CSSE132 Introduction to Computer Systems

20: Memory hierarchy

April 16, 2013

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.

Static RAM (SRAM)

- Each cell stores a bit with a four or six-transistor circuit.
- Retains value indefinitely, as long as it is kept powered.
- Relatively insensitive to electrical noise (EMI), radiation, etc.
- Faster and more expensive than DRAM.

Dynamic RAM (DRAM)

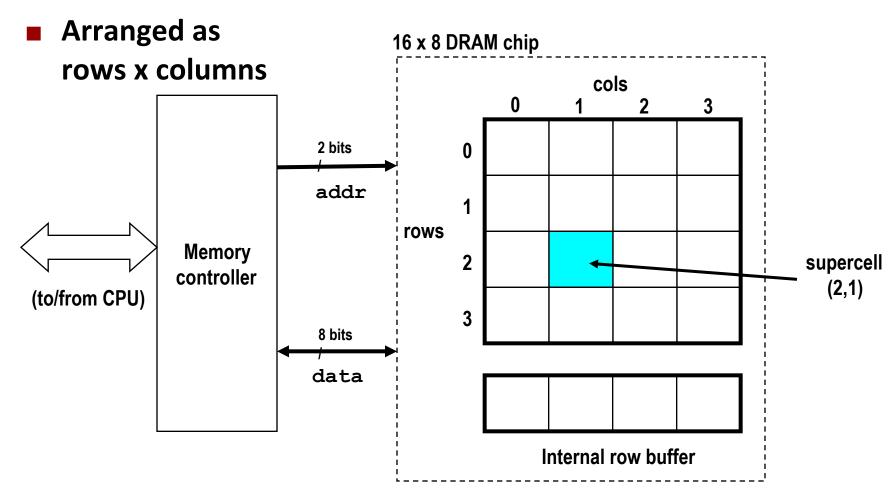
- Each cell stores bit with a capacitor. One transistor is used for access
- Value must be refreshed every 10-100 ms.
- More sensitive to disturbances (EMI, radiation,...) than SRAM.
- Slower and cheaper than SRAM.

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

Conventional DRAM Organization

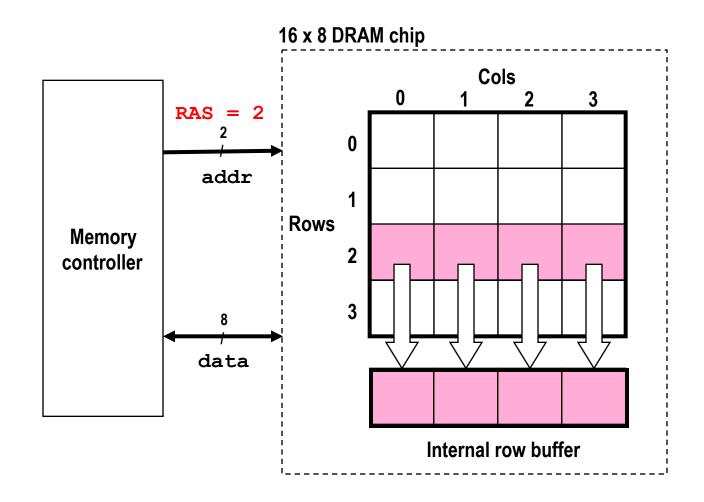
- d x w DRAM:
 - dw total bits organized as d supercells of size w bits



Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

Step 1(a): Row access strobe (RAS) selects row 2.

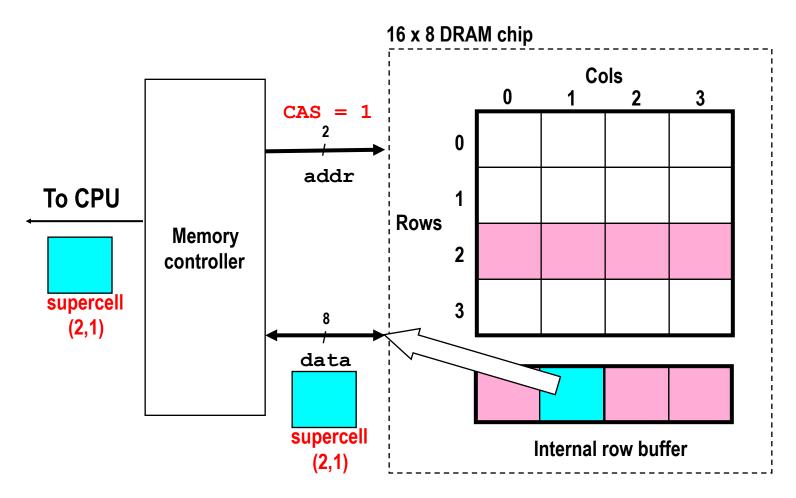
Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.



