Memory Hierarchy and Caches

COE 301

Computer Organization

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Presentation Outline

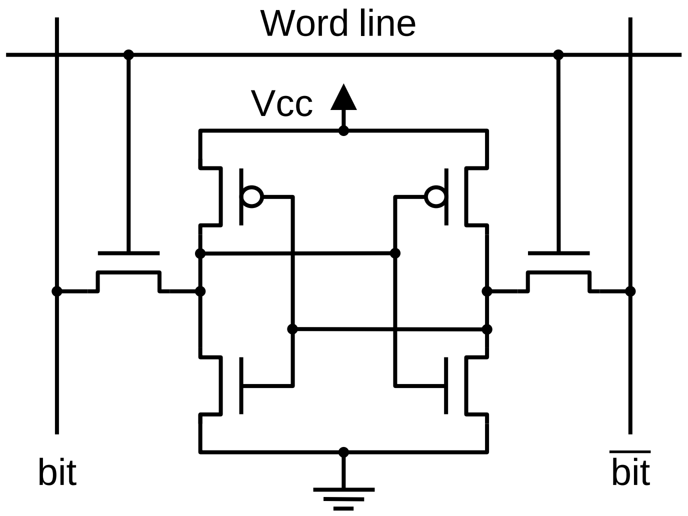
- ❖ **Random Access Memory and its Structure**
- ❖ Memory Hierarchy and the need for Cache Memory
- ❖ The Basics of Caches
- ❖ Cache Performance and Memory Stall Cycles
- ❖ Improving Cache Performance and Multilevel Caches

Memory Technology

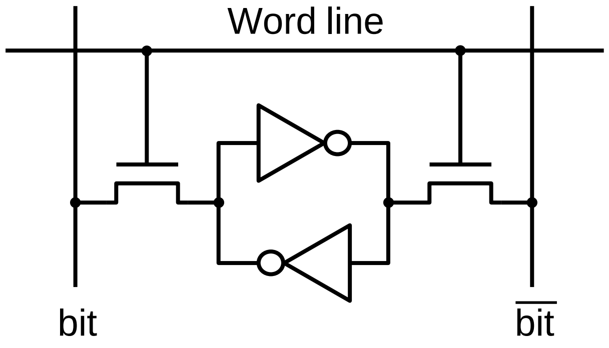
- Static RAM (SRAM)
  - Used typically to implement Cache memory
  - Requires 6 transistors per bit
  - Low power to retain bit
- Dynamic RAM (DRAM)
  - Used typically to implement Main Memory
  - One transistor + capacitor per bit
  - Must be re-written after being read
  - Must be refreshed periodically
    - By reading and rewriting all the rows in the DRAM

Static RAM Storage Cell

- Static RAM (SRAM) Memory
- Typically used for caches
- Provides fast access time
- Cell Implementation:
  - 6-Transistor cell
  - Cross-coupled inverters store bit
  - Two pass transistors
  - Row decoder selects the word line
  - Pass transistors enable the cell to be read and written

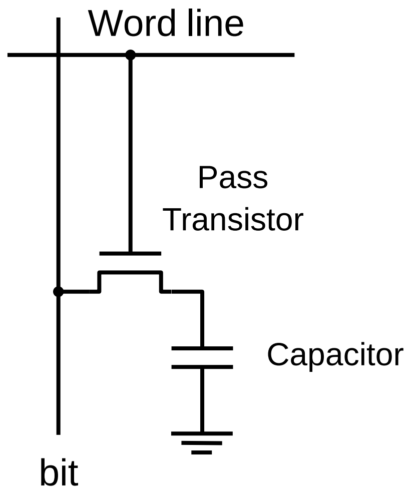


Typical SRAM cell



Dynamic RAM Storage Cell

- ❖ Dynamic RAM (DRAM): cheap, dense, but slower than SRAM
- ❖ Typical choice for main memory
- ❖ Cell Implementation:
  - ✧ 1-Transistor cell (pass transistor)
  - ✧ Trench capacitor (stores bit)
- ❖ Bit is stored as a charge on capacitor
- ❖ Must be refreshed periodically
  - ✧ Because of leakage of charge from tiny capacitor
- ❖ Refreshing for all memory rows
  - ✧ Reading each row and writing it back to restore the charge



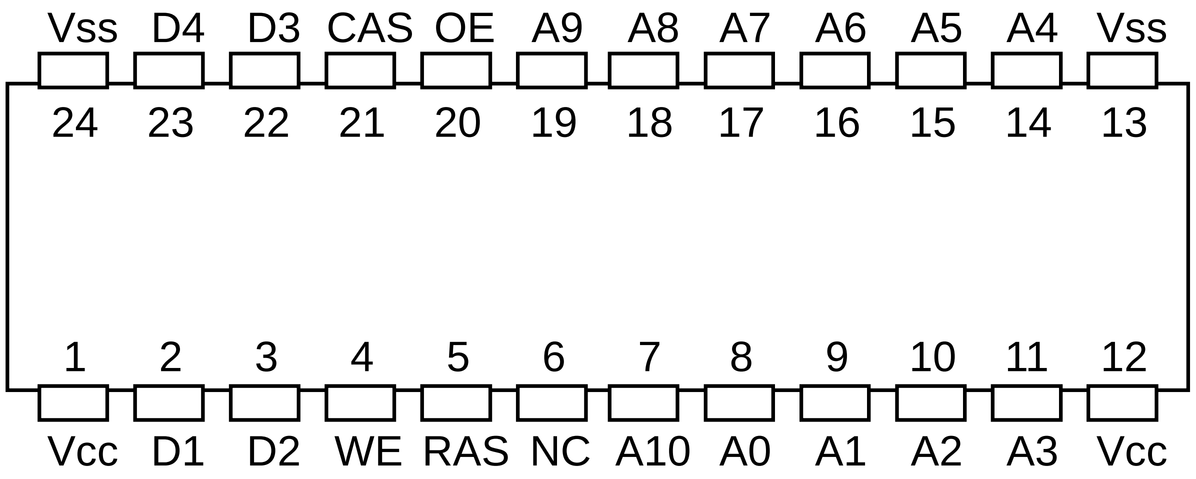
Typical DRAM cell

Example of a Memory Chip

- 24-pin dual in-line package: $2^{22} \times$ 4-bit = 16Mibit memory
- 22-bit address is divided into
  - 11-bit row address
  - 11-bit column address
  - Interleaved on same address lines

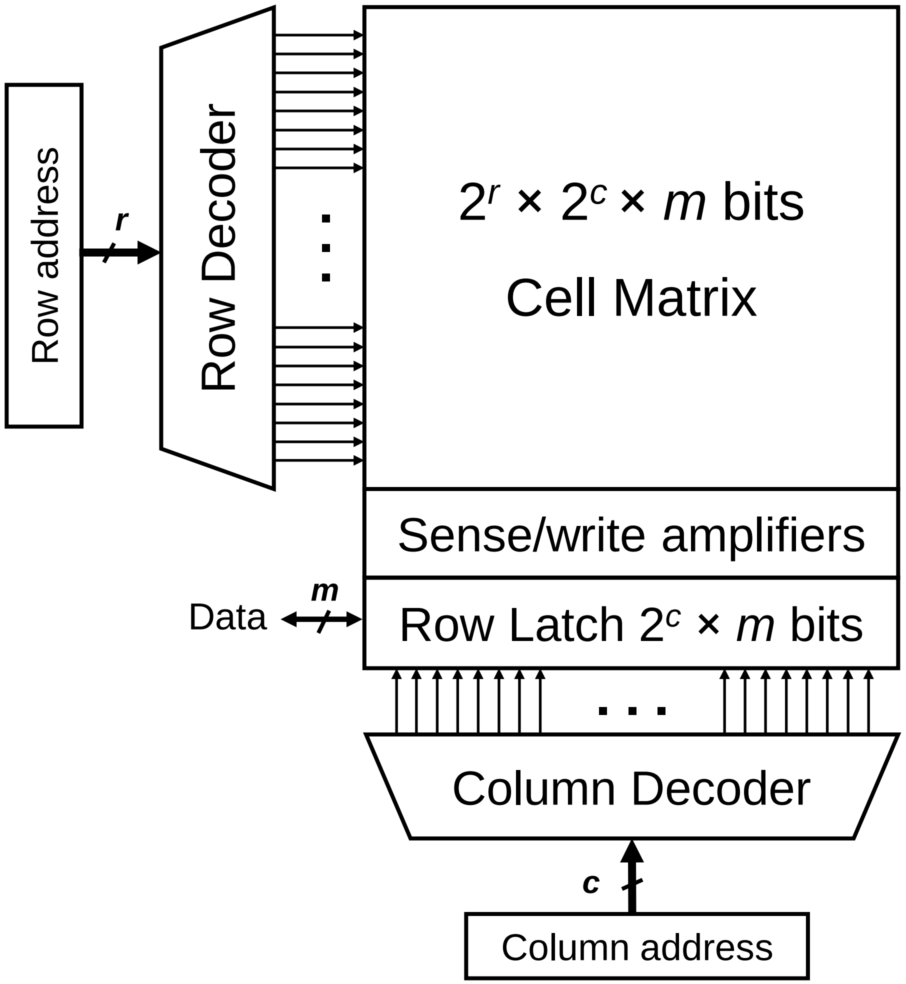
Legend

A*i*	Address bit *i*
CAS	Column address strobe
D*j*	Data bit *j*
NC	No connection
OE	Output enable
RAS	Row address strobe
WE	Write enable



