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Memory Architecture II

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Lecture Topics

- Cache Memory
 - Direct Mapping
 - N-way Associative Set Mapping
 - Fully Associative Set Mapping

- Dependability
 - Parity Bits
 - Error Correction Code

Cache Memory

- Cache memory is SRAM in the processor that holds:
 - The most frequently used data
 - The most recently accessed data

- Processors will often have several levels of cache memory.
 - Level 1 (L1) Cache smallest, fastest cache
 - Level 2 (L2) Cache larger, slower than the L1 cache
 - Level 3 (L3) Cache larger, slower than the L2 cache
 - And so on...

Cache Memory

- Cache memory holds copies of data from main memory in units called blocks
 - Each block has a fixed size of bytes

- For example, a cache memory could have 512 blocks that each store 128 bytes
 - $2^9 \ blocks \times 2^7 \frac{bytes}{block} = 2^{16} \ bytes = 64KiB$

 In a direct mapped cache, each block of main memory is mapped to a block in cache memory.

 Main memory is much larger than the cache, so multiple blocks of main memory will map to the same block in the cache

 To calculate the cache block that corresponds to a main memory block:

$$M_b \mod B_c$$

- Where M_b is the block number of main memory block
- Where B_c is the total number of blocks in in the cache

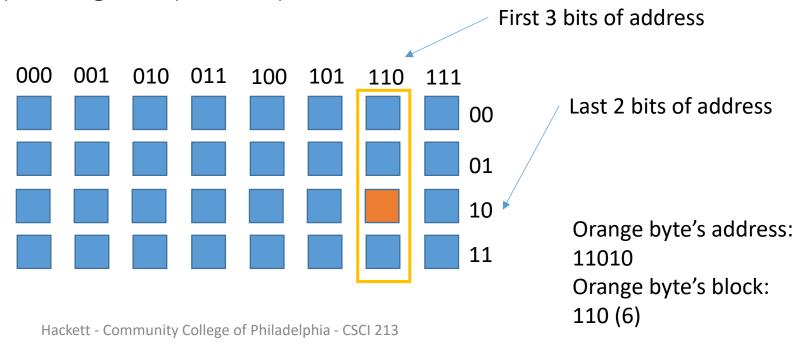
- When a word is to be read/accessed from main memory, the CPU first checks the cache to see if the block that contains the word is already in the cache.
 - If so, it simply obtains that data (Cache Hit)
 - If not, then the block is copied from main memory to its appropriate cache block (Cache Miss)

- When a word is to be stored to main memory, the CPU first checks the cache to see if that main memory address is already mapped in the cache.
 - If so, it simply stores that value in that block of the cache
 - If not, then the main memory block is copied to its appropriate cache block. The word is then written to that cache block.

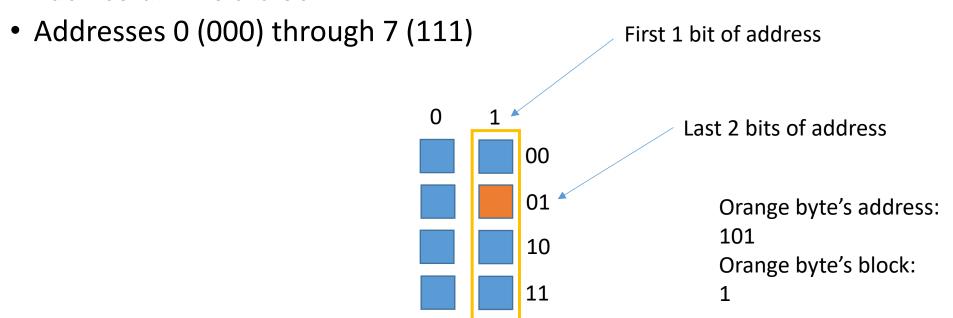
- Either way, the data in the updated cache block must be copied back to main memory
 - Can be accomplished in one of two ways

- One way is that whenever a write operation occurs, the new data in the cache is written back to its corresponding address in main memory
- Another way is the cache stores a dirty bit (or valid bit) for each cache block
 - When the content of the block is changed, the valid bit is set to 1
 - When a new main memory block is to be copied to cache, the valid bit of the corresponding cache block is checked.
 - If 1, it writes the cache block to its corresponding main memory block, then loads the new main memory block (and resets the valid bit to 0)

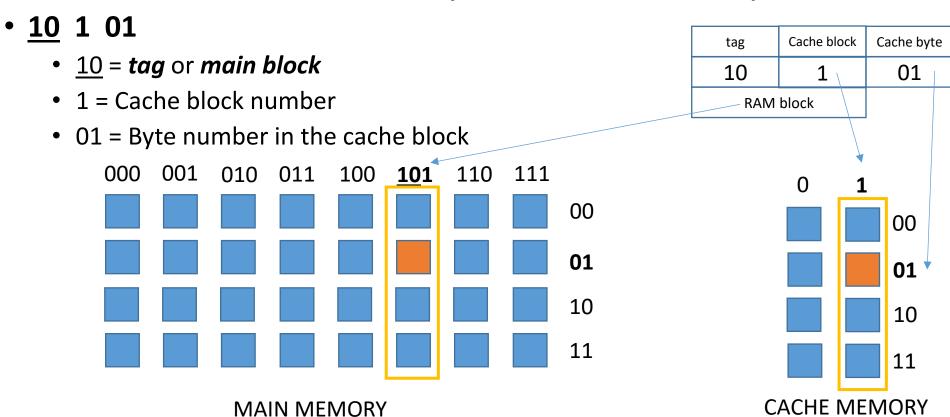
- For illustration, here is a system with 32 bytes of main memory
 - Each square represents one byte
 - Each column is a block
 - Addresses 0 (00000) through 31 (111111)



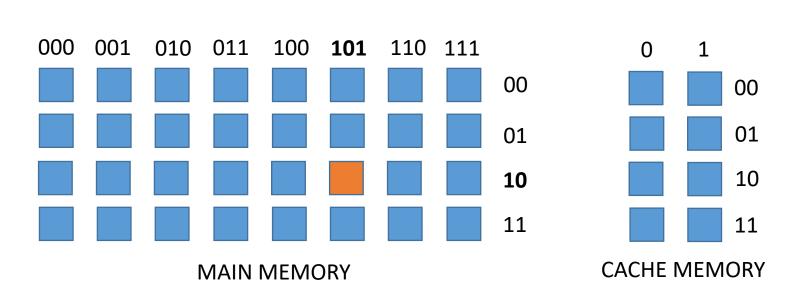
- We'll consider a simple CPU that has 16 bytes of cache memory
 - Each square represents one byte
 - Each column is a block



