

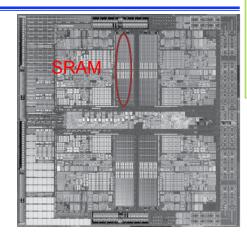
# Chapter 5

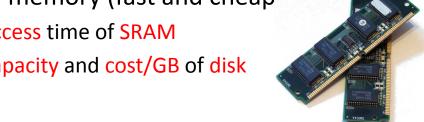
Large and Fast: Exploiting Memory Hierarchy



#### Memory Technology

- Static RAM (SRAM)
  - 0.5ns 2.5ns, \$2000 \$5000 per GB
- Dynamic RAM (DRAM)
  - 50ns 70ns, \$20 \$75 per GB
- Magnetic disk
  - 5ms 20ms, \$0.20 \$2 per GB
- Ideal memory (fast and cheap
  - Access time of SRAM
  - Capacity and cost/GB of disk

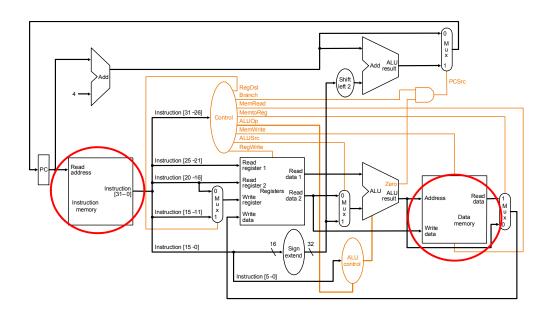








## Recap: Single-Cycle MIPS

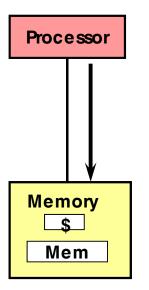


Two memory are used: Instruction and data memory



#### **Memory References Workload**

## programs



# Memory reference stream are instructions that will access memory

```
<op,addr>,
<op,addr>,
<op,addr>,
<op,addr>,
```

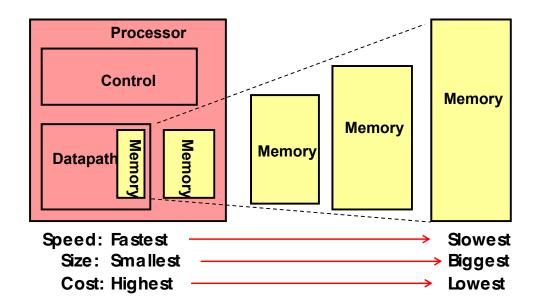
op: instruction fetch, read (1w), and write (sw)

#### Goal:

Optimize the memory system organization to minimize the average memory access time for typical workloads



### Memory Hierarchy: Concept





## Why Hierarchy Works?

#### Principle of Locality:

- Program access a relatively small portion of the address space at any instant of time
- 90/10 rule or 80/20 rule: 10% (20%) of code executes 90% (80%) of time

#### Types of locality:

- Temporal locality: if an item is referenced, it will tend to be referenced again soon
  - E.g., some counter variable in a loop
- Spatial locality: if an item is referenced, items whose addresses are close by tend to be referenced soon
  - E.g., nearby array data A[i] and A[i+1]

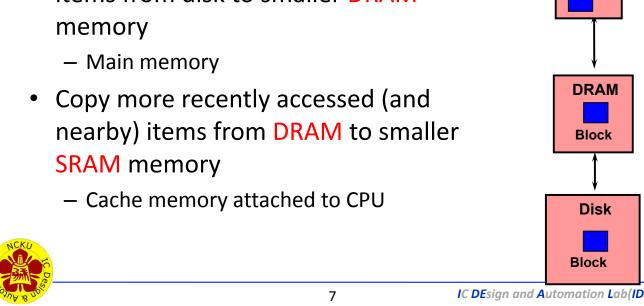
```
for (i=0; i<1000; i++) {
    A[i+1]=A[i]+1
}
```

- i is referenced frequently
- A[i+1], A[i] are nearby



## Taking Advantage of Locality

- Memory hierarchy
- Store everything on disk
- Copy recently accessed (and nearby) items from disk to smaller DRAM memory

