

# Introduction to performance and the memory hierarchy

Computer Systems  
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**Michael Kirkedal Thomsen**  
**Finn Schiermer Andersen**

*Based on slides by Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron*

# Performance!?

- **How do you define performance?**
- **What influences performance of a computer?**
- **5 minutes discussion with friend**

# Performance Realities

- *There's more to performance than asymptotic complexity*

- **Constant factors matter too!**

- Easily see 10:1 performance range depending on how code is written
- Must optimize at multiple levels:
  - algorithm, data representations, procedures, and loops

- **Must understand system to optimize performance**

- How programs are compiled and executed
- How modern processors + memory systems operate
- How to measure program performance and identify bottlenecks
- How to improve performance without destroying code modularity and generality

# Today

- **Performance**
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

# Optimizing Compilers

- **Provide efficient mapping of program to machine**
  - register allocation
  - code selection and ordering (scheduling)
  - dead code elimination
  - eliminating minor inefficiencies
- **Don't (usually) improve asymptotic efficiency**
  - up to programmer to select best overall algorithm
  - big-O savings are (often) more important than constant factors
    - but constant factors also matter
- **Have difficulty overcoming “optimization blockers”**
  - potential memory aliasing
  - potential procedure side-effects

# Limitations of Optimizing Compilers

- **Operate under fundamental constraint**
  - Must not cause any change in program behavior
    - Except, possibly when program making use of nonstandard language features
  - Often prevents it from making optimizations that would only affect behavior under pathological conditions.
- **Behavior that may be obvious to the programmer can be obfuscated by languages and coding styles**
  - e.g., Data ranges may be more limited than variable types suggest
- **Most analysis is performed only within procedures**
  - Whole-program analysis is too expensive in most cases
  - Newer versions of GCC do interprocedural analysis within individual files
    - But, not between code in different files
- **Most analysis is based only on *static* information**
  - Compiler has difficulty anticipating run-time inputs
- **When in doubt, the compiler must be conservative**

# Memory Matters

```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b */
void sum_rows1(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        b[i] = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            b[i] += a[i*n + j];
    }
}
```

- Code updates `b[i]` on every iteration
- Why couldn't compiler optimize this away?

# Memory Aliasing

```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b */
void sum_rows1(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        b[i] = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            b[i] += a[i*n + j];
    }
}
```

```
double A[9] =
{ 0, 1, 2,
  4, 8, 16},
  32, 64, 128};

double B[3] = A+3;

sum_rows1(A, B, 3);
```

## Value of B:

init: [4, 8, 16]

i = 0: [3, 8, 16]

i = 1: [3, 22, 16]

i = 2: [3, 22, 224]

- Code updates `b[i]` on every iteration
- Must consider possibility that these updates will affect program behavior



# Removing Aliasing

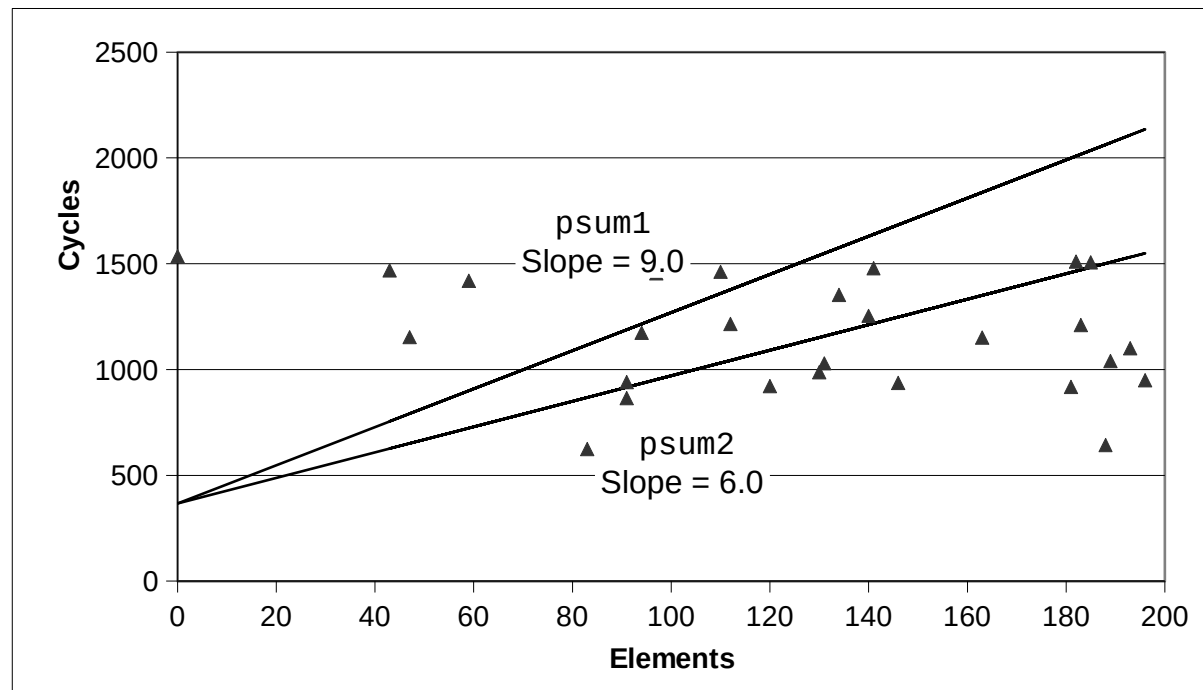
```
/* Sum rows is of n X n matrix a
   and store in vector b */
void sum_rows2(double *a, double *b, long n) {
    long i, j;
    for (i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        double val = 0;
        for (j = 0; j < n; j++)
            val += a[i*n + j];
        b[i] = val;
    }
}
```

```
# sum_rows2 inner loop
.L10:
    addsd    (%rdi), %xmm0 # FP load + add
    addq     $8, %rdi
    cmpq     %rax, %rdi
    jne      .L10
```

- No need to store intermediate results

# Cycles Per Element (CPE)

- Convenient way to express performance of program that operates on vectors or lists
- Length =  $n$
- In our case: **CPE = cycles per OP**
- **$T = \text{CPE} * n + \text{Overhead}$** 
  - CPE is slope of line



# Today

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# Random-Access Memory (RAM)

## ■ Key features

- **RAM** is traditionally packaged as a chip.
- Basic storage unit is normally a **cell** (one bit per cell).
- Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

## ■ **RAM comes in two varieties:**

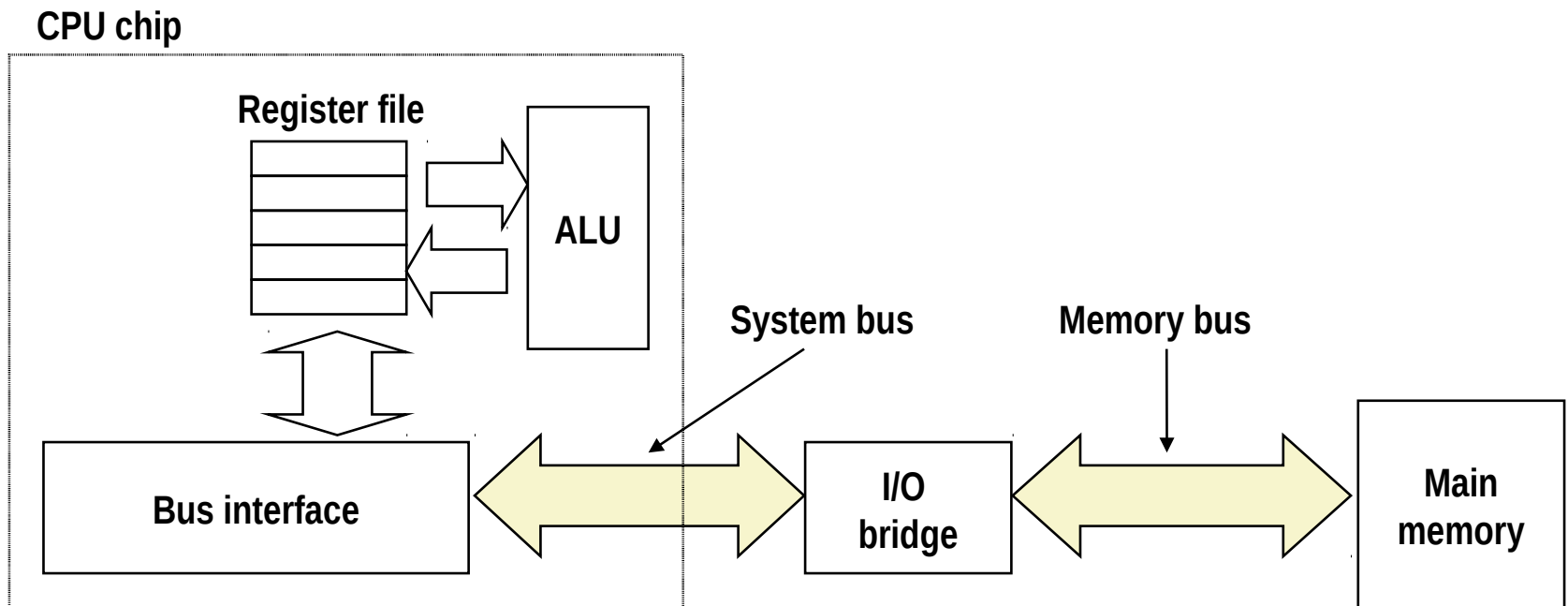
- SRAM (Static RAM)
- DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

# Enhanced DRAMs

- **Basic DRAM cell has not changed since its invention in 1966.**
  - Commercialized by Intel in 1970.
- **DRAM cores with better interface logic and faster I/O**
  - Synchronous DRAM (**SDRAM**)
    - Uses a conventional clock signal instead of asynchronous control
    - Allows reuse of the row addresses (e.g., RAS, CAS, CAS, CAS)
  - Double data-rate synchronous DRAM (**DDR SDRAM**)
    - Double edge clocking sends two bits per cycle per pin
    - Different types distinguished by size of small prefetch buffer:
      - **DDR** (2 bits), **DDR2** (4 bits), **DDR3** (8 bits)
    - By 2010, standard for most server and desktop systems
    - Intel Core i7 supports only DDR3 SDRAM

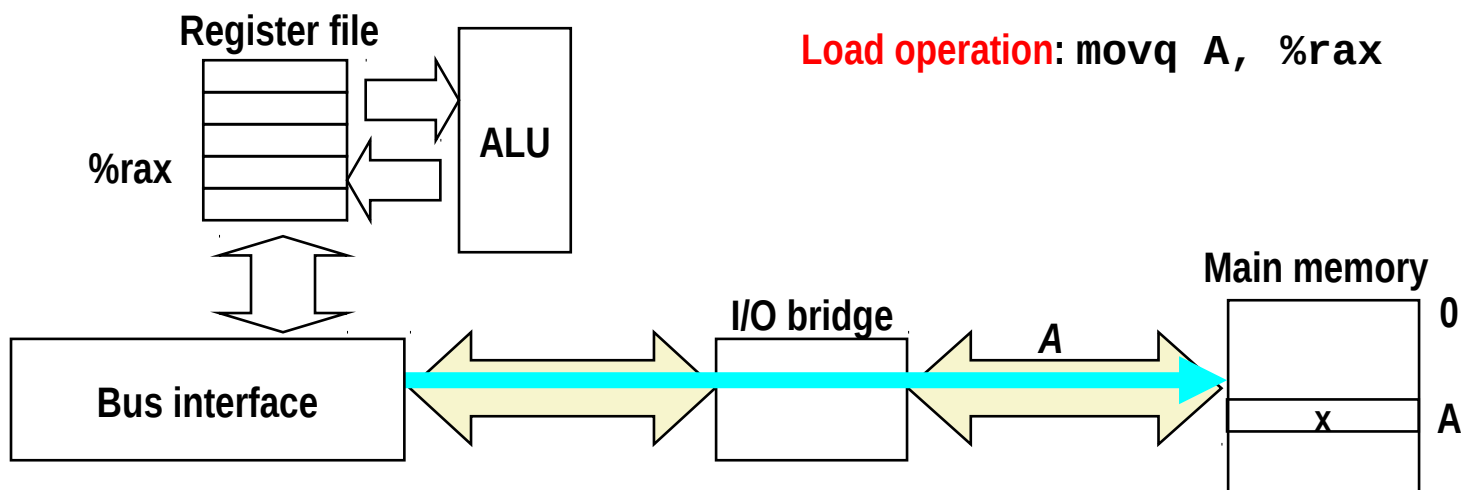
# Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A **bus** is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



