Chapter Five (1/3)

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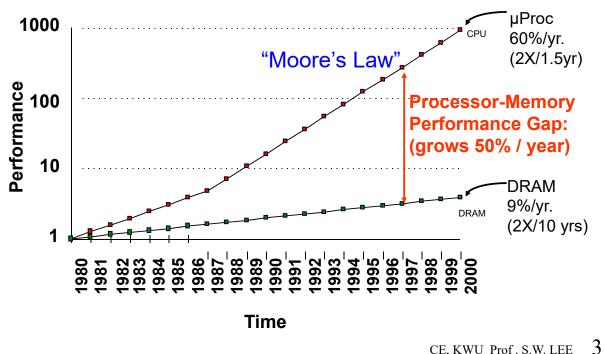
Technology Trends (from 1st lecture)

	Capacity	Speed (latency)	
Logic:	2x in 3 years	2x in 3 years	
DRAM:	4x in 3 years	2x in 10 years	
Disk:	4x in 3 years	2x in 10 years	

DRAM					
Year	Year Size				
1980 ¹⁰⁰	00:1! 64 Kb 2:	250 ns			
1983	256 Kb	220 ns			
1986	1 Mb	190 ns			
1989	4 Mb	165 ns			
1992	16 Mb	145 ns			
1995	64 Mb	120 ns			
1998	256 Mb	100 ns			
2001	1 Gb	80 ns			

Who Cares About Memory?

Processor-DRAM Memory Gap (latency)



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Today's Situation: Microprocessors

- Microprocessor-DRAM performance gap
 - Microprocessor Clock Rates

Name	Date	Transistors	Microns	Clock speed	Data width
8080	1974	6,000	6	2 MHz	8 bits
8088	1979	29,000	3	5 MHz	16 bits
0000	1979	29,000	3	3 IVITZ	8-bit bus
80286	1982	134,000	1.5	6 MHz	16 bits
80386	1985	275,000	1.5	16 MHz	32 bits
80486	1989	1,200,000	1	25 MHz	32 bits
Pentium	1993	3,100,000	0.8	60 MHz	32 bits
rendum					64-bit bus
Pentium II	1997	7,500,000	0.35	233 MHz	32 bits
rendum m	1997	7,500,000	0.55	Z33 IVITIZ	64-bit bus
Pentium III	1999	9,500,000	0.25	450 MHz	32 bits
Pendum m	1999	9,500,000	0.25	450 MINZ	64-bit bus
Pentium 4	2000	42,000,000	0.18	1.5 GHz	32 bits
rendum 4	2000	42,000,000	0.10	1.5 GHZ	64-bit bus
Pentium 4 "Prescott"	escott" 2004 125	125,000,000	0.09	3.8 GHz	32 bits
Femiliani 4 Flescoll	2004	123,000,000	0.09	3.0 GHZ	64-bit bus

Today's Situation: Microprocessors

- Rely on caches to bridge gap
- Cache is a high-speed memory between the processor and main memory
- Microprocessor-DRAM performance gap
 - time of a full cache miss in instructions executed

Standard name	Memory clock	Cycle time	I/O Bus clock	Data transfers per second	Module name	Peak transfer rate	Timings tRAS-tCAS- tACC
DDR-200	100 MHz	10 ns	100 MHz	200 Million	PC-1600	1600 MB/s	50 ns
DDR-266	133 MHz	7.5 ns	133 MHz	266 Million	PC-2100	2100 MB/s	50 ns
DDR-333	166 MHz	6 ns	166 MHz	333 Million	PC-2700	2700 MB/s	40 ns
DDR-400	200 MHz	5 ns	200 MHz	400 Million	PC-3200	3200 MB/s	40 ns
DDR2-400	100 MHz	10 ns	200 MHz	400 Million	PC2-3200	3200 MB/s	30 ns
DDR2-533	133 MHz	7.5 ns	266 MHz	533 Million	PC2-4300	4266 MB/s	30 ns
DDR2-667	166 MHz	6 ns	333 MHz	667 Million	PC2-5300	5333 MB/s	30 ns
DDR2-800	200 MHz	5 ns	400 MHz	800 Million	PC2-6400	6400 MB/s	25 ns
DDR2-1066	266 MHz	3.75 ns	533 MHz	1066 Million	PC2-8600	8533 MB/s	23 ns

