

COMPUTER ORGANIZATION AND DESIGN

The Hardware/Software Interface



Chapter 5

Large and Fast: Exploiting Memory Hierarchy – Caches

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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

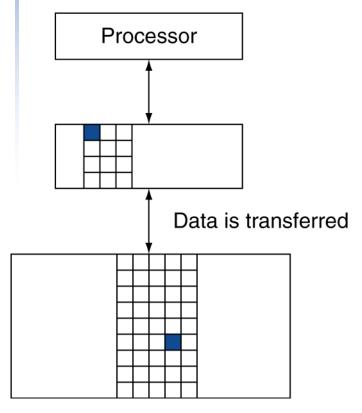


Taking Advantage of Locality

- 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

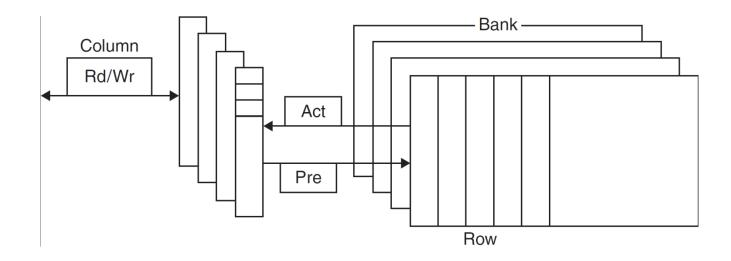
Memory Technology

- Static RAM (SRAM)
 - 0.5ns 2.5ns, \$2000 \$5000 per GB
- Dynamic RAM (DRAM)
 - 50ns 70ns, \$20 \$75 per GB
- Magnetic disk
 - 5ms 20ms, \$0.20 \$2 per GB
- Ideal memory
 - Access time of SRAM
 - Capacity and cost/GB of disk



DRAM Technology

- Data stored as a charge in a capacitor
 - Single transistor used to access the charge
 - Must periodically be refreshed
 - Read contents and write back
 - Performed on a DRAM "row"



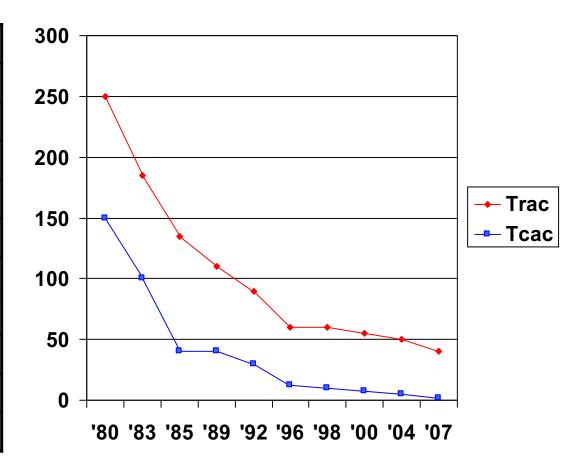
Advanced DRAM Organization

- 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

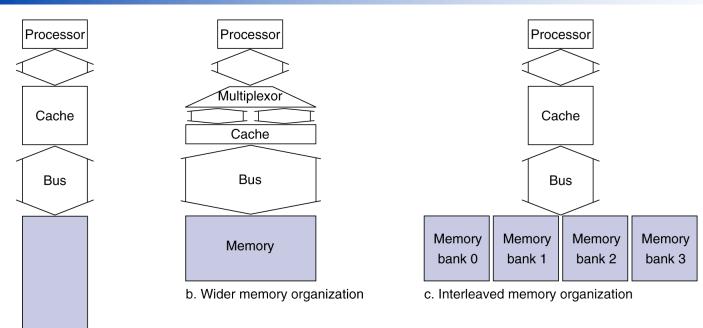


DRAM Performance Factors

- Row buffer
 - Allows several words to be read and refreshed in parallel
- Synchronous DRAM
 - Allows for consecutive accesses in bursts without needing to send each address
 - Improves bandwidth
- DRAM banking
 - Allows simultaneous access to multiple DRAMs
 - Improves bandwidth



