

Exploiting the Memory Hierarchy

Chapter 7 P&H

Introduction

- Desire is to have unlimited amounts of fast memory
- Too expensive
- Can exploit *locality of reference* to appear to have lots of fast memory
- Two types of locality
 - Spatial Locality
 - Temporal Locality
 - will consider temporal first

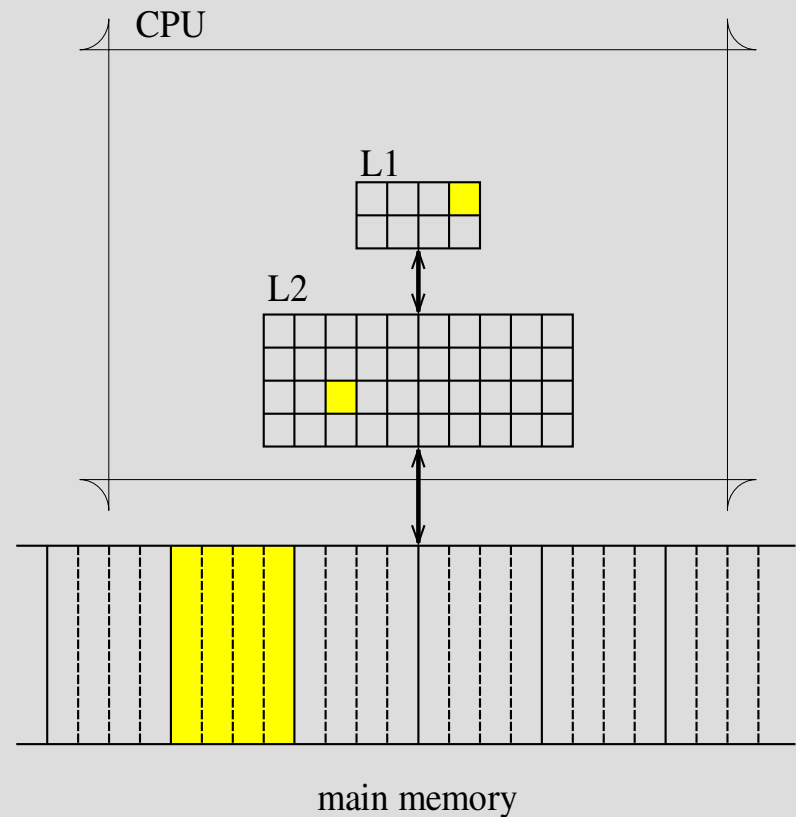
Memory Hierarchy

(very approximate)

Mem Tech	access time	\$/Gbyte
SRAM	0.5ns	\$30,000
DRAM	15ns	\$30
Disk	20 million ns	\$0.25

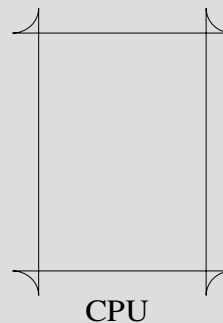
Memory Hierarchy

- minimum unit is called a block
- *hit rate* is the fraction of memory accesses found in upper level
- *miss rate* is $(1 - \text{hit rate})$
- *hit time* is the time to access upper level
- *miss penalty* is the time to replace block in upper level with corresponding block from lower level

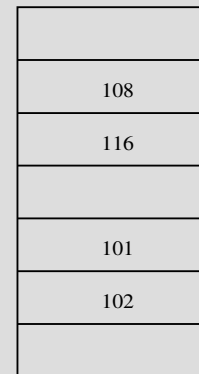


Cache Basics

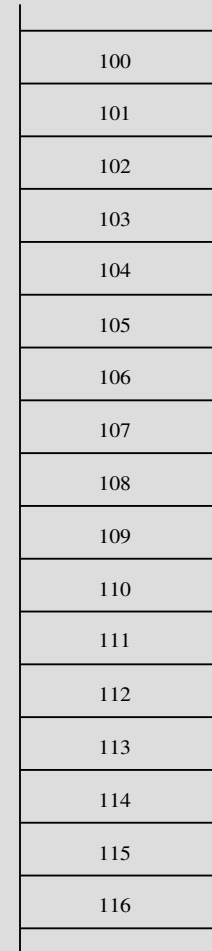
- Caches first appear in early 1960's
- This cache has single word sized block
- How do we know if the requested item is in the cache?
- If it is where is it?



