

William Stallings  
Computer Organization  
and Architecture  
8th Edition

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Chapter 4  
Cache Memory

# Characteristics

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- Location
- Capacity
- Unit of transfer
- Access method
- Performance
- Physical type
- Physical characteristics
- Organisation

# Location

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- CPU
- Internal
- External

# Capacity

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- Word size
  - The natural unit of organisation
- Number of words
  - or Bytes

# Unit of Transfer

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- Internal
  - Usually governed by data bus width
- External
  - Usually a block which is much larger than a word
- Addressable unit
  - Smallest location which can be uniquely addressed
  - Word internally
  - Cluster on M\$ disks

# Access Methods (1)

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- Sequential
  - Start at the beginning and read through in order
  - Access time depends on location of data and previous location
  - e.g. tape
- Direct
  - Individual blocks have unique address
  - Access is by jumping to vicinity plus sequential search
  - Access time depends on location and previous location
  - e.g. disk

## Access Methods (2)

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- Random
  - Individual addresses identify locations exactly
  - Access time is independent of location or previous access
  - e.g. RAM
- Associative
  - Data is located by a comparison with contents of a portion of the store
  - Access time is independent of location or previous access
  - e.g. cache

# Memory Hierarchy

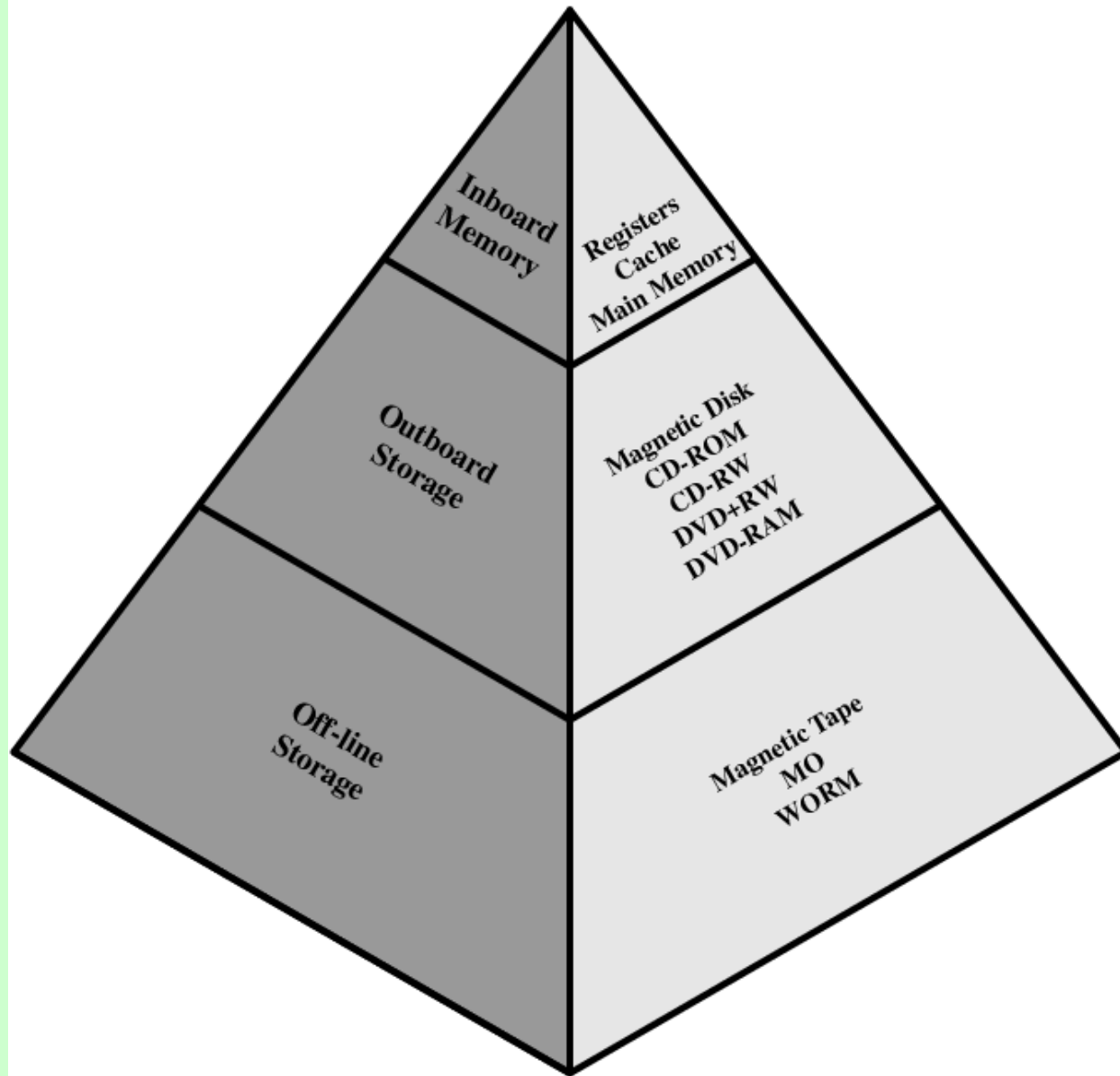
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- Registers
  - In CPU
- Internal or Main memory
  - May include one or more levels of cache
  - “RAM”
- External memory
  - Backing store



# Memory Hierarchy - Diagram

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# Performance

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- Access time
  - Time between presenting the address and getting the valid data
- Memory Cycle time
  - Time may be required for the memory to “recover” before next access
  - Cycle time is access + recovery
- Transfer Rate
  - Rate at which data can be moved

# Physical Types

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- Semiconductor
  - RAM
- Magnetic
  - Disk & Tape
- Optical
  - CD & DVD
- Others
  - Bubble
  - Hologram

# Physical Characteristics

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- Decay
- Volatility
- Erasable
- Power consumption

# Organisation

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- Physical arrangement of bits into words
- Not always obvious
- e.g. interleaved

# The Bottom Line

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- How much?
  - Capacity
- How fast?
  - Time is money
- How expensive?

# Hierarchy List

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- Registers
- L1 Cache
- L2 Cache
- Main memory
- Disk cache
- Disk
- Optical
- Tape

## So you want fast?

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- It is possible to build a computer which uses only static RAM (see later)
- This would be very fast
- This would need no cache
  - How can you cache cache?
- This would cost a very large amount



# Locality of Reference

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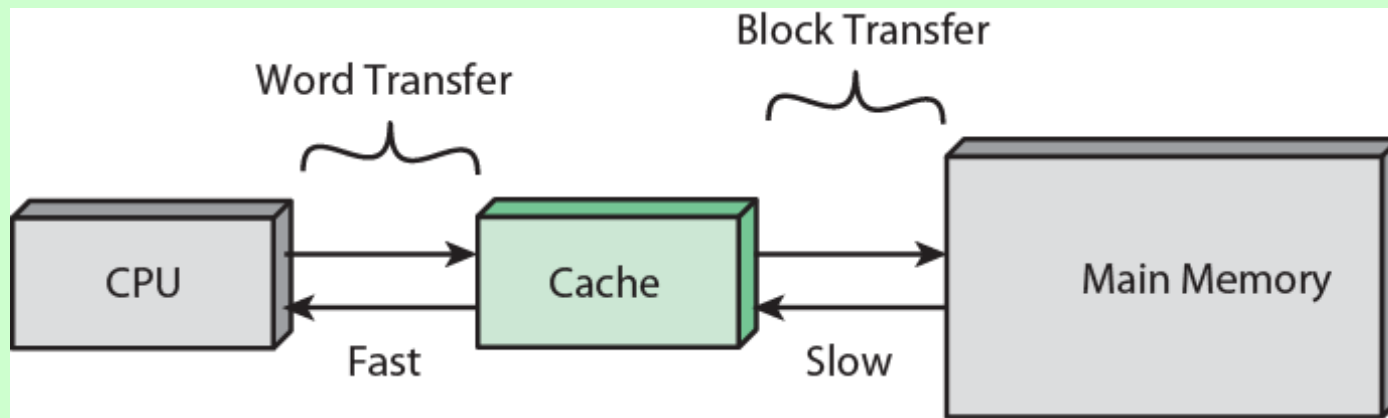
- During the course of the execution of a program, memory references tend to cluster
- e.g. loops

# Cache

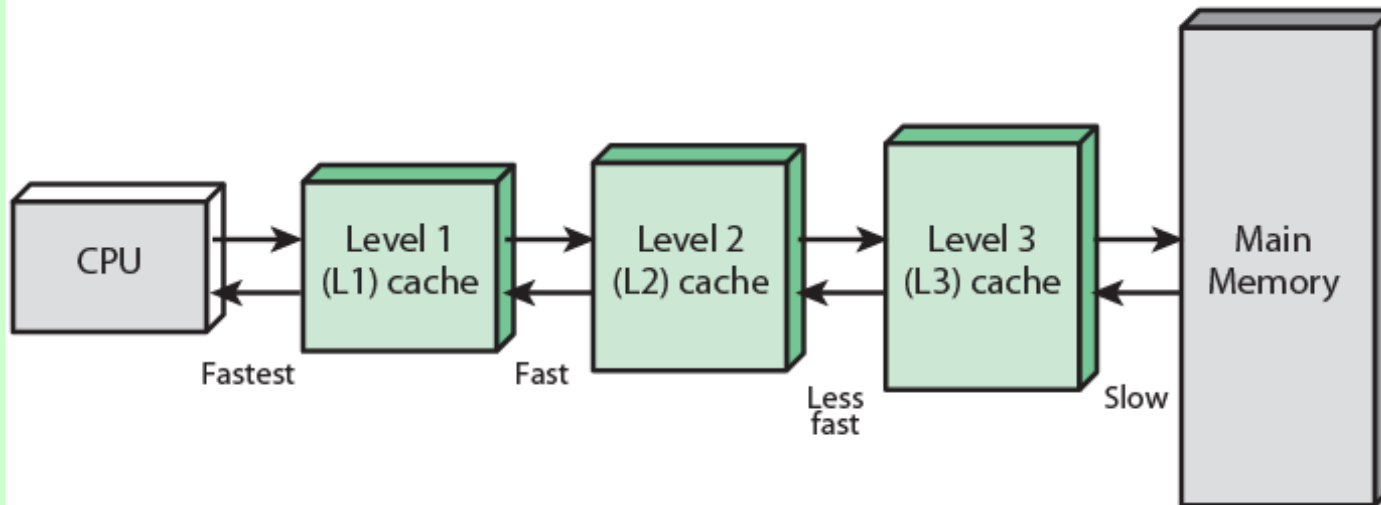
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- Small amount of fast memory
- Sits between normal main memory and CPU
- May be located on CPU chip or module

