

The Memory Hierarchy and Cache Memories

Slides adapted from the CMU version of the course (thanks to Randal E. Bryant and David R. O'Hallaron)

Today

- **Storage technologies and trends**
- Locality of reference
- Concept of memory hierarchy
- Cache memories

Random-Access Memory (RAM)

■ Key features

- **RAM** is usually packaged as a chip.
- Basic storage unit is normally a **cell** (one bit per cell).
- Multiple RAM chips form a memory.

■ RAM comes in two varieties:

- SRAM (Static RAM)
- DRAM (Dynamic RAM)

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Trans. per bit	Access time	Needs refresh?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	1X	Main memories, frame buffers

Nonvolatile Memories

■ DRAM and SRAM are volatile memories

- Lose information if powered off.

■ Nonvolatile memories retain value even if powered off

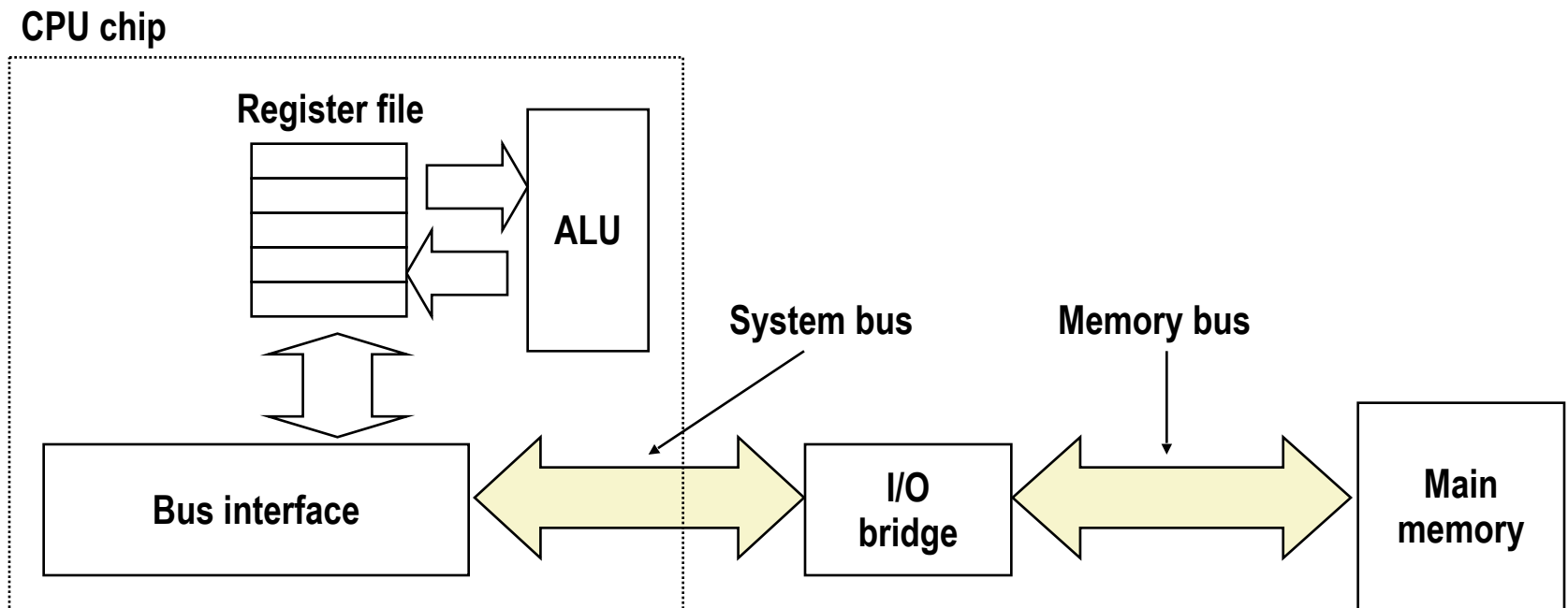
- Read-only memory (**ROM**): programmed during production
- Flash memory
 - Wears out after about 100,000 erasing

■ Uses for Nonvolatile Memories

- Firmware programs stored in a ROM (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
- Solid state disks (replace rotating disks in thumb drives, smart phones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops,...)
- Disk caches

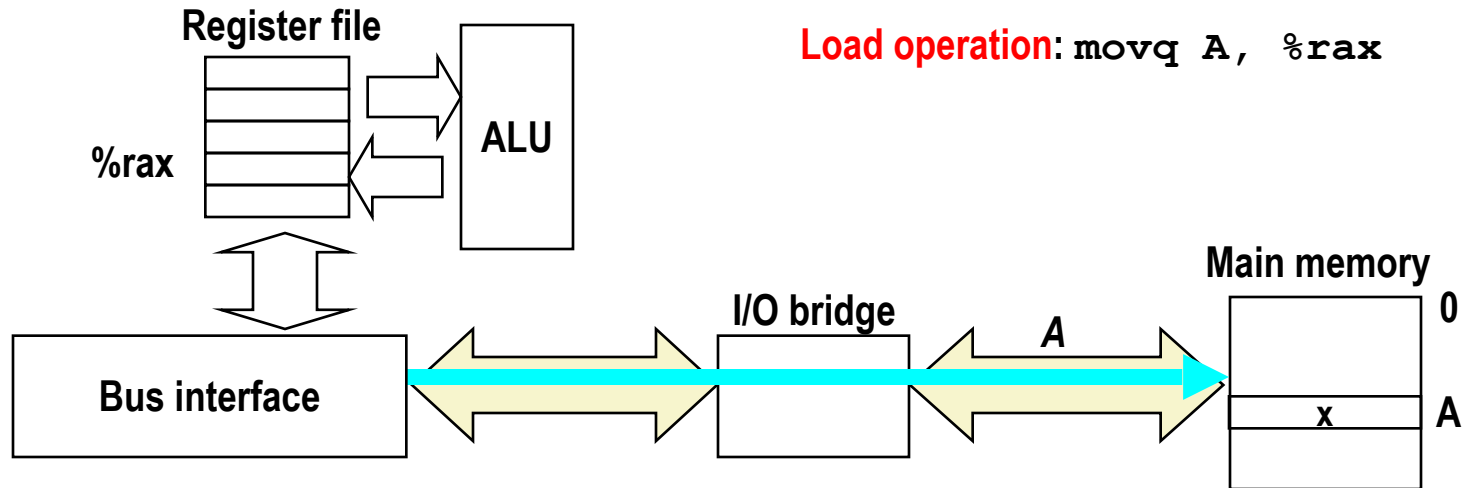
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A **bus** is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



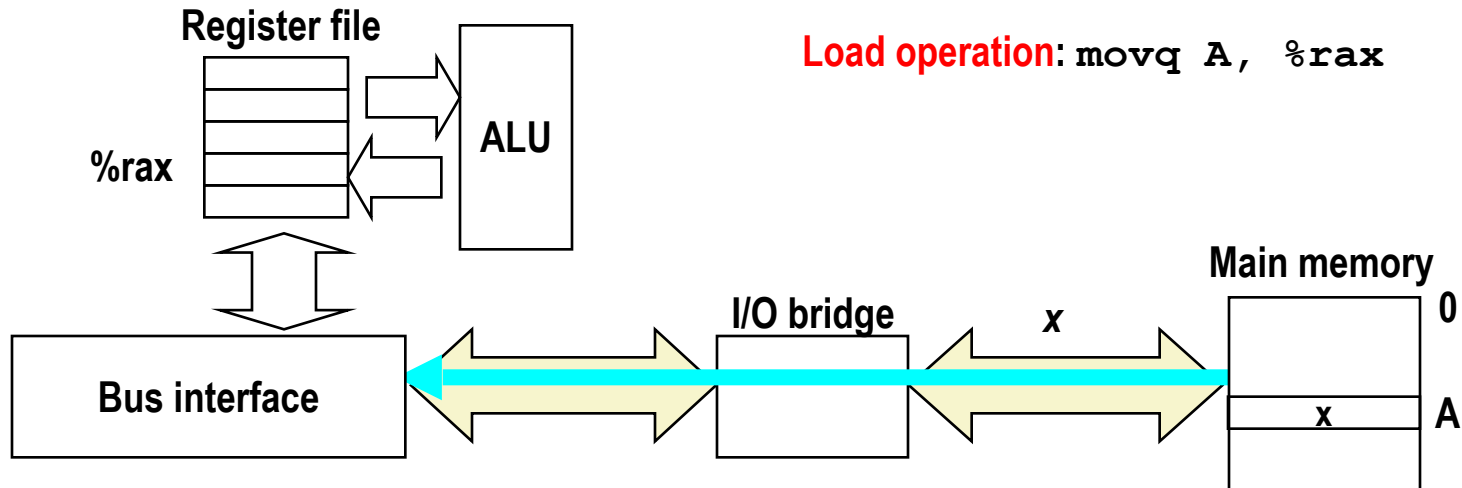
Memory Read Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on the memory bus.



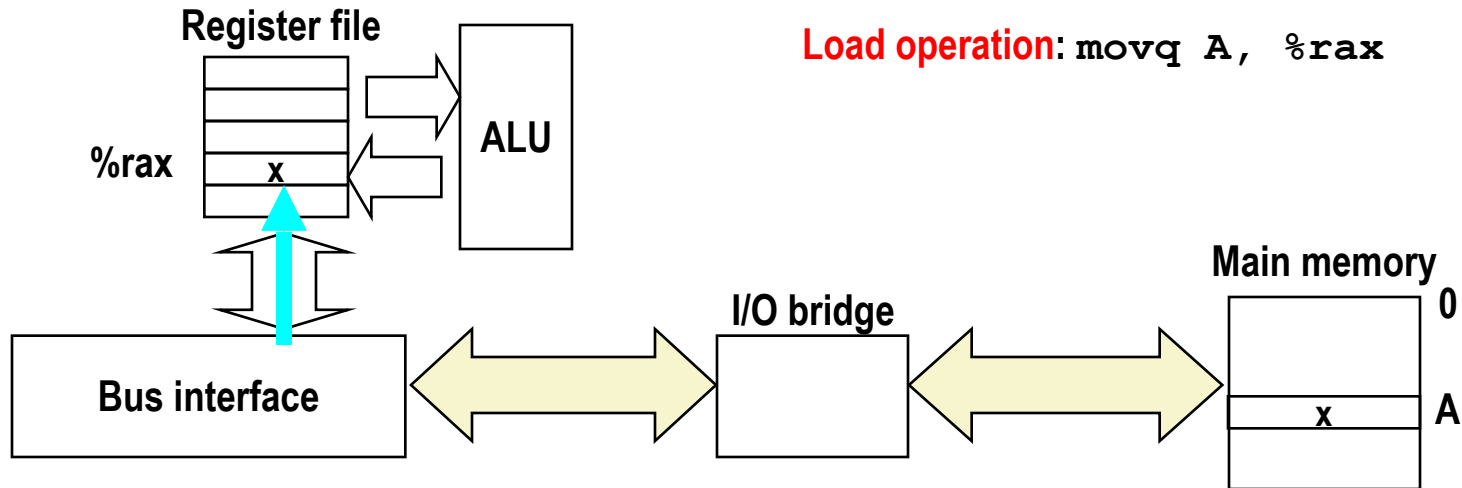
Memory Read Transaction (2)

- Main memory reads *A* from the memory bus, retrieves word *x*, and places it on the bus.



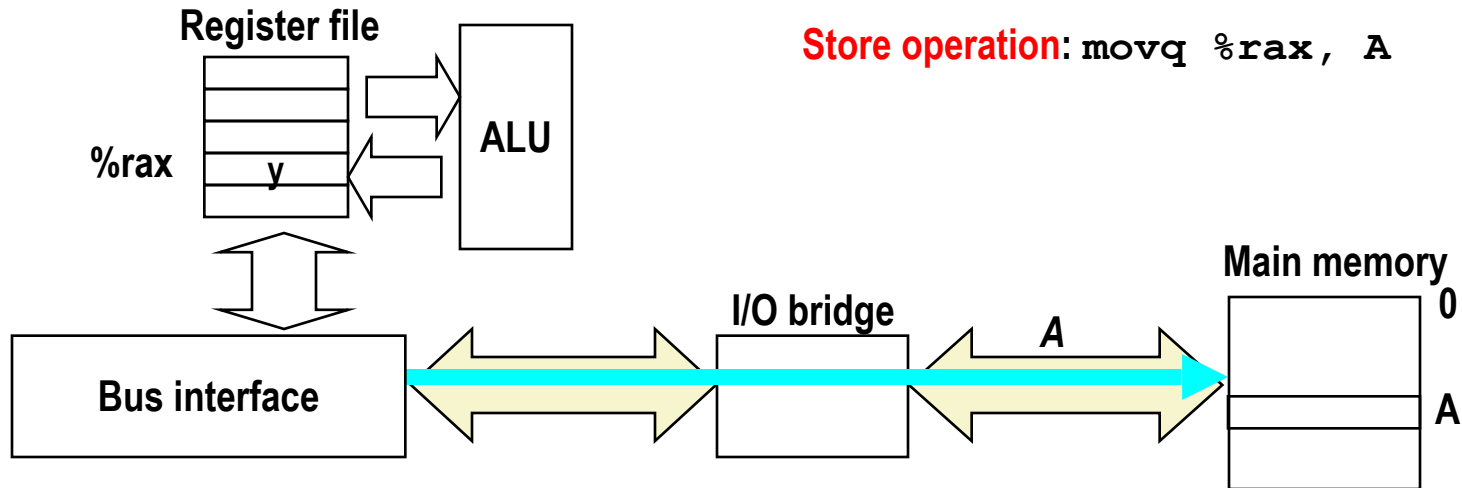
Memory Read Transaction (3)

- CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register $\%rax$.



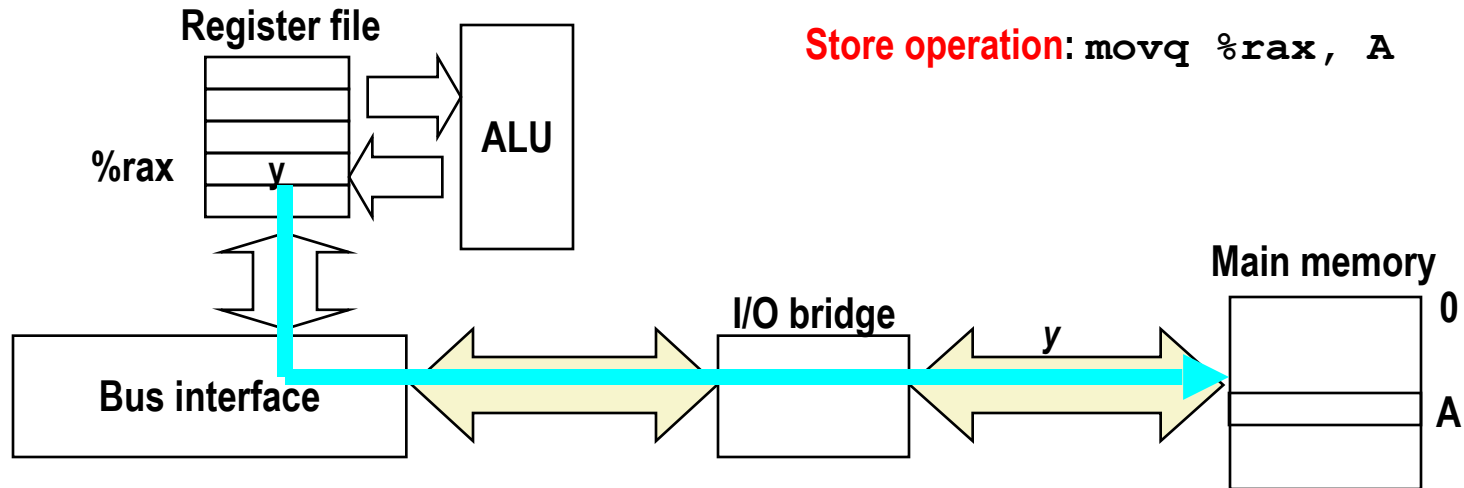
Memory Write Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



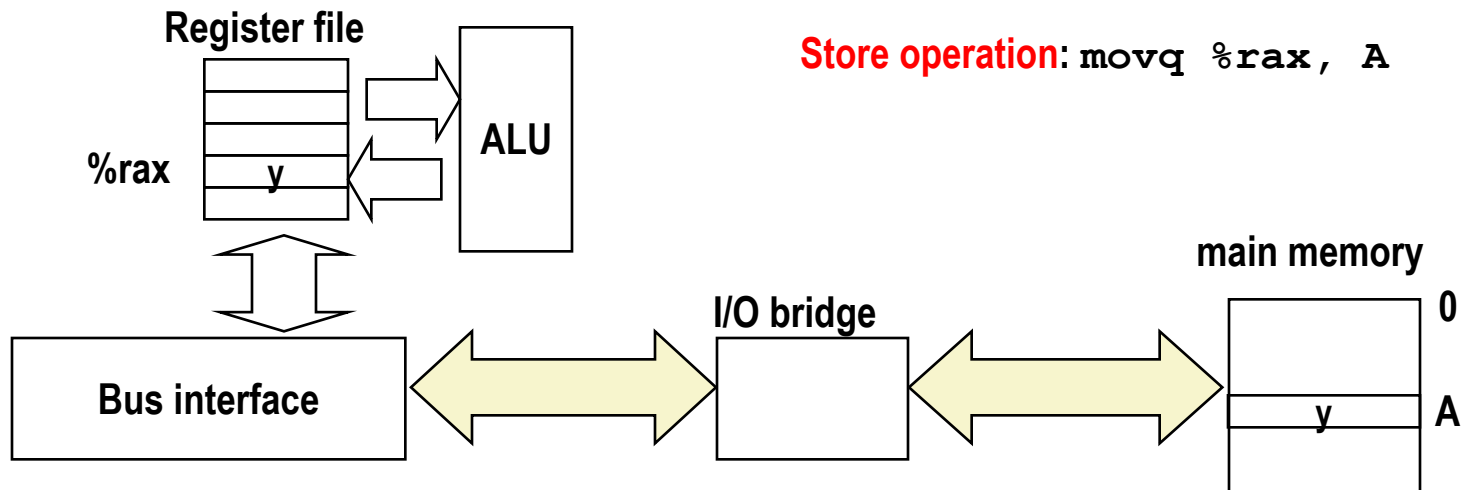
Memory Write Transaction (2)

- CPU places data word y on the bus.