Increasing Memory Bandwidth



- 4-word wide memory
 - Miss penalty = 1 + 15 + 1 = 17 bus cycles
 - Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 17 cycles = 0.94 B/cycle
- 4-bank interleaved memory
 - Miss penalty = 1 + 15 + 4×1 = 20 bus cycles
 - Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 20 cycles = 0.8 B/cycle

a. One-word-wide

memory organization

Memory

Flash Storage

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





Flash Types

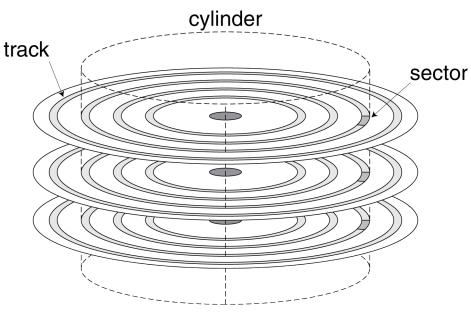
- NOR flash: bit cell like a NOR gate
 - Random read/write access
 - Used for instruction memory in embedded systems
- NAND flash: bit cell like a NAND gate
 - Denser (bits/area), but block-at-a-time access
 - Cheaper per GB
 - Used for USB keys, media storage, ...
- Flash bits wears out after 1000's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



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
 - $+ \frac{1}{2} / (15,000/60) = 2$ ms rotational latency
 - + 512 / 100MB/s = 0.005ms transfer time
 - + 0.2ms controller delay
 - = 6.2 ms
- 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



Cache Memory

- Cache memory
 - The level of the memory hierarchy closest to the CPU
- Given accesses X₁, ..., X_{n-1}, X_n

X ₄
X ₁
X _{n-2}
X _{n-1}
X ₂
X ₃

X_4
X ₁
X _{n-2}
X _{n-1}
X_2
X _n
X_3

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

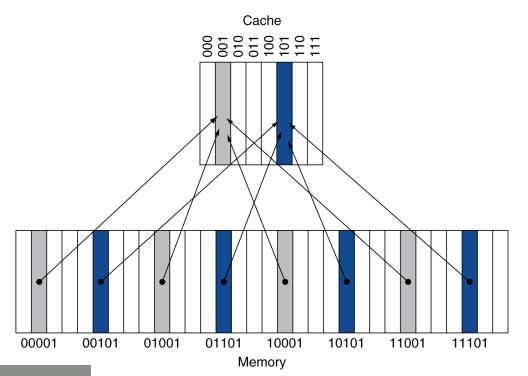
b. After the reference to X_n



a. Before the reference to X_n

Direct Mapped Cache

- Location determined by address
- Direct mapped: only one choice
 - (Block address) modulo (#Blocks in cache)



- #Blocks is a power of 2
- Use low-order address bits

Tags and Valid Bits

- How do we know which particular block is stored in a cache location?
 - Store block address as well as the data
 - Actually, only need the high-order bits
 - Called the tag
- What if there is no data in a location?
 - Valid bit: 1 = present, 0 = not present
 - Initially 0

- 8-blocks, 1 word/block, direct mapped
- Initial state

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	N		
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	N		
111	N		

Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
22	10 110	Miss	110

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	N		
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
26	11 010	Miss	010

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	Υ	11	Mem[11010]
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
22	10 110	Hit	110
26	11 010	Hit	010

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	Υ	11	Mem[11010]
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
16	10 000	Miss	000
3	00 011	Miss	011
16	10 000	Hit	000

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	Υ	10	Mem[10000]
001	N		
010	Υ	11	Mem[11010]
011	Υ	00	Mem[00011]
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
18	10 010	Miss	010

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	Υ	10	Mem[10000]
001	N		
010	Y	10	Mem[10010]
011	Υ	00	Mem[00011]
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