Typical Memory Structure

- Row decoder
  - Select row to read/write
- Column decoder
  - Select column to read/write
- Cell Matrix
  - 2D array of tiny memory cells
- Sense/Write amplifiers
  - Sense & amplify data on read
  - Drive bit line with data in on write
- Same data lines are used for data in/out



DRAM Operation

- Row Access (RAS)
  - Latch and decode row address to enable addressed row
  - Small change in voltage detected by sense amplifiers
  - Latch whole row of bits
  - Sense amplifiers drive bit lines to recharge storage cells
- Column Access (CAS) read and write operation
  - Latch and decode column address to select *m* bits
  - *m* = 4, 8, 16, or 32 bits depending on the DRAM package
  - On read, send latched bits out to chip pins
  - On write, charge storage cells to required value
  - Can perform multiple column accesses to same row (burst mode)

Burst Mode Operation

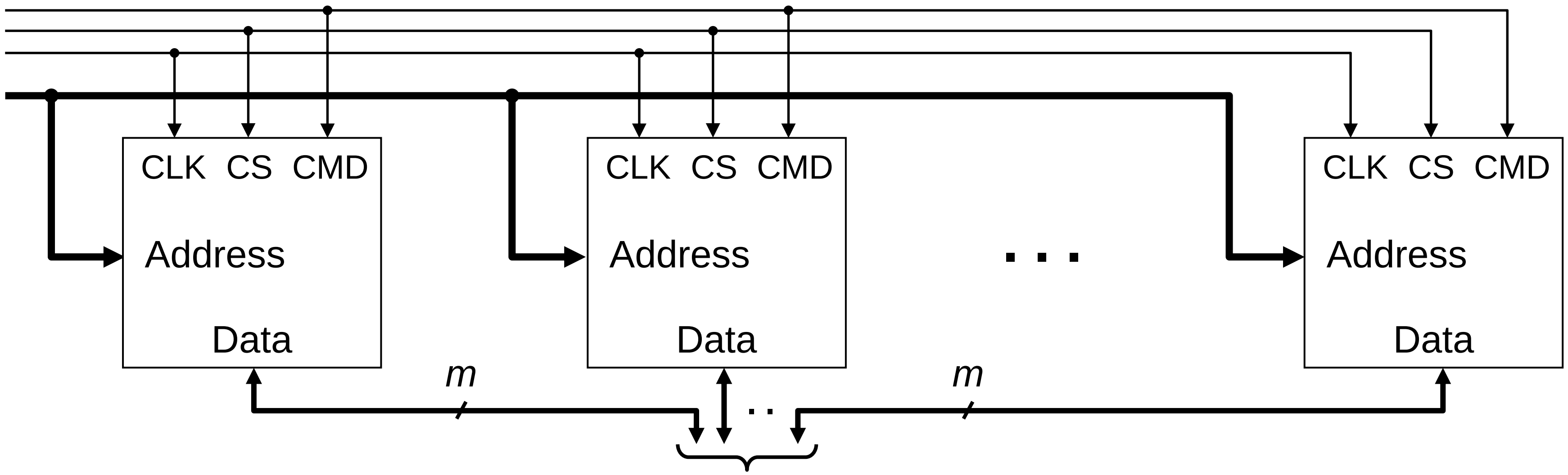
- Used for Block Transfer
  - Row address is latched and decoded
  - A read operation causes ALL cells in a selected row to be read
  - Selected row is latched internally inside the DRAM chip
  - Column address is latched and decoded
  - Selected column data is placed in the data output register
  - Column address is incremented automatically
  - Multiple data items are read depending on the block length
- Fast transfer of blocks between main memory and cache
- Fast transfer of pages between main memory and disk

SDRAM and DDR SDRAM

- SDRAM is **Synchronous** Dynamic RAM
  - Added clock to DRAM interface
- SDRAM is synchronous with the system clock
  - Older DRAM technologies were asynchronous
  - As system bus clock improved, SDRAM delivered higher performance than asynchronous DRAM
- DDR is **Double Data Rate** SDRAM
  - Like SDRAM, DDR is synchronous with the system clock, but the difference is that DDR reads data on both the rising and falling edges of the clock signal

Memory Modules

- Memory Rank: Set of DRAM chips accessed in parallel
  - Same Chip Select (CS) and Command (CMD)
  - Same address, but different data lines
  - Increases memory capacity and bandwidth
  - Example: 64-bit data bus using 4 × 16-bit DRAM chips



Data width = $p \times m$ bits

Trends in DRAM

Year	Memory Standard	Chip Capacity (Mibit)	Bus Clock (MHz)	Data Rate (MT/s)	Peak Bandwidth (MB/s)	Total latency to a new row / column
1996	SDRAM	64-128	100-166	100-166	800-1333	60 ns
2000	DDR	256-512	100-200	200-400	1600-3200	55 ns
2003	DDR2	512-2048	200-400	400-800	3200-6400	50 ns
2007	DDR3	2048-8192	400-800	800-1600	6400-12800	40 ns
2014	DDR4	8192-32768	800-1600	1600-3200	12800-25600	35 ns

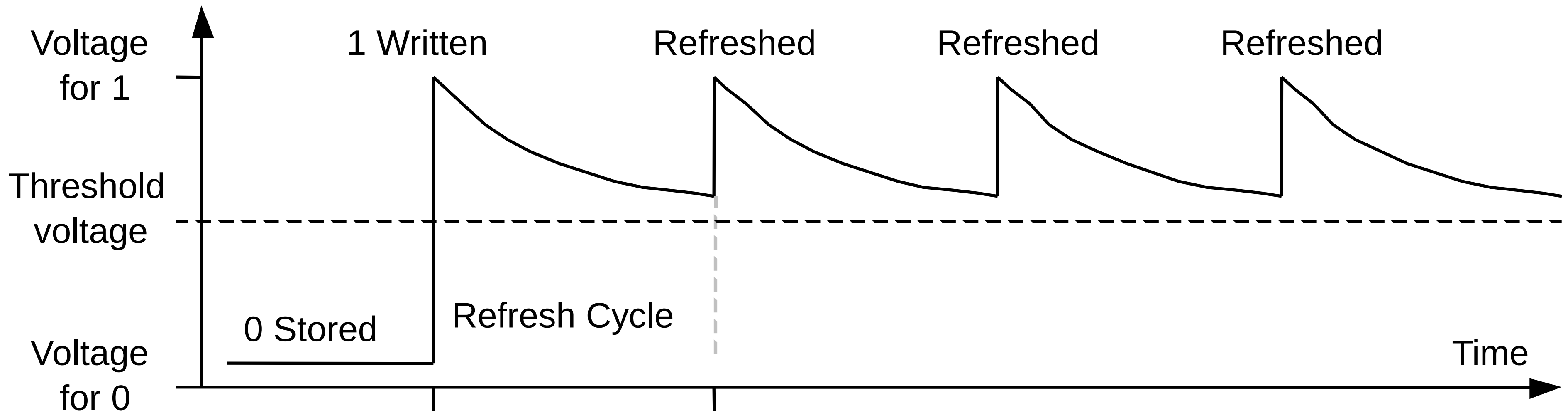
- Memory chip capacity: 1 Mibit = 2^{20} bits, 1 Gibit = 2^{30} bits
- Data Rate = Millions of Transfers per second (MT/s)
- Data Rate = 2 × Bus Clock for DDR, DDR2, DDR3, DDR4
- 1 Transfer = 8 bytes of data ➔ Bandwidth = MT/s × 8 bytes

Memory Latency versus Bandwidth

- Memory Latency
  - Elapsed time between sending address and receiving data
  - Measured in nanoseconds
  - The total latency to a new row/column is the time between opening a new row of memory and accessing a column within it.
  - Reduced from 60 ns to 35 ns (between 1996 and 2016)
  - Improvement in memory latency is less than 2X (1996 to 2016)
- Memory Bandwidth
  - Rate at which data is transferred between memory and CPU
  - Bandwidth is measured as millions of Bytes per second
  - Increased from 800 to 25600 MBytes/sec (between 1996 and 2016)
  - Improvement in memory bandwidth is 32X (1996 to 2016)

DRAM Refresh Cycles

- ❖ Refresh cycle is about tens of milliseconds
- ❖ Refreshing is done for the entire memory
- ❖ Each row is read and written back to restore the charge
- ❖ Some of the memory bandwidth is lost to refresh cycles



Next . . .

