



# Parallel Computers

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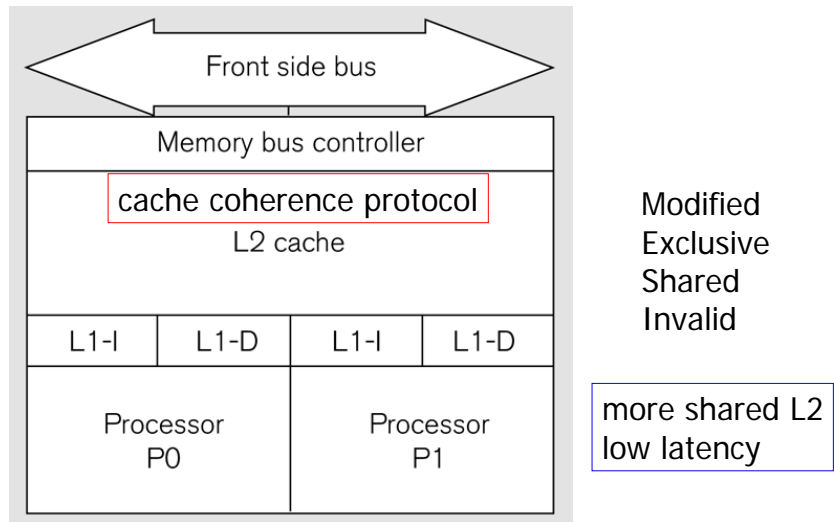
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## How much do we need to know?

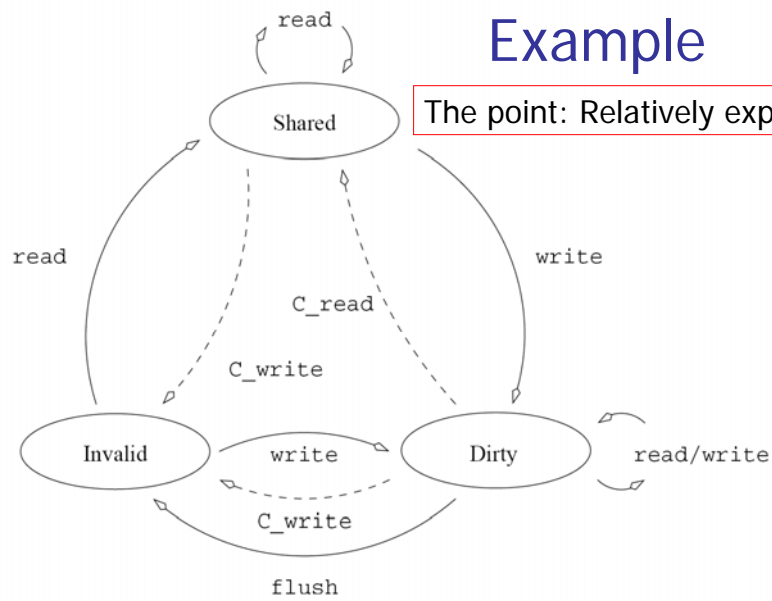
- Important to know the architecture of parallel hardware.
- Not all details are important to programmers
  - keep portability
  - keep up with technological changes
- The point: Get a meaningful model.

# Intel Core Duo



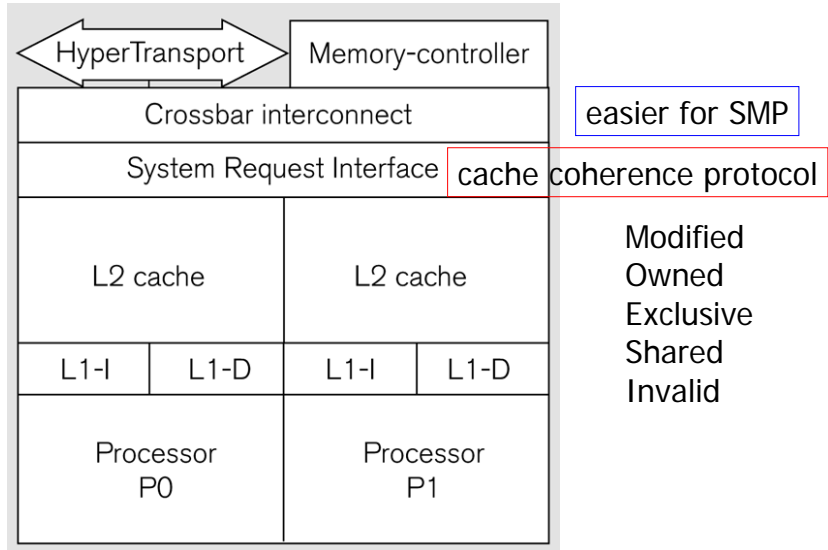
## Example

The point: Relatively expensive.

