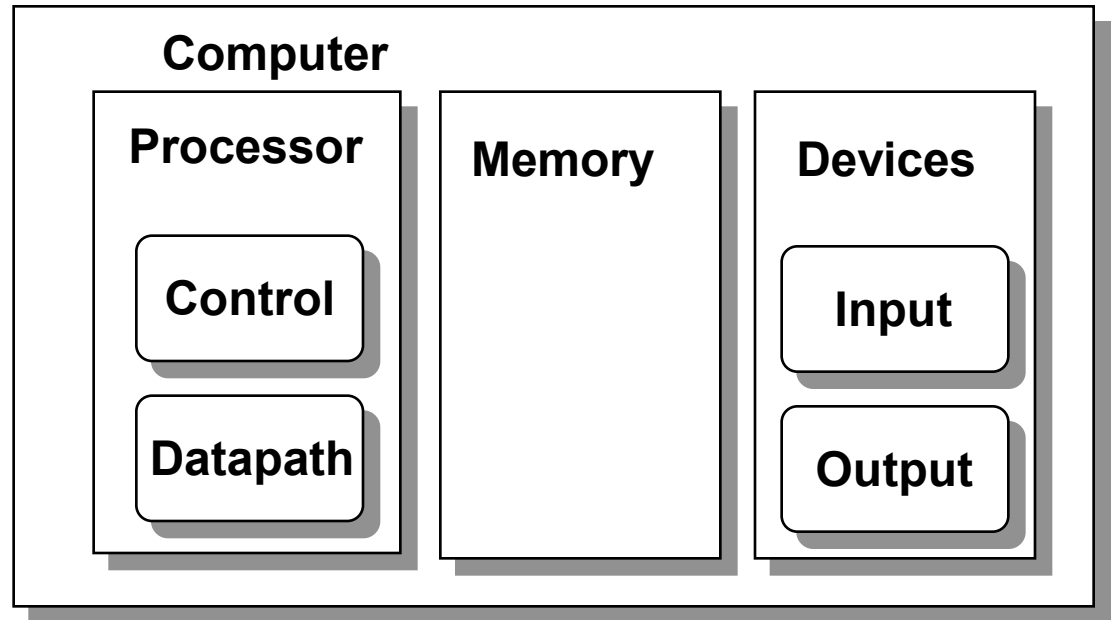


Memory Hierarchy: Caches, Virtual Memory

Readings: 5.1-5.4, 5.8

Big memories are slow

Fast memories are small



Need to get fast, big memories

Random Access Memory

Dynamic Random Access Memory (DRAM)

High density, low power, cheap, but slow

Dynamic since data must be “refreshed” regularly

Random Access since arbitrary memory locations can be read

Static Random Access Memory

Low density, high power, expensive

Static since data held as long as power is on

Fast access time, often 2 to 10 times faster than DRAM

Technology	Access Time	Cost/Capacity
SRAM	1-7 cycles	10,000x
DRAM	100 cycles	200x
Disk	10K – 10M cycles	1x

The Problem

Cost vs. Performance

- Fast memory is expensive

- Slow memory can significantly affect performance

Design Philosophy

- Use a hybrid approach that uses aspects of both

- Keep frequently used things in a small amount of fast/expensive memory

 - “Cache”

- Place everything else in slower/inexpensive memory (even disk)

- Make the common case fast

Locality

Programs access a relatively small portion of the address space at a time

```
char *index = string;
while (*index != 0) { /* C strings end in 0 */
    if (*index >= 'a' && *index <= 'z')
        *index = *index + ('A' - 'a');
    index++;
}
```

Types of Locality

Temporal Locality – If an item has been accessed recently, it will tend to be accessed again soon

Spatial Locality – If an item has been accessed recently, nearby items will tend to be accessed soon

