

# Interconnection Networks

Based on the text ``Introduction to Parallel Computing'', Addison Wesley, 2003

# Architecture of an Ideal Parallel Computer

- A natural extension of the Random Access Machine (RAM) serial architecture is the Parallel Random Access Machine, or PRAM.
- PRAMs consist of  $p$  processors and a global memory of unbounded size that is uniformly accessible to all processors.
- Processors share a common clock but may execute different instructions in each cycle.

# Architecture of an Ideal Parallel Computer

- Depending on how simultaneous memory accesses are handled, PRAMs can be divided into four subclasses.
  - Exclusive-read, exclusive-write (EREW) PRAM.
  - Concurrent-read, exclusive-write (CREW) PRAM.
  - Exclusive-read, concurrent-write (ERCW) PRAM.
  - Concurrent-read, concurrent-write (CRCW) PRAM.

# Architecture of an Ideal Parallel Computer

- What does concurrent write mean, anyway?
  - Common: write only if all values are identical.
  - Arbitrary: write the data from a randomly selected processor.
  - Priority: follow a predetermined priority order.
  - Sum: Write the sum of all data items.

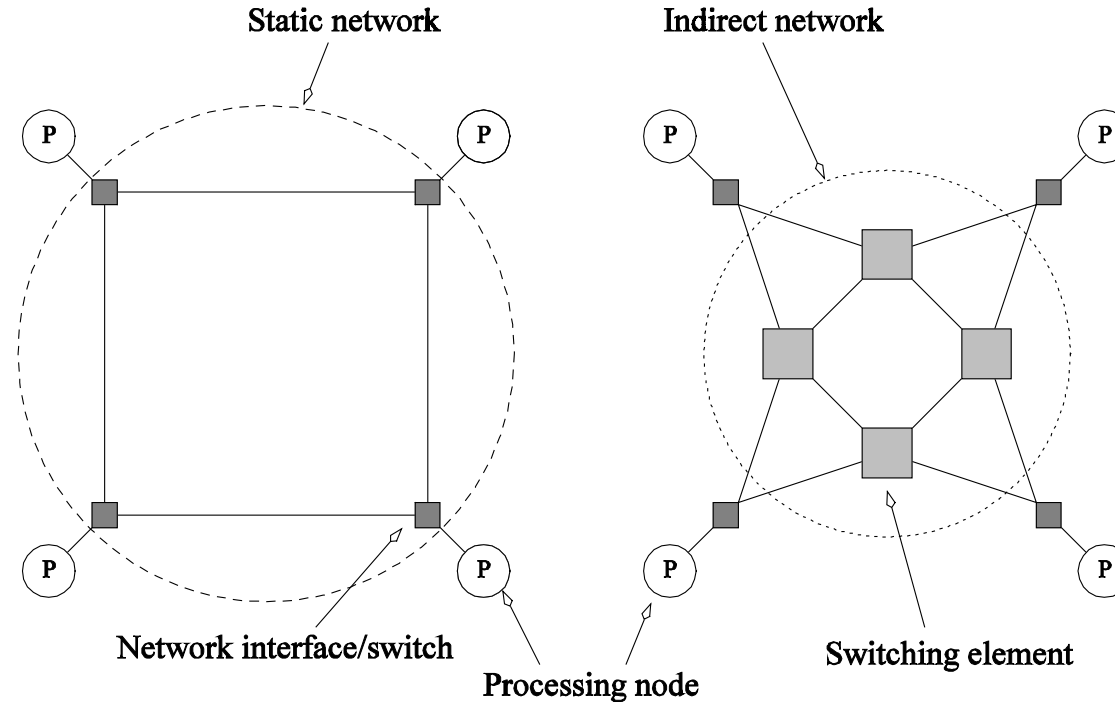
# Physical Complexity of an Ideal Parallel Computer

- Processors and memories are connected via switches.
- Since these switches must operate in  $O(1)$  time at the level of words, for a system of  $p$  processors and  $m$  words, the switch complexity is  $O(mp)$ .
- Clearly, for meaningful values of  $p$  and  $m$ , a true PRAM is not realizable.

# Interconnection Networks for Parallel Computers

- Interconnection networks carry data between processors and to memory.
- Interconnects are made of switches and links (wires, fiber).
- Interconnects are classified as static or dynamic.
- Static networks consist of point-to-point communication links among processing nodes and are also referred to as *direct* networks.
- Dynamic networks are built using switches and communication links. Dynamic networks are also referred to as *indirect* networks.