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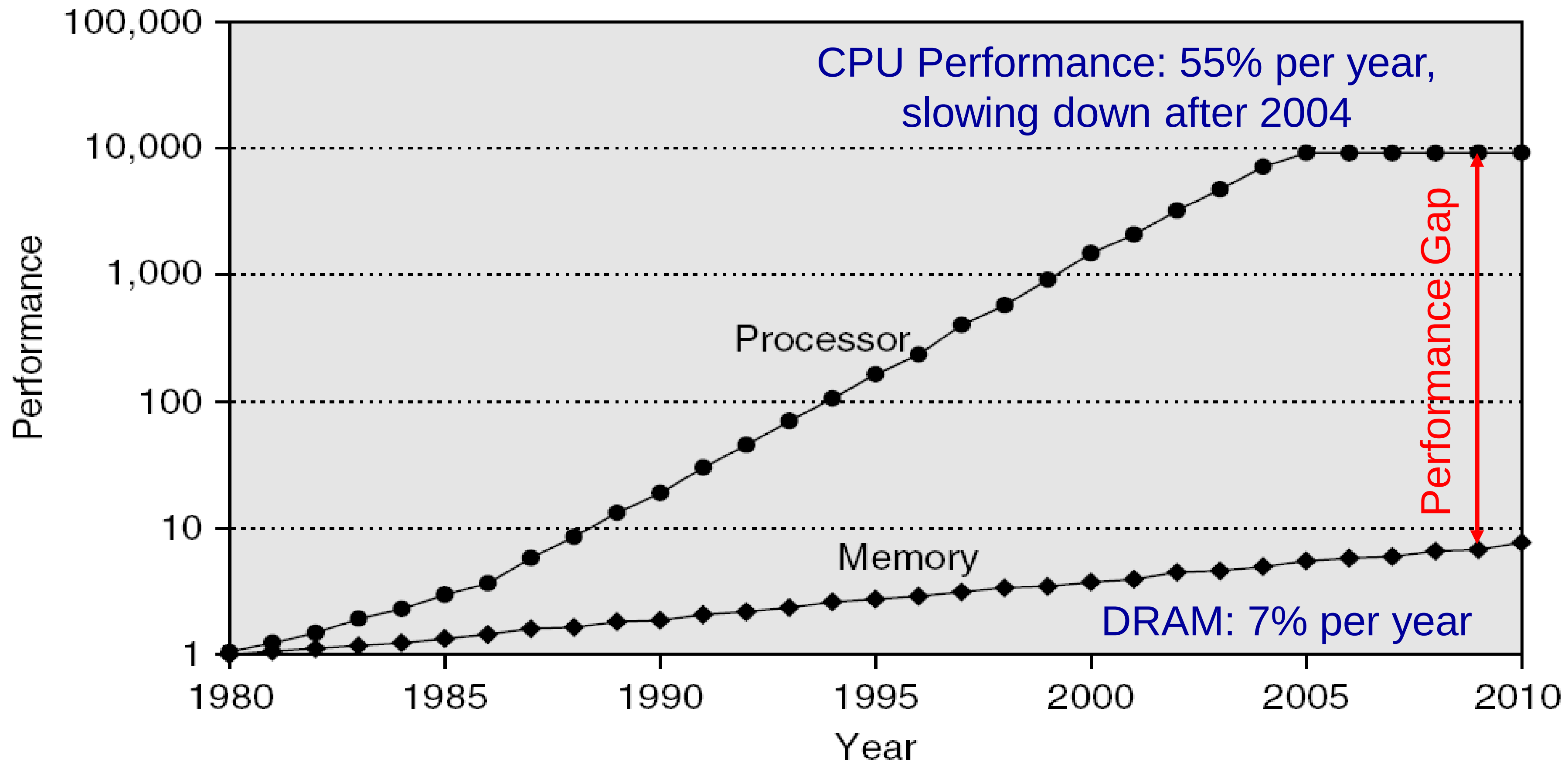
Processor-Memory Performance Gap



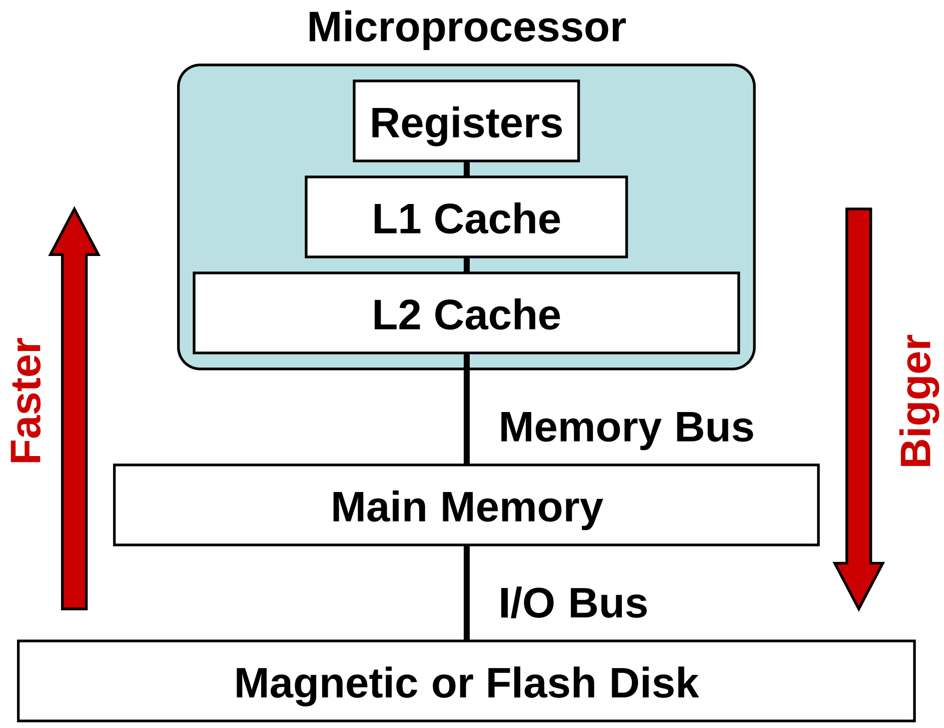
- ❖ 1980 – No cache in microprocessor
- ❖ 1995 – Two-level cache on microprocessor

The Need for Cache Memory

- ❖ Widening speed gap between CPU and main memory
  - ✧ Processor operation takes less than 1 ns
  - ✧ Main memory requires more than 50 ns to access
- ❖ Each instruction involves at least one memory access
  - ✧ One memory access to fetch the instruction
  - ✧ A second memory access for load and store instructions
- ❖ Memory bandwidth limits the instruction execution rate
- ❖ Cache memory can help bridge the CPU-memory gap
- ❖ Cache memory is small in size but fast

Typical Memory Hierarchy

- Registers are at the top of the hierarchy
  - Typical size < 1 KB
  - Access time < 0.5 ns
- Level 1 Cache (8 – 64 KiB)
  - Access time: 1 ns
- L2 Cache (1 MiB – 8 MiB)
  - Access time: 3 – 10 ns
- Main Memory (8 – 32 GiB)
  - Access time: 40 – 50 ns
- Disk Storage (> 200 GB)
  - Access time: 5 – 10 ms



