Lecture 16:

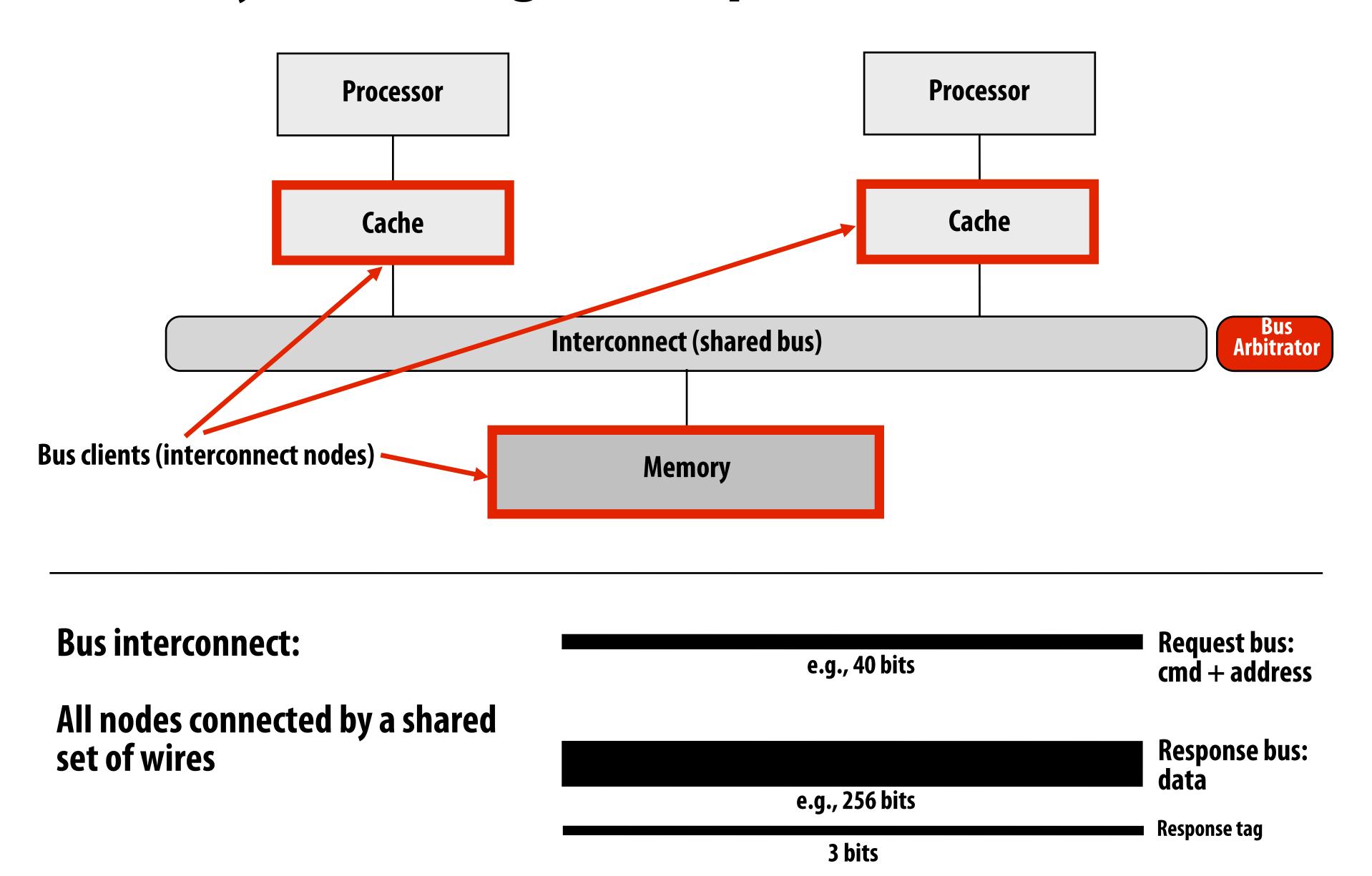
Interconnection Networks

Parallel Computer Architecture and Programming CMU 15-418/15-618, Fall 2019

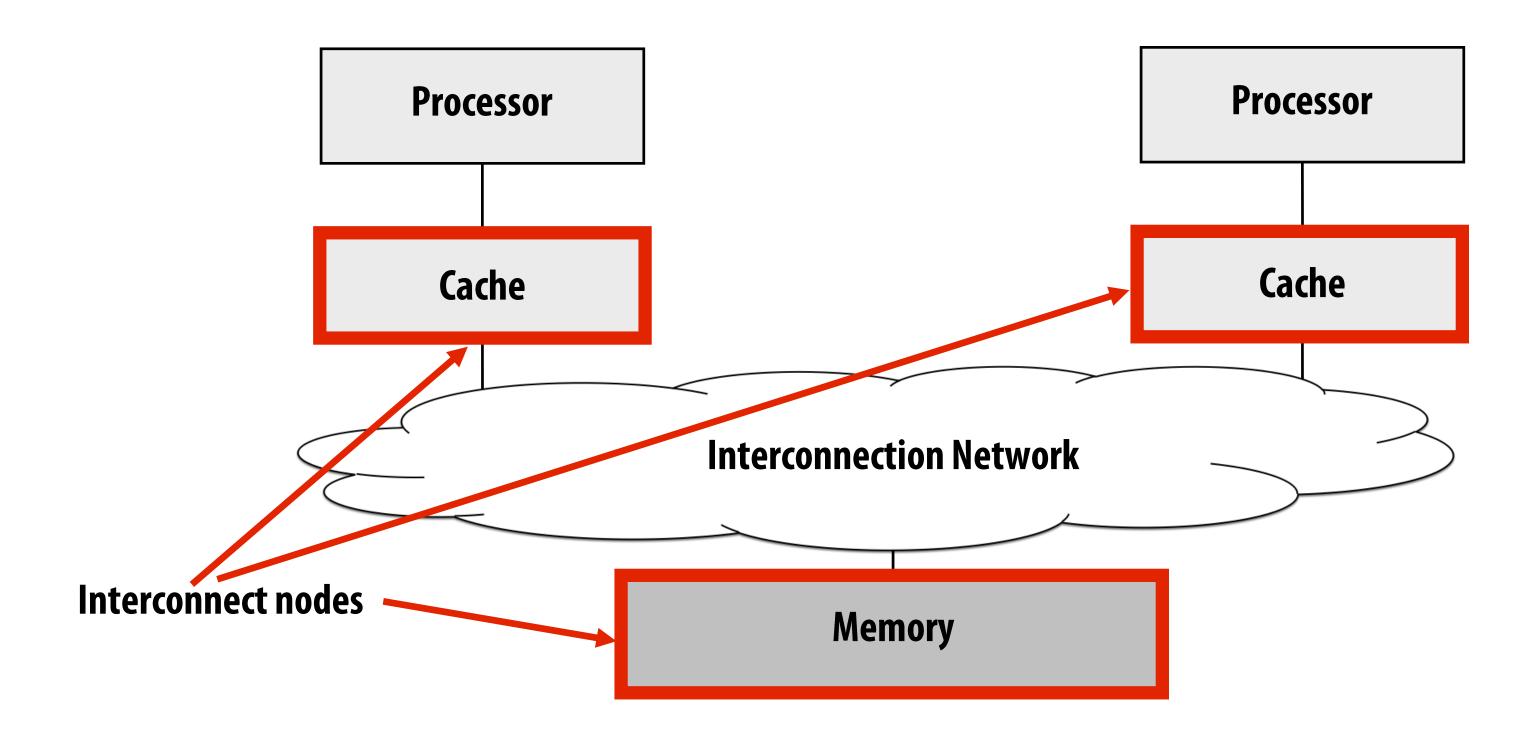
Learning Objectives

- After this lecture, you should be able to answer:
 - How are hardware components interconnected?
 - What is the basic cost of communication?
 - How does data traverse the network?

Basic system design from previous lectures



Today: modern interconnect designs



Today's topics: the basic ideas of building a high-performance interconnection network in a parallel processor.

(think: "a network-on-a-chip")

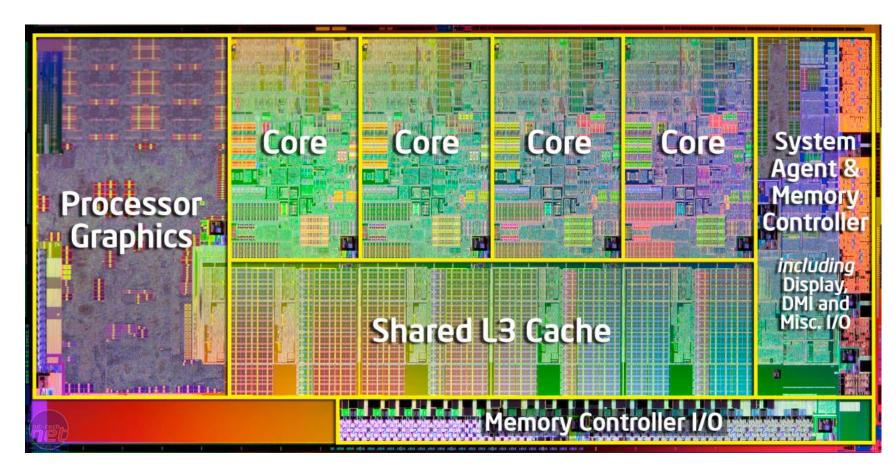
What are interconnection networks used for?

- To connect:
 - Processor cores with other cores
 - Processors and memories
 - Processor cores and caches
 - Caches and caches
 - I/O devices

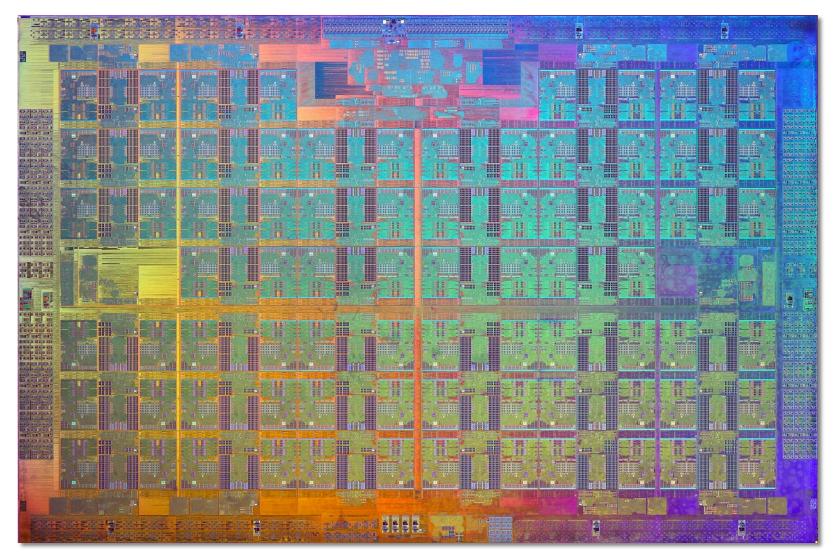
Why is the design of the interconnection network important?

- System scalability
 - How large of a system can be built?
 - How easy is it to add more nodes (e.g., cores)
- System performance and energy efficiency
 - How fast can cores, caches, memory communicate
 - How long is latency to memory?
 - How much energy is spent on communication?