# Static and Dynamic Interconnection Networks



Classification of interconnection networks: (a) a static network; and (b) a dynamic network.

# Interconnection Networks

- Switches map a fixed number of input ports to output ports.
- The total number of ports on a switch is the *degree* of the switch.
- The cost of a switch grows as the square of the degree of the switch, the peripheral hardware linearly as the degree, and the packaging costs linearly as the number of pins.



# Interconnection Networks: Network Interfaces

- Processors talk to the network via a network interface.
- The network interface may hang off the I/O bus or the memory bus.
- In a physical sense, this distinguishes a cluster from a tightly coupled multicomputer.
- The relative speeds of the I/O and memory buses impact the performance of the network.

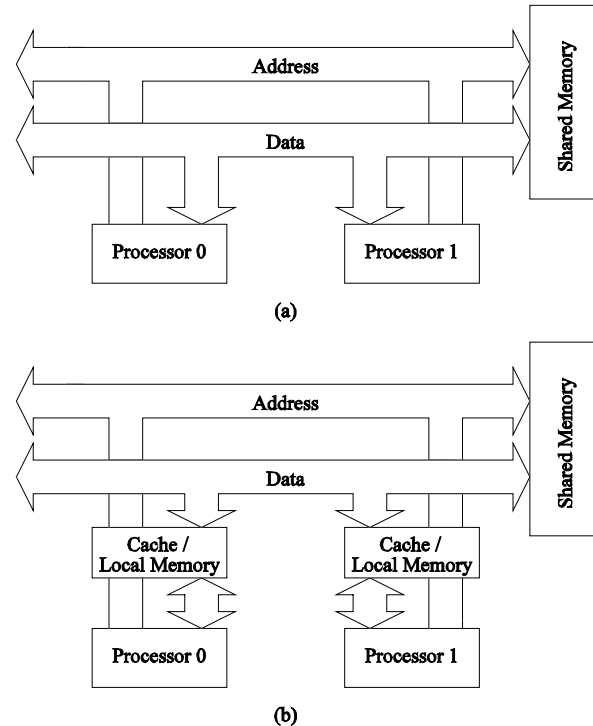
# Network Topologies

- A variety of network topologies have been proposed and implemented.
- These topologies tradeoff performance for cost.
- Commercial machines often implement hybrids of multiple topologies for reasons of packaging, cost, and available components.

# Network Topologies: Buses

- Some of the simplest and earliest parallel machines used buses.
- All processors access a common bus for exchanging data.
- The distance between any two nodes is  $O(1)$  in a bus. The bus also provides a convenient broadcast media.
- However, the bandwidth of the shared bus is a major bottleneck.
- Typical bus based machines are limited to dozens of nodes. Sun Enterprise servers and Intel Pentium based shared-bus multiprocessors are examples of such architectures.