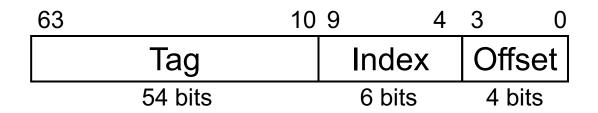
Address Subdivision

Address (showing bit positions) 63 62 · · · · 13 12 11 · · · · 2 1 0 Byte offset 52 10 Hit Tag Data Index Index Valid Tag Data 0 2 1021 1022 1023 52 32



Example: Larger Block Size

- 64 blocks, 16 bytes/block
 - To what block number does address 1200 map?
- Block address = [1200/16] = 75
- Block number = 75 modulo 64 = 11



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



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



Write-Through

- On data-write hit, could just update the block in cache
 - But then cache and memory would be inconsistent
- Write through: also update memory
- But makes writes take longer
 - e.g., if base CPI = 1, 10% of instructions are stores, write to memory takes 100 cycles
 - Effective CPI = 1 + 0.1×100 = 11
- Solution: write buffer
 - Holds data waiting to be written to memory
 - CPU continues immediately
 - Only stalls on write if write buffer is already full



Write-Back

- Alternative: On data-write hit, just update the block in cache
 - Keep track of whether each block is dirty
- When a dirty block is replaced
 - Write it back to memory
 - Can use a write buffer to allow replacing block to be read first

Write Allocation

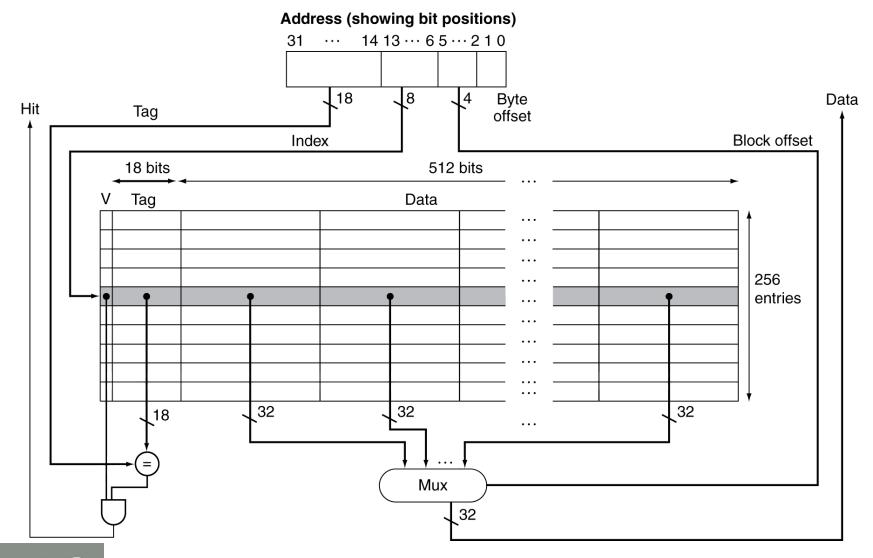
- What should happen on a write miss?
- Alternatives for write-through
 - Allocate on miss: fetch the block
 - Write around: don't fetch the block
 - Since programs often write a whole block before reading it (e.g., initialization)
- For write-back
 - Usually fetch the block

Example: Intrinsity FastMATH

- Embedded MIPS processor
 - 12-stage pipeline
 - Instruction and data access on each cycle
- Split cache: separate I-cache and D-cache
 - Each 16KB: 256 blocks × 16 words/block
 - D-cache: write-through or write-back
- SPEC2000 miss rates
 - I-cache: 0.4%
 - D-cache: 11.4%
 - Weighted average: 3.2%



Example: Intrinsity FastMATH





Main Memory Supporting Caches

- Use DRAMs for main memory
 - Fixed width (e.g., 1 word)
 - Connected by fixed-width clocked bus
 - Bus clock is typically slower than CPU clock
- Example cache block read
 - 1 bus cycle for address transfer
 - 15 bus cycles per DRAM access
 - 1 bus cycle per data transfer
- For 4-word block, 1-word-wide DRAM
 - Miss penalty = $1 + 15 + 4 \times 1 = 20$ bus cycles
 - Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 20 cycles = 0.8 B/cycle



