Introduction to Computer Systems

15-213, fall 2009

10th Lecture, Sep. 30th

Instructors:

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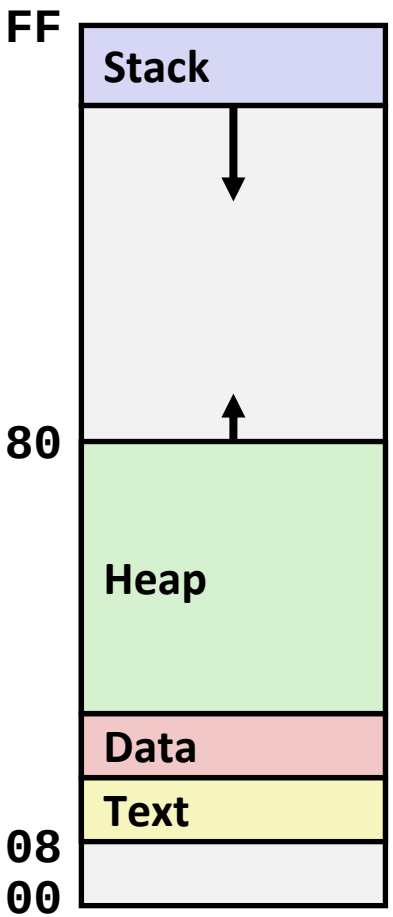
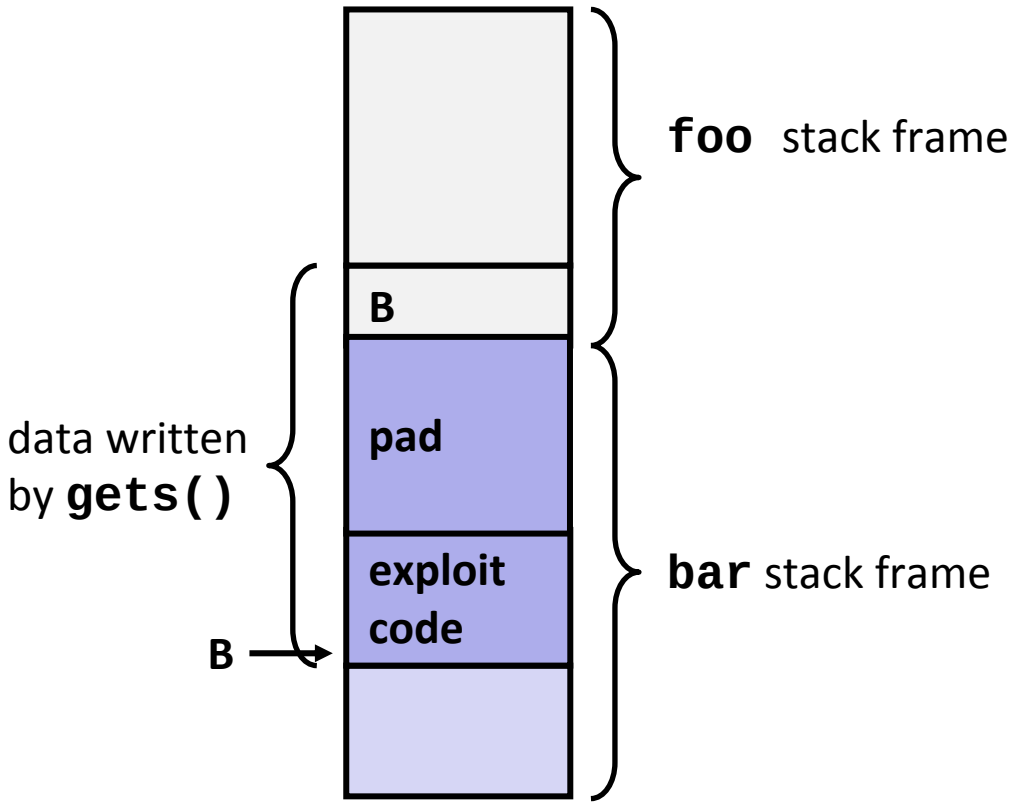
Last Time

- Memory layout



- Buffer overflow, worms, and viruses



Today

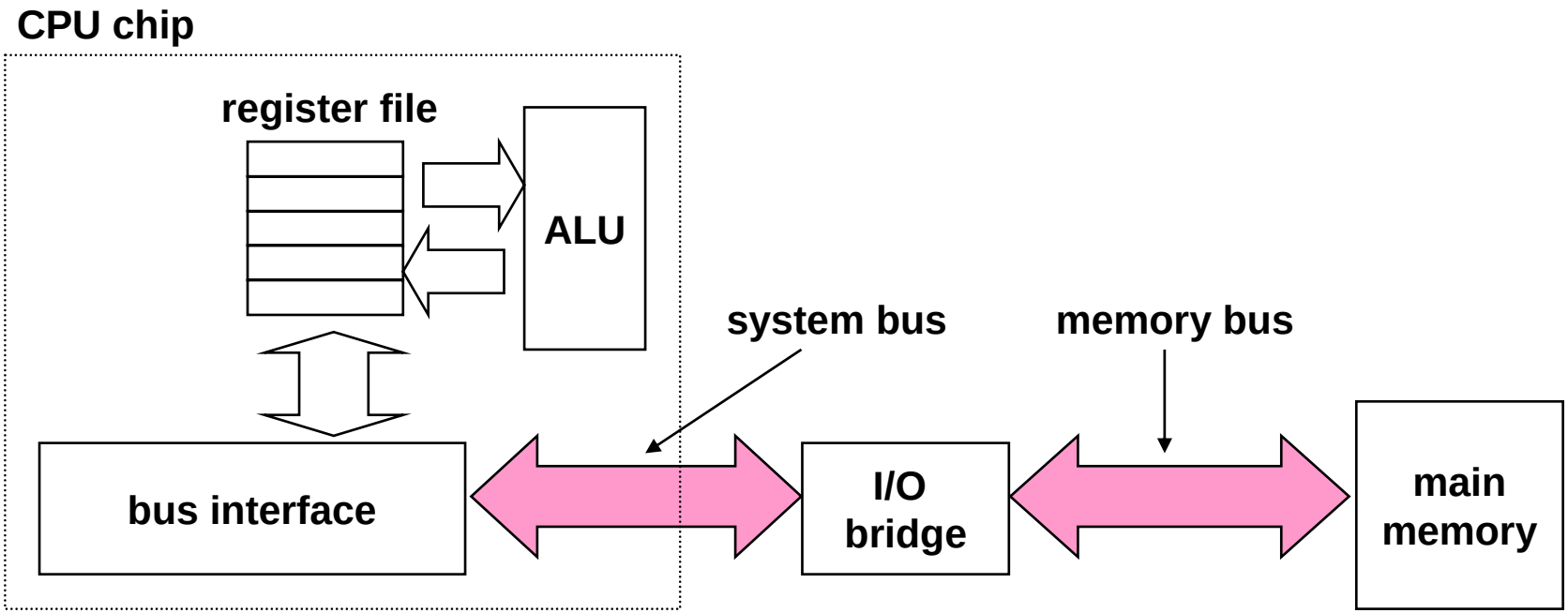
- DRAM/SRAM
- Disk Storage
- Memory hierarchy, caches, locality

SRAM vs DRAM Summary

	Tran. 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

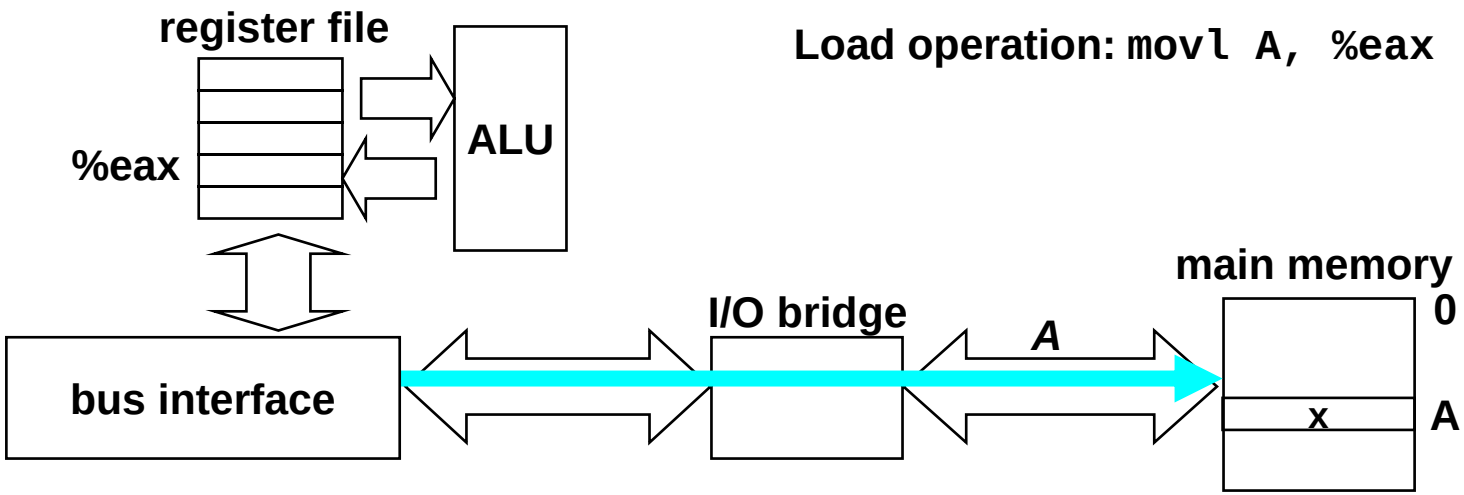
Traditional Bus Structure Connecting CPU and Memory

- A bus is a collection of parallel wires that carry address, data, and control signals.
- Buses are typically shared by multiple devices.