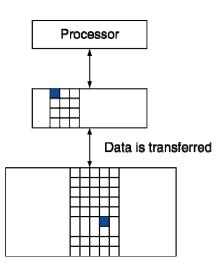




Cache

#### Memory Hierarchy Levels

- Block (aka line): unit of copying, may be multiple words
- Hit: data is present in upper level
  - Access satisfied by upper level
- Miss: data is absent in upper level
  - data needs to be retrieved from a block in the lower level (Block Y)
  - Then accessed data are supplied from upper level



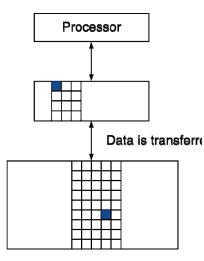


#### Memory Hierarchy Levels: Terminology

 Hit rate (ratio): fraction of memory access found in the upper level

Hit Rate= hits / accesses

- Hit time: time to access the upper level
  - Time to determine hit/miss + Mem access time
- Miss rate = 1 (Hit rate)
- Miss penalty:
  - Time to place (replace) a block (with a block)
     in the upper level + time to deliver the block
     to the processor



it Time << Miss Penalty ⇒ It is important to reduce miss rate

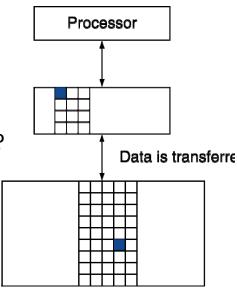
#### **Exercise**

 Suppose 20 misses per 1000 access. The total number of accesses is 10,000, miss rate is 2%, and miss penalty is 100 cycles



2. What are the extra cycles caused by miss?

3. What are the total cycles for the 10,000 access?





10000+10000\*2%\*100=30000

Fro

Cache

**DRAM** 

**Block** 

**Disk** 

**Block** 

#### **Cache Memory**

- Cache memory
  - The level of the memory hierarchy closest to the CPU
- Given accesses  $X_1$ , ...,  $X_{n-1}$ ,  $X_{n_n}$  how do we know if the data is present? Where do we look?
  - First technique: directed mapped

X <sub>4</sub>
X <sub>1</sub>
$X_{n-2}$
$\mathbf{x}_{n-1}$
X <sub>2</sub>
<b>X</b> <sub>3</sub>

	_
X <sub>4</sub>	
X <sub>1</sub>	
X <sub>n-2</sub>	
X <sub>n-1</sub>	
X <sub>2</sub>	
$X_n$	
X <sub>3</sub>	
,	

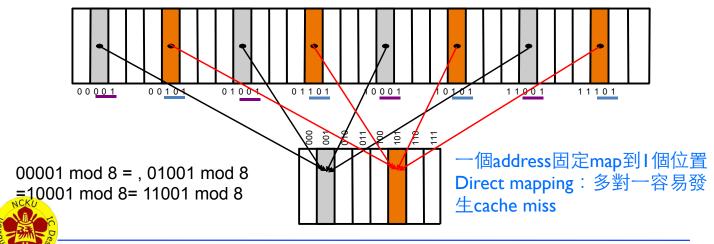


#### Basics of Cache – Direct-mapped cache

- Location determined by address
- Direct mapped: only one choice

常用的放入cache, 其餘放回memory

- (Block address) modulo (#Blocks in cache)
- 32-block main memory, block address are 00000, 00001, 00010..., mapped into a 8-block cache



Cache 8-blocks, direct mapped

Block Address are: 10110, 11010, 10110, 11010, 11010, 10000
 10000, 00011, 10000, 10010, 10000

• Initial state

Valid bit: 1=present, 0 = not present

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	N		
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	N		
111	N		



## Cache Example (access 10110<sub>2</sub>)

	Decimal addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Assigned cache block (Index)
(1)	22	10110	Miss	110

#### (1) Address referred 10110 (miss):

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	N		
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		



# Cache Example (access 11010<sub>2</sub>)

	Decimal addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Assigned cache block (Index)
(1)	22	10110	Miss	110
(2)	26	11010	Miss	010

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	Y	11	Mem[11010]
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		



(3) (4)

Decimal addr	Binary addr	Hit/miss	Cache block
22	10 110	Hit	110
26	11 010	Hit	010

Nothing is changed in cache

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	N		
001	N		
010	Υ	11	Mem[11010]
011	N		
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		



