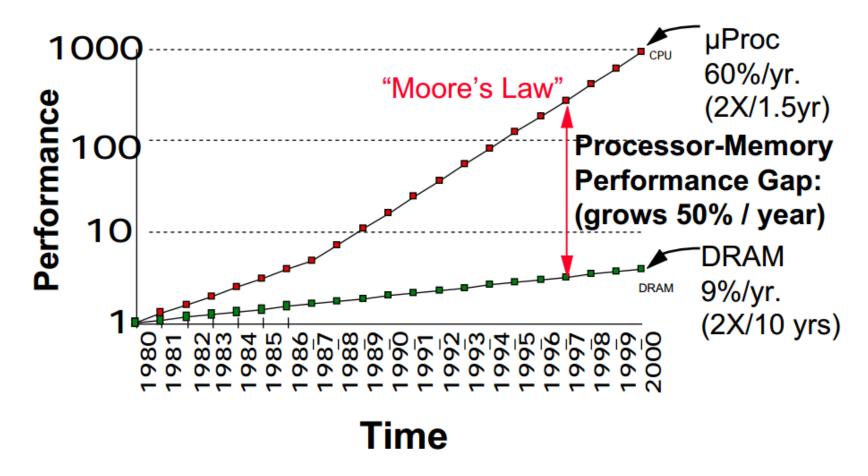
CS425 Computer Systems Architecture

Fall 2017

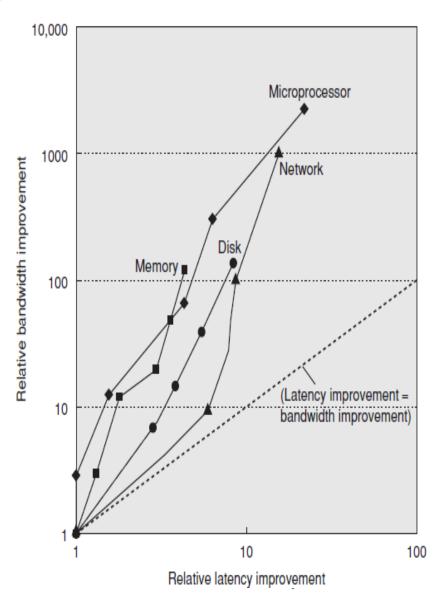
Caches: The Basics

Who Cares about Memory Hierarchy?

Processor-DRAM Memory Gap (latency)



Latency lags bandwidth





Reasons for Bountiful Bandwidth but Lagging Latency

"There is an old network saying: Bandwidth problems can be cured with money. Latency problems are harder because the speed of light is fixed—you can't bribe God."