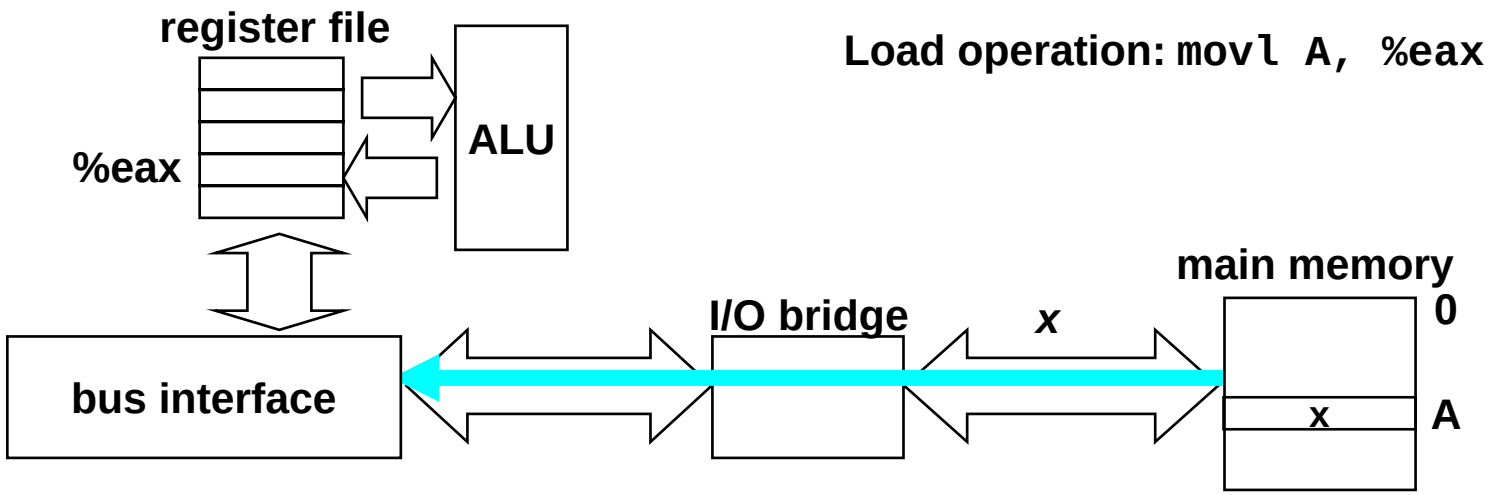
Memory Read Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on the memory bus.



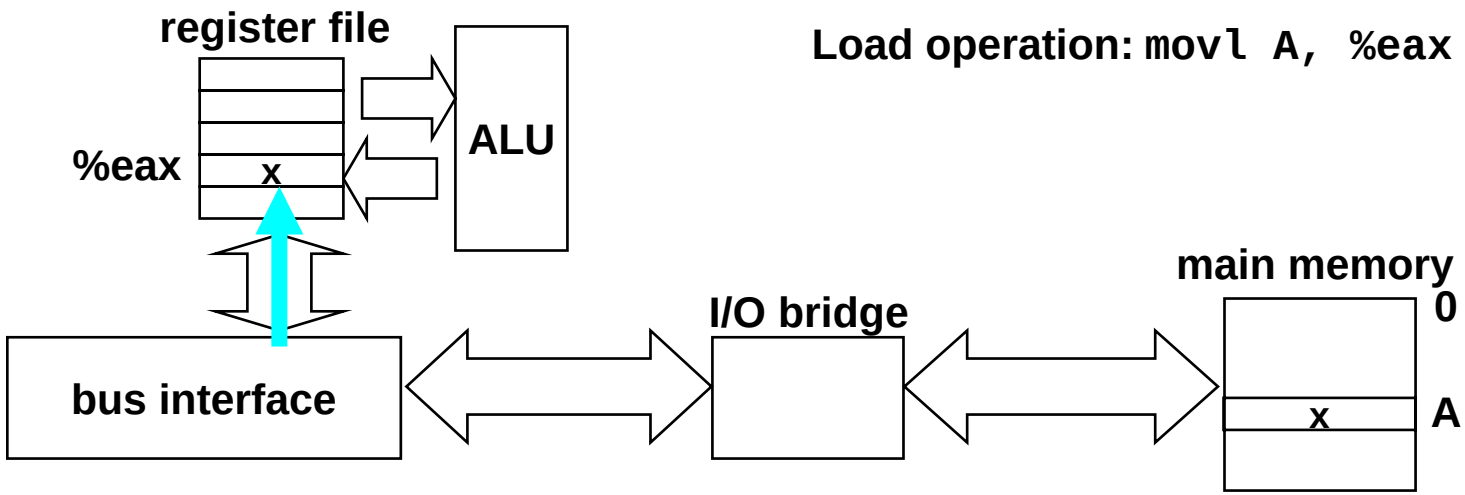
Memory Read Transaction (2)

- Main memory reads A from the memory bus, retrieves word x, and places it on the bus.



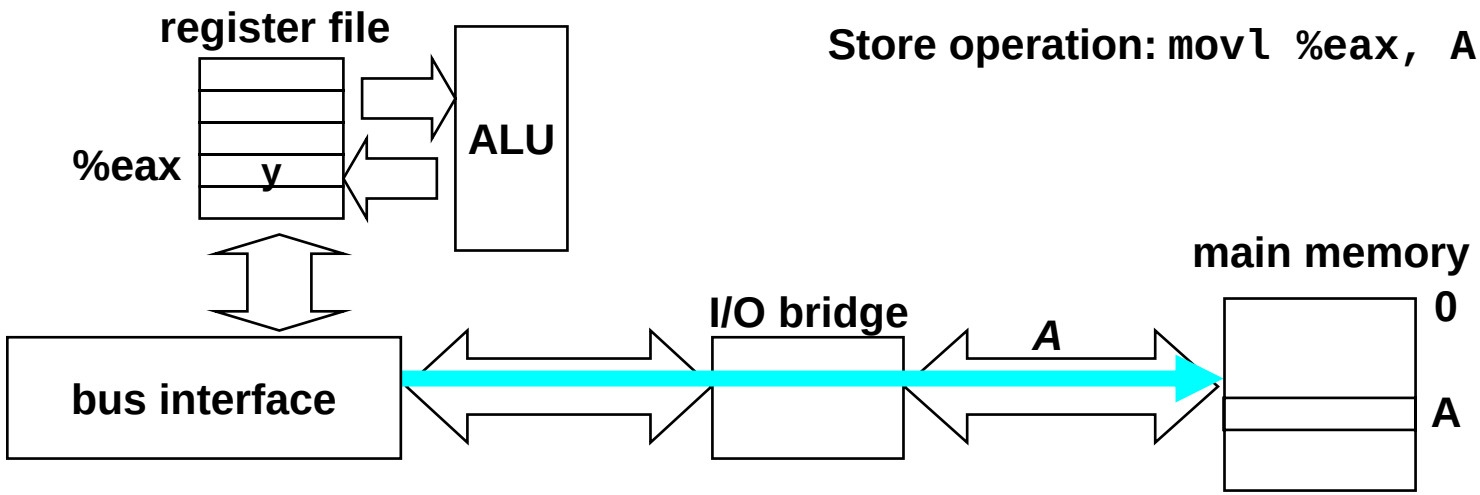
Memory Read Transaction (3)

- CPU read word x from the bus and copies it into register %eax.



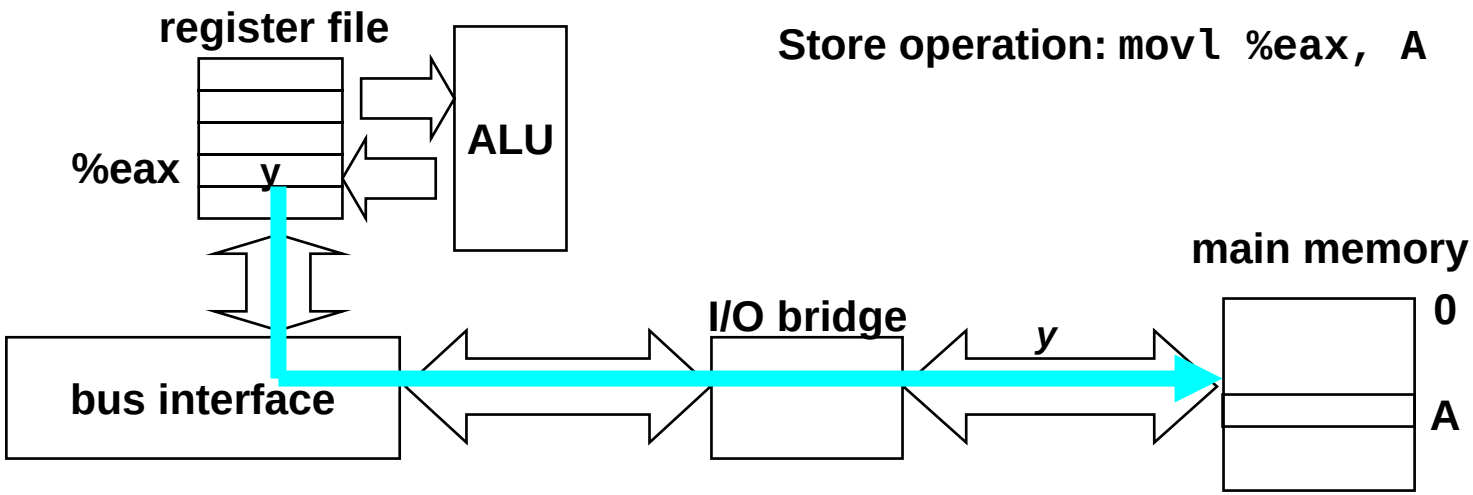
Memory Write Transaction (1)

- CPU places address A on bus. Main memory reads it and waits for the corresponding data word to arrive.



