Stochastic Modeling of Hybrid Cache Systems

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Abstract—In recent years, there is an increasing demand of big memory systems so to perform large scale data analytics. Since DRAM memories are expensive, some researchers are suggesting to use other memory systems such as non-volatile memory (NVM) technology to build large-memory computing systems. However, whether the NVM technology can be a viable alternative (either economically and technically) to DRAM remains an open question. To answer this question, it is important to consider how to design a memory system from a “system perspective”, that is, incorporating different performance characteristics and price ratios from hybrid memory devices.

This paper presents an analytical model of a “hybrid page cache system” so to understand the diverse design space and performance impact of a hybrid cache system. We consider (1) various architectural choices, (2) design strategies, and (3) configuration of different memory devices. Using this model, we provide guidelines on how to design hybrid page cache to reach a good trade-off between high system throughput (in I/O per sec or IOPS) and fast cache reactivity which is defined by the time to fill the cache. We also show how one can configure the DRAM capacity and NVM capacity under a fixed budget. We pick PCM as an example for NVM and conduct numerical analysis. Our analysis indicates that incorporating PCM in a page cache system significantly improves the system performance, and it also shows larger benefit to allocate more PCM in page cache in some cases. Besides, for the common setting of performance-price ratio of PCM, “flat architecture” offers as a better choice, but “layered architecture” outperforms if PCM write performance can be significantly improved in the future.

Keywords—Stochastic Model; Mean-field Analysis; Hybrid Cache Systems

I. INTRODUCTION

In modern computer systems, there is a common consensus that secondary storage devices such as hard disk drives (HDDs) are orders of magnitude slower than memory devices like DRAM. Even though flash-based storage devices like solid-state drives (SSDs), which are much faster than HDDs, have been quickly developed and widely used in recent years, they cannot replace DRAM since SSDs have lower I/O throughput than DRAM (i.e., at least an order of magnitude lower). Due to the large performance gap between memory and secondary storage, I/O access poses as a major bottleneck for computer system performance. To address this issue, one commonly used technique is to allow some memory as page cache, which exploits workload locality by buffering the recently accessed data in fast-speed memory for a short time before flushing to the slow-speed storage devices. Using page caches, one can mitigate the performance mismatch between memory and storage.

Traditional page cache usually uses DRAM due to its high throughput (in terms of IOPS), e.g., [1], [9], [13]. However, solely relying on DRAM has at least three limitations. First, the development of DRAM technology has already reached its limit, e.g., DRAM scaling is more difficult as charge storage and sensing mechanisms will become less reliable when scaled to thinner manufacturing processes [15]. Second, the price of DRAM is still much higher than that of HDDs or SSDs, and it also consumes much more energy due to its refresh operations. So DRAM-based main memory consumes a significant portion of the total system cost and energy with its increasing size [10]. Finally, DRAM is a volatile device and data in DRAM will disappear if there is any power failure. Hence, keeping a lot of data in DRAM implies lowering the system reliability.

Non-volatile memory (NVM) technologies (e.g. PCM, STT-MRAM, ReRAM) offer an alternative to DRAM due to their byte-addressable feature (which is similar to DRAM) and higher throughput than flash memory. In particular, NVM is commonly accepted as a new tier in the storage hierarchy “between” DRAM and SSDs, and it also poses a design trade-off when we use it as page cache. On the one hand, it is much faster than flash-based SSDs but still slower than DRAM, so replacing DRAM with NVM in page cache may degrade the system performance. On the other hand, the price and single-device capacity of NVM are also considered to lie between DRAM and SSDs, so one can have more NVM storage capacity than DRAM given a fixed budget. Furthermore, due to the non-volatile property of NVM, even keeping a large amount of data in NVM does not reduce the system reliability. Thus, it is possible to have a large page cache with NVM, which increases the cache hit ratio and as a result improves the overall system performance. Therefore, it remains an open question whether it is more efficient to consider a hybrid cache system with both DRAM and NVM, and how to fully utilize the benefits of NVM in page cache design. This motivates us to develop a mathematical model to comprehensively study the impact of architecture design and system configurations on page cache performance, and explore the full design space when both DRAM and NVM are available.

However, analyzing a hybrid cache system is challenging. First, including NVM in page cache clearly introduces system heterogeneity, and so it offers more choices for system design.
and severely increases the analysis complexity. For example, when both DRAM and NVM are used, should we consider a "flat architecture" which places DRAM and NVM in the same level and accesses them in parallel, or consider a "layered architecture" which uses DRAM as a cache for NVM? Another question is how to allocate the capacity of each device under a fixed budget so as to maximize the system performance. Second, since access to DRAM and NVM have different latencies, it is not accurate to analyze the system performance by deriving only the hit ratio as in traditional cache analysis. In fact, one needs to explicitly take the difference of latency into account in the analysis. We emphasize that measurement studies with simulator/prototype are also feasible methods, but they may suffer from the efficiency problem due to the wide choices in system design. While analytical modeling is easy to be parameterized and generally needs less running time.

In this paper, we develop a mathematical model to analyze hybrid cache systems. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work which develops mathematical models to analyze hybrid cache systems with DRAM and NVM. The main contributions of this paper are as follows.

- We develop a continuous time Markov model to characterize the dynamics of cache content distribution in hybrid cache systems under different architectures and configurations. We also develop a mean-field model to efficiently approximate the steady-state solution. We analyze the hybrid cache performance under both the flat and layered architectures, and allow each device to operate in a fine granularity by further dividing it into multiple lists with a layered structure so as to explore the optimal system performance and full design space.
- We propose a latency-based metric to quantify the hybrid cache performance. To support the latency model, we conduct measurements in the Linux kernel level to obtain the average request delay at the granularity of nanoseconds. With this latency model, we are able to take the heterogeneity of different devices into account so as to study the impact of different design choices on hybrid cache performance with higher accuracy.
- We validate our analysis with simulations by modifying the DRAMSim2 simulator [16]. We further study the impact of different architectures (flat or layered) and assume that we have \( m_D \) DRAM pages and \( m_N \) NVM pages with the same page size, say 4KB, in the system. That is, the capacity of D-Cache is \( m_D \), and that of N-Cache is \( m_N \). We also denote \( m \) as the total capacity of the hybrid cache, i.e., \( m = m_D + m_N \). We denote the overall system cost as \( C = m_D \cdot c_D + m_N \cdot c_N \), where \( c_D \) and \( c_N \) denote the price/cost of each page of DRAM and NVM, respectively.

To organize D-Cache and N-Cache, we further divide each of them into multiple lists, each of which contains a certain number of pages, and denote the number of lists in D-Cache and N-Cache as \( h_D \) and \( h_N \), respectively. We label the lists of N-Cache as \( l_1, \ldots, l_{h_N} \), and label the lists of D-Cache as \( l_{h_N+1}, \ldots, l_h \), where \( h = h_N + h_D \) denotes the total number of lists in the whole system. For list \( l_i \), we define its capacity as \( m_i \), so we have and we have \( m = (m_1, \ldots, m_h) \), with \( \sum_{i=1}^h m_i = m \), which describes the whole cache system.

We denote the secondary storage layer as list \( l_0 \). Without loss of generality, we call list \( l_i \) the \( i \)-th list, i.e., \( l_i = i \). Figure 1 shows an example of the list-based organization of D-Cache and N-Cache under different architectures.