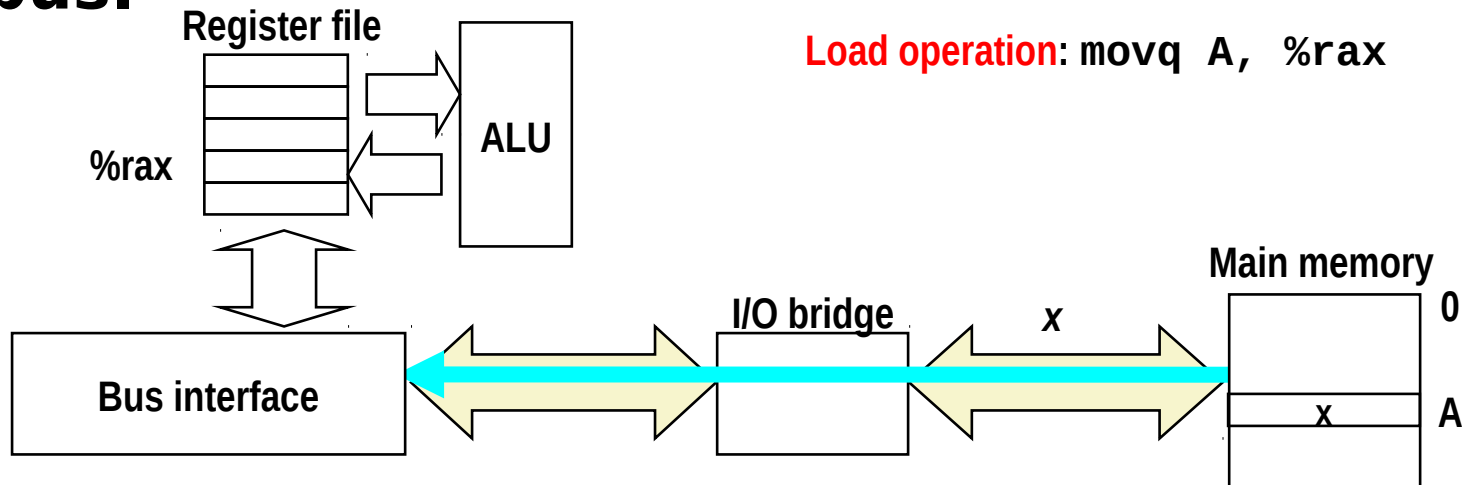
# Memory Read Transaction (1)

- CPU places address *A* on the memory bus.



# Memory Read Transaction (2)

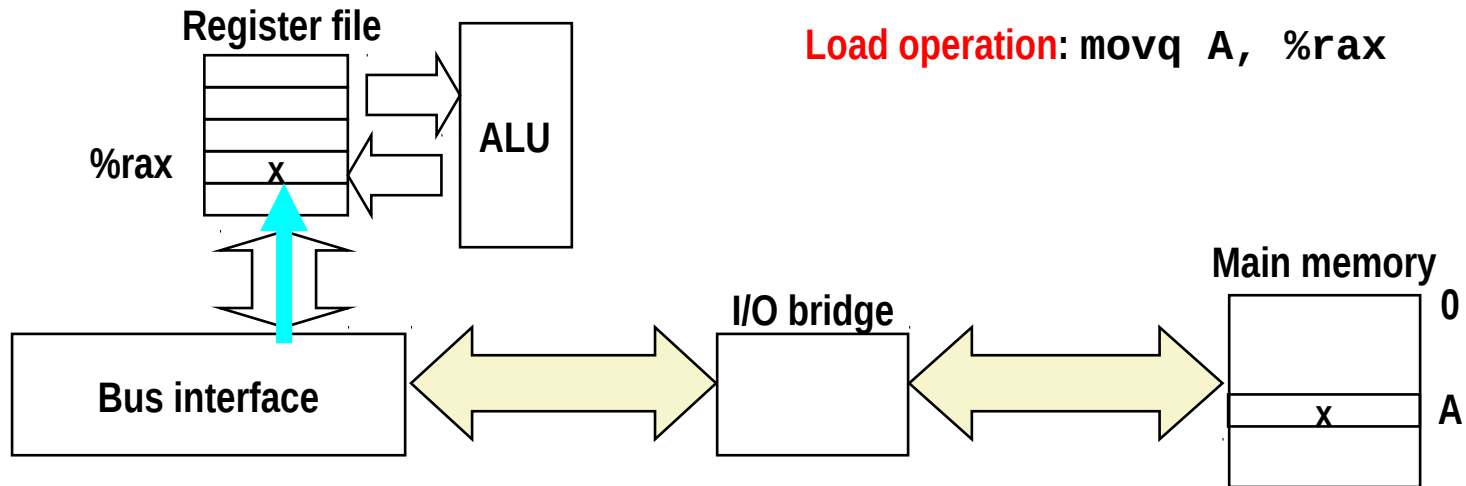
- Main memory reads *A* from the memory bus, retrieves word *x*, and places it on the bus.





# Memory Read Transaction (3)

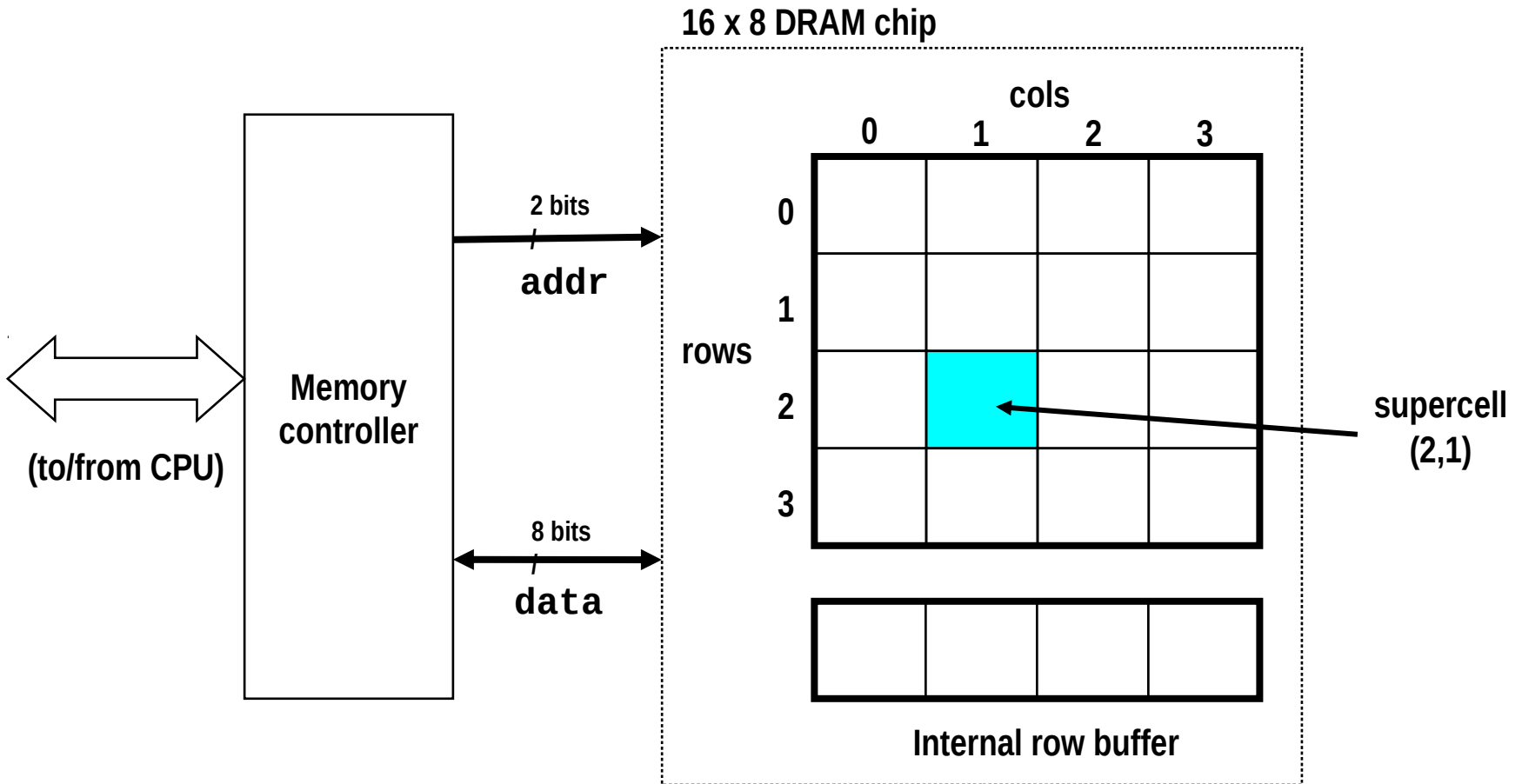
- CPU read word  $x$  from the bus and copies it into register `%rax`.



# Conventional DRAM Organization

## ■ $d \times w$ DRAM:

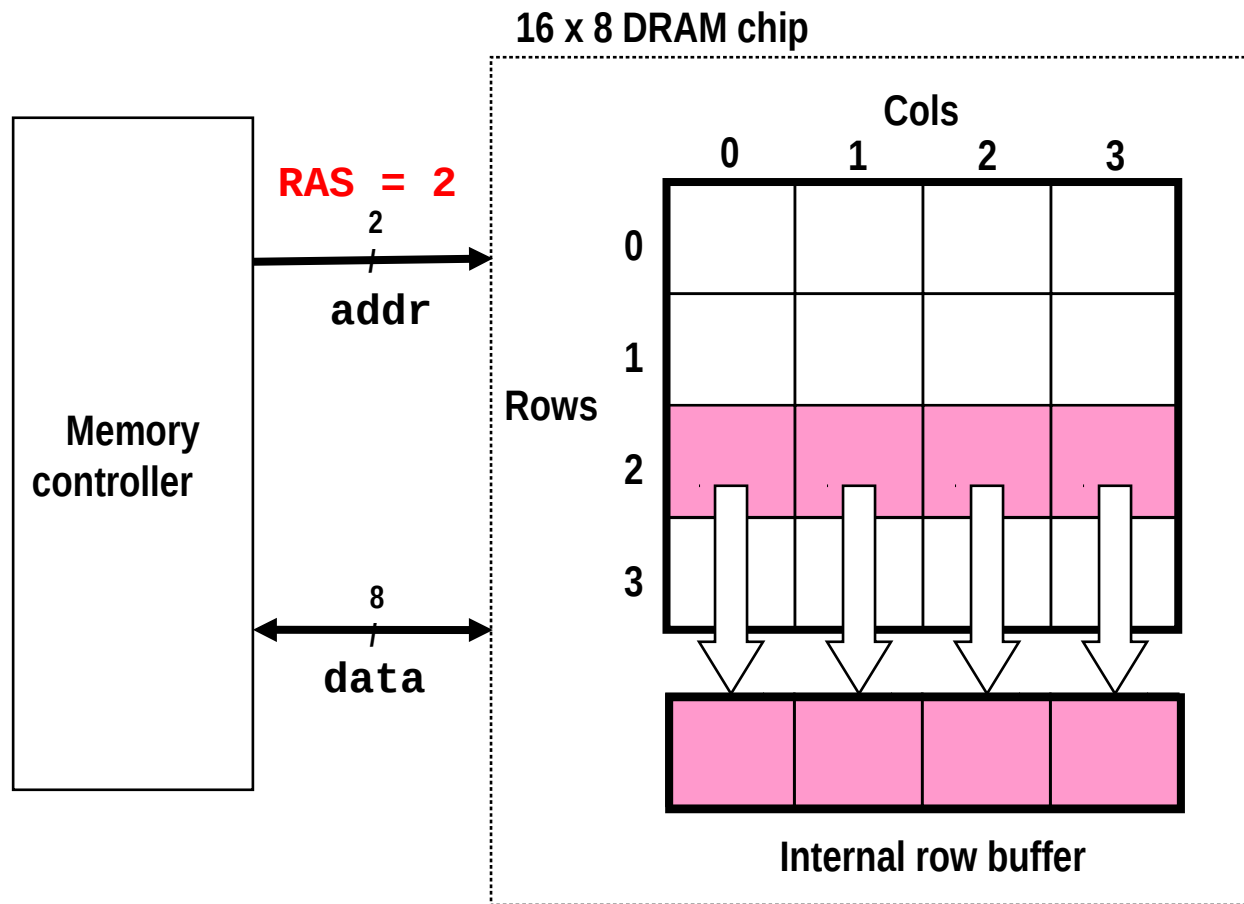
- $dw$  total bits organized as  $d$  **supercells** of size  $w$  bits



# Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 1(a): Row access strobe (**RAS**) selects row 2.