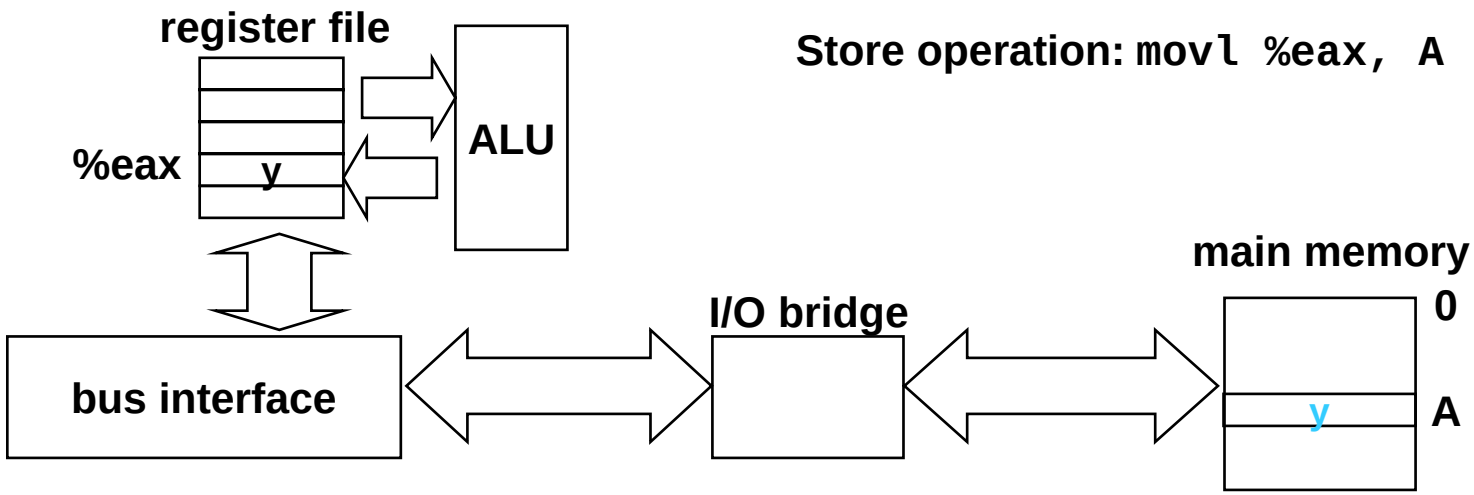
Memory Write Transaction (2)

- CPU places data word y on the bus.



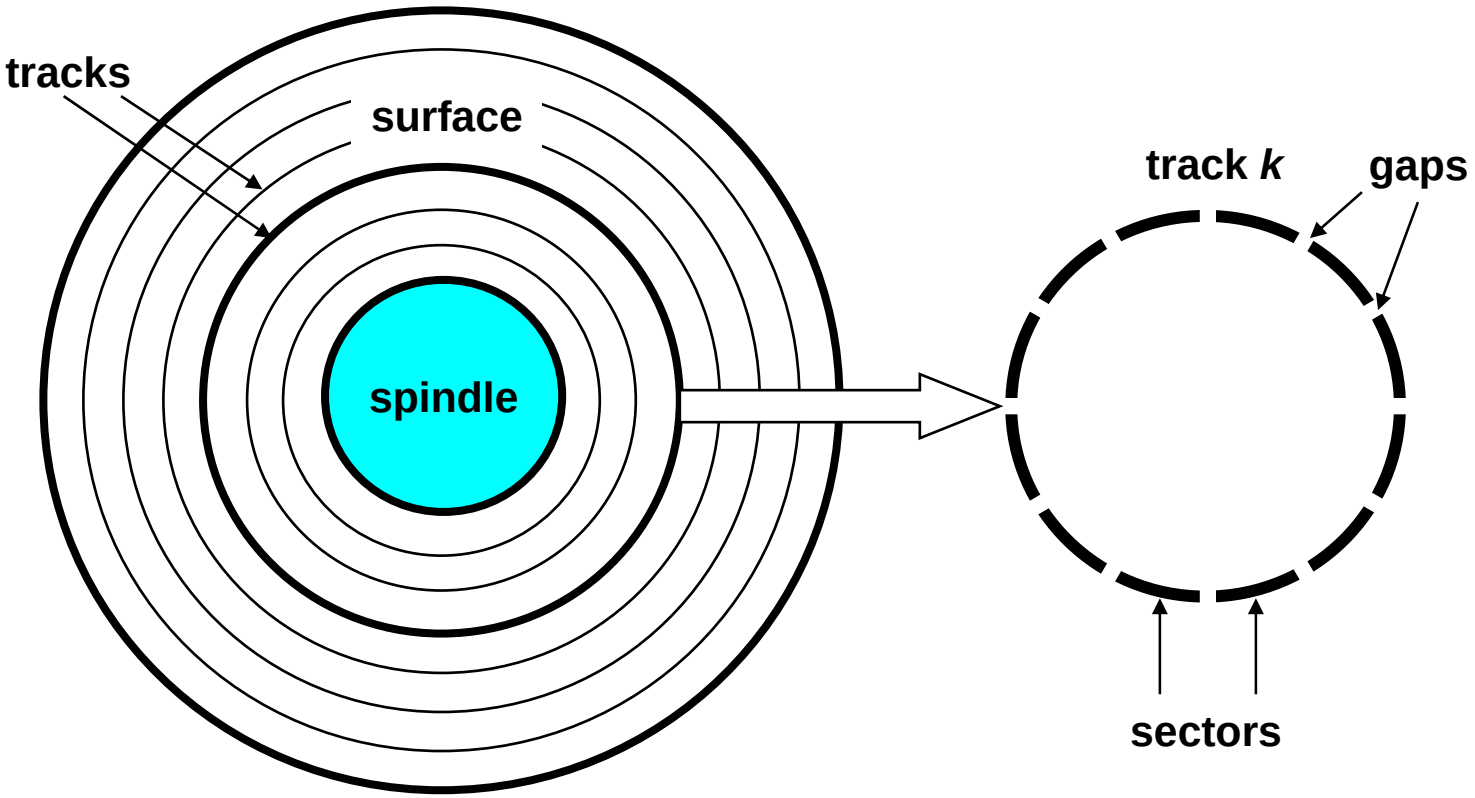
Memory Write Transaction (3)

- Main memory reads data word y from the bus and stores it at address A.



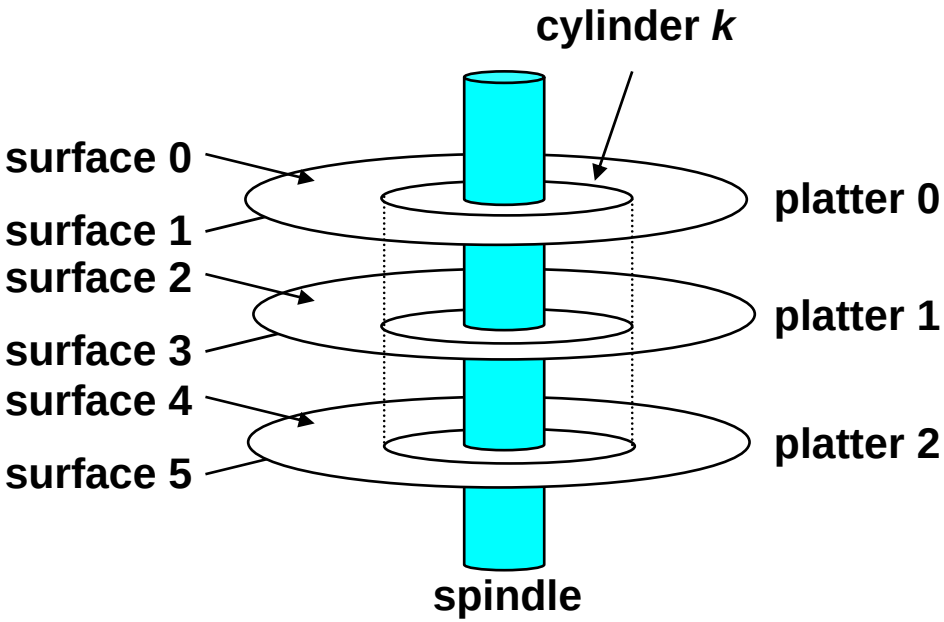
Disk Geometry

- 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 Capacity

- **Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored.**
  - Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where 1 GB = 10^9 Bytes (Lawsuit pending! Claims deceptive advertising).
- **Capacity is determined by these technology factors:**
  - Recording density (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch segment of a track.
  - Track density (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment.
  - Areal density (bits/in^2): product of recording and track density.
- **Modern disks partition tracks into disjoint subsets called recording zones**
  - Each track in a zone has the same number of sectors, determined by the circumference of innermost track.
  - Each zone has a different number of sectors/track

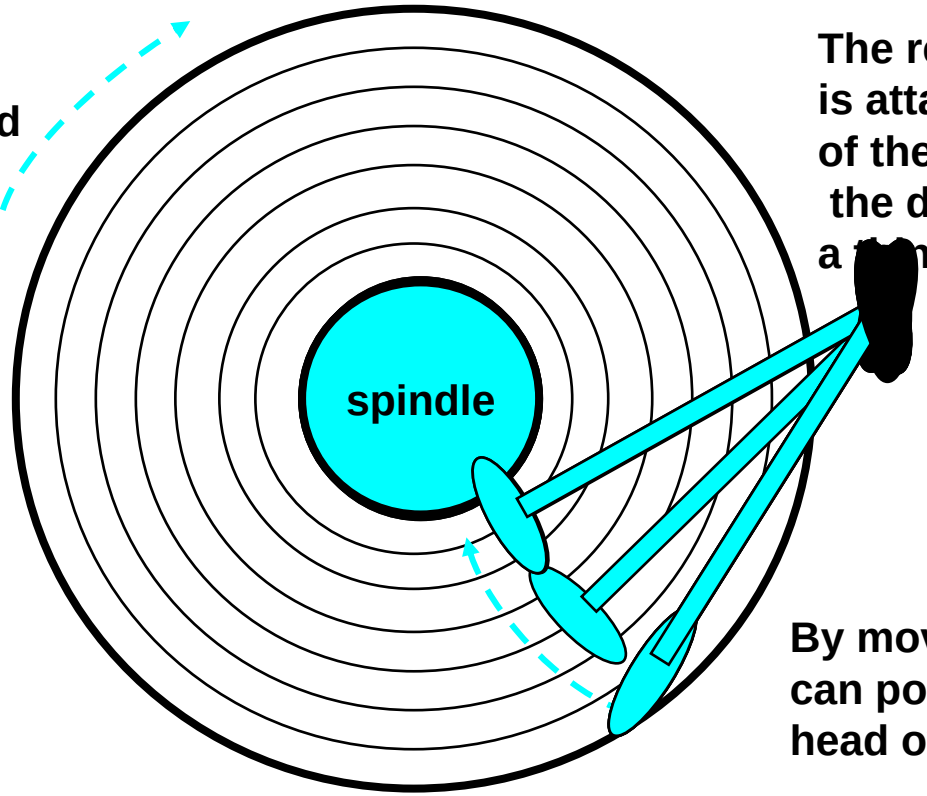
Computing Disk Capacity

- **Capacity = (# bytes/sector) x (avg. # sectors/track) x**
- **(# tracks/surface) x (# surfaces/platter) x**
- **(# platters/disk)**
- **Example:**
  - 512 bytes/sector
  - 300 sectors/track (on average)
  - 20,000 tracks/surface
  - 2 surfaces/platter
  - 5 platters/disk