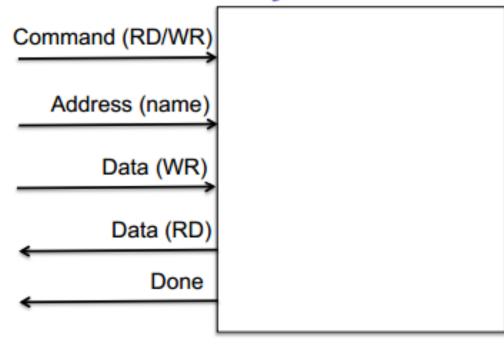
—Anonymous

Memory abstraction in architecture

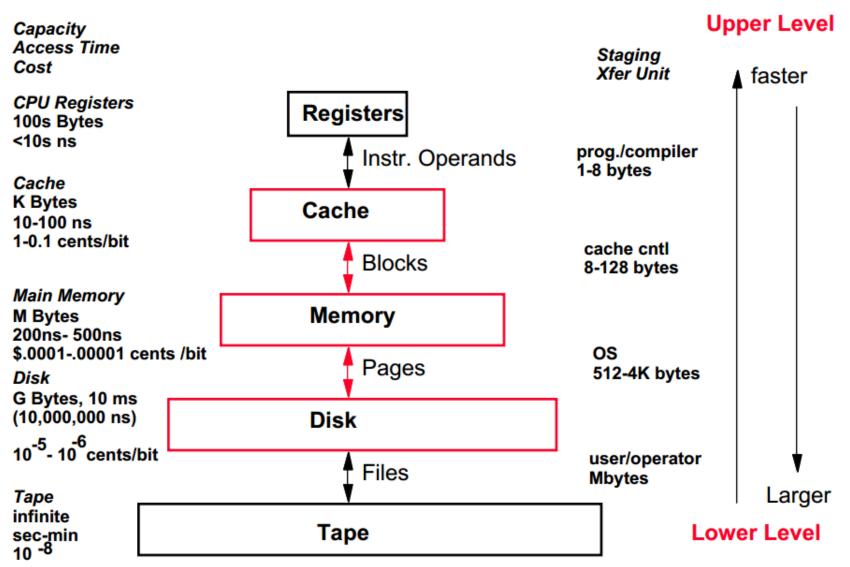
Addressable memory

- Association between address and values in storage
- Addresses index bytes in storage
- Values aligned in multiples of word size
- Accessed through sequence of reads and writes
- Write binds value to address
- Read returns most recent value stored in address





Levels of Memory Hierarchy

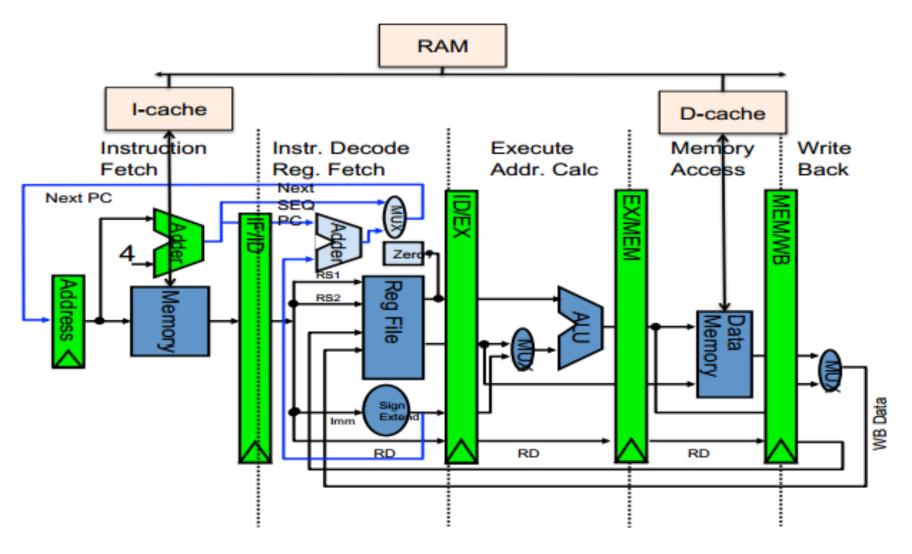


Definition of Cache

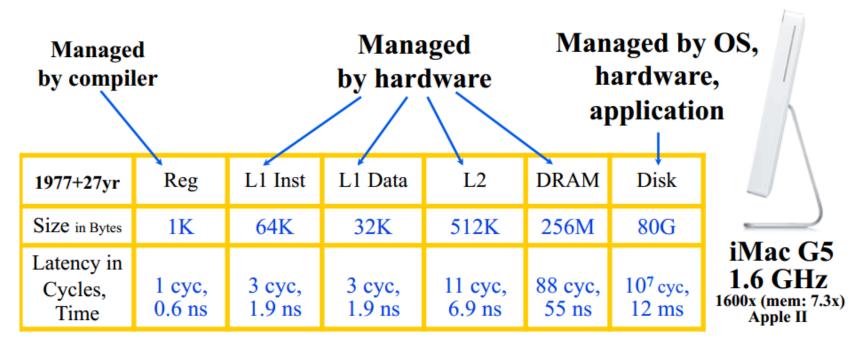
Definition

- First level of memory hierarchy after registers
- Any form of storage that bufferes temporarily data
 - OS buffer cache, name cache, Web cache, . . .
- Designed based on the principle of locality
 - Temporal locality: Accessed item will be accessed again in the near future
 - Spatial locality: Consecutive memory accesses follow a sequential pattern, references separated by unit stride