# Network Topologies: Buses

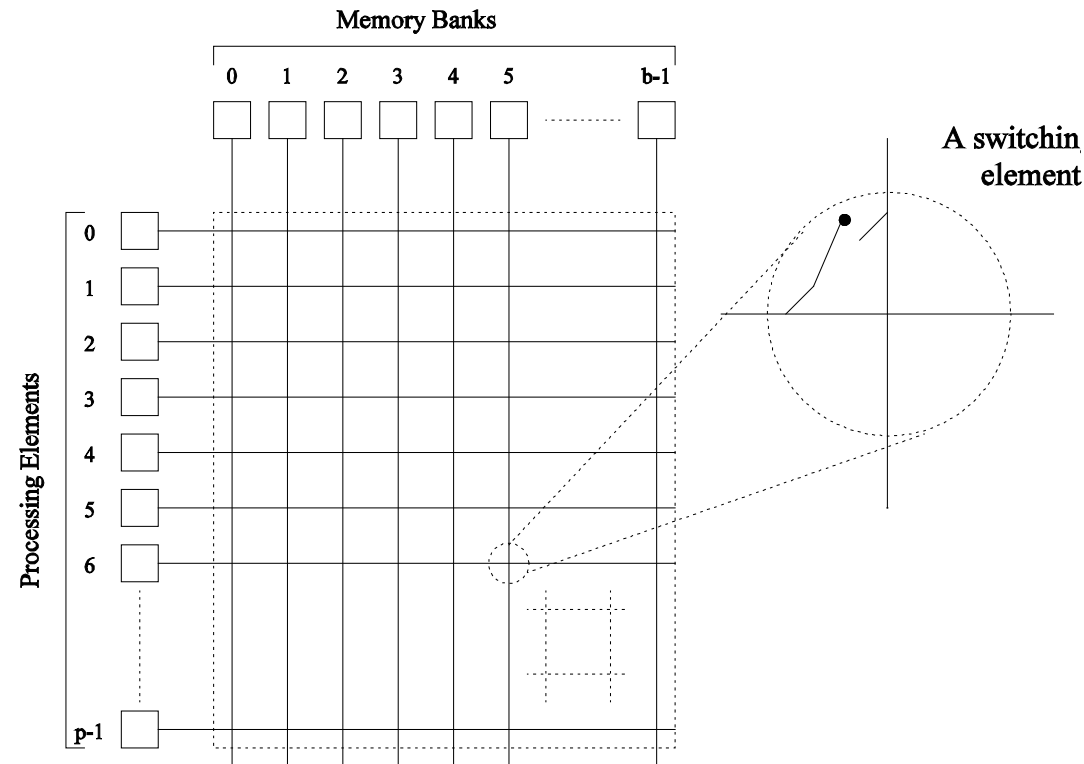


Bus-based interconnects (a) with no local caches; (b) with local memory/caches.

Since much of the data accessed by processors is local to the processor, a local memory can improve the performance of bus-based machines.

# Network Topologies: Crossbars

A crossbar network uses a  $p \times m$  grid of switches to connect  $p$  input ports to  $m$  output ports in a non-blocking manner.



A completely non-blocking crossbar network connecting  $p$  processors to  $b$  memory banks.

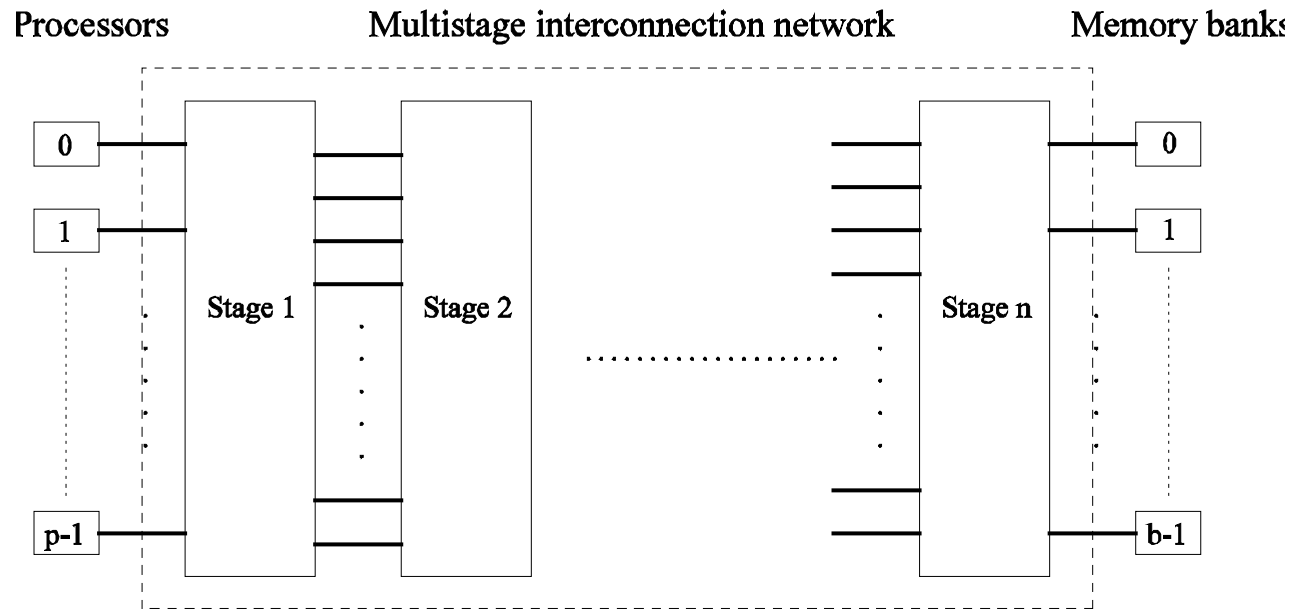
# Network Topologies: Crossbars

- The cost of a crossbar network of  $p$  processors grows as  $O(p^2)$ .
- This is generally difficult to scale for large values of  $p$ .
- Examples of machines that employ crossbars include the Sun Ultra HPC 10000 and the Fujitsu VPP500.

