

# CSE 4373/5373 - General Purpose GPU Programming

CUDA Architecture

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# CUDA Architecture

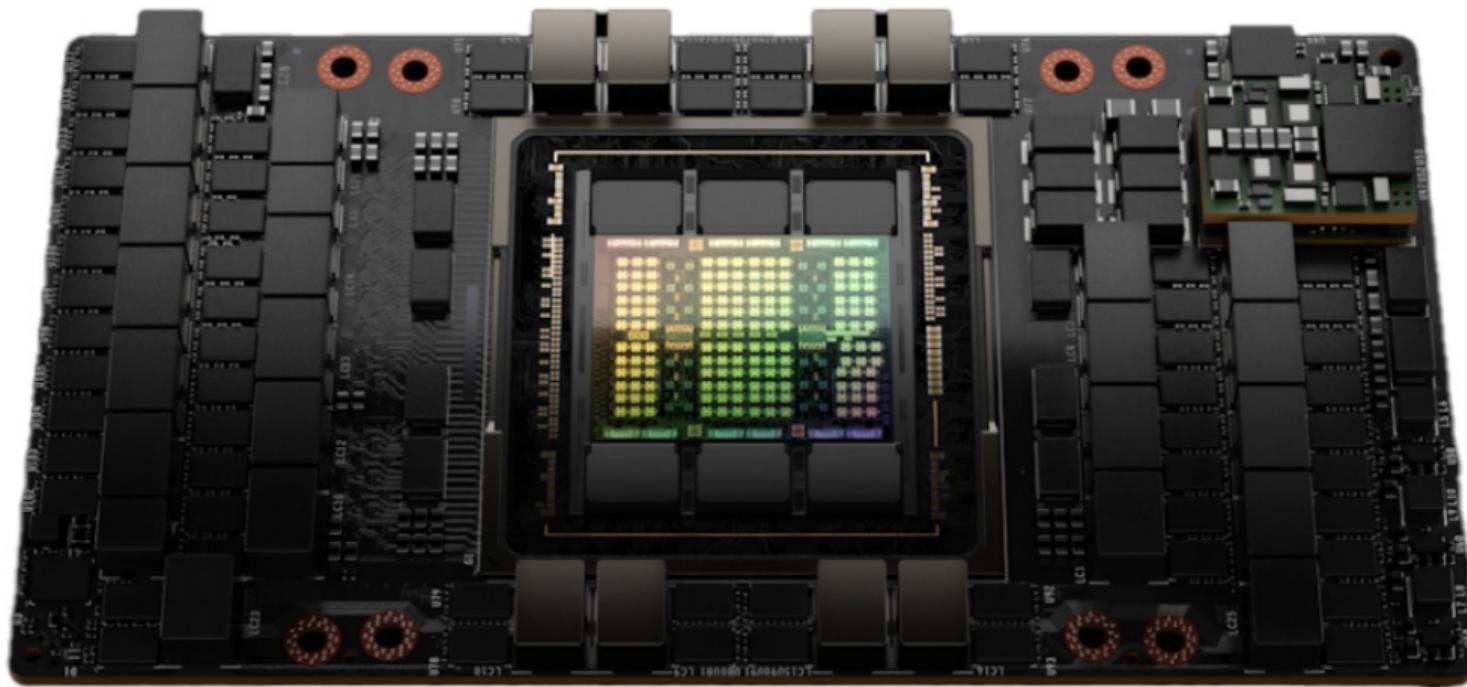
- A CUDA capable GPU is made up of a number of Streaming Multiprocessors (SMs).
- Each SM has a number of cores that execute instructions in parallel.
- The H100 has 144 SMs (you can actually count them by eye).
- Each SM has 128 FP32 cores for a total of 18,432 cores.

# CUDA Architecture

Historically, CUDA has used DDR memory, but newer architectures use high-bandwidth memory (HBM).

This is closely integrated with the GPU for faster data transfer.

# CUDA Architecture



NVIDIA H100

# Block Scheduling

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# Block Scheduling and Synchronization

When a kernel is launched...

- Configured blocks are assigned directly to SMs.
- All threads in each block will be assigned to each SM (permits communication).
- The number of blocks assigned to an SM may vary.
- All threads in a block can share data as well.

# Synchronization

- Threads that run on the same block can be synchronized using `--syncthreads()`.
- When a kernel reaches this call, the execution of the threads will stop until all of them have reached that point.
- This construct is typically used when threads need to share data or are dependent on the results of other threads.