Measuring Cache Performance

- Components of CPU time
 - Program execution cycles
 - Includes cache hit time
 - Memory stall cycles
 - Mainly from cache misses
- With simplifying assumptions:

Memory stall cycles



Cache Performance Example

Given

- I-cache miss rate = 2%
- D-cache miss rate = 4%
- Miss penalty = 100 cycles
- Base CPI (ideal cache) = 2
- Load & stores are 36% of instructions
- Miss cycles per instruction
 - I-cache: 0.02 × 100 = 2
 - D-cache: $0.36 \times 0.04 \times 100 = 1.44$
- Actual CPI = 2 + 2 + 1.44 = 5.44
 - Ideal CPU is 5.44/2 = 2.72 times faster

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%
 - \blacksquare AMAT = 1 + 0.05 × 20 = 2ns
 - 2 cycles per instruction

Performance Summary

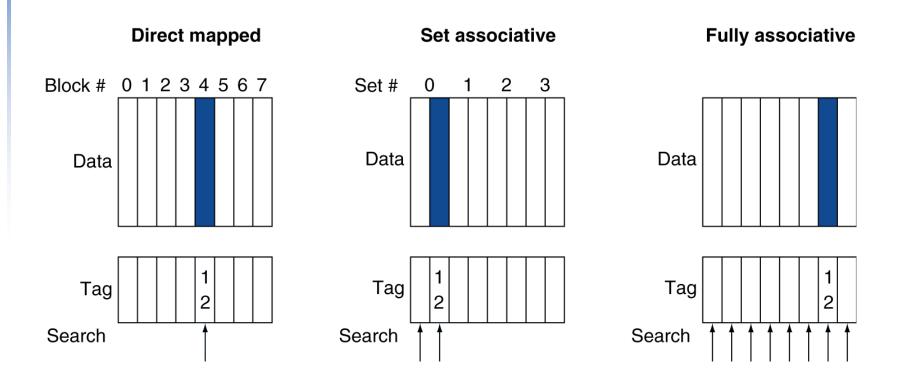
- When CPU performance increased
 - Miss penalty becomes more significant
- Decreasing base CPI
 - Greater proportion of time spent on memory stalls
- Increasing clock rate
 - Memory stalls account for more CPU cycles
- Can't neglect cache behavior when evaluating system performance

Associative Caches

- Fully associative
 - Allow a given block to go in any cache entry
 - Requires all entries to be searched at once
 - Comparator per entry (expensive)
- n-way set associative
 - Each set contains n entries
 - Block number determines which set
 - (Block number) modulo (#Sets in cache)
 - Search all entries in a given set at once
 - n comparators (less expensive)



Associative Cache Example



Spectrum of Associativity

For a cache with 8 entries

One-way set associative (direct mapped)

Block	Tag	Data
0		
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		
7		

Two-way set associative

Set	Tag	Data	Tag	Data
0				
1				
2				
3				

Four-way set associative

Set	Tag	Data	Tag	Data	Tag	Data	Tag	Data
0								
1								

Eight-way set associative (fully associative)

Tag	Data														

Associativity Example

- Compare 4-block caches
 - Direct mapped, 2-way set associative, fully associative
 - Block access sequence: 0, 8, 0, 6, 8
- Direct mapped

Block	Cache	Hit/miss	Cache content after access					
address	index		0	1	2	3		
0	0	miss	Mem[0]					
8	0	miss	Mem[8]					
0	0	miss	Mem[0]					
6	2	miss	Mem[0]		Mem[6]			
8	0	miss	Mem[8]		Mem[6]			

Associativity Example

2-way set associative

Block	Cache	Hit/miss	(Cache conter	nt after access
address	index		Se	et O	Set 1
0	0	miss	Mem[0]		
8	0	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	
0	0	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	
6	0	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[6]	
8	0	miss	Mem[8]	Mem[6]	

Fully associative

Block address	Hit/miss	Cache content after access						
0	miss	Mem[0]						
8	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]					
0	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]					
6	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	Mem[6]				
8	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	Mem[6]				