Cache on DLX



Memory Hierarchy: Apple iMac G5 (2005)



Goal: Illusion of large, fast, cheap memory

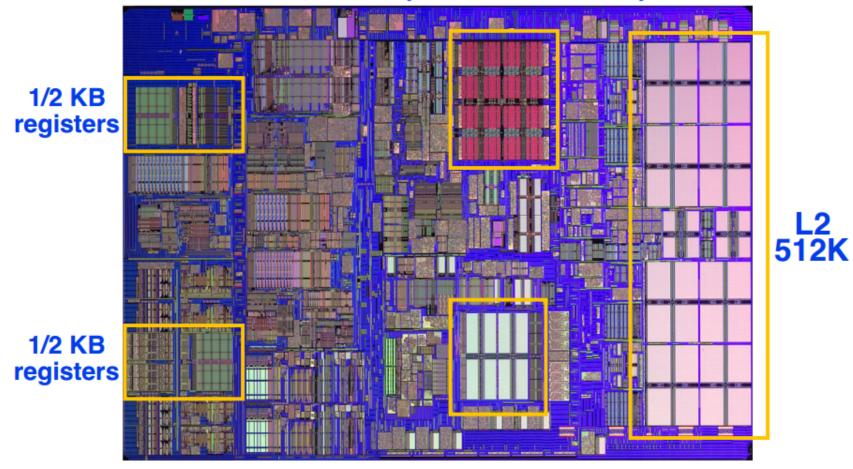
Let programs address a memory space that scales to the disk size, at a speed that is usually nearly as fast as register access

iMac G5 1.6 GHz clock, 55 ns DRAM vs. Apple II 1 MHz, 400ns DRAM

Perform: CPU 1600 X, DRAM 7.3 X faster in 27 yrs \Rightarrow 2X/ 2.5y, 9.3y

PowerPC 970 (G5): All caches on-chip

L1 (64K Instruction)



L1 (32K Data)

Locality

Spatial locality

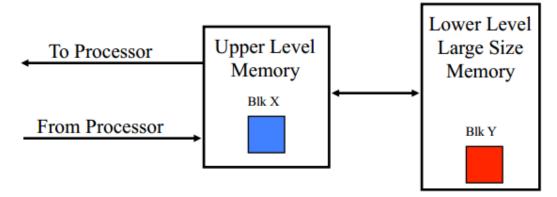
- Appears due to iterative execution and linear data access patterns
- Exploited by using larger block sizes data to be used prefetched with block
- Exploited by data and code transformations by the compiler
- Exploited by unit-stride prefetching mechanisms and policies

