

# **CSC 252: Computer Organization**

## **Spring 2022: Lecture 16**

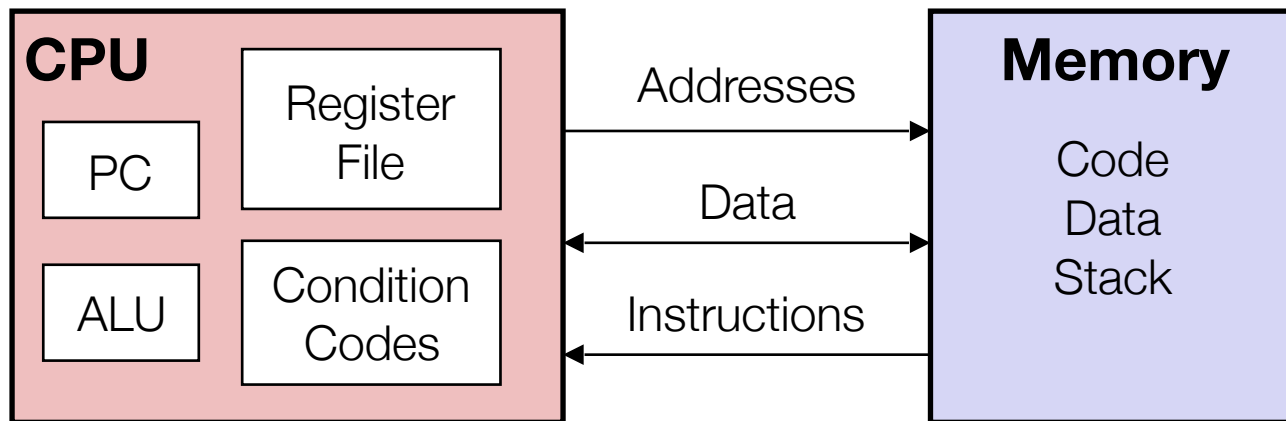
Instructor: Yuhao Zhu

Department of Computer Science  
University of Rochester

# Announcements

- If you have doubts about your midterm grade, calm down and talk to the TAs.
- Will post the solution today.
- Will release Lab 3 grades soon.

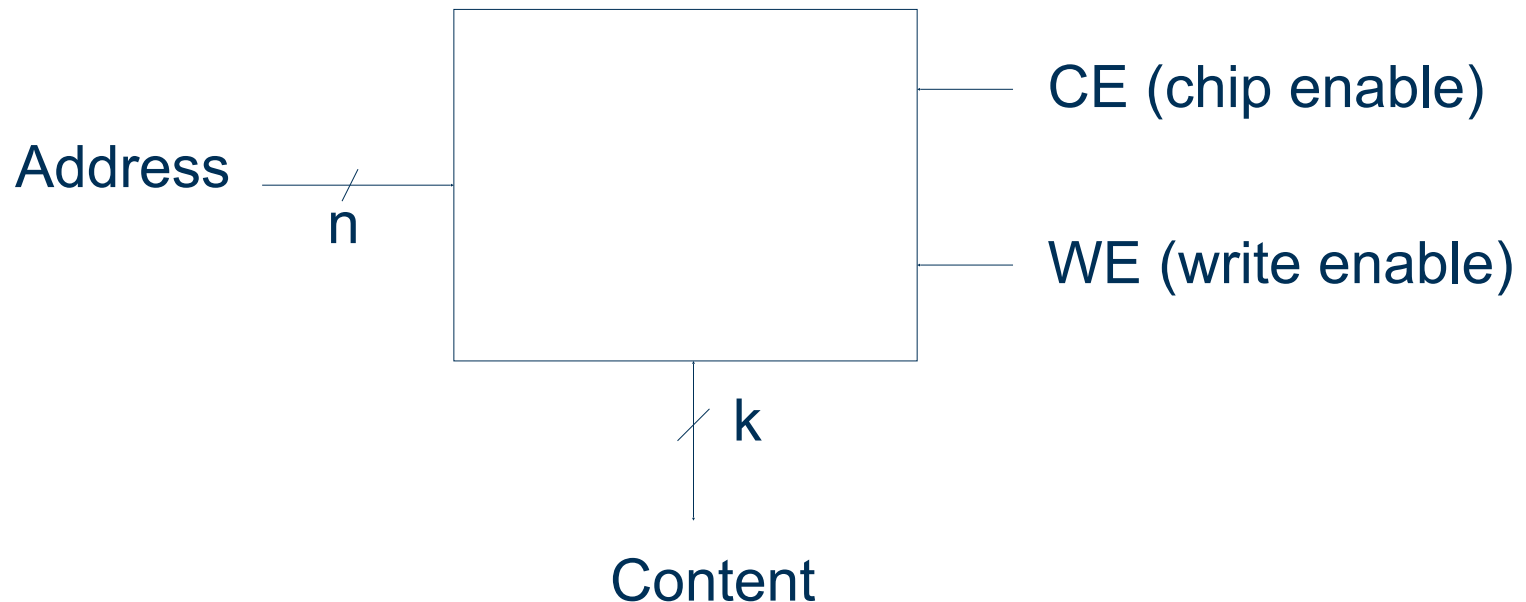
# So far in 252...



- We have been discussing the CPU microarchitecture
  - Single Cycle, sequential implementation
  - Pipeline implementation
  - Resolving data dependency and control dependency
- What about memory?
  - Sometimes called the main memory to differentiate it from other storage units inside the CPU such as the register file.
  - What is a programmer's view of memory?

# Abstract View of RAM

- Random access memory
- Given an arbitrary address, a RAM should return data at that address
- Think of it as a hardware implementation of an array
- What are data structures that do not support random accesses?



# Ideal Memory

- Zero access time (latency)
- Infinite capacity
- Zero cost
- Infinite bandwidth (to support multiple accesses in parallel)

# The Problem

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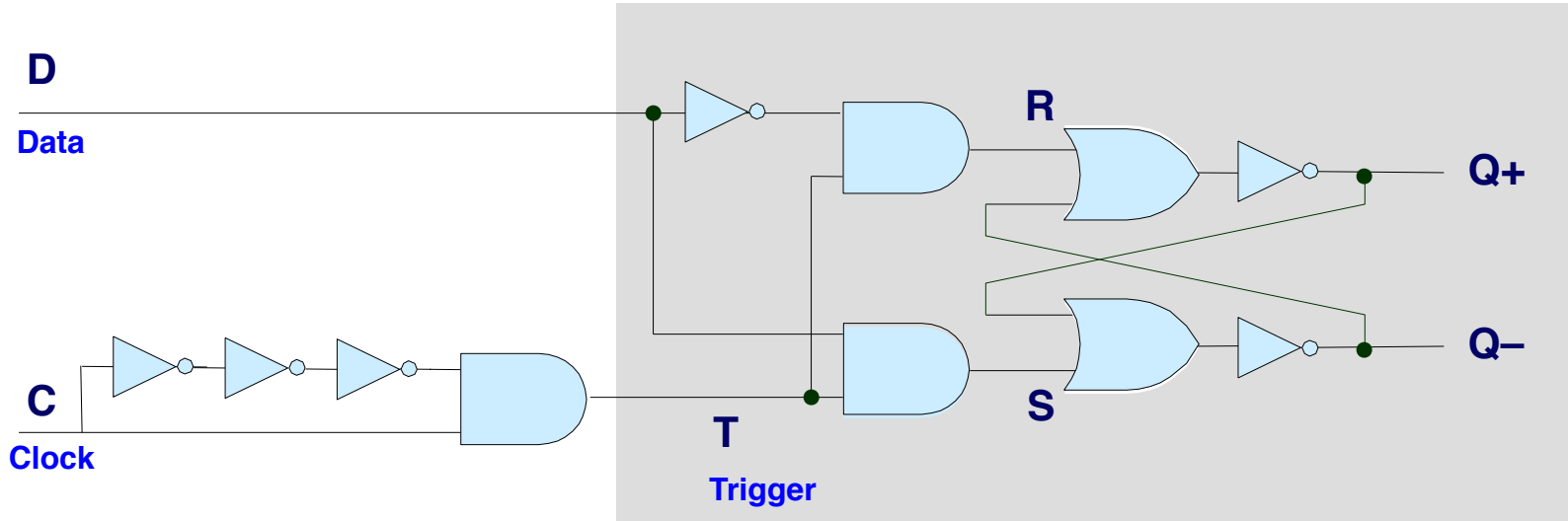
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# The Problem

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- Bigger is slower
  - Bigger → Takes longer to determine the location
- Faster is more expensive
  - Memory technology: Flip-flop vs. SRAM vs. DRAM vs. Disk vs. Tape
- Higher bandwidth is more expensive
  - Need more ports, higher frequency, or faster technology

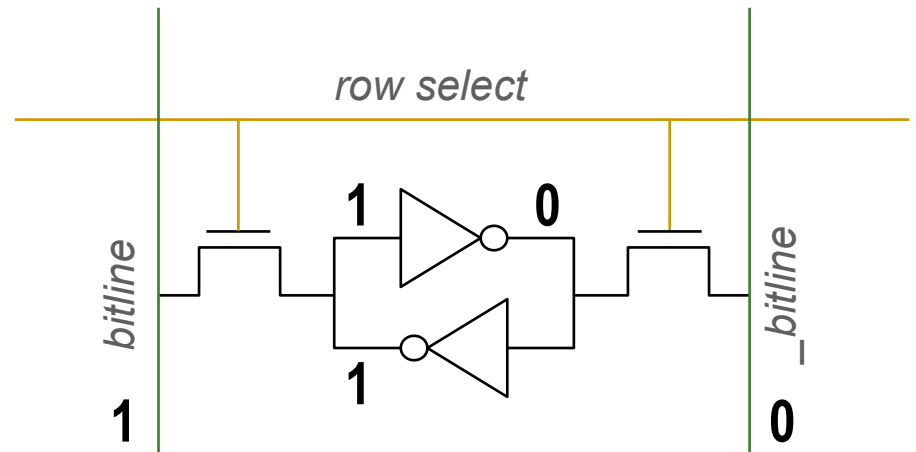
# Memory Technology: D Flip-Flop (DFF)



- Very fast
- Very expensive to build
  - 6 NOT gates (2 transistors / gate)
  - 3 AND gates (3 transistors / gate)
  - 2 OR gates (3 transistors / gate)
  - 27 transistors in total for just one bit!!
- Usually used to build the register file, not the main memory

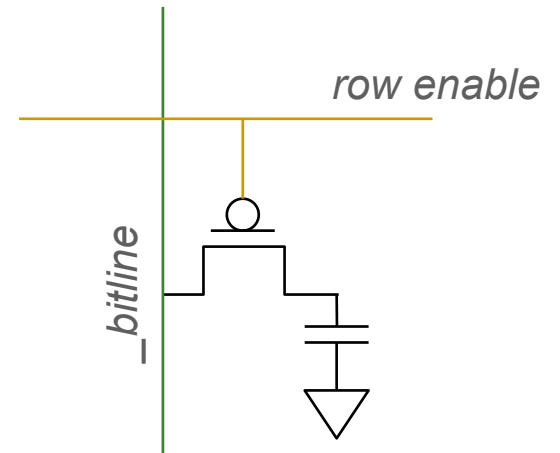
# Memory Technology: SRAM

- Static random access memory
- Random access means you can supply an arbitrary address to the memory and get a value back
- Two cross coupled inverters store a single bit
  - Feedback path enables the stored value to persist in the “cell”
  - 4 transistors for storage
  - 2 transistors for access
  - 6 transistors in total per bit



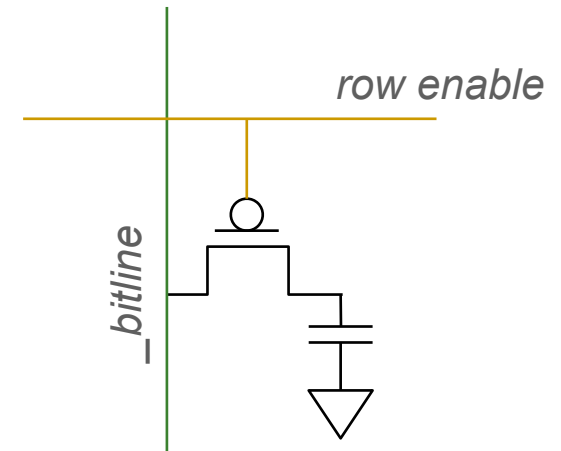
# Memory Technology: DRAM

- Dynamic random access memory



# Memory Technology: DRAM

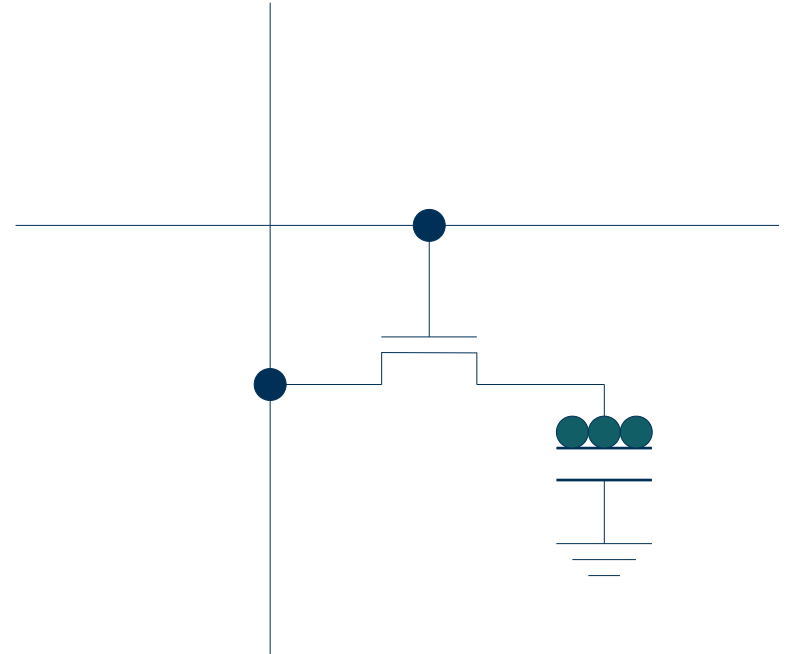
- Dynamic random access memory
- Capacitor charge state indicates stored value
  - Whether the capacitor is charged or discharged indicates storage of 1 or 0
  - 1 capacitor
  - 1 access transistor





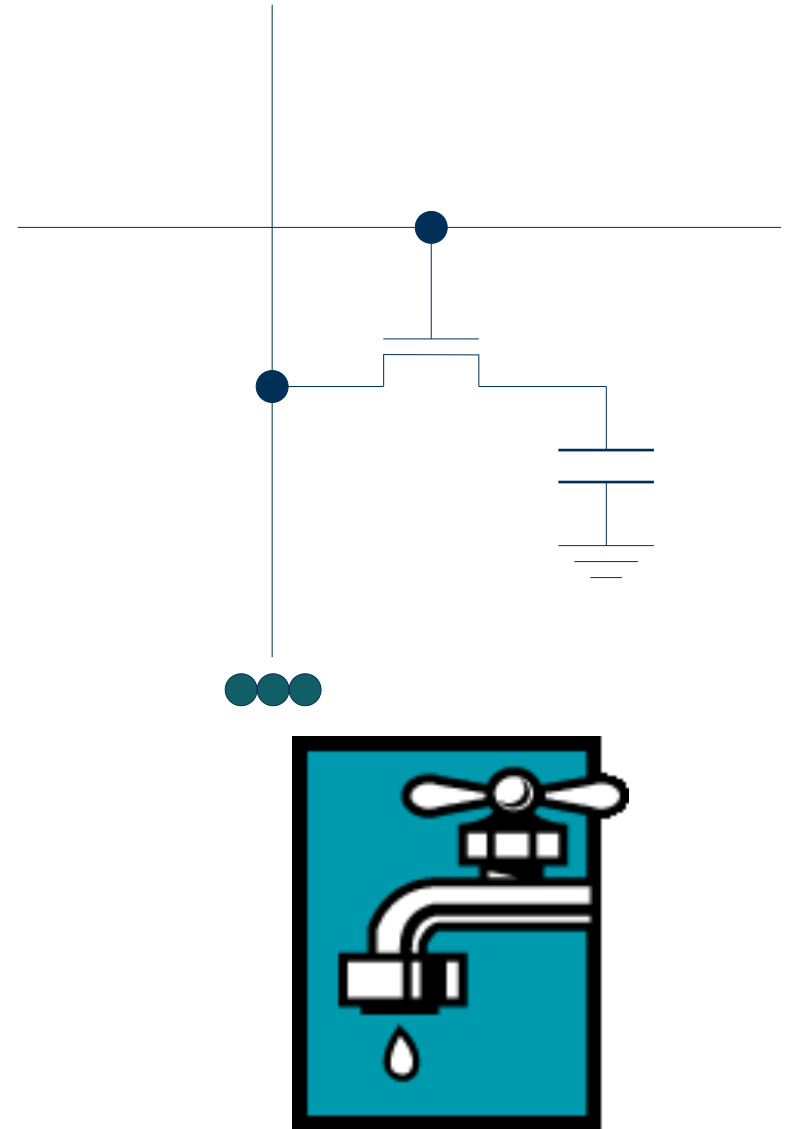
# DRAM Cell

- Capacitors will leak!
  - DRAM cell loses charge over time
  - DRAM cell needs to be **refreshed** periodically.
  - Refresh takes time and power. When refreshing can't read the data. A major issue, lots of research going on to reduce the refresh overhead.



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# Latch vs. DRAM vs. SRAM

- DFF
  - Fastest
  - Low density (27 transistors per bit)
  - High cost
- SRAM
  - Faster access (no capacitor)
  - Lower density (6 transistors per bit; there are designs w/ fewer Ts)
  - Higher cost
  - No need for refresh
  - Manufacturing compatible with logic process (no capacitor)
- DRAM
  - Slower access (capacitor)
  - Higher density (1 transistor + 1 capacitor per bit)
  - Lower cost
  - Requires refresh (power, performance, circuitry)
  - Manufacturing requires putting capacitor and logic together

# Nonvolatile Memories

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  - Flash (~ 5 years)
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  - Tape (~ 15-30 years)
  - DNA (centuries)

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## Rewriting Life

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# Microsoft Has a Plan to Add DNA Data Storage to Its Cloud

Tech companies think biology may solve a looming data storage problem.

by Antonio Regalado    May 22, 2017

**Based on early research involving the storage of movies and documents in DNA**, Microsoft is developing an apparatus that uses biology to replace tape drives, researchers at the company say.

Computer architects at Microsoft Research say the company has formalized a goal of having an operational storage system based on DNA

# Nonvolatile Memories

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- Uses for Nonvolatile Memories
  - Firmware (BIOS, controllers for disks, network cards, graphics accelerators, security subsystems,...)
  - Files in Smartphones, mp3 players, tablets, laptops
  - Backup



# Summary of Trade-Offs

- **Bigger is slower**
  - Flip-flops/Small SRAM, sub-nanosec
  - SRAM, KByte~MByte, ~nanosec
  - DRAM, Gigabyte, ~50 nanosec
  - Hard Disk, Terabyte, ~10 millisec
- **Faster is more expensive (dollars and chip area)**
  - SRAM, < 10\$ per Megabyte
  - DRAM, < 1\$ per Megabyte
  - Hard Disk < 1\$ per Gigabyte
- Other technologies have their place as well
  - PC-RAM, MRAM, RRAM

# Hardware Implementation of Large RAMs

- How do we read data from a RAM?

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- Downsides?
  - It reads all the data at the same time; very inefficient (slow and power hungry) if the RAM is big.

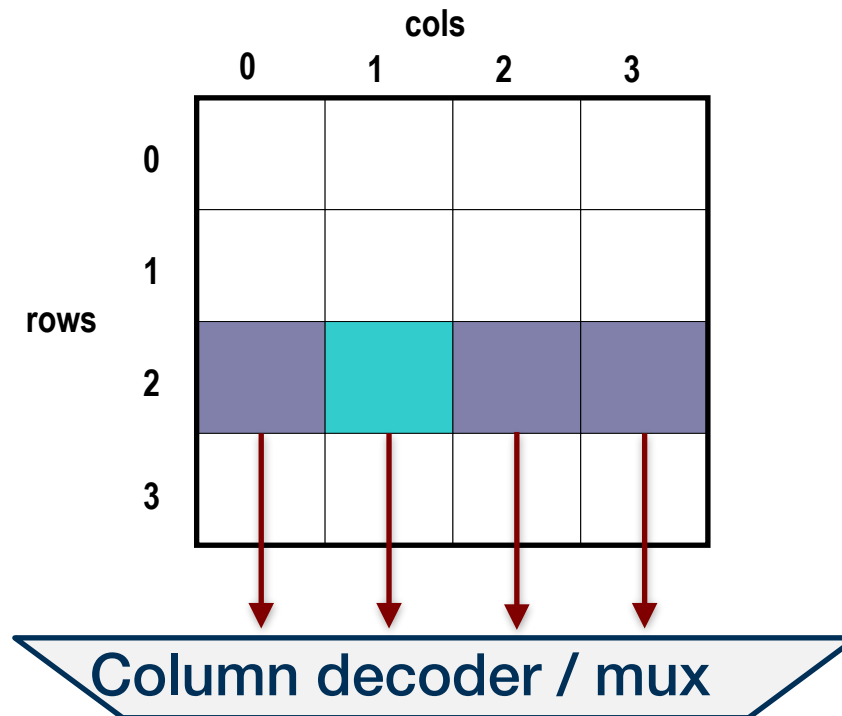
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  - Register file is at most hundreds of bytes; main memory could be hundreds of GBs!



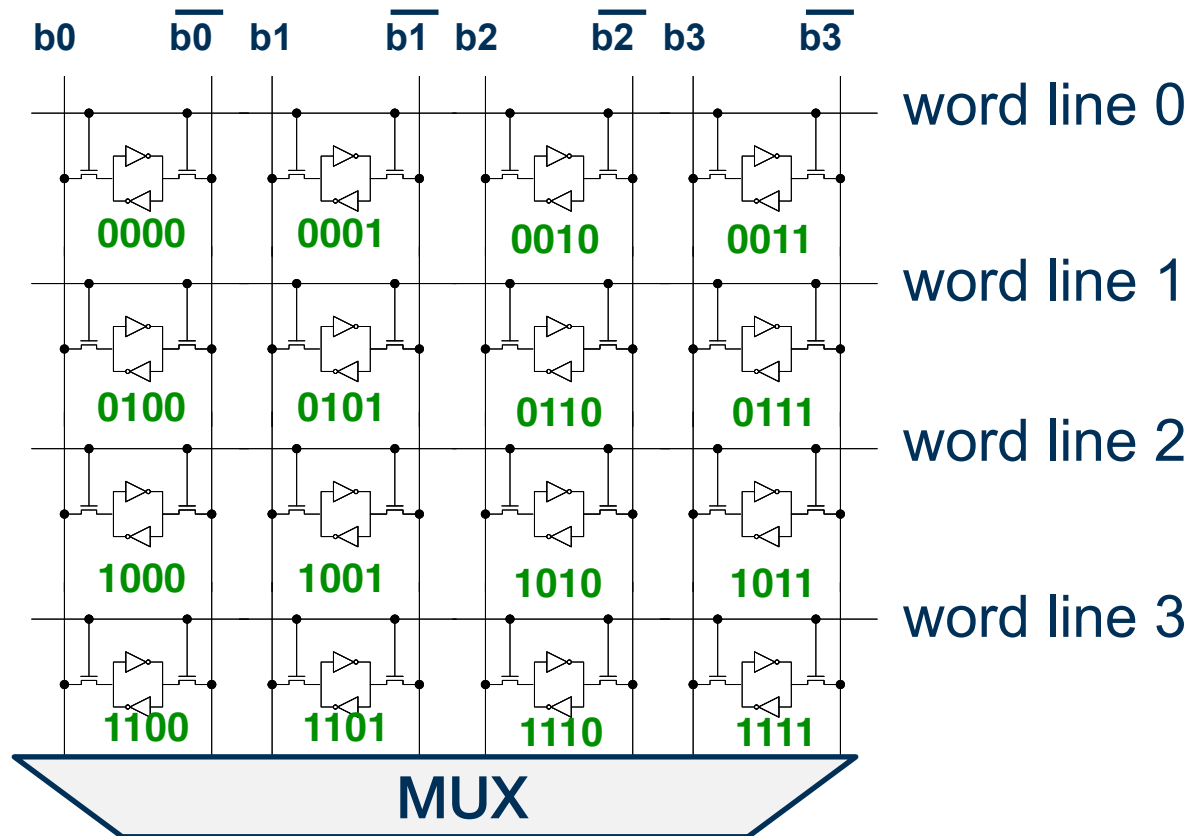
# Hardware Implementation of Large RAMs

- Organize a RAM as a 2D array.
- We first select a row to activate, and read all the data in that row. No other rows' data will be read.
- Then use a MUX to select the data from the activated row.