CPU



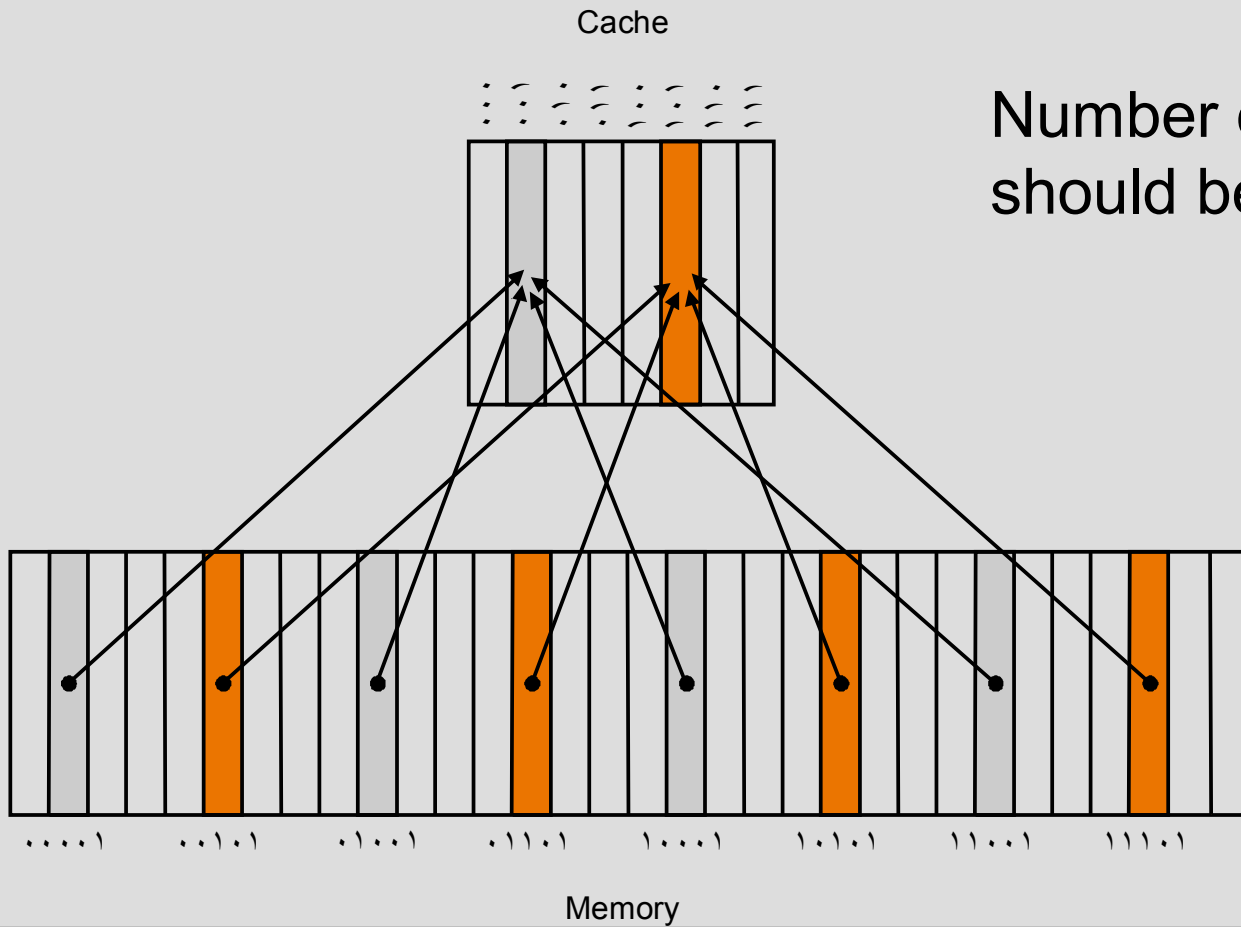
Cache



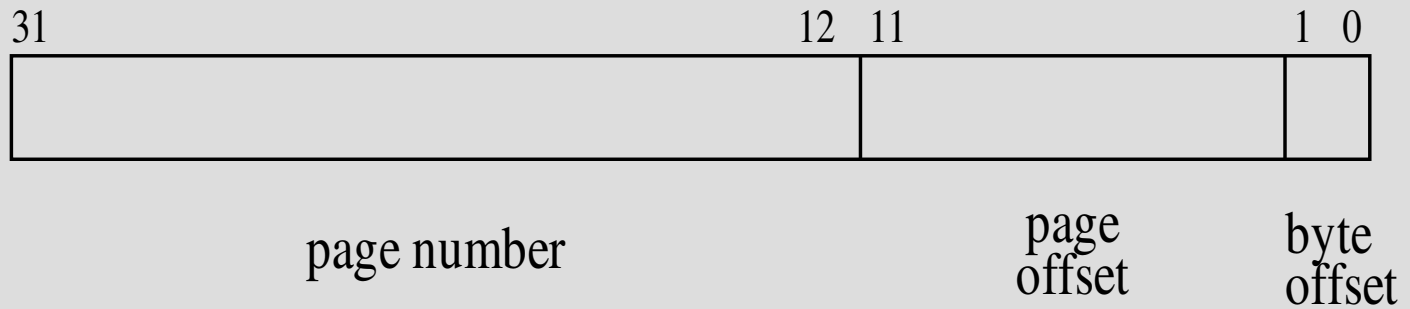
main
memory

Direct Mapped Cache

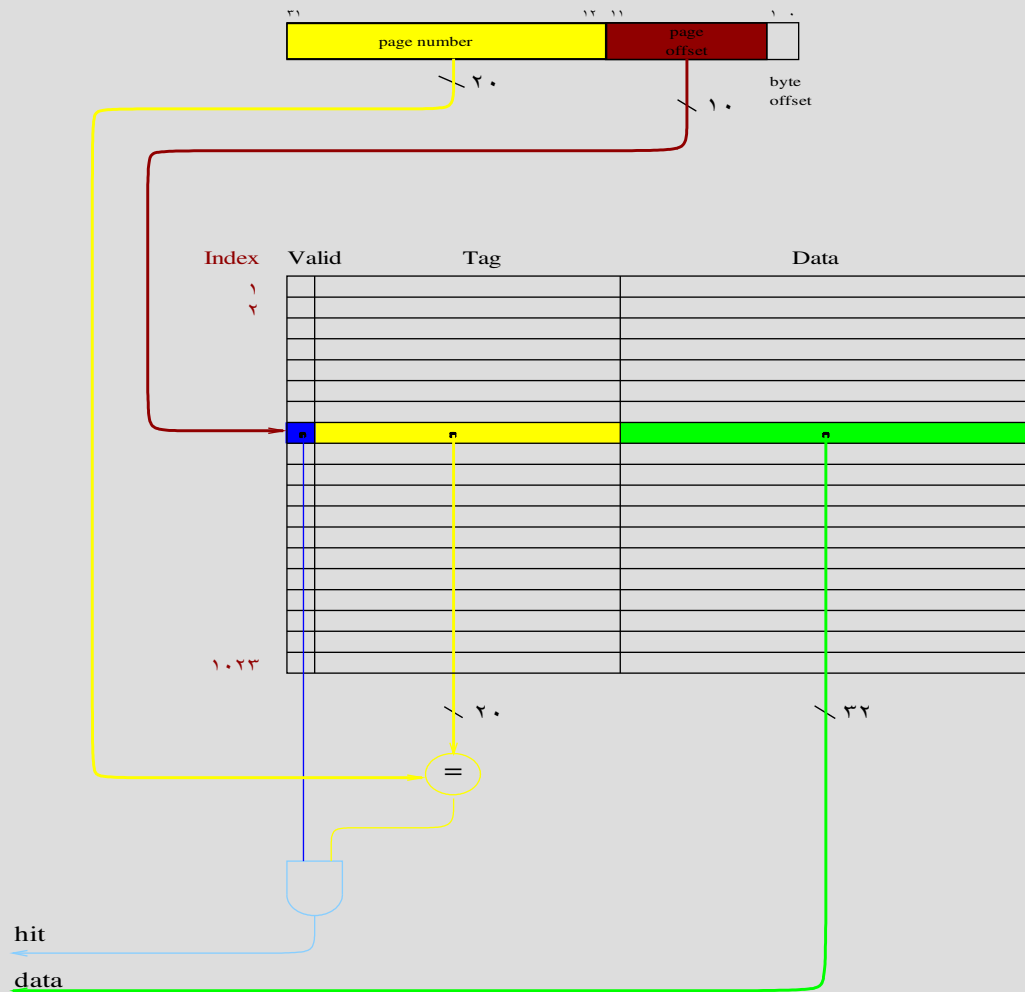
- $\text{cache address} = (\text{block address}) \bmod (\text{No blocks in cache})$



Word format



Cache With Tags



Cache Size

- The tag structure introduces a memory overhead
- How many bits in total are required for a cache that is:
 - direct mapped cache
 - stores 64 KB of data
 - has one word blocks
 - uses 32 bit address?

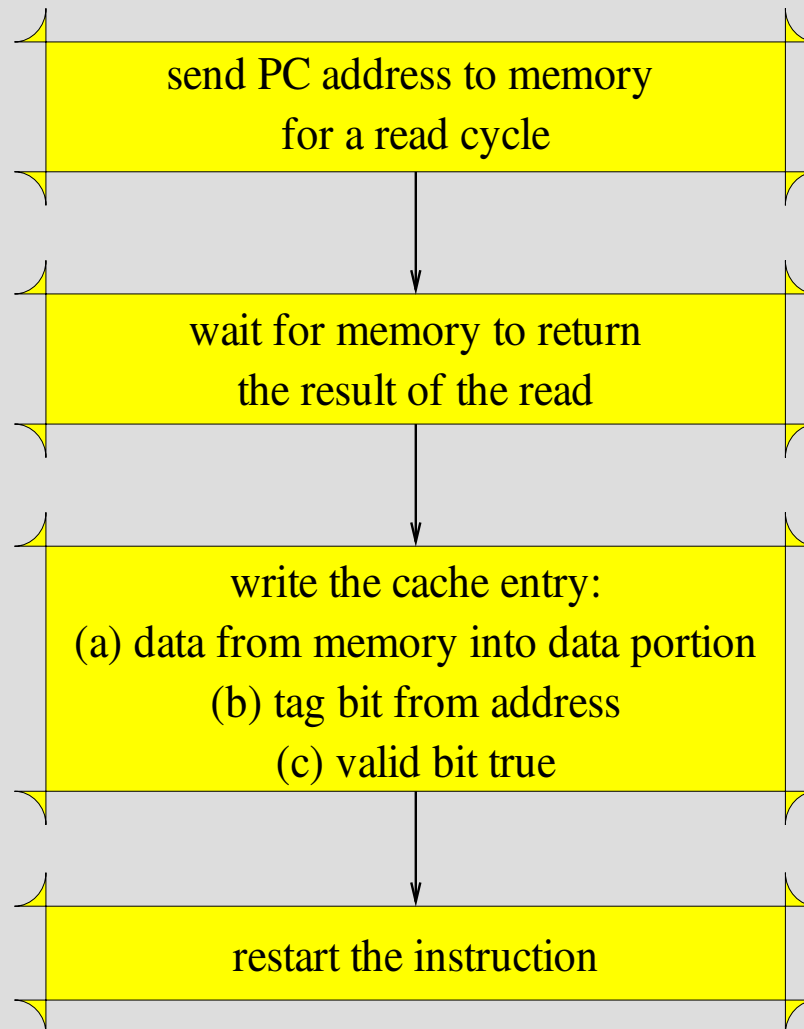
Separate Caches

- Instructions and data have separate localities
- A lot of activity in one set may invalidate the usefulness of the other
 - very bad if we stall the pipeline for cache misses
- Some machines support separate instruction and data caches

Handling Misses

- No modifications required to pipelined data-path to handle hits
- On a miss a basic approach is to stall the *entire* data-path until the value is fetched
- In addition to the CPU micro-controller there is a memory-controller

Read Miss



Write Miss

- The result of a write must (eventually) get to main memory
- Simple caches “write-through” to main memory
 - On a write, write word to the cache and to main memory
 - Eases cache coherence on a multiprocessor with separate caches for each processor

Write-through performance

- Cache write-through requires a lot more time
- E.G. If we have a CPU with:
 - 1.2 CPI when there are no cache misses or writes
 - 13% of memory accesses are writes
 - Write operations take an additional 10 cycles per write
- CPI goes up to:
 - $1.2 + 0.13 * 10 = 2.5$

