## Lecture: DRAM Main Memory

- Topics: virtual memory wrap-up,

DRAM intro and basics (Section 2.3)

TLB and Cache

## Virtually Indexed Caches

- 24 -bit virtual address, 4KB page size $\rightarrow 12$ bits offset and 12 bits virtual page number
- To handle the example below, the cache must be designed to use only 12 index bits - for example, make the 64KB cache 16 -way
- Page coloring can ensure that some bits of virtual and physical address match


Data cache that needs 16 index bits 64KB direct-mapped or 128KB 2-way...

## Cache and TLB Pipeline



Virtually Indexed; Physically Tagged Cache

## Problem 3

- Assume that page size is 16 KB and cache block size is 32 B . If I want to implement a virtually indexed physically tagged L1 cache, what is the largest direct-mapped L1 that I can implement? What is the largest 2-way cache that I can implement?


## Problem 3

- Assume that page size is 16 KB and cache block size is 32 B . If I want to implement a virtually indexed physically tagged L1 cache, what is the largest direct-mapped L1 that I can implement? What is the largest 2-way cache that I can implement?

There are 14 page offset bits. If 5 of them are used for block offset, there are 9 more that I can use for index.

512 sets $\boldsymbol{\rightarrow}$ 16KB direct-mapped or 32KB 2-way cache

## Protection

- The hardware and operating system must co-operate to ensure that different processes do not modify each other's memory
- The hardware provides special registers that can be read in user mode, but only modified by instrs in supervisor mode
- A simple solution: the physical memory is divided between processes in contiguous chunks by the OS and the bounds are stored in special registers - the hardware checks every program access to ensure it is within bounds
- Protection bits are tracked in the TLB on a per-page basis


## Superpages

- If a program's working set size is 16 MB and page size is 8 KB , there are 2 K frequently accessed pages - a 128-entry TLB will not suffice
- By increasing page size to 128 KB , TLB misses will be eliminated - disadvantage: memory waste, increase in page fault penalty
- Can we change page size at run-time?
- Note that a single page has to be contiguous in physical memory


## Superpages Implementation

- At run-time, build superpages if you find that contiguous virtual pages are being accessed at the same time
- For example, virtual pages 64-79 may be frequently accessed - coalesce these pages into a single superpage of size 128 KB that has a single entry in the TLB
- The physical superpage has to be in contiguous physical memory - the 16 physical pages have to be moved so they are contiguous



## Ski Rental Problem

- Promoting a series of contiguous virtual pages into a superpage reduces TLB misses, but has a cost: copying physical memory into contiguous locations
- Page usage statistics can determine if pages are good candidates for superpage promotion, but if cost of a TLB miss is $x$ and cost of copying pages is $N x$, when do you decide to form a superpage?
- If ski rentals cost $\$ 50$ and new skis cost $\$ 500$, when do I decide to buy new skis?
$>$ If I rent 10 times and then buy skis, I'm guaranteed to not spend more than twice the optimal amount


## DRAM Main Memory

- Main memory is stored in DRAM cells that have much higher storage density
- DRAM cells lose their state over time - must be refreshed periodically, hence the name Dynamic
- DRAM access suffers from long access time and high energy overhead


## Memory Architecture



## Data

- DIMM: a PCB with DRAM chips on the back and front
- Rank: a collection of DRAM chips that work together to respond to a request and keep the data bus full
- A 64-bit data bus will need 8 x8 DRAM chips or 4 x16 DRAM chips or..
- Bank: a subset of a rank that is busy during one request
- Row buffer: the last row (say, 8 KB ) read from a bank, acts like a cache