Temporal locality

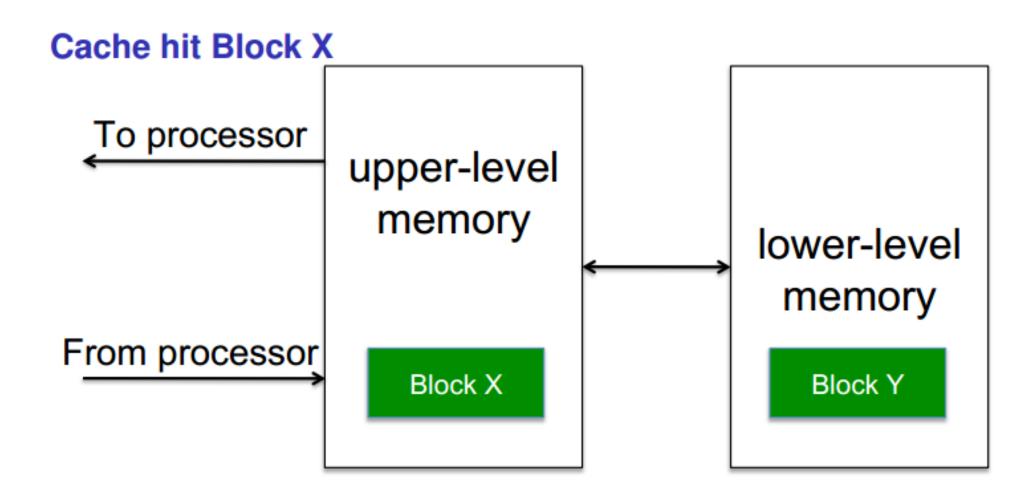
- Appears due to iterative execution and data reuse
- Exploited by caches, through which data is reused
- Working set: data that needs to be kept cached in a window of time to maximize locality
- Reuse distance: number of blocks of memory accessed between two consecutive accesses to same block

Memory Hierarchy: Terminology

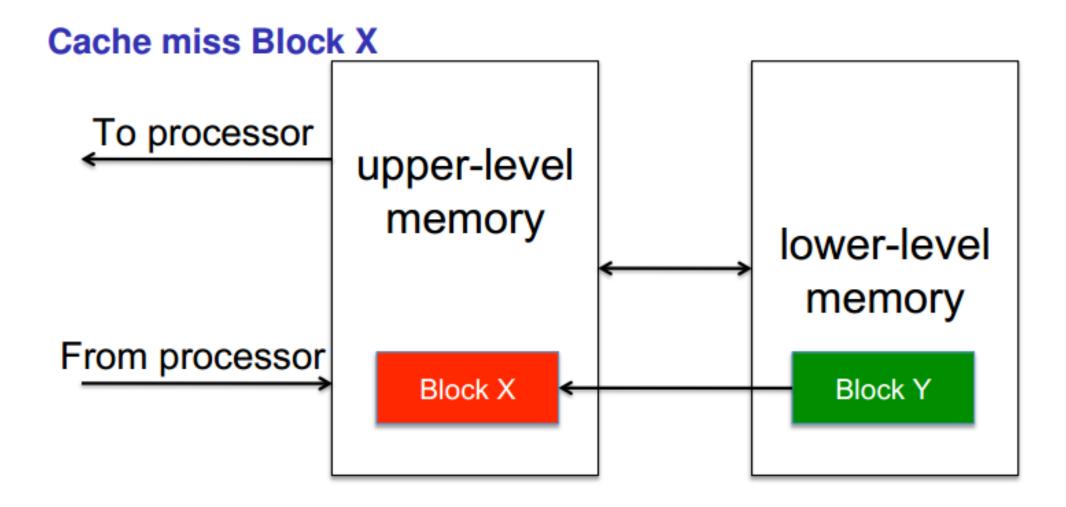
- Hit: data appears in some block in the upper level
 - Hit Rate: the fraction of memory accesses found in the upper level
 - Hit Time: Time to access the upper level which consists of
 - Time to determine hit/miss
- Miss: data needs to be retrieved from a block in the lower level
 - Miss Rate = 1 (Hit Rate)
 - Miss Penalty: Time to replace a block in the upper level +
 - Time to deliver the block to the upper level
- Hit Time << Miss Penalty (=500 instructions on 21264!)