- **Capacity = 512 x 300 x 20000 x 2 x 5**
- **= 30,720,000,000**
- **= 30.72 GB**

Disk Operation (Single-Platter View)

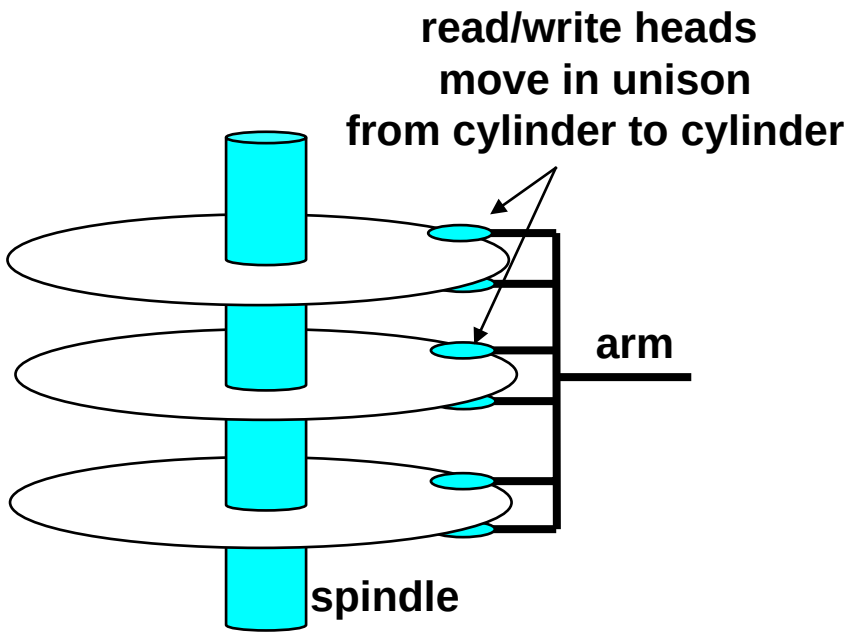
- The disk surface spins at a fixed rotational rate



The read/write *head* is attached to the end of the *arm* and flies over the disk surface on a thin cushion of air.

By moving radially, the arm can position the read/write head over any track.

Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



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 = 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
- **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.

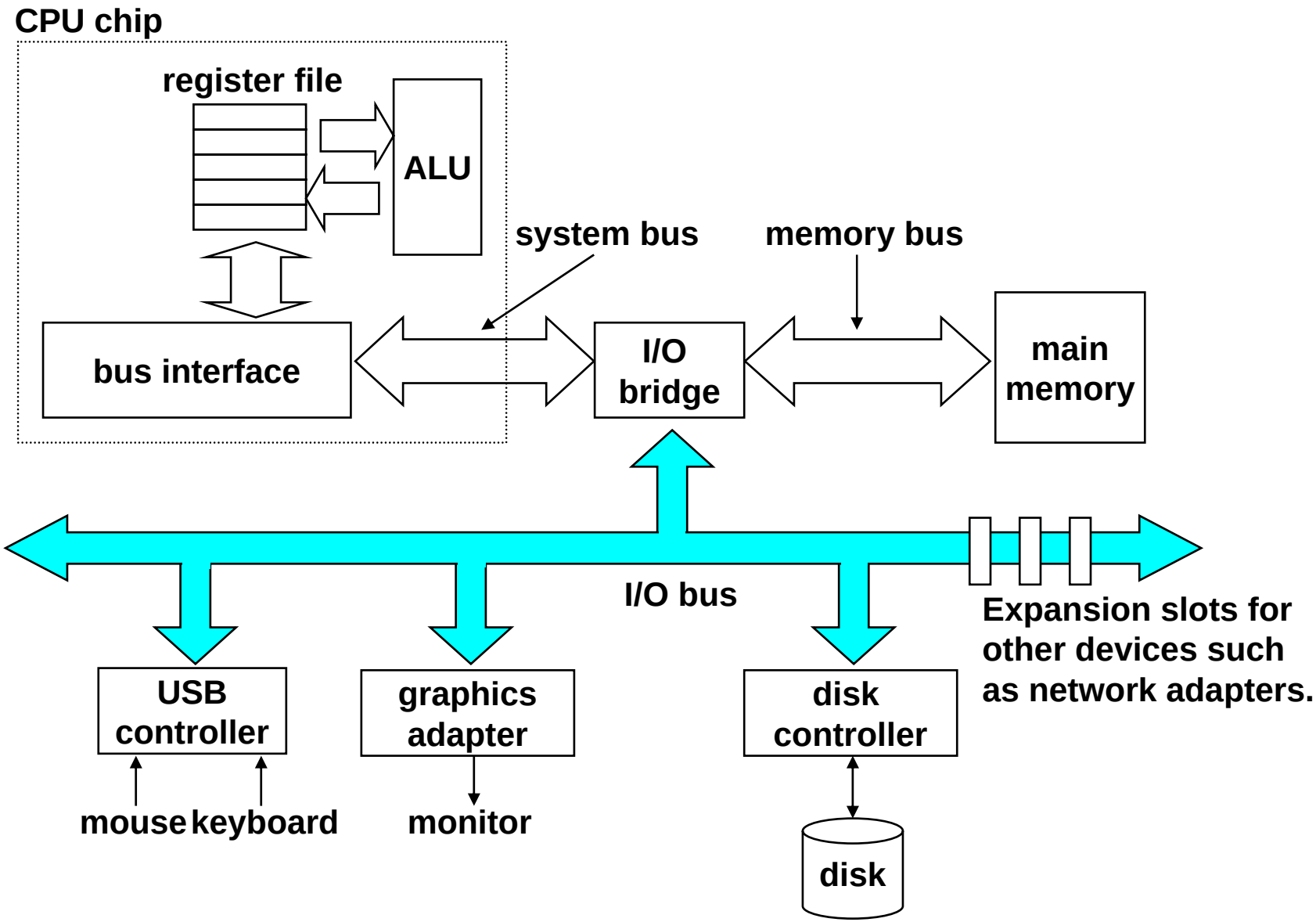
Disk Access Time Example

- **Given:**
  - Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
  - Average seek time = 9 ms.
  - Avg # sectors/track = 400.
- **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.

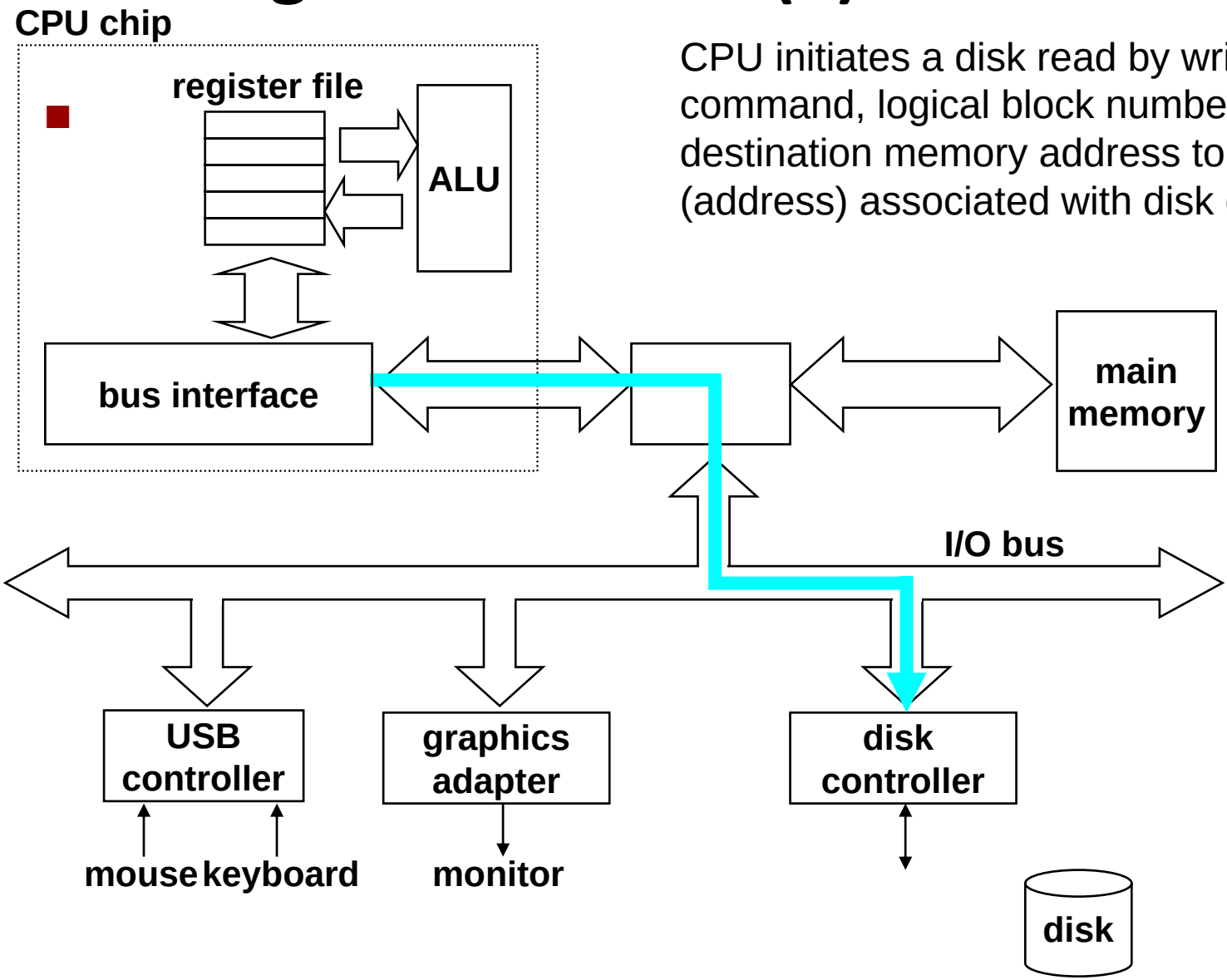
Logical Disk Blocks

- **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


CPU chip
register file
ALU
system bus
memory bus
bus interface
I/O bridge
main memory
I/O bus
Expansion slots for other devices such as network adapters.
USB controller
graphics adapter
disk controller
mouse
keyboard
monitor
disk