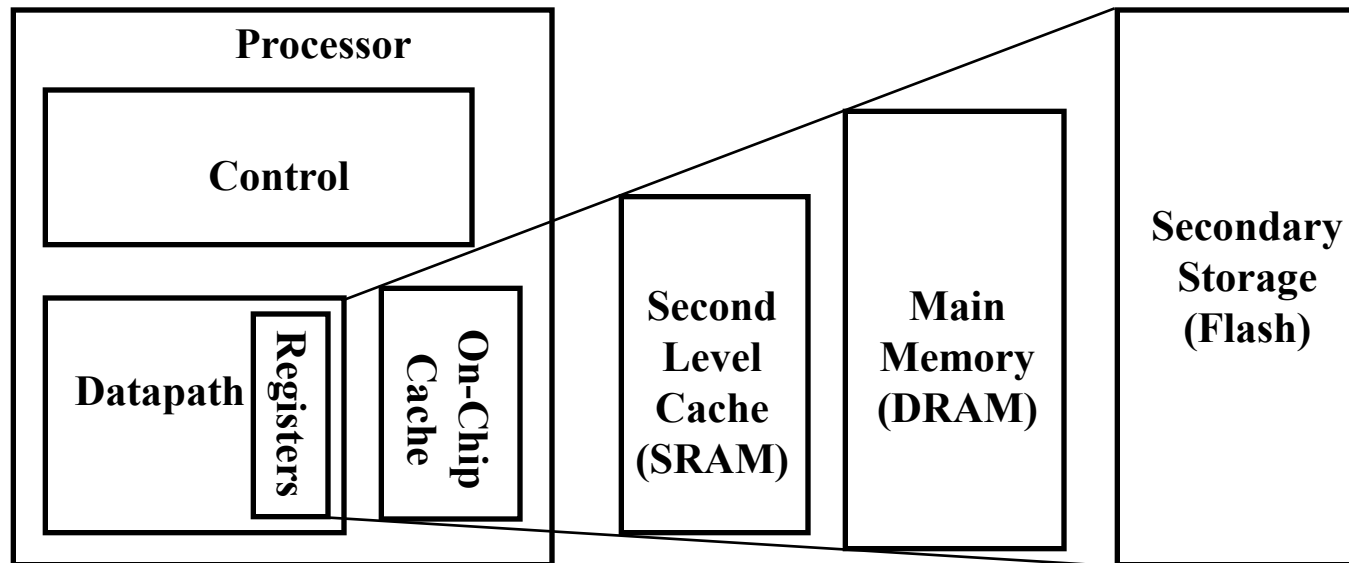
Locality guides caching

The Solution

By taking advantage of the principle of locality:

Provide as much memory as is available in the cheapest technology.

Provide access at the speed offered by the fastest technology.



Name	Register	Cache	Main Memory	Disk Memory
Speed	1 cycle	1-7 cycles	100 cycles	10,000 cycles
Capacity	1x (norm.)	64-4Kx	4Mx	1Gx

Cache Terminology

Block – Minimum unit of information transfer between levels of the hierarchy

Block addressing varies by technology at each level

Blocks are moved one level at a time

Upper vs. **lower** level – “upper” is closer to CPU, “lower” is further away

Hit – Data appears in a block in that level

Hit rate – percent of accesses hitting in that level

Hit time – Time to access this level

Hit time = Access time + Time to determine hit/miss

Miss – Data does not appear in that level and must be fetched from lower level

Miss rate – percent of misses at that level = $(1 - \text{hit rate})$

Miss penalty – Overhead in getting data from a lower level

Miss penalty = Lower level access time + Replacement time + Time to deliver to processor

Miss penalty is usually MUCH larger than the hit time

Cache Access Time

Average access time

$$\text{Access time} = (\text{hit time}) + (\text{miss penalty}) \times (\text{miss rate})$$

Want high hit rate & low hit time, since miss penalty is large

Average Memory Access Time (AMAT)

Apply average access time to entire hierarchy.

Cache Access Time Example

Level	Hit Time	Hit Rate	Access Time
L1	1 cycle	95%	
L2	10 cycles	90%	
Main Memory	50 cycles	99%	
Disk	50,000 cycles	100%	

Note: Numbers are **local** hit rates – the ratio of access that go to that cache that hit (remember, higher levels filter accesses to lower levels)

Handling A Cache Miss

Processor expects a cache hit (1 cycle), so no effect on hit.

Instruction Miss

1. Send the original PC to the memory
2. Instruct memory to perform a read and wait (no write enables)
3. Write the result to the appropriate cache line
4. Restart the instruction

Data Miss

1. Stall the pipeline (freeze following instructions)
2. Instruct memory to perform a read and wait
3. Return the result from memory and allow the pipeline to continue

Exploiting Locality

Spatial locality

Move blocks consisting of multiple contiguous words to upper level

Temporal locality

Keep more recently accessed items closer to the processor

When we must evict items to make room for new ones, attempt to keep more recently accessed items

Cache Arrangement

How should the data in the cache be organized?