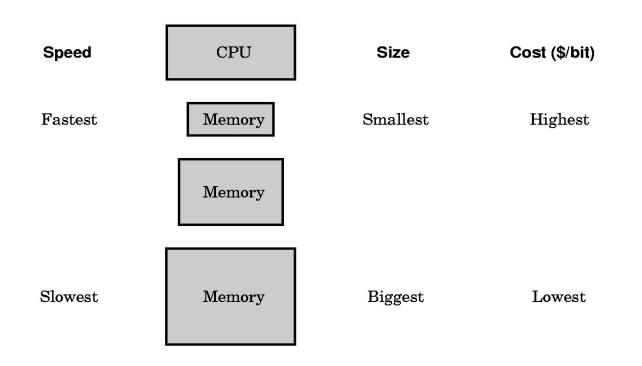
1980: no cache in µ-proc; 1997 2-level cache, 60% trans. on Alpha 21164 µ-proc

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The memory dilemma

- Assumption: on-chip instruction and data memories hold the entire program and its data and can be accessed in one cycle
- Reality check
 - In high performance machines, programs may require 100's of megabytes or even gigabytes of memory to run
 - Embedded processors have less needs but there is also less room for on-chip memory
- Basic problem
 - We need much more memory than can fit on the microprocessor chip
 - But we do not want to incur stall cycles every time the pipeline accesses instructions or data
 - At the same time, we need the memory to be economical for the machine to be competitive in the market

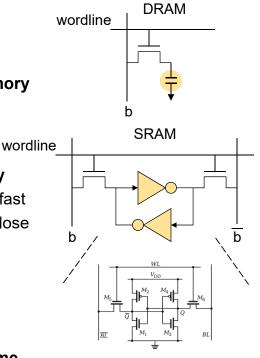
Solution: a hierarchy of memories



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Memory Technology

- Random Access:
 - "Random" is good: access time is the same for all locations
 - DRAM: Dynamic Random Access Memory
 - · High density, low power, cheap, slow
 - Dynamic: need to be "refreshed" regularly
 - SRAM: Static Random Access Memory
 - Low density, high power, expensive, fast
 - Static: content will last "forever" (until lose power)
- "Non-so-random" Access Technology:
 - Access time varies from location to location and from time to time
 - Examples: Disk, CDROM
- Sequential Access Technology: access time linear in location (e.g.,Tape)



Typical characteristics of each level

- First level (L1) is separate on-chip instruction and data caches placed where our instruction and data memories reside
 - 16-64KB for each cache (desktop/server machine)
 - Fast, power-hungry, not-so-dense, static RAM (SRAM)
- Second level (L2) consists of another larger unified cache
 - Holds both instructions and data
 - 256KB-4MB SRAM
 - On or off-chip
- Third level (L3) is yet another larger unified shared cache
 - Works for multiple cores
 - Off-Chip, Multichip package
 - 12MB-24MB SRAM
- Fourth level is main memory
 - 64MB-64GB
 - Slower, lower-power, denser dynamic RAM (DRAM)
- Final level is I/O (e.g., disk)

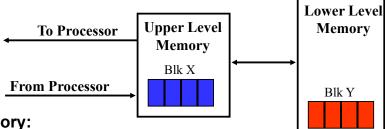
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Principle of Locality

- 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

Memory Hierarchy: How Does it Work?

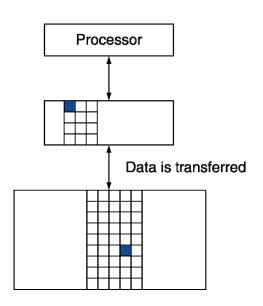
- **Temporal Locality (Locality in Time):**
 - Keep most recently accessed data items closer to the processor
- **Spatial Locality (Locality in Space):**
 - Move blocks consists of contiguous words to the upper levels



- Registers ←→ Memory:
 - by compiler (programmer?)
- cache ←→ memory:
 - by the hardware
- memory $\leftarrow \rightarrow$ disks:
 - by the hardware and operating system (virtual memory)
 - by the programmer (files)

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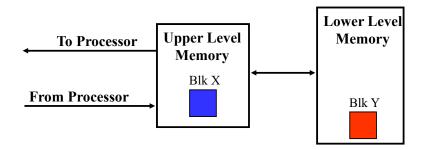
Memory Hierarchy Levels



