CS207: Term I/2018-19

Lecture 18: Memory Hierarchy





Today

- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

Random-Access Memory (RAM)

Key features

- RAM is traditionally 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?	Needs EDC?	Cost	Applications
SRAM	4 or 6	1X	No	Maybe	100x	Cache memories
DRAM	1	10X	Yes	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

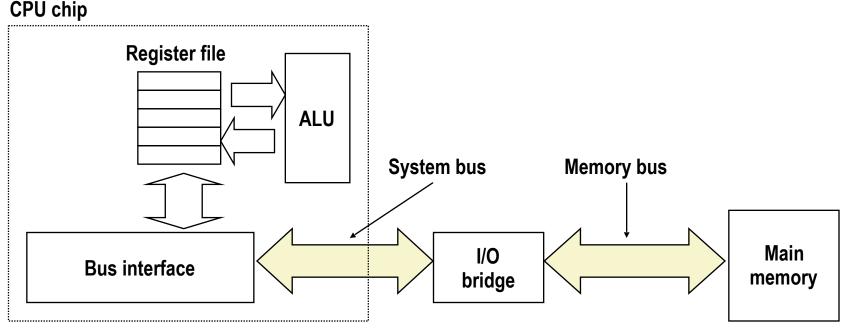
- Read-only memory (ROM): programmed during production
- Programmable ROM (PROM): can be programmed once
- Eraseable PROM (EPROM): can be bulk erased (UV, X-Ray)
- Electrically eraseable PROM (EEPROM): electronic erase capability
- Flash memory: EEPROMs. with partial (block-level) erase capability
 - Wears out after about 100,000 erasings

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

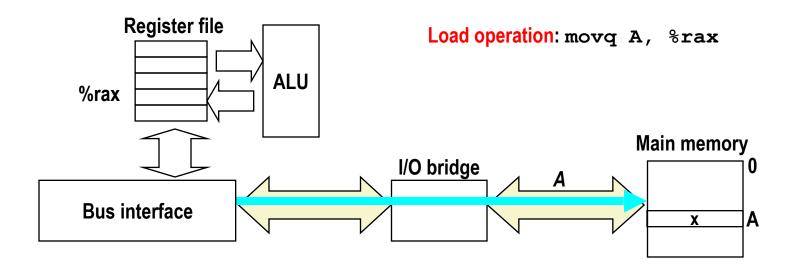
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

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



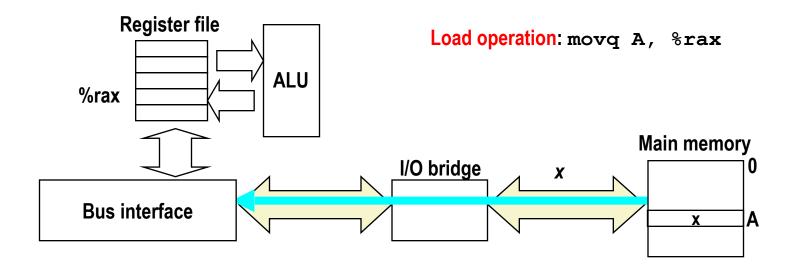
Memory Read Transaction (1)

CPU places address A on the memory bus.



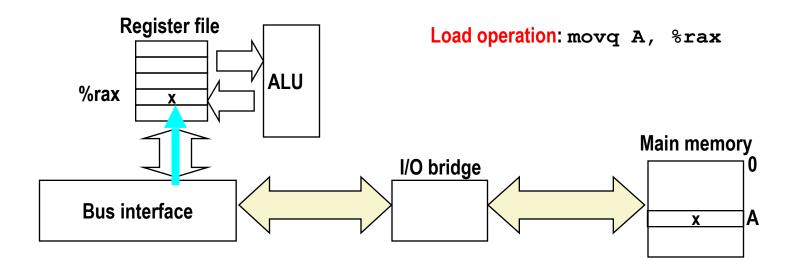
Memory Read Transaction (2)

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



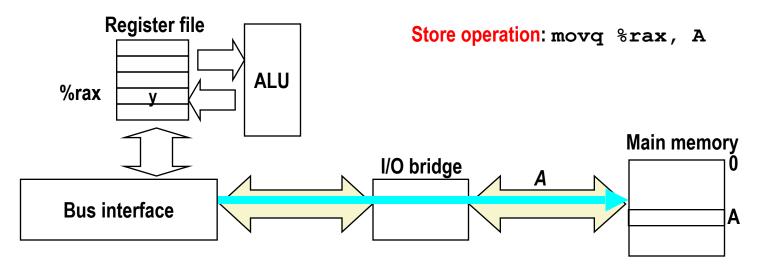
Memory Read Transaction (3)