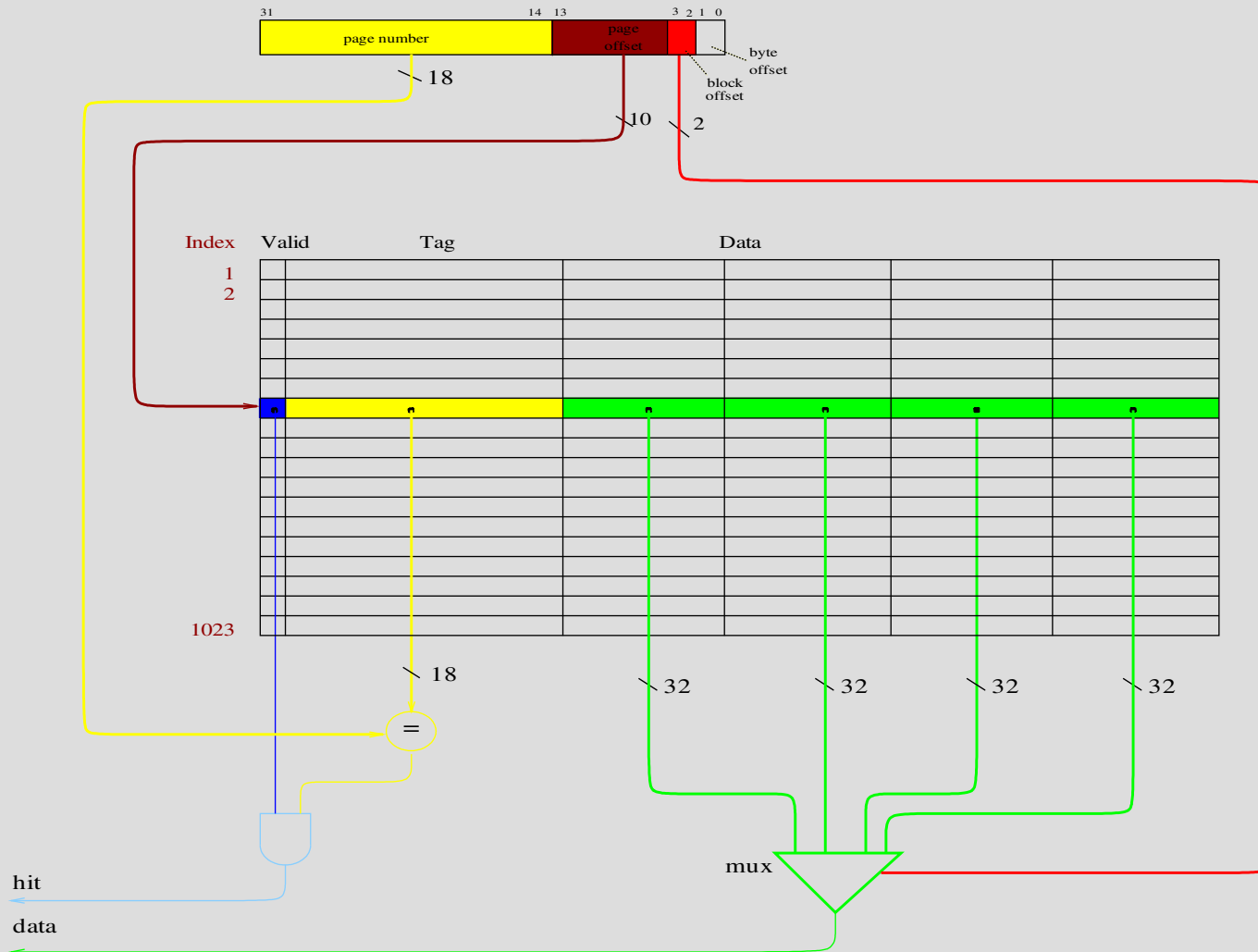
Write Buffer

- One improvement is to use a small write buffer (e.g. 4 words)
- Assumes that writes occur at a slower rate than the values can be written to memory
- Overflows can occur.
- What should happen when an overflow occurs?

Taking Advantage of Spatial Locality

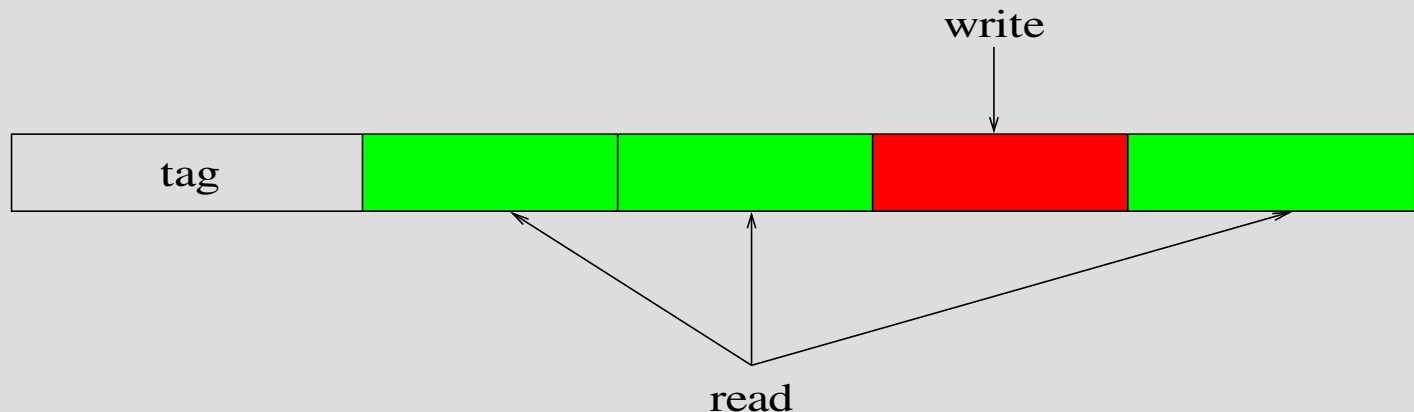
- Need a block size bigger than a word
- When a miss (read or write) occurs then we fetch the whole block

Multi-Word Cache Block

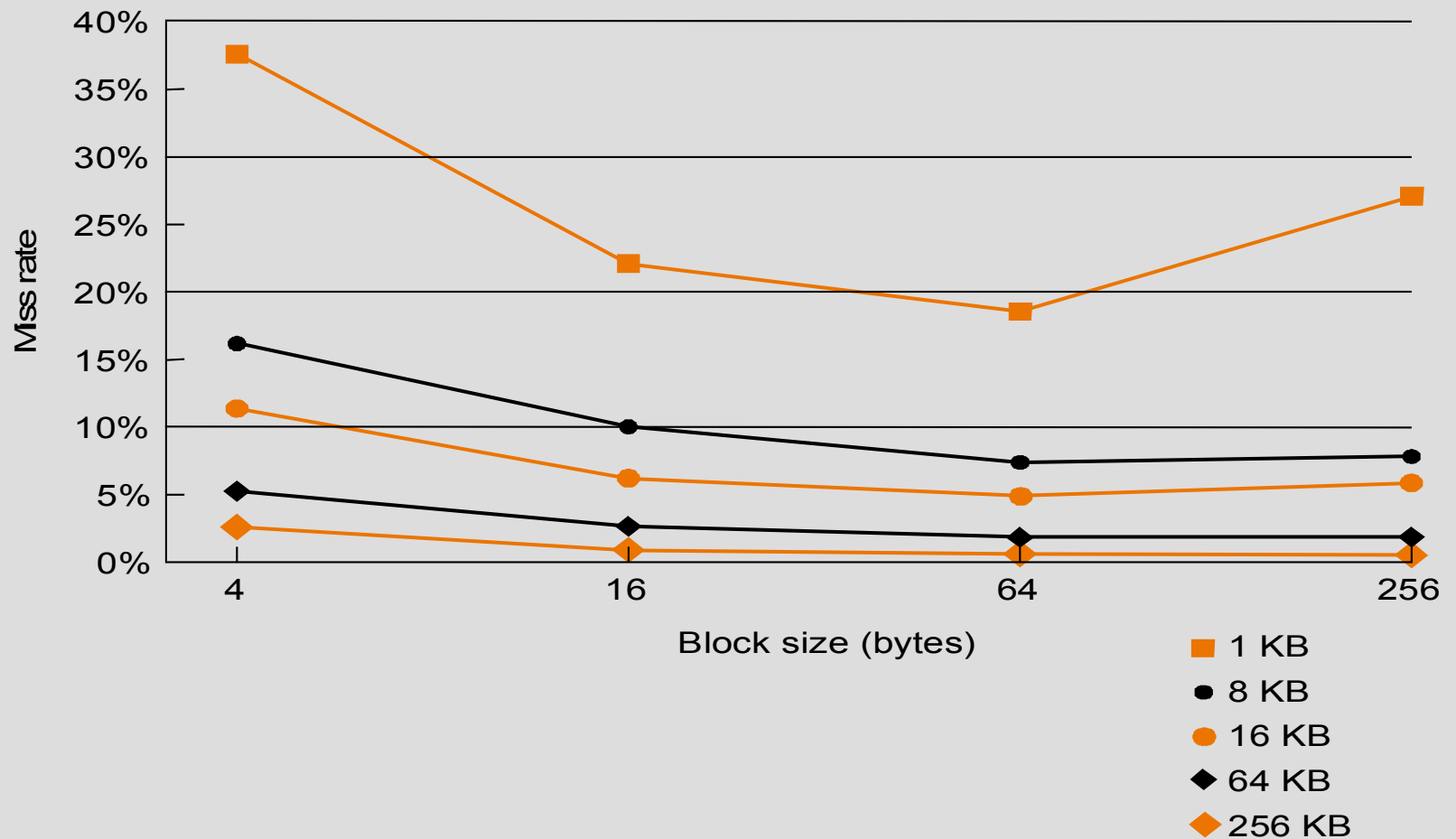


Multiword block size

- Reads are dealt with as before
- Write hits okay
- With write misses it is not possible to just write tag and data
- For a write miss have to fetch replacement block from memory and re-perform write



Miss Rate Verses Block Size



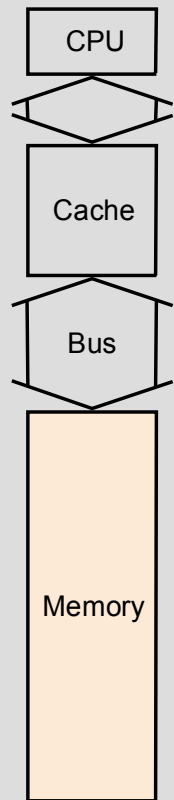
Performance of multi-block cache

Program	Block size in words	Instruction miss rate	Data miss rate	Effective combined miss rate
gcc	1	6.1%	2.1%	5.4%
	4	2.0%	1.7%	1.9%
spice	1	1.2%	1.3%	1.2%
	4	0.3%	0.6%	0.4%