Memory Write Transaction (3)

- Main memory reads data word *y* from the bus and stores it at address *A*.



What's Inside A Disk Drive?

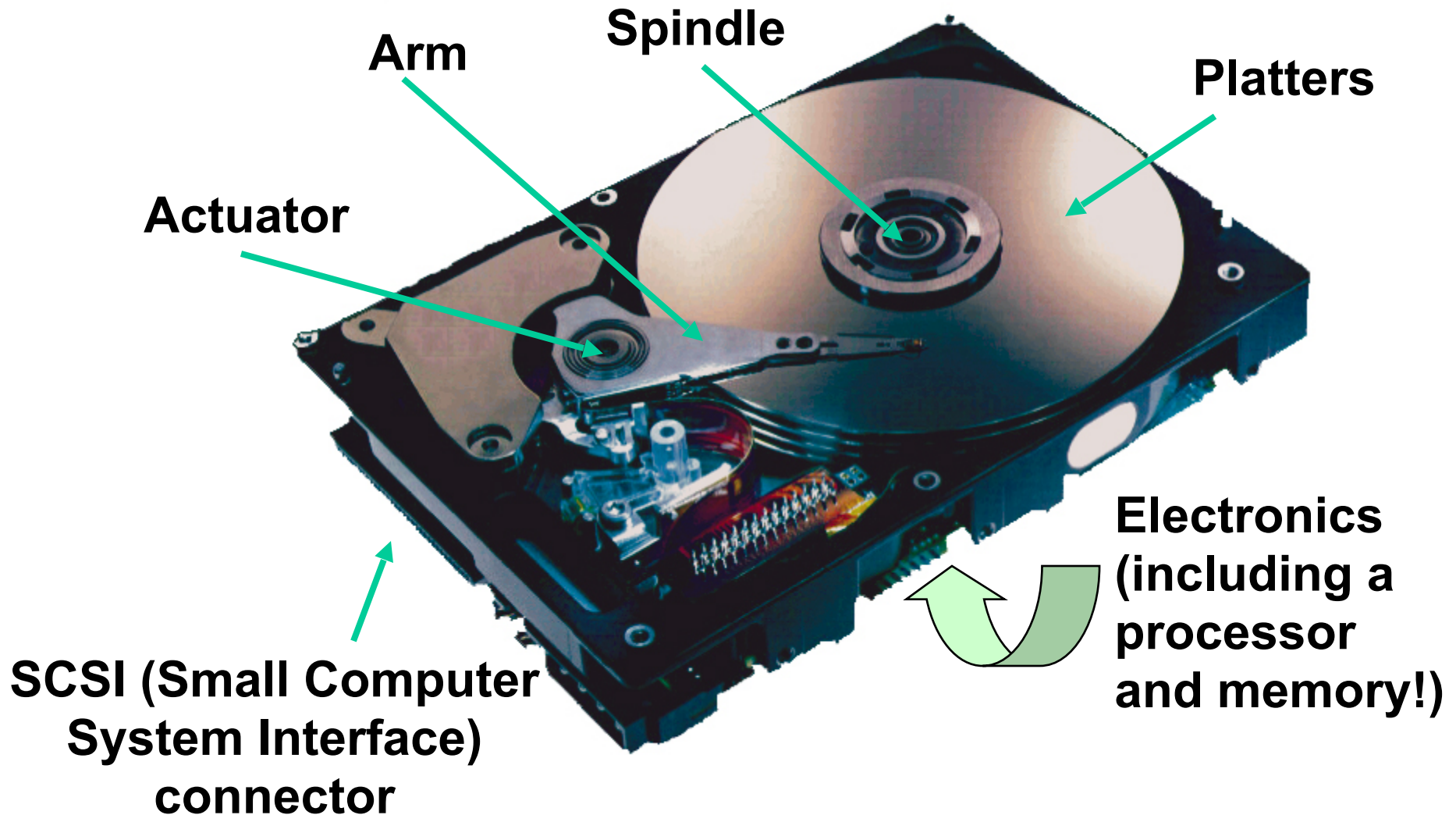
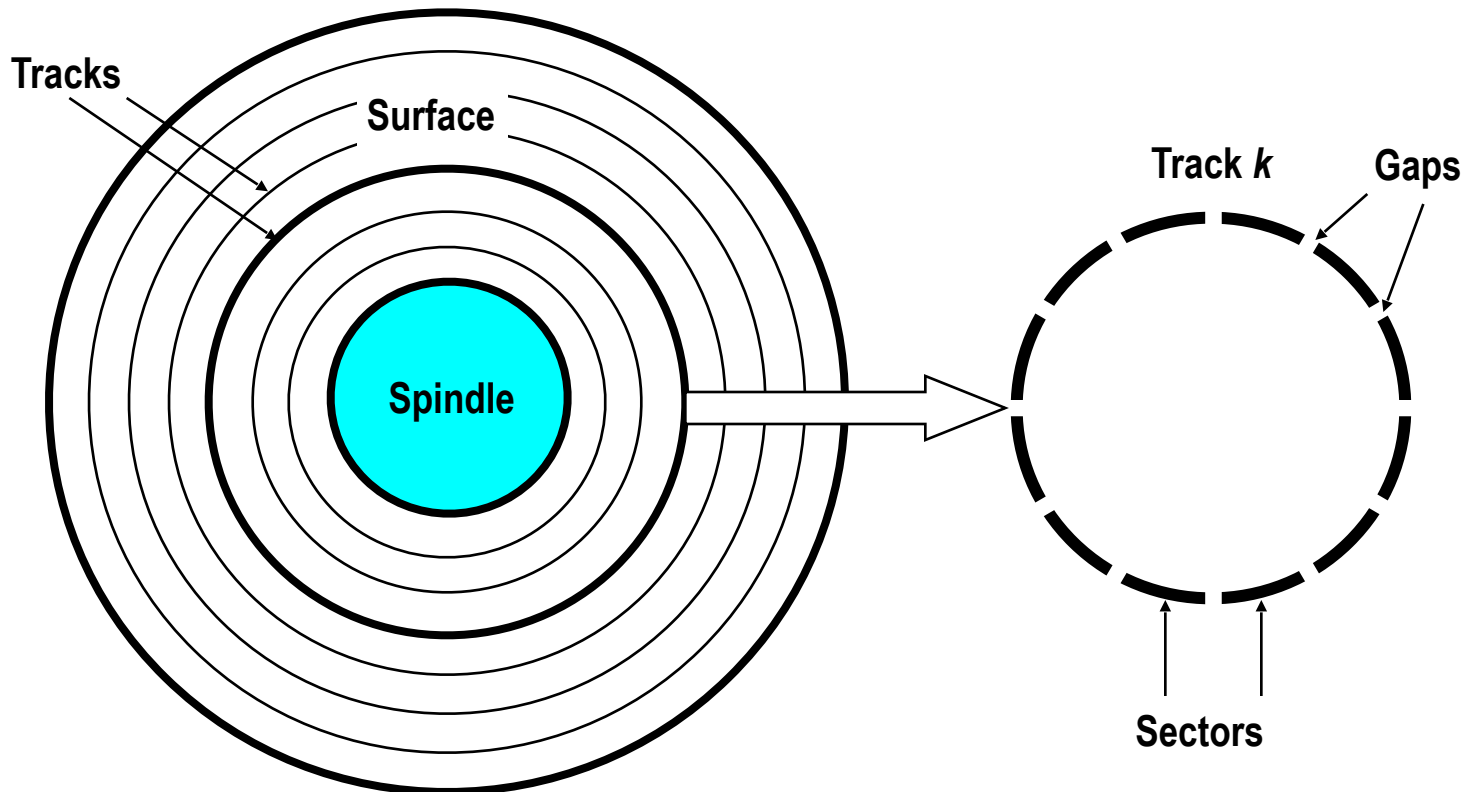


Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

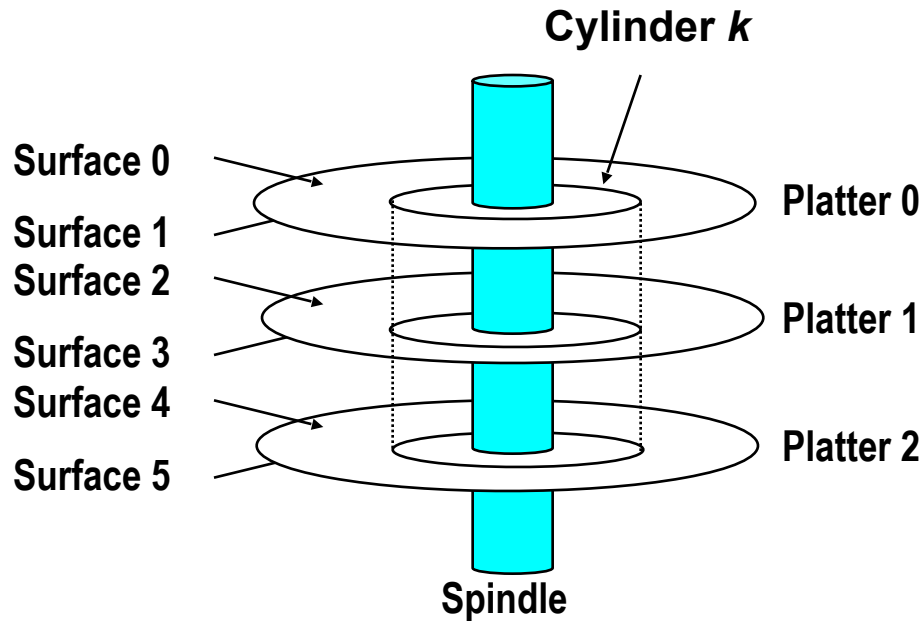
Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of **platters**, each with two **surfaces**.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called **tracks**.
- Each track consists of **sectors** separated by **gaps**.



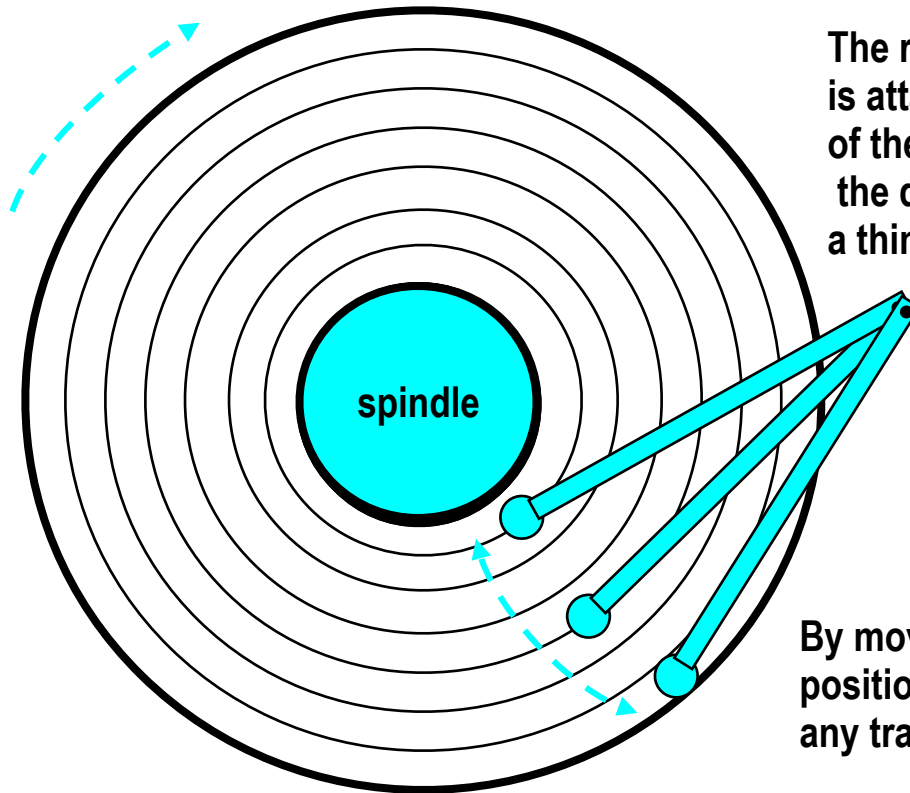
Disk Geometry (Multiple-Platter View)

- Aligned tracks form a cylinder.



Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

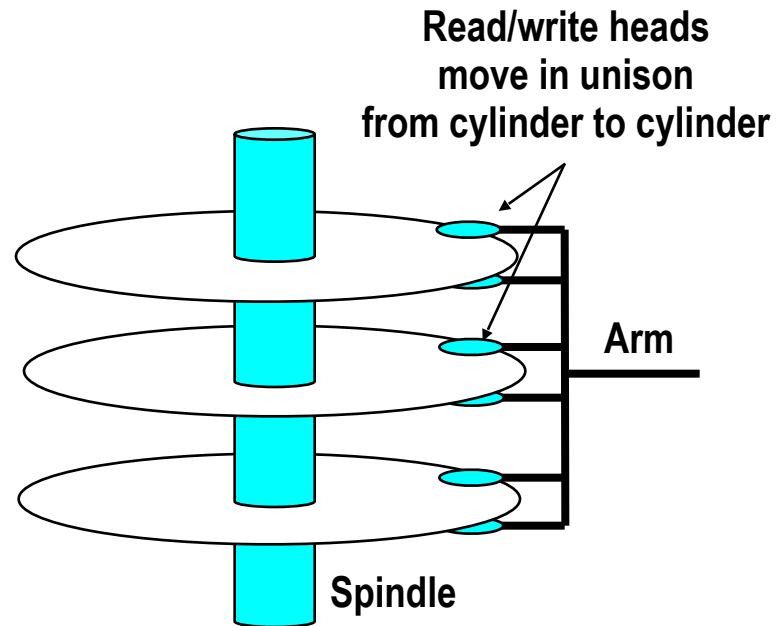
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



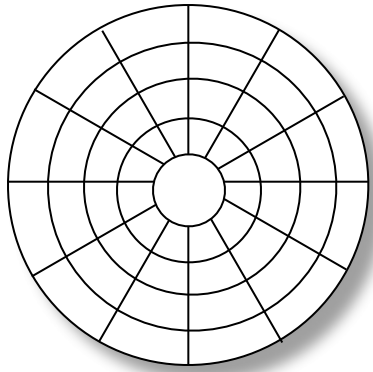
The read/write *head* is attached to the end of the *arm* and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



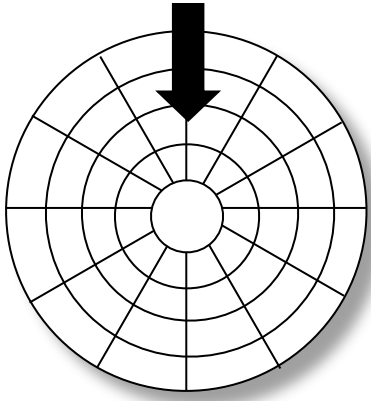
Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

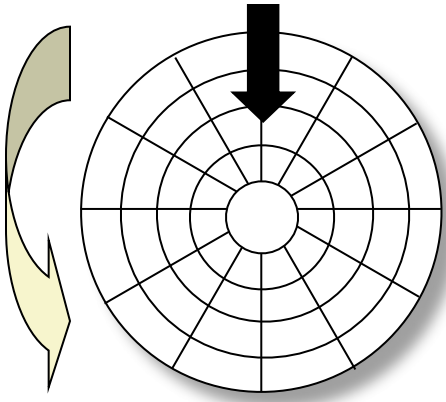
Tracks divided into sectors

Disk Access



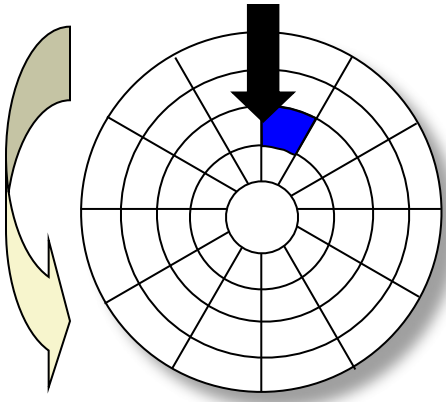
Head in position above a track

Disk Access



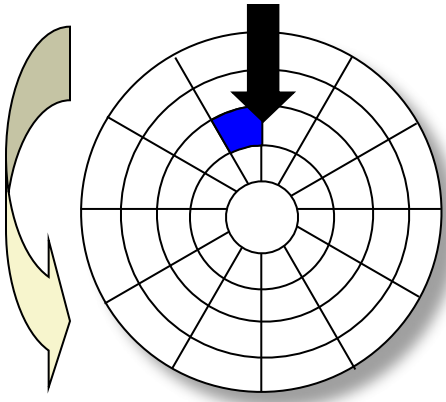
Rotation is counter-clockwise

Disk Access – Read



About to read blue sector

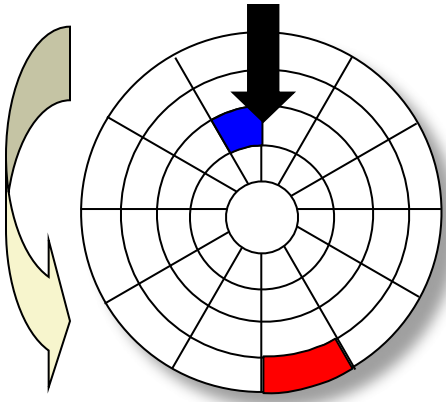
Disk Access – Read



After **BLUE** read

After reading blue sector

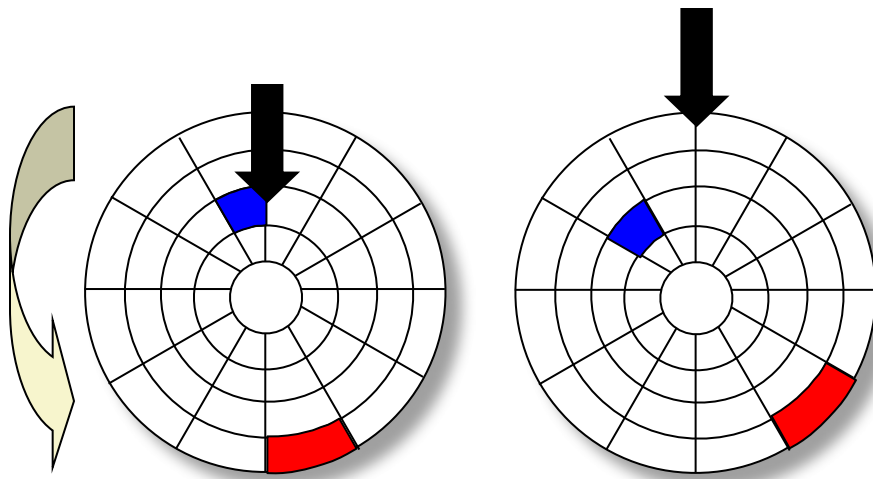
Disk Access – Read



After **BLUE** read

Red request scheduled next

Disk Access – Seek

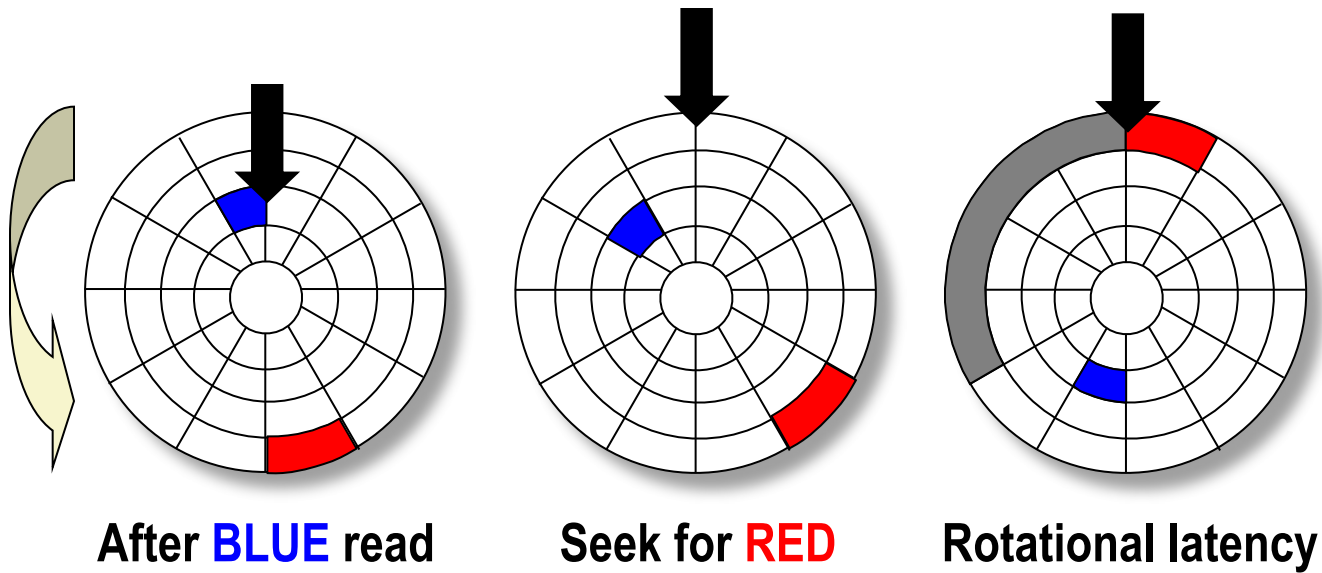


After **BLUE** read

Seek for **RED**

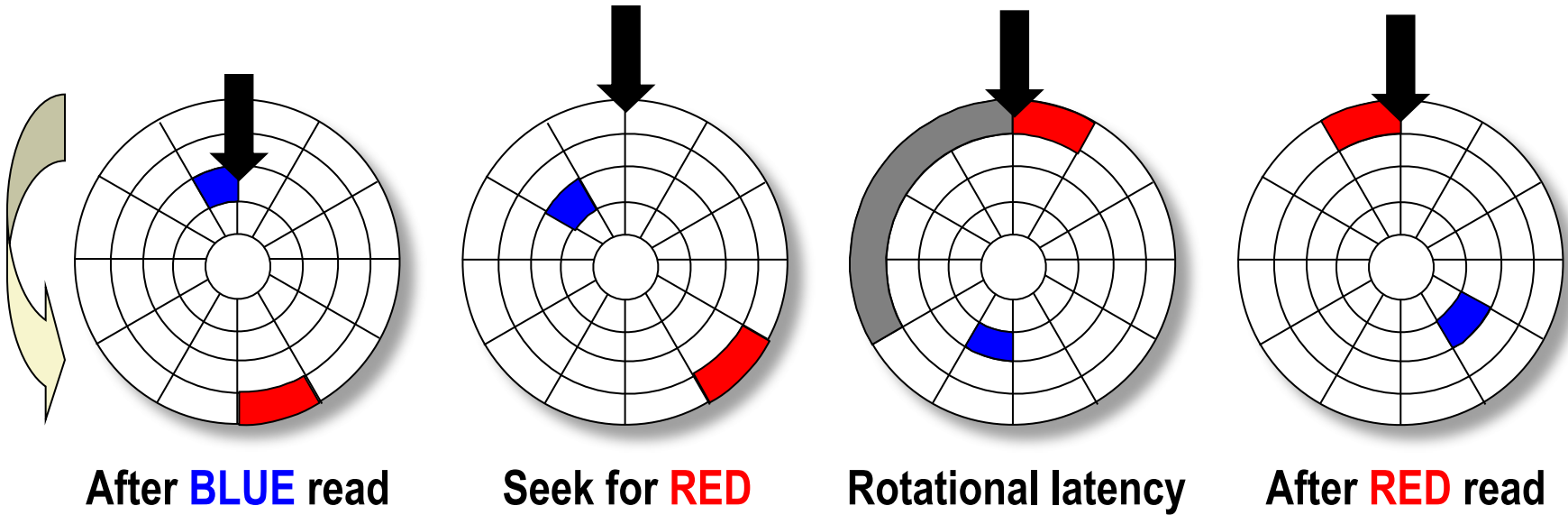
Seek to red's track

Disk Access – Rotational Latency



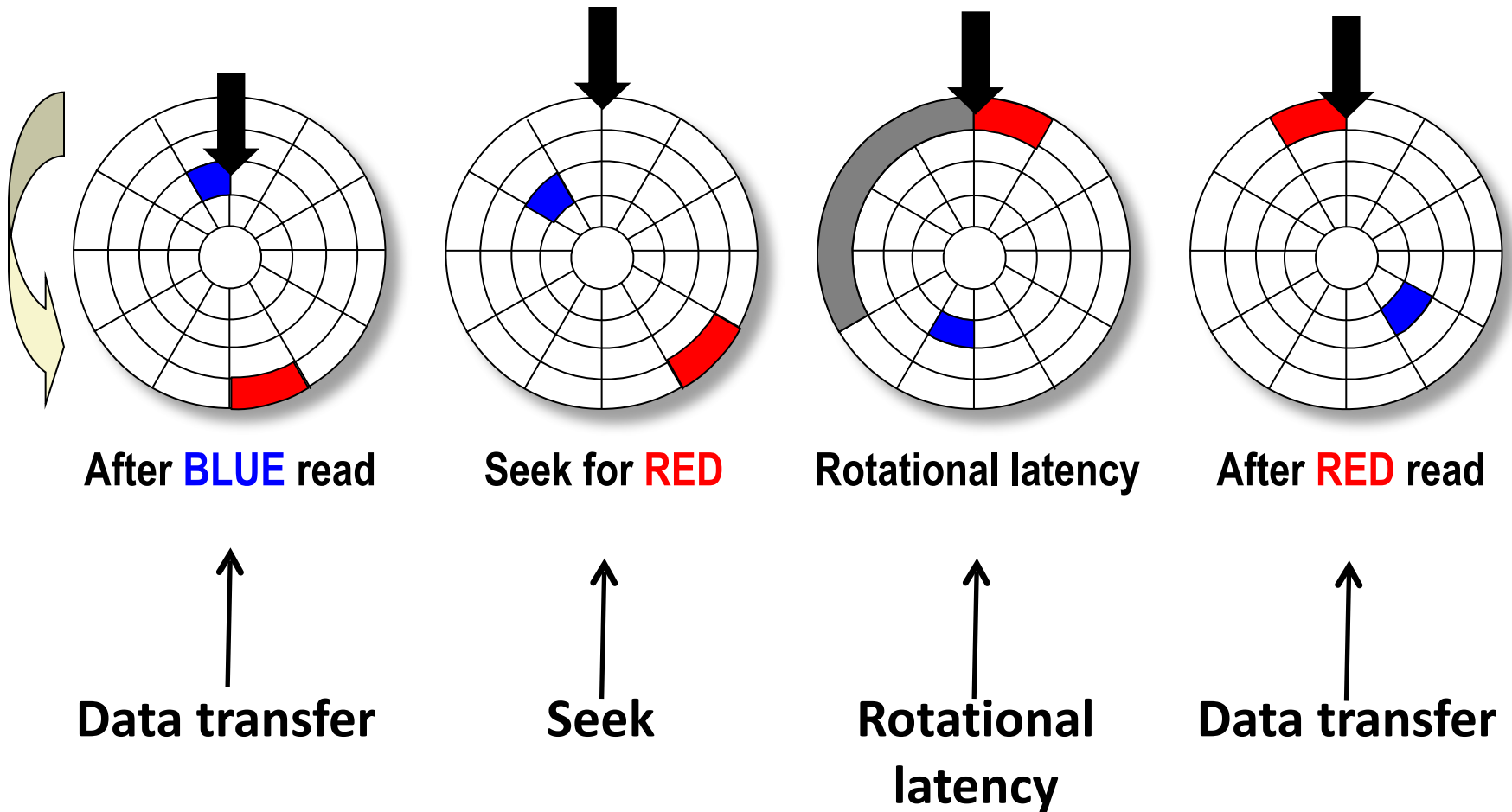
Wait for red sector to rotate around

Disk Access – Read



Complete read of red

Disk Access – Service Time Components



Disk Access Time

■ Average time to access some target sector approximated by :

- $T_{\text{access}} = T_{\text{avg seek}} + T_{\text{avg rotation}} + T_{\text{avg transfer}}$

■ Seek time ($T_{\text{avg seek}}$)

- Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
- Typical $T_{\text{avg seek}}$ is 3—9 ms

■ Rotational latency ($T_{\text{avg rotation}}$)

- Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
- $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 1/2 \times 1/\text{RPMs} \times 60 \text{ sec}/1 \text{ min}$
- Typical $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 7200 \text{ RPMs}$

■ Transfer time ($T_{\text{avg transfer}}$)

- Time to read the bits in the target sector.
- $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 1/\text{RPM} \times 1/(\text{avg \# sectors/track}) \times 60 \text{ secs}/1 \text{ min}.$

Disk Access Time Example

■ Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 9 ms.
- Avg # sectors/track = 400.

■ Derived:

- $T_{\text{avg rotation}} = 1/2 \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM}) \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 4 \text{ ms}.$
- $T_{\text{avg transfer}} = 60/7200 \text{ RPM} \times 1/400 \text{ secs/track} \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 0.02 \text{ ms}$
- $T_{\text{access}} = 9 \text{ ms} + 4 \text{ ms} + 0.02 \text{ ms}$

■ Important points:

- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency.
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are free.
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
 - Disk is about 40,000 times slower than SRAM,
 - 2,500 times slower than DRAM.

Logical Disk Blocks

■ Modern disks present a simpler abstract view of the complex sector geometry:

- The set of available sectors is modeled as a sequence of b-sized **logical blocks** (0, 1, 2, ...)