Caches are smaller than the full memory, so multiple addresses must map to the same cache “line”

Direct Mapped – Memory addresses map to particular location in that cache

Fully Associative – Data can be placed anywhere in the cache

N-way Set Associative – Data can be placed in a limited number of places in the cache depending upon the memory address

Direct Mapped Cache

4 byte direct mapped cache with 1 byte blocks

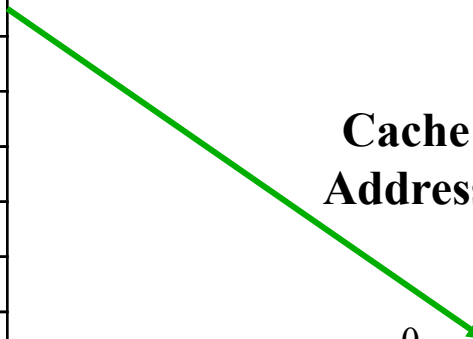
Optimize for spatial locality (close blocks likely to be accessed soon)

Memory Address

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	
A	
B	
C	
D	
E	
F	

**Cache
Address**

0	
1	
2	
3	



Finding A Block

Each location in the cache can contain a number of different memory locations

Cache 0 could hold 0, 4, 8, 12, ...

We add a **tag** to each cache entry to identify which address it currently contains

What must we store?

Cache Tag & Index

Assume 2^9 byte direct mapped cache with 1 byte blocks

31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	11	10	09	08	07	06	05	04	03	02	01	00
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	

Cache Tag = 57

Cache Index=03

	Valid Bit	Tag	Data
0			
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
2^9-1			

Cache Access Example

Assume 4 byte cache

Access pattern:

00001

00110

00001

11010

00110

	Valid Bit	Tag	Data
0	<input type="checkbox"/>		
1	<input type="checkbox"/>		
2	<input type="checkbox"/>		
3	<input type="checkbox"/>		

Cache Size Example

How many total bits are required for a direct-mapped cache with 64 KB of data and 1-byte blocks, assuming a 32-bit address?

Index bits:

Bits/block:

Data:

Valid:

Tag:

Total size:

Cache Block Overhead

Previous discussion assumed direct mapped cache 1 byte blocks

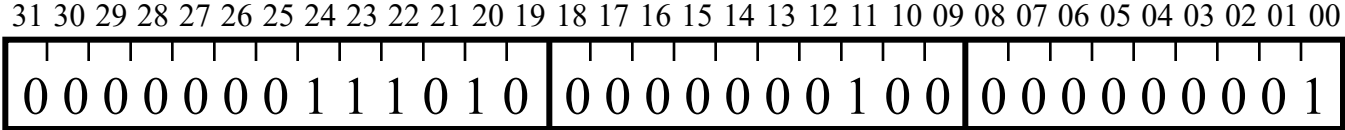
Uses temporal locality by holding on to previously used values

Does not take advantage of spatial locality

Significant area overhead for tag memory

Take advantage of spatial locality & amortize tag memory via larger block size

	Valid Bit	Tag	Data			
0						
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮
2^n-1						

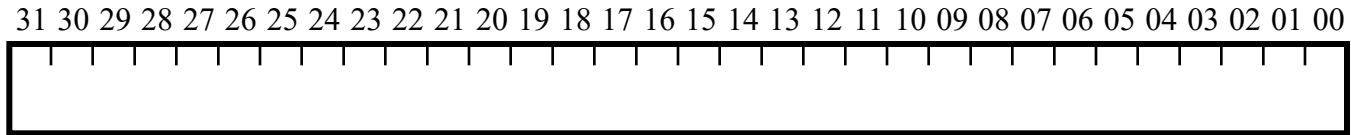


Byte Select = 1

	Valid Bit	Tag	Data			
			0	1		2^9-1
0					...	
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots		\vdots
$2^{10}-1$						

Cache Block Example

Given a cache with 64 blocks and a block size of 16 bytes, what are the byte select, cache index, and tag for byte address 1200_{10} ?



