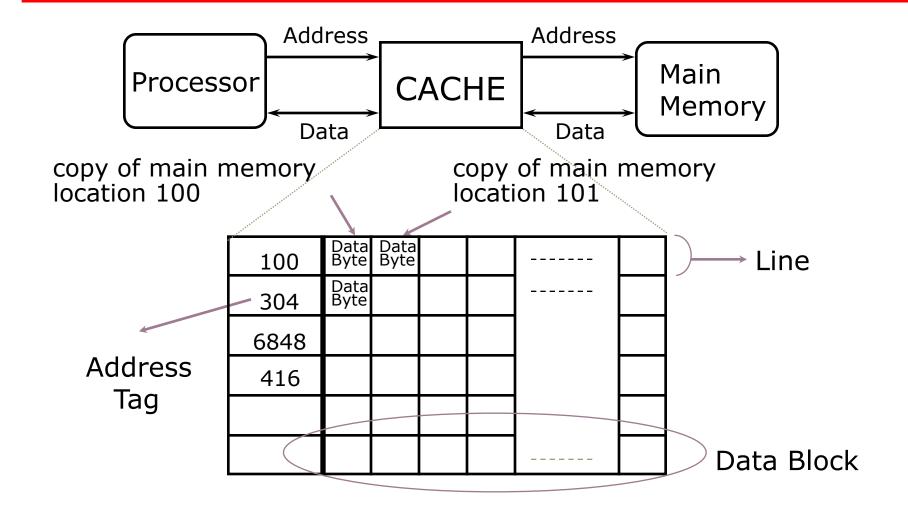
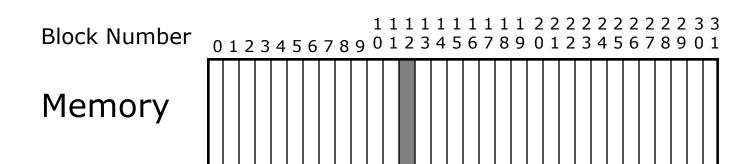
Caches (continued)

Mengjia Yan
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Recap: Inside a Cache



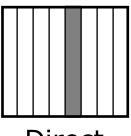
Recap: Placement Policy



Set Number

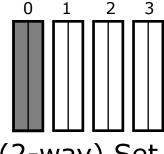
Cache

block 12 can be placed

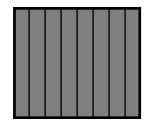


01234567

Direct Mapped only into block 4 (12 mod 8)



(2-way) Set Associative anywhere in set 0 (12 mod 4)



Fully Associative anywhere

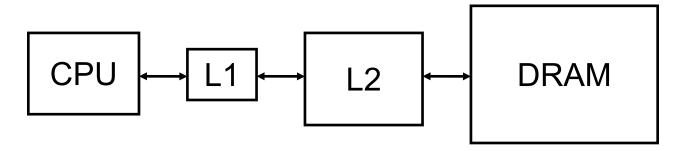
Effect of Cache Parameters on Performance

	Larger capacity cache	Higher associativity cache	Larger block size cache *
Compulsory misses			
Capacity misses			
Conflict misses			?
Hit latency			
Miss latency			1 1

^{*} Assume substantial spatial locality

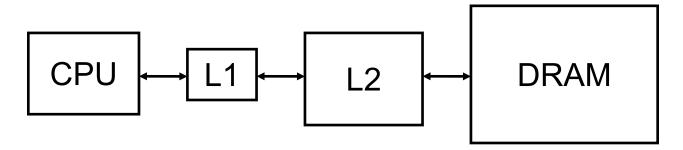
Multilevel Caches

- A memory cannot be large and fast
- Add level of cache to reduce miss penalty
 - Each level can have longer latency than level above
 - So, increase sizes of cache at each level



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Metrics:

Local miss rate = misses in cache/ accesses to cache

Global miss rate = misses in cache / CPU memory accesses

Misses per instruction (MPI) = misses in cache / number of instructions

Block-level Optimizations

- Tags are too large, i.e., too much overhead
 - Simple solution: Larger blocks, but miss penalty could be large.

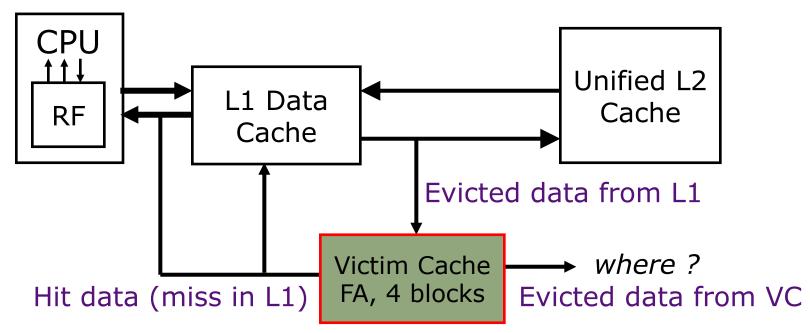
Block-level Optimizations

- Tags are too large, i.e., too much overhead
 - Simple solution: Larger blocks, but miss penalty could be large.
- Sub-block placement (aka sector cache)
 - A valid bit added to units smaller than the full block, called sub-blocks
 - Only read a sub-block on a miss
 - If a tag matches, is the sub-block in the cache?