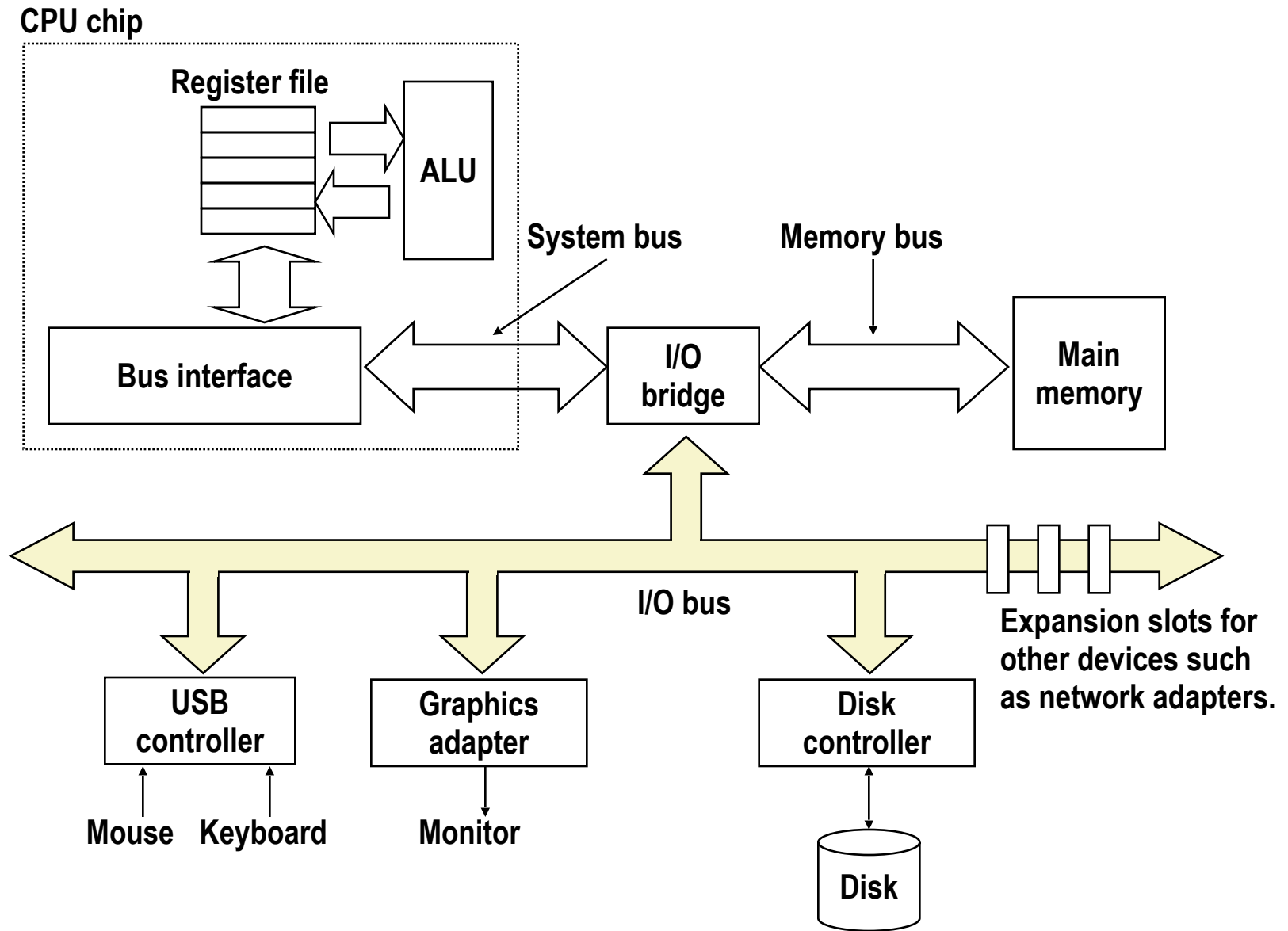
■ Mapping between logical blocks and actual (physical) sectors

- Maintained by hardware/firmware device called disk controller.
- Converts requests for logical blocks into (surface, track, sector) triples.

■ Allows controller to set aside spare cylinders for each zone.

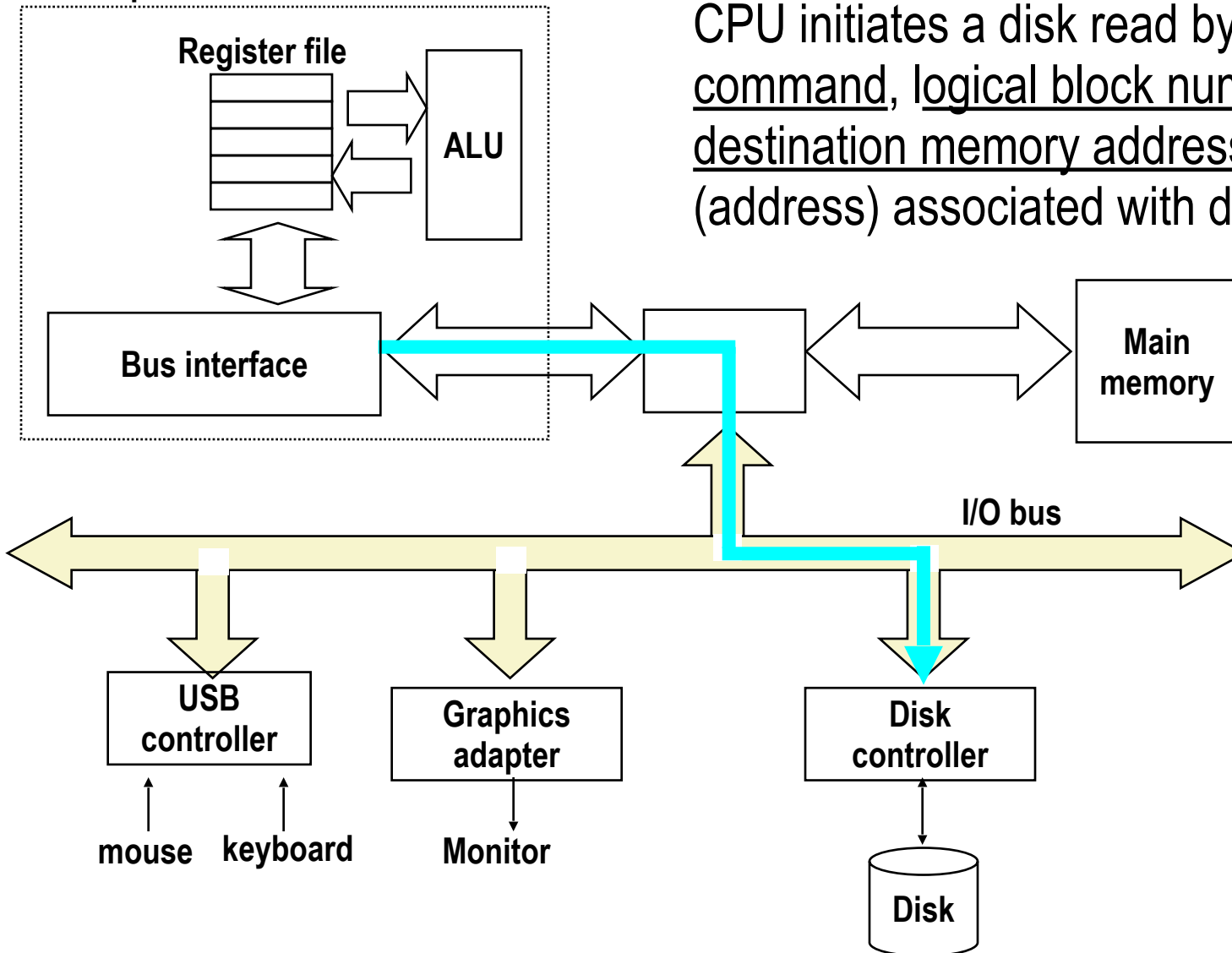
- Accounts for the difference in “formatted capacity” and “maximum capacity”.

I/O Bus



Reading a Disk Sector (1)

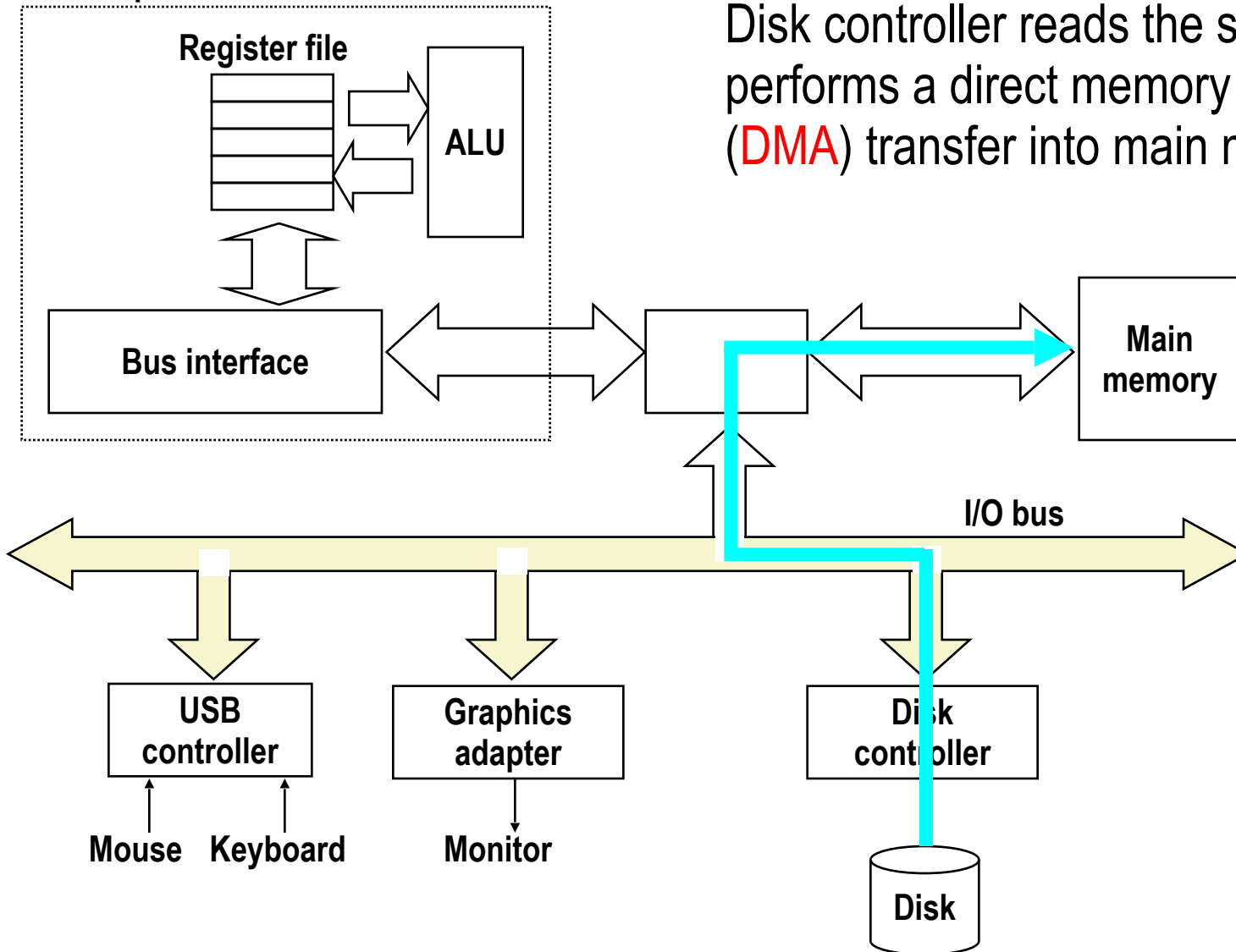
CPU chip



CPU initiates a disk read by writing a command, logical block number, and destination memory address to a **port** (address) associated with disk controller.

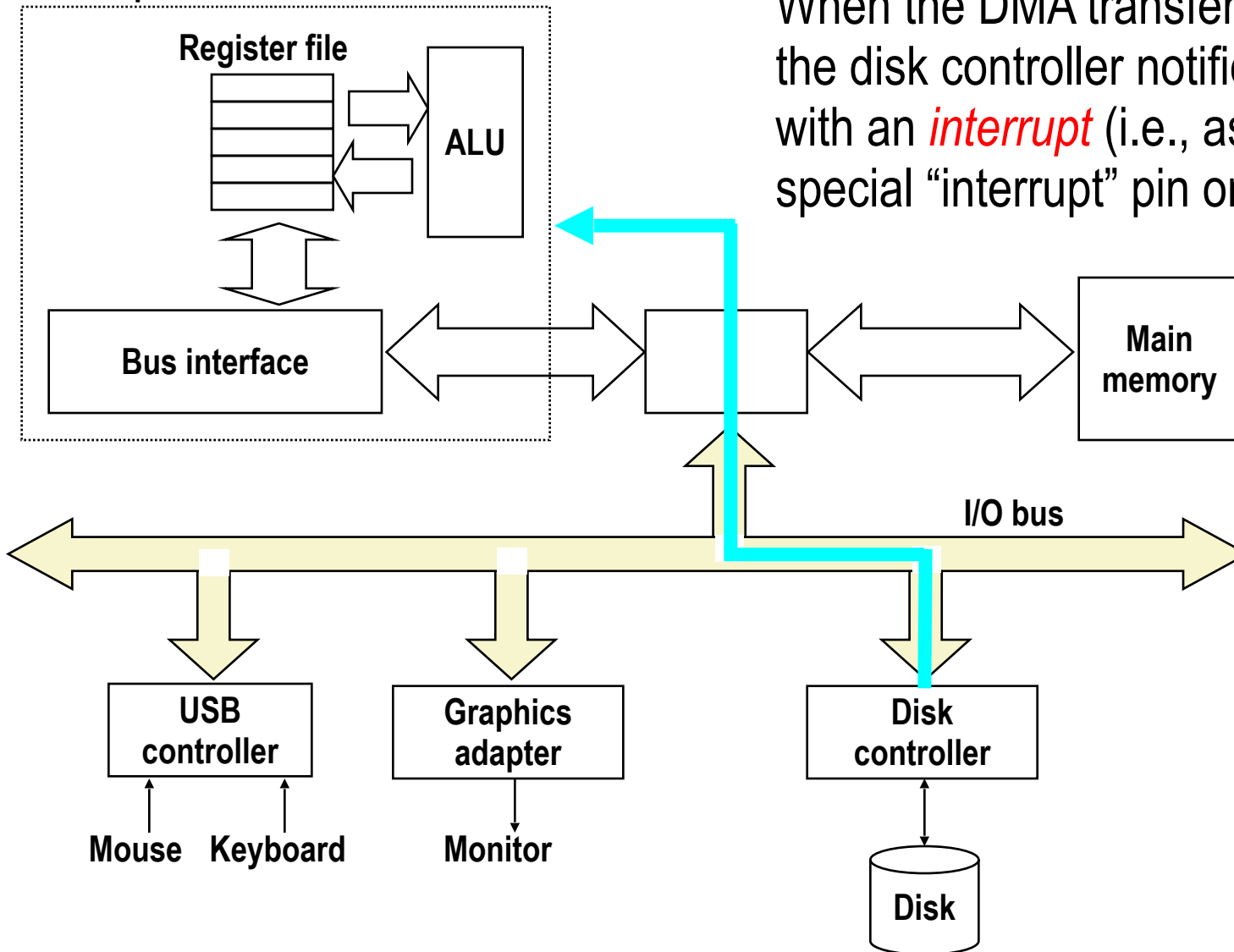
Reading a Disk Sector (2)

