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A Streaming Dataflow Engine for Sparse Matrix-Vector Multiplication using High-Level Synthesis

Mohammad Hosseinabady, and Jose Luis Nunez-Yanez

Abstract—Using high-level synthesis techniques, this paper proposes an adaptable high-performance streaming dataflow engine for sparse matrix dense vector multiplication (SpMV) suitable for embedded FPGAs. As the SpMV is a memory-bound algorithm, this engine combines the three concepts of loop pipelining, dataflow graph, and data streaming to utilize most of the memory bandwidth available to the FPGA. The main goal of this paper is to show that FPGAs can provide comparable performance for memory-bound applications to that of the corresponding CPUs and GPUs but with significantly less energy consumption. Experimental results indicate that the FPGA provides higher performance compared to that of embedded GPUs for small and medium-size matrices by an average factor of 3.25 whereas the embedded GPU is faster for larger size matrices by an average factor of 1.58. In addition, the FPGA implementation is more energy efficient for the range of considered matrices by an average factor of 8.9 compared to the embedded CPU and GPU. A case study based on adapting the proposed SpMV optimization to accelerate the support vector machine (SVM) algorithm, one of the successful classification techniques in the machine learning literature, justifies the benefits of utilizing the proposed FPGA-based SpMV compared to that of the embedded CPU and GPU. The experimental results show that the FPGA is faster by an average factor of 1.7 and consumes less energy by an average factor of 6.8 compared to the GPU.

Index Terms—Sparse-Matrix-Vector, FPGA, High-Level Synthesis, Energy, Support Vector Machine, Edge Computing

I. INTRODUCTION

PARSE matrix-vector multiplication (SpMV) is one of the common operations used in several areas such as scientific optimization, circuit simulation, and machine learning [1]. Although SpMV has been known for a long time, recent progress in utilizing new architectures that consist of multi-core CPUs, many-core GPUs, and FPGAs has led to a renewed interest in research activities towards optimizing its performance for the corresponding applications [2].

Generally, cloud-based big-data computing and analysis are the main application framework for SpMV, especially in machine learning areas. However, with the challenges arising from centralized cloud-based computing such as scalability and security, modern machine learning techniques are utilizing distributed architectures, relying on the edge computing framework. In this approach, the edge processors consume the locally generated data to train or refine a model. These data usually collected by a group of local sensors, hence, their size is limited. Recently, it has been shown that this scenario can provide a highly accurate model [3] by proposing CoCoA framework. An extension of the CoCaA called Mocha [3] focuses on the nascent federated machine learning scheme that has been empirically evaluated by academia and industry [4], corroborate the theoretical studies. This new approach has motivated us to focus on efficiently developing the SpMV on edge candidate devices considering moderate datasets (i.e., training data) and limited dimension sizes (i.e., features and training points).

Embedded FPGAs are potential candidates for accelerating computations on the edge thanks to their low energy consumption, fine-grained parallelism and multi-precision capabilities that help efficient implementation of compute-intensive applications such as deep learning algorithms [5] on small devices. This has inspired us to optimize the Sparse Matrix-Vector Multiplication (SpMV) targeting on embedded FPGAs.

Traditionally, FPGA accelerators are designed by Hardware Description Languages (HDL) that can potentially provide a high-performance implementation. However, the HDL based design flow is tedious and time-consuming. In addition, the design is not easily adaptable (modifiable) to the versatile edge computing environment that includes a variety of algorithms with different configurations and complexity. To cope with these issues, we study the use of the High-Level Synthesis (HLS) that is increasingly popular for accelerating algorithms in embedded heterogeneous platforms. Studies have shown that HLS can provide high-performance and energy-efficient implementations with shortening time-to-market and addressing today’s system complexity [6].

The SpMV is known as a memory-bound algorithm with irregular memory access operations and its implementation on FPGA should be optimized for maximum memory bandwidth utilization. This requires optimizing the number of computational hardware threads and load balancing to keep them busy. To achieve these optimization objectives, this paper proposes a Streaming Dataflow Engine (SDE) architecture for SpMV running on an FPGA using high-level synthesis. To utilize the streaming data transfer capabilities provided by HLS tools via the burst data transfer protocol, this engine integrates the loop level and process level pipelining in the code enabling high memory access throughput by saturating the memory bandwidth.

Novelties and contributions of this paper are as follows.

- Proposing a streaming dataflow engine (SDF) for SpMV, comprised of multiple hardware threads that
can be used as a template in an HLS environment.  
- Explaining the adaptivity of the proposed HLS for the versatile algorithm and configurations in the machine learning techniques on the edge computing paradigm  
- Proposing a simple analytical model to understand the algorithm and platform bottlenecks and overheads  
- Comparing the embedded FPGA implementation of the SpMV with multi-core embedded CPU and many-core embedded GPU versions and studying in which cases the FPGA implementation is more efficient.  
- Optimizing the SVM algorithm as a real application that uses SpMV as an operator by merging it with other operators needed in SVM.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Preliminary concepts, definitions, and requirements are explained in the next section. Section III reviews previous work and clarifies the motivations and contributions of this work. The dataflow engine as the underlying structure of the proposed techniques is discussed in Section IV. Section V goes through the details of the proposed methodology. Section VI investigates the experimental results. Finally, Section VII concludes the paper.

II. PRELIMINARIES

This section briefly explains concepts, techniques, and definitions that are considered throughout this paper.

A. Sparse matrix

Most of the elements in a sparse matrix are zeros. Fig. 1(a) shows such a matrix with four rows (denoted by n) and five columns (represented by m) which has 14 zero elements and 6 non-zero elements (denoted by nnz). Operators involving these matrices (such as multiplications) usually suffer from low compute-per-byte ratio which makes their traditional implementations inefficient. Using new computation techniques with associated matrix representations to achieve high performance and reduce the memory utilization have been proposed for sparse matrix manipulations. Using coordinate list (COO) in the form of (row index, column index, value) tuples for non-zero elements, as shown in Fig.1(b), is one way to reduce the matrix memory footprint. However, one of the row and column vectors has redundancy that can be removed. This leads to the Compressed Sparse Row (CSR) representation, shown in Fig.1(c) which is the common representation for sparse matrices. Three vectors, named value, col_index and row_index, represent the matrix. The value vector contains the non-zero elements in row-order and their corresponding column indices are saved in col_index vector, therefore, the number of non-zero elements, denoted by nnz, determines their sizes. The row_index elements are the indices of the value vector that contains the first element of each row in the original matrix. In other words, row_index elements point to the first element of each row in the values vector.

