Memory Hierarchy

Computer Organization and Assembly Languages Yung-Yu Chuang 2006/01/05

with slides by CMU15-213

Announcement



- Grade for hw#4 is online
- Please DO submit homework if you haven't
- Please sign up a demo time on 1/16 or 1/17 at the following page

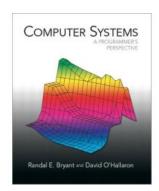
http://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~b90095/index.cgi/Assembly_Demo

- Hand in your report to TA at your demo time
- The length of report depends on your project type. It can be html, pdf, doc, ppt...

Reference



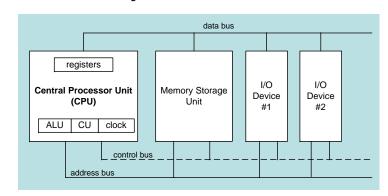
• Chapter 6 from "Computer System: A Programmer's Perspective"



Computer system model



 We assume memory is a linear array which holds both instruction and data, and CPU can access memory in a constant time.



SRAM vs DRAM

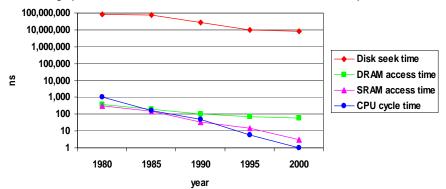


			Needs refresh?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	100X	cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

The CPU-Memory gap



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



	register	cache	memory	disk
Access time	1	1-10	50-100	20,000,000
(cycles)				

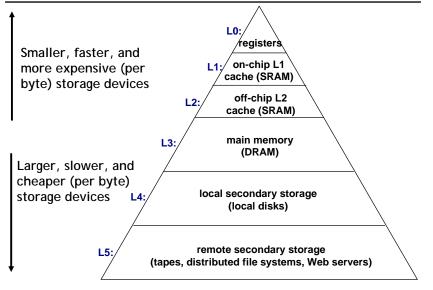
Memory hierarchies



- 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.
- They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a memory hierarchy.

Memory system in practice





Why it works?



- Most programs tend to access the storage at any particular level more frequently than the storage at the lower level.
- Locality: tend to access the same set of data items over and over again or tend to access sets of nearby data items.

Why learn it?



- A programmer needs to understand this because the memory hierarchy has a big impact on performance.
- You can optimize your program so that its data is more frequently stored in the higher level of the hierarchy.
- For example, the difference of running time for matrix multiplication could up to a factor of 6 even if the same amount of arithmetic instructions are performed.

Locality



- Principle of Locality: programs tend to reuse data and instructions near those they have used recently, or that were recently referenced themselves.
 - Temporal locality: recently referenced items are likely to be referenced in the near future.
 - Spatial locality: items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time.
- In general, programs with good locality run faster then programs with poor locality
- Locality is the reason why cache and virtual memory are designed in architecture and operating system. Another example is web browser caches recently visited webpages.

Locality example



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

Data

- Reference array elements in succession (stride-1 reference pattern): Spatial locality
- Reference sum each iteration: Temporal locality

Instructions

- Reference instructions in sequence: Spatial locality
- Cycle through loop repeatedly: Temporal locality

Locality example



 Being able to look at code and get a qualitative sense of its locality is important. Does this function have good locality?

```
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;
} stride-1 reference pattern</pre>
```

Locality example



```
• Does this function have good locality?

int sum_array_cols(int a[M][N])
{
  int i, j, sum = 0;
  for (j = 0; j < N; j++)</pre>
```

for (i = 0; i < M; i++)

sum += a[i][j];

