CPT_S 260 Intro to Computer Architecture Lecture 41

Memory April 25, 2022

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Announcements

Final exam

- May 4th 2022
- Comprehensive with all topics
- Review on Wednesday and Friday

Class evaluations are open

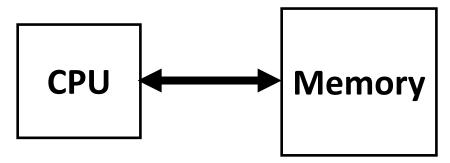
- Please complete the class review
- Feedback will help in improving the course in the future
- Included as part of class participation

Eight Great Ideas in Computer Architecture

- Design for Moore's Law
- Use abstraction to simplify design
- Make the common case fast
- Performance via parallelism

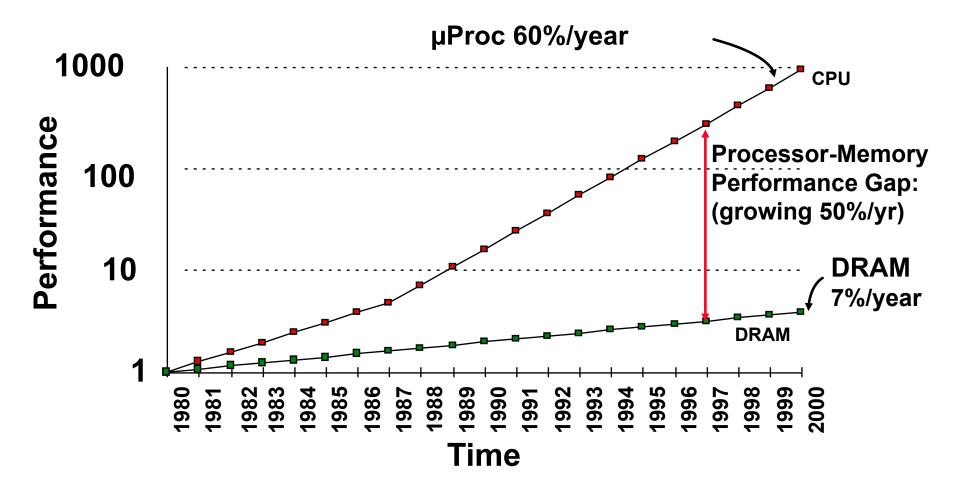
- Performance via pipelining
- Performance via prediction
- Hierarchy of memories
- Dependability via redundancy

CPU-Memory Bottleneck



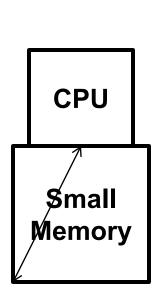
- Performance of high-speed computers is usually limited by memory bandwidth & latency
- Latency (time for a single access)
 - Memory access time >> Processor cycle time
- Bandwidth (number of accesses per unit time)
- If fraction m of instructions access memory
 - 1+m memory references / instruction
 - CPI = 1 requires 1+m memory refs / cycle (assuming RISC ISA)
- Also, Occupancy (time a memory bank is busy with one request)

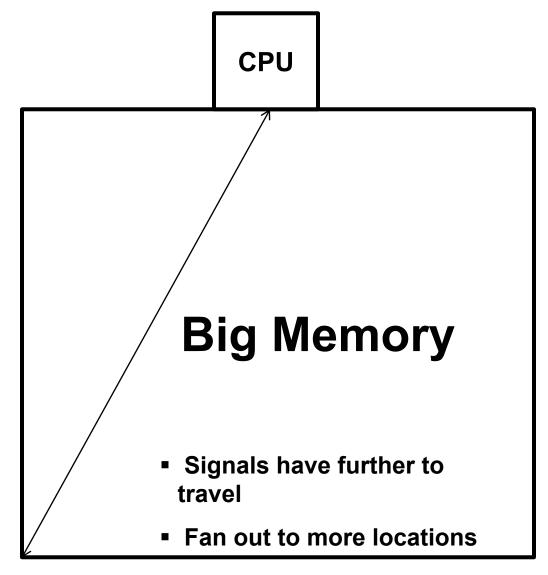
Processor-DRAM Gap (latency)