• Let's see how the main memory address 10101 maps to the cache

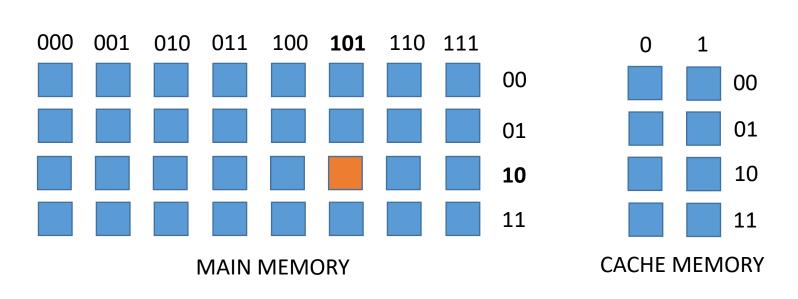


- The CPU is instructed to read the byte at address 10110 from main memory
 - The orange byte below



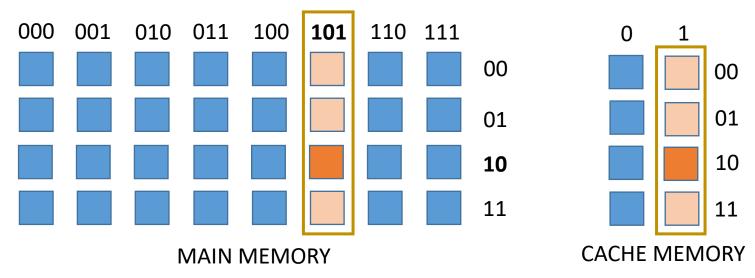
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
	1 00	
	1 01	
	1 10	
	1 11	

- First the CPU checks if the value is in the cache
 - 10 1 10
 - Not present (cache miss)



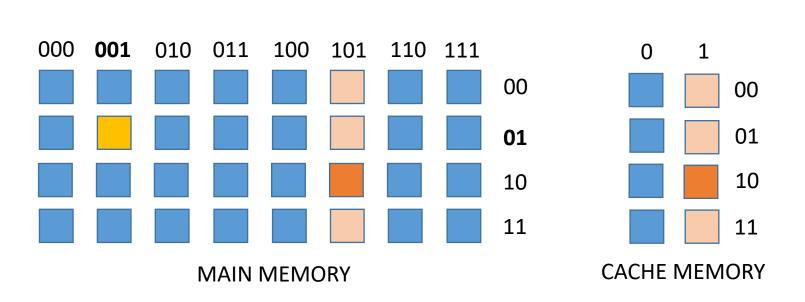
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
	1 00	
	1 01	
	1 10	
	1 11	

- The block (block 5) is loaded into cache
 - 10 1 00
 - 10 1 01
 - 10 1 10
 - 10 1 11



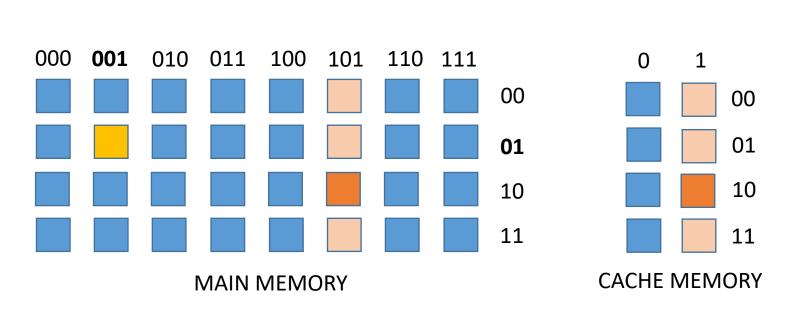
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
10	1 00	<u> </u>
10	1 01	10101
10	1 10	10110
10	1 11	10111

- The CPU is instructed to read the byte at address 00101 from main memory
 - The yellow byte below



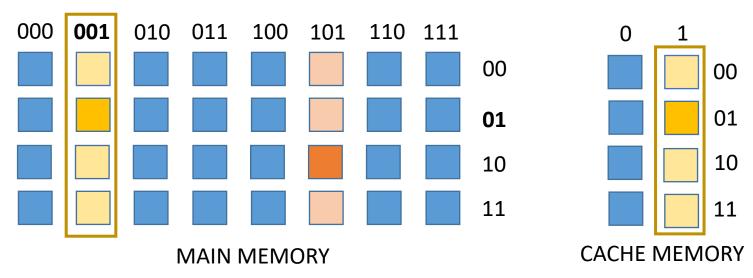
Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
10	1 00	10100
10	1 01	10101
10	1 10	10110
10	1 11	10111

- First the CPU checks if the value is in the cache
 - 00 1 01
 - Data in cache address 101, but wrong tag (cache miss)



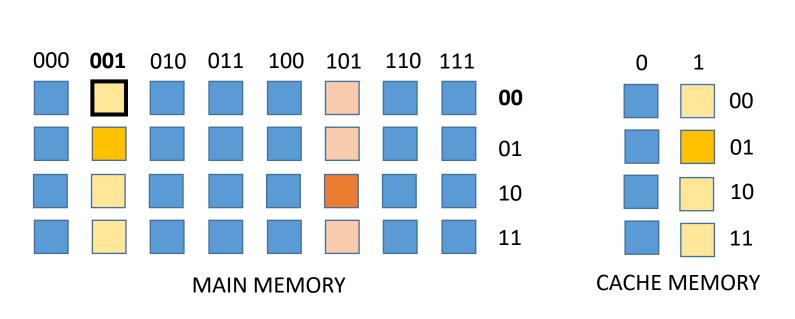
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
10	1 00	10100
10	1 01	10101
10	1 10	10110
10	1 11	1 0111

- The block (block 1) is loaded into cache
 - 00 1 00
 - 00 1 01
 - 00 1 10
 - 00 1 11



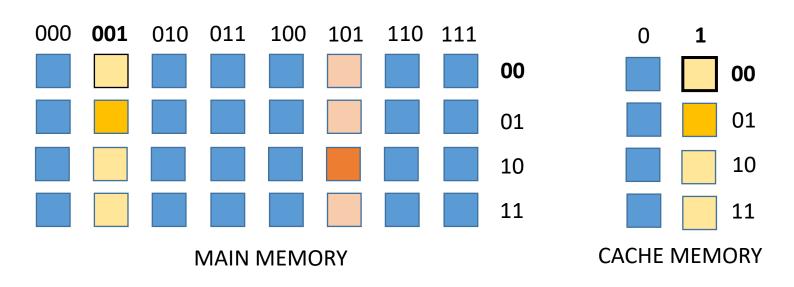
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	00100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	00110
00	1 11	00111