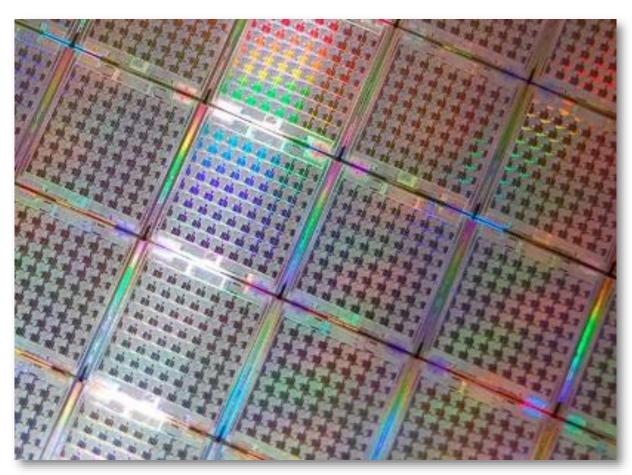
With increasing core counts... Scalability of on-chip interconnection network becomes increasingly important



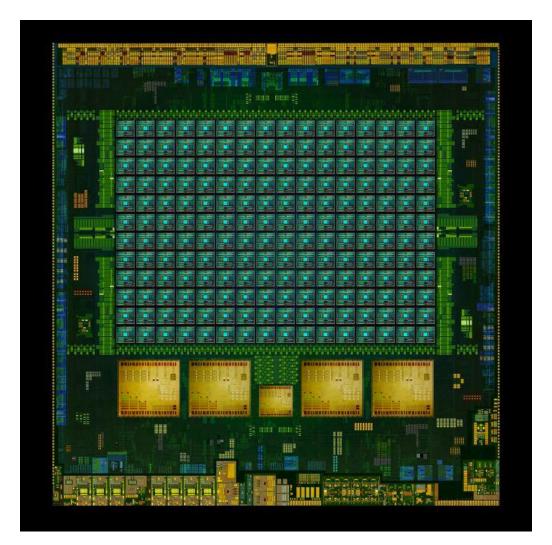
Intel core i7 (4-CPU cores, + GPU)



Intel Xeon Phi (72-core x86)



Tilera GX 64-core chip

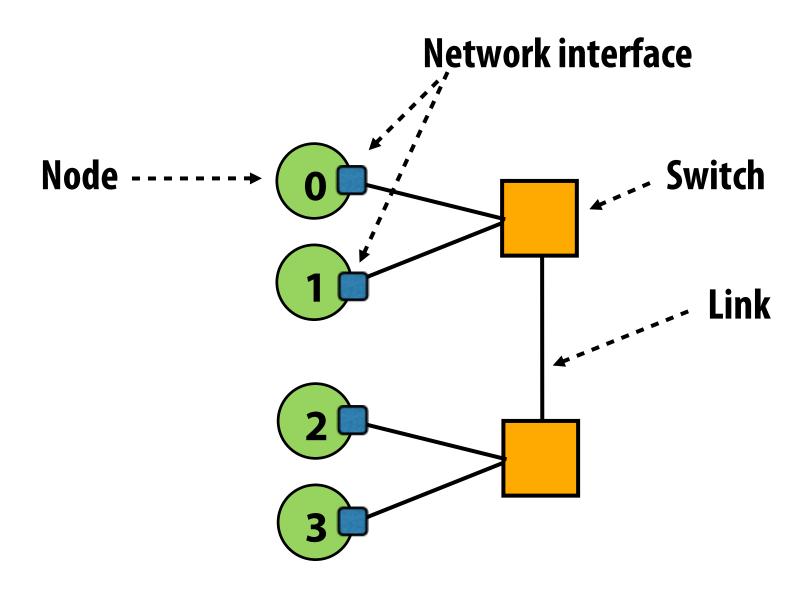


Tegra K1: 4 + 1 ARM cores + GPU cores

Interconnect terminology

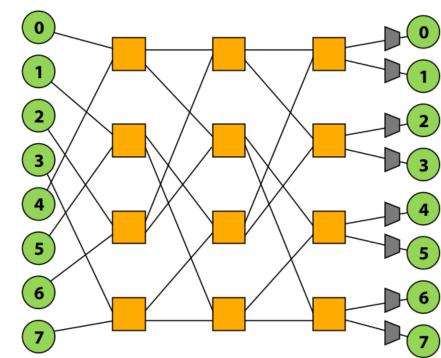
Terminology

- Network node: a network endpoint connected to a router/switch
 - Examples: processor caches, the memory controller
- Network interface:
 - Connects nodes to the network
- Switch/router:
 - Connects a fixed number of input links to a fixed number of output links
- Link:
 - A bundle of wires carrying a signal



Design issues

- Topology: how switches are connected via links
 - Affects routing, throughput, latency, complexity/cost of implementation



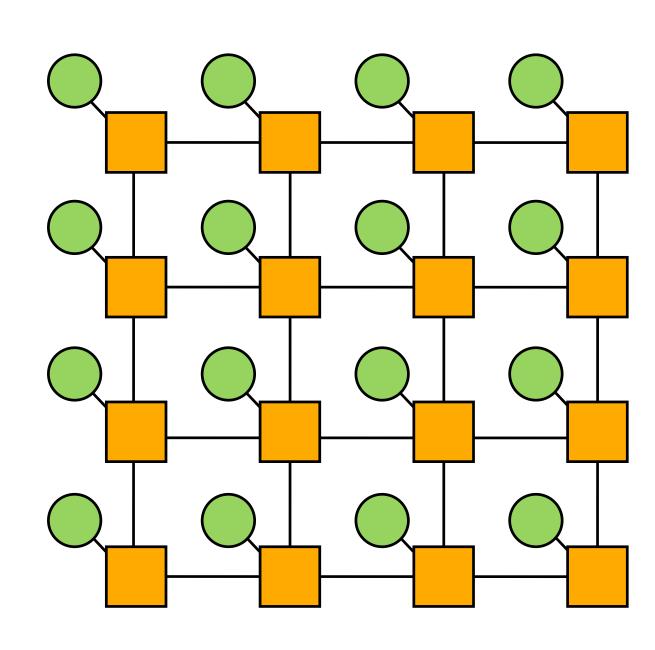
- Routing: how a message gets from its source to its destination in the network
 - Can be static (messages take a predetermined path) or adaptive based on load

- Buffering and flow control
 - What data is stored in the network? packets, partial packets? etc.
 - How does the network manage buffer space?

Properties of interconnect topology

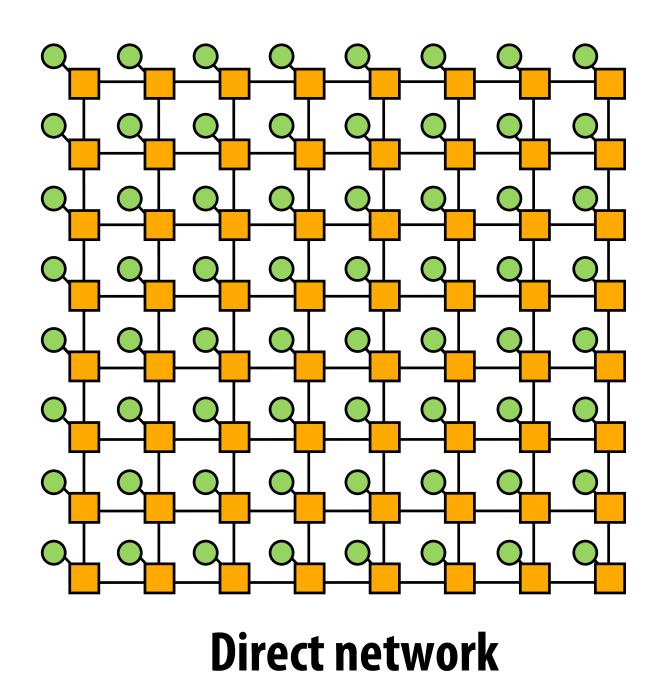
- Routing distance
 - Number of links ("hops") along a route between two nodes
- Diameter: the maximum routing distance
- Average distance: average routing distance over all valid routes

Example: diameter = 6



Properties of interconnect topology

- Direct vs. indirect networks
 - Direct network: endpoints sit "inside" the network
 - e.g., mesh is direct network: every node is both an endpoint and a switch



Indirect network

Properties of an interconnect topology

Bisection bandwidth:

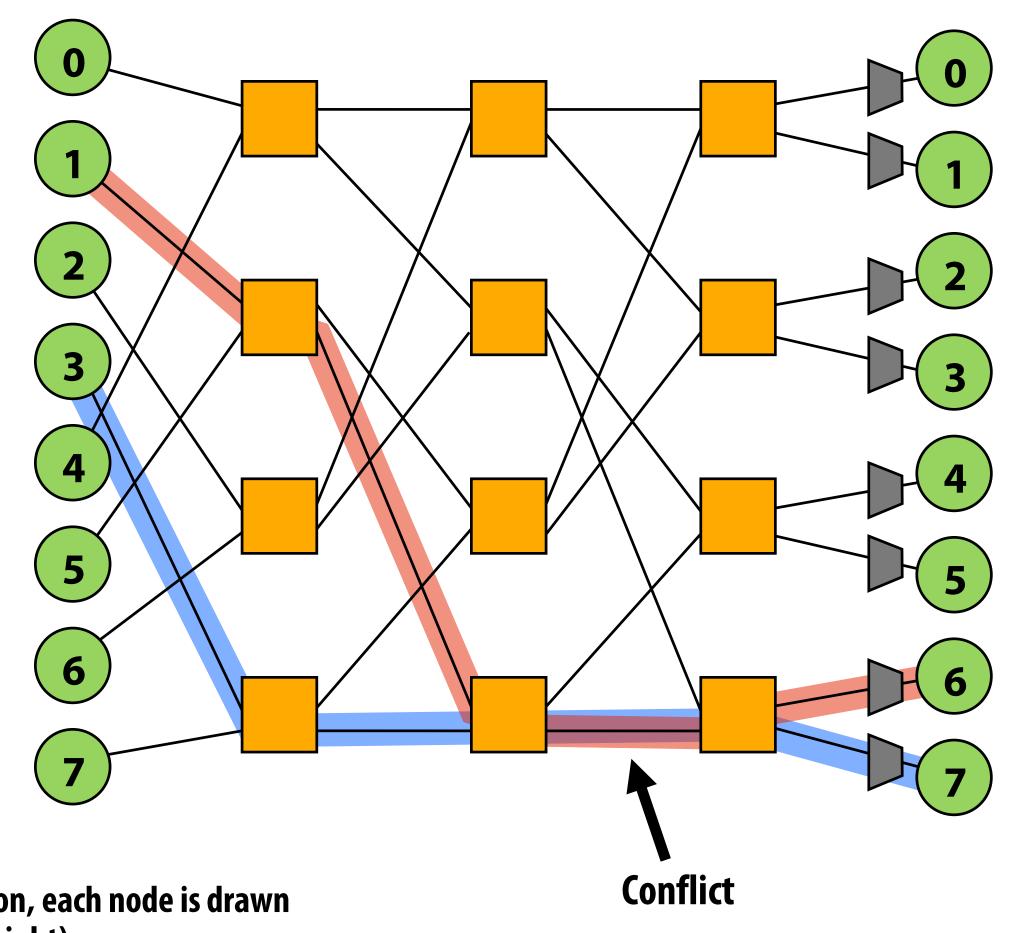
- Common metric of performance for recursive topologies
- Cut network in half, sum bandwidth of all severed links
- Warning: can be misleading as it does not account for switch and routing efficiencies

Blocking vs. non-blocking:

If connecting any pairing of nodes is possible, network is non-blocking (otherwise, it's blocking)