Reading DRAM Supercell (2,1)

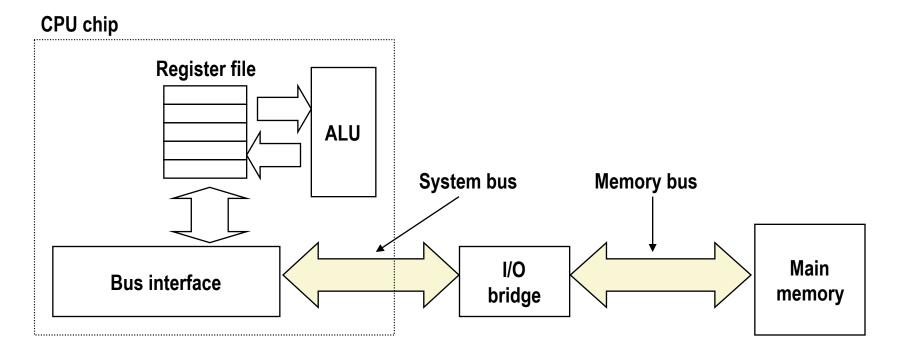
Step 2(a): Column access strobe (CAS) selects column 1.

Step 2(b): Supercell (2,1) copied from buffer to data lines, and eventually back to the CPU.



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.



What's Inside A Disk Drive?

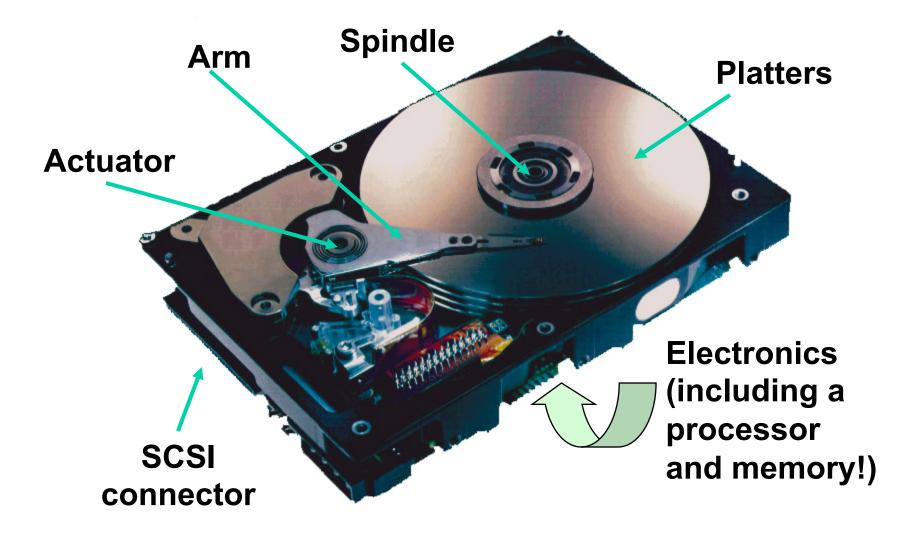
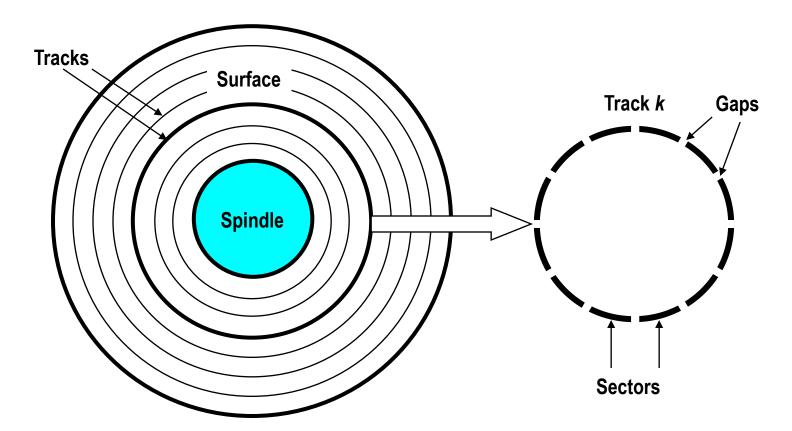


Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

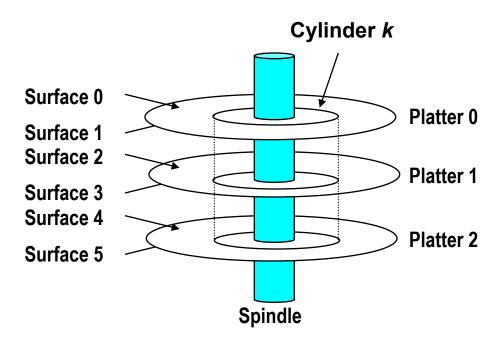
Disk Geometry

- Disks consist of platters, each with two surfaces.
- Each surface consists of concentric rings called tracks.
- Each track consists of sectors separated by gaps.

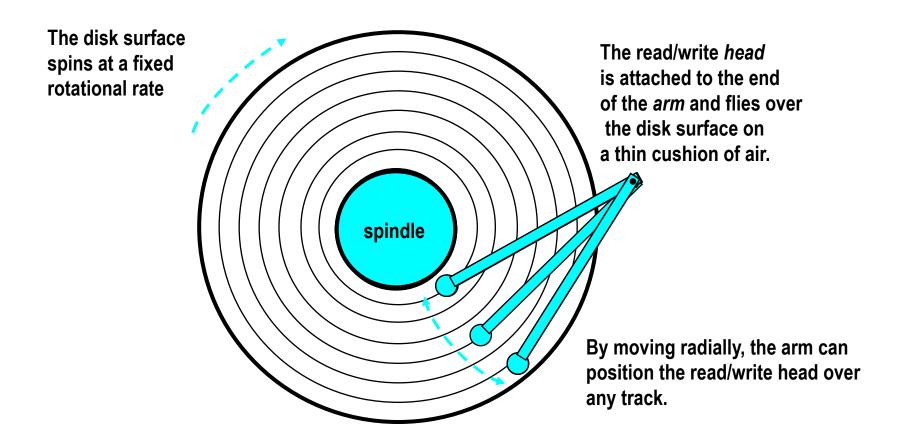


Disk Geometry (Muliple-Platter View)

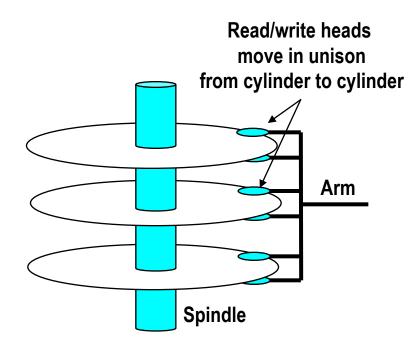
Aligned tracks form a cylinder.



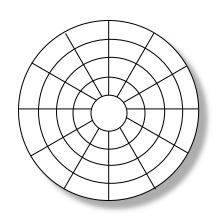
Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)



Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



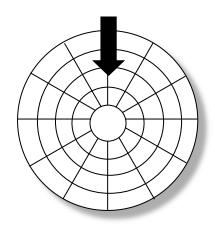
Disk Structure - top view of single platter