 The CPU is instructed to read the byte at address 00100 from main memory



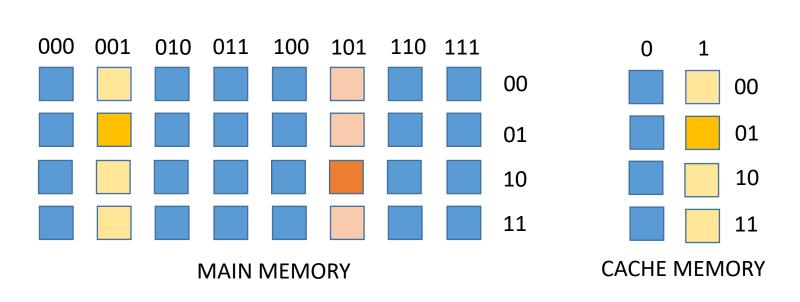
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	00100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	<pre>00110</pre>
00	1 11	00111

- First the CPU checks if the value is in the cache
 - 00 1 00
 - Data in cache address 100 with correct tag (cache hit)
 - Does not retrieve from main memory



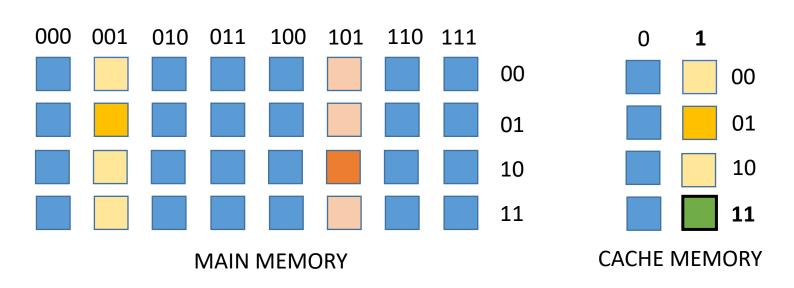
Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	00100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	O0110
00	1 11	00111

- The CPU is instructed to store a byte to address 00111 in main memory
 - Will be represented as



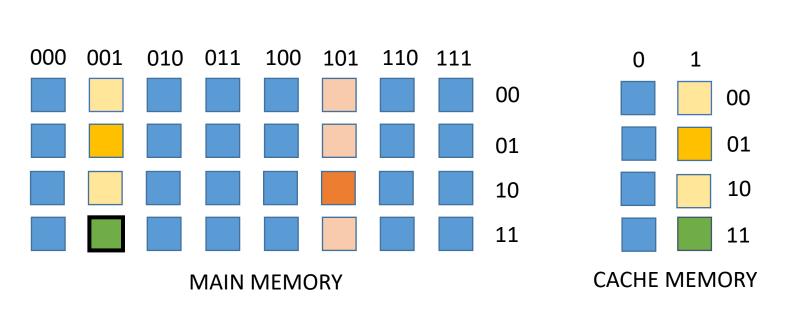
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	00100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	00110
00	1 11	00111

- The CPU writes the value to the cache
 - 00 1 11
 - Data in cache address 111 with correct tag (cache hit)
 - Data in cache is updated



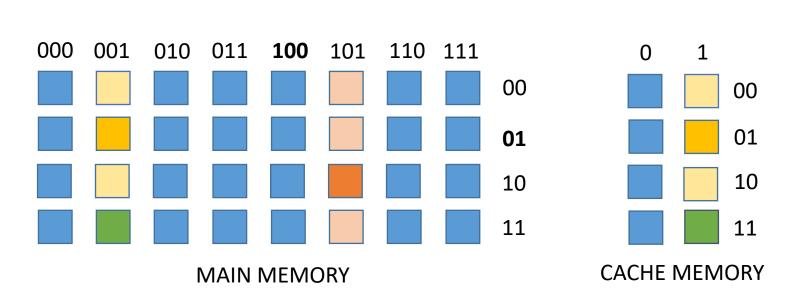
Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	<pre>00100</pre>
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	00110
00	1 11	00111

Data is stored to main memory (or dirty bit is set)



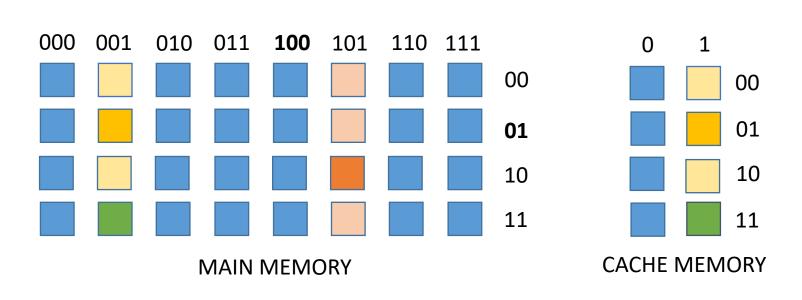
Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	00100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	<pre>00110</pre>
00	1 11	00111

- The CPU is instructed to store a byte to address 10001 in main memory
 - Will be represented as



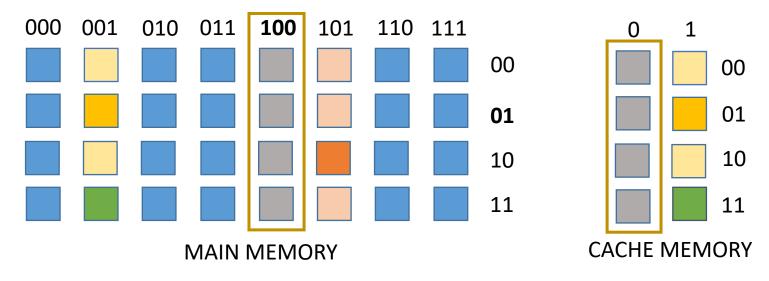
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	<pre>00100</pre>
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	<pre>00110</pre>
00	1 11	00111

- First the CPU checks if the value is in the cache
 - 10 0 01
 - No data in cache address 001 (cache miss)



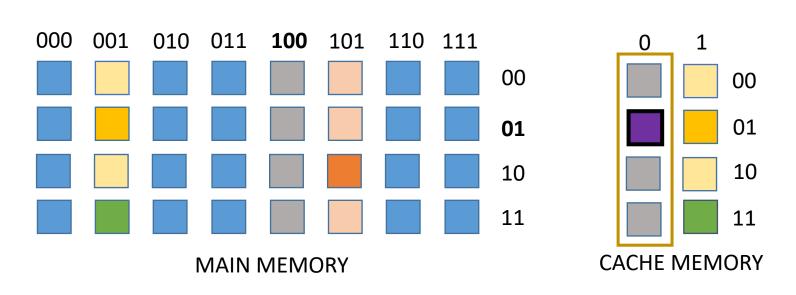
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address
	0 00	
	0 01	
	0 10	
	0 11	
00	1 00	O0100
00	1 01	00101
00	1 10	O0110
00	1 11	00111

- The block (block 4) is loaded into cache
 - 10 0 00
 - 10 0 01
 - 10 0 10
 - 10 0 11