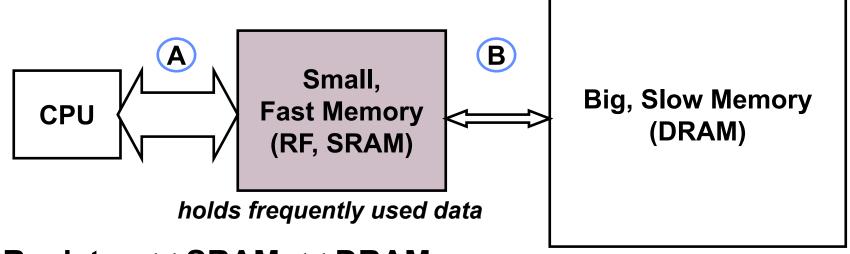
Four-issue 3GHz superscalar accessing 100ns DRAM could execute 1,200 instructions during time for one memory access!

Physical Size Affects Latency





Memory Hierarchy



- Capacity: Register << SRAM << DRAM
- Latency: Register << SRAM << DRAM</p>
- Bandwidth: on-chip >> off-chip
- On a data access
 - if data ∈ fast memory ⇒ low latency access (SRAM)
 - if data ∉ fast memory ⇒ high latency access (DRAM)

Management of Memory Hierarchy

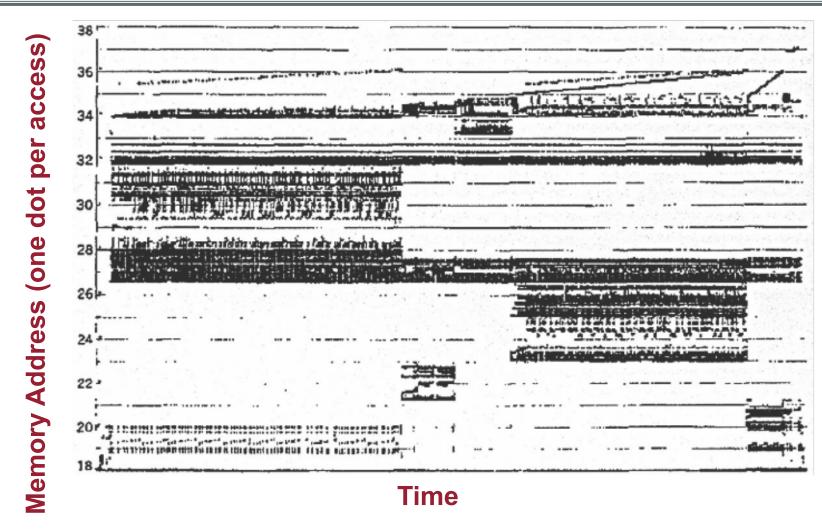
Small/fast storage, e.g., registers

- Address usually specified in instruction
- Generally implemented directly as a register file
 - » But hardware might do things behind software's back, e.g., stack management, register renaming

Larger/slower storage, e.g., main memory

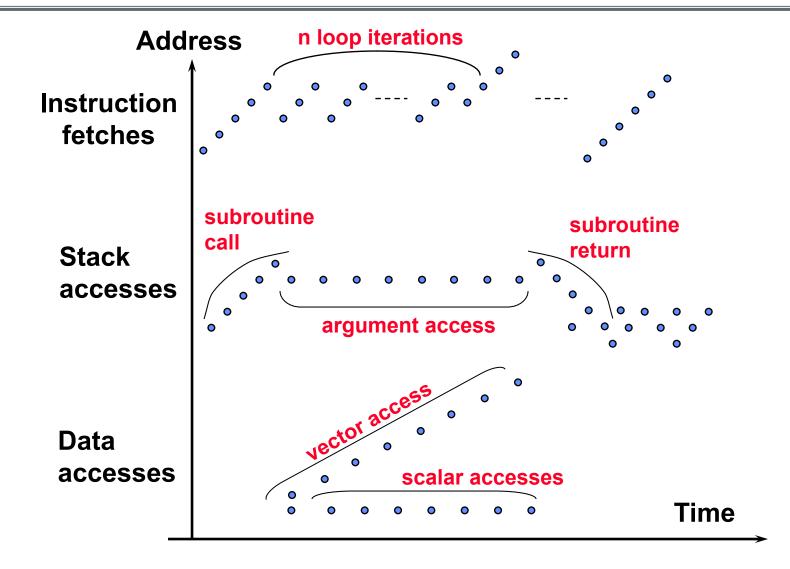
- Address usually computed from values in register
- Generally implemented as a hardware-managed cache hierarchy (hardware decides what is kept in fast memory)
 - » But software may provide "hints", e.g., don't cache or prefetch

