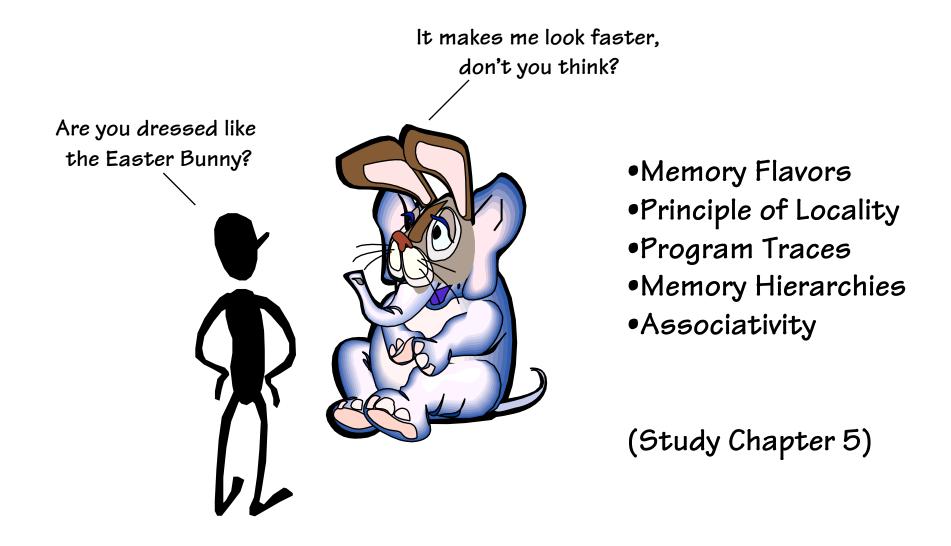
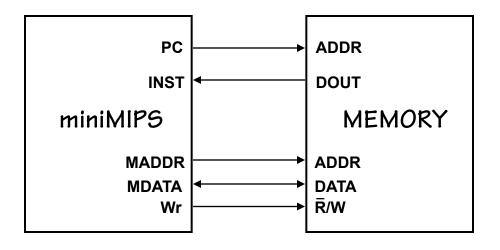
Memory Hierarchy



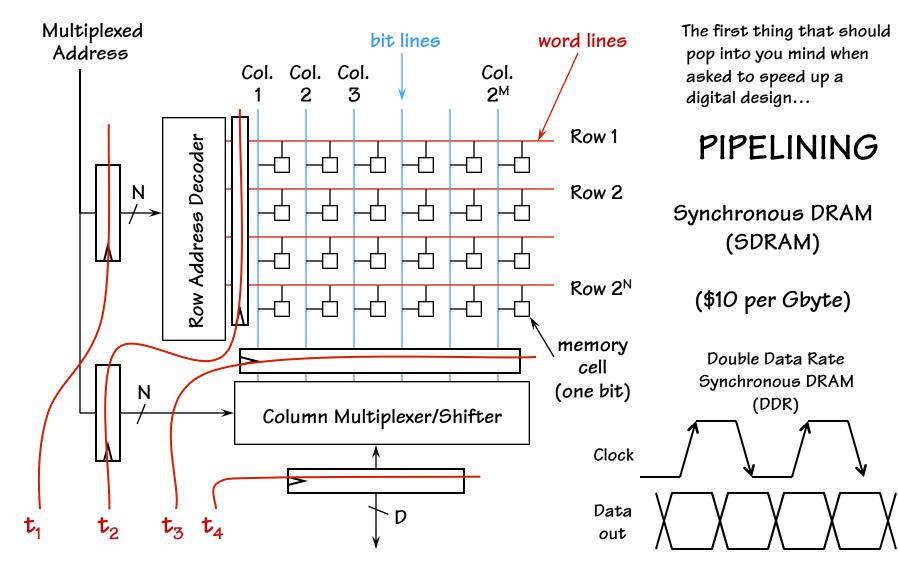
What Do We Want in a Memory?