Surface organized into tracks

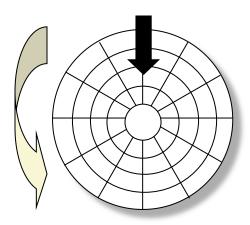
Tracks divided into sectors

Disk Access



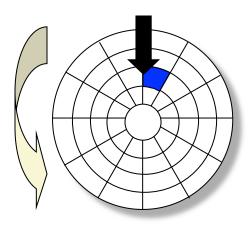
Head in position above a track

Disk Access



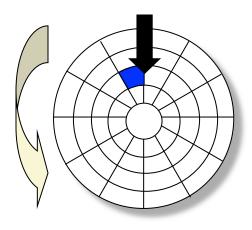
Rotation is counter-clockwise

Disk Access - Read



About to read blue sector

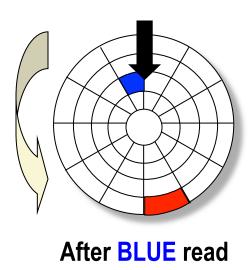
Disk Access - Read



After **BLUE** read

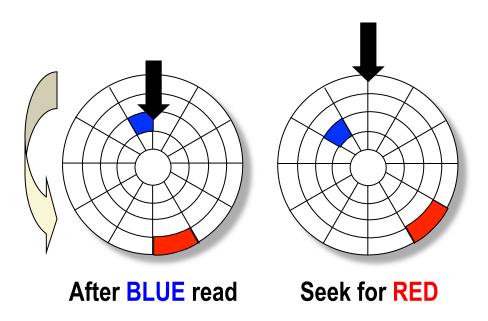
After reading blue sector

Disk Access - Read



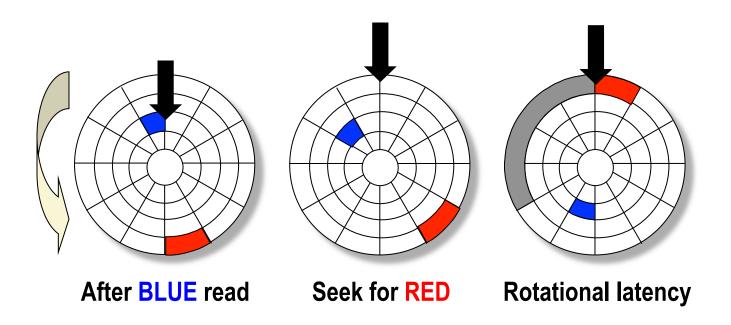
Red request scheduled next

Disk Access – Seek



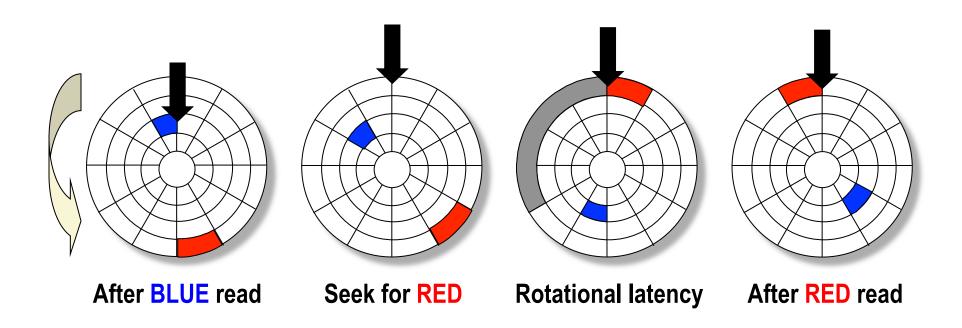
Seek to red's track

Disk Access – Rotational Latency



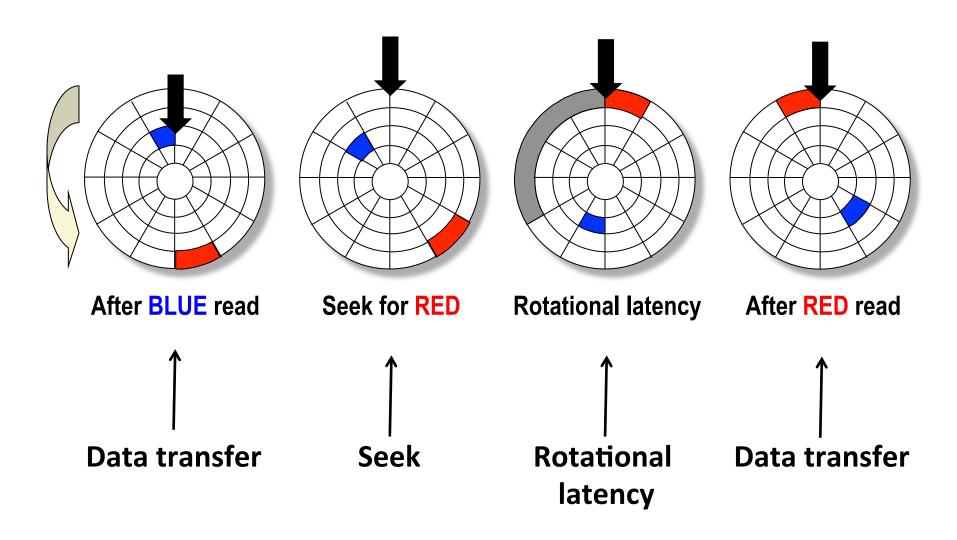
Wait for red sector to rotate around

Disk Access – Read



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.
- Compute average access time