There are several different sparse matrix representations [7], especially used among HPC community and some of them rely heavily on the matrix sparsity pattern or the underlying computer architecture. These representations can be categorized into three main groups: General Format (GF), Architecture Specific Format (ASF) and Sparsity Pattern aware Format (SPF).

![Fig. 1: Sparse matrix representation example (n = 4, m = 5, nnz = 6) (a) The original matrix, (b) The coordinate format (c) The Compressed Row format](image)

GF: Examples of the first group are CSR, COO, CSC [7] that are more suitable for stream computing platforms, as the data is saved in a sequential orders. They are also suitable for computing architectures with high cache memory [7]. However, they may not show high-performance in GPUs which utilize the coalesce memory access scheme.  
ASF: ELLPACK formats are among the second groups suitable for vector architectures and GPUs with coalesce memory access pattern [7]. SPF: Block based CSR formats used for matrices in which zeros show a regular patterns such as block of zeros are repeating in the matrix. Diagonal formats (DIAs) is another example of this group that show the high-performance computation for diagonal matrices where non-zero elements are around the diagonal of the matrix. However, they are not suitable for representing general sparse matrices.

In summary, we have selected a sparse matrix format that  
- represents a wide range of matrices  
- is suitable for streaming data computing  
- requires a light-weight preprocessing step.

Therefore, we have used the general CSR format that makes no assumption on the sparsity of the matrix and data are saved in a sequential order.

The sparse matrix dense vector multiplication algorithm based on the CSR representation is shown in the code snippet of Listing 1 which multiplies the sparse matrix A, represented by value, col_index and row_index vectors, by a dense vector x and generates the output vector y, i.e., y = Ax. It consists of two nested for loops. The outer loop iterates through rows and the inner loop accesses each element in a row. The inner loop performs the dot-product of a row and the x vector by finding the proper element in the x vector with the index denoted by k at Line 7 of Listing 1.

Listing 1: SpMV operator

```c
void SpMV_Ref(int n, float *value, int *col_index, int *row_index, float *x, float *y) {
    int rowStart = 0, rowEnd = n;
    for (int i = rowStart; i < rowEnd; ++i) {
        float y0 = 0.0;
        for (int j = row_index[i]; j < row_index[i + 1]; j++) {
            int k = col_index[j];
            y0 += value[j] * x[k];
        }
        y[i] = y0;
    }
}
```

B. High-level synthesis

High-Level Synthesis (HLS) tools, which transform a high-level description of a task usually written in C/C++
into the equivalent HDL code, have been used recently to efficiently implement many computational or memory-intensive algorithms, especially on FPGA platforms [8]. The main goal of current HLS tools is to provide parallel implementations of the concurrencies that are modeled by designers in the input code using compiler directives (such as pragmas) or following a specific coding style suggested by the tools [9]. These concurrency models can be categorized in two main groups: statement level and process level.

1) Statement level: Independent expressions and assignments are automatically implemented in hardware running in parallel if there are enough resources in the underlying hardware. Extending this feature to iterative statements by completely or partially unrolling the iterations can be useful.

Current high-level synthesis tools leverage compile-time code analysis and optimization techniques to provide a static scheduling for the single statements and loops in the code. Hence, this requires resolving ambiguity and dependencies among variables, especially in iterative statements, at compile-time to achieve maximum hardware performance. The efficiency of loop pipelining depends heavily on the result of the static dependency and hazard analysis during which the compiler determines the fixed minimum loop iteration initiation intervals (II). The loop II is the minimum number of clock cycles before a loop iteration can start processing data by finding free resources. In other words, the II indicates the minimum interval between two consecutive loop iterations without encountering any hazards in the pipeline [9].

2) Process level: A process is a stand-alone block of statements without any side-effect, including loops, with specific inputs and outputs. Data dependency between processes can be represented by a dataflow graph in general. FPGAs can provide high performance running streaming dataflow processes. Streaming dataflow requires pipelining among processes and streaming data communication. Fig. 2(a) shows a dataflow of simple stream computing scheme which consists of three processes, Read, Compute and Write, communicating through buffers. Each of these processes can be implemented with a for loop in HLS. In the ideal case, which IIs of all loops are 1, this dataflow can be run at its highest performance as shown in Fig. 2(b) and it takes N * II + l = N + l clock cycles to finish, where N is the loop iterations and I is a latency of one dataflow iteration. However, if the II of one process is higher than 1, it determines the II of the whole dataflow, consequently reducing the performance. For instance, if the II of Compute process is d as shown in Fig. 2(c), then the II of the design would be d. In this case, the design takes N * II + l = Nd + I clock cycles, which is d times slower than the ideal case if l is negligible compared to N. Therefore, the main goal of stream computing in HLS is to minimize the processes’ initiation intervals or compensate for its negative impacts. In the sequel, this paper will explain some of the techniques to design an optimum stream computation engine for the sparse matrix multiplication.

III. PREVIOUS WORK

Sparse matrix operations are well-known problems in scientific computations and optimizations, especially in high-performance computing. Recently, a new wave of implementations is proposed [10] to support the application of these operations in the machine learning field. These algorithms mainly utilize multi-core CPUs or many-core GPUs [11], [12]. Several studies have investigated the optimization of SpMV on hardware and FPGAs [13], [14], [15].

Most of these research activities are focusing on high-end FPGAs and big-data such as approaches proposed in [14], [13], [16]. To get high-performance, they usually benefit from a complex data preprocessing, thanks to their powerful underlying computational hardware. In contrast to these approaches, our methodology targets embedded systems used in edge computing frameworks which process only parts of the big-data in a distributed computing scheme such as federated learning. In terms of the target sparse matrices, some work consider the sparsity pattern in a matrix and propose optimization techniques towards specific patterns such as the methods introduced in [14], whereas others make no assumptions about the sparsity structure of the matrix, such as [17]. Our method in this paper fits the second group.

