

Introduction

- Programmers want unlimited amounts of memory with low latency
- Fast memory technology is more expensive per bit than slower memory
- Solution: organize memory system into a hierarchy
 - Entire addressable memory space available in largest, slowest memory
 - Incrementally smaller and faster memories, each containing a subset of the memory below it, proceed in steps up toward the processor
- Temporal and spatial locality insures that nearly all references can be found in smaller memories. Temporal: reuse of same data within a short time period; Spatial: reuse of data within proximate locations in memory
 - Gives the allusion of a large, fast memory being presented to the processor

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Memory Hierarchy Design

- Memory hierarchy design becomes more crucial with recent multi-core processors:
 - Aggregate peak bandwidth grows with # cores:
 - Intel Core i7 can generate two references per core per clock
 - Four cores and 3.2 GHz clock
 - 25.6 billion 64-bit data references/second +
 - 12.8 billion 128-bit instruction references/second
 - = 409.6 GB/s!
 - DRAM bandwidth is only 8% of this (34.1 GB/s)
 - Requires:
 - Multi-port, pipelined caches
 - Two levels of cache per core
 - Shared third-level cache on chip

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Memory Hierarchy (A) Because fast memory is more expensive, a memory hierarchy is organized into several levels — each smaller, faster and more expensive per byte than the next lower level, which is farther from the processor

Performance and Power

- High-end microprocessors have >10 MB on-chip cache
 - Consumes large amount of area and power budget

Memory Hierarchy Basics

- When a word is not found in the cache, a miss occurs:
 - Fetch word from lower level in hierarchy, requiring a higher latency reference
 - Lower level may be another cache or the main memory
 - Also fetch the other words contained within the *block*
 - Takes advantage of spatial locality
 - Place block into cache in any location within its set, determined by address
 - block address MOD number of sets in cache

Memory Hierarchy Basics

 $\frac{\textit{Misses}}{\textit{Instruction}} = \frac{\textit{Miss rate} \times \textit{Memory accesses}}{\textit{Instruction count}} = \textit{Miss rate} \times \frac{\textit{Memory accesses}}{\textit{Instruction}}$

Average memory access time = $Hit time + Miss rate \times Miss penalty$

- Speculative and multithreaded processors may execute other instructions during a miss
 - Reduces performance impact of misses

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Memory Hierarchy Basics

- n sets => n-way set associative
 - Direct-mapped cache => one block per set
 - Fully associative => one set
- Writing to cache: two strategies
 - Write-through
 - Immediately update lower levels of hierarchy
 - Write-back
 - Only update lower levels of hierarchy when an updated block is replaced
 - Both strategies use write buffer to make writes asynchronous

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Memory Hierarchy Basics

- Six basic cache optimizations:
 - Larger block size
 - Reduces compulsory misses
 - Increases capacity and conflict misses, increases miss penalty
 - Larger total cache capacity to reduce miss rate
 - Increases hit time, increases power consumption
 - Higher associativity
 - Reduces conflict misses
 - Increases hit time, increases power consumption
 - Higher number of cache levels
 - Reduces overall memory access time
 - Giving priority to read misses over writes
 - Reduces miss penalty
 - Avoiding address translation in cache indexing
 - Reduces hit time

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Memory Hierarchy Basics

- Miss rate
 - Fraction of cache access that result in a miss
- Causes of misses
 - Compulsory
 - First reference to a block
 - Capacity
 - Blocks discarded and later retrieved
 - Conflict
 - Program makes repeated references to multiple addresses from different blocks that map to the same location in the cache

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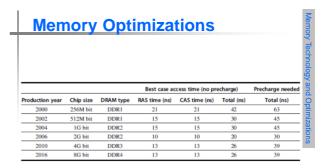
Memory Technology and Optimizations

- Performance metrics
 - Latency is concern of cache
 - Bandwidth is concern of multiprocessors and I/O
 - Access time
 - Time between read request and when desired word arrives
 - Cycle time
 - Minimum time between unrelated requests to memory
- SRAM memory has low latency, use for cache
- Organize DRAM chips into many banks for high bandwidth, use for main memory

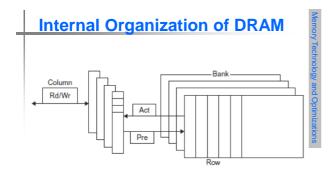
Memory Technology

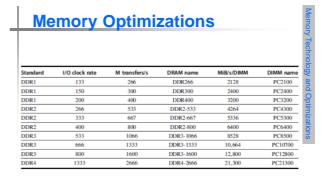
- SRAM
 - Requires low power to retain bit
 - Requires 6 transistors/bit
- DRAM
 - Must be re-written after being read
 - Must also be periodically refreshed
 - Every ~ 8 ms (roughly 5% of time)
 - Each row can be refreshed simultaneously
 - One transistor/bit
 - Address lines are multiplexed:
 - Upper half of address: row access strobe (RAS)
 - Lower half of address: column access strobe (CAS)