# Synchronization

Be careful not to use this incorrectly.

```
void kernel(int *a, int *b, int *c) {
    if (threadIdx.x % 2 == 0) {
        // Perform some work
        __syncthreads();
    }
    else {
        // Perform some other work
        __syncthreads();
    }
}
```

# Synchronization

- Unlike a general-purpose processor, a GPU does not have control hardware for each individual core.
- All threads must execute the same instructions using shared resources.

# Synchronization

- In the previous example, it is possible for some threads to branch off into a different part of the program.
- Only one of the paths can be executed based on this limitation.
- This is called **control divergence**

# Synchronization

- Even though the call looks the same, each `__syncthreads()` is different.
- The first call will only synchronize the threads that executed the first path.
- The second call will only synchronize the threads that executed the second path.
- The result is either undefined output or a deadlock, in which the threads will never reach the second call.

# Synchronization

- Since threads in separate blocks cannot be synchronized, the blocks can be executed in any arbitrary order.
- Problems requiring more sophisticated synchronization require kernel splitting, atomic operations, cooperative groups, or dynamic parallelism.

# Warps

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# Warps

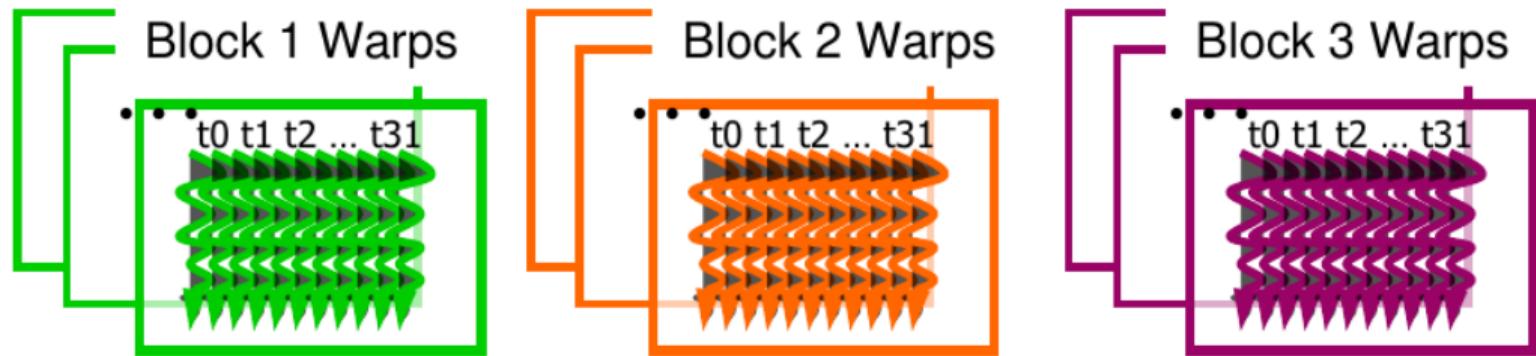
- SMs execute threads in a group of 32 called **warps**.
- Since Compute Capability 1.0, the warp size has not changed.
- When a block is assigned to an SM, it is divided into warps.
- You can determine the number of warps assigned to an SM based on the warp size.

# Warps

For example, if you have a block of 256 threads, the SM has  $256 / 32 = 8$  warps.

If the block size is not evenly divisible by the number of warps per SM, the last warp will be padded with inactive threads.

# Warps



Warps across several blocks (source: NVIDIA DLI)

# Warps

When multi-dimensional thread blocks are assigned to an SM, the threads are linearly mapped in a **row-major** order before being partitioned into warps.