Real Memory Reference Patterns



Donald J. Hatfield, Jeanette Gerald: Program Restructuring for Virtual Memory. IBM Systems Journal 10(3): 168-192 (1971)

Typical Memory Reference Patterns

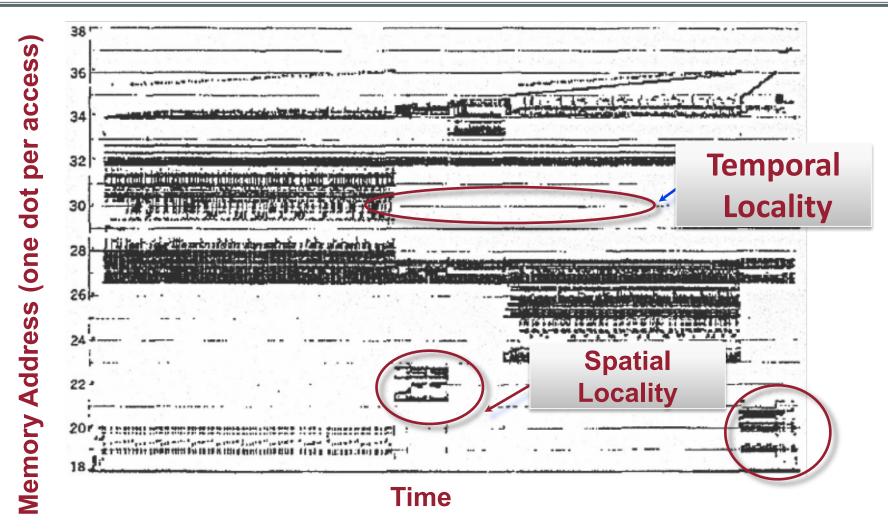


Two Predictable Properties of Memory References

 Temporal Locality: If a location is referenced it is likely to be referenced again in the near future.

 Spatial Locality: If a location is referenced it is likely that locations near it will be referenced in the near future.

Memory Reference Patterns



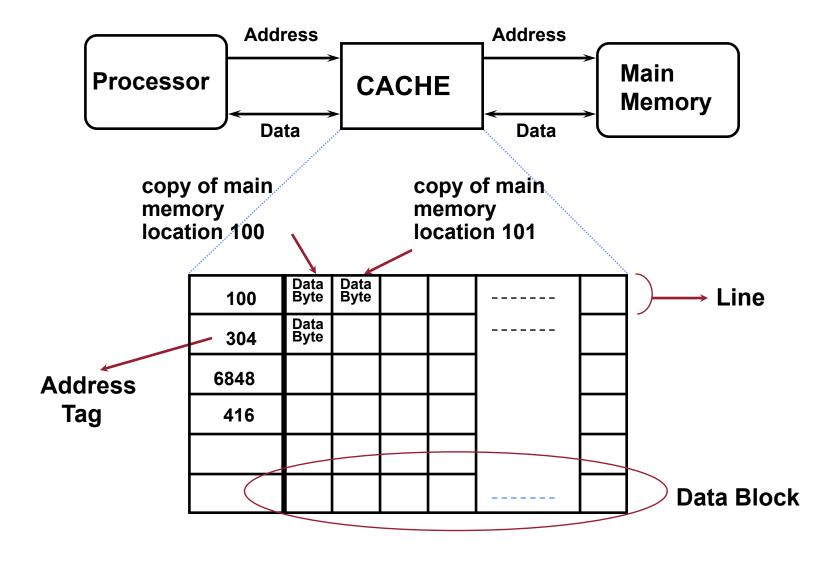
Donald J. Hatfield, Jeanette Gerald: Program Restructuring for Virtual Memory. IBM Systems Journal 10(3): 168-192 (1971)

Caches Exploit both Types of Predictability

 Exploit temporal locality by remembering the contents of recently accessed locations.