![Figure 1](image-url)  
(A) Flat Architecture  
(B) Layered Architecture  

The rest of this paper proceeds as follows. In [III] we introduce the architecture design and system configurations of hybrid page cache, and formulate multiple design issues to motivate our study. We present the Markov model for characterizing the cache content distribution in [III] and derive the mean-field approximation in [IV]. We validate our analysis by using DRAMSim2 simulator in [V] and show the analysis results and insights via numerical analysis in [VI]. Finally, we review related work in [VII] and conclude the paper in [VIII].
To design a hybrid cache with both D-Cache and N-Cache, we consider two architectures: flat architecture and layered architecture, which are described as follows.

- **Flat architecture**: In this design, both D-Cache and N-Cache are placed in the same level and accessed in parallel as shown in Figure 1(a). In particular, for a new data page which has not been cached before, it is either cached in D-Cache with probability $\alpha$ or in N-Cache with probability $1 - \alpha$. Note that $\alpha$ is a tunable parameter, and increasing it implies that D-Cache is more preferred to be used. In the flat architecture, pages are never migrated between the two types of caches.

Note that both D-Cache and N-Cache contain multiple lists. To exploit workload locality, we let pages be first buffered in the list with the smallest label in the corresponding cache, and then upgrade to the larger-numbered lists when they become hot (e.g., when cache hit happens). That is, lists in the same cache device are organized in a layered structure.

- **Layered architecture**: In this design, we use D-Cache as a caching layer for N-Cache as shown in Figure 1(b). Particularly, new data page is directly buffered in N-Cache first, and when page in the list of the largest label in N-Cache is accessed, it is upgraded to D-Cache. Similarly, we also organize lists in both D-Cache and N-Cache in a layered structure. Note that data migration between D-Cache and N-Cache happens here, and usually, data in D-Cache is considered to be hotter than data in N-Cache.

B. Cache Replacement Algorithm

For cache replacement, we focus on the list-based random algorithm in [5]. Roughly speaking, a new data page enters into a cache through the first list and moves to the upper list by exchanging with a randomly selected data page whenever a cache hit occurs. Specifically, when a data page $k$ is requested at time $t$, one of the three events below happens:

- **Cache miss**: Page $k$ is not in D-Cache nor N-Cache. In this case, page $k$ enters into the first list in D-Cache (i.e., list $h_{k+1}$) with probability $\alpha$ or into the first list in N-Cache (i.e., list $l_1$) with probability $(1 - \alpha)$ under the flat architecture. For the layered architecture, page $k$ enters into the first list of N-Cache (i.e., list $l_1$). For both architectures, the position in the list for writing page $k$ is chosen uniformly at random. Meanwhile, the victim page in the position moves back to list 0.

- **Cache hit in list $l_i$ where $l_i \neq h_N$ and $l_i \neq h$**: In this case, page $k$ moves to a randomly selected position $v$ of list $l_{i+1}$, meanwhile, the victim page in position $v$ of list $l_i$ takes the former position of page $k$.

- **Cache hit in list $l_i$ where $l_i = h_N$ or $l_i = h$**: In this case, page $k$ remains at the same position under the flat architecture. However, for the layered architecture with $l_i = h_N$, page $k$ moves to a random position in list $l_{i+1}$ as in the second case.

Figure 1 shows the data flow under flat and layered architectures. Note that data migration happens between lists of the same type of cache, while the migration between D-Cache and N-Cache happens only in the case of layered architecture.

C. Design Issues

Note that the overall performance of a hybrid cache system may depend on various factors, such as system architecture, capacity allocation between DRAM and NVM, as well as the configuration parameters like the number of lists in each cache device. Thus, it poses a wide range of design choices for hybrid cache, which makes it very difficult to explore the full design space and optimize the cache performance. To understand the impact of hybrid cache design on system performance, in this work, we aim to address the following issues by developing mathematical models.

- For each architecture (flat or layered), what is the impact of the list-based hierarchical design, and how to set the best parameters so as to optimize the overall performance, including the numbers of lists $h_D$ and $h_N$, as well as the preference parameter $\alpha$ for the flat architecture?
- Which architecture should be used when considering both DRAM and NVM into a hybrid design?
- Under a fixed budget $C$, what is the best capacity allocation of each cache type for better performance?

III. System Model

In this section, we first describe the workload model, then develop a Markov model to characterize the dynamics of data pages in hybrid cache, and finally derive the cache content distribution in steady state. After that, we define a latency-based performance metric based on the cache content distribution so as to quantify the overall cache performance.

A. Workload Model

In this work, we focus on cache-effective applications like web search and database query [19], [9], in which memory and I/O latency are critical to system performance. Thus, caching files in main memory becomes necessary to provide sufficient throughput for these applications. To provide high data reliability, we assume to use the write-through policy, in which data is also written to the storage tier once it is buffered in the page cache. With this policy, all data pages in cache should have a copy in the secondary storage.

In this paper, we focus on the independent reference model [5] in which requests in a workload are independent of each other. Since cache mainly benefits the read performance, we focus on read requests only, while we can also extend our model to write requests. Suppose that we have $n$ total data pages in the system. In each time slot, one read request arrives, and it accesses data pages according to a particular distribution where page $k$ for $k = 1, 2, ..., n$ is accessed with probability $p_k$. Clearly, we have $\sum_{k=1}^n p_k = 1$. Without loss of generality, we assume that pages are sorted in the descending order of their popularity. That is, if $i < j$, then $p_i \geq p_j$. It is well known that workload possesses high skewness in the sense that a small portion of data pages receive a large fraction of
requests, and the access probability usually follows a Zipf-like distribution [2], [20]. Thus, we model \( p_k \)'s as a Zipf-like distribution. Mathematically, we let

\[
p_k = ck^{-\gamma}, \quad \gamma > 0,
\]

where \( c \) is the normalized constant. We would like to emphasize that our model also allows other forms of distributions.

B. Markov Model

In this subsection, we develop a continuous time Markov model to capture the dynamics of data pages in cache, and then derive the steady-state distribution to quantify the hit ratio of each request.

Note that we have \( n \) data pages in total in the system, and the total capacity of the hybrid cache is \( m \). Without loss of generality, we assume that \( m < n \), so only parts of data pages can be kept in the hybrid cache. To characterize the system state of the hybrid cache, we use a random variable \( X_{k,i}(t) \) \((k=1, 2, \ldots, n, \text{and } i=1, 2, \ldots, h)\) to denote whether page \( k \) is in list \( l_i \) at time \( t \). If yes, we let \( X_{k,i}(t) = 1 \) and 0 otherwise. If page \( k \) does not exist in the hybrid cache, i.e., \( X_{k,i}(t) = 0 \) for \( i=1, 2, \ldots, h \), then page \( k \) must be stored in the secondary storage, and we let \( X_{k,0}(t) = 1 \) in this case.

Now we capture the system state from a perspective of lists, and define \( Y_{i}(t) = \{ k|X_{k,i}(t) = 1 \} \) \((i \in \{1, \ldots, h\})\) as the set of pages in list \( l_i \) at time \( t \). We have \( |Y_{i}(t)| \leq m_i \). The process \( Y^h(t) = (Y_1(t), Y_2(t), \ldots, Y_h(t)) \) denotes the distribution of pages in the hybrid cache at time \( t \). Now the state space of \( Y^h(t) \), which we denote as \( C_n(m) \), can be viewed as the set of all sequences of \( h \) sets \( c = (c_1, \ldots, c_h) \) with each set \( c_i \) consisting of \( m_i \) distinct integers taken from the set \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \).