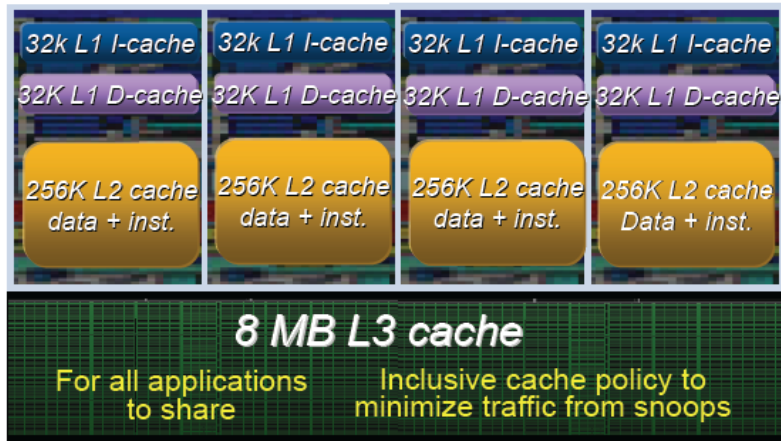


**Figure 2.22** State diagram of a simple three-state coherence protocol.

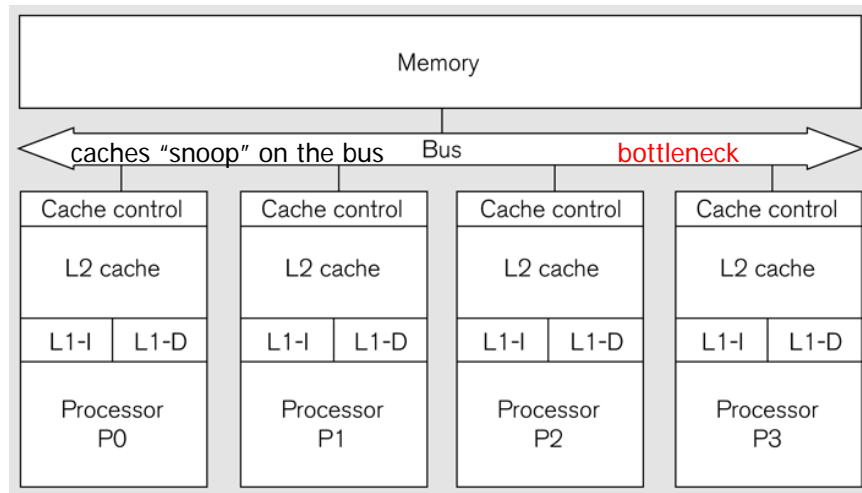
# AMD Dual Core Opteron



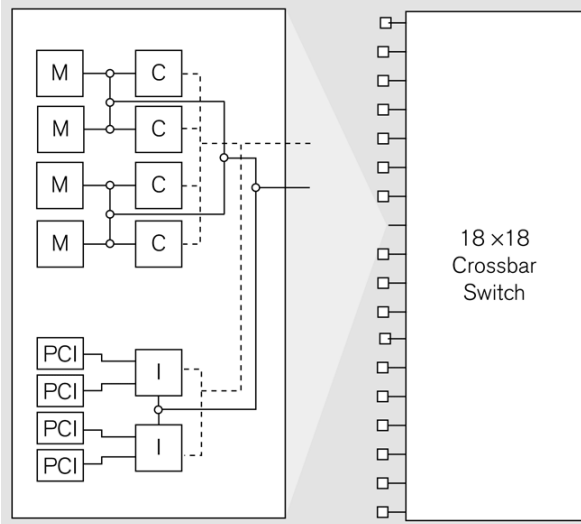
# Core i7



# SMP



## Larger SMP – Sun Fire

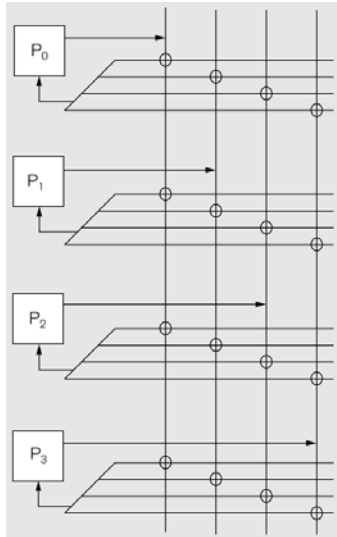


18 boards connected by a crossbar switch.  
Snooping buses.  
Directory based cache coherence protocol.  
Scalable/higher latency.

Note: Expensive hardware.



# Crossbar



- N x N connections.
- Expensive, limited.