Block Size Tradeoff

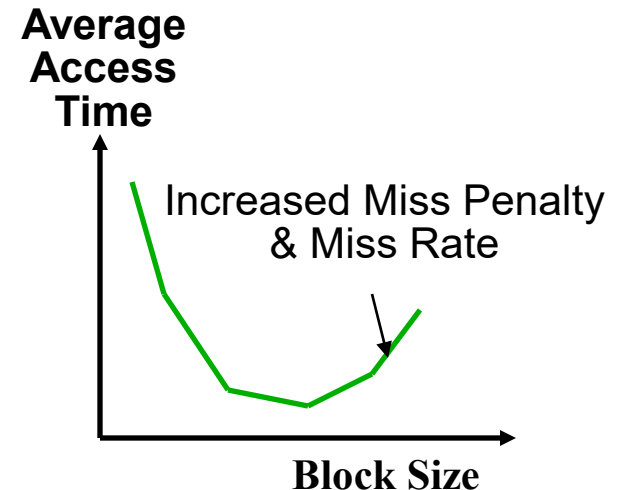
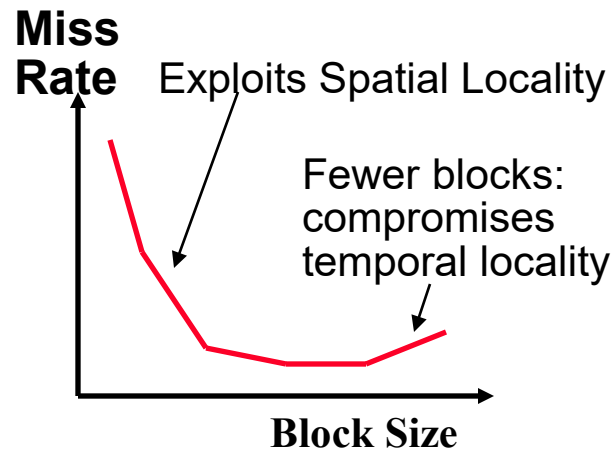
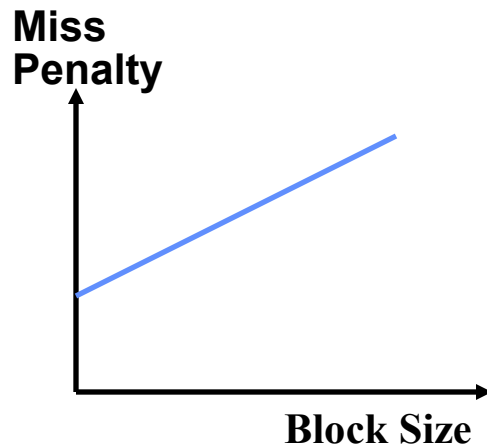
In general, larger block size take advantage of spatial locality **BUT**:

Larger block size means larger miss penalty:

Takes longer time to fill up the block

If block size is too big relative to cache size, miss rate will go up

Too few cache blocks



Direct Mapped Cache Problems

What if regularly used items happen to map to the same cache line?

Ex. $\&(\text{sum}) = 0$, $\&(\text{I}) = 64$, cache is 64 bytes

	Valid Bit	Tag	Data
<code>int sum = 0;</code>	0		
<code>...</code>	1		
<code>for (int I=0; I!=N; I++) {</code>	2		
<code> sum += I;</code>	3		
<code>}</code>	4		
	5		
	6		
	7		
	⋮	⋮	⋮
	63		

Thrashing – Continually loading into cache but evicting it before reuse

Cache Miss Types

Several different types of misses (categorized based on problem/solution)

3 C's of cache design

Compulsory/Coldstart

First access to a block – basically unavoidable (though bigger blocks help)

For long-running programs this is a small fraction of misses

Capacity

The block needed was in the cache, but unloaded because too many other accesses intervened.

Solution is to increase cache size (but bigger is slower, more expensive)

Conflict

The block needed was in the cache, and there was enough room to hold it and all intervening accesses, but blocks mapped to the same location knocked it out.

