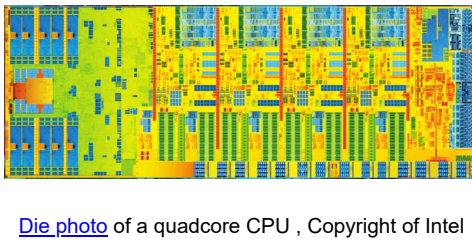


MICROARCHITECTURE CHEAT SHEET

X86 CPUs & Performance



LAST UPDATE DATE : 12 OCT 2024

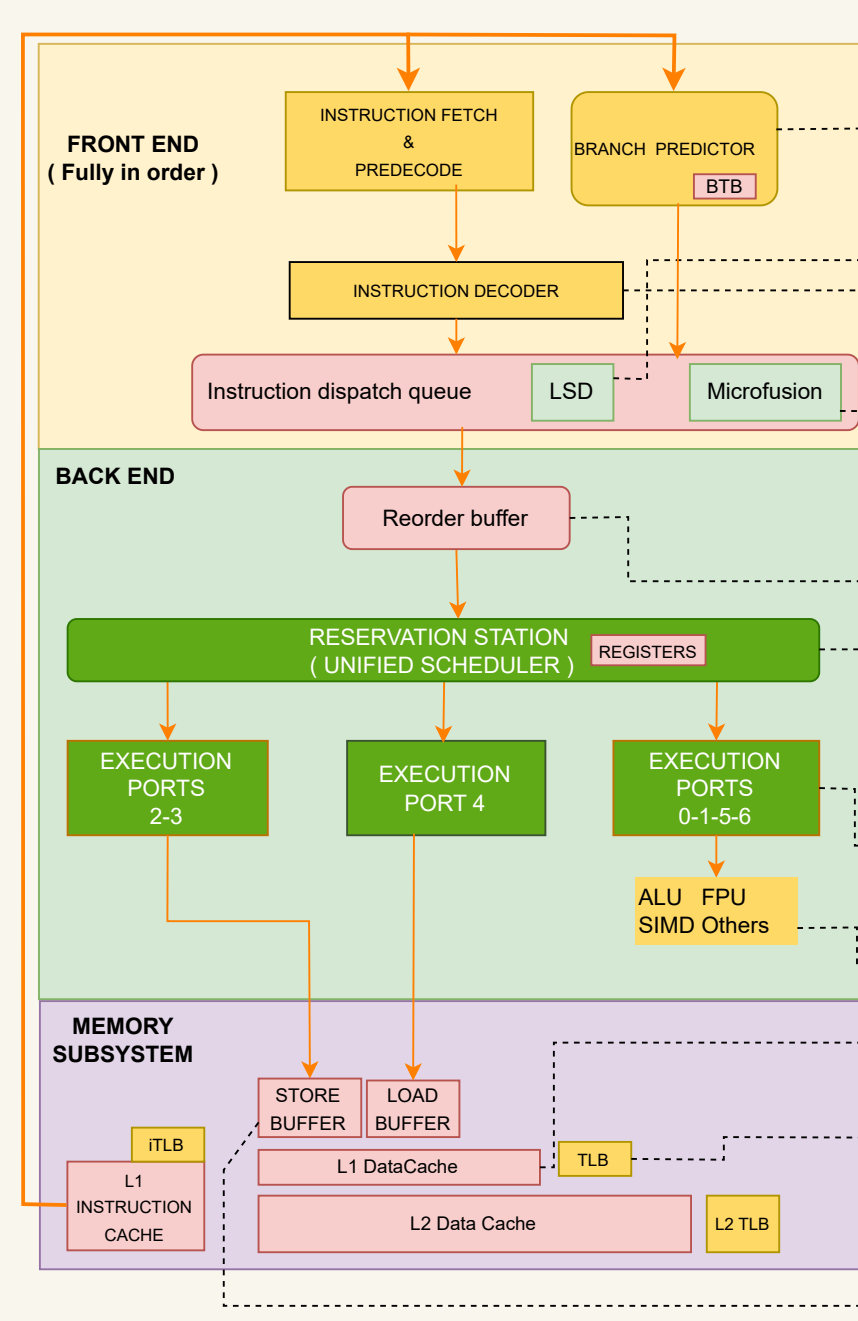
FOR LATEST VERSION : [www.github.com/akin/microarchitecture-cheatsheet](https://github.com/akin/microarchitecture-cheatsheet)

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PIPELINE REALM :

INSIDE AN INDIVIDUAL CORE

A SIMPLIFIED OVERVIEW (BASED ON INTEL SKYLAKE)



Speculative execution
See the branch prediction realm for branch predictor, BTB and LSD.