In each time slot, only one request arrives and triggers a state transition accordingly. Under the independent reference model in III-A, the process \( Y^h(t) \) is clearly a Markov chain on the state space \( C_n(m) \) for the cache replacement algorithms described in III-B. Now we denote \( \pi_A(c) \) with \( c = (c_1, \ldots, c_h) \) as the steady-state probability of state \( c \), where \( A \in \{F, L\} \) standing for the flat architecture or the layered architecture. We use a variable \( ht_A(l_i) \) to denote the height of list \( l_i \), which is defined as the number of steps to move a data page from list \( l_0 \) to list \( l_i \). Precisely, we have

\[
ht_F(l_i) = \begin{cases} i, i = 1, \ldots, h_N, & \text{and } \text{ht}_L(l_i) = i. \end{cases} \quad (1)
\]

Now the steady-state probability \( \pi_A(c) \) can be derived as shown in the following theorem.

**Theorem 1.** The steady state probabilities \( \pi_A(c) \), with \( c \in C_n(m) \), can be written as

\[
\pi_A(c) = \frac{1}{Z(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{h} \left( \prod_{j \in c_i} p_j \right)^{ht_A(l_i)}, \quad (2)
\]

where \( Z(m) = \sum_{c \in C_n(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{h} \left( \prod_{j \in c_i} p_j \right)^{ht_A(l_i)} \).

**Proof:** Please refer to the Appendix.

According to the steady-state probabilities \( \pi_A(c) \), we can calculate the probability of a data page \( k \) being in list \( l_i \) in steady state, and we denote this probability as \( H_{k,i} = \lim_{t \to \infty} E[X_{k,i}(t)] \). We also call this probability distribution \( t \to \infty \) cache content distribution. Mathematically, \( H_{k,i} \) is

\[
H_{k,i} = \sum_{c \in C_n(m)} 1_{\{k \in c_i\}} \pi_A(c), \quad (3)
\]

where \( 1_{\{k \in c_i\}} \) is a 0-1 variable denoting whether page \( k \) is in list \( l_i \) or not.

However, it is not efficient to compute \( \pi_A(c) \) by using the above formula unless the cache capacity \( m \) is small. In the next section, we will introduce a mean-field approach, which can approximate the cache content distribution very efficiently.

C. Performance Metric

Recall that we focus on hybrid cache systems consisting of both DRAM and NVM, which show very different characteristics in access latency. To take device heterogeneity into account, we define a latency-based performance metric to evaluate hybrid cache performance. Since requests are processed differently under different architectures, we distinguish the definitions for flat architecture and layered architecture.

1) Latency Model under Flat Architecture: Suppose that at time \( t \), a request accessing page \( k \) arrives. To process this request, we first access the metadata in file system to identify the current position of page \( k \), and there are two cases: (1) cache hit, which means that page \( k \) is available in the hybrid cache, and (2) cache miss, which means that page \( k \) does not exist in the hybrid cache. In the following, we derive the access latency in the above two cases.

If cache hit happens, the service time of accessing page \( k \) depends on which cache page \( k \) is buffered. If page \( k \) is in N-Cache, that is, \( \sum_{i=1}^{h_N} X_{k,i} = 1 \), then the service time includes only the time to read a page from NVM, and we denote it as \( T_{N,r} \), where \( N \) denotes N-Cache and \( r \) represents read. Otherwise, page \( k \) must be in D-Cache, that is, \( \sum_{i=h_N+1}^{h} X_{k,i} = 1 \), so the service time is the time to read a page from DRAM, which we denote as \( T_{D,r} \).

If cache miss happens, that is, \( X_{k,0} = 1 \), then we need to first copy the data from the secondary storage to the destined cache (either D-Cache or N-Cache), then serve the request from the corresponding cache. So the service time of accessing page \( k \) includes the time to read a page from the secondary storage, which we denote as \( T_{S,r} \), the time to write a page to cache, which we denote as \( T_{D,w} \) for writing to D-Cache and \( T_{N,w} \) for writing to N-Cache, and the time to read a page from cache. Note that under the flat architecture, a new data page is written to D-Cache (or N-Cache) with probability \( \alpha \) (or \( 1-\alpha \)), so the service time in the case of cache miss can be derived as \( \alpha(T_{S,r} + T_{D,w} + T_{D,r}) + (1-\alpha)(T_{S,r} + T_{N,w} + T_{N,r}) \).

Recall that for each request, it accesses page \( k \) with probability \( p_k \), by summarizing the above two cases, the average service time of processing the request at time \( t \) under the flat architecture, which we also call the average latency, can be
Case 1: single data page illustrated in Figure 2(a), we can define under layered architecture, while there are two differences. First, if cache hit happens and page \( k \) is in the highest list of N-Cache, i.e., in list \( L_{h,N} \), then we need to exchange this data in N-Cache with a data page in D-Cache. As a result, we need one read from N-Cache, one write to D-Cache, as well as one read from D-Cache and one write to N-Cache, so the total time is \( T_{N,r} + T_{D,w} + T_{D,r} + T_{N,w} \). Second, if cache miss happens, data can only be written to N-Cache, and the service time is \( T_{S,r} + T_{N,w} + T_{N,r} \).

In summary, the average latency under the layered architecture can be derived as:

\[
L_L(t) = \sum_k p_k \left[ E[X_k,0(t)](T_{S,r}+T_{N,w}+T_{N,r}) + (1 - \alpha)(T_{N,w}+T_{N,r}) \right] + \sum_{i=1}^h E[X_k,i(t)] T_{d(i),r},
\]

(4)

where \( d(i) \) is the device type of list \( i \), i.e., \( d(i) \in \{D, N, S\} \).

2) Latency Model under Layered Architecture: Similar to the above derivation, we can also derive the average latency under layered architecture, while there are two differences. First, if cache hit happens and page \( k \) is in the highest list of N-Cache, i.e., in list \( L_{h,N} \), then we need to exchange this data in N-Cache with a data page in D-Cache. As a result, we need one read from N-Cache, one write to D-Cache, as well as one read from D-Cache and one write to N-Cache, so the total time is \( T_{N,r} + T_{D,w} + T_{D,r} + T_{N,w} \). Second, if cache miss happens, data can only be written to N-Cache, and the service time is \( T_{S,r} + T_{N,w} + T_{N,r} \).

In summary, the average latency under the layered architecture can be derived as:

\[
L_L(t) = \sum_k p_k \left[ E[X_k,0(t)](T_{S,r}+T_{N,w}+T_{N,r}) + (1 - \alpha)(T_{N,w}+T_{N,r}) \right] + \sum_{i=1}^h E[X_k,i(t)] T_{d(i),r}.
\]

(5)

IV. MEAN FIELD ANALYSIS

In this section, we conduct a mean-field analysis to approximate the cache content distribution so as to make the computation more efficient. The rough idea of the mean-field analysis can be stated as follows. Instead of accurately deriving the steady-state probability distribution directly from the Markov process, we first formulate a deterministic process defined by a set of ordinary differential equations (ODEs), then we show that the Markov process can be approximated by the deterministic process, which converges to the fixed point (i.e., mean-field limit), and finally, we use the mean field limit to approximate the steady-state solution of the Markov process.

A. ODEs

The rationale of the mean-field approximation is that when \( p_k \) is small and the capacity of each list \( m_i \) (i.e., \( p_k \)) is large, the dynamics of one particular data page becomes independent of the hit ratio of each list, hence, its behavior can be approximated by a time-inhomogeneous continuous-time Markov chain. As a result, the stochastic process \( \gamma^k(t) \) can be approximated by a particular deterministic process \( \dot{x}(t) \) = \( \{x_k(i)\} \) for \( k = 1, ..., n \) and \( i = 1, ..., h \).

To formulate the set of ODEs to define \( x(t) \), we first focus on the flat architecture. According to the state transitions of a single data page illustrated in Figure 2(a), we can define \( x(t) \) by using the ODEs in Figure 2(b).