- 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 Hierarchy: Terminology

- Hit: data appears in some block in the upper level (example: Block X)
 - Hit Rate: the fraction of memory access found in the upper level
 - Hit Time: Time to access the upper level which consists of RAM access time + Time to determine hit/miss
- Miss: data needs to be retrieve from a block in the lower level (Block Y)
 - Miss Rate = 1 (Hit Rate)
 - Miss Penalty: Time to replace a block in the upper level + Time to deliver the block the processor
- **Hit Time << Miss Penalty**



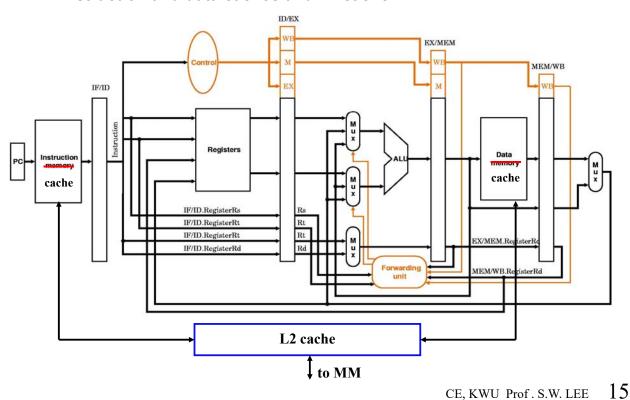
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General Principles of Memory

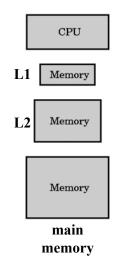
- Locality
 - Temporal Locality: referenced memory is likely to be referenced again soon (e.g. code within a loop)
 - Spatial Locality: memory close to referenced memory is likely to be referenced soon (e.g., data in a sequentially access array)
- **Definitions**
 - Upper: memory closer to processor
 - Block: minimum unit that is present or not present
 - Block address: location of block in memory
 - Hit: Data is found in the desired location
 - Hit time: time to access upper level
 - Miss rate: percentage of time item not found in upper level
- Locality + smaller HW is faster = memory hierarchy
 - Levels: each smaller, faster, more expensive/byte than level below
 - Inclusive: data found in upper leve also found in the lower level

Caches and the pipeline

L1 instruction and data caches and L2 cache



Memory hierarchy operation



- (1) Search L1 for the instruction or data If found (cache hit), done
- (2) Else (cache miss), search L2 cache If found, place it in L1 and repeat (1)
- (3) Else, search main memory

 If found, place it in L2 and repeat (2)
- (4) Else, get it from I/O (Chapter 8)

Steps (1)-(3) are performed in hardware

- 1-3 cycles to get from L1 caches
- 5-20 cycles to get from L2 cache
- 50-200 cycles to get from main memory

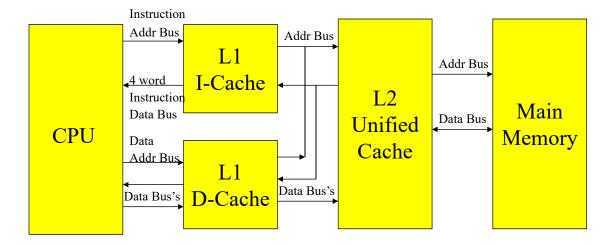
Principle of Locality (POL) → Caches

- Programs access a small portion of memory within a short time period
 - Temporal & Spatial locality:
 - A large percentage of the time (typically >90%) the instruction or data is found in L1, the fastest memory
 - Cheap, abundant main memory is accessed more rarely
 - → Memory hierarchy operates at nearly the speed of expensive on-chip SRAM with the cost-effectiveness of DRAM
- · Caches are small, fast, memories that hold recently accessed instructions and/or data
 - Separate L1 instruction and L1 data caches
 - Need simultaneous access of instructions and data in pipelines
 - L2 cache holds both instructions and data
 - Simultaneous access not as critical since >90% of the instructions and data will be found in L1
 - PC or effective address from L1 is sent to L2 to search for the instruction or data

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Cache Structure

- The L1 cache is usually separated into separate Data and Instruction caches
- The L2 and higher caches are normally unified caches, i.e. both instructions and data are in the same cache



How caches exploit the POL

 On a cache miss, a block of several instructions or data, including the requested item, are returned

> requested instruction $instruction_{i+1}$ $instruction_{i+2}$ instruction_{i+3} instruction;

- The entire block is placed into the cache so that future searches for items in the block will be successful
- Consider sequence of instructions and data accesses in this loop with a block size of 4 words