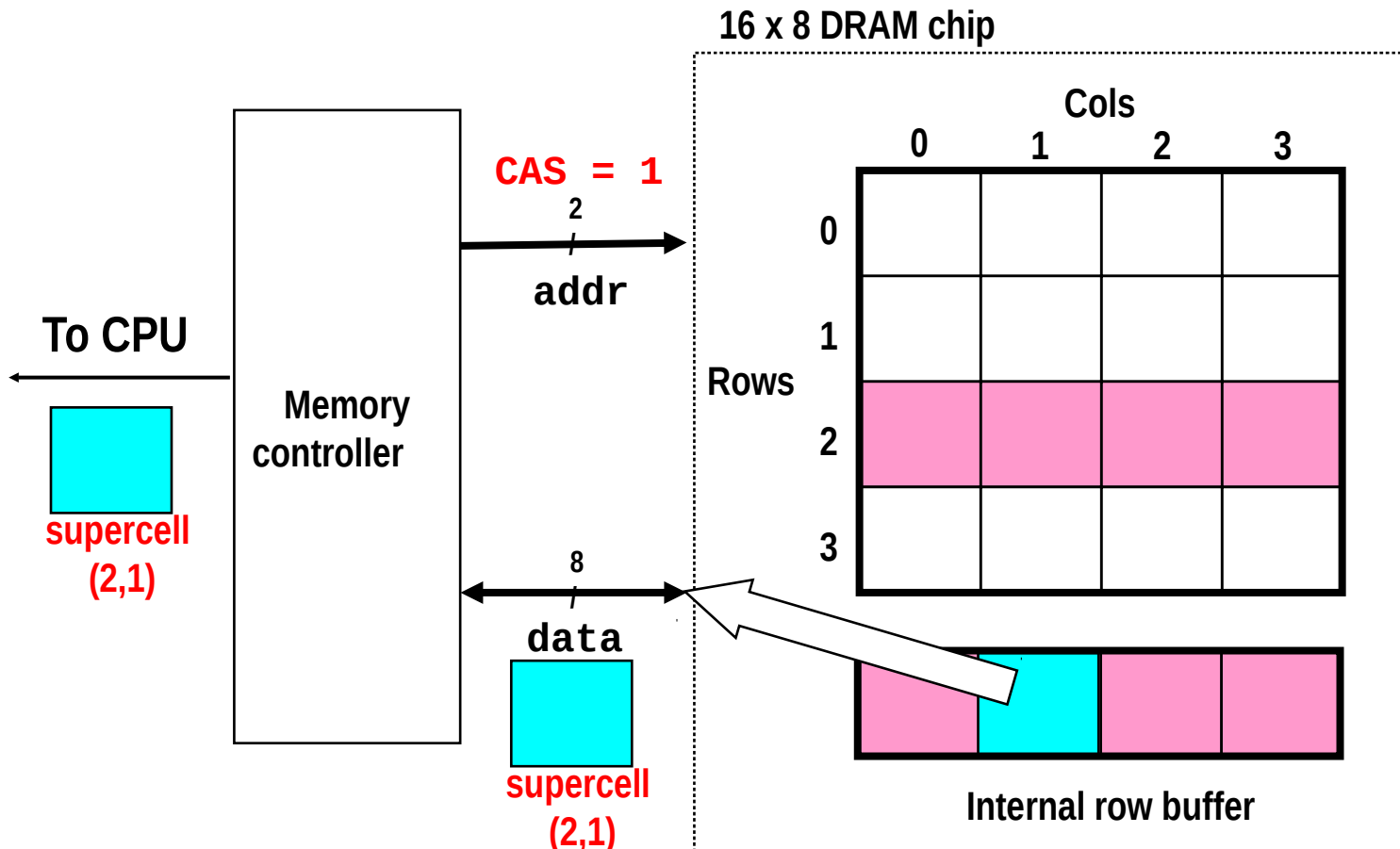
Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.



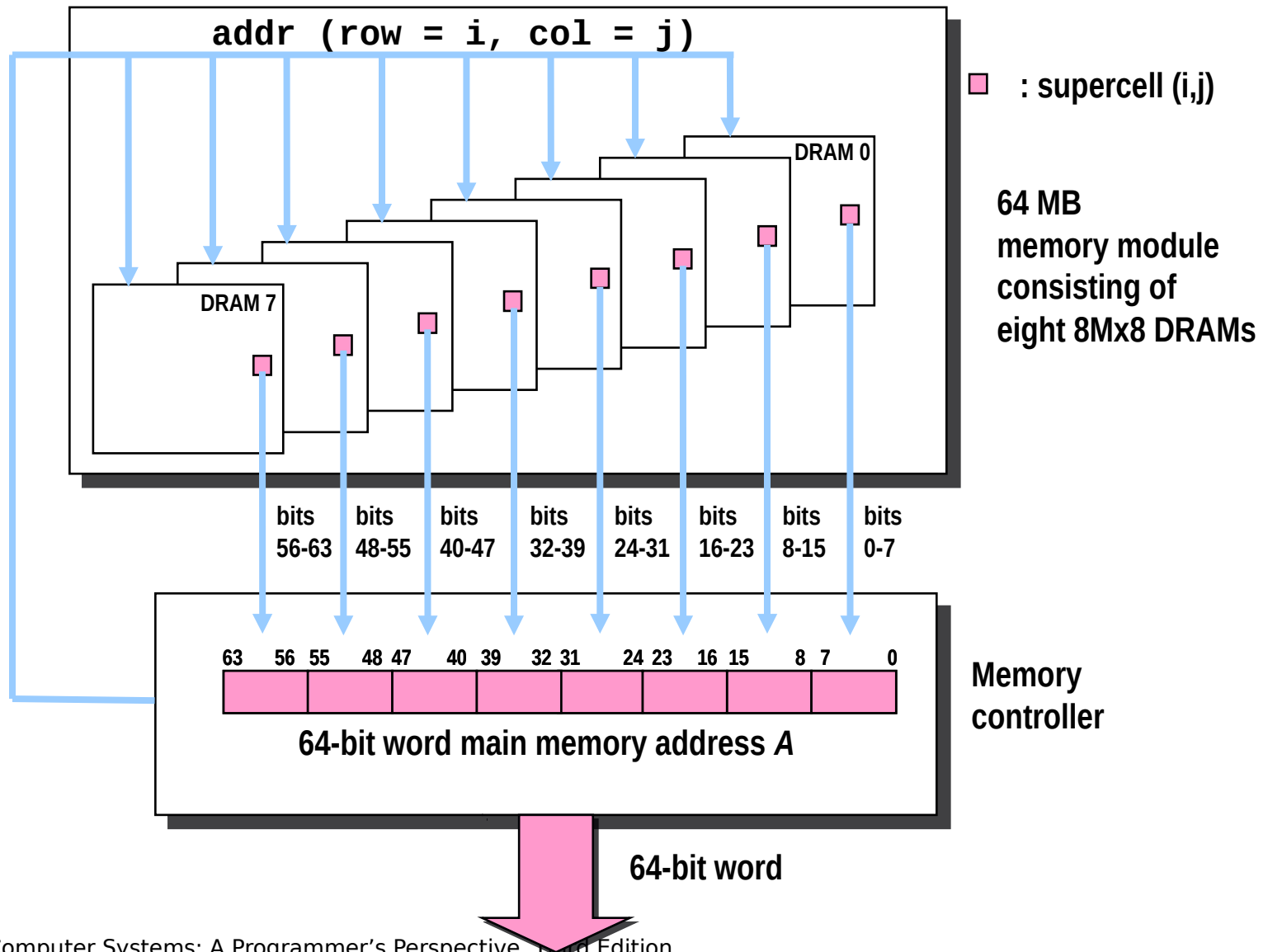
# Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 2(a): Column access strobe (**CAS**) selects column 1.

Step 2(b): Supercell (2,1) copied from buffer to data lines, and eventually back to the CPU.



# Memory Modules



# SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Needs EDC?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	Maybe	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	Yes	1X	Main memories, Frame buffers

# Nonvolatile Memories

## ■ DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

- Lose information if powered off.

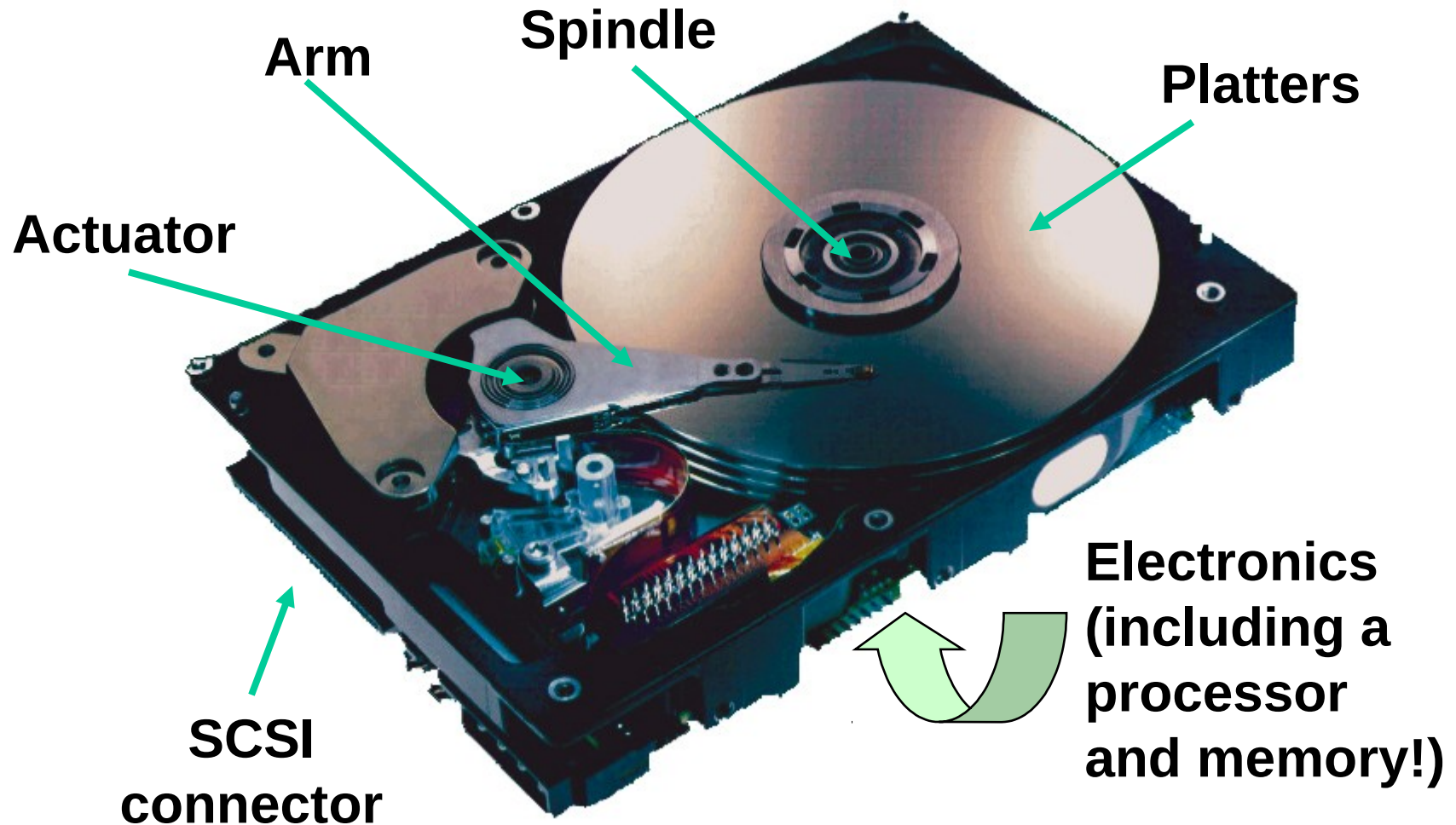
## ■ Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Erasable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically erasable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
  - Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
  - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings