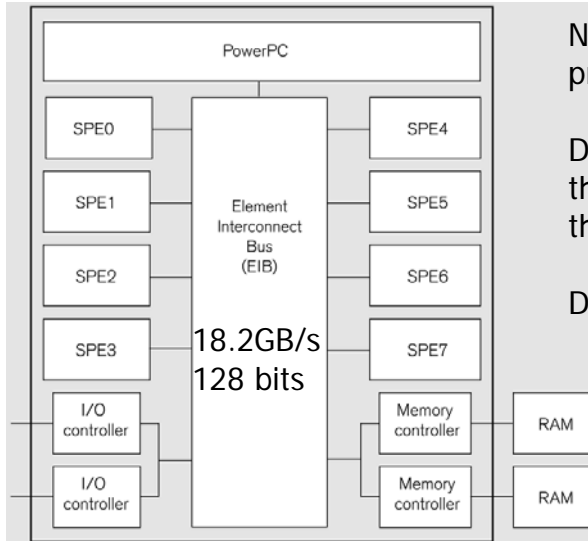


## Heterogeneous chips

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- GPUs
  - 800 ALU on ATI's latest 4800 series.
  - --logic, ++computational units
- FPGAs
  - PCI boards available
  - reconfigurable
- Cell
  - Dual-threaded PPC – PPU, 64 bits
  - 8x SPU

# Cell architecture



No cache coherence protocol.

Different philosophy: the PPU is a coordinator, the SPUs do the job.

Difficult to program.



## Clusters

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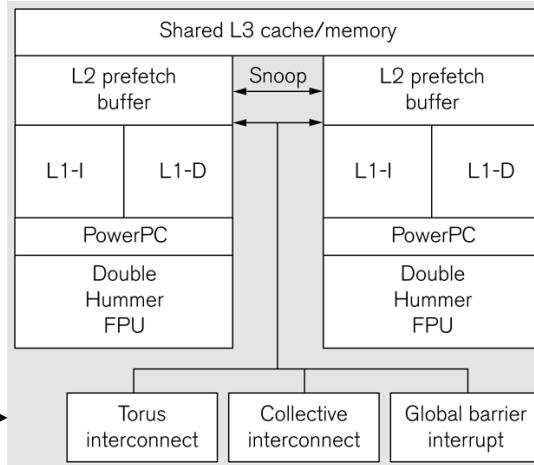
- “Cheap” PCs connected together.
  - GB ethernet
  - Infiniband
  - ...
  - Memory private to each machine, use message based communication.
  - Scalable but high latency.
  - Sold by racks.