CPU chip



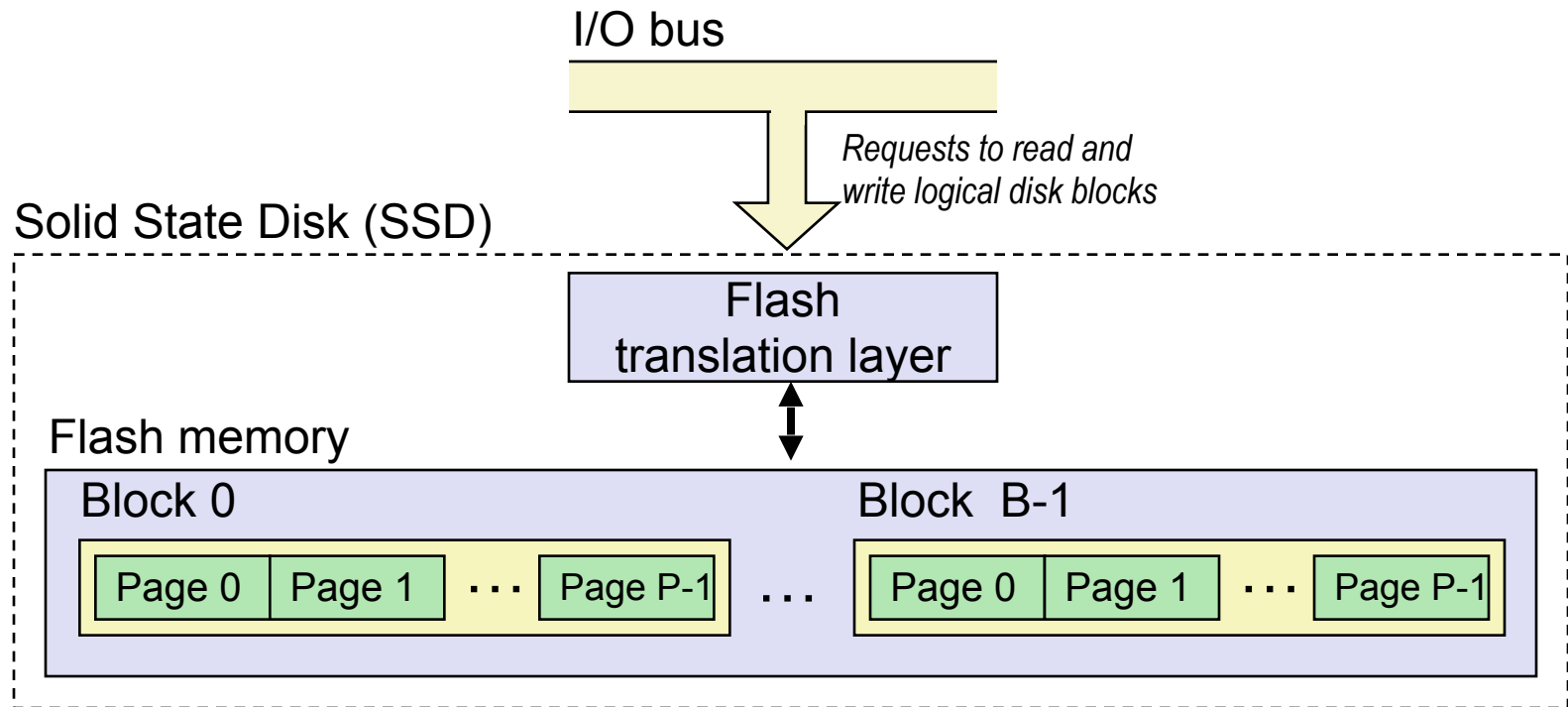
Reading a Disk Sector (3)

CPU chip



When the DMA transfer completes, the disk controller notifies the CPU with an *interrupt* (i.e., asserts a special “interrupt” pin on the CPU)

Solid State Disks (SSDs)



- **Pages: 512KB to 4KB, Blocks: 32 to 128 pages**
- **Data read/written in units of pages.**
- **Page can be written only after its block has been erased**
- **A block wears out after about 100,000 repeated writes.**

SSD Performance Characteristics

Avg seq read time	50 micro seconds
Avg seq write time	60 micro seconds

■ Writes are somewhat slower

- Erasing a block takes a long time (~1 ms)
- Modifying a block page requires all other pages to be copied to new block
- In earlier SSDs, the read/write gap was much larger.

Source: Intel SSD 730 product specification.

SSD Tradeoffs vs Rotating Disks

■ Advantages of SSDs

- No moving parts → faster, less power

■ Disadvantages

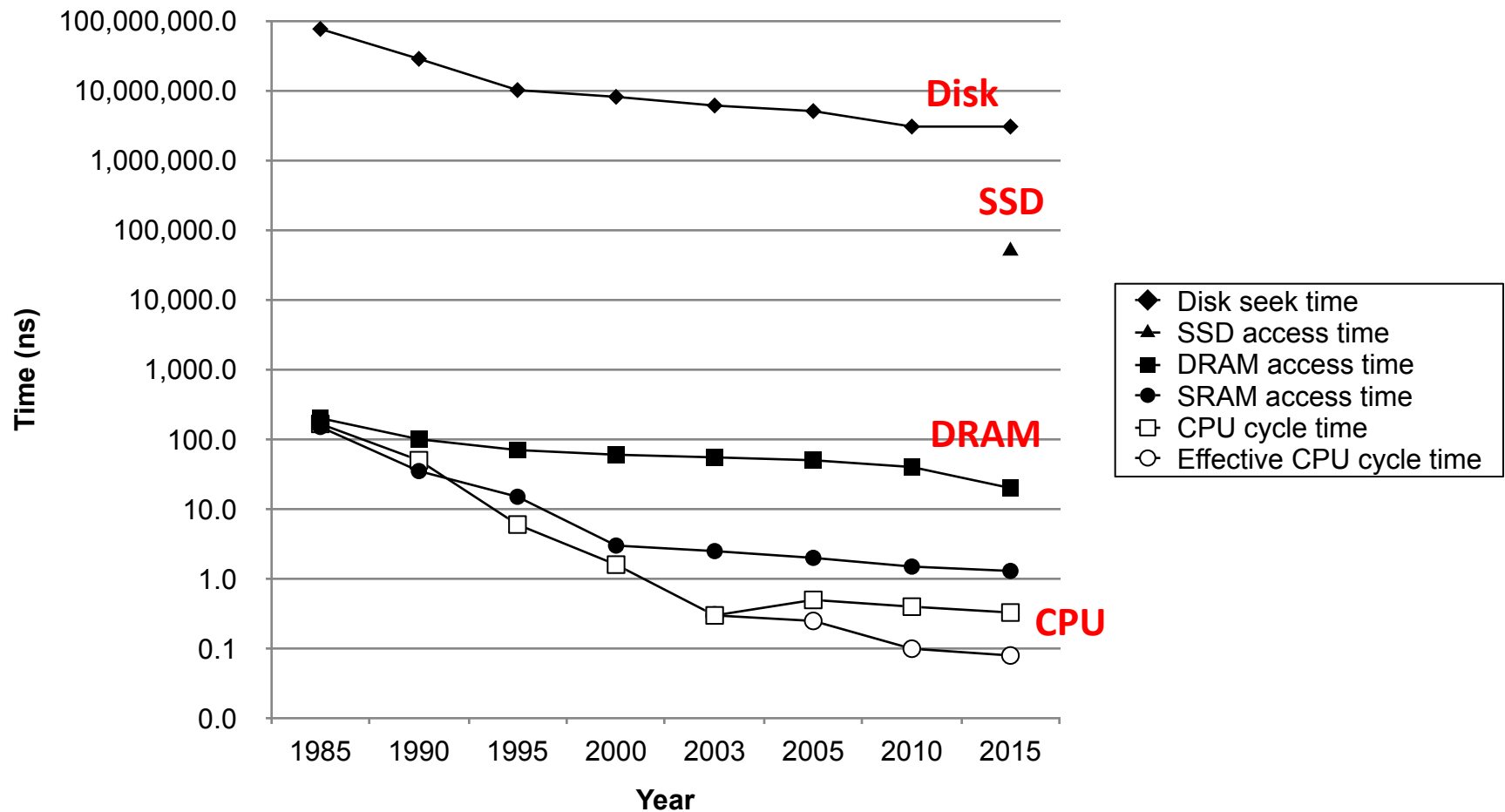
- Have the potential to wear out
 - Mitigated by “wear leveling logic” in flash translation layer
 - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte (128×10^{15} bytes) of writes before they wear out
- About 30 times more expensive per byte

■ Applications

- MP3 players, smart phones
- Laptops and servers

The CPU-Memory Gap

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



Locality to the Rescue!

The key to bridging this CPU-Memory gap is a fundamental property of computer programs known as **locality**

Today

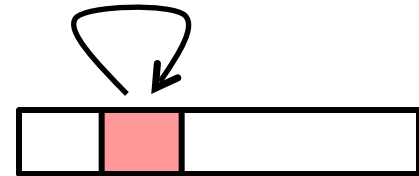
- Storage technologies and trends
- **Locality of reference**
- Concept of memory hierarchy
- Cache memories

Locality

- **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently

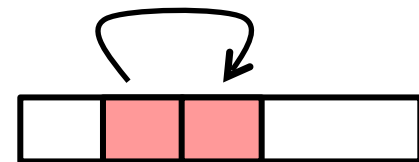
- **Temporal locality:**

- Recently referenced items are likely to be referenced again in the near future



- **Spatial locality:**

- Items with nearby addresses tend to be referenced close together in time



Locality Example

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

■ Data references

- Reference array elements in succession (stride-1 reference pattern).
- Reference variable `sum` each iteration.

Spatial locality

Temporal locality

■ Instruction references

- Reference instructions in sequence.
- Cycle through loop repeatedly.

Spatial locality

Temporal locality

Qualitative Estimates of Locality

■ **Claim:** Being able to look at code and get a qualitative sense of its locality is a key skill for a professional programmer.

■ **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array *a*?

```
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;
}
```

Locality Example

■ **Question:** Does this function have good locality with respect to array *a*?

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

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

Locality Example

■ **Question:** Can you permute the loops so that the function scans the 3-d array `a` with a stride-1 reference pattern (and thus has good spatial locality)?

```
int sum_array_3d(int a[M][N][N])
{
    int i, j, k, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < N; k++)
                sum += a[k][i][j];

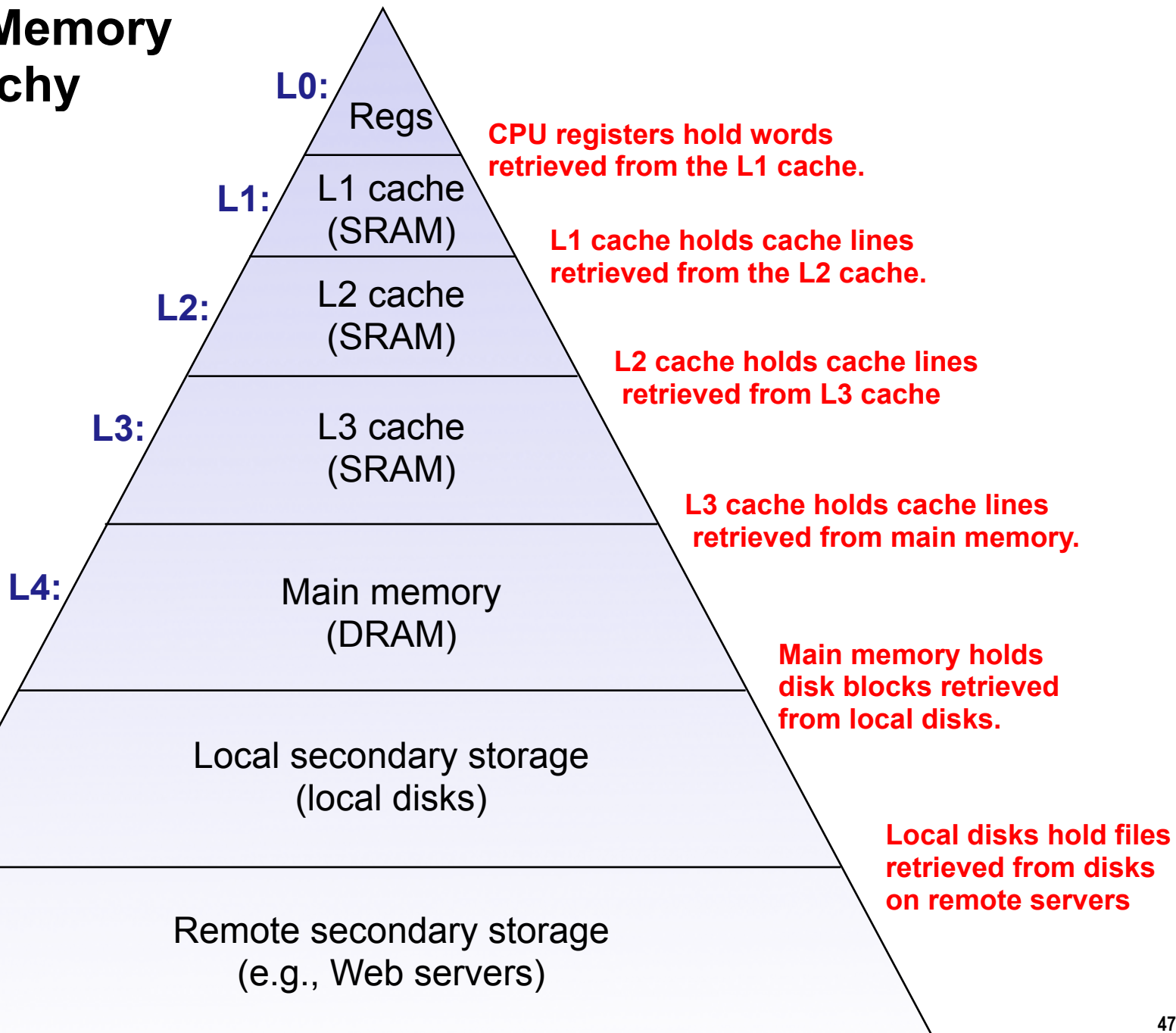
    return sum;
}
```

Today

- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- **Concept of memory hierarchy**
- Cache memories

Example Memory Hierarchy

↑
Smaller,
faster,
and
costlier
(per byte)
storage
devices



↓
Larger,
slower,
and
cheaper
(per byte)
storage
devices

Today

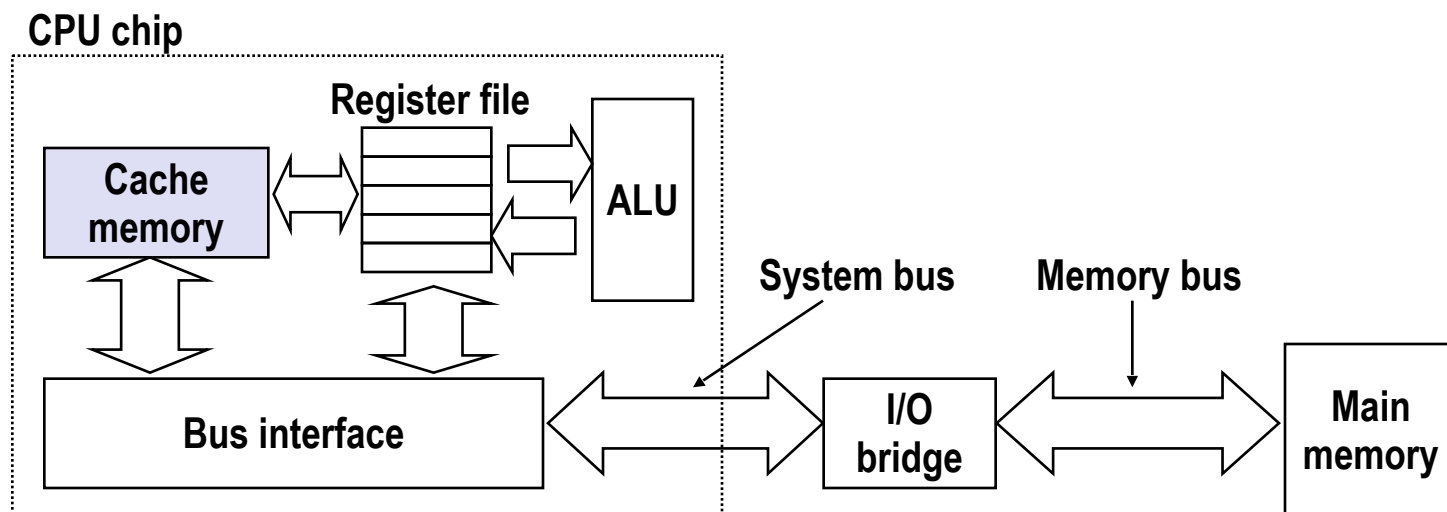
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Concept of memory hierarchy
- **Cache memories**