## ■ Uses for Nonvolatile Memories

- Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
- Solid state disks (replace rotating disks in thumb drives, smart phones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops,...)
- Disk caches

# What's Inside A Disk Drive?

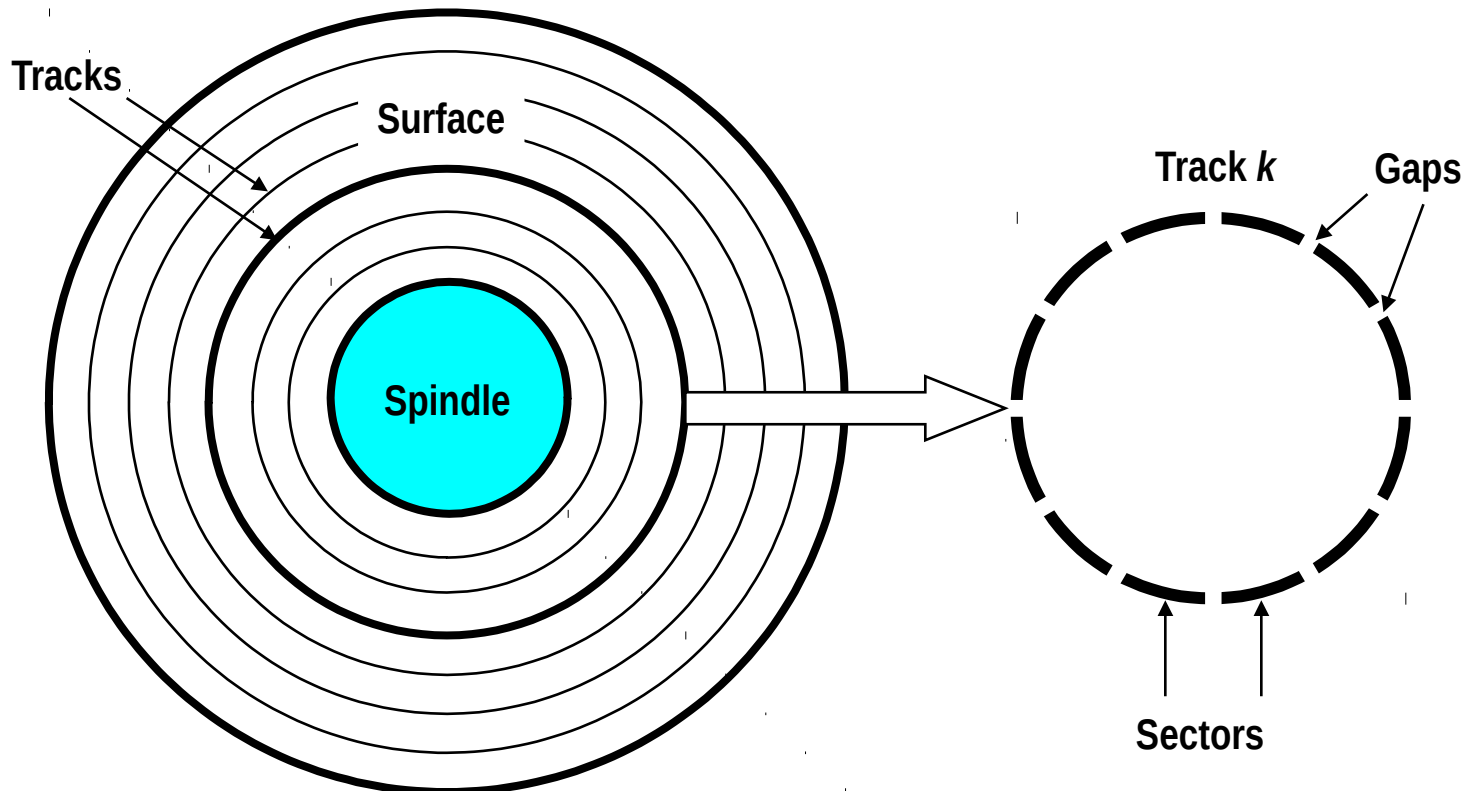


*Image courtesy of Seagate Technology*



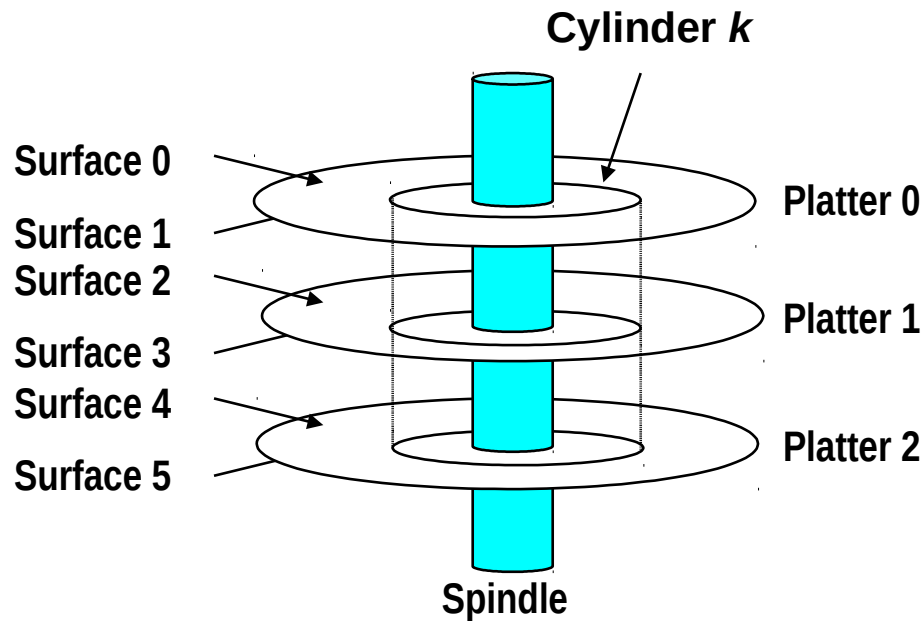
# Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called **tracks**.
- Each track consists of **sectors** separated by **gaps**.



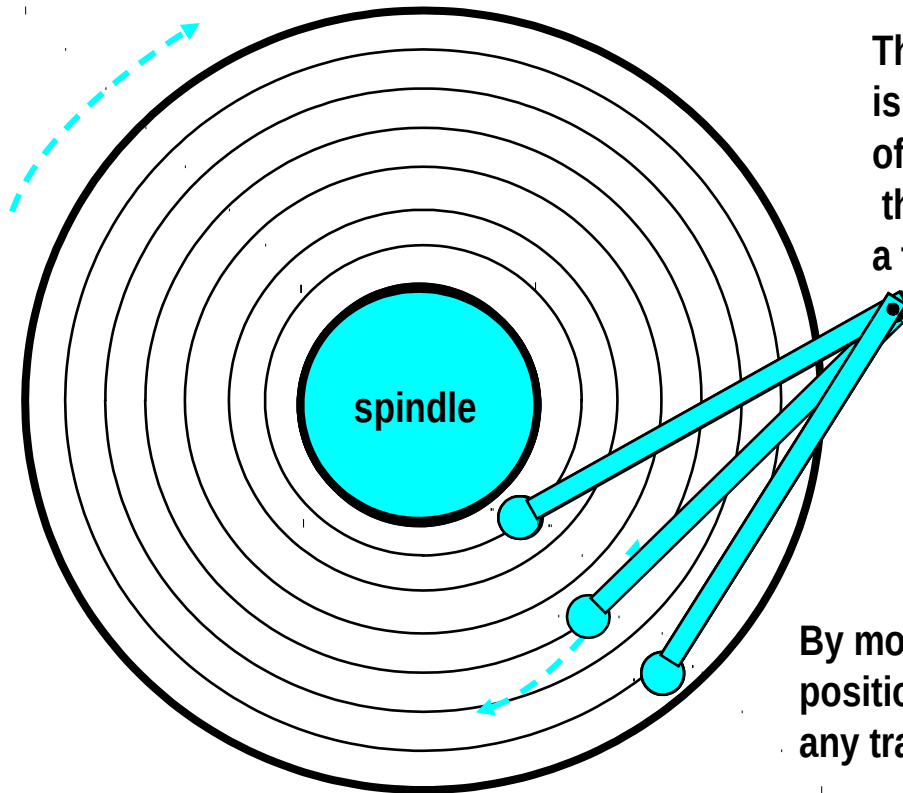
# Disk Geometry (Multiple-Platter View)

- Aligned tracks form a cylinder.



# Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

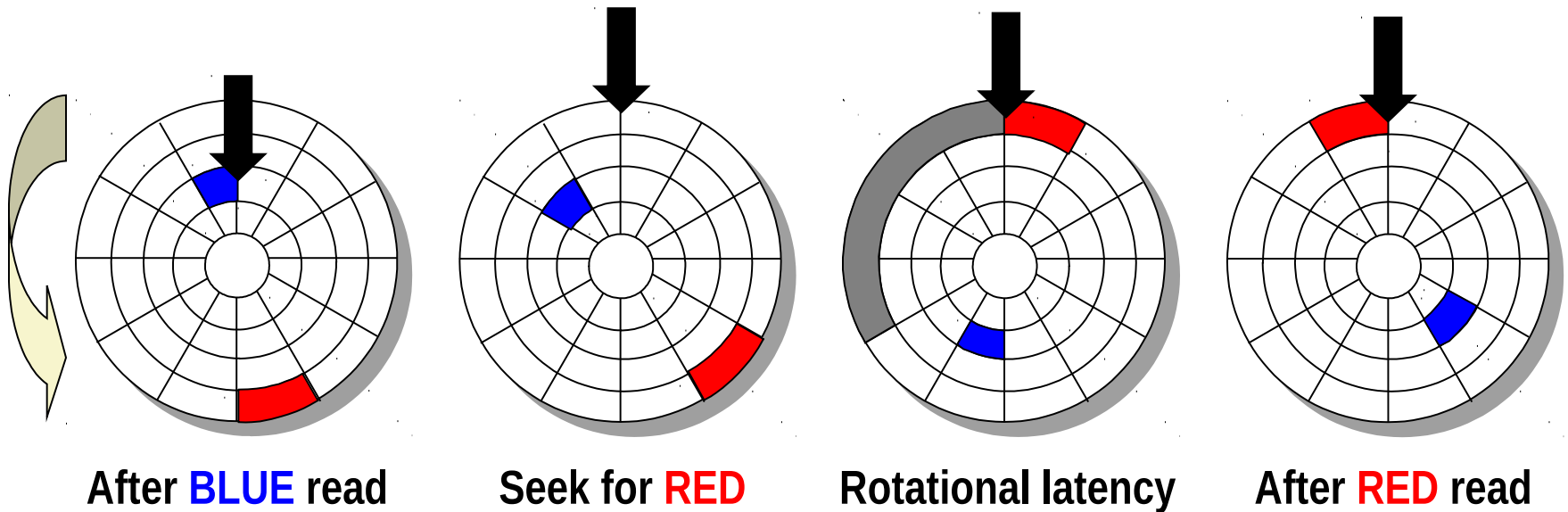
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



The read/write *head* is attached to the end of the *arm* and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