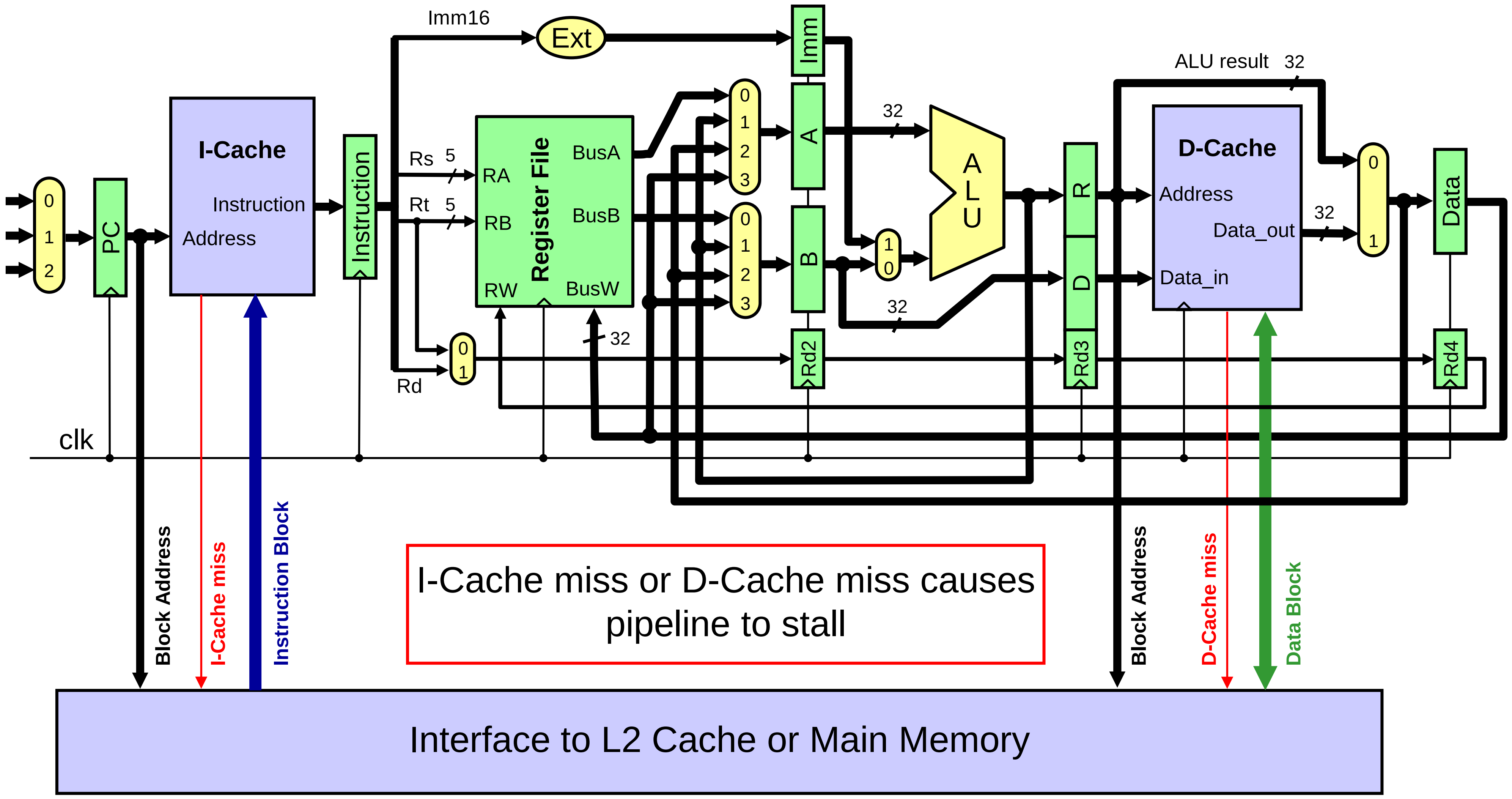
Principle of Locality of Reference

- Programs access small portion of their address space
  - At any time, only a small set of instructions & data is needed
- **Temporal Locality** (in time)
  - If an item is accessed, probably it will be accessed again soon
  - Same loop instructions are fetched each iteration
  - Same procedure may be called and executed many times
- **Spatial Locality** (in space)
  - Tendency to access contiguous instructions/data in memory
  - Sequential execution of Instructions
  - Traversing arrays element by element

What is a Cache Memory ?

- Small and fast (SRAM) memory technology
  - Stores the subset of instructions & data currently being accessed
- Used to reduce average access time to memory
- Caches exploit **temporal locality** by …
  - Keeping recently accessed data closer to the processor
- Caches exploit **spatial locality** by …
  - Moving blocks consisting of multiple contiguous words
- Goal is to achieve
  - **Fast speed** of cache memory access
  - Balance the **cost** of the memory system

Cache Memories in the Datapath



I-Cache miss or D-Cache miss causes pipeline to stall

Almost Everything is a Cache !

- In computer architecture, almost everything is a cache!
- Registers: a **cache on variables** – software managed
- First-level cache: a **cache on second-level cache**
- Second-level cache: a **cache on memory** (or L3 cache)
- Memory: a **cache on hard disk**
  - Stores recent programs and their data
  - Hard disk can be viewed as an extension to main memory
- Branch target and prediction buffer
  - **Cache on branch target and prediction** information

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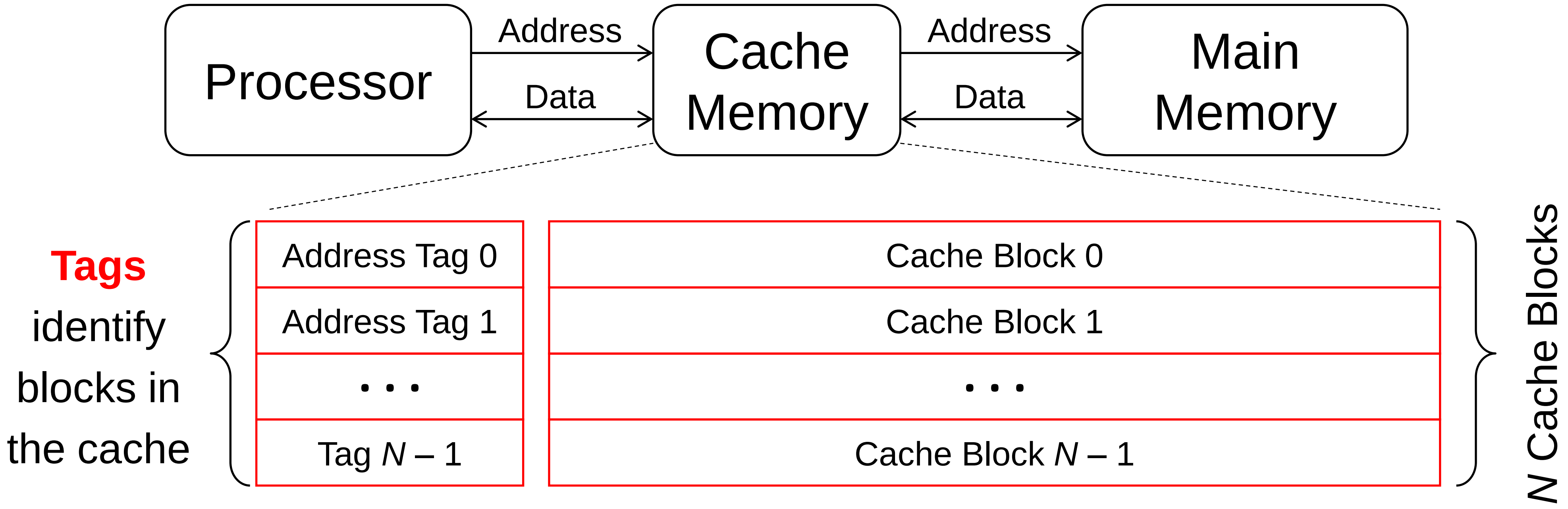
Four Basic Questions on Caches

- Q1: Where can a block be placed in a cache?
  - **Block placement**
  - Direct Mapped, Set Associative, Fully Associative
- Q2: How is a block found in a cache?
  - **Block identification**
  - Block address, tag, index
- Q3: Which block should be replaced on a cache miss?
  - **Block replacement**
  - FIFO, Random, LRU
- Q4: What happens on a write?
  - **Write strategy**
  - Write Back or Write Through cache (with Write Buffer)