Example: blocking vs. non-blocking

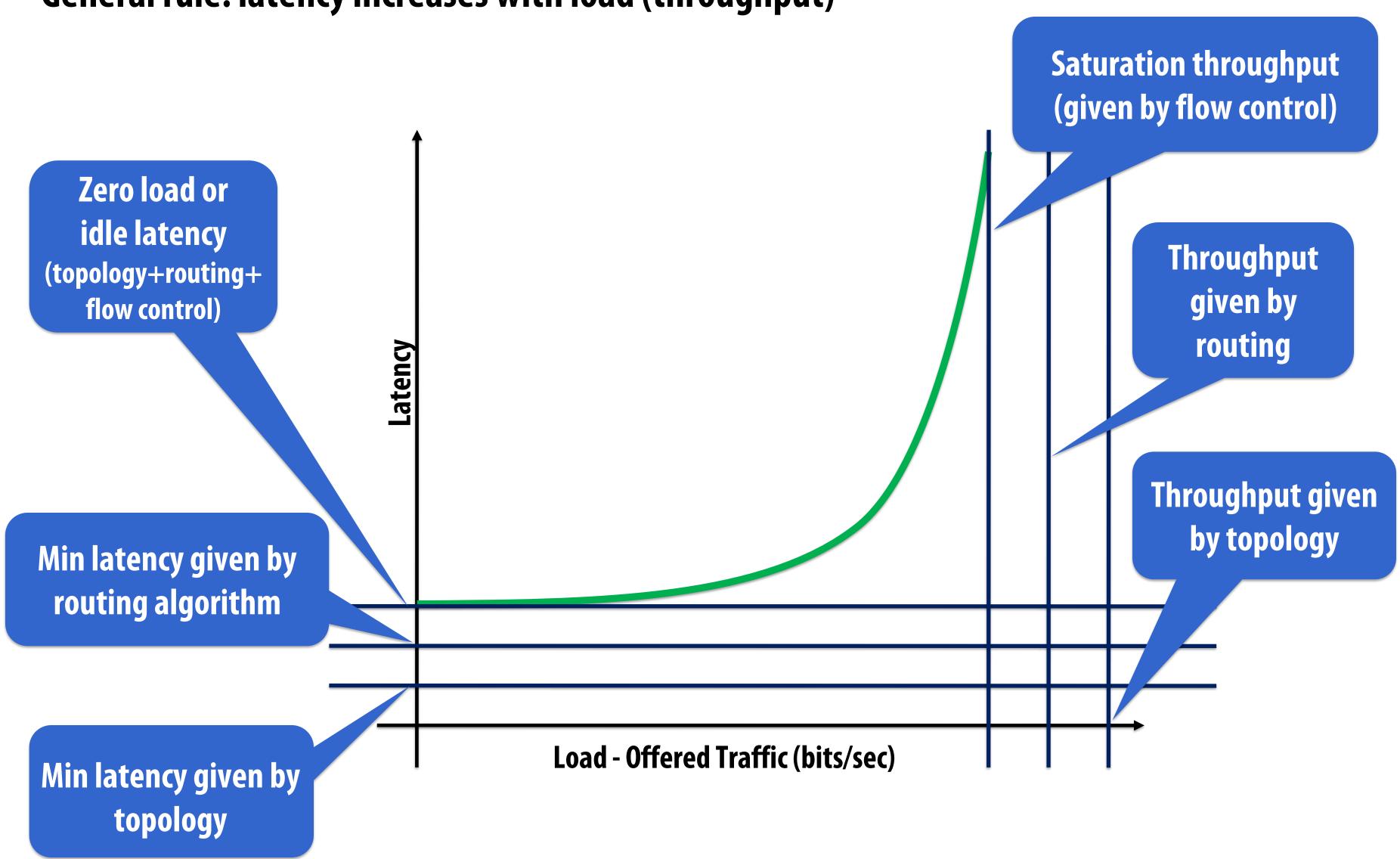
- Is this network blocking or non-blocking?
 - Consider simultaneous messages from 0-to-1 and 3-to-7.
 - Consider simultaneous messages from 1-to-6 and 3-to-7. Blocking!!!



Note: in this network illustration, each node is drawn twice for clarity (at left and at right)

Load-latency behavior of network

General rule: latency increases with load (throughput)



Interconnect topologies

Many possible network topologies

Bus

Crossbar

Ring

Tree

Omega

Hypercube

Mesh

Torus

Butterfly

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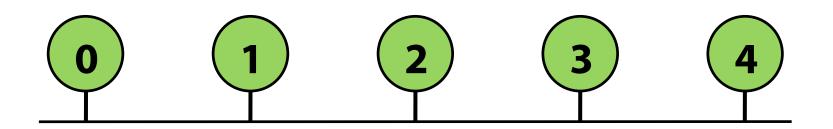
Bus interconnect

Good:

- Simple design
- Cost effective for a small number of nodes
- Easy to implement coherence (via snooping)

Bad:

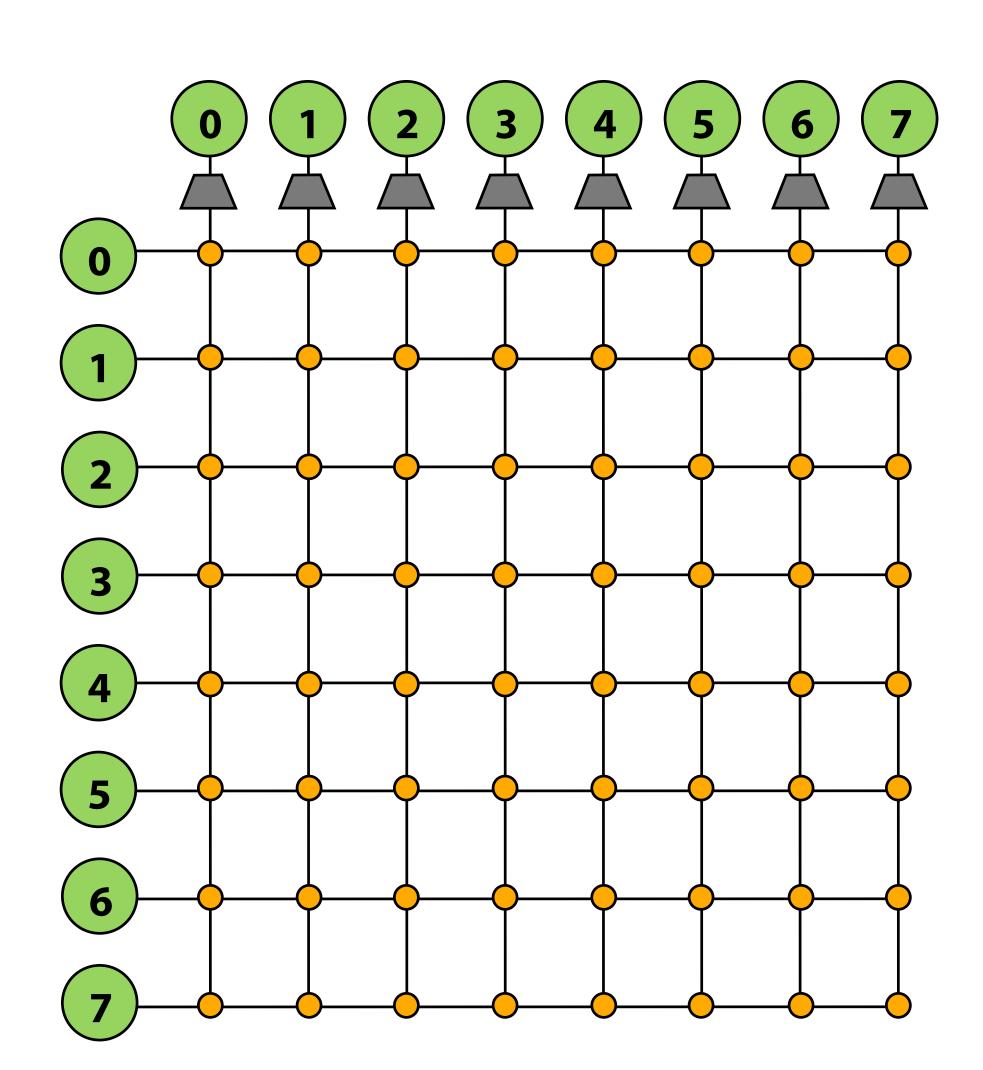
- Contention: all nodes contend for shared bus
- Limited bandwidth: all nodes communicate over same wires (one communication at a time)
- High electrical load = low frequency, high power



Crossbar interconnect

- Every node is connected to every other node (non-blocking, indirect)
- Good:
 - O(1) latency and high bandwidth
- Bad:
 - Not scalable: O(N²) switches
 - High cost
 - Difficult to arbitrate at scale