# Network Topologies: Multistage Networks

- Crossbars have excellent performance scalability but poor cost scalability.
- Buses have excellent cost scalability, but poor performance scalability.
- Multistage interconnects strike a compromise between these extremes.

# Network Topologies: Multistage Networks



The schematic of a typical multistage interconnection network.



# Network Topologies: Multistage Omega Network

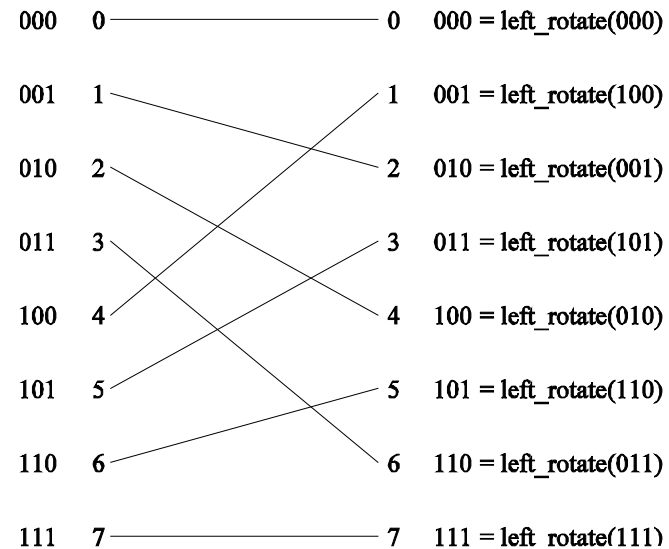
- One of the most commonly used multistage interconnect networks is the Omega network.
- This network consists of  $\log p$  stages, where  $p$  is the number of input ports/output ports.
- At each stage, input  $i$  is connected to output  $j$  if:

$$j = \begin{cases} 2i, & 0 \leq i \leq p/2 - 1 \\ 2i + 1 - p, & p/2 \leq i \leq p - 1 \end{cases}$$

# Network Topologies:

## Multistage Omega Network

Each stage of the Omega network implements a perfect shuffle as follows:

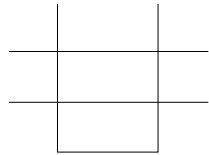


A perfect shuffle interconnection for eight input ports and output ports.

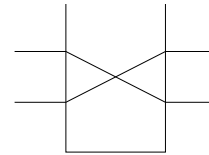
# Network Topologies:

## Multistage Omega Network

- The perfect shuffle patterns are connected using  $2 \times 2$  switches.
- The switches operate in two modes – crossover or passthrough.



(a)



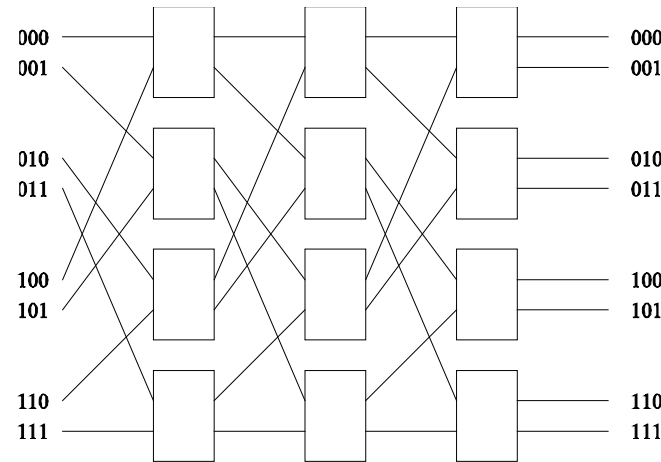
(b)

Two switching configurations of the  $2 \times 2$  switch:  
(a) Pass-through; (b) Cross-over.

# Network Topologies:

## Multistage Omega Network

A complete Omega network with the perfect shuffle interconnects and switches can now be illustrated:



A complete omega network connecting eight inputs and eight outputs.

An omega network has  $p/2 \times \log p$  switching nodes, and the cost of such a network grows as  $(p \log p)$ .