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



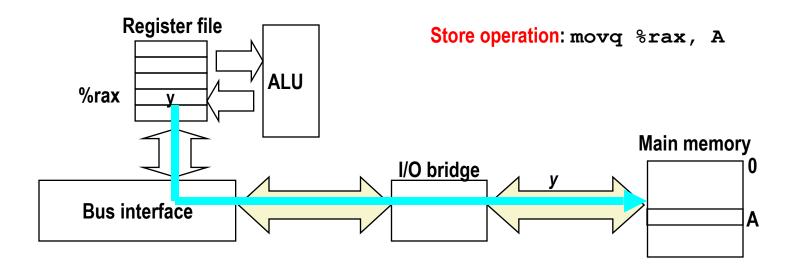
Memory Write Transaction (1)

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



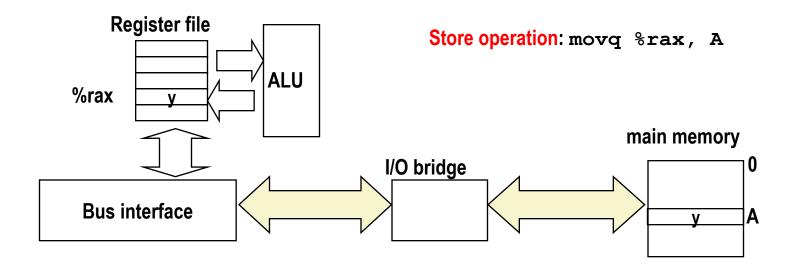
Memory Write Transaction (2)

CPU places data word y on the bus.

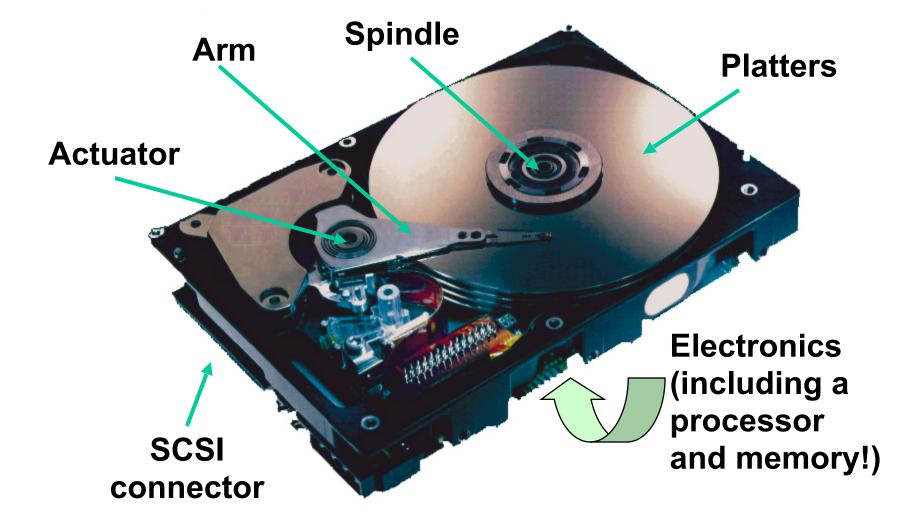


Memory Write Transaction (3)

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

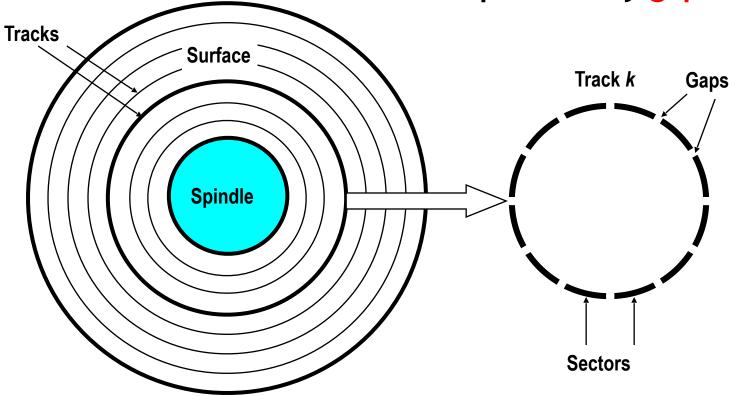


What's Inside A Disk Drive?