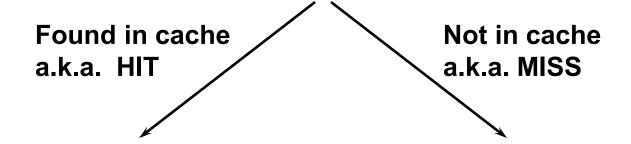
 Exploit spatial locality by fetching blocks of data around recently accessed locations.

Inside a Cache



Cache Algorithm (Read)

Look at Processor Address, search cache tags to find match. Then either



Return copy of data from cache

Read block of data from Main Memory

Wait ...

Return data to processor and update cache

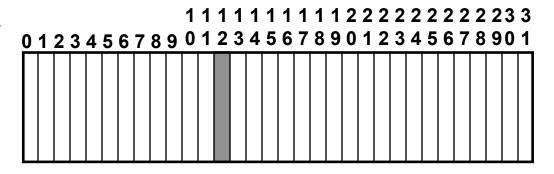
Q: Which line do we replace?

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Placement Policy

Block Number

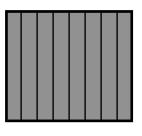
Memory



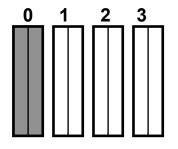
Set Number

Cache

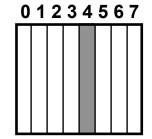
block 12 can be placed



Fully Associative anywhere



(2-way) Set Associative anywhere in set 0 (12 mod 4)



Direct
Mapped
only into
block 4
(12 mod 8)

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Cache Parameters

Cache line

A single entry in the cache that includes the valid bit, tag, and data

Block size

The number of bytes of data present in each cache line

Sets

A group of blocks in the cache is called a set (applicable for set-associative caches)

Associativity

Number of cache blocks in each set of a cache e.g. 2-way set associative

Tag

Address identifier used to locate data in a cache

Division of Address in a Cache

Block address		Block
Tag	Index	offset

Block offset

- Identifies the byte in a block e.g. 4th byte in a 64 byte block
- Size is $log_2 B$ (n)

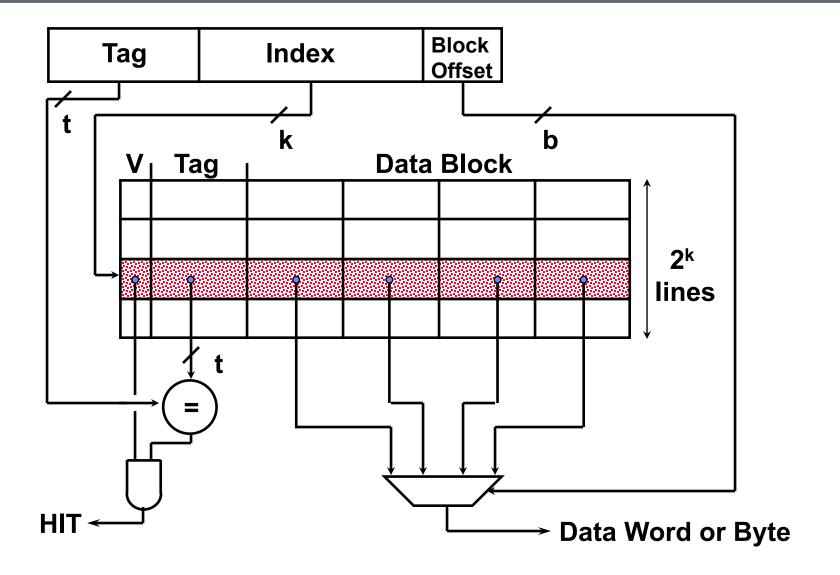
Index

- Used to identify the set in a set-associative caches
- Size is $\log_2 S$ (k)