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

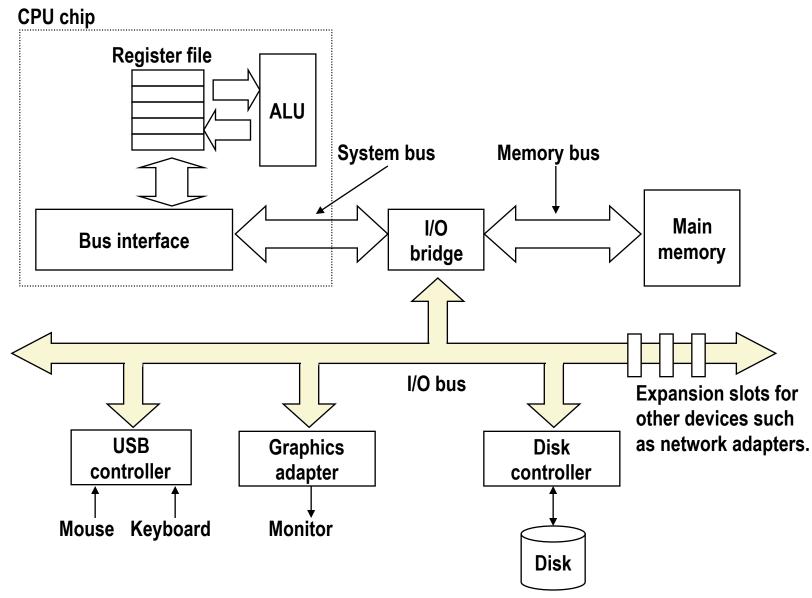
Important points:

- 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.

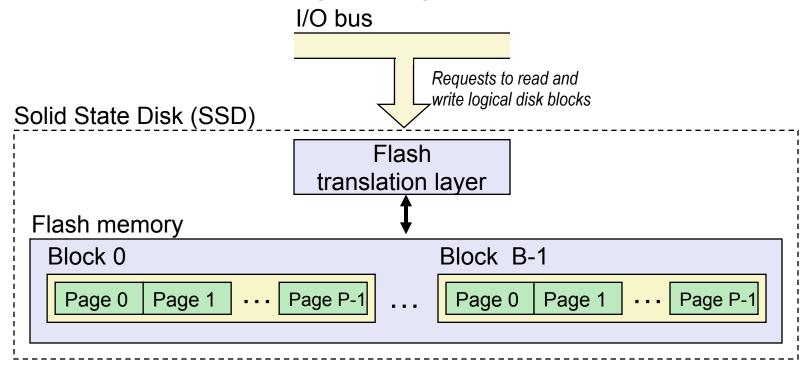
Logical Disk Blocks

- 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



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 100,000 repeated writes.

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 X25 guarantees 1 petabyte (10¹⁵ bytes) of random writes before they wear out
- In 2010, about 100 times more expensive per byte

Applications

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

Storage Trends

SRAM

Metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2010:1980
\$/MB	19,200	2,900	320	256	100	75	60	320
access (ns)	300	150	35	15	3	2	1.5	200

DRAM

Metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2010:1980
\$/MB access (ns)	8,000 375	880 200	100 100	30 70	1 60	0.1 50	0.06 40	130,000 9
typical size (MB)	0.064	0.256	4	16	64	2,000	8,000	125,000

Disk

Metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2010:1980
\$/MB	500	100	8	0.30	0.01	0.005	0.0003	1,600,000
access (ms)	8/	75	28	10	8	4	3	29
typical size (MB)	1	10	160	1,000	20,000	160,000	1,500,00	0 1,500,000