UOPs/MicroOps
CISC instructions are split into smaller RISC instructions called as uops for more throughput.

Microfusion
Memory write and read-modify uops are combined into a single uop for better throughput.

Out of order execution
This is done at the backend to improve the throughput.

Super scalar execution
Multiple uops executed in parallel.

Arithmetic operations
See the arithmetic realm.

Caches
See the cache memory realm.

TLBs
See the virtual memory realm.

Load-Store buffers
See the load-store realm.

Based on: [Skylake server on wikipedia.org](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/skylake-server-on-wikipedia.org)

AMD pipelines : The main difference in AMD architectures is that there are parallel pipelines for integers and floating points : [AMD Zen2 pipeline diagram on wikipedia.org](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

PIPELINE PARALLELISM & PERFORMANCE

Pipeline diagrams : The diagrams below in the following topics are outputs from an online microarchitecture analysis tool [cyclostationary](https://www.cyclostationary.com/cyclostationary) and they represent parallel execution through cycles.

Rows are multiple instructions being executed at the same time.

Columns display how instruction state changes through cycles.

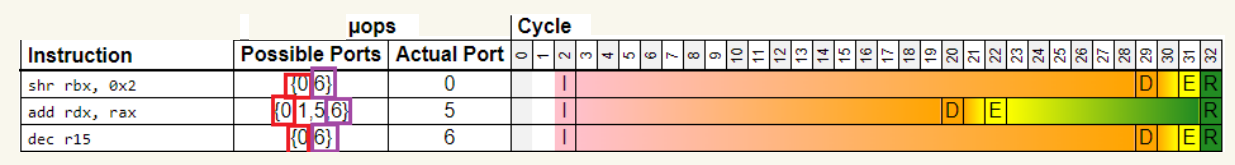
IPC : As for pipeline performance, typically IPC is used. It stands for "Instructions per cycle".

A higher IPC value usually means a better throughput.

You can measure IPC with perf : <https://perf.wiki.kernel.org/doc/FAQ.html>

Rate of retired instructions : Apart from IPC, number of retired instructions should be checked. Retired instructions are not committed/finalised as they were wrongly speculated. On the other hand executed instructions are the ones which were finalised. Therefore a high rate of retired instructions indicates low branch prediction rate.

CONTENT FOR EXECUTION PORTS IN THE PIPELINE

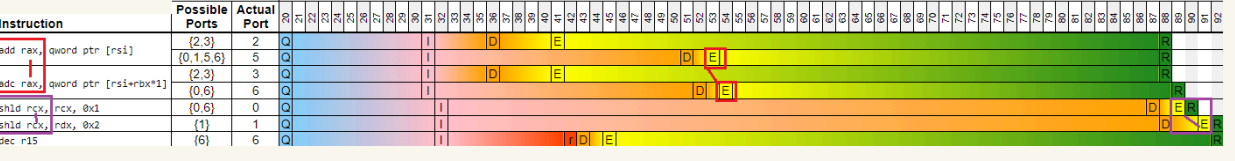


In the example above, all instructions are working on different registers, but SHR, ADD, DEC instructions are competing for ports 6 and 6. SHR and DEC are getting executed after ADD instruction.

Also notice that there is longer time between (Executed) and (Retired) states of instruction ADD as retirement has to be done in-order whereas execution is out-of-order.

Reference : [Dima Bakhtov's article](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

INSTRUCTION STALLS DUE TO DATA DEPENDENCY



In the example above, there are 2 dependency chains, each marked with a different colour. In the first red coloured one, 2 instructions are competing for the RAX register and notice that the second instruction gets executed after the first one. And the same applies to the 2nd purple pair.

Reference : [Dima Bakhtov's article](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

ROTSOP INSTRUCTION FOR MEASUREMENTS

TSC (time stamp counter) is a special register that counts CPU cycles. ROTSCP can be used to read the TSC value which can then be used for measurements. It can also avoid out-of-order execution effects to a degree.

It does wait until all previous instructions have executed and all previous reads are globally visible.

(From [Intel's How to benchmark code execution times](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/rotscop-instruction-manual.pdf) whitepaper has details of using ROTSCP instruction.

ESTIMATING INSTRUCTION LATENCIES

You can use Agner Fog's [instruction-latencies](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies) to find out instructions' reciprocal throughput (clock cycle per instruction). As an example, reciprocal throughput of instruction ROTSCP is 32 on Skylake microarchitecture.

(From [Intel's How to benchmark code execution times](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/rotscop-instruction-manual.pdf) whitepaper has details of using ROTSCP instruction.