Case 1: If \( i \neq 0, 1, h_N + 1, h, h_N \) (i.e., in middle lists):

\[
\dot{x}_{k,i}(t) = p_k x_{k,i-1}(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{h-1} p_j x_{j,i-1}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,i}(t) \frac{x_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i} - p_k x_{k,i}(t).
\]

(6)

Case 2: If \( i = h \) or \( i = h_N \) (i.e., in the highest list):

\[
\dot{x}_{k,i}(t) = p_k x_{k,i-1}(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{h-1} p_j x_{j,i-1}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_i}.
\]

(7)

Case 3: If \( i = 1 \) (i.e., in the lowest list of N-Cache):

\[
\dot{x}_{k,i}(t) = (1 - \alpha) p_k x_{k,0}(t) - \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,0}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,i}(t) \frac{x_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i+1} - p_k x_{k,i}(t).
\]

(8)

Case 4: If \( i = h_N + 1 \) (i.e., in the lowest list of D-Cache):

\[
\dot{x}_{k,i}(t) = \alpha p_k x_{k,0}(t) - \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,0}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,i}(t) \frac{x_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i+1} - p_k x_{k,i}(t).
\]

(9)

Case 5: If \( i = 0 \) (i.e., in the storage layer):

\[
\dot{x}_{k,0}(t) = (1 - \alpha) \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,0}(t) \frac{x_{k,1}(t)}{m_1} + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_j x_{j,0}(t) \frac{x_{k,h_N+1}(t)}{m_N+1} - p_k x_{k,0}(t).
\]

(10)

To illustrate the ODEs, we take (6) as an example. First, if page \( k \) is in list \( i - 1 \) at time \( t \) and it is accessed, then it moves from list \( i - 1 \) to \( i \), and the probability is \( p_k x_{k,i-1}(t) \). Second, if a page in list \( i - 1 \) is accessed, then it will exchange with a randomly selected page in list \( i \). The probability of accessing a page in list \( i - 1 \) is \( \sum_j p_j x_{j,i-1}(t) \), which we denote as \( H_{i-1}(t) \), and the probability of page \( k \) being in list \( i \) and also being selected for exchanging is \( x_{k,i}(t)/m_i \). Thus, with probability \( H_{i-1}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} \) page \( k \) moves from list \( i \) to list \( i - 1 \). Third, if a page in list \( i \) is accessed, then it will exchange with a randomly selected page in list \( i + 1 \). In this case, the probability of page \( k \) being in list \( i + 1 \) and moving back to list \( i \) is \( \sum_j p_j x_{j,i}(t) \frac{x_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i} \). At last, if page \( k \) is in list \( i \) and accessed, then it moves from list \( i \) to list \( i + 1 \), and the corresponding probability is \( p_k x_{k,i}(t) \). By summing the above four cases, we have the ODE as in (6).
Now we consider the layered architecture, similar to the case of flat architecture, we can also formulate the set of ODEs according to the state transitions illustrated in Figure 2(b), and the ODEs are defined by (11)-(12).

**Case 1:** If \( i \neq 0 \) (i.e., in the hybrid cache):
\[
\dot{x}_{k,i}(t) = p_k x_{k,i-1}(t) - \sum_j p_j x_{j,i-1}(t) \frac{x_{k,i}(t)}{m_1} + 1_{\{i < h\}} \left( \sum_j p_j x_{j,i}(t) \frac{x_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_{i+1}} - p_k x_{k,i}(t) \right). \tag{11}
\]

**Case 2:** If \( i = 0 \) (i.e., in the storage layer):
\[
\dot{x}_{k,0}(t) = \sum_j p_j x_{j,0}(t) x_{k,i}(t)/m_1 - p_k x_{k,0}(t). \tag{12}
\]

**B. Fixed Point**

We now derive the fixed point of the ODEs defined by (6)-(10) or (11)-(12). The results are stated in the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** The ODEs have a unique fixed point, which we denote as \( \pi_{k,i} \) (\( k = 1, ..., n \) and \( i = 0, ..., h \)).

\[
\pi_{k,i} = \frac{p_k^{h_A(i)} s_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{h} p_k^{h_A(j)} s_j}, \tag{13}
\]

where \( h_A(i) \) \( (A \in \{F, L\}) \) is defined in (7), and \( (s_1, ..., s_h) \) is the unique solution of the following equation.

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{h_A(i)} s_i = m_i.
\]

**Proof:** Please refer to the Appendix.

**Remarks:** Note that for the layered architecture, we have \( h_A(i) = i \). By substituting it in the above Equations in Theorem 2 we have the same results as in [5]. This is because for the layered architecture, the hybrid cache can be considered as a single unified cache containing \( h \) lists when deriving the cache content distribution. However, we would like to emphasize that due to the device heterogeneity, the average latency of the hybrid cache must be different from that of a single unified cache. On the other hand, for the flat architecture, we see that in steady state, the fixed point \( \pi_{k,i} \) is independent of the parameter \( \alpha \). This implies that the hit ratio is independent of the policy of choosing which cache device to buffer new data. Thus, we can freely increase \( \alpha \) to cache more missed data pages in the fast-speed D-Cache so as to achieve better overall cache performance. We also point out that the fixed-point provides an efficient numerical method to compute the steady-state performance for both architectures.

**C. Convergence Results**

Here, we first show that we can use \( x_{k,i}(t) \) to approximate \( E[X_{k,i}(t)] \) where \( x_{k,i}(t) \) is defined by the set of ODEs, with the initial condition \( x_{k,i}(0) = E[X_{k,i}(0)] \). The convergence result is stated in the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.** When \( p_k \to 0 \) (\( k = 1, 2, ..., n \)) as \( n \to \infty \) , and \( m_1 \to \infty \) (\( i = 0, 1, ..., h \)), for any \( t \in \mathbb{Z} \), we have \( E[X_{k,i}(t)] = x_{k,i}(t) \).

**Proof:** Please refer to the Appendix.

Now we prove that the deterministic process \( x(t) \) converges to the fixed point derived in Theorem 2. We formally state the convergence result in the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.** The deterministic process \( x(t) \) defined by the ODEs (6)-(10) or (11)-(12) converges to the fixed point \( \pi_{k,i} \) \( (k = 1, ..., n \) and \( i = 0, ..., h) \) defined in (13).

**Proof:** Please refer to the Appendix.

**Remarks:** Based on Theorem 3 and Theorem 4, we can use the fixed point \( \pi_{k,i} \) (derived in (13)) to approximate the cache content distribution \( H_{k,i} \) (defined in (3)), which denotes the probability of page \( k \) being in list \( i \) in the steady state. More importantly, it is efficient to compute \( H_{k,i} \) with this approximation, which makes it feasible to further derive the average latency of the hybrid cache.

**V. MODEL VALIDATION**

In this section, we first validate the mean-field approximation by comparing the hit probabilities derived from model and simulations, then we validate our model analysis of average latency by modifying the DRAMSim2 simulator [10].

**A. Validation on Mean-field Approximation**

In this subsection, we validate the mean-field approximation using the trace-based simulations by setting \( m_N = 200 \), \( m_D = 100 \), \( n = 1000 \), and \( p_k \) by following a Zipf-like distribution with parameter \( \gamma = 0.8 \).

To validate the mean-field approximation, we use the probability of hitting each page in each device as a metric. Note that the hit probability can be derived from \( \pi_{k,i} \). In particular, for a particular page \( k \), the probability of hitting page \( k \) in N-Cache can be derived as \( \sum_{i=1}^{h} \pi_{k,i} \) and the probability of hitting \( k \) in D-Cache is \( \sum_{i=h+1}^{h} \pi_{k,i} \). For the simulation, we run 50 times and take an average result.