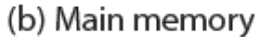
# Cache and Main Memory



(a) Single cache



(b) Three-level cache organization

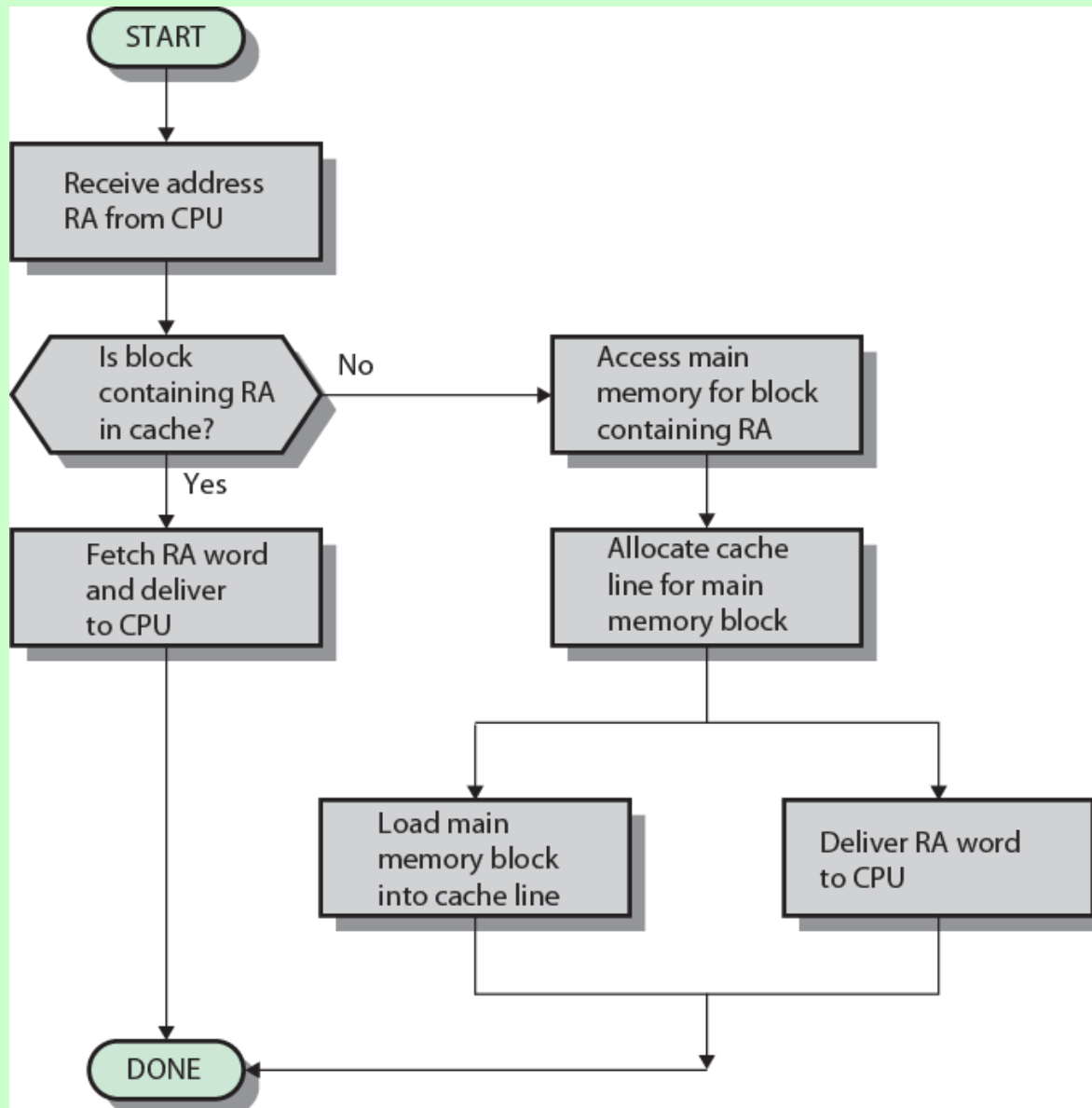


## Cache operation – overview

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- CPU requests contents of memory location
- Check cache for this data
- If present, get from cache (fast)
- If not present, read required block from main memory to cache
- Then deliver from cache to CPU
- Cache includes tags to identify which block of main memory is in each cache slot

# Cache Read Operation - Flowchart



# Cache Design

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- Addressing
- Size
- Mapping Function
- Replacement Algorithm
- Write Policy
- Block Size
- Number of Caches

# Cache Addressing

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- Where does cache sit?
  - Between processor and virtual memory management unit
  - Between MMU and main memory
- Logical cache (virtual cache) stores data using virtual addresses
  - Processor accesses cache directly, not thorough physical cache
  - Cache access faster, before MMU address translation
  - Virtual addresses use same address space for different applications
    - Must flush cache on each context switch
- Physical cache stores data using main memory physical addresses

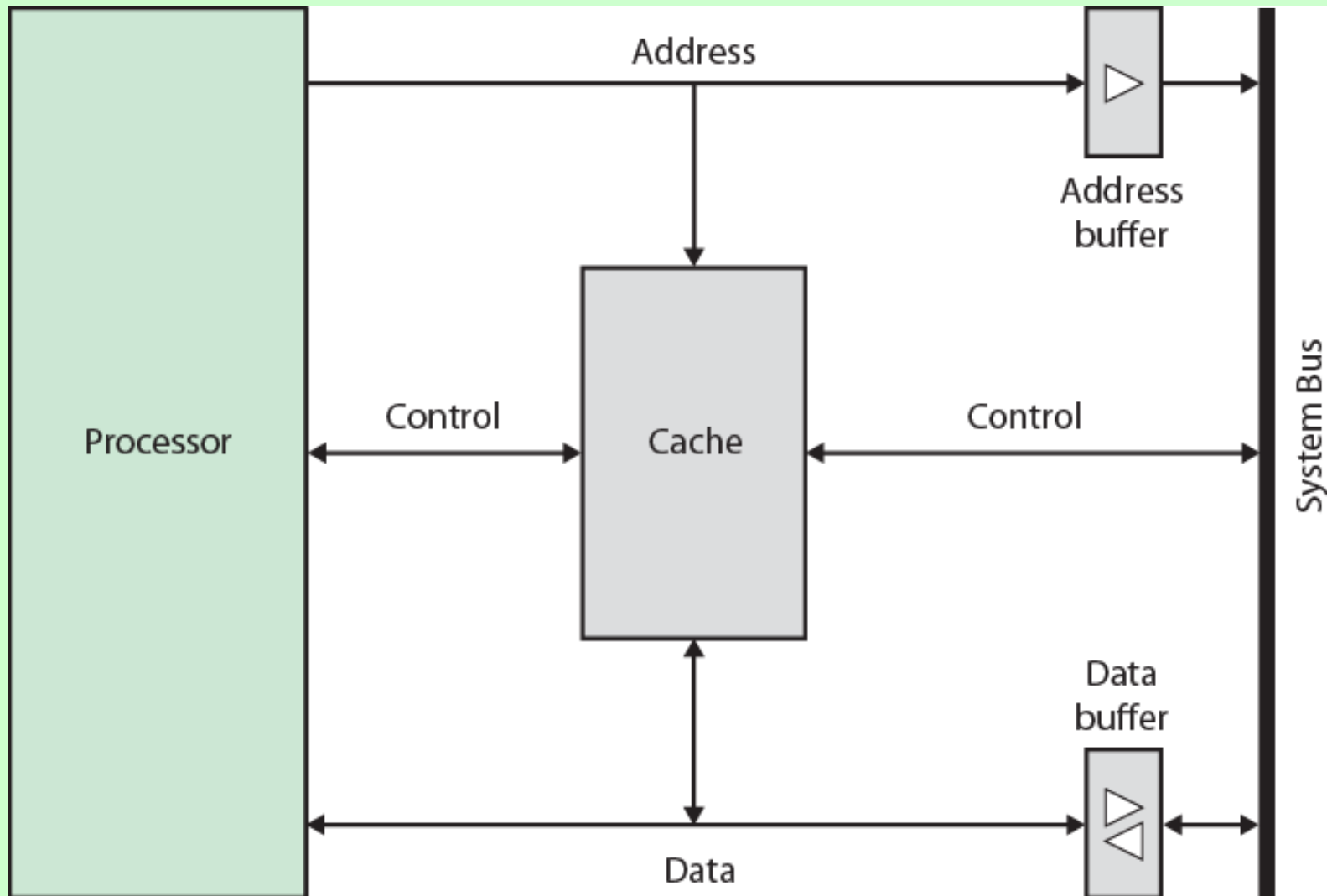


# Size does matter

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- Cost
  - More cache is expensive
- Speed
  - More cache is faster (up to a point)
  - Checking cache for data takes time

# Typical Cache Organization



# Comparison of Cache Sizes

Processor	Type	Year of Introduction	L1 cache	L2 cache	L3 cache
IBM 360/85	Mainframe	1968	16 to 32 KB	—	—
PDP-11/70	Minicomputer	1975	1 KB	—	—
VAX 11/780	Minicomputer	1978	16 KB	—	—
IBM 3033	Mainframe	1978	64 KB	—	—
IBM 3090	Mainframe	1985	128 to 256 KB	—	—
Intel 80486	PC	1989	8 KB	—	—
Pentium	PC	1993	8 KB/8 KB	256 to 512 KB	—
PowerPC 601	PC	1993	32 KB	—	—
PowerPC 620	PC	1996	32 KB/32 KB	—	—
PowerPC G4	PC/server	1999	32 KB/32 KB	256 KB to 1 MB	2 MB
IBM S/390 G4	Mainframe	1997	32 KB	256 KB	2 MB
IBM S/390 G6	Mainframe	1999	256 KB	8 MB	—
Pentium 4	PC/server	2000	8 KB/8 KB	256 KB	—
IBM SP	High-end server/ supercomputer	2000	64 KB/32 KB	8 MB	—
CRAY MTA <sub>b</sub>	Supercomputer	2000	8 KB	2 MB	—
Itanium	PC/server	2001	16 KB/16 KB	96 KB	4 MB
SGI Origin 2001	High-end server	2001	32 KB/32 KB	4 MB	—
Itanium 2	PC/server	2002	32 KB	256 KB	6 MB
IBM POWER5	High-end server	2003	64 KB	1.9 MB	36 MB
CRAY XD-1	Supercomputer	2004	64 KB/64 KB	1MB	—