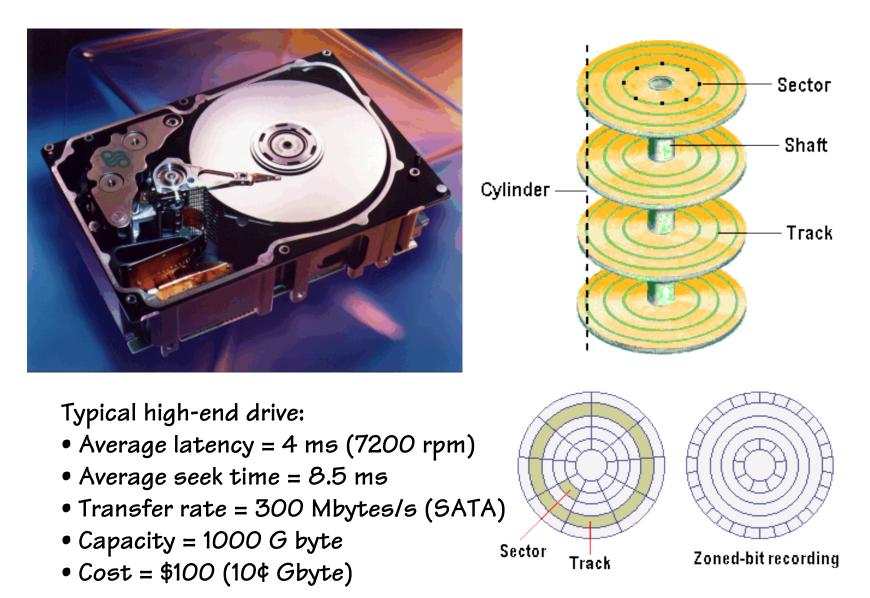
	Capacity	Latency	Cost
Register	1000's of bits	10 ps	\$\$\$\$
SRAM	100's Kbytes	0.2 ns	\$\$\$
DRAM	100's Mbytes	5 ns	\$
Hard disk*	100's Gbytes	10 ms	¢
Want?	4 Gbyte	0.2 ns	cheap

* non-volatile

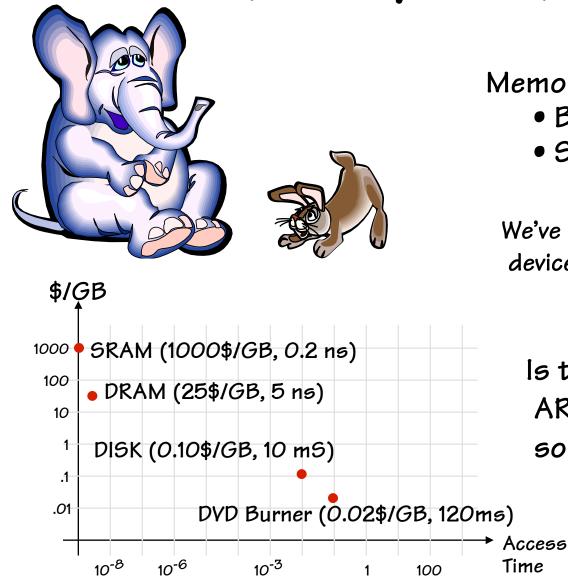
Tricks for Increasing Throughput



Hard Disk Drives



Quantity vs Quality...



Memory systems can be either:

- BIG and SLOW ... or
- SMALL and FAST.

We've explored a range of device-design trade-offs.

Is there an ARCHITECTURAL solution to this DELIMA?

Managing Memory via Programming

In reality, systems are built with a mixture of all these various memory types



- How do we make the most effective use of each memory?
- We could push all of these issues off to programmers
 - Keep most frequently used variables and stack in SRAM
 - Keep large data structures (arrays, lists, etc) in DRAM
 - Keep bigger data structures on disk (databases) on DISK
- It is harder than you think... data usage evolves over a program's execution

Best of Both Worlds

What we REALLY want: A BIG, FAST memory! (Keep everything within instant access)

We'd like to have a memory system that

- PERFORMS like 2 GBytes of SRAM; but
- COSTS like 512 MBytes of slow memory.

SURPRISE: We can (nearly) get our wish!

KEY: Use a hierarchy of memory technologies:





.

Key IDEA

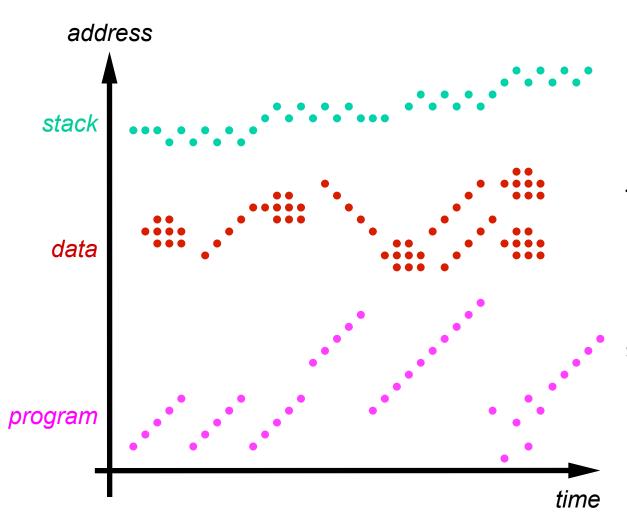
- Keep the most often-used data in a small, fast SRAM (often "on" to CPU chip)
- Refer to Main Memory only rarely, for remaining data.