100				
300				
204				

1	1	1	1	1	
1	1	0)	0	
0	1	()	1	

Victim Caches (HP 7200)



Victim cache is a small associative back up cache, added to a direct mapped cache, which holds recently evicted lines

- First look up in direct mapped cache
- If miss, look in victim cache
- If hit in victim cache, swap hit line with line now evicted from L1
- If miss in victim cache, L1 victim -> VC, VC victim->?

Fast hit time of direct mapped but with reduced conflict misses

-> Nowadays, more general, L4 in Intel Haswell, L3 in IBM Power5

Inclusion Policy

Inclusive multilevel cache:

- Inner cache holds copies of data in outer cache
- On miss, line inserted in inner and outer cache; replacement in outer cache invalidates line in inner cache
- External accesses need only check outer cache
- Commonly used (e.g., Intel CPUs up to Broadwell)

Non-inclusive multilevel caches:

- Inner cache may hold data not in outer cache
- Replacement in outer cache doesn't invalidate line in inner cache
- Used in Intel Skylake, ARM

Exclusive multilevel caches:

- Inner cache and outer cache hold different data
- Swap lines between inner/outer caches on miss
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Why choose one type or the other?

Which block from a set should be evicted?

Random

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Random

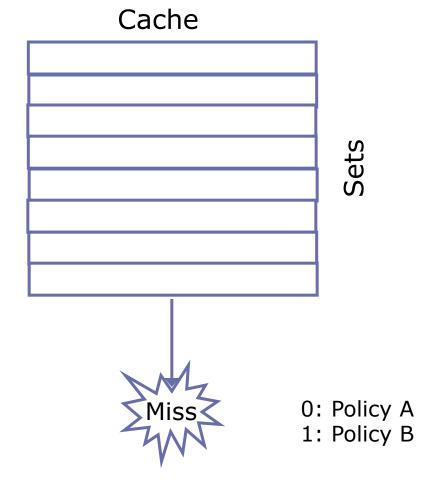
- Random
- Least Recently Used (LRU)
 - LRU cache state must be updated on every access
 - true implementation only feasible for small sets (2-way)
 - pseudo-LRU binary tree was often used for 4-8 way

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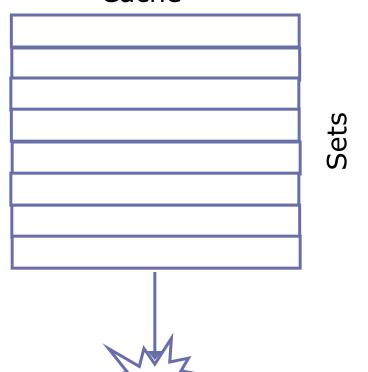
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- One-bit LRU
 - Each way represented by a bit. Set on use, replace first unused.

Use the best replacement policy for a program



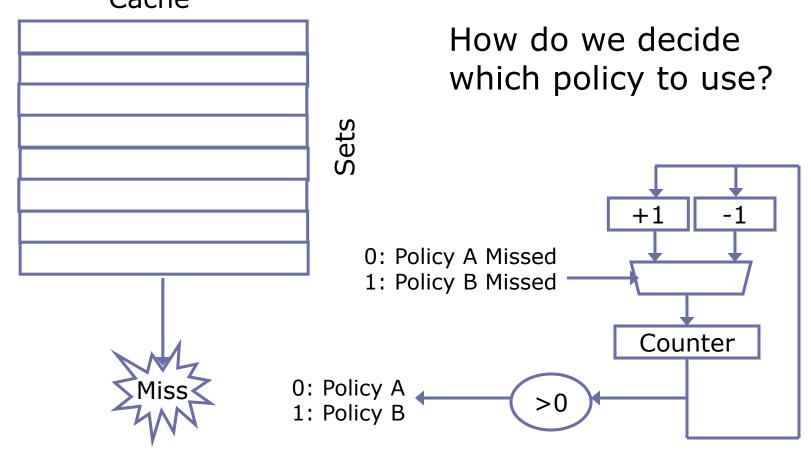
Use the best replacement policy for a program Cache



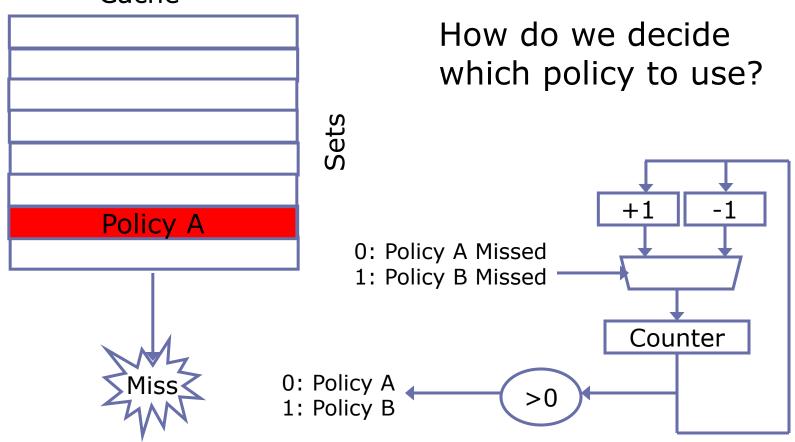
How do we decide which policy to use?