Loop: lw \$t0, 0(\$s1) addu \$t0, \$t0, \$s2 SW \$t0, 0(\$s1) \$s1, \$s1, -4 addi \$s1, \$zero, Loop bne

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Four Questions for Memory Hierarchy

- Q1: Where can a block be placed in the upper level?
 - (Block placement)
- Q2: How is a block found if it is in the upper level?
 - (Block identification)
- Q3: Which block should be replaced on a miss?
 - (Block replacement)
- Q4: What happens on a write?
 - (Write strategy)

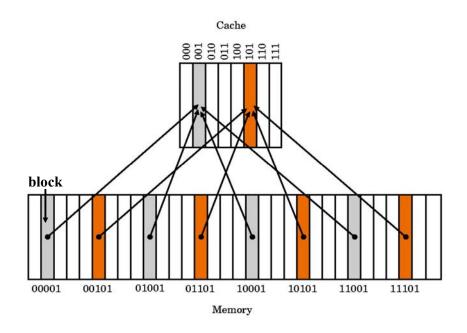
Q1: Where can a block be placed?

- Direct mapped: each block can be placed in only one cache location
 - Each location in memory maps to only one location in cache
 - Easy to build since the memory mapping is unique
- Set associative: each block can be placed in any of n cache locations
 - Each Set is direct mapped to memory
 - Cache is fully associative between sets
 - If there are n blocks in a set, the cache placement is called n-way set associative
- Fully associative: each block can be placed in any cache location
 - Any location in cache can map to any location in memory
 - Difficult to build since all cache locations must be checked for a match to any specific memory value

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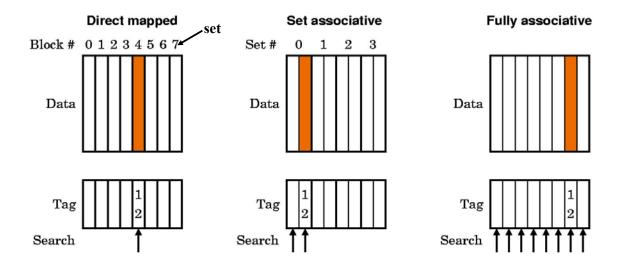
Placing blocks in cache

- The cache is much smaller than main memory
 - Multiple memory blocks must share the same cache location



Block placement

- Searching for and placing block 12 in caches of size 8 blocks
 - Direct mapped: Block no. = (Block addr.) mod (No. of blocks)
 - 2-way set associative: Set no. = (Block addr.) mod (No. of sets)
 - Fully associative: Block 12 can go anywhere



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Q2: How Is a Block Found?

- The address can be divided into two main parts
 - Block offset: selects the data from the block
 - offset size = log2(block size)
 - Block address: tag + index
 - · index: selects set in cache

index size = log2(#blocks/associativity)

tag: compared to tag in cache to determine hit

tag size = addreess size - index size - offset size

 Each block has a valid bit that tells if the block is valid - the block is in the cache if the tags match and the valid bit is set.

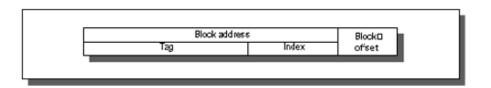
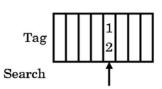


FIGURE 5.3 The three portions of an addressin a set-associative or direct-mapped cache.

Addressing a direct mapped cache

Block # 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Data

- Need log₂ (number of sets) of the address bits (called the *index*) to select the block location
- block offset used to select the desired byte, halfword, or word within the block
- Remaining bits (called the tag) are used to distinguish between different blocks that share the same cache location
- Block is placed in the set index
- number of sets = cache size/block size



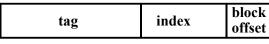
assume data cache with 16 byte blocks

8 sets

4 block offset bits

3 index bits

25 tag bits



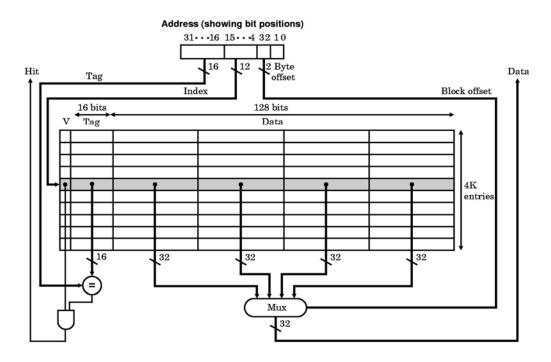
memory address

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Direct mapped cache organization