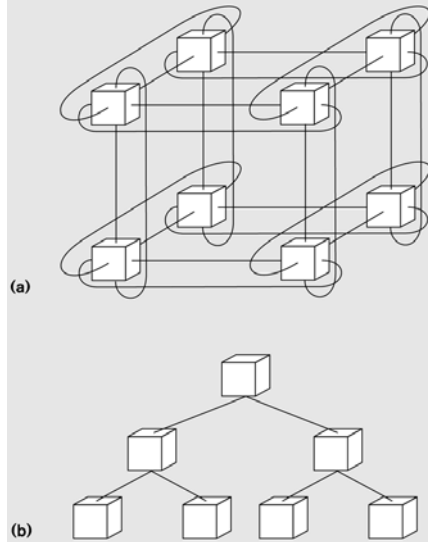
# BlueGene

65536 x  
@ 700MHz

interesting part →

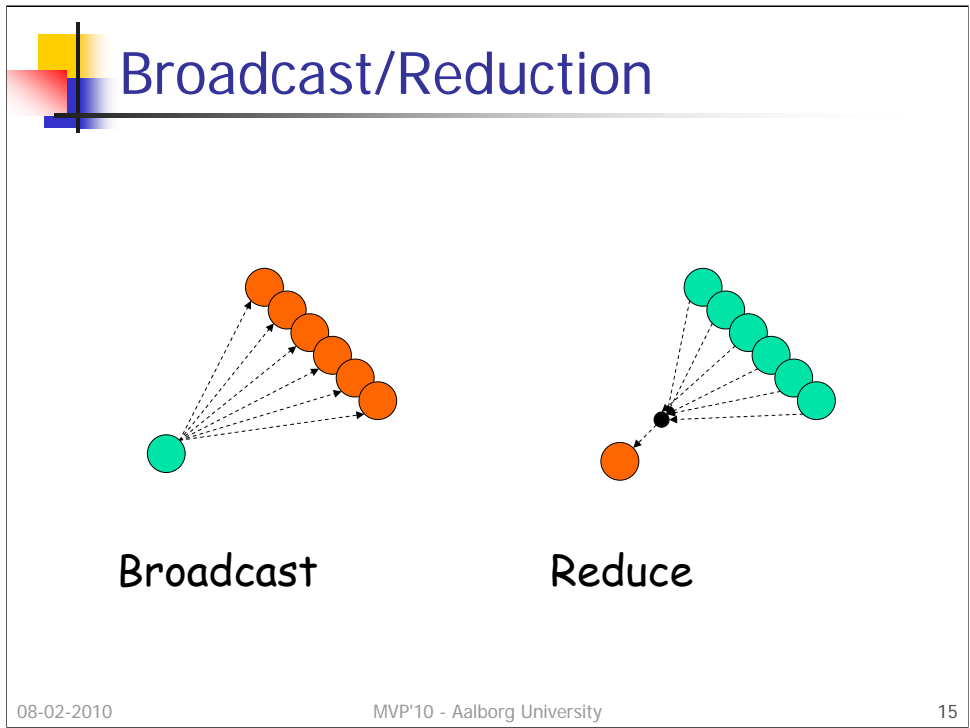


# Interconnect



3-D torus for standard data transfers.

Collective network for fast reductions.  
Very powerful.



This is the logical view, what happens from the programmer's perspective.



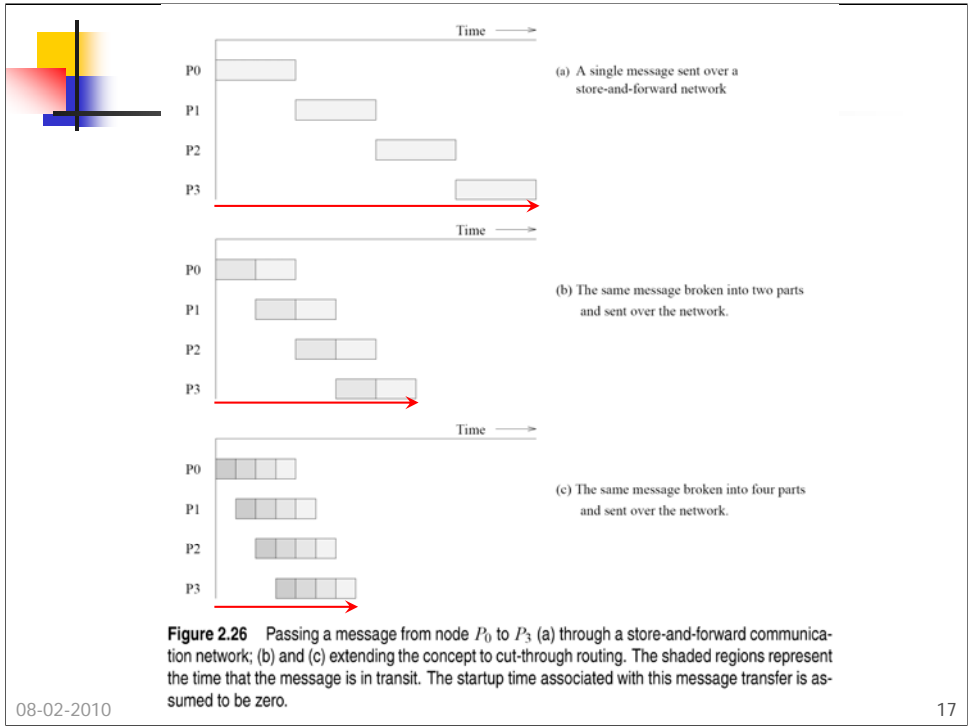
## Cut-through routing

### *Understanding communication*

- Simplified packet routing:
  - Packets take the same path (1x routing information).
  - In sequence packet delivery (no sequencing).
  - Error detection at message level, cheap detection (for good networks).
  - Fixed size unit for packets = flow control digits (flits).

It is an optimization for interconnection networks of parallel machines since error rates are very low (dedicated network).





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17



## Lessons

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- Very different architectures.
  - SMP
  - Distributed
- But we want one meaningful model.
- Hints:
  - local accesses - cheap
  - non-local accesses - expensive



## RAM model

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- Sequential execution unit with unbounded memory.
  - every operation takes 1 unit of time
- Limited
  - ok for algorithms – reason on complexity
  - unrealistic



## Application of the RAM model

```
1 location=-1;
2 for(j=0; j<n; j++)
3 {
4     if(A[j]==searchee)
5     {
6         location=j;
7         break;
8     }
9 }
```

```
1 location=-1;
2 hi=n-1;
3 lo=0;
4 while(lo!=hi)
5 {
6     mid=lo+floor((hi-lo+1)/2);
7     if(A[mid]==searchee)
8         break;
9     if(A[mid]>searchee)
10        hi=mid;
11    else
12        lo=mid+1;
13 }
```