**Fig. 3.** Validation on mean-field approximation: The hit probability of each page in each device.

Figure 3 shows the model and simulation results under the flat and layered architectures. We see that the analysis results match well with the simulation results. In particular, even for a very small system (e.g., \( n = 1000 \)), we can still achieve a good approximation by using the mean-field analysis.
We further validate the mean-field approximation by considering the transient hit probability instead of the steady-state result derived from the mean-field limit. We use the average miss ratio of the hybrid cache over all pages as a metric, and divide time into small intervals to compare the simulation and model results in each time interval. For the model results, since we now focus on the transient behavior, we derive the average miss ratio directly from the ODEs in (6)-(10) and (11)-(12). Precisely, the average miss ratio at time slot $t + 1$ is computed by $\sum k p_k x_k,0(t + 1) = \sum k p_k (x_k,0(t) + \dot{x}_k,0(t))$. For simulations, we record the position of each page after processing each request, and then measure the average miss ratio in each time interval.

Figure 4 shows the results under different settings by varying the parameter $\alpha$ under flat architecture (Figure 4a) and varying $h_N$ and $h_D$ under flat and layered architectures (Figure 4b) and 4(c)). We see that even for the transient behavior, the mean-field model still approximates well for small systems. Another interesting observation is that the number of lists in each cache device may have a big influence on the cache reactivity, which is measured by the time to fill the cache. Precisely, if the number of lists is set to be large, which results in a small list size, then it may need a very long time to fill the cache. That is, the convergence rate to the steady state becomes small.

B. Validation on Average Latency

To validate the model analysis of average latency, we develop a hybrid cache simulator by modifying the DRAMSim2 simulator [16], and it includes the following modules.

- **Trace Generation Module**: It generates requests with logical address and request starting time.
- **Memory Controller Module**: It manages the cache metadata and controls the page replacement.
- **D-Cache Module**: It simulates a DRAM device and serves the requests coming to DRAM. It also sends the finishing time to the Time Collection Module. The timing parameters of DRAM are configured according to [12].
- **N-Cache Module**: It simulates a NVM device and serves the requests coming to NVM. The default timing parameters of NVM are set according to [12], we can vary device-level latency by adjusting the timing parameters.
- **Storage Module**: It simulates the access to storage devices by adding a delay to the request, then sends the new time clock to the Time Collection Module.
- **Time Collection Module**: It collects the starting time and finishing time of each request.
- **Device Performance Monitor Module**: It collects the average read/write latency at device level for each cache device (DRAM and NVM) in each time interval.

In our simulation, we use the Trace Generation Module to generate requests according to the Zipf-like distribution, and set the workload size $n = 3000$. We also use the Device Performance Monitor Module to measure the device-level latency parameters of DRAM and NVM ($T_{D,r}$, $T_{N,r}$, $T_{D,w}$, $T_{N,w}$), and then use them as inputs to our latency model to compute the average latency of the hybrid cache.

We validate our model by considering different design settings, including the system architecture, the capacity of D-Cache and N-Cache ($m_D$ and $m_N$), and the number of lists in each cache device ($h_D$ and $h_N$). We only show the results under some settings in Table I due to page limit. We see that the analysis results match well with the simulation results even under the settings of small systems, and the relative error is at most 2.87%. We also run more simulations for validation by varying the timing parameters of cache devices, results also show that our model captures the average latency of hybrid cache accurately. We skip the results in the interest of space.

| Arc. | $m_N$ | $m_D$ | $h_N$ | $h_D$ | Sim.$(\mu s)$ | Model$(\mu s)$ | Rel. Err. |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------------|--------------|----------|
| F    | 200   | 400   | 3     | 4     | 54.38        | 55.34        | 1.77%    |
| F    | 200   | 400   | 3     | 3     | 55.67        | 54.68        | 1.78%    |
| F    | 200   | 400   | 2     | 4     | 54.79        | 56.21        | 2.59%    |
| F    | 100   | 200   | 3     | 4     | 69.44        | 67.45        | 2.87%    |
| L    | 400   | 200   | 4     | 3     | 49.28        | 49.30        | 0.04%    |
| L    | 400   | 200   | 3     | 3     | 70.04        | 67.54        | 0.36%    |
| L    | 400   | 200   | 4     | 2     | 69.22        | 68.43        | 1.14%    |
| L    | 300   | 100   | 3     | 2     | 83.56        | 81.41        | 2.57%    |

TABLE I

LATENCY VALIDATION UNDER DIFFERENT SETTINGS.

VI. NUMERICAL RESULTS AND GUIDELINES

In this section, we use PCM as an example of NVM and conduct numerical analysis to study the impact of system architecture and design settings on hybrid cache performance so as to understand the benefit of NVM and explore the design space of hybrid cache. In the following, we first introduce the parameter settings and justify their choices, then we perform numerical analysis to study the impact of various design choices and provide insightful guidelines.


A. Parameter Settings

Recall that our model takes device heterogeneity into consideration by using a latency-based performance metric. Thus, to perform numerical analysis, we first configure the performance parameters for different devices.

DRAM parameters are measured at the granularity of nanoseconds in practical file system page cache environment by patching Linux kernel 4.0.2. Both read and write latencies are around 0.2 µs, averaged over millions of records. Note that this latency is nearly 10× longer than that reported in [4], [14], which is 10 ~ 25ns, this is mainly because of the software overhead caused by file system. As PCM is not available in the market yet, we refer to the parameter settings in [11], and let \( T_{N,r} = 6.7 \)µs and \( T_{N,w} = 128.3 \)µs.

To set the latency of accessing the secondary storage, we consider an example of networked storage application, in which the file server is equipped with an all-flash storage system [13]. The network parameters are based on the timing parameters in previous work [6], and precisely, the network overhead for 4 KB transmission is calculated as 41.0 µs (8.2 µs basic latency + (4,096 × 8) bits × 1 ns/bit). Thus, the overall read time is set as 151 µs (110µs file server read time + 41 µs network transmission overhead).

Table I summarizes the delay parameters of different devices used in this paper. Note that given the latency parameters in Table I and the cache content distribution approximated by \( \pi_{k,i} \) in (13), the average latency under flat and layered architectures can be computed by using (4) and (5), respectively.

|                          | DRAM     | PCM      | Storage |
|--------------------------|----------|----------|---------|
| 4KB R. Lat.:             | 0.2µs    | 6.7µs    | 151µs   |
| 4KB W. Lat.:             | 0.2µs    | 128.3µs  | -       |

TABLE II

THE LATENCY OF DIFFERENT DEVICES IN COMMON SETTING.

B. Impact of Design Choices under Flat Architecture

In this subsection, we focus on the flat architecture, and study the impact of various design choices by setting \( m_N = 15000 \), \( m_D = 5000 \), \( n = 100000 \), and \( \mu_k \) by following a Zipf-like distribution with parameter \( \gamma = 0.8 \).

Impact of \( \alpha \): We first study the impact of parameter \( \alpha \), which denotes the probability of writing data to D-Cache when cache miss happens. Note that the missed data is written to N-Cache with probability \( 1 - \alpha \).

Figure 5(a) shows the analysis results. We see that the average latency decreases when \( \alpha \) increases. That is, if we write missed data pages to D-Cache with higher probability, then the overall cache performance increases, because more data will be served by the high-speed D-Cache. However, the performance gain is limited when keeping increasing PCM performance since the speed gap between DRAM and PCM is narrowed, especially for the write performance. For example, if we set the PCM write latency as 16µs, which is 8× smaller than the common setting, then less than 10% improvement can be achieved when increasing \( \alpha \) from 0.1 to 0.9. In the following study, we fix \( \alpha \) as 0.8 under the flat architecture.