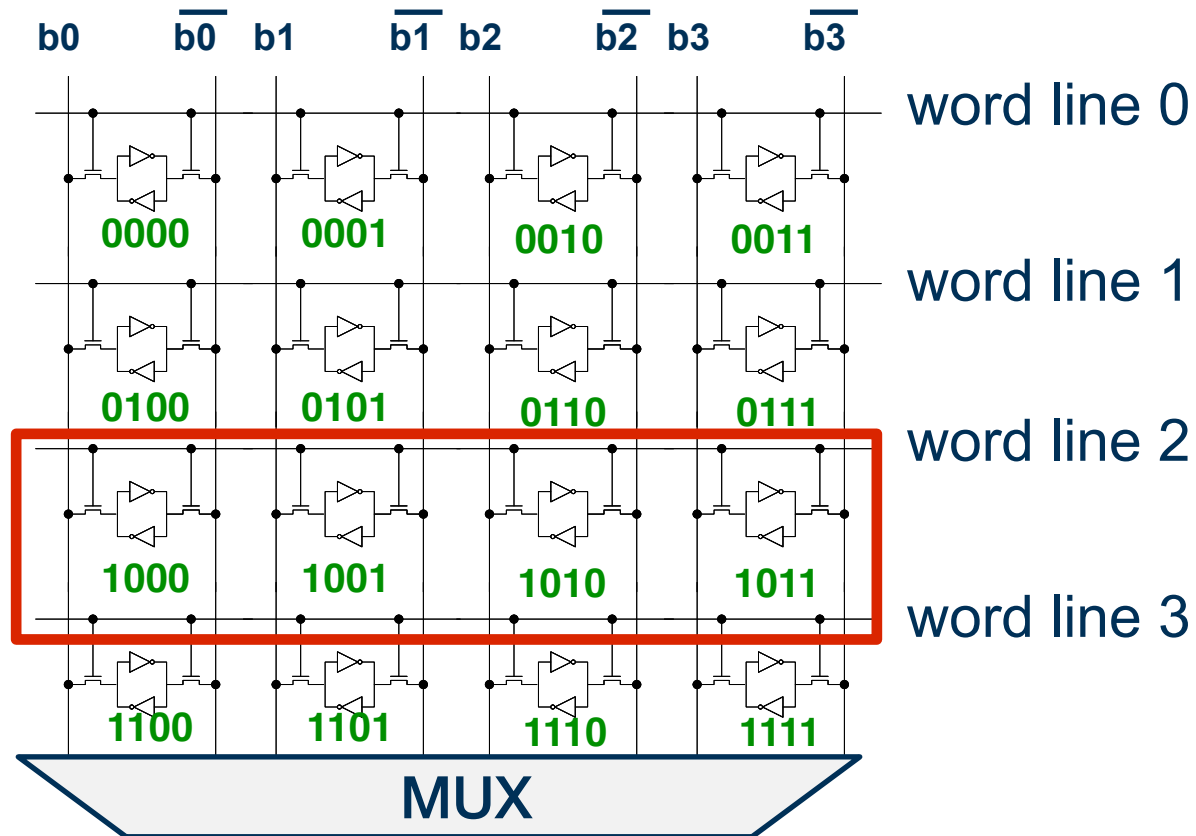
# An SRAM Array (So Far)

- Each cell stores data at a particular address.

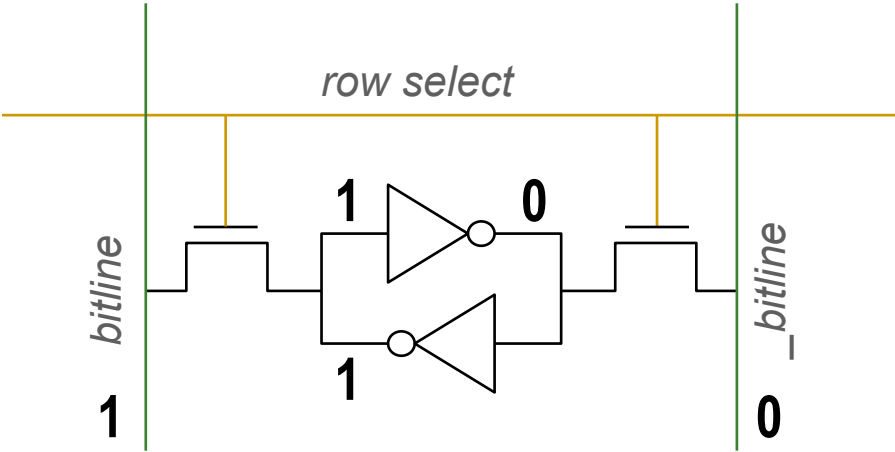


# An SRAM Array (So Far)

- Each cell stores data at a particular address.
- How do we make sure we activate only one row?

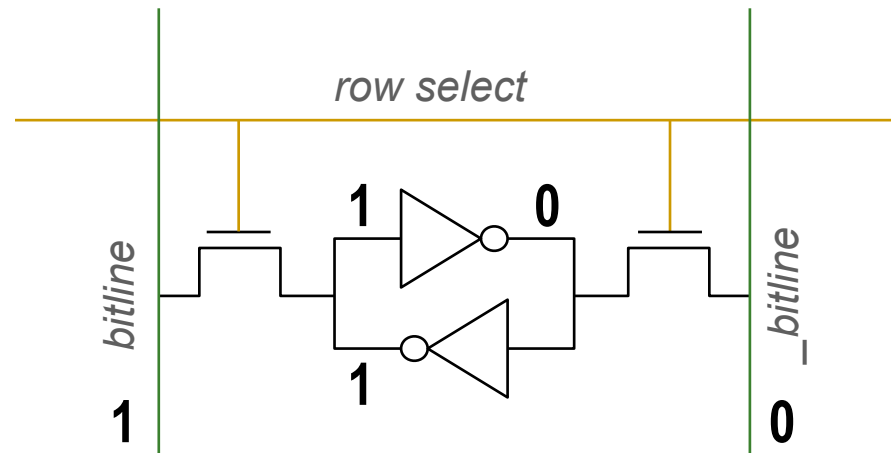


# Recall: (De)Activating an SRAM Cell



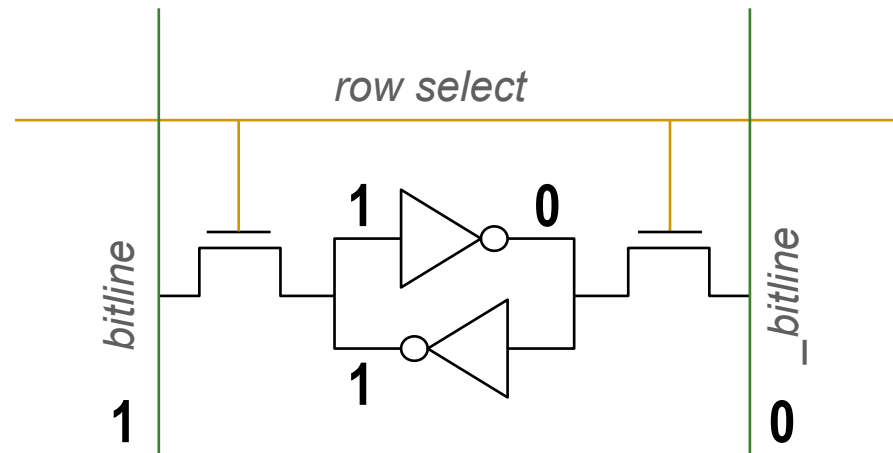
# Recall: (De)Activating an SRAM Cell

- If the row select signal is 1, the two NMOS transistors act as two closed switches. We can read the cell data.

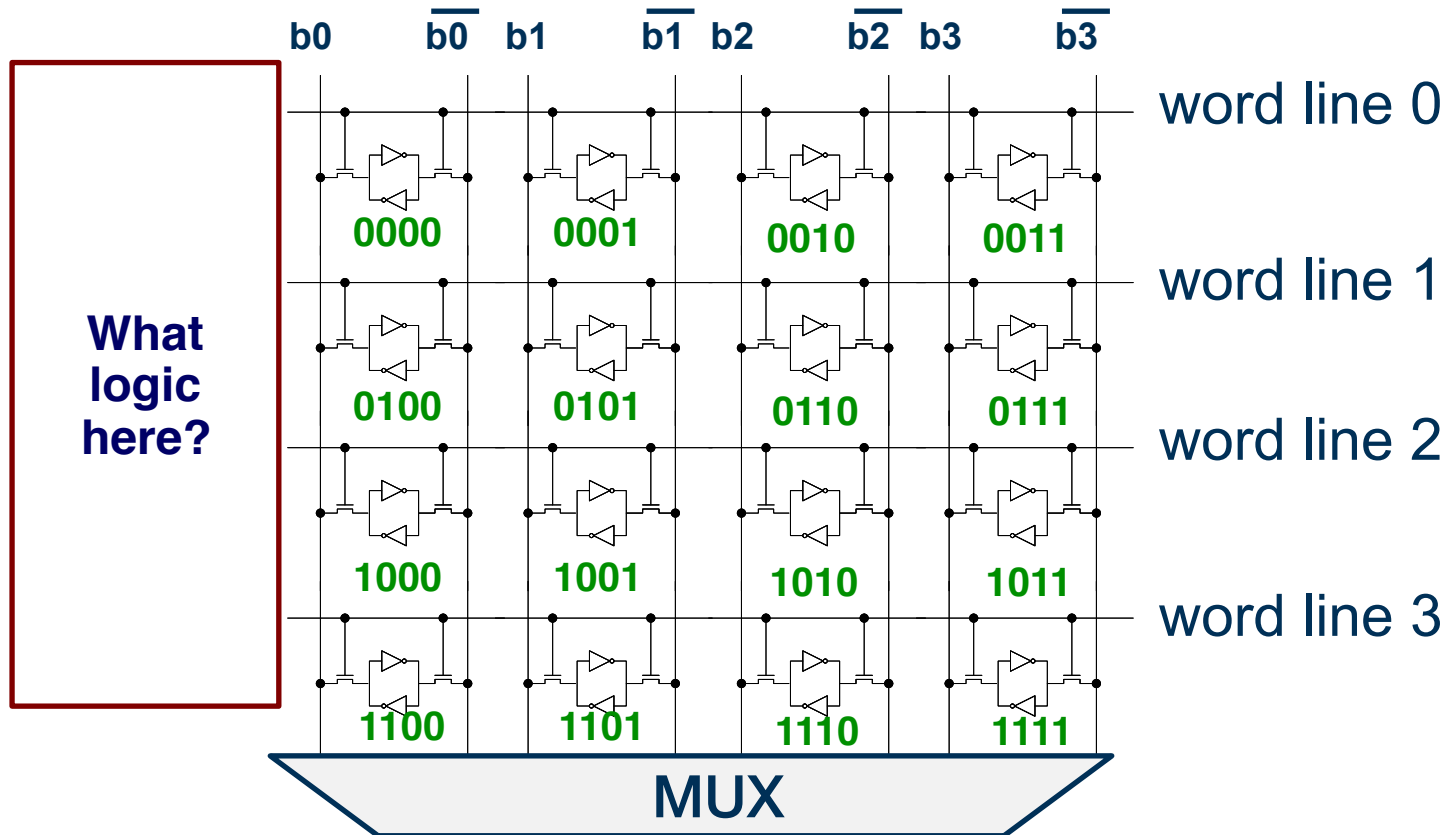


# Recall: (De)Activating an SRAM Cell

- If the row select signal is 1, the two NMOS transistors act as two closed switches. We can read the cell data.
- If the row select signal is 0, the two NMOS transistors act as two open switches, deactivating the access to the cell.



# (De)Activating an SRAM Row



# Recall: Decoder

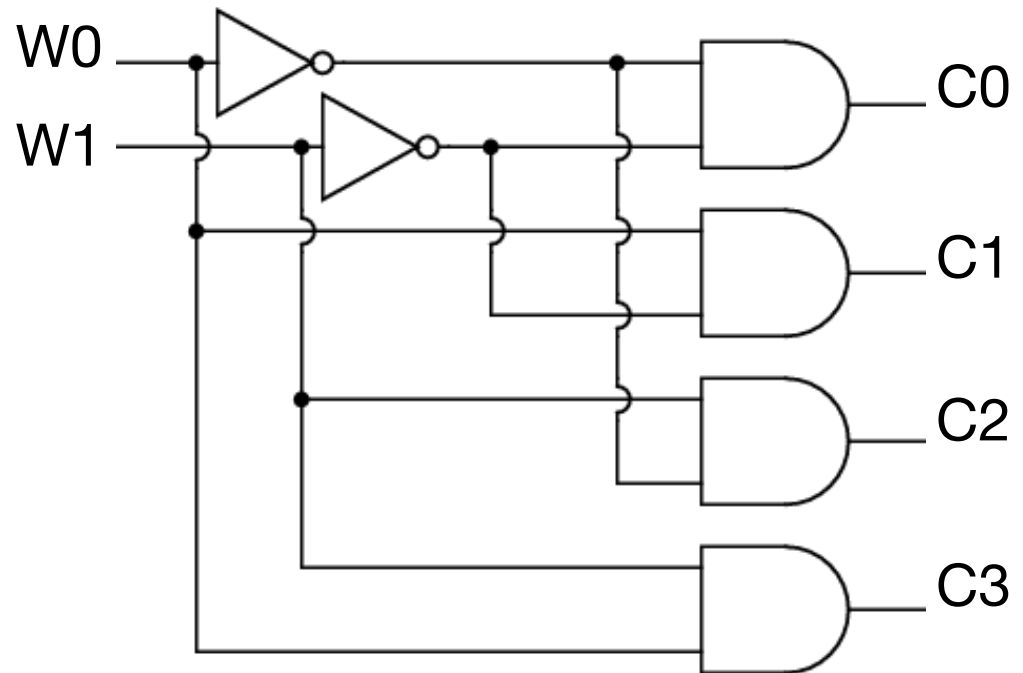
W1	W0	C3	C2	C1	C0
0	0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	0	0

$$C0 = !W1 \& !W0$$

$$C1 = !W1 \& W0$$

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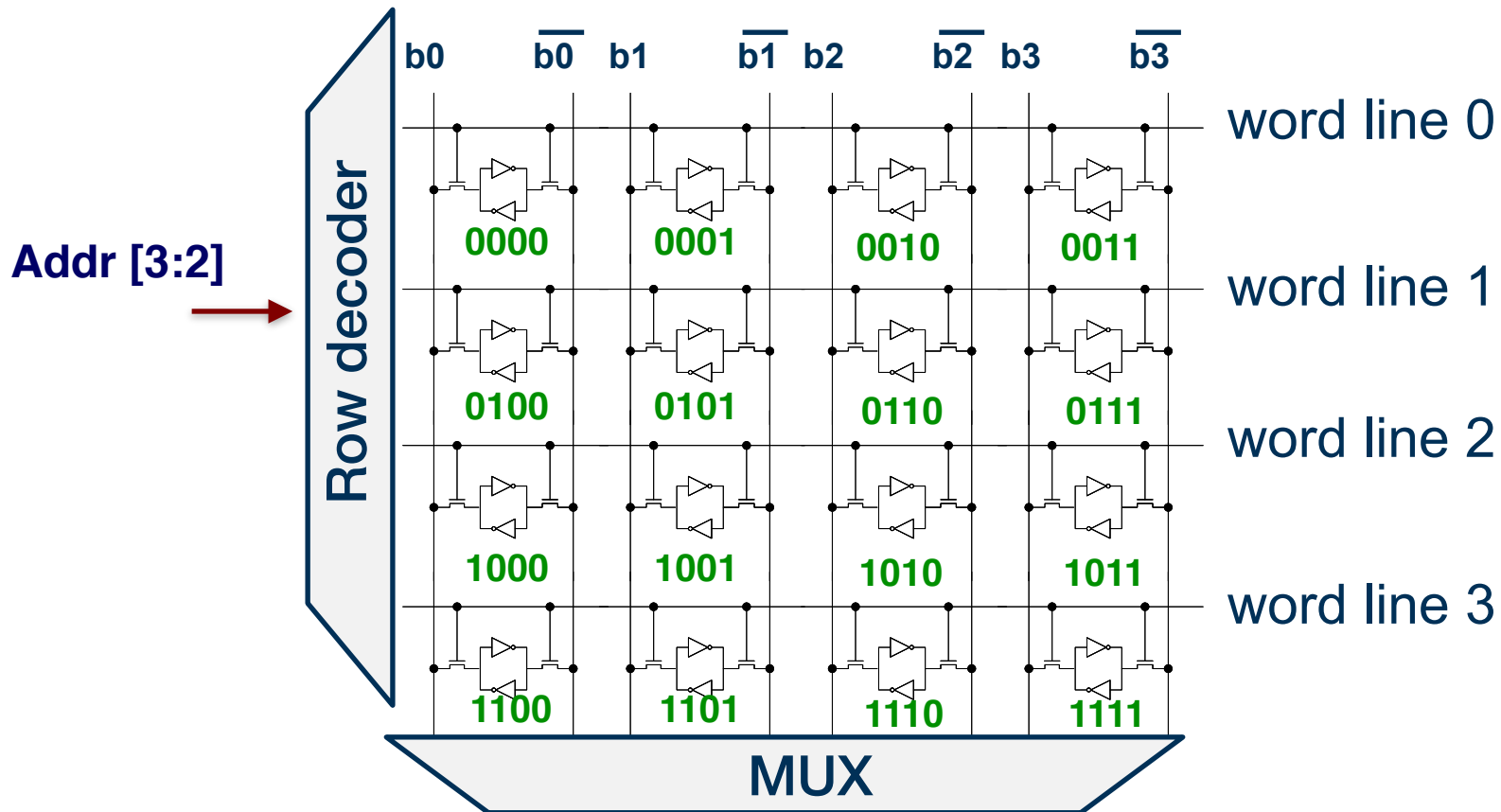
$$C3 = W1 \& W0$$



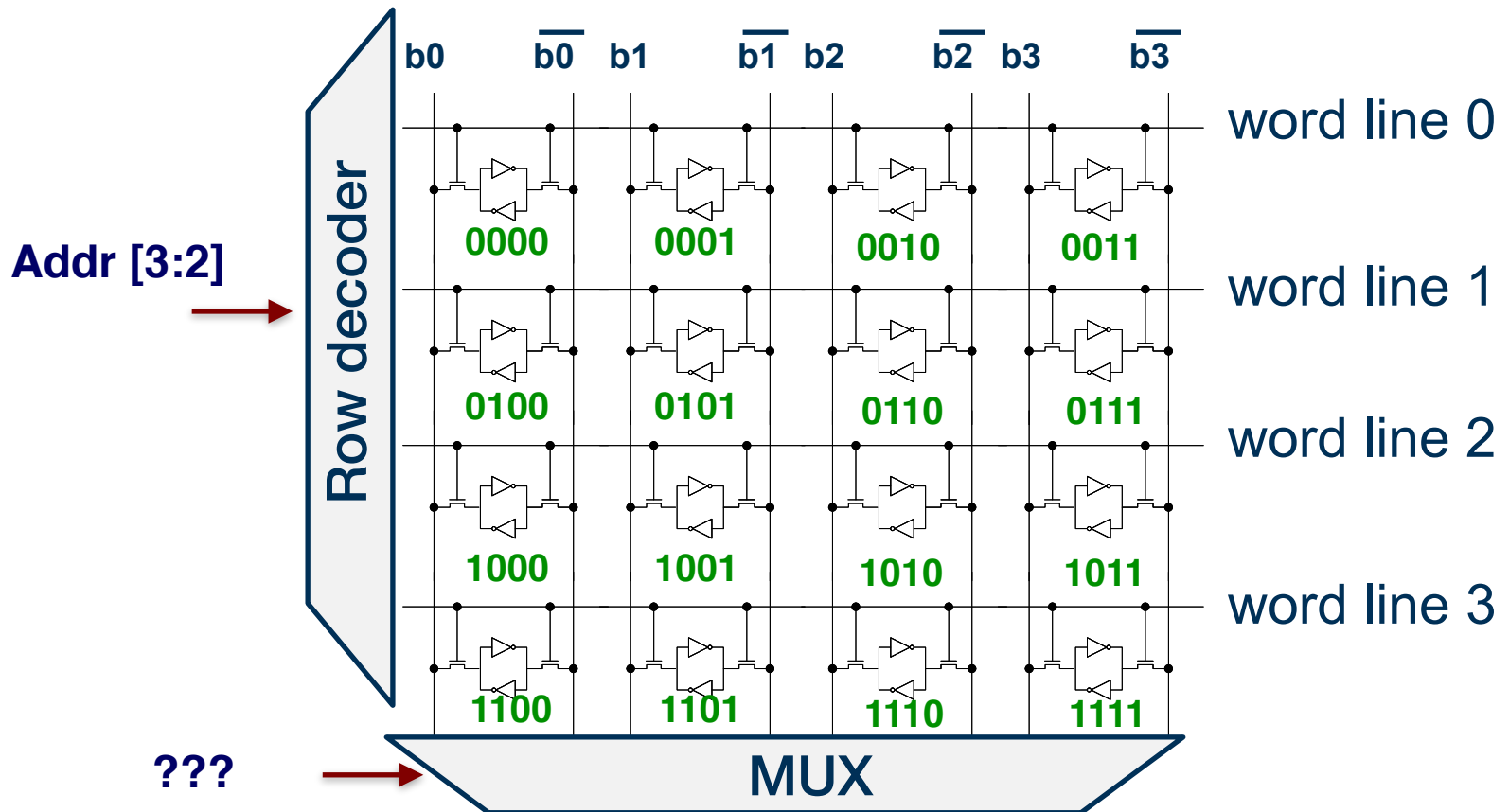


# (De)Activating an SRAM Row

- Use a 2-to-4 decoder.
- The input to the decoder is the first two bits in the address.