# Mapping Function

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- Cache of 64kByte
- Cache block of 4 bytes
  - i.e. cache is 16k ( $2^{14}$ ) lines of 4 bytes
- 16MBytes main memory
- 24 bit address
  - ( $2^{24}=16\text{M}$ )

# Direct Mapping

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- Each block of main memory maps to only one cache line
  - i.e. if a block is in cache, it must be in one specific place
- Address is in two parts
- Least Significant  $w$  bits identify unique word
- Most Significant  $s$  bits specify one memory block
- The MSBs are split into a cache line field  $r$  and a tag of  $s-r$  (most significant)

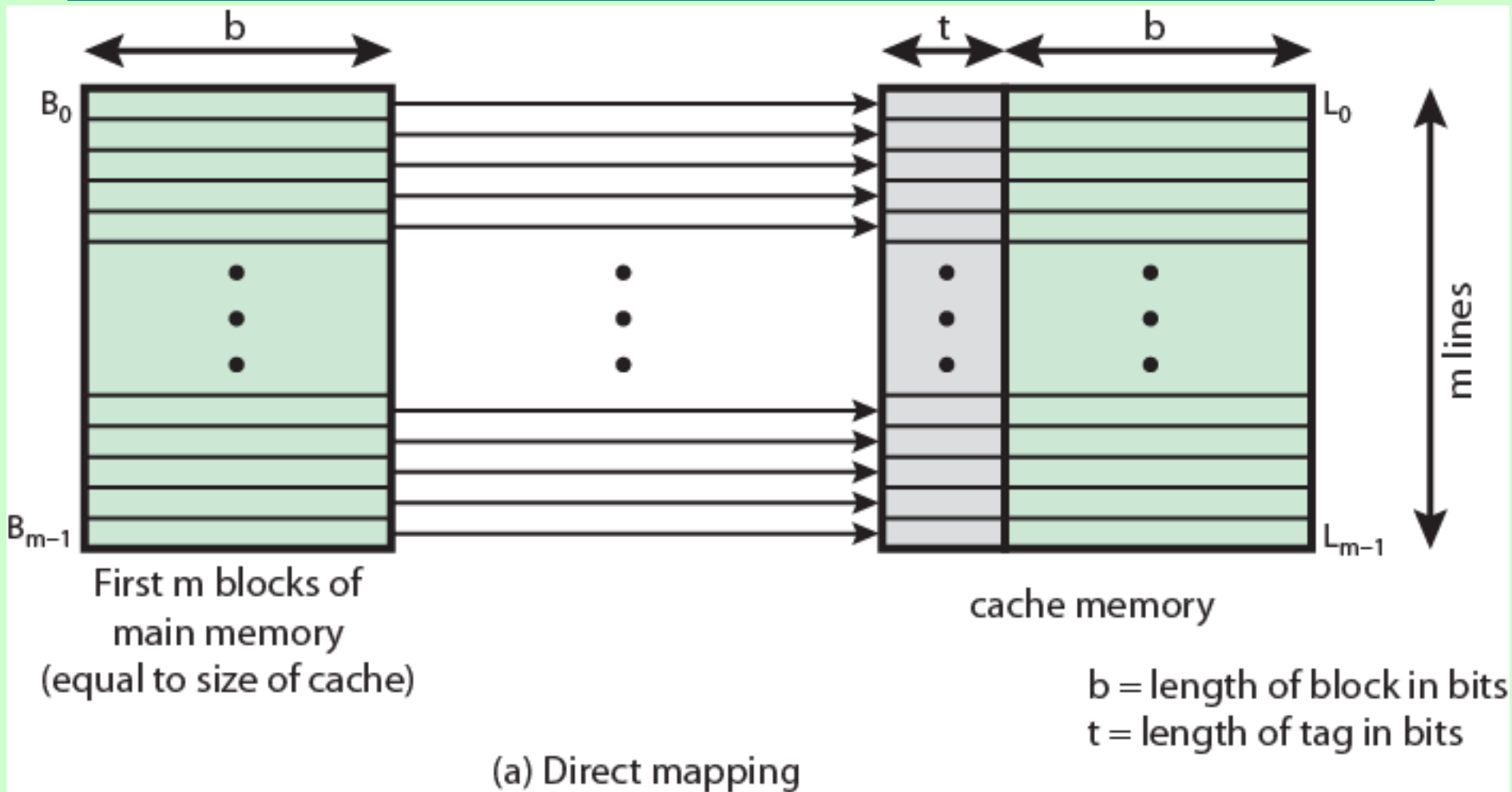
# Direct Mapping Address Structure

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Tag $s-r$	Line or Slot $r$	Word $w$
8	14	2

- 24 bit address
- 2 bit word identifier (4 byte block)
- 22 bit block identifier
  - 8 bit tag ( $=22-14$ )
  - 14 bit slot or line
- No two blocks in the same line have the same Tag field
- Check contents of cache by finding line and checking Tag