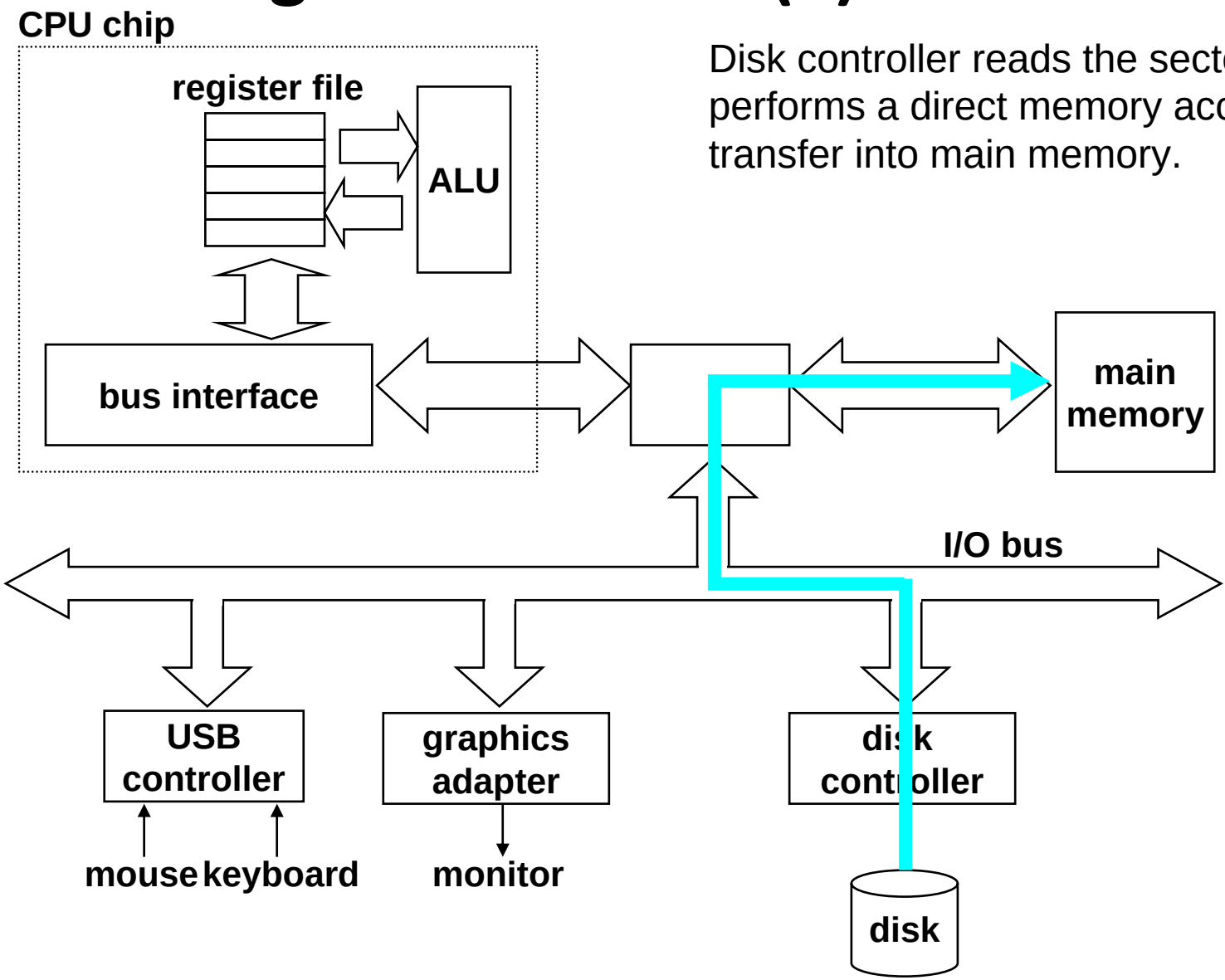
Reading a Disk Sector (1)



CPU initiates a disk read by writing a command, logical block number, and destination memory address to a port (address) associated with disk controller.

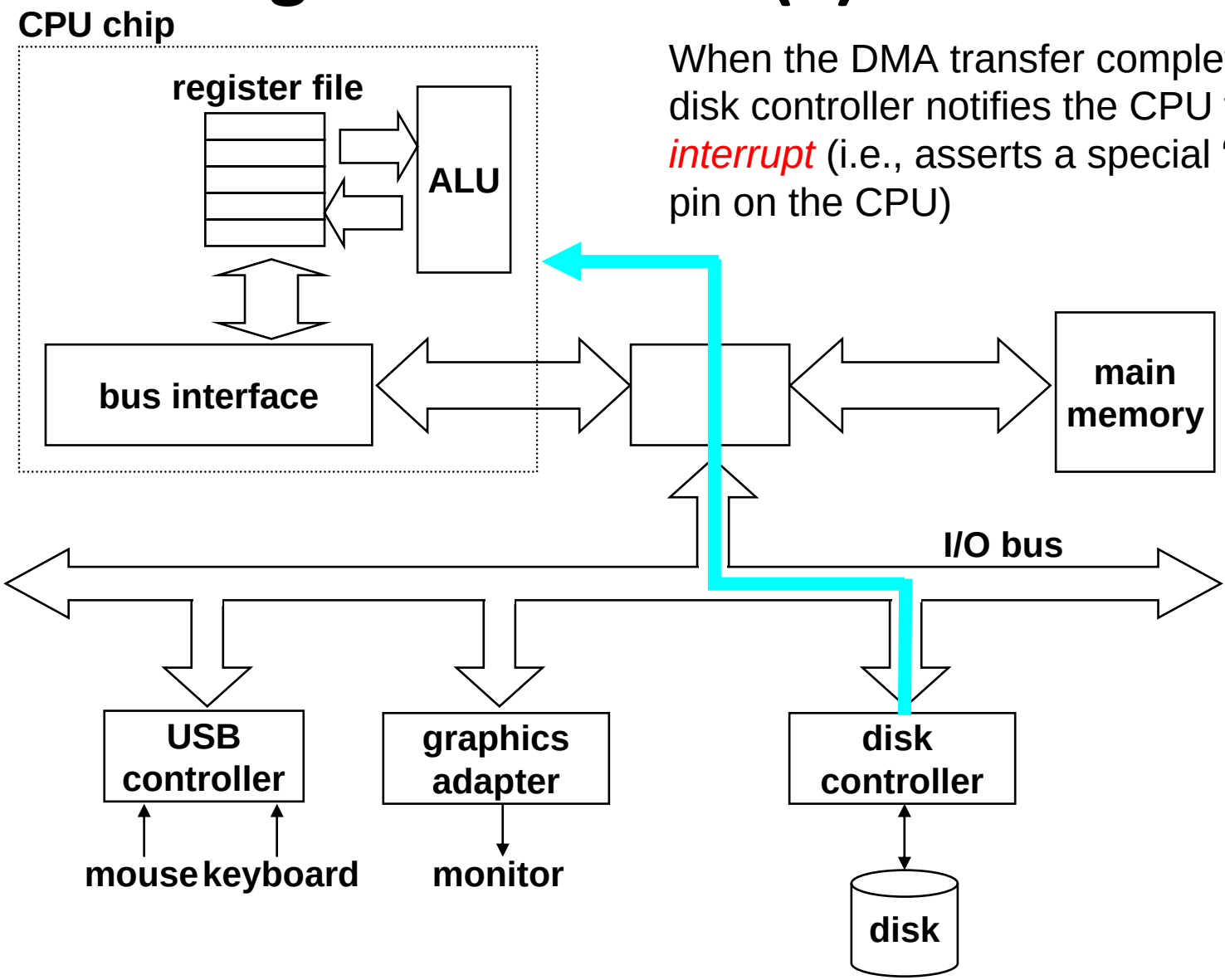
Reading a Disk Sector (2)

Disk controller reads the sector and performs a direct memory access (DMA) transfer into main memory.