Tag

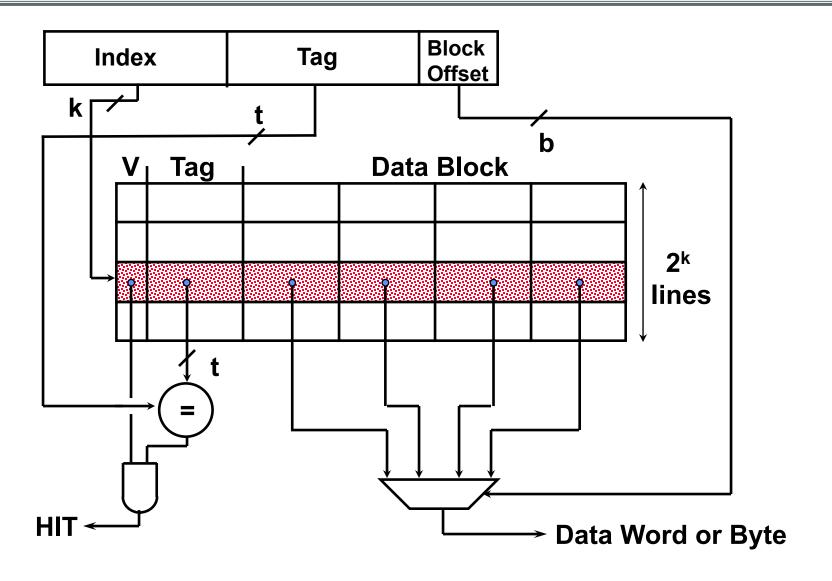
- Size is m - k - n for m-bit memory addresses