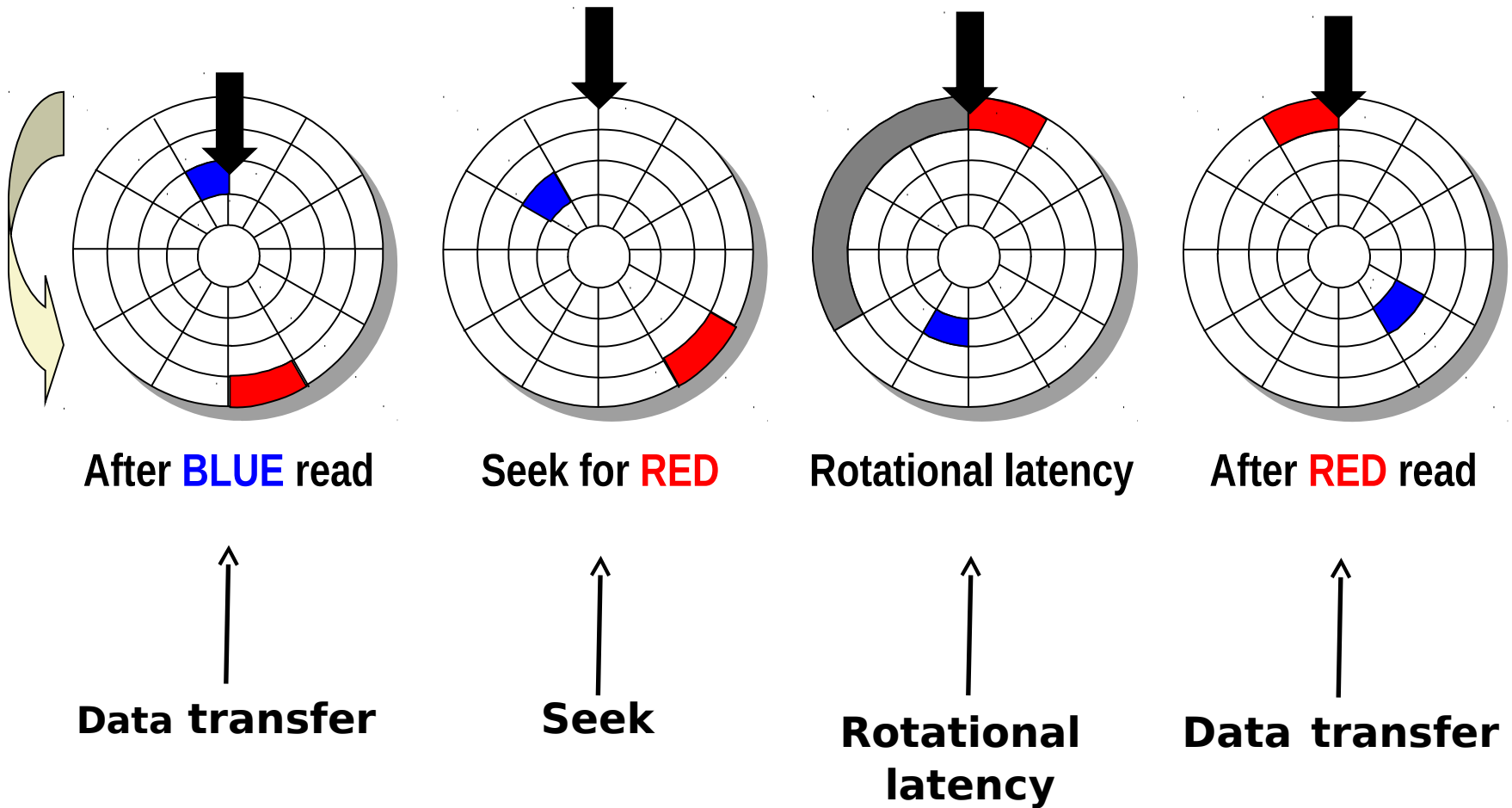
By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

# Disk Access - Read



**Complete read of red**

# Disk Access - Service Time Components



# Disk Access Time

- **Average time to access some target sector approximated by :**
  - $T_{\text{access}} = T_{\text{avg seek}} + T_{\text{avg rotation}} + T_{\text{avg transfer}}$
- **Seek time ( $T_{\text{avg seek}}$ )**
  - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
  - Typical  $T_{\text{avg seek}}$  is 3—9 ms
- **Rotational latency ( $T_{\text{avg rotation}}$ )**
  - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
  - $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 1/2 \times 1/\text{RPMs} \times 60 \text{ sec}/1 \text{ min}$
  - Typical  $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 7200 \text{ RPMs}$
- **Transfer time ( $T_{\text{avg transfer}}$ )**
  - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
  - $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 1/\text{RPM} \times 1/(\text{avg \# sectors/track}) \times 60 \text{ secs}/1 \text{ min.}$

# Disk Access Time Example

## ■ Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms.
- Avg # sectors/track = 400.

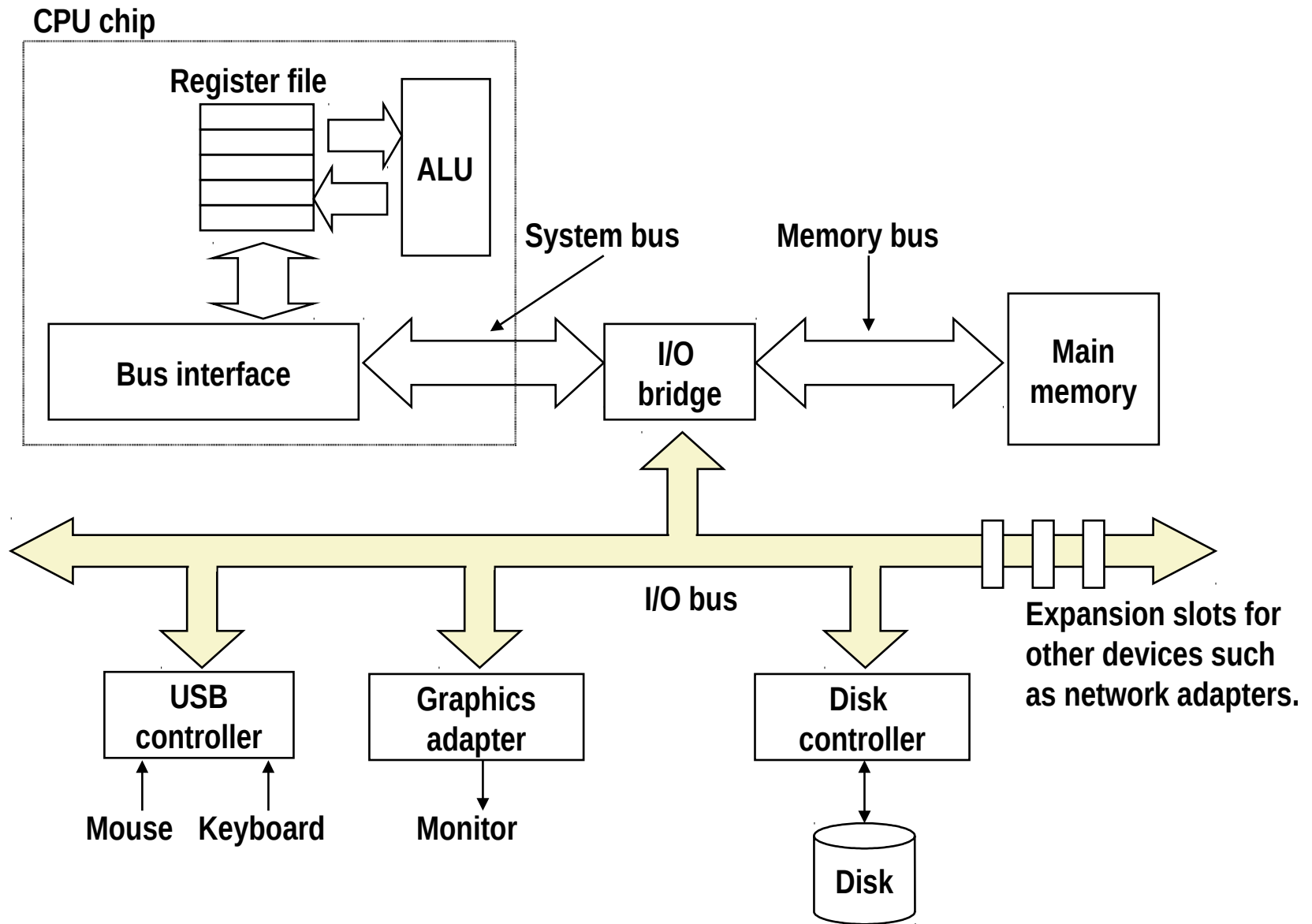
## ■ Derived:

- $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 1/2 \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM}) \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 4 \text{ ms}.$
- $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 60/7200 \text{ RPM} \times 1/400 \text{ secs/track} \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 0.02 \text{ ms}$
- $T_{\text{access}} = 9 \text{ ms} + 4 \text{ ms} + 0.02 \text{ ms}$

## ■ Important points:

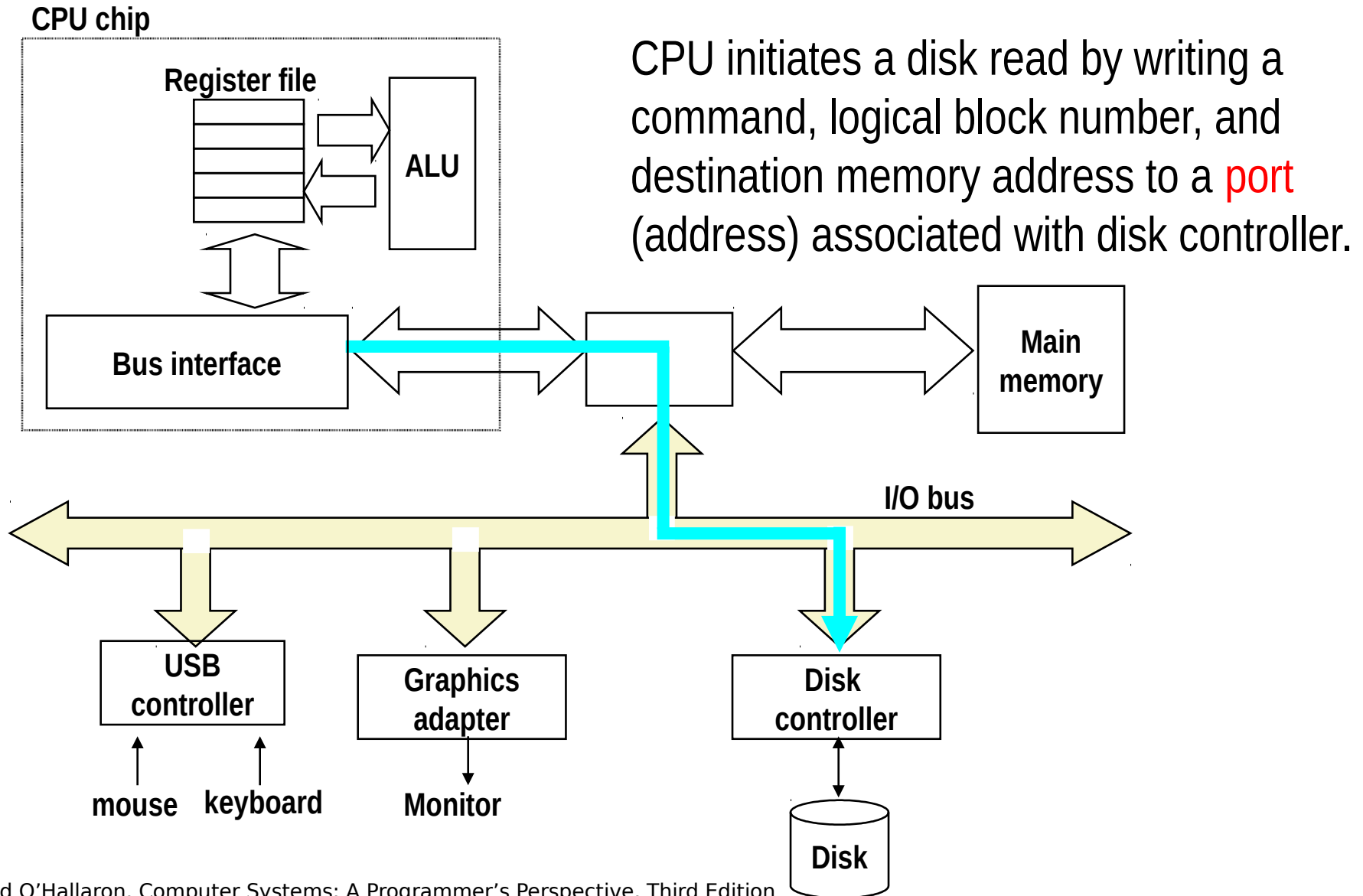
- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
  - Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,
  - 2,500 times slower than DRAM.