~ 1 cycle @ 5.5 GHz (highest frequency on Skylake) is 0.22 nanoseconds
~ 32*0.22=7.04 nanoseconds

So its resolution estimation is about 7 nanoseconds on a 4.5 GHz Skylake CPU. You have to recalculate it for different microarchitectures and clock speeds.

HYPERTHREADING / SIMULTANEOUS MULTITHREADING

Hyperthreading name is used by Intel and it is called as "Simultaneous multithreading" by AMD. In both resources including caches and execution units are shared.

Reference : Agner Fog's [microarchitecture book](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies) has "multithreading" sections for each of Intel and AMD microarchitectures.

Regarding using it, if your app is data-intensive, halted caches won't help. Therefore it can be disabled if via BIOS settings in general, it moves the control of resources from software to hardware and that is usually not desired for performance critical applications.

DYNAMIC FREQUENCIES

Modern CPUs employ dynamic frequency scaling which means there is a min and a max frequency per CPU core.

APX : APX defines multiple power states and modern CPUs implement them. P-States are for performance and C-States are for energy efficiency.

Intel has various [processor features](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/processor-features-whitepaper.pdf) and the most well known is TurboBoost. On AMD side there is [TurboCore](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors). You can use those to maximize the CPU usage.

Number of active cores & SIMD AVX2/AVX512 on Intel CPUs : Intel's power management policies are complex. See the arithmetic and the multithreading realm as number of active cores and some of AVX2/AVX512 extensions also may affect the frequency when in TurboBoost.

Varying max clock speeds on AMD CPUs : Some AMD CPUs' cores have slightly varying max frequencies. Therefore AMD CPUs have "preferred core" concept. Reference : [AMD's GDC42 presentation page19](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

LOAD STORE REALM

LOAD AND STORE BUFFERS
Load and store buffers allow CPU to do out-of-order execution on loads and stores by decoupling speculative execution and committing the results to the cache memory.

Reference : https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_ordering#Load-Store_buffers

STORE-TO-LOAD FORWARDING
Using buffers for stores and loads to support out of order execution leads to a data synchronization issue. That issue is described in en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_ordering#Store-to-load_forwarding.

As a solution, CPU can forward a memory store operation to a following load, if they are both operating on the same address.

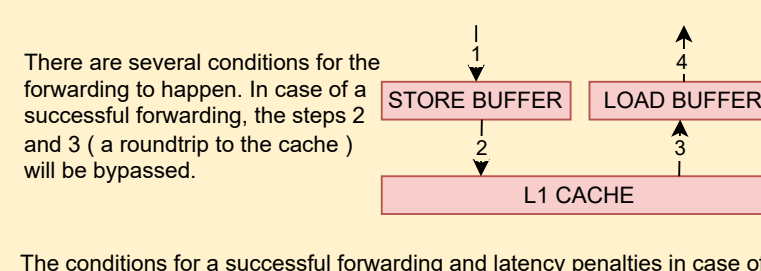
An example store and load sequence :

`mov [eax],ecx ; STORE : Write the value of ECX register to the memory address which is stored in EAX register`
`mov ecx,[eax] ; LOAD : Read the value from that memory address ; (which was just used) and write it to ECX register`

STORE-TO-LOAD FORWARDING & LHS & PERFORMANCE

Based on [Intel Optimization Manual](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf) 3.6.4, store-to-load forwarding may improve combined latency of those 2 operations. The reason is not specified however it is potentially LHS (Load-Hit-Store) problem in which the penalty is a round trip to the cache memory :

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Load-Hit-Store>



There are several conditions for the forwarding to happen. In case of a successful forwarding, the steps 2 and 3 (a round trip to the cache) will be bypassed.

The conditions for a successful forwarding and latency penalties in case of no-forwarding can be found in Agner Fog's [microarchitecture book](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies).

What would happen without forwarding ? : In the past, game consoles PlayStation3 and Xbox360 had PowerPC based processors which used `ld, order-ensured` rather than `order-ensured`. Therefore developers had to separately handle LHS by using `order-ensured` keyword and other methods : [Evan Ruskin's article](https://www.gamedev.net/news/features/article.php?id=25555)

ARITHMETIC REALM

ARITHMETIC INSTRUCTION LATENCIES

You can see a set of arithmetic operations table to fast to slow below.

The clock cycles are based on Agner Fog's [instruction-latencies](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies) & Skylake architecture on 64 bit registers.

Operation	Latency (clock cycles)
Bitwise operations, integer addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, remainder	0.25 to 1 clock cycle
Float addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, remainder	3 clock cycles
Float comparison, integer comparison, integer division, remainder	about 16-18 clock cycles
Integer division, remainder	24-30 clock cycles

FLOATING POINTS

X86 uses IEEE 754 standard for floating points. A 32 bit floating point consists of 3 parts in the memory layout. Below you can see all bits of 324 64-bit FP number. Used [float-formatting-whitepaper](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/float-formatting-whitepaper.pdf) as reference.