Cache Hit



Cache Miss



Cache Measures

- Hit rate: fraction found in that level
 - So high that usually talk about Miss rate = 1 Hit rate
 - Miss rate fallacy: as MIPS to CPU performance, miss rate to AMAT in memory
- AMAT = Hit time + Miss rate x Miss penalty (ns or clocks)
- Miss penalty: time to supply a missed block from lower level, including any CPU-visible delays to save replaced write-back data to make room in upper level cache. {"All active caches are full"}
 - access time: time to lower level = f (latency to lower level)
 - transfer time: time to transfer block = f(BW) between upper & lower levels)
 - replacement time: time to make upper-level room for new block, if all active caches are full

Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

AMAT components

Average memory access time = Hit time + Miss rate
$$\times$$
 Miss penalty CPU time = (CPU execution clock cycles + Memory stall clock cycles)
$$\times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

$$\text{CPU time} = IC \times \left(\frac{CPI_{execution}}{Instruction} + \frac{Memory stall clock cycles}{Instruction} \right) \times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

$$\text{CPU time} = IC \times \left(\frac{CPI_{execution}}{Instruction} + \frac{Memory accesses}{Instruction} \times \text{Miss penalty} \right)$$

$$\times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

$$\times \text{Clock cycle time}$$

Assuming that cache hits do not stall the machine!

An example

- Assumption on computer A
 - CPI = 1.0 when all memory accesses hit
 - Data accesses are only loads and stores (explain 50% of insts.)
 - Miss penalty: 25 cc
 - Miss rate: 2%
- Compute the speedup of computer B, for which all cache accesses are hit

$$exectime_B = (CPUcc + MemStallcc) \times Clock \ cycle \ time$$

$$= (IC \times CPI + 0) \times cct = IC \times 1.0 \times Clock \ cycle \ time$$
 $MemStallcc_A = IC \times \frac{MemAccess}{Instruction} \times MissRate \times MissPenalty$

$$= IC \times (1+0.5) \times 0.02 \times 25 = IC \times 0.75$$
 $exectime_A = (CPUcc + MemStallcc) \times Clock \ cycle \ time$

$$= (IC \times CPI + IC \times 0.75) \times Clock \ cycle \ time$$

$$= IC \times 1.75 \times Clock \ cycle \ time$$

4 Questions for Memory Hierarchy

For a given level of the memory hierarchy

- Q1: Where can a block be placed in the upper level? (Block placement)
- Q2: How is a block found if it is in the upper level? (Block identification)
- Q3: Which block should be replaced on a miss? (Block replacement)
- Q4: What happens on a write? (Write strategy)

Q1: Where to Place Blocks?

- Jargon: Each address of a memory location is partitioned into:
 - block address
 - tag
 - index
 - block offset

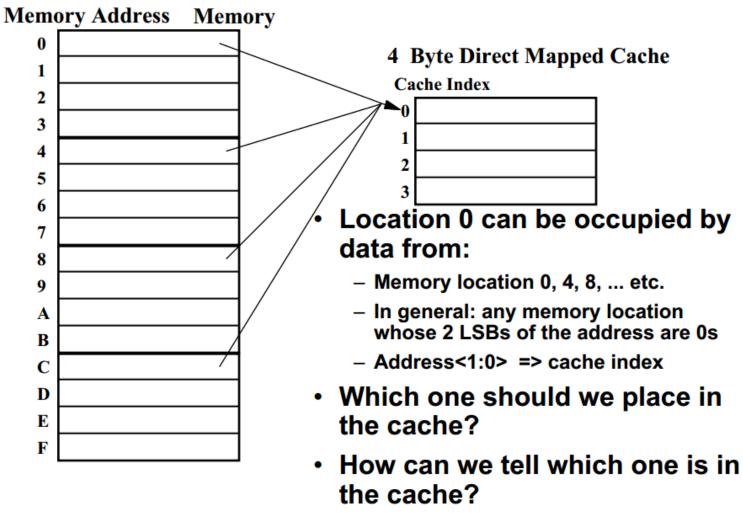
| Block address | Block | |
|---------------|-------|--------|
| Tag | Index | offset |

