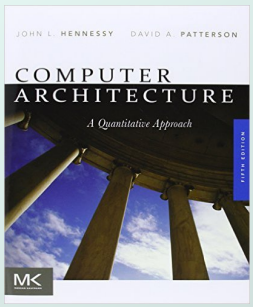
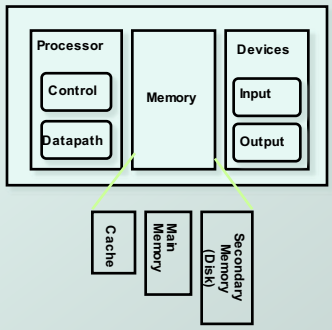


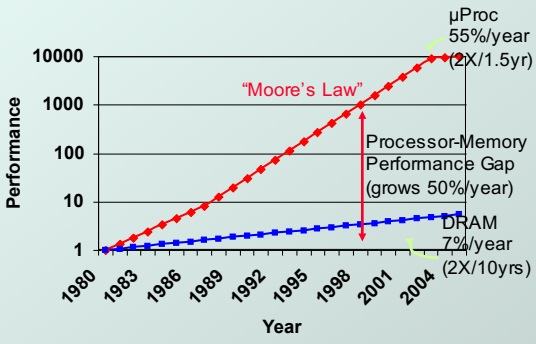
Memory Hierarchy

Original slides from:
Computer Architecture
A Quantitative Approach
Hennessy, Patterson
Modified slides by Yashwant Malaiya
Colorado State University

Review: Major Components of a Computer



Processor-Memory Performance Gap

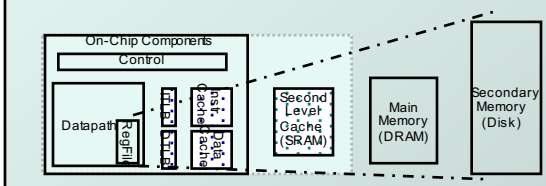


The Memory Hierarchy Goal

- Fact: Large memories are slow and fast memories are small
- How do we create a memory that gives the illusion of being large, cheap and fast (most of the time)?
  - With hierarchy
  - With parallelism

A Typical Memory Hierarchy

- Take advantage of the principle of locality to present the user with as much memory as is available in the *cheapest* technology at the speed offered by the *fastest* technology



Speed (%cycles):	½'s	1's	10's	100's	10,000's
Size (bytes):	100's	10K's	M's	G's	T's
Cost:	highest				lowest

Memory Technology

- Static RAM (SRAM)
  - 0.5-2.5ns, 2010: $2000–$5000 per GB (2015: same?)
- Dynamic RAM (DRAM)
  - 50-70ns, 2010: $20–$75 per GB (2015: <$10 per GB)
- Flash Memory
  - 70-150ns, 2010: $4-$12 per GB (2015: $.14 per GB)
- Magnetic disk
  - 5ms-20ms, $0.2-$2.0 per GB (2015: $.7 per GB)
- Ideal memory
  - Access time of SRAM
  - Capacity and cost/GB of disk

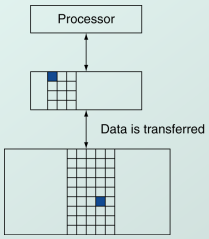
Principle of Locality

- Programs access a small proportion of their address space at any time
- Temporal locality
  - Items accessed recently are likely to be accessed again soon
  - e.g., instructions in a loop, induction variables
- Spatial locality
  - Items near those accessed recently are likely to be accessed soon
  - E.g., sequential instruction access, array data

Taking Advantage of Locality

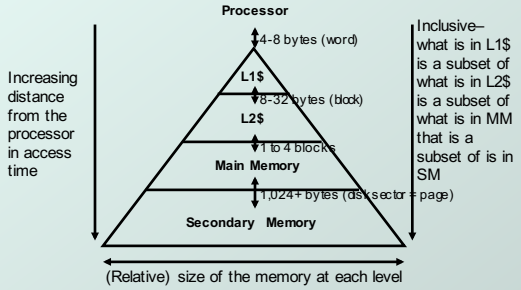
- Memory hierarchy
- Store everything on disk
- Copy recently accessed (and nearby) items from disk to smaller DRAM memory
  - Main memory
- Copy more recently accessed (and nearby) items from DRAM to smaller SRAM memory
  - Cache memory attached to CPU