# Direct Mapping from Cache to Main Memory



# Direct Mapping

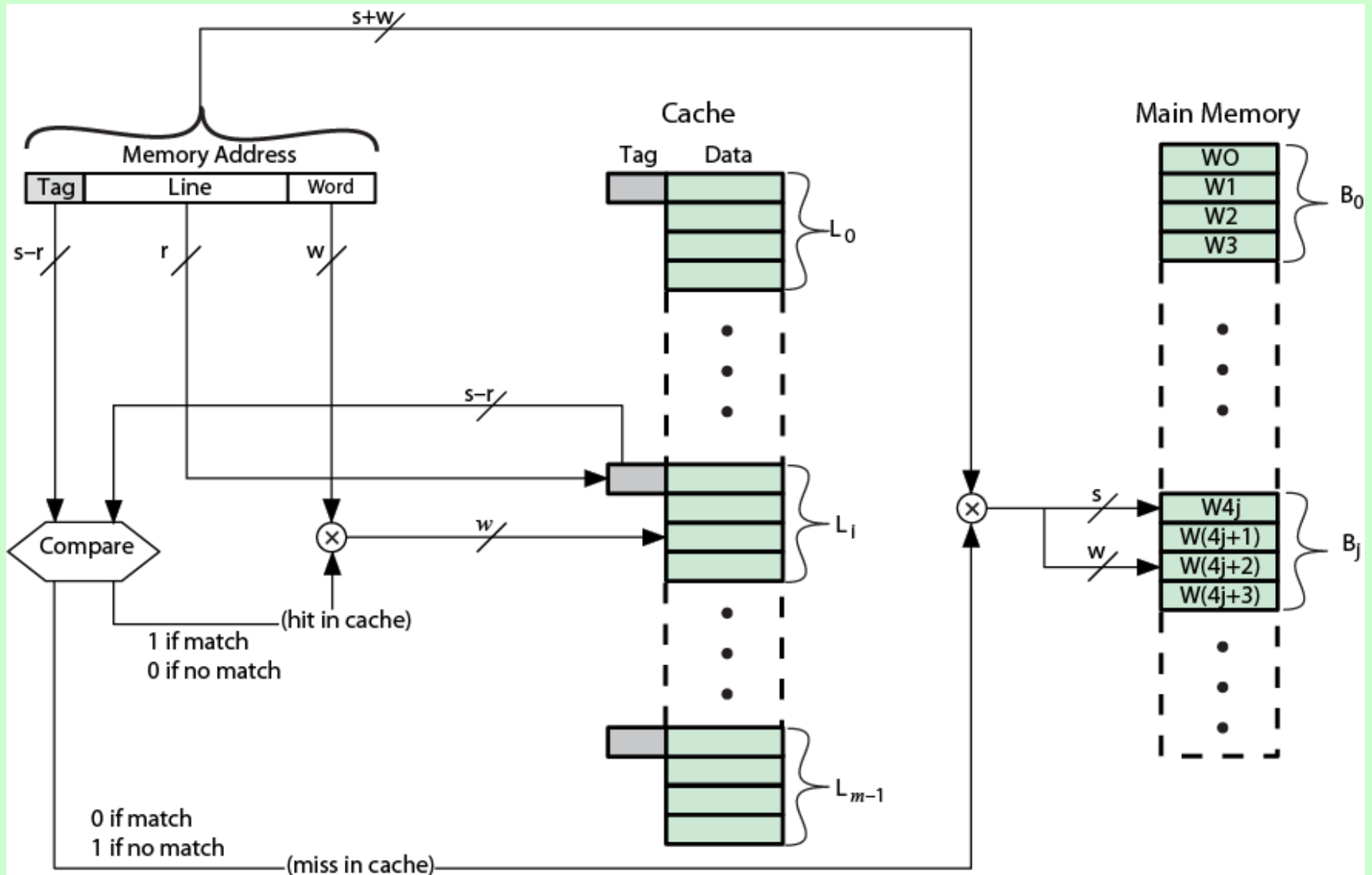
## Cache Line Table

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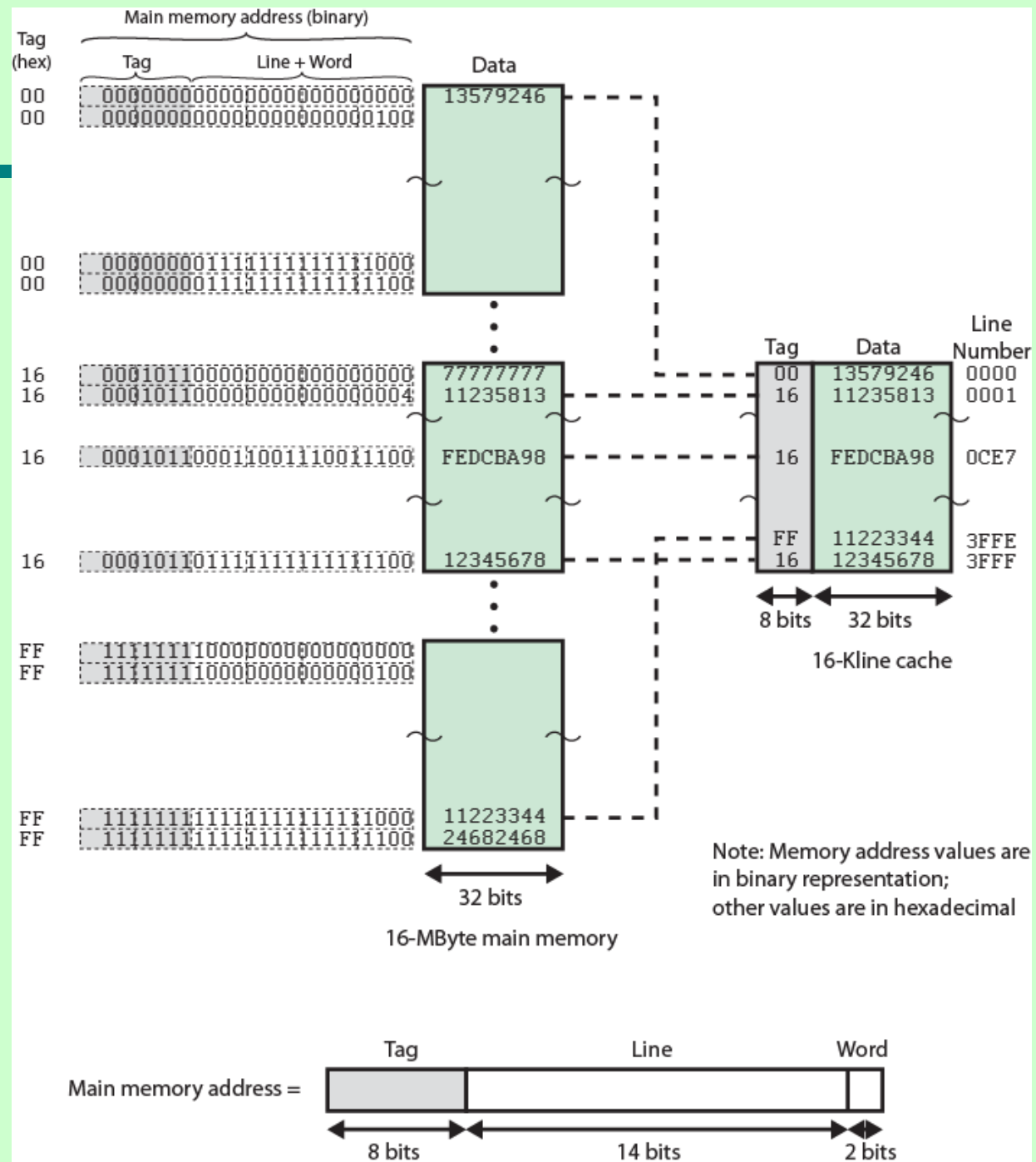
Cache line	Main Memory blocks held
0	0, m, 2m, 3m...2s-m
1	1,m+1, 2m+1...2s-m+1
...	
m-1	m-1, 2m-1,3m-1...2s-1



# Direct Mapping Cache Organization



# Direct Mapping Example



## Direct Mapping Summary

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- Address length =  $(s + w)$  bits
- Number of addressable units =  $2^{s+w}$  words or bytes
- Block size = line size =  $2^w$  words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory =  $2^{s+w} / 2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in cache =  $m = 2^r$
- Size of tag =  $(s - r)$  bits

## Direct Mapping pros & cons

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- Simple
- Inexpensive
- Fixed location for given block
  - If a program accesses 2 blocks that map to the same line repeatedly, cache misses are very high

# Victim Cache

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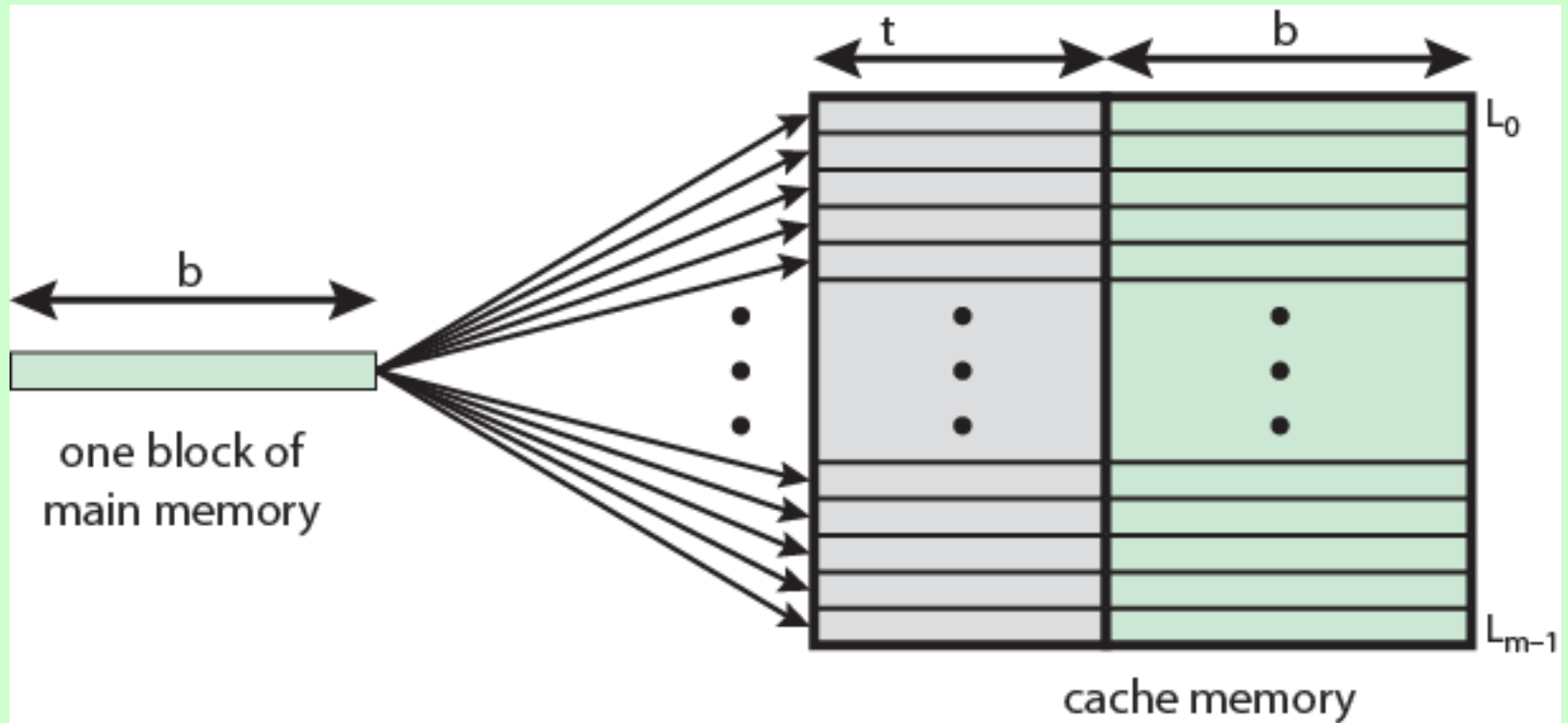
- Lower miss penalty
- Remember what was discarded
  - Already fetched
  - Use again with little penalty
- Fully associative
- 4 to 16 cache lines
- Between direct mapped L1 cache and next memory level

# Associative Mapping

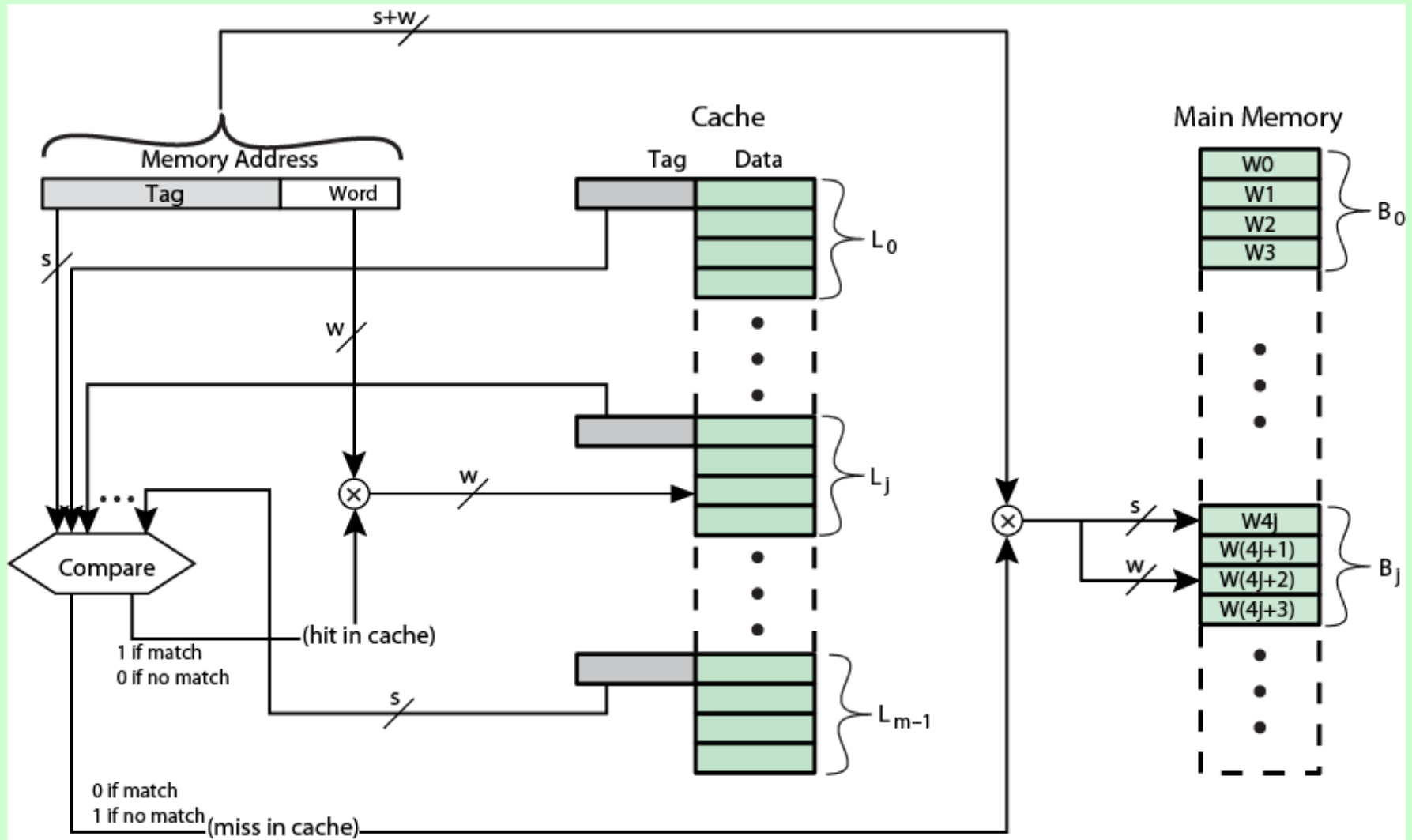
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- A main memory block can load into any line of cache
- Memory address is interpreted as tag and word
- Tag uniquely identifies block of memory
- Every line's tag is examined for a match
- Cache searching gets expensive