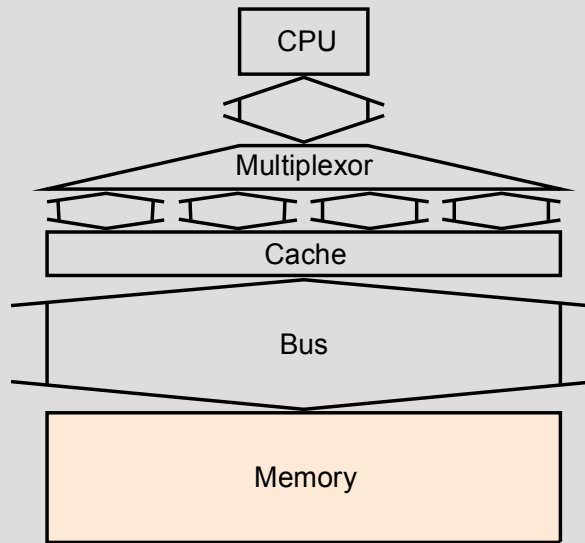
Memory Interface

- The memory bus is much slower than the CPU's internal clock rate (maybe 10 times slower)
- DRAM is slower still
 - 1 bus cycle to send address
 - 15 bus cycles for the DRAM to read a word of data
 - 1 bus cycle to send a word of data
- A read miss for a 4 word cache block size costs:
$$1 + 4 * 15 + 4 * 1 = 65 \text{ bus cycles}$$

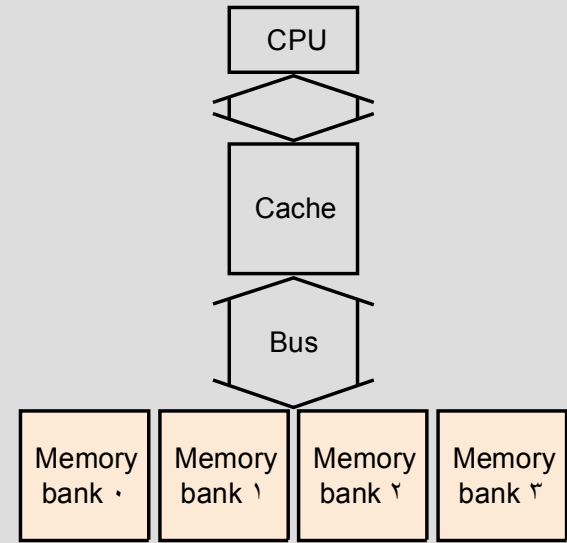
Memory Interface



a. One-word-wide memory organization



b. Wide memory organization



c. Interleaved memory organization

Wide and Interleaved Memory Interface

- For a four word wide memory and bus, a read miss on a four word block size cache costs:
 - $1 + 1*15 + 1*1 = 17$ bus cycles
- For a four word banked memory the miss cost is:
 - $1 + 1*15 + 4*1 = 20$ bus cycles

Measuring & Improving Cache Performance

- Measurement and analysis of cache performance
- Look at two different techniques for improving cache performance:
 - Adding associativity to the cache to reduce the miss rate
 - Use of multi-level caches to reduce the miss penalty

Cache miss cost

$$\text{CPU Time} = (\text{CPU execution clk cycles} + \text{Memory stall cycles}) \times \text{CCT}$$

$$\text{Memory stall cycles} = \text{read stall cycles} + \text{write stall cycles}$$

$$\text{read stall cycles} = \frac{\text{reads}}{\text{program}} \times \text{read miss rate} \times \text{read miss penalty}$$

$$\text{write stall cycles} = \left(\frac{\text{writes}}{\text{program}} \times \text{write miss rate} \times \text{write miss penalty} \right) + \text{write buffer stalls}$$

assume write buffer stalls are insignificant and that read and write penalties are the same

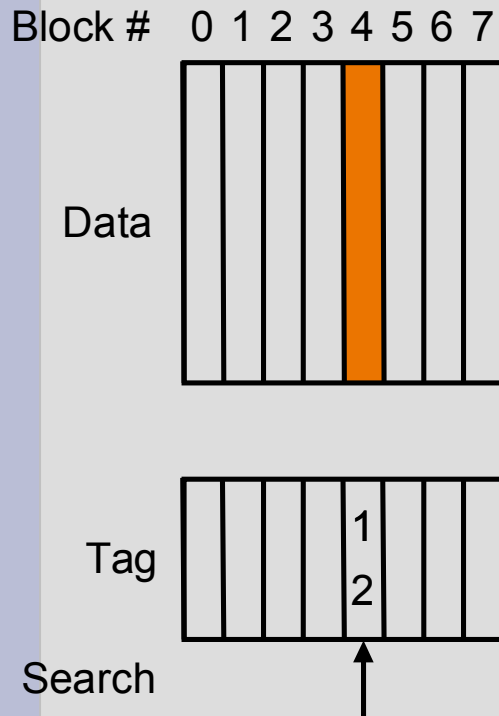
$$\text{memory stall cycles} = \frac{\text{mem accesses}}{\text{program}} \times \text{miss rate} \times \text{miss penalty}$$

Improving Cache Utilisation

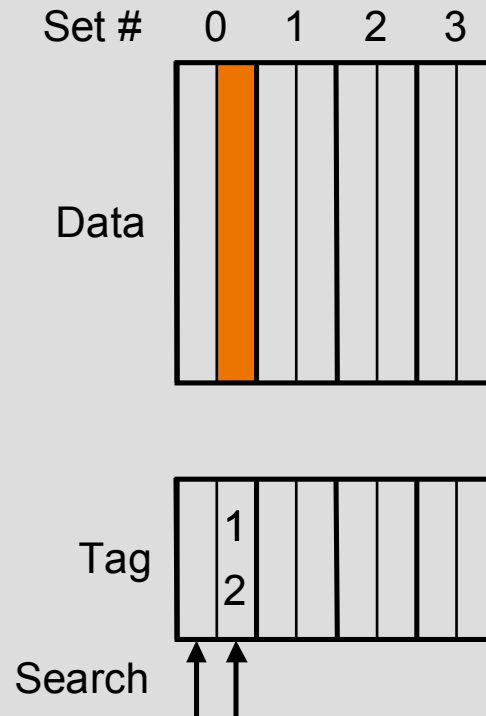
- Direct mapping means some blocks are evicted from the cache quickly
- A fully associative caches allow blocks to be placed anywhere in the cache
 - Have to search every tag field for every memory access
- Set associative cache allows blocks to be placed in a fixed number of locations in the cache
 - an *n-way set associative cache* allows a block to be placed in one of *n* locations in the cache