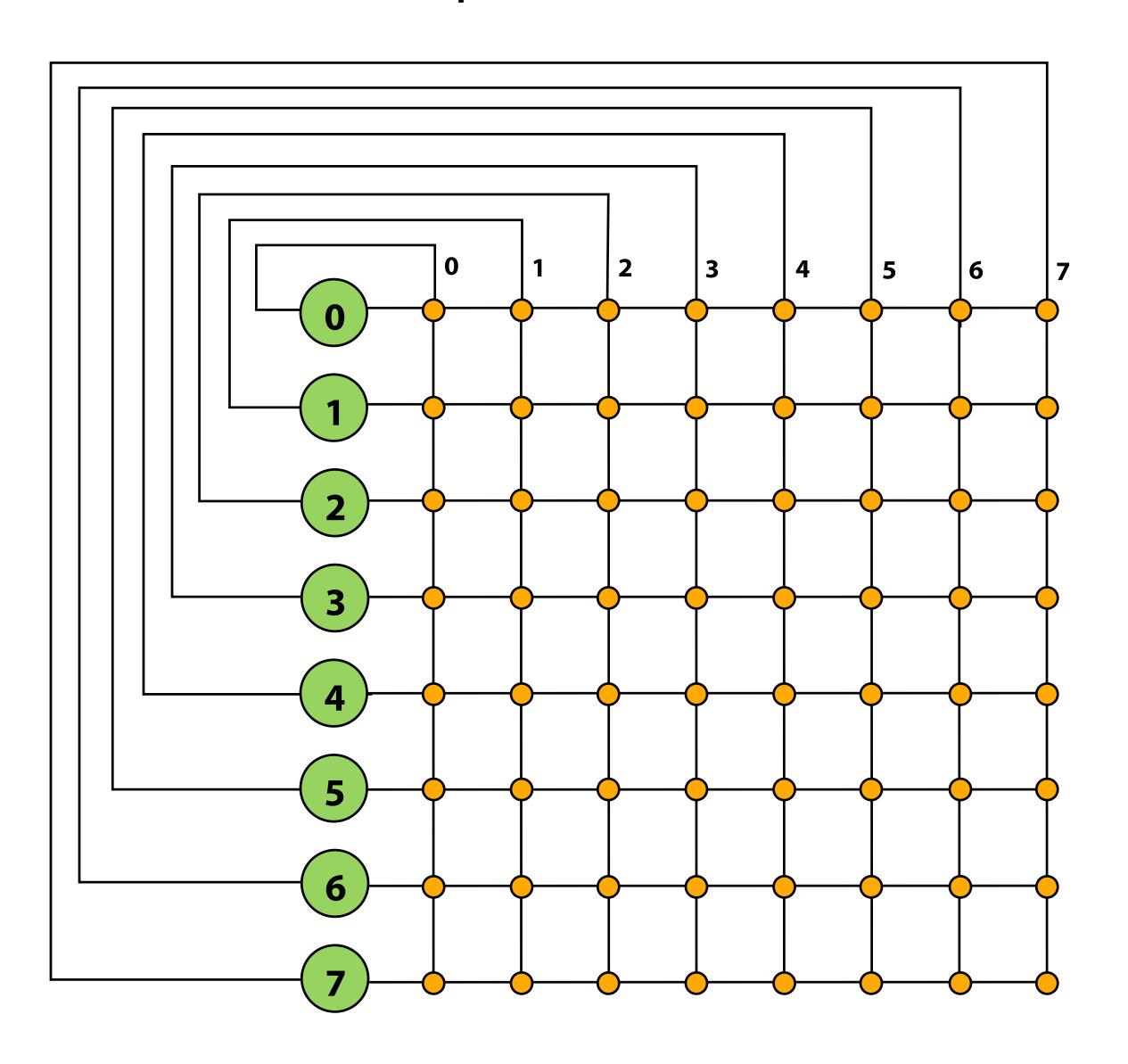




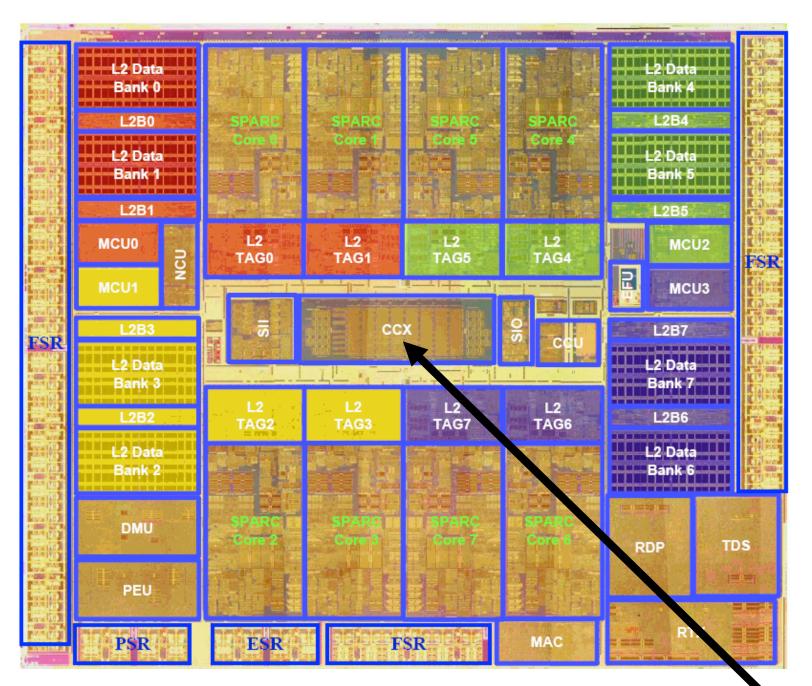
8-node crossbar network (N=8)

Crossbar interconnect

(Here is a more verbose illustration than that on previous slide)



Crossbars were used in recent multi-core processing from Oracle (previously Sun)



SPARC SPARC
Core Core

L3 L3 L3 L3

MCU MCU Cross Bar MCU MCU

SPARC SPARC
Core Core

Core Core

SPARC SPARC
Core Core

Core Core

SPARC SPARC
Core Core

Core Core

SPARC SPARC
Core Core

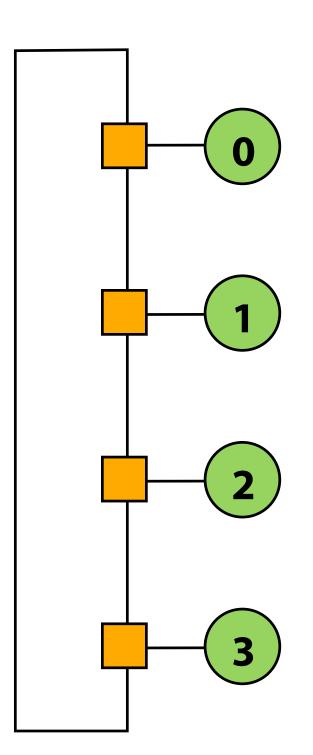
Sun SPARC T2 (8 cores, 8 L2 cache banks)

Oracle SPARC T5 (16 cores, 8 L3 cache banks)

Note that crossbar (CCX) occupies about the same chip area as a core

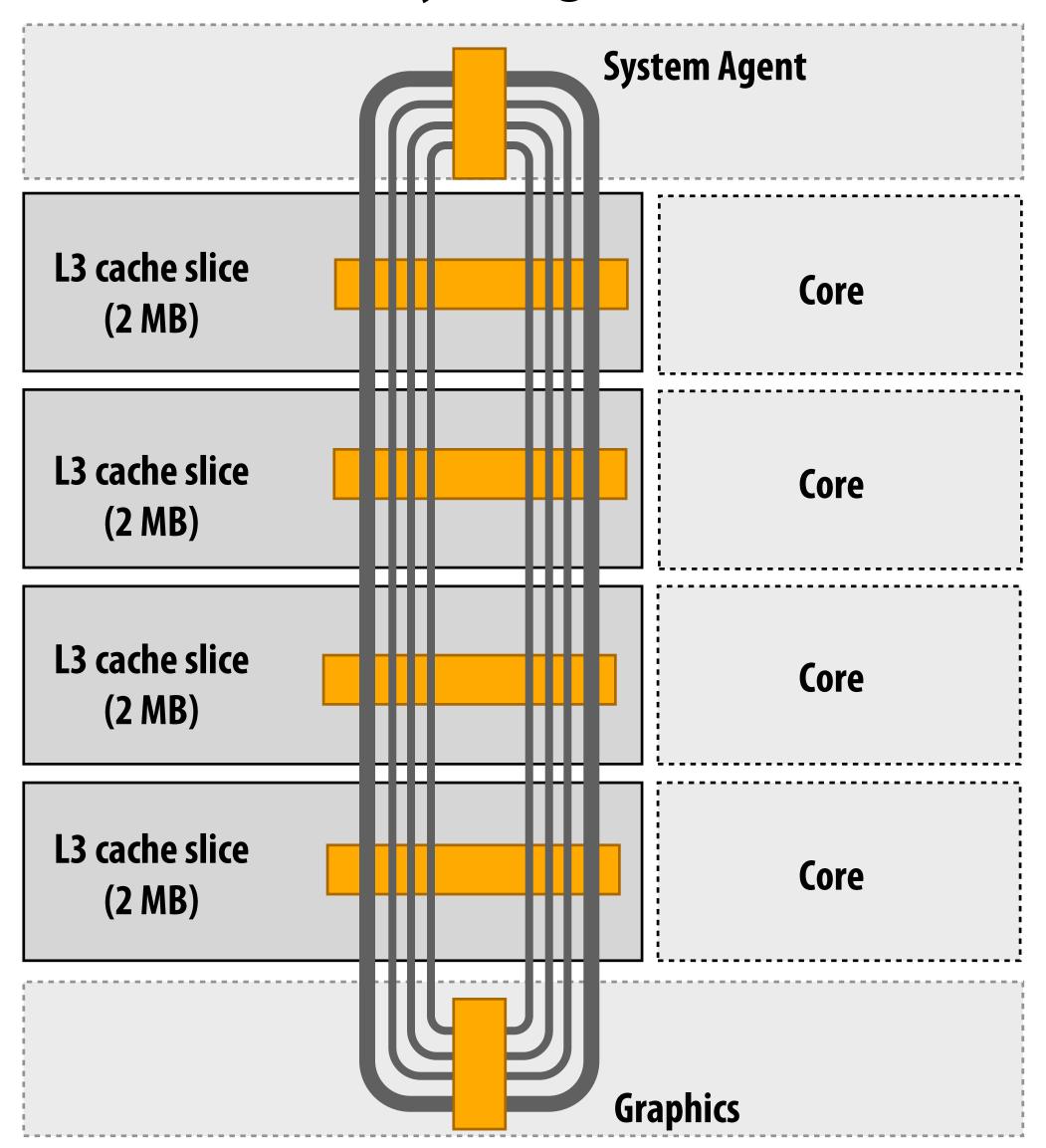
Ring

- Good:
 - Simple
 - Cheap: O(N) cost
- Bad:
 - High latency: O(N)
 - Bisection bandwidth remains constant as nodes are added (scalability issue)
- Used in recent Intel architectures
 - Core i7
- Also used in IBM CELL Broadband Engine (9 cores)



Intel's ring interconnect

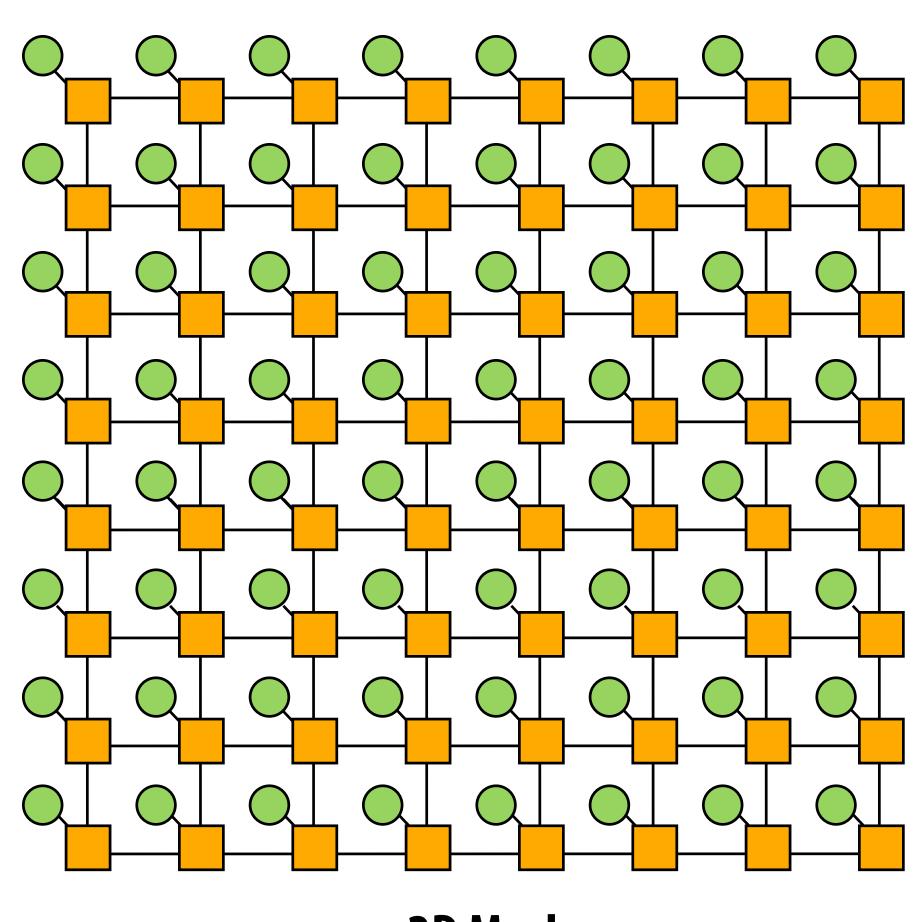
Introduced in Sandy Bridge microarchitecture



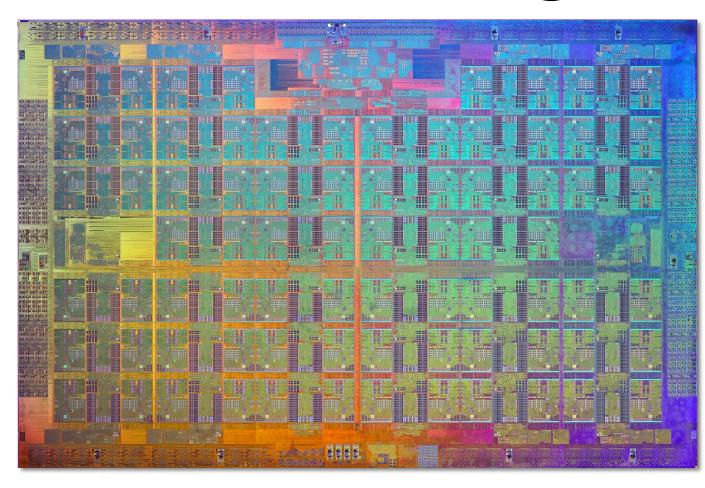
- Four rings
 - request
 - snoop
 - Ack
 - data (32 bytes)
- Six interconnect nodes: four "slices" of L3 cache + system agent + graphics
- Each bank of L3 connected to ring bus twice
- Theoretical peak BW from cores to L3 at 3.4 GHz is approx. 435 GB/sec
 - When each core is accessing its local slice