# I/O Bus

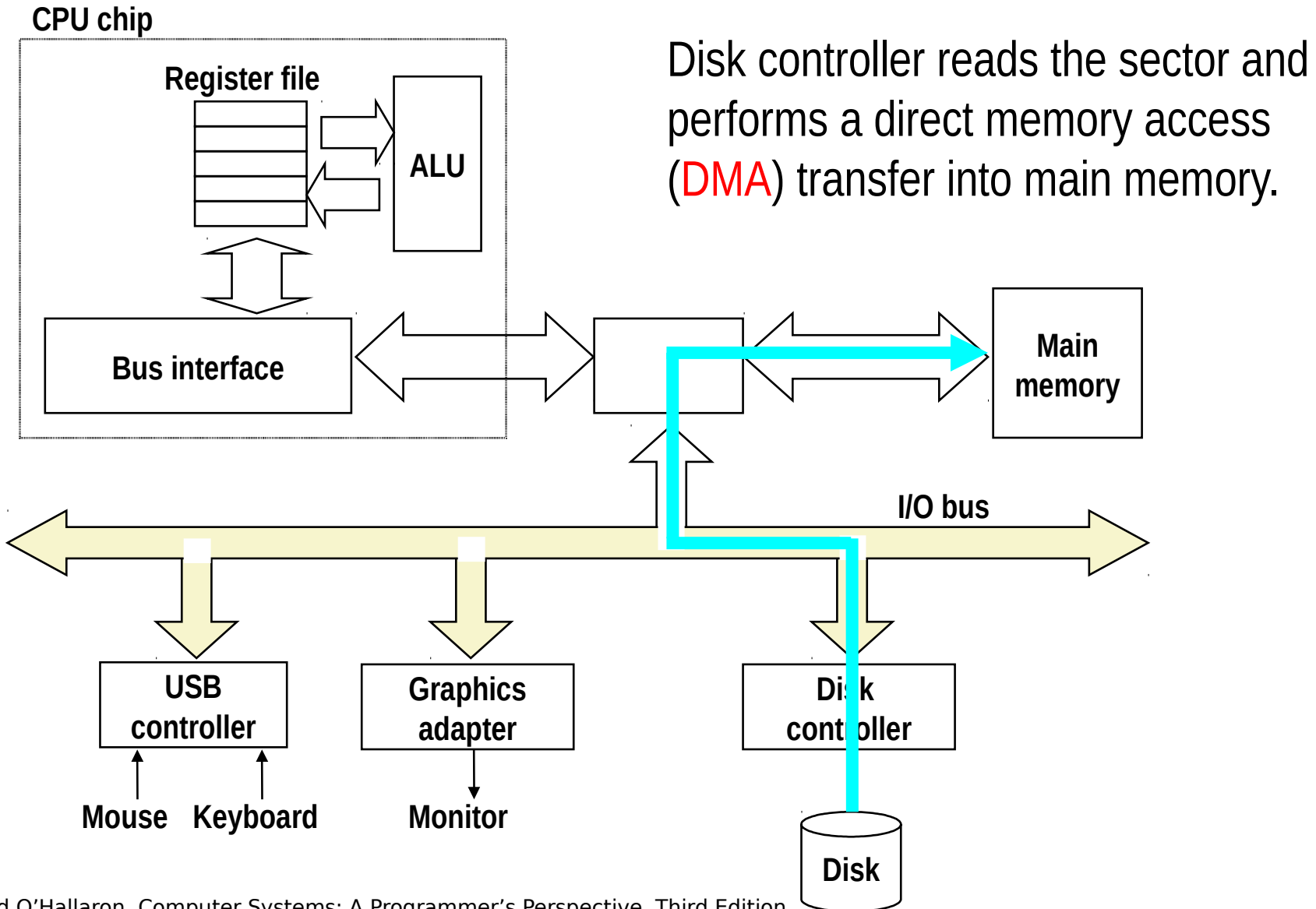




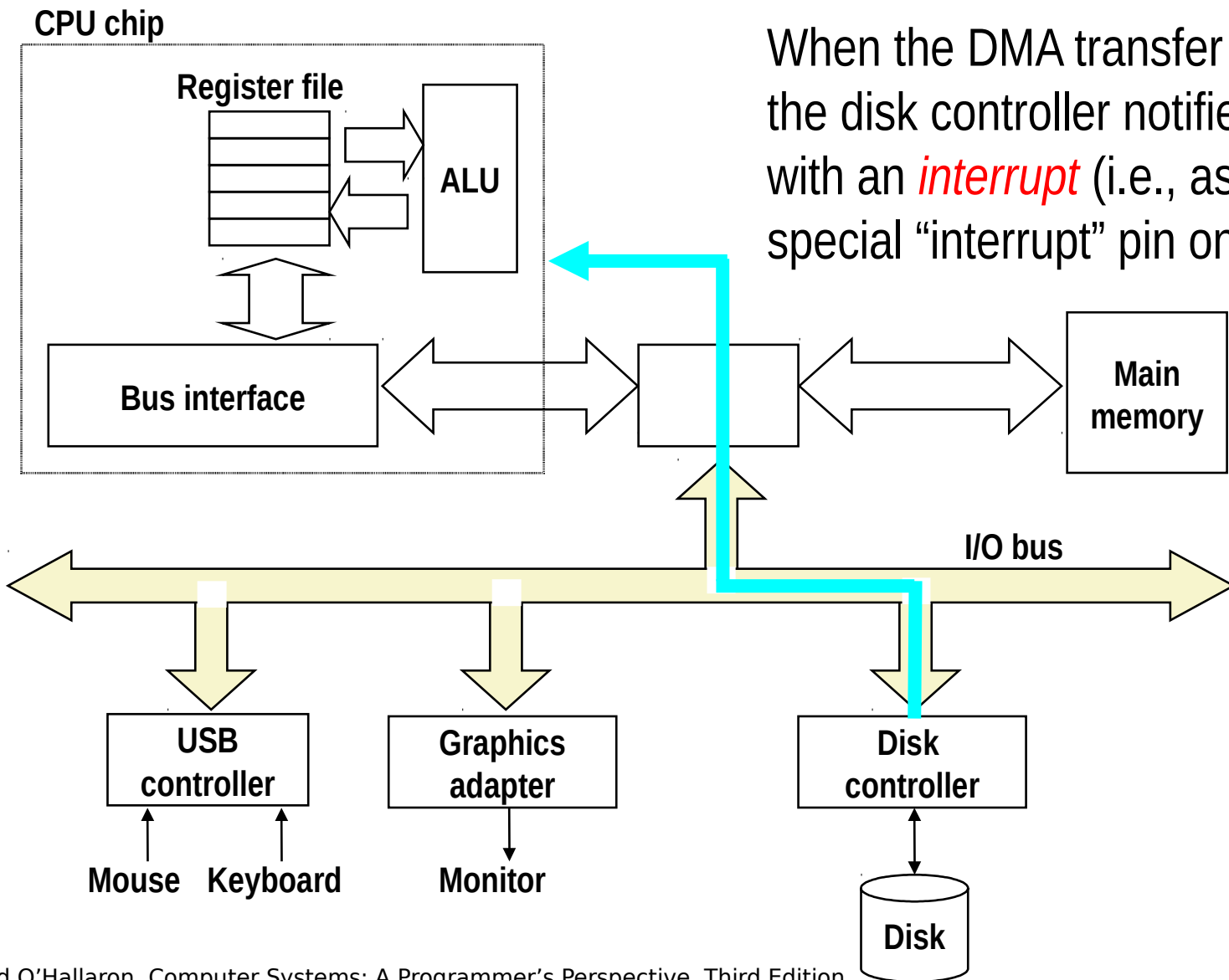
# Reading a Disk Sector (1)



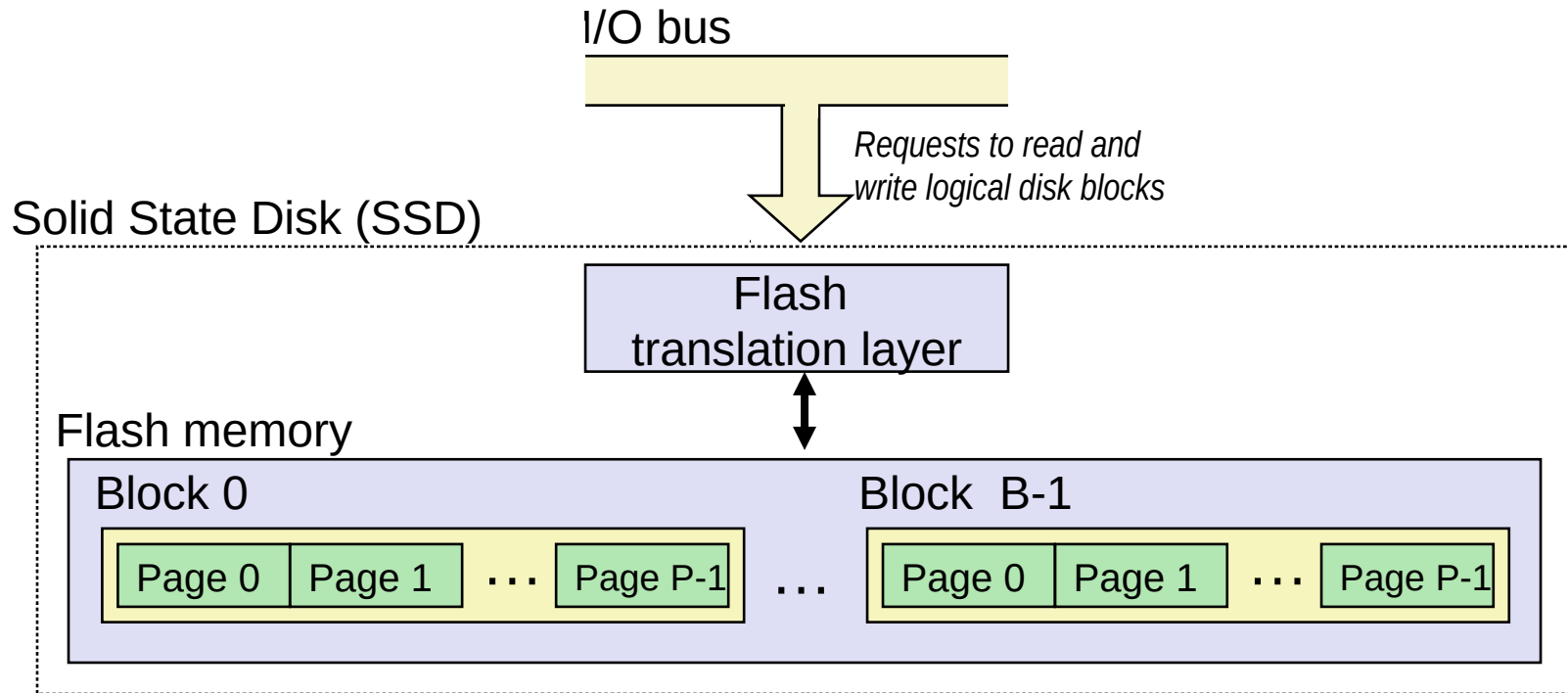
# Reading a Disk Sector (2)



# Reading a Disk Sector (3)



# Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- **Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages**
- **Data read/written in units of pages.**
- **Page can be written only after its block has been erased**
- **A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.**

# SSD Performance Characteristics

Sequential read tput	550 MB/s	Sequential write tput	470 MB/s
Random read tput	365 MB/s	Random write tput	303 MB/s
Avg seq read time	50 us	Avg seq write time	60 us

- **Sequential access faster than random access**
  - Common theme in the memory hierarchy
- **Random writes are somewhat slower**
  - Erasing a block takes a long time ( $\sim 1$  ms)
  - Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
  - In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

**Source: Intel SSD 730 product specification.**

# SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

## ■ Advantages

- No moving parts □ faster, less power, more rugged

## ■ Disadvantages

- Have the potential to wear out
  - Mitigated by “wear leveling logic” in flash translation layer
  - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte ( $128 \times 10^{15}$  bytes) of writes before they wear out
- About 6 times more expensive per tera byte (2018)
- Smaller in size

## ■ Applications

- MP3 players, smart phones, laptops
- Has moved to desktops and servers. Preferred now for anything that doesn't need the absolute largest storage.