Sadi et. al [16] propose a streaming SpMV accelerator utilizing 3D stacked High Bandwidth Memory (HBM) to overcome the memory wall issue. To consider large matrices whose x and y vectors do not fit into the on-chip memory, they propose matrix partitioning to fit the vector x into the on-chip memory. They also propose a two-step stream processing approach that is suitable for their architecture but would have high overhead in embedded FPGAs. In contrast to their approach, we use one step stream computing suitable for optimization on an embedded FPGA which does not benefit from the HBM technology.

Fowers, et. al [18] introduce an FPGA-based SpMV architecture and a sparse matrix decoding to exploit the parallelism across matrix rows. They have assumed the availability of two separate DRAMs on the system which may not be available in most current embedded systems.

Designing an efficient floating point accumulator (i.e., multiplier and adder) to improve the performance of the SpMV is the main theme in [2][19]. Opposed to these approaches, our technique can be used with any accumulator design and only its latency is required (as explained in Section V) to determine the number of hardware threads to achieve a high-performance.

In terms of the parallelism, some previous work exploit the row based parallelism (such as [2], [19], [17]) and pad each row with zeros to make their sizes a product of the parallelization factor k. Similar to these approaches,
we utilize the row-based parallelism however, we clearly explain the minimum value of the zero-padding for a given accumulator. In addition, our proposed techniques exploit the parallelism in a row and between rows using two main techniques in HLS that are loop pipelining and unrolling.

Reference [15] utilizes multi-port memory interfaces to increase the memory bandwidth. Similarly, we utilize multiple ports as well as the wide-buses on each port and compare the results with embedded GPU and CPU.

Finally, in contrast to other work, we show that the proposed approach is easily adaptable to the environment of a real application since the SpMV hardware description can be extended with other compute intensive operators maintaining the performance level. These concepts are explained through case studies in Section VI.

IV. PROPOSED STREAMING DATAFLOW ENGINE

This section explains the structure of the proposed streaming dataflow engine (SDE) with its performance model.

Fig. 3 shows the structure of the proposed SDE for implementing the sparse matrix-vector multiplication. The related sub-tasks are distributed into three main stages connecting through stream mapping layers. Whereas each stage consists of a few processes performing computation or data transfer between the FPGA and the main memory, a stream mapping layer reformats and distributes the data received from its input buffers among its output buffers. In addition, it resolves the data-type mismatch problem between two consecutive stages. For example, if the input stage uses a 128-bit bus to transfer data to the FPGA while the compute stage uses 32-bit float data-type, then the stream data mapper should provide this transformation by mapping an input stream data into four output stream data utilizing proper buffers and pipelined concatenation or splitting assignments.

The input stage, as shown in Fig. 3, consists of a few processes (denoted by s) each of which is responsible for reading data from the main memory, through a dedicated port, using a burst data transfer scheme. Each process is implemented by a pipelined loop with a specific initiation interval (II) which has a direct impact on the bandwidth utilization. The maximum input bandwidth utilization associated with a process is determined based on the number of bytes read per second which can be represented by Eqn. (1) in which III is the initiation interval of the process reported by the HLS tool, b

ιin

is the bus-width of the corresponding memory port, and f

ιin

is the clock frequency of the memory interface.

The compute stage in Fig. 3 receives sequences of data from its predecessor stream data mapping layer and performs its task. This stage comprises of p processes each of which consists of t pipelined threads that can be run in parallel. The SpMV computation tasks are divided among these parallel processes. The maximum performance of a process in terms of the number of operations per second is denoted by Eqn. (2) in which III is the initiation interval of processes’ loop, c

comp

denotes the number of operations in each loop iteration and f

comp

determines the frequency of the operations.

The output stage consisting of w processes is responsible for writing the results to the main memory. It has a similar structure to the input stage.

One of the features of this structure is its adaptability to a specific application, such that it can be adapted to a given target application by adding operations to the code of each process as long as the added operator does not incur any loop dependency which results in no changes in II during the synthesis, in case of having enough resources on the FPGA.

Fig. 3: Streaming Dataflow Engine (SDE): Structure

Performance model: We propose a performance model to determine the contribution of algorithm and platform on the design efficiency. This model simply clarifies the bottleneck of the whole design and can be used as a guideline to propose algorithmic or architectural optimization techniques. This model calculates the execution time of

\[ BW_{\text{in}}^{\text{max}} = \frac{b_{\text{in}} \times f_{\text{in}}}{(III)} \]  

\[ Perf_{\text{comp}}^{\text{max}} = t \times (c_{\text{comp}} \times f_{\text{comp}})/(III_{\text{comp}}) \]  

\[ BW_{\text{out}}^{\text{max}} = \frac{(b_{\text{out}} \times f_{\text{out}})}{(III_{\text{out}})} \]
the same matrix of Fig. 1(a). This representation is referred
to as Modified CSR (MCSR) throughout this paper. This
technique is similar to the one presented in [20]. Note that,
the row_length elements can be computed by differenti-
ting two consecutive elements in the row_index vector.
Therefore, its computation can be done in the hardware
along with Task 1. The interested reader can refer to the
open source code of this research for more information [21].
The overheads associated with this technique are explained
in Section VI-C.

The aforementioned three tasks of this implementation
are as follows. Task 1 transfers the entire x into the FPGA
memory using the burst data transfer which takes about m
(i.e., its length) clock cycles. To implement Tasks 2 and 3
the SDE structure of Fig. 3 can be used. Considering this
structure and the MCSR representation, Fig. 5 depicts
the pseudo-code of the naïve stream computation for the SpMV.
The dense vector x transferred to the FPGA is denoted by
x_local in this pseudo-code.

The input stage consists of three processes, P1, P2 and
P3, to read row_length and col_index indices as well as
value vectors (as shown in Fig. 4) from the main memory in
a streaming manner using the burst data transfer protocol.
In this case s = 3, and as each process uses a dedicated
memory port and the burst data transfer is used to read
vectors, the minimum \( H_{in} \), reported by the synthesis tool,
for each process is 1. As the data-types in the three stages
are the same, the streaming data mapping layer is very
simple and only consists of buffers as shown between
stages.