0: Policy A 1: Policy B

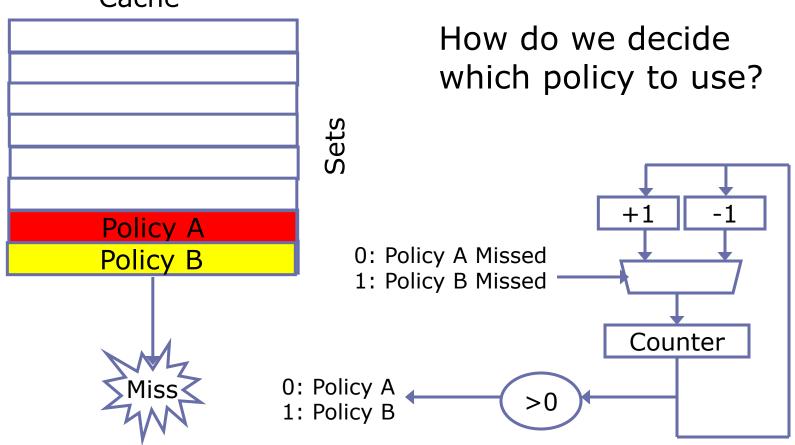
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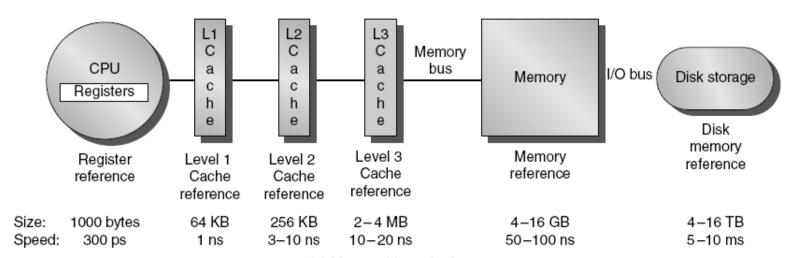
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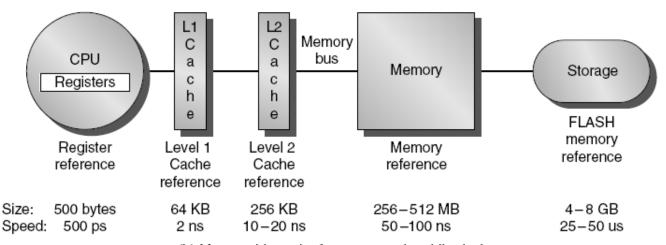
Use the best replacement policy for a program Cache



Typical memory hierarchies



(a) Memory hierarchy for server



(b) Memory hierarchy for a personal mobile device

Memory Management: From Absolute Addresses to Demand Paging

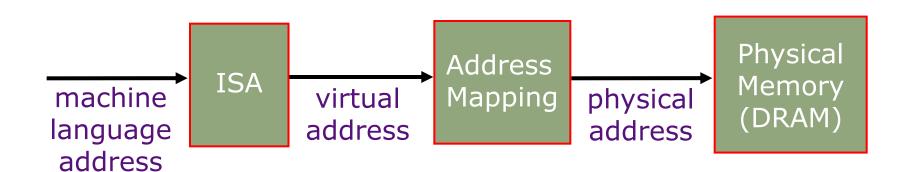
Mengjia Yan
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Memory Management

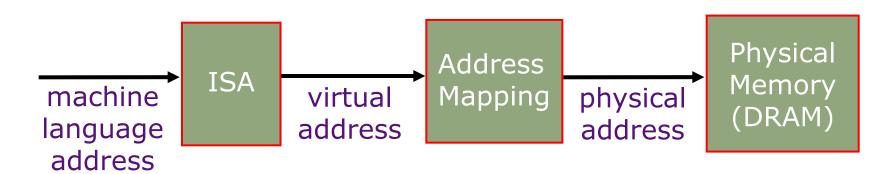
The Fifties

- Absolute Addresses
- Dynamic address translation
- The Sixties
 - Atlas and Demand Paging
 - Paged memory systems and TLBs
- Modern Virtual Memory Systems

Names for Memory Locations



Names for Memory Locations



- Machine language address
 - as specified in machine code
- Virtual address
 - ISA specifies translation of machine code address into virtual address of program variable (sometimes called effective address)
- Physical address
 - Operating system specifies mapping of virtual address into name for a physical memory location

EDSAC, early 50's

virtual address = physical memory address

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- Only one program ran at a time, with unrestricted access to entire machine (RAM + I/O devices)
- Addresses in a program depended upon where the program was to be loaded in memory

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How could location independence be achieved?