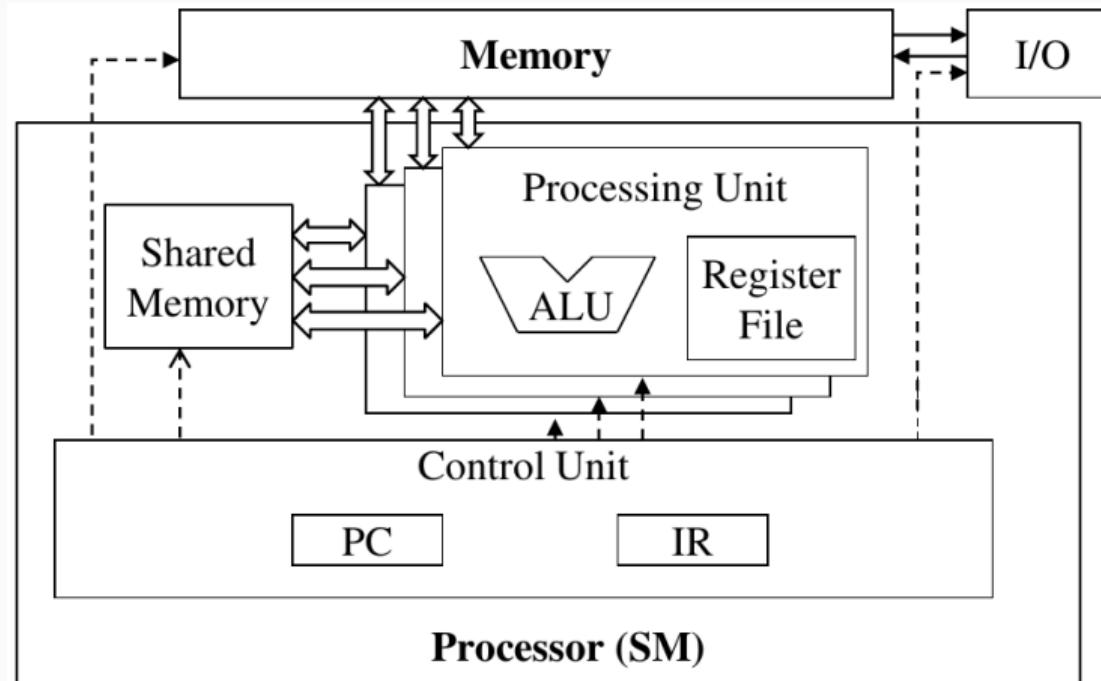
For example, a 2D block of  $16 \times 16$  threads will be mapped to a 1D array of 256 threads.

The first 32 threads will be assigned to the first warp, the next 32 to the second warp, and so on.

# Warps

- Warps are executed following the Single-Instruction, Multiple-Data (SIMD) model.
- There is a single program that runs the same instruction on all threads in the same order.
- If a thread would have executed a different path based on its input data, it would not be executed with the others.
- There is no control hardware for each individual thread.

# Warps



SMs are SIMD processors (source: NVIDIA DLI)

# Warps

The advantage of this model is that more physical space can be dedicated to ALUs instead of control logic.

In a traditional CPU, each processing core would have its own control logic.

The tradeoff is that different cores can execute their own programs at varying points in time.

# Control Divergence

Since a traditional CPU has separate control logic for each core, it can execute different programs at the same time.

If the program has a conditional statement, it does not need to worry about synchronizing instructions with another core.

**This is not the case with a GPU.**

# Control Divergence

Since every thread in a warp executes the same instruction, only threads that would execute the same path can be processed at the same time.

If a thread would execute a different path, it is not executed with the others.

This is called **control divergence**.

# Control Divergence

What exactly happens then if a warp has 32 threads of which only 16 would execute the same path?

# Control Divergence

What exactly happens then if a warp has 32 threads of which only 16 would execute the same path?

Multiple passes are made until all possible paths of execution are considered based on the divergence of the threads.

The SM would process the first 16 threads that all follow the same path before processing the second 16 threads.

# Control Divergence

This also applies to other control flow statements such as loops.

Consider a CUDA program that processes the elements of a vector.

Depending on the loop and data used, the threads may execute a different number of iterations.

As threads finished their iterations, they would be disabled while the remaining threads continue.

# Control Divergence

There are some cases in which it is apparent that your program will exhibit control divergence.

For example, if you have a conditional statement based on the thread index, you can be sure that the threads will execute different paths.

# Control Divergence Example

Consider a  $200 \times 150$  image that is processed by a CUDA program.

The kernel is launched with  $16 \times 16$  blocks which means there are  $\frac{200}{16} = 13$  blocks in the x-direction and  $\frac{150}{16} = 10$  blocks in the y-direction.

The total number of blocks is  $13 \times 10 = 130$ .

Each block has 256 threads, or 8 warps. That means that the total number of warps is  $130 \times 8 = 1040$ .

# Warp Scheduling

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# Warp Scheduling

- An SM can only execute instructions for a small number of warps.
- The architecture allows for more warps than the SM can execute since warps will often be waiting for some result or data transfer.
- Warps are selected based on a priority mechanism.
- This is called **latency tolerance**.

# Warp Scheduling

- Zero-overhead thread scheduling allows for selecting warps without any overhead.
- A CPU has more space on the chip for caching and branch prediction so that latency is as low as possible.
- GPUs have more floating point units and can switch between warps, effectively hiding latency.