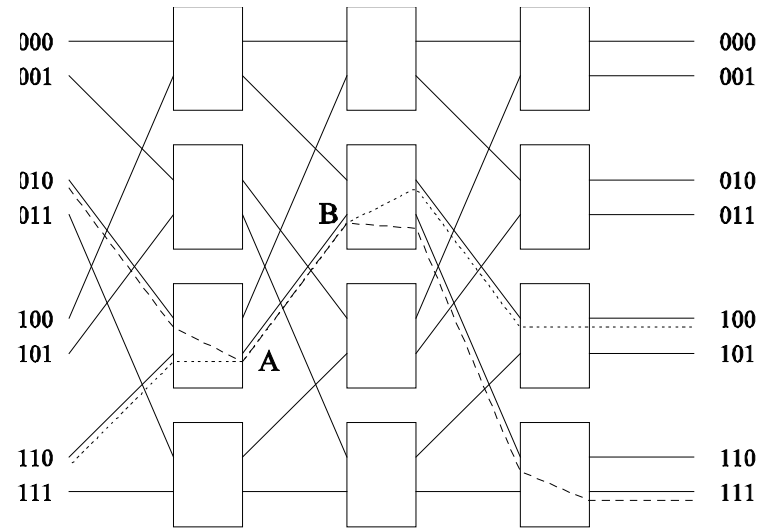
# Network Topologies:

## Multistage Omega Network – Routing

- Let  $s$  be the binary representation of the source and  $d$  be that of the destination processor.
- The data traverses the link to the first switching node. If the most significant bits of  $s$  and  $d$  are the same, then the data is routed in pass-through mode by the switch else, it switches to crossover.
- This process is repeated for each of the  $\log p$  switching stages.
- Note that this is not a non-blocking switch.

# Network Topologies:

## Multistage Omega Network – Routing



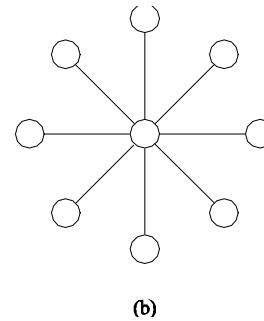
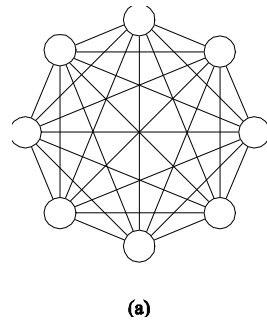
An example of blocking in omega network: one of the messages (010 to 111 or 110 to 100) is blocked at link AB.

# Network Topologies:

## Completely Connected Network

- Each processor is connected to every other processor.
- The number of links in the network scales as  $O(p^2)$ .
- While the performance scales very well, the hardware complexity is not realizable for large values of  $p$ .
- In this sense, these networks are static counterparts of crossbars.

# Network Topologies: Completely Connected and Star Connected Networks



- (a) A completely-connected network of eight nodes;  
(b) a star connected network of nine nodes.



## Network Topologies:

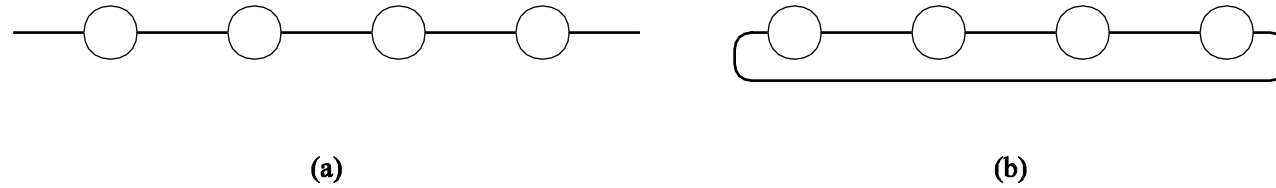
### Star Connected Network

- Every node is connected only to a common node at the center.
- Distance between any pair of nodes is  $O(1)$ . However, the central node becomes a bottleneck.
- In this sense, star connected networks are static counterparts of buses.