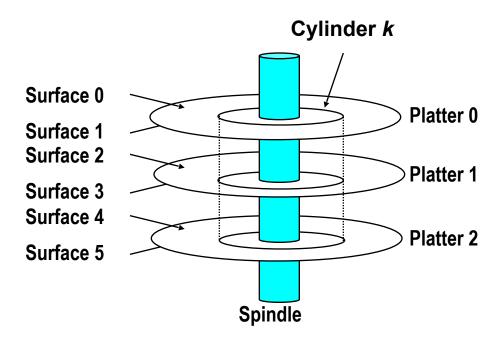
Disk Geometry

- 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 (Muliple-Platter View)

Aligned tracks form a cylinder.

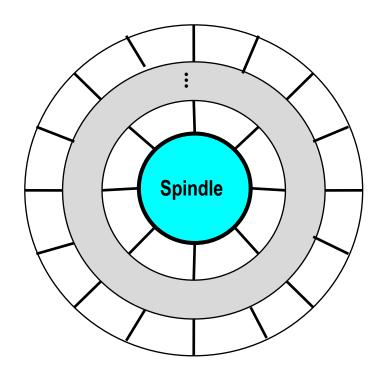


Disk Capacity

- Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.
 - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where
 1 GB = 10⁹ Bytes.
- Capacity is determined by these technology factors:
 - Recording density (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch segment of a track.
 - Track density (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment.
 - Areal density (bits/in2): product of recording and track density.

Recording zones

- Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called recording zones
 - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
 - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track, outer zones have more sectors/track than inner zones.
 - So we use average number of sectors/track when computing capacity.



Computing Disk Capacity

```
Capacity = (# bytes/sector) x (avg. # sectors/track) x (# tracks/surface) x (# surfaces/platter) x (# platters/disk)
```

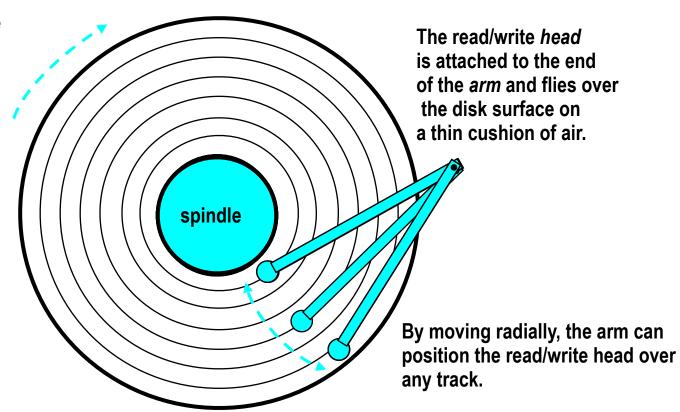
Example:

- 512 bytes/sector
- 300 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

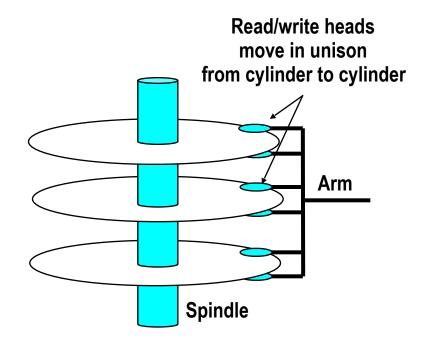
```
Capacity = 512 x 300 x 20000 x 2 x 5
= 30,720,000,000
= 30.72 GB
```

Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

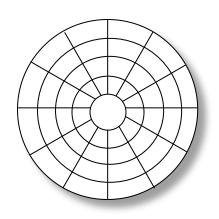
The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



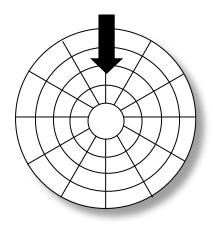
Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