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How could location independence be achieved?

Linker and/or loader modify addresses of subroutines and callers when building a program memory image

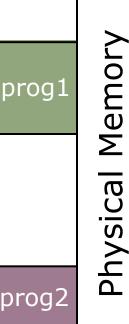
Multiprogramming

Motivation

In the early machines, I/O operations were slow and each word transferred involved the CPU

Higher throughput if CPU and I/O of 2 or more programs were overlapped. How?

⇒ multiprogramming



prog2

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 \Rightarrow multiprogramming

Location-independent programs

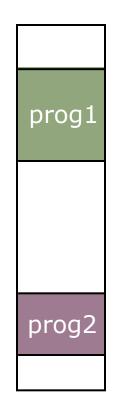
Programming and storage management ease

⇒ need for a *base register*

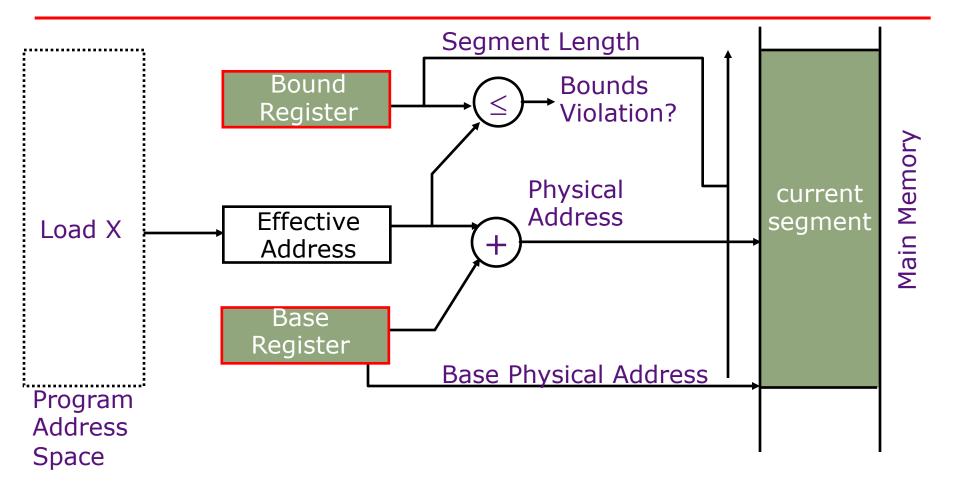
Protection

Independent programs should not affect each other inadvertently

⇒ need for a *bound register*

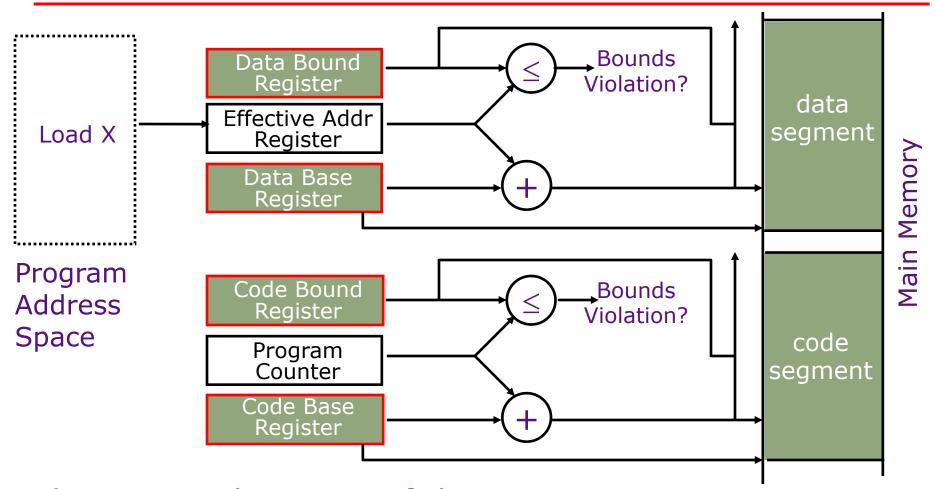


Simple Base and Bound Translation



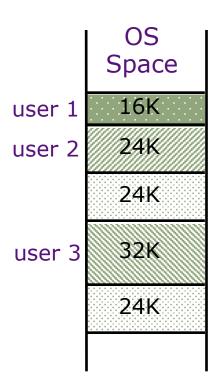
Base and bounds registers are visible/accessible only when processor is running in *supervisor mode*