Solutions

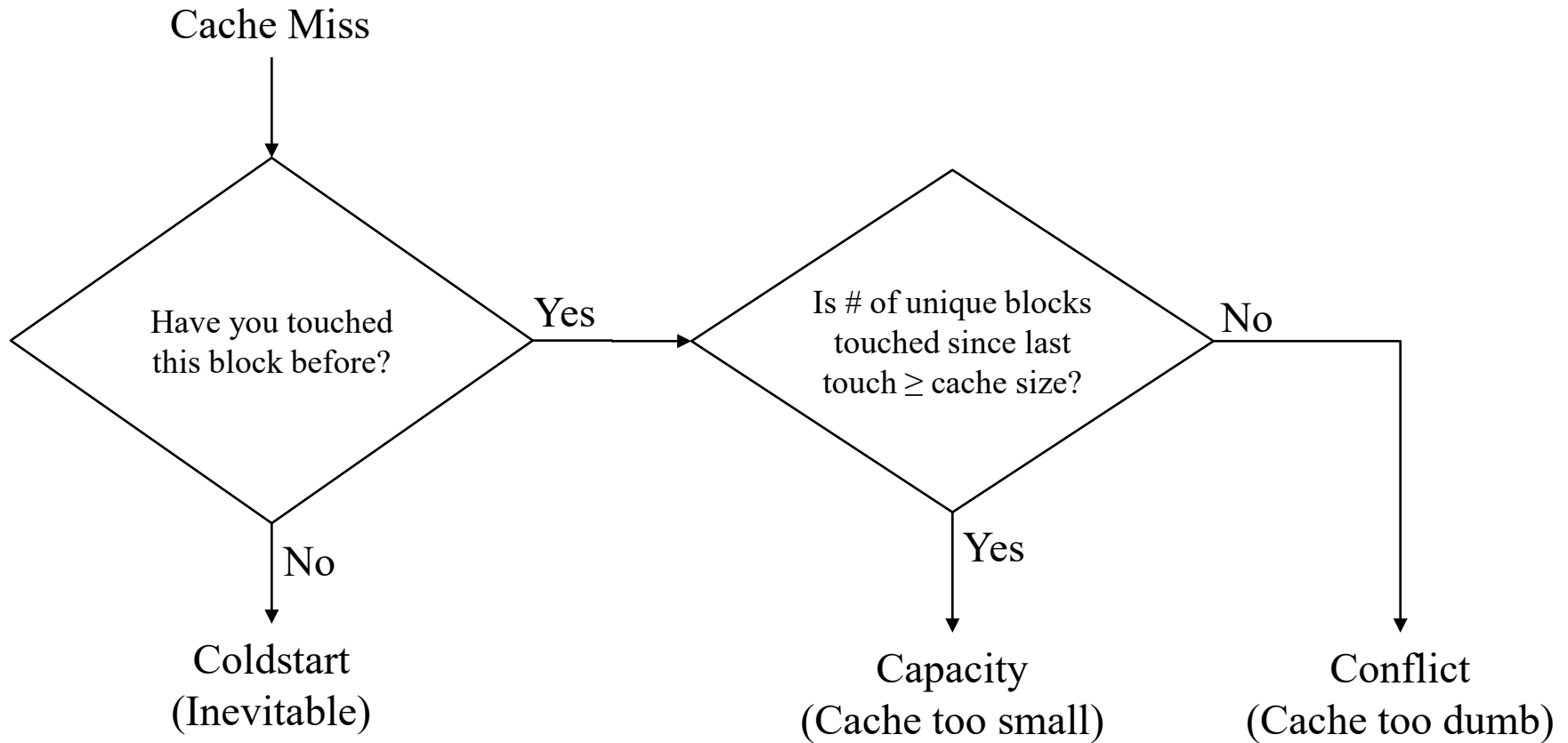
Cache size

Associativity

Invalidation

I/O or other processes invalidate the cache entry

Categorizing misses amongst the 3 C's



Fully Associative Cache

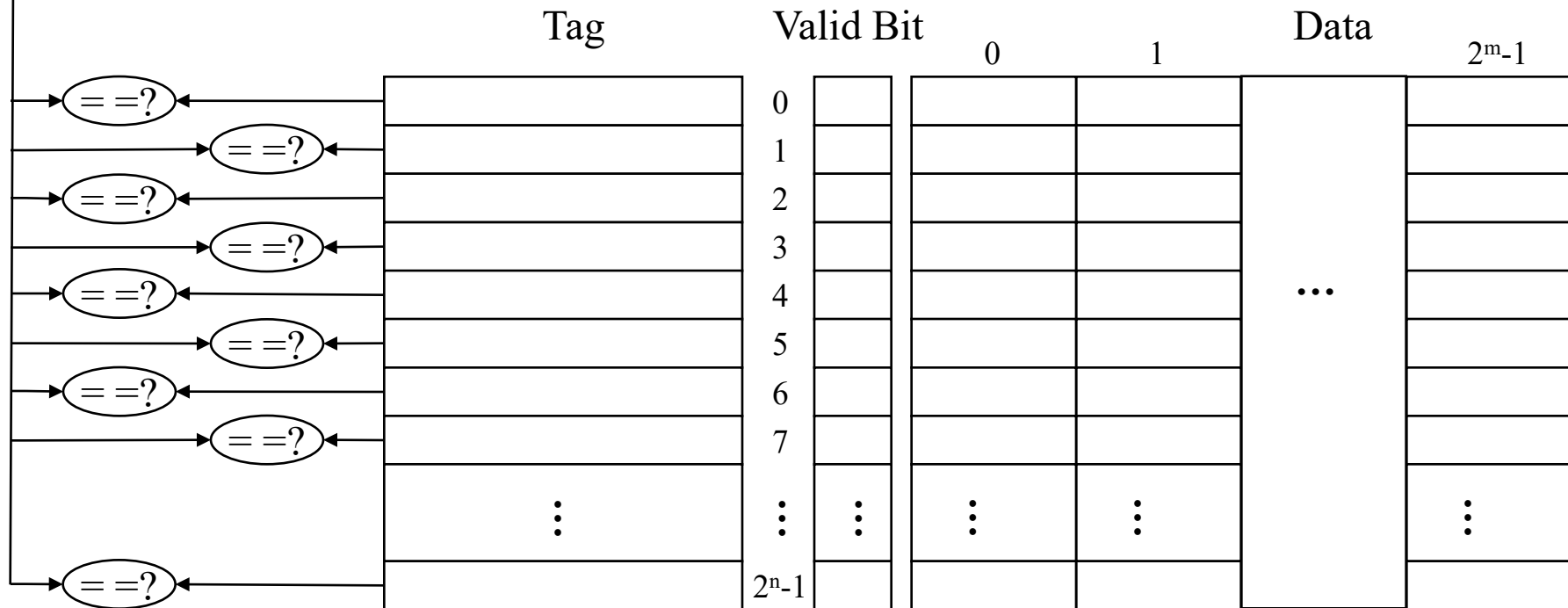
No cache index – blocks can be in any cache line