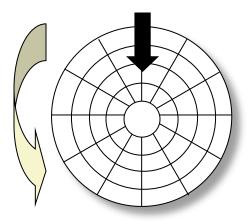
Tracks divided into sectors

Disk Access

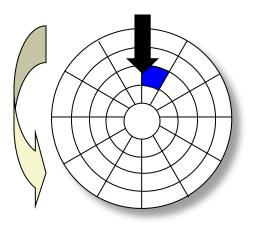


Head in position above a track

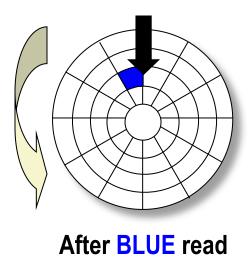
Disk Access



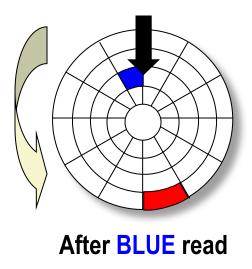
Rotation is counter-clockwise



About to read blue sector

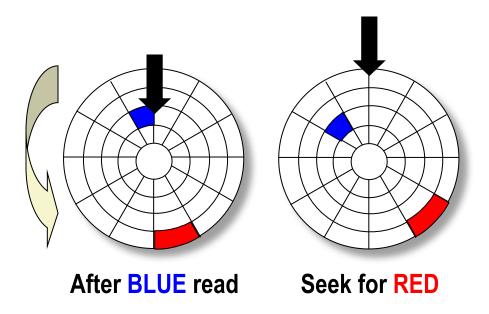


After reading blue sector



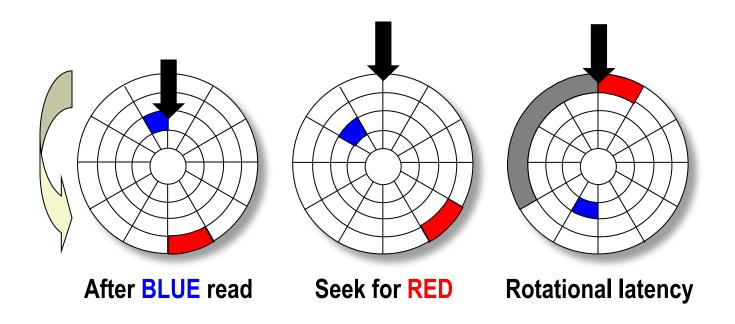
Red request scheduled next

Disk Access - Seek

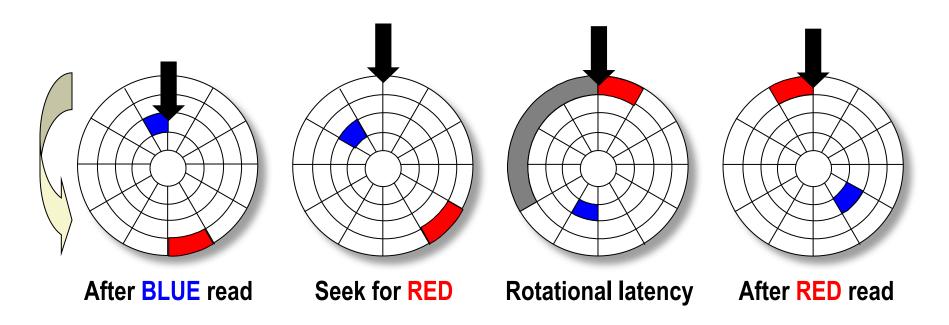


Seek to red's track

Disk Access - Rotational Latency

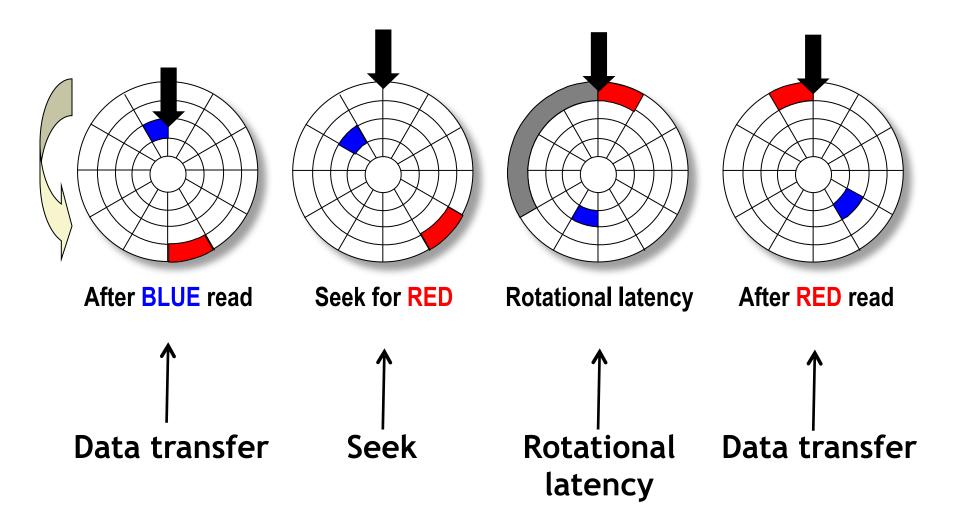


Wait for red sector to rotate around



Complete read of red

Disk Access - Service Time Components



Disk Access Time

- Average time to access some target sector approximated by :
 - Taccess = Tavg seek + Tavg rotation + Tavg transfer
- Seek time (Tavg seek)
 - Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector.
 - Typical Tavg seek is 3—9 ms
- Rotational latency (Tavg rotation)
 - Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head.
 - Tavg rotation = 1/2 x 1/RPMs x 60 sec/1 min
 - Typical Tavg rotation = 7200 RPMs
- Transfer time (Tavg transfer)
 - Time to read the bits in the target sector.
 - Tavg transfer = 1/RPM x 1/(avg # sectors/track) x 60 secs/1 min.