The code in process P4 of Fig. 5 converts the nested loops
in Listing 1 into a single loop that can easily be pipelined.
The intra- and inter-loop iteration dependencies due to read-
after-write potential hazards on col_left variable and the
accumulation on the sum variable (at Line 10 of the P4
process in Fig. 5) restricts the timing relation between the

two consecutive loop iterations. This can cause an II higher than one. For example, in our experiment, we obtained the initiation interval of 4 (i.e., II = 4) by synthesizing the code for Xilinx Zynq-MPSoC. The main reason for this high II is the high latency of the accumulate operator with the float data-type. Fig. 6(a) shows the simplified pipeline timing diagram. This restricts the whole task throughput and performance. In addition, as just one process is considered without any loop unrolling, therefore p = 1, t = 1, according to Fig. 3. The last stage (i.e., output stage) consists of one process which writes back the results into the main memory. In this case, w = 1 and II_out = 1. If there are enough memory ports to transfer data into the FPGA, then this process requires about (nnz * II_pl) clock cycles to complete. Taking the number of clock cycles for Task 1 into account, the entire SpMV takes about (m + nnz * II_pl) cycles to execute. Therefore, Eqs. 5, 6 and 7 show the performance model, BRAM usage and memory bandwidth utilization, respectively. Note that in this case \( t_{ideal}^{alg} = (m + nnz)/f \) and \( t_{lib}^{plat} = (II_pl - 1)nnz/f \) because it is caused by the floating point operation latency.

\[
T = (m + nnz)/f + ((II_pl - 1)nnz/f) + t_{plat}^{hard} \tag{5}
\]

\[
M_{BRAM} = m * sizeof(DATATYPE) \tag{6}
\]

\[
M_{MW} = (m + nnz)/T \tag{7}
\]

Our experimental results show that \( t_{plat}^{hard} \) is negligible, hence, according to Eq. 5, the main bottleneck of this design is the high initiation interval of process P4 in the compute stage. The next subsection explains how to cope with this issue.

B. Fast stream computing

One way to overcome the high initiation interval bottleneck of the P4 process is processing multiple data in one iteration of the process’s loop. Hence, the loop can be unrolled with a factor of \( II_{com} \), i.e., \( t = II_{com} \) in the SDE shown in Fig. 3. For example, according to our experiment, since \( II_{com} = 4 \) here, then it is enough to unroll the loop just 4 times. As such, the P4 process can consume the data generated by the input stage processes without causing any wait state in processes of the input stage. Listing 2 shows the corresponding snippet code. The corresponding simplified timing diagram is shown in Fig. 6(b). Although the II is not changed, using four elements in each iteration increases the throughput by a factor of 4 which cancels the negative impact of \( II = 4 \). Note that this technique increases the number of utilized adder/multipliers by a factor of II compared to the naive implementation. Utilizing multiple multipliers/adders has proposed by researchers who use the HDL design flow to cancel the high-latency of floating-point multipliers in a pipeline, such as scheme [18]. However, they have proposed their own fused accumulator which is not directly applicable to the context of HLS.

Listing 2: Fast stream computing code

As each iteration of the for loop at Line 1 of the snippet code in Listing 2 processes \( II_{com} \) data items of a row, the number of processed data element in each row should be a product of \( II_{com} \). To satisfy this constraint some zero elements should be added to each row in the matrix representation in Fig. 4. This is referred to as zero-padding in the sequel of this paper. This zero-padding adds an overhead to the performance that will be examined later in Section VI for a set of matrices. The number of elements processed in each row is denoted by \( eup \) (elements under process) which is greater than \( nnz \). Therefore, considering the number of Task 1 clock cycles, this implementation requires \( (m + eup) \) clock cycles to complete. Eq. 8 shows the corresponding performance model, where \( t_{ideal}^{alg} = (m + nnz)/f \) and \( t_{lower}^{alg} = (eup - nnz)/f \). Note, this algorithm address the platform library overhead and introduce the algorithm overhead. The experimental results show that this ends up to improve the performance.

\[
T = (m + nnz)/f + (eup - nnz)/f + t_{plat}^{hard} \tag{8}
\]

\[
M_{BRAM} = m * sizeof(DATATYPE) \tag{9}
\]

\[
M_{MW} = (m + eup)/T \tag{10}
\]

Note that, for implementing the zero-padding process, only the row_length vector should be modified and there is no need to modify the values and col_indices to contain zeros. The extra zeros can be inserted into the stream computing during the computation [21]. The complexity of the row_length modification algorithm is \( O(n) \) and can be done in hardware (by a loop II=1 [21]) along with Task 1 which does not have any impact on the total performance.

This algorithm can be modified to cover other sparse matrix formats. This illustrates that the proposed HLS technique is easily modifiable and adaptable to new situations in contrast to the traditional HDL approach. For example, it can be modified as Listing 3 to support symmetric sparse matrices in which only lower-left or upper-right triangular shape of data should be saved in the CSR format. In this algorithm, each matrix element (i.e., value) should modify
two elements in the $y$ output vector that has been shown in Lines 12 and 13. This requires keeping the $y$ vector in the FPGA. However, multiple access to the $y$ elements in one iteration of the outer pipelined loop increases the $H$, mainly because of the shortage of the number of ports on $y$ for parallel data access. To solve this problem, Line 13 utilizes $H_{com}$ copy of the $y$ vector to save partial results. Lines 22 to 25 show how to merge these partial results to get the final $y$ vector elements. The resource overheads of this modification are 61.1\%, 15.2\%, 11.2\%, and 19.3\% on DSP, FF, LUTRAM and LUT of the FPGA. It also reduces the maximum size of the sparse matrix by a factor of 2. The performance improvement of this modification is 63\% for a symmetric sparse matrix of size 40960 x 40960 with $nnz = 139264$. Note that further optimization of this modified algorithm is beyond the scope of this paper and requires a separate article.

```c
for (r=0; r<ndata; r++) {
  if (col_left == 0) {
    results_fifo << sum+tmp;
    value = values_fifo.read();
  }
  y[i] = y0;
  col = col_fifo.read();
  for (int i = 0; i <
    sum_tmp += term[i];
    if (col != r)
      col_left
      tmp += y_local[i][r];
    term[i] = value
  }
  if (col != r)
    y[i] = y0;
  y[i] = value + x[k];
  if (col != r)
    y_local[i][col] += value * x_local[r];
  DATA_TYPE sum_tmp=0;
  for (int i = 0; i < $H_{com}$; i++)
    sum_tmp += term[i];
  sum += sum_tmp;
  col_left--;$H_{com}$;
  if (col_left == 0) {
    DATA_TYPE tmp=0;
    for (int i = 0; i < $H_{com}$; i++)
      tmp += y_local[i][r];
    results_fifo << sum+tmp;
  }
}
```