How Much Associativity

- Increased associativity decreases miss rate
 - But with diminishing returns
- Simulation of a system with 64KB
 D-cache, 16-word blocks, SPEC2000

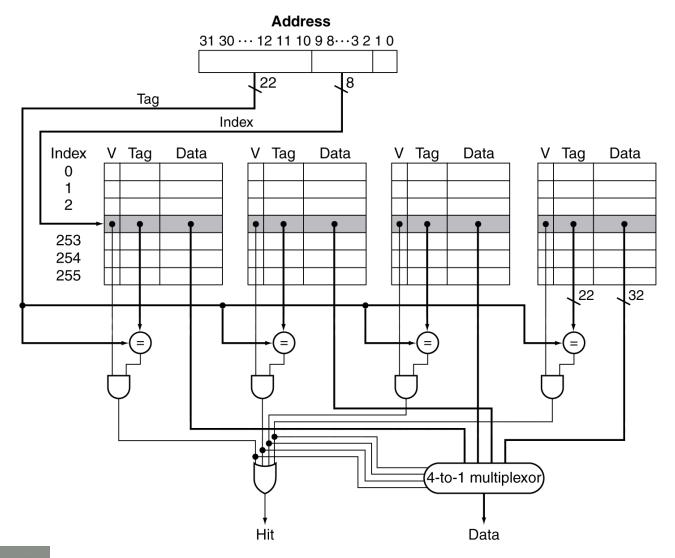
■ 1-way: 10.3%

2-way: 8.6%

4-way: 8.3%

8-way: 8.1%

Set Associative Cache Organization





Replacement Policy

- Direct mapped: no choice
- Set associative
 - Prefer non-valid entry, if there is one
 - Otherwise, choose among entries in the set
- Least-recently used (LRU)
 - Choose the one unused for the longest time
 - Simple for 2-way, manageable for 4-way, too hard beyond that
- Random
 - Gives approximately the same performance as LRU for high associativity
 - But very bad for real-time systems



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

Multilevel Cache Example

- Given
 - CPU base CPI = 1, clock rate = 4GHz
 - Miss rate/instruction = 2%
 - Main memory access time = 100ns
- With just primary cache
 - Miss penalty = 100ns/0.25ns = 400 cycles
 - Effective CPI = $1 + 0.02 \times 400 = 9$

Example (cont.)

- Now add L-2 cache
 - Access time = 5ns
 - Global miss rate to main memory = 0.5%
- Primary miss with L-2 hit
 - Penalty = 5ns/0.25ns = 20 cycles
- Primary miss with L-2 miss
 - Extra penalty = 500 cycles
- \blacksquare CPI = 1 + 0.02 × 20 + 0.005 × 400 = 3.4
- Performance ratio = 9/3.4 = 2.6

Multilevel Cache Considerations

- Primary cache
 - Focus on minimal hit time
- L-2 cache
 - Focus on low miss rate to avoid main memory access
 - Hit time has less overall impact
- Results
 - L-1 cache usually smaller than a single cache
 - L-1 block size smaller than L-2 block size

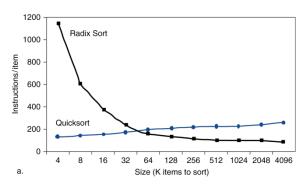
Interactions with Advanced CPUs

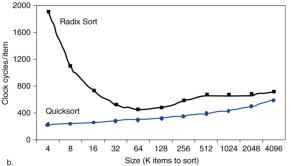
- Out-of-order CPUs can execute instructions during cache miss
 - Pending store stays in load/store unit
 - Dependent instructions wait in reservation stations
 - Independent instructions continue
- Effect of miss depends on program data flow
 - Much harder to analyse
 - Use system simulation

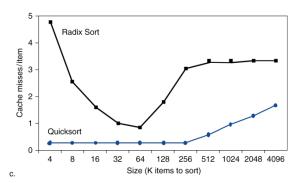


Interactions with Software

- Misses depend on memory access patterns
 - Algorithm behavior
 - Compiler optimization for memory access







Input and Output

- To interact with the environment
- Needing a form of input and output
- How is this represented?
 - IO devices are mapped into memory locations
 - RISC-V uses load and store to access IO devices
- Usually abstracted by device drivers
- In embedded systems you are exposed to IO devices

Example IO (Embedded Sys.)