Decimal addr Binary addr Cache block Hit/miss (5) 10 000 000 Miss 16 (6) 00 011 Miss 011 3 (7) 16 10 000 Hit 000

Index	V	Tag	Data
000	Y	10	Mem[10000]
001	N		
010	Υ	11	Mem[11010]
011	Y	00	Mem[00011]
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		



Decimal addr Binary addr Hit/miss Cache block
(8) 18 10 010 Miss 010

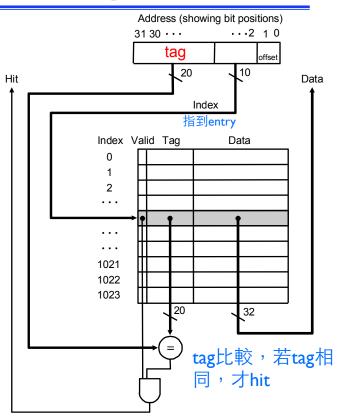
Index	V	Tag	Data
000	Υ	10	Mem[10000]
001	N		
010	Υ	10	Mem[10010]
011	Υ	00	Mem[00011]
100	N		
101	N		
110	Υ	10	Mem[10110]
111	N		



## **Direct-Mapped Cache Organization**

# How do we know where a block is stored in a cache?

- Use Tag and valid bit
- Example, cache has 1024 blocks, each block is 1-word (4bytes)
  - Offset (byte offset): 2 bits (2<sup>2</sup>=4)
  - Cache index: lower 10 bits (2<sup>10</sup>=1024)
  - Cache tag: upper 20 bits (32-2-10)
  - Valid bit (when start up, valid is 0)





#### **Example: Larger Block Size**

- Consider a direct-mapped cache with 64 blocks and a block size of 4 word (byte addressable).
- 1. How many bits for tag, index and offset
- What is the index of the address 1200?

2^4

Block size= 4 words= 16 bytes, therefore, offset is 4 bits (word offset is 2 bits, and byte offset is 2bits

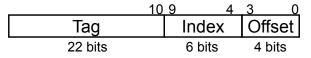
64 blocks in total, therefore, index is 6 bits  $(2^6=64)$ 

Tag has (32-4-6)= 22 bits

1200= 0...10010110000<sub>2</sub>

Index= 001011

Tag=000000000000000000000000001



64 blocks

16 bytes in a block

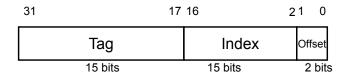


## Example 2

 What is the total cache size for a direct-mapped cache with 2<sup>15</sup> blocks and 1-word block size, assuming a 32-bit address?

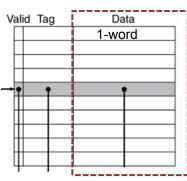
Size to store data =  $2^{15}$  blocks =  $2^{17}$  bytes = 128 KB Index is 15 bit (because  $2^{15}$  blocks)

Tag is 15 bit (32-15-2)



Cache entry size = block data bits + tag bits + valid bit = 32 + (32 - 15 - 2) + 1 = 48 bits

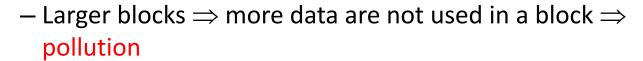
Therefore, cache size =  $2^{15} \times 48$  bits =  $2^{15} \times (1.5 \times 32)$  bits =  $1.5 \times 2^{20}$  bits = 1.5 Mbits



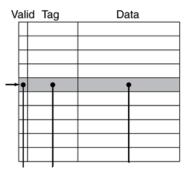
128K

#### **Block Size Considerations**

- Larger blocks should reduce miss rate
  - Due to spatial locality
- But in a fixed-sized cache
  - Larger blocks ⇒ less number of blocks
    - More address compete for a block
      - ⇒ increased miss rate



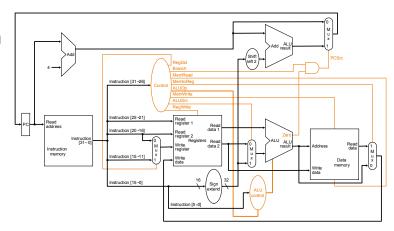
- Larger blocks ⇒ Larger miss penalty
  - Take more time to move a block
  - Can override benefit of reduced miss rate





