## *Memory Spaces*

- Each thread can:
	- Read/write per-thread registers
	- Read/write per-thread local memory
	- Read/write per-block shared memory
	- Read/write per-grid global memory
	- Read only per-grid constant memory
	- Read only per-grid texture memory
- The host can read/write global, constant, and texture memory (stored in DRAM)

#### *Execution Model*

- Kernels are launched in grids
	- One kernel executes at a time
- A block executes on one multiprocessor
	- Does not migrate
- Several blocks can execute concurrently on one multiprocessor
	- Control limitations:
		- At most 8 concurrent blocks per SM
		- At most 768 concurrent threads per SM
	- Number is limited further by SM resources
		- Register file is partitioned among the threads
		- Shared memory is partitioned among the blocks

- Functions are declared either
	- As a kernel entry point, using the global modifier
		- May be called from the host only, executes on the device
		- Must return void
	- $-$  As a normal C function, using the  $\blacksquare$  host  $\blacksquare$  modifier
		- May be called from the host only, executes on the host
	- $-$  As a kernel-only function, using the device modifier
		- May be called from the device only, executes on device
- A few restrictions for functions executed on the device:
	- No recursion
	- No static variable declarations inside the function

– No variable number of arguments

- The host program launches kernels using the function-call-like syntax fn\_name**<<<**B, T**>>>**(arguments)
	- B: number of blocks
	- T: number of threads per block
- Kernels may use a set of special variables:
	- gridDim.x, gridDim.y: the dimension of the MS grid
	- blockIdx.x, blockIdx.y: the 2D index of the thread block
	- threadIdx.x, threadIdx.y, threadIdx.z: 3D index of thread
	- blockDim.x, blockDim.y, blockDim.z: dimension of the block

- Shared variables are declared using the shared modifier
	- Scope and lifetime: a thread block
- Global variables are declared using the \_\_global\_\_ modifier
	- Scope: a grid; lifetime: the application
- Constants are declared using the constant modifier
	- Scope: a grid; lifetime: the application
- Automatic variables without any qualifier reside in registers
	- Except for large structures that reside in local memory
- Pointers can point to memory in either global or shared memory:
	- Global memory: allocated in the host and passed to the kernel, obtained as the address of a global variable

Andrea G. B. Tettamanzi, 2014 22 – Shared memory: statically allocated during the call

- Explicit GPU memory allocation
	- cudaMalloc(), cudaFree()
- Memory copy from host to device, etc.
	- cudaMemcpy(), cudaMemcpy2D(), …
- Runtime library split into:
	- A common component providing built-in vector types and a subset of the C runtime library supported in both host and device codes
	- A host component to control and access one or more devices from the host
	- A device component providing device-specific functions

#### *CUDA Programming: An example*

```
__global__ void increment(float *x, int n)
{
    // Each thread will process 1 element, which
    // is determined from the thread's index.
     int i = blockIdx.x*blockDim.x + threadIdx.x;
     if( i<n )
        x[i] = x[i] + 1:
}
 __host__ void parallel_increment(float *x, int n)
{
    // Launch increment() kernel with 1 thread
    // per element, grouped into ⎡n/256⎤ blocks
    // of 256 threads each.
     increment<<<ceil(n/256), 256>>>(x, n);
}
```
## *Throughput-Oriented Programming*

- Scalability should be the programmer's central concern
- Techniques suitable for 4 parallel threads may be completely unsuitable for 4000 parallel threads
- Must expose substantial amounts of fine-grained parallelism, fulfilling the expectations of the architecture
- The maximal parallelism is often the best performer
- Example: sparse matrix-vector multiplication  $y = Ax$ 
	- Moderate parallelism: 1 thread per matrix row
	- Intermediate parallelism: several threads per row
	- Maximal parallelism: 1 thread for each non-zero element
- Calculation is much cheaper than memory transfer

– Preferable to locally recompute values than to store them

## *Thank you for your attention*