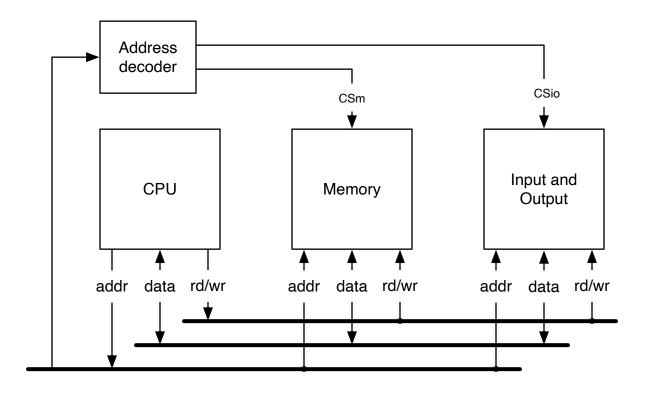
- You remember the Basys3 board?
- LEDs, 7-segment displays
- Switches, bottons
- Serial port (UART)
- VGA,...



Build a Basys3 Computer

- Assume you have a processor
- Describe interfaces in hardware
- Connect to the pins of the FPGA
- Map the devices into an address range
- How is this connected?
 - Old concept of a communication bus

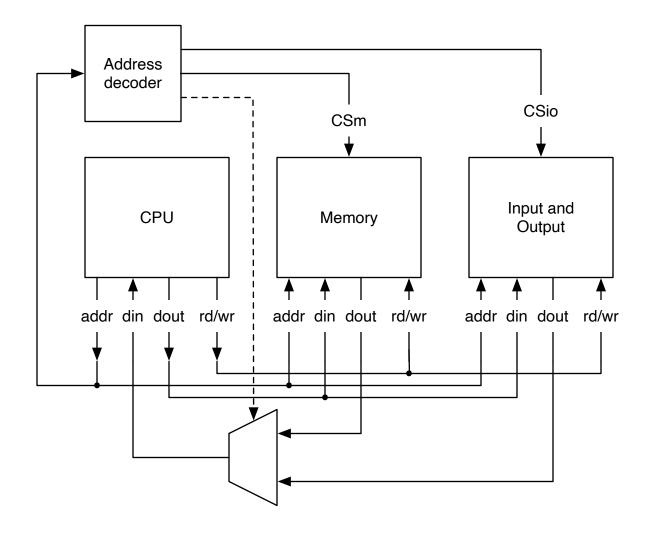
A Classic Bus



A Classic Bus

- CPU drives address and rd/wr command
- Address is decoded to generate chip select
- On a read, the memory or IO device deliver the data
- On a write, the CPU delivers the data
- Data bus is shared we use tri-state

On-Chip Bus



On-Chip Bus

- Translate the bus to on-chip version
- No tri-state possible
- Use multiplexers
- Several standards available
 - Wishbone
 - AXI
 - Open Core Protocol
 - Avalon
- See Chapter 12 in the Chisel book



Pitfalls

- Byte vs. word addressing
 - Example: 32-byte direct-mapped cache, 4-byte blocks
 - Byte 36 maps to block 1
 - Word 36 maps to block 4
- Ignoring memory system effects when writing or generating code
 - Example: iterating over rows vs. columns of arrays
 - Large strides result in poor locality



Pitfalls

- In multiprocessor with shared L2 or L3 cache
 - Less associativity than cores results in conflict misses
 - More cores ⇒ need to increase associativity
- Using AMAT to evaluate performance of out-of-order processors
 - Ignores effect of non-blocked accesses
 - Instead, evaluate performance by simulation

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
- Memory system design is critical for multiprocessors