A floating point's value is calculated as : $significand \times 2^{exponent}$

IEEE754 also defines **denormal numbers**. They are very small / near zero numbers.

As floating points are approximations, denormal numbers are needed to avoid an undefined case of `a/b` but `a=0` Without denormal the code to the right would involve a divide-by-zero exception.

Reference : [Float-formatting-whitepaper](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/float-formatting-whitepaper.pdf)

Based on Agner Fog's [microarchitecture book](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies), Intel CPUs have a penalty for denormal numbers. For ex. 128 clock cycles on Skylake. They also can be turned off on Intel CPUs.

As for AMD side, the recent Zen architecture CPUs seemingly don't have the same performance degradation.

X86 EXTENSIONS

X86 extensions are specialized instructions. They have various categories from [cryptography to neural network operations](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/processor-features-whitepaper.pdf).

Intel [Instruction Guide](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/processor-features-whitepaper.pdf) is a good page to explore those extensions.

SSE (Streaming SIMD Extensions) is one of the most important ones that provides non-parallelism. **SSSE** stands for "Single instruction multiple data". SIMD instructions use vector registers to execute more work in a single go.

In the example above, an array 4 integers (1 to 4) are added to another array of integers (1 to 4). The result is also an array of sums (1 to 4). In this example, 4 add operations are executed by a single instruction.

They play key role in complex vectorisation optimisations : [GCC auto vectorisation](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies)

Apart from arithmetic operations, they can be used for string operations as well : Daniel Lemire's SIMD based JSON parser : <https://daniellemire.com/2018/01/01/simd-based-json-parser/>

X86 EXTENSIONS : SIMD DETAILS

The most recent SIMD instruction sets for Intel CPUs are :

AVX : Up to 256 bits
AVX2 : Up to 256 bits
AVX-512 : Up to 512 bits

Recent AMD CPUs support AVX & AVX2. Only the latest Zen4 architecture supports AVX512.

As for programming, there are also wider data types. The data type diagrams below are for 32 bit operations.

__m128, 4 x 32 bit floating points
__m128d, 2 x 64 bit doubles
__m128i, 4 x 32 bit ints
__m256, 2 x 64 bit long longs

Note that as "Simultaneous multithreading" by AMD, therefore usage of some AVX/AVX2 extensions may introduce underclocking. They should be benchmarked. For details : [Daniel Lemire's article](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

BRANCH PREDICTION REALM

BRANCH PREDICTION BASICS

Why : CPUs proactively fetch instructions of potentially upcoming branches to utilise the pipeline as much as possible.

Gain if predicted correctly : If the right branch was predicted that will increase the throughput as it completed fetching a set of instructions in advance.

Penalty in case of misprediction : If the prediction was wrong, that prefetch will be a waste and the cost will be flushing the pipeline.

What are branch instructions : Unconditional ones (jmp), conditional ones (eg: jne), callret

How : There are auxiliary hardware buffers.

Branch target buffer stores target addresses (instruction pointers) of branches. AMD uses multiple level of BTBs : L1 BTB, L2 BTB etc.

Pattern history tables track the history of results (whether it was taken or not) per branch.

CONDITIONAL MOVE INSTRUCTIONS

Conditional move instructions (for ex: CMOV) compute the conditions for some additional time. However they don't introduce extra load to the branch prediction mechanism. They can be used to eliminate branches.

Reference : [Agner Fog's microarchitecture book](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf) 3.1.1

BP METHODS : 2-LEVEL ADAPTIVE BRANCH PREDICTION

Saturating counter as a building block
A 2-bit saturating counter can store 4 strength states. Whenever a branch is taken it goes stronger. And whenever a branch is not taken it goes weaker.

2 level adaptive predictor
In this method, the pattern history table keeps 2nd row and first row will have a saturating counter. A branch history register which has the history of last n occurrences, will be used to choose which row will be used from the pattern history table.

Reference : [Agner Fog's microarchitecture book](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies) 3.1

BP METHODS : AMD PERCEPTIONS

A **perception** is basically the simplest form of machine learning. It can be considered as a linear array of weights.

Agner Fog mentions that they are good at predicting very long branches compared to 2-level adaptive branch prediction in the [microarchitecture book](https://www.agner-fog.com/instruction-latencies) 3.1.2.

For details of perception based branch prediction : [Dynamic Branch Prediction with Perceptions by Daniel Shewar and Calvin Lin](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

The output 'Y' (in this case whether a branch taken or not) is calculated by the product of the weight vector and the input vector.