Caches

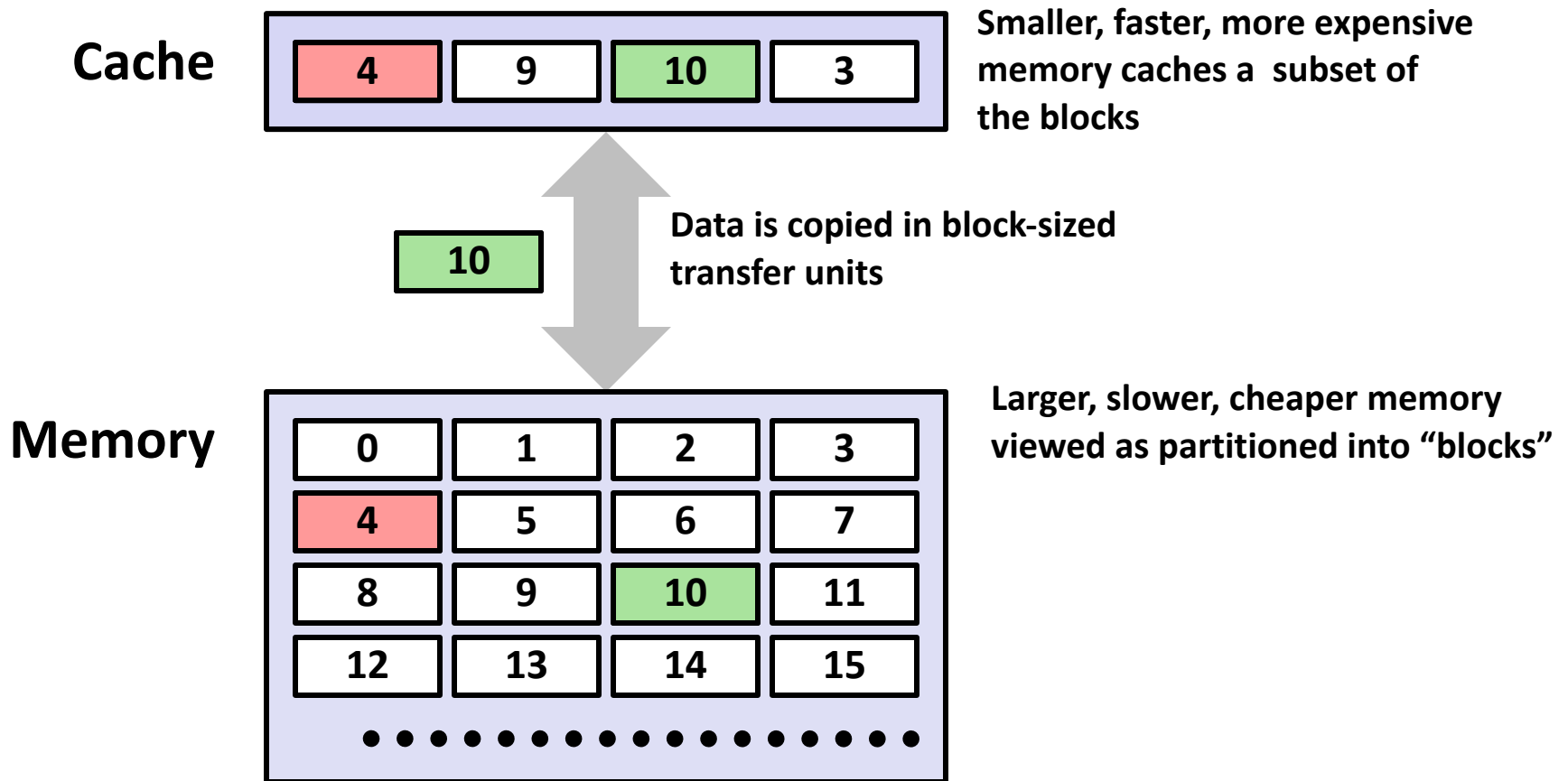
- **Cache:** A smaller, faster storage device that acts as a staging area for a subset of the data in a larger, slower device.
- **Fundamental idea of a memory hierarchy:**
 - For each k , the faster, smaller device at level k serves as a cache for the larger, slower device at level $k+1$.
- **Why do memory hierarchies work?**
 - Because of locality, 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.
- **Big Idea:** The memory hierarchy creates a large pool of storage that costs as much as the cheap storage near the bottom, but that serves data to programs at the rate of the fast storage near the top.

Cache Memories

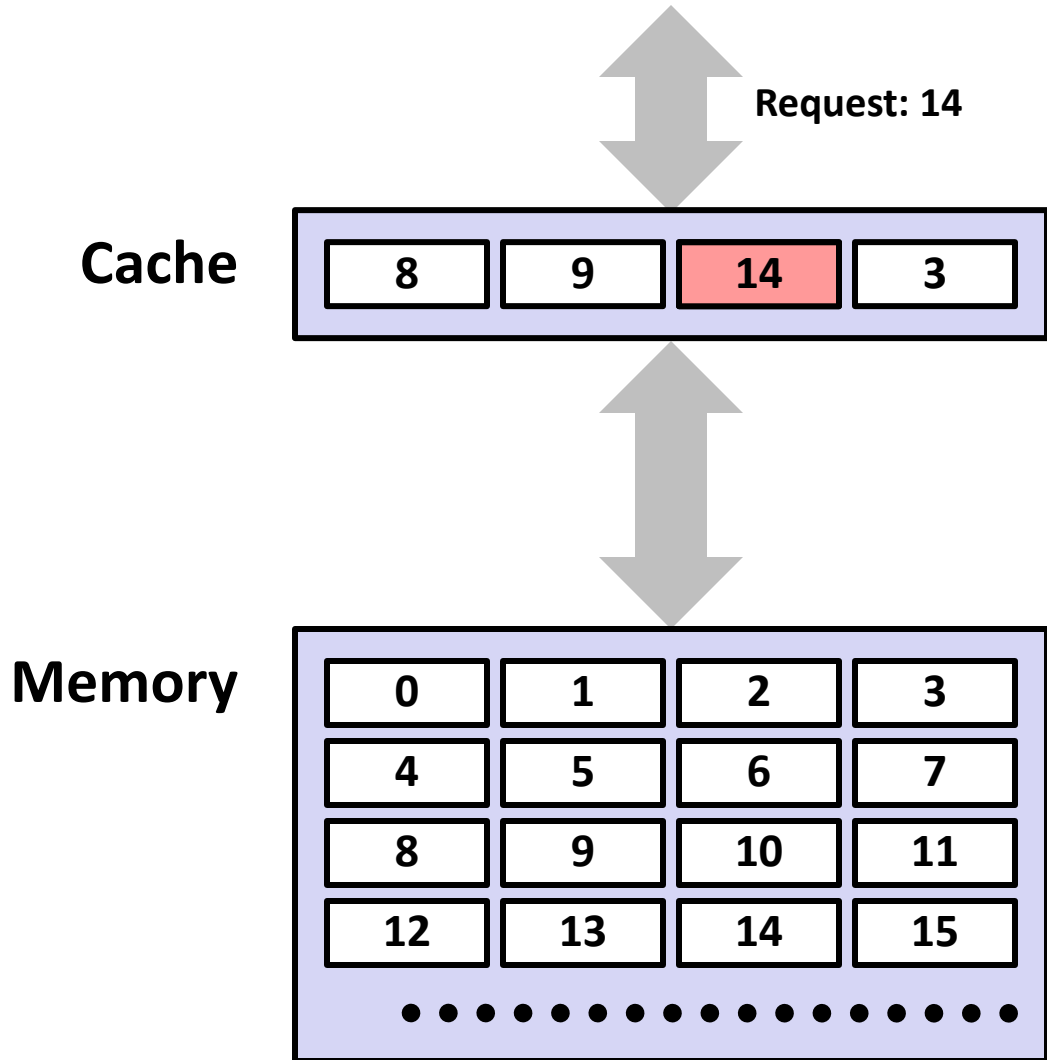
- **Cache memories** are small, fast SRAM-based memories managed automatically in hardware
 - Hold frequently accessed blocks of main memory
- CPU looks first for data in cache
- Typical system structure:



General Cache Concepts



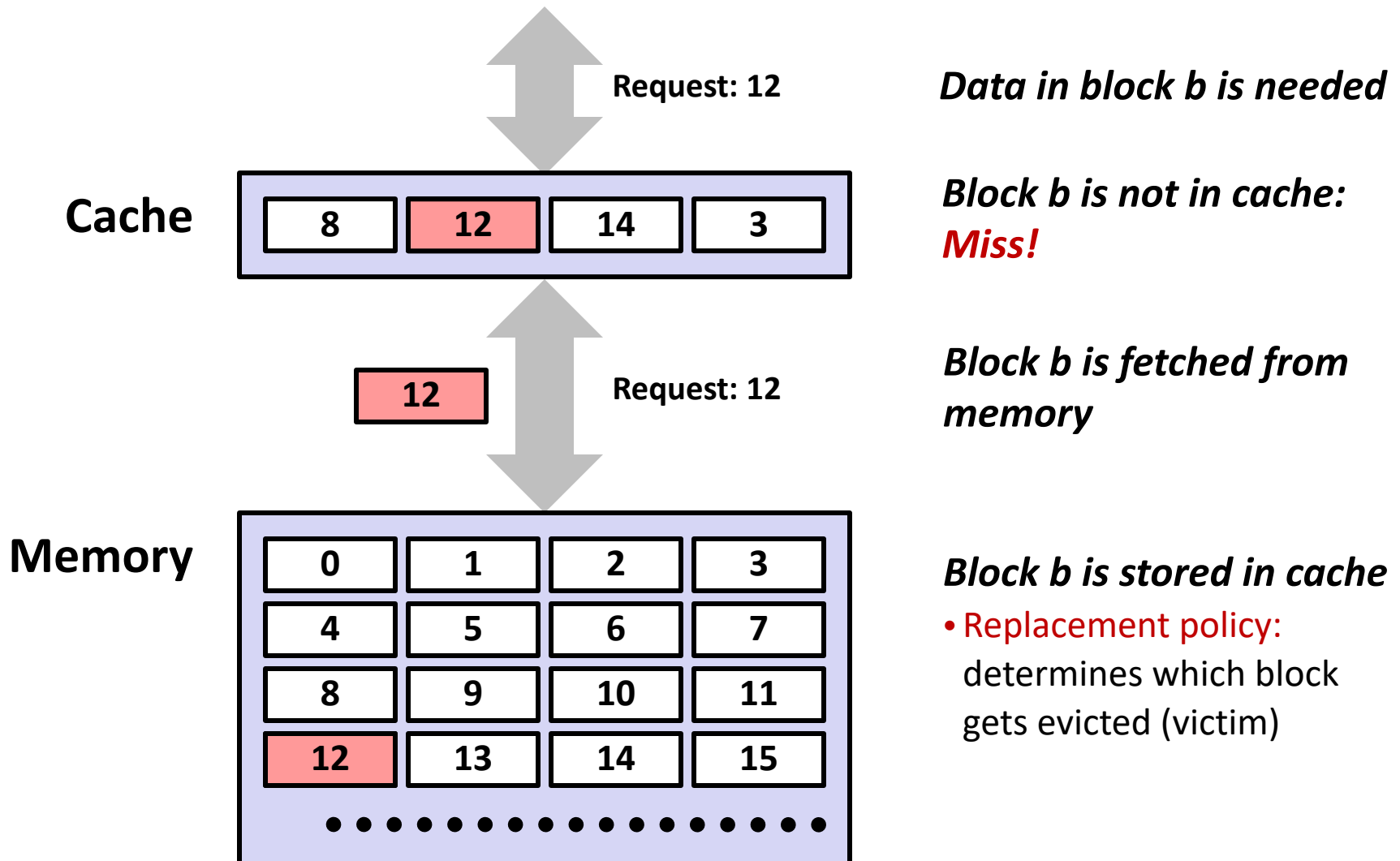
General Cache Concepts: Hit



Data in block b is needed

Block b is in cache:
Hit!

General Cache Concepts: Miss



Types of Cache Misses

■ Cold (compulsory) miss

- Happens when cache is empty.

■ Capacity miss

- Happens when the **working set** is larger than the cache.

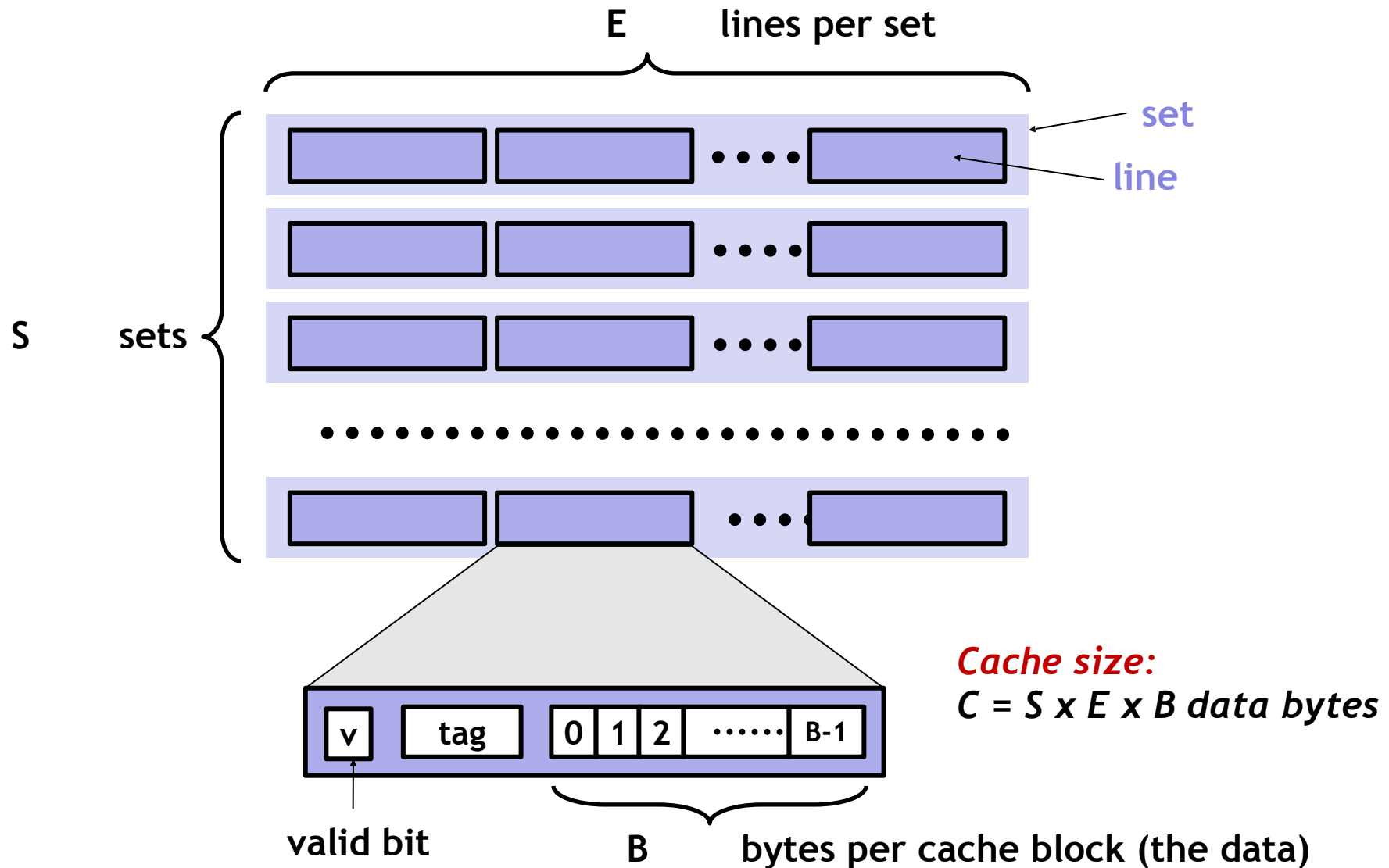
■ Conflict miss

- Happens when multiple data objects map to the same cache block.
 - E.g. Block i at level $k+1$ must be placed in block $(i \bmod 4)$ at level k
 - So referencing blocks 0, 8, 0, 8, 0, 8, ... would miss every time