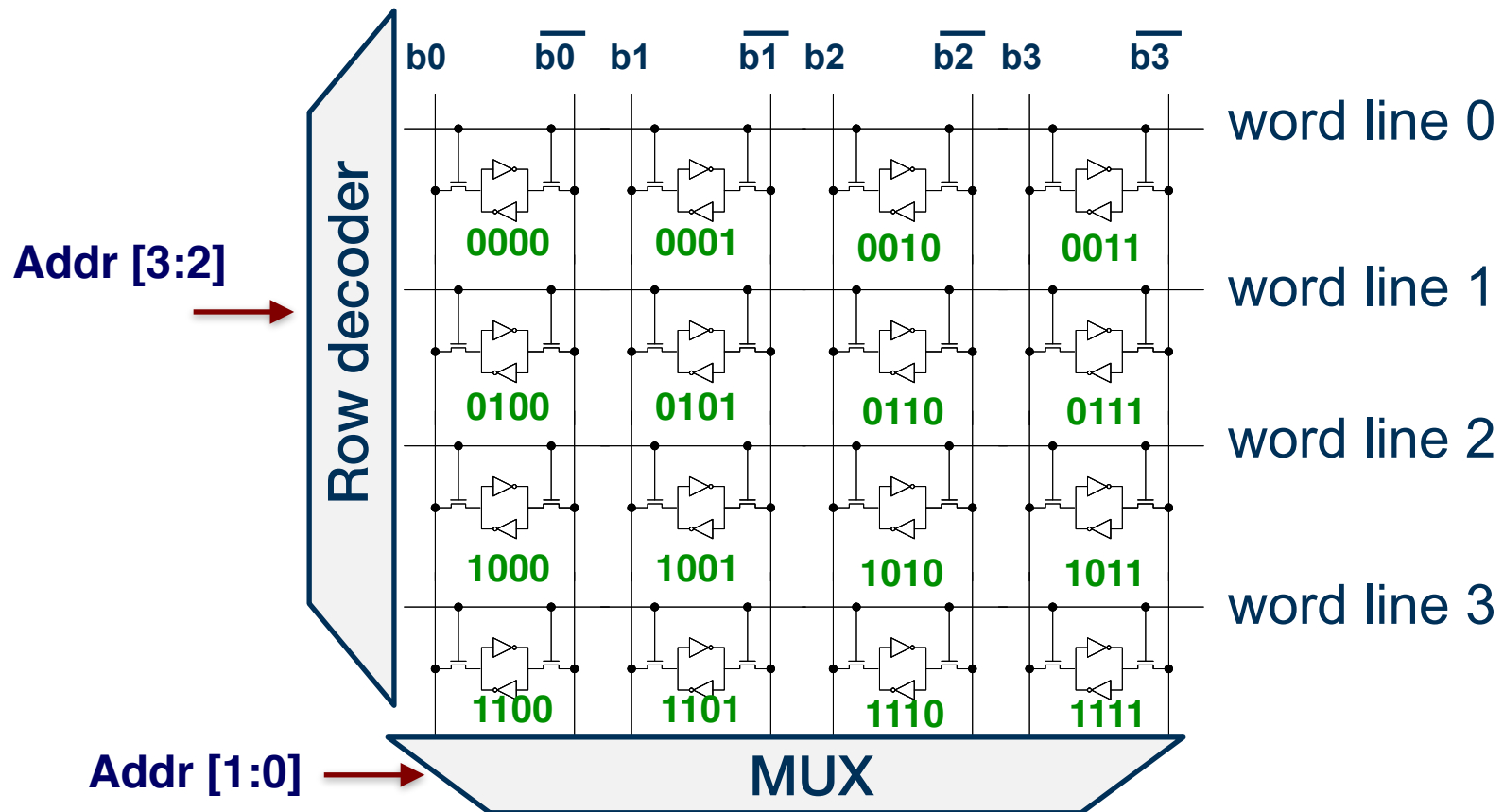


# How to Select From a Row?



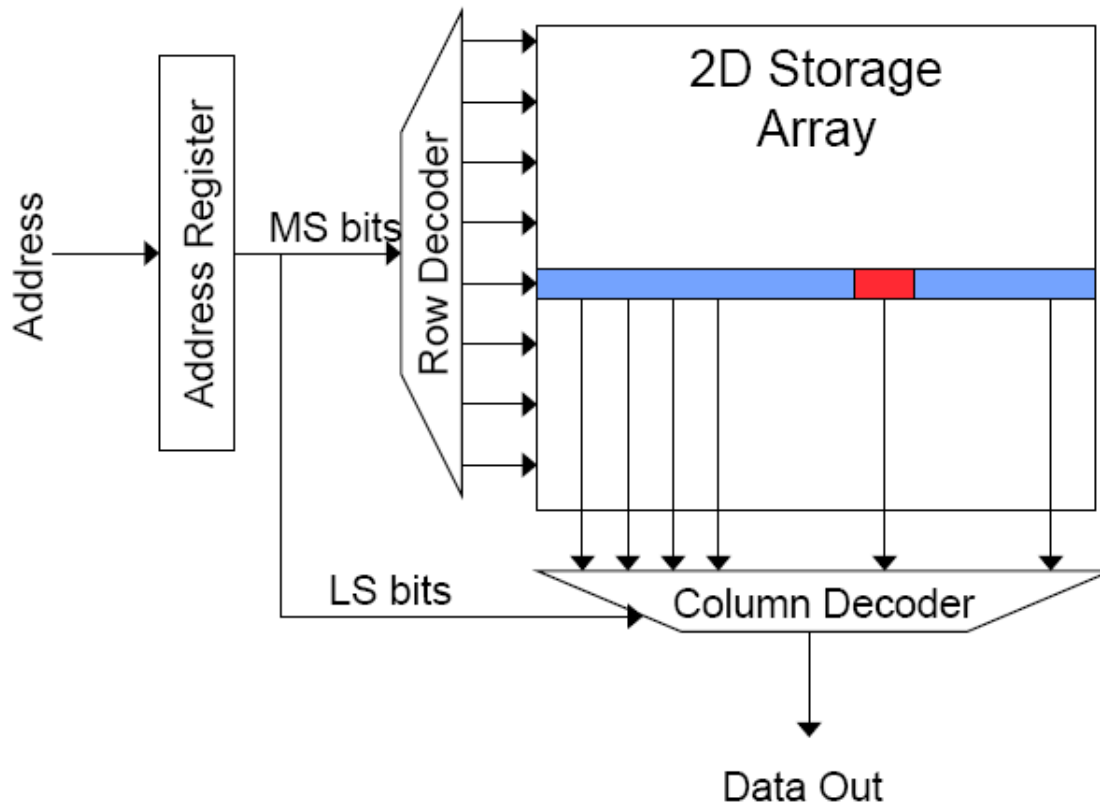
# How to Select From a Row?

- Use the last two bits in the address to operate the MUX.



# Hardware Implementation of Large RAMs

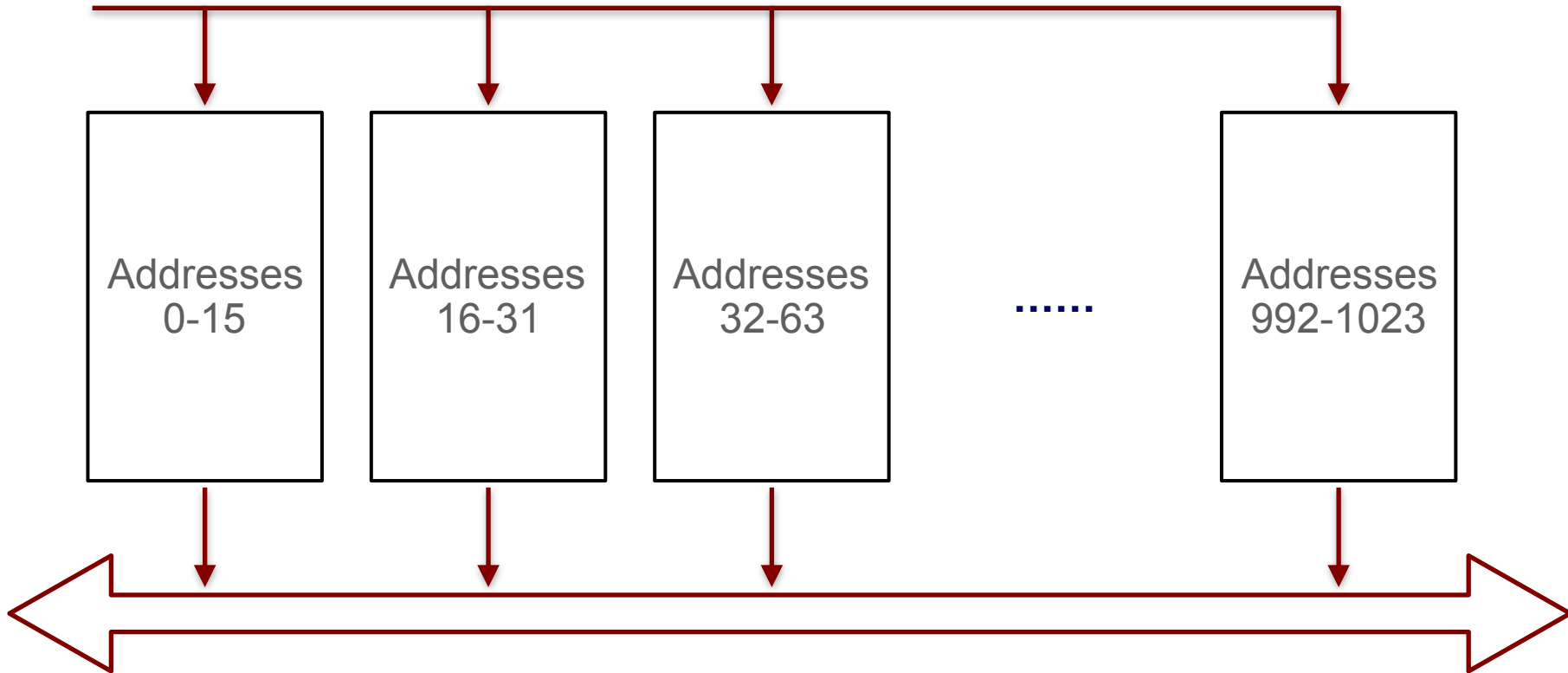
- A RAM is usually organized as a 2D array; both DRAM and SRAM.
- An address split into two: row address and column address.
  - The row address activates a row, and the column address selects data from a row.



# What If a Row is Still too Big?

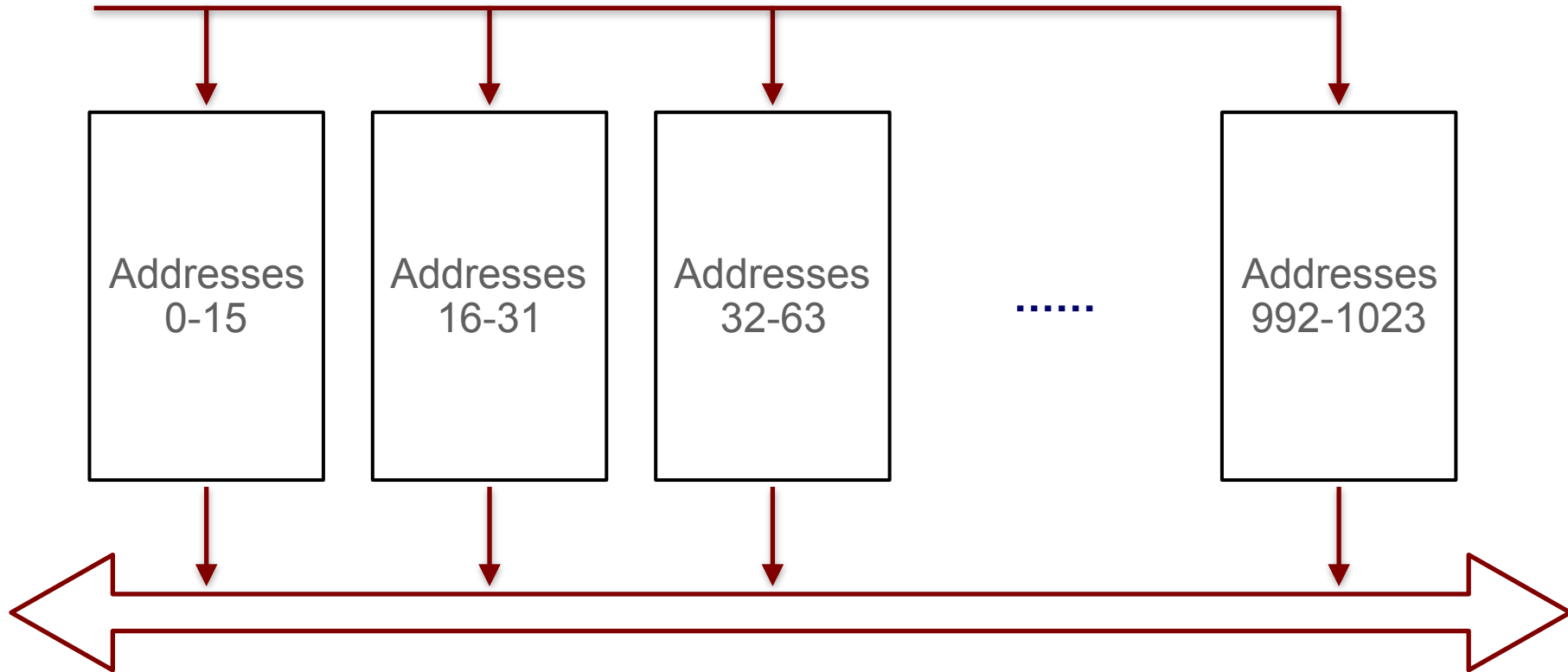
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Chip Enable (CE)



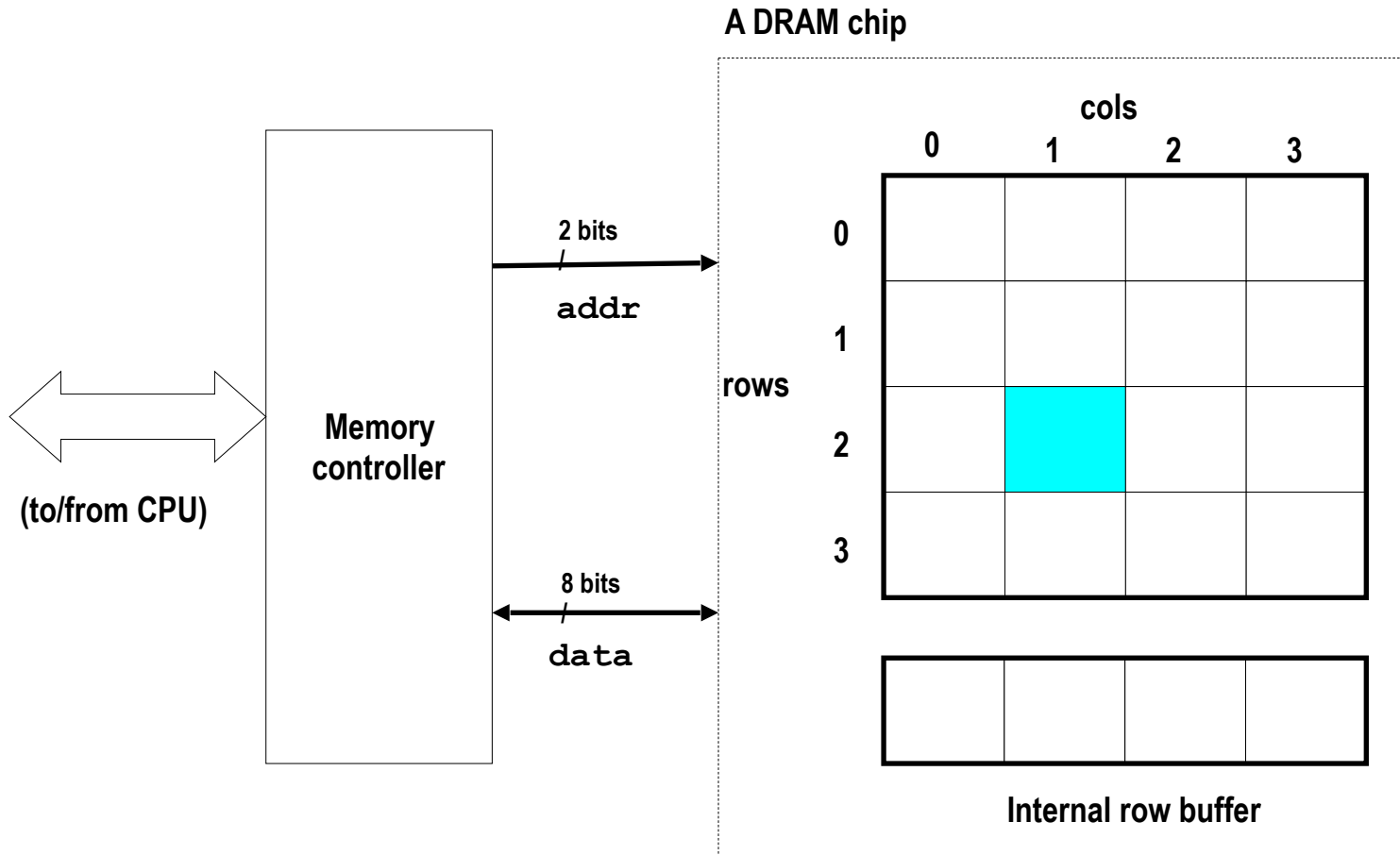
# What If a Row is Still too Big?

## Chip Enable (CE)



- What data go into the CE signal? How does CE disable and enable a chip?

# Aside: DRAM Chip Organization

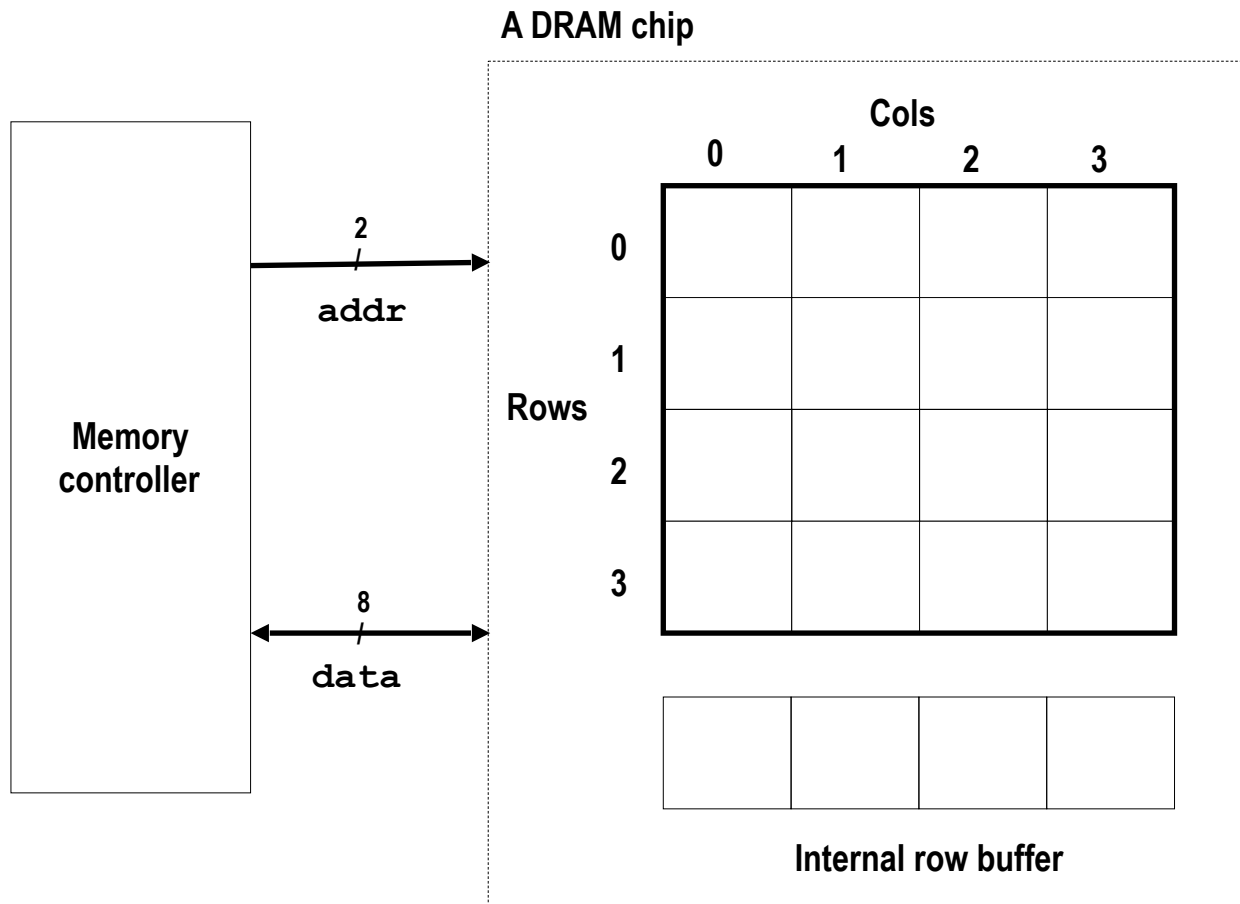




# Aside: Reading DRAM Cell (2,1)

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

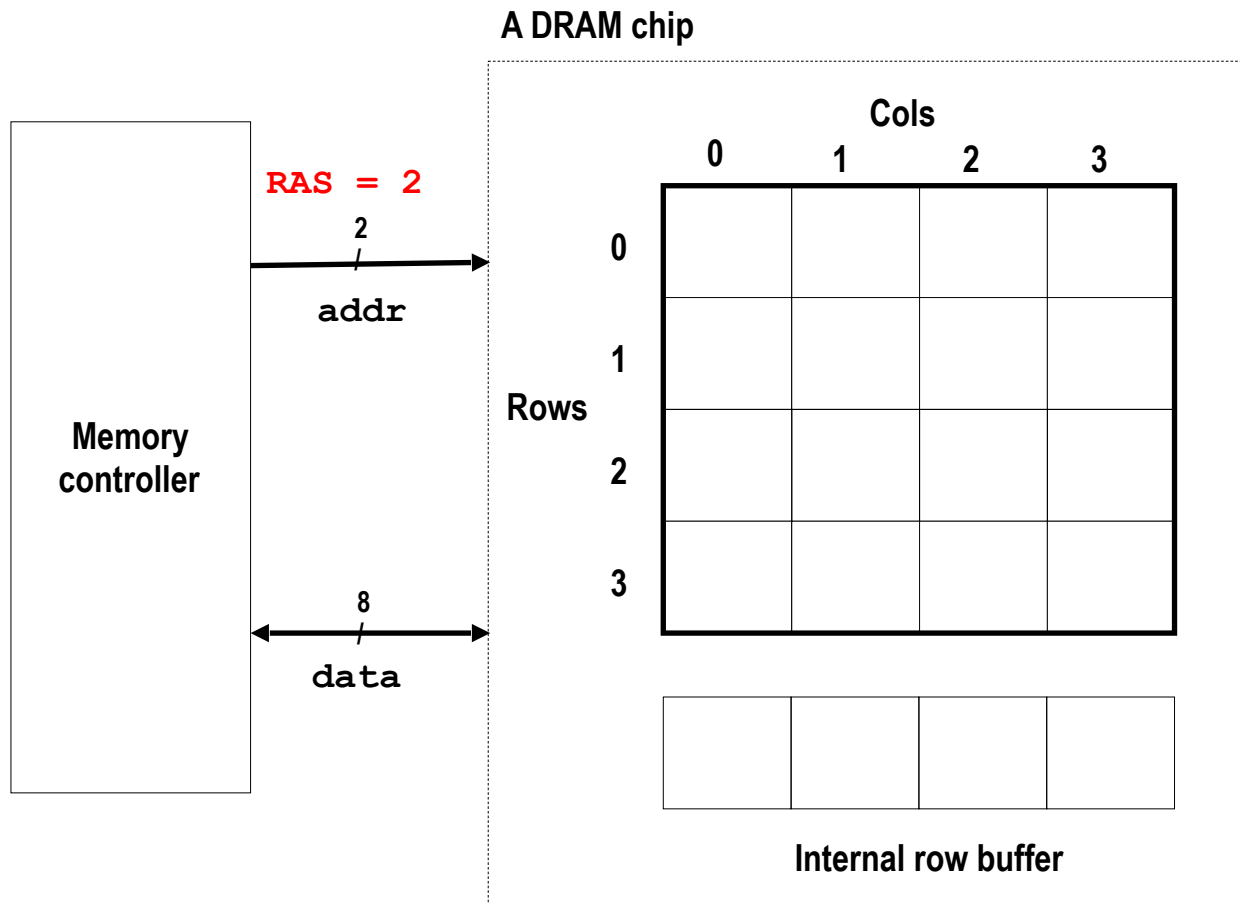
Step 1(b): Row 2 copied from DRAM array to row buffer.