INTEL LSD (LOOP STREAM DETECTOR)

Intel LSD will detect a loop and stop fetching instructions to improve the frontend bandwidth. Several conditions mentioned in [Intel Optimization Manual](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf) 3.4.2.4 :

- Loop body size up to 60 uops, with up to 15 taken branches, and up to 15 64-byte fetch lines.
- No CALL or RET.
- No mismatched stack operations (eg, more PUSH than POP).
- More than ~20 iterations.

Note that LSD is disabled on Skylake Server CPUs. Reference : <https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf>

DISABLING SPECULATIVE EXECUTION PATCHES

You can consider disabling system patches for speculative execution related vulnerabilities such as Meltdown and Spectre for performance. If that is disabled in your system. Those patches are not only [microcode](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf) updates but they also need OS support.

Kernel.org documentation : <https://www.kernel.org/doc/html/latest/admin-guide/meltdown-spectre.html>

Red Hat Enterprise documentation : <https://access.redhat.com/articles/3311301>

Meltdown paper : <https://meltdownattack.com/meltdown.pdf>

Spectre paper : <https://spectreattack.com/spectre.pdf>

ESTIMATED LIMITS : HOW MANY IFs ARE TOO MANY ?

As for number of entries in BTBs, there are estimations made by stress testing the BTB with sequences of branch instructions :

[Intel Xeon Gold 6342 ~ roughly 4K](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf)
[AMD EPYC 7712 ~ roughly 3K](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf)

Reference : [Mark Mokroski's article on Cloudflare](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

CACHE MEMORY REALM

CACHE MEMORY VS SYSTEM MEMORY

System memory is made of DRAM cells. Cache memory on the other hand are made of SRAM cells which is much faster than DRAMs. But also they are more expensive.

DRAM used in system memories

SRAM used in cache memories

Access time : 50-150 nanoseconds due to capacitor charge/discharge times and other steps

Cost : Expensive in the price due to 6 transistors

Reference : Ulrich Drepper's [What every computer scientist should know about memory](https://www.ullrich-drepper.com/2004/01/01/why-cache-memory-is-not-a-good-idea/)

CACHE ORGANISATION

Caches are organised in multiple levels. As you go upper in that hierarchy, the capacity increases. Therefore **L1** term is used to indicate the last level of cache.

3 level data caches are currently the most common ones. Intel [Boosted architecture](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf) had 4 level caches in the past. Also upcoming AMD CPUs in Zen cores with 4 level of caches.

Cache line size : is the unit of data transfer between the cache and the system memory. It is typically 64 bytes. And the caches are organised according to the cache line size.

There is also **instruction cache** (Cache) which stores program instructions rather than data to improve throughput of CPU frontend.

In case of a cache hit, the memory is typically single digit nanoseconds. And in case of a cache miss, we need a round trip to the system memory and total latency becomes 3 digit nanoseconds.

HARDWARE AND SOFTWARE PREFETCHING

Hardware prefetchers detect patterns like **strides** (Ex: accessing contiguous array members) and **strides** (Ex: accessing specific members in arrays of strids) and prefetch data and instructions to cache line automatically.

Developers can also use instruction `__builtin_prefetch` to prefetch data explicitly for cases where hardware can't predict. That is called as software prefetching.

Reference for image : It is taken from [AMD's GDC42 presentation page42](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

N-WAY SET ASSOCIATIVITY

Why : Cache capacities are much smaller than the system memory. Moreover, software can use various regions of that address space. So if there was one to one mapping of a fully sequential memory that would lead to cache misses most of the time. Therefore there is a need for efficient mapping between the system memory and the system memory.

How : In N-Way set associativity, caches are divided into groups of sets. And each set will have N cache blocks. The mapping information is stored in bits of addresses which has 3 parts :

TAG, SET, OFFSET

used as a unique identifier per cache block

used to determine the set in a cache

used to determine the actual bytes in the target cache block

The pseudocode below shows steps for searching a single byte in the cache memory :

Get tag, set and offset from the address

For each block in the current set (which we have just found out) :
If tag of the current block equals to tag (which we just have found out) :
need and return data using offset. It is a cache hit
If there was no matching tag, it is a cache miss

BYPASSING THE CACHE : NON-TEMPORAL STORES & WRITE-COMBINING

Temporal data is data that will be accessed in a short period of time. The term **non-temporal** data indicates that data will not be accessed any soon (cold data). If the amount of non-temporal data is excessive in the cache, that is called as **cache pollution**. Non-temporal store instructions are introduced for this problem and they store data directly to the system memory by bypassing the cache.

Write combining buffers are used with non-temporal stores. CPU will try to fill a write cache line (typically 64bytes) before committing to the system memory and only will send to the system memory when that buffer is filled. That is for reducing the load on the bus between the CPU and the system memory.