Memory Hierarchy Levels

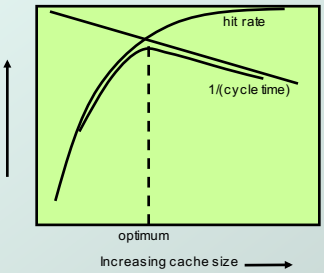


- Block (aka line): unit of copying
  - May be multiple words
- If accessed data is present in upper level
  - Hit: access satisfied by upper level
    - Hit ratio: hits/accesses
- If accessed data is absent
  - Miss: block copied from lower level
    - Time taken: miss penalty
    - Miss ratio: misses/accesses = 1 – hit ratio
  - Then accessed data supplied from upper level

Characteristics of the Memory Hierarchy

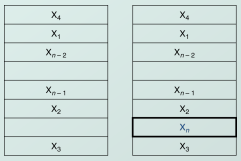


Cache Size



Cache Memory

- Cache memory
  - The level of the memory hierarchy closest to the CPU
- Given accesses $X_1, \ldots, X_{n-1}, X_n$



a. Before the reference to X_n b. After the reference to X_n

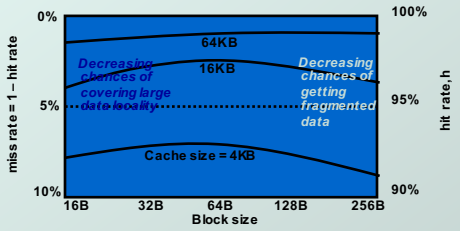
- How do we know if the data is present?
- Where do we look?

Block Size Considerations

- Larger blocks should reduce miss rate
  - Due to spatial locality
- But in a fixed-sized cache
  - Larger blocks ⇒ fewer of them
    - More competition ⇒ increased miss rate
  - Larger blocks ⇒ *pollution*
- Larger miss penalty
  - Can override benefit of reduced miss rate
  - *Early restart* and *critical-word-first* can help

Increasing Hit Rate

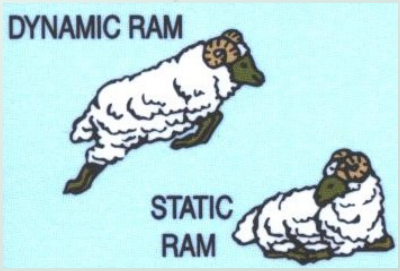
- Hit rate increases with cache size.
- Hit rate mildly depends on block size.



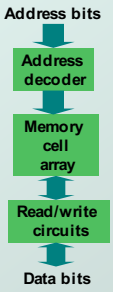
Cache Misses

- On cache hit, CPU proceeds normally
- On cache miss
  - Stall the CPU pipeline
  - Fetch block from next level of hierarchy
  - Instruction cache miss
    - Restart instruction fetch
  - Data cache miss
    - Complete data access

Static vs Dynamic RAMs

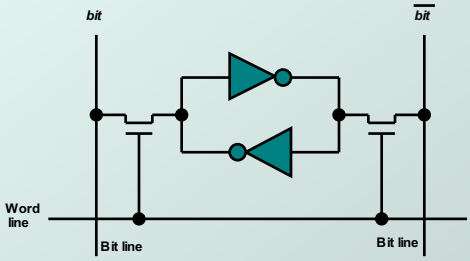


Random Access Memory (RAM)