Expected:  $O(n)$ ,  $O(\log n)$

update of location missing  
(array must be sorted)



## PRAM model

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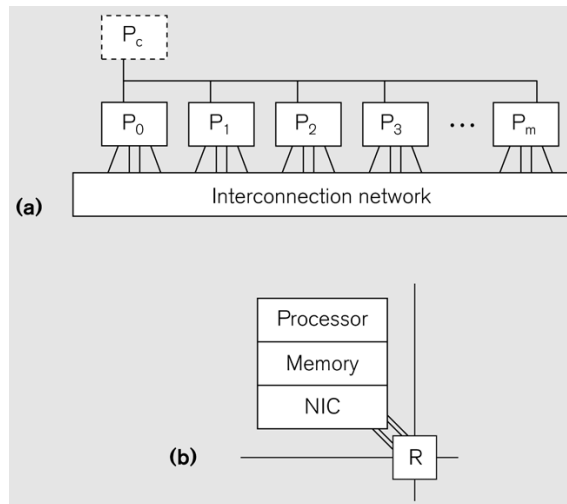
- Several execution units accessing one shared unbounded memory
  - global access
  - synchronous access – one global clock
  - contention resolved by pre-defined rules
    - EREW, CREW, CRCW, ERCW
    - least powerful, least convenient: EREW
    - most powerful, most convenient: CRCW
    - lesson: reason on CRCW but apply on EREW because it is possible to simulate one with the other (in polynomial time)
  - like RAM: good for algorithms, complexity...



## CTA (Candidate Type Architecture)

- Account for communication costs.
  - Applies to clusters & SMPs.
  - Local/non-local accesses.
  - Goal: Achieve in practice the predicted running time. PRAM is misleading in that respect.
  - The catch: Not easy to estimate communication costs.
- Model:
  - interconnected processors with RAM
  - topology not specified **but** this impacts communication costs.

# CTA



SMP  
Cluster  
Cell

...  
Memory latency  
specified in  
function of the  
real architecture.  
Non-local:  $\lambda$ .



## Typical $\lambda$

Architecture Family	Computer	Lambda
Chip Multiprocessor*	AMD Opteron	100
Shared-memory Multiprocessor	Sun Fire E25K	400–660
Co-processor	Cell	N/A
Cluster	HP BL6000 w/GbE	4,160–5,120
Supercomputer	BlueGene/L	8960

\*CMP's  $\lambda$  value measures a transfer between L1 data caches on chip.





## Lesson

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- Use locality
  - temporal & spatial
  - sometimes redundant computation is better than sending data around
- Exact number of processors supplied at **runtime**.
  - scale/not tied to one setup
  - Note:  $\lambda$  increases with P.



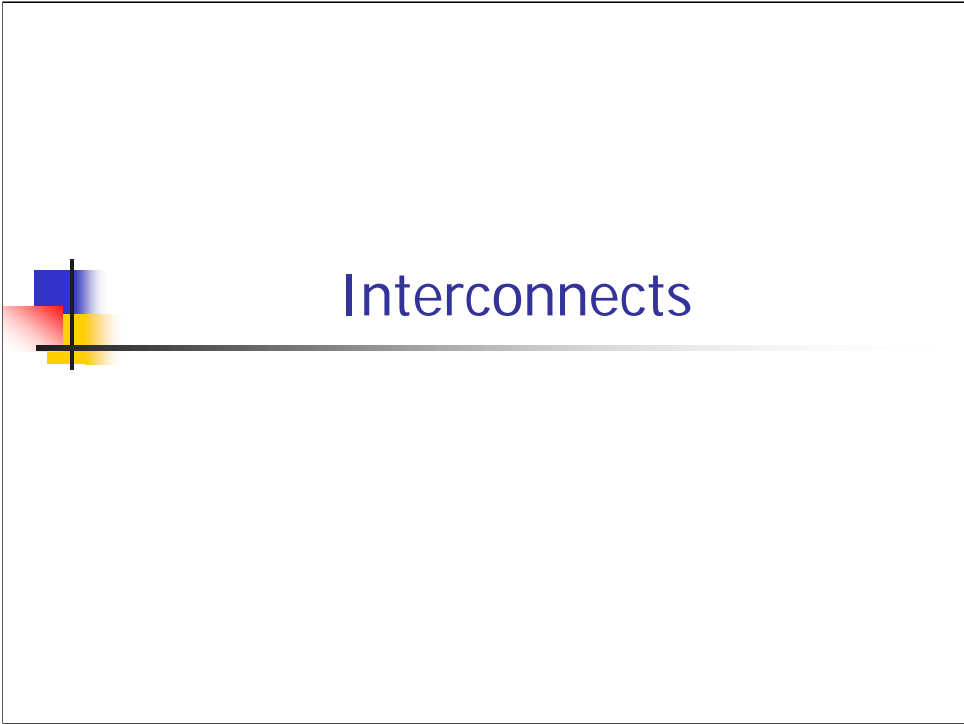
## Memory reference mechanisms

- Shared memory
  - avoid race conditions, needs synchronization
- One-sided
  - not common
  - private (local) & shared non-coherent memory
- Message passing – 2-sided
  - MPI
  - Complex communication protocols.