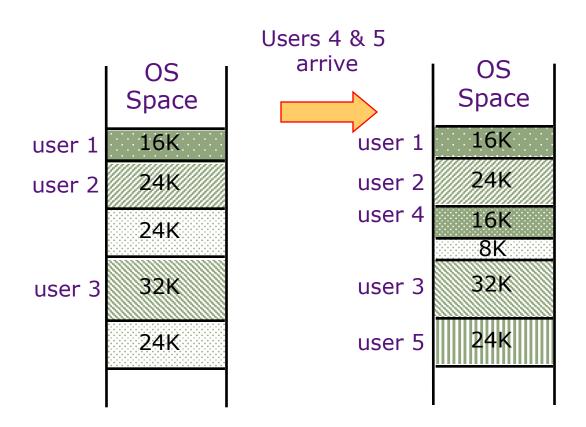
Separate Areas for Code and Data



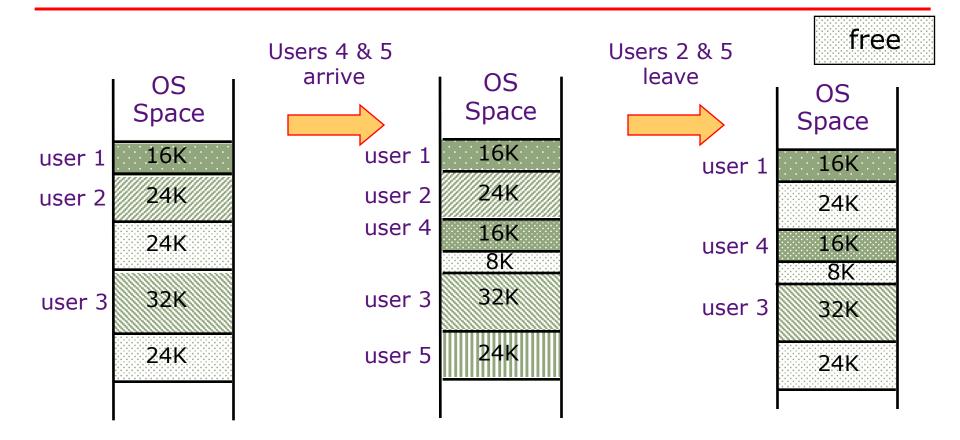
What is an advantage of this separation? (Scheme used on all Cray vector supercomputers prior to X1, 2002)

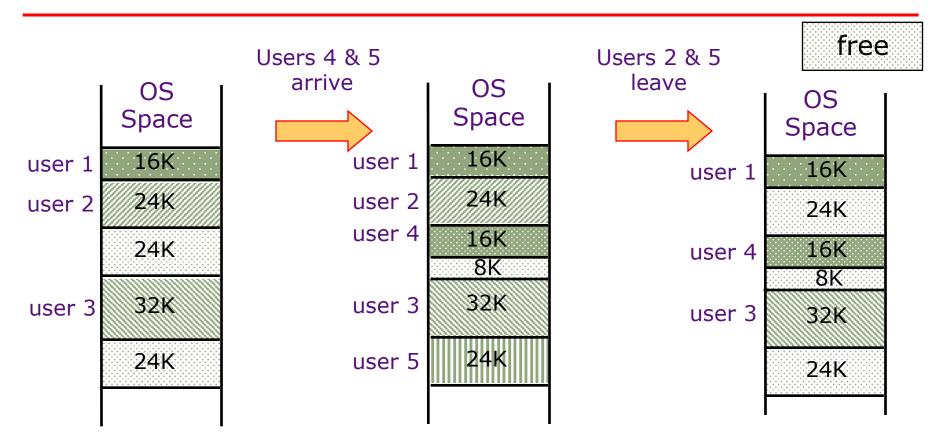
free



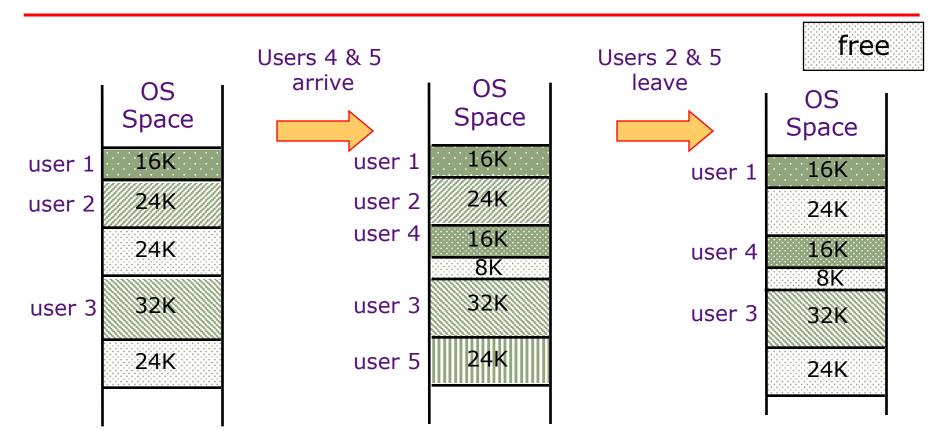


free



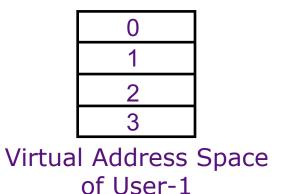


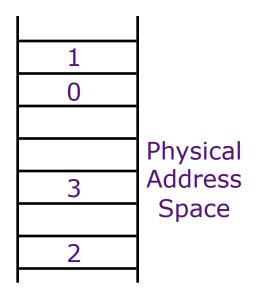
As users come and go, the storage is "fragmented".