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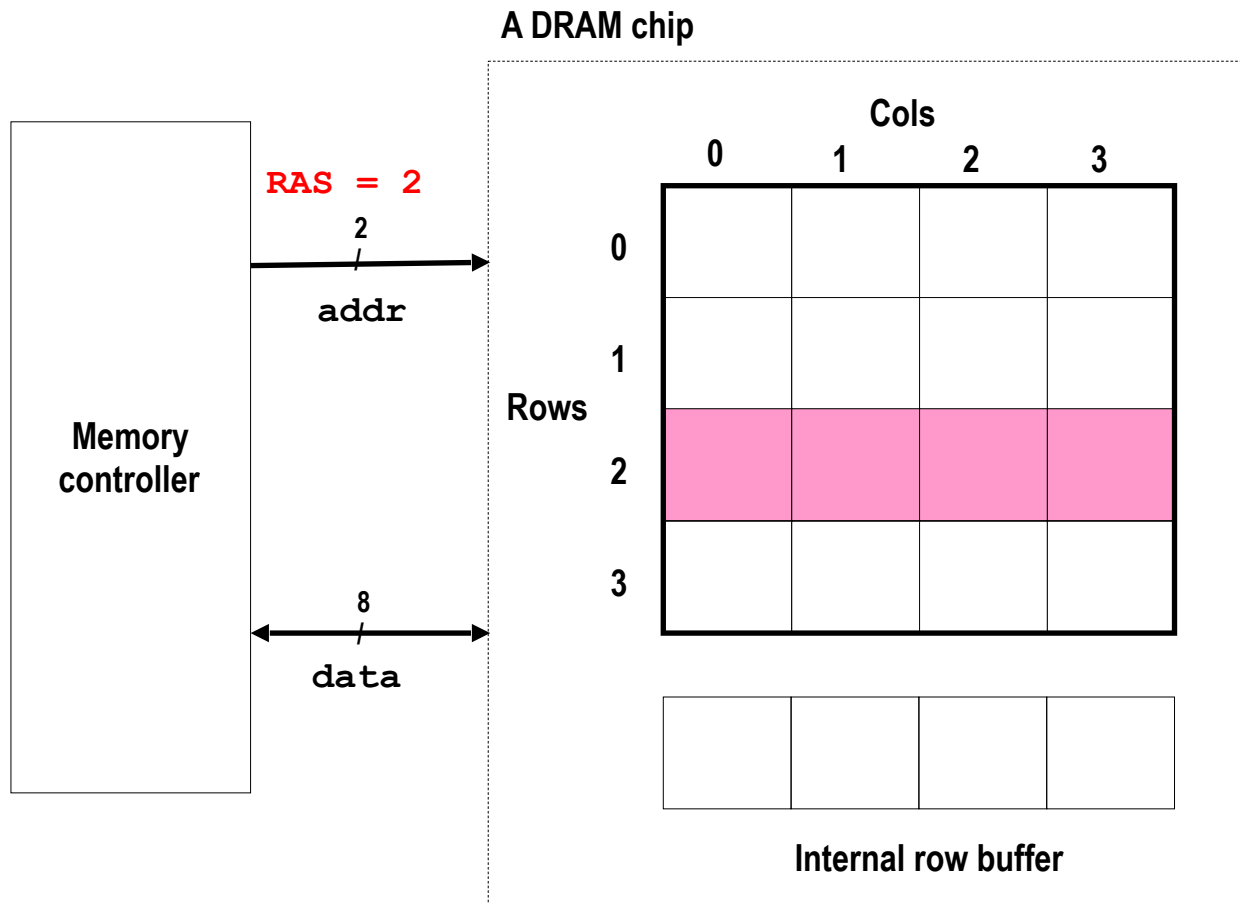
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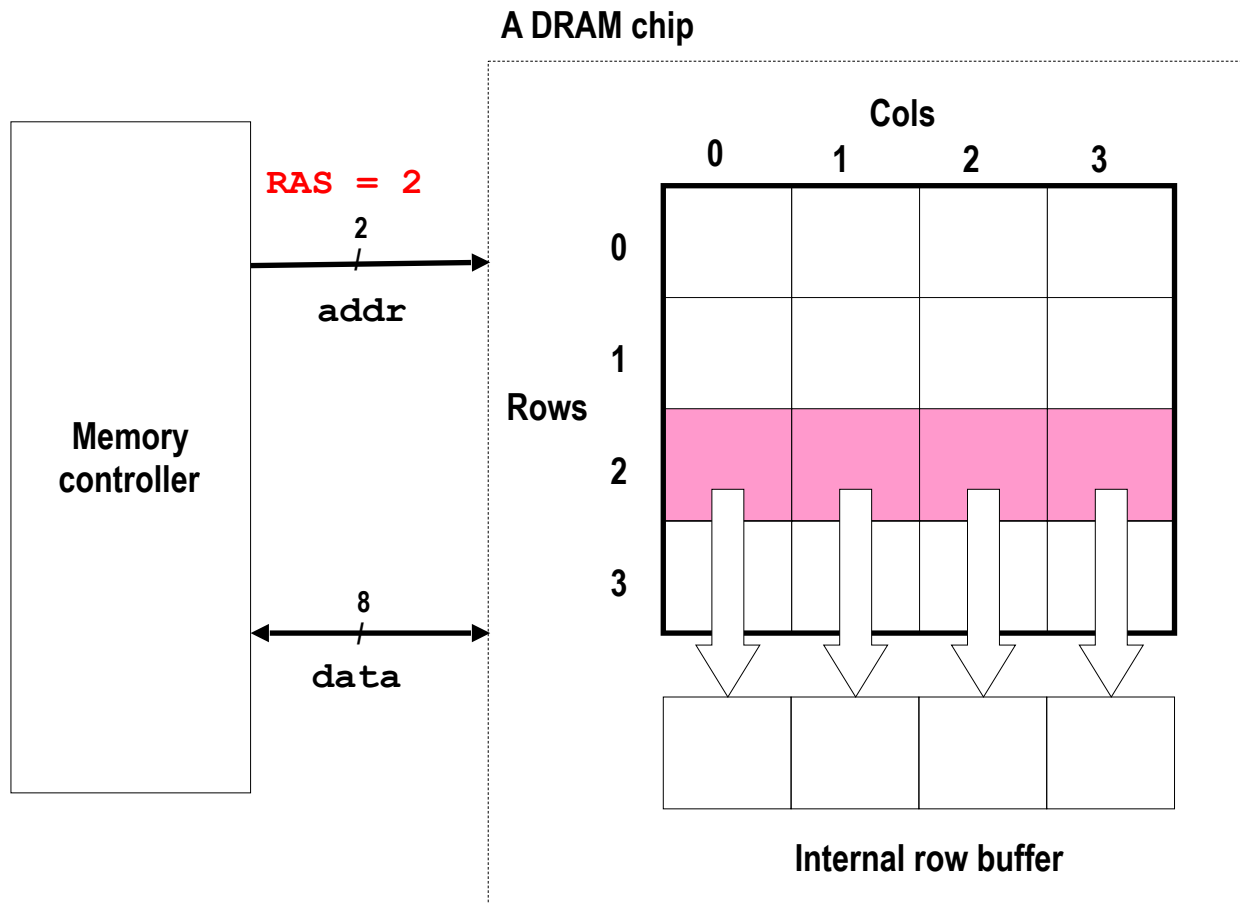
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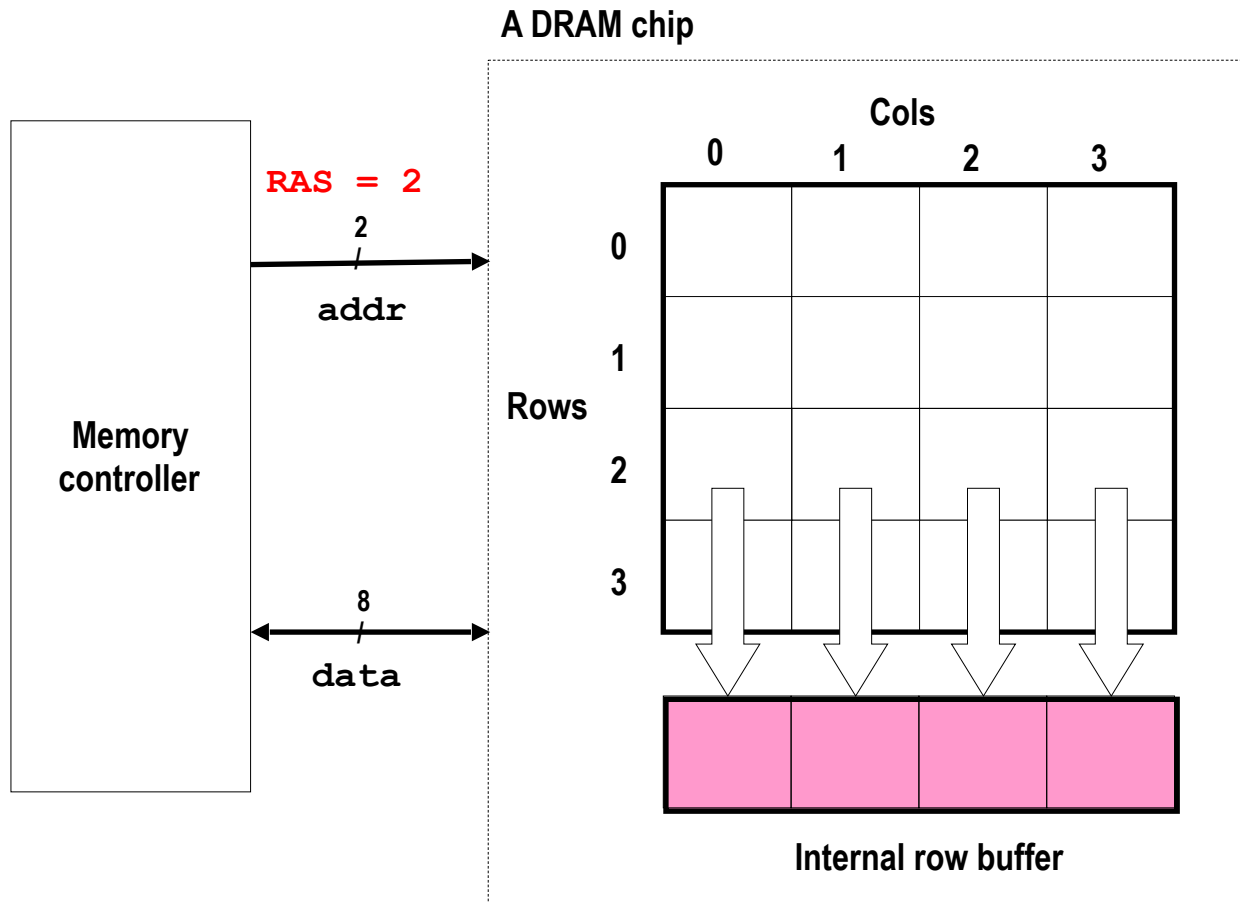
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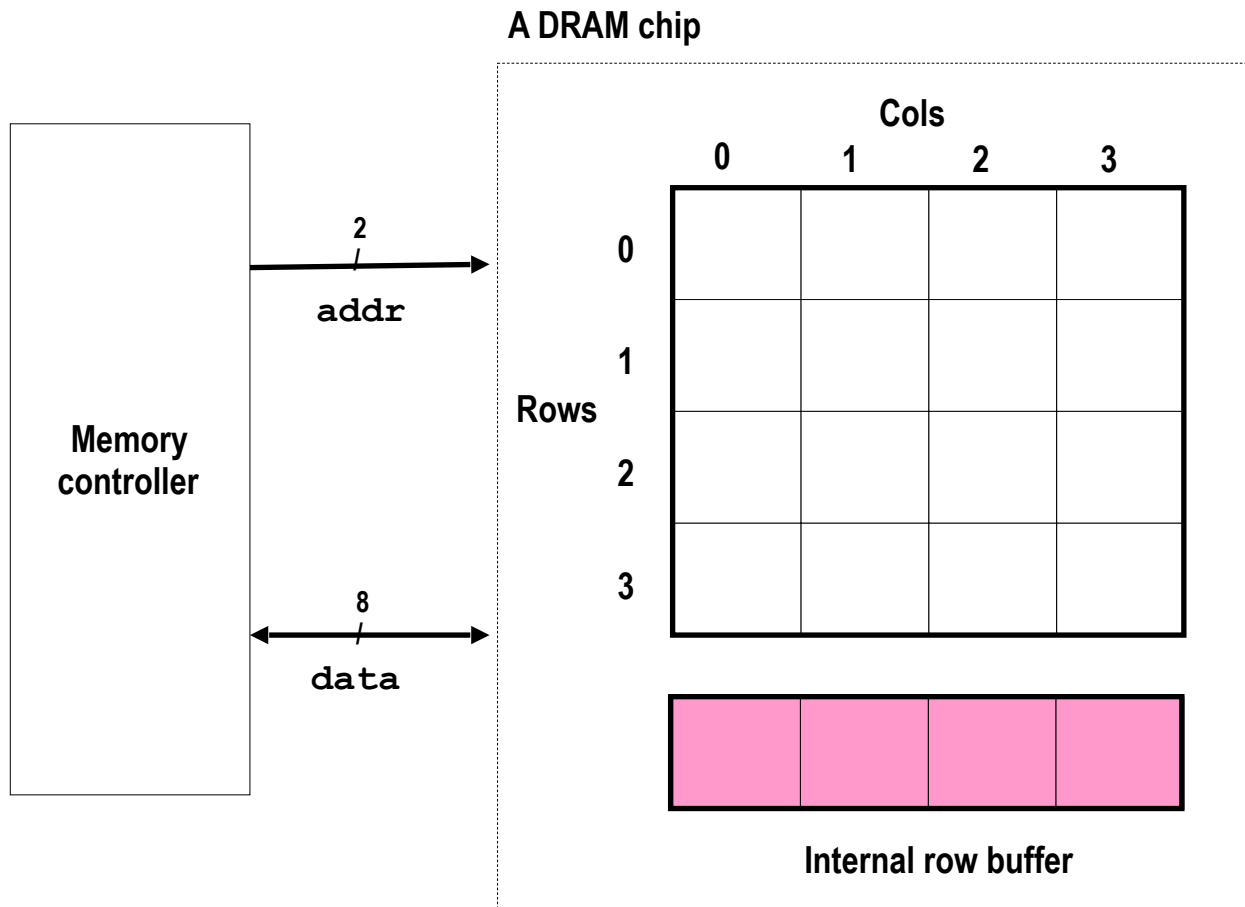
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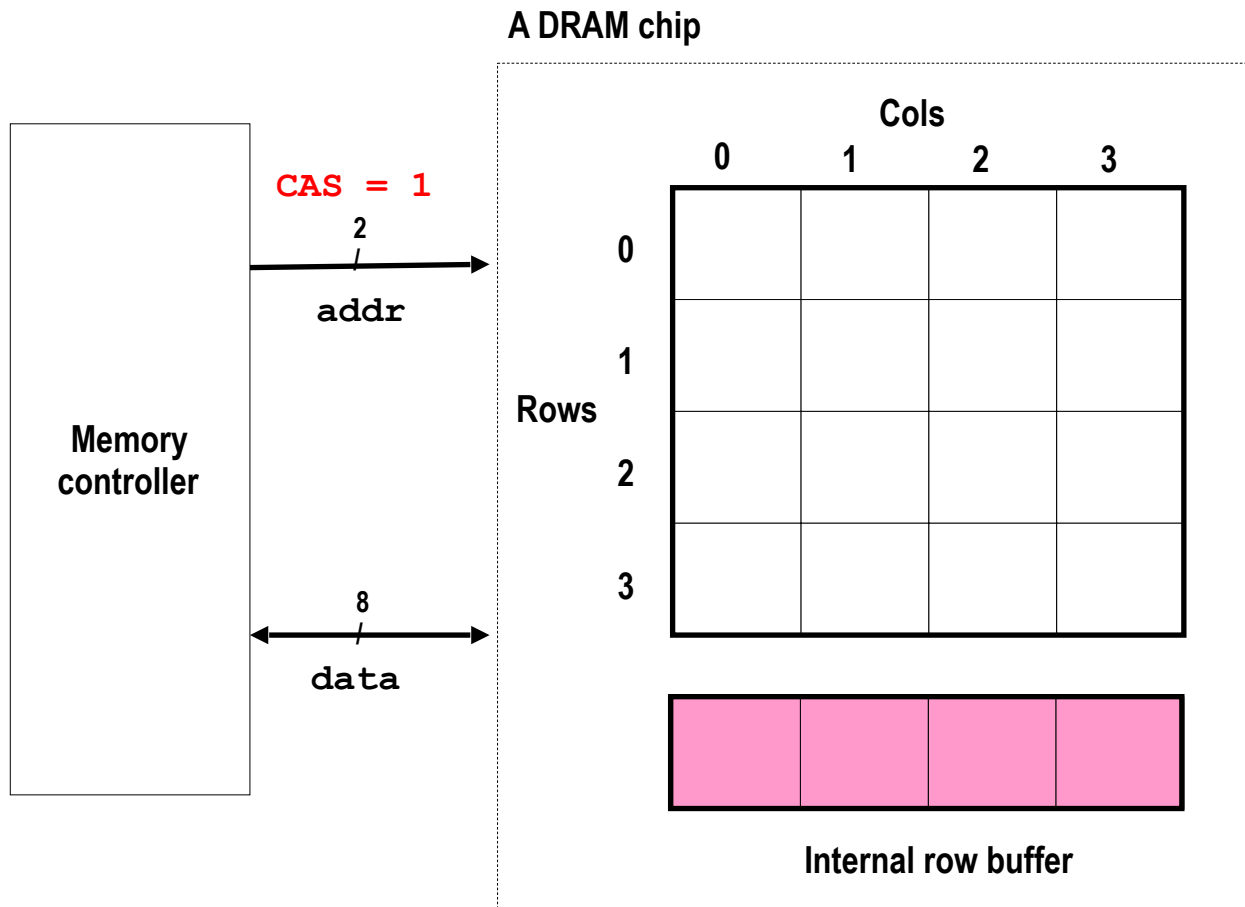
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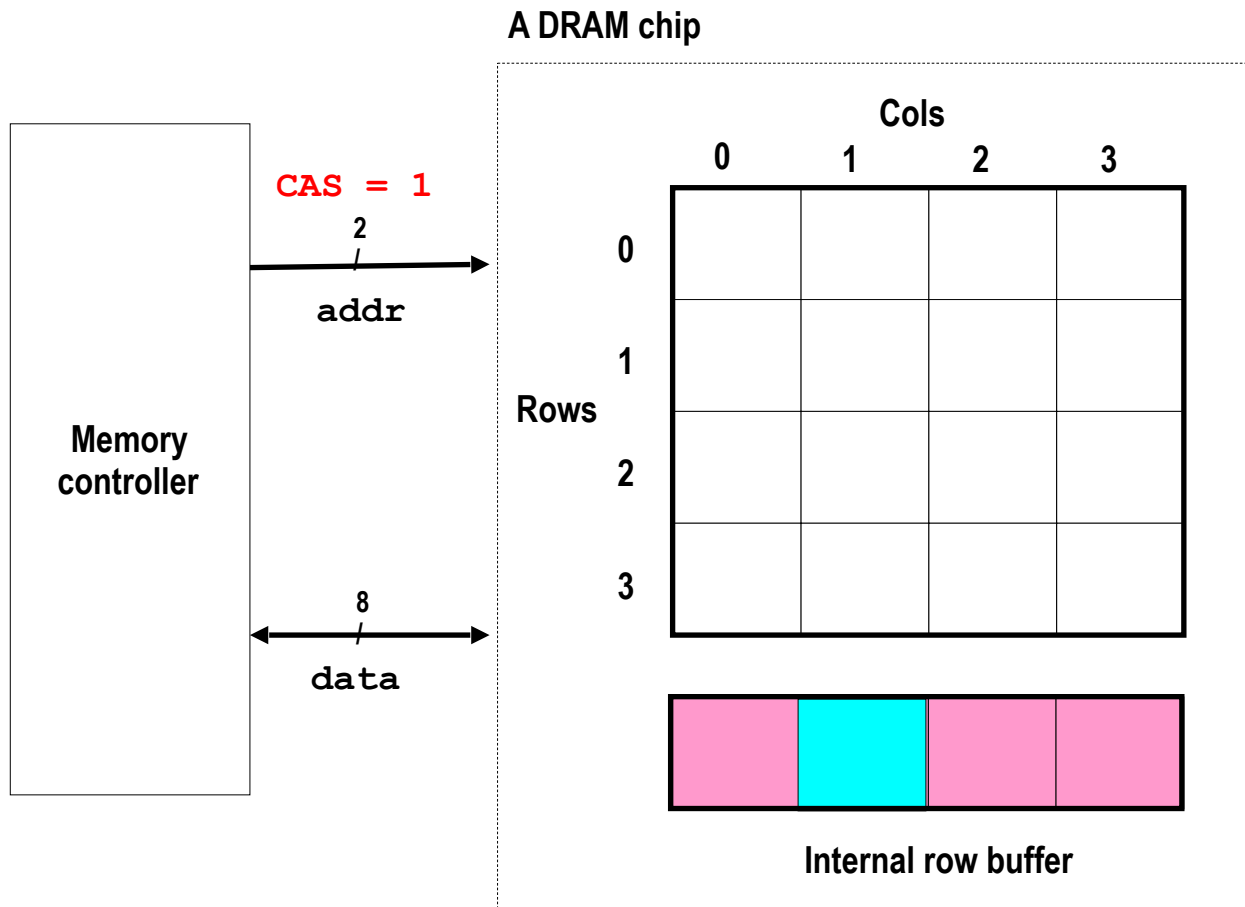
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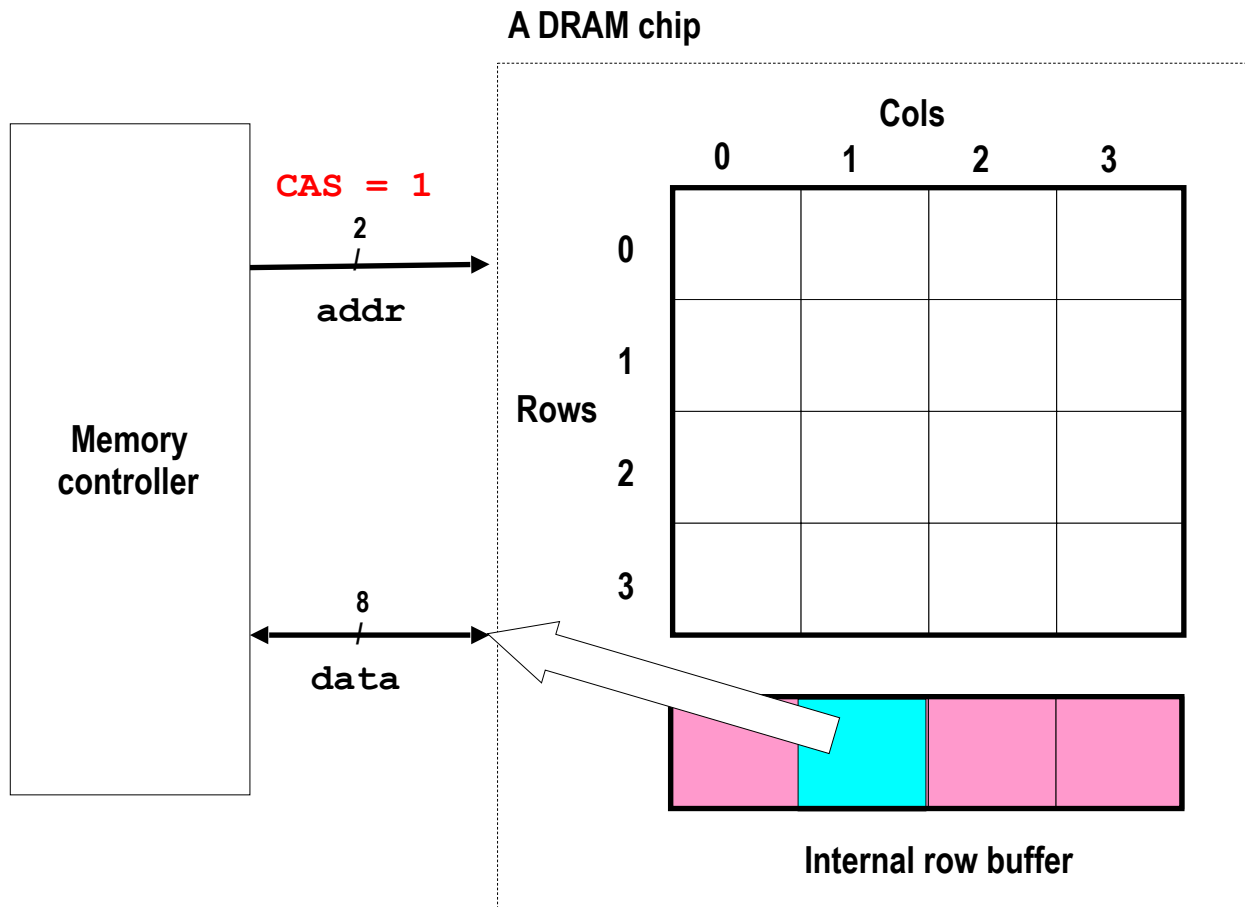