# Associative Mapping from Cache to Main Memory

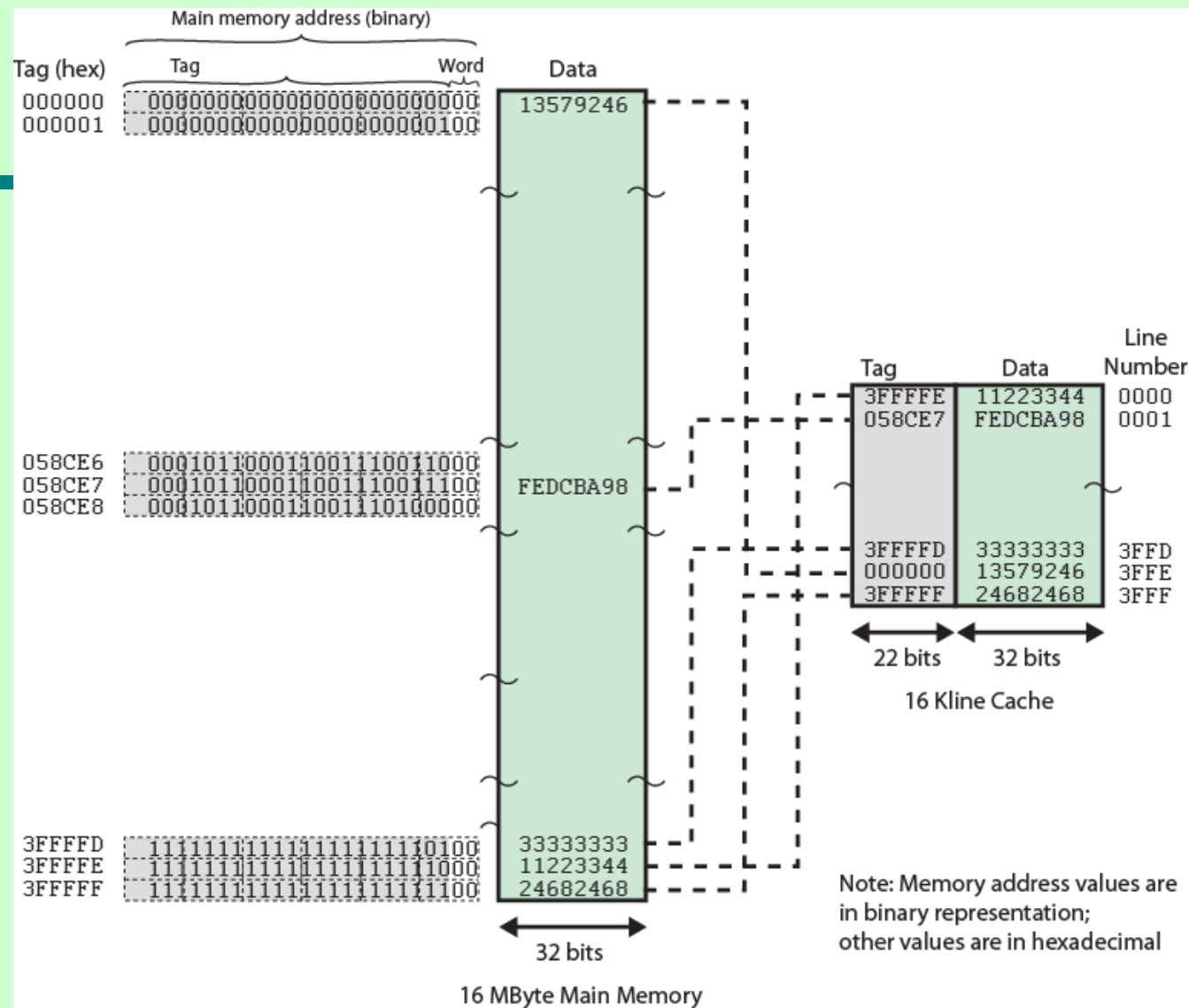


# Fully Associative Cache Organization





# Associative Mapping Example



# Associative Mapping

## Address Structure

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Tag 22 bit	Word 2 bit
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- 22 bit tag stored with each 32 bit block of data
- Compare tag field with tag entry in cache to check for hit
- Least significant 2 bits of address identify which 16 bit word is required from 32 bit data block
- e.g.

Address line	Tag	Data	Cache
— FFFFFC	FFFFFC24682468	3FFF	

## Associative Mapping Summary

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- Address length =  $(s + w)$  bits
- Number of addressable units =  $2^{s+w}$  words or bytes
- Block size = line size =  $2^w$  words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory =  $2^{s+w} / 2^w = 2^s$
- Number of lines in cache = undetermined
- Size of tag =  $s$  bits

# Set Associative Mapping

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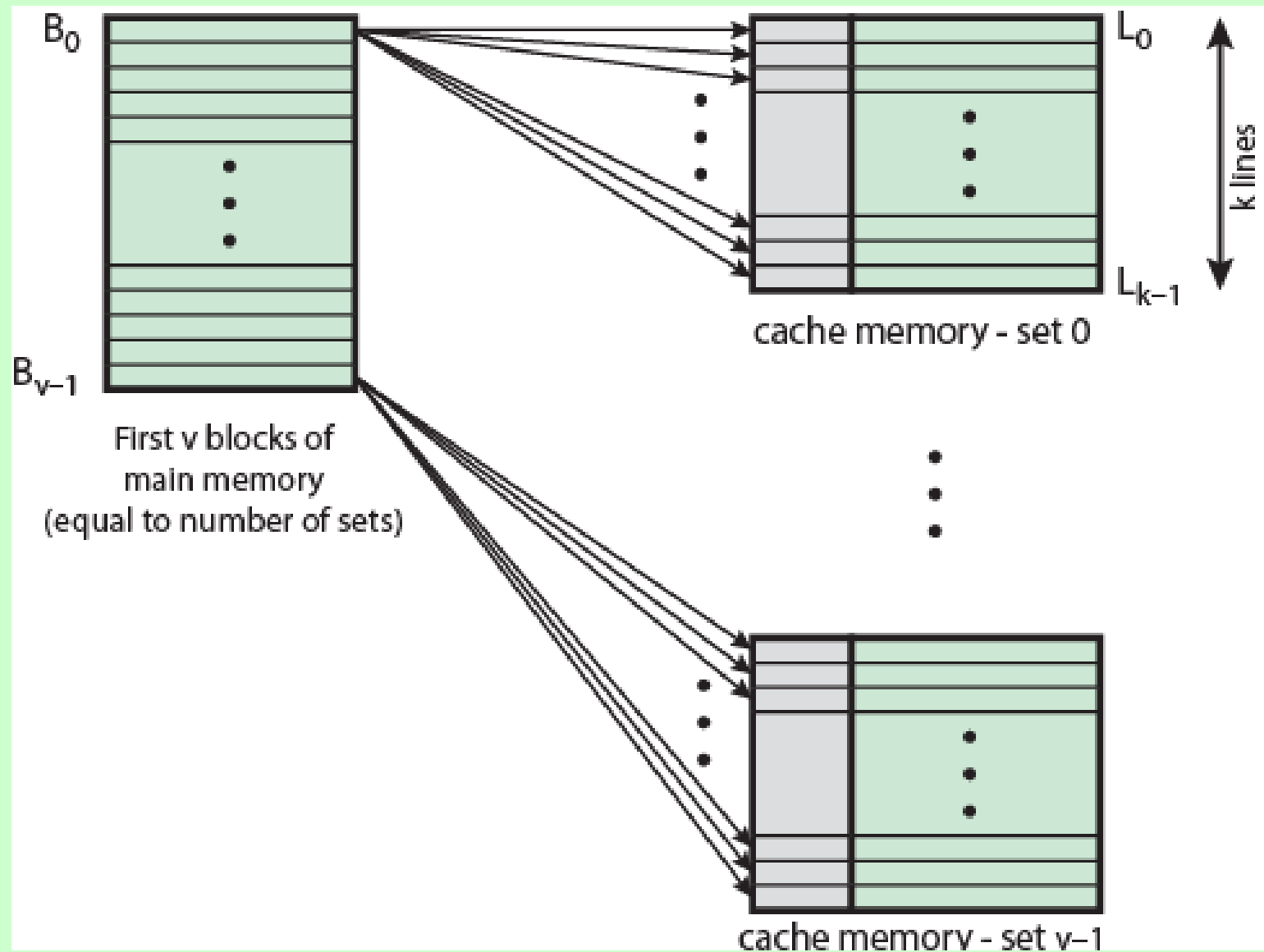
- Cache is divided into a number of sets
- Each set contains a number of lines
- A given block maps to any line in a given set
  - e.g. Block B can be in any line of set i
- e.g. 2 lines per set
  - 2 way associative mapping
  - A given block can be in one of 2 lines in only one set