Disk Access Time Example

Given:

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

Derived:

- Tavg rotation = 1/2 x (60 secs/7200 RPM) x 1000 ms/sec = 4 ms.
- Tavg transfer = 60/7200 RPM x 1/400 secs/track x 1000 ms/sec = 0.02 ms
- Taccess = 9 ms + 4 ms + 0.02 ms

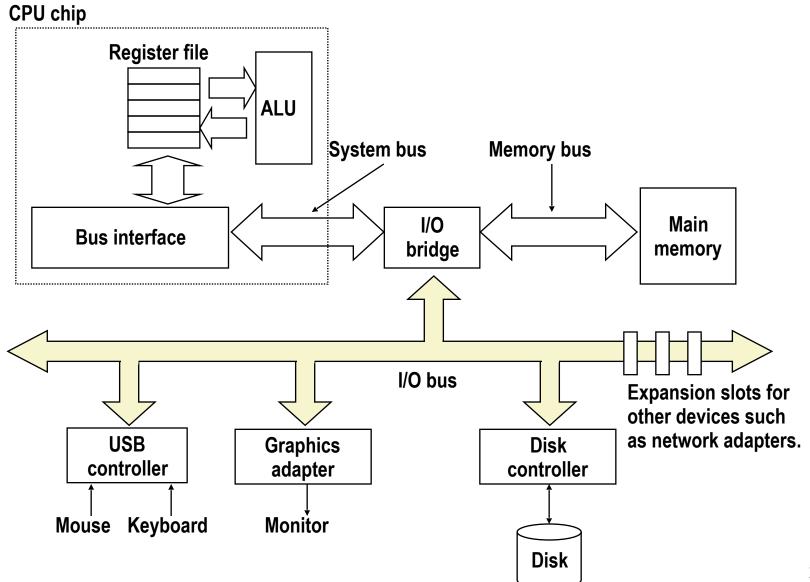
Important points:

- 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 then DRAM.

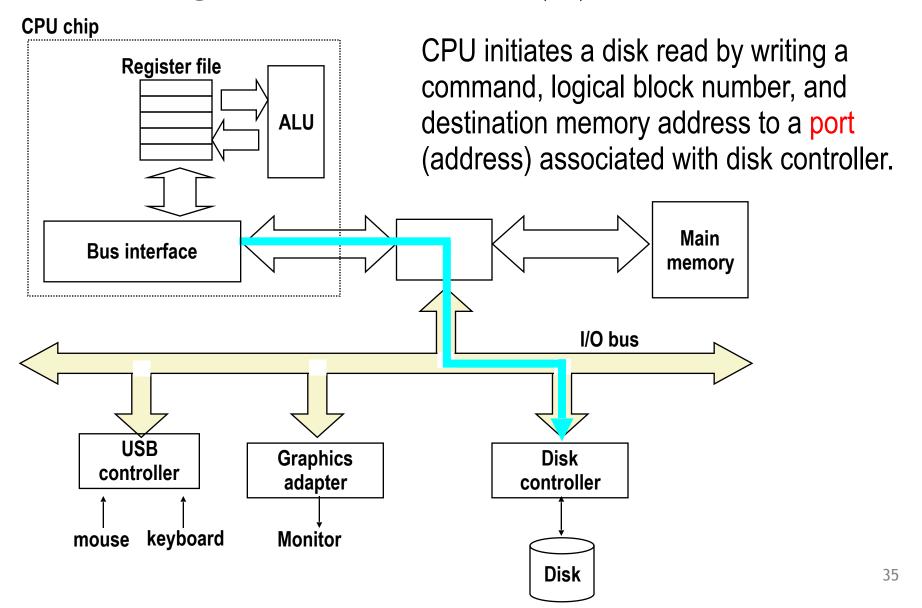
Logical Disk Blocks

- 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".