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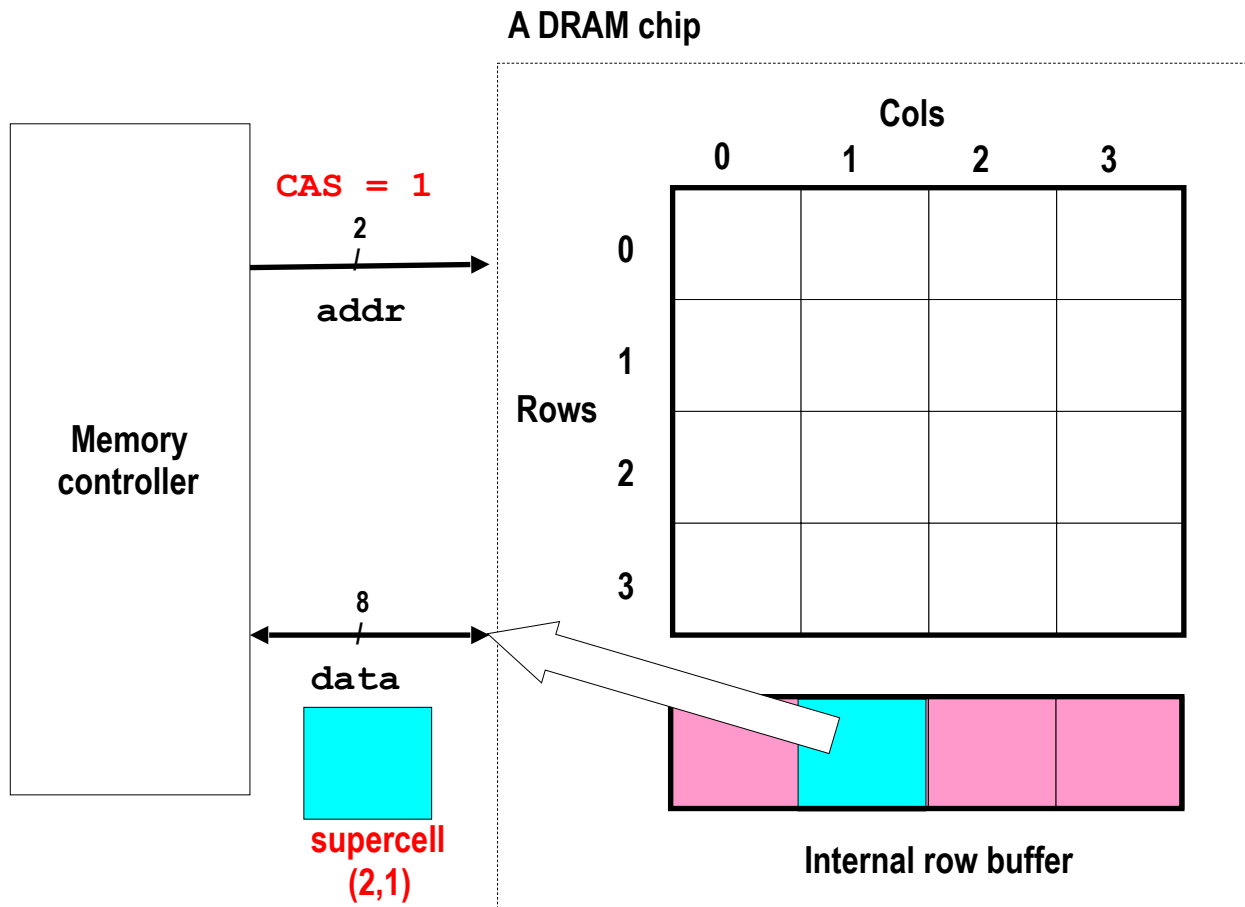
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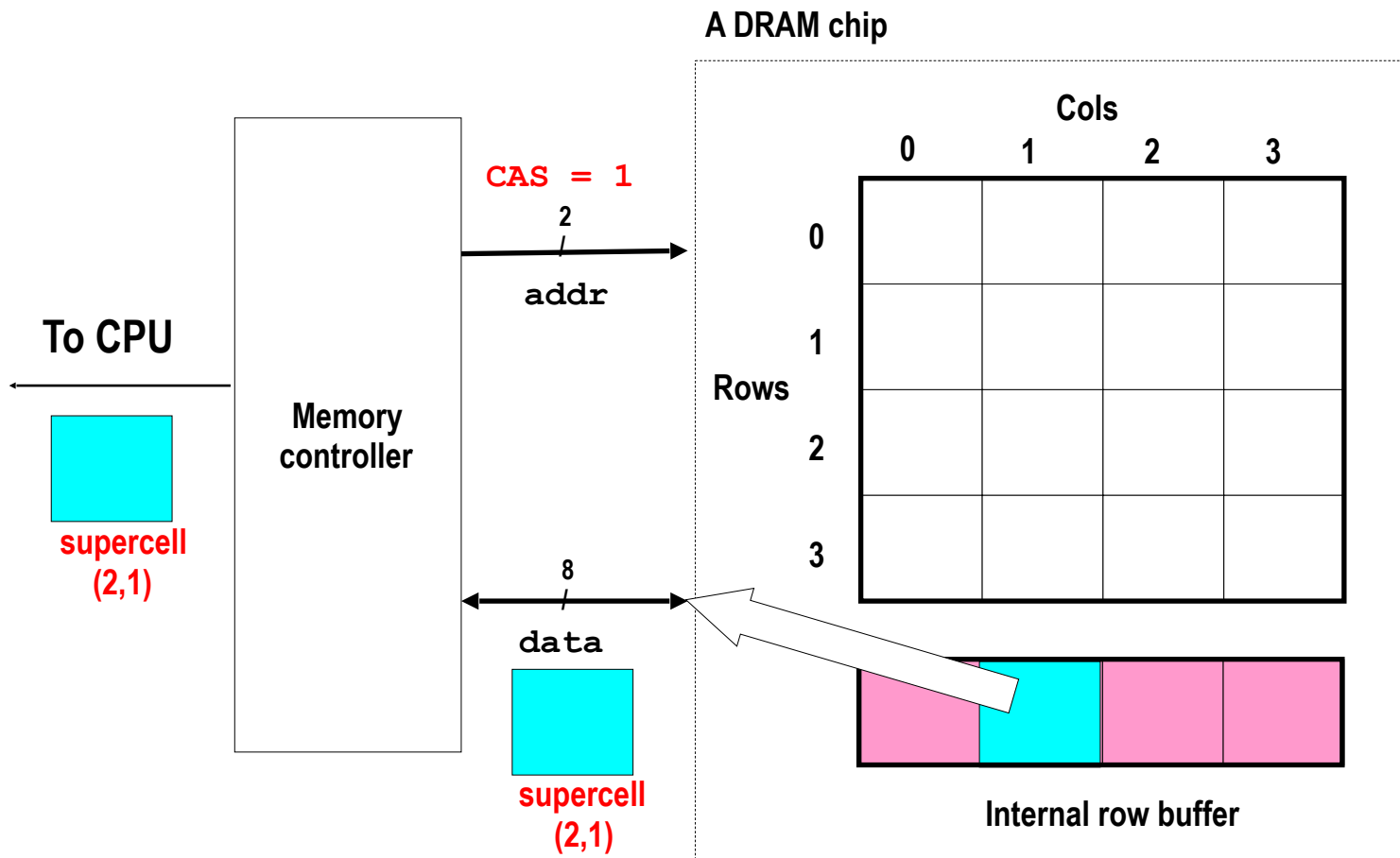
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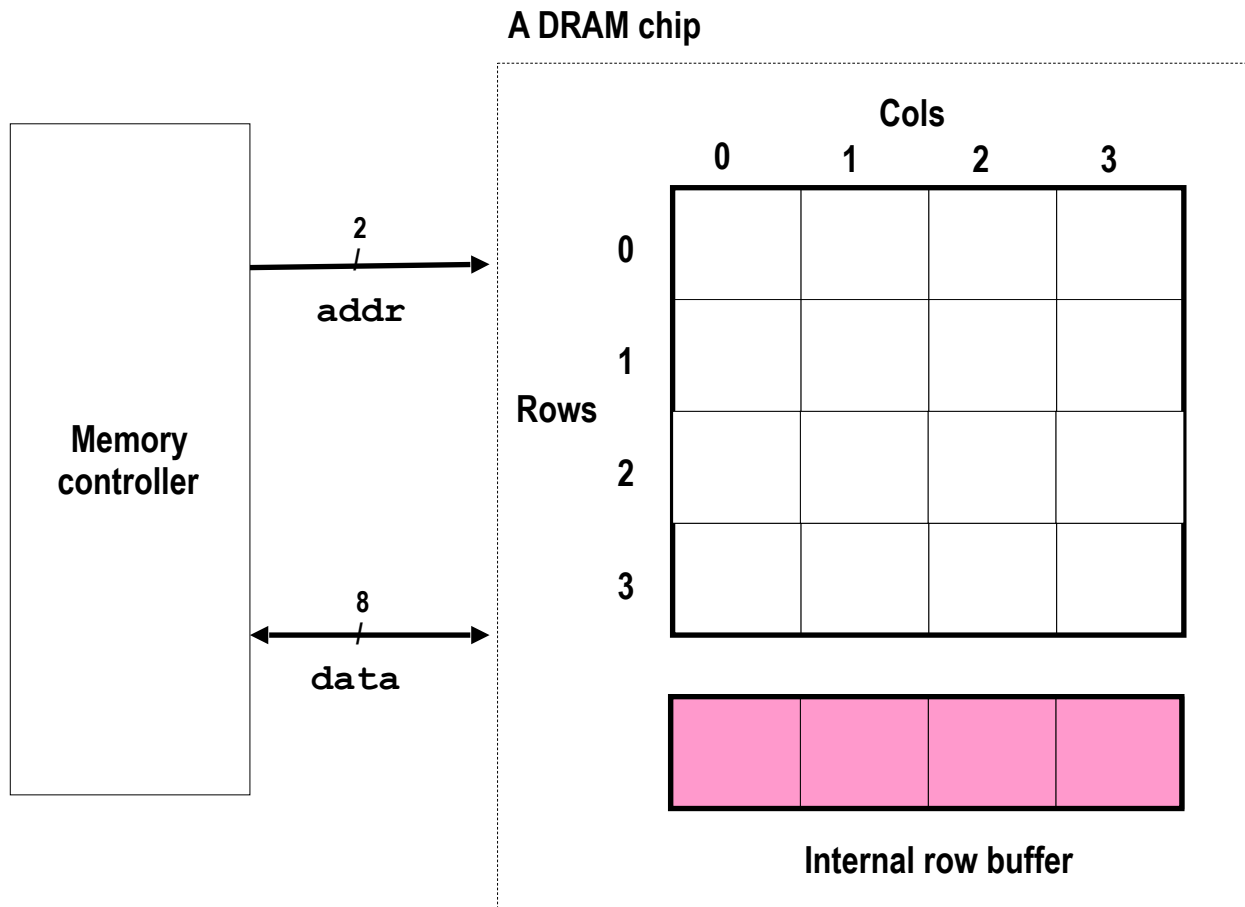
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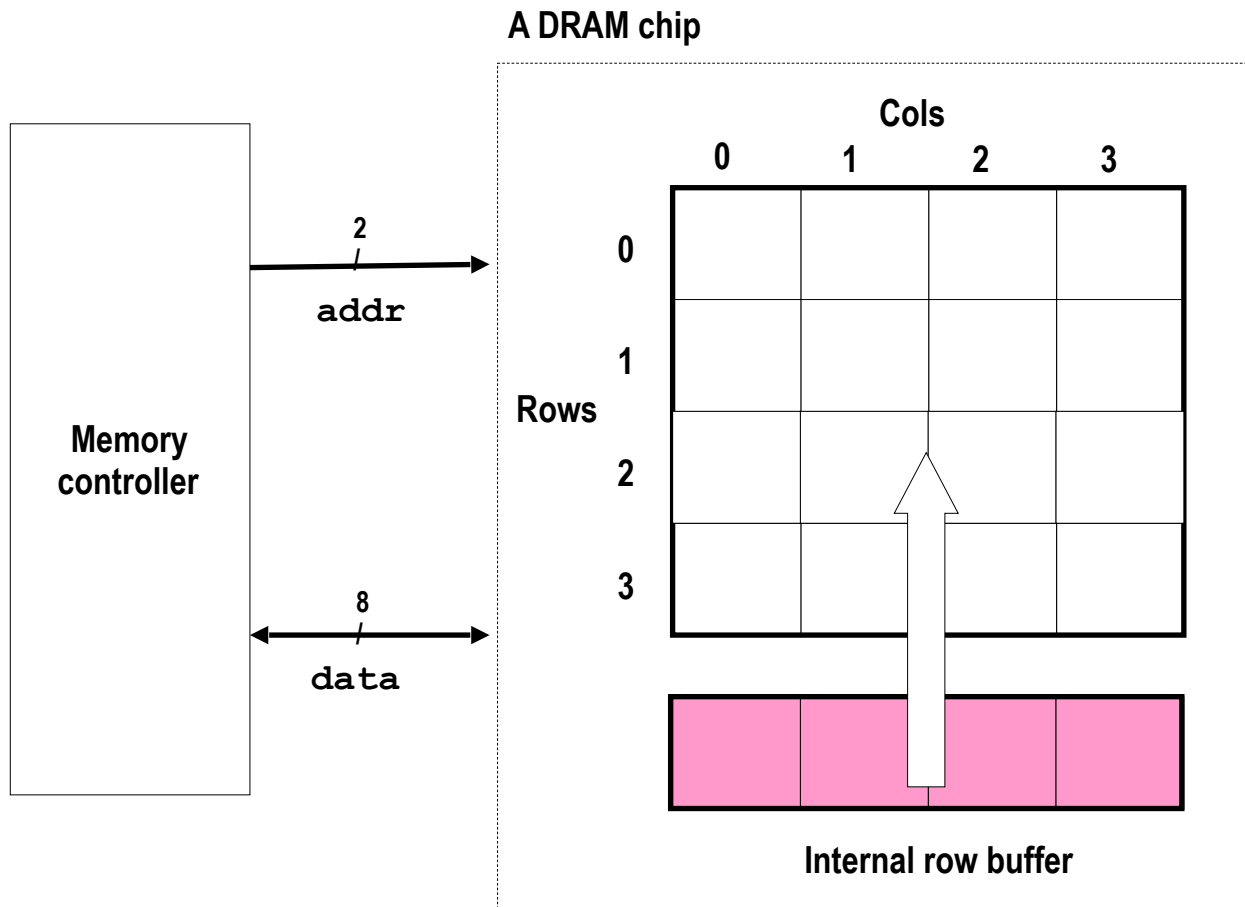
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Step 3: A sense amplifier amplifies and regenerates the bitline and refresh the cells. A DRAM controller must periodically read each row within the allowed refresh time (10s of ms) to restore charge.



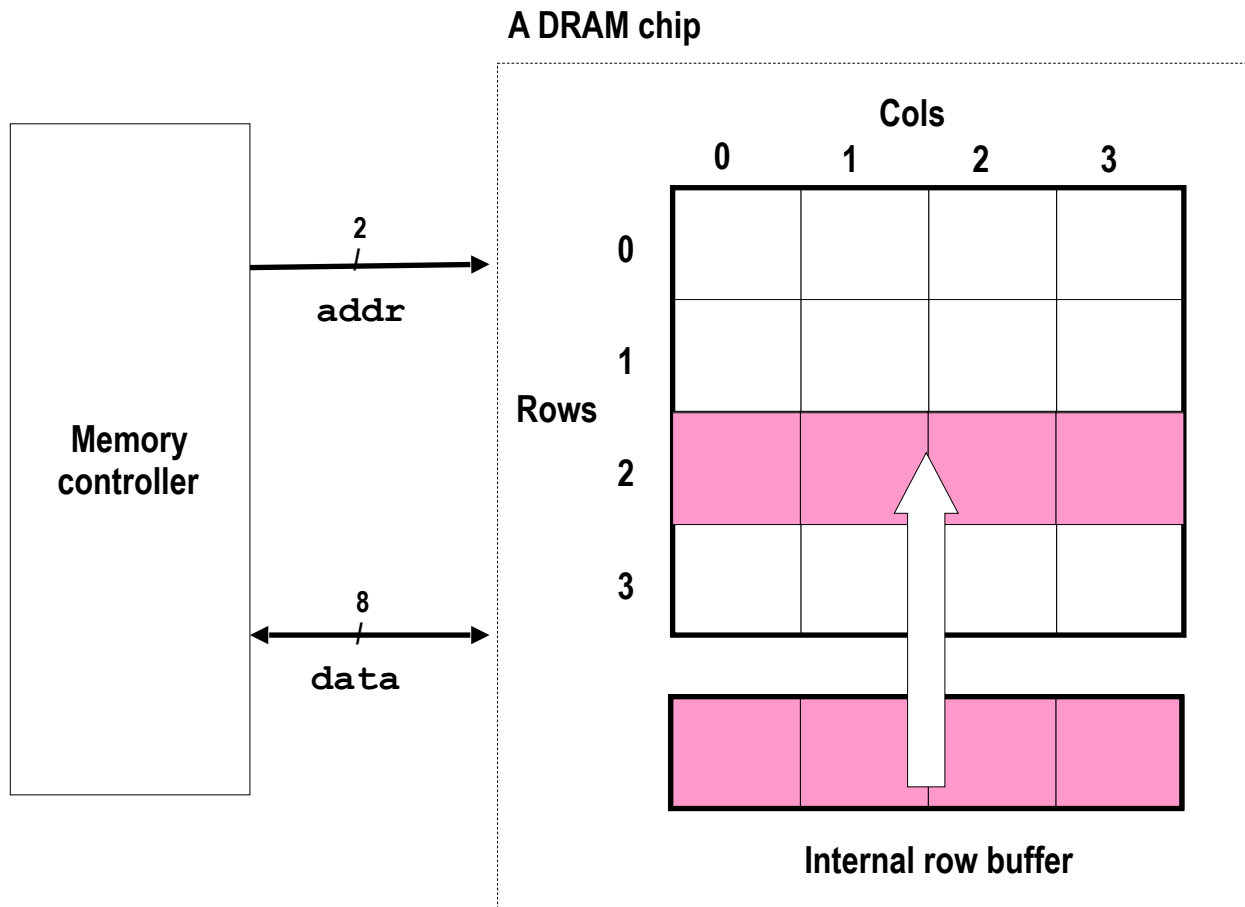
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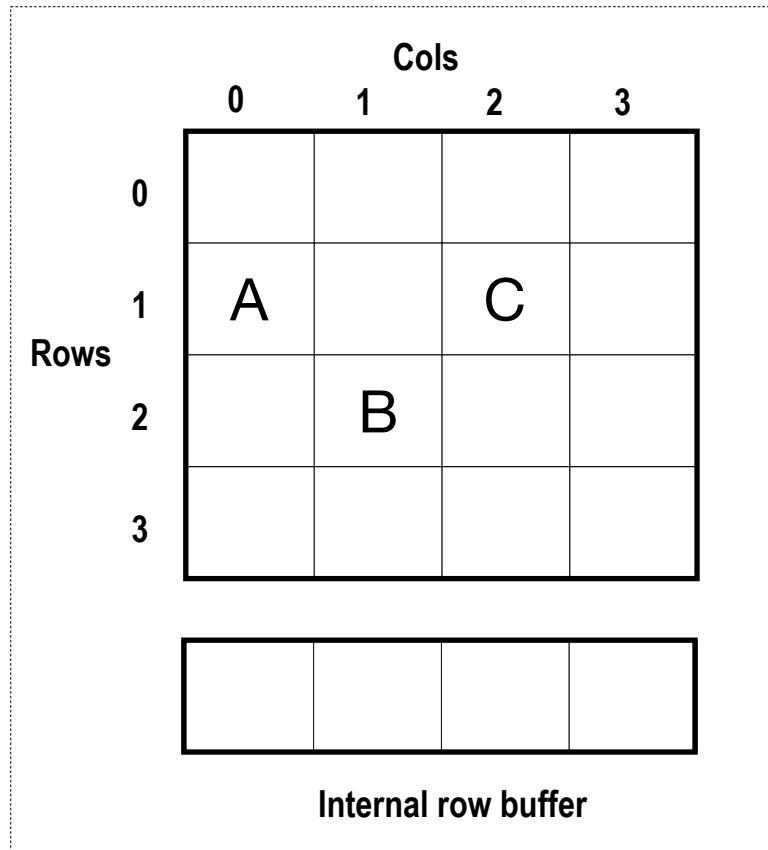
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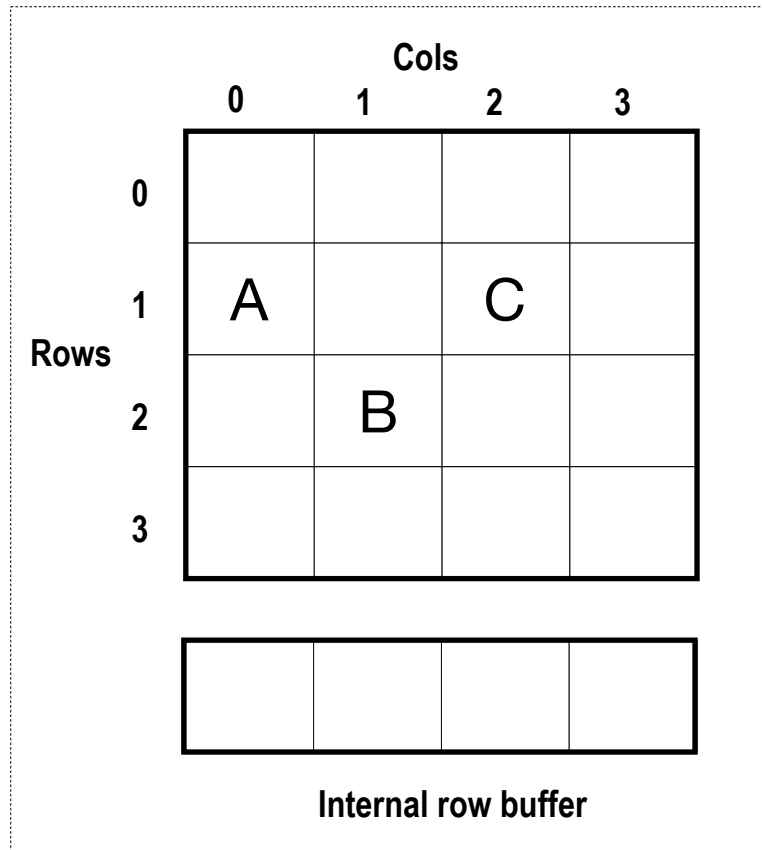
16 x 8 DRAM chip