Fig. C.3

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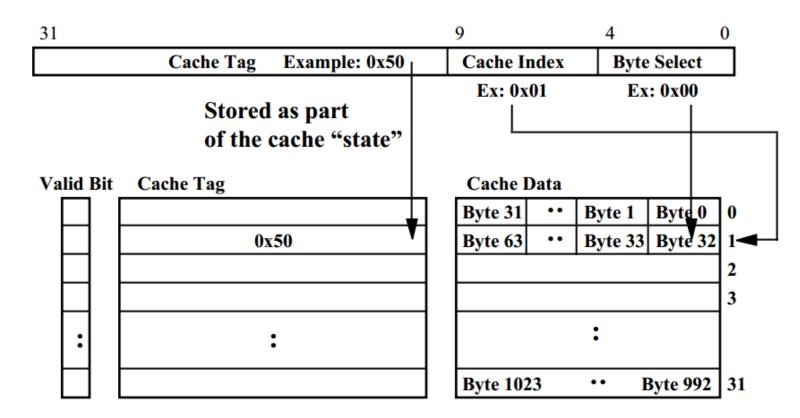
Simplest Cache: Direct Mapped

Use Index in Address to find Cache Location



1 KB Direct Mapped Cache, 32B blocks

- For a 2 ** N byte cache:
 - The uppermost (32 N) bits are always the Cache Tag
 - The lowest M bits are the Byte Select (Block Size = 2 ** M)



Direct Mapped Cache

Advantages

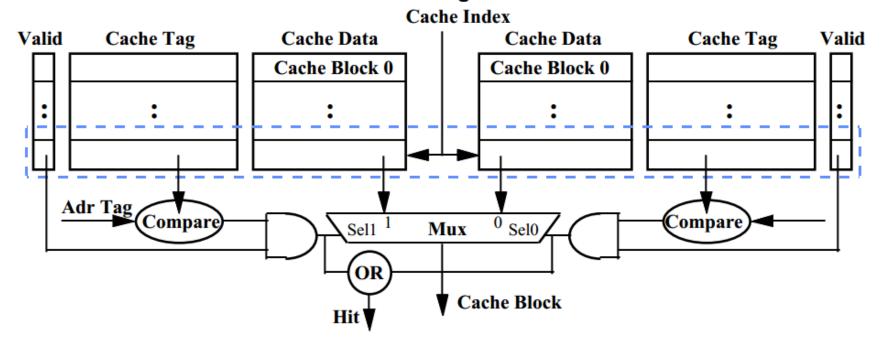
- Simple, low complexity, low power consumption
- Fast hit time
- Data available before cache determines hit or miss
 - Hit/miss check done in parallel with data retrieval

Disadvantages

Conflicts between blocks mapped to same block in cache

Two-way Set Associative Cache

- N-way set associative: N entries for each Cache Index
 - N direct mapped caches operates in parallel (N typically 2 to 4)
- Example: Two-way set associative cache
 - Cache Index selects a "set" from the cache
 - The two tags in the set are compared in parallel
 - Data is selected based on the tag result



Two-way Set Associative Cache

Advantages

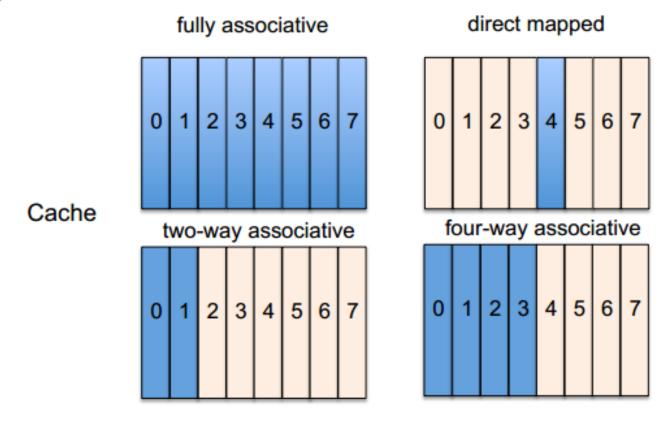
- Choice of mapping memory block to different cache blocks in a set
 - LRU or other policies for good selection of victim blocks
- Reduction of conflicts