# Set Associative Mapping Example

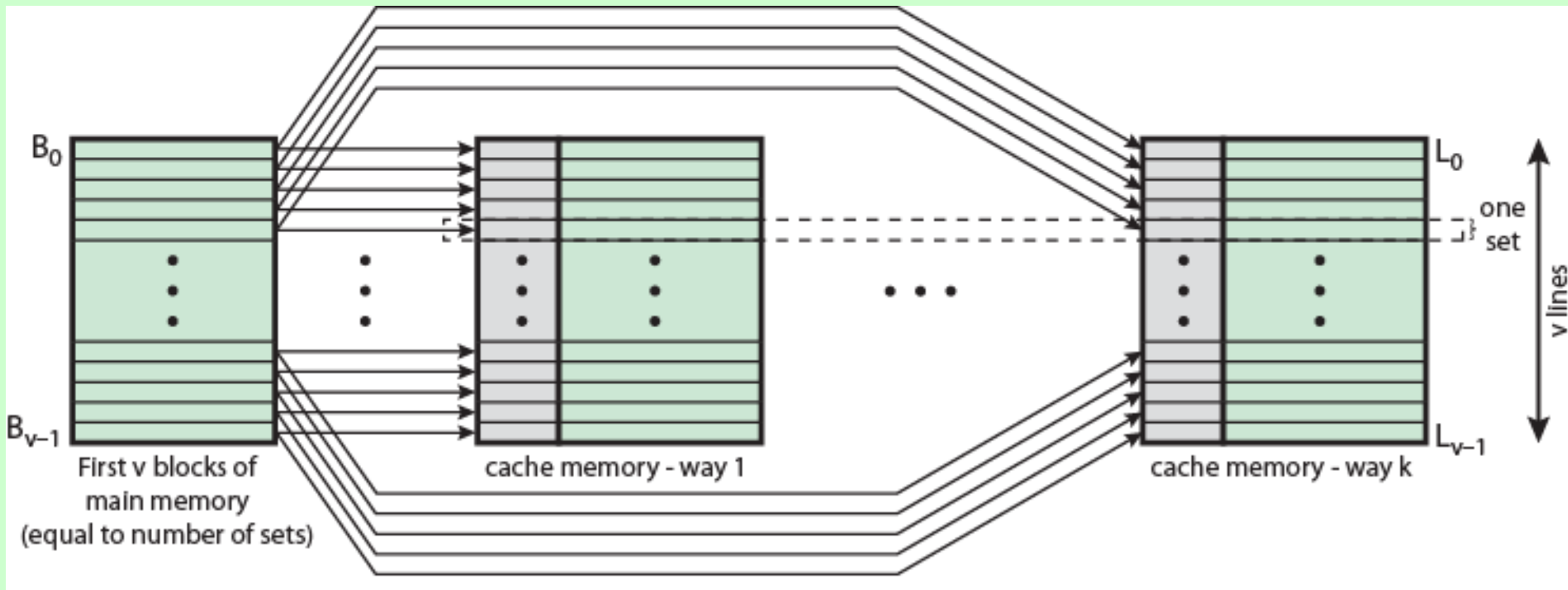
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- 13 bit set number
- Block number in main memory is modulo  $2^{13}$
- 000000, 00A000, 00B000, 00C000 ... map to same set

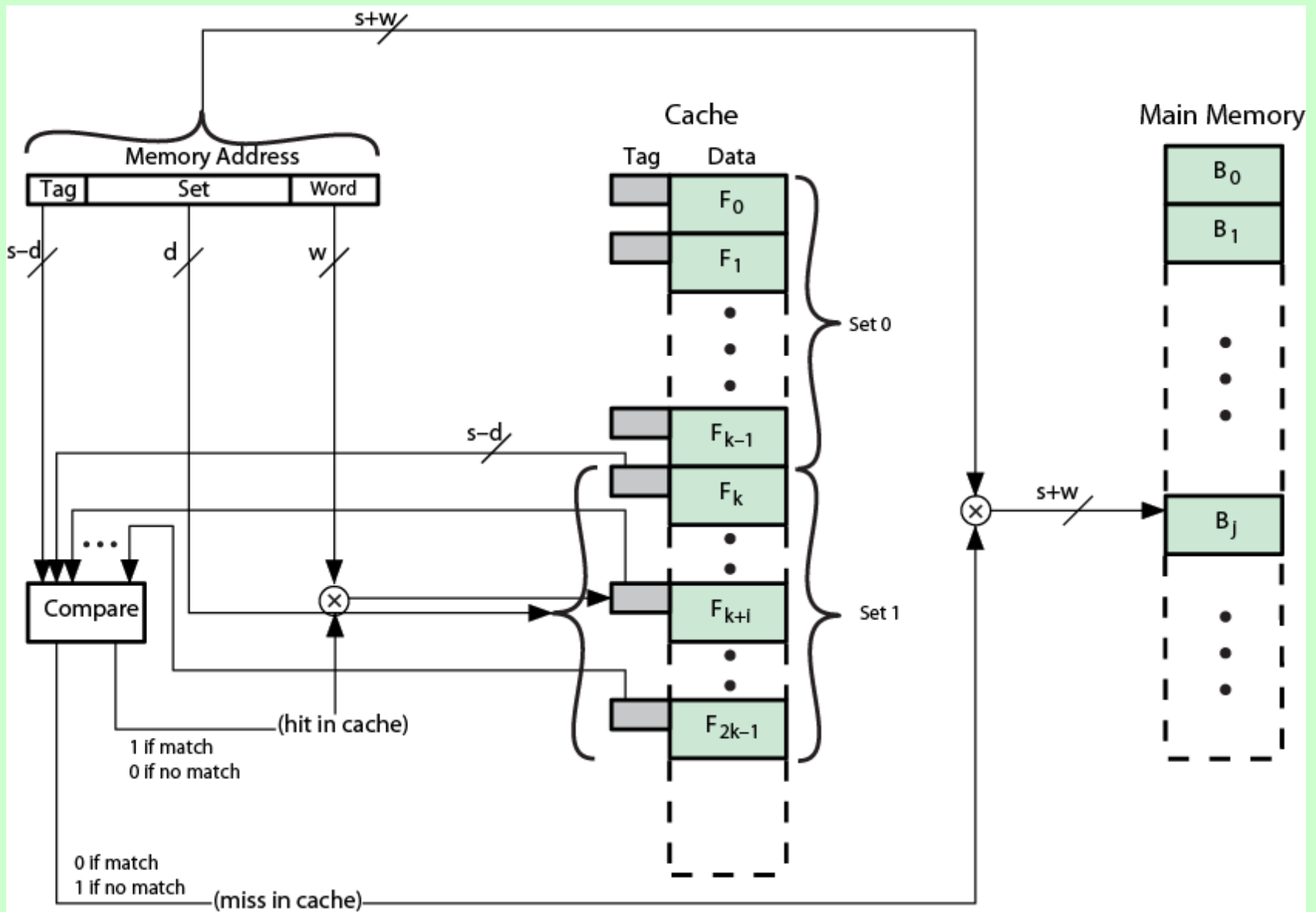
# Mapping From Main Memory to Cache: $v$ Associative



# Mapping From Main Memory to Cache: k-way Associative



# K-Way Set Associative Cache Organization





# Set Associative Mapping

## Address Structure

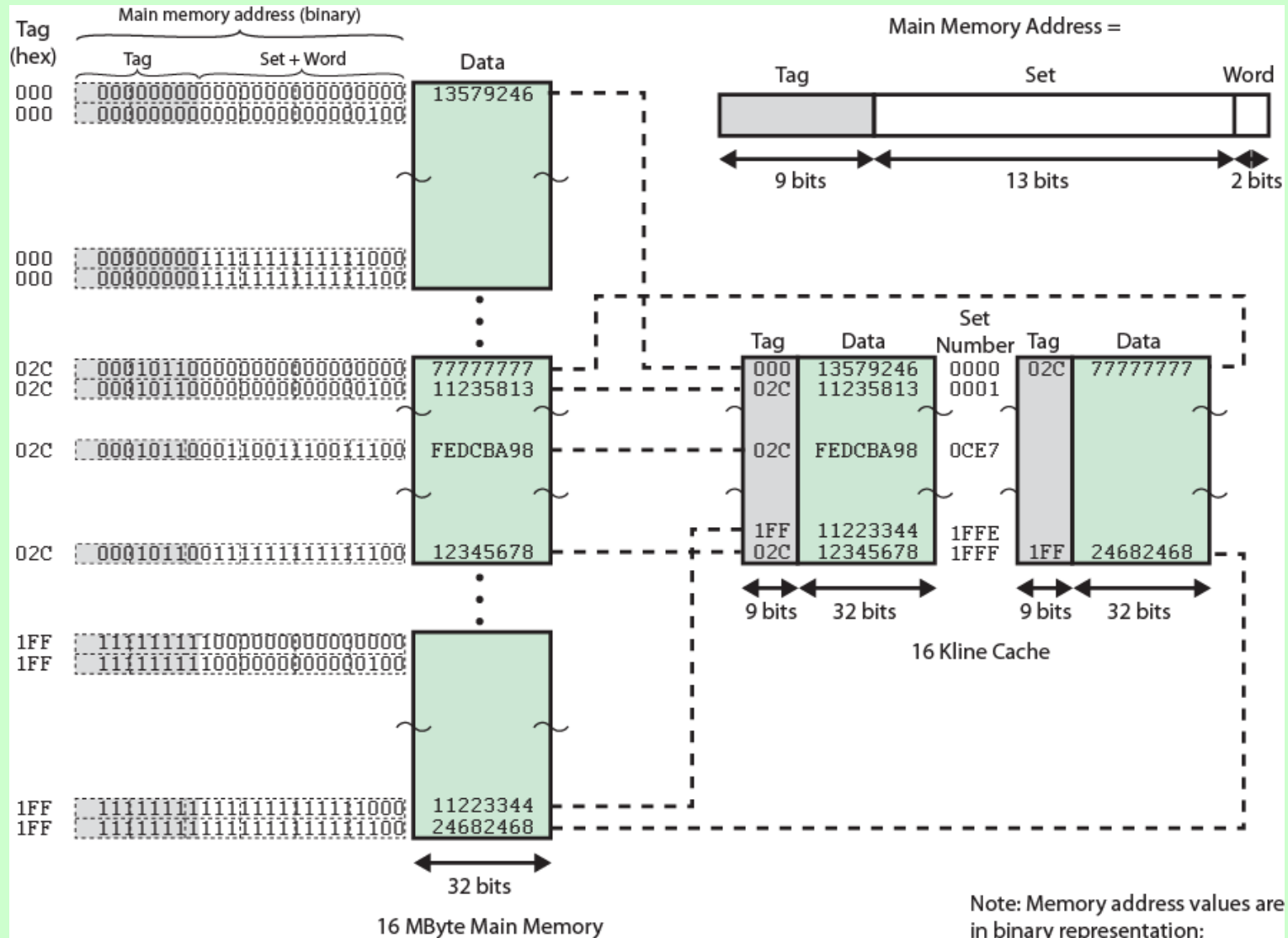
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Tag 9 bit	Set 13 bit	Word 2 bit
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- Use set field to determine cache set to look in
- Compare tag field to see if we have a hit
- e.g

—Address number		Tag	Data	Set
—1FF 7FFC	1FF	12345678	1FFF	
—001 7FFC	001	11223344	1FFF	

# Two Way Set Associative Mapping Example



Note: Memory address values are in binary representation; other values are in hexadecimal