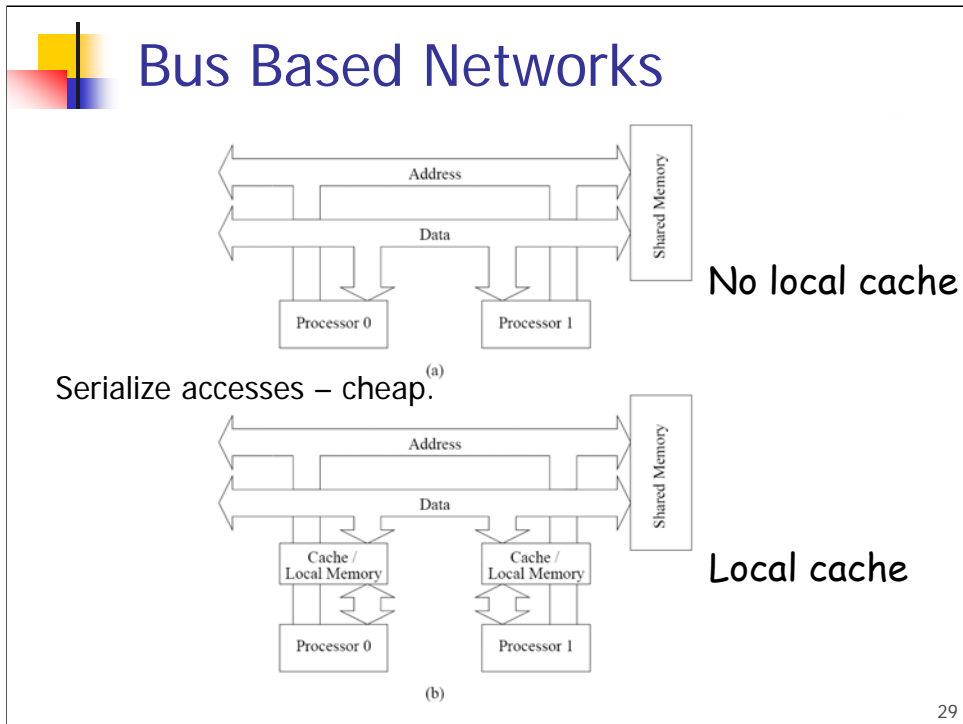


## Memory consistency models

- Sequential consistency – expensive.
  - serialize the operations of all processors
  - operations obey specified order
- Relaxed consistency – weaker.
  - variations
- Keep in mind: There are hardware tricks to get sequential consistency (CAS/TAS).



# Interconnects



Good:

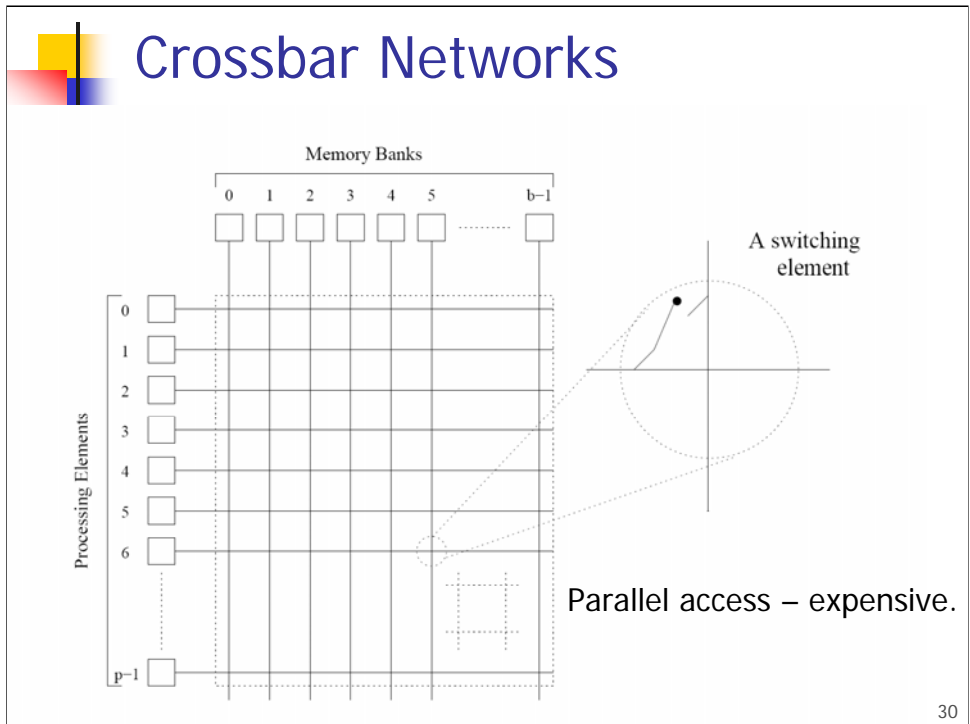
- Cost scales linearly with the number of nodes.
- The distance between all the nodes is constant.
- It is ideal for broadcasting.