Reading a Disk Sector (3)

When the DMA transfer completes, the disk controller notifies the CPU with an *interrupt* (i.e., asserts a special "interrupt" pin on the CPU)



Storage Trends

SRAM

metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	*2005:1980*
$/MB	19,200	2,900	320	256	100	75	*256*
access (ns)	300	150	35	15	12	10	*30*

DRAM

metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	*2005:1980*
$/MB	8,000	880	100	30	1	0.20	*40,000*
access (ns)	375	200	100	70	60	50	*8*
typical size(MB)	0.064	0.256	4	16	64	1,000	*15,000*

Disk

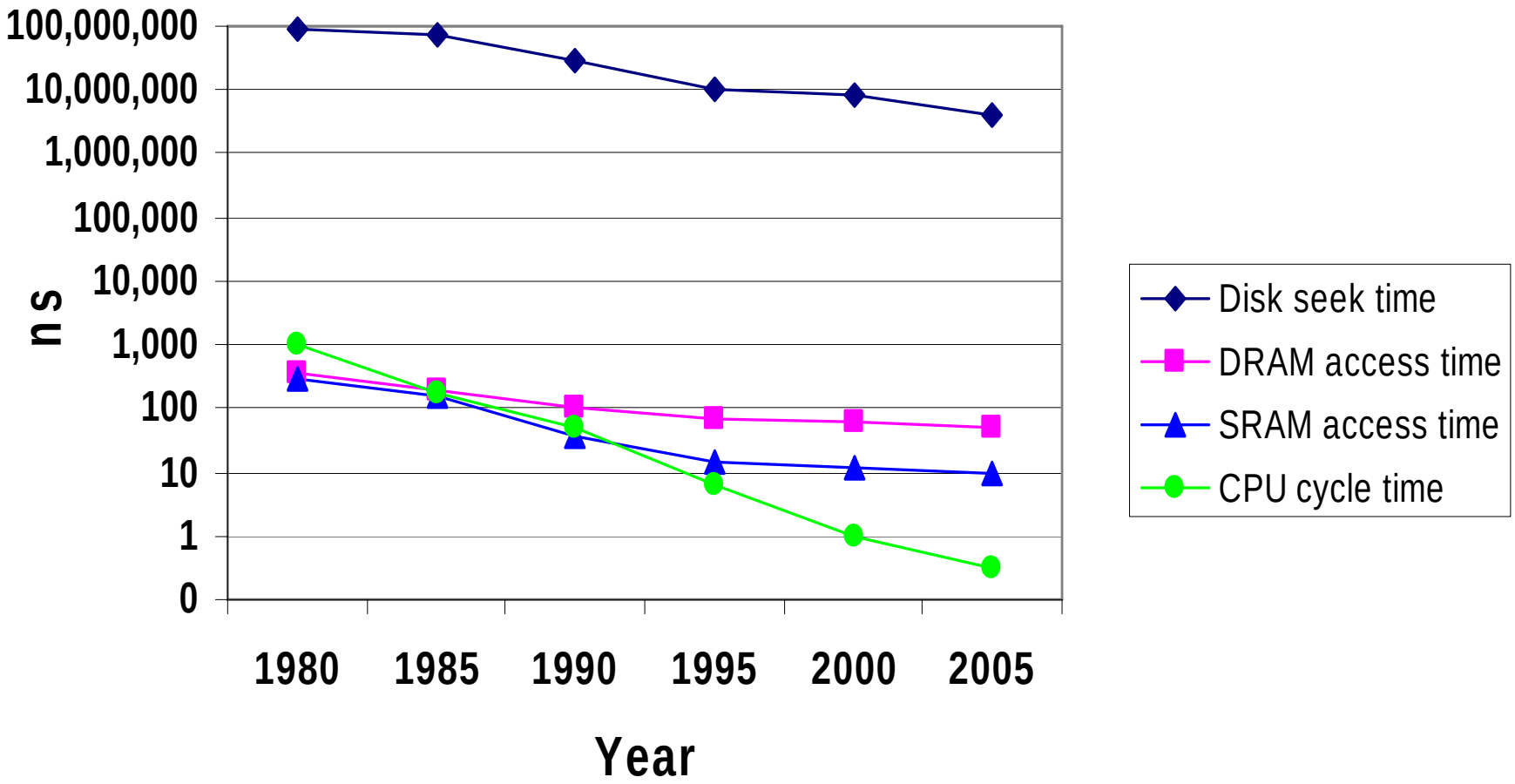
metric	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	*2005:1980*
$/MB	500	100	8	0.30	0.05	0.001	*10,000*
access (ms)	87	75	28	10	8	*4*	*22*
typical size(MB)	1	10	160	1,000	9,000	400,000	*400,000*

CPU Clock Rates

	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	*2005:1980*
processor	8080	286	386	Pentium	P-III	P-4	
clock rate(MHz)	1	6	20	150	750	3,000	3,000
cycle time(ns)	1,000	166	50	6	1.3	0.3	3,333

The CPU-Memory Gap

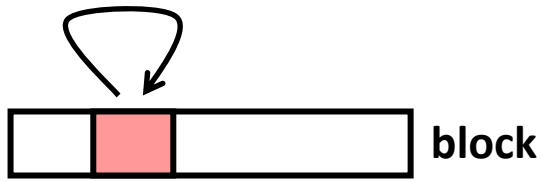
The gap widens between DRAM, disk, and CPU speeds.



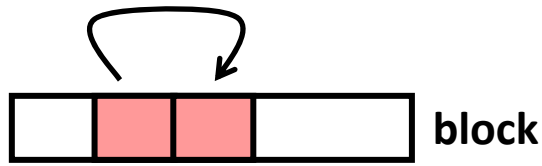
How do programs access data?

- **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



Example: Locality?

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

- **Data:**
  - Temporal: **`sum`** referenced in each iteration
  - Spatial: array **`a[]`** accessed in stride-1 pattern
- **Instructions:**
  - Temporal: cycle through loop repeatedly
  - Spatial: reference instructions in sequence

- **Being able to assess the locality of code is a crucial skill for a programmer**

Locality Example #1

```
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;
}
```

Locality Example #2

```
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;
}
```

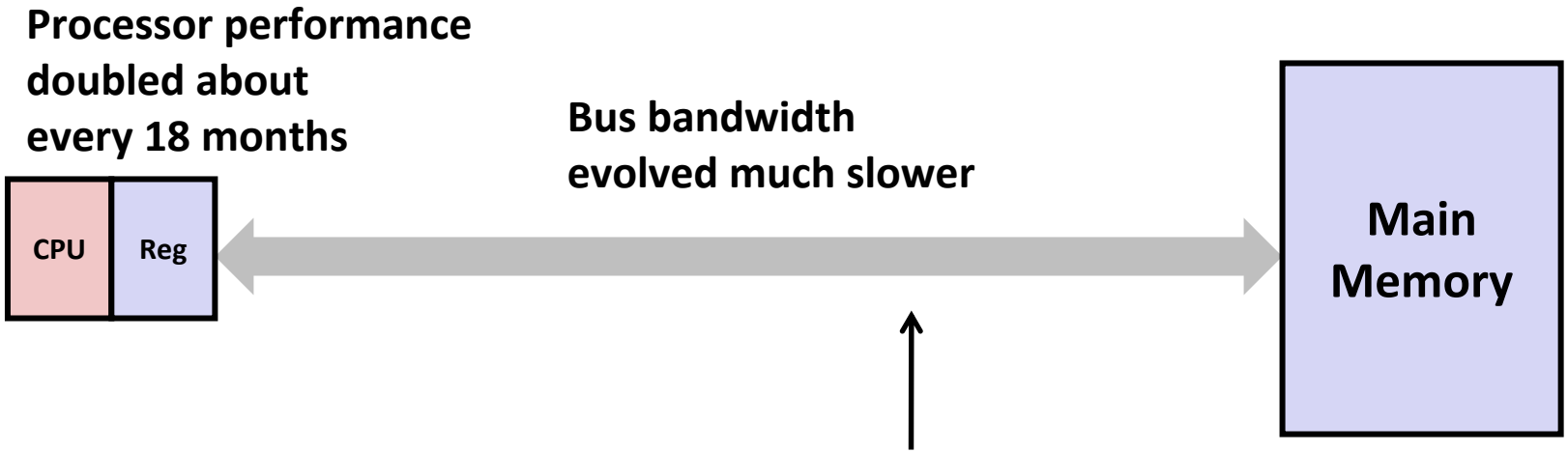
Locality Example #3

```
int sum_array_3d(int a[M][N][N])
{
    int i, j, k, sum = 0;

    for (i = 0; i < M; i++)
        for (j = 0; j < N; j++)
            for (k = 0; k < N; k++)
                sum += a[k][i][j];
    return sum;
}
```

- How can it be fixed?

Problem: Processor-Memory Bottleneck



Core 2 Duo:
Can process at least
256 Bytes/cycle
(1 SSE two operand add and mult)

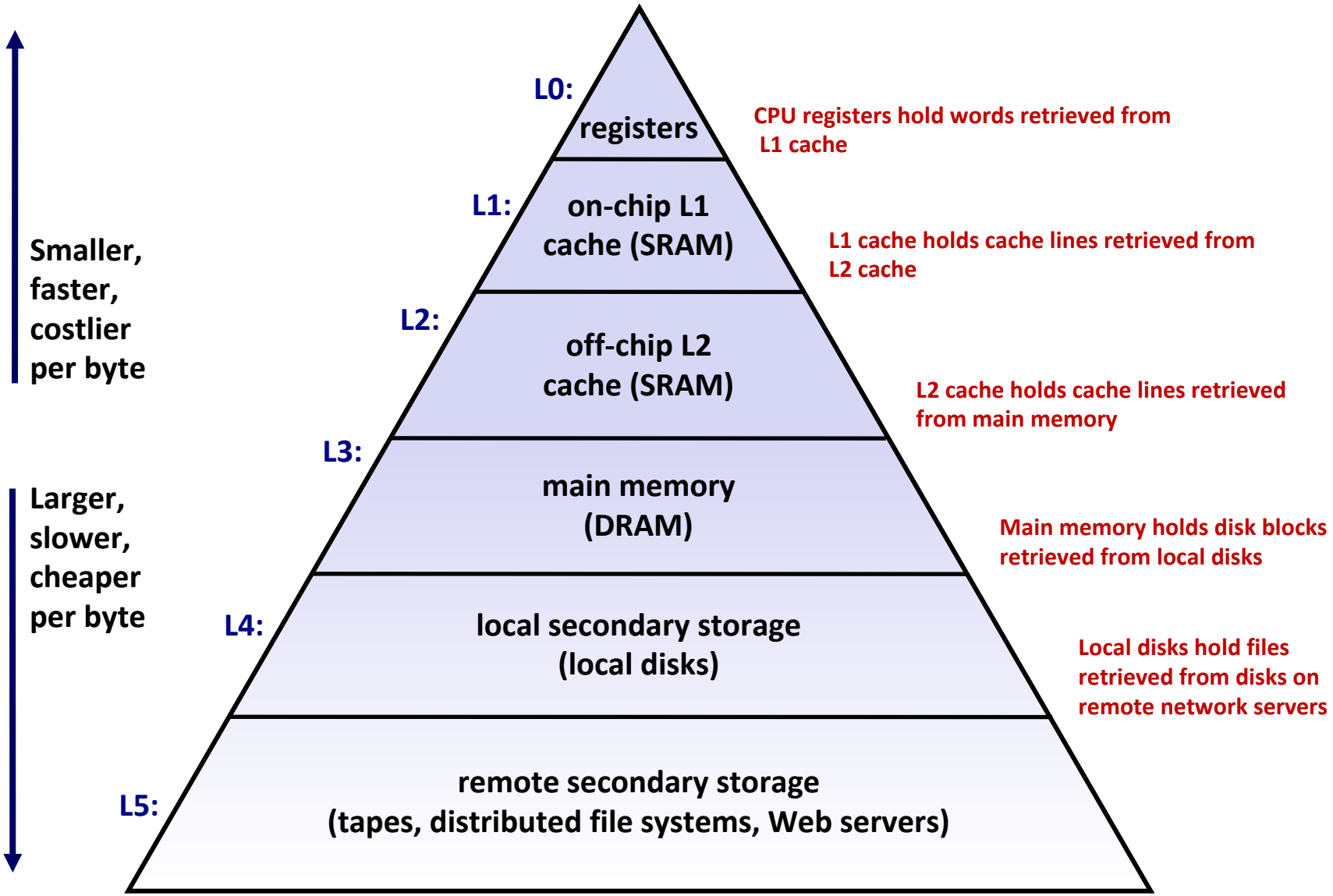
Core 2 Duo:
Bandwidth
2 Bytes/cycle
Latency
100 cycles