The reason this strategy works: LOCALITY

Locality of Reference:

Reference to location X at time t implies that reference to location $X+\Delta X$ at time $t+\Delta t$ becomes more probable as ΔX and Δt approach zero.

Typical Memory Reference Patterns

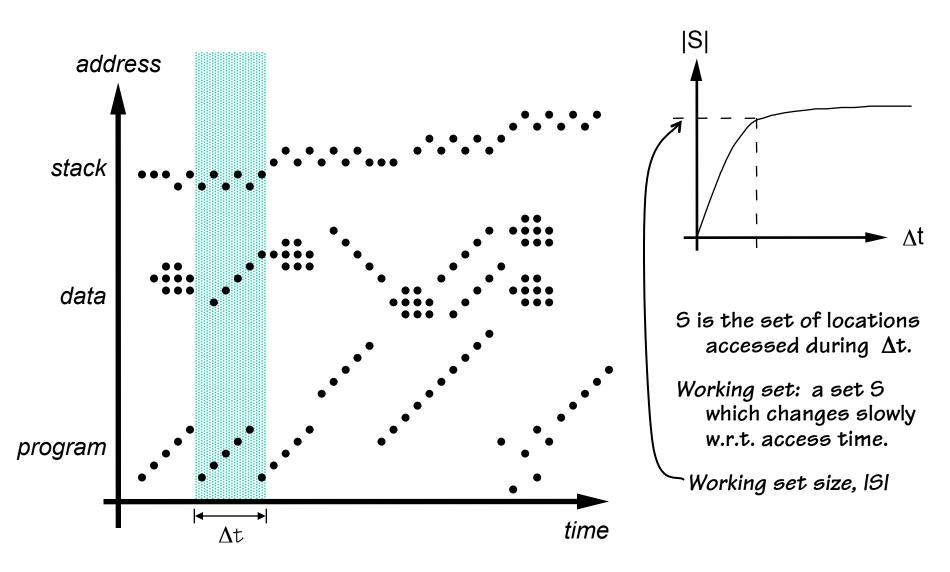


MEMORY TRACE – A temporal sequence of memory references (addresses) from a real program.

TEMPORAL LOCALITY – If an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon

SPATIAL LOCALITY – If an item is referenced, nearby items will tend to be referenced soon.

Working Set



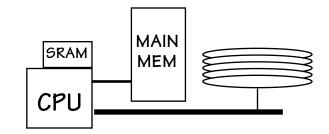
Exploiting the Memory Hierarchy

Approach 1 (Cray, others): Expose Hierarchy

• Registers, Main Memory,

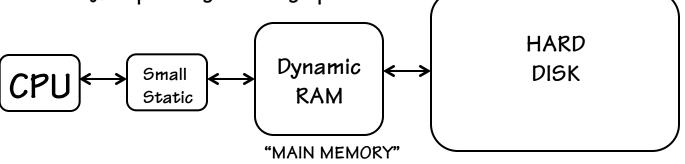
Disk each available as storage alternatives;

• Tell programmers: "Use them cleverly"



Approach 2: Hide Hierarchy

- Programming model: SINGLE kind of memory, single address space.
- Machine AUTOMATICALLY assigns locations to fast or slow memory, depending on usage patterns.

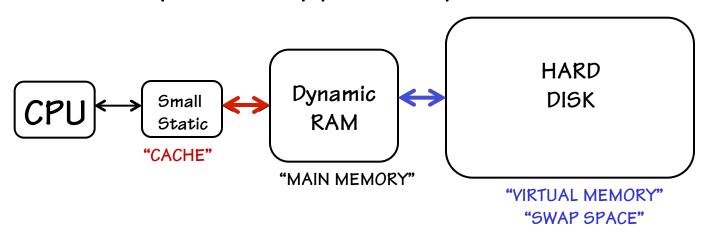


Why We Care

CPU performance is dominated by memory performance.

More significant than:

ISA, circuit optimization, pipelining, super-scalar, etc



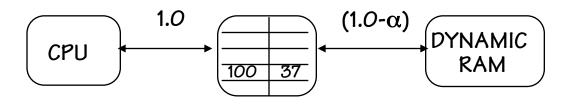
TRICK #1: How to make slow MAIN MEMORY appear faster than it is.

Technique: CACHEING – Next 2 Lectures

TRICK #2: How to make a small MAIN MEMORY appear bigger than it is.

Technique: VIRTUAL MEMORY – Lecture after that

The Cache Idea: Program-Transparent Memory Hierarchy



"CACHE"

Cache contains TEMPORARY COPIES of selected main memory locations... eg. Mem[100] = 37

GOALS:

1) Improve the average access time

- α HIT RATIO: Fraction of refs found in CACHE.
- (1- α) MISS RATIO: Remaining references.

$$t_{ave} = \alpha t_c + (1 - \alpha)(t_c + t_m) = t_c + (1 - \alpha)t$$

2) Transparency (compatibility, programming ease)

Challenge: To make the hit ratio as high as possible.

"MAIN MEMORY"

т

Why, on a miss, do l incur the access penalty for both main memory and cache?

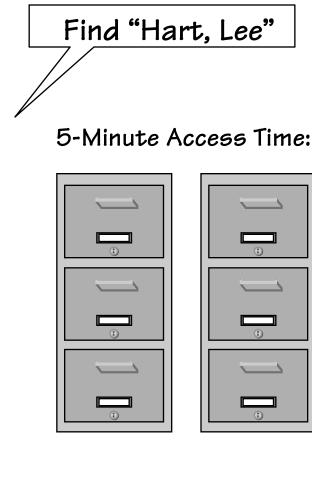
How High of a Hit Ratio?

Suppose we can easily build an on-chip static memory with a 800 pS access time, but the fastest dynamic memories that we can buy for main memory have an average access time of 10 nS. How high of a hit rate do we need to sustain an average access time of 1 nS?

Solve for
$$\alpha$$
 $t_{ave} = t_c + (1 - \alpha)t_m$
 $\alpha = 1 - \frac{t_{ave} - t_c}{t_m} = 1 - \frac{1 - 0.8}{10} = 98\%$

WOW, a cache really needs to be good?

The Cache Principle



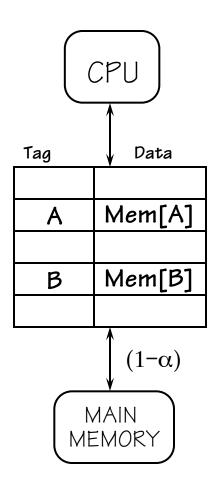


5-Second Access Time:



ALGORTHIM: Look on your desk for the requested information first, if its not there check secondary storage

Basic Cache Algorithm



ON REFERENCE TO Mem[X]: Look for X among cache tags...

HIT: X = TAG(i), for some cache line i READ: return DATA(i) WRITE: change DATA(i); Start Write to Mem(X)



MISS: X not found in TAG of any cache line

REPLACEMENT SELECTION:

Select some LINE k to hold Mem[X] (Allocation)

READ: Read Mem[X] Set TAG(k)=X, DATA(K)=Mem[X]

WRITE: Start Write to Mem(X) Set TAG(k)=X, DATA(K)= new Mem[X]

Cache

Sits between CPU and main memory

Very fast memory that stores TAGs and DATA

TAG is the memory address (or part of it)

DATA is a copy of memory at the address given by TAG

Cache

Line 0	1000	17
Line 1	1040	1
Line 2	1032	97
Line 3	1008	11
	Tag	Data

Ν	/lemor	y
1000	17	
1004	23	
1008	11	
1012	5	
1016	29	
1020	38	
1024	44	
1028	99	
1032	97	
1036	25	
1040	1	
1044	4	

Cache Access

On load we compare TAG entries to the ADDRESS we're loading

If Found	2 0 0 0 0 0	٨		N	<u>/lemory</u>
return	the DAT	5		1000	17
If Not Found 🔿 a MISS			1004	23	
go to i	nemory g	et the dat	а	1008	11
decide	where it	goes in the	e cache,	1012	5
put it and its address (TAG) in the cache			1016	29	
	Ca	ache		1020	38
Line 0	1000	17]	1024	44
				1028	99
Line 1	1040	1		1032	97
Line 2	1032	97		1036	25
Line 3	1008	11		1040	1
	Tag	Data	•	1044	4

How Many Words per Tag?

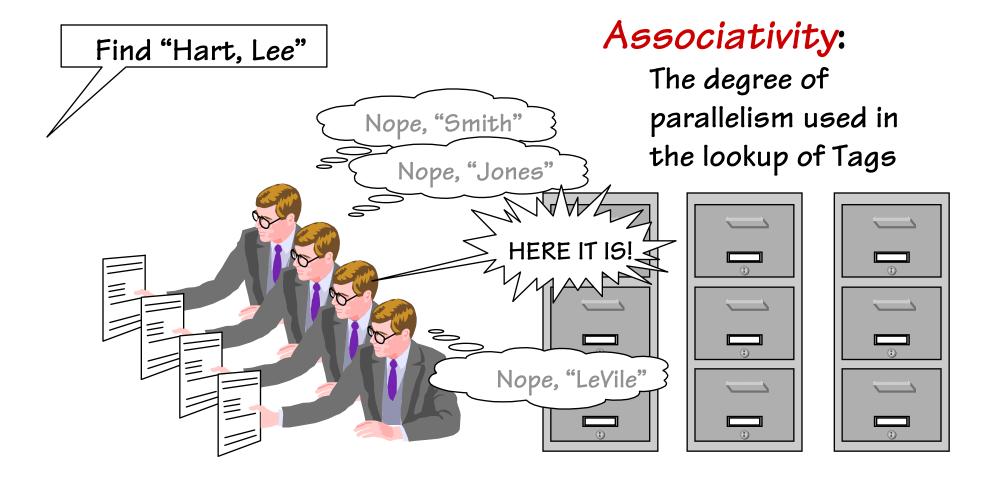
Caches usually get more data than requested (Why?)
Each LINE typically stores more than 1 word, 16-64 bytes (4-16 Words) per line is common
A bigger LINE means:

fewer misses because of spatial locality
fewer TAG bits per DATA bits
but bigger LINE means longer time on miss
Cache

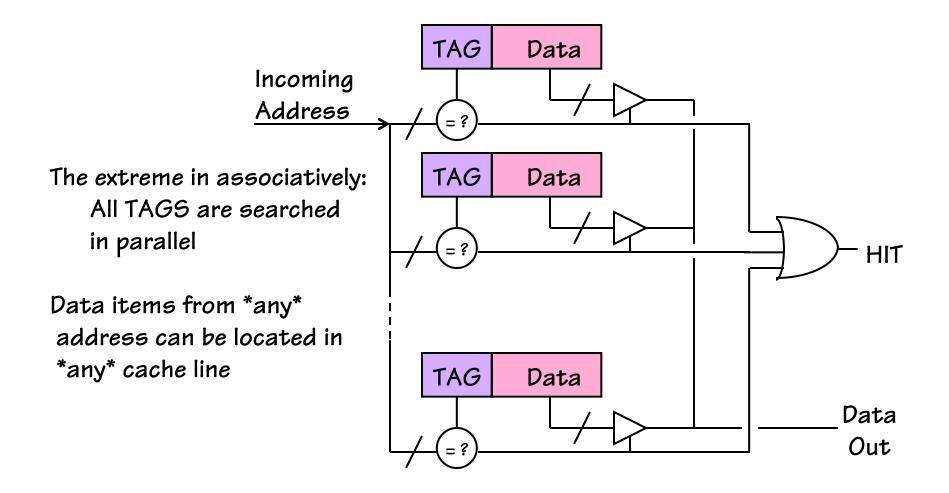
Line 0	1000	17	23
Line 1	1040	1	4
Line 2	1032	97	25
Line 3	1008	11	5
	Tag	Γ	Data

Ν	<u>/lemory</u>	/
1000	17	
1004	23	
1008	11	
1012	5	
1016	29	
1020	38	
1024	44	
1028	99	
1032	97	
1036	25	
1040	1	
1044	4	

How do we Search the Cache TAGs?



Fully-Associative Cache



Direct-Mapped Cache (non-associative)

Find "Hart, Lee"

Η.

Comp 411 – Spring 2012

NO Parallelism:

Look in JUST ONE place, determined by parameters of incoming request (address bits)

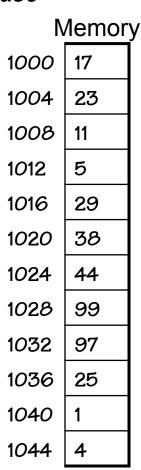
... can use ordinary RAM as table

Direct-Map Example

With 8 byte lines, 3 low-order bits determine the byte within the line

With 4 cache lines, the next 2 bits determine which line to use

		Cache	
Line 0	1024	44	99
Line 1	1000	17	23
Line 2	1040	1	4
Line 3	1016	29	38
	Tag	Da	ata



Direct Mapping Miss

What happens when we now ask for address 1008?

 $1008_{10} = 01111110000_2 \rightarrow \text{line} = 10_2 = 2_{10}$

but earlier we put 1040 there...

 $1040_{10} = 10000010000_2 \rightarrow \text{line} = 10_2 = 2_{10}$

		Cache	
Line 0	1024	44	99
Line 1	1000	17	23
Line 2	1008	11	5
Line 3	1016	29	38
	Tag	Da	ata

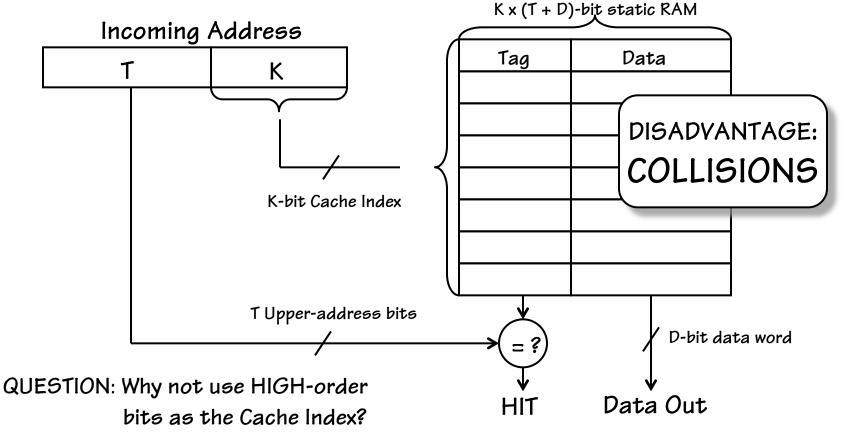
Ν	/lemor	y
1000	17	
1004	23	
1008	11	
1012	5	
1016	29	
1020	38	
1024	44	
1028	99	
1032	97	
1036	25	
1040	1	
1044	4	

Direct Mapped Cache

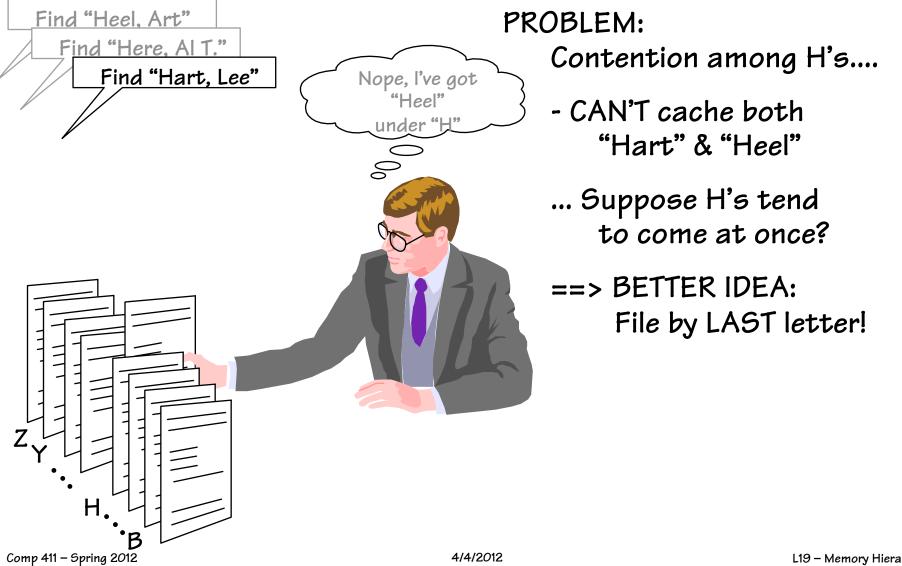
LOW-COST Leader:

Requires only a single comparator and

use ordinary (fast) static RAM for cache tags & data:



A Problem with Collisions



Cache Questions = Cash Questions

What lies between Fully Associate and Direct-Mapped? When I put something new into the cache, what data gets thrown out?

How many processor words should there be per tag? When I write to cache, should I also write to memory? What do I do when a write misses cache, should space in cache be allocated for the written address.

What if I have INPUT/OUTPUT devices located at certain memory addresses, do we cache them?

•Answers: Stay Tuned