Mesh

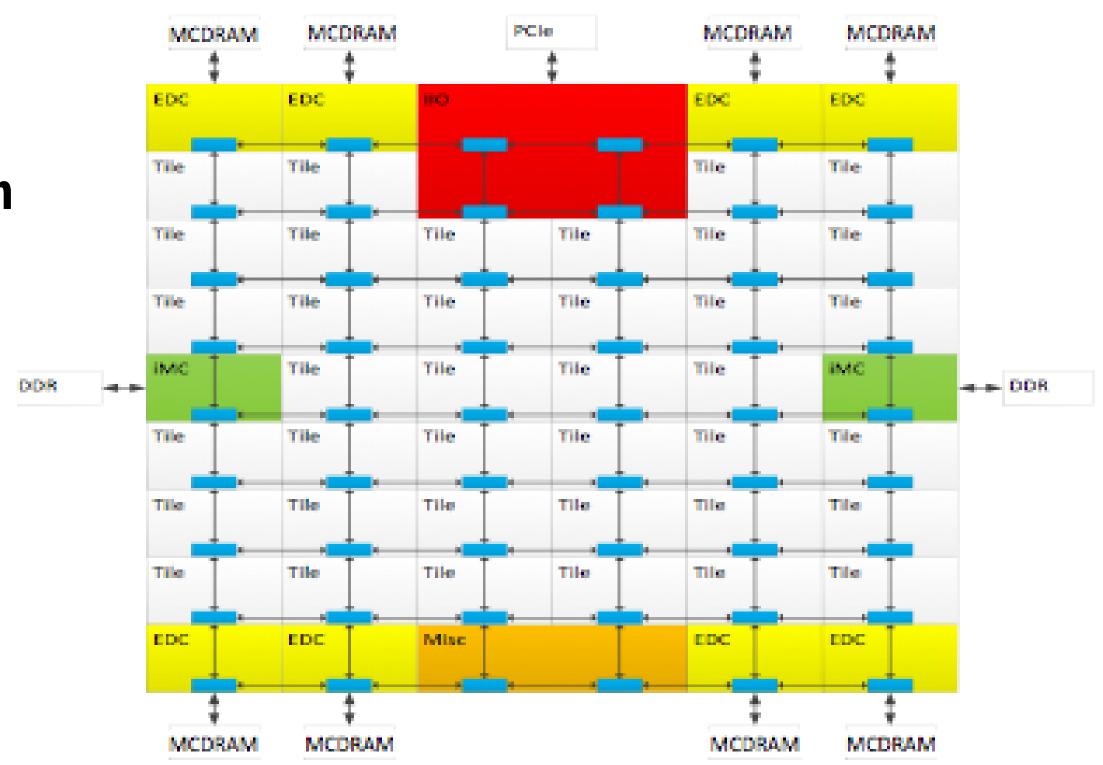
- Direct network
- Echoes locality in grid-based applications
- O(N) cost
- Average latency: O(sqrt(N))
- Easy to lay out on chip: fixed-length links
- Path diversity: many ways for message to travel from one node to another
- Used by:
 - Tilera processors
 - Prototype Intel chips



Xeon Phi (Knights Landing)

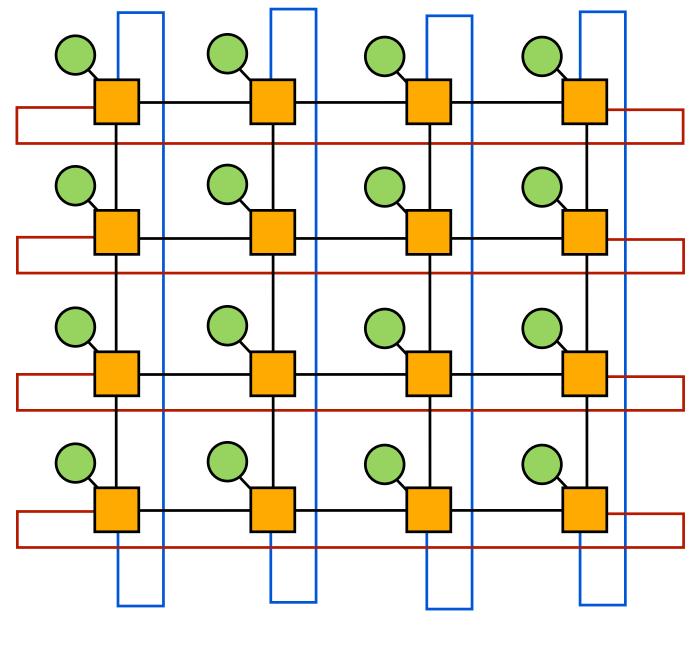


- 72 cores, arranged as 6 x 6 mesh of tiles (2 cores/tile)
- YX routing of messages:
 - Move in Y
 - "Turn"
 - Move in X



Torus

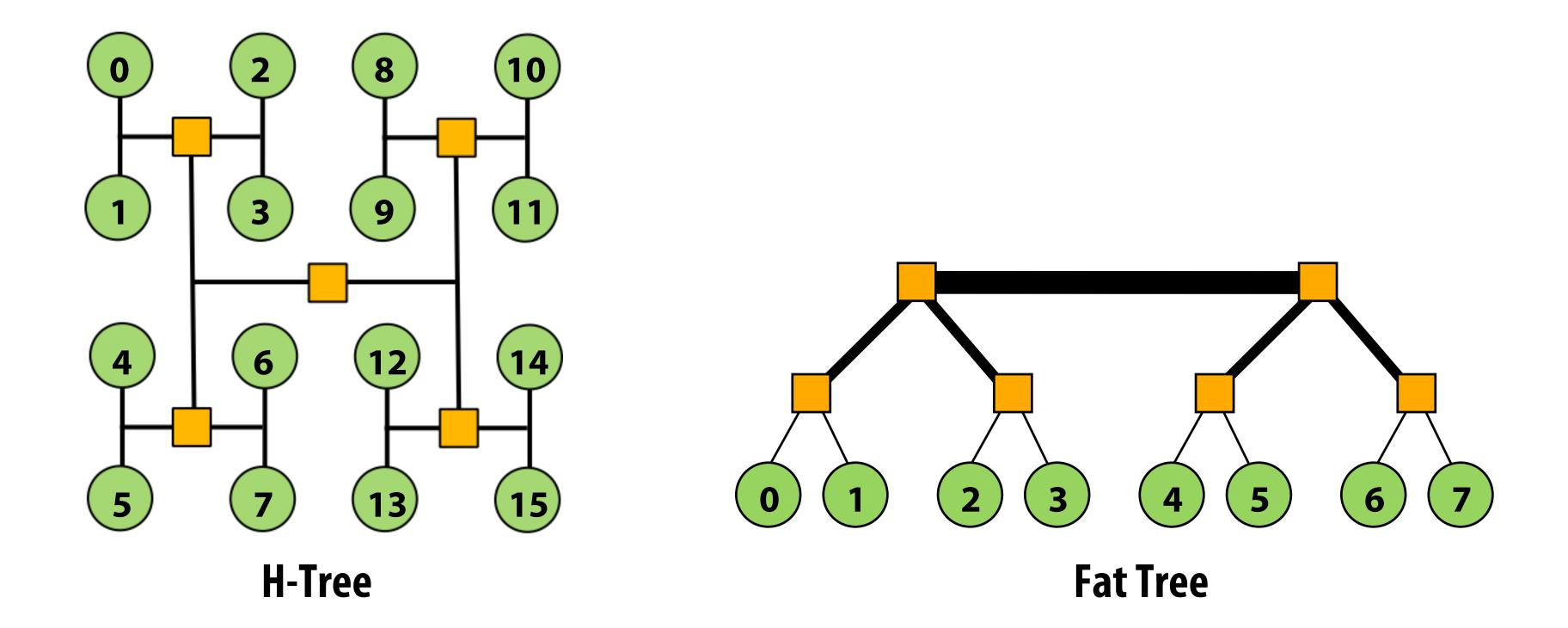
- Characteristics of mesh topology are different based on whether node is near edge or middle of network (torus topology introduces new links to avoid this problem)
- Still O(N) cost, but higher cost than 2D grid
- Higher path diversity and bisection BW than mesh
- Higher complexity
 - Difficult to layout on chip
 - Unequal link lengths



2D Torus

Trees

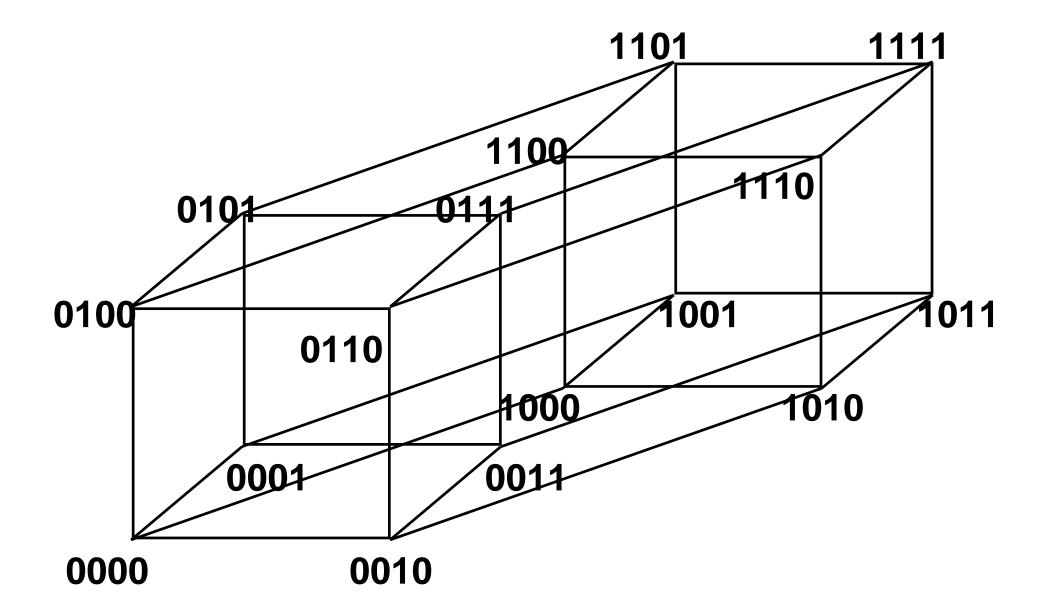
- Planar, hierarchical topology
- Like mesh/torus, good when traffic has locality
- Latency: O(lg N)
- Use "fat trees" to alleviate root bandwidth problem (higher bandwidth links near root)