Listing 3: Fast stream computing code for sparse symmetric matrix

Although Listing 2 provides a fast streaming computation for SpMV, it utilizes three memory ports (i.e., memory interconnects on the FPGA) that restricts its scalability to utilize more ports for performing parallel threads, mainly due to the limited number of memory ports available in embedded systems. The next subsection explains how to reduce the number of utilized ports and increase the number of computation processes.

C. Reduced-port stream computing

To reduce the number of ports used by the design in Listing 2, the row and column indices can be combined and read through a single port. As shown in Fig. 7, the new format is defined by concatenating the number of elements in a row and the column indices of those elements. The new combined vector which is called $indices$ has a length of $n+eup$, where $n$ is the number of rows. The corresponding implementation requires $(m + (n + eup))$ clock cycles to complete. Therefore, Eq. 11 shows the performance model, where $t^{alg}_{ideal} = (m + n/m)/f$ and $t^{alg}_{over} = (n + eup - nnz)/f$.

\[
T = \frac{(m + n/m)/f}{(n + eup - nnz)/f + t^{plat}} 
\]

\[
M_{BRAM} = \frac{n * sizeof(DATATYPE)}{n + m + eup}/T
\]

![Fig. 7: Two-port streaming CSR](image)

where $t^{alg}_{ideal} = \frac{(m + nnz)f}{m}$ and $t^{alg}_{over} = \frac{n + eup - nnz)f}{f + t^{plat}}$.  

It should be noted that interleaving the row and column indices is a very simple process and does not include any computation and can be done during the process of receiving the locally generated data by the embedded system on the edge computing platform which results in no overhead on preprocessing data. This can be done by buffering each row’s data at the edge platform before merging column and row indices. The goal of this optimization is to reduce the number of used ports and not to improve the performance, instead, it prepares the algorithm to utilize multiple ports to improve the performance. The next subsection clarifies the benefits of this approach.

D. Multi-port stream computing

One way to increase the design throughput is utilizing multiple ports to transfer data from memory to the FPGA in parallel. If the embedded FPGA contains $P$ memory ports each having $B$ bits, and the number of bits of each element in $value$ and $indices$ vectors are $g$ and $h$, respectively, then the number of computing processes, denoted by $p$ in Fig. 3 satisfies Eq. (14). In this case, the rows in the input sparse matrix can be divided into $p$ parts, each processed by a computing process, resulting in a maximum of $p$ times speed-up. However, the maximum speed-up is limited by the part that contains more data elements. As each hardware thread calculates a part of the output vector $y$, Tasks 2 and 3, mentioned earlier in this section, execute sequentially. Therefore, the entire $y$ is saved into the FPGA BRAM and transferred to the memory after Task 2 finishes.

\[
p \leq \frac{P * B}{g + h}
\]

Tasks 1 and 3 can also benefit from multiple port utilization. If we use $k$ ports to transfer these vectors, then this implementation requires about $m/k + (n + eup)/p + n/k$ clock cycles to complete. Therefore, Eq. 15 shows the performance model, where $t^{alg}_{ideal} = \frac{n}{k + (n/p)f}$ and $t^{alg}_{over} = \frac{(n + eup - nnz)/p + n/k}{f}$.  

\[
T = \frac{(m + n/m)/f}{(n + eup - nnz)/p + m/k)/f + t^{plat}} 
\]

\[
M_{BRAM} = \frac{n * sizeof(DATATYPE)}{n + m + eup}/T
\]

One concern with this multi-process design is the unbalanced number of data elements divided among the parallel computing processes. The next subsection explains how to deal with this problem.
E. Load balancing

To get the maximum performance by utilizing multiple computing processes, their workloads should be balanced through a proper matrix partitioning. This pre-processed matrix partitioning problem can be modeled using the 1D chains-on-chains partitioning (CCP) problem [22], [23]. If the matrix partitioning problem can be modeled through a proper matrix partitioning. This pre-processed computing processes, their workloads should be balanced.

E. Load balancing

Load balancing algorithm

Data: no_part: number of partition
Data: eup: number of total eup
Data: R = << r_0, r_1, ... r_{N-1} >>;
Result: < P_0, P_1, P_{p-1} > ;

1 ideal_part_size = eup/no_part;
2 P_0 = r_0
3 j = 0;
4 for i ← 1 to N - 1 do
5 if |P_j| + |r_i| < ideal_part_size then
6 P_j = P_j + r_i
7 else
8 if j + 1 < no_part then
9 j = j + 1;
10 end
11 end
12 end

VI. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

This section evaluates the proposed SpMV optimization techniques. For this purpose, firstly, several sparse matrices, selected as benchmarks, are used to study the impact of each optimization technique explained in Section V. Then, the performance results are compared with the performance of a multi-core embedded CPU and two many-core embedded GPUs running the corresponding SpMV. Finally, two case studies are examined to explain the efficiency of the proposed methods in practice. Before delving into the detailed analysis and comparison, the next subsection explains the experimental set-up used for generating results.

A. Experimental setup

To evaluate the proposed methods, we use three state-of-the-art embedded platforms available on the market. Xilinx ZCU102 evaluation board featuring the Zynq UltraScale XCZU9EG-2FFVB1156 FPGA [24], referred to as Zynq-MPSoC in the sequel, is used to run the proposed SpMV on its embedded FPGA. In addition, this platform is used to execute the multi-threaded version of SpMV on its quad-core embedded processor. Nvidia Jetson TX1 and TX2 as two available commercial embedded GPU are used for running the corresponding SpMV on their embedded GPUs.