Locality example



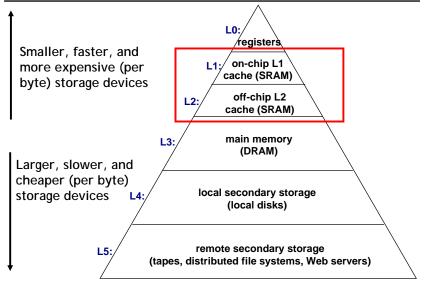
```
typedef struct {
                              for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
  float v[3];
                                for (j=0; j<3; j++)
  float a[3];
                                  p[i].v[j]=0;
} point ;
                                for (j=0; j<3; j++)
point p[N];
                                  p[i].a[j]=0;
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
                          for (j=0; j<3; j++) {
 for (j=0; j<3; j++) {
                            for (i=0; i<n; i++)
   p[i].v[j]=0;
                                 p[i].v[j]=0;
   p[i].a[j]=0;
                               for (i=0; i<n; i++)
                                  p[i].a[j]=0;
```

Memory hierarchies

return sum:

} stride-N reference pattern





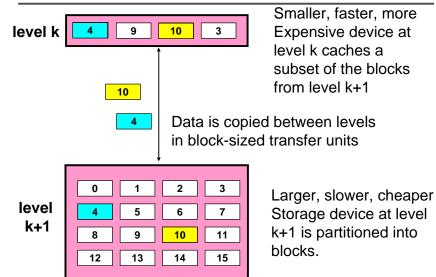
Caches



- 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?
 - 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.

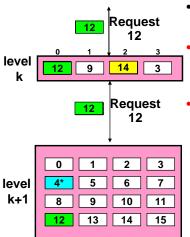
Caching in a memory hierarchy





General caching concepts





- Program needs object d, which is stored in some block b.
- Cache hit
 - Program finds b in the cache at level k. E.g., block 14.
- Cache miss
 - b is not at level k, so level k cache must fetch it from level k+1.
 E.g., block 12.
 - If level k cache is full, then some current block must be replaced (evicted). Which one is the "victim"?
 - Placement policy: where can the new block go? E.g., b mod 4
 - Replacement policy: which block should be evicted? E.g., LRU

Type of cache misses

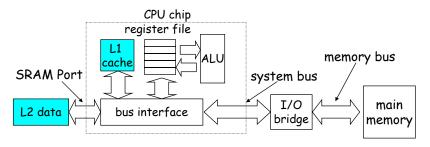


- Cold (compulsory) miss: occurs because the cache is empty.
- Capacity miss: occurs when the active cache blocks (working set) is larger than the cache.
- · Conflict miss
 - Most caches limit blocks at level k+1 to a small subset of the block positions at level k, e.g. block i at level k+1 must be placed in block (i mod 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, ... would miss every time.

Cache memories

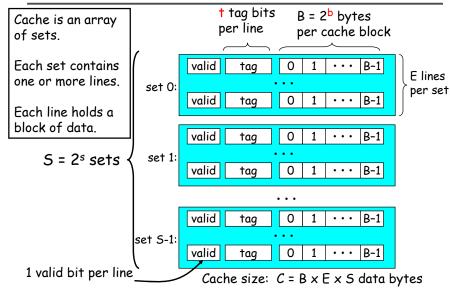


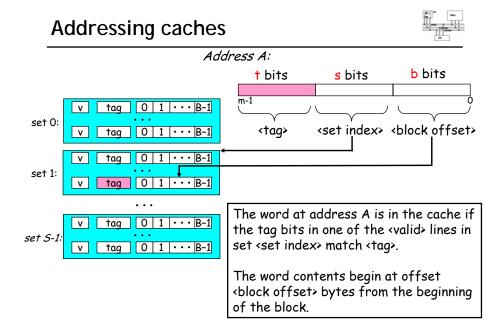
- Cache memories are small, fast SRAM-based memories managed automatically in hardware.
- CPU looks first for data in L1, then in L2, then in main memory.
- Typical system structure:

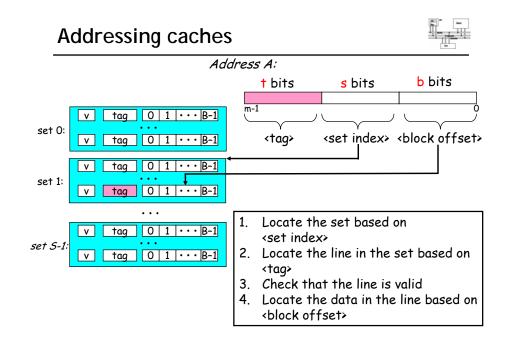


General organization of a cache





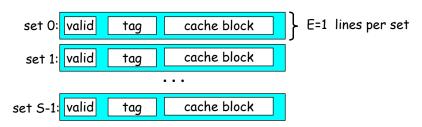




Direct-mapped cache



- Simplest kind of cache, easy to build (only 1 tag compare required per access)
- Characterized by exactly one line per set.