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Memory Technology

- Amdahl:
 - Memory capacity should grow linearly with processor speed
 - Unfortunately, memory capacity and speed has not kept pace with processors
- Some optimizations:
 - Multiple accesses to same row
 - Synchronous DRAM
 - Added clock to DRAM interface
 - Burst mode with critical word first
 - Wider interfaces
 - Double data rate (DDR)
 - Multiple banks on each DRAM device

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Memory Optimizations

- DDR:
 - DDR2
 - Lower power (2.5 V -> 1.8 V)
 - Higher clock rates (266 MHz, 333 MHz, 400 MHz)
 - DDR3
 - 1.5 V
 - 800 MHz
 - DDR4
 - 1-1.2 V
 - 1333 MHz
- GDDR5 is graphics memory based on DDR3

Memory Optimizations

- Reducing power in SDRAMs:
 - Lower voltage
 - Low power mode (ignores clock, continues to refresh)
- Graphics memory:

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- Achieve 2-5 X bandwidth per DRAM vs. DDR3
 - Wider interfaces (32 vs. 16 bit)
 - Higher clock rate
 - Possible because they are attached via soldering instead of socketted DIMM modules

Flash Memory

- Type of EEPROM
- Types: NAND (denser) and NOR (faster)
- NAND Flash:
 - Reads are sequential, reads entire page (.5 to 4 KiB)
 - 25 us for first byte, 40 MiB/s for subsequent bytes
 - SDRAM: 40 ns for first byte, 4.8 GB/s for subsequent bytes
 - 2 KiB transfer: 75 uS vs 500 ns for SDRAM, 150X slower
 - 300 to 500X faster than magnetic disk

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Memory Power Consumption 600 500 Power in mW 400 ■ Read, write, terminate 300 power Activate power 200 ■ Background power 100 Low Typical Fully power usage active . mode

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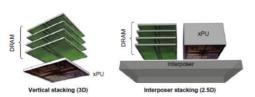
NAND Flash Memory

- Must be erased (in blocks) before being overwritten
- Nonvolatile, can use as little as zero power
- Limited number of write cycles (~100,000)
- \$2/GiB, compared to \$20-40/GiB for SDRAM and \$0.09 GiB for magnetic disk
- Phase-Change/Memrister Memory
 - Possibly 10X improvement in write performance and 2X improvement in read performance

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Stacked/Embedded DRAMs

- Stacked DRAMs in same package as processor
 - High Bandwidth Memory (HBM)



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Memory Dependability

- Memory is susceptible to cosmic rays
- Soft errors: dynamic errors
 - Detected and fixed by error correcting codes (ECC)
- Hard errors: permanent errors
 - Use spare rows to replace defective rows
- Chipkill: a RAID-like error recovery technique

Advanced Optimizations

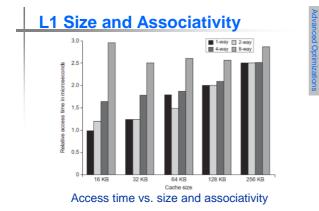
- Reduce hit time
 - Small and simple first-level caches
 - Way prediction
- Increase bandwidth
 - Pipelined caches, multibanked caches, non-blocking caches
- Reduce miss penalty
 - · Critical word first, merging write buffers
- Reduce miss rate
 - Compiler optimizations
- Reduce miss penalty or miss rate via parallelization
 - Hardware or compiler prefetching

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Way Prediction

- To improve hit time, predict the way to pre-set mux
 - Mis-prediction gives longer hit time
 - Prediction accuracy
 - > 90% for two-way
 - > 80% for four-way
 - I-cache has better accuracy than D-cache
 - First used on MIPS R10000 in mid-90s
 - Used on ARM Cortex-A8
- Extend to predict block as well
 - "Way selection"
 - Increases mis-prediction penalty

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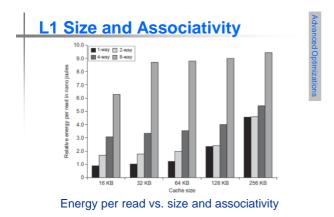


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Pipelined Caches

- Pipeline cache access to improve bandwidth
 - Examples:
 - Pentium: 1 cycle
 - Pentium Pro Pentium III: 2 cycles
 - Pentium 4 Core i7: 4 cycles
- Increases branch mis-prediction penalty
- Makes it easier to increase associativity

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Multibanked Caches

 Organize cache as independent banks to support simultaneous access
 ARM Cortex-A8 supports 1-4 banks for L2
 Intel i7 supports 4 banks for L1 and 8 banks for L2

 Interleave banks according to block address

| Block | Bank 0 | Block | Bank 1 | Block | Bank 2 | Block | Bank 3 | Address | Bank 3 | Block | Ban