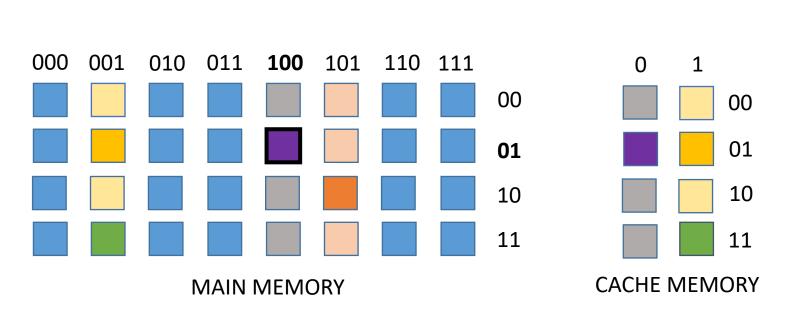
Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address		
10	0 00	10000		
10	0 01	10001		
10	0 10	10010		
10	0 11	10011		
00	1 00	00100		
00	1 01	00101		
00	1 10	<pre>00110</pre>		
00	1 11	00111		

- The CPU writes the value to the cache
 - 10 **0 01**
 - Data in cache is updated



Tag	Cache Address Set Byte	Data/Main Memory Address		
10	0 00	10000		
10	0 01	10001		
10	0 10	10010		
10	0 11	10011		
00	1 00	00100		
00	1 01	00101		
00	1 10	00110		
00	1 11	00111		

Data is stored to main memory (or dirty bit is set)



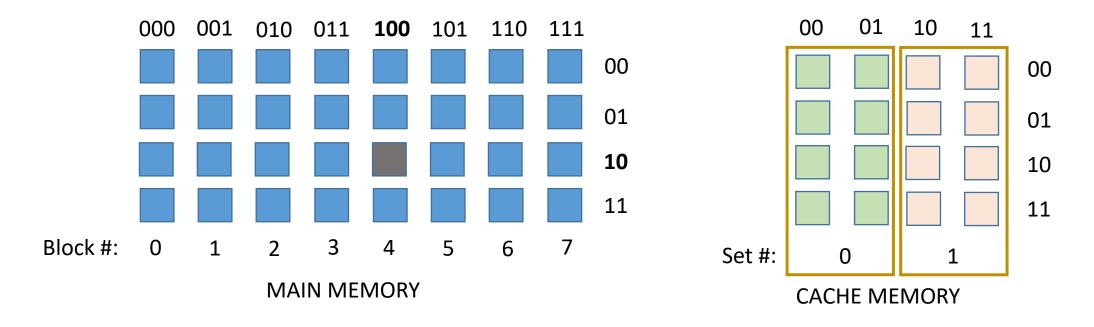
Tag	Cache Address <i>Set Byte</i>	Data/Main Memory Address		
10	0 00	10000		
10	0 01	10001		
10	0 10	10010		
10	0 11	10011		
00	1 00	00100		
00	1 01	00101		
00	1 10	00110		
00	1 11	00111		

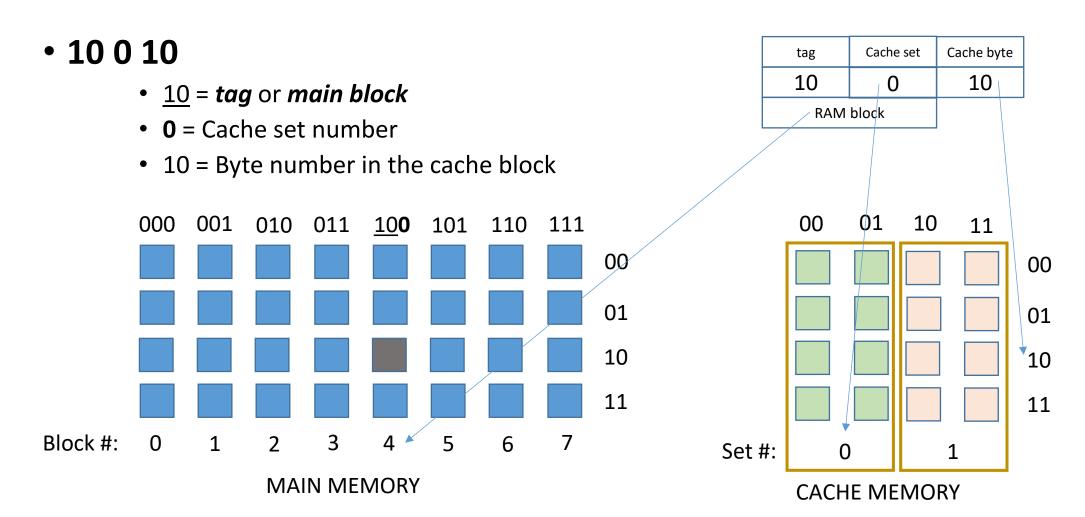
 Each row in the table below represents the read/write operations illustrated on the previous slides

Memory Address	Hit or Miss	Cache Contents							
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10110	M								
00101	M								
00100	Н								
00111	Н								
10001	M								

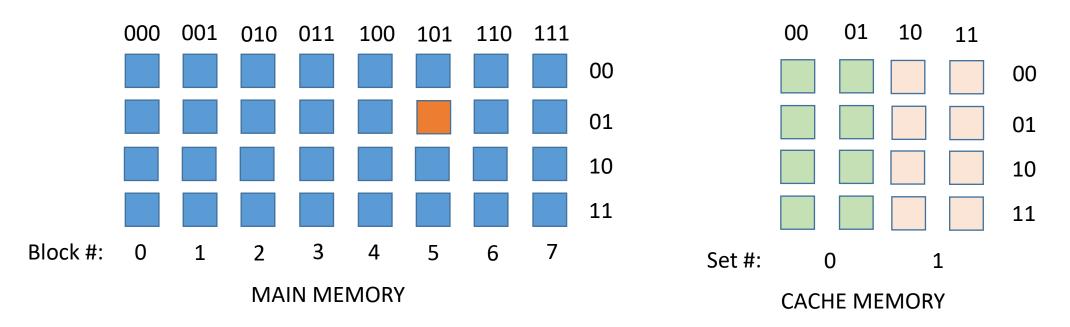
- In an **associative mapped** cache, each block of main memory is mapped to a *set of blocks* in cache memory.
- When a block is copied from RAM to the cache, the block can be stored in any one of the blocks that belong to the set.
- An *n-way set associative cache* indicates that each cache set contains *n* blocks per set.
 - A 3-way set associative cache has three blocks per set
 - A 1-way set associative cache has one block per set
 - A 1-way set associative cache is direct mapping