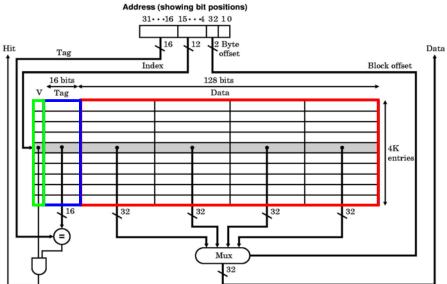
64KB instruction cache with 16 byte (4 word) blocks



– 4K sets (64KB/16B) → need 12 address bits to pick

Direct mapped cache organization

- The data section of the cache holds the instructions
- The tag section holds the part of the memory address used to distinguish different blocks
- A valid bit associated with each set indicates if the instructions are valid or not

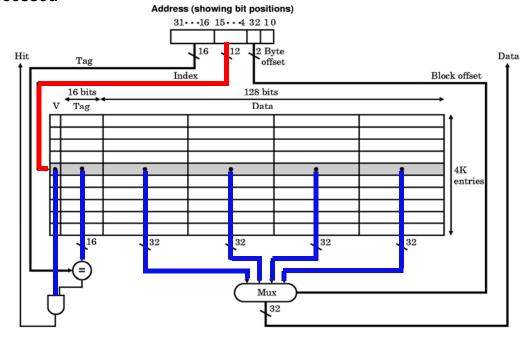


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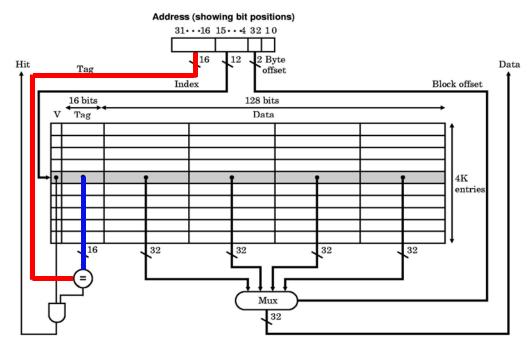
Direct mapped cache access

- · The index bits are used to select one of the sets
- The data, tag, and Valid bit from the selected set are simultaneously accessed



Direct mapped cache access

 The tag from the selected entry is compared with the tag field of the address

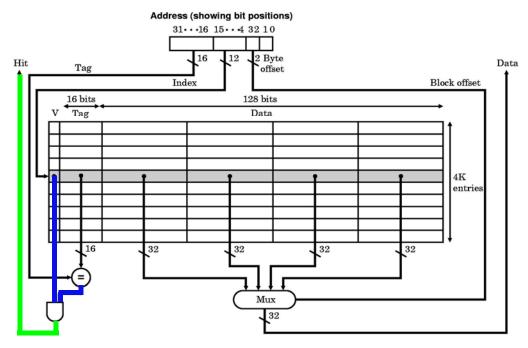


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Direct mapped cache access

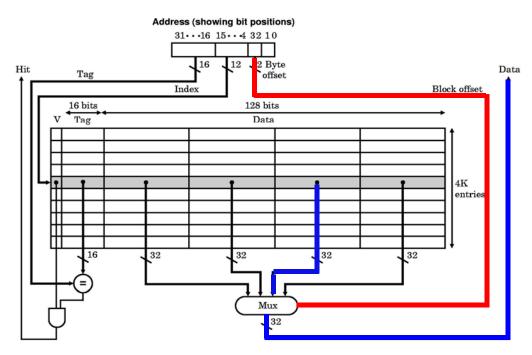
A match between the tags and a Valid bit that is set indicates a cache hit



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Direct mapped cache access

The block offset selects the desired instruction



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Cache Example

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Index	٧	Tag	Data
000	Υ	10	Mem[10000]
001	Ν		
010	Υ	10	Mem[10010]
011	Υ	00	Mem[00011]
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		

Memory Access

Time	Word addr	Binary addr	Hit/ miss	Cache block
1	22	10 110	Miss	110
2	26	11 010	Miss	010
3	22	10 110	Hit	110
4	26	11 010	Hit	010
5	16	10 000	Miss	000
6	3	00 011	Miss	011
7	16	10 000	Hit	000
8	18	10 010	Miss	010