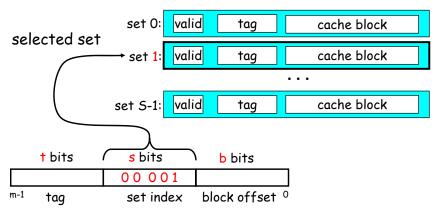


Cache size: $C = B \times S$ data bytes

Accessing direct-mapped caches



- Set selection
 - Use the set index bits to determine the set of interest.



Accessing direct-mapped caches

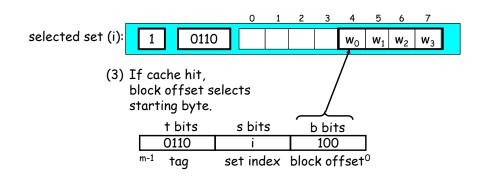


- Line matching and word selection
 - Line matching: Find a valid line in the selected set with a matching tag
- Word selection: Then extract the word =1? (1) The valid bit must be set selected set (i): 0110 $|\mathbf{w}_1| \mathbf{w}_2 |\mathbf{w}_3|$ (2) The tag bits in the cache line must If (1) and (2), then cache hit = 2 match the tag bits in the address t bits s bits b bits tag set index block offset0

Accessing direct-mapped caches



- Line matching and word selection
 - Line matching: Find a valid line in the selected set with a matching tag
 - Word selection: Then extract the word



Direct-mapped cache simulation



M=16 byte addresses, B=2 bytes/block, S=4 sets, E=1 entry/set

t=1 s=2 b=1

Address trace (reads):

	(,)	
0	[0000 ₂],	miss
1	[0001 ₂],	hit
7	[0111 ₂],	miss
8	[1000 ₂],	miss
0	[0000]	miss

٧	tag	data
1	0	M[0-1]
1	0	M[6-7]

What's wrong with direct-mapped?



```
float dotprod(float x[8], y[8]) {
  float sum=0.0;
  for (int i=0; i<8; i++)
    sum+= x[i]*y[i];
  return sum;</pre>
```

block size=16 bytes

element	address	set	element	address	set
x[0]	0	0	y[0]	32	0
x[1]	4	0	y[1]	36	0
x[2]	8	0	y[2]	40	0
x[3]	12	0	y[3]	44	0
x[4]	16	1	y[4]	48	1
x[5]	20	1	y[5]	52	1
x[6]	24	1	y[6]	56	1
x[7]	28	1	y[7]	60	1

Solution? padding



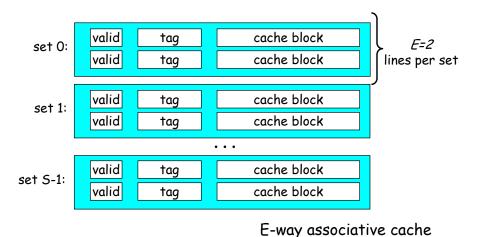
```
float dotprod(float x[12], y[8]) {
  float sum=0.0;
  for (int i=0; i<8; i++)
    sum+= x[i]*y[i];
  return sum;</pre>
```

}ı						
Վ	element	address	set	element	Address	set
	x[0]	0	0	y[0]	48	1
	x[1]	4	0	y[1]	52	1
	x[2]	8	0	y[2]	56	1
	x[3]	12	0	y[3]	60	1
	x[4]	16	1	y[4]	64	0
	x[5]	20	1	y[5]	68	0
	x[6]	24	1	y[6]	72	0
	x[7]	28	1	y[7]	76	0