- 2-way associative cache
- Consider the gray square/byte with the address 10010

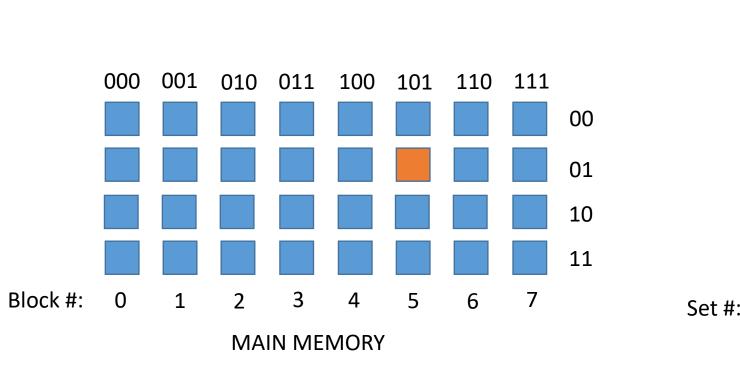


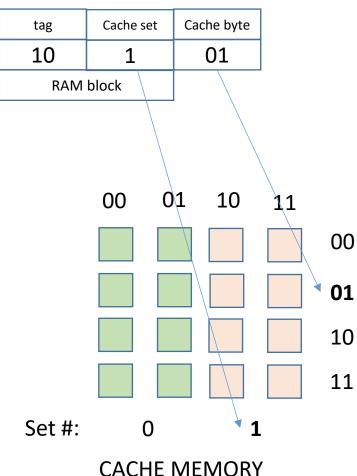


- The CPU is instructed to read the byte at address 10101 from main memory
 - The orange byte below

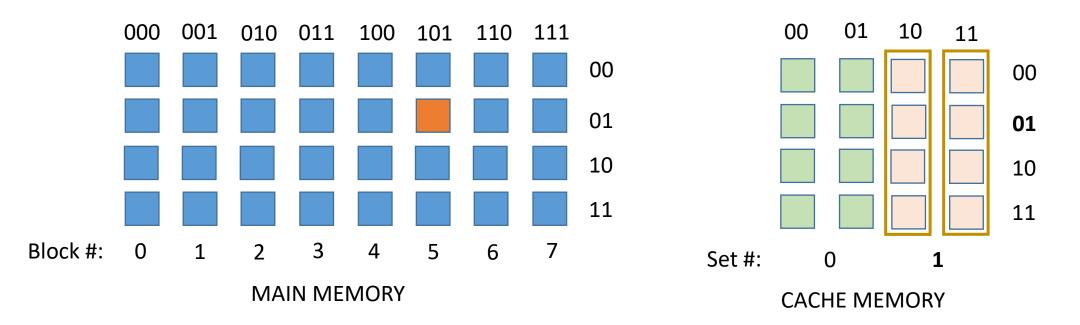


• 10 1 01



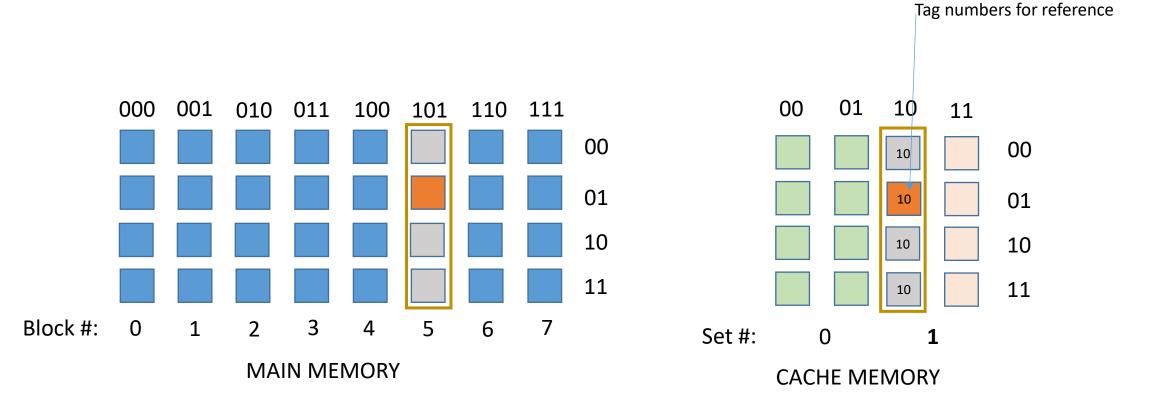


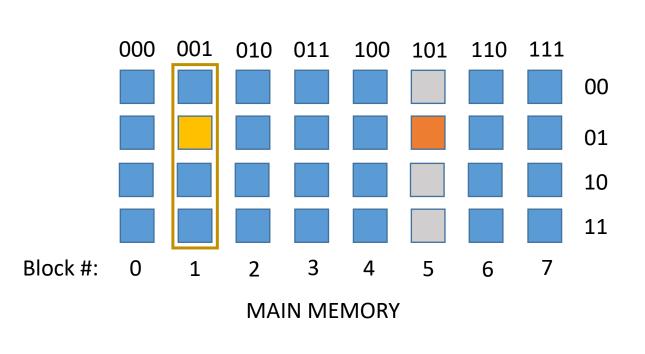
- Within this set, there are two blocks to chose from (blocks 2 and 3).
 - Which block is chosen will depend on the block replacement strategy implemented

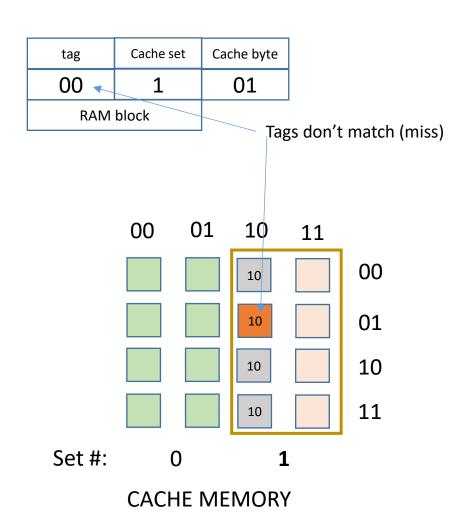


- One such strategy is called Least Recently Used (LRU)
 - The block to be replaced in the set is the block that has been sitting, unused, for the longest time.
- Another block replacement strategy is called First In, First Out (FIFO)
 - The block to be replaced in the set is the block that has been in the cache for the longest time.
- A third strategy is to randomly choose a block for replacement
- Each strategy has their pros and cons
 - No perfect/optimal block replacement strategy