Hypercube

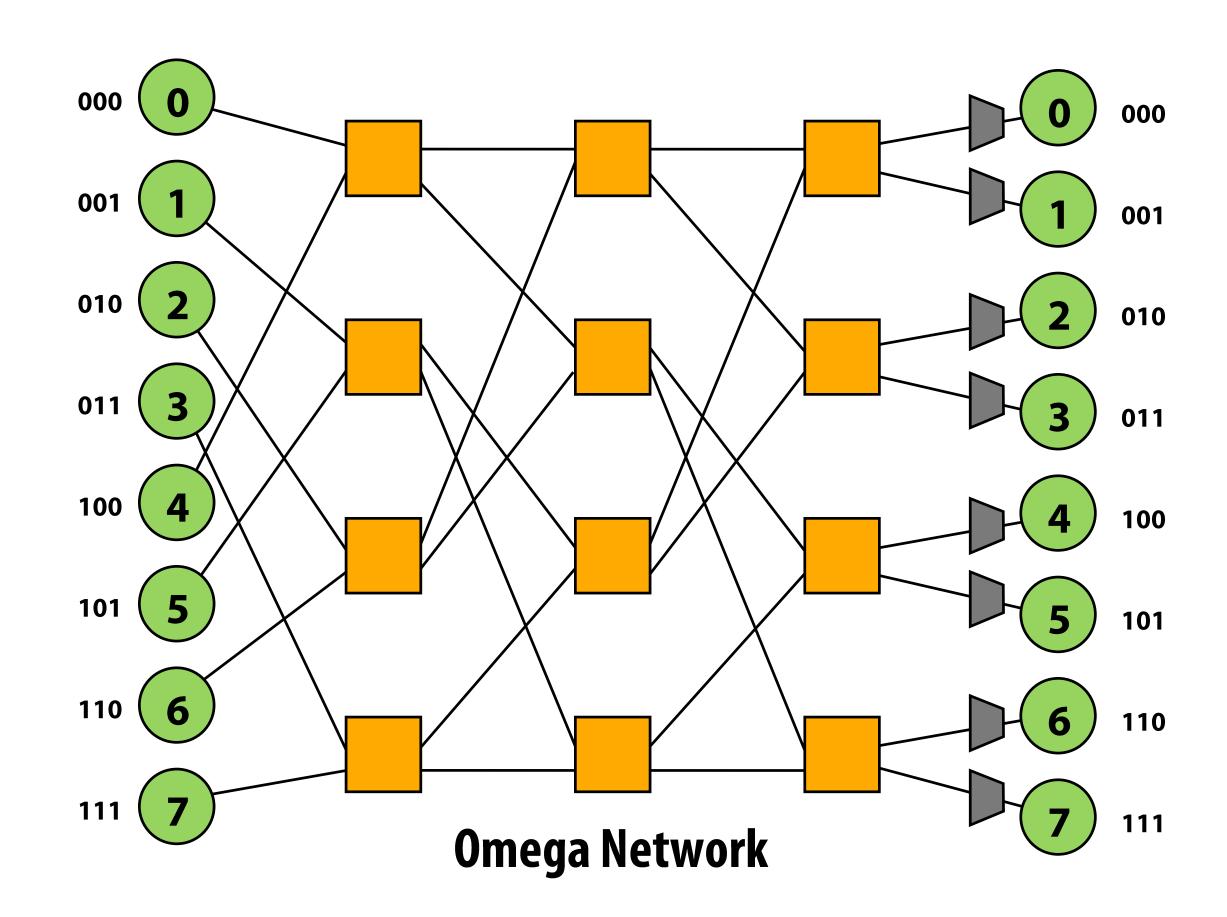
- Low latency: O(lg N)
- Radix: O(lg N)
- Number of links O(N Ig N)
- 0-D 1-D 2-D 3-D 4-D

- 6D hypercube used in 64-core
 Cosmic Cube computer developed at Caltech in the 80s
- SGI Origin used a hypercube

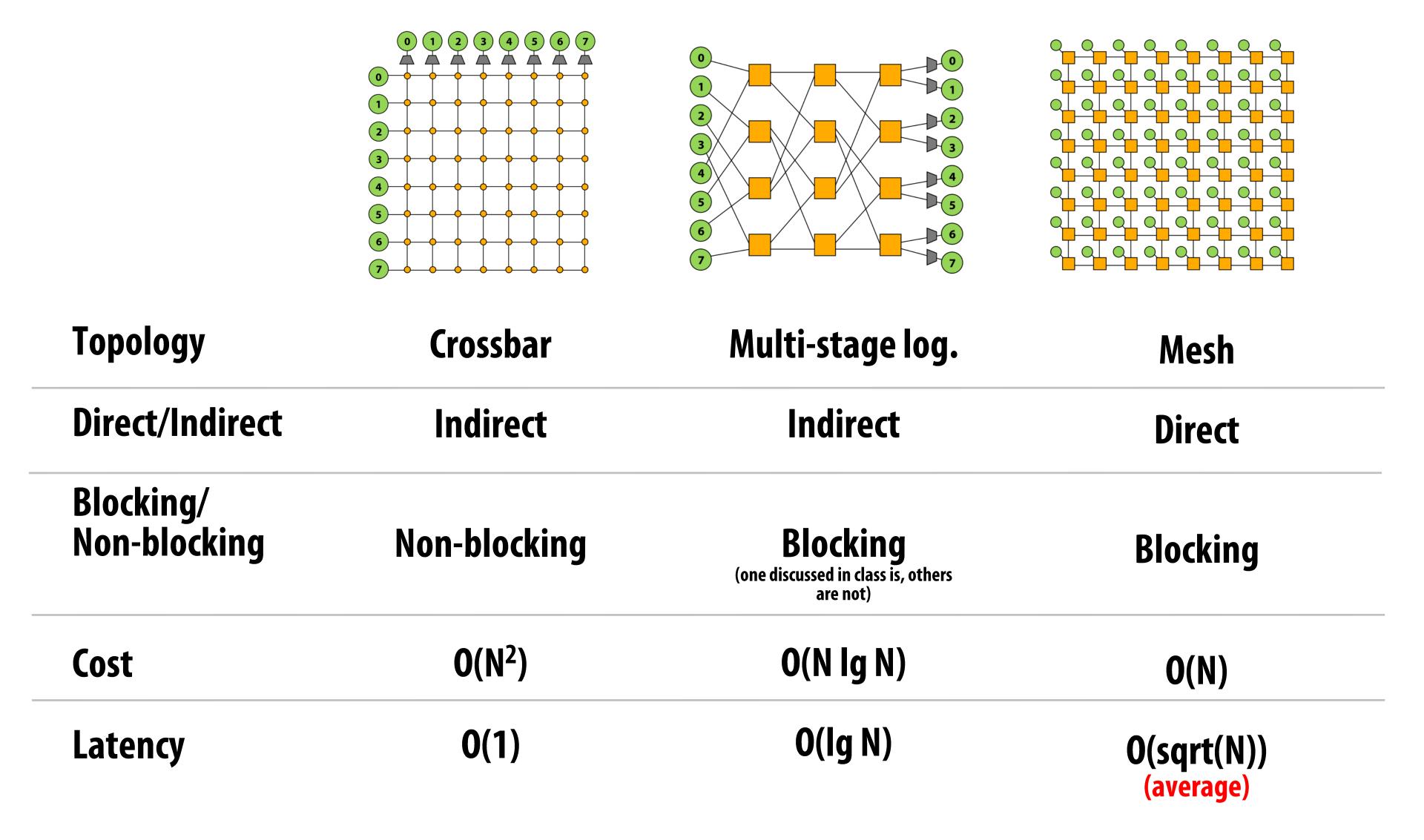


Multi-stage logarithmic

- Indirect network with multiple switches between terminals
- Cost: O(N lg N)
- Latency: O(lg N)
- Many variations: Omega, butterfly, Clos networks, etc...



Review: network topologies



Buffering and flow control

Circuit switching vs. packet switching

- Circuit switching sets up a full path (acquires all resources)
 between sender and receiver prior to sending a message
 - Establish route (reserve links) then send all data for message
 - Higher bandwidth transmission (no per-packet link mgmt overhead)
 - Does incur overhead to set up/tear down path
 - Reserving links can result in low utilization



Packet switching makes routing decisions per packet

- Route each packet individually (possibly over different network links)
- Opportunity to use link for a packet whenever link is idle
- Overhead due to dynamic switching logic during transmission
- No setup/tear down overhead



Granularity of communication

Message

- Unit of transfer between network clients (e.g., cores, memory)
- Can be transmitted using many packets

Packet

- Unit of transfer for network
- Can be transmitted using multiple flits (will discuss later)

Flit (flow control digit)

- Packets broken into smaller units called "flits"
- Flit: ("flow control digit") a unit of flow control in the network
- Flits become minimum granularity of routing/buffering

Packet format

- A packet consists of:
 - Header:
 - Contains routing and control information
 - At start of packet to router can start forwarding early
 - Payload/body: containing the data to be sent
 - Tail
 - Contains control information, e.g., error code
 - Generally located at end of packet so it can be generated "on the way out"

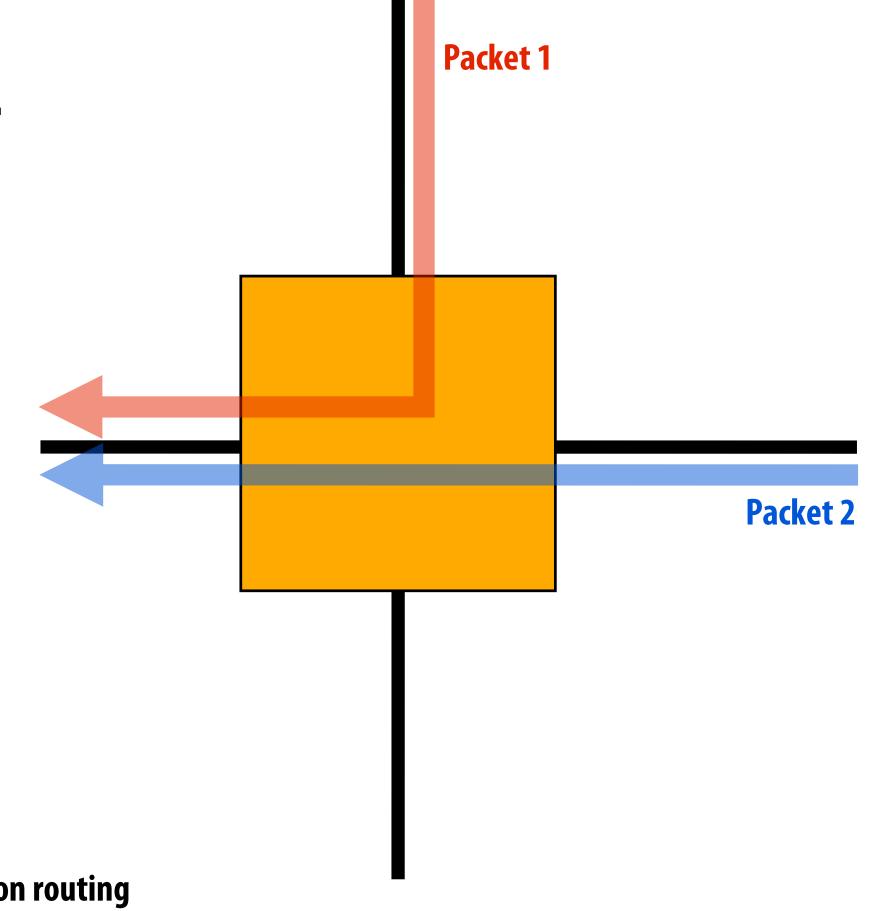
(sender computes checksum, appends it to end of packet)

•	←				
	Header	Payload/body	Tail		

Handling contention

Scenario: two packets need to be routed onto the same outbound link at the same time

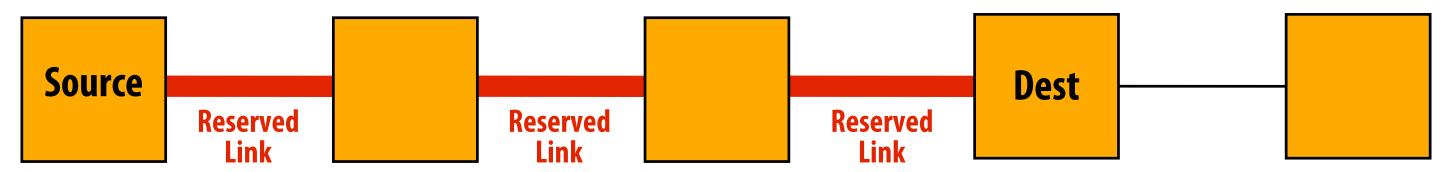
- Options:
 - Buffer one packet, send it over link later
 - Drop one packet
 - Reroute one packet (deflection)
- In this lecture: we only consider buffering *



^{*} But recent research has looked at using bufferless networks with deflection routing as a power-efficient interconnect for chip multiprocessors.