Associative Cache

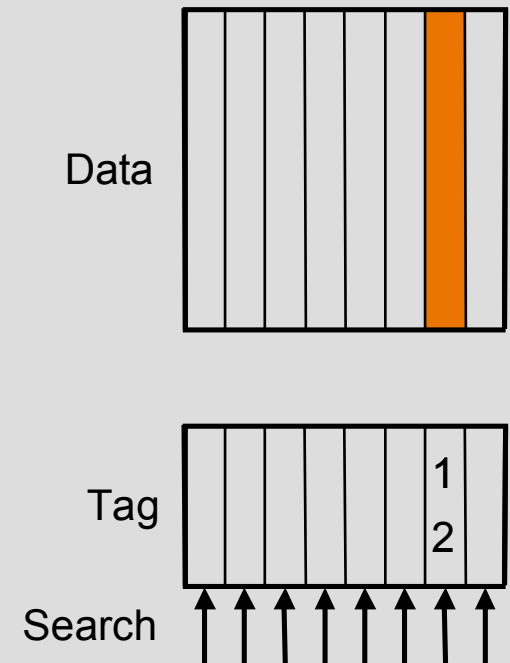
Direct mapped



Set associative



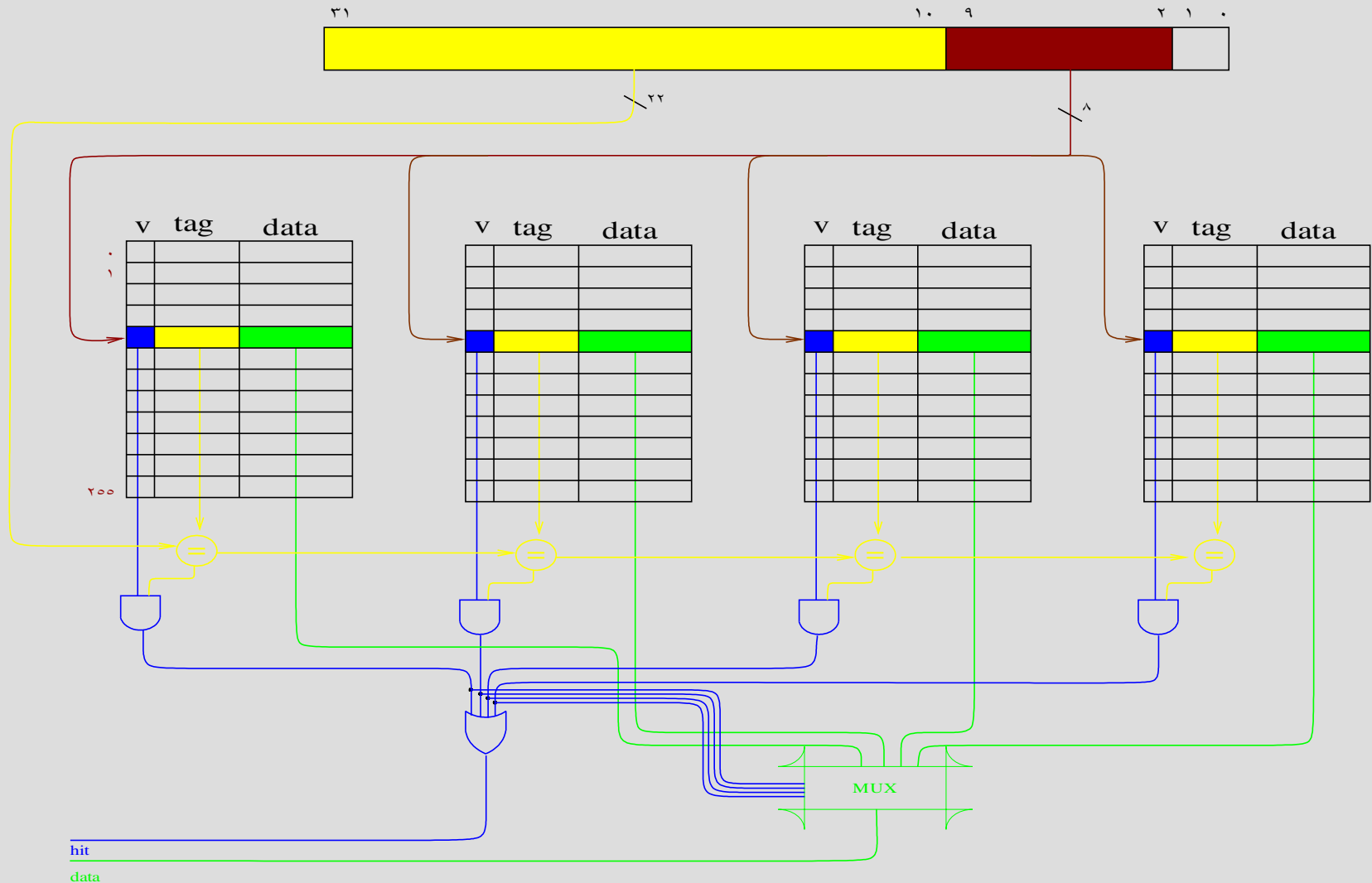
Fully associative



Associative Cache

- All caches can be considered as being set associative
- Increasing associativity tends to decrease the miss rate

Four-way Set Associative Cache



Replacement Strategies

- When the cache is full one or more entries need to be removed to allow new data to be stored.
- Least Recently Used (LRU) is the most common strategy
- Clock Scan is often used as an approximation to LRU

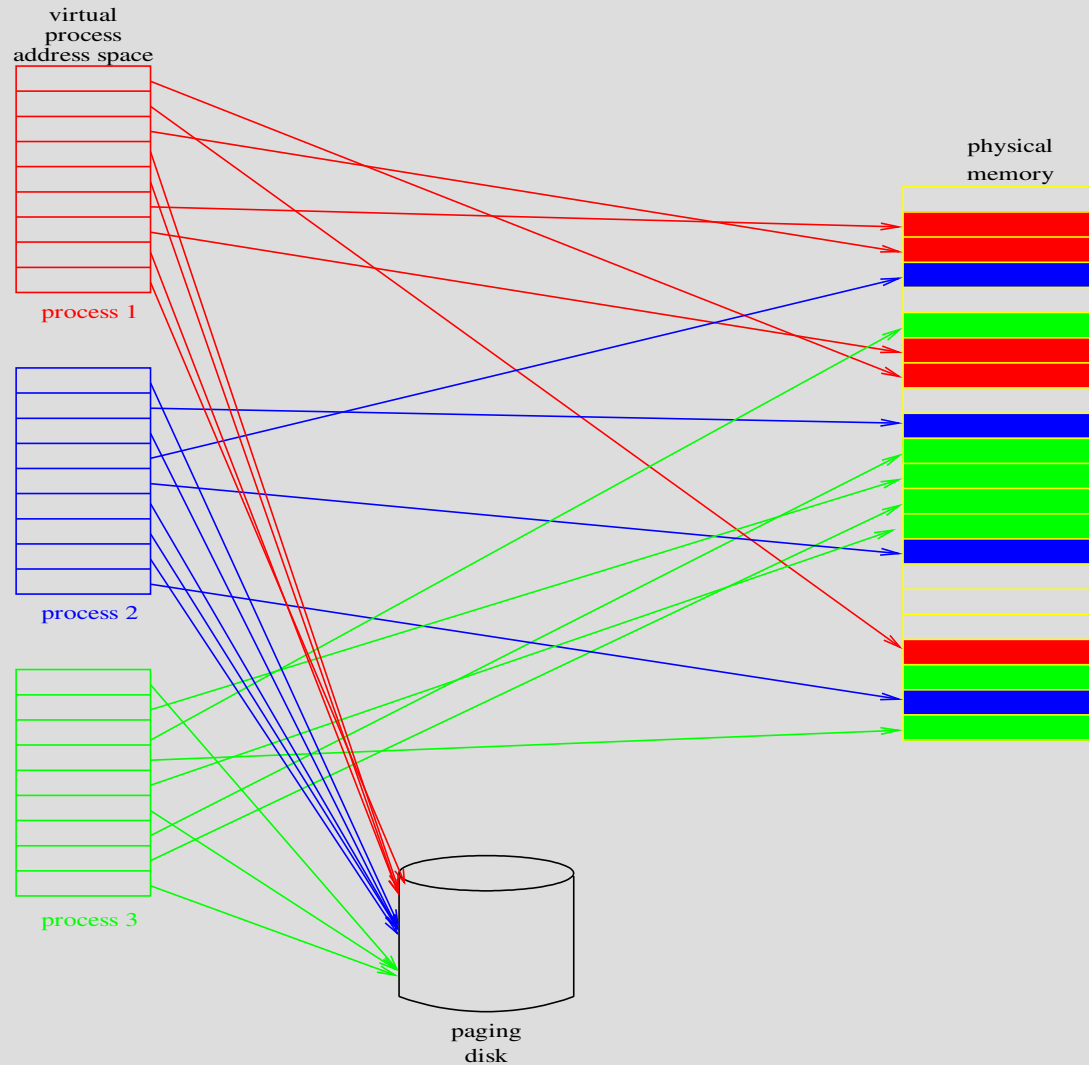
Virtual Memory

- Main memory can act as a cache for secondary storage
- Motivation:
 - Allow programs to use more memory than there is available
 - transparent to programmer
 - c.f. overlays
 - Allow multiple programs concurrently
 - non-active part of programs reside in secondary storage
 - active portions of many programs reside in memory
 - active portion of current program in cache

Virtual Memory

- With multiple programs sharing memory have to deal with:
 - program relocation
 - protection
- Give each process its own (virtual) address space
- When process accesses memory
 - translate virtual address to physical address