#### **Cache Misses**

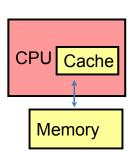
- On cache hit, CPU proceeds normally
- On cache miss
  - Stall the CPU pipeline, Fetch block from next level of hierarchy
  - Instruction cache miss
    - Restart instruction fetch
  - Data cache miss
    - Complete data access





## **Handling Writes**

- On data-write hit, if only update the block in cache CPU 從cache讀資料 (cache會將資料從memory備份)
  - But then cache and memory would be inconsistent cache memory的資料不一致
- Two policies: Write Through and Write back



- Write through: also update memory
  - makes writes take longer because needs
     to wait for MEM operation 需等待memory寫入, 速度慢

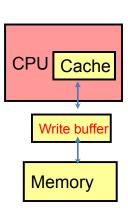
e.g. if base CPI = 1, write to memory takes 100 cycles, miss rate is 10%, find new CPI



#### Handling Writes – Write through

- Improve the performance of write through using write buffer 改善write through效率
  - Holds data waiting to be written to memory
  - -CPU continues immediately
    - Only stalls on write if write buffer is already full

Write Buffer(CPU 控制記憶體): 先將資料寫到write buffer,等到write buffer滿了,才寫回memory





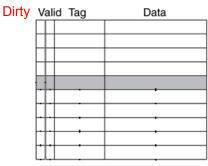
#### Handling Writes -- Write-Back

- Alternative: On data-write hit, just update the block in cache只寫cache,memory不寫
  - Keep track of whether each block is dirty (need a dirty bit) dirty: 資料有被修改



- When a dirty block is replaced block被取代時,將資料寫回memory
  - Write it back to memory
  - Can use a write back buffer to allow replacing block to be read first

讀取時直接讀取write back buffer (不用從memory讀取)

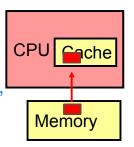


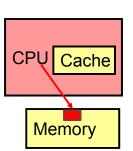
Cache



#### Write Allocation

- What should happen on a write miss (write a block, but the block is not in cache)?
- For write through
  - Allocate the block in cache, and write cache and memory Write allocate: 先將block從memory搬回cache,cache、memory都要寫
  - don't allocate the block (write no-allocate)
    - Aka. Write around
    - Useful for initialization (initialize data before use it)
- For write-back 只寫cache
  - Allocate the block on cache, and write the cache only





不寫入cache,直接寫到memory

#### **Example: Intrinsity FastMATH**

- Embedded MIPS processor (See next slides)
  - 12-stage pipeline
  - Instruction and data access on each cycle
- Split cache: separate I-cache and D-cache
  - Each 16KB: 256 blocks × 16 words/block
  - D-cache: write-through or write-back
- SPEC2000 miss rates

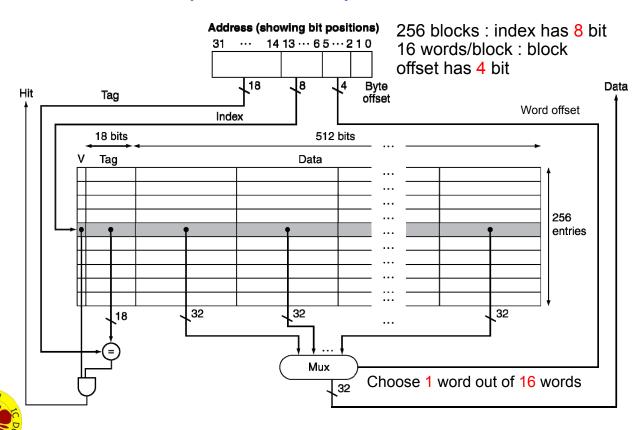
I-cache: 0.4%

D-cache: 11.4%

Weighted average: 3.2%



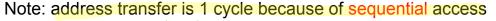
#### Example: Intrinsity FastMATH



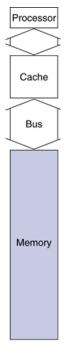
# **Main Memory Supporting Caches**

- Use DRAMs for main memory
  - Fixed width (e.g., 1 word)
  - Connected by fixed-width clocked bus
    - Bus clock is typically slower than CPU clock
- e.g. cache block read
  - 1 bus cycle for address transfer
  - 15 bus cycles per DRAM access(read)
  - 1 bus cycle per data transfer
- For 4-word block, 1-word-wide DRAM