DIRECT CACHE ACCESS

Modern NICs come with a DMA (Direct Memory Access) engine and can transfer data directly to driver ring buffers which reside on the system memory.

DMA mechanism doesn't require CPU involvement. Through mechanism initiated by CPU, therefore CPU support needed.

DCA bypasses the system memory and can transfer to directly LLC of CPUs that support the technology.

Intel refers to this technology as DQO (Direct I/O).

Reference : [Intel documentation](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf)

VIRTUAL MEMORY REALM

VIRTUAL MEMORY ORGANISATION

Why virtual memory ?
Because cumulative memory requirement of multiple processes in an OS can be more than the system capacity.

It is basically for sharing memory resources between multiple processes.

It also provides security by isolating processes.

Pages :
- Minimum addressable virtual space that can be requested from OS.
- Typically 4KB

Swapping
In case of out of memory, process memory will be evicted to the disc.

Page faults
Happens when the page is not on physical memory but on the swap file which is on the harddrive.

VIRTUAL MEMORY ADDRESS TRANSLATION

Address translation & Page table
CPUs work with virtual addresses and those addresses need to be converted to physical addresses. Page table structures on system memory are used for this purpose.

TLB (Translation lookaside buffer)
TLBs are caches in CPUs that make the translation process faster. Modern CPUs have multiple levels of TLBs.
(Intel refers to L2 TLB as sTLB)

TLB Shootdowns
See the multithreading realm below.

TLB
Apart from data TLB, there is also TLB for caching addresses of instructions on both Intel and AMD architectures.

TLB PRESSURE & HUGE PAGES

TLB pressure
If each page is 4K, that increases the load on the TLB buffer.

CPU support for larger pages
x86/x64 CPUs support huge pages from 2MB to 1GB to reduce the pressure on TLB.

OS support
Linux implementation refers to them as huge pages and Windows calls them as large pages.

You should check your OS and CPU in combination to find out the supported sizes.

Note that there may be extra abstractions on top of page size. For ex: Windows has 64KB page allocation granularity : [Windows' article](https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/linux-compatibility)

Reference for image : It is taken from [AMD's GDC42 presentation page42](https://www.amd.com/en/techcenter/processors)

PAGE TABLE WALKING

Even with pages which group addresses, having all pages in a page table would still need too much storage on 64 bit systems. Therefore page tables are implemented hierarchically.

Memory is divided into address spaces. And there is a tree data structure for each address space in the page table hierarchy to find the actual address : level by level in the hierarchy to find out the actual address :

4 level page table is the most common one. In the diagram above, the first 48 bits of a 64 bit address are used for page table walking. All of 48 bits have to be used in order to find out the final actual address. (For details : [Intel Software Developer's Manual Volume 4](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf))

Intel CPUs started to support 5 level tables since Ice Lake.

The advantage of another level is that you can address even more space.

The disadvantage is that the time needed to walk the page table increases due to a new level of indirection.

SYSTEM MEMORY REALM

DDR RAMs

DDR RAMs are the most common commodity hardware as system memory.

They are found in forms of DIMMs (Dual inline memory module) / RAMsticks.

Organisation
System memory / RAM is organised as collection of ranks.

Each rank have banks which are collection of DRAM cells per bit.

DRAM refreshes
DRAM circuits use capacitors which lose their charge over time. (See the cache memory realm) . So RAMs have to refresh their DRAM cells periodically.

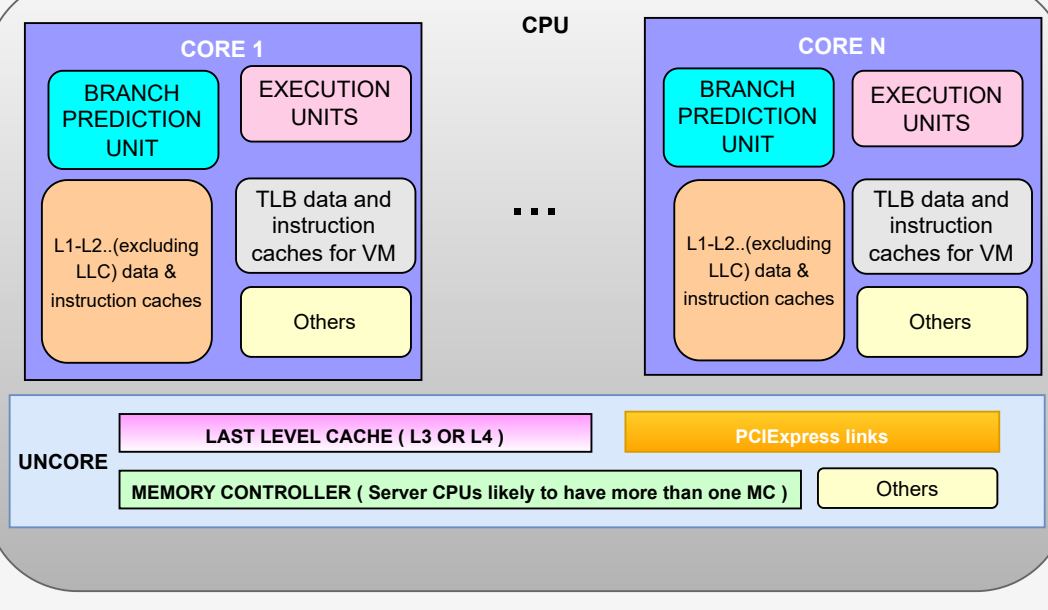
As for DDR4, refreshing is rank-level which means the other banks in the same rank become inaccessible. DDR5 comes with **granular bank-level refresh** feature which allows a more fine-grained bank-level refresh. Therefore it can offer a higher throughput.