# Aside: DRAM Scheduling

- Assume the following memory accesses:  
A, B, C

16 x 8 DRAM chip

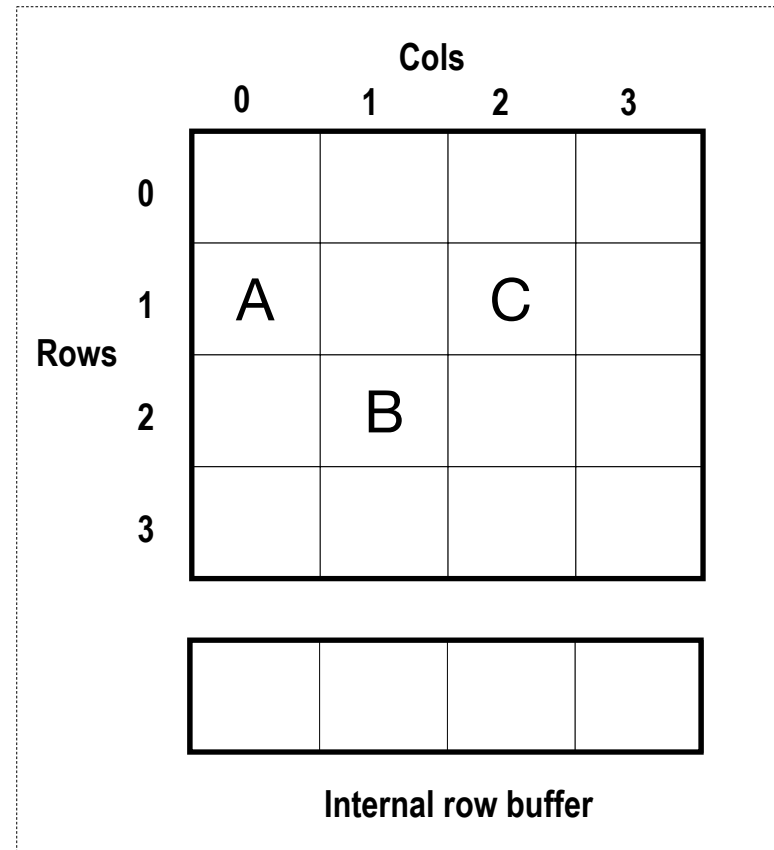




# Aside: DRAM Scheduling

- Assume the following memory accesses:  
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- Which one is faster?
  - A → B → C
  - A → C → B

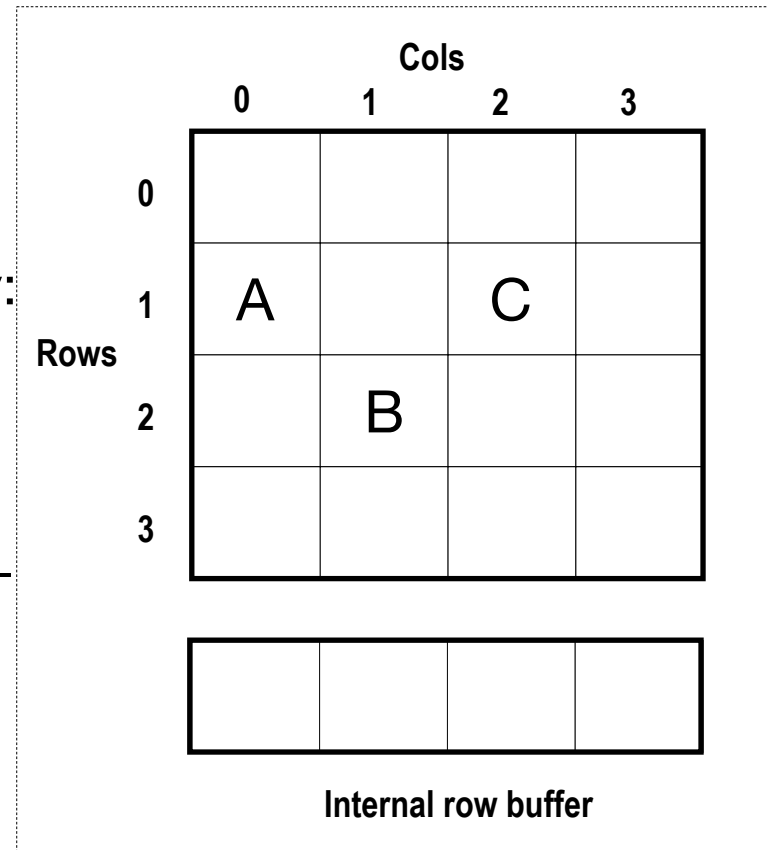
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# Aside: DRAM Scheduling

- Assume the following memory accesses:  
A, B, C
- Which one is faster?
  - A → B → C
  - A → C → B
- Most common memory scheduling policy:  
FR-FCFS
  - First-ready, first-come-first-serve
  - Prioritize addresses to data that is already in the row buffer; otherwise first-come-first-serve

16 x 8 DRAM chip



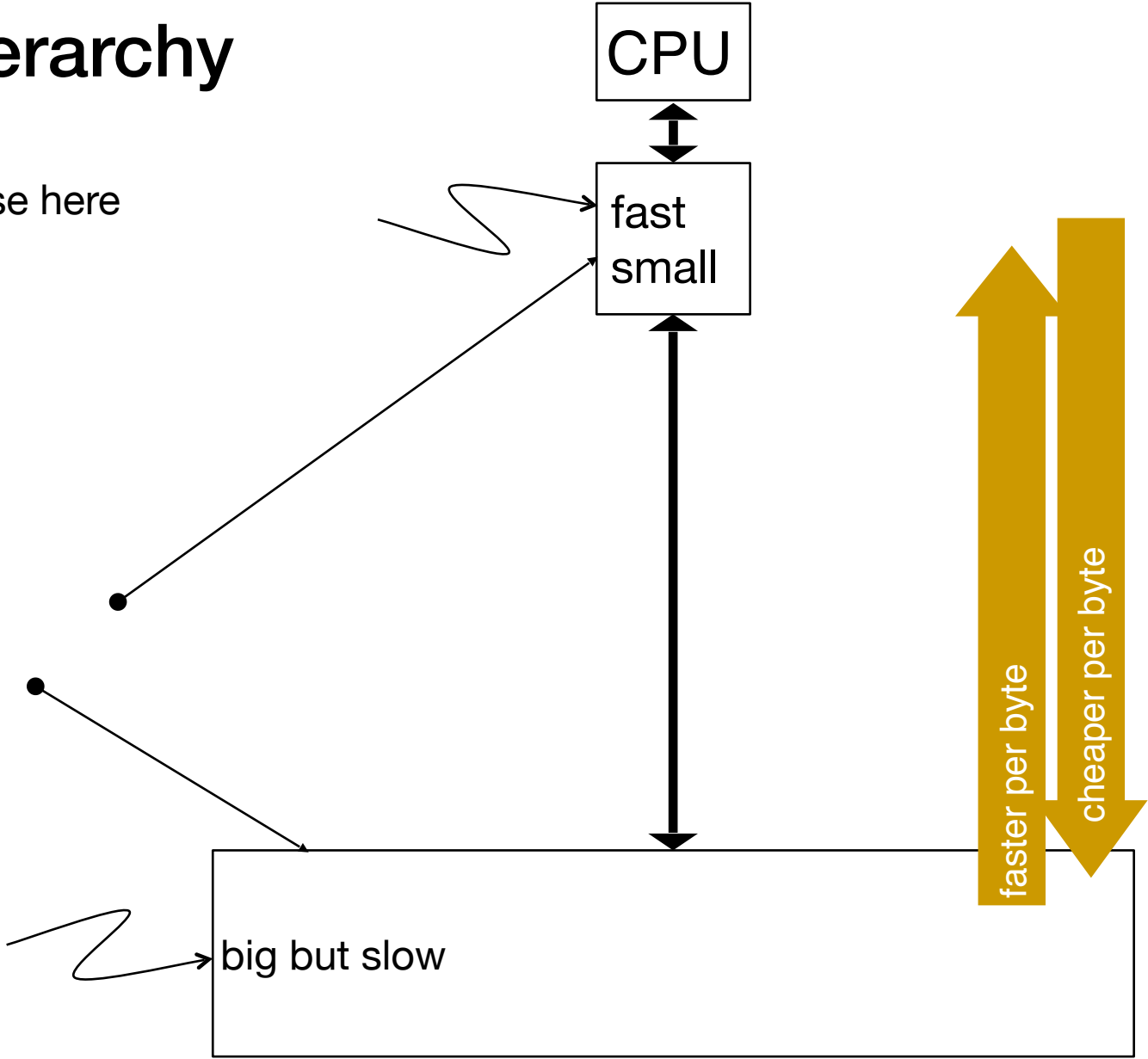
# We want both fast and large Memory

- But we cannot achieve both with a single level of memory
- Idea: Memory Hierarchy
  - Have multiple levels of storage (progressively bigger and slower as the levels are farther from the processor)
  - Key: manage the data such that most of the data the processor needs in the near future is kept in the fast(er) level(s)

# Memory Hierarchy

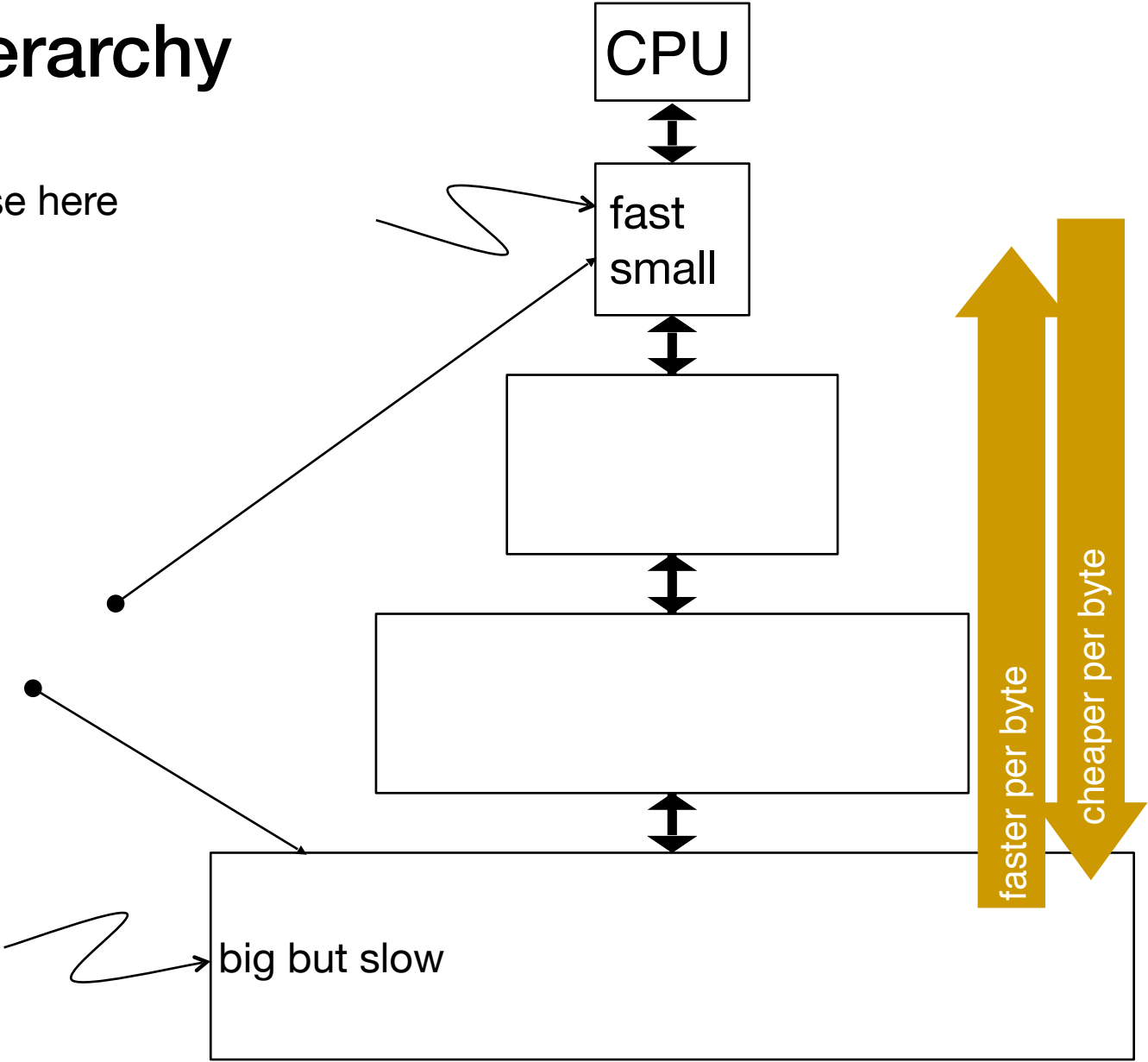
move what you use here

backup everything here



# Memory Hierarchy

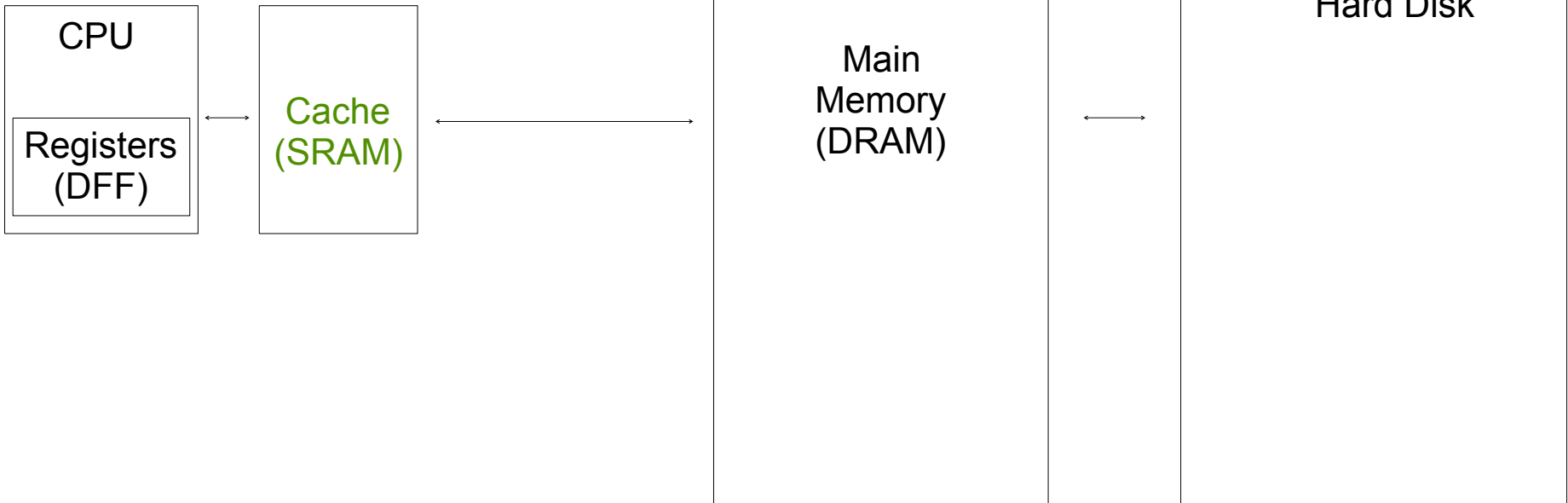
move what you use here



backup everything here

# Memory Hierarchy

- Fundamental tradeoff
  - Fast memory: small
  - Large memory: slow
- Balance latency, cost, size, bandwidth



# A Modern Memory Hierarchy

Register File (DFF)  
32 words, sub-nsec

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L1 cache (SRAM)  
~32 KB, ~nsec

L2 cache (SRAM)  
512 KB ~ 1MB, many nsec

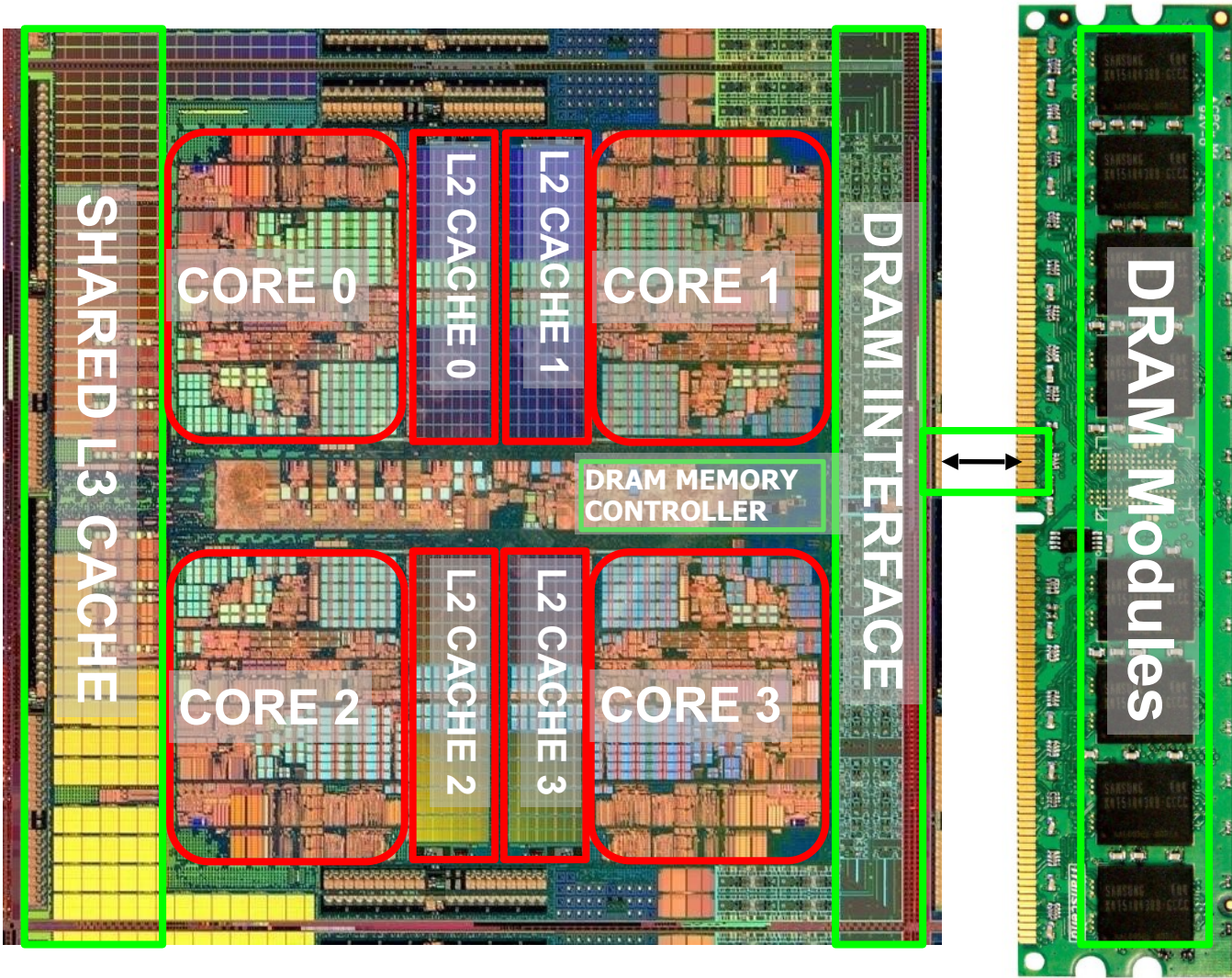
L3 cache (SRAM)  
.....