# CPU Clock Rates

Inflection point in computer history  
when designers hit the “Power Wall”

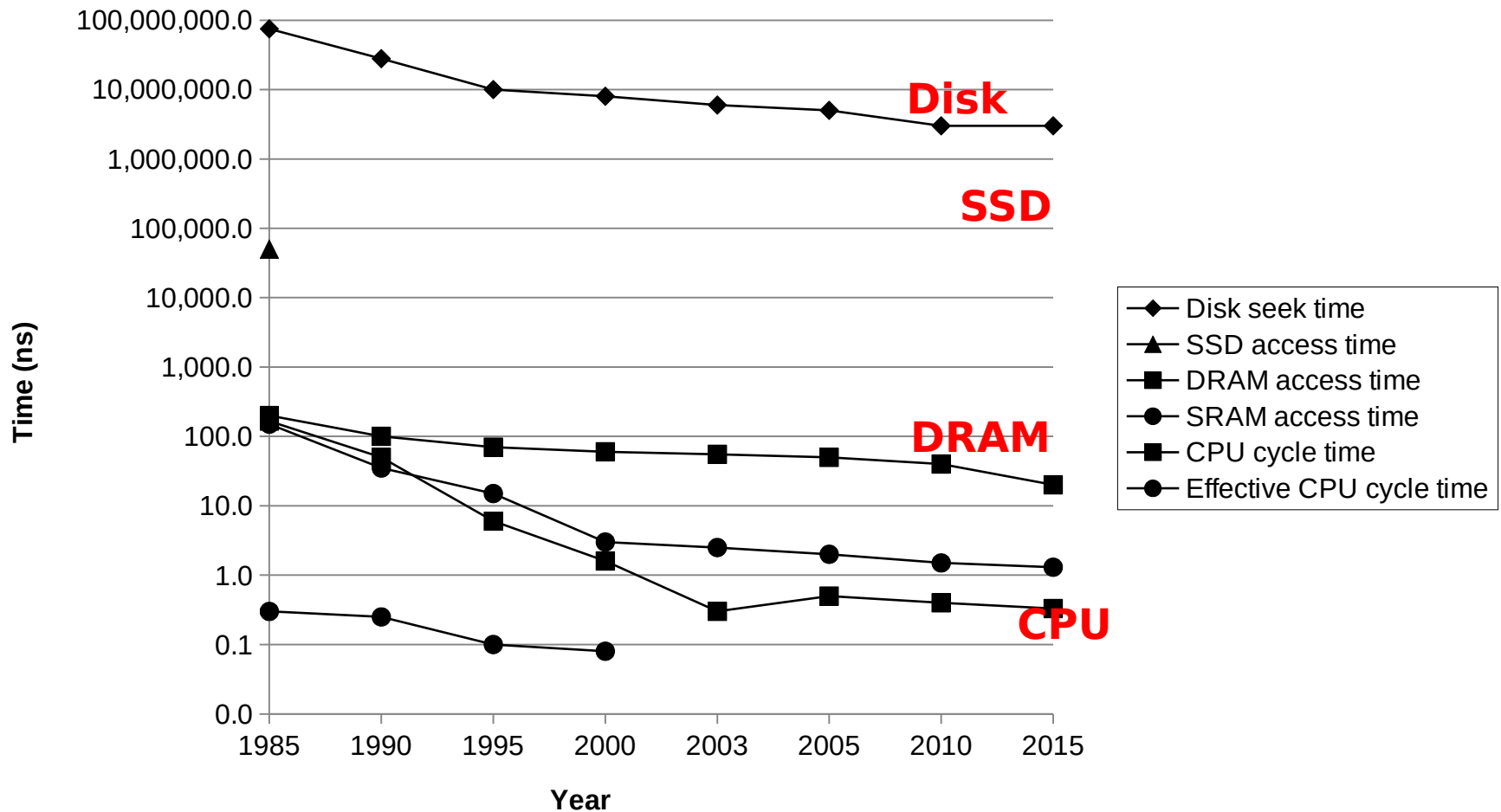


	1985	1990	1995	2003	2005	2010	2017	2017:1985
CPU	80286	80386	Pentium	P-4	Core 2	Core i7(n)	Core i7(h)	
Clock rate (MHz)	6	20	150	3,300	2,000	2,500	3,000	500
Cycle time (ns)	166	50	6	0.30	0.50	0.4	0.33	500
Cores	1	1	1	1	2	4	4	4
Effective cycle time (ns)	166	50	6	0.30	0.25	0.10	0.08	2,000

(n) Nehalem processor  
(h) Haswell processor

# The CPU-Memory Gap

The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.





# Locality to the Rescue!

**The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as **locality****

# Today

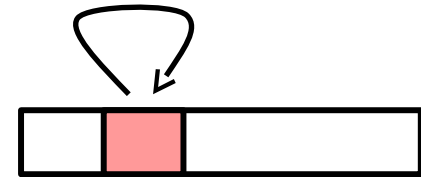
- Performance
- Storage technologies and trends
- **Locality of reference**
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

# Locality

- **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently

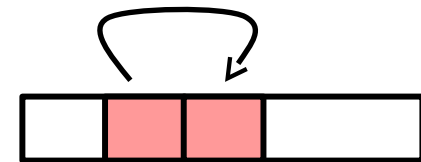
- **Temporal locality:**

- Recently referenced items are likely to be referenced again in the near future



- **Spatial locality:**

- Items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time



# Locality Example

```
sum = 0;  
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)  
    sum += a[i];  
return sum;
```

## ■ Data references

- Reference array elements in succession (stride-1 reference pattern).
- Reference variable `sum` each iteration.

**Spatial locality**

**Temporal locality**

## ■ Instruction references

- Reference instructions in sequence.
- Cycle through loop repeatedly.

**Spatial locality**

**Temporal locality**

# Qualitative Estimates of Locality

- **Claim:** Being able to look at code and get a qualitative sense of its locality is a key skill for a professional programmer.
- **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array *a*?

```
int sum_array_rows(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

# Locality Example

- **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array *a*?

```
int sum_array_cols(int a[M][N])
{
    int i, j, sum = 0;

    for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
        for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
            sum += a[i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

# Locality Example

- **Question:** Can you permute the loops so that the function scans the 3-d array *a* with a stride-1 reference pattern (and thus has good spatial locality)?

```
int sum_array_3d(int a[M][N][N])
{
    int i, j, k, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < N; k++)
                sum += a[k][i][j];

    return sum;
}
```

# Memory Hierarchies

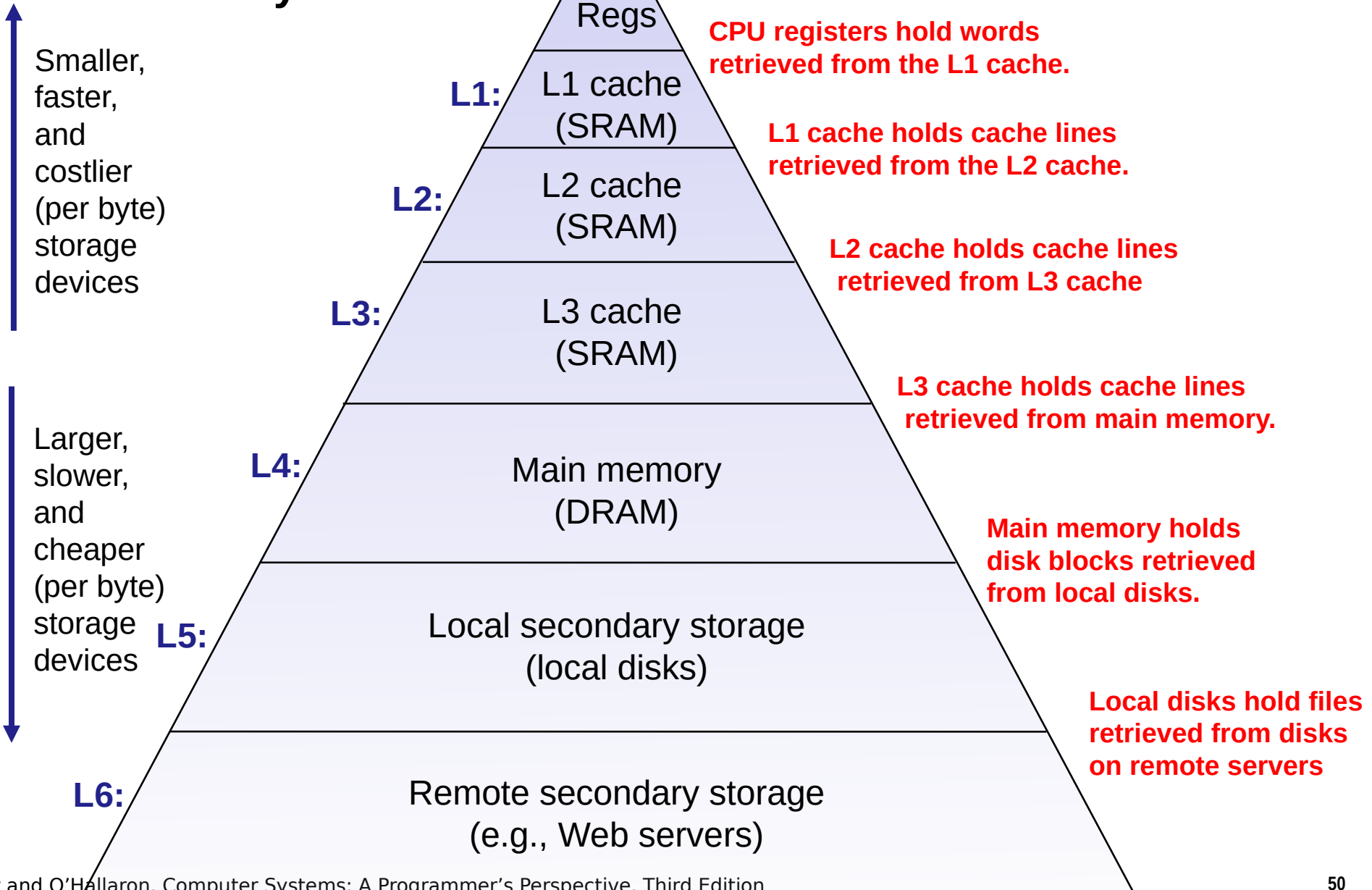
- **Some fundamental and enduring properties of hardware and software:**
  - Fast storage technologies cost more per byte, have less capacity, and require more power (heat!).
  - The gap between CPU and main memory speed is widening.
  - Well-written programs tend to exhibit good locality.
- **These fundamental properties complement each other beautifully.**
- **They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a **memory hierarchy**.**



# Today

- Performance
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- **Caching in the memory hierarchy**