Zynq-MPSoC: The Xilinx Zynq Ultrascale+ MPSoC consists of two main parts: the multi-core ARM processing system (PS) and the programmable logic (PL). This embedded system is supported by an external 64-bit DDR4 memory as the main memory for program code and data that is shared between the PL and PS through dedicated ports. Our design utilizes the four 128-bit high performance (HP) ports on the Zynq-MPSoC to transfer data between the main memory and the PL. In this system, the FPGA and the CPU power domain supply voltages are provided by 23 voltage rails [24] among them VCCINT and VCC_PSNINTPP supply the main powers for the FPGA and CPU in this paper, respectively. The corresponding voltage regulator, provided these voltage rails, supports the Power Management Bus (PMBUS) and I2C protocol, so the power consumption can be monitored through software using the proper I2C APIs in Linux. We use the Xilinx SDSoC environment [25] which utilizes Xilinx Vivado-HLS and Vivado as the synthesis tool-chain to generate the bitstream file for the FPGA configuration and related drivers and software in Linux to invoke the accelerator.

TX1 and TX2: These embedded systems are based on NVIDIA Tegra X1 and X2 SoC [26], respectively. Whereas the TX1 consists of an NVIDIA Maxwell GPU with 256 CUDA cores, a Quad ARM A57, and 4 GB 64-bit memory, the TX2 encompasses the NVIDIA Pascal architecture with 256 CUDA cores, a Quad ARM A57, and 8 GB 128bit memory. The cuSPARSE library [27], one of the most efficient industrial libraries provided by Nvidia for sparse matrix operation, is used in this paper for SpMV implementation on the embedded GPUs. In this system, the GPU and the CPU power domain supply voltages are provided by VDD_GPU and VDD_CPU voltage rails. The powers drawn from these rails are measured as the power consumption of each part. Note that these two platforms utilize programmable voltage regulators that can be monitored at runtime through the I2C protocol. Consequently, a software thread can read the power consumption of these modules at runtime using the I2C software library available in the Linux OS [21].

Note that the power measurements in the experimental results do not include the cool-down power in which capacitors in the accelerator are discharged after the kernel execution has completed. However, for the sake of completeness and giving a value for the energy consumed during this
period, we measured the power consumption after finishing a task. Our measurements show that for the GPU this period takes about 4 ms and consumes 113886 J energy, and for the FPGA it takes around 57 ms and consumes 60711 uJ. Note that studying and Optimization of the cool-down energy consumption requires separate research that is beyond the scope of this paper.

B. Benchmarking

A group of sparse matrices from the University of Florida Sparse Matrix Collection [28] has been considered as our benchmarks in this section. According to the histogram of these matrices [28] the dimension and the number of non-zero elements for most of matrices are less than $10^5$ and $10^6$, respectively. Therefore, the benchmarks chosen here are among the most frequently occurring mid-range matrices to be processed by our underlying FPGA. This is in line with the motivations of this research, explained in Section I, in which an embedded system only processes a part of a big data. Table I shows the statistics of these sparse matrices. The first column is the name of the matrix as it appears in [28], the number of rows and columns are shown in Columns 2 and 3, respectively. The last column represents the number of non-zero elements in each matrix.

### Table I: Sparse matrix statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix name</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>m</th>
<th>nnz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bcsrcd03</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rotor1</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fpga_dcop_11</td>
<td>1201</td>
<td>1201</td>
<td>3592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cap5</td>
<td>1016</td>
<td>1016</td>
<td>11085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-48</td>
<td>18358</td>
<td>18358</td>
<td>62447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mhd4800a</td>
<td>4029</td>
<td>4029</td>
<td>10222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rajat22</td>
<td>10172</td>
<td>10172</td>
<td>24025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF16</td>
<td>72643</td>
<td>72643</td>
<td>104729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g7ac080</td>
<td>12477</td>
<td>12477</td>
<td>104729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S0</td>
<td>13490</td>
<td>13490</td>
<td>176075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ba5c</td>
<td>12265</td>
<td>12265</td>
<td>38941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lhr34c</td>
<td>11731</td>
<td>11731</td>
<td>12831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IG5-17</td>
<td>10162</td>
<td>10162</td>
<td>103598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixtank_new</td>
<td>13153</td>
<td>13153</td>
<td>694257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSOPF_RS_b300_c2</td>
<td>208586</td>
<td>208586</td>
<td>397456</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table II: The eup for different II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix name</th>
<th>PP_CI</th>
<th>PP_CII</th>
<th>PP_CIII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bcsrcd03</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rotor1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fpga_dcop_11</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cap5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-48</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mhd4800a</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rajat22</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF16</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g7ac080</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ba5c</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lhr34c</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IG5-17</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mixtank_new</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSOPF_RS_b300_c2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned in Subsection V-A, transforming the CSR to MCSR can be done in the hardware along with transferring the vector $x$ into FPGA. This design comes with hardware and energy overheads. The synthesized hardware shows 0.8%, 13.3% and 2.1% overhead on FF, LUTRAM and LUT in FPGA resource utilization, respectively. In addition, its energy overhead for bcsrcd03 and TSOPF_RS_b300_c2 sparse matrices are 18% and 0.9%, respectively, corresponding to the smallest and largest matrix in our benchmark.

As mentioned in Subsection V-E the load balancing algorithm, that can be done on the CPU, has a very low overhead as its complexity is $O(n)$, where $n$ is the number of rows. This overhead is 0.3% for bcsrcd03 matrix and 7.6% for TSOPF_RS_b300_c2, corresponding to the smallest and largest matrix in our benchmark.

Fig. 9 compares the speed-up of the different levels of optimizations explained in Section V to the naïve version. According to this diagram, the fast-stream version speeds up the naïve version up to 3.91 times that is quite close to the upper bound of $II_{com} = 4$. Merging the two indices vectors in the reduced-port case abates this speed-up; however, it enables increasing the number of hardware processes in the multi-port option that eventually increases the speed-up factor to 21.1. As can be seen from this diagram, the load balancing technique has a great impact on the large matrices with an unbalanced distribution of $nnz$ elements such as mixtank_new.