Circuit-switched routing

- High-granularity resource allocation
 - Main idea: <u>pre-allocate</u> all resources (links across multiple switches)
 along entire network path for a message ("setup a flow")



Costs

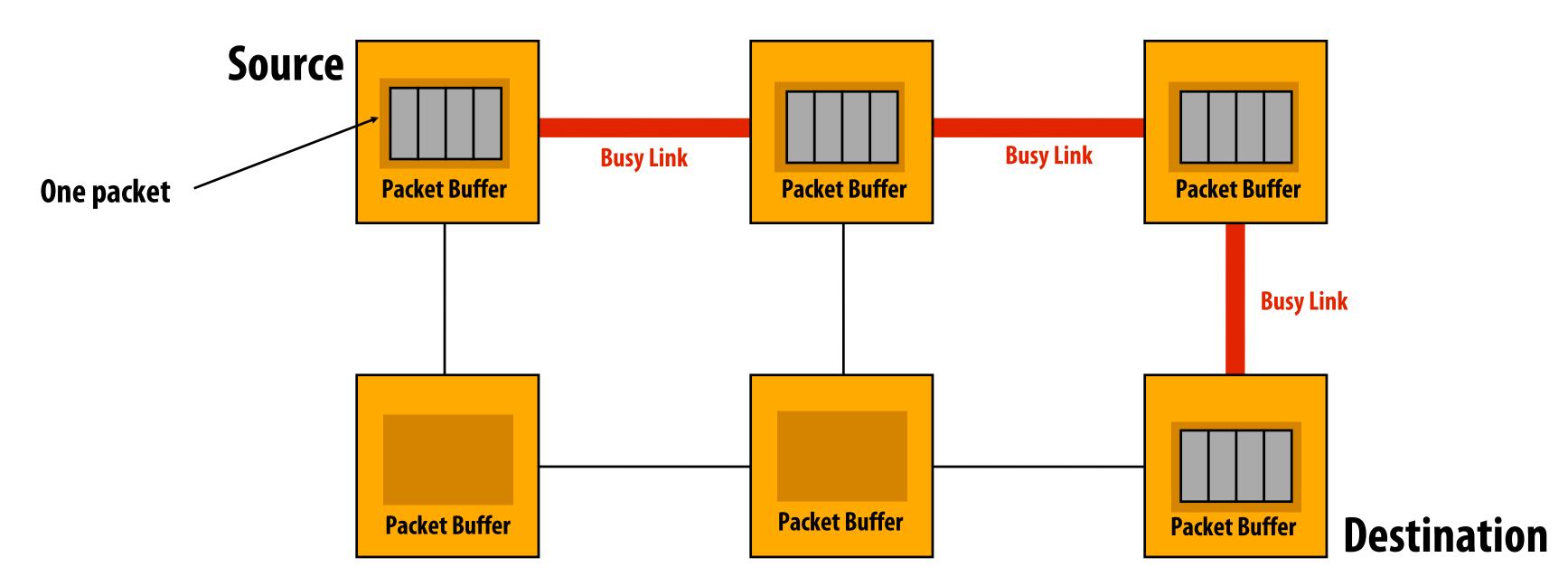
- Needs setup phase ("probe") to set up the path (and to tear it down and release the resources when message complete)
- Lower link utilization. Transmission of two messages cannot share same link (even if some resources on a preallocated path are no longer utilized during a transmission)

Benefits

- No contention during transmission due to preallocation, so no need for buffering
- Arbitrary message sizes (once path is set up, send data until done)

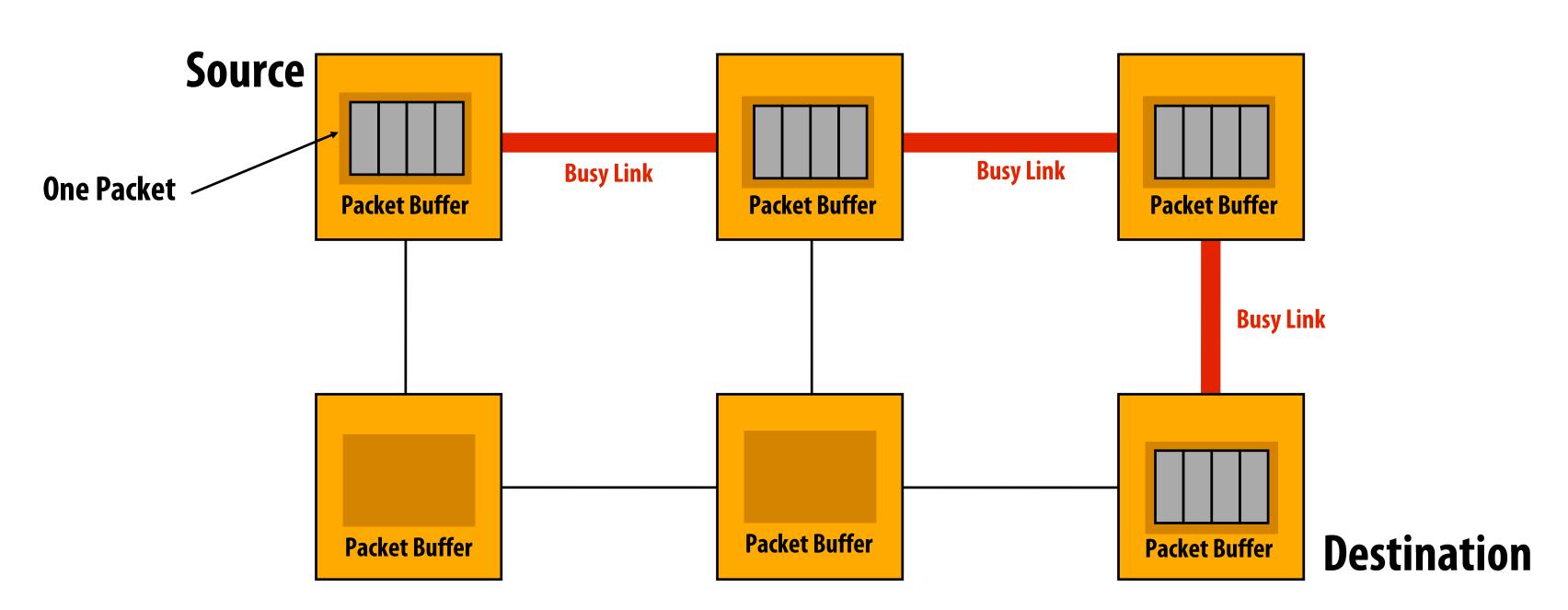
Store-and-forward (packet-based routing)

- Packet copied entirely into network switch before moving to next node
- Flow control unit is an entire packet
 - Different packets from the same message can take different routes, but all data in a packet is transmitted over the same route
- Requires buffering for entire packet in each router
- High per-packet latency (latency = packet transmission time on link x network distance)



Cut-through flow control (also packet-based)

- Switch starts forwarding data on next link as soon as packet header is received (header determines how much link bandwidth packet requires + where to route)
- Result: reduced transmission latency
 - Cut-through routing reduces to store-and-forward under high contention. Why?



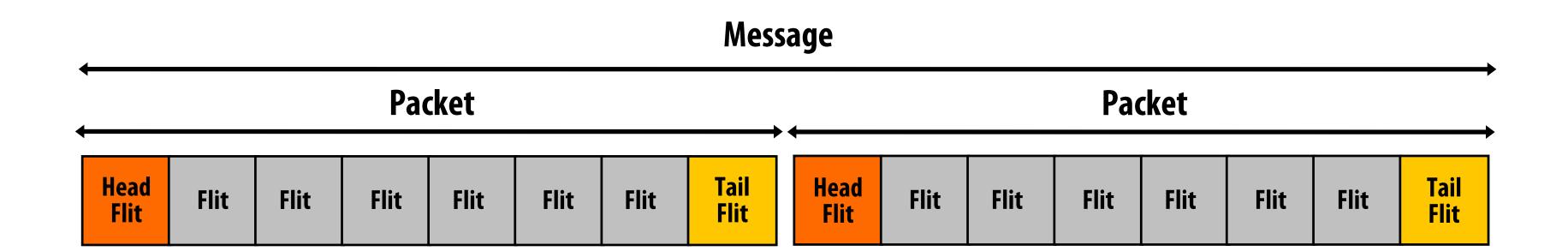
Store and forward solution from previous slide: 3 hops x 4 units of time to transmit packet over a single link = 12 units of time Cut-through solution: 3 steps of latency for head of packet to get to destination + 3 units of time for rest of packet = 6 units of time

Cut-through flow control

- If output link is blocked (cannot transmit head), transmission of tail can continue
 - Worst case: entire message is absorbed into a buffer in a switch (cut-through flow control degenerates to store-and-forward in this case)
 - Requires switches to have buffering for entire packet, just like store-and-forward