Disadvantages

- Increased complexity comparators, multiplexor, parallel tag comparison
- Increased power consumption
- Increased hit time, due to comparators and multiplexor
- Data available after cache determines hit or miss

Cache Mapping Example

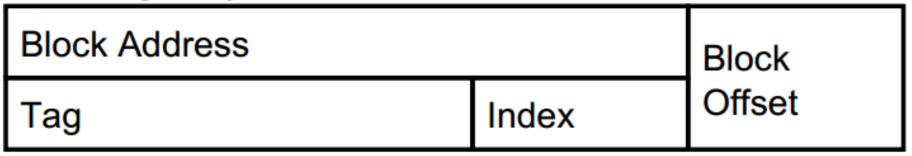
Mapping block 12 from RAM in 8-block cache



Number of sets = #Blocks / Associativity
Set/Index = (Block Address) MOD (Number of sets in cache)

Q2: How is a block found in the cache

Cache tag array



- Index points to line in data array one block or set
- Offset points to byte in block
- Tag compared against tag field in address
- Valid bit ORed with output of tag comparator

Q3: Which block is replaced on a miss

- Easy if direct-mapped (only 1 block "1 way" per set index)
- Three common choices for set-associative cache:
 - Replace an eligible *random* block
 - Replace the least recently used (LRU) block
 - can be hard to keep track of, so often only approximated
 - Replace the oldest eligible block (First In, First Out, or FIFO)
- SPEC2000 benchmark (misses per 1000 instructions)

Set associativity

| | Two-way | | Four-way | | Eight-Way | | | | |
|-------|---------|--------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| Size | LRU | Random | FIFO | LRU | Random | FIFO | LRU | Random | FIFO |
| 16KB | 114.1 | 117.3 | 115.5 | 111.7 | 115.1 | 113.3 | 109.0 | 111.8 | 110.4 |
| 64KB | 103.4 | 104.3 | 103.9 | 102.4 | 102.3 | 103.1 | 99.7 | 100.5 | 100.3 |
| 256KB | 92.2 | 92.1 | 92.5 | 92.1 | 92.1 | 92.5 | 92.1 | 92.1 | 92.5 |

(From Sussman)

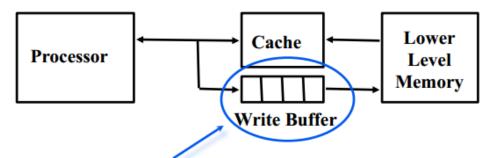
Q4: What happens on a write?

| | Write-Through | Write-Back | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Data word written to cache block | Write new data word only to 1 cache block | |
| Policy | is also written to next lower-level memory Example, instr. sw to L1\$ also goes to L2\$ | Update lower level just before a written block leaves cache, so not lose true value | |
| Debugging | Easier | Harder | |
| Can read misses force writes? | No | Yes (used to slow some reads; now write-buffer) | |
| Do repeated writes touch lower level? | Yes, memory busier | No | |

Two options on a write miss:

- •Fetch line from lower-level and perform write hit ("write allocate")
- •Perform write only to the lower-level cache ("no-write allocate")

Write Buffers for Write-Through Caches



Holds (addresses&) data awaiting writethrough to lower level memory

Q. Why a write buffer?

Q. Why a buffer, why not just one register?

Q. Are Read After Write (RAW) hazards an issue for write buffer?

Q. Can Write Buffer work with Write-Back Cache?

A. So CPU doesn't stall

A. Bursts of writes are common.

A. Yes! Drain buffer before next read, or send read 1st after check write buffers.

A. Yes. Send a block in the writebuffer on each write-back.

Write Buffer Optimization: Write Combine Buffer

- Write buffer mechanics, with merging
 - An entry may contain multiple words (maybe even a whole cache block)
 - If there's an empty entry, the data and address are written to the buffer, and the CPU is done with the write
 - If buffer contains other modified blocks, check to see if new address matches one already in the buffer – if so, combine the new data with that entry
 - If buffer full and no address match, cache and CPU wait for an empty entry to appear (meaning some entry has been written to main memory)
 - Merging improves memory efficiency, since multi-word writes usually faster than one word at a time