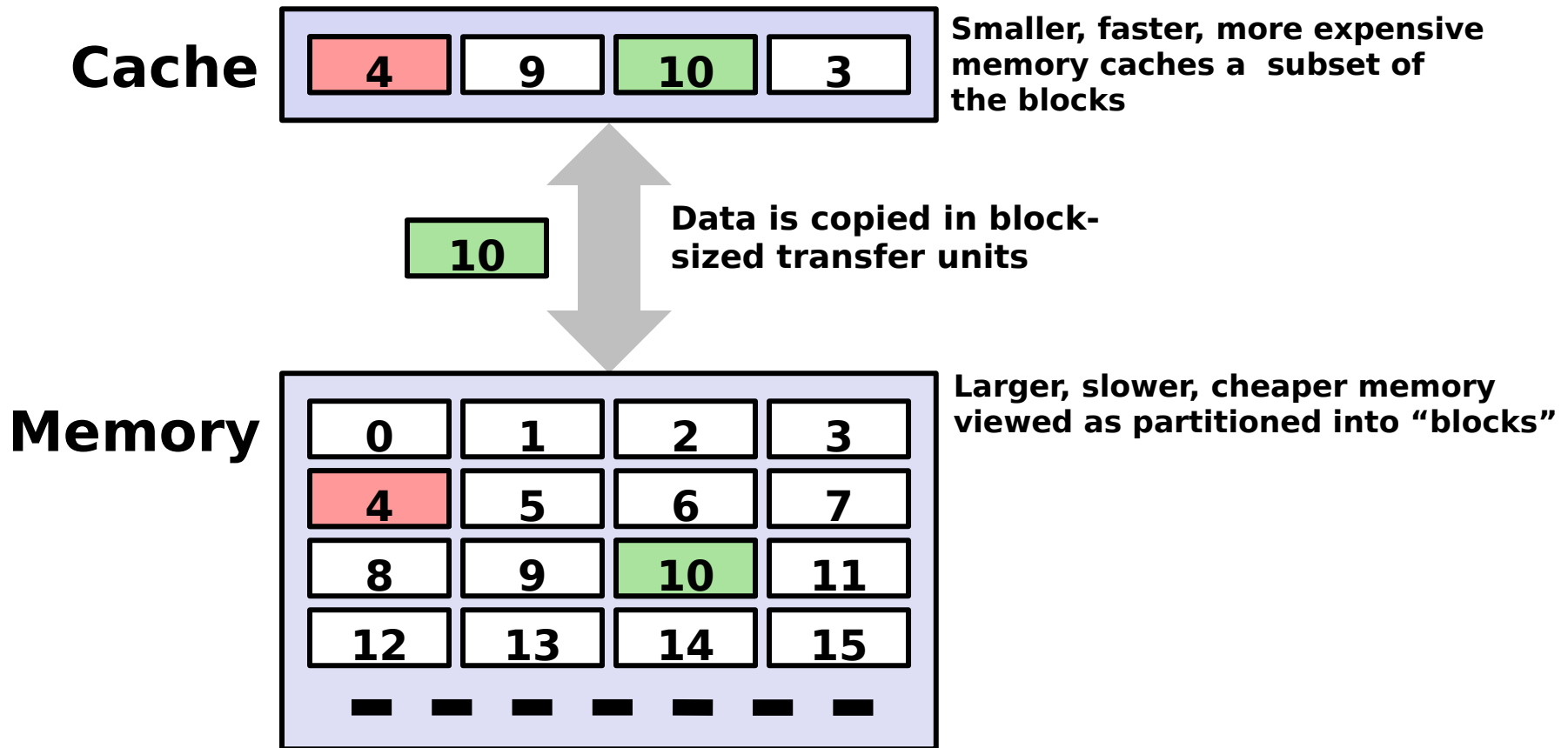
# Example Memory Hierarchy



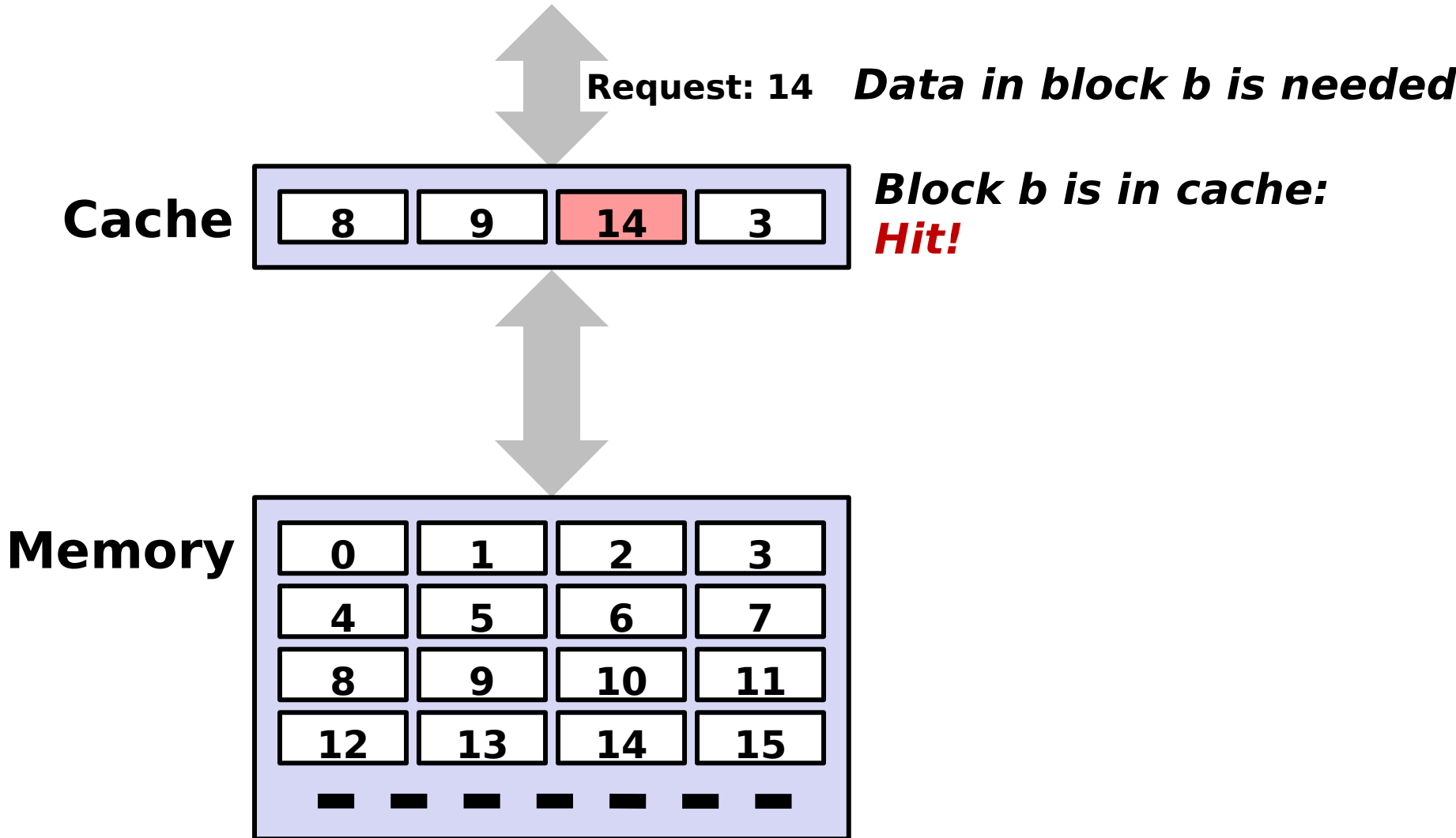
# Caches

- **Cache:** A smaller, faster storage device that acts as a staging area for a subset of the data in a larger, slower device.
- **Fundamental idea of a memory hierarchy:**
  - For each  $k$ , the faster, smaller device at level  $k$  serves as a cache for the larger, slower device at level  $k+1$ .
- **Why do memory hierarchies work?**
  - Because of locality, programs tend to access the data at level  $k$  more often than they access the data at level  $k+1$ .
  - Thus, the storage at level  $k+1$  can be slower, and thus larger and cheaper per bit.
- **Big Idea:** The memory hierarchy creates a large pool of storage that costs as much as the cheap storage near the bottom, but that serves data to programs at the rate of the fast storage near the top.

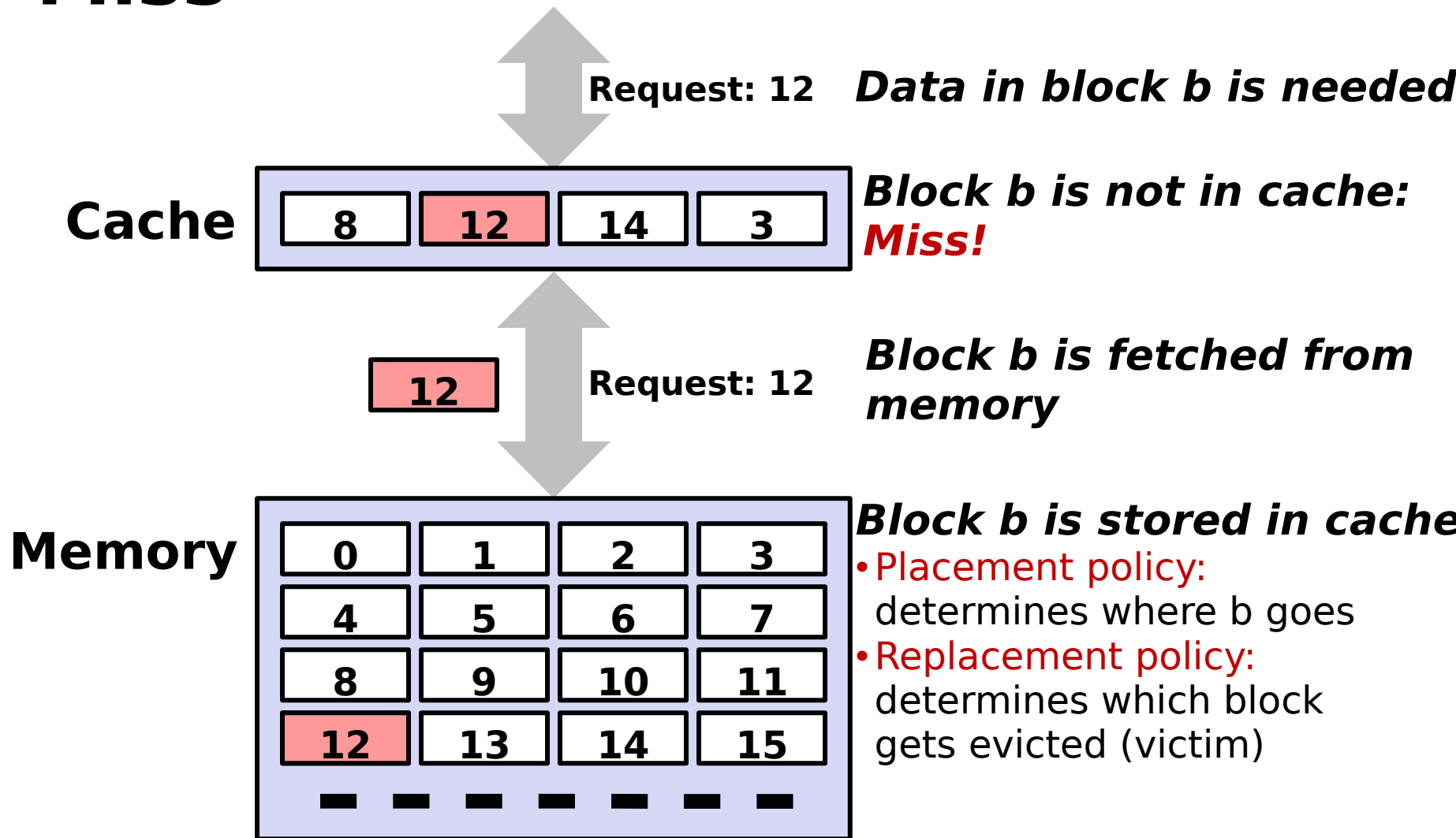
# General Cache Concepts



# General Cache Concepts: Hit



# General Cache Concepts: Miss



# General Caching Concepts:

## Types of Cache Misses

### ■ Cold (compulsory) miss

- Cold misses occur because the cache is empty.

### ■ Conflict miss

- Most caches limit blocks at level  $k+1$  to a small subset (sometimes a singleton) of the block positions at level  $k$ .
  - E.g. Block  $i$  at level  $k+1$  must be placed in block  $(i \bmod 4)$  at level  $k$ .
- Conflict misses occur when the level  $k$  cache is large enough, but multiple data objects all map to the same level  $k$  block.
  - E.g. Referencing blocks 0, 8, 0, 8, 0, 8, ... would miss every time.

### ■ Capacity miss

- Occurs when the set of active cache blocks (**working set**) is larger than the cache.

# Summary

- **The speed gap between CPU, memory and mass storage continues to widen.**
- **Well-written programs exhibit a property called *locality*.**
- **Memory hierarchies based on *caching* close the gap by exploiting locality.**
- **Compilers can help to optimize you code, but**
  - will not change the asymptotic behavior
  - can only give limited help with memory optimizations