# Set Associative Mapping Summary

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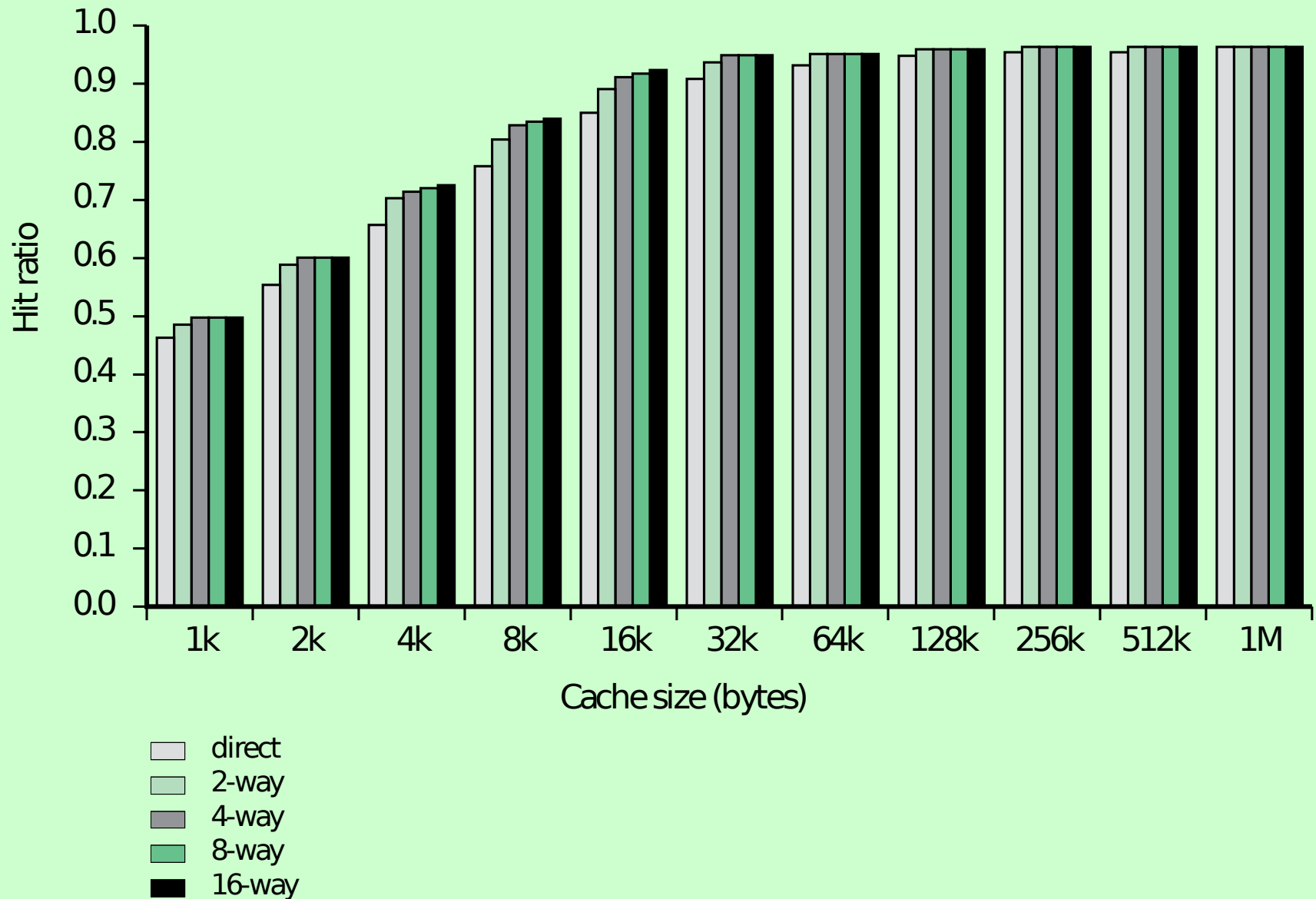
- Address length =  $(s + w)$  bits
- Number of addressable units =  $2^{s+w}$  words or bytes
- Block size = line size =  $2^w$  words or bytes
- Number of blocks in main memory =  $2^d$
- Number of lines in set =  $k$
- Number of sets =  $v = 2^d$
- Number of lines in cache =  $k v = k * 2^d$
- Size of tag =  $(s - d)$  bits

## Direct and Set Associative Cache Performance Differences

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- Significant up to at least 64kB for 2-way
- Difference between 2-way and 4-way at 4kB much less than 4kB to 8kB
- Cache complexity increases with associativity
- Not justified against increasing cache to 8kB or 16kB
- Above 32kB gives no improvement
- (simulation results)

Figure 4.16  
Varying Associativity over Cache Size



# Replacement Algorithms (1)

## Direct mapping

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- No choice
- Each block only maps to one line
- Replace that line

# Replacement Algorithms (2)

## Associative & Set Associative

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- Hardware implemented algorithm (speed)
- Least Recently used (LRU)
  - Which of the 2 block is lru?
- First in first out (FIFO)
  - replace block that has been in cache longest
- Least frequently used
  - replace block which has had fewest hits
- Random

## Write Policy

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- Must not overwrite a cache block unless main memory is up to date
- Multiple CPUs may have individual caches
- I/O may address main memory directly



## Write through

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- All writes go to main memory as well as cache
  - Multiple CPUs can monitor main memory traffic to keep local (to CPU) cache up to date
  - Lots of traffic
  - Slows down writes
- 
- Remember bogus write through caches!

## Write back

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- Updates initially made in cache only
- Update bit for cache slot is set when update occurs
- If block is to be replaced, write to main memory only if update bit is set
- Other caches get out of sync
- I/O must access main memory through cache
- N.B. 15% of memory references are writes

# Line Size

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- Retrieve not only desired word but a number of adjacent words as well
- Increased block size will increase hit ratio at first
  - the principle of locality
- Hit ratio will decrease as block becomes even bigger
  - Probability of using newly fetched information becomes less than probability of reusing replaced
- Larger blocks
  - Reduce number of blocks that fit in cache
  - Data overwritten shortly after being fetched
  - Each additional word is less local so less likely to be needed
- No definitive optimum value has been found
- 8 to 64 bytes seems reasonable
- For HPC systems, 64- and 128-byte most common

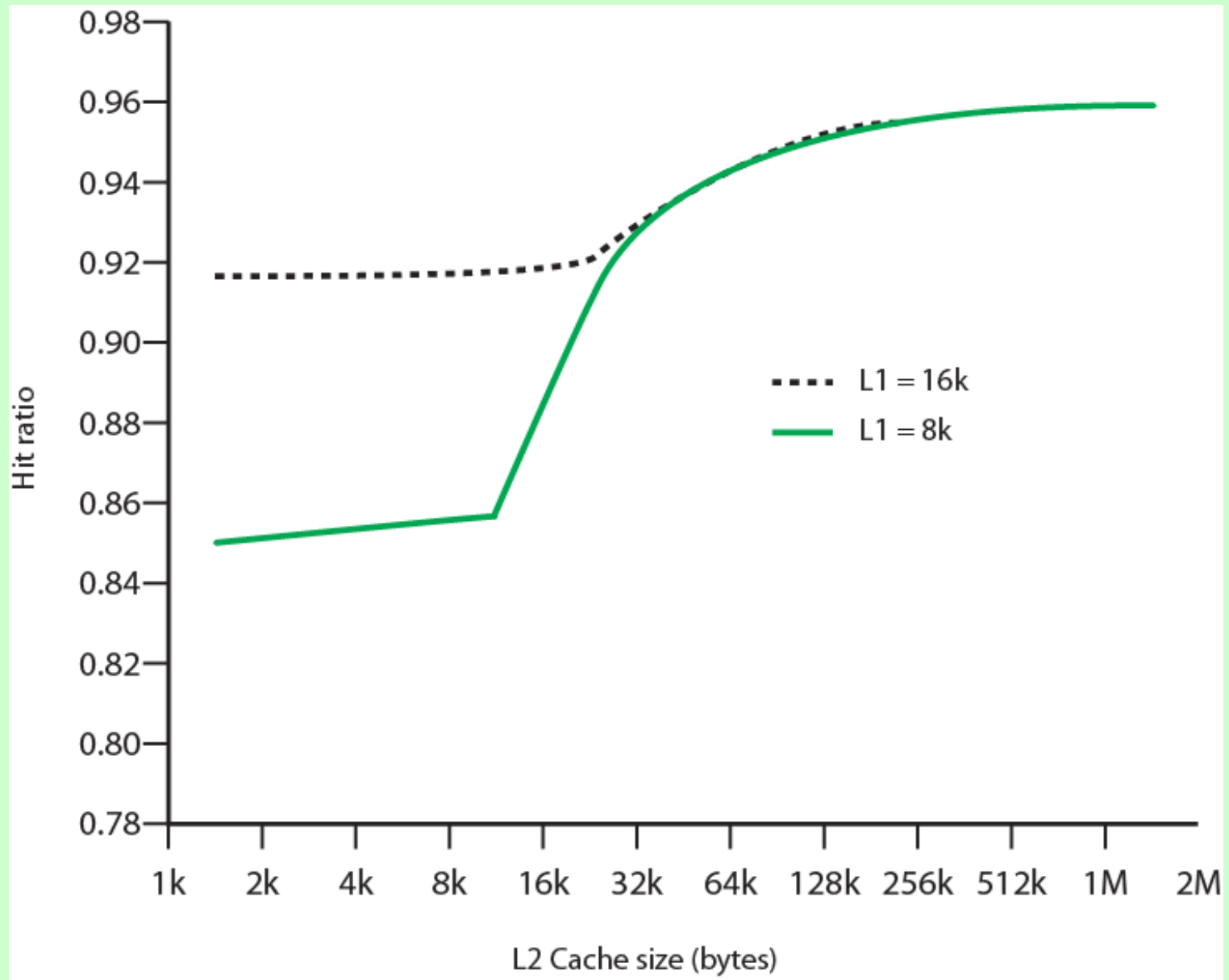
# Multilevel Caches

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- High logic density enables caches on chip
  - Faster than bus access
  - Frees bus for other transfers
- Common to use both on and off chip cache
  - L1 on chip, L2 off chip in static RAM
  - L2 access much faster than DRAM or ROM
  - L2 often uses separate data path
  - L2 may now be on chip
  - Resulting in L3 cache
    - Bus access or now on chip...