Recap: Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

AMAT components

Average memory access time = Hit time + Miss rate
$$\times$$
 Miss penalty CPU time = (CPU execution clock cycles + Memory stall clock cycles) \times Clock cycle time CPU time = $IC \times \left(CPI_{execution} + \frac{\text{Memory stall clock cycles}}{\text{Instruction}} \right) \times \text{Clock cycle time}$ CPU time = $IC \times \left(CPI_{execution} + \text{Miss rate} \times \frac{\text{Memory accesses}}{\text{Instruction}} \times \text{Miss penalty} \right)$

Assuming that cache hits do not stall the machine!

×Clock cycle time

UltraSPARC III

- in-order processor
- ► *CPI*_{execution} = 1.0
- miss penalty = 100 cycles
- miss rate = 2%
- 1.5 memory references per instruction
- 30 cache misses per 1000 instructions

CPU time =
$$IC \times \left(1.0 + 0.02 \times \frac{1.5}{1} \times 100\right) \times \text{Clock cycle time} = IC \times 4 \times \text{cycle time}$$
CPU time = $IC \times \left(1.0 + \frac{30}{1000} \times 100\right) \times \text{Clock cycle time} = IC \times 4 \times \text{cycle time}$

UltraSPARC III

- Cache miss latency increases execution time by 4x
- Higher clock rates imply more clock cycles wasted due to miss penalty
 - Higher relative impact of cache on performance
- HW/SW cache-conscious optimizations attempt reduce AMAT
- Performance depends on both clock cycle and AMAT trade-off

Direct-mapped vs. set-associative cache

- 1 GHz processor
- ► CPI_{execution} = 2.0
- 64 KB caches with 64-byte blocks
- 1.5 memory references per instruction
- Direct mapped cache miss rate = 1.4%
- Set associative cache stretches clock cycle by 1.25, miss rate = 1.0%
- 75 ns miss penalty (i.e. 75 cc or 60 cc)
- 1 cycle hit time

$$AMAT_{direct-mapped} = 1.0 + (.014 \times 75) = 2.05 ns$$

 $AMAT_{2-way} = 1.0 \times 1.25 + (.01 \times 75) = 2.00 ns$

Direct-mapped vs. set-associative cache

CPU time =
$$IC \times \left(CPI_{execution} + \frac{Misses}{Instruction} \times \text{miss penalty} \right) \times \text{clock cycle time}$$

$$CPU \ \text{time}_{direct-mapped} = IC \times (2.0 \times 1.0 + 0.014 \times 1.5 \times 75) = 3.58 \times IC$$

$$CPU \ \text{time}_{two-way} = IC \times (2.0 \times 1.25 + 0.01 \times 1.5 \times 75) = 3.63 \times IC$$

- Associative cache achieves lower AMAT than direct-mapped cache
- Direct-mapped cache achieves higher performance than associative cache

Why? In this example common case (hits) are faster for Direct-mapped cache.

Overlapping memory latency in OOO processors

Miss penalty in OOO

- Processor can execute instructions while cache miss is pending
- Processors can execute instructions also while cache hit is pending
- Hard to attribute stall cycles to instructions
 - Stall cycle is any cycle where at least one instruction does not commit
 - First

$$\frac{\text{Memory stall cycles}}{\text{instruction}} = \frac{\text{Misses}}{\text{instruction}} \times \text{(Total miss latency - overlapped miss latency)}$$