As users come and go, the storage is "fragmented". Therefore, at some stage programs have to be moved around to compact the storage.

Paged Memory Systems



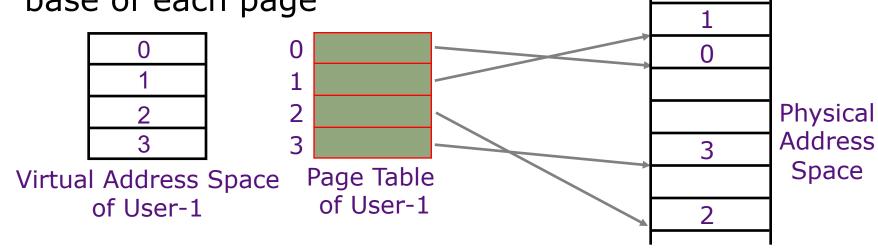


Paged Memory Systems

 Processor-generated address can be interpreted as a pair <page number, offset>

page number offset

A page table contains the physical address of the base of each page

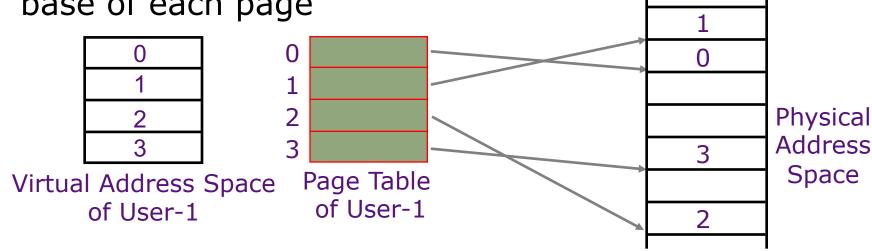


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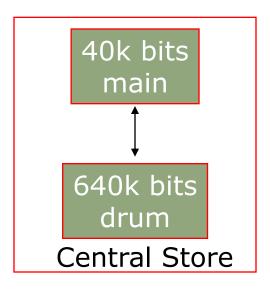


Page tables make it possible to store the pages of a program **non-contiguously**.

A Problem in Early Sixties

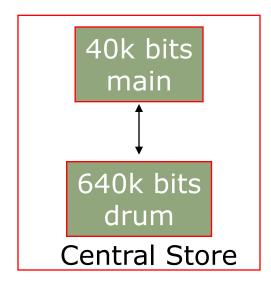
- There were many applications whose data could not fit in the main memory, e.g., payroll
 - Paged memory system reduced fragmentation but still required the whole program to be resident in the main memory
- Programmers moved the data back and forth from the secondary store by overlaying it repeatedly on the primary store

tricky programming!



Ferranti Mercury 1956

- Assume an instruction can address all the storage on the drum
- Method 1: programmer keeps track of addresses in the main memory and initiates an I/O transfer when required
- Method 2: automatic initiation of I/O transfers by software address translation Brooker's interpretive coding, 1960



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40k bits main

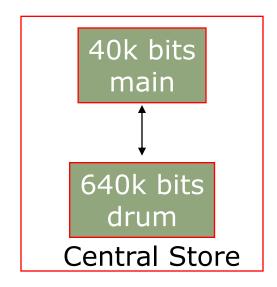
640k bits drum

Central Store

Ferranti Mercury 1956

Problems?

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Problems?

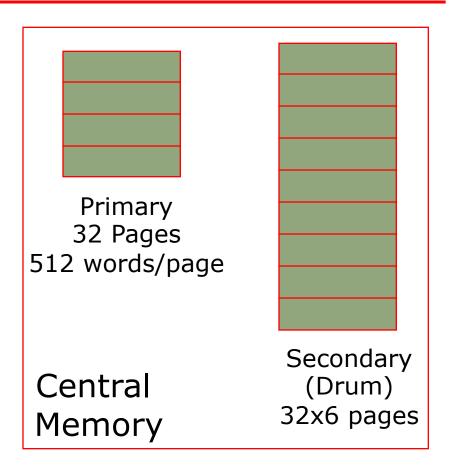
Method1: Difficult, error prone

Method2: Inefficient

Demand Paging in Atlas (1962)

"A page from secondary storage is brought into the primary storage whenever it is (implicitly) demanded by the processor."