Inside a Cache Memory



❖ **Cache Block** (or Cache Line)

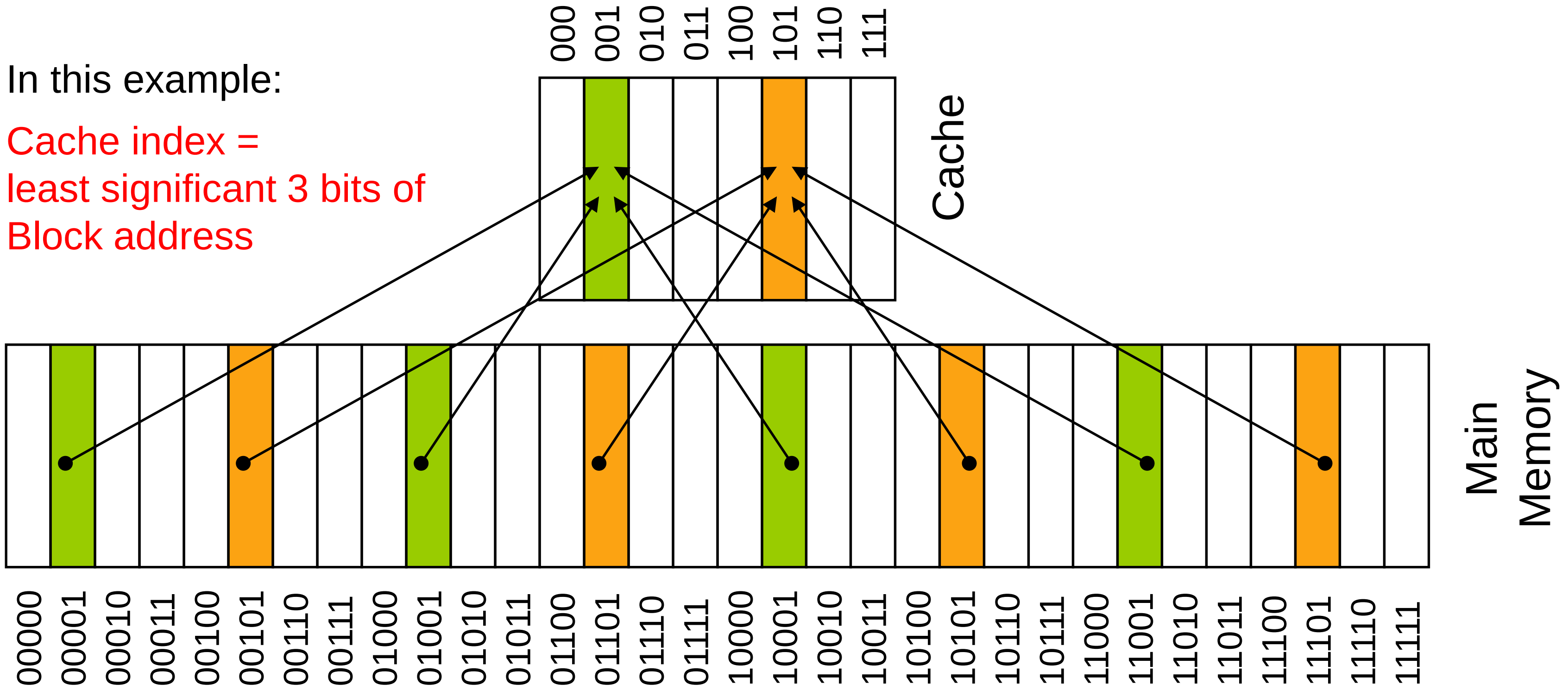
- ✧ Unit of data transfer between main memory and a cache
- ✧ Large block size ➔ Less tag overhead + Burst transfer from DRAM
- ✧ Typically, cache block size = 64 bytes in recent caches

Block Placement: Direct Mapped

- **Block**: unit of data transfer between cache and memory
- **Direct Mapped Cache**:
  - A block can be placed in exactly one location in the cache

In this example:

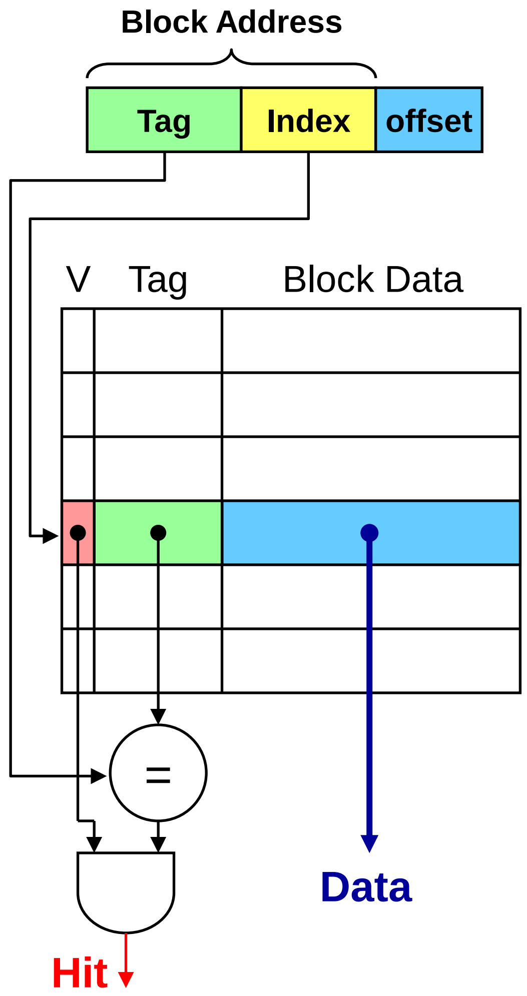
Cache index = least significant 3 bits of Block address



Direct-Mapped Cache

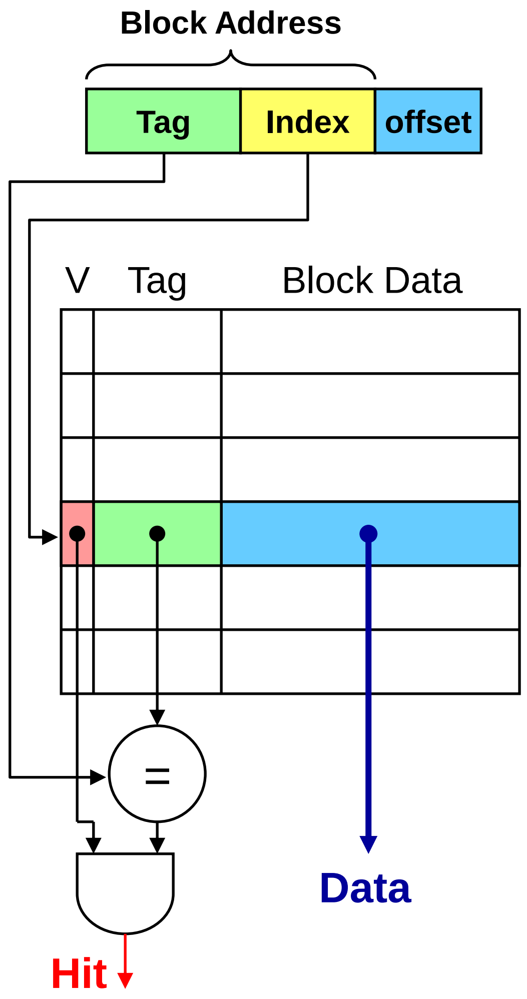
- A memory address is divided into
  - **Block address**: identifies block in memory
  - **Block offset**: to access bytes within a block
- A block address is further divided into
  - **Index**: used for direct cache access
  - **Tag**: most-significant bits of block address

  Index = Block Address **mod** *Cache Blocks*
- Tag must be stored also inside cache
  - For block identification
- A **valid bit** is also required to indicate
  - Whether a cache block is valid or not



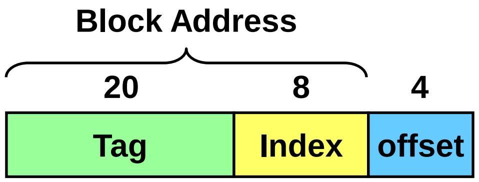
Direct Mapped Cache – cont'd

- **Cache hit**: block is stored inside cache
  - Index is used to access cache block
  - Address tag is compared against stored tag
  - If equal and cache block is valid then **hit**
  - Otherwise: **cache miss**
- If number of cache blocks is 2^n
  - n bits are used for the cache index
- If number of bytes in a block is 2^b
  - b bits are used for the block offset
- If 32 bits are used for an address
  - $32 - n - b$ bits are used for the tag
- Cache data size = 2^{n+b} bytes