Miss penalty =  $1 + 4 \times 15 + 4 \times 1 = 65$  bus cycles



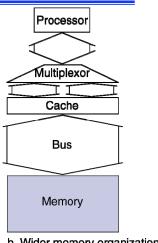
Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 65 cycles = 0.25 Bytes/cycle





# **Increasing Memory Bandwidth**

- Method1: Wider memory and bus width
  - Access 4-word and transfer 4-word at a one time
- Miss penalty and Bandwidth for 4-word wide memory



b. Wider memory organization

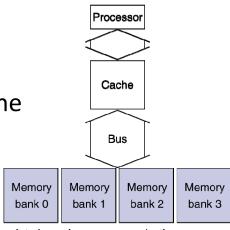
- Miss penalty = 1 + 15 + 1 = 17 bus cycles
- Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 17 cycles = 0.94 B/cycle



Increase bandwidth, but memory and bus cost is high

# **Increasing Memory Bandwidth**

- Method 2: Interleaved memory organize
  - Bus width is the same
  - Sending address to 4 banks at the time
  - => Four memory bank can be accessed at the same time
  - => overlap the access time



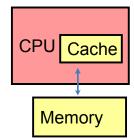
c. Interleaved memory organization

- Miss penalty =  $1 + \frac{15}{15} + 4 \times 1 = \frac{20}{15} = \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{15} = \frac{1}{15} =$
- Bandwidth = 16 bytes / 20 cycles = 0.8 B/cycle



# Measuring Cache Performance

- Components of CPU time
  - Program execution cycles
    - Includes cache hit time
  - Memory stall cycles
    - Mainly from cache misses



CPU Time =

(CPU Clock cycle + Memory stall cycle) × Cycle Time

Memory stall cycles

$$= \frac{\text{Memory accesses}}{\text{Program}} \times \text{Miss rate} \times \text{Miss penalty}$$

$$= \frac{\text{Instructions}}{\text{Program}} \times \frac{\text{Misses}}{\text{Instruction}} \times \text{Miss penalty}$$



## Cache Performance Example

- Given

Data cache

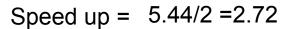
- Instruction cache

  I-cache miss rate = 2%, D-cache miss rate = 4%
- Miss penalty = 100 cycles
- Base CPI (ideal cache) = 2
- Load & stores are 36% of instructions
- 1. Find new CPI
- 2. Compare performance of ideal and actual CPU performance (hint: assume instruction number is I)

#### Miss cycle per instruction

- I-cache: 0.02 x 100 =2
- D-cache: 0.36 × 0.04 × 100 = 1.44

Actual CPI = 
$$2 + 2 + 1.44 = 5.44$$



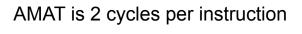
Ideal CPU is 2.72 faster than actual CPU



## Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

- Hit time is also important for performance
- Use AMAT to estimate average time to access data for both hit and miss
- Average memory access time (AMAT)
  - AMAT = Hit time + Miss rate × Miss penalty
- Example
  - CPU with 1ns clock, hit time = 1 cycle, miss penalty = 20 cycles, I-cache miss rate = 5%, find AMAT

$$AMAT = 1 + 0.05 \times 20 = 2ns$$





#### **Different Cache Architectures**

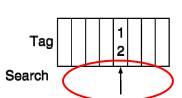
- Direct mapped (have discussed) (= One way set associative)
- - Allow a given block to go in any cache entry 彈性較大,但成本較高
  - All cache entries are searched (in parallel) to locate block

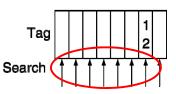
**Direct mapped** 

Comparator per entry (expensive)

**Fully associative** 

Can be placed in any block, every block is searched





Data



Location of a

with address

12 in a cache with 8 entries

memory block

#### **Different Cache Architectures**

- N-way Set associative:
  - Each memory block can place in a set of cache locations (any location in the set, each set contain N entries)
  - cache set number = (Block number) modulo (number of Sets in cache)
  - all cache entries in the set are searched (in parallel) to locate block 資料可隨意放入每一個set
    - N comparators (less expensive)

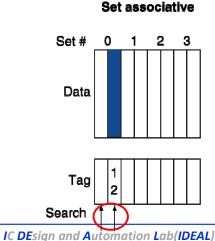
What is the location of a memory block with address 12 in a 2-way cache with 8 entries?