Bad:

- Shared bandwidth between all the nodes -> bottleneck in performance.

In practice bus based only for small SMP (Intel). Caches are only a trick to reduce bandwidth consumption on the bus (not to reduce bandwidth as stated in the book).

Both for processors & memory.



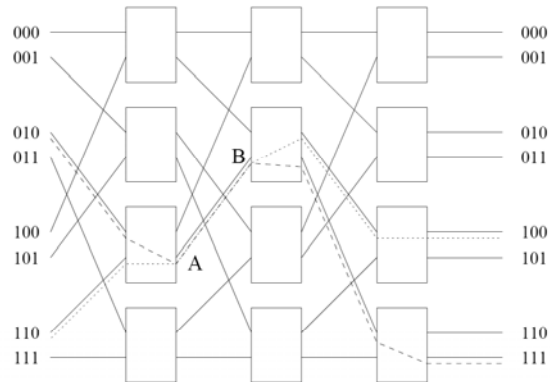
Grid to connect  $p$  processors to  $b$  memory banks. Non blocking in the sense that a connection (routing) does not block the connection of any other processing node, in contrast to multistage networks.

Good: scalable in performance (non blocking).

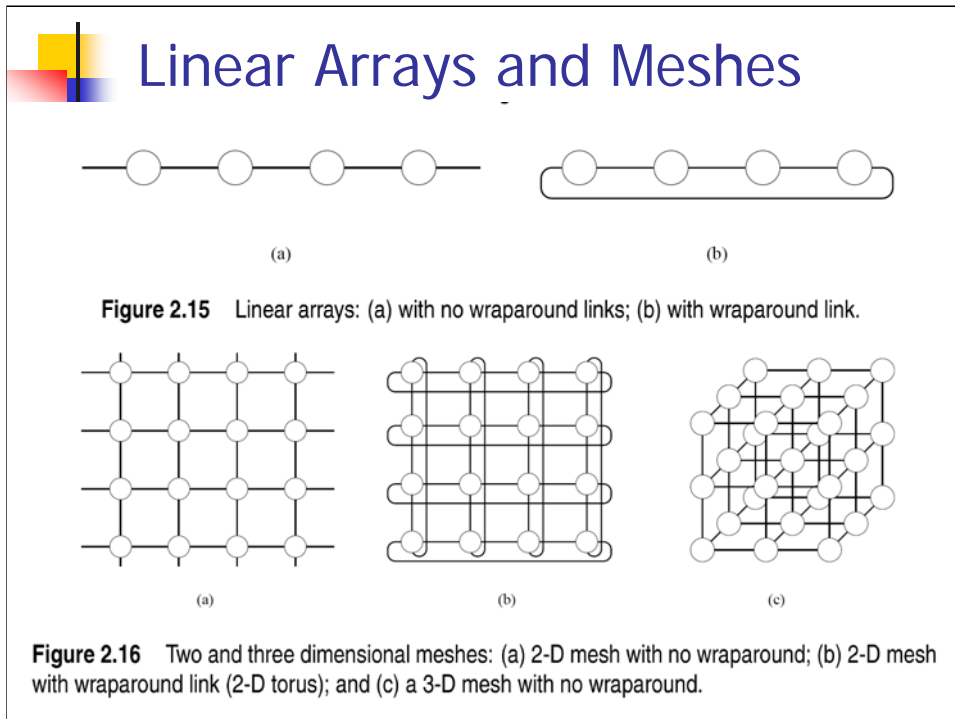
Bad: number of switches =  $p*b$ , not scalable in cost.

# Omega networks

Multi-stage network – compromise cost/performance.  
N nodes – log n stages.



**Figure 2.13** An example of blocking in omega network: one of the messages (010 to 111 or 110 to 100) is blocked at link AB.