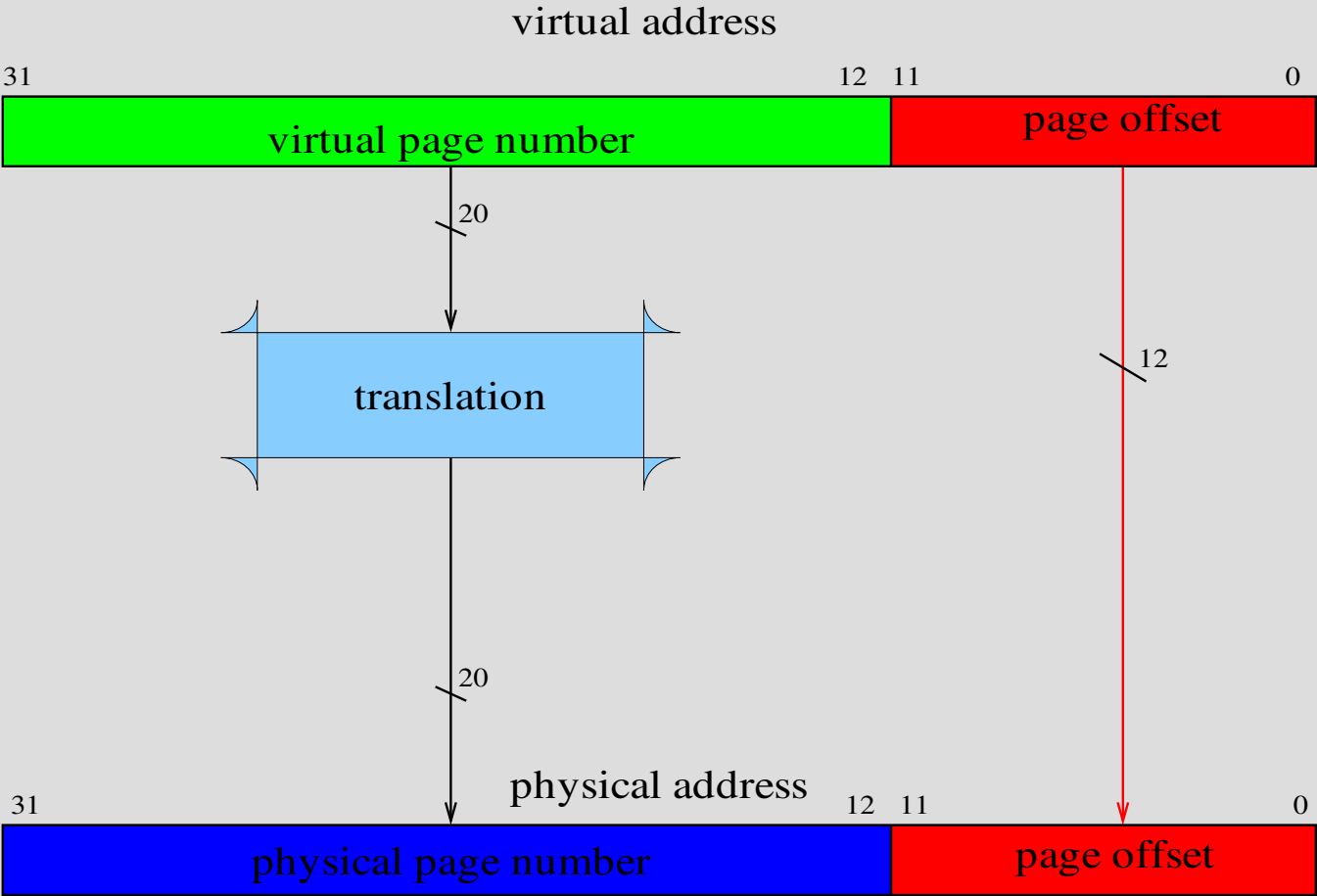
Virtual Memory



Definitions

- main concepts similar to caches
however different terminology used
 - virtual memory block => page
 - virtual memory miss => page fault

Address Translation



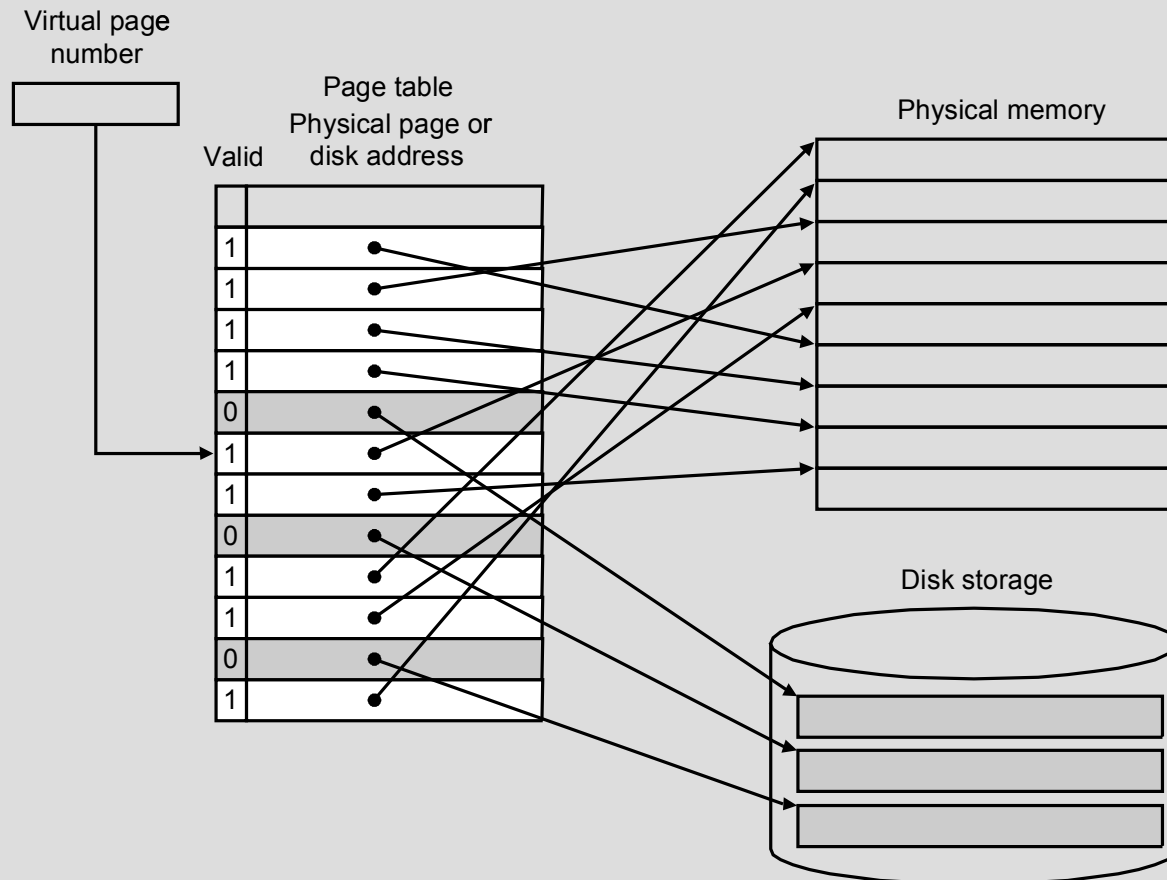
Design Choices

- Page faults : when a page not in memory then have to fetch from disk
 - can take millions of cycles
- Minimise miss penalty:
 - make pages fairly large (4KB to 64KB)
 - reduce page fault rate:
 - High levels of associativity

Placing/Finding a page

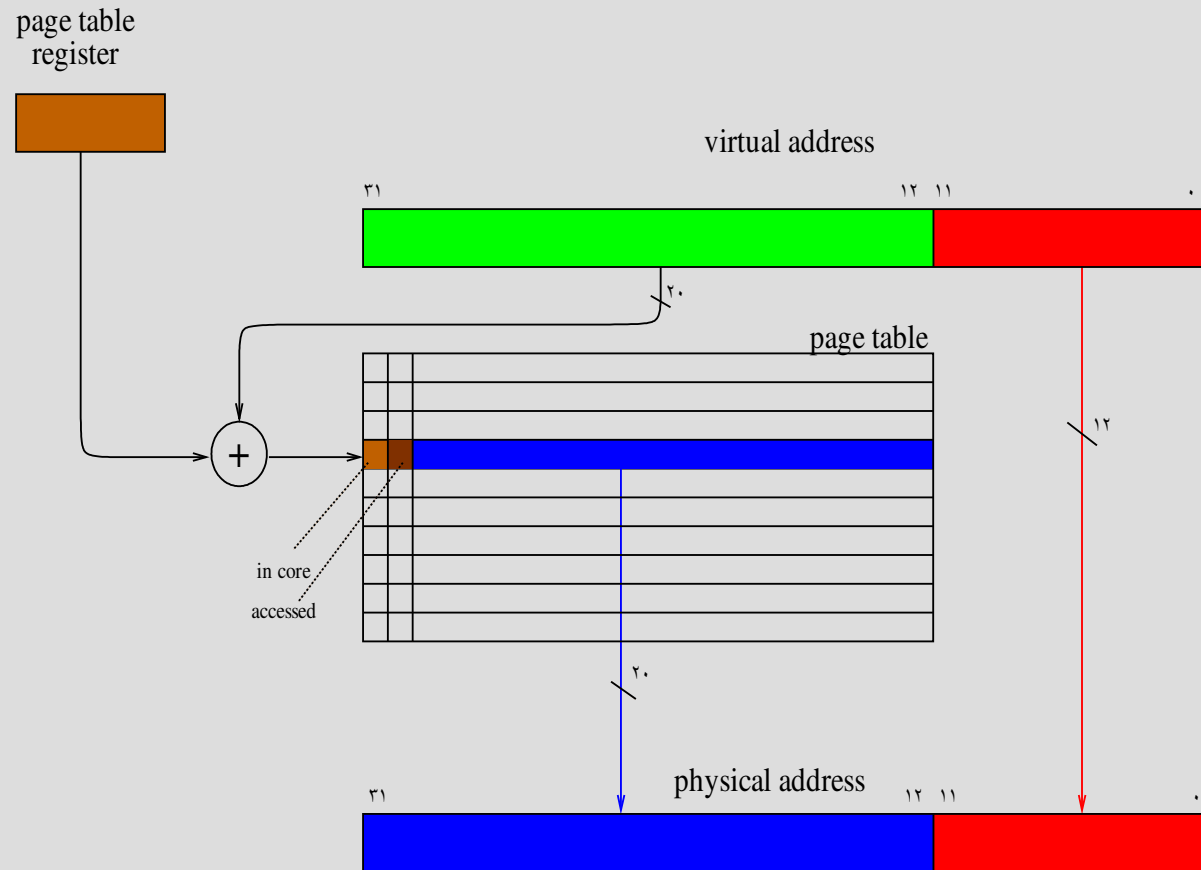
- Want Full associatively
 - impractical to search all pages in memory
- Use page tables to map virtual addresses to physical addresses
- Each program has its own page table
- Page tables reside in memory
 - reads/writes to main memory require two accesses:
 - one to get page table entry
 - one to perform data transfer