Impact of \( h_N \) and \( h_D \): Now we study the impact of \( h_N \) and \( h_D \), which denote the number of lists in N-Cache and D-Cache, respectively. To decouple the dependency between \( h_N \) and \( h_D \), we vary \( h_N \) by fixing \( h_D \) in Figure 5(b), and vary \( h_D \) by fixing \( h_N \) in Figure 5(c). Based on the results, we have the following observations.

- Increasing the number of lists in N-Cache (i.e., \( h_N \)) does not always increase the cache performance. For example, as shown in Figure 5(b), when \( h_D = 9 \), increasing \( h_N \) incurs even longer latency when \( h_N \) is larger than 7. The main reason is that increasing the number of lists in N-Cache may result in a reduction of the overall cache miss probability of the hybrid cache, but it also leads to a reduction of the cache hit probability of D-Cache as hot data is more likely to be trapped in N-Cache.
- The average latency decreases when using more lists in D-Cache by setting a larger \( h_D \), because increasing \( h_D \) not only decreases the overall cache miss probability, but also increases the D-Cache hit probability. Besides, the performance gain diminishes when \( h_D \) is already large.

We also conduct analysis by varying the latency of PCM, the capacity of N-Cache and D-Cache, and we observe the same conclusions. We do not show the results here in the interest of space. Further considering the impact of \( h_N \) and \( h_D \) on the cache reactivity (see Figure 3), we recommend to use a large \( h_D \) and a small \( h_N \) under flat architecture, e.g., set \( h_D \) as 4 ~ 6 and \( h_N \) as 2 ~ 3.

C. Impact of Design Choices under Layered Architecture

Now we focus on the layered architecture and study the impact of various design choices. Since the major factors
are $h_N$ and $h_D$ under layered architecture, which denote the number of lists in N-Cache and D-Cache, respectively.

**Impact of $h_N$ and $h_D$:** Figure 5 shows the analysis results, and we have the following observations.

- The average latency decreases when either $h_N$ or $h_D$ increases. That is, better cache performance can be achieved by adding more lists in both N-Cache and D-Cache.
- The performance improvement is more significant when adding more lists in N-Cache (i.e., increasing $h_N$) than increasing $h_D$. In particular, the improvement is negligible when increasing $h_D$, especially when $h_N$ is large.

We also vary the latency of PCM and the capacity of N-Cache and D-Cache. The results are in line with the observations. Further considering the impact of $h_N$ and $h_D$ on cache reactivity (see Figure 4), we recommend to set a large $h_N$ and a small $h_D$ under layered architecture, e.g., set $h_N$ as 4 $\sim$ 6 and $h_D$ as 2 $\sim$ 3.

**D. Impact of PCM Performance and Capacity**

In this subsection, we explore the performance impact and design space of hybrid cache by varying the read and write performance of PCM, as well as its capacity allocation. To vary the PCM capacity in hybrid cache, we fix the total budget $C$, and adjust $m_N$ and $m_D$ by assuming that the price of PCM is $\frac{1}{8}$ of that of DRAM [11].

Figure 7 shows the impact of PCM performance under flat and layered architectures. In this analysis, we fix PCM capacity by setting $m_N/(m_N + m_D) = 50\%$, and we also fix the read and write performance of DRAM ($T_{D,r}$ and $T_{D,w}$) as the common parameters in Table I. We change the read and write performance of PCM by varying $T_{N,r}$ from 1 to 32 times of $T_{D,r}$ (see Figure 7(a)), and varying $T_{N,w}$ from 1 to 640 times of $T_{D,w}$ (see Figure 7(b)). Note that in common settings, $T_{N,r}$ is 32 times of $T_{D,r}$ and $T_{N,w}$ is 640 times of $T_{D,w}$ (see Table I).

Results show that the read performance of PCM has a very small impact on the hybrid cache performance. However, the impact of PCM write performance $T_{N,w}$ is significant. In particular, when the write performance of PCM is slow, the flat architecture achieves better performance than the layered architecture, but when we increase the PCM write performance (by decreasing $T_{N,w}$), the average latency of hybrid cache under layered architecture drops even faster, and finally, layered architecture outperforms flat architecture when PCM write becomes fast. Thus, choosing which architecture in hybrid cache for better performance really depends on the PCM performance characteristics.

To further investigate the architectural choices of hybrid cache, we also take into consideration the capacity allocation of different cache devices. Results are shown in Figure 8 in which the horizontal axis represents the percentage of PCM cache by fixing the total budget, and the vertical axis shows the average latency of the hybrid cache.

In Figure 8(a), we use the common settings in Table I to set PCM write performance (i.e., $T_{N,w} \approx 640T_{D,w}$). We see that if we allocate more budget for PCM, the average latency keeps decreasing under the flat architecture as we can have a larger cache size. However, the result is very different for layered architecture, in particular, the average latency decreases first, but begins to increase when PCM capacity becomes very large. The main reason is that under the layered architecture, even though we can have a large cache by using more PCM, it may incur a lot of data migrations between DRAM and PCM, which may incur a big overhead as PCM is two orders of magnitude slower than DRAM.

In terms of choosing which design between the flat and layered architectures, we see that flat architecture can achieve better performance than layered architecture under the common setting of performance-price ratio of PCM (as shown in Figure 8(a)). However, if the write performance of PCM can have a big break through, e.g., in the extreme case where PCM reaches the same performance as DRAM as shown in Figure 8(b) (i.e., $T_{N,w} = T_{D,w}$), then layered architecture becomes the better choice, and clearly, we do not need to struggle with the capacity allocation problem in this situation. To explore the whole design space, we also seek for the boundary condition as shown in Figure 8(c). In general, for the common setting of performance-price ratio of PCM, flat architecture outperforms layered architecture, but when the write performance of PCM improves, we may need to switch to the layered architecture.

**VII. RELATED WORK**

In recent years, researchers are suggesting to use non-volatile devices to build a large memory page cache to improve system performance. For example, researchers in [9] and [10] proposed to use NAND flash memories as a page cache between DRAM and disk storage so as to reduce the demand of DRAM for system memory. Lee et al. in [13] showed the potential of using a small portion of STT-MRAM as the non-
volatile buffer cache to eliminate the periodic flush overhead caused by the volatile DRAM memory. Especially PCM, a large body of works to study how to architect PCM in memory, e.g., [1], [17], [14], [3], [18], [4].

However, recent study suggested that we should pay attention to the difference between the material-level and the system-level performance due to the under-developing industrial technology [11]. Thus, it still necessitates a comprehensive study when incorporating NVM with DRAM from a system perspective.

This paper presents an analytical model to study the performance impact of incorporating NVM in hybrid page cache by extending the list-based model in [5], and we make the following differences. First, we focus on hybrid cache systems and consider two system architectural designs. Second, we take into account the device heterogeneity, and quantify the hybrid cache performance by developing a latency model. Last, we conduct trace-driven simulations with the DRAMSim2 simulator to validate our analysis.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

We develop mathematical models to analyze a hybrid cache system so as to understand its performance impact and design space. We study two different architectural designs, flat architecture and layered architecture, and develop a latency model by taking into consideration the device heterogeneity. We conduct trace-driven simulations with DRAMSim2 simulator to validate our model, and perform extensive numerical analysis by incorporating different performance characteristics and capacity ratios. Based on our model analysis, we provide multiple guidelines on how to design hybrid page cache so as to reach high system throughput.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by National Nature Science Foundation of China (61303048 and 61379038), Anhui Provincial Natural Science Foundation (1508085SQF214), CCF-Tencent Open Research Fund.