**Figure 2.15** Linear arrays: (a) with no wraparound links; (b) with wraparound link.

**Figure 2.16** 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.

Wrap around changes the number of neighbors and distance for some nodes.

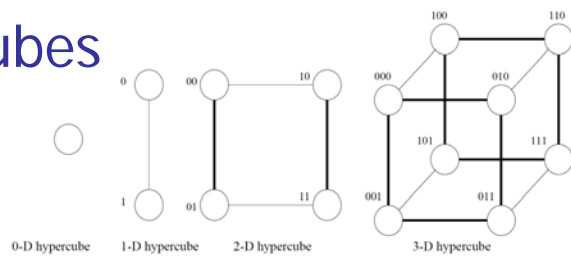
Linear array: each node has 2 neighbors (except start & end). It becomes a ring (or 1-D torus) with wraparound.

2-D mesh has  $p$  processors so the dimension is given by  $\sqrt{p}$ . Every node (except on the border) has 4 neighbors. Attractive from a wiring point of view. Adding wraparound links gives a 2-D torus.

3-D, similarly. Every time we add a dimension, we add 2 neighbors. 3-D meshes good for physical simulations because they correspond to the modeled problem and the way processing is distributed.



# Hypercubes



$2^d$  nodes,  
 $d$ =dimension,  
 good routing,  
 relatively expensive,  
 low congestion

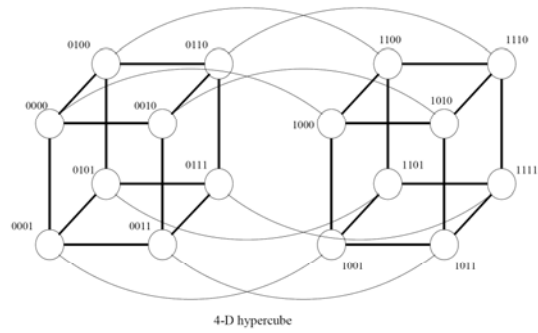
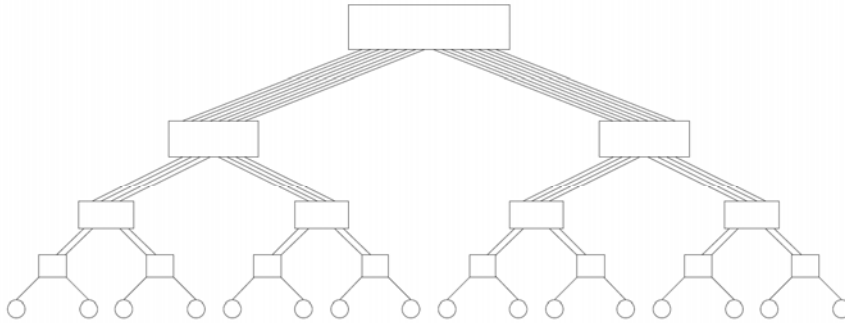


Figure 2.17 Construction of hypercubes from hypercubes of lower dimension.

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# Fat trees

More bandwidth where it is needed.



**Figure 2.19** A fat tree network of 16 processing nodes.



## Evaluating The Networks

- All the previous topologies have advantages and disadvantages.
- Important factors: cost and performance.
- Define criteria to characterize cost and performance.

Your turn: Give suggestions on measure criteria.



## Criteria

- **Diameter**: maximum distance  $p_a \leftrightarrow p_b$ .
- **Connectivity**: measure of multiplicity of paths.
- **Bisection width**: minimum number of links to cut in order to partition the network in 2 equal halves.
- **Bisection bandwidth**: minimum volume of communication allowed between 2 halves.
- **Cost**: number of communication links, i.e., wires.

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36

Distance = shortest path between 2 nodes.

Diameter: How far 2 nodes may be.

- Completely connected: 1.
- Star connected: 2.
- Ring:  $\text{floor}(p/2)$ .
- 2-D mesh without wraparound:  $2(\text{dim}-1)$ . With wraparound:  $2*\text{floor}(\text{dim}/2)$ .  
Note:  $\text{dim} = \text{sqrt}(p)$ .
- Hypercube:  $\text{dim} (= \log p)$ .
- Complete binary tree:  $\text{height}=h$ ,  $p=2^{h+1}-1$ ,  $h = \log((p+1)/2)$ , travel  $2h$ .

## Comparing The Topologies

**Table 2.1** A summary of the characteristics of various static network topologies connecting  $p$  nodes.

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	$2\lceil\sqrt{p}/2\rceil$	$2\sqrt{p}$	4	$2p$
Hypercube	$\log p$	$p/2$	$\log p$	$(p \log p)/2$
Wraparound $k$ -ary $d$ -cube	$d\lceil k/2\rceil$	$2k^{d-1}$	$2d$	$dp$