Tom Kilburn



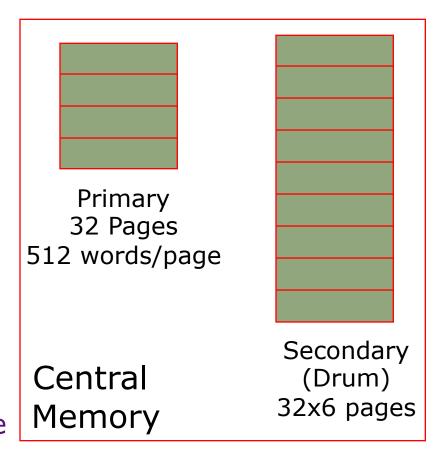
Demand Paging in Atlas (1962)

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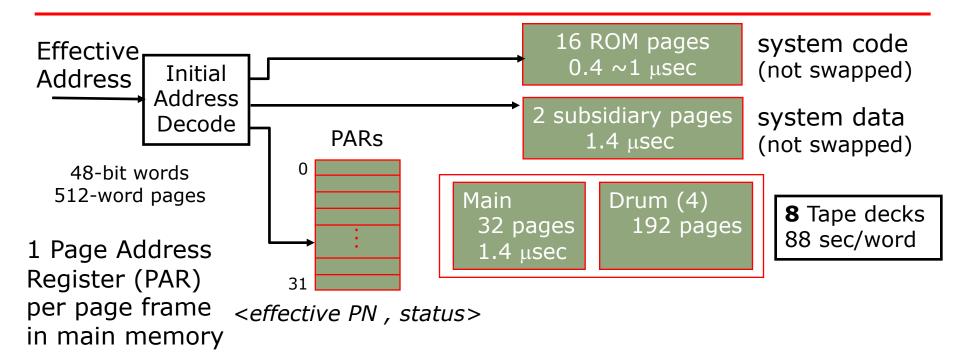
Tom Kilburn

Primary memory as a *cache* for secondary memory

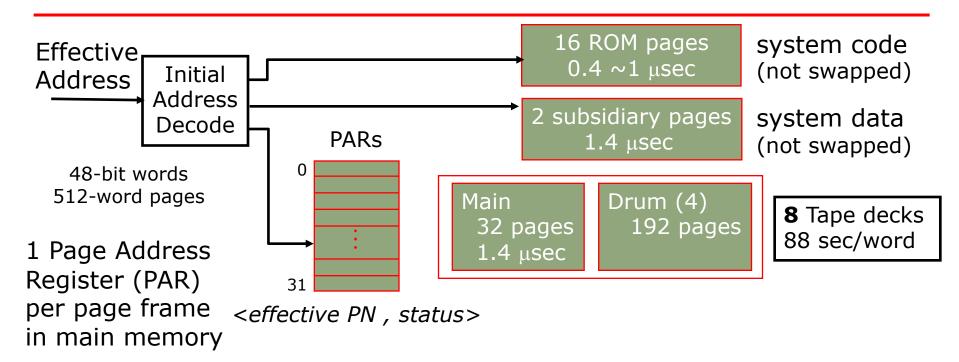
User sees the storage size of the secondary storage, since data transfer happens automatically



Hardware Organization of Atlas



Hardware Organization of Atlas



Compare the effective page address against all 32 PARs

match \Rightarrow normal access

no match \Rightarrow page fault

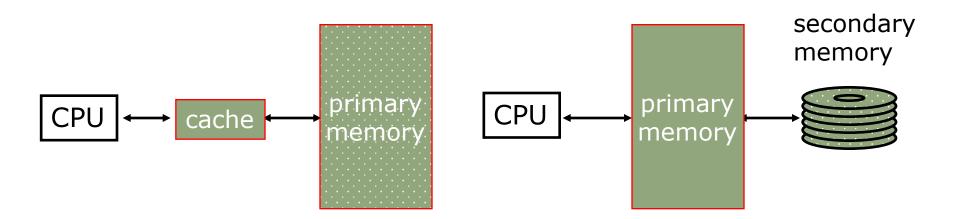
save the state of the partially executed instruction

Atlas Demand Paging Scheme

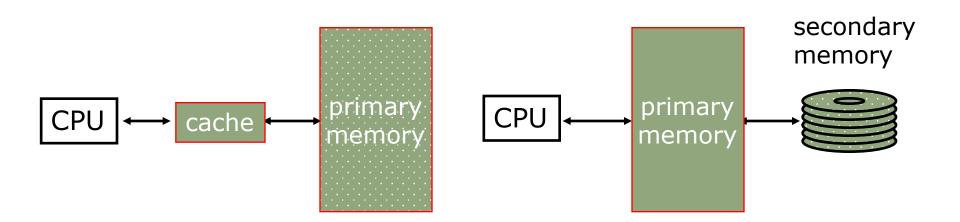
On a page fault:

- Input transfer into a free page is initiated
- The Page Address Register (PAR) is updated
- If no free page is left, a page is selected to be replaced (based on usage)
- The replaced page is written on the drum
 - to minimize the drum latency effect, the first empty page on the drum was selected
- The page table is updated to point to the new location of the page on the drum