31 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 09 08 07 06 05 04 03 02 01 00

0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Cache Tag = 57

Byte Select=01



Fully Associative vs. Direct Mapped

N-way Set Associative

N lines are assigned to each cache index

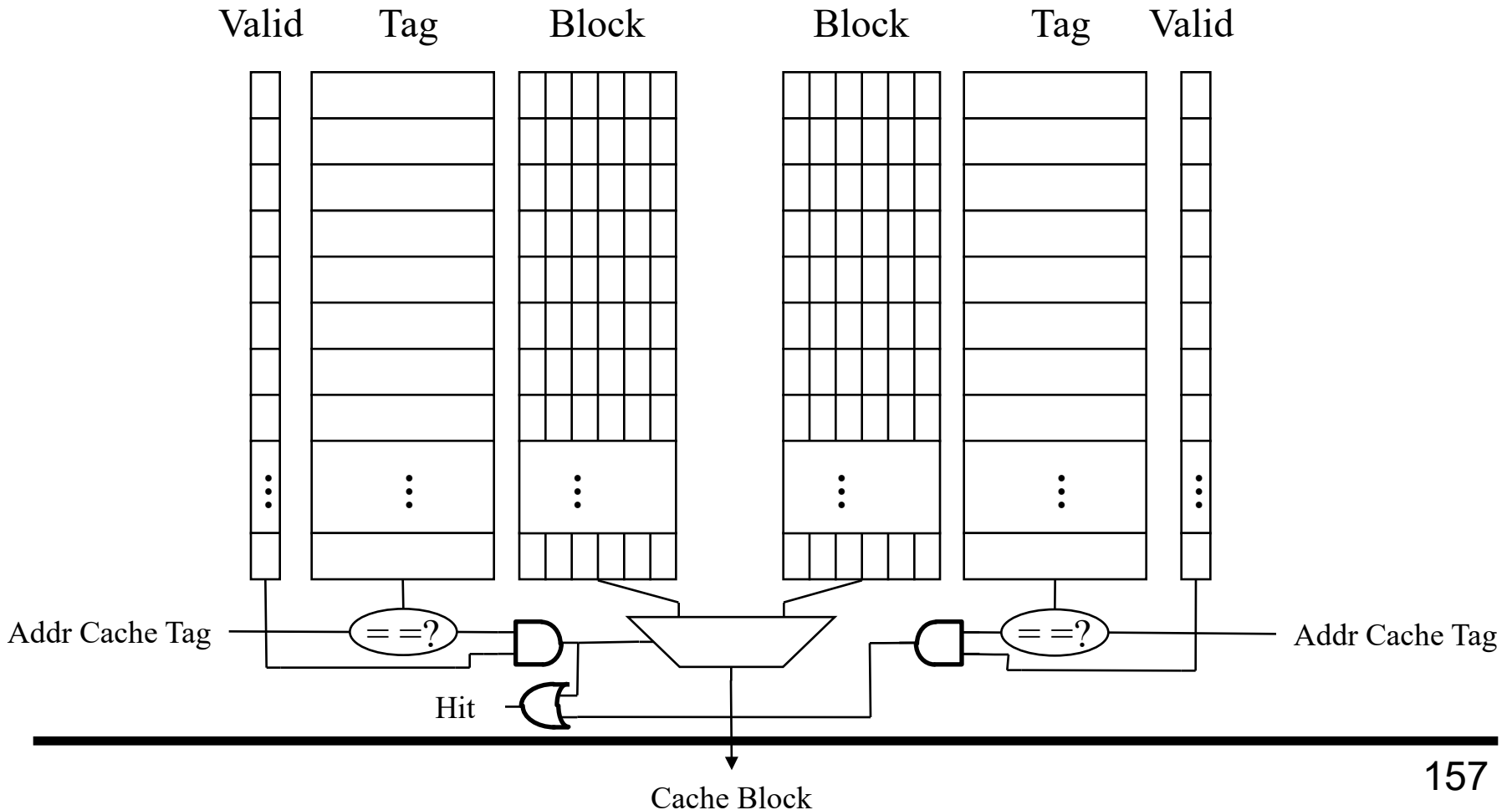
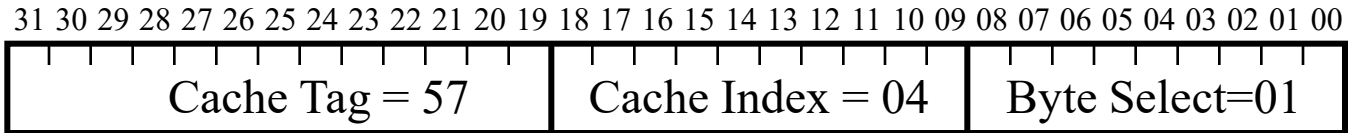
~ N direct mapped caches working in parallel