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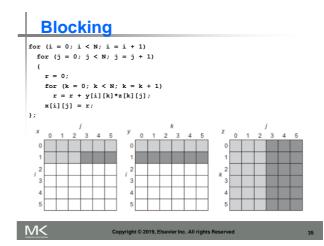
Compiler Optimizations

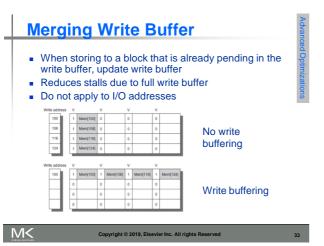
- Loop Interchange
 - Swap nested loops to access memory in sequential order
- Blocking
 - Instead of accessing entire rows or columns, subdivide matrices into blocks
 - Requires more memory accesses but improves locality of accesses

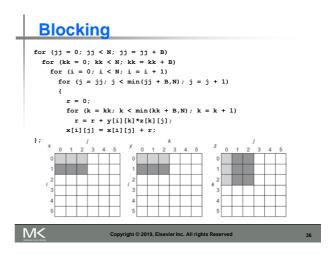
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Critical Word First, Early Restart

- Critical word first
 - Request missed word from memory first
 - Send it to the processor as soon as it arrives
- Early restart
 - Request words in normal order
 - Send missed work to the processor as soon as it arrives
- Effectiveness of these strategies depends on block size and likelihood of another access to the portion of the block that has not yet been fetched







Use HBM to Extend Hierarchy

- Another approach (Alloy cache):
 - Mold tag and data together
 - Use direct mapped
- Both schemes require two DRAM accesses for misses
 - Two solutions:
 - Use map to keep track of blocks
 - Predict likely misses

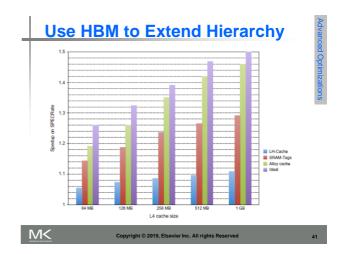
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Compiler Prefetching

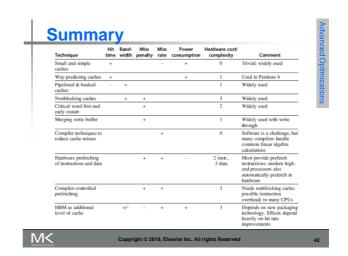
- Insert prefetch instructions before data is needed
- Non-faulting: prefetch doesn't cause exceptions
- Register prefetch
 - Loads data into register
- Cache prefetch
 - Loads data into cache
- Combine with loop unrolling and software pipelining

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Use HBM to Extend Hierarchy

- 128 MiB to 1 GiB
- Smaller blocks require substantial tag storage
- Larger blocks are potentially inefficient
- One approach (L-H):
 - Each SDRAM row is a block index
 - Each row contains set of tags and 29 data segments
 - 29-set associative
 - Hit requires a CAS



Virtual Memory and Virtual Machines

- Protection via virtual memory
 - Keeps processes in their own memory space
- Role of architecture
 - Provide user mode and supervisor mode
 - Protect certain aspects of CPU state
 - Provide mechanisms for switching between user mode and supervisor mode
 - Provide mechanisms to limit memory accesses
 - Provide TLB to translate addresses

Impact of VMs on Virtual Memory

- Each guest OS maintains its own set of page tables
 - VMM adds a level of memory between physical and virtual memory called "real memory"
 - VMM maintains shadow page table that maps guest virtual addresses to physical addresses
 - Requires VMM to detect guest's changes to its own page
 - Occurs naturally if accessing the page table pointer is a privileged operation

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Virtual Machines

- Supports isolation and security
- Sharing a computer among many unrelated users
- Enabled by raw speed of processors, making the overhead more acceptable
- Allows different ISAs and operating systems to be presented to user programs
 - "System Virtual Machines"
 - SVM software is called "virtual machine monitor" or "hypervisor"
 - Individual virtual machines run under the monitor are called "auest VMs

Extending the ISA for Virtualization

- Objectives:
 - Avoid flushing TLB
 - Use nested page tables instead of shadow page
 - Allow devices to use DMA to move data
 - Allow guest OS's to handle device interrupts
 - For security: allow programs to manage encrypted portions of code and data

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Requirements of VMM

- Guest software should:
 - Behave on as if running on native hardware
 - Not be able to change allocation of real system
- VMM should be able to "context switch" guests
- Hardware must allow:
 - System and use processor modes
 - Privileged subset of instructions for allocating system resources

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Fallacies and Pitfalls

- Predicting cache performance of one program from another
- Simulating enough instructions to get accurate performance measures of the memory hierarchy
- Not deliverying high memory bandwidth in a cache-based system