## Network Topologies: Linear Arrays, Meshes, and $k$ - $d$ Meshes

- In a linear array, each node has two neighbors, one to its left and one to its right. If the nodes at either end are connected, we refer to it as a 1-D torus or a ring.
- A generalization to 2 dimensions has nodes with 4 neighbors, to the north, south, east, and west.
- A further generalization to  $d$  dimensions has nodes with  $2d$  neighbors.
- A  $k$ - $d$  mesh consists of  $d$  dimensions with  $k$  nodes on each dimension.
- A special case of a  $d$ -dimensional mesh is a hypercube. Here,  $d = \log p$ , where  $p$  is the total number of nodes.

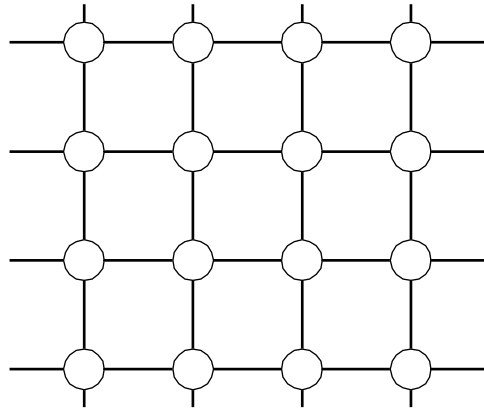
# Network Topologies: Linear Arrays



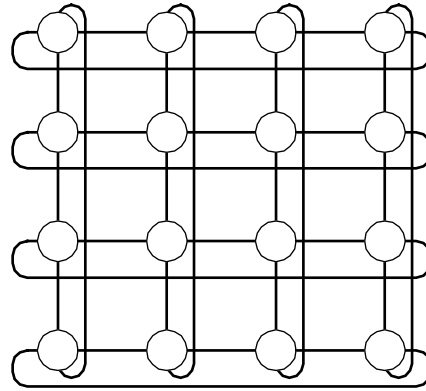
Linear arrays: (a) with no wraparound links; (b) with wraparound link.

# Network Topologies:

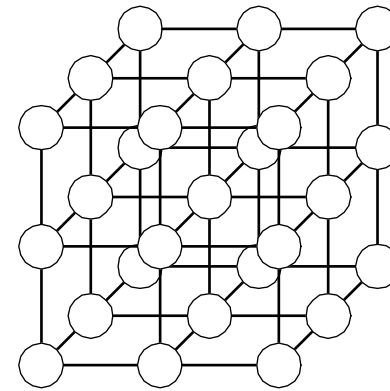
## Two- and Three Dimensional Meshes



(a)



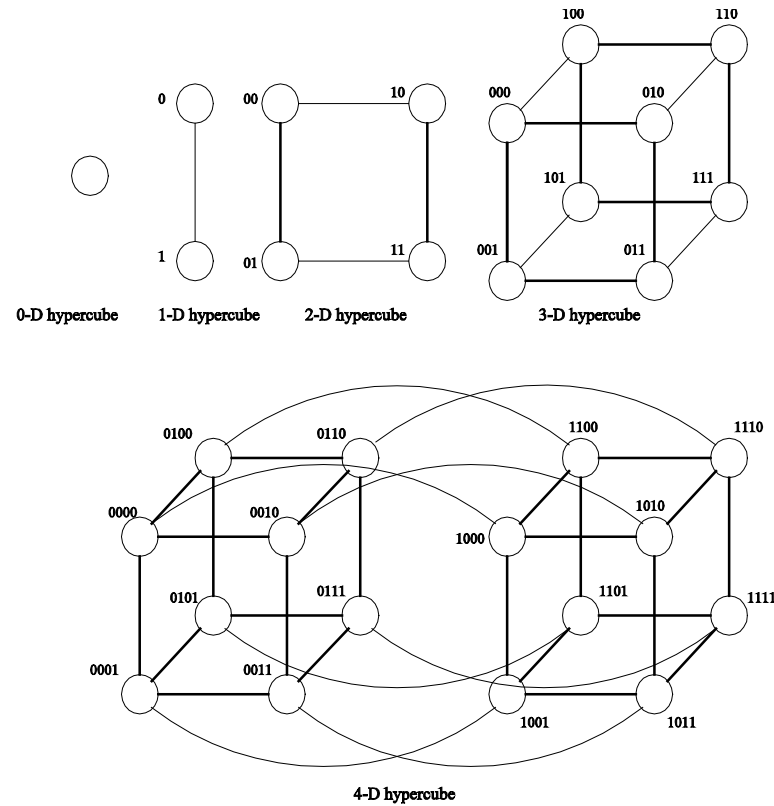
(b)



(c)

Two and three dimensional meshes: (a) 2-D mesh with no wraparound; (b) 2-D mesh with wraparound link (2-D torus); and (c) a 3-D mesh with no wraparound.