Direct mapped = 1-way set associative

Fully Associative = 2^N -way set associative (where 2^N is # of cache lines)

2-Way Set Associative Cache

Cache index selects a “set”, two tags compared in parallel



N-way vs. Other Caches

Cache Miss Comparison

Fill in the blanks: Zero, Low, Medium, High, Same for all

	Direct Mapped	N-Way Set Associative	Fully Associative
Cache Capacity: Small, Medium, Big?			
Compulsory/Coldstart Miss:			
Capacity Miss			
Conflict Miss			
Invalidation Miss	Same	Same	Same

Complex Cache Miss Example

8-word cache, 2-word blocks. Determine types of misses (CAP, COLD, CONF).

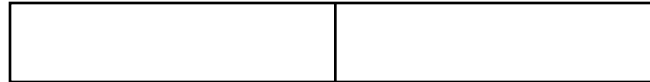
Byte Addr	Block Addr	Direct Mapped	2-Way Assoc	Fully Assoc
0				
4				
8				
24				
56				
8				
24				
16				
0				
Total:				

Writing & Caches

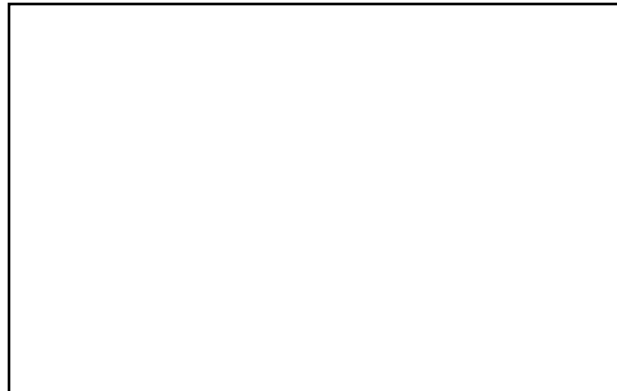
Direct-mapped cache with 16-byte blocks, initially **empty**

```
STUR X0, [X31, #0]
```

Cache Line:



Main Memory:



Writing & Caches (cont.)

Replacement Methods

If we need to load a new cache line, where does it go?

Direct-mapped

Set Associative

Fully Associative

Replacement Strategies

When needed, pick a location

Approach #1: Random

Just arbitrarily pick from possible locations

Approach #2: Least Recently Used (LRU)

Use temporal locality

Must track somehow – extra cache bits to indicate how recently used

In practice, Random typically only 12% worse than LRU

Split Caches

Instruction vs. Data accesses

How do the two compare in usage?

How many accesses/cycle do we need for our pipelined CPU?

Typically split the caches into separate instruction, data caches

- Higher bandwidth

- Optimize to usage

- Slightly higher miss rate because each cache is smaller.

Multi-level Caches

Instead of just having an on-chip (L1) cache, an off-chip (L2) cache is helpful

Ex. Base machine with CPI = 1.0 if all references hit the L1, 2 GHz

Main memory access delay of 50ns. L1 miss rate of 5%

How much faster would the machine be if we added a L2 with a miss rate of 10%, and an access time of 20ns.

Cache Summary

Virtual Memory

Technology	Access Time	Cost/Capacity
SRAM	1-7 cycles	10,000x
DRAM	100 cycles	200x
Disk	10K – 10M cycles	1x

Disk more cost effective than even DRAM

Use Disk as memory?

Virtual Memory: View disk as the lowest level in the memory hierarchy

“Page” memory to disk when information won’t fit in main memory

Virtual Addresses

Thought experiment: What happens when you run two programs at once?
How do they share the address space?