Mapping an Address to a Cache Block

- Example
  - Consider a direct-mapped cache with 256 blocks
  - Block size = 16 bytes
  - Compute tag, index, and byte offset of address: 0x01FFF8AC
- **Solution**
  - 32-bit address is divided into:



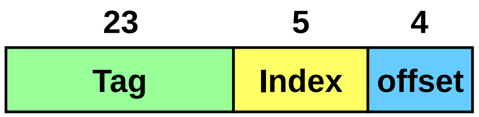
    - 4-bit byte offset field, because block size = 2^4 = 16 bytes
    - 8-bit cache index, because there are 2^8 = 256 blocks in cache
    - 20-bit tag field
  - Byte offset = 0xC = 12 (least significant 4 bits of address)
  - Cache index = 0x8A = 138 (next lower 8 bits of address)
  - Tag = 0x01FFF (upper 20 bits of address)

Example on Cache Placement & Misses

- Consider a small direct-mapped cache with 32 blocks
  - Cache is initially empty, Block size = 16 bytes
  - The following memory addresses (in decimal) are referenced:

    1000, 1004, 1008, 2548, 2552, 2556.
  - Map addresses to cache blocks and indicate whether hit or miss

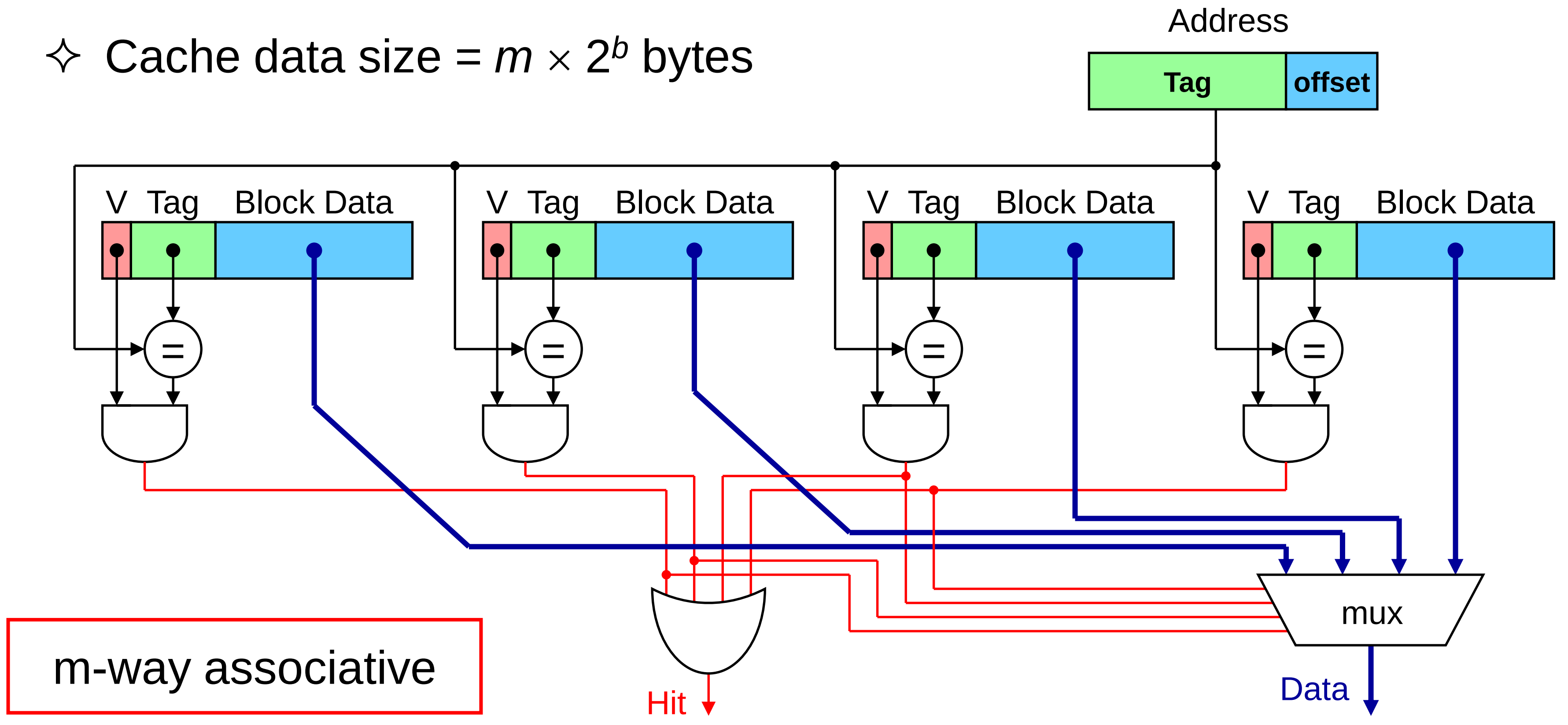
- Solution:



1000 = 0x3E8	cache index = 0x1E	Miss (first access)
1004 = 0x3EC	cache index = 0x1E	Hit
1008 = 0x3F0	cache index = 0x1F	Miss (first access)
2548 = 0x9F4	cache index = 0x1F	Miss (different tag)
2552 = 0x9F8	cache index = 0x1F	Hit
2556 = 0x9FC	cache index = 0x1F	Hit

Fully Associative Cache

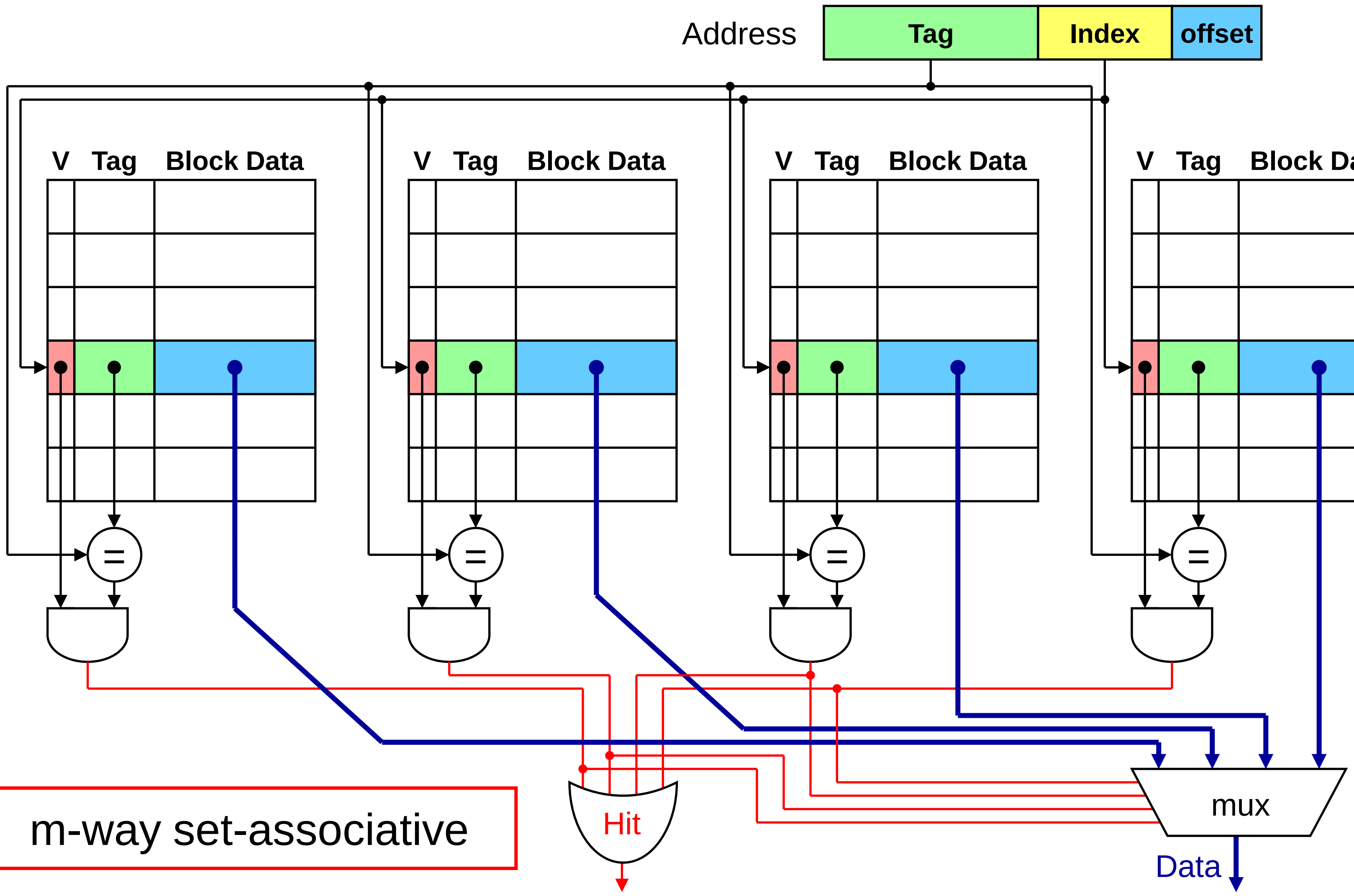
- A block can be placed anywhere in cache ⇒ no indexing
- If *m* blocks exist then
  - *m* comparators are needed to match *tag*
  - Cache data size = $m \times 2^b$ bytes