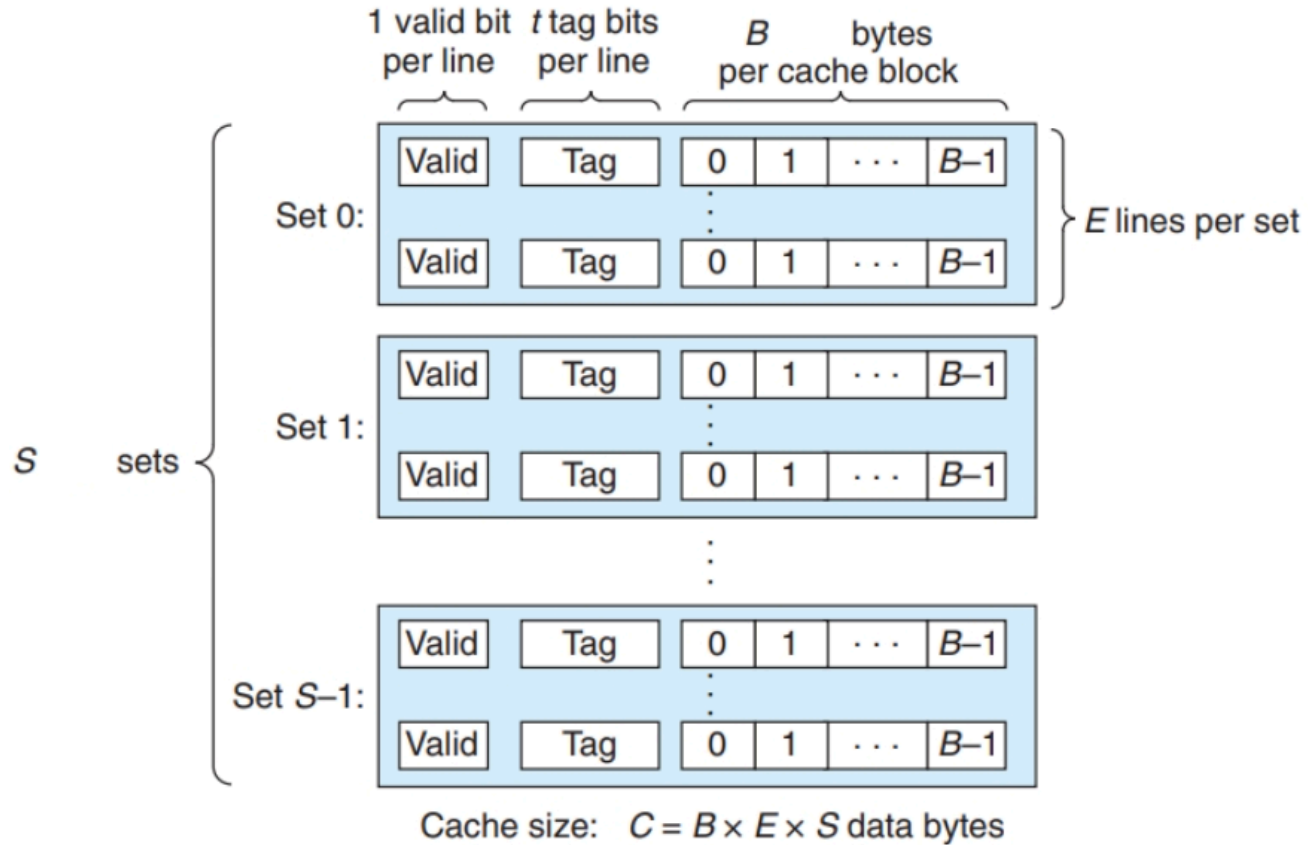
Examples of Caching in the Mem. Hierarchy

Cache Type	What is Cached?	Where is it Cached?	Latency (cycles)	Managed By
Registers	4-8 bytes words	CPU core	0	Compiler
L1 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L1	4	Hardware
L2 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L2	10	Hardware
Main Memory	4-KB pages	Main memory	100	Hardware + OS
Buffer cache	Parts of files	Main memory	100	OS
Browser cache	Web pages	Local disk	10,000,000	Web browser

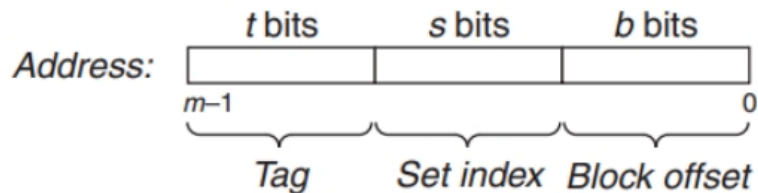
General Cache Organization (S, E, B)



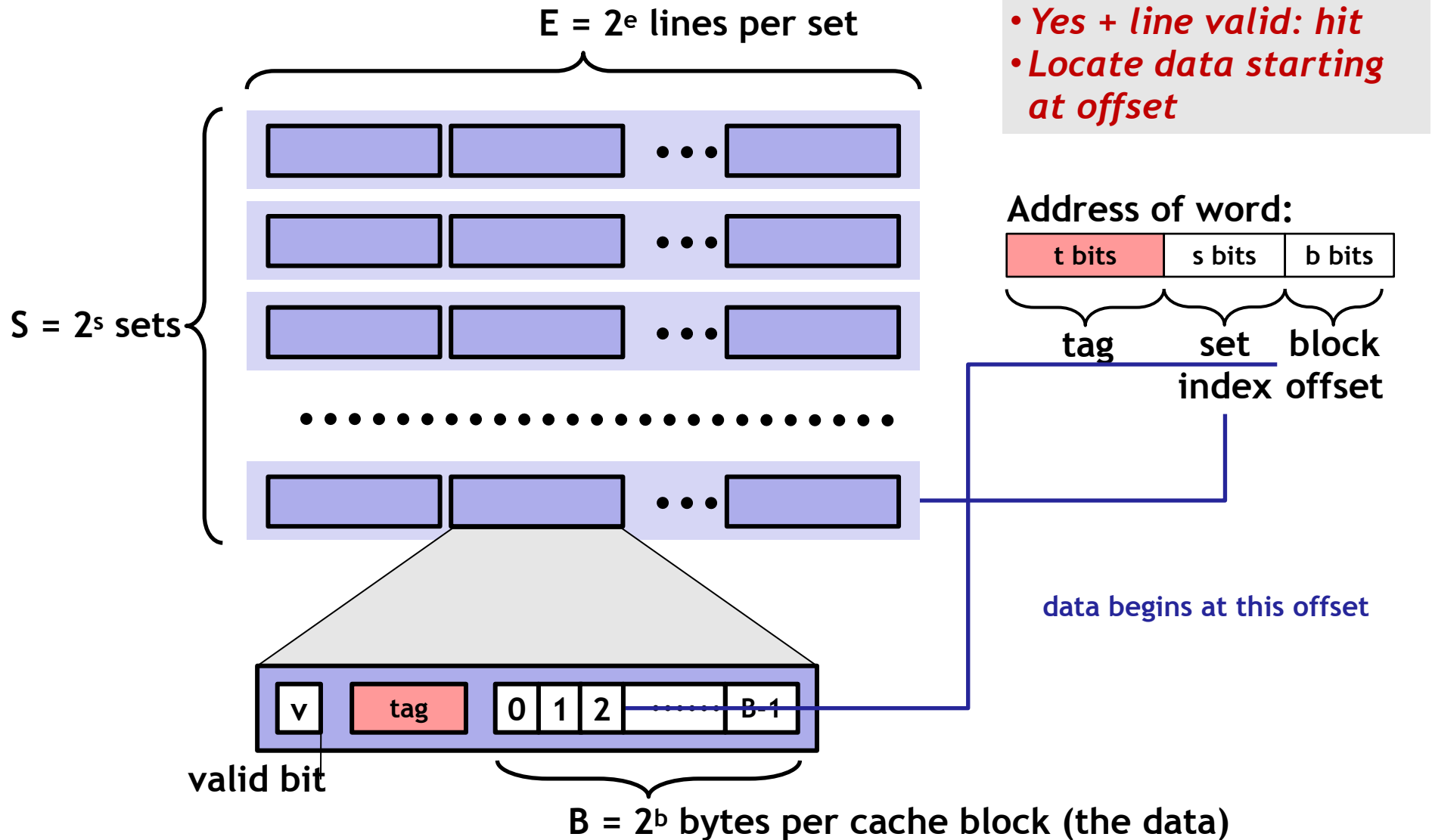
Another View



(a)

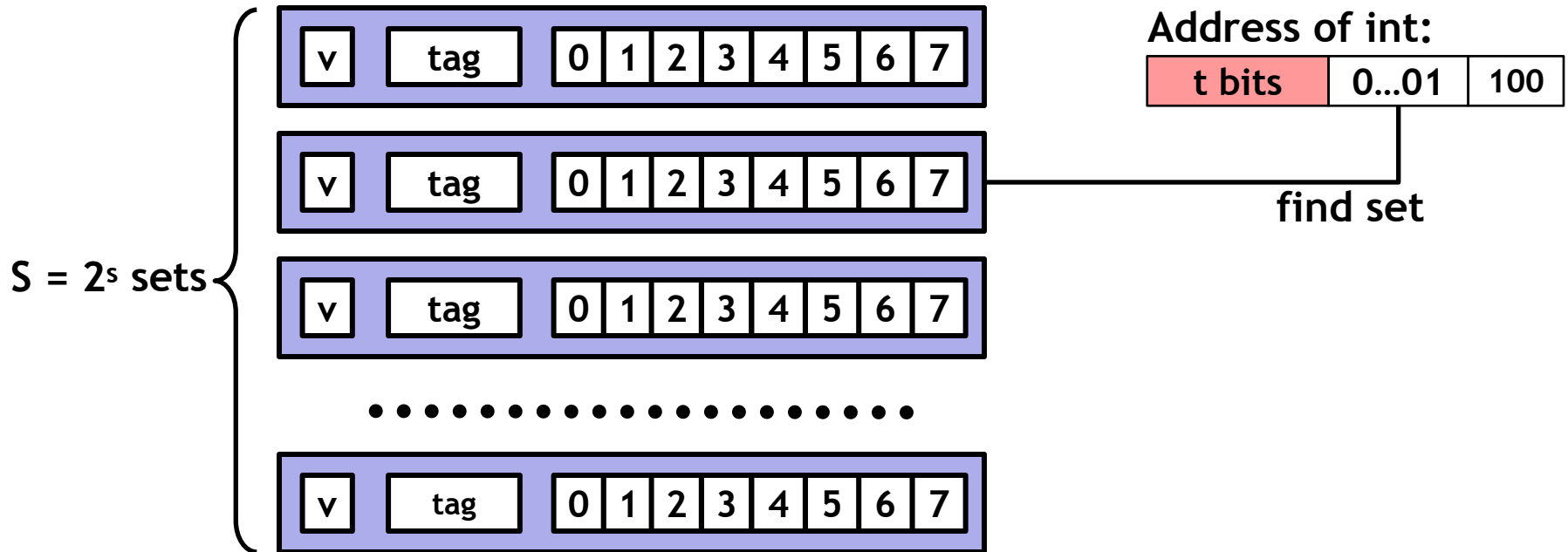


Cache Read



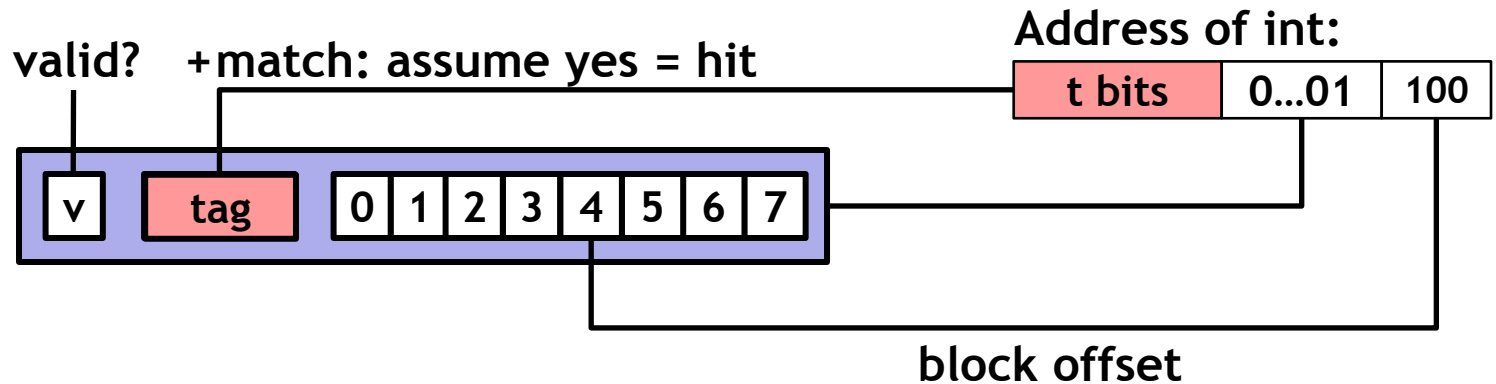
Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



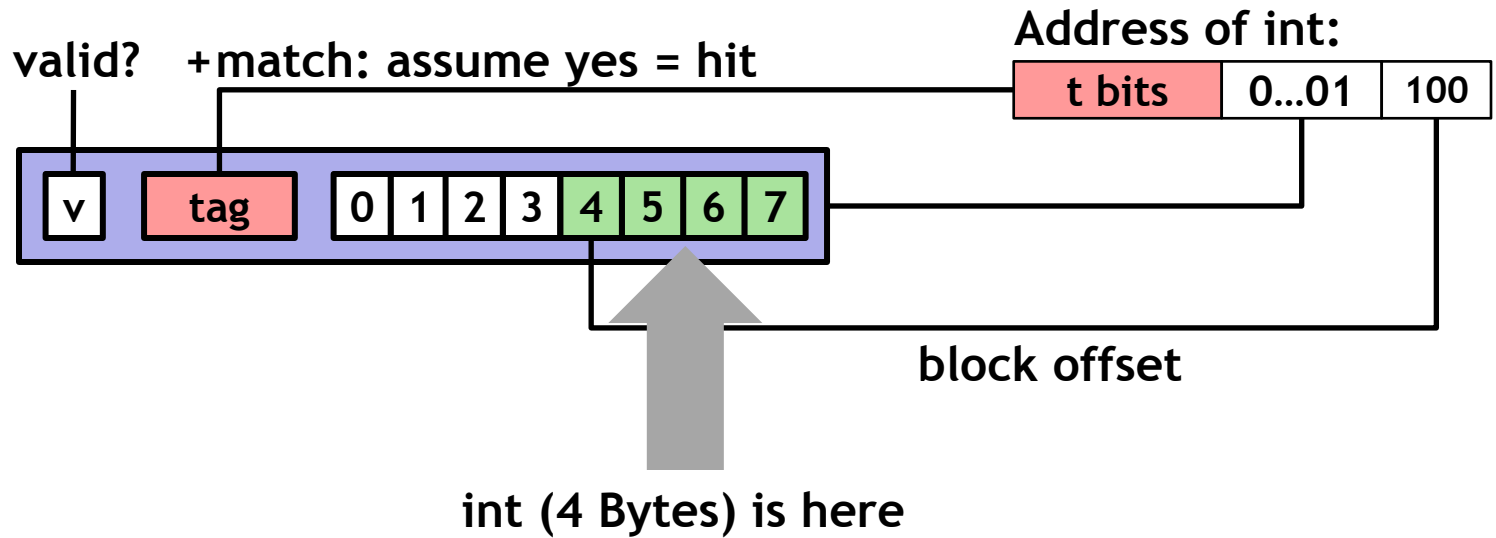
Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



Example: Direct Mapped Cache (E = 1)

Direct mapped: One line per set
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