Direct-Mapped Cache

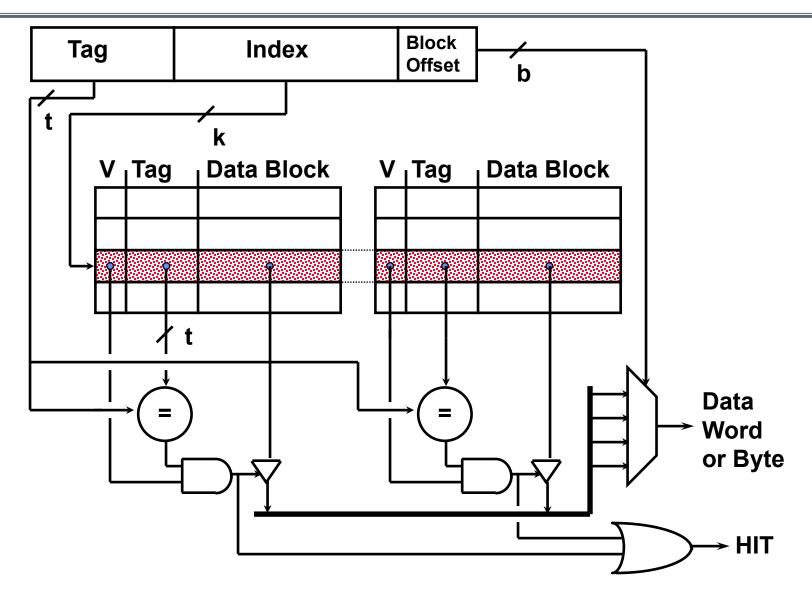


Direct Map Address Selection

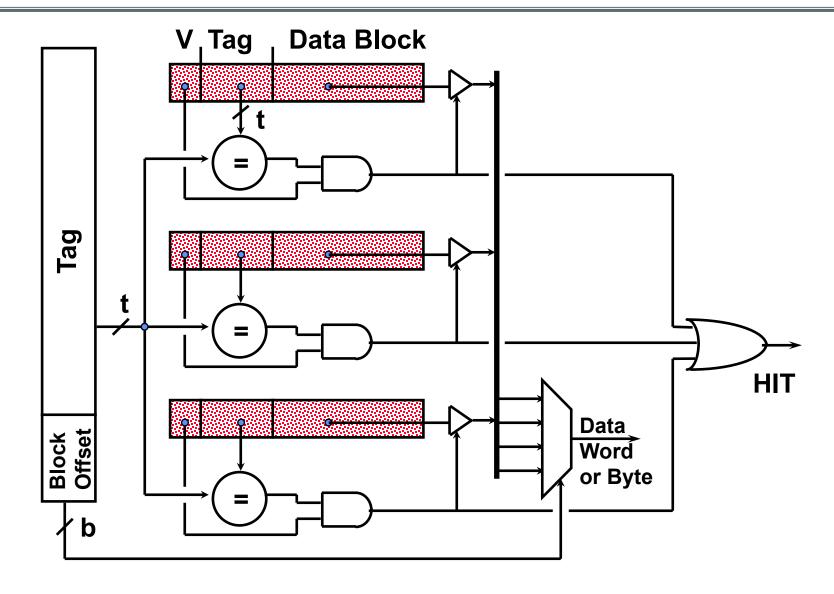
higher-order vs. lower-order address bits



2-Way Set-Associative Cache



Fully Associative Cache



Replacement Policy

- In an associative cache, which block from a set should be evicted when the set becomes full?
- Random
- Least-Recently Used (LRU)
 - LRU cache state must be updated on every access
 - True implementation only feasible for small sets (2-way)
 - Pseudo-LRU binary tree often used for 4-8 way
- First-In, First-Out (FIFO) a.k.a. Round-Robin
 - Used in highly associative caches
- Not-Most-Recently Used (NMRU)
 - FIFO with exception for most-recently used block or blocks

Replacement only happens on misses

Cache Performance

Recall CPU Execution time

CPU execution time = (CPU clock cycles + Memory stall cycles) * Clock cycle time

We need to know memory stall cycles

Memory Stall cycles = IC *
$$\frac{\text{Misses}}{\text{Instruction}} * \text{Miss penalty}$$
= IC *
$$\frac{\text{Memory acesses}}{\text{Instruction}} * \text{Miss rate} * \text{Miss penalty}$$

- We need to measure each of these components to get stall cycles
- An approximation since penalty of reads and writes is different
- Average memory access time (AMAT) = Hit time + Miss rate x Miss penalty

Example of Cache Performance

- Assume CPI = 1 when all memory accesses are hits
- 50% instructions are loads and stores
- Miss rate = 2%, Miss penalty = 25 cycles. Calculate slowdown

All hits

Execution time = (IC*CPI + 0)* Clock cycle = IC*1*Clock cycle

With misses

Memory stall cycles =
$$IC*(1+0.5)*0.02*25$$

= $IC*0.75$
Execution time = $(IC+IC*0.75)*Clock$ cycle
= $1.75*IC*Clock$ cycle
Slowdown = 1.75

Improving Cache Performance

- AMAT = Hit time + Miss rate * Miss penalty
- To improve performance
 - Reduce the hit time
 - Reduce the miss rate
 - Reduce the miss penalty
- What is best cache design for 5-stage pipeline?

Biggest cache that doesn't increase hit time past 1 cycle (approx 8-32KB in modern technology)

[design issues more complex with deeper pipelines and/or out-of-order superscalar processors]

Causes of Cache Misses: The 3 C's

- Compulsory: First reference to a line (a.k.a. cold start misses)
 - Misses that would occur even with infinite cache
- Capacity: Cache is too small to hold all data needed by the program
 - Misses that would occur even under perfect replacement policy
- Conflict: Misses that occur because of collisions due to lineplacement strategy
 - Misses that would not occur with ideal full associativity