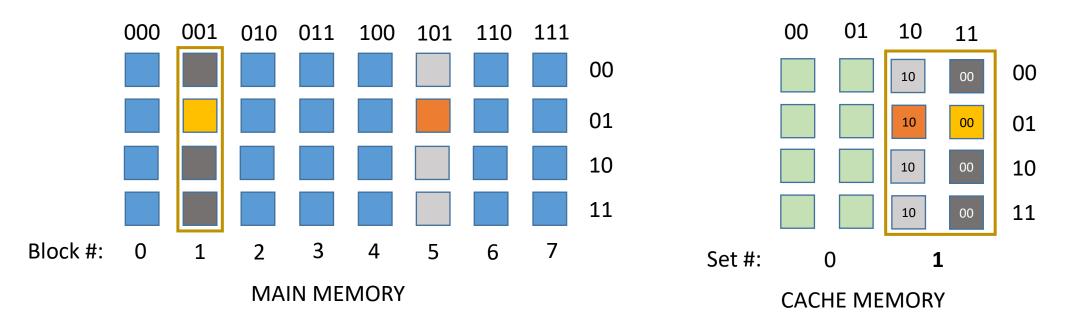
- We'll assume LRU.
 - Block 2 is chosen



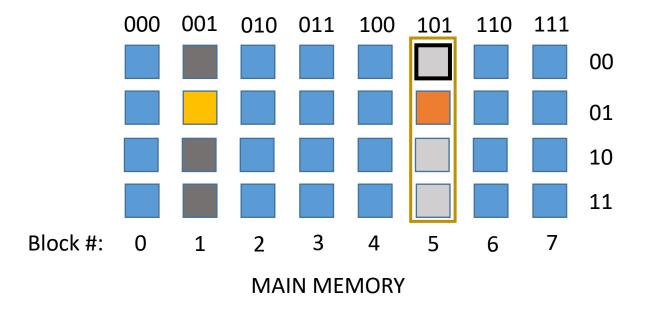


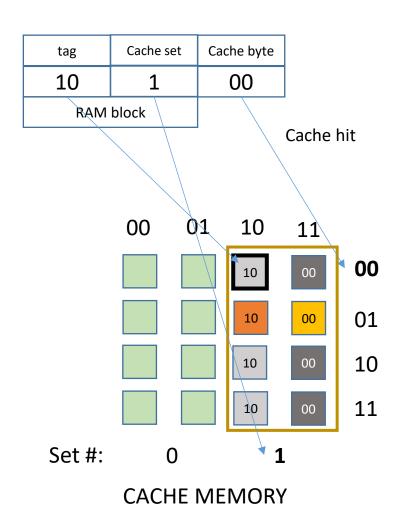


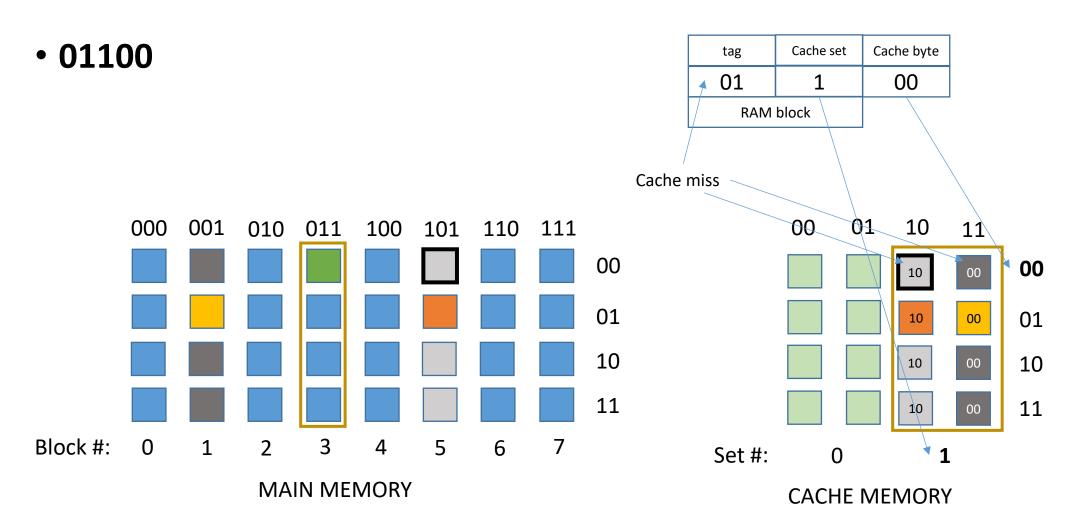
tag	Cache set	Cache byte	
00	1	01	
RAM			



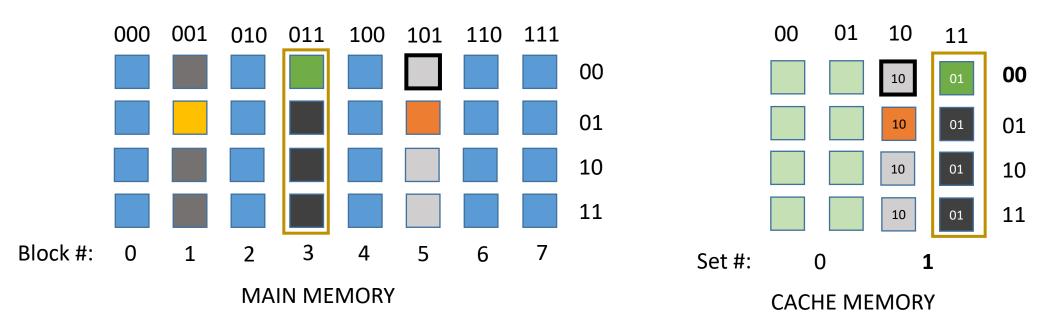
10100







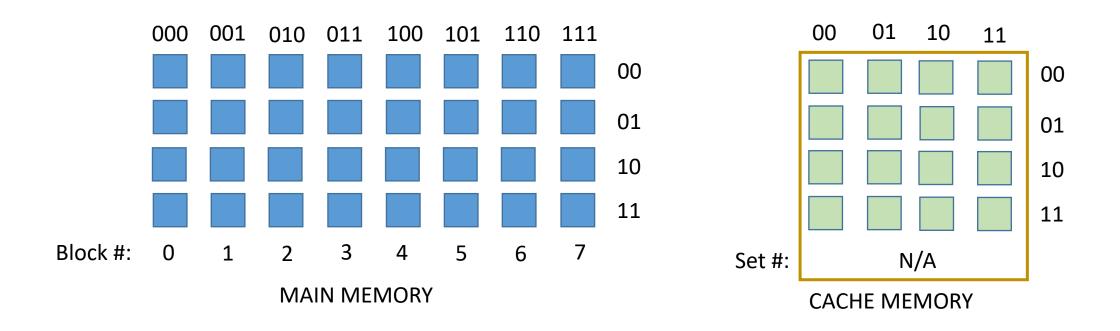
- Since we are using LRU, we will replace block 3 (since we just used block 2)
 - Had we been using FIFO, then block 2 would have been replaced because that has been in the cache longer than the data in block 3