Solution: Virtual addresses

Each address the processor generates is a **Virtual Address**

Virtual Addresses are mapped to **Physical Addresses**

Virtual address may correspond to address in memory, or to disk

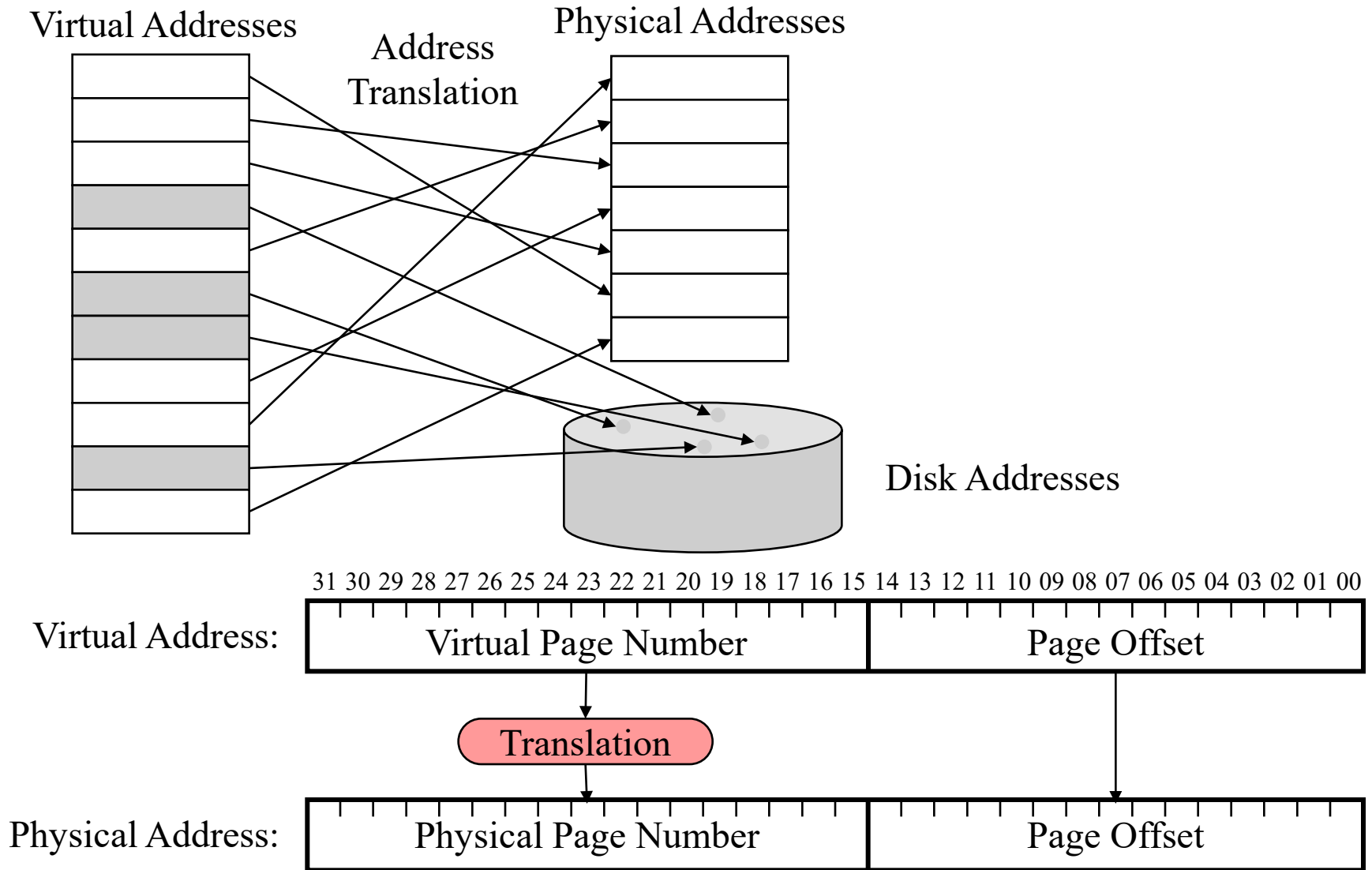
Other important terminology

Page – the block for main memory, moved as a group to/from disk

Page fault – “miss” on main memory. Handled as a **processor exception**

Memory mapping/address translation – conversion process from virtual to physical addresses

Virtual to Physical Addresses



Virtual Memory Summary

Main Memory is a cache

- Large cache lines/page size – spatial locality

- Huge page fault/cache miss penalty – fully associative, software managed

- Translation complex – cache the misses themselves

Thrashing