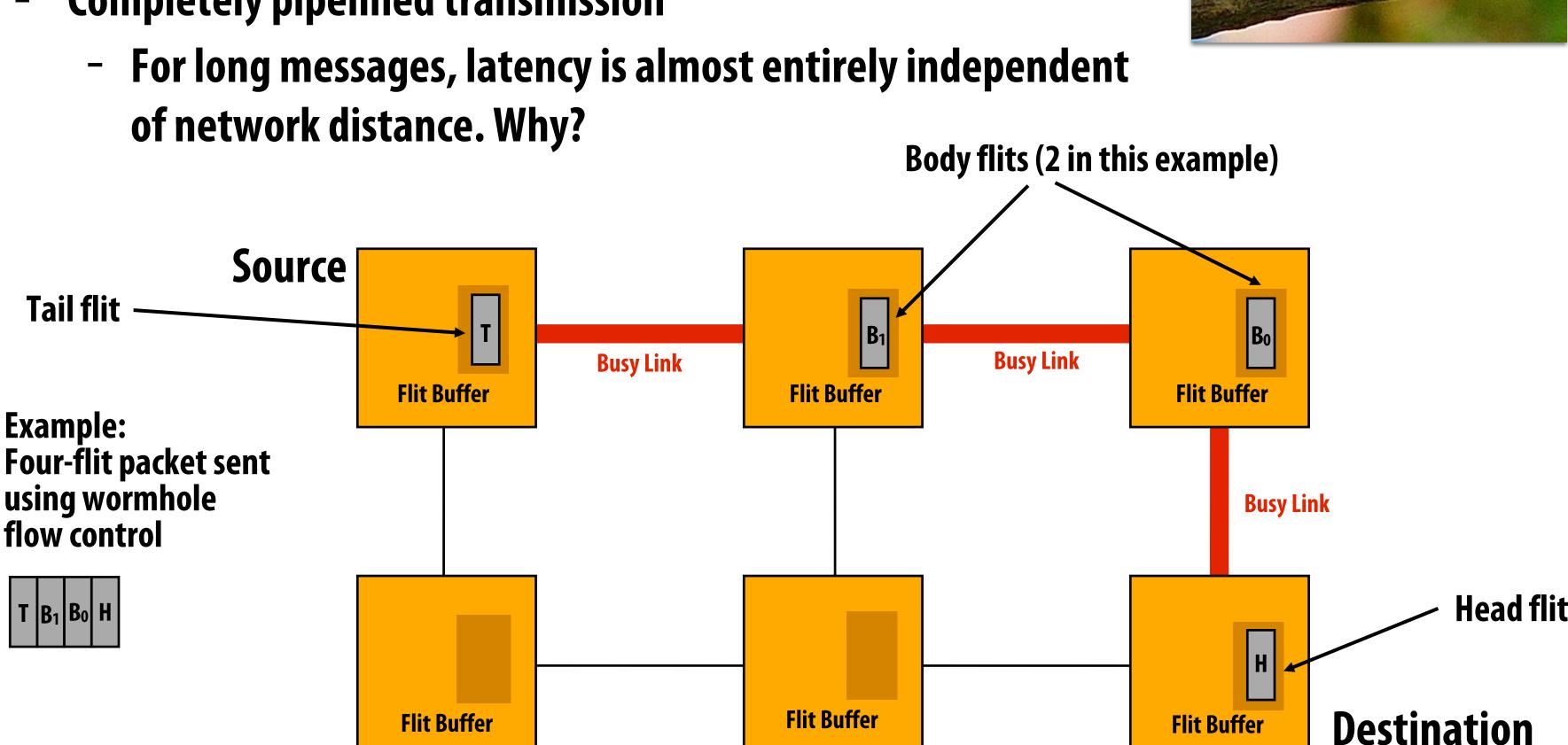
Wormhole flow control

- Flit (flow control digit)
 - Packets broken into smaller units called "flits"
 - Flit: ("flow control digit") a unit of flow control in the network
 - Flits become minimum granularity of routing/buffering
 - Recall: up until now, packets were the granularity of transfer AND flow control and buffering (store-and-forward, cut-through routing)



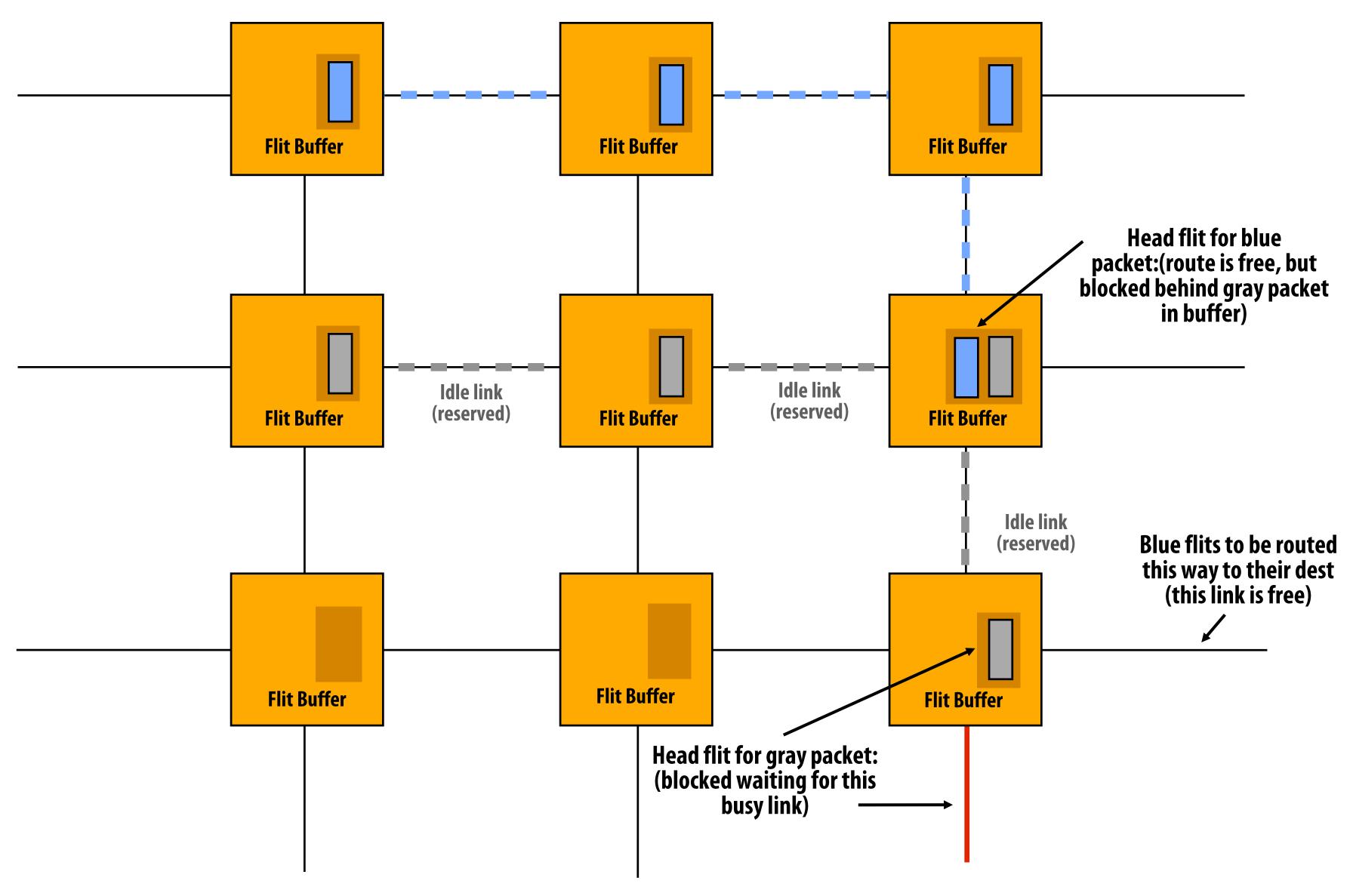
Wormhole flow control

- Routing information only in head flit
- Body flits follows head, tail flit flows body
- If head flit blocks, rest of packet stops
- Completely pipelined transmission



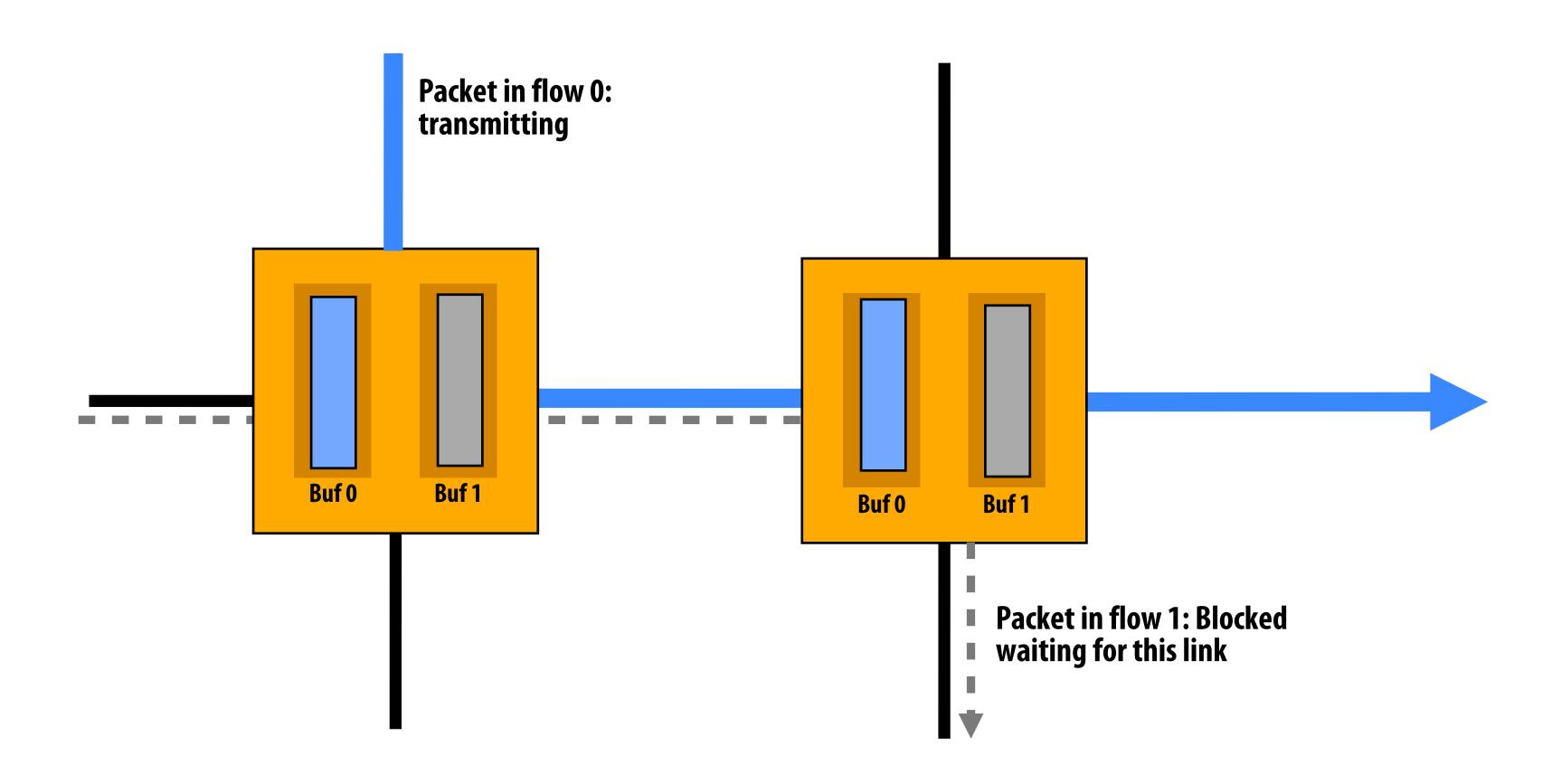


Problem: head-of-line blocking



Virtual channel flow control

- Multiplex multiple operations over single physical channel
- Divide switch's input buffer into multiple buffers sharing a single physical channel
- Reduces head-of-line blocking



Other uses of virtual channels

Deadlock avoidance

- Can be used to break cyclic dependency of resources
- Prevent cycles by ensuring requests and responses use different virtual channels
- "Escape" VCs: retain at least one virtual channel that uses deadlock-free routing

Prioritization of traffic classes

- Provide quality-of-service guarantees
- Some virtual channels have higher priority than others

Current research topics

- Energy efficiency of interconnections
 - Interconnect can be energy intensive (~35% of total chip power in MIT RAW research processor)
 - Bufferless networks
 - Other techniques: turn on/off regions of network, use fast and slow networks
- Prioritization and quality-of-service guarantees
 - Prioritize packets to improve multi-processor performance (e.g., some applications may be more sensitive to network performance than others)
 - Throttle endpoints (e.g., cores) based on network feedback
- New/emerging technologies
 - Die stacking (3D chips)
 - Photonic networks-on-chip (use optical waveguides instead of wires)
 - Reconfigurable devices (FPGAs): create custom interconnects tailored to application (see CMU projects: CONNECT, CoRAM, Shrinkwrap)

Summary

- The performance of the interconnection network in a modern multi-processor is critical to overall system performance
 - Buses do not scale to many nodes
 - Historically interconnect was off-chip network connecting sockets, boards, racks
 - Today, all these issues apply to the design of on-chip networks
- Network topologies differ in performance, cost, complexity tradeoffs
 - e.g., crossbar, ring, mesh, torus, multi-stage network, fat tree, hypercube
- Challenge: efficiently routing data through network
 - Interconnect is a precious resource (communication is expensive!)
 - Flit-based flow control: fine-grained flow control to make good use of available link bandwidth
 - If interested, much more to learn about (not discussed in this class): ensuring quality-of-service, prioritization, reliability, deadlock, livelock, etc.