DDR4 refresh granularity : [DDR4 refresh granularity](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf)
DDR5 refresh granularity : [DDR5 refresh granularity](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf)

MULTICORE REALM

TOPOLOGIES

TOPOLOGICAL OVERVIEW - INTEL CPUS



TOPOLOGICAL OVERVIEW - AMD CPUS

Diagram above aims to show resource per core and shared resources. Note that uncure in an Intel-only refers to CPU functionality which are not per core.

Hybrid topologies : An exception to the above diagram is Intel's recent E-cores. E-cores are meant for power efficiency and paired with less resources. For ex: Alder Lake CPUs. E-cores also share L2 cache.

Reference : <https://www.anandtech.com/show/16659/intel-innovation-ade-ake-november-4th>

TOPOLOGICAL OVERVIEW - AMD CPUS

Most of AMD topology is similar to Intel. However starting from Zen microarchitecture, one key difference is CCXs.

AMD CPUs are designed as group of 4 cores which is called as CCX (Core complex) , and there is one LLC per each CCX/quad core.

Practically the maximum number of cores competing for the LLC (without simultaneous multithreading) is 4 in recent AMD CPUs. An example 8 core CPU with 2 CCXs :

TOPOLOGICAL OVERVIEW - AMD CPUS

Reference : <https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf>

Hybrid topologies : The first hybrid AMD CPUs are Phoenix2 ones which have Zen4 and Zen4c cores. Unlike Intel, the segregation is not about performance vs energy but about optimising die space as "C" ones are smaller in physical size with lower cache size and frequencies.

Reference : <https://www.tomshardware.com/news/amd-zen4-zen4c-2-review-evaluates-zen-4-zen-4c-performance>

COHERENCY

CACHE COHERENCY : PROTOCOLS

Cache coherency protocols are needed to avoid data hazards. Intel CPUs use MESI and AMD CPUs use MOESI, however both heavily depend on OS protocol.

There are 4 states for a CPU cache line in MESI protocol, where M for modified, E for exclusive, S for shared and I for invalid. The 3 diagrams to the right are illustrating the simplest cases for all 4 states.

Intel's MESI on Wikipedia

AMD's MOESI on Wikipedia

State transition can trigger cache coherency protocol across multiple cores. Variables can be cached to avoid cache coherency traffic whenever applicable :

Erik Rijkhoff's article : [Cache coherency protocols](https://www.erikrijkhoff.nl/2018/01/01/cache-coherency-protocols/)

Only core holds the latest data so called to be in M (modified) state and cache is in I (invalid) state.

CACHE COHERENCY : FALSE SHARING AND CACHE PING-PONG

In the diagram to the right, if Core1 changes its var1, that change will need to be propagated to all other cores by the cache coherency protocol. That will lead to invalidation of cache areas associated with the shared cache line across all cores, even though it is used by only one core.

This situation is called **false sharing**.

If those happen in higher rates and if cache lines from system memory transferred between cores rapidly, that situation is called as **cache ping-pong**.

VIRTUAL MEMORY PAGE TABLE COHERENCY : TLB SHOOTDOWNS

Whenever a page table entry is modified by any of the cores, that particular TLB entry is invalidated in all cores via IPIs. This is not done by hardware but initiated by operating system.

IPI : Interprocessor interrupt, you can take "processor" as core in this context.