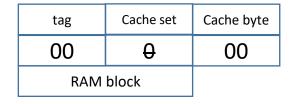


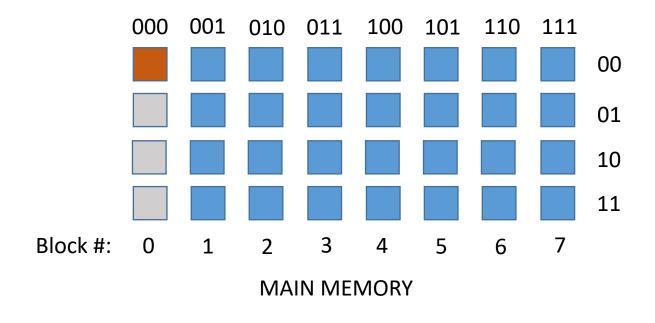
 Each row in the table below represents the read/write operations illustrated on the previous (associative mapping) slides

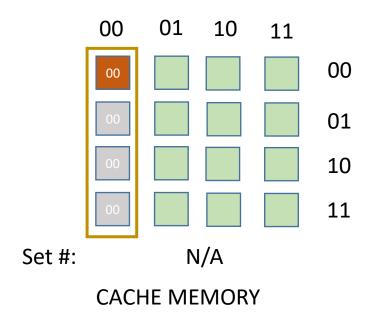
	Memory Address	Hit or Miss	Cache Contents				
			Set 0 (Block 0)	Set 0 (Block 1)	Set 1 (Block 2)	Set 1 (Block 3)	
	10101	M			10 10 10 10		
	00101	M			10 10 10 10	00 00 00	
_	10100	Н			10 10 10 10	00 00 00	
7	01100	M			10 10 10 10	01 01 01 01	

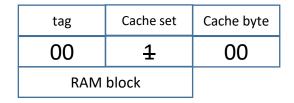
• A **fully associative mapped** cache consists of one set that contains every block of cache memory.

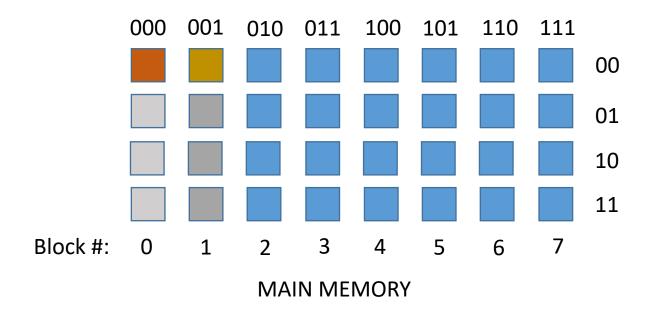


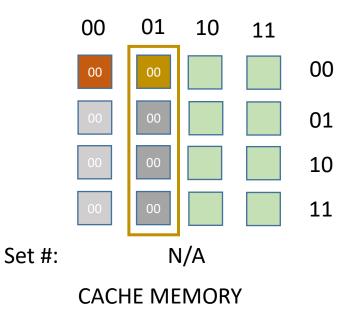


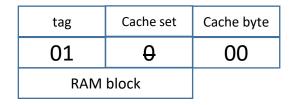


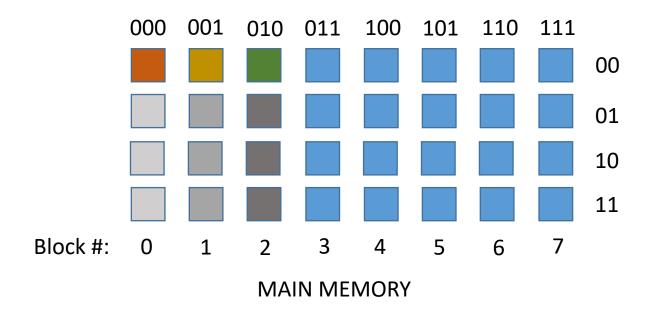


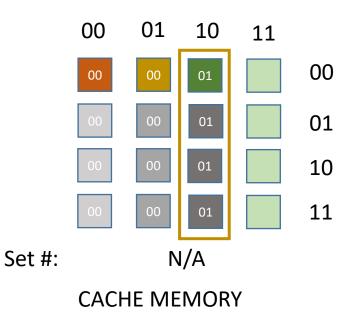


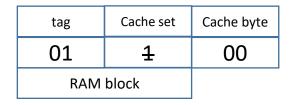


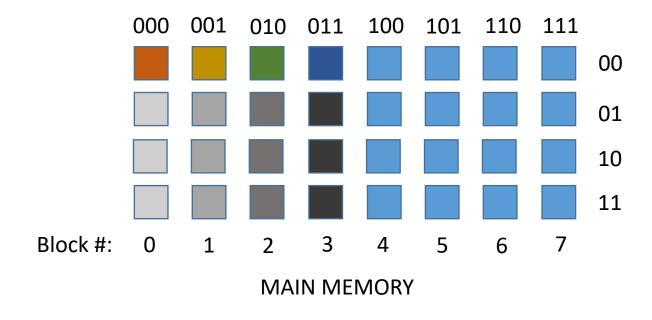


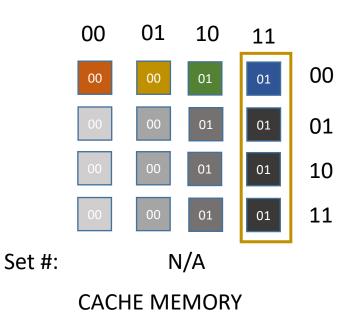










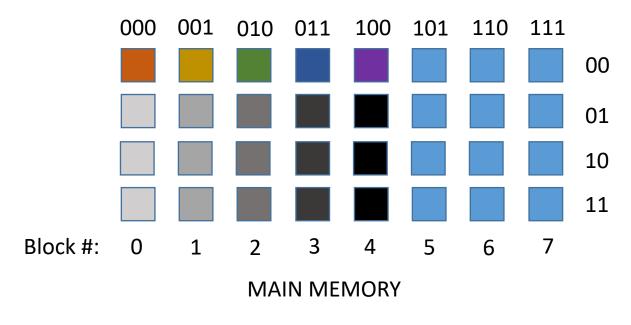


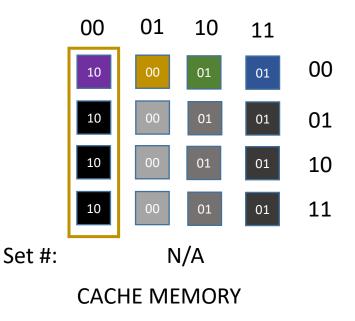
10000

Out of space

tag	Cache set	Cache byte	
10	0	00	
RAM			

• The block to replace (LRU or FIFO in this case) is block 0





 Each row in the table below represents the read/write operations illustrated on the previous (associative mapping) slides