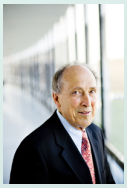
17

Six-Transistor SRAM Cell

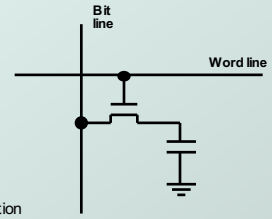


18

Dynamic RAM (DRAM) Cell



"Single-transistor DRAM cell"
Robert Dennard's 1967 invevention



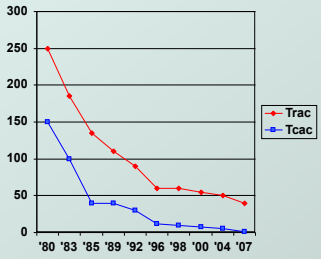
19

Advanced DRAM Organization

- Bits in a DRAM are organized as a rectangular array
  - DRAM accesses an entire row
  - Burst mode: supply successive words from a row with reduced latency
- Double data rate (DDR) DRAM
  - Transfer on rising and falling clock edges
- Quad data rate (QDR) DRAM
  - Separate DDR inputs and outputs

DRAM Generations

Year	Capacity	$/GB
1980	64Kbit	$1500000
1983	256Kbit	$500000
1985	1Mbit	$200000
1989	4Mbit	$50000
1992	16Mbit	$15000
1996	64Mbit	$10000
1998	128Mbit	$4000
2000	256Mbit	$1000
2004	512Mbit	$250
2007	1Gbit	$50



Average Access Time

- Hit time is also important for performance
- Average memory access time (AMAT)
  - AMAT = Hit time + Miss rate × Miss penalty
- Example
  - CPU with 1ns clock, hit time = 1 cycle, miss penalty = 20 cycles, I-cache miss rate = 5%
  - AMAT = 1 + 0.05 × 20 = 2ns
    - 2 cycles per instruction

Performance Summary

- When CPU performance increased
  - Miss penalty becomes more significant
- Can't neglect cache behavior when evaluating system performance

Multilevel Caches

- Primary cache attached to CPU
  - Small, but fast
- Level-2 cache services misses from primary cache
  - Larger, slower, but still faster than main memory
- Main memory services L-2 cache misses
- Some high-end systems include L-3 cache

Interactions with Advanced CPUs

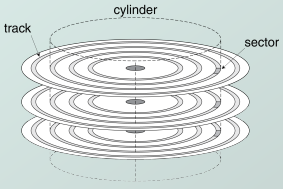
- Out-of-order CPUs can execute instructions during cache miss
  - Pending store stays in load/store unit
  - Dependent instructions wait in reservation stations
    - Independent instructions continue
- Effect of miss depends on program data flow
  - Much harder to analyse
  - Use system simulation

Virtual Memory

- Use main memory as a "cache" for secondary (disk) storage
  - Managed jointly by CPU hardware and the operating system (OS)
- Programs share main memory
  - Each gets a private virtual address space holding its frequently used code and data
  - Protected from other programs
- CPU and OS translate virtual addresses to physical addresses
  - VM "block" is called a page
  - VM translation "miss" is called a page fault

Disk Storage

- Nonvolatile, rotating magnetic storage



Disk Sectors and Access

- Each sector records
  - Sector ID
  - Data (512 bytes, 4096 bytes proposed)
  - Error correcting code (ECC)
    - Used to hide defects and recording errors
  - Synchronization fields and gaps
- Access to a sector involves
  - Queuing delay if other accesses are pending
  - Seek: move the heads
  - Rotational latency
  - Data transfer
  - Controller overhead

Disk Access Example

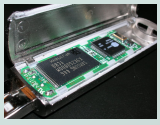
- Given
  - 512B sector, 15,000rpm, 4ms average seek time, 100MB/s transfer rate, 0.2ms controller overhead, idle disk
- Average read time
  - 4ms seek time
    + ½ / (15,000/60) = 2ms rotational latency
    + 512 / 100MB/s = 0.005ms transfer time
    + 0.2ms controller delay
    = 6.2ms
- If actual average seek time is 1ms
  - Average read time = 3.2ms

Disk Performance Issues

- Manufacturers quote average seek time
  - Based on all possible seeks
  - Locality and OS scheduling lead to smaller actual average seek times
- Smart disk controller allocate physical sectors on disk
  - Present logical sector interface to host
  - SCSI, ATA, SATA
- Disk drives include caches
  - Prefetch sectors in anticipation of access
  - Avoid seek and rotational delay