MEMORY REORDERINGS & SYNCHRONISATION

MEMORY REORDERINGS
The term memory ordering refers to the order in which the processor issues reads (loads) and writes (stores). Based on [Intel Software Developer's Manual Volume 3](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf), 8.2.3.4, there is only one kind of memory reordering that can happen. Loads can be reordered with earlier stores if they use different memory locations. That reordering will not happen if they use the same address :

An example frequency table : <https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf>

CORE1 :
`x; y and initially 0`
`mov [x], 1 ; STORE TO X`
`mov [result], 1 ; LOAD FROM Y`

CORE2 :
`x; y and initially 0`
`mov [y], 1 ; STORE TO Y`
`mov [result], 1 ; LOAD FROM X`

In case of reordering, result will result stores on both end up as zero in both cores. Note that, apart from CPUs, also compilers can do memory reordering : [Jafar Pishro's article - Memory Ordering at Compile Time](https://en.cppreference.com/w/cpp/memory/memory_order).

INSTRUCTIONS TO AVOID REORDERINGS
These instructions force the processor to complete all modifications to flags, registers, and memory by previous instructions and to drain all buffers written to memory before the next instruction is retired and executed.

Intel Software Developer's Manual Volume 3, 8.3 defines them as :

There is also bus locking "LOCK" prefix : [Intel Software Developer's Manual Volume 3](https://www.intel.com/content/dam/develop/external/us/en/documents/optimization-manual.pdf), 8.1.2

MULTICORE

Splitting Intel cpu topologies :

1. hybrid , the ones with e-cores and p-cores (heterogeneous multiprocessing/HMP)
2. non hybrid , all identical

no AVX-512 support on some Intel E-Cores and Pcores unlike AMD

<https://chipsandcheese.com/2024/06/15/intel-details-skymont/>

SOME INTEL PCORES WILL HAVE HYPERTHREADING DISABLED

<https://chipsandcheese.com/2024/06/03/intels-lion-cove-architecture-preview/>

multicore coherency : vm page walk coherency

? avoiding hyperthreading by pinning threads to cores with even indices

MULTI CORE : CORE TO CORE

non uniform core to core latencies <https://www.jabperf.com/cpu-affinity-because-even-a-single-chip-is-nonuniform/>

Core to core latencies : It is said that latency between AMD CCX cores are the best , however Intel is faster if it is between different CCXs in an AMD CPU :
<https://foojay.io/today/why-core-to-core-latency-matters/>

<https://chipsandcheese.com/2023/11/07/core-to-core-latency-data-on-large-systems/>

core to core latency heatmap

: https://github.com/InstLatX64/InstLatX64_Misc/blob/main/AMD_Ryzen_Threadripper_PRO_7995WX/C2CL.png

SYSTEM MEMORY

UDIMM , applies to games , no ECC (error control for better speed)

ARITHMETIC & SIMD & APX

AVX10 to the most recent SIMD section (arithmetical section)

APX doubles the number of registers from 16 to 32 (but there is no section about registers)

? dont mix sse and avx , agner fog book mentions penalty

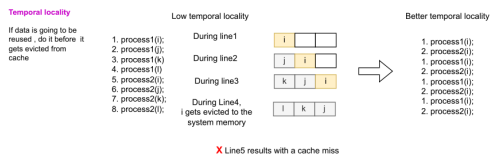
CACHE

AMD DIRECT CACHE ACCESS (DDIO LIKE) is upcoming

: <https://x.com/medawsonjr/status/1719753032550711644>

cache memory: temporal locality vs spatial locality

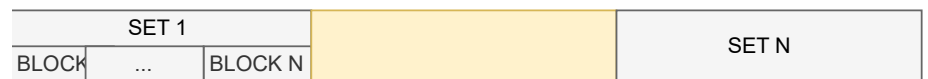
cache replacement/eviction policies



ARRAY OF POINTERS PREFETCHING

<https://chipsandcheese.com/2024/09/22/intels-redwood-cove-baby-steps-are-still-steps/>

CACHE N-WAY ASSOCIATIVITY



! Intel's vcache -> called "Big LLC" Coming with Nova Lake in 2027

: <https://www.hardwaretimes.com/intels-answer-to-amd-3d-v-cache-17th-gen-nova-lake-llc-in-2027/>

BRANCH P

Branch prediction patterns , easy to detect patterns , hard to detect patterns

LOADSTORE

4K aliasing (about store-to-load forwarding)

POWER/FREQ

<https://lemire.me/blog/2018/09/07/avx-512-when-and-how-to-use-these-new-instructions/>
SUGGESTS THAT NO SLOWDOWN FOR SIMD IN LATEST CPUS

<https://www.phoronix.com/news/Intel-Perf-Limit-Reasons-Linux>

!!! APPENDIX : SIMD CHEATSHEET : not per instruction/extension but generalised visualisations

<https://twitter.com/InstLatX64/status/1722599769606848600/photo/1>