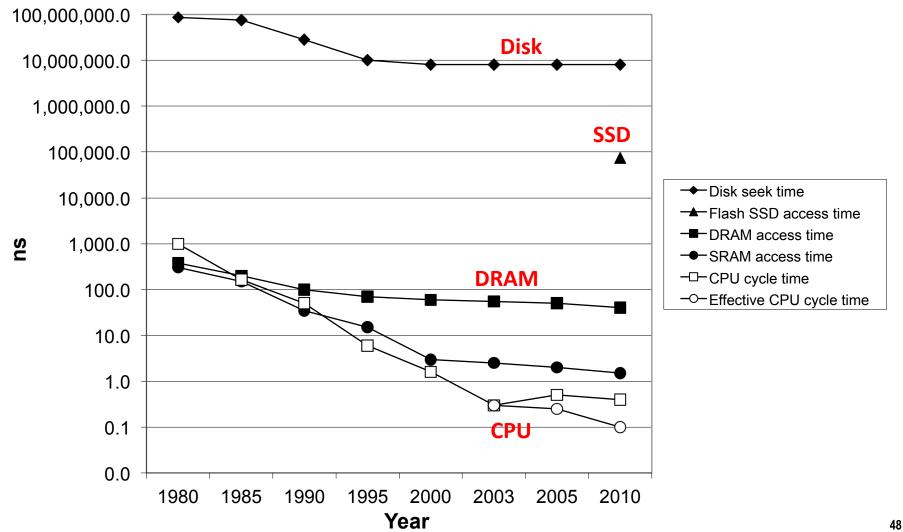
CPU Clock Rates

Inflection point in computer history when designers hit the "Power Wall"

	1980	1990	1995	2000	2003	2005	2010	2010:1980
СРИ	8080	386	Pentium	P-III	P-4	Core 2	Core i7	
Clock rate (MHz)) 1	20	150	600	3300	2000	2500	2500
Cycle time (ns)	1000	50	6	1.6	0.3	0.50	0.4	2500
Cores	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	4
Effective cycle time (ns)	1000	50	6	1.6	0.3	0.25	0.1	10,000

The CPU-Memory Gap

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



Locality to the Rescue!

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

Today

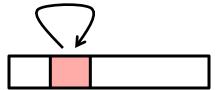
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Locality

 Principle of Locality: Programs tend to use data and instructions with addresses near or equal to those they have used recently

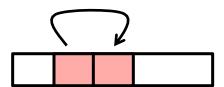
■ Temporal locality:

 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.

Instruction references

Reference instructions in sequence.

Cycle through loop repeatedly.

Spatial locality

Temporal locality

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>
```

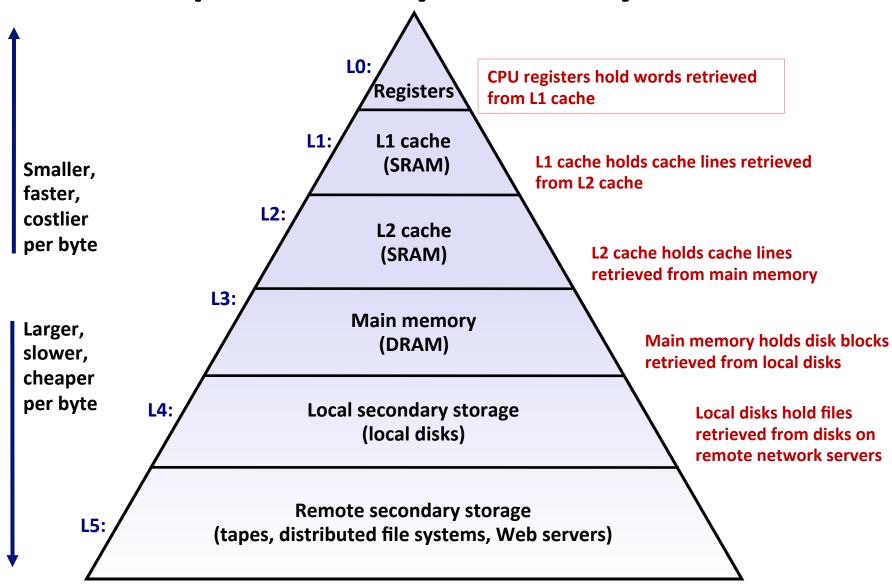
Memory Hierarchies

- 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

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An Example 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.
- If requested data is in cache: cache hit!
 - Data is accessed quickly
- If requested data is not in cache: cache miss
 - Must request data from lower level
 - Bring the new value in cache
 - Then fulfill the original request

Examples of Caching in the 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
L1 cache	64-bytes block	On-Chip L1	1	Hardware
L2 cache	64-bytes block	On/Off-Chip L2	10	Hardware
Virtual Memory	4-KB page	Main memory	100	Hardware + OS
Buffer cache	Parts of files	Main memory	100	os
Disk cache	Disk sectors	Disk controller	100,000	Disk firmware
Network buffer cache	Parts of files	Local disk	10,000,000	AFS/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.