# Network Topologies: Hypercubes and their Construction

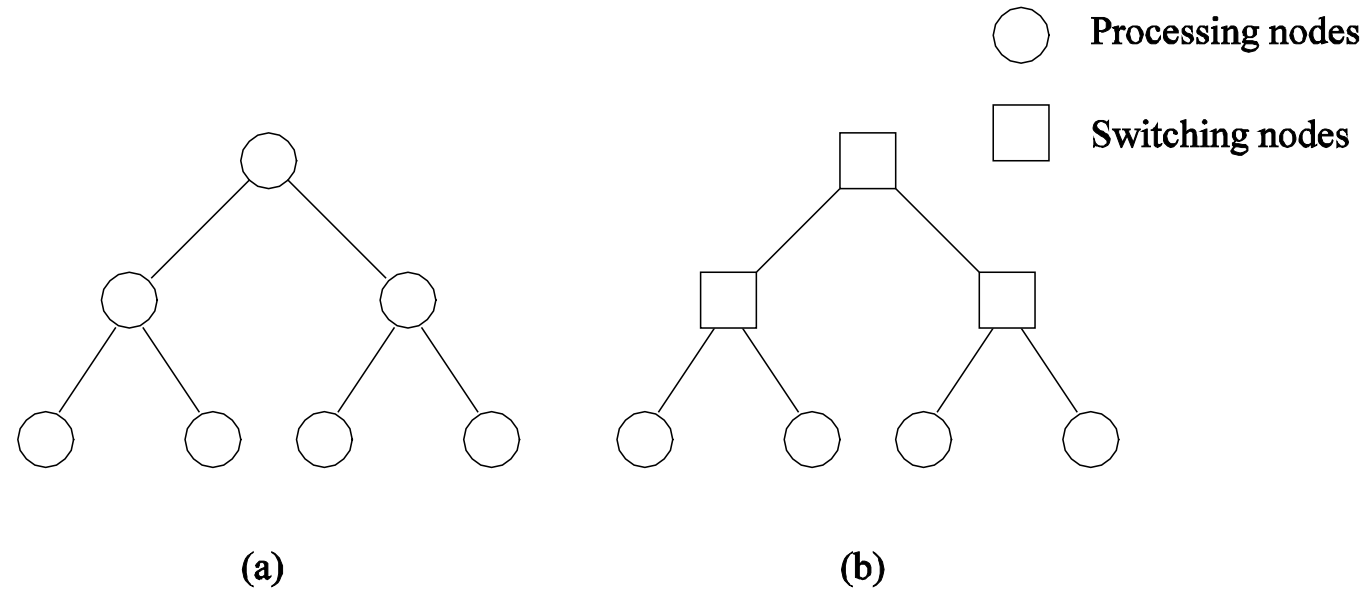


Construction of hypercubes from hypercubes of lower dimension.

## Network Topologies: Properties of Hypercubes

- The distance between any two nodes is at most  $\log p$ .
- Each node has  $\log p$  neighbors.
- The distance between two nodes is given by the number of bit positions at which the two nodes differ.