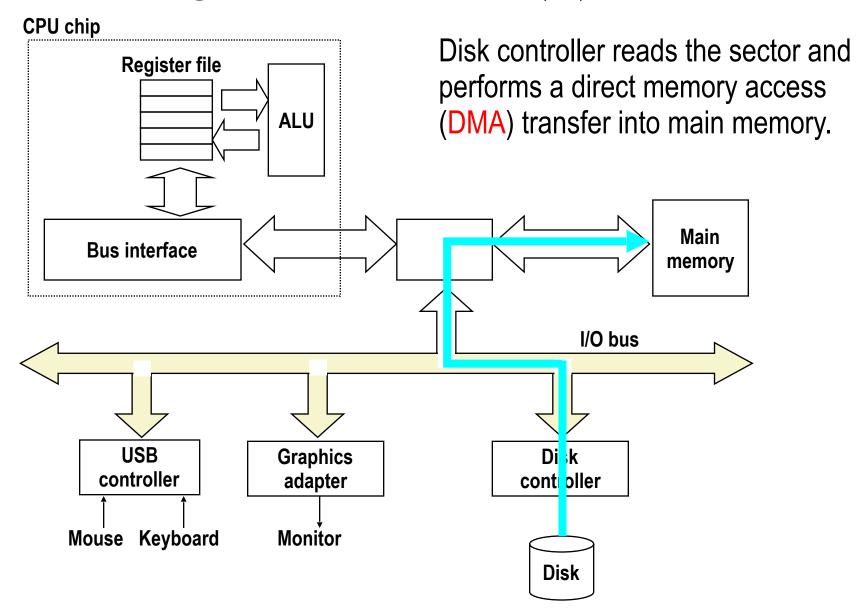
I/O Bus



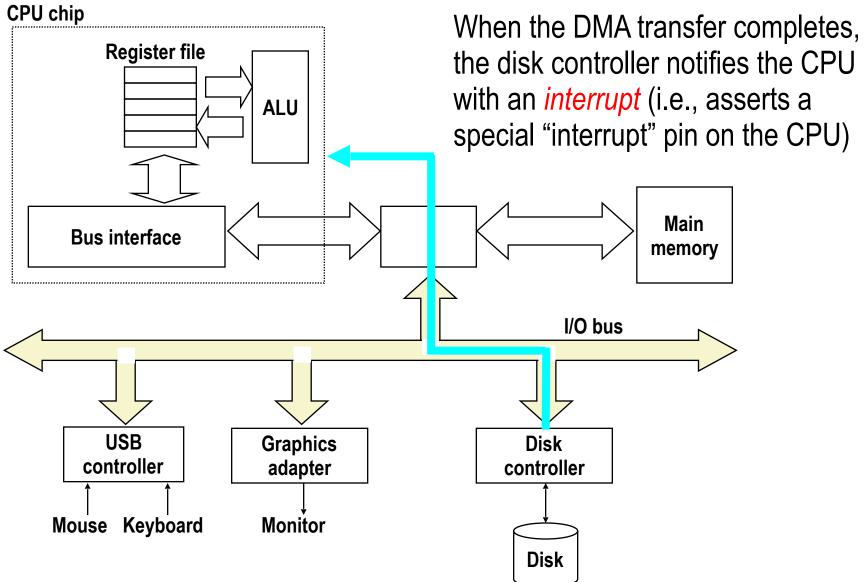
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



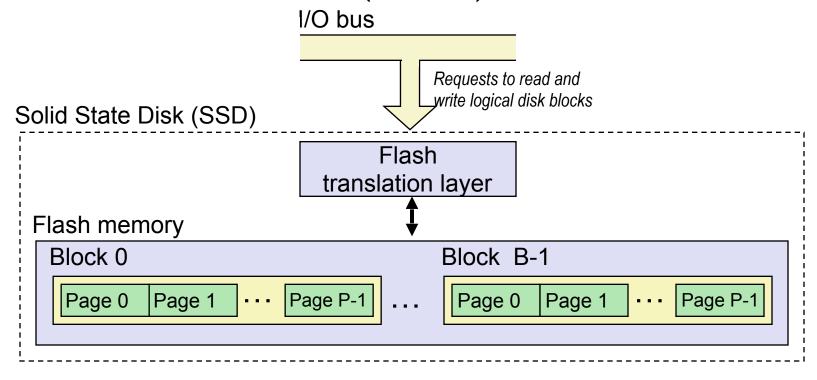
Reading a Disk Sector (2)



Reading a Disk Sector (3)



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

Sequential read tput 550 MB/s Sequential write tput 470 MB/s Random read tput 365 MB/s Random write tput 303 MB/s Avg seq read time 50 us Avg seq write time 60 us