Set-Associative Cache

- A **set** is a group of blocks that can be indexed
- A block is first mapped onto a set
  - *Set index = Block address* **mod** *Number of sets in cache*
- If there are *m* blocks in a set (*m*-way set associative) then
  - *m* tags are checked in parallel using *m* comparators
- If 2^n sets exist then **set index** consists of *n* bits
- Cache data size = $m \times 2^{n+b}$ bytes (with 2^b bytes per block)
  - Without counting tags and valid bits
- A direct-mapped cache has one block per set ($m = 1$)
- A fully-associative cache has one set ($2^n = 1$ or $n = 0$)

Set-Associative Cache Diagram



m-way set-associative

Write Policy

- **Write Through:**
  - Writes update cache and lower-level memory
  - Cache control bit: only a Valid bit is needed
  - Memory always has latest data, which simplifies data coherency
  - Can always discard cached data when a block is replaced
- **Write Back:**
  - Writes update cache only
  - Cache control bits: Valid and Modified bits are required
  - Modified cached data is written back to memory when replaced
  - Multiple writes to a cache block require only one write to memory
  - Uses less memory bandwidth than write-through and less power
  - However, more complex to implement than write through

What Happens on a Cache Miss?

- Cache sends a **miss signal** to **stall** the processor
- Decide which cache block to allocate/replace
  - One choice only when the cache is directly mapped
  - Multiple choices for set-associative or fully-associative cache
- Transfer the block from lower level memory to this cache
  - Set the valid bit and the tag field from the upper address bits
- If block to be replaced is **modified** then write it back
  - Modified block is written back to memory
  - Otherwise, block to be replaced can be simply discarded
- Restart the instruction that caused the cache miss
- **Miss Penalty:** clock cycles to process a cache miss

Replacement Policy

- Which block to be replaced on a cache miss?
- No selection alternatives for direct-mapped caches
- *m* blocks per set to choose from for associative caches
- **Random replacement**
  - Candidate blocks are randomly selected
  - **One counter for all sets** (0 to $m - 1$): incremented on every cycle
  - On a cache miss replace block specified by counter
- **First In First Out (FIFO) replacement**
  - Replace oldest block in set
  - **One counter per set** (0 to $m - 1$): specifies **oldest block** to replace
  - Counter is incremented on a cache miss

Replacement Policy – cont'd

- **Least Recently Used (LRU)**
  - Replace block that has been **unused for the longest time**
  - Order blocks within a set from least to most recently used
  - Update ordering of blocks on each cache hit
  - With *m* blocks per set, there are ***m*!** possible permutations
- Pure LRU **is too costly** to implement when *m* > 2
  - *m* = 2, there are 2 permutations only (a single bit is needed)
  - m = 4, there are 4! = 24 possible permutations
  - LRU approximation is used in practice
- For large *m* > 4,

  Random replacement can be as effective as LRU

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Hit Rate and Miss Rate

- Hit Rate = Hits / (Hits + Misses)
- Miss Rate = Misses / (Hits + Misses)
- I-Cache Miss Rate = Miss rate in the Instruction Cache
- D-Cache Miss Rate = Miss rate in the Data Cache
- Example:
  - Out of 1000 instructions fetched, 150 missed in the I-Cache
  - 25% are load-store instructions, 50 missed in the D-Cache
  - What are the I-cache and D-cache miss rates?
- I-Cache Miss Rate = 150 / 1000 = 15%
- D-Cache Miss Rate = 50 / (25% × 1000) = 50 / 250 = 20%

Memory Stall Cycles

- The processor stalls on a Cache miss
  - When fetching instructions from the Instruction Cache (I-cache)
  - When loading or storing data into the Data Cache (D-cache)

  Memory stall cycles = Combined Misses × Miss Penalty

- Miss Penalty: clock cycles to process a cache miss

  Combined Misses = I-Cache Misses + D-Cache Misses

  I-Cache Misses = I-Count × I-Cache Miss Rate

  D-Cache Misses = LS-Count × D-Cache Miss Rate

  LS-Count (Load & Store) = I-Count × LS Frequency

- Cache misses are often reported per thousand instructions

Memory Stall Cycles Per Instruction

- Memory Stall Cycles Per Instruction =

  Combined Misses Per Instruction × Miss Penalty

- Miss Penalty is assumed equal for I-cache & D-cache
- Miss Penalty is assumed equal for Load and Store
- Combined Misses Per Instruction =

  I-Cache Miss Rate + LS Frequency × D-Cache Miss Rate

- Therefore, Memory Stall Cycles Per Instruction =

  I-Cache Miss Rate × Miss Penalty +

  LS Frequency × D-Cache Miss Rate × Miss Penalty

Example on Memory Stall Cycles

- Consider a program with the given characteristics
  - Instruction count (I-Count) = 10^6 instructions
  - 30% of instructions are loads and stores
  - D-cache miss rate is 5% and I-cache miss rate is 1%
  - Miss penalty is 100 clock cycles for instruction and data caches
  - Compute combined misses per instruction and memory stall cycles
- Combined misses per instruction in I-Cache and D-Cache
  - 1% + 30% $\times$ 5% = 0.025 combined misses per instruction
  - Equal to 25 misses per 1000 instructions
- Memory stall cycles
  - 0.025 $\times$ 100 (miss penalty) = 2.5 stall cycles per instruction
  - Total memory stall cycles = $10^6 \times 2.5$ = 2,500,000

CPU Time with Memory Stall Cycles

$$\text{CPU Time} = \text{I-Count} \times \text{CPI}_{\text{MemoryStalls}} \times \text{Clock Cycle}$$

$$\text{CPI}_{\text{MemoryStalls}} = \text{CPI}_{\text{PerfectCache}} + \text{Mem Stalls per Instruction}$$

- $\text{CPI}_{\text{PerfectCache}}$ = CPI for ideal cache (no cache misses)
- $\text{CPI}_{\text{MemoryStalls}}$ = CPI in the presence of memory stalls
- Memory stall cycles increase the CPI

Example on CPI with Memory Stalls

- A processor has CPI of 1.5 without any memory stalls
  - Cache miss rate is 2% for instruction and 5% for data
  - 20% of instructions are loads and stores
  - Cache miss penalty is 100 clock cycles for I-cache and D-cache
- What is the impact on the CPI?
- **Answer:**

  $$\text{Mem Stalls per Instruction} = \overbrace{0.02\times100}^{\text{Instruction}} + \overbrace{0.2\times0.05\times100}^{\text{data}} = 3$$

  $$CPI_{MemoryStalls} = 1.5 + 3 = 4.5 \text{ cycles per instruction}$$

  $$CPI_{MemoryStalls} / CPI_{PerfectCache} = 4.5 / 1.5 = 3$$

  Processor is **3 times slower** due to memory stall cycles

Average Memory Access Time

- Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

  AMAT = Hit time + Combined Miss rate × Miss penalty

  Hit Time = time to access the I-cache or D-cache (for a hit)