Flash Storage

- Nonvolatile semiconductor storage
  - 100× – 1000× faster than disk
  - Smaller, lower power, more robust
  - But more $/GB (between disk and DRAM)



Flash Types

- NOR flash: bit cell like a NOR gate
  - Random read/write access
  - Used for instruction memory in embedded systems
- NAND flash: bit cell like a NAND gate
  - Denser (bits/area), but block-at-a-time access
  - Cheaper per GB
  - Used for USB keys, media storage, …
- Flash bits wears out after 1000's of accesses
  - Not suitable for direct RAM or disk replacement
  - Wear leveling: remap data to less used blocks

Virtual vs. Physical Address

- Processor assumes a certain memory addressing scheme:
  - A block of data is called a virtual page
  - An address is called virtual (or logical) address
- Main memory may have a different addressing scheme:
  - Real memory address is called a physical address, MMU translates virtual address to physical address
  - Complete address translation table is large and must therefore reside in main memory
  - MMU contains TLB (translation lookaside buffer), which is a small cache of the address translation table

Page Fault Penalty

- On page fault, the page must be fetched from disk
  - Takes millions of clock cycles
  - Handled by OS code
- Try to minimize page fault rate
  - Smart replacement algorithms

Memory Protection

- Different tasks can share parts of their virtual address spaces
  - But need to protect against errant access
  - Requires OS assistance
- Hardware support for OS protection
  - Privileged supervisor mode (aka kernel mode)
  - Privileged instructions
  - Page tables and other state information only accessible in supervisor mode
  - System call exception (e.g., syscall in MIPS)

The Memory Hierarchy

The BIG Picture

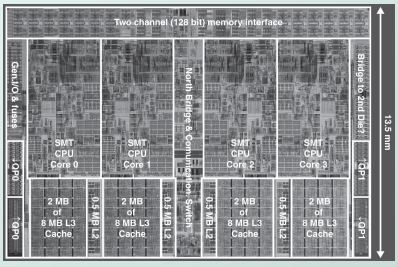
- Common principles apply at all levels of the memory hierarchy
  - Based on notions of caching
- At each level in the hierarchy
  - Block placement
  - Finding a block
  - Replacement on a miss
  - Write policy

Virtual Machines

- Host computer emulates guest operating system and machine resources
  - Improved isolation of multiple guests
  - Avoids security and reliability problems
  - Aids sharing of resources
- Virtualization has some performance impact
  - Feasible with modern high-performance computers
- Examples
  - IBM VM/370 (1970s technology!)
  - VMWare
  - Microsoft Virtual PC

Multilevel On-Chip Caches

Intel Nehalem 4-core processor



Per core: 32KB L1 I-cache, 32KB L1 D-cache, 512KB L2 cache

3-Level Cache Organization

	Intel Nehalem	AMD Opteron X4
L1 caches (per core)	L1 I-cache: 32KB, 64-byte blocks, 4-way, approx LRU replacement, hit time n/a L1 D-cache: 32KB, 64-byte blocks, 8-way, approx LRU replacement, write-back/allocate, hit time n/a	L1 I-cache: 32KB, 64-byte blocks, 2-way, LRU replacement, hit time 3 cycles L1 D-cache: 32KB, 64-byte blocks, 2-way, LRU replacement, write-back/allocate, hit time 9 cycles
L2 unified cache (per core)	256KB, 64-byte blocks, 8-way, approx LRU replacement, write-back/allocate, hit time n/a	512KB, 64-byte blocks, 16-way, approx LRU replacement, write-back/allocate, hit time n/a
L3 unified cache (shared)	8MB, 64-byte blocks, 16-way, replacement n/a, write-back/allocate, hit time n/a	2MB, 64-byte blocks, 32-way, replace block shared by fewest cores, write-back/allocate, hit time 32 cycles

n/a: data not available

Concluding Remarks

- Fast memories are small, large memories are slow
  - We really want fast, large memories ☹
  - Caching gives this illusion ☺
- Principle of locality
  - Programs use a small part of their memory space frequently
- Memory hierarchy
  - L1 cache ↔ L2 cache ↔ … ↔ DRAM memory ↔ disk
- Memory system design is critical for multiprocessors