# Warp Scheduling

- The execution states for all assigned warps are stored in the hardware registers, eliminating the need to save and restore registers when switching between warps.
- Under this model, it is ideal for an SM to be assigned more threads than it can execute at once.
- This increases the odds that the SM will have a warp ready to execute when another warp is waiting for data.

# Resource Partitioning

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# Resource Partitioning

- There is a limit on the number of warps that an SM can support.
- Goal: maximize the throughput of an SM by assigning as many warps as possible.
- The ratio of warps assigned to the number of warps an SM supports is called **occupancy**.
- If we understand how the architecture partitions the resources, we can optimize our programs for peak performance.

# Resource Partitioning



GH100 Full GPU with 144 SMs (source: NVIDIA)

# Resource Partitioning

The H100 supports 32 threads per warp, 64 warps per SM, 32 blocks per SM, and 2048 threads per SM.

Depending on the block size chosen, the number of blocks per SM will differ.

# Resource Partitioning

- A block size of 256 threads means that there are  $\frac{2048}{256} = 8$  blocks per SM.
- This block size would maximize occupancy since the architecture supports more than 8 blocks per SM.
- The number of threads per block is less than the limit of 1024.

# Resource Partitioning

What if we chose 32 threads per block?

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What if we chose 32 threads per block?

Then there would be  $\frac{2048}{32} = 64$  blocks per SM, but the device only supports 32 blocks per SM.

With only 32 blocks allocated with 32 threads per block, a total of 1024 threads would be utilized.

The occupancy in this case is  $\frac{1024}{2048} = 50\%$ .

# Resource Partitioning

Historically, NVIDIA provided an excel spreadsheet to compute occupancy.

It has since been deprecated in favor of Nsight Compute, a tool that provides more information about the performance of your program.

We will cover this tool in a later lecture.

# Including Registers

Another factor for occupancy is the number of registers used per thread.

- The H100 has 65,536 registers available for use.
- As long as your program does not use more than this, you can follow the simpler occupancy calculation from above.
- With 2048 threads, that leaves  $\frac{65,536}{2048} = 32$  registers per thread.

# Including Registers

- If we run a program with 256 threads/block, there would be  $\frac{2048}{256} = 8$  blocks per SM.
- This means that there are  $8 * 256 = 2048$  threads per SM.
- With 31 registers per thread, the total number of registers used per SM is  $2048 * 31 = 63,488$ .
- In this case we still maximize occupancy since  $63,488 < 65,536$ .

# Including Registers

What if each thread required 33 registers?

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The total number of registers used per SM would be  $2048 * 33 = 67,584$ .

# Including Registers

How would these resources be partitioned?

# Including Registers

How would these resources be partitioned?

Only 7 blocks could be assigned since  
 $7 * 256 * 33 = 59,136 < 65,536$ .

This means that only  $7 * 256 = 1792$  threads would be used,  
reducing the occupancy to  $\frac{1792}{2048} = 87.5\%$ .

# **Dynamic Launch Configurations**

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# Dynamic Launch Configurations

- Depending on our application requirements, we may need to support a range of devices across several compute capabilities.
- The CUDA API makes this simple by providing several different functions for querying device properties.
- These can be called from the host before configuring and launching a kernel.

# Dynamic Launch Configurations

Property	Description
name	Name of the device
totalGlobalMem	Total amount of global memory available on the device in bytes
sharedMemPerBlock	Shared memory available per block in bytes
regsPerBlock	32-bit registers available per block
warpSize	Warp size in threads
maxThreadsPerBlock	Maximum number of threads per block
maxThreadsDim	Maximum size of each dimension of a block
maxGridSize	Maximum size of each dimension of a grid
multiProcessorCount	Number of SMs on the device
maxThreadsPerMultiProcessor	Maximum number of threads per SM

# Dynamic Launch Configurations

When we first launch a program that utilizes CUDA, we will want to know how many devices are available.

Later in this course, we will develop programs that utilize multiple GPUs, but we would also want our code to adapt dynamically to a single GPU.

# Summary

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# Summary

- The CUDA architecture is designed to maximize the number of threads that can be executed in parallel.
- This is achieved by partitioning the resources of the GPU into SMs.
- Each SM can execute a small number of warps at a time.

# Summary

- The number of warps that can be assigned to an SM is called **occupancy**.
- The occupancy is determined by the number of threads per block, the number of blocks per SM, and the number of registers used per thread.
- The CUDA API provides functions for querying device properties so that the kernel launch can be configured dynamically.