Main memory (DRAM),  
GB, ~100 nsec

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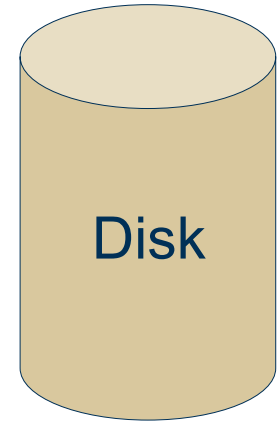
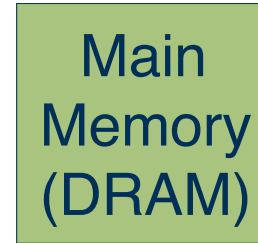
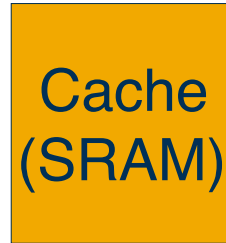
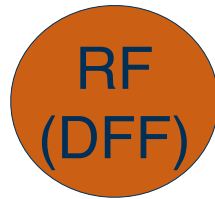
Hard Disk  
100 GB, ~10 msec

# Memory in a Modern System





# How Things Have Progressed

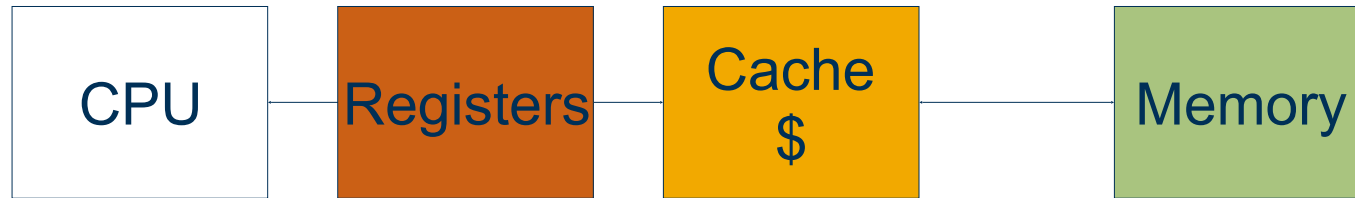


	RF (DFF)	Cache (SRAM)	Main Memory (DRAM)	Disk
<b>1995 low-mid range</b> <small>Hennessy &amp; Patterson, Computer Arch., 1996</small>	200B 5ns	64KB 10ns	32MB 100ns	2GB 5ms
<b>2009 low-mid range</b> <small><a href="http://www.dell.com">www.dell.com</a>, \$449 including 17" LCD flat panel</small>	~200B 0.33ns	8MB 0.33ns	4GB <100ns	750GB 4ms
<b>2015 mid range</b>	~200B 0.33ns	8MB 0.33ns	16GB <100ns	<b>256GB</b> <b>10us</b>

# How to Make Effective Use of the Hierarchy

- Fundamental question: how do we know what data to put in the fast and small memory?
- Answer: ensure most of the data the processor needs **in the near future** is kept in the fast(er) level(s)
- How do we know what data will be needed in the future?
  - Do we know before the program runs?
    - If so, programmers or compiler can place the right data at the right place
  - Do we know only after the program runs?
    - If so, only the hardware can effectively place the data

# How to Make Effective Use of the Hierarchy



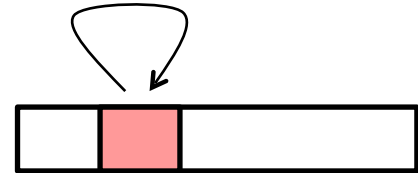
- Modern computers provide both ways
- Register file: programmers explicitly move data from the main memory (slow but big DRAM) to registers (small, very fast)
  - `movq (%rdi), %rdx`
- **Cache**, on the other hand, is automatically managed by hardware
  - Sits between registers and main memory, “invisible” to programmers
  - The hardware automatically figures out what data will be used in the near future, and place in the cache.
  - How does the hardware know that??

# Locality: An Empirical Observation

- **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use the same data over and over again, and tend to access data next to each other.

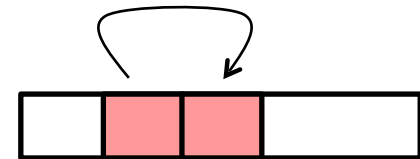
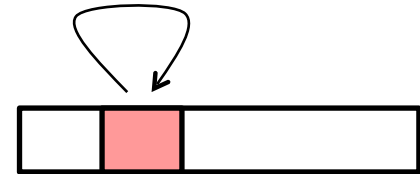
# Locality: An Empirical Observation

- **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use the same data over and over again, and tend to access data next to each other.
- **Temporal locality:**
  - Recently referenced items are likely to be referenced again in the near future



# Locality: An Empirical Observation

- **Principle of Locality:** Programs tend to use the same data over and over again, and tend to access data next to each other.
- **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;
```

- Data references
  - **Spatial** Locality: Reference array elements in succession (stride-1 reference pattern)
  - **Temporal** Locality: Reference variable sum each iteration.
- Instruction references
  - **Spatial** Locality: Reference instructions in sequence.
  - **Temporal** Locality: Cycle through loop repeatedly.

# Use Locality to Manage Memory Hierarchy