Page Tables



Page Tables

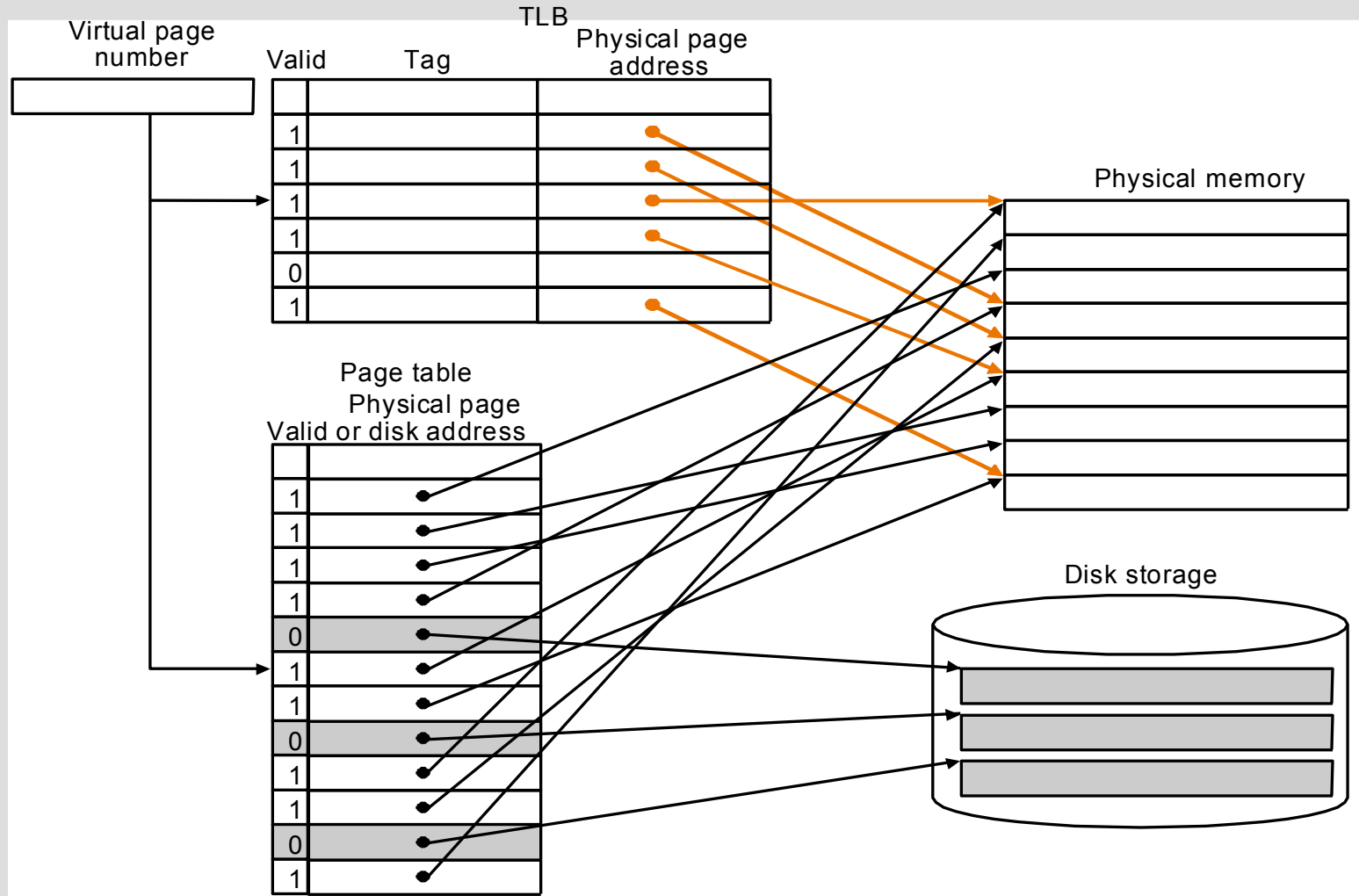
- Base address of current page table held in the *page table register*
- A processes' state is defined by its
 - PC
 - Registers
 - Page table



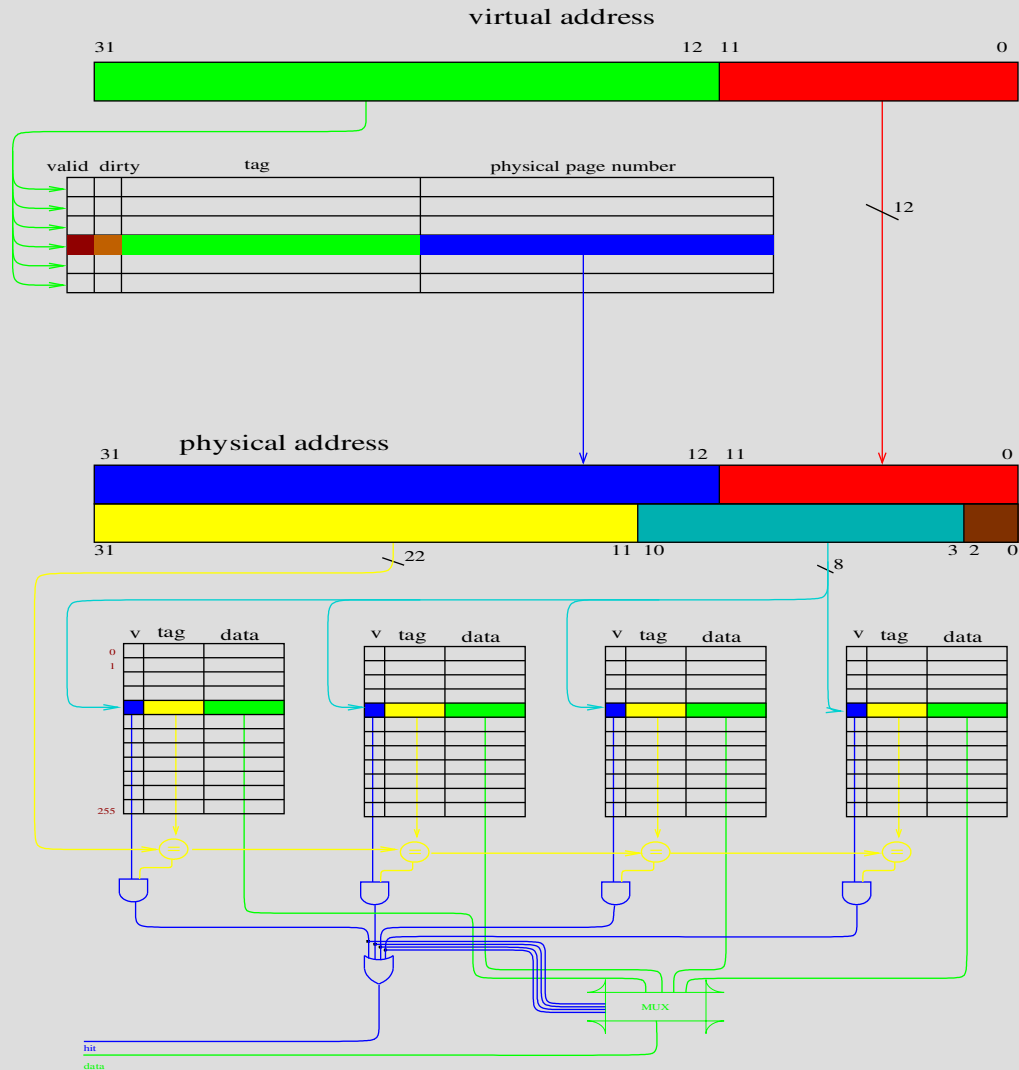
TLBs

- Accessing the page table slows memory accesses
- Use a “Translation Look-aside Buffer”
 - cache of page table mappings
- Typical values for a TLB might be:
 - TLB size 32 – 4096 entries
 - Block Size: 1 – 2 page table entries
 - Hit time: 0.5 – 1 clock cycles
 - Miss penalty: 10 – 30 clock cycles
 - Miss rate: 0.01 – 1%