Memory	Hit or Miss	Cache Contents			
Address		Block 0	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3
00000	M	00 00 00 00			
00100	M	00 00 00 00	00 00 00 00		
01000	M	00 00 00 00	00 00 00 00	01 01 01 01	
01100	M	00 00 00 00	00 00 00 00	01 01 01 01	01 01 01 01
10000	M	10 10 10 10	00 00 00 00	01 01 01 01	01 01 01 01

- A device (such as a hard drive) alternates between two states of service
- Service Accomplishment
 - The device is working (delivering service) as designed
- Service Interruption
 - The device is not working (not delivering service) as designed
- A failure causes the device to go from Service Accomplishment to Service Interruption
- A restoration causes the device to go from Service Interruption to Service Accomplishment

- The measure of continuous, uninterrupted Service
 Accomplishment until the device experiences a failure its
 reliability
 - Two such measures of reliability are:
 - Mean Time to Failure (MTTF)
 - The average time it takes until a device fails
 - Annual Failure Rate (AFR)
 - The percentage of devices expected to fail in a year within a given MTTF

- As an example, we'll say a server farm has 25,000 servers.
 - Each server has 3 hard disks (all the same model)
 - $3 \times 25000 = 75000 \ disks$
 - The MTTF of these disks are said to be 1,000,000 hours

One year =
$$365 \ days \times 24 \frac{hours}{day} = 8760 \ hours$$

$$AFR = \frac{8760 \ hours}{1000000 \ hours} = .00876 = .876\%$$

The AFR of each disk is 0.876%

$$75000 \ disks \times .00876 = 657$$

- 657 disks are expected to fail annually
 - $\frac{657 \text{ disks}}{365 \text{ days}} = 1.8 \sim 2 \text{ disks per day}$

- Service Interruption is measured by Mean Time to Repair (MTTR)
- The Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF) is the sum of the MTTF and MTTR
- Availability is the measure of Service Accomplishment (MTTF) with respect to the alternation between Service Accomplishment and Service Interruption (MTBF)

$$Availability = \frac{MTTF}{(MTTF + MTTR)}$$

- Using the previous example, we'll say MTTR for each disk in the server farm is 2 hours.
 - Each server has 3 hard disks (all the same model)
 - $3 \times 25000 = 75000 \ disks$
 - The MTTF of these disks are said to be 1,000,000 hours
 - 657 disks are expected to fail annually (calculated on a previous slide)

$$Availability = \frac{1000000 \ hours}{(1000000 \ hours + (2 \ hours \times 657 \ disks))} \sim .9986 \sim 99.86\%$$

 MTTF can be increased through improving the quality of components or designing them to continue operating in the event of failures

Fault avoidance

Preventing faults in the design of the device/components

Fault tolerance

Using redundancy to continue functioning in the event of faults

Fault forecasting

• Predicting faults so that devices/components may be replaced before a fault occurs

Parity Bits

- Parity bits are used as a way of validating that binary data makes it from source to destination intact.
 - A type of error detection code
- Before a binary word is sent through the system's data path (we'll use 8-bit words for this example), the total number of 1's in the word are counted.
 - If there are an even number of 1's, a 0 is appended to the number
 - If there are an odd number of 1's, a 1 is appended to the number
 - Either way, parity bits ensure an even number of 1's in the n+1 bit word.
 - If the received binary word (plus the parity bit) contain an odd number of 1's, it indicates there was a problem with the integrity of the data, and the word should be re-sent.

Parity Bits

• 01101100

• Even number of 1's

• **0**01101100 Parity bit

- 01001100
 - Odd number of 1's
 - **1**01001100 Parity bit

Bit gets corrupted in transit

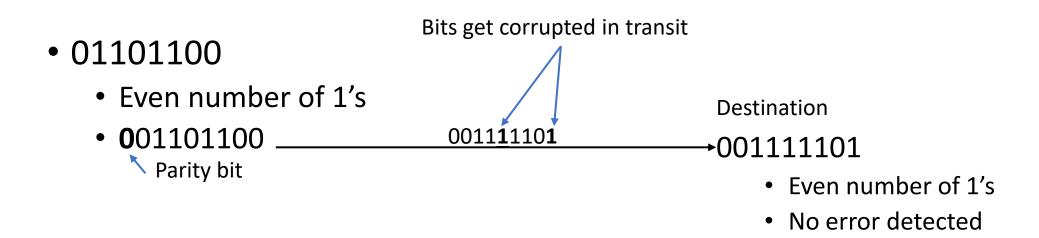
Destination $0011\underline{1}1100$ 001111100

- Not an even number of 1's
- Data must have been corrupted.

Parity Bits

• Parity bits alone are only able to *detect* errors.

• It is possible that an error will not be detected:



• Error Correction Code (ECC or Hamming Code, named after its creator Richard Hamming) uses multiple parity bits that can detect and *correct* errors in a binary word.

 A simple algorithm is followed to insert parity bits into the binary data.

1. Number the bits starting at 1 from the left side:

2. Mark the positions that are powers of 2 (1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and so on) as the parity bits

3. All bit positions that are not powers of two will be used for the actual data:

- 4. The position of a parity bit determines which bits it checks:
 - Bit 1 checks positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on
 - Bit 2 checks positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on
 - Bit 4 checks positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on
 - Bit 8 checks positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on
 - Each bit of the actual data is checked by two or more parity bits

• Bit 1 checks positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

• Bit 2 checks positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

• Bit 4 checks positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on:

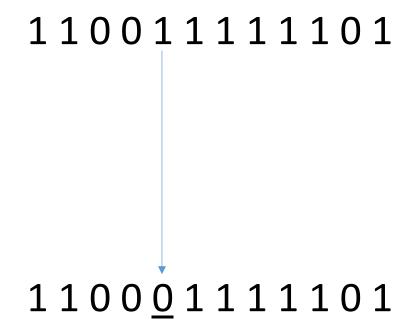
• Even number of 1's

• Bit 8 checks positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

```
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 1
```

• We'll say these bits are received with an error:



- Bit 1 gets checked (positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on):
 - Odd parity; Error detected

1 1 **0** 0 **0** 1 **1** 1 1 1 0 1

- Bit 2 gets checked (positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on):
 - Even parity; No error detected

1 **1 0** 0 <u>0</u> **1 1** 1 1 **1 0** 1

- Bit 4 gets checked (positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on):
 - Odd parity; Error detected

1 1 0 **0 0 1 1** 1 1 1 0 **1**

- Bit 8 gets checked (positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on):
 - Even parity; No error detected

1 1 0 0 <u>0</u> 1 1 **1 1 1 0 1**

```
Bit 1; Error detected 110001111111
Bit 2; No error detected 110001111111
Bit 4; Error detected 110001111111
Bit 8; No error detected 110001111111
```

- Bit 1 + Bit 4 = Bit 5
 - Bit 5 is wrong

1 1 0 0 <u>1</u> 1 1 1 1 1 1 1