Effect of Cache Parameters on Performance

Larger cache size

- + Reduces capacity and conflict misses
- Hit time will increase

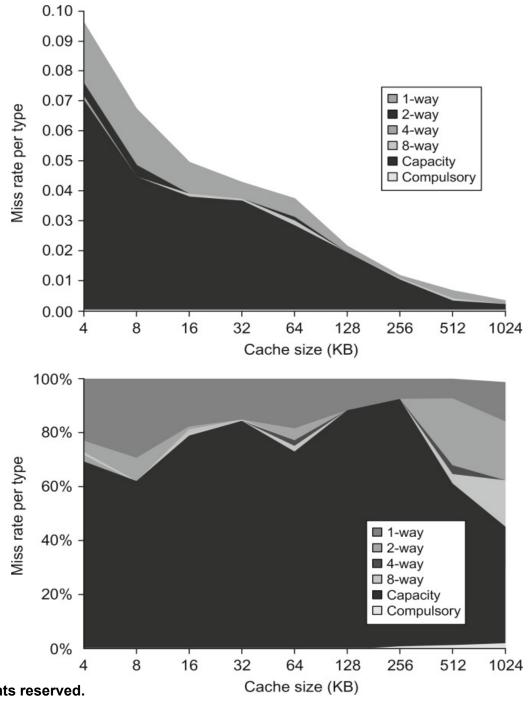
Higher associativity

- + Reduces conflict misses
- May increase hit time

Larger line size

- + Reduces compulsory and capacity (reload) misses
- Increases conflict misses and miss penalty

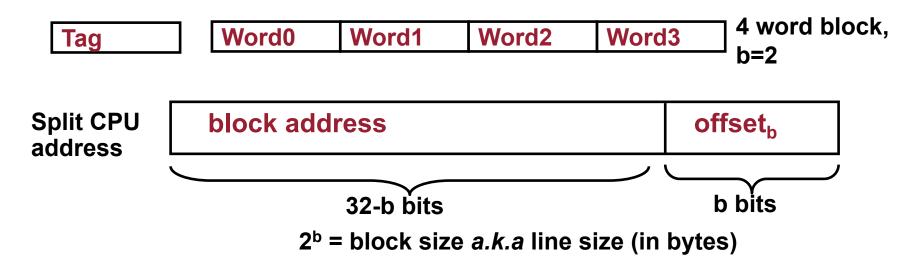
Figure B.9 Total miss rate (top) and distribution of miss rate (bottom) for each size cache according to the three C's for the data in Figure B.8. The top diagram shows the actual data cache miss rates, while the bottom diagram shows the percentage in each category. (Space allows the graphs to show one extra cache size than can fit in Figure B.8.)



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Block Size and Spatial Locality

Recall: Block is unit of transfer between the cache and memory



- Larger block size has distinct hardware advantages
 - Less tag overhead
 - Exploit fast burst transfers from DRAM
 - Exploit fast burst transfers over wide busses
- What are the disadvantages of increasing block size?
 - Fewer blocks => more conflicts. Can waste bandwidth.

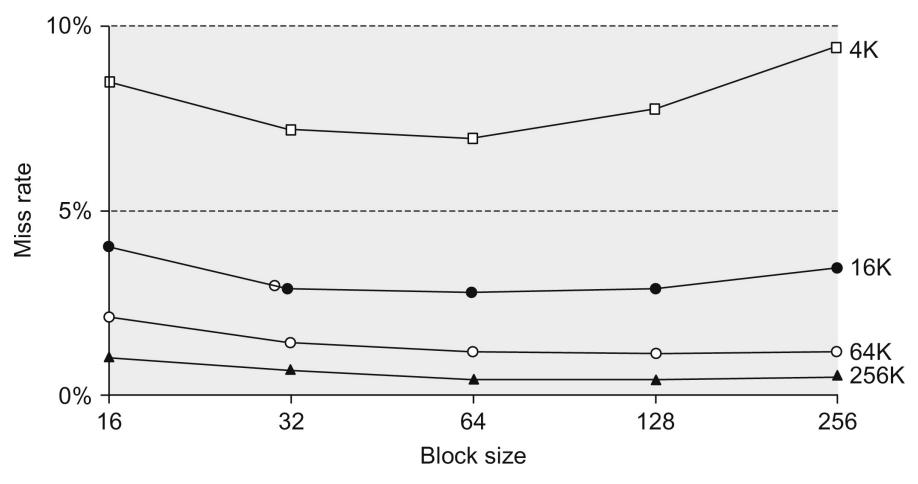


Figure B.10 Miss rate versus block size for five different-sized caches. Note that miss rate actually goes up if the block size is too large relative to the cache size. Each line represents a cache of different size. Figure B.11 shows the data used to plot these lines. Unfortunately, SPEC2000 traces would take too long if block size were included, so these data are based on SPEC92 on a DECstation 5000 (Gee et al. 1993).