Set associative caches



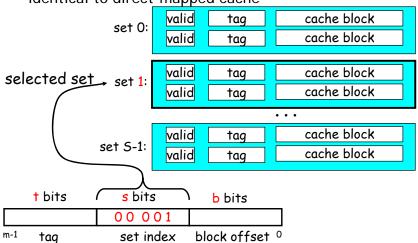
Characterized by more than one line per set



Accessing set associative caches



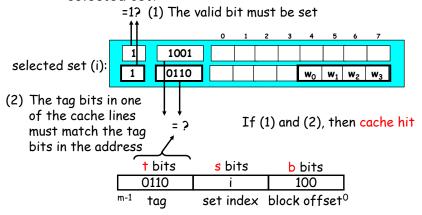
- Set selection
 - identical to direct-mapped cache



Accessing set associative caches



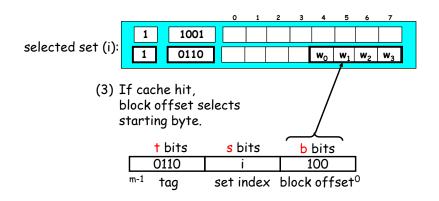
- Line matching and word selection
 - must compare the tag in each valid line in the selected set.



Accessing set associative caches



- Line matching and word selection
 - Word selection is the same as in a direct mapped cache



2-Way associative cache simulation



M=16 byte addresses, B=2 bytes/block, =2 s=1 b=1 S=2 sets, E=2 entry/set

t=2 s=1 b=1

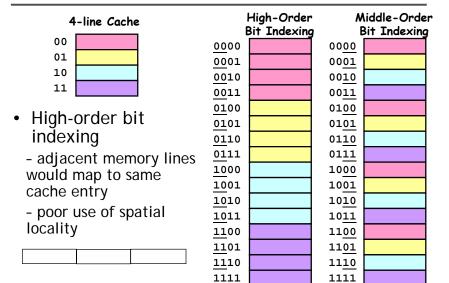
Address trace (reads):

0	[0000 ₂],	miss
1	[0001 ₂],	hit
7	[0111 ₂],	miss
8	[1000 ₂],	miss
0	[0000 -]	hit

٧	tag	data
1	00	M[0-1]
1	10	M[8-9]
1	01	M[6-7]
0		

Why use middle bits as index?





What about writes?

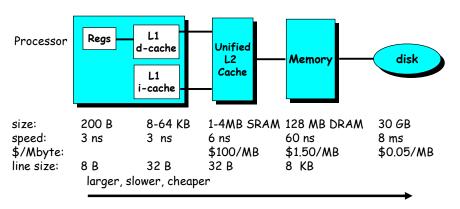


- Multiple copies of data exist:
 - L1
 - L2
 - Main Memory
 - Disk
- What to do when we write?
 - Write-through
 - Write-back (need a dirty bit)
- What to do on a replacement?
 - Depends on whether it is write through or write back

Multi-level caches

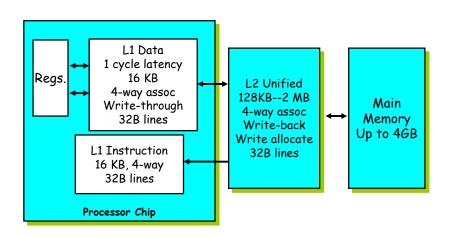


 Options: separate data and instruction caches, or a unified cache



Intel Pentium III cache hierarchy





Writing cache friendly code



- Repeated references to variables are good (temporal locality)
- •Stride-1 reference are good (spatial locality)
- Examples: cold cache, 4-byte words, 4-word cache blocks

```
int sum_array_rows(int a[4][8])
{
  int i, j, sum = 0;

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

```
int sum_array_cols(int a[4][8])
{
  int i, j, sum = 0;

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

Miss rate = 1/4 = 25%

Miss rate = 100%

The memory mountain



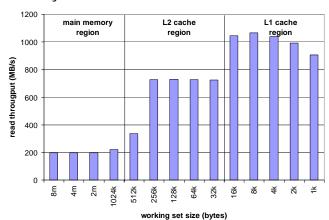
- Read throughput: number of bytes read from memory per second (MB/s)
- Memory mountain
 - Measured read throughput as a function of spatial and temporal locality.
 - Compact way to characterize memory system performance.