Total # entry= 8, each set has 2 blocks => 4 sets

Set address =  $12 \mod 4 = 0$ 



block number 12 is put into set 0



#### **Different Associativity**

For a cache with 8 entries, four different cache organizatoin

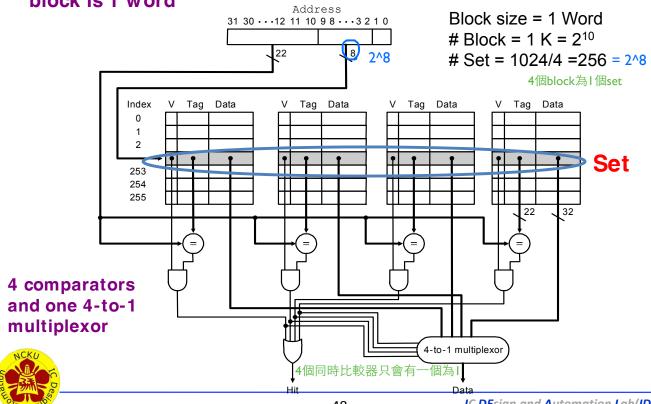
Block	Та	ıg D	ata									Two	-way	set a	sso	ciati	ve				
0											Se	et _	Tag	Data	a Ta	g [	Data	2	WOV.	cot	
1				(	One	wa	y s	et-			0								•	ˈset- iative (a	cot
2						ocia	-		set		1									o block	
3				r	nas	one	blo	ock,			2	:						110	as tw	O DIOCK	3
4				C	lire	cted	ma	app	ed)		3	L									
5																					
6					0-4	<b>T</b>	D-4	<b>.</b> .	D-+-	<b>.</b> .	D-4	<b>.</b> .	D-4	_							
7					Set 0	Tag	Data	a lag	Data	a Tag	Data	a lag	Data	<b>a</b>			•			ative (a	
		•			1										se	t ha	as 4	l bloc	cks)		
	Tan	Data	Tan	Data	Tag	Data	Тал	Data	Tan	Data	Tag	Deta	Tan	Data	Tan	Data					
	iag	Data	iay	Data	ıag	Data	iag	Dala	iag	Dala	ıay	Data	iag	Date	iag	Data					



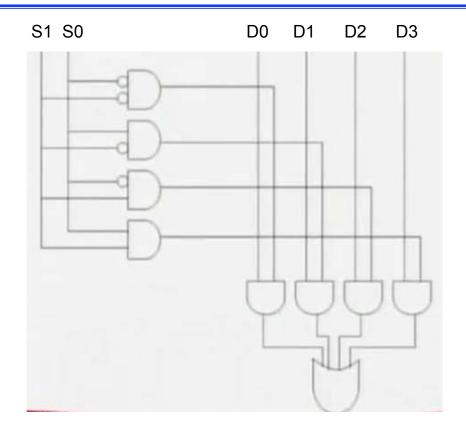
8-way set-associative (a set has 8 blocks), only one set, all blocks are search in a cache access

#### A 4-way set-associative Cache example

#### 4-way set-associative cache size of cache is 1K blocks, each block is 1 word



# 4-to-1 multiplexer





#### **Example Problem**

- Find the number of misses for a 4-block cache with (each block is 1-word) given the following sequence of word addresses of memory block accesses: 0, 8, 0, 6 and 8, for each of the following cache configurations
  - direct mapped
  - 2. 2-way set associative (use LRU replacement policy)
  - 3. fully associative



## **Associativity Example**

- Direct mapped for four 1-word blocks
- Block addresses: 0, 8, 0, 6, 8

Block address	Cache block
0	0(=0 mod 4)
6	2(=6 mod 4)
8	0(=8 mod 4)

Block	Cache	Hit/miss		it after acces	s	
address	index		0	1	2	3
0	0	miss	Mem[0]			
8	0	miss	Mem[8]			
0	0	miss	Mem[0]			
6	2	miss	Mem[0]		Mem[6]	
8	0	miss	Mem[8]		Mem[6]	