```
sum = 0;
for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
    sum += a[i];
return sum;
```

- Exploiting temporal locality:
  - If a piece of data is recently accessed, very likely it will be needed again, so moved it to cache.
- Exploiting spatial locality:
  - When moving a piece of data from the memory to the cache, move its adjacent data to the cache as well.



# The Bookshelf Analogy

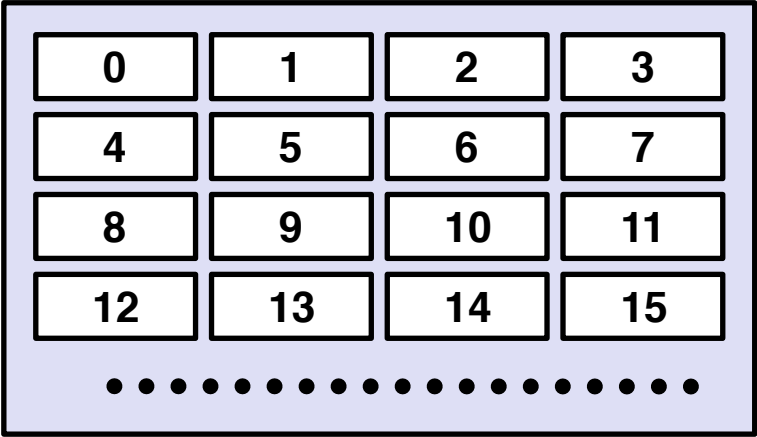
- Book in your hand
- Desk
- Bookshelf
- Boxes at home
- Library
  
- Recently-used books tend to stay on desk, because you will likely use it again.
  - Comp Org. books, books for classes you are currently taking
- Organize books in the shelf such that adjacent books are mostly accessed around the same time

# Cache Illustrations

CPU



Memory  
(big but slow)

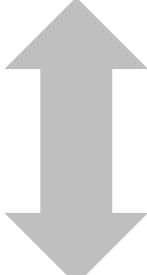
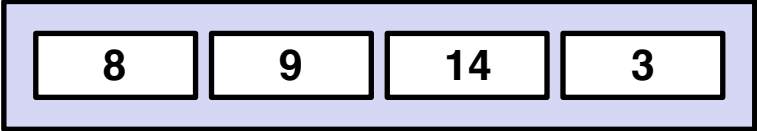


# Cache Illustrations

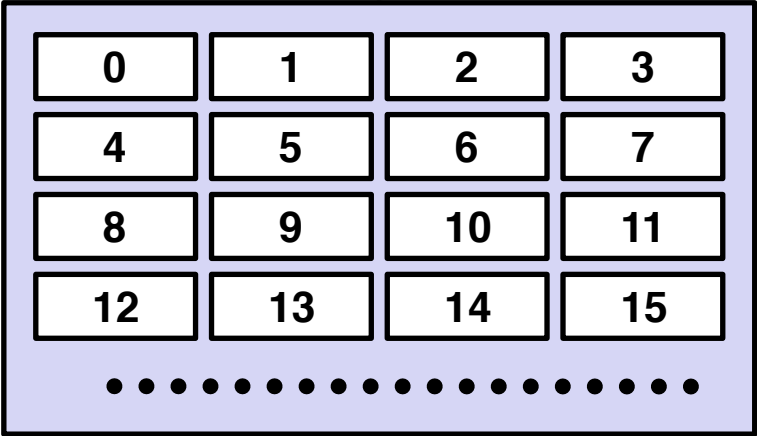
CPU



Cache  
(small but fast)



Memory  
(big but slow)



# Cache Illustrations

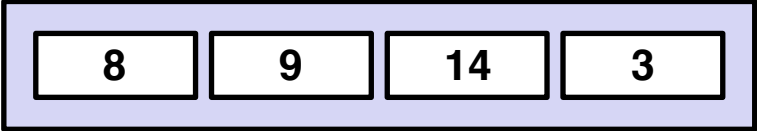
CPU



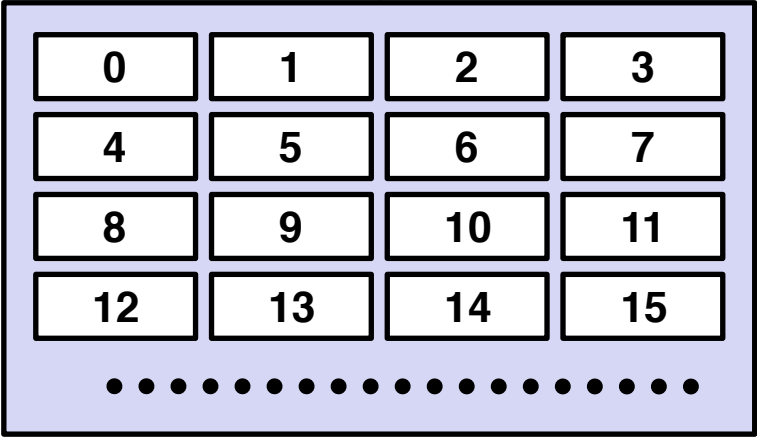
Request Data  
at Address 14

*Data in address b is needed*

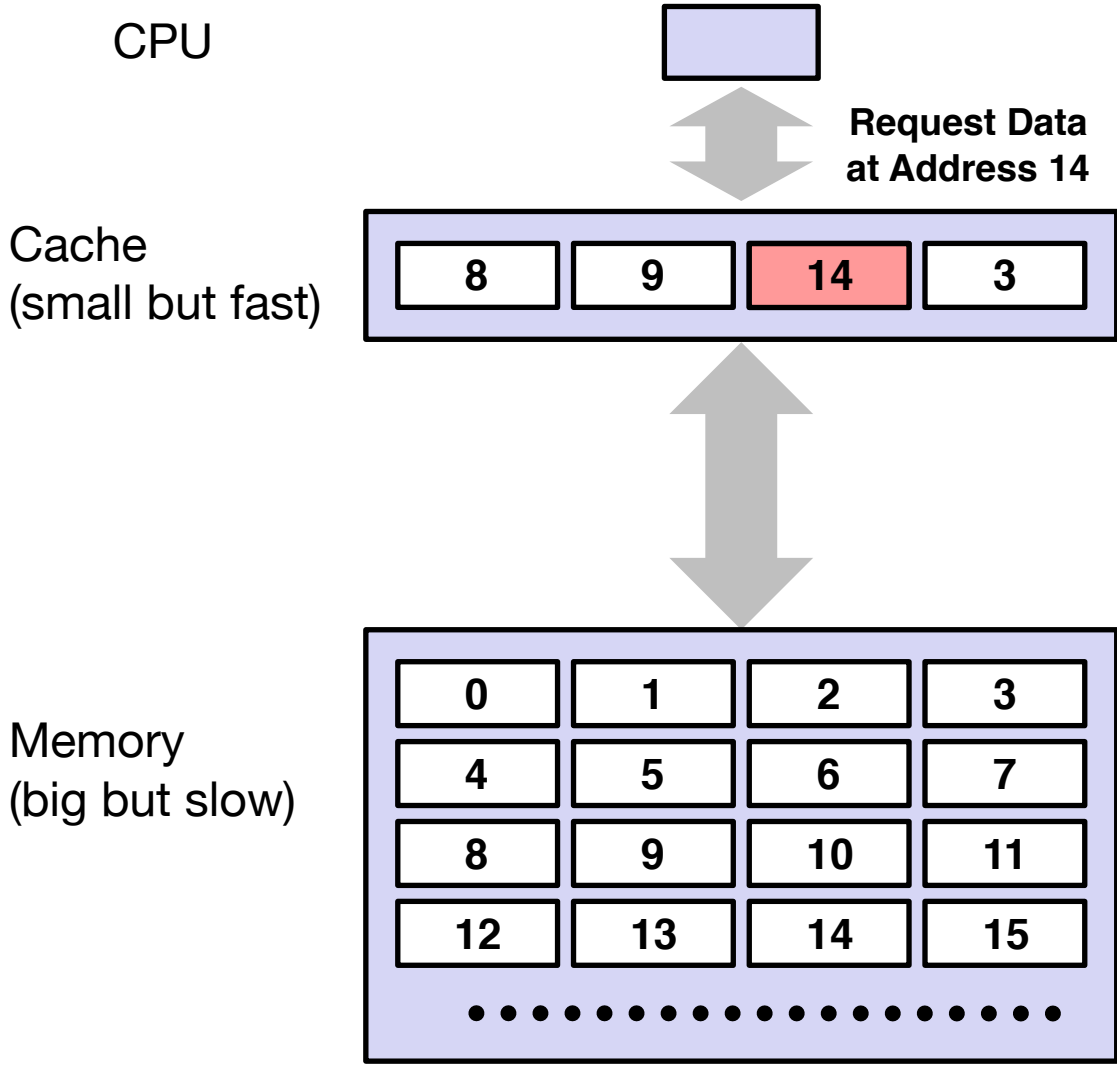
Cache  
(small but fast)



Memory  
(big but slow)



# Cache Illustrations



*Data in address b is needed*

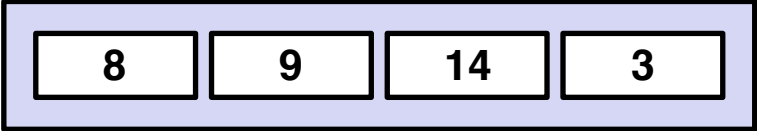
*Address b is in cache: Hit!*

# Cache Illustrations

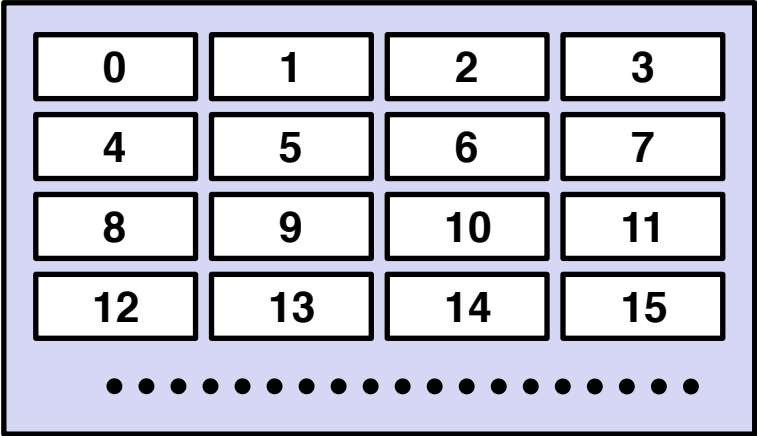
CPU



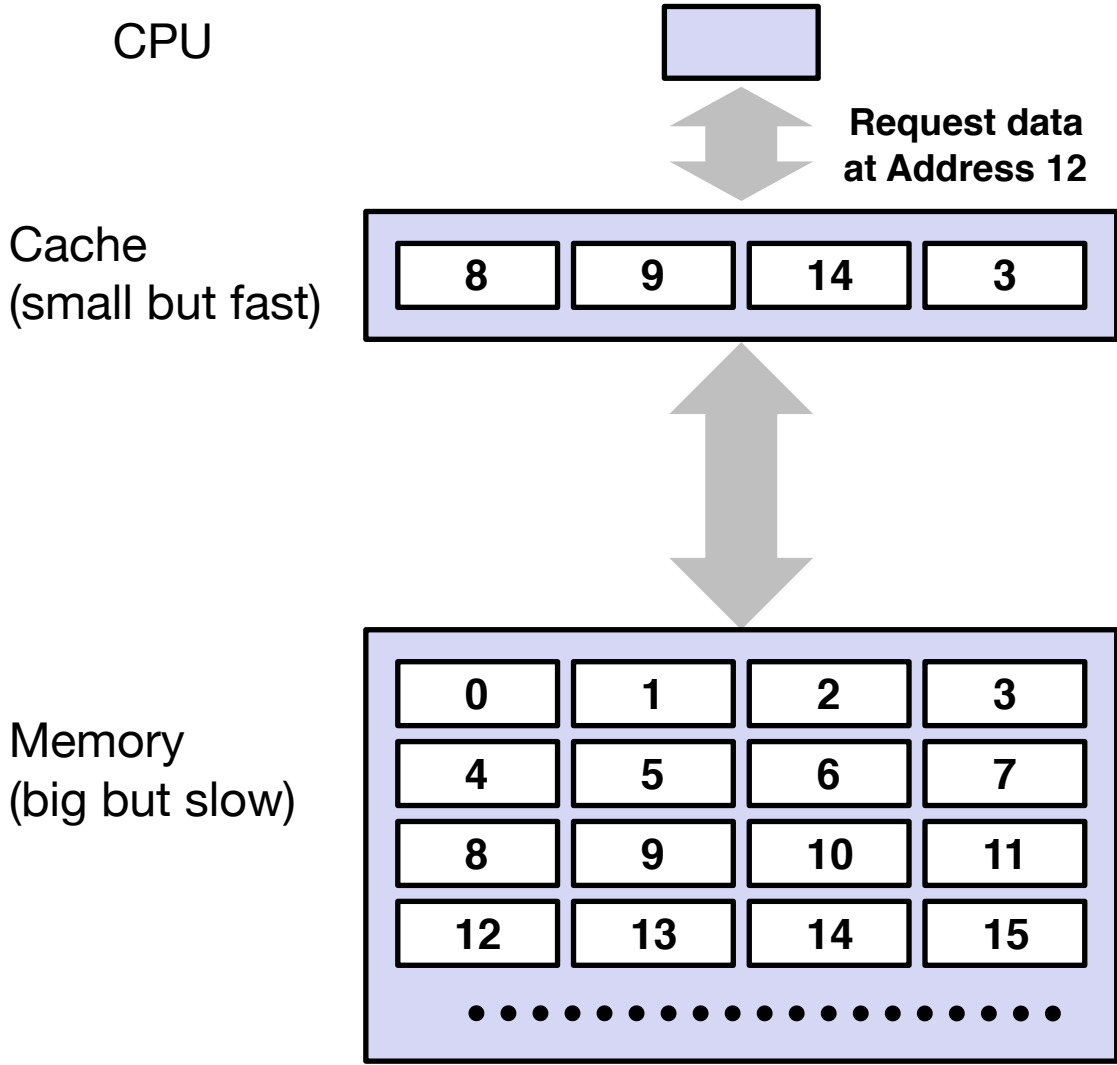
Cache  
(small but fast)



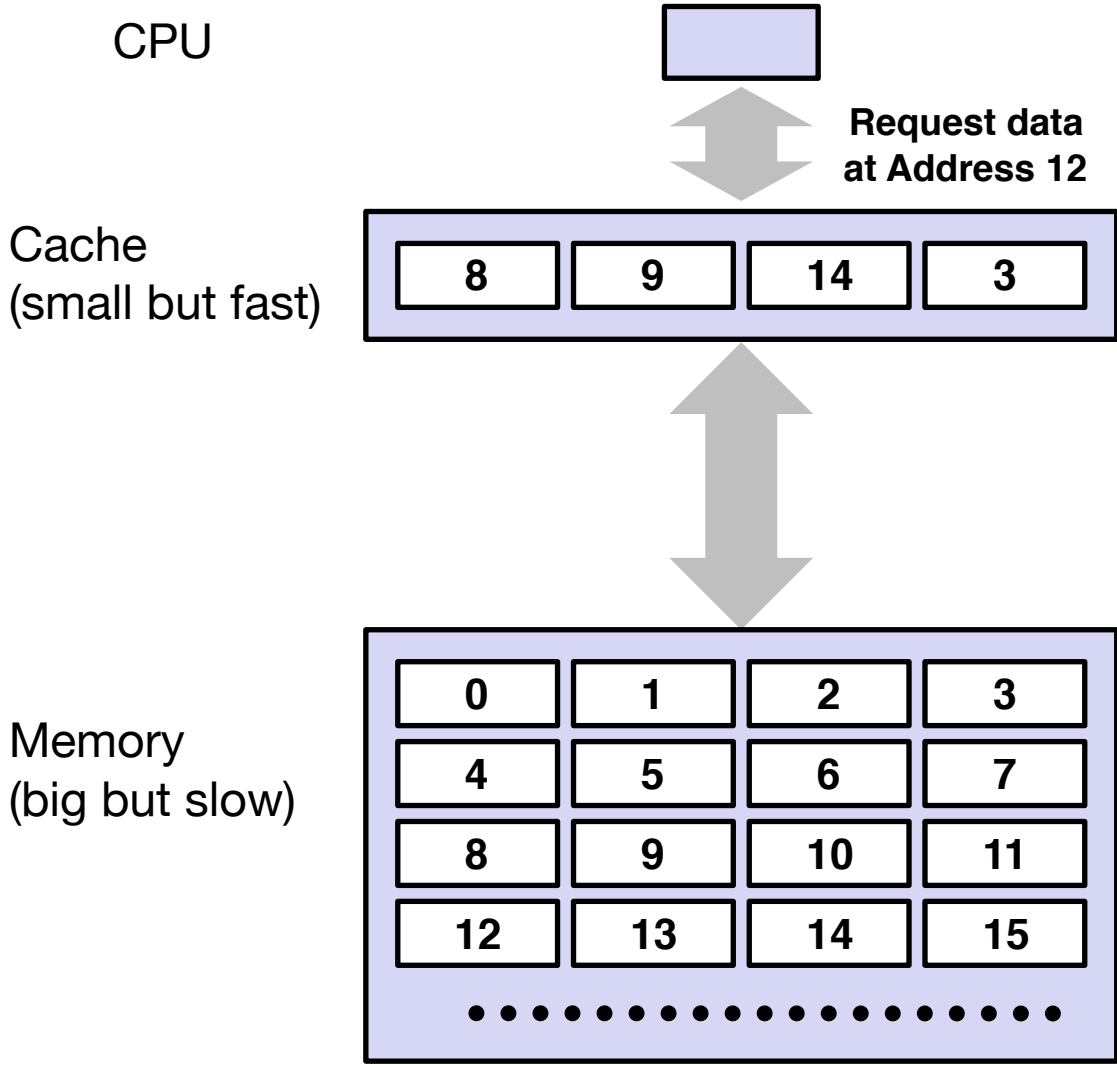
Memory  
(big but slow)



# Cache Illustrations



# Cache Illustrations

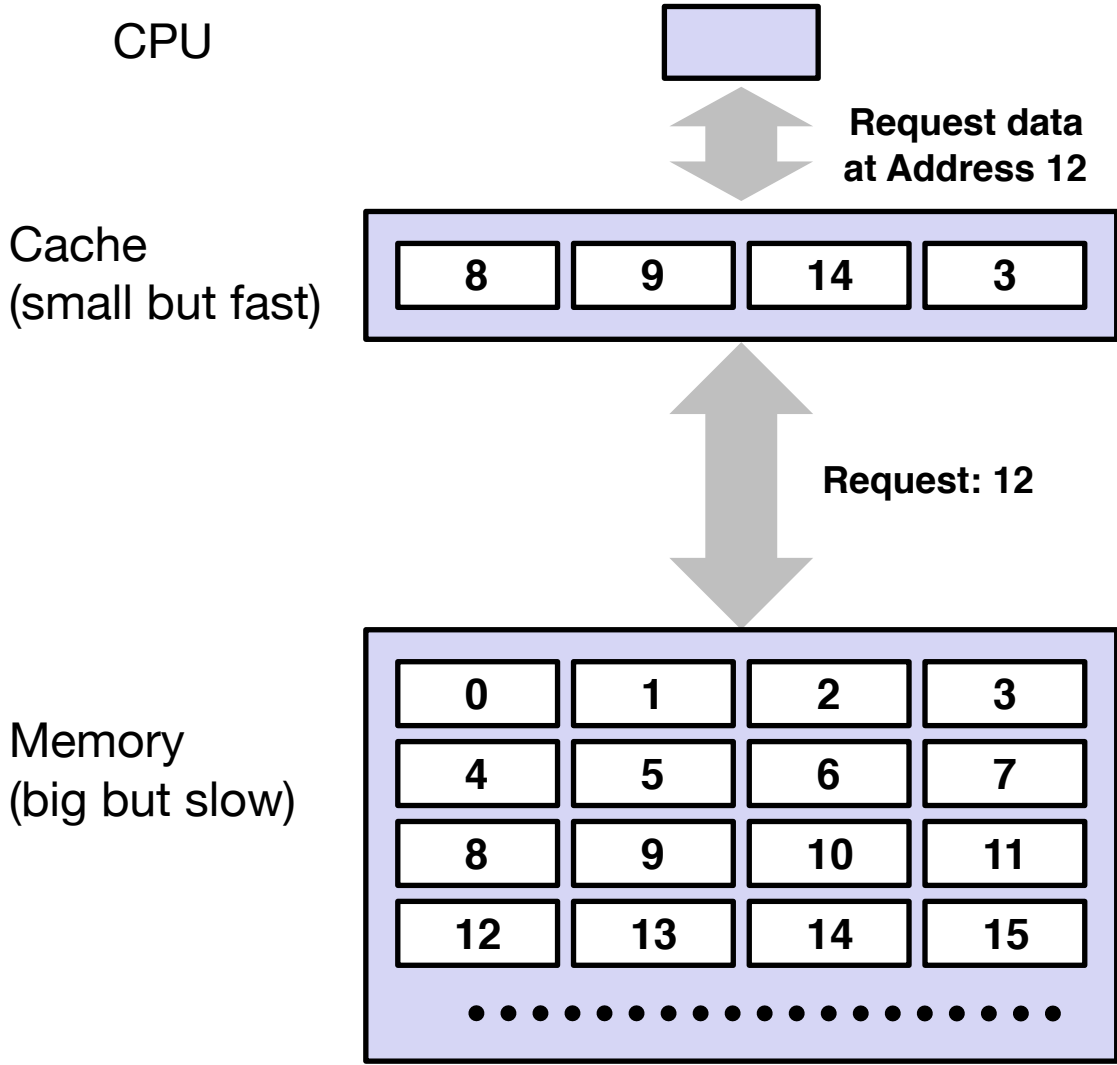


*Data in address b is needed*

*Address b is not in cache: **Miss!***



# Cache Illustrations

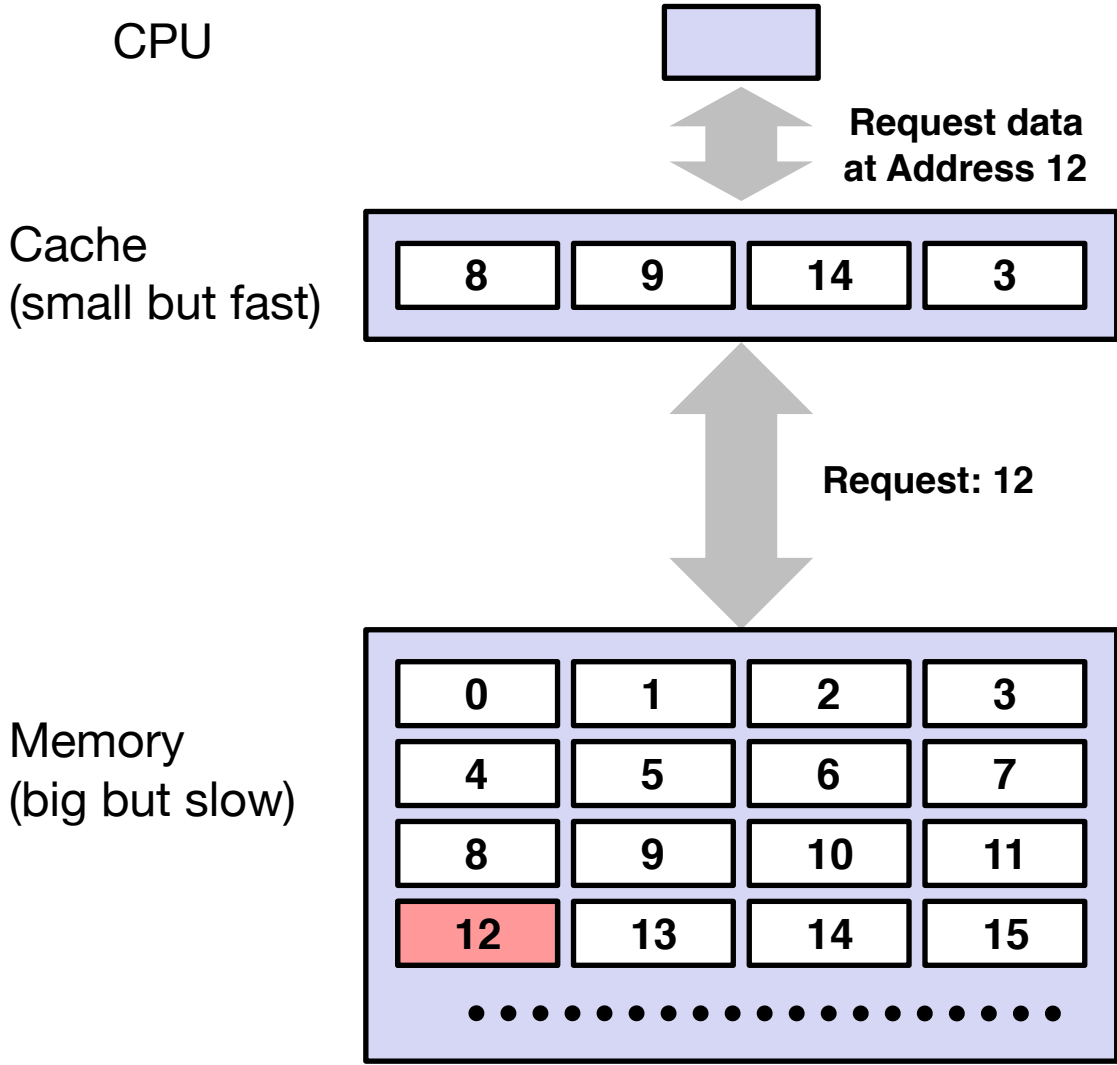


*Data in address b is needed*

*Address b is not in cache: **Miss!***

*Address b is fetched from memory*

# Cache Illustrations

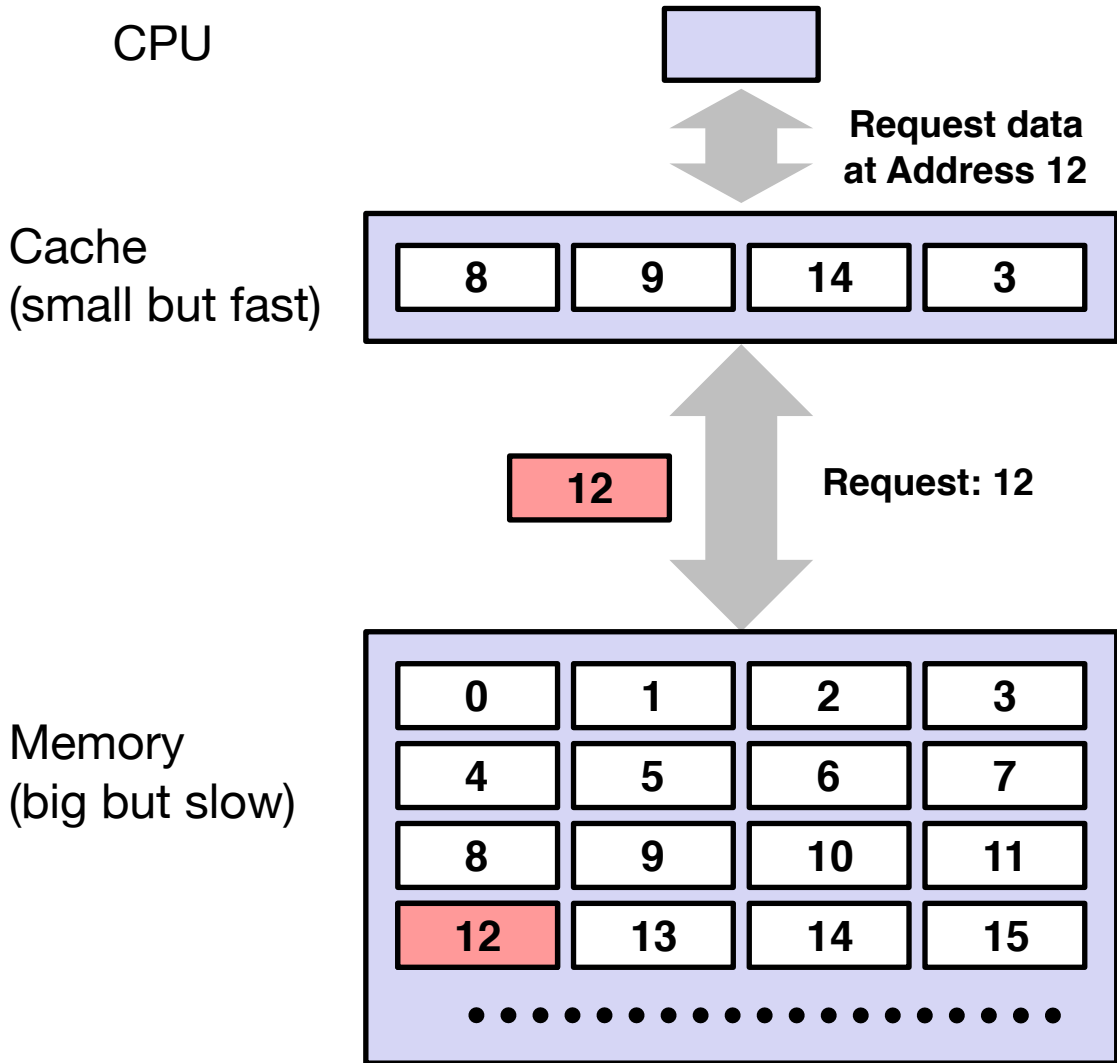


*Data in address b is needed*

*Address b is not in cache: **Miss!***

*Address b is fetched from memory*

# Cache Illustrations



*Data in address b is needed*

*Address b is not in cache: **Miss!***

*Address b is fetched from memory*

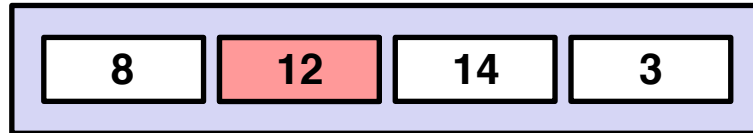
# Cache Illustrations

CPU



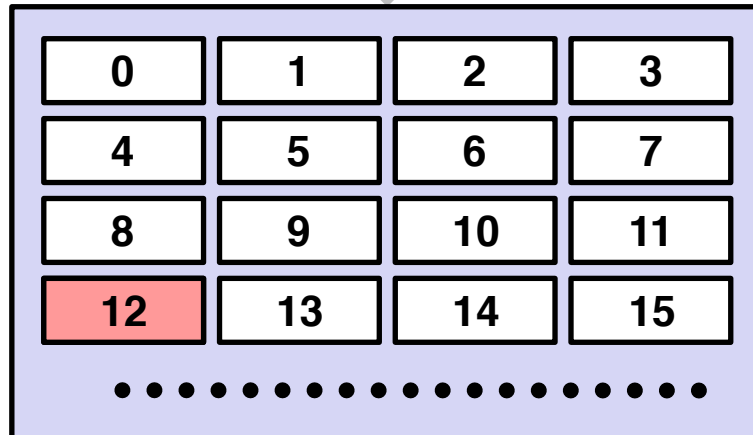
Request data  
at Address 12

Cache  
(small but fast)



Request: 12

Memory  
(big but slow)



*Data in address  $b$  is needed*

*Address  $b$  is not in  
cache: **Miss!***

*Address  $b$  is fetched from  
memory*

*Address  $b$  is stored in cache*

# Cache Hit Rate

- Cache hit is when you find the data in the cache
- Hit rate indicates the effectiveness of the cache

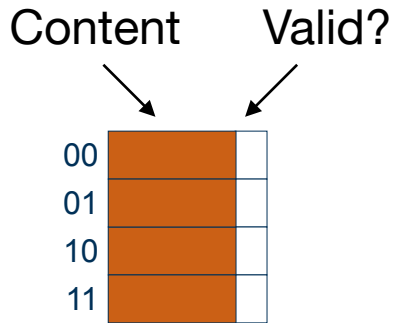
$$\text{Hit Rate} = \frac{\# \text{ Hits}}{\# \text{ Accesses}}$$

# Two Fundamental Issues in Cache Management

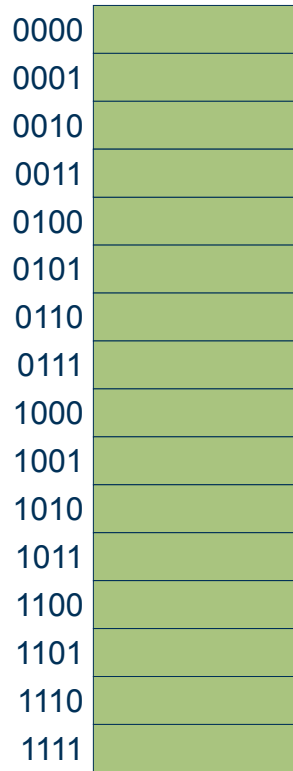
- Finding the data in the cache
  - Given an address, how do we decide whether it's in the cache or not?
- Kicking data out of the cache
  - Cache is smaller than memory, so when there's no place left in the cache, we need to kick something out before we can put new data into it, but who to kick out?

# A Simple Cache

Cache



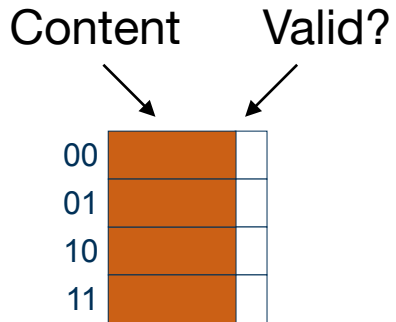
Memory



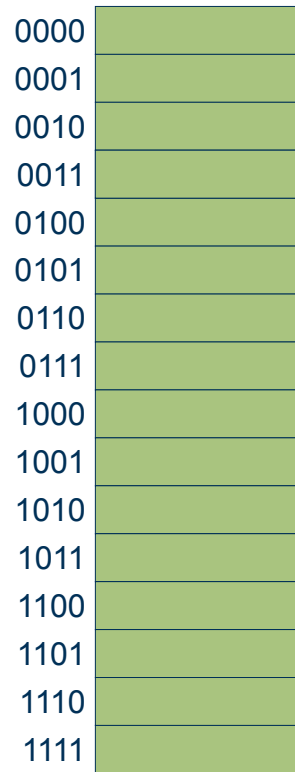
- 16 memory locations
- 4 cache locations

# A Simple Cache

Cache



Memory

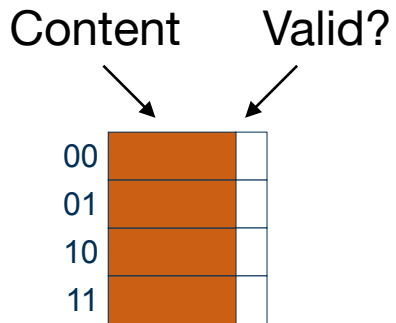


- 16 memory locations
- 4 cache locations
  - Also called **cache-line**

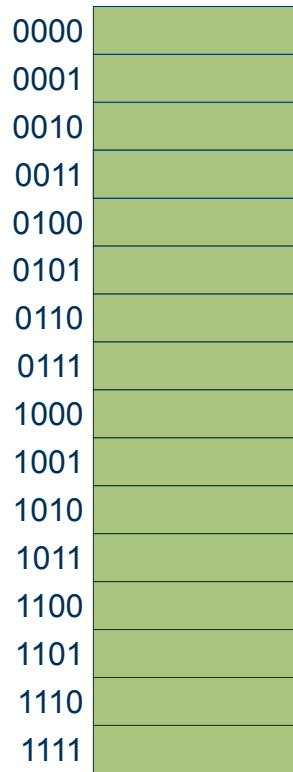


# A Simple Cache

Cache



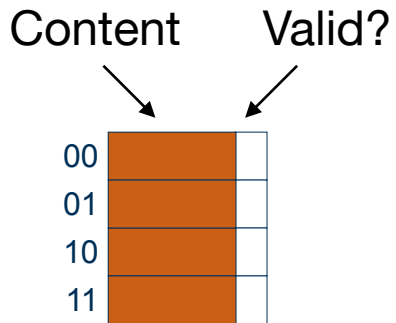
Memory



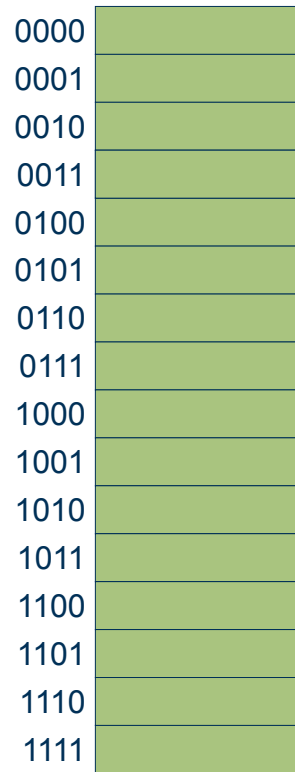
- 16 memory locations
- 4 cache locations
  - Also called **cache-line**
  - Every location has a valid bit, indicating whether that location contains valid data; 0 initially.

# A Simple Cache

Cache



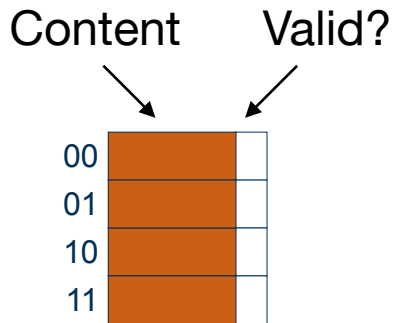
Memory



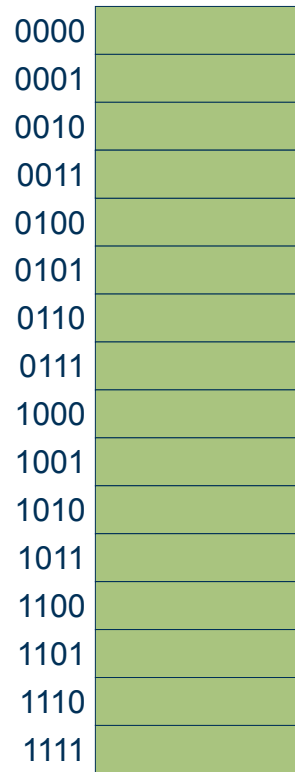
- 16 memory locations
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  - Also called **cache-line**
  - Every location has a valid bit, indicating whether that location contains valid data; 0 initially.
- For now, assume cache location size == memory location size == 1 B

# A Simple Cache

Cache



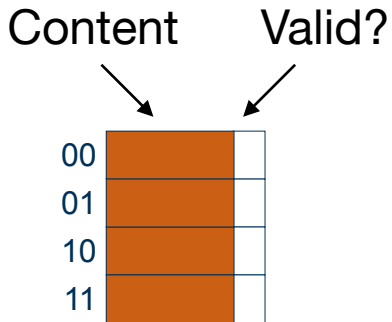
Memory



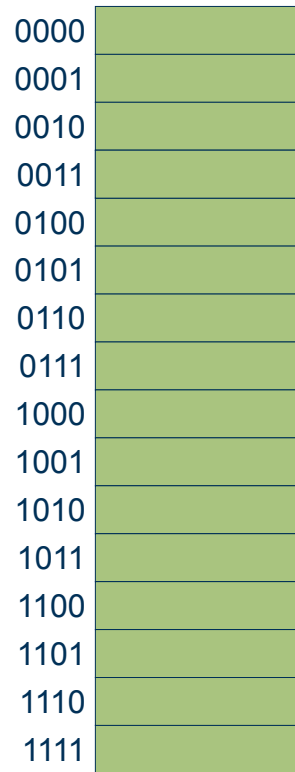
- 16 memory locations
- 4 cache locations
  - Also called **cache-line**
  - Every location has a valid bit, indicating whether that location contains valid data; 0 initially.
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- Assume each memory location can only reside in one cache-line

# A Simple Cache

Cache



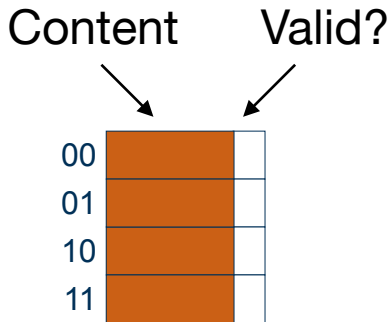
Memory



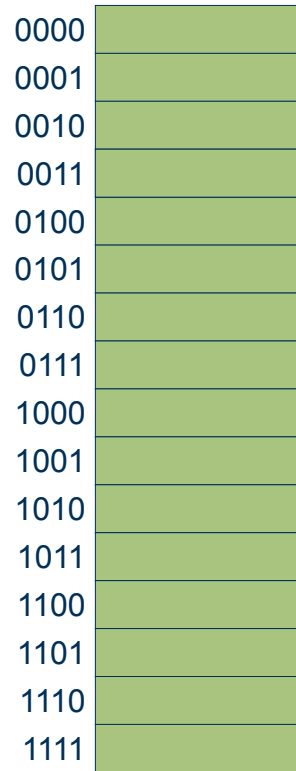
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- 4 cache locations
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- Assume each memory location can only reside in one cache-line
- Cache is smaller than memory (obviously)

# A Simple Cache

Cache



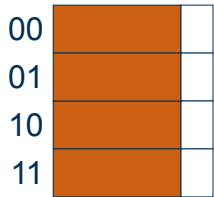
Memory



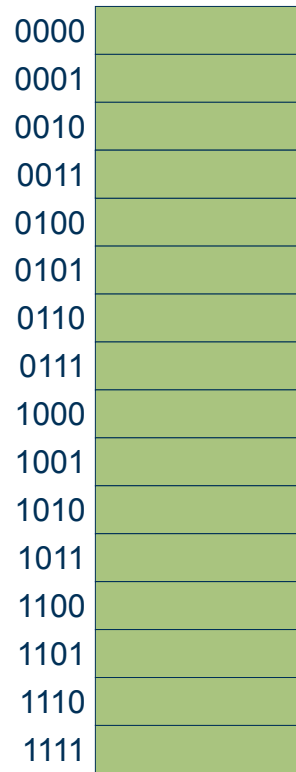
- 16 memory locations
- 4 cache locations
  - Also called **cache-line**
  - Every location has a valid bit, indicating whether that location contains valid data; 0 initially.
- For now, assume cache location size == memory location size == 1 B
- Assume each memory location can only reside in one cache-line
- Cache is smaller than memory (obviously)
  - Thus, not all memory locations can be cached at the same time

# Cache Placement

Cache



Memory



- Given a memory addr, say 0x0001, we want to put the data there into the cache; where does the data go?
- How about pick an arbitrary location in cache?
- If so, how do we later find it?