Caching vs. Demand Paging



Caching vs. Demand Paging



Caching

cache entry
cache block (~32 bytes)
cache miss rate (1% to 20%)
cache hit (~1 cycle)
cache miss (~100 cycles)
a miss is handled
in hardware

Demand paging

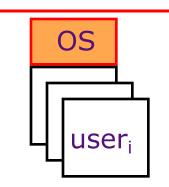
page frame
page (~4K bytes)
page miss rate (<0.001%)
page hit (~100 cycles)
page miss (~5M cycles)
a miss is handled
mostly in software

Modern Virtual Memory Systems

Illusion of a large, private, uniform store

Protection & Privacy

several users, each with their private address space and one or more shared address spaces page table ≡ name space

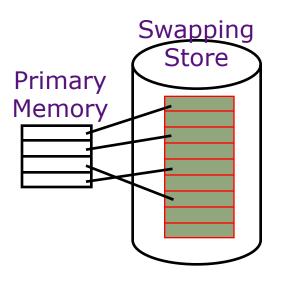


Demand Paging

Provides the ability to run programs larger than the primary memory

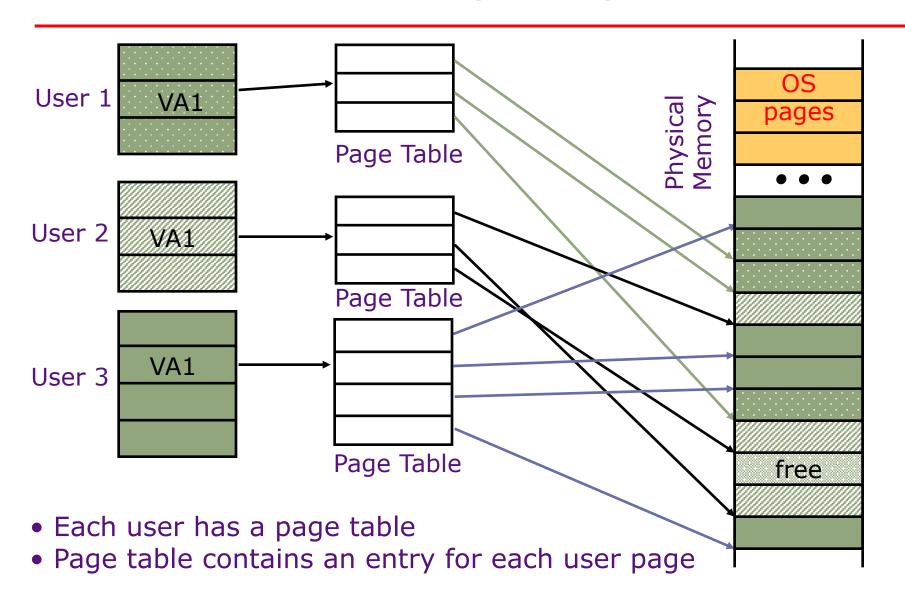
Hides differences in machine configurations

The price is address translation on each memory reference





Private Address Space per User



- Space required by the page tables (PT) is proportional to the address space, number of users, ...
 - ⇒ Space requirement is large
 - ⇒ Too expensive to keep in registers

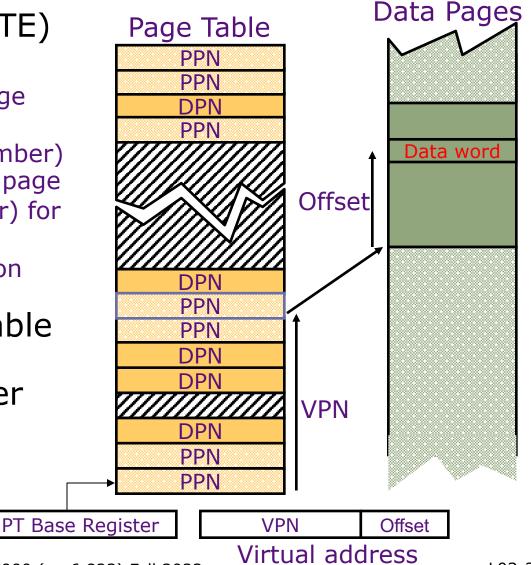
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 - needs one reference to retrieve the page base address and another to access the data word
 - ⇒ doubles the number of memory references!

Linear Page Table

- Page Table Entry (PTE) contains:
 - A bit to indicate if a page exists
 - PPN (physical page number)
 for a memory-resident page
 - DPN (disk page number) for a page on the disk
 - Status bits for protection and usage
- OS sets the Page Table Base Register whenever active user process changes



With 32-bit addresses, 4 KB pages & 4-byte PTEs:

- \Rightarrow 2²⁰ PTEs, i.e, 4 MB page table per user
- ⇒ 4 GB of swap space needed to back up the full virtual address space

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What is the "saving grace"?

Next lecture: Modern Virtual Memory Systems