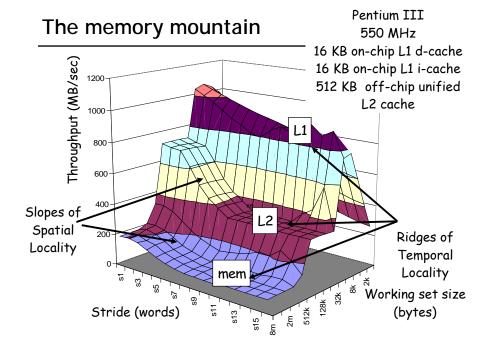
```
void test(int elems, int stride) {
   int i, result = 0;
   volatile int sink;
   for (i = 0; i < elems; i += stride)
      result += data[i];
   /* So compiler doesn't optimize away the loop */
   sink = result;
}</pre>
```

Ridges of temporal locality



- Slice through the memory mountain (stride=1)
 - illuminates read throughputs of different caches and memory

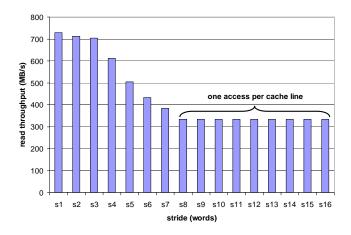




A slope of spatial locality



- Slice through memory mountain (size=256KB)
 - shows cache block size.



Matrix multiplication example



Variable sum

held in reaister

- · Major cache effects to consider
 - Total cache size
 - Exploit temporal locality and keep the working set small (e.g., use blocking)

/* ijk */

for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<n; j++) {

sum = 0.0;

for (k=0; k< n; k++)

c[i][j] = sum;

sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];

- Block size
- Exploit spatial locality
- Description:
- Multiply N x N matrices
- O(N3) total operations
- Accesses
- N reads per source element
- N values summed per destination
- but may be able to hold in register

Miss rate analysis for matrix multiply



- Assume:
 - Line size = 32B (big enough for four 64-bit words)
 - Matrix dimension (N) is very large
 - Approximate 1/N as 0.0
 - Cache is not even big enough to hold multiple rows
- Analysis method:
 - Look at access pattern of inner loop







Matrix multiplication (ijk)



```
/* ijk */
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
  for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
    sum = 0.0;
    for (k=0; k<n; k++)
        sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
    c[i][j] = sum;
  }
}</pre>
```

```
Inner loop:

(i,*) = \begin{bmatrix} (*,j) \\ (i,j) \end{bmatrix}
A = B = C
A = A
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C = A
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```

Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

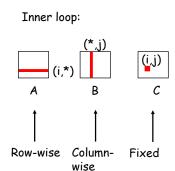
<u>A</u> <u>B</u> 0.25 1.0

<u>C</u>

Matrix multiplication (jik)



```
/* jik */
for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
  for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
    sum = 0.0;
    for (k=0; k< n; k++)
      sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
    c[i][j] = sum
```



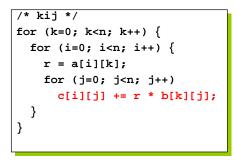
Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

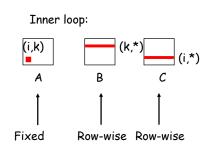
<u>B</u> 1.0 0.0 0.25

0.25

Matrix multiplication (kij)





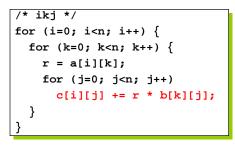


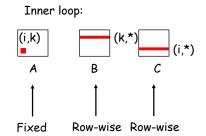
Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

0.0 0.25

Matrix multiplication (ikj)





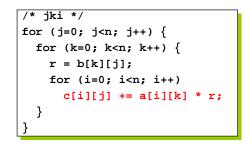


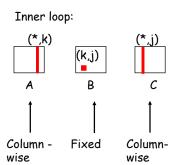
Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

0.0 0.25 0.25

Matrix multiplication (jki)





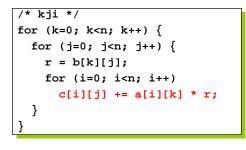


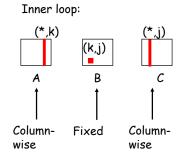
Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

0.0 1.0 1.0

Matrix multiplication (kji)







Misses per Inner Loop Iteration:

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>
1.0	0.0	1.0

Summary of matrix multiplication