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Lemma 1. For both the architecture flat and layered (A = F or L), equation (2) is equivalent to the following equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
1) & \quad \pi_A(c_{(i,u)+i+1}) / \pi_A(c_{i,u}) = p_j / p_i + 1, i \neq 0, h, h', h, \\
2) & \quad \pi_A(c_{k+1}) / \pi_A(c_{k}) = p_k / p_i, \\
3) & \quad \pi_A(c_{k-1}) / \pi_A(c_{k}) = p_k / p_i+1
\end{align*}
\]

Proof of Lemma 1.

Proof of (2) \( \Rightarrow \) (3) holds clearly.

In order to proof of (3) \( \Rightarrow \) (2), we label all the states in \( C_n(m) \) as \( c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \). For each page \( k \) in state \( c_j \), we define \( I_k(c_j) \) as the height of the list that contains page \( k \) in state \( c_j \), e.g., in state \( c_j \), assuming list \( l_z \) contains page \( k \), then \( I_k(c_j) \) can be drawn as \( h(l_z) \). We normalize each probability with respect to \( c_1 \). Using the (3), we draw the ratio of other state \( c_j \)'s steady state probabilities \( \pi_A(c_j) \) \( (j \in C_n(m), j \neq i) \) to that of \( c_1 \):

\[
\pi_A(c_j) / \pi_A(c_1) = \left( \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_j) - I_k(c_1)} \right)
\]

By using that \( \sum_{j=1}^{n} \pi_A(c_j) = 1 \), as all the steady state probabilities sum as 1, this yields

\[
\left( 1 + \sum_{j=2}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_j) - I_k(c_1)} \right) \pi_A(c_1) = 1.
\]

So we get

\[
\pi_A(c_1) = \left/ \left( 1 + \sum_{j=2}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_j) - I_k(c_1)} \right) \right.
\]

By multiple both the numerator and denominator in the left hand side by \( \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_1)} \), we get

\[
\pi_A(c_1) = \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_1)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \prod_{k=1}^{n} p_k^{I_k(c_j)}}
\]

this implies that

\[
\pi_A(c_1) = \frac{1}{Z(m)} \prod_{i=1}^{h} \left( \prod_{j \in \epsilon_i} p_j \right)^{h_{A(i)}}, \quad (15)
\]

By using (14), we can draw other state's steady state probabilities \( \pi_A(c_j) \). So far, we prove that (2) \( \Rightarrow \) (3) holds.

Proof of Theorem 1: First we start with the flat architecture. In flat architecture,

- The probability that state \( c \) is transited to another state can be expressed as:

\[
\pi_F(c) \left( 1 - \sum_{j \in \epsilon_h} p_j - \sum_{j \in \epsilon_h} p_j \right), \quad (16)
\]

noting that this transition will happen unless there is a hit on the highest list in D-Cache or N-Cache.

- Then we express the probability that the other states are transited back to state \( c \). Using the notations above, the probability that the other states are transited back to state \( c \) can be expressed as

\[
(1 - \alpha) \sum_{k \notin \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_h} \pi_F(c_k) p_{c(k,u)} / m_1 + \alpha \sum_{k \notin \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_h} \sum_{u=1}^{m_h} \pi_F(c_k) p_{c(h+1,u)} / m_{h+1}
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i \neq 0, h, h+1} \sum_{u=1}^{m_i} \pi_F(c_i) p_{c(i+1,u)} / m_{i+1} \quad (17)
\]

Reaching the steady state means that the probability that state \( c \) is transited to another state (i.e., (16)) equals the probability that other states are transited back to state \( c \) (i.e., (17)). We can express the global balance equation of state \( c \) as follows,

\[
\pi_F(c) \left( 1 - \sum_{j \in \epsilon_h} p_j - \sum_{j \in \epsilon_h} p_j \right) =
\]

\[
(1 - \alpha) \sum_{k \notin \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_h} \pi_F(c_k) p_{c(k,u)} / m_1 + \alpha \sum_{k \notin \epsilon_1, \ldots, \epsilon_h} \sum_{u=1}^{m_h} \pi_F(c_k) p_{c(h+1,u)} / m_{h+1}
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i \neq 0, h, h+1} \sum_{u=1}^{m_i} \pi_F(c_i) p_{c(i+1,u)} / m_{i+1} \quad (18)
\]

By plugging (3) into (18), we draw that

\[
1 - \sum_{j=1}^{m_h} p_{c(h,j)} - \sum_{j=1}^{m_h} p_{c(h,j)} = \sum_{k \notin \epsilon} p_k + \sum_{i=1}^{h} \sum_{u=1}^{m_i} p_{c(i,u)},
\]

which clearly holds as \( \sum p_k = 1 \), denoting that (3) is the steady state probabilities. By using lemma 1 we proof that Theorem 1 holds for the flat architecture. We see that in steady
state, the steady state of each state in flat architecture (i.e., \( \pi_F(c) \)) is independent of the parameter \( \alpha \).

In layered architecture, we use the above method except that the global balance equation of state \( c \) holds as follows,

\[
\pi_L(c) (1 - \sum_{j \in c_N} p_j - \sum_{j \in c_h} p_j) = \\
+ \sum_{k \notin \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{h+1}} \sum_{u=1}^{m_1} \pi_L(c_{k \rightarrow (1,u)}) p_{c(1,u)}/m_1 \\
+ \sum_{i \neq h,u=1} \sum_{i=1}^{m_i} \pi_L(c_{(i,u) \rightarrow (i+1,v)}) p_{c(i+1,v)}/m_{i+1},
\]

and also, we can prove that Theorem 1 holds for the layered architecture.

**B. Proof of Theorem 2**

Note that the equation has the same structure with a birth-and-death process. For list \( i \in \{1, \ldots, h_N\} \), we have

\[
x_{k,i} = \frac{p_{k,i} m_k}{h_0 h_1 \cdots h_{i-1}} x_{k,0}, \quad i \in \{0, 1, \ldots, h_N\}
\]

Noting that the list \( i \in \{h_N + 1, \ldots, h\} \) is the \((i-h_N)\)-th list in D-Cache, so we have

\[
x_{k,i} = \frac{p_{k,i} m_{h_N+1} \cdots m_i}{h_0 h_1 \cdots h_{i-1}} x_{k,0}, \quad i \in \{h_N + 1, \ldots, h\}
\]

To simplify the above equation, we define \( s_i \) by letting

\[
s_i = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll}
\frac{m_i}{h_0 h_1 \cdots h_{i-1}}, & \text{if } i \in \{1, \ldots, h_N\} \\
\frac{m_{h_N+1} \cdots m_i}{h_0 h_1 \cdots h_{i-1}}, & \text{if } i \in \{h_N + 1, \ldots, h\}
\end{array} \right.
\]

Clearly, we have \( \sum_j x_{k,j} = 1 \), which implies that \( x_{k,i} = \frac{p_{k,i} s_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{h_N} p_{k,s_j} + \sum_{j=h_N+1}^{h} p_{k,s_j}} \). By using that \( \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k,i} = m_i \), we can have

\[
m_i = \sum_{k=1}^{n} x_{k,i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{p_{k,i} s_i}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{h_N} p_{k,s_j} + \sum_{j=h_N+1}^{h} p_{k,s_j}}.
\]

**C. Proof of Theorem 3**

To prove Theorem 3, we first show two lemmas as follows.