Solution: Caches

Memory Hierarchies

- **Some fundamental and enduring properties of hardware and software systems:**
  - Faster storage technologies almost always cost more per byte and have lower capacity
  - The gaps between memory technology speeds are widening
    - True of registers ↔ DRAM, DRAM ↔ disk, etc.
  - Well-written programs tend to exhibit good locality
- **These properties complement each other beautifully**
- **They suggest an approach for organizing memory and storage systems known as a memory hierarchy**

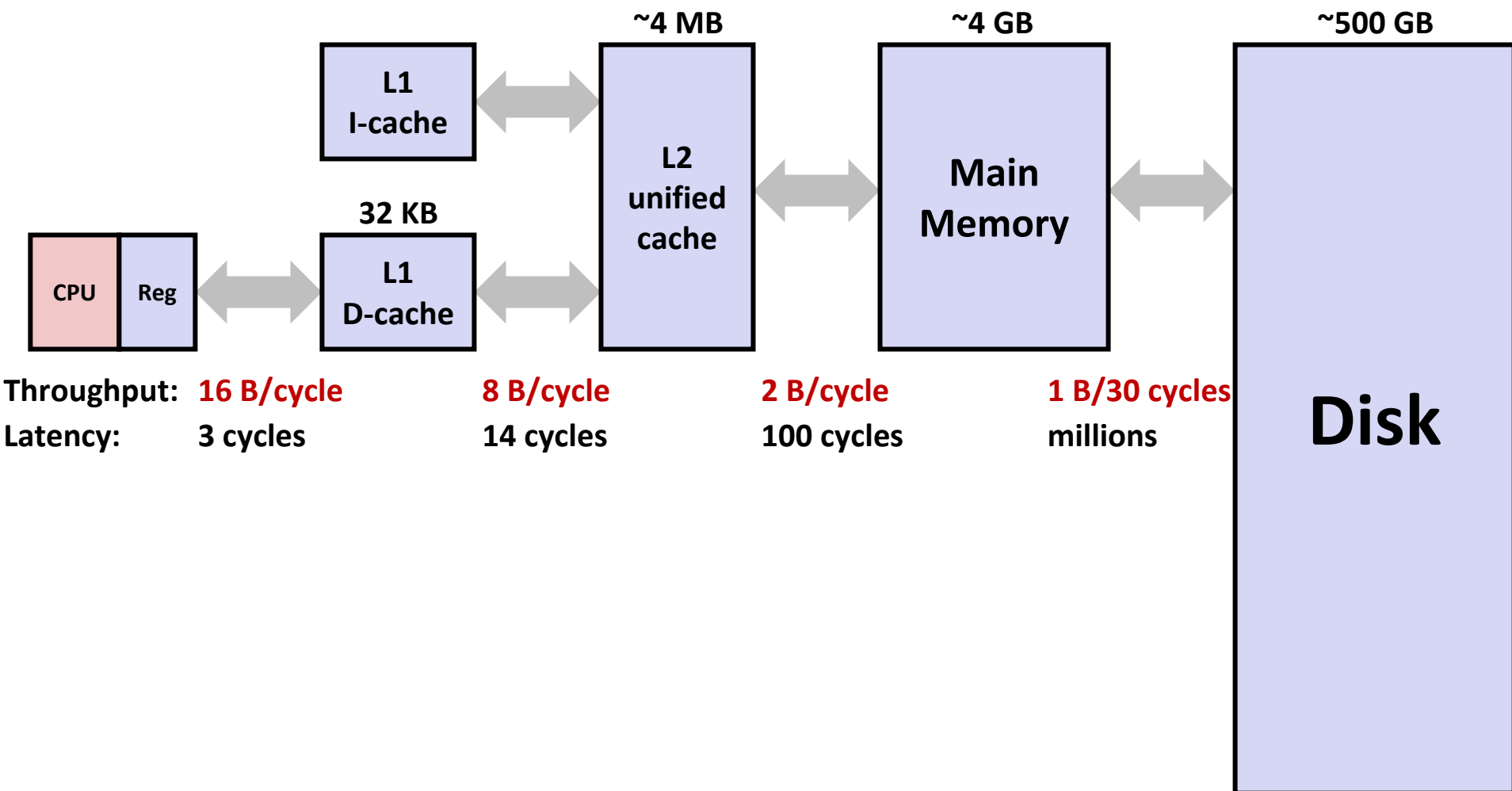
An Example Memory Hierarchy



Memory Hierarchy: Core 2 Duo

Not drawn to scale

L1/L2 cache: 64 B blocks



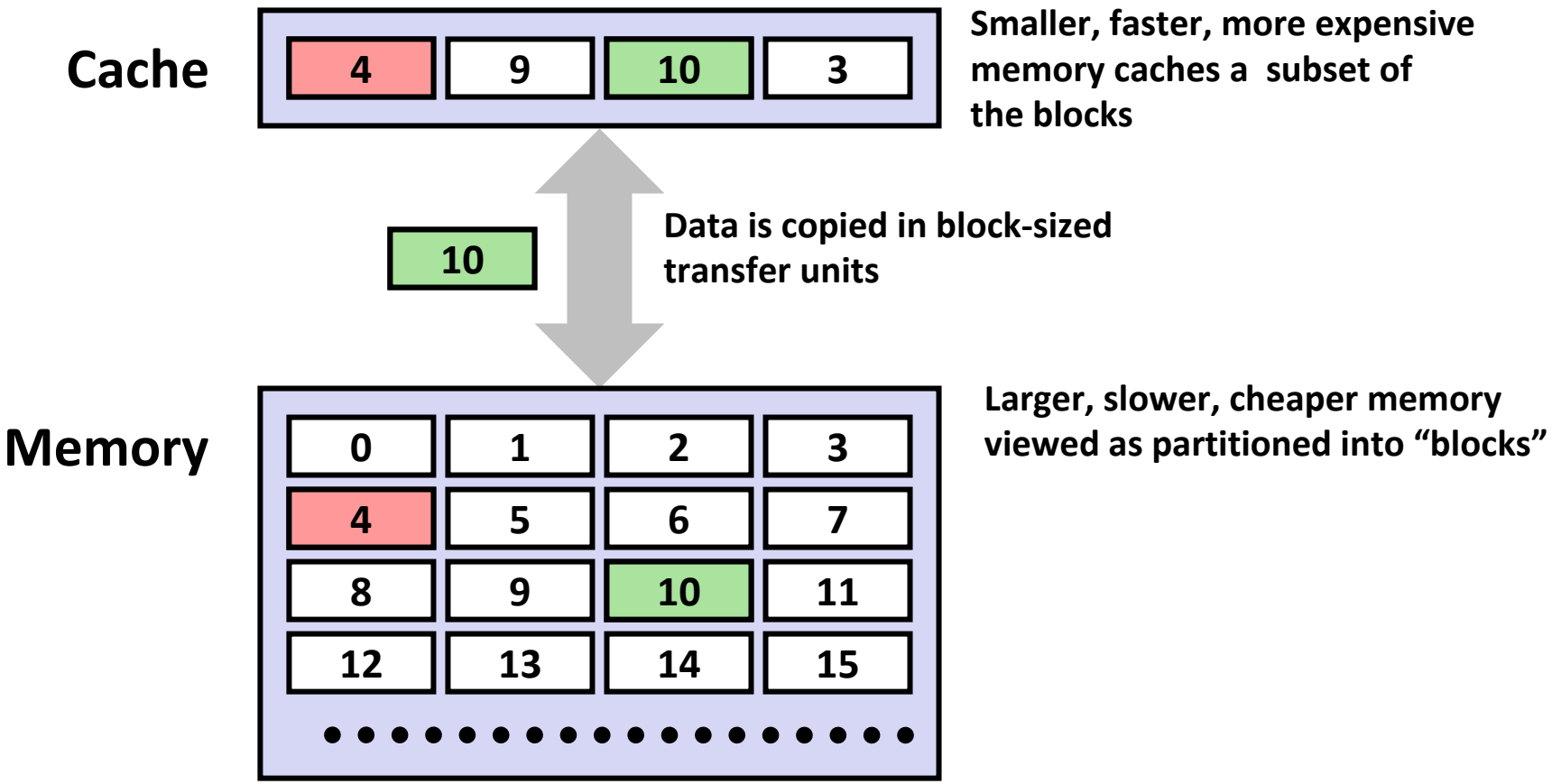
Examples of Caching in the Hierarchy

Cache Type	What is Cached?	Where is it Cached?	Latency (cycles)	Managed By
Registers	4-byte 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	Off-Chip L2	10	Hardware
Virtual Memory	4-KB page	Main memory	100	Hardware+OS
Buffer cache	Parts of files	Main memory	100	OS
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