```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
  sum = 0.0;
  for (k=0; k<n; k++)
    sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
  c[i][j] = sum;
for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
 r = a[i][k];
 for (j=0; j<n; j++)
  c[i][j] += r * b[k][j];
for (j=0; j<n; j++) {
for (k=0; k<n; k++) {
  r = b[k][j];
  for (i=0; i<n; i++)
   c[i][j] += a[i][k] * r;
```

ijk (& jik):

- · 2 loads, 0 stores
- misses/iter = 1.25

kij (& ikj):

- · 2 loads, 1 store
- · misses/iter = 0.5

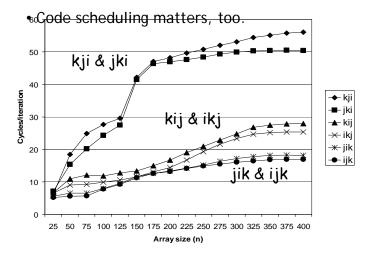
jki (& kji):

- · 2 loads, 1 store
- misses/iter = 2.0

Pentium matrix multiply performance



 Miss rates are helpful but not perfect predictors.



Improving temporal locality by blocking

- Example: Blocked matrix multiplication
 - Here, "block" does not mean "cache block".
 - Instead, it mean a sub-block within the matrix.
 - Example: N = 8; sub-block size = 4

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

Key idea: Sub-blocks (i.e., \mathbf{A}_{xy}) can be treated just like scalars.

$$C_{11} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21}$$
 $C_{12} = A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{22}$
 $C_{21} = A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21}$ $C_{22} = A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22}$

Blocked matrix multiply (bijk)



```
for (jj=0; jj<n; jj+=bsize) {
  for (i=0; i<n; i++)
    for (j=jj; j < min(jj+bsize,n); j++)
      c[i][j] = 0.0;
  for (kk=0; kk<n; kk+=bsize) {
    for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
      for (j=jj; j < min(jj+bsize,n); j++) {
         sum = 0.0
         for (k=kk; k < min(kk+bsize,n); k++) {
            sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];
         }
      c[i][j] += sum;
    }
  }
}</pre>
```

Blocked matrix multiply analysis



- Innermost loop pair multiplies a 1 X bsize sliver of A by a bsize X bsize block of B and accumulates into 1 X bsize sliver of C
- Loop over i steps through n row slivers of A & C, using same B

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {

for (j=jj; j < min(jj+bsize,n); j++) {

sum = 0.0

for (k=kk; k < min(kk+bsize,n); k++) {

sum += a[i][k] * b[k][j];

}

c[i][j] += sum;

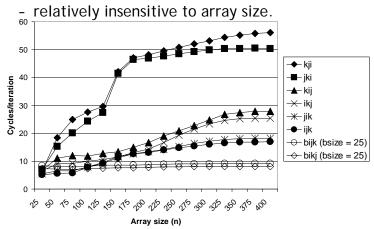
A

Update successive elements of sliver times in succession
```

Blocked matrix multiply performance



 Blocking (bijk and bikj) improves performance by a factor of two over unblocked versions (ijk and jik)



Concluding observations



- Programmer can optimize for cache performance
 - How data structures are organized
 - How data are accessed
 - Nested loop structure
 - Blocking is a general technique
- All systems favor "cache friendly code"
 - Getting absolute optimum performance is very platform specific
 - Cache sizes, line sizes, associativities, etc.
 - Can get most of the advantage with generic code
 - Keep working set reasonably small (temporal locality)
 - Use small strides (spatial locality)