# Network Topologies: Tree-Based Networks



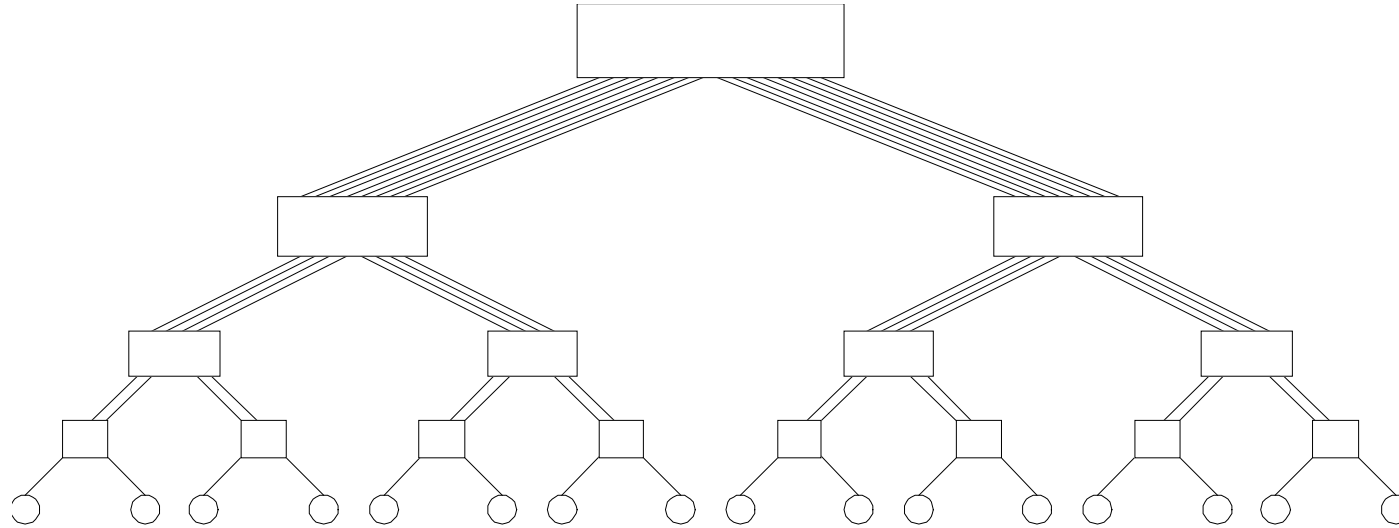
Complete binary tree networks: (a) a static tree network; and (b) a dynamic tree network.

# Network Topologies: Tree Properties

- The distance between any two nodes is no more than  $2\log p$ .
- Links higher up the tree potentially carry more traffic than those at the lower levels.
- For this reason, a variant called a fat-tree, fattens the links as we go up the tree.
- Trees can be laid out in 2D with no wire crossings. This is an attractive property of trees.



# Network Topologies: Fat Trees



A fat tree network of 16 processing nodes.

# Evaluating Static Interconnection Networks

- *Diameter*: The distance between the farthest two nodes in the network. The diameter of a linear array is  $p - 1$ , that of a mesh is  $2(\sqrt{p} - 1)$ , that of a tree and hypercube is  $\log p$ , and that of a completely connected network is  $O(1)$ .
- *Arc Connectivity*: The minimum number of links to remove to make the network into two disconnected networks.
- *Bisection Width*: The minimum number of wires you must cut to divide the network into two equal parts. The bisection width of a linear array and tree is  $1$ , that of a mesh is  $\sqrt{p}$ , that of a hypercube is  $p/2$  and that of a completely connected network is  $p^2/4$ .
- *Cost*: The number of links or switches (whichever is asymptotically higher) is a meaningful measure of the cost. However, a number of other factors, such as the ability to layout the network, the length of wires, etc., also factor in to the cost.

# Evaluating Static Interconnection Networks

Network	Diameter	Bisection Width	Arc Connectivity	Cost (No. of links)
Completely-connected	1	$p^2/4$	$p - 1$	$p(p - 1)/2$
Star	2	1	1	$p - 1$
Complete binary tree	$2 \log((p + 1)/2)$	1	1	$p - 1$
Linear array	$p - 1$	1	1	$p - 1$
2-D mesh, no wraparound	$2(\sqrt{p} - 1)$	$\sqrt{p}$	2	$2(p - \sqrt{p})$
2-D wraparound mesh	$2\lfloor \sqrt{p}/2 \rfloor$	$2\sqrt{p}$	4	$2p$
Hypercube	$\log p$	$p/2$	$\log p$	$(p \log p)/2$
Wraparound $k$ -ary $d$ -cube	$d\lfloor k/2 \rfloor$	$2k^{d-1}$	$2d$	$dp$

# Evaluating Dynamic Interconnection Networks

Network	Diameter	Bisection Width	Arc Connectivity	Cost (No. of links)
Crossbar	1	$p$	1	$p^2$
Omega Network	$\log p$	$p/2$	2	$p/2 \times \log p$
Dynamic Tree	$2 \log p$	1	2	$p - 1$

- The nodes in dynamic networks contains both the processor nodes and the switching nodes.
- The diameter is the maximum distance between any (processing or switching) pair of nodes.
- The bisection width is the minimum number of edges that cross the two equal partitions of the processing nodes.
- The arc connectivity is the minimum number of edges that must fail to fragment the network into two **unreachable** parts.
- The cost of a dynamic network (number of links) is asymptotically the number of switches.