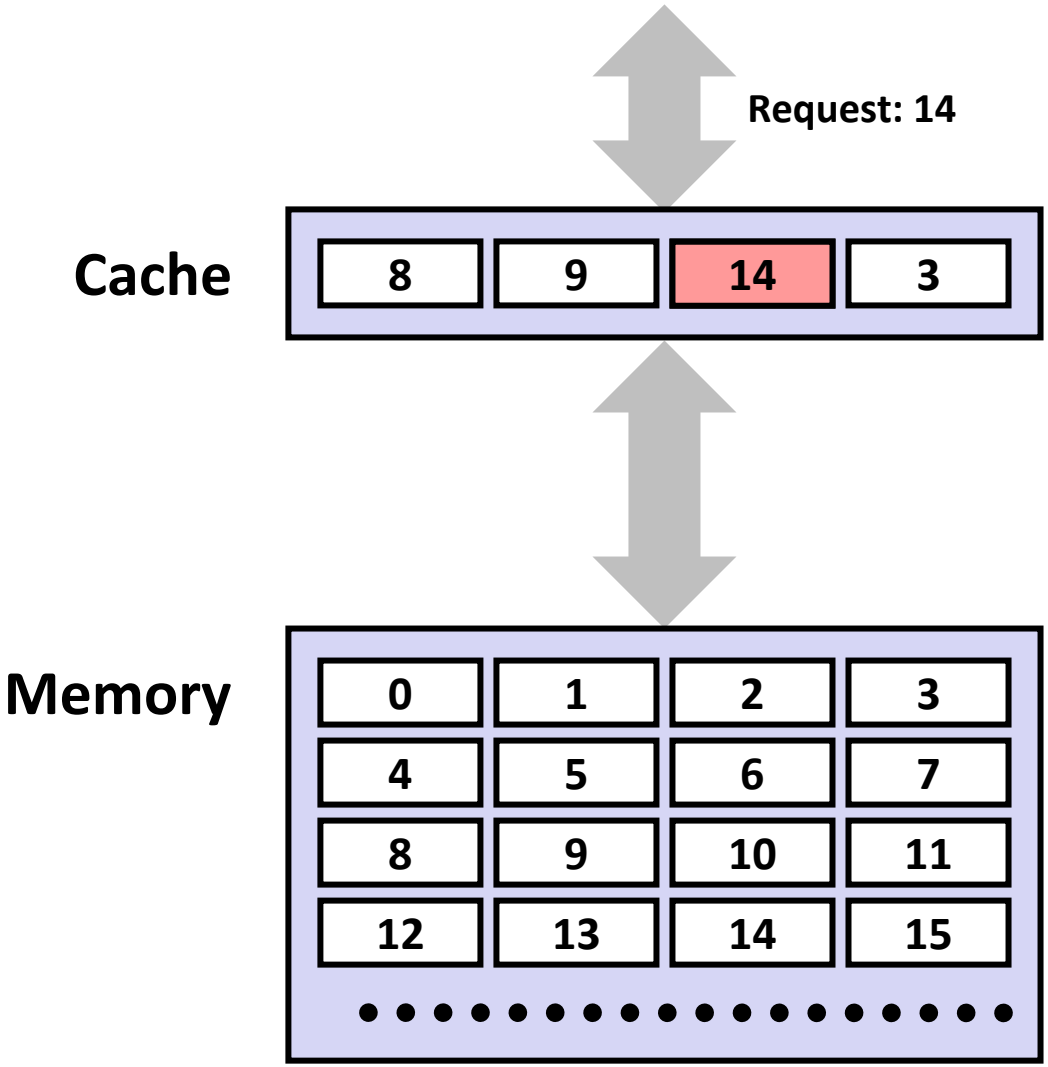
Cache

- **Definition:** Computer memory with short access time used for the storage of frequently or recently used instructions or data

General Cache Mechanics



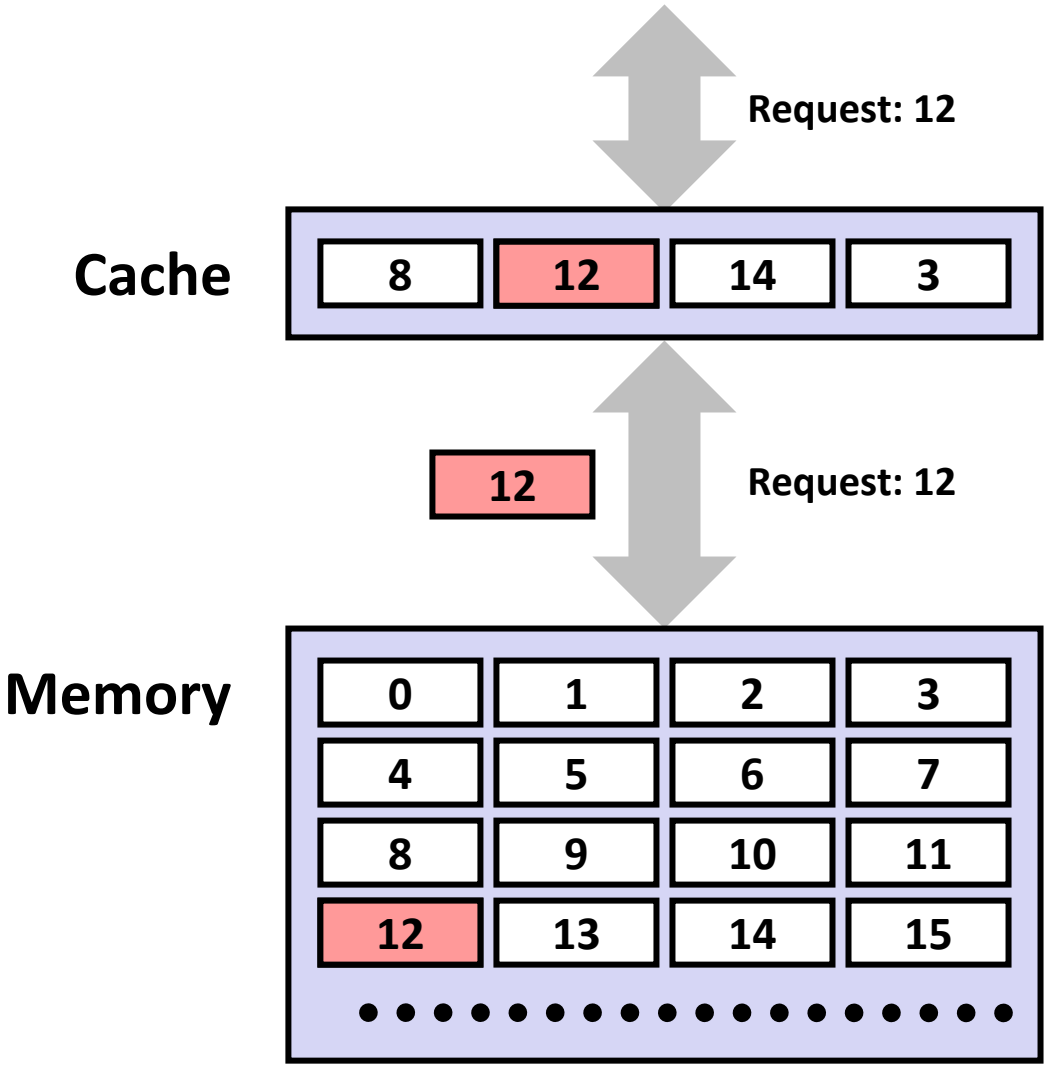
General Cache Concepts: Hit



Data in block b is needed

Block b is in cache:
Hit!

General Cache Concepts: Miss



Data in block b is needed

Block b is not in cache:
Miss!

Block b is fetched from memory

Block b is stored in cache
- Placement policy: determines where b goes
- Replacement policy: determines which block gets evicted (victim)

Cache Performance Metrics

- **Miss Rate**
  - Fraction of memory references not found in cache (misses / accesses) = 1 – hit rate
  - Typical numbers (in percentages):
    - 3-10% for L1
    - can be quite small (e.g., < 1%) for L2, depending on size, etc.
- **Hit Time**
  - Time to deliver a line in the cache to the processor
    - includes time to determine whether the line is in the cache
  - Typical numbers:
    - 1-2 clock cycle for L1
    - 5-20 clock cycles for L2
- **Miss Penalty**
  - Additional time required because of a miss
    - typically 50-200 cycles for main memory (Trend: increasing!)

Lets think about those numbers

- **Huge difference between a hit and a miss**
  - Could be 100x, if just L1 and main memory

- **Would you believe 99% hits is twice as good as 97%?**
  - Consider:
    cache hit time of 1 cycle
    miss penalty of 100 cycles

  - Average access time:
    97% hits: 1 cycle + 0.03 * 100 cycles = **4 cycles**
    99% hits: 1 cycle + 0.01 * 100 cycles = **2 cycles**

- **This is why "miss rate" is used instead of "hit rate"**

Types of Cache Misses

- **Cold (compulsory) miss**
  - Occurs on first access to a block

- **Conflict miss**
  - Most hardware caches limit blocks to a small subset (sometimes a singleton) of the available cache slots
    - e.g., block i must be placed in slot (i mod 4)
  - Conflict misses occur when the cache is large enough, but multiple data objects all map to the same slot
    - e.g., referencing blocks 0, 8, 0, 8, ... would miss every time

- **Capacity miss**
  - Occurs when the set of active cache blocks (working set) is larger than the cache

Summary

- **The memory hierarchy is fundamental consequence of maintaining the *random access memory* abstraction and practical limits on cost and power consumption.**
- **Caching works!**
- **Programming for good *temporal* and *spatial* locality is critical for high performance.**
- **Trend: the speed gap between CPU, memory and mass storage continues to widen, thus leading towards deeper hierarchies.**
  - Consequence: maintaining locality becomes even more important.