## DRAM Array Access



## Organizing a Rank

- DIMM, rank, bank, array $\rightarrow$ form a hierarchy in the storage organization
- Because of electrical constraints, only a few DIMMs can be attached to a bus
- One DIMM can have 1-4 ranks
- For energy efficiency, use wide-output DRAM chips - better to activate only $4 \times 16$ chips per request than $16 \times 4$ chips
- For high capacity, use narrow-output DRAM chips - since the ranks on a channel are limited, capacity per rank is boosted by having $16 \times 42 \mathrm{~Gb}$ chips than $4 \times 162 \mathrm{~Gb}$ chips


## Organizing Banks and Arrays

- A rank is split into many banks (4-16) to boost parallelism within a rank
- Ranks and banks offer memory-level parallelism
- A bank is made up of multiple arrays (subarrays, tiles, mats)
- To maximize density, arrays within a bank are made large $\rightarrow$ rows are wide $\rightarrow$ row buffers are wide (8KB read for a 64B request, called overfetch)
- Each array provides a single bit to the output pin in a cycle (for high density)


## Problem 1

- What is the maximum memory capacity supported by the following server: 2 processor sockets, each socket has 4 memory channels, each channel supports 2 dual-ranked DIMMs, and x4 4Gb DRAM chips?


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$2 \times 4 \times 2 \times 2 \times 16 \times 4 \mathrm{~Gb}=256 \mathrm{~GB}$


## Problem 2

- A basic memory mat has 512 rows and 512 columns. What is the memory chip capacity if there are 512 mats in a bank, and 8 banks in a chip?


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- A basic memory mat has 512 rows and 512 columns. What is the memory chip capacity if there are 512 mats in a bank, and 8 banks in a chip?

Memory chip capacity $=512 \times 512 \times 512 \times 8=1$ Gb

## Row Buffers

- Each bank has a single row buffer
- Row buffers act as a cache within DRAM
> Row buffer hit: ~20 ns access time (must only move data from row buffer to pins)
> Empty row buffer access: ~40 ns (must first read arrays, then move data from row buffer to pins)
$>$ Row buffer conflict: ~60 ns (must first precharge the bitlines, then read new row, then move data to pins)
- In addition, must wait in the queue (tens of nano-seconds) and incur address/cmd/data transfer delays ( $\sim 10 \mathrm{~ns}$ )


## Open/Closed Page Policies

- If an access stream has locality, a row buffer is kept open
- Row buffer hits are cheap (open-page policy)
- Row buffer miss is a bank conflict and expensive because precharge is on the critical path
- If an access stream has little locality, bitlines are precharged immediately after access (close-page policy)
- Nearly every access is a row buffer miss
- The precharge is usually not on the critical path
-Modern memory controller policies lie somewhere between these two extremes (usually proprietary)


## Problem 3

- For the following access stream, estimate the finish times for each access with the following scheduling policies:

| Req | Time |
| :---: | :---: |
| X | 0 ns |
| Y | 10 ns |
| X+1 | 100 ns |
| X+2 | 200 ns |
| Y+1 | 250 ns |
| X+3 | 300 ns |

Note that $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{X}+1, \mathrm{X}+2, \mathrm{X}+3$ map to the same row and $\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{Y}+1$ map to a different row in the same bank. Ignore bus and queuing latencies. The bank is precharged at the start.

## Problem 3

- For the following access stream, estimate the finish times for each access with the following scheduling policies:

| Req | Time of arrival | Open | Closed | Oracular |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| X | 0 ns | 40 | 40 | 40 |
| Y | 10 ns | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| $\mathrm{X}+1$ | 100 ns | 160 | 160 | 160 |
| $\mathrm{X}+2$ | 200 ns | 220 | 240 | 220 |
| $\mathrm{Y}+1$ | 250 ns | 310 | 300 | 290 |
| $\mathrm{X}+3$ | 300 ns | 370 | 360 | 350 |

Note that $\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{X}+1, \mathrm{X}+2, \mathrm{X}+3$ map to the same row and $\mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{Y}+1$ map to a different row in the same bank. Ignore bus and queuing latencies. The bank is precharged at the start.

Title

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