If tag doesn't match: old line is evicted and replaced

Direct-Mapped Cache Simulation

t=1	s=2	b=1
x	xx	x

M=16 bytes (4-bit addresses), B=2 bytes/block
S=4 sets, E=1 line/set

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):

0	[<u>0000</u> ₂],	miss
1	[<u>0001</u> ₂],	hit
7	[<u>0111</u> ₂],	miss
8	[<u>1000</u> ₂],	miss
0	[<u>0000</u> ₂]	miss

	v	Tag	Block
Set 0	1	0	M[0-1]
Set 1			
Set 2			
Set 3	1	0	M[6-7]

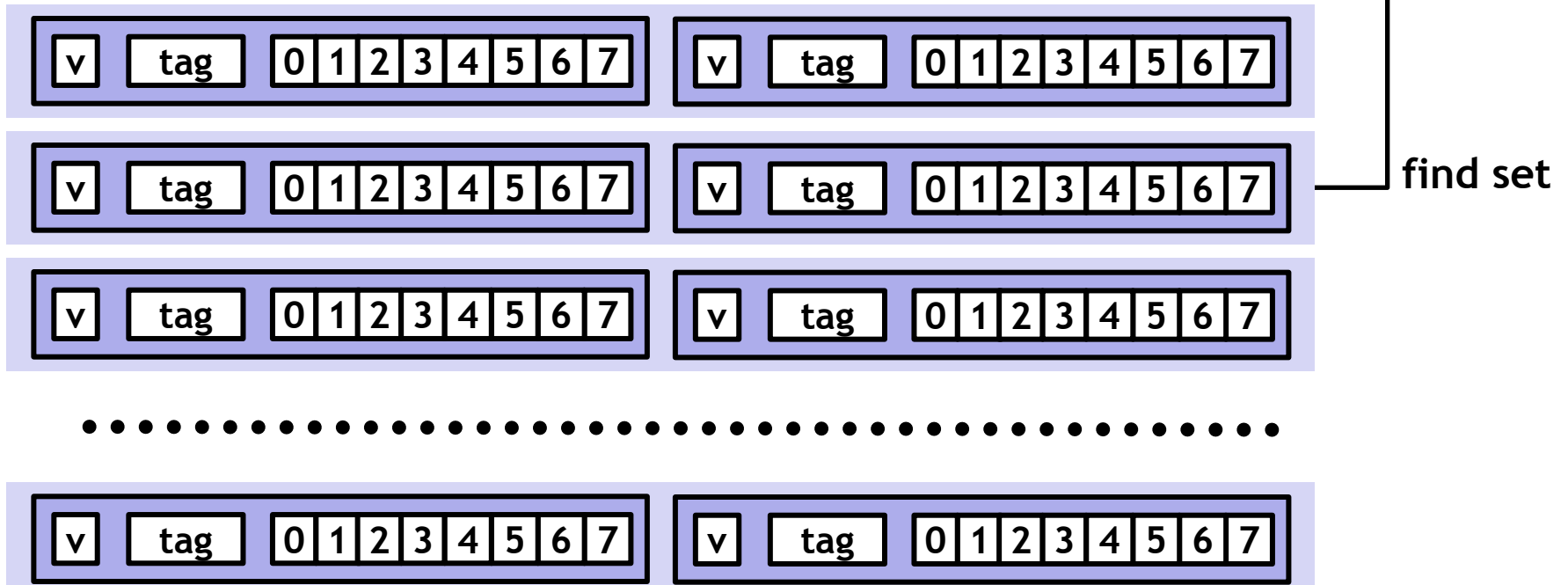
E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

Assume: cache block size 8 bytes

Address of short int:

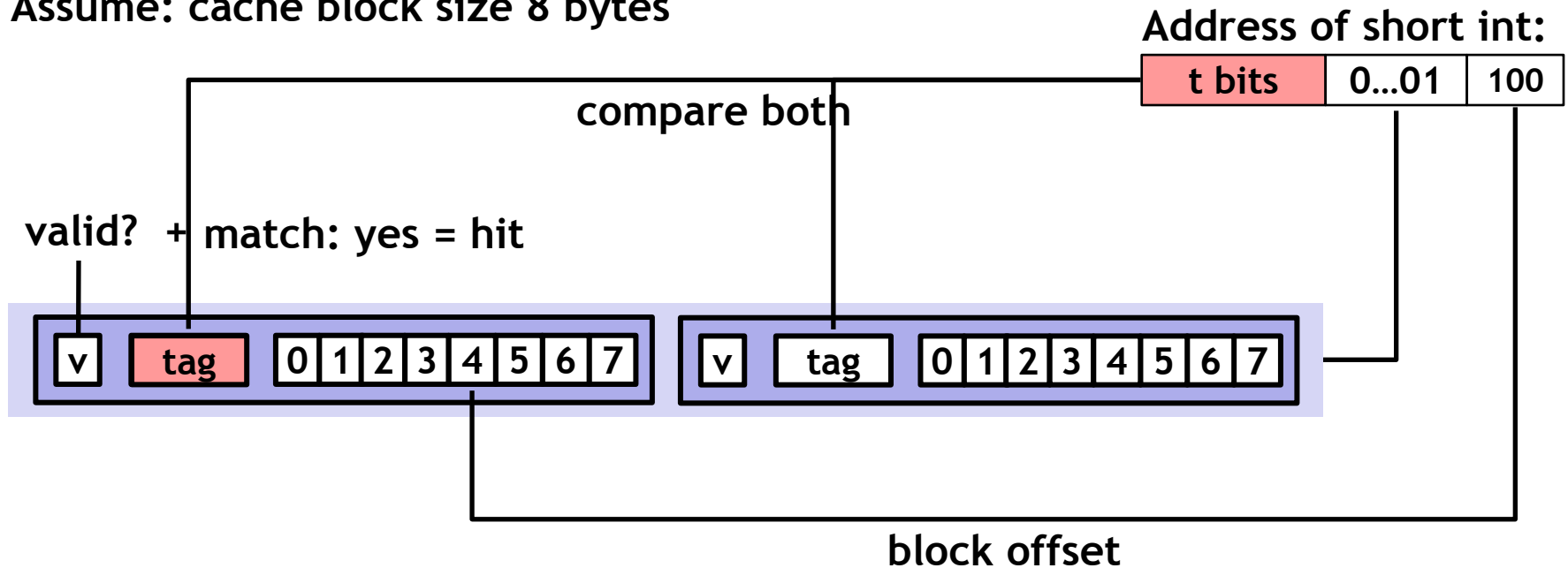
t bits	0...01	100
--------	--------	-----



E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

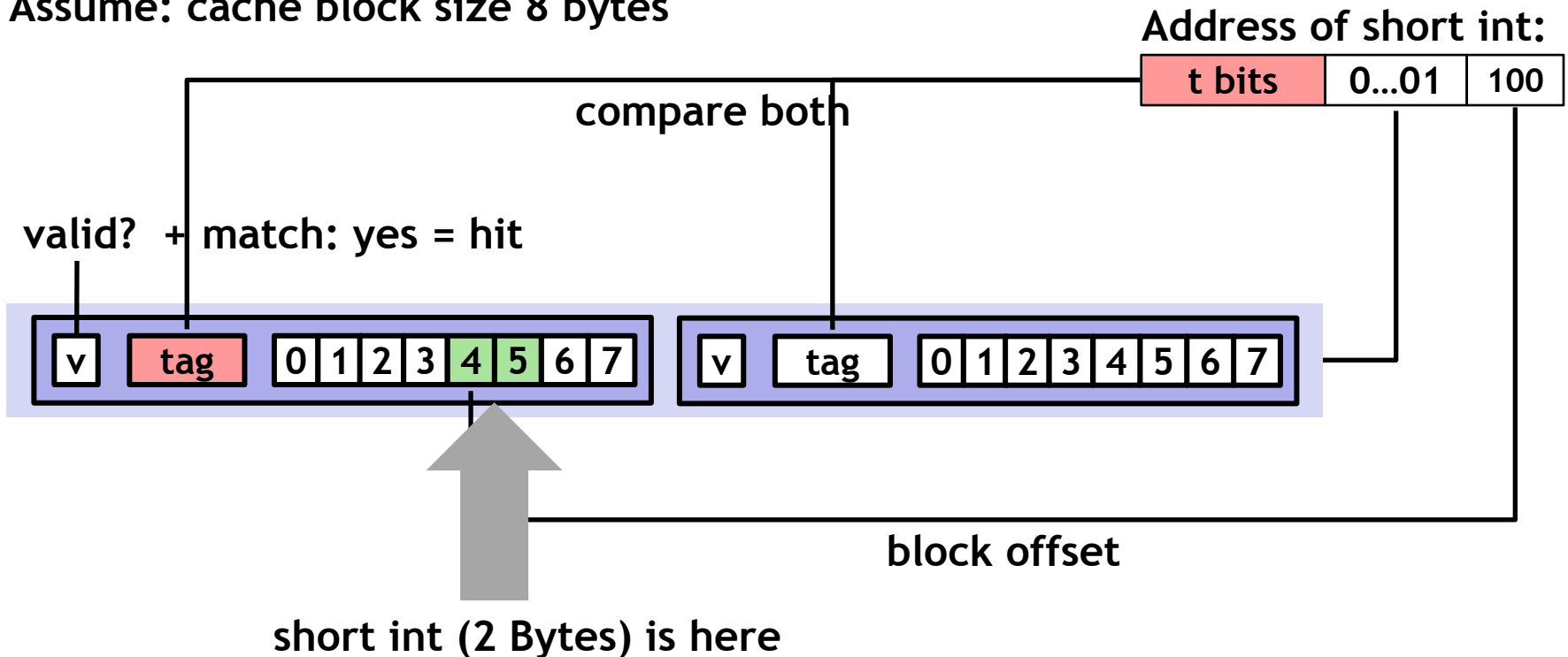
Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



E-way Set Associative Cache (Here: E = 2)

E = 2: Two lines per set

Assume: cache block size 8 bytes



No match:

- One line in set is selected for eviction and replacement
- Replacement policies: random, least recently used (LRU), .

2-Way Set Associative Cache Simulation

t=2	s=1	b=1
xx	x	x

M=16 byte addresses, B=2 bytes/block,
S=2 sets, E=2 lines/set

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):

0	[00 <u>0</u> 0 ₂],	miss
1	[00 <u>0</u> 1 ₂],	hit
7	[01 <u>1</u> 1 ₂],	miss
8	[10 <u>0</u> 0 ₂],	miss
0	[00 <u>0</u> 0 ₂]	hit

	v	Tag	Block
Set 0	1	00	M[0-1]
	1	10	M[8-9]
Set 1	1	01	M[6-7]
	0		

2-Way Set Associative Cache Simulation

t=2	s=1	b=1
xx	x	x

M=16 byte addresses, B=2 bytes/block,
S=2 sets, E=2 lines/set

Address trace (reads, one byte per read):

0 [0100₂],
1 [0001₂],
7 [0001₂],
8 [1100₂],
0 [0000₂]

	v	Tag	Block
Set 0			
Set 1			

What about writes?

■ Multiple copies of data exist:

- L1, L2, L3, Main Memory, Disk

■ What to do on a write-hit?

- **Write-through** (write immediately to memory)
- **Write-back** (defer write to memory until replacement of line)
 - Need a dirty bit (line different from memory or not)

■ What to do on a write-miss?

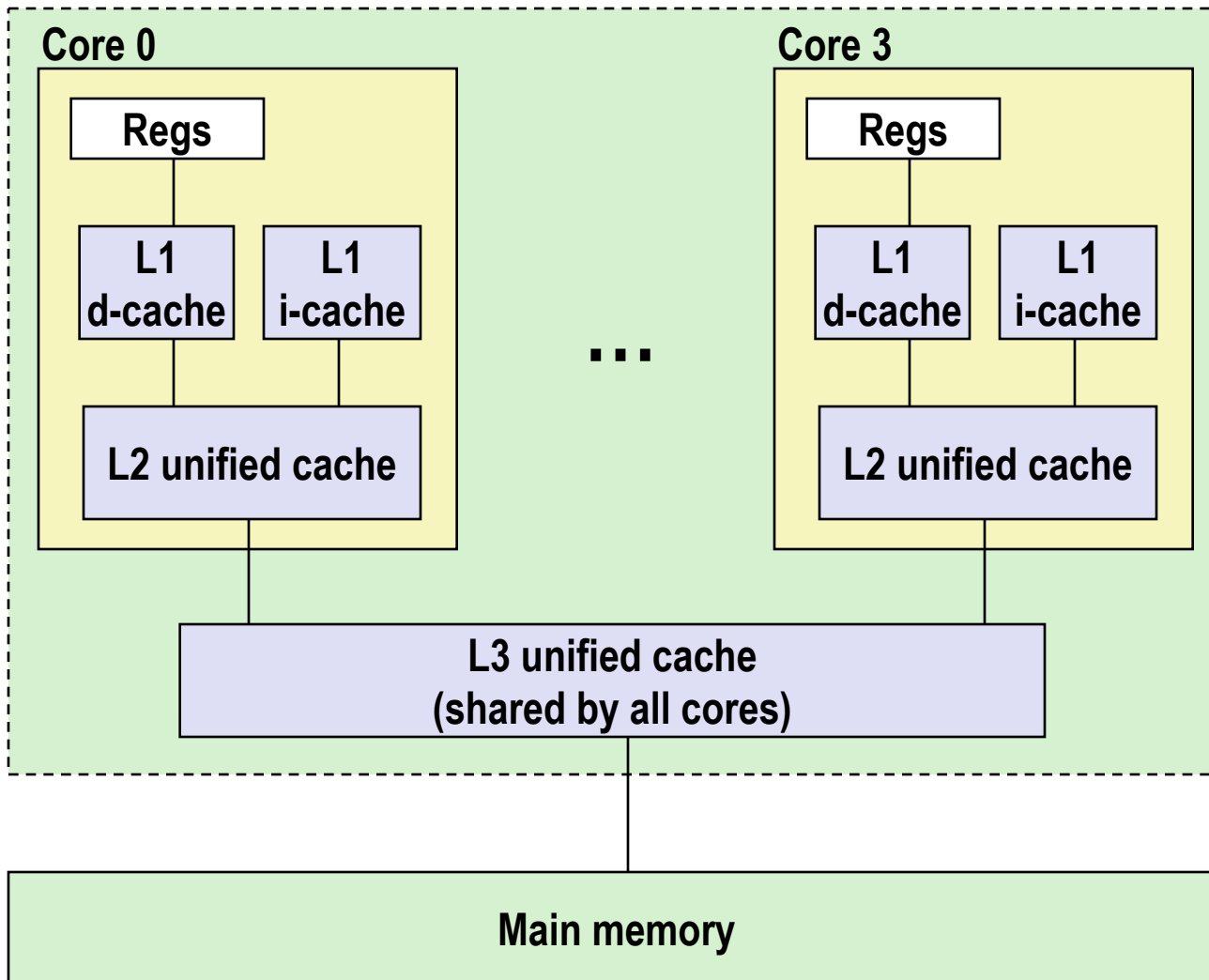
- **Write-allocate** (load into cache, update line in cache)
 - Good if more writes to the location follow
- **No-write-allocate** (writes straight to memory, does not load into cache)

■ Typical

- Write-through + No-write-allocate
- Write-back + Write-allocate

Intel Core i7 Cache Hierarchy

Processor package



L1 i-cache and d-cache:
32 KB, 8-way,
Access: 4 cycles

L2 unified cache:
256 KB, 8-way,
Access: 10 cycles

L3 unified cache:
8 MB, 16-way,
Access: 40-75
cycles

Block size: 64 bytes
for all caches.

Cache Performance Metrics

■ Miss Rate

- Fraction of memory references not found in cache (misses / accesses)
= 1 - hit rate
- Typical numbers (in percentages):
 - 3-10% for L1
 - can be quite small (e.g., < 1%) for L2, depending on size, etc.

Writing Cache Friendly Code

■ Make the common case go fast

- Focus on the inner loops of the core functions

■ Minimize the misses in the inner loops

- Repeated references to variables are good (temporal locality)
- Stride-1 reference patterns are good (spatial locality)