Sequential access faster than random access

Common theme in the memory hierarchy

Random 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

■ No moving parts → faster, less power, more rugged

Disadvantages

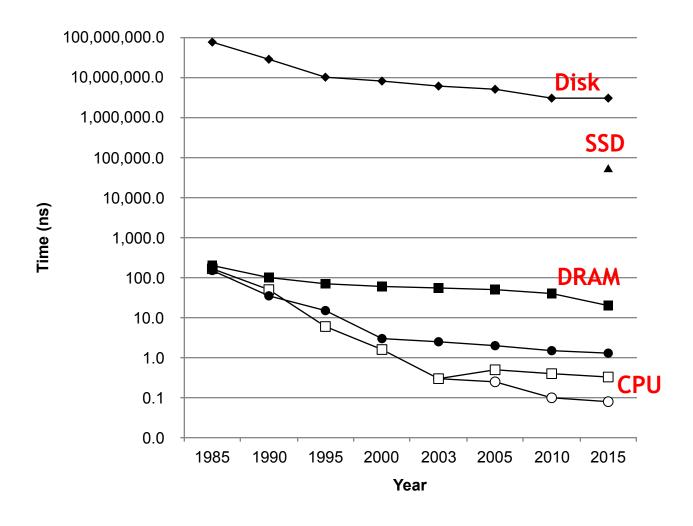
- Have the potential to wear out
 - Mitigated by "wear leveling logic" in flash translation layer
 - E.g. Intel SSD 730 guarantees 128 petabyte (128 x 10¹⁵ bytes) of writes before they wear out
- In 2015, about 30 times more expensive per byte

Applications

- MP3 players, smart phones, laptops
- Beginning to appear in desktops and servers

The CPU-Memory Gap

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



- Disk seek time
- → SSD access time
- DRAM access time
- SRAM access time
- □ CPU cycle time
- Effective CPU cycle til

Locality to the Rescue!

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

Today

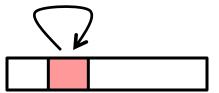
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy

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;</pre>
```

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;
}</pre>
```

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;
}</pre>
```

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;

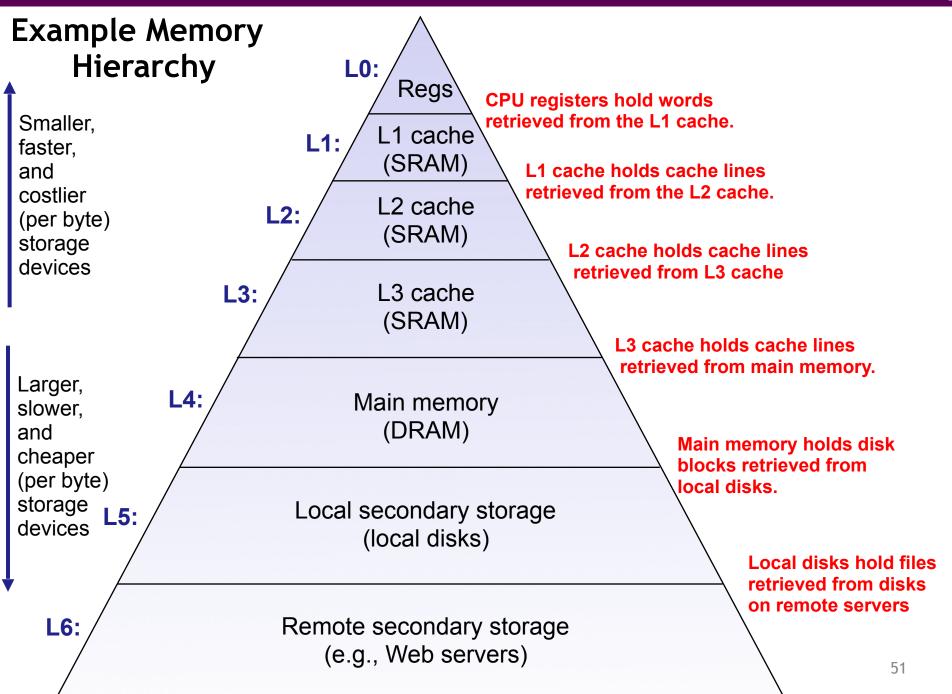
   for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < N; k++)
            sum += a[k][i][j];
   return sum;
}</pre>
```

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.
- These fundamental properties complement each other beautifully.
- They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a memory hierarchy.

Today

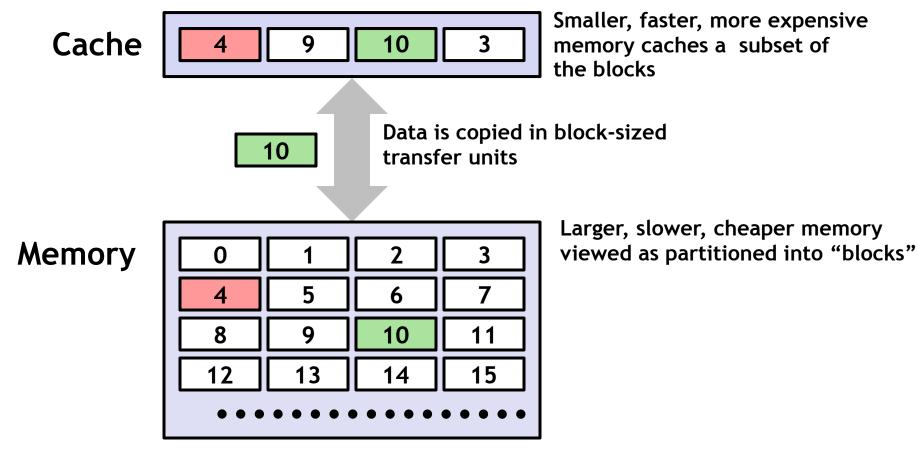
- Storage technologies and trends
- Locality of reference
- Caching in the memory hierarchy