Fig. 10 shows the execution time of the proposed SpMV for the two different frequencies. For each frequency two diagrams are plotted, one based on the performance formula.
of Eq. 15 without the platform overhead (i.e., $t_{plat}$) and the other based on the real measurement. As can be seen, the platform overhead is almost zero for $f = 100MHz$ and it is negligible for $f = 200MHz$. This shows the low overhead of using HLS for implementing the proposed algorithm.

Table III shows the memory bandwidth utilization for each sparse matrix for the two different design frequencies. The theoretical limit for using four 128-bit HP memory ports in Zynq MPSoC is $(128 \times 4)/8 \times 100MHz = 6.4GB/s$ and $(128 \times 4)/8 \times 200MHz = 12.8GB/s$ at design frequencies of $100MHz$ and $200MHz$, respectively. This table shows that the proposed methodology has managed to achieve up to 93.8% and 79.7% of these theoretical memory bandwidths, respectively.

### TABLE III: Utilized memory bandwidth (GB/s)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix name</th>
<th>100MHz</th>
<th>200MHz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formula</td>
<td>Empirical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notes3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>notes1</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fpga,gcoo,11</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spaceMatrix_4</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cmax</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sdbb2</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spg2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF10</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gjsaw080</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEAL</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bigMat10</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bigMat17</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maxbank,9</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSOPF_BE,5900,c2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV Shows a brief comparison with three other SpMV design on FPGA. The first row shows the number of Giga FLoating point Operation Per Second (GFLOPS), the second row is the maximum memory bandwidth utilization. The maximum sparse matrix dimension handled in each case is shown in the third row and the last row shows the maximum design frequency. Note that [18] utilizes an Altera Startix V D5 FPGA with two DRAM supporting an aggregate memory bandwidth of 21.3GB/s, so this is the reason for achieving a performance of 3.9 GFLOPS.

### TABLE IV: Comparison with other SpMV implementation on FPGA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Our method</th>
<th>Ref.[17]</th>
<th>Ref.[18]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory BW (GB/s)</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>&lt; 2.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max. matrix dimension size</td>
<td>50000</td>
<td>90237</td>
<td>16000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Max. frequency</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Resource utilization and limitation:** Fig. 8 shows the percentage of resource utilization for each optimization level explained in Section V.

Regarding the data sizes, as the proposed techniques keep the $x$ or $y$ dense vectors into the FPGA BRAM, the implementations should allocate almost all the BRAM to be able to process large matrices. This is the reason for high BRAM utilizations. Table V shows the maximum matrix dimension sizes that can be processed by each optimization technique using the Zynq-MPSoC. However, there is no any limitation on the number of non-zero elements in each matrix due to the streaming mechanism of reading these data. The first three optimization techniques do not impose any restriction on the number of rows as they only keep the $x$ dense vector into the BRAM. However, the last technique restricts both the number of rows and columns of the sparse matrices as it requires to save both the $x$ and $y$ vectors into the BRAM.

### TABLE V: Maximum matrix dimensions for the Zynq-MPSoC FPGA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>naive</th>
<th>fast-stream</th>
<th>reduced-port</th>
<th>multi-port</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAX n</td>
<td>590000</td>
<td>990000</td>
<td>980000</td>
<td>50000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAX m</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>980000</td>
<td>980000</td>
<td>50000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of the scalability, the limiting factor of our design for higher performance is memory bandwidth and not the available hardware resources. Therefore, a larger chip will not help to improve performance but performance scalability will be obtained with several devices working in parallel to benefit from the aggregated memory bandwidth.

### D. Comparison with embedded CPU and GPU

This subsection compares the performance and energy consumption of our proposed FPGA design for SpMV with the corresponding ones running on embedded CPU and GPUs.

**Embedded CPU:** Table VI compares the performance of the proposed SpMV on the FPGA with the corresponding
Embedded GPU: This section uses Nvidia Jetson-TX1&TX2 embedded GPUs to compare with our SpMV implementation on the FPGA. GPUs provide massive parallelisms which are suitable for implementing regular algorithms. In addition, utilizing different types of on-chip memory such as scratch-pad, they overcome the high latency of accessing data in the off-chip global memory. Fig. 11 compares the SpMV execution time running on 4-Core CPUs, GPUs and FPGA for the SP and DP data types. The GPU execution times include the data transfer and computation similar to that of the CPU and FPGA.

As can be seen, FPGA shows better performance compared to GPUs and CPU if both data transfer and computation are considered in an application. However, it is also worth considering only the computation for the GPU implementation as in some iterative applications the data transfer performs only once. Considering this assumption, Fig. 12 compares the GPU and FPGA performance for two different range of matrix sizes. According to these diagrams, whereas the FPGA generally shows better performance for low nnz factor, GPU presents a higher performance for larger nnz factors.

Fig. 12 depicts two performance trends of running SpMV on embedded GPUs and FPGA for low and high values of nnz considering SP and DP data types. As can be seen, the embedded FPGA shows better performance with small and medium-size matrices and the embedded GPUs show better performance when the value of nnz is large. However, both FPGA and GPU provide higher performances than that of the embedded CPU. According to the measured data, the speed-up factor of the FPGA implementation to that of the GPU for small and medium-size matrices is 3.25 on average whereas the speed-up factor of the GPU for large size matrices is 1.58 on average.

The CPU usually benefits from their extensive cache memory to cope with memory intensive applications. Therefore, in cases that the data being processed fits the cache memory, the CPU can show better performance than other architectures. This justifies the better performance of CPU for smaller sparse matrices. On the other hand, GPU benefits from utilizing a large number of hardware threads and coalesce memory access, therefore they can show better performance in tasks that provide a large amount of data to keep all threads busy. This explains why GPU can show better performance for large sparse matrices.

Energy consumption: This section compares the energy consumption of running SpMV on the embedded FPGA, the multi-core embedded CPU, and the many-core embedded GPU. Fig. 13 compares the energy consumption of the SpMV running on the FPGA, CPU, and GPU in μJ. As can be seen the energy consumptions of the CPU and GPU implementations are much more than that of the FPGA. For example for the last case as shown in Fig. 13, the FPGA consumes 4097.23/1849.32 = 2.21 times less energy. According to the measured energy consumption for all benchmark matrices, on average the FPGA implementation consumes 8.9 times less energy compared to the GPU. This confirms the benefit of using FPGA instead of CPU and GPU in situations that energy consumption is an important factor, such as mobile edge devices.