## **Associativity Example**

• 2-way set associative (4 misses, 1 hit)

Block	Block Cache		(	S		
address	index		Se	Se	t 1	
0	0	miss	Mem[0]			
8	0	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]		
0	0	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]		
6	0	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[6]		
8	0	miss	Mem[8]	Mem[6]		

Fully associative

Use LRU (least recently used), so Mem[8] is replaced

Block address	Hit/miss	Cache content after access							
0	miss	Mem[0]							
8	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]						
	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]						
6				Mom [61					
6	miss	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	Mem[6]					
8	hit	Mem[0]	Mem[8]	Mem[6]					



(3 misses, 2 hit)

#### Why Set Associate Cache?

- Directed mapped may introduce too many conflict misses
  - Conflict miss: >=1 memory blocks contend a cache line
- Fully associative is too expensive
  - Minimize the number of conflict misses
- Set associative intends to come up with a balance



#### **How Much Associativity**

- Increased associativity decreases miss rate
  - But with diminishing returns
- Simulation of a system with 64KB
   D-cache, 16-word blocks, SPEC2000

- 1-way: 10.3%

- 2-way: 8.6%

- 4-way: 8.3%

- 8-way: 8.1%



#### Replacement Policy

Block	Tag	Data	There		aat aa	saala	tlva
0			1 797	o-way	set as	SOCIE	uve
2			Set	Tag	Data	Tag	Data
3 4			0				
5 6			1				
7			2				
			3				

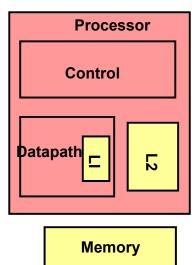
- Direct mapped: no choice
- Set associative
  - Prefer non-valid entry, if there is one
  - Otherwise, choose among entries in the set using Leastrecently used (LRU)
    - Choose the one unused for the longest time
    - Simple for 2-way, manageable for 4-way, too hard beyond that
- Full Associative: Random
  - Gives approximately the same performance as LRU for high associativity



Tag	Data														

#### **Multilevel Caches**

- Use Multilevel Caches to reduce miss penalty
- Primary cache (Level-1) attached to CPU
  - Small, but fast
- Level-2 cache services misses from primary cache
  - Larger, slower, but still faster than main memory
- L-2 cache reduces the write on mem
   reduce miss penalty
- Some high-end systems include L-3

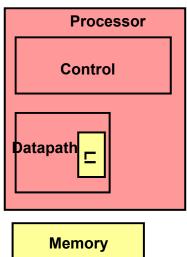


#### Multilevel Cache Example

#### Given

- CPU base CPI = 1, clock rate = 4GHz
- Miss rate/instruction = 2%
- Main memory access time = 100ns
- With just primary cache
  - Miss penalty = 100ns/0.25ns = 400 cycles
  - Effective CPI =  $1 + 0.02 \times 400 = 9$

每個instruction需個cycle執行

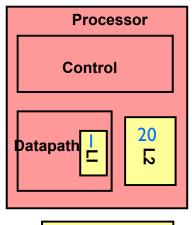






## Example (cont.)

- Now CPI with L-2 Cache
- L-2 cache
  - Access time = 5ns
  - Global miss rate to main memory = 0.5%
- Primary miss with L-2 hit
  - Penalty = 5ns/0.25ns = 20 cycles
- Primary miss with L-2 miss
  - Extra penalty = 400 cycles
- CPI =  $1 + 0.02 \times 20 + 0.005 \times 400 = 3.4$
- Performance ratio = 9/3.4 = 2.6

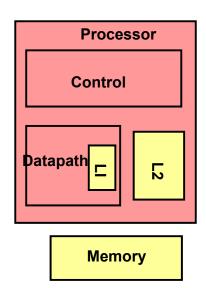






#### Multilevel Cache Considerations

- Primary cache
  - Focus on minimal hit time
- L-2 cache
  - Focus on low miss rate to avoid main memory access
  - Hit time has less overall impact
- Results
  - L-1 cache usually smaller than a single cache
  - L-1 block size smaller than L-2 block size







# **Backup Slides**