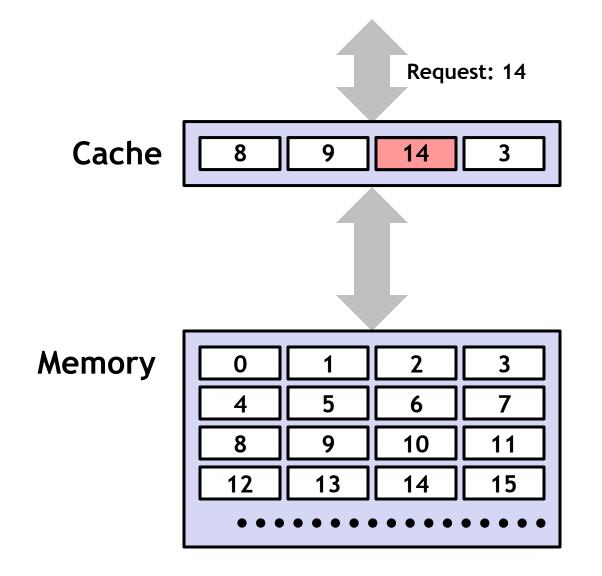
Caches

- 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.

General Cache Concepts



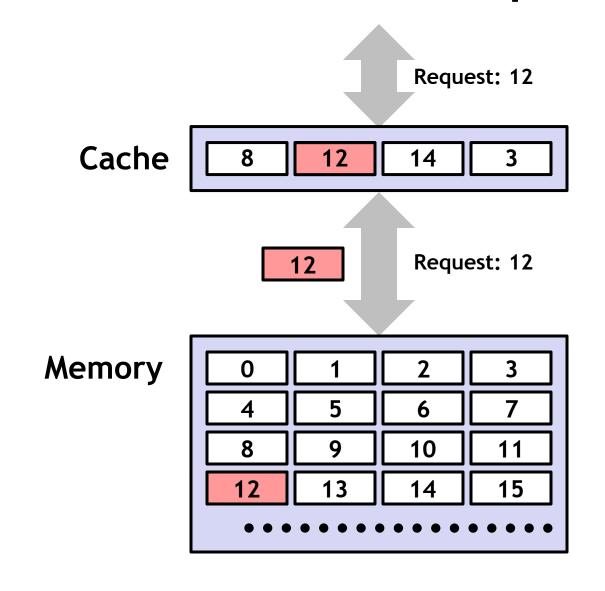
General Cache Concepts: Hit



Data in block b is needed

Block b is in cache: Hit!

General Cache Concepts: Miss



Data in block b is needed

Block b is not in cache: Miss!

Block b is fetched from memory

Block b is stored in cache

- Placement policy: determines where b goes
- Replacement policy: determines which block gets evicted (victim)

General Caching Concepts: Types of Cache Misses

Cold (compulsory) miss

Cold misses occur because the cache is empty.

Conflict miss

- Most caches limit blocks at level k+1 to a small subset (sometimes a singleton) 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, 0, 8, ... would miss every time.

Capacity miss

 Occurs when the set of active cache blocks (working set) is larger than the cache.

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
TLB	Address translations	On-Chip TLB	0	Hardware MMU
L1 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L1	4	Hardware
L2 cache	64-byte blocks	On-Chip L2	10	Hardware
Virtual Memory	4-KB pages	Main memory	100	Hardware +
Buffer cache	Parts of files	Main memory	100	8§
Disk cache	Disk sectors	Disk controller	100,000	Disk firmware
Network buffer cache	Parts of files	Local disk	10,000,000	NFS client
Browser cache	Web pages	Local disk	10,000,000	Web browser
Web cache	Web pages	Remote server disks	1,000,000,000	Web proxy server

Summary

- The speed gap between CPU, memory and mass storage continues to widen.
- Well-written programs exhibit a property called locality.
- Memory hierarchies based on caching close the gap by exploiting locality.