Write Policy Choices

Cache hit:

- Write-through: Write both cache & memory
 - » Generally higher traffic but simpler pipeline & cache design
- Write-back: Write cache only, memory is written only when the entry is evicted
 - » A dirty bit per line further reduces write-back traffic
 - » Must handle 0, 1, or 2 accesses to memory for each load/store

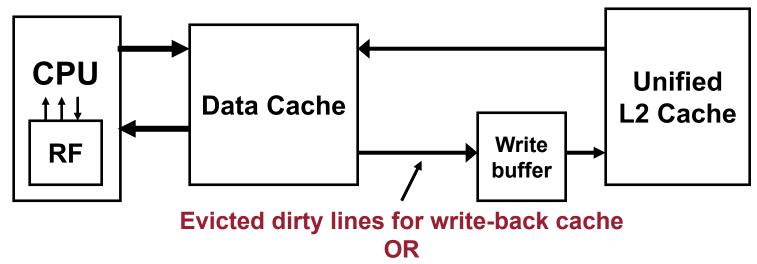
Cache miss:

- Wo-write-allocate: Only write to main memory
- Write-allocate (aka fetch-on-write): Fetch into cache

Common combinations:

- Write-through and no-write-allocate
- Write-back with write-allocate

Write Buffer to Reduce Read Miss Penalty

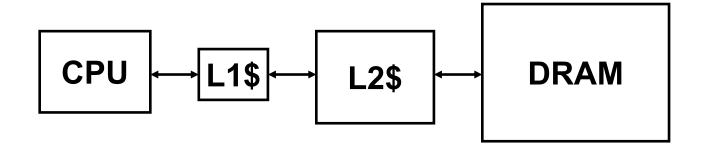


All writes in write-through cache

- Processor is not stalled on writes, and read misses can go ahead of write to main memory
- Problem: Write buffer may hold updated value of location needed by a read miss
- Simple solution: on a read miss, wait for the write buffer to go empty
- Faster solution: Check write buffer addresses against read miss addresses, if no match, allow read miss to go ahead of writes, else, return value in write buffer

Multilevel Caches

- Problem: A memory cannot be large and fast
- Solution: Increasing sizes of cache at each level

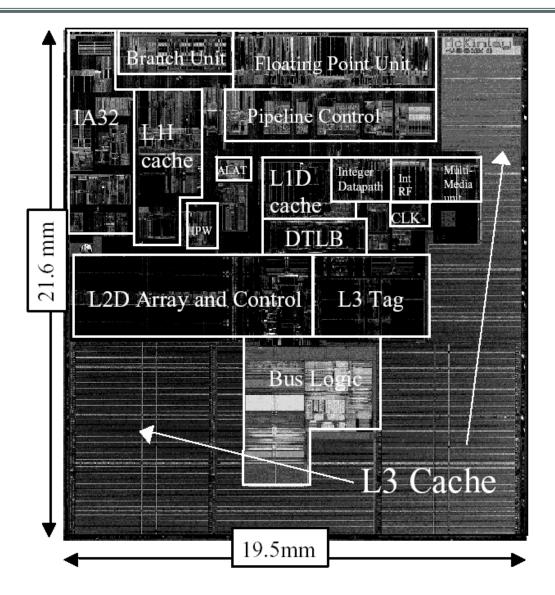


Local miss rate = misses in cache / accesses to cache

Global miss rate = misses in cache / CPU memory accesses

Misses per instruction = misses in cache / number of instructions

Itanium-2 On-Chip Caches (Intel/HP, 2002)



Level 1: 16KB, 4-way s.a., 64B line, quad-port (2 load+2 store), single cycle latency

Level 2: 256KB, 4-way s.a, 128B line, quad-port (4 load or 4 store), five cycle latency

Level 3: 3MB, 12-way s.a., 128B line, single 32B port, twelve cycle latency

Power 7 On-Chip Caches [IBM 2009]