  Hit time is assumed to be the same for I-cache and D-cache

- Combined Miss Rate for Instruction Access and Data Access

$$\text{Combined Miss Rate} = \frac{\text{Combined Misses per Instruction}}{\text{Memory Accesses per Instruction}}$$

  Memory Accesses per Instruction = 1 + %LS (%Load + %Store)

  Miss penalty is assumed to be the same for I-cache and D-cache

AMAT Example

- Compute the overall average memory access time
  - Hit time = 1 clock cycle in both I-Cache and D-Cache
  - Miss penalty = 50 clock cycles for I-Cache and D-Cache
  - I-Cache misses = 3.8 misses per 1000 instructions
  - D-Cache misses = 41 misses per 1000 instructions
  - 25% of the instructions are load and store
- Solution:

  Combined Misses per Instruction = (3.8 + 41) / 1000 = 0.0448

  Combined Miss rate (per access) = 0.0448 / (1 + 0.25) = 0.03584

  Overall AMAT = 1 + 0.03584 × 50 = 2.792 cycles

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Improving Cache Performance

- **Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)**

  AMAT = Hit time + Miss rate * Miss penalty

- Used as a framework for optimizations
- **Reduce the Hit time**
  - Small and simple caches
- **Reduce the Miss Rate**
  - Larger cache size, higher associativity, and larger block size
- **Reduce the Miss Penalty**
  - Multilevel caches

Small and Simple Caches

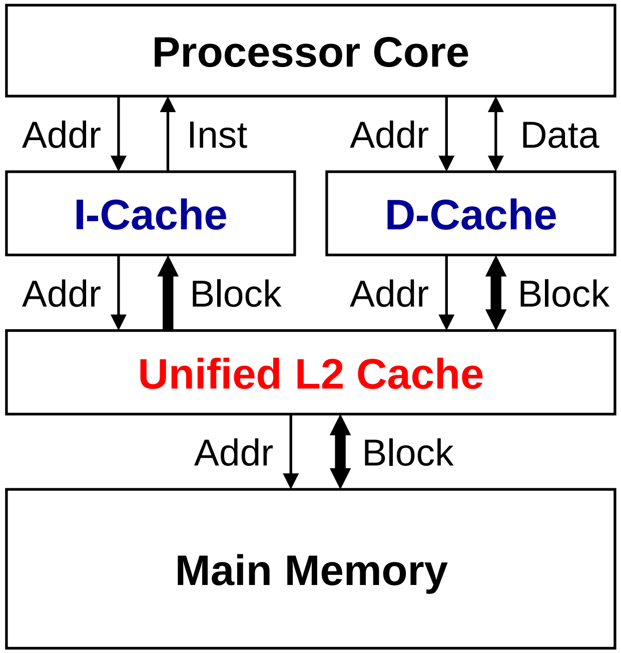
- **Hit time is critical**: affects the processor clock cycle
  - Fast clock rate demands small and simple L1 cache designs
- Small cache reduces the indexing time and hit time
  - Indexing a cache represents a time-consuming portion
  - Tag comparison also adds to this hit time
- Direct-mapped overlaps tag check with data transfer
  - Associative cache uses additional mux and increases hit time
- Size of L1 caches has not increased much
  - L1 caches are the same size on Alpha 21264 and 21364
  - Same also on UltraSparc II and III, AMD K6 and Athlon

Larger Size and Higher Associativity

- Increasing cache size reduces capacity misses
- It also reduces conflict misses
  - Larger cache size spreads out references to more blocks
- Drawbacks: longer hit time and higher cost
- Larger caches are especially popular as 2^{nd} level caches
- Higher associativity also improves miss rates
  - Eight-way set associative is as effective as a fully associative

Multilevel Caches

- Top level cache is kept small to
  - Reduce hit time
  - Reduce energy per access
- Add another cache level to
  - Reduce the memory gap
  - Reduce memory bus loading
- Multilevel caches can help
  - Reduce miss penalty
  - Reduce average memory access time
- Large L2 cache can capture many misses in L1 caches
  - Reduce the global miss rate



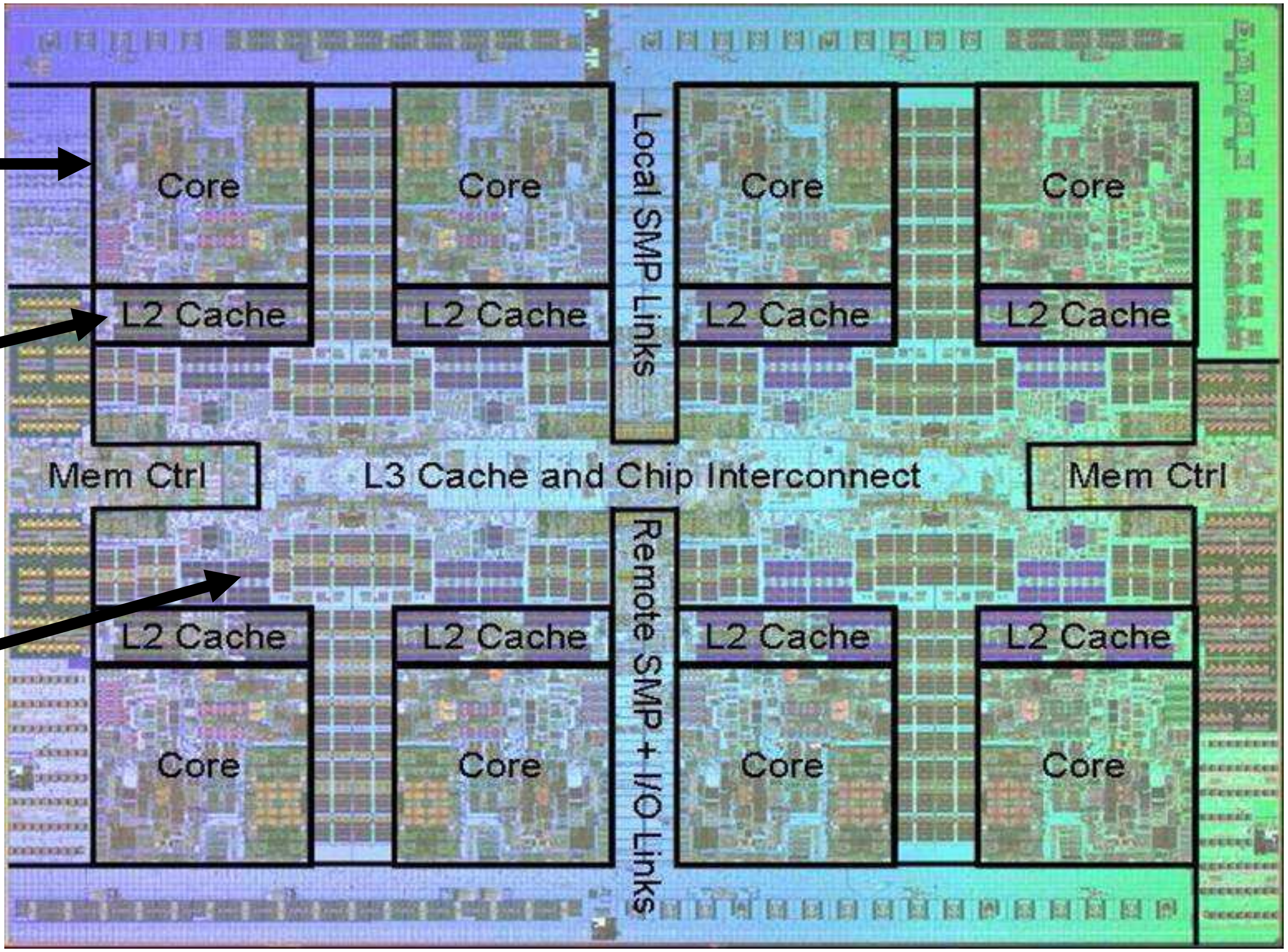
For simplicity, L3 cache is not shown

Power 7 On-Chip Caches [IBM 2010]

32KB I-Cache/core
32KB D-Cache/core
3-cycle latency

256KB Unified
L2 Cache/core
8-cycle latency

32MB Unified
Shared L3 Cache
Embedded DRAM
25-cycle latency
to local slice


Core
Core
Core
Core
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
Local SMP Links
Mem Ctrl
L3 Cache and Chip Interconnect
Mem Ctrl
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
L2 Cache
Remote SMP + I/O Links
Core
Core
Core
Core