E. Case Study 1: SAXPY

In some applications and libraries, the SpMV kernel usually computes \( y = y + \alpha x + \beta \). This kernel requires to read the previous \( y \) vector as an input, as it appears on the right-hand side. The proposed techniques can be easily modified to efficiently implement this kernel without adding overhead. For this purpose, the streaming data format presented in Fig. 7 can be modified to interleave the \( y \) vector elements with the values vector similar to interleaving the column and row indices. In this case, both vectors in Fig. 7 have the same length. Processes in the stream mapping layer (Fig. 3) can separate the \( y \) values into a FIFO what will be used later in the compute stage layer. For example, the \( y \) elements can be read and used an initialization value for the sum variable at Line 4 of P4 process in Fig. 5. Figs. 14 (a) and (b) compare the SAXPY execution time running on GPU and FPGA for two range of matrix sizes similar to Fig. 12. In addition, the amount of energy consumption is shown in Fig. 14(c).

F. Case Study 2: Support Vector Machine

This section puts the proposed SDE in Fig. 3 into practice to show its adaptability and efficiency in real
Fig. 12: Execution time for SP and DP in FPGA vs GPU (only computation) for two range of nnz

applications. For this purpose, we have chosen Support Vector Machine (SVM) which is one of the successful classification algorithms in the literature [29]. We have modified LIBSVM [30], one of the state-of-the-art SVM implementations, to use embedded FPGA, GPU and CPU implementations of the SpMV.

To make the paper self-contained, the C-SVM [30] as one type of the SVM is briefly explained here. C-SVM solves the optimization problem in Equ. (18) subject to Equ. (19), where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, i = 1, ..., l$ are the training vectors, $y_i \in \{1, -1\}$ represents the class labels, $C$ is the regularization parameter, $w$ is the vector of model coefficients, $b$ is a constant and $\xi_i$ denotes parameters for handling non-separable data. The function $\phi$ is used to transform data from the input space to the feature space.

$$\min_{w,b,\xi} \frac{1}{2}w^Tw + C \sum_{i=1}^{l} \xi_i$$
$$y_i(w^T\phi(x_i) + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i, \xi_i \geq 0; i = 1, ..., l$$

The dual form of the problem which is more suitable for iterative optimization is shown in Equ. (20) and Equ. (21), where $\alpha = [1, ..., 1]^T$ and $Q$ is an $l \times l$ matrix as shown in Equ. (22). The $K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T\phi(x_j)$ in Equ. (22) is the kernel function.

$$\min_{\alpha} \frac{1}{2}\alpha^TQ\alpha + e^T\alpha$$
$$subject \ to \ y^T\alpha = 0, \ 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C; \ i = 1, ..., l$$

$$Q_{ij} = y_iy_jK(x_i, x_j)$$

After solving this problem, the model coefficients can be obtained using Equ. (23).

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{l} y_i\alpha_i\phi(x_i)$$

In our implementation, we have considered the sigmoid kernel function which can be represented as Equ. (24).

$$kernel : K(x_i, x_j) = \tanh(\gamma x_i^T x_j + r)$$

The calculation of the $Q$ matrix in Equ. (22), which its computation graph is depicted in Fig. 15(a), is Equ. compute-intensive part of this algorithm and it takes up to 80% of the total SVM execution time with the sigmoid kernel. Each $x_i^T x_j$ term in (24) is the result obtained by invoking the SpMV operation.

Other researchers also follow this mechanism to accelerate the SVM on multi-core CPU, GPUs and ASIC design. Among them are [30] which utilizes multi-core CPU and GPU. Eriko, et al. [31] propose an ASIC accelerator for SpMV to perform the Q computation in SVM. An ASIC accelerator for sparse matrix sparse vector multiplication is proposed by [1] that has been used to speed-up the SVM execution. They have used a simulation approach to evaluate their designs.

Our proposed SpMV can be used to perform this operation. However, we would like to emphasize that the proposed SpMV can be easily adapted to the requirement of $Q$ computation (which is invoking $\tanh$ function after
Fig. 14: SAXPY: FPGA and GPUs execution time comparison for two range of nnz

(a) Execution time for small nnz
(b) Execution time for large nnz
(c) Energy consumption

Fig. 15: Pipelined loop of Q computation

(a) Q computation graph
(b) Adapted SpMV

To evaluate the impact of SpMV implementations used in the SVM, we have considered nine training data sets, taken from [30], with different sizes shown in Table VII. Figs. 16(a) and 16(b) compare the performance and energy consumption of the SVM training phase running on the embedded FPGA, GPU and quad-core CPU. As can be seen, running the adapted SpMV on the FPGA slightly improves the performance and significantly reduces the energy consumption. Averaging all the measurements for the given datasets in Table VII, the FPGA-2 implementation of the SVM is 1.7 times faster consumes 6.8 times less energy compared to the embedded GPU version.

TABLE VII: SVM training data set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>m</th>
<th>nnz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>524</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2265</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>31404</td>
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<td>3185</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>32561</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>451592</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

G. Challenges and Lessons

The challenges and take away lessons for using HLS as design flow are as follows:

- Reusing the software-based algorithm in HLS is not straightforward and may need lots of modifications to allow synthesis tools exploit enough parallelism to provide the required performance. Thinking in stream computing can be helpful to cope with this issue.
- Taking advantage of loop pipelining is the key technique to provide scalable design as it can provide parallelism with minimum resource utilization.
- Utilizing all the memory ports available on the FPGA side can provide enough data for several pipelined stream computing threads on the FPGA to maximize performance.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

This paper has proposed an efficient sparse matrix dense vector multiplication to be used in a high-level synthesis approach and run on an embedded FPGA. The proposed method is based on stream computing techniques in which computation and data transfer between the FPGA and the main memory are executing in a pipelined fashion. The experimental results indicate that the FPGA implementation of SpMV can be more performance-efficient for small and medium-size matrices compared to the GPU versions while the GPU can show better performance in large size matrices.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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REFERENCES


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