# Hit Ratio (L1 & L2)

## For 8 kbytes and 16 kbyte L1



# Unified v Split Caches

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- One cache for data and instructions or two, one for data and one for instructions
- Advantages of unified cache
  - Higher hit rate
    - Balances load of instruction and data fetch
    - Only one cache to design & implement
- Advantages of split cache
  - Eliminates cache contention between instruction fetch/decode unit and execution unit
    - Important in pipelining

# Pentium 4 Cache

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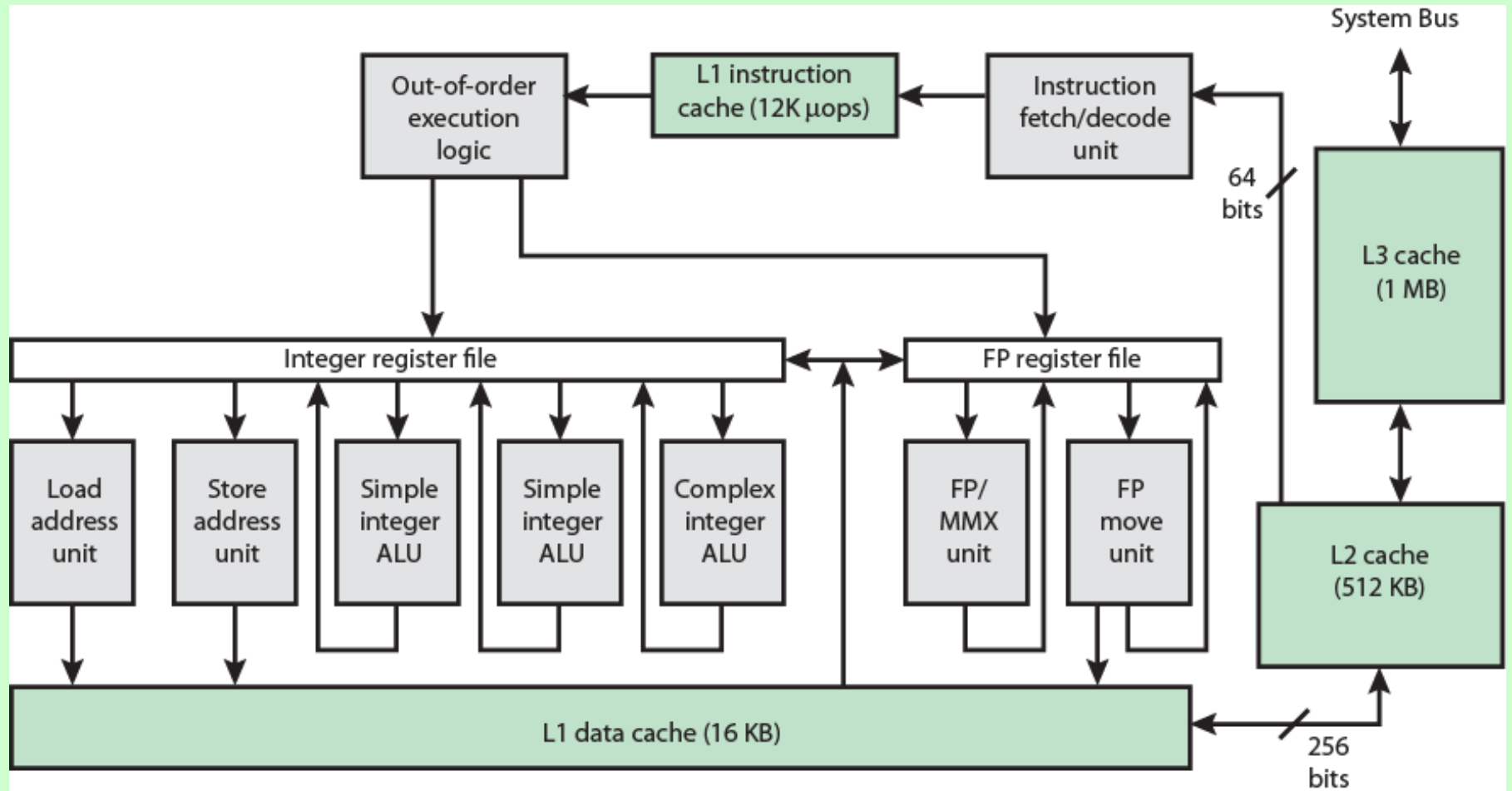
- 80386 – no on chip cache
- 80486 – 8k using 16 byte lines and four way set associative organization
- Pentium (all versions) – two on chip L1 caches
  - Data & instructions
- Pentium III – L3 cache added off chip
- Pentium 4
  - L1 caches
    - 8k bytes
    - 64 byte lines
    - four way set associative
  - L2 cache
    - Feeding both L1 caches
    - 256k
    - 128 byte lines
    - 8 way set associative
  - L3 cache on chip

# Intel Cache Evolution

Problem	Solution	Processor on which feature first appears
External memory slower than the system bus.	Add external cache using faster memory technology.	386
Increased processor speed results in external bus becoming a bottleneck for cache access.	Move external cache on-chip, operating at the same speed as the processor.	486
Internal cache is rather small, due to limited space on chip	Add external L2 cache using faster technology than main memory	486
Contention occurs when both the Instruction Prefetcher and the Execution Unit simultaneously require access to the cache. In that case, the Prefetcher is stalled while the Execution Unit's data access takes place.	Create separate data and instruction caches.	Pentium
Increased processor speed results in external bus becoming a bottleneck for L2 cache access.	Create separate back-side bus that runs at higher speed than the main (front-side) external bus. The BSB is dedicated to the L2 cache.	Pentium Pro
	Move L2 cache on to the processor chip.	Pentium II
Some applications deal with massive databases and must have rapid access to large amounts of data. The on-chip caches are too small.	Add external L3 cache.	Pentium III
	Move L3 cache on-chip.	Pentium 4



# Pentium 4 Block Diagram



# Pentium 4 Core Processor

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- Fetch/Decode Unit
  - Fetches instructions from L2 cache
  - Decode into micro-ops
  - Store micro-ops in L1 cache
- Out of order execution logic
  - Schedules micro-ops
  - Based on data dependence and resources
  - May speculatively execute
- Execution units
  - Execute micro-ops
  - Data from L1 cache
  - Results in registers
- Memory subsystem
  - L2 cache and systems bus

# Pentium 4 Design Reasoning

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- Decodes instructions into RISC like micro-ops before L1 cache
- Micro-ops fixed length
  - Superscalar pipelining and scheduling
- Pentium instructions long & complex
- Performance improved by separating decoding from scheduling & pipelining
  - (More later - ch14)
- Data cache is write back
  - Can be configured to write through
- L1 cache controlled by 2 bits in register
  - CD = cache disable
  - NW = not write through
  - 2 instructions to invalidate (flush) cache and write back then invalidate
- L2 and L3 8-way set-associative
  - Line size 128 bytes

# ARM Cache Features

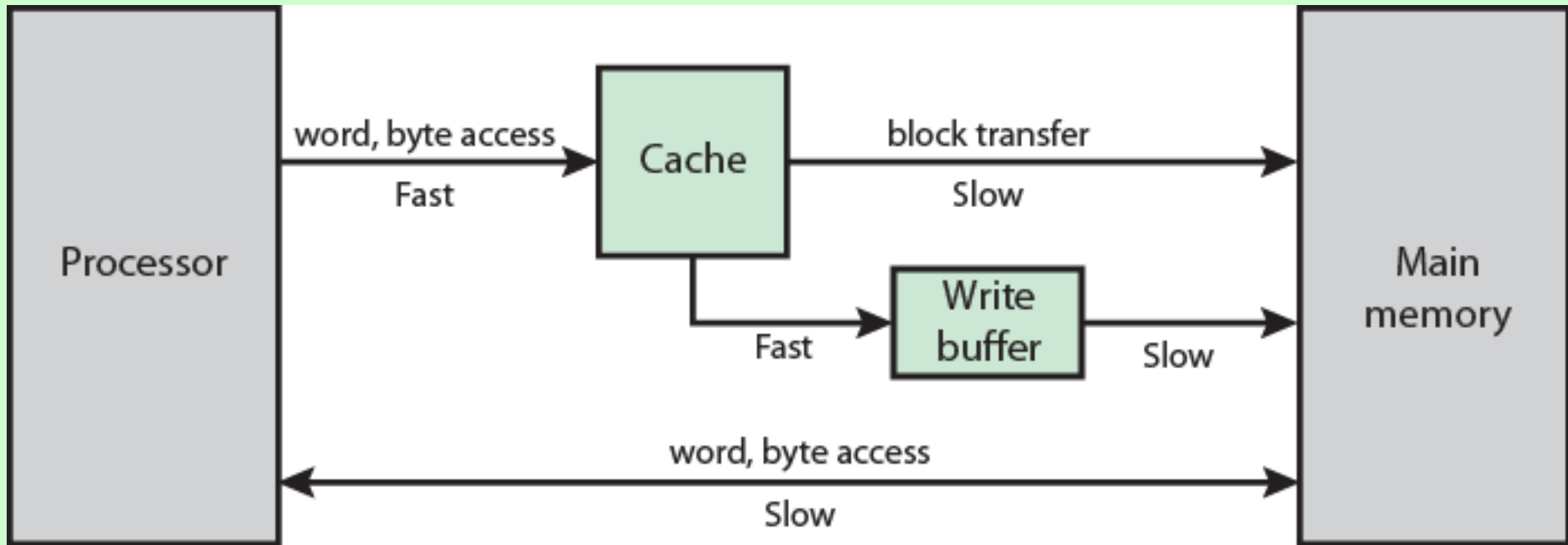
Core	Cache Type	Cache Size (kB)	Cache Line Size (words)	Associativity	Location	Write Buffer Size (words)
ARM720T	Unified	8	4	4-way	Logical	8
ARM920T	Split	16/16 D/I	8	64-way	Logical	16
ARM926EJ-S	Split	4-128/4-128 D/I	8	4-way	Logical	16
ARM1022E	Split	16/16 D/I	8	64-way	Logical	16
ARM1026EJ-S	Split	4-128/4-128 D/I	8	4-way	Logical	8
Intel StrongARM	Split	16/16 D/I	4	32-way	Logical	32
Intel Xscale	Split	32/32 D/I	8	32-way	Logical	32
ARM1136-JF-S	Split	4-64/4-64 D/I	8	4-way	Physical	32

# ARM Cache Organization

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- Small FIFO write buffer
  - Enhances memory write performance
  - Between cache and main memory
  - Small c.f. cache
  - Data put in write buffer at processor clock speed
  - Processor continues execution
  - External write in parallel until empty
  - If buffer full, processor stalls
  - Data in write buffer not available until written
    - So keep buffer small

# ARM Cache and Write Buffer Organization



# Internet Sources

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- Manufacturer sites
  - Intel
  - ARM
- Search on cache