**Lemma 2.** There exists a function \( f \), such that \( f(E[X(t)]) \) is the average variation of \( X(t) \), i.e.,

\[
E[X(t) + 1] - E[X(t)] = f(E[X(t)])
\]

**Proof of lemma 2.** Let \( X \) be the set of the expectation of \( X_{k,i} \). We define the function \( f: X \rightarrow X \) as the series of ODEs. Using flat architecture as an example, for all \( z \in X \):

**Case 1:** If \( i \neq 0, 1, h_N + 1, h, h_N \) (i.e., in middle lists):

\[
f_{k,i}(z(t)) = p_k z_{k,i-1}(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} p_j z_{j,i-1}(t) \frac{z_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} p_j z_{j,i}(t) \frac{z_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i} - p_k z_{k,i}(t). \tag{19}
\]

**Case 2:** If \( i = h \) or \( i = h_N \) (i.e., in the highest list):

\[
f_{k,i}(z(t)) = p_k z_{k,i-1}(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{m_i} p_j z_{j,i-1}(t) \frac{z_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} \tag{20}
\]

**Case 3:** If \( i = 1 \) (i.e., in the lowest list of N-Cache):

\[
f_{k,i}(z(t)) = (1 - \alpha) p_k z_{k,0}(t) - (1 - \alpha) \sum_j p_j z_{j,0}(t) \frac{z_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_j p_j z_{j,i}(t) \frac{z_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i} - p_k z_{k,i}(t). \tag{21}
\]

**Case 4:** If \( i = h_N + 1 \) (i.e., in the lowest list of D-Cache):

\[
f_{k,i}(z(t)) = \alpha p_k z_{k,0}(t) - \sum_j p_j z_{j,0}(t) \frac{z_{k,i}(t)}{m_i} + \sum_j p_j z_{j,i}(t) \frac{z_{k,i+1}(t)}{m_i} - p_k z_{k,i}(t). \tag{22}
\]

**Case 5:** If \( i = 0 \) (i.e., in the storage layer):

\[
f_{k,0}(z(t)) = (1 - \alpha) \sum_j p_j z_{j,0}(t) \frac{z_{k,0}(t)}{m_1} + \alpha \sum_j p_j z_{j,0}(t) \frac{z_{k,h_{N+1}}(t)}{m_{h_{N+1}}} - p_k z_{k,0}(t). \tag{23}
\]

First, we prove that \( f_{k,i}(X(t)) \) is the average variation of \( X_{k,i}(t) \), for all the \( k, i \neq 1, h_N, h \),

\[
E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t)] = f_{k,i}(E[X(t)])
\]

Three types of events can modify the value of \( X_{k,i}(t) \):

- If at time \( t \), item \( k \) is in list \( i - 1 \) and it is requested, then it exchanges with another item \( j \) that is chosen randomly form list \( i \). When \( p_k \) is small and the \( m_i \) are large, the state of one item becomes independent of the hit rate in each box. Hence, this occurs with probability \( E[X_{k,i-1}(t)]p_k \), and it increases \( X_{k,i}(t+1) \) by 1. The expected change of the average variation of \( X_{k,i}(t) \) due to this event is \( p_k \). That is,

\[
E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t)] = E[X_{k,i-1}(t)]p_k
\]

Hence,

\[
E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t), X_{k,i-1}(t)] = E[X_{k,i-1}(t)]p_k
\]

- If at time \( t \), item \( k \) is in list \( i \), then two sub-cases may happened and modify the value of \( X_{k,i}(t) \):

  1) a page in list \( i - 1 \) is accessed, then it will exchange with a randomly selected page in list \( i \) and the page \( k \) may be chosen as a victim moving back to list \( i - 1 \). This occurs with probability \( \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i-1}(t)]/m_i \), and it decreases \( X_{k,i}(t+1) \) by 1. The expected change of the average variation of \( X_{k,i}(t) \) due to this event is

\[
- \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i-1}(t)]/m_i
\]

2) page \( k \) is accessed, and it move to list \( i + 1 \). This occurs with probability \( p_k \), and it decreases \( X_{k,i}(t+1) \) by 1. The expected change of the average variation of \( X_{k,i}(t) \) due to this event is \( -p_k \).
That is

\[ E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t) | X_{k,i}(t)] = -p_k - \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i-1}(t)] / m_i. \]

Hence,

\[ E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t)] = -E[X_{k,i}(t)] p_k - \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i}(t)] E[X_{j,i-1}(t)] / m_i. \]

If at time \( t \), item \( k \) is in list \( i + 1 \) and it is chosen as a victim page to exchange with a page from list \( i - 1 \) cause a page in list \( i - 1 \) is requested. This occurs with probability \( \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i+1}(t)] / m_{i+1} \), and it increases \( X_{k,i}(t) \) by 1. The expected change of the average variation of \( X_{k,i}(t) \) due to this event is \( \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i+1}(t)] / m_{i+1} \). That is,

\[ E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t)] = \sum_j p_j E[X_{j,i+1}(t)] / m_{i+1}. \]

By summing the probabilities in the three cases, we can get \( E[X_{k,i}(t+1) - X_{k,i}(t)] = f_k,i(E[X(t)]) \). By summing up the cases of all the values of \( k, i \neq 0, 1, h_N, h \), we can obtain the formula in (19). Finally, by summing up the cases of other value of \( i \), including \( i = 0, 1, h_N, h \), we can obtain the formula in (19) to (23), which implies that Lemma 3 holds for the flat architecture. Similarly, we can also prove that Lemma 2 holds for the layered architecture.

**Lemma 3.** With initial conditions \( x_{k,i}(0) = E[X_{k,i}(0)] \), then we can draw that:

\[ x(t) = x(0) + \sum_{s=0}^{t-1} f(x(s)) \]

The proof of Lemma 3 is simple as \( x(0) \) equals \( X(0) \) and \( f(x(t)) \) is the variation of \( x(t) \) for all \( k, i \).

**Proof of Theorem 3:**

- Basis: show that statement holds for \( t = 0 \).
  \[ E[X(0)] = x(0) \]

- Inductive step: Show that if \( E[X(s-1)] = x(s-1) \) holds, then also \( E[X(s)] = x(s) \) holds. This can be done as follows. Assume \( E[X(s-1)] = x(s-1) \) holds (for some unspecified value of \( s \)).

It must then be shown that \( E[X(s)] = x(s) \) holds, that is:

\[ E[X(s)] = E[X(0)] + \sum_{t=0}^{s-1} (E[X(t+1)] - E[X(t)]) \]

\[ = E[X(0)] + \sum_{t=0}^{s-2} (E[X(t+1)] - E[X(t)]) + (E[X(s)] - E[X(s-1)]) \]

Noting that \( E[X(0)] + \sum_{t=0}^{s-2} (E[X(t+1)] - E[X(t)]) \) indicates \( E[X(s-1)] = x(s-1) \) and by using Lemma 2 we have

\[ E[X(s)] = E[X(s-1)] + f(E[X(s-1)]) \]

By using Lemma 3 and the assumption (24), we have

\[ E[X(s)] = x(s-1) + f(E[X(s-1)]) \]

\[ = x(0) + \sum_{t=0}^{s-2} f(E[X(t)]) + f(E[X(s-1)]) \]

\[ = x(0) + \sum_{t=0}^{s-2} f(E[X(t)]) \]

\[ = x(s) \]

thereby showing that indeed \( E[X(s)] = x(s) \) holds.

Since both the basis and the inductive step have been performed, by mathematical induction, the statement \( E[X(t)] = x(t) \) holds for all \( t \in Z \).

**D. Proof of Theorem 4**

Note that if we treat the state transition of a particular page shown in Figure 2 as a birth-death process, then the ODEs can be expressed in a matrix form, which exactly maps to the Kolmogorov’s forward equations corresponding to the birth-death process. Therefore, \( x(t) \) converges to the stationary distribution of the birth-death process, which is the fixed point in (13).