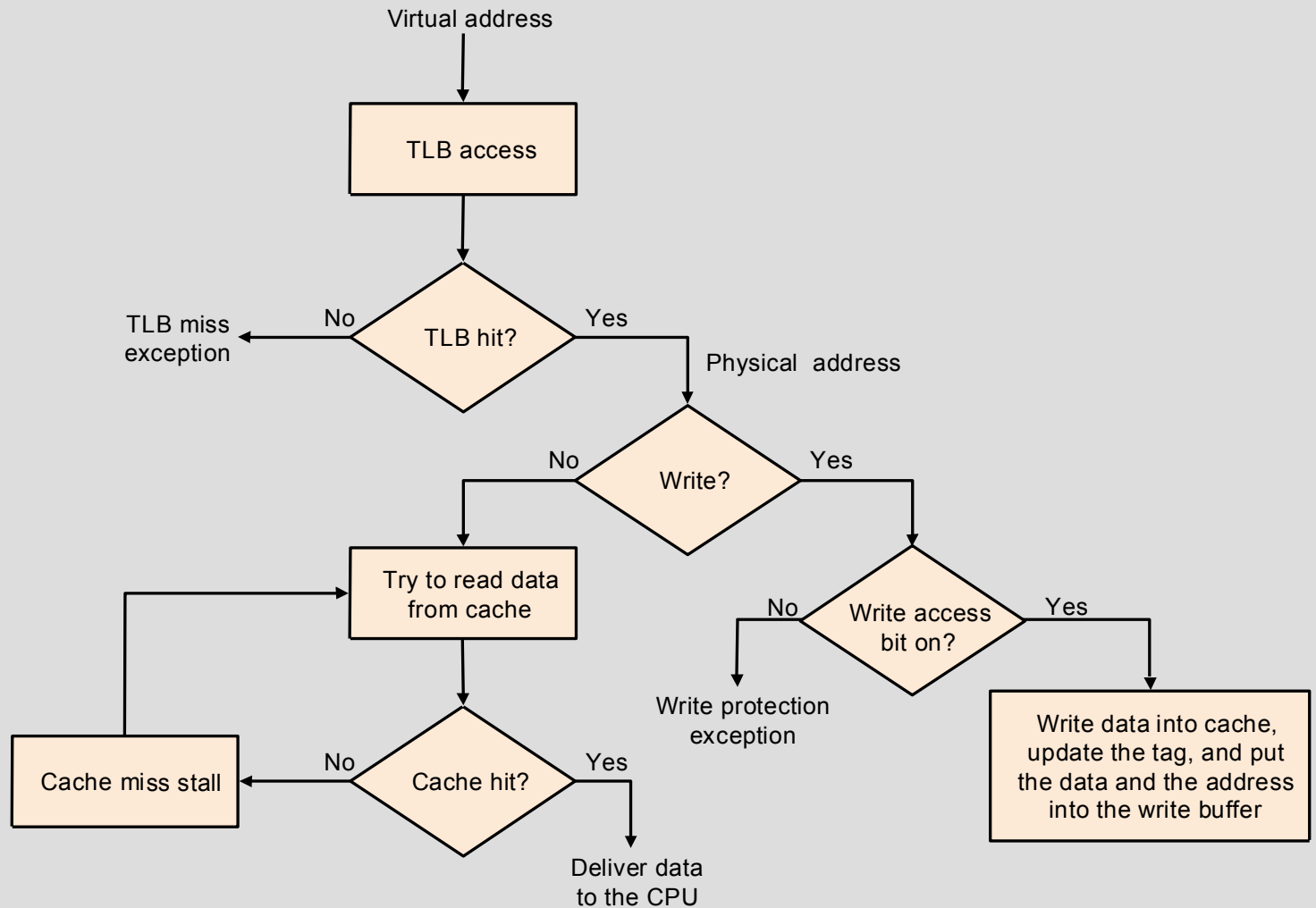
TLB Operation



TLB and Cache



TLB and Cache



Virtual Memory Protection

- Most CPUs have a supervisor (OS) and user mode of operation.
 - Change modes on an interrupt
- Page Table Register only accessible in supervisor mode
- If a physical page is not pointed to from the page table then it can not be accessed
- Some accessible pages may be read only
 - write protect bit in the page table or segment table

Write Protect Bit

page table register

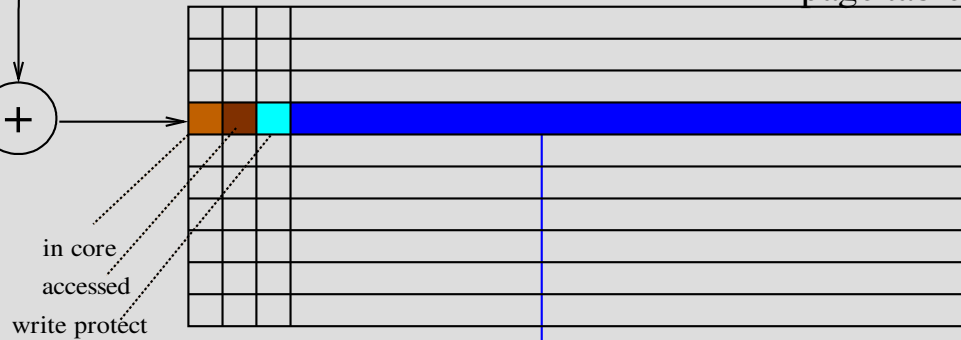


virtual address



20

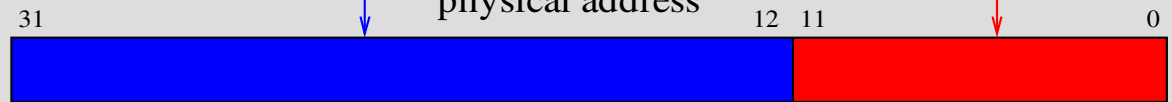
page table



in core
accessed
write protect

20

physical address

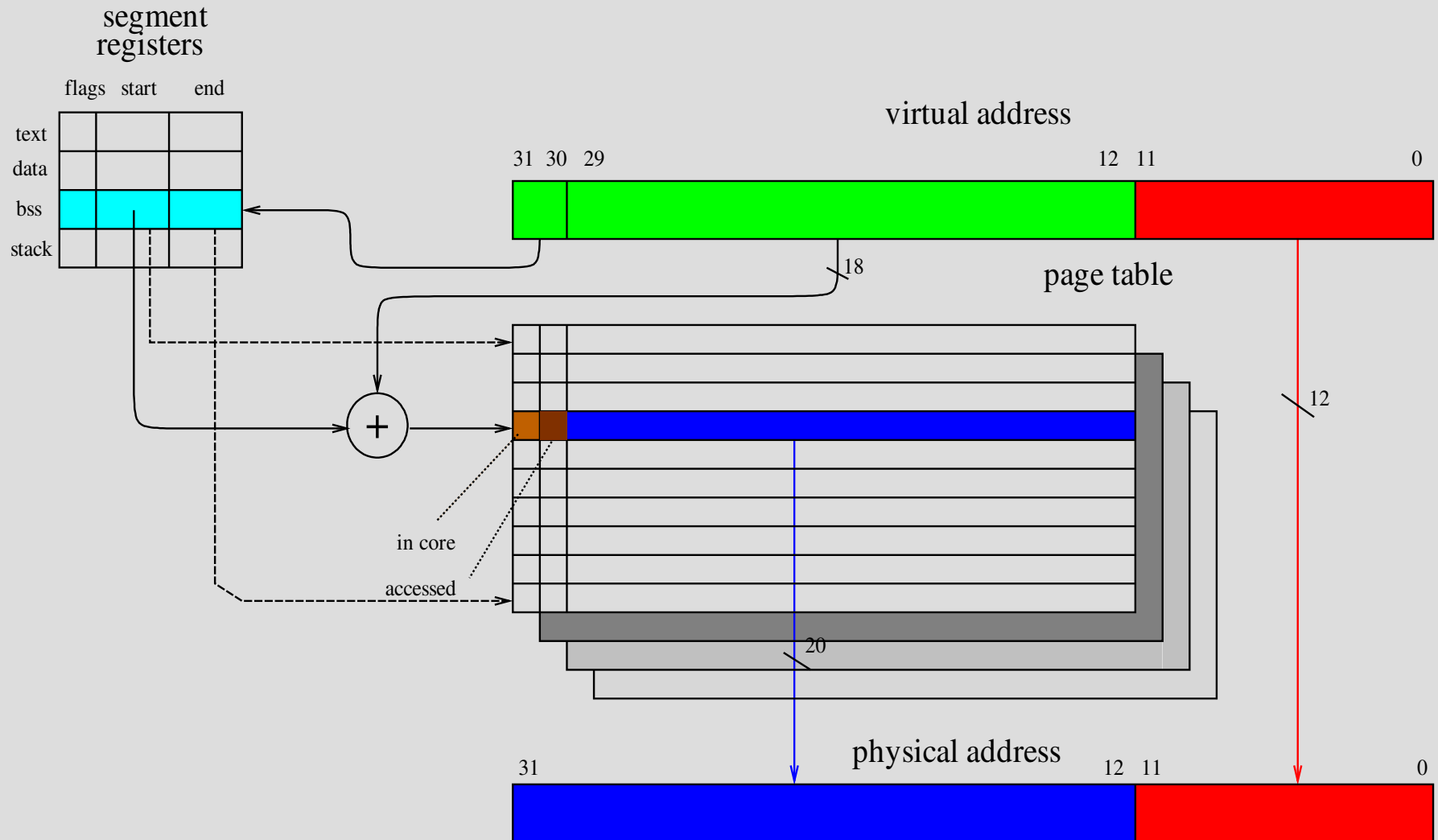


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Segments

- Programs have different types of memory
 - Program (`text`)
 - Initilised Data (`data`)
 - Uninitilised Data (`bss`)
 - Stack (`stack`)
- Have a seperate segment for each
 - Different OS characteristics
 - Bss allocated but not loaded at process start
 - Different protection for each
 - Text read only

Segments



Modern Systems

- Very complicated memory systems:

Characteristic	Intel Pentium Pro	PowerPC 604
Virtual address	32 bits	52 bits
Physical address	32 bits	32 bits
Page size	4 KB, 4 MB	4 KB, selectable, and 256 MB
TLB organization	A TLB for instructions and a TLB for data Both four-way set associative Pseudo-LRU replacement Instruction TLB: 32 entries Data TLB: 64 entries TLB misses handled in hardware	A TLB for instructions and a TLB for data Both two-way set associative LRU replacement Instruction TLB: 128 entries Data TLB: 128 entries TLB misses handled in hardware

Characteristic	Intel Pentium Pro	PowerPC 604
Cache organization	Split instruction and data caches	Split instruction and data caches
Cache size	8 KB each for instructions/data	16 KB each for instructions/data
Cache associativity	Four-way set associative	Four-way set associative
Replacement	Approximated LRU replacement	LRU replacement
Block size	32 bytes	